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Stroke in COVID-19: a systematic review and meta-analysis

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ABSTRACT

Background: Coronavirus discuse 2019 (COVID-19) has become a global pandemic, affecting millions of people. However, the relationship between COVID-19 and acute cerebrovascular diseases is unclear.

Aims: We aimed to characterize the incidence, risk factors, clinical-radiological manifestations and outcome of COVID-19-associated stroke.

Methods: Three medical databases were systematically reviewed for published articles on acute cerebrovascular diseases in COVID-19 (December 2013-Sectember 2020). The review protocol was previously registered (PROSPERO ID=CRD4202018s 176). Data were extracted from articles reporting \geq 5 stroke cases in COVID-19. We complied with the JuliSMA guidelines, and used the Newcastle–Ottawa Scale to assess data quality. Data were pooled using a andom-effects model.

Summary of review: Of 2,277 initially identified articles, 61 (2.7%) were netro in the metaanalysis. Out of 108,571 patients with COVID-19, acute CVD occurred in 1.4% (5%CI 2.0-1.9). The most common manifestation was acute ischemic stroke (87.4%); intracerebral neumorrhage was less common (11.6%). Patients with COVID-19 developing acute cerebrovascular diseares, compared to those who did not, were older (pooled median difference=4.8 years; 95%CI:1.7-22.4); more likely to have hypertension (OR=7.35; 95%CI:1.94-27.87), diabetes mellitus (OR=5.56; 95%CI:3.34-9.24), coronary artery disease (OR=3.12; 95%CI:1.61-6.02), and severe infection (OR=5.10; 95%CI:2.72-9.54). Compared to individuals who experienced a stroke without the infection, patients with COVID-19 and stroke were younger (pooled median difference=-6.0 years; 95%CI:-12.3 to -1.4), had higher NIHSS (pooled median difference=5; 95%CI:3-9), higher frequency of large vessel occlusion (OR=2.73; 95%CI:1.63-4.57), and higher in-hospital mortality rate (OR=5.21; 95% CI:3.43-7.90).

Conclusions: Acute cerebrovascular diseases are not uncommon in COVID-19, especially in those whom are severely infected and have pre-existing vascular risk factors. The pattern of large vessel

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occlusion and multi-territory infarcts suggest that cerebral thrombosis and/or thromboembolism could be ossible causative pathways for the disease.

Stroke, COVIL-19: JAR -CoV-2; Acute cerebrovascular disease, hemorrhagic stroke

Introduction

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In December 2019, seven Leaves or unexplained pneumonia were diagnosed in Wuhan, China, and then also diagnosed in other regions of the world, creating a global pandemic. Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is caused by a severe access repriatory syndrome (SARS)-like coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2). At the time of writing, the perdemic had affected more than 210 countries, with over 29 million confirmed cases, and over £00 ±00 fa lities(1). In most patients the disease is characterized by fever, dry cough, dyspnoea, and byportal with interstitial pneumonia features on chest XRay or computed tomography (CT) scan(2, 3). However, COVID-19 is not just a respiratory disease and can affect other organs, including the brain.

While several studies have highlighted a reduction in stroke aunis ions registered during the acute phase of the pandemic(4), there are accumulating reports of a rate ove ular disease (CVD) erel complicating COVID-19, including both acute ischemic stroke (AIS) ar a intrabral haemorrhage (ICH)(5, 6). Previous reviews have shown an association between a past hi tory CVD and increased severity and mortality of COVID-19(7, 8); others papers have reviewed ne sp am of neurological manifestation in COVID-19(9-11). However, whether COVID-19 ma onsider risk factor for stroke is still not established. Similarly, little is known about any specific characteristics of COVID-19 associated stroke.

We performed a systematic review and meta-analysis to investigate the relationship between COVID-19 and stroke. We used the data to ask the following questions: 1) What is the incidence of stroke in COVID-19 patients? 2) What are the risk factors for stroke in COVID-19 patients? 3) What are the characteristics of stroke in COVID-19 patients? 4) What is the outcome of stroke in COVID-19 patients? Finally, we discuss a range of the possible pathogenic mechanisms linking COVID-19 with stroke.

Methods

Search Strategy and Selection Criteria

In this systematic review and meta-analysis, we searched published literature that provided acute cerebrovascular manifestations in COVID-19. The review protocol was registered evid arting on PROSPERO hefo

w.crd_york.ac.uk/PROSPERO/display_record.php?RecordID=185476) and (http ndati the PRISMA statement were applied(12, 13). recomm Jns 🕅

Two medical **AED** accessed from PubMed, and Scopus) and one pre-prints (MedRxiv) database were systematically reviewed for related articles from December 01, 2019 to September es, our search criteria were based on predefined search terms 14, 2020. In all electroni datab (available in eMethods, Supplementation, material). To ensure literature saturation, reference lists of included studies and relevant reviews identified through the search were scanned by the authors.

w, We included studies with information hset cerebrovascular event(s) in patients with eries, correspondence with relevant clinical confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection. Case rep rts data, case-control and cohort studies were included for further review. We excluded studies that were reported as abstract-only (with no full-texts averable) non-English articles, studies conducted on animal subjects, studies on paediatric populations, ear, ublications on the same patient cohorts.

Two authors (SN, RdG) participated in each phase of the review idepe lent¹ (screening, eligibility, and inclusion). They screened titles and abstracts, obtained full reports for all titles that appeared to meet the eligibility criteria or where there was any uncertainty, de ided whether these meet the inclusion criteria. All excluded studies were documented with asion Any disagreement was resolved through consensus.

Case reports and observational studies were included in the quantitative analysis (meta-analysis they reported at least five cases of COVID-19 patients developing acute CVD. The list of the extracted variables for each included study was prespecified, and is available in eMethods, Supplementary material. The quality assessment for each observational study included in the metaanalysis was performed using the adapted Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS)(14).

Data analysis

anus crior All analyses were performed using R v4.0.2. Median values of continuous traits were aggregated using the median of medians approach, and the median of the difference of the median between two-groups was calculated via the metamedian package(15, 16). To maximise the number of studies available for us to analyse, we also incorporated mean differences between two groups as simulations have shown that the median of the difference of medians method is robust when most

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of the studies considered report the sample median of the outcome(16). An approximate 95% interval (95% CI) of the pooled value was calculated by inversing the sign test. Binary confi e analysed using the meta package. We used a generalised linear mixed model to calculate traite d average proportion and 95% CIs for individual studies were calculated using the the w Clopper-Pearson(17). Odds ratios (and their associated 95% CIs) were method Ad b calculated and via random effect meta-analysis (inverse variance method) using the omb metabin function. Aletered eneity of effect sizes was quantified using I2 and Tau2 (DerSimonian-Laird estimator).

Results

ns, including 770 from Pubmed, 1359 from Scopus The literature search identified 2,277 path. at and 148 from MedRxiv; 371 were duplicate and the yved. Therefore 1,906 unique papers were identified, and after abstract review 193 were elected for full-text review (eFigure 1). Of these, 138 dentified from reference lists. Therefore, 145 met inclusion criteria. Seven additional papers were papers were included in the systematic review; these case reports, 51 case series, 4 d b case-controls studies and 33 cohort studies. Of these, 61 at cle ese series, 4 case-controls and 33 cohort studies) reported at least 5 stroke cases in COVID-19 tients nd were included in metaanalysis. The complete reference list for the included papers is available. Table 1 and eTable 2. The quality assessment of the 33 included cohort studies is reported in Ta l revealed a high quality in 14/33 (42%) records.

Incidence of acute CVD in COVID-19 patients

Twenty-four observational cohort studies reported the incidence of acute CVD in COVID-19 patients ranging from 0.4% to 8.1% (Figure 1). Across these studies, there were a total of 108. ¹⁷ COVID-19 patients, of which ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke was reported in 1,106 patients, yielding on meta-analysis an overall pooled incidence of acute CVD of 1.4% (95%CI:1.0-1.9). These studies were conducted in different countries with varying ethnic demographics. Analysis of acute CVD incidence showed geographical variation, with a higher incidence reported in Asia (3.1%; 95%CI:1.9-5.1) than in Europe (1.2%, 0.7-1.9) and North America (1.1%; 95%CI:0.8-1.4) (Figure 1). We performed a sensitivity analysis, limiting the analysis to high-quality data only, which gave a similar pooled incidence of new cerebrovascular diseases in COVID-19 patients of 1.3% (95%CI:0.9-1.8).

Risk factors for stroke incidence in COVID-19 patients

Four studies were available to compare clinical characteristics of COVID-19 patients with CVD d without CVD (n=11683) (Figure 2 and Suppl. Figure e2). Compared with COVID-19 without CVD, COVID-19 patients that developed acute CVD were older (pooled median natie or age=4.8 years; 95%CI=1.7-22.4); there was no sex difference. Stroke risk in COVIDdiffe ents with cardiovascular risk factors, with patients developing CVD having 19 was igher in p greater likelihe d of / pertension [81/113 vs 2392/11683; OR=7.35 (95%CI:1.94-27.87)], diabetes mellitus [52/113 s 1489/1683; OR=5.56 (95%CI:3.34-9.24)] and coronary artery disease [18/38 vs 508/2181; OR=3.12 (9 %CI) .61-6.02)]. There was no significant difference in rates of smokers versus non-smokers [23/ 260/ 274; OR=3.69 (95%CI:0.47-29.23)]. Stroke in COVID-19 patients was associated with more severe infectious disease [33/49 vs 571/2389; OR=5.10 (95%CI:2.72-9.54)] (Figure 2 and Supple Figure 2). Both groups showed high level of D-dimer, without significant differences in median va s (pooled median difference=1248 µg/L; 95%CI: -5600;6400).

Characteristics of COVID-19 patients developing ac ie CV

Fifty studies were available for meta-analysis of clinical ch stics of COVID-19 patients with acute CVD. Demographics, vascular risk factors, COVIDtics, and blood investigations are presented in Table 1. Median age was 65.3 (-67.6 year and the majority were male (62.4%, 1141/1912). Vascular risk factors were common. hypertension (62.2%, 1111/1731), diabetes mellitus (36.7%, 612/1696) and dyslipidemia (25.2 -/94 7). The majority of patients manifested COVID-19 symptoms at stroke onset (84.1%, 350/45, n dolay of stroke from COVID-19 symptoms onset was 8.8 (6.3-11.6) days. When analyzing the cl ncal reason for admission (COVID-19 symptoms versus stroke symptoms), we found that neurolog symptoms related to stroke represented the reason for hospital admission in 37.7% (414/10/ patients. Sixty-one percent (609/1032) of patients suffered from a severe form of COVID-19; radiological signs of pneumonia were detected in 86.7% (198/246) patients, and signs of pulmonary embolism in 14.8% (9/61). Laboratory investigations showed elevated median D-dimer (3720 µg/L) and fibrinogen (459 mg/L) levels. Information on antiphospholipid antibodies was available in 87 stroke cases; among these, 17.2% tested positive for IgM/IgG anti-cardiolipin or anti-β2glycoprotein I antibodies.

Stroke subtype, neuroimaging features and outcome of COVID-19 patients developing acute CVD We identified 1329 (87.4%) COVID-19 patients developing AIS, and 180 (11.6%) ICH (Table 1). The median NIHSS score in patients with AIS was 15 (13-18), and a large vessel occlusion pattern of stroke was described in 79.6% (597/1189). Simultaneous involvement of different vascular huscrior

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territories in AIS was frequent (42.5%, 115/274) (Table 2). Details regarding acute stroke treatment able for about 1200 patients with AIS: 19.1% (236/1205) received intravenous wer ysis, whereas 25.9% (238/1223) underwent endovascular thrombectomy. thror Base 0 data from 829 cases, the most common stroke mechanism in AIS was cryptogenic d by cardioembolism (21.9%, 167/829), and large vessel atherosclerosis (44.7%) (10.6%, 112/8, 9). § rtery stroke was infrequently reported (3.3%, 43/819). **A**all Out of 102 patients wind IC 4.1% showed a strictly lobar hematoma, and in 18.5% (10/61) the volume of hematoma led to intr cranial herniation (Table 2).

Up to 44 studies reported data, a discharge outcomes of patients with stroke and COVID-19 (Table 1). Out of the 1655 patients with information or mortality, 31.5% (521) suffered in-hospital death, whereas 19.1% (379/1315) were discharged me, and 25.7% (228/744) were discharged to rehabilitation facilities.

OVID-19 patients with stroke

Stroke features in COVID-19 patients compare Eleven studies were analyzed to compare stroke char teris patients with and without COVID-19 (Suppl.Table e4). Patients with COVID-19 and stro re younger than patients with stroke without infection (pooled median difference for age= -6.0) 5%C -12.3;-1.4), and female sex was less frequently affected [150/395 vs 773/1670; OR=6/1 059 -0.99)]. Patients were less likely to have hypertension [257/385 vs 835/1128; OR=0.65 (95% 1:0,4 and previous 40 stroke [11/146 vs 159/720; OR=0.34 (95%CI:0.18-0.63)]; there was no significant difference in other cardiovascular risk factors (diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemia, smoking, coron ry arte Aisease and atrial fibrillation). Acute ischemic stroke due to large vessel occlusion was more sommon in COVID-19 cases [127/251 vs 613/1031; OR=2.73 (95%CI: 1.63-4.57)] (Figure 2). Stroke see was higher in patients with stroke and COVID-19 (pooled median difference for NIHSS score 95%CI=3;9), and cryptogenic stroke was more common (26/41 vs 56/177; OR=3.40, 95% CI:1.16 10.00) (Supp Figure e3). Despite receiving acute stroke treatments (intravenous thrombolysis and thrombectomy) in similar proportions, individuals with stroke and COVID-19 infection showed higher in-hospital mortality (144/432 vs 191/1643; OR=5.21, 95% CI:3.43-7.90) (Figure 2).

Discussion

In this systematic review and meta-analysis investigating the characteristics and outcomes of patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 and suffering a stroke, we found a pooled incidence of 1.5% of acute CVD in COVID-19. Individuals with COVID-19 who experienced concomitant stroke were

more likely to be older, have pre-existing cardiovascular comorbidities, and severe infection. Most d been admitted with COVID-19 symptoms, with stroke occurring a few days later. pati stroke was the commonest stroke subtype, and was frequently characterized by multiple Isch arctions and cryptogenic etiology. In comparison to strokes without COVID-19, people ceret D-19 were younger, suffered from more severe stroke, and stroke was more with CV £б ery occlusion. often caused by large

There was variation in cloke incidence rates among individuals with COVID-19 across the included studies. This m y refle t differences in the population studied; highest rates were reported in cohorts of critically ill parents (5, 9), and in studies analyzing neurological complications of COVID-19(20-22). It may also reflect differences in healthcare system organization, and intensity of neurologic screening. Overall, we reasoned e highest stroke rates in Asian populations(18, 23). The severity of the infective disease consisterily emerged as an important risk factor for stroke ve fould that people with COVID-19 developing a across different studies(18, 23, 24). Moreover, stroke were older than infected patients without This may partly explain the higher proportion of vascular risk factors that characterized he cereb ascular group.

dividuals with COVID-19 who Comparison with non-infected patients with stroke showed that developed stroke were significantly younger. There have been se eral re orts on young patients without vascular risk factors admitted for large-artery stroke curing cemic(25-27). Similarly, other studies highlighted a younger age of patients undergoing thrombe, tor con ared to the prepandemic period(28-30). Our pooled results confirmed these reports, and s ular profile of COVID-19-associated strokes, characterized clinically by severe NIHS and outcome, and radiologically by large artery occlusion and multiple arterial territory resolution These strokes were more commonly labeled as cryptogenic, compared to contemporary and anuscrior historical stroke controls(27). These findings from the comparison between strokes with and without COVID-19 could suggest that some mechanisms directly related to COVID-19 have a role in the occurrence of stroke, and explain the characteristic profile of stroke in infected patients. Large artery occlusion in COVID-19 may be primarily due to cardioembolism or paradoxical embolism, and less often due to large artery atherosclerosis and plaque rupture(31), thus explaining the occurrence of stroke among young people without vascular risk factors, in individuals with high levels of D-dimer or other signs of hypercoagulability, or in patients with pulmonary embolism and venous thrombosis(19).

An important question is whether stroke occurring in individuals with COVID-19 is causally related, or represents an incidental association due to COVID-19 infection being widespread in the

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community. The occurrence of stroke in those with COVID-19 does not provide direct evidence of etween the two diseases. As with all observational studies, residual confounding may be cau hation, as a substantial proportion of the patients hospitalized with COVID-19 and stroke an e ral vascular risk factors; also, some COVID-19-related factors, such as less controlled exhi and mental stress, may also contribute to stroke. However, a number of lines of vascula ctor evidence suggest that SVID-19 may be a trigger or risk factor for stroke at least in a proportion of cases. Firstly SALS-CoY 2 infection appears more likely to cause thrombotic vascular events, including stroke, than other core pavirus and seasonal infectious diseases, with a 7.6-fold increase in the odds of stroke with CNVP-19 compared with influenza(24). Secondly, the characteristic pattern of stroke in individuals with COVID-19, with an increased proportion of large artery occlusion, infarction involving multiple ter s, and increased cryptogenic aetiology, suggests a causal relationship in at least a proportion of atients.

Previous reports have been published with the ttemp to clarify the relationship between stroke and COVID-19. These included narrative reviews(32, 33 syste hatic reviews(9-11, 34) and metaanalyses(34, 35). While some authors have focused on tie p auto, ship between personal history of rs for the occurrence of new CVD and COVID-19(7, 8), we studied the incidence and rek fa CVD in concomitant SARS-CoV2 infection, searching for a spec le of COVID-19-Ac pro associated stroke. We found a similar rate of stroke incidence in C compared to previous reports, but included a higher number of cohort studies(34, 35). We provide con rehensive picture of the clinical, biochemical and radiological features of stroke in Co VID: omparison to other reviews(36, 37), this was done after excluding case reports and small case series hich may be biased through focusing on particularly unusual cases), thus strengthening the solidity of our results. Core novelties of our investigation are synthesis of evidence on the topic of risk for stroke in people with COVID-19 as well as the comparison of stroke characteristics between infected and non-infected patients, both of which are vital to on-going clinical care and management during the current pandemic.

our results. Conc... for stroke in people with COVID-19 as well as unclearing infected and non-infected patients, both of which are vital to on-going clinical care and management during the current pandemic. Our results may have important clinical implications. We demonstrated that stroke might complicate the course of COVID-19, with older and severely infected patients being at higher risk. Even if the incidence of stroke in COVID-19 population was less than 2%, the scale of the COVID-19 pandemic means that many thousands of people could potentially be affected by this complication globally. Therefore, clinicians should be vigilant for signs and symptoms of acute CVD in individuals with COVID-19 to ensure appropriate clinical interventions. Special attention should be paid in intubated or sedated patients, in whom awareness of potential neurological signs

International Journal of Stroke

is important, for example by monitoring of Glasgow Coma Scale and pupil reaction, and in patients with mal elevation in coagulation laboratories or other thrombotic complications. Moreover, hough the majority of strokes occurred after a few days of COVID-19 symptoms onset, we eurological symptoms represented the reason of hospital admission in more than one found that OWD-19 and stroke. These patients might have mild respiratory symptoms, third of eon¹ with or be completely asymptomatic, with subsequent important implications for stroke care reorganization. In f.ct, all attients with stroke in the pre-hospital setting should be treated as potential COVID-19 cases until the result of COVID-19 screening in the hospital are negative, and for implication a protected stroke pathway should be adopted. patients with suspected of

Mechanisms of stroke in individuals infected th COVID-19

The mechanisms of cerebrovascular manifectulons in people with COVID-19 are likely multifactorial. They could be related to concentional, troke mechanisms, with COVID-19 acting as a trigger(38, 39). Alternatively, they could be cirectly could by SARS-CoV-2 infection, through specific pathophysiological mechanisms leading to 1 bth iscremic and hemorrhagic stroke (Figure 3).

Ischemic stroke mechanisms in COVID-19

Activation of the coagulation pathway with elevated D-dimer and hormouch is a common feature of many individuals with severe COVID-19 infection. This *coagulopathy*, this ed sepsis-induced coagulopathy" (SIC), is related to the infection-induced systemic inflammate cress instandimay contribute to the increased risk of thrombosis and stroke(40, 41). Also, the preserve of antiphospholipid antibodies (aPL), including IgA anticardiolipin antibodies and IgA and IgG beau glycoprotein I antibodies, has been reported in severely infected patients with multiple cerebral infarcts(23, 42). Hypercoagulation could lead to ischemic stroke promoting venous thromboembolism and paradoxical embolism; this could explain stroke from large vessel occlusion in young people without vascular risk factors, where plaque rupture or in situ thrombosis seem less likely(31).

COVID-19, similar to other coronaviruses, uses the angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE-2) receptor to enter the cells(43). This receptor is expressed in the lungs, heart, kidneys, and vascular endothelium. Direct viral invasion of endothelial cells causes an inflammation or "endothelitis" which has been proposed as one of the substrates for the thrombotic complications of COVID-19(44). Moreover, binding of SARS-CoV-2 to ACE-2 receptor causes a depletion of its availability through endocytosis, and ultimately a down-regulation of the renin angiotensin system (RAS)(45).

International Journal of Stroke

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In fact, the unopposed generation of Angiotensin II, no more counterbalanced by Angiotensin (1-7) hg injury, and is also responsible for *endothelial dysfunction* in organs like the heart and woj is could result into increased sympathetic activity, loss of blood pressure autoregulation, brait istriction with subsequent organ ischemia(46). and y

trolled activation of the immune system caused by the viral infection, The cont with subsequent exe cytokine release or "cytokine storm", has been implicated in brain damage during COVID 9. Cytokines/chemokines promote atherosclerosis, plaque rupture, and superimposed thrombosi (47). 7 gether with endothelial injury, they can up-regulate tissue factor expression and further proo-hrombotic state(48).

Various manifestations of myocardial injury been described, including viral myocarditis, myocardial dysfunction related to the rooms storm, CAD caused by oxygen supply and demand mismatch, and stress cardiomyopathy due to he lation of the sympathetic nervous system(49, 50). All these mechanisms may lead to cardiac arrhythmias and intracardiac thrombus formation, possibly exacerbated by the hypercoagulable state, a d coul increase cardioembolic stroke.

Finally, some individuals with COVID-19 may be particula sus eptible to cerebrovascular injury from hypoxemia(51). In those with pre-existing intracrania example, hypoxemia could lead to infarction due to a mismatch between oxygen supply any eman 52) Similarly, cerebral hypoperfusion secondary to the downregulation of the RAS could increase the risk of both large vessel and SVD infarction, with a typical border-zone distribution(53,

Hemorrhagic stroke mechanisms in COVID-19

Our review highlighted that COVID-19-related hemorrhagic strokes are much less common that ischemic strokes. Whether the COVID-19 infection and intracerebral hemorrhage are casual related in these cases is unclear. However, some mechanisms mediating the increased risk of ischemic stroke in patients with COVID-19 could also play a role in promoting intracranial bleeding(55, 56).

The affinity of the SARS- CoV-2 for ACE2 receptors could allow the virus to directly damage intracranial arteries, causing vessel wall rupture. Also, downregulation of RAS may rise blood pressure and put patients already diagnosed with hypertension at higher risk for hemorrhagic stroke(57). Older individuals, affected by age-related ACE2 deficiency, might be particularly exposed to risk of ICH in this setting.

anus crior The integrity of blood brain barrier (BBB) could be impaired by the massive release of cytokines and proteases that accompanies the immune response to the SARS- CoV-2 infection(57, 58).

Besides ICH, the BBB breakdown could explain the cases of hemorrhagic posterior reversible athy syndrome (PRES) and hemorrhagic transformation of ischemic strokes that have ence orted in those with COVID-19(59). heen

S-Co^W-2 infection could be associated with a consumption coagulopathy related to Also fibrinog er from metabolic acidosis or disseminated intravascular coagulation), which may increase the h k of ICH(38).

orrhages with cerebral microbleeds visible on susceptibility Finally, perivascular procession weighted MRI have been described in a few individuals with severe COVID-19 and neurologic complications(60). Their locatic on the corpus callosum and the subcortical and deep white matter was similar to the anatomical distribution seer patients with hypoxic respiratory failure and sepsis, suggesting a potential role of alpoxia in brain injury in severe COVID-19(60).

Limitations

Given the recency of the pandemic, the findings nor this review should be considered preliminary. vith C Assumptions on the stroke incidence amongst people **Q-19** were mostly based on small, single-centre observational studies, and therefore should be rega ed with caution. Moreover, the number of cohort studies providing information on stroke control groups was limited, reducing the reliability of estimates of stroke risk in individuals infected with C Also, the results on stroke etiologies and stroke outcome in COVID-19 might be affected by the at some patients OF N were still hospitalized at the time of publication, which may limit the assessment thenatural course of the disease. Finally, we acknowledged that the meta-analysis results could be h pered by the heterogenous quality of the included papers, some of them rated as only mode, re-quality

Conclusions

anus crior We found 1.5% of individuals with COVID-19 suffered acute CVD. This risk was highest in those most severely infected and those with pre-existing vascular risk factors. The pattern of stroke differed from that in a non-COVID-19 stroke population. Most strokes were ischemic, and there was an increase in large vessel occlusion and multiple territory infarcts suggesting that increased thrombosis and thromboembolism could be important. Further studies are required to provide more robust estimates of the increase in stroke resulting from COVID-19 and to elucidate the precise pathophysiology linking COVID-19 to risk of CVD.

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Authors contributors

arv cas involved in study concept and design, screened papers for the literature review, and prepared the manuscript with input from HSM. RdG screened papers for the literature review. SB perform d the natistical analysis and helped in interpretation of data and critical revision of the article for important in effectual content. HSM was involved in study concept and design, supervised anarysis and interpretation of data and revised the final version of the manuscript.

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Declaration of conflicting interests

SN, RdG, SB and HSM declare no competing interests.

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FIGUP LEGEND

1. Proled analysis of the proportion of COVID-19 patients developing acute CVD, Figur for c present

acute CVD in COVID-19 patients, showing the distributions of female Figures 2. Risk fa Lors fo sex (Sex_F), hypertep ton), diabetes (DM), coronary artery disease (CAD), and severe COVID-19 (COVID severe) in affected patients with and without stroke. Stroke characteristics of patients with and without COVY -19 are also showed, presenting the distribution of AIS from large vessel occlusion, the rates of acute stroke trea nts, and of in-hospital deaths between the two groups.

Figure 3. Overview on the possible stroke mechanisms

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Table 1. Demographics, clinical characteristics, laboratory variables and outcome of COVID-19 patie veloping acute cerebrovascular disease (CVD). Only studies reporting at least 5 patients onset of CVD and COVID-19 were included in the pooled analysis. with

Variabe	N of valid studies	N of events	Pooled values°
Demographics			
Age, years (medica [95% CI])	50	1767	65.3 [60.4; 67.6]
Sex, female	50	771/1912	37.6 [33.2; 42.2]
Vascular risk factors			
Hypertension	45	1111/1731	62.2 [55.9; 68.1]
Dyslipidemia	37	625/947	25.2 [17.3; 35.1]
Diabetes mellitus	44	612/1696	36.7 [32.1; 41.6]
Atrial fibrillation	37	225/1326	13.9 [9.7; 19.5]
Smoking		246/1491	9.6 [5.9; 15.3]
Personal history of stroke	~?	113/1314	8.0 [4.8; 13.0]
Coronary artery disease	0	254/1382	15.9 [12.1; 20.6]
Type of acute CVD	/		
Acute ischemic stroke	28	1327	87.4 [80.1; 92.3]
Transient ischemic attack	28	5/1559	0.1 [0.0; 2.1]
Intracerebral haemorrhage	28	180/1559	11.6 [10.1; 13.3]
Cerebral venous thrombosis	28	25/155	0 [0.1; 2.2]
COVID-19-related clinical variables			
COVID-19 symptoms present at stroke onset	32	350/453	84. [73.7: 1.0]
COVID-19 to stroke onset delay, day (median)	24	996	8.8 [3; 11.6]
Stroke as reason for admission	36	414/1063	37.7 [21.2; 57
Severe disease	27	609/1032	60.5 [50.1; 70.0]
Intubation at stroke onset	10	7/66	2.9 [0.2; 35.1]
Pneumonia	14	198/246	86.7 [71.7; 94.3]
Pulmonary embolism	6	9/61	14.8 [7.9; 26.0]
Laboratory variables			
D-dimer, µg/L (median [95% CI])	29	937	3720 [1458; 5535]
Fibrinogen, mg/L (median [95% CI])	14	702	459 [361; 486]
Therapeutic anticoagulation at stroke onset	24	94/471	9.6 [4.5; 19.4]
Antiphospholipid antibodies positive	7	17/87	17.2 [7.0; 36.6]
Lupus anticoagulant positive	4	9/30	26.8 [5.5; 69.6]

Page 24 of 24

In-hospital death	44	521/1655	31.5 [27.3; 36.0]
Dissuar ed home	30	379/1315	19.1 [13.2; 26.8]
Dr sharged to rehabilitation	25	228/744	25.7 [18.9; 33.8]
Notatischarged at time of publication	20	170/901	11.1 [4.7; 23.8]

°Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and as proportion (and 5% cl) for ategorical variables

Table 2. Clinical and radiological characteristics of COVID-19 patients developing acute ischemic strok and intracerebral haemorrhage. Only studies reporting at least five patients with new-onset of CVD vd COVID-19 were included in the pooled analysis.

Acute iselfenite throke in COVID-19 Clinical variables NIHSS on admission steel in S% CI]) 29 1202 15 [13-18] Vigilance impairment at troke use 13 172/693 26.4 [14.6; 43.0] Radiological variables	Variahe	N of valid studies	N of events	Pooled values ^o
Clinical variables NIHSS on admission mediant \$% CI]) 29 1202 15 [13-18] Vigilance impairment at troke rises 13 172/693 26.4 [14.6; 43.0] Radiological variables 22 278/394 81.7 [70.2; 89.4] Multiple infarction 15 115/274 42.5 [31.3; 54.5] Large vessel occlusion 35 597/1189 79.6 [64.5; 89.3] Acute stroke treatment 1 111/22/24 42.5 [31.3; 54.5] Intravenous thrombolysis 1 236/1205 19.1 [12.4; 28.2] Endovascular treatment - thrombectomy 6 38/1223 25.9 [13.5; 44.1] Successful recanalization after thrombectomy 13 8/98 87.1 [76.2; 93.5] Stroke etiology 21 47(829 42.9 [16.5; 28.4] Large artery atherosclerosis 20 112/819 10.4 [6.5; 16.8] Small vessel disease 20 43/819 31.3; 7.8] Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 12.9 (9.9) Intracerebral hemotrnage in COVID-19 11 11.34.5 (54.0] Bilateral l	Acute ischemic aroke a COVID-19			
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Vigilance impairment altroke inset 13 172/693 26.4 [14.6, 43.0] Radiological variables Vascular territory, anterior 22 278/394 81.7 [70.2; 89.4] Multiple infarction 15 115/274 42.5 [31.3; 54.5] Large vessel occlusion 35 597/1189 79.6 [64.5; 89.3] Acute stroke treatment 1 236/1205 19.1 [12.4; 28.2] Endovascular treatment - thrombectomy 6 238/1223 25.9 [13.5; 44.1] Successful recanalization after thrombectomy 13 8 /98 87.1 [76.2; 93.5] Stroke etiology 20 412(829) 129 [16.5; 28.4] Large artery atherosclerosis 20 112/819 10.6 [6.5; 16.8] Small vessel disease 20 43/819 31.9 [3; 7.8] Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 12.6 [2, 42, 4] Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 11 11.4 [34, 554.0] Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.4] Intracrenchymal hematoma, lobar 12 45/102 44.1 [34, 554.0] Bilateral loca	NIHSS on admission anedian 25% CI])	29	1202	15 [13-18]
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Large vessel occlusion 35 597/1189 79.6 [64.5; 89.3] Acute stroke treatment Intravenous thrombolysis 1 236/1205 19.1 [12.4; 28.2] Endovascular treatment - thrombectomy 6 238/1223 25.9 [13.5; 44.1] Successful recanalization after thrombectomy 13 8/98 87.1 [76.2; 93.5] Stroke etiology Cardioembolism 21 6/(829) 92.9 [16.5; 28.4] Large artery atherosclerosis 20 112/819 10.6 [6.5; 16.8] Small vessel disease 20 43/819 31.0 3; 7.8] Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 22.7, 9.9 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 19.5 [6.5; 42.4] Prooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (Multiple infarction	15	115/274	42.5 [31.3; 54.5]
Acute stroke treatment Intravenous thrombolysis 1 236/1205 19.1 [12.4; 28.2] Endovascular treatment - thrombectomy 6 238/1223 25.9 [13.5; 44.1] Successful recanalization after thrombectomy 13 8 98 87.1 [76.2; 93.5] Stroke etiology 21 24(829 97.9 [16.5; 28.4] Large artery atherosclerosis 20 112/819 10.6 [6.5; 16.8] Small vessel disease 20 43/819 31.0 3; 7.8] Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 12.7, 9.9 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 10.61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] Intracarial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Large vessel occlusion	35	597/1189	79.6 [64.5; 89.3]
Intravenous thrombolysis 1 236/1205 19.1 [12.4; 28.2] Endovascular treatment - thrombectomy 6 38/1223 25.9 [13.5; 44.1] Successful recanalization after thrombectomy 13 89.98 87.1 [76.2; 93.5] Stroke etiology 21 40/829 20.9 [16.5; 28.4] Large artery atherosclerosis 20 112/819 106.16.5; 16.8] Small vessel disease 20 43/819 310.3; 7.8] Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 36.267.5, 99 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 101 18.45, 54.0] Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.41] Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4]	Acute stroke treatment		0	
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Successful recanalization after thrombectomy 13 8 98 87.1 [76.2; 93.5] Stroke etiology Cardioembolism 21 17(829) 92.9 [16.5; 28.4] Large artery atherosclerosis 20 112/819 10.6 [6.5; 16.8] Small vessel disease 20 43/819 43[13; 7.8] Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 43 [27, re 9] Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intraparenchymal hematoma, lobar 12 45/102 44.1 [343, 54.0] Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.4] 1 Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4]	Endovascular treatment - thrombectomy	6	238/1223	25.9 [13.5; 44.1]
Stroke etiologyCardioembolism219(829)9(29)[16.5; 28.4]Large artery atherosclerosis20112/81910.6 [6.5; 16.8]Small vessel disease2043/8193(13; 7.8]Cryptogenic stroke21242/82913 [27, 6.9]Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19Intraparenchymal hematoma, lobar1245/10244.1 [34.5; 54.0]Bilateral location87/3620.4 [8.2; 42.4]Intracranial herniation710/6118.5 [6.5; 42.4]°Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Successful recanalization after thrombectomy	13	8 98	87.1 [76.2; 93.5]
Cardioembolism2144/82952.9 [16.5; 28.4]Large artery atherosclerosis20112/81910.6 [6.5; 16.8]Small vessel disease2043/81931.3; 7.8]Cryptogenic stroke21242/82912.2 [2.7, 0.9]Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19Intraparenchymal hematoma, lobar1245/10244.1 [34.5, 54.0]Bilateral location87/3620.4 [8.2; 42.4]Intracranial herniation710/6118.5 [6.5; 42.4]°Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.95% CI) for categorical variables.	Stroke etiology			
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Small vessel disease 20 43/819 31/3; 7.8] Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 22, 7, 9, 9 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intracarenchymal hematoma, lobar 12 45/102 44.1 [34, 54.0] Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.4] Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] °Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Large artery atherosclerosis	20	112/819	10.6.[6.5; 16.8]
Cryptogenic stroke 21 242/829 212/87,00.91 Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intraparenchymal hematoma, lobar 12 45/102 44.1 [34.5,54.0] Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.4] Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] °Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Small vessel disease	20	43/819	3 [.3; 7.8]
Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19 Intraparenchymal hematoma, lobar 12 45/102 44.1 [343, 54.0] Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.4] Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4]	Cryptogenic stroke	21	242/829	91
Intraparenchymal hematoma, lobar 12 45/102 44.1 [345, 54.0] Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.4] Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] °Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Intracerebral haemorrhage in COVID-19			
Bilateral location 8 7/36 20.4 [8.2; 42.4] Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] °Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Intraparenchymal hematoma, lobar	12	45/102	44.1 [34.5, 54.0]
Intracranial herniation 7 10/61 18.5 [6.5; 42.4] ^o Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Bilateral location	8	7/36	20.4 [8.2; 42.4]
^o Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% confident interval, CI) for continuous variables and proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	Intracranial herniation	7	10/61	18 5 [6 5: 42.4]
	°Pooled values are presented as median (and 95% proportion (and 95% CI) for categorical variables.	confident inter	val, CI) for cont	tinuous variables and