

MedPress Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences

Management of Neuropsychiatric Symptoms for Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy

Anna Fusco¹, Bankole Olowofela¹, Abeer Dagra¹, Rami Hatem¹, Kevin Pierre², Mohammad Reza Hosseini Siyanaki³, Brandon Lucke–Wold⁴*

¹University of Florida College of Medicine, Gainesville, FL, USA.

²University of Florida Department of Radiology, Gainesville, FL, USA.

³Department of Neurosurgery, University of Florida, USA.

⁴University of Florida Department of Neurosurgery, Gainesville, FL, USA.

Abstract

Chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE) is a neurodegenerative disease associated with repeated head injury. The common presenting neuropsychiatric manifestations and diagnostic strategies for early diagnosis and subsequent treatment will be reviewed. This article discusses methods for injury prevention, risk assessment, and methods for supportive symptom management including lifestyle modifications, physical, occupational, and neurorehabilitation, and pharmaceutical management. Lastly, we propose the use of assessment tools validated for other neurodegenerative disorders in CTE to establish a baseline, track outcomes, and measure improvement in this population.

Keywords: Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy; Neurodegeneration; Neuropsychiatric Disease; Treatments.

Review Article

*Corresponding author

Brandon Lucke–Wold, Department of Neurosurgery, University of Florida College of Medicine, Gainesville, FL

USA;

E-mail: bwold@mix.wvu.edu.

Article Information

Received: 06-09-2022; Accepted: 09-10-2022; Published: 28-10-2022.

Introduction

Chronictraumaticencephalopathy (CTE) is a neurodegenerative disease linked to repeated head injury and is associated with neurological and psychological deficits including abnormalities in cognition, mood, behavior, and movement [1–3]. CTE was initially observed in professional boxers but has since been reported in athletes in other contact sports (such as soccer, football, and rugby) and people prone to repeat mild head trauma such as veterans experiencing blast injury, physical abuse victims, and epilepsy patients [4–11]. In recent years, growing media attention has raised awareness for chronic traumatic encephalopathy and the potential consequences of repeat head injuries [12–18]. However, there is still much that is unknown about accurately identifying and diagnosing CTE, effectively treating the disease, and monitoring patient outcomes to manage the disease and help patients.

Clinical Issues

The clinical manifestations and progression of CTE can differ between patients. Many signs and symptoms overlap with other diseases. Patients may experience a wide breadth of neurological and psychiatric deficits so it is important that primary care, neurologist, psychologists, and psychiatrists work together to identify and manage patients who may have CTE. Some commonly reported clinical manifestations of CTE include depression,

anxiety, paranoia, impulsivity, aggression, inattention, difficulty concentrating, memory problems, language impairments, headache, dysarthria, and motor abnormalities [1,2,6,19-26]. The symptoms, however, are non-specific and are present in various other neurodegenerative diseases. The differential diagnosis for these symptoms may include CTE, Alzheimer's Disease (AD), frontal temporal dementia, vascular dementia, Parkinsonian disorders, neurosyphilis, vitamin B12 deficiency, or corticobasal degeneration [21,25-30]. For instance, a study found that neuropsychiatric symptoms were comparable in the CTE and AD groups both at the time of dementia diagnosis and in the very late stages of the disease [25]. CTE can also present with motor symptoms that resemble Parkinson's disease [26]. Given how closely these symptoms overlap with neurodegenerative illnesses, it might be challenging to identify a distinct clinical profile for CTE.

Neuropsychological Issues

Neuropsychological deficits are likely to increase in severity and duration after repeated injury, suggesting cumulative neuropsychological damage [31,32]. Establishing a baseline neurocognitive profile can be a crucial clinical tool and will serve as a clinical reference marker to follow changes in players' neuropsychiatric presentations. Furthermore, the identification of risk factors, changes in gameplay rules, and removal from

play regulations could allow sports medicine doctors and other physicians involved with the care of patients prone to repeated head injury to reduce the development of CTE later in life [33–35]. As innovative imaging modalities and biomarkers are discovered, early in vivo diagnostic strategies should be explored combining clinical manifestations, neurological and psychiatric examination, and diagnostic tools. Novel treatment strategies in clinical trials offer promise for more targeted therapeutics for CTE that may improve patient outcomes in the future. Throughout the life of these patients, before and after disease onset, a multidisciplinary approach, including sports medicine physicians, primary care, neurology, psychiatry, psychology, and physical/occupational therapy, should be adopted to enhance patient care.

Diagnostics

Currently, a definitive diagnosis of CTE can only be made after an autopsy is performed, demonstrating specific pathological features. Aggregation of p-tau within neurons, astrocytes, and cell processes around small vessels at the level of the cortical sulci in an irregular pattern is pathognomonic of CTE. These findings along with other supporting neuropathological features can help differentiate CTE from other tauopathies [6,36]. Other pathological changes that have been observed include neuroinflammation, microgliosis, astrogliosis, astrocytic tangles, TD-43, hyperphosphorylated tau protein-associated neurofibrillary tangles, neutrophil neurites, neuronal loss, diffuse brain atrophy, ventricular enlargement, cavum septum pellucidum, and substantia nigra depigmentation [6,20,37-41]. CTE pathology normally originates in the cerebral cortex and then progresses to affect numerous regions of the brain, most commonly the medial temporal lobe, hypothalamus, thalamus, and mammillary bodies [6,42]. Despite needing autopsy data for a definitive diagnosis, a presumptive diagnosis can be made for clinical or research purposes using different sets of proposed diagnostic criteria [43-47]. However, a consensus as to what criteria should be adopted across clinical practice has not been determined. As more research reveals imaging strategies and biomarkers that may be useful in identifying CTE in vivo, studies should aim to determine the best strategy to combine clinical presentation, biomarkers, and imaging to allow for early diagnosis in patients.

A major goal for using imaging modalities to potentially help diagnose CTE would be to identify pathology consistent with the disease prior to autopsy. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can detect cerebral atrophy, axonal injury, dilated perivascular spaces, ventricular enlargement, and cavum septum pellucidum [6,48-52]. MRI with FLAIR can be used to assess white matter hyperintensities and can represent a variety of neuropathology [53]. Diffuse Tensor Imaging (DTI) is another way of assessing white matter and has become a popular potential imaging modality to assist in the diagnosis of CTE. DTI can detect abnormalities in white matter that are indicative of axonal injury, which is present in CTE due to recurrent traumatic brain injury [54]. Abnormalities in regional cerebral blood flow and brain activity can be visualized using a functional MRI (fMRI) [49,52,55]. Although these imaging modalities can identify neuropathology that is consistent with autopsy findings in patients with confirmed CTE, these findings alone are not specific and do not provide a diagnosis [6,20]. Positron emission tomography (PET) scan offers promise as a potential diagnostic tool to find pathology specific to CTE and assist in earlier in vivo diagnosis. The PET scan with

the 18F–FDDNP tracer labels tau and can thus be very helpful in visualizing tau aggregates that are important to post–mortem CTE diagnosis. Early work in small cohorts has shown that the distribution of tau aggregation, as shown by 18F–FDDNP PET, is consistent with autopsy findings and is distinct from other neurodegenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's disease. However, studies using larger sample sizes will be needed to validate these promising results [52,56,57]. Other probes which could be helpful include tracers for beta–amyloid, TDP–43, 18–FG D, and markers of neuroinflammation [49,52,53,57,58]. In addition to imaging modalities, serum and CSF biomarkers could help identify CTE as well as possible risk factors and prognostic information [6,52,59,60].

Treatments

Unfortunately, there is no cure or approved treatment for CTE. Therefore, it is important to minimize the risk of CTE by reducing repetitive head trauma and identifying risk factors. Events that increase the risk of head injury such as targeting in football or body checking in hockey should be minimized or eliminated from the game [33,34,61–63]. Following a blow to the head, players should be evaluated by a physician or a certified athletic trainer to rule out the possibility of a concussion [33,34]. If a concussion is sustained, or cannot be ruled out, players should be removed from practice or the game for at least for the day to prevent future injuries. Players should be monitored to determine when it is safe for them to return to play and should not do so until concussion symptoms resolve [33,34]. Players and coaches should be counseled on the importance of following these guidelines [33,34]. Although repeat head injuries are the primary risk factor for CTE, other risk factors such as genetics, comorbidities, lifestyle, and psychosocial factors may also modulate a person's risk of disease development [3,35,64–67]. The APOEε4 allele may be associated with worsened CTE pathology on autopsy and is suspected to worsen outcomes and recovery after TBI [35,68]. Comorbidities such as cardiovascular disease, sleep-disordered breathing, and substance abuse as well as lifestyle factors such as poor diet and exercise could also affect disease risk and should be managed with the help of primary care physicians [35,69].

Currently, only supportive care is available for the treatment of patients with CTE, and management is focused on addressing symptoms of the disease. Mental health disturbances may be addressed through mindfulness, cognitive behavioral therapy, other forms of mental health counseling, and medications such as antidepressants, anxietolytic, and ADHD medications [6]. Lifestyle modifications such as diet and exercise can be useful in enhancing mental and physical well-being [6,69,70]. Interestingly, a healthy diet has also been shown to slow the progression of symptoms and pathogenesis of CTE [71,72]. Vestibular rehabilitative therapy can be helpful in patients with ear damage and occupationalocular therapy can be offered to patients with eye problems that resulted from recurrent head injuries [6]. Physical therapy may help address movement problems and occupational therapy could be used to help patients perform activities of daily living despite their disease. Due to the overlap in symptomology and pathology with other disorders, such as Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's Disease, medications for these conditions may provide benefits for patients as an "off-label" use [6]. Preclinical studies have demonstrated promise for therapeutics, such as medications and immunotherapy, targeting processes that are important for the progression of CTE, such as neuroinflammation

and tau hyperphosphorylation and accumulation [6]. Psychedelic medications are promising therapeutics in CTE for their ability to treat neuropsychiatric deficits and ability to promote neuroplasticity and suppress neuroinflammation and neurodegeneration [73–84].

Outcomes

As potential novel therapeutics are studied in preclinical trials, ways of assessing treatment success and patient outcomes are necessary. There is a scarcity of research investigating the assessment of interventions for patients being treated for CTE. As CTE shares clinical manifestations with other forms of dementia, assessment of interventions in those illnesses could prove useful in the setting of CTE. An emerging trial from Biogen offers promise for neurodegenerative cognitive decline.

Cognitive impairment is a significant affliction in the course of CTE that often involves impairment in memory, concentration, insight, and executive function among other deficits [21]. The Mini-Mental Status Exam (MMSE) is a questionnaire that is used to measure cognitive impairment. While the MMSE is often used as a screening tool for diseases like Alzheimer's, it has also been used as an instrument to monitor cognitive decline in neurodegenerative disorders [85-87]. As neurodegenerative disorders progress, executive function often declines concurrent with cognitive decline. This may be reflected in decreased ability to perform activities of daily living (ADL) [88]. Activities of daily living (ADLs) are tasks that most people can perform without assistance, and the loss of capability in this arena can create a dangerous environment for patients [89]. A number of established instruments including the Bristol Activities of Daily Living Scale (BADLS) and the Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study-Activities of Daily Living (ADCS-ADL19) are useful methods of tracking ADLs in patients suspected of executive function decline [90,91].

Behavioral changes in CTE can include disinhibition, childlike behavior, and episodes of volatile emotions that can lead to violence [2]. While these behavioral changes are often selfreported, some instruments may be used to assess symptoms over time [92]. The Neuropsychiatric Inventory (NPI) is an instrument that assesses neuropsychiatric state by scoring the severity and frequency of symptoms such as disinhibition, anxiety, and aggression [93]. NPI has been used as an instrument to measure behavioral changes in the setting of neurodegenerative disorders as well as in treatment [94,95]. In some cases, advanced CTE could cause tremors, gait disturbance, and other Parkinsonlike features [45]. The Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS) and the Movement Disorder Society-Sponsored Revision of the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (MDS-UPDRS) are tools that are widely used to measure the condition of a patient's Parkinson's disease course [96,97]. As significant portions of these exams focus on the motor consequences of Parkinson's disease, they may also be useful in following the manifestations of CTEinduced Parkinson-like motor symptoms [98]. Mood changes in CTE can include depression, anxiety, and apathy, in addition to others. A number of assessments may be employed to assess mood symptoms in patients. Similar to behavioral changes, the NPI has been used as a tool for measuring mood symptoms in patients being treated for neurodegenerative disease [99,100]. The Patient Health Questionnaire 9 (PHQ-9) is an instrument that detects depressive symptoms and assesses the severity of depression in patients [101]. Studies have established the efficacy of the PHQ9 in neurodegenerative disorders [102, 102].

While some instruments can be used to cover more than one aspect of CTE progression, such as questions in the NPI addressing behavioral and mood symptoms, no single assessment tool completely addresses all three facets of cognitive, behavioral, and mood changes. As such, a mixture of assessment tools may be necessary to properly monitor symptoms in patients with CTE as well as the evaluation of their treatment.

Conclusion

Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy is a complicated neurodegenerative disorder with a broad range of clinical manifestations and a long clinical course from the time of repeat head injury to the onset and progression of symptoms later in life [2,3,20]. Adopting a multidisciplinary approach while treating patients with CTE is important. Sports medicine doctors and other physicians/licensed health professionals caring for athletes participating in contact sports as well as other people at risk for repeat head injury should begin thinking about ways to limit head trauma and minimize the risk for CTE long before the onset of the disease [3,33-35,64-67,103]. In patients who go on to develop the disease, a variety of health care professionals may be helpful in managing the diverse symptoms and coordinating the supportive care needed by each individual patient. Primary care physicians, neurologists, psychologists, psychiatrists, physical therapists, and occupational therapists are among some health professionals who may provide valuable assistance in these patient care teams. We summarize our recommendations for management of chronic traumatic encephalopathy in Table 1. Continued efforts of researchers to understand the pathogenesis of CTE as well as to develop novel strategies to diagnose and treat the disease is necessary.

Table 1: Proposed management of Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy.

Injury prevention and risk management	Minimizing or eliminating plays in sport that increase the risk for head injury
	Expert evaluation during games and removal from play if a concussion is suspected
	Gradual return to play following concussion
	Management of comorbidities and CTE risk factors like cardiovascular disease, sleep—disordered breathing, and substance abuse
Mental health care	Mindfulness
	Cognitive behavioral therapy
	Antidepressants, anxiolytics, and ADHD medications
Lifestyle modifications and rehabilitation	Diet, exercise
	Vestibular rehabilitative therapy and occupational—ocular therapy
	Physical therapy
	Off–label use of medications for other degenerative diseases when appropriate
Intervention and outcome assessment	Use of scales and questionnaires: MMSE, BADLS, NPI, MDS–UPDRS, PHQ9
Multidisciplinary care	Collaboration between and licensed health professionals in primary care, sports medicine, neurology, psychology, psychiatry, physical and occupational therapy.

mppbs-202209003 MedPress Publications LLC

Acknowledgements

None.

Conflict of Interests

Authors declare that there are no Conflict of interests.

References:

- Mez J, Stern RA, McKee AC. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: where are we and where are we going? Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep. 2013;13(12): 407.
- 2. Montenigro PH, et al. Clinical subtypes of chronic traumatic encephalopathy: literature review and proposed research diagnostic criteria for traumatic encephalopathy syndrome. Alzheimers Res Ther. 2014;6(5): 68.
- Tharmaratnam T, et al. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy in Professional American Football Players: Where Are We Now? Front Neurol. 2018;9: 445.
- 4. Cantu RC, Bernick C. History of Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy. Semin Neurol. 2020;40(4): 353–358.
- 5. Lakis N, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathyneuropathology in athletes and war veterans. Neurol Res. 2013;35(3): 290–299.
- 6. Pierre K, et al. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: Update on Current Clinical Diagnosis and Management. Biomedicines. 2021;9(4): 415.
- Saulle M, Greenwald BD. Chronictraumaticencephalopathy: a review. Rehabil Res Pract. 2012: 816069.
- 8. Mavroudis I, et al. Post–Concussion Syndrome and Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: Narrative Review on the Neuropathology, Neuroimaging and Fluid Biomarkers. Diagnostics (Basel). 2022;12(3): 740.
- Omalu BI, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy in a National Football League player. Neurosurgery. 2005;57(1): 128–134.
- 10. Lindsley CW. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy (CTE): A Brief Historical Overview and Recent Focus on NFL Players. ACS Chemical Neuroscience. 2017;8(8): 1629–1631.
- 11. Martland HS. Punch Drunk. Journal of the American Medical Association. 1928;91(15): 1103–1107.
- 12. Uretsky M, Nowinski CJ. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: Advocacy and Communicating with the Public. Semin Neurol. 2020;40(4): 461–468.
- 13. Eagle SR, Okonkwo DO. Telling the Whole Story: Bibliometric Network Analysis to Evaluate Impact of Media Attention on Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy Research. J Neurotrauma. 2022.
- Smith DH, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy– confusion and controversies. Nat Rev Neurol. 2019;15(3): 179–183.
- 15. Smith DH, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy—confusion and controversies. Nature Reviews Neurology. 2019;15(3): 179–183.
- 16. Gregory H. Making a murderer: Media renderings of brain injury and Aaron Hernandez as a medical and sporting subject. Social Science & Medicine, 2020; 244: 112598.
- 17. Gregory H. Making a murderer: Media renderings of brain

- injury and Aaron Hernandez as a medical and sporting subject. Soc Sci Med. 2020; 244: 112598.
- 18. Stern RA, et al. Clinical presentation of chronic traumatic encephalopathy. Neurology. 2013;81(13): 1122–1129.
- 19. McKee AC, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy in athletes: progressive tauopathy after repetitive head injury. Journal of Neuropathology & Experimental Neurology. 2009;68(7): 709–735.
- 20. Hanlon FM, McGrew CA, Mayer AR. Does a Unique Neuropsychiatric Profile Currently Exist for Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy? Curr Sports Med Rep. 2017;16(1): 30–35.
- 21. McKee AC, et al. The spectrum of disease in chronic traumatic encephalopathy. Brain. 2013;136(Pt 1): 43–64.
- 22. Changa AR, Vietrogoski RA, Carmel PW. Dr Harrison Martland and the history of punch drunk syndrome. Brain. 2018;141(1): 318–321.
- 23. Randolph C, Karantzoulis S, Guskiewicz K. Prevalence and characterization of mild cognitive impairment in retired national football league players. J Int Neuropsychol Soc. 2013;19(8): 873–880.
- 24. LoBue C, et al. Clinical and neuropsychological profile of patients with dementia and chronic traumatic encephalopathy. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2020;91(6): 586–592.
- 25. Tarazi A, Tator CH, Tartaglia MC. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy and Movement Disorders: Update. Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep. 2016;16(5): 46.
- 26. Caixeta L, et al. Extending the range of differential diagnosis of chronic traumatic encephalopathy of the boxer: Insights from a case report. Dement Neuropsychol. 2018;12(1): 92–96.
- 27. Lesman–Segev OH, Edwards L, Rabinovici GD. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: A Comparison with Alzheimer's Disease and Frontotemporal Dementia. Semin Neurol. 2020;40(4): 394–410.
- 28. Koga S, Dickson DW, Bieniek KF. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy Pathology in Multiple System Atrophy. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol. 2016;75(10): 963–970.
- 29. Lenihan MW, Jordan BD. The clinical presentation of chronic traumatic encephalopathy. Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep. 2015;15(5): 23.
- 30. Covassin T, et al. Investigating baseline neurocognitive performance between male and female athletes with a history of multiple concussion. Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry. 2010;81(6): 597–601.
- 31. Gronwall D, Wrightson P. Cumulative effect of concussion. The Lancet, 1975;306(7943): 995–997.
- 32. Giza CC, et al. Summary of evidence—based guideline update: evaluation and management of concussion in sports: report of the Guideline Development Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. Neurology. 2013;80(24): 2250–2257.
- 33. Harmon KG, et al. American Medical Society for Sports Medicine position statement on concussion in sport. British Journal of Sports Medicine. 2019;53(4): 213.

- 34. Phelps A, et al. Risk Factors for Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: A Proposed Framework. Semin Neurol. 2020;40(4): 439–449.
- 35. McKee AC, et al. The first NINDS/NIBIB consensus meeting to define neuropathological criteria for the diagnosis of chronic traumatic encephalopathy. Acta Neuropathol. 2016;131(1): 75–86.
- 36. Corsellis J, Bruton C, Freeman–Browne D. The aftermath of boxing1. Psychological medicine. 1973;3(3): 270–303.
- 37. Baugh CM, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: neurodegeneration following repetitive concussive and subconcussive brain trauma. Brain imaging and behavior. 2012;6(2): 244–254.
- Omalu B, et al. Emerging histomorphologic phenotypes of chronic traumatic encephalopathy in American athletes. Neurosurgery. 2011;69(1): 173–183.
- 39. Koerte IK, et al. Cavum Septi Pellucidi in Symptomatic Former Professional Football Players. J Neurotrauma. 2016;33(4): 346–353.
- 40. Murray HC, et al. Neuropathology in chronic traumatic encephalopathy: a systematic review of comparative post—mortem histology literature. Acta Neuropathol Commun. 2022;10(1): 108.
- 41. Jordan BD. The clinical spectrum of sport—related traumatic brain injury. Nature Reviews Neurology. 2013;9(4): 222–230.
- 42. Montenigro PH, et al. Clinical subtypes of chronic traumatic encephalopathy: literature review and proposed research diagnostic criteria for traumatic encephalopathy syndrome. Alzheimer's research & therapy. 2014;6(5): 1–17.
- 43. Victoroff J. Traumatic encephalopathy: review and provisional research diagnostic criteria. Neuro Rehabilitation. 2013;32(2): 211–224.
- 44. Fesharaki–Zadeh A. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: A Brief Overview. Front Neurol. 2019;10: 713.
- 45. Jordan BD. The clinical spectrum of sport—related traumatic brain injury. Nat Rev Neurol. 2013;9(4): 222–230.
- 46. Reams N, et al. A Clinical Approach to the Diagnosis of Traumatic Encephalopathy Syndrome: A Review. JAMA Neurol. 2016;73(6): 743–749.
- 47. Orrison WW, et al. Traumatic brain injury: a review and high–field MRI findings in 100 unarmed combatants using a literature–based checklist approach. J Neurotrauma. 2009;26(5): 689–701.
- 48. Gandy S, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: clinical–biomarker correlations and current concepts in pathogenesis. Mol Neurodegener. 2014;9: 37.
- 49. Alosco ML, et al. Structural MRI profiles and tau correlates of atrophy in autopsy–confirmed CTE. Alzheimers Res Ther. 2021;13(1): 193.
- Asken BM, et al. Multi–Modal Biomarkers of Repetitive Head Impacts and Traumatic Encephalopathy Syndrome: A Clinicopathological Case Series. J Neurotrauma. 2022;39(17–18): 1195–1213.
- 51. Pan J, et al. Sports-related brain injuries: connecting pathology to diagnosis. Neurosurg Focus. 2016;40(4): E14.

- 52. Alosco ML, Culhane J, Mez J. Neuroimaging Biomarkers of Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: Targets for the Academic Memory Disorders Clinic. Neurotherapeutics. 2021;18(2): 772–791.
- 53. Christina Milani NJ. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: Connecting Mechanisms to Diagnosis and Treatment. Journal of Young Investigators. 2017.
- 54. Hart J Jr, et al. Neuroimaging of cognitive dysfunction and depression in aging retired National Football League players: a cross–sectional study. JAMA Neurol. 2013;70(3): 326–335.
- 55. Barrio JR, et al. In vivo characterization of chronic traumatic encephalopathy using [F–18] FDDNP PET brain imaging. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 2015;112(16): E2039–E2047.
- 56. McKee AC, Alosco ML, Huber BR. Repetitive Head Impacts and Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy. Neurosurg Clin N Am. 2016;27(4): 529–535.
- 57. McKee AC, et al. TDP–43 proteinopathy and motor neuron disease in chronic traumatic encephalopathy. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol. 2010;69(9): 918–929.
- 58. Van Amerongen S, et al. Rationale and design of the "NEurodegeneration: Traumatic brain injury as Origin of the Neuropathology (NEwTON)" study: a prospective cohort study of individuals at risk for chronic traumatic encephalopathy. Alzheimers Res Ther. 2022;14(1): 119.
- 59. Zetterberg H, Blennow K. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: fluid biomarkers. Handb Clin Neurol. 2018;158: 323–333.
- 60. Emery CA, et al. Risk of injury associated with body checking among youth ice hockey players. Jama. 2010;303(22): 2265–2272.
- 61. Boden BP, Kirkendall DT, Garrett WE. Concussion Incidence in Elite College Soccer Players. The American Journal of Sports Medicine. 1998;26(2): 238–241.
- 62. Aukerman DF, et al. Risk of Concussion after a Targeting Foul in Collegiate American Football. Orthopaedic Journal of Sports Medicine. 2022;10(2): 23259671221074656.
- 63. Buckland ME, et al. Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy as a Preventable Environmental Disease. Front Neurol. 2022;13: 880905.
- 64. LeClair J, et al. Relationship between Level of American Football Playing and Diagnosis of Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy in a Selection Bias Analysis. Am J Epidemiol. 2022;191(8): 1429–1443.
- 65. Querzola G, et al. Incipient chronic traumatic encephalopathy in active American football players: neuropsychological assessment and brain perfusion measures. Neurol Sci. 2022;43(9): 5383–5390.
- 66. Schultz V, et al. Age at First Exposure to Repetitive Head Impacts Is Associated with Smaller Thalamic Volumes in Former Professional American Football Players. J Neurotrauma. 2018;35(2): 278–285.
- 67. Atherton K, et al. Association of APOE Genotypes and Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy. JAMA Neurology. 2022;79(8): 787–796.
- 68. Orr ME, Sullivan AC, Frost B. A Brief Overview of Tauopathy:

- Causes, Consequences, and Therapeutic Strategies. Trends Pharmacol Sci. 2017;38(7): 637–648.
- 69. Hearn R, et al. The effects of active rehabilitation on symptoms associated with tau pathology: An umbrella review. Implications for chronic traumatic encephalopathy symptom management. PLoS One. 2022;17(7): e0271213.
- 70. Yu J, et al. Impact of nutrition on inflammation, tauopathy, and behavioral outcomes from chronic traumatic encephalopathy. J Neuroinflammation. 2018;15(1): 277.
- 71. Desai A, et al. Higher n–3 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid Diet Improves Long–Term Neuropathological and Functional Outcome after Repeated Mild Traumatic Brain Injury. J Neurotrauma. 2021;38(18): 2622–2632.
- 72. Olson DE. The Promise of Psychedelic Science. ACS Pharmacology & Translational Science. 2021;4(2): 413–415
- 73. Reiff CM, et al. Psychedelics and Psychedelic–Assisted Psychotherapy. American Journal of Psychiatry. 2020;177(5): 391–410.
- 74. Breeksema JJ, et al. Psychedelic Treatments for Psychiatric Disorders: A Systematic Review and Thematic Synthesis of Patient Experiences in Qualitative Studies. CNS Drugs. 2020;34(9):925–946.
- 75. Ilchibaeva T, et al. Serotonin Receptor 5–HT (2A) Regulates TrkB Receptor Function in Heteroreceptor Complexes. Cells. 2022;11(15): 2384.
- Hosanagar A, Cusimano J, Radhakrishnan R. Therapeutic Potential of Psychedelics in the Treatment of Psychiatric Disorders, Part 1: Psychopharmacology and Neurobiological Effects. J Clin Psychiatry. 2021;82(2): 20ac13786.
- 77. Ryskamp DA, et al. Neuronal Sigma—1 Receptors: Signaling Functions and Protective Roles in Neurodegenerative Diseases. Front Neurosci. 2019;13: 862.
- Saeger HN, Olson DE. Psychedelic–inspired approaches for treating neurodegenerative disorders. Journal of Neurochemistry. 2022;162(1): 109–127.
- 79. Khan SM, et al. Psychedelics for Brain Injury: A Mini–Review. Front Neurol. 2021;12: 685085.
- 80. Kozlowska U, et al. From psychiatry to neurology: Psychedelics as prospective therapeutics for neurodegenerative disorders. Journal of Neurochemistry. 2022;162(1): 89–108.
- 81. Inserra A, De Gregorio D, Gobbi G. Psychedelics in Psychiatry: Neuroplastic, Immunomodulatory, and Neurotransmitter Mechanisms. Pharmacological Reviews. 2021;73(1): 202–277.
- 82. Davis AK, et al. Psychedelic Treatment for Trauma–Related Psychological and Cognitive Impairment Among US Special Operations Forces Veterans. Chronic Stress (Thousand Oaks). 2020;4: 2470547020939564.
- 83. Nichols DE, Johnson MW, Nichols CD. Psychedelics as Medicines: An Emerging New Paradigm. Clin Pharmacol Ther. 2017;101(2): 209–219.
- 84. Moretti R, et al. Rivastigmine in frontotemporal dementia: an open–label study. Drugs Aging. 2004;21(14): 931–937.
- 85. Soldan A, et al. Cognitive reserve and long-term change

- in cognition in aging and preclinical Alzheimer's disease. Neurobiol Aging. 2017;60: 164–172.
- 86. Roselli F, et al. Rate of MMSE score change in Alzheimer's disease: influence of education and vascular risk factors. Clin Neurol Neurosurg. 2009;111(4): 327–330.
- 87. Marshall GA, et al. Executive function and instrumental activities of daily living in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement. 2011;7(3): 300–308
- 88. Edemekong PF, et al. Activities of Daily Living, in StatPearls. 2022, StatPearls Publishing Copyright © 2022, Treasure Island (FL), USA: StatPearls Publishing LLC.
- 89. Grossberg GT, et al. The safety, tolerability, and efficacy of once-daily memantine (28 mg): a multinational, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial in patients with moderate-to-severe Alzheimer's disease taking cholinesterase inhibitors. CNS Drugs. 2013;27(6): 469–478.
- Howard R, et al. Donepezil and Memantine for Moderate to—Severe Alzheimer's Disease. New England Journal of Medicine. 2012;366(10): 893–903.
- 91. Byrd M, Dixon CE, Lucke—Wold B. Examining the Correlation between Acute Behavioral Manifestations of Concussion and the Underlying Pathophysiology of Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy: A Pilot Study. J Neurol Psychol. 2018;6(1).
- 92. Cummings JL. The Neuropsychiatric Inventory: assessing psychopathology in dementia patients. Neurology. 1997;48(5 Suppl 6): S10–6.
- Boxer AL, et al. An open-label study of memantine treatment in 3 subtypes of frontotemporal lobar degeneration. Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord. 2009;23(3): 211–217.
- 94. Kertesz A, et al. Galantamine in frontotemporal dementia and primary progressive aphasia. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord. 2008;25(2): 178–185.
- 95. Movement Disorder Society Task Force on Rating Scales for Parkinson's Disease. The Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS): status and recommendations. Mov Disord. 2003;18(7): 738–750.
- 96. Goetz CG, et al. Movement Disorder Society–sponsored revision of the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (MDS–UPDRS): Process, format, and clinimetric testing plan. Mov Disord. 2007;22(1): 41–47.
- 97. Regnault A, et al. Does the MDS-UPDRS provide the precision to assess progression in early Parkinson's disease? Learnings from the Parkinson's progression marker initiative cohort. J Neurol. 2019;266(8): 1927–1936.
- 98. Huang MF, et al. Neuropsychiatric symptoms and mortality among patients with mild cognitive impairment and dementia due to Alzheimer's disease. J Formos Med Assoc. 2022;121(9): 1705–1713.
- 99. Cummings J. The Neuropsychiatric Inventory: Development and Applications. J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol. 2020;33(2): 73–84.
- 100. Kroenke K, Spitzer RL, Williams JB. The PHQ-9: validity of

- a brief depression severity measure. J Gen Intern Med. 2001;16(9): 606–613.
- 101. Hancock P, Larner AJ. Clinical utility of Patient Health Questionnaire—9 (PHQ—9) in memory clinics. Int J Psychiatry Clin Pract. 2009;13(3): 188—191.
- 102. Boyle LL, et al. How do the PHQ-2, the PHQ-9 perform in aging services clients with cognitive impairment? Int J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2011;26(9): 952–960.
- 103. Hazrati LN, et al. Absence of chronic traumatic encephalopathy in retired football players with multiple concussions and neurological symptomatology. Front Hum Neurosci. 2013;7: 222.

Citation: Reza Hosseini Siyanaki M, et al. Management of Neuropsychiatric Symptoms for Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy. Medp Psychiatry Behav Sci. 2022; 1(1): mppbs–202209003.

mppbs-202209003 MedPress Publications LLC