

NEUROPSYCHIATRIC MANIFESTATIONS AND EPIDEMIOLOGY OF NEUROCYSTICERCOSIS

MANIFESTAÇÕES NEUROPSÍQUIÁTRICAS E EPIDEMIOLOGIA DE NEUROCYSTICERCOSE

Ericson Dametto¹

ABSTRACT

Neurocysticercosis (NCC) is the brain infection caused by larval stages of the helminth *Taenia solium*.

The embryos of *Taenia* travel through the bloodstream and can reach the brain, muscles, eyes, and various organs. In the brain, the psychiatric manifestations are mood disorders, depression and anxiety, which are commonly associated with epilepsy and sensory-motor deficits.

Neurocysticercosis is a frequent parasitic disease in the world population; it is endemic in Central and South America, Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. In the present review, we report the major symptoms and signals of neurocysticercosis common to neurological and psychiatric illnesses. We briefly present Epidemiology of those manifestations and analyze the relationship between pathological changes and NCC symptomatology.

Objectives and Methodology. A literature review was conducted to characterize epidemiological, neurological and psychiatric manifestations of NCC. The final 90 papers were selected of a set of 937 publications from 2010 to 2016.

Results. NCC is a major cause of epilepsy in endemic areas; furthermore, leads to a diversity of motor and sensitive deficits, manifestations vary from headache to severe intracranial hypertension.

Potentially fatal conditions include arteritis, encephalitis and hydrocephalus.

Depression and cognitive decline remain among the most important psychiatric manifestations.

Neuropsychiatric manifestations, Epidemiology, and neuroimaging provide diagnostic criteria. Brain scans may reveal one or diverse cysts filled with fluid within a scolex (parasite's head).

Conclusion. NCC's diversity of presentations encourage health professionals to consider it in diagnoses, especially in endemic countries, and also in non-endemic areas because migrants and travelers are subject to contagion.

Treatment consists in use of antiparasitic drugs (albendazol, praziquantel) and drugs to treat associated conditions (anticonvulsants, corticosteroids). Surgery is reserved to extirpate the parasite from particular locations (eyes, spinal cord, cerebral ventricles) or to differentiate NCC from tumors, tuberculosis, mycosis, etc.

Prevention includes treatment of intestinal helminthiasis, sanitation in animal farming, food preparing hygiene, quality control of water and food.

Key words: Neurocysticercosis, epilepsy, cognitive decline, depression, encephalitis and hydrocephalus.

RESUMO

Neurocisticercose é a infecção cerebral causada pelos estágios larvais do helminto *Taenia solium*.

Os embriões da *Taenia* deslocam-se através da corrente sanguínea e podem atingir o cérebro, músculos, olhos e vários órgãos. No cérebro, as manifestações psiquiátricas são transtornos de humor, depressão e ansiedade, as quais estão comumente associados com epilepsia e deficiências sensorio-motoras.

Neurocisticercose é uma parasitose frequente na população mundial, é endêmica na América Central e do Sul, Ásia e África subsaariana. Na presente revisão, relatamos os principais sintomas e sinais de neurocisticercose pertinentes a doenças neurológicas e psiquiátricas. Nós brevemente apresentamos a Epidemiologia dessas manifestações, e analisamos a relação entre alterações patológicas e sintomatologia da NCC.

Objetivos e Metodologia. Uma revisão da literatura foi conduzida para caracterizar a epidemiologia, as manifestações neurológicas e psiquiátricas de NCC. Os 90 artigos finais foram selecionados de um conjunto de 937 publicações entre 2010 a 2016.

Resultados. NCC é uma importante etiologia de epilepsia em áreas endêmicas, além disso causa uma diversidade de deficiências motoras e sensoriais, as manifestações variam de cefaleia a severa hipertensão intracraniana.

Condições potencialmente fatais incluem arterites, encefalites e hidrocefalia.

Depressão e declínio cognitivo permanecem entre as mais importantes manifestações psiquiátricas.

Manifestações neuropsiquiátricas, epidemiologia e neuroimagem provêm os critérios de diagnóstico. As imagens cerebrais podem revelar um ou diversos cistos preenchidos com líquido e o escólex (cabeça) do parasito.

Conclusões. A diversidade de apresentações da NCC encoraja os profissionais de saúde a considerá-la dentre os diagnósticos, especialmente em países endêmicos; e também em áreas não-endêmicas, pois migrantes e viajantes estão sujeitos ao contágio.

O tratamento consiste no uso de antiparasíticos (albendazol, praziquantel) e medicamentos para tratar condições associadas (anticonvulsivantes, corticosteróides). Cirurgia é reservada para remoção do parasito de locais particulares (olhos, medula espinhal, ventrículos cerebrais) ou para diferenciar NCC de tumores, tuberculose, micose, etc.

Prevenção inclui o tratamento de helmintíases intestinais, sanidade animal, higiene ao preparar alimentos, controle da qualidade da água e alimentos.

Palavras-chaves: Neurocisticercoses, epilepsia, declínio cognitivo, depressão, encefalite e hidrocefalo.

¹Department of Psychiatry, University of Alberta

INTRODUCTION

Taenia solium is a flat helminth whose developmental stages before adulthood (metacestodes) may be executed in host's organs, causing cysticercosis.

The metacestodes of this parasite can reach various human organs where they develop an encysted living form. Contamination occurs by ingesting food or water infected by oncospheres (embryos within a capsule) or meat infected by metacestodes ¹.

All sequelae would be avoided by prevention and early treatment. Treatment for neurocysticercosis uses albendazol at dose 15 mg/kg/day, the duration varies as 1 month, 15 days and 1 week, or praziquantel in a dose of 50 mg/kg/day for 15 days. Dexamethasone is prescribed to reduce brain edema, doses range from 4.5 to 12 mg/day. Mannitol can treat acute intracranial hypertension ². In case of 10 days of treatment, a combination of albendazole and praziquantel was more effective than one cysticidal alone ³.

Diagnosis is based on brain imaging, immunologic assays, clinical presentations, and Epidemiology ⁴.

Neuroimaging provides characteristics of the parasite stage. Active NCC has one or more lesions surrounded by inflammatory signals (e.g. edema or perilesional enhancement). In earlier parasite stages, typical lesions have vesicular morphology within a parasite scolex (head); in later stages lesions are calcified ^{5,6}.

Immunologic assays (Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay, Western blot) are not specific to CNS infection. Cerebrospinal fluid may show pleocytosis, increased protein, and low glucose levels ⁷.

Lesion biopsy is recommended for times when surgery was practiced (e.g. ocular, spinal cord, fourth ventricle locations) ^{8,9}; in subcutaneous lesions; or exceptionally, in the brain to conduct differential diagnosis (e.g., suspicion of tumors, abscess, mycosis and tuberculosis) ¹⁰.

In the human brain, the signs and symptoms diversify according to number, size, localization of cysts and pathological alteration of the neuronal structures. The most common presentations are headaches, seizures, as well as motor and sensory deficits ¹¹. Psychiatric manifestations happen frequently in any parasite stages.

Cognitive decline in neurocysticercosis is associated with damage to brain tissue and complications such as hydrocephalus. Arachnoiditis and obstruction of cerebrospinal fluid ducts increase pressure in brain ventricles (hydrocephalus) and may lead to cognitive decline. The

implantation of the cyst in strategic areas for the circulation of cerebrospinal fluid can be reversed by surgical procedures or elimination of the agent. The surgical drainage of cerebrospinal fluid by ventriculoperitoneal derivations may be necessary according to the severity of the hydrocephalus.

The host-parasite interactions (inflammatory and immunology reactions), the destruction of nerve tissue at the site of implantation of parasite, and the ischemia around larger cysts (usually a cyst size have 5-8mm, but they can reach several centimeters) are mechanisms of brain damage.

The pathological feature that remains in the late evolution of the lesion is calcification. Generally, patients with cognitive decline and evidence of neurocysticercosis in the past have multiple calcifications on neuroimaging scans. Another finding is enlargement of the ventricles which can be chronic or acute.

METHODOLOGY

A total of 90 studies was selected from a set of 937 publications from 2010 to 2016; also references from previous years were cited when recent data were not available.

Publications were obtained from LILACS, MEDLINE, PsychINFO, and ScienceDirect.

Studies included in this review were conducted in Africa, Americas, Asia, Europe and Oceania. The papers encompass case reports, scientific reviews and meta-analysis.

The search terms were depression, dementia, cognitive decline, headache, epilepsy, sensorimotor deficits, hydrocephalus, encephalitis, and vasculitis. The terms were combined with "Neurocysticercosis" and "Epidemiology" to select a specific manifestation and its frequency.

Inclusion criteria considered common symptoms and signs associated with NCC and their epidemiological aspects.

Exclusion criteria regarded non-human studies and duplication of the information.

We compared maps of *Taenia solium* endemicity with the Human Development Index (HDI).

RESULTS

World Health Organization estimates 50 million NCC cases worldwide. The table about Epidemiology describes main world regions affected by this parasitic di-

sease (**Table 1**); particularly, countries with low Human Development Index are more affected. The HDI is a summary measure of having a long and healthy life, being knowledgeable and having a decent standard of living. It does not reflect on inequalities, poverty, human security, empowerment, etc. The HDI is low to medium in Endemic areas of the parasite, while it is high in areas where NCC is rare (**supplementary information**).

Depression and cognitive decline are among the most frequent psychiatric manifestations of NCC (**Table 2**). The incidence of depression associated with this parasitic disease was higher than in the general population, as follow: 83% of patients had NCC plus depression and epilepsy (n. 48); 88% NCC and depression without epilepsy (n. 17)¹². Cognitive decline was associated with 87.5% of the cases in a group of 38 patients¹³. Dementia was diagnosed in 12.5% of patients, in a sample size of 40 patients¹⁴.

Generally, NCC patients seek medical care by reason of neurological manifestations; then psychiatric symptoms complete the set of illness. It is important to investigate the presence of emotional manifestations not complained by the patients. In major depressive disorders, typically patients have a history of losses and negative feelings (guilt, fear, low self-esteem, diminished interest or pleasure) towards experienced situations. Health professionals are recommended to investigate in the NCC patients depressive symptoms e.g.: sadness, alterations of sleep-wake cycle, appetite changes, memory impairments, and behavioral changes in family or social environment.

In NCC patients, it may be noticed that disinterest in rewarding or enjoyable activities is related to the patient's inability to cope with performances that they previously were able to execute. That is, patients give up favorite occupations because neuronal deficits, and negative feelings are justified by sequelae.

Major depressive disorders frequently have alterations of thinking such as low attention, worsening of intellectual performance, pessimistic ideas, suicidal thoughts, and exaggerated concern about serious diseases. Considering the presence of brain lesions due to the parasite, impairment of intellectual performance and attention persist while lesions are present. Different from depressive disorders, the worsening of cognition does not happen as traits, it does not recover when emotions are better.

Cognitive decline and dementia have been imputed to brain damage or complications such as hydroce-

phalus¹⁵. Brain damage can be characterized by multiple calcifications on neuroimaging scans; this is an evidence of NCC in the past. Hydrocephalus or blockage in the cerebrospinal fluid circulation through ventricles and cisterns can be consequences of protein deposits or physical obstruction by the presence of cysts¹⁶.

Brain imaging in dementia commonly demonstrates enlargement of cerebral ventricles and spaces between gyri that are filled with cerebrospinal fluid¹⁷; brain scans can help to manage both chronic and acute hydrocephalus¹⁸.

The drainage of cerebrospinal fluid by ventriculo-peritoneal derivations is used to relieve hydrocephalus, however the use of antihelminthic medication that seems to increase shunt longevity is also recommended¹⁹.

Psychosis has been correlated with NCC, although less frequently than cognitive decline and depression. The estimated proportion of psychotic patients was 14.2% and depressed was 52.6 % in a cross section of 38 outpatients¹³.

NCC is a manifold disease concerning the diversity of signals and symptoms. Neurological manifestations (**Table 3**) can include disturbances of movement, gate, speech and motor coordination. Neuroendocrine syndromes may follow lesions in the hypothalamic-pituitary axis.

Psychiatric manifestations frequently happen together with neurological diseases. The frequencies of neurological diseases ranges from: 79% of NCC patients have seizures/epilepsy, 38% severe headaches, 16% focal deficits and 12% signs of increased intracranial pressure. Several other symptoms happened in less than 10% of patients²⁰.

The seizures and epilepsy are considered the most common manifestations of NCC. In endemic areas, this parasitic disease may count for 29% of acquired epilepsy^{21,22}. They can be associated with psychiatric symptoms. Such associations complicate the management of medications because many psychoactive drugs have the risk of seizures. Psychoactive drugs have to be diligently prescribed in this parasitic disease, considering that the occurrence of seizures can reach 70% to 90% of NCC patients²⁰.

Seizures are signs or symptoms due to excessive or synchronous neuronal activity in the brain²³, while epilepsy involves unprovoked seizures occurring at least 24 hours apart. Provoked seizures have close temporal associations with brain impairments, for example infections, traumas, and intoxications²⁴.

Some authors classify the seizures according to

the evolutionary stages of the parasite in brain images. When seizures are concomitant with inflammation (edema or perilesional enhancement) they should be classified as acute symptomatic seizures²⁵, while recurrent seizures after edema resolution or cyst calcification should be categorized as unprovoked (epilepsy)²⁶. A calcified lesion can reactivate the host immune response, which is characterized by the presence of cyst inflammation and clinical manifestations. Reactivation occurs due to the presence of residual antigens.

There is no consistency in the proportion of types of seizures in patients with NCC. Some researchers associate a higher percentage of focal seizures in single calcified lesions²⁷, while others conclude that generalized seizures are more frequent²⁸.

Although the mechanisms that lead patients to seizure and epilepsy are not completely known, importance has been attributed to histological changes as perilesional gliosis, fibrosis, and edema^{29,30,31}. Particularly if those changes happen in the temporal lobe structures such as the amygdala, the piriform cortex and the hippocampus^{32,33}.

Epileptogenesis in NCC can be related to changes in the blood brain barrier permeability, gliosis, fibrosis, hippocampal lesions, and other factors. Those pathological changes has also been found in association with a diversity of psychiatric diseases^{34,35,36}, suggesting that neurologic and psychiatric manifestation coexist due to similar mechanisms.

Pathologic mechanisms related to neurologic manifestations may underlie the mental changes. The host-parasite interactions (inflammatory and immunologic reactions) are responsible for neuronal damage due to edema, fibrosis, inflammation, cellular infiltrate and calcifications³⁷. The destruction of nervous tissue at the site of implantation by the parasite, and ischemia around larger cysts are other mechanisms of brain injury.

NCC's complications are cerebrovascular sequelae, increased intracranial pressure, meningitis and encephalitis. Motor and sensory deficits occur also due to extracerebral lesions (spinal and ocular locations).

Cerebrovascular complications of NCC include ischemic, lacunar infarcts and hemorrhage. Lesions may also be responsible for paresis or plegias, involuntary movements, gait disturbances, and paresthesias^{38,39,40,41}.

Proportions of death due to NCC range according to age of population and countries of studies.

a) In children in India, frequencies of mortality

ranged from 18.5% (5/27)⁴² to 2.0% (1/50)⁴³; considering that meningoencephalitis and raised intracranial pressure was responsible for higher incidence (18.5%) of death.

b) In children in Mexico, the proportion of death was 1.6% (2/122) due to chronic arachnoiditis⁴⁴.

c) In adults, in Ecuador mortality was 3.2% (1/31), it was associated with hemorrhagic cyst⁴⁵.

d) In Portugal, mortality was 5.3% (2/38 - average age at onset of symptoms was 36 years in the sample)⁴⁶.

e) Mortality was 0.9% (1/112) of patients in Houston, Texas⁴⁷.

Rare presentations related to neurocysticercosis encompasses Bruns syndrome (i.e., hydrocephalus episodic due to cyst movement in ventricular space)⁴⁸, fronto-temporal dementia with mutism⁴⁹, epileptic and psychiatric manifestations of temporal lobe⁵⁰, trigeminal neuralgia⁵¹, and association with Lennox-Gastaut syndrome⁵².

CONCLUSIONS

The multiplicity of brain areas affected by lesions may justify the variety of NCC's clinical manifestations. In addition, signs and symptoms associated with NCC depend on the number and size of lesions, developmental stage of the parasite and the host's immune response.

The manifestations can be associated with potentially fatal conditions, for example arteritis, encephalitis, and hydrocephalus.

The neuropsychiatric manifestations are imputed to brain damage. The host-parasite interactions (inflammatory and immunology reactions) result in histopathological changes such as edema, fibrosis, vascular changes, and gliosis. Those changes happen in neurological and psychiatric disorders, which suggests a common cause for neuropsychiatric manifestation of NCC.

Accurate diagnosis of neurocysticercosis is possible after interpretation of clinical data together with findings of neuroimaging studies and results of immunological tests. Enzyme-linked immunoelectrotransfer blot (EITB) and Enzyme-linked Immunosorbent (ELISA) assay are the tests most frequently used for diagnosis, but they can be positively reactive in patients with taeniasis or cysticercosis.

Treatment guidelines recommend antiparasitic drugs depending on the stage of the illness (e.g. praziquantel, albendazole), steroids (to treat encephalitis and brain edema), and anticonvulsants. Surgical resection is reserved for some cases of hydrocephalus, giant cysts, spinal

and ocular implantations.

Neurocysticercosis is an important cause of acquired epilepsy worldwide. Seizures, psychiatric manifestations and cognitive decline are strong arguments to focus on prevention of this disease, which can be achieved through educational initiatives, early treatment and diagnosis of taeniasis and cysticercosis.

The diversity of neurologic and psychiatric presentations encourages health professionals to add NCC to their list of differential diagnoses, especially in endemic countries.

The low endemicity of *Taenia solium* is consistent with the high index of a long and healthy life, being knowledgeable and having a decent standard of living.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

The map of the endemicity of *Taenia solium* in the World is available on the website:

http://www.who.int/taeniasis/Endemicity_Taenia_Solium_2015.jpg?ua=1

The map of the Human Development Index worldwide is available on the website:

<http://hdr.undp.org/en/countries>

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Author would like to thank the program “Science Without Borders – CAPES – MEC – Brazil”.

REFERENCES

- Singhi P. Pediatric neurocysticercosis: current challenges and future prospects. *Pediatric Health, Medicine and Therapeutics* 2016;7:5-16.
- García HH, Evans CA, Nash TE, Takayanagui OM, White AC, Botero D, Flisser A. Current consensus guidelines for treatment of neurocysticercosis. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2002;15(4): 747-756.
- García HH, Lescano AG, Gonzales I, Bustos JA, Pretell EJ, Horton J, ... Rodriguez S. Cysticidal Efficacy of Combined Treatment With Praziquantel and Albendazole for Parenchymal Brain Cysticercosis. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2016;ciw134.
- Del Brutto OH, Rajshekhkar V, White Jr AC, Tsang VCW, Nash TE, Takayanagui OM, Schantz PM, Evans CAW, Flisser A, Correa D, Botero D, Allan JC, Sarti E, Gonzalez AE, Gilman RH, García HH. Proposed diagnostic criteria for neurocysticercosis. *Neurology* 2001;57(2): 177-183.
- Carpio A, Placencia M, Santillán F, Escobar A. A proposal for classification of neurocysticercosis. *Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences/Journal Canadien des Sciences Neurologiques* 1994;21(01), 43-47.
- Venkat B, Aggarwal N, Makhaik S, Sood R. A comprehensive review of imaging findings in human cysticercosis. *Japanese journal of radiology*, 2016;34(4), 241-257.
- Varghese V, Chandra SR, Christopher R, Rajeswaran J, Prasad C, Subasree R, Issac TG. Cognitive dysfunction and its determinants in patients with neurocysticercosis. *Indian journal of psychological medicine* 2016;38(2), 142.
- Seddighi A, Nikouei A, Sedighi AS, Zali AR, Yourdkhani F, Tabatabaei SM, ... Omidi D. Neurocysticercosis: manifestations, diagnosis and treatment. *International Clinical Neuroscience Journal* 2016;2(4), 121-127.
- Abud LG, Koji T, Abud TG. Cysticerci located in the fourth ventricle causing obstructive hydrocephalus: a radiological emergency requiring prompt diagnosis. *Revista da Sociedade Brasileira de Medicina Tropical* 2016;49(2), 263-263.
- Xiao A, Xiao J, Zhang X, You C. The Surgical Value of Neurocysticercosis: Analyzing 10 Patients in 5 Years. *Turk Neurosurg*, 2016;1.
- Carpio A. Neurocysticercosis: an update. *The Lancet infectious diseases* 2002;2(12), 751-762.
- Almeida SMD, Gurjão SA. Frequency of depression among patients with neurocysticercosis. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria* 2010;68(1), 76-80.
- Forlenza OV, Nobrega JP, dos Ramos Machado L, de Barros NG, de Camargo CH, da Silva MF. Psychiatric manifestations of neurocysticercosis: a study of 38 patients from a neurology clinic in Brazil. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry* 1997;62(6), 612-616.
- de Andrade DC, Rodrigues CL, Abraham R, Castro LHM, Livramento JA, Machado LR, ...Caramelli P. Cognitive impairment and dementia in neurocysticercosis A cross-sectional controlled study. *Neurology* 2010;74(16), 1288-1295
- Jay CA, Ho EL, Halperin J. Infectious causes of dementia. *Non-Alzheimer's and Atypical Dementia* 2016;170-185.
- Kurz C, Schmidt V, Poppert H, Wilkins P, Noh J, Poppert S, ...Winkler AS. An Unusual Presentation of Neurocysticercosis: A Space-Occupying Lesion in the Fourth Ventricle Associated with Progressive Cognitive Decline. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene* 2016;94(1), 172-175.
- Rayment D, Biju M, Zheng R, Kuruvilla T. Neuroimaging in dementia: an update for the general clinician. *Progress in Neurology and Psychiatry* 2016;20(2), 16-20.
- Zhao JL, Lerner A, Shu Z, Gao XJ, Zee CS. Imaging spectrum of neurocysticercosis. *Radiology of Infectious Diseases* 2015;1(2), 94-102.
- Kelley R, Duong DH, Locke GE. Characteristics of ventricular shunt malfunctions among patients with neurocysticercosis. *Neurosurgery* 2002;50(4), 757-762.
- Carabin H, Ndimubanzi PC, Budke CM, Nguyen H, Qian Y, Cowan LD, ... Dickey M. Clinical manifestations associated with neurocysticercosis: a systematic review. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2011;5(5), e1152.
- Mandel S, Biller J, Grogg S. Neurocysticercosis in a Nicaraguan Woman: A Case Report and Disease Overview.. *IJHSR* 2016; 6(2): 394-397.
- Nash TE, García HH. Diagnosis and treatment of neurocysticercosis. *Nature reviews Neurology* 2011; 7(10), 584-594.
- Fisher RS, van Emde Boas W, Blume W, et al. Epileptic seizures and epilepsy: definitions proposed by the International League Against Epilepsy (ILAE) and the International Bureau for Epilepsy (IBE). *Epilepsia* 2005;46:470-472.
- Guidelines for epidemiologic studies on epilepsy. Commission on Epidemiology and Prognosis, International League Against Epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 1993;34:592-596.
- Beghi E, Carpio A, Forsgren L, Hesdorffer DC, Malmgren K, Sander JW, ... Hauser WA. Recommendation for a definition of acute symptomatic seizure. *Epilepsia* 2010;51(4), 671-675.
- Carpio A, Fleury A, Hauser WA. Neurocysticercosis Five new things. *Neurology: Clinical Practice* 2013;3(2), 118-125.
- Murthy JMK, Reddy VS. Clinical characteristics, seizure spread patterns and prognosis of seizures associated with a single small cerebral calcified CT lesion. *Seizure* 1998;7(2), 153-157.
- Mwape KE, Blocher J, Wiefek J, Schmidt K, Dorny P, Praet N, ... Gabriël S. Prevalence of Neurocysticercosis in People with Epilepsy in the Eastern Province of Zambia. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2015;9(8), e0003972.
- Leite JP, Terra-Bustamante VC, Fernandes RM, et al. Calcified neurocysticercotic lesions and postsurgery seizure control in temporal lobe epilepsy. *Neurology* 2000;55:1485-1491.
- Antoniuk SA, Bruck I, Dos Santos LH, et al. Seizures associated with calcifications and edema in neurocysticercosis. *Pediatr Neurol* 2001;25:309-311.
- Rathore C, Thomas B, Kesavadas C, Radhakrishnan K. Calcified neurocysticercosis lesions and hippocampal sclerosis: potential dual pathology? *Epilepsia* 2012;53:60-62.
- Liu YQ, Yu F, Liu WH, He XH, Peng BW. Dysfunction of hippocampal interneurons in epilepsy. *Neuroscience bulletin* 2014;30(6), 985-998.

33. Bianchin MM, Velasco TR, Wichert-Ana L, Araújo D, Alexandre V, Scornavacca F, ... Sakamoto AC. Neuroimaging observations linking neurocysticercosis and mesial temporal lobe epilepsy with hippocampal sclerosis. *Epilepsy research* 2015;116, 34-39.
34. Rupperecht R, Papadopoulos V, Rammes G, Baghai TC, Fan J, Akula N, ... Schumacher M. Translocator protein (18 kDa)(TSPO) as a therapeutic target for neurological and psychiatric disorders. *Nature reviews Drug discovery* 2010;9(12), 971-988.
35. Cotter DR, Pariante CM, Everall IP. Glial cell abnormalities in major psychiatric disorders: the evidence and implications. *Brain research bulletin* 2001;55(5), 585-595.
36. Raison CL, Capuron L, Miller AH. Cytokines sing the blues: inflammation and the pathogenesis of depression. *Trends in immunology* 2006;27(1), 24-31.
37. White Jr AC. Neurocysticercosis: updates on epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnosis, and management. *Annual review of medicine* 2000;51(1), 187-206.
38. Barinagarrementeria F, Del Brutto OH. Lacunar syndrome due to neurocysticercosis. *Archives of neurology* 1989;46(4), 415-417.
39. Barinagarrementeria F, Cantú C. Neurocysticercosis as a cause of stroke. *Stroke* 1992;23(8), 1180-1181.
40. Jha S, Kumar V. Neurocysticercosis presenting as stroke. *Neurol India*. 2000;48(4):391-4.
41. Cantú C, Márquez C, Vega-Boada F, Ramos GG. Hemorrhagic stroke associated to neurocysticercosis. *Neurologia* 2003;18(5), 272-275.
42. Puri V, Sharma DK, Kumar S, Choudhury V, Gupta RK, Khalil A. Neurocysticercosis in children. *Indian Pediatr*, 1991;28(11), 1309-1317.
43. Kalra V, Sethi, A. Childhood Neurocysticercosis-Epidemiology, Diagnosis and Course. *Pediatrics International* 1992;34(3), 365-370.
44. Ruiz-García M, Gonzalez-Astiazaran A, Rueda-Franco F. Neurocysticercosis in children Clinical experience in 122 patients. *Child's Nervous System* 1997;13(11-12), 608-612.
45. Alarcon F, Hidalgo F, Moncayo J, Vinan I, Dueñas G. Cerebral cysticercosis and stroke. *Stroke* 1992; 23(2), 224-228.
46. Monteiro L, Almeida-Pinto J, Stocker A, Sampaio-Silva M. Active neurocysticercosis, parenchymal and extra parenchymal: A study of 38 patients. *Journal of neurology* 1993;241(1), 15-21.
47. Shandera WX, White Jr AC, Chen JC, Diaz P, Armstrong R. Neurocysticercosis in Houston, Texas: a report of 112 cases. *Medicine* 1994;73(1), 37-52.
48. Rodriguez RD, Crestani DNDS, Soares JOD, Franceshini PR, Alves RP, Zimmerman R, ... Barea, LM. Bruns' syndrome and racemose neurocysticercosis: a case report. *Revista da Sociedade Brasileira de Medicina Tropical* 2012;45(2), 269-271.
49. Satler C, Maestro ES, Tomaz C. Frontotemporal dementia and neurocysticercosis: a case report. *Dement. Neuropsychol* 2012;6(1).
50. Costa FADO, Fabião OM, Schmidt FDO, Fontes AT. Neurocysticercosis of the left temporal lobe with epileptic and psychiatric manifestations: case report. *Journal of Epilepsy and Clinical Neurophysiology* 2007;13(4), 183-185.
51. Aguiar PH, Miura FK, Napoli PR, Sendenski M, Rotta JM, Cescato V A, ... Marino Junior R. Neuralgia do trigêmeo bilateral por cisticerco racemoso unilateral no ângulo-ponto cerebelar: relato de caso. *Arq. Neuropsiquiatr* 2000;58(4), 1138-41.
52. Agapejev S, Padula NAR, Morales NMO, Lima MMF. Neurocysticercosis and Lennox-Gastaut syndrome: case report. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria* 2000;58(2B), 538-547.
53. Ndimubanzi PC, Carabin H, Budke CM, Nguyen H, Qian YJ, Rainwater E, ... Stoner JA. A systematic review of the frequency of neurocysticercosis with a focus on people with epilepsy. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2010;4(11), e870.
54. Bouteille B. Epidemiology of cysticercosis and neurocysticercosis. *Med Sante Trop* 2014;24(4):367-74.
55. Nash TE, Mahanty S, Garcia HH. Neurocysticercosis—more than a neglected disease *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2013;7(4), e1964.
56. Takayanagui OM, Leite JP. Neurocysticercosis. *Revista da Sociedade Brasileira de Medicina Tropical* 2001;34(3), 283-290.
57. Rajshekhar V, Joshi DD, Doanh NQ, van De N, Xiaonong Z. Taenia solium taeniosis/cysticercosis in Asia: epidemiology, impact and issues. *Acta tropica* 2003;87(1), 53-60.
58. Zoli A, Shey-Njila O, Assana E, Nguekam JP, Dorny P, Brandt J, Geerts S. Regional status, epidemiology and impact of Taenia solium cysticercosis in Western and Central Africa. *Acta tropica* 2003;87(1), 35-42.
59. Fabiani S, Bruschi F. Neurocysticercosis in Europe: Still a public health concern not only for imported cases. *Acta tropica* 2013;128(1), 18-26.
60. Willingham AL, Engels D. Control of Taenia solium cysticercosis/taeniosis. *Advances in parasitology* 2006;61, 509-566.
61. O'Neal SE, Flecker RH. Hospitalization frequency and charges for neurocysticercosis, United States, 2003–2012. *Emerging infectious diseases* 2015;21(6), 969.
62. Del Brutto OH. A review of cases of human cysticercosis in Canada. *The Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences* 2012;39(03), 319-322.
63. Sarti E, Schantz PM, Plancarte A, Wilson M, Gutiérrez I, Lopez A, Roberts J, Flisser A. Prevalence and risk factors for Taenia solium taeniosis and cysticercosis in humans and pigs in a village in Morelos, Mexico. *Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg.* 1992;46: 677-684.
64. Flisser A, Sarti E, Lightowler M, Schantz P. Neurocysticercosis: regional status, epidemiology, impact and control measures in the Americas. *Acta tropica* 2003;87(1), 43-51.
65. Fleury A, Morales J, Bobes RJ, Dumas M, Yáñez O, Piña J, ... Larralde C. An epidemiological study of familial neurocysticercosis in an endemic Mexican community. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 2006;100(6), 551-558.
66. Trevisol-Bittencourt PC, Silva NCD, Figueiredo R. Neurocysticercose em pacientes internados por epilepsia no Hospital Regional de Chapecó-região oeste do Estado de Santa Catarina. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr* 1998;56(Supl 1), 53-58.
67. Lino Jr RS, Reis MA, Teixeira V. Occurrence of encephalic and cardiac cysticercosis (*Cysticercus cellulosae*) in necropsy. *Revista de saúde pública* 1999;33(5), 495-498.
68. Valença MM, Valença PAA. Etiology of the epileptic seizures in Recife City, Brazil: study of 249 patients. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria* 2000;58(4), 1064-1072.
69. Agapejev S. Clinical and epidemiological aspects of neurocysticercosis in Brazil: a critical approach. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria* 2003;61(3B), 822-828.
70. Srivastava S, Chadda RK, Bala K, Majumdar P. A study of neuropsychiatric manifestations in patients of neurocysticercosis. *Indian journal of psychiatry* 2013;55(3), 264.
71. Prasad R, Mishra OP, Upadhyay SK, Singh TB, Singh UK. Cognitive and Behaviour Dysfunction of Children with Neurocysticercosis: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Journal of tropical pediatrics* 2014;fmu029.
72. Varma A, Gaur KJ. The clinical spectrum of neurocysticercosis in the Uttaranchal region. *The Journal of the Association of Physicians of India* 2002;50, 1398-1400.
73. Monedero CG, García RP, Carrasco MM, Costi GC, Cañas MF. Effective response to risperidone treatment in manic syndrome secondary to neurocysticercosis. *Actas luso-espanolas de neurologia, psiquiatria y ciencias afines* 1996;25(6), 417-419.
74. Chakraborty S, Singi SR, Pradhan G, Subramanya HA. Neuro-cysticercosis presenting with single delusion: A rare psychiatric manifestation. *International Journal of Applied and Basic Medical Research* 2014;4(2), 131.
75. Bhatia B, Mishra S, Srivastava AS. Neurocysticercosis presenting as schizophrenia: A case report. *Indian journal of psychiatry* 1994;36(4), 187.
76. Capitão CG. Changes in Personality Caused by Neurocysticercosis. *Psychology* 2016;7(1), 92.
77. Del Brutto OH, Santibanez R, Noboa CA, Aguirre R, Diaz E, Alarcon TA. Epilepsy due to neurocysticercosis Analysis of 203 patients. *Neurology* 1992;42(2), 389-389.
78. Fogang YF, Camara M, Diop AG, Ndiaye MM. Cerebral neurocysticercosis mimicking or comorbid with episodic migraine?. *BMC neurology* 2014;14(1), 138.
79. Lobato RD, Lamas E, Portillo JM, Roger R, Esparza J, Rivas JJ, Muñoz MJ. Hydrocephalus in cerebral cysticercosis: pathogenic and therapeutic considerations. *Journal of neurosurgery* 1981;55(5), 786-793.
80. Rocha MSG, Brucki SMD, Ferraz AC, Piccolo AC. Cerebrovascular disease and neurocysticercosis. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria* 2001;59(3B), 778-783.
81. Hackius M, Pangalu A, Semmler A. Isolated spinal neurocysticercosis. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry* 2014;jnnp-2013.
82. Cárdenas G, Guevara-Silva E, Romero F, Ugalde Y, Bonnet C, Fleury A, ... Mahadevan A. Spinal Taenia solium cysticercosis in Mexican and Indian patients: a comparison of 30-year experience in two neurological referral centers and review of literature. *European Spine Journal* 2015;1-9.
83. Noguera EMS, Sic RP, Solis FE. Intramedullary spinal cord neurocysticercosis presenting as Brown-Séquard syndrome. *BMC neurology* 2015;15(1), 1.
84. Zada G, Lopes MBS, Mukundan Jr S, Laws Jr E. Neurocysticercosis of the Sellar Region. In *Atlas of Sellar and Parasellar Lesions*. Springer Interna-

- tional Publishing, 2016, pp. 419-422.
85. Huang LC, Sridhar J. Papilledema From Intraventricular Neurocysticercosis. *JAMA neurology* 2015;72(7), 831-831.
 86. Song TJ, Suh SH, Cho H, Lee KY. Claude's syndrome associated with neurocysticercosis. *Yonsei medical journal*, 2010; 51(6), 978-979.
 87. Dametto E. Histopathology of the Human Brain in Neurocysticercosis. *J Mol Histol Med Physiol*, 2016;1: 106.
 88. Pamplona J, Braz A, Conceição C, Rios C, Reis J. A rare case of racemose neurocysticercosis and its complications. Case report. *The neuroradiology journal*, 2015; 28(4), 418-420.
 89. Kim SW, Kim MK, Oh SM, Park SH. Racemose cysticercosis in the cerebellar hemisphere. *Journal of Korean Neurosurgical Society*, 2010; 48(1), 59-61.
 90. de Lima PM, Munhoz RP, Teive HA. Reversible parkinsonism associated with neurocysticercosis. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria*, 2012; 70(12), 965-966.

Table 1. Epidemiology of NCC

Locations		Authors
	The frequency of NNC ranged from 0.2% to 52% worldwide, and its association with epilepsy ranged from 0.11% to 1.32%.	[53]
Worldwide	World Health Organization estimates 50 million cases worldwide, it causes about 50,000 deaths each year.	[54]
	NCC causes approximately 5 million cases of epilepsy in the world.	[55]
Latin America	It was estimated infection in about 350,000 individuals, in Latin America.	[56]
Asia	NCC was the cause of epilepsy in up to 50% of Indian patients presenting with partial seizures. It was also a major cause of epilepsy in Bali (Indonesia), Vietnam and possibly China and Nepal.	[57]
West Africa	In Togo and Benin, the prevalence of cysticercosis was 2.4% and 1.3%, respectively.	[58]
Central Africa	Human cysticercosis was characterized as endemic in Rwanda, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Cameroon. Cysticercosis shown to be one of the major causes of epilepsy in Cameroon with figures as high as 44.6%.	[58]
	Cysticercosis was present in 7% of 300 autopsies carried out in a region of Butare.	[58]
Europe	Cases of NCC was 176 in 17 European countries (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Netherlands, Sweden, United Kingdom, and Croatia, Norway, Switzerland). A particular epidemic situation was described in Spain and Portugal.	[59]
United States of America	NC has emerged as a serious public health problem.	[60]
	Data in the Nationwide Inpatient Sample for 2003–2012 estimated 18,584 hospitalizations for NCC (charges >US \$908 million). The hospitalization was highest among Hispanics. The charges to cysticercosis exceeded those for malaria and were greater than for other neglected tropical diseases combined.	[61]
Canada	Literature reported 60 cases, in the past two decades.	[62]
Mexico	Cysticercosis was present in 2.4% of autopsies in Mexico (n. 20,026).	[63]
	Serological studies revealed infection rate from 4.9 to 12.2% for human cysticercosis, in rural areas, the prevalence was 9.1% as determined by CT.	[64, 65]
Brazil	Prevalence of NCC was approximately 24% in individuals hospitalized for diagnosis of epilepsy in Chapecó/SC	[66]
	In Uberaba-MG, cysticercosis frequency in autopsies was 3.3%, the brain location was 79.2% (n. 53, age 15-86 years).	[67]
	Percentage of NCC was 5.1% in patients with epileptic seizures, in Recife City.	[68]
	Brazilian literature showed incidence of 1.5% in autopsies and 3.0% in clinical trials.	[69]

Table 2. Psychiatric manifestations of NCC

Manifestations		Authors
Depression	Percentage of depression was higher than in the general population, as follows: NCC with epilepsy (83%), NCC without epilepsy (88%), sample size 65 patients.	[12]
	Depression was the most frequent psychiatric diagnosis (52.6%), in a sample of 38 patients.	[13]
Mixed anxiety and depression	These diseases were the most common in 50 patients with NCC and epilepsy, compared to 50 patients with epilepsy only. Psychiatric disorders had frequency of 68% in patients with NCC and epilepsy, compared to 44% of those only with epilepsy. Left sided lesions had greater psychiatric morbidity.	[70]
Decline in cognitive function	Decline in cognitive function was present in older children with NCC, sample size 83 patients.	[71]
Dementia	Dementia was found in 1.3% of NCC patients, sample size 592.	[72]
Manic syndrome	Case report of manic syndrome secondary to NCC was responsive to risperidone.	[73]
Psychotic symptoms	Case report of NCC presenting as delusion.	[74]
Schizophrenia	Case report of NCC presenting as schizophrenia.	[75]
Personality changes	Case report with negative self-evaluation, low self-esteem, feelings of shame directed to the diagnosis of the NCC.	[76]

Table 3. Neurologic manifestations of NCC

Manifestations		Authors
Seizure and epilepsy	Seizures were generalized in 121 patients and partial in 82. CT showed parenchymal brain calcifications in 53 patients and cysts in 150. Use of anticysticercal drugs improved seizure control.	[77]
Headache	Headaches occur: a. as migraine and tension-type, b. as result of increased intracranial pressure.	[78]
Sensory-motor Deficits	Focal deficits were the third most frequent manifestation, behind seizures or epilepsy and headache, in a systematic review.	[20]
Hydrocephalus	The majority of patients presented with a chronic and relatively normotensive hydrocephalus, in a sample of 11 patients. Impairment of CSF flow required permanent CSF shunting. Exceptionally, one cyst was removed by surgery.	[79]
Cerebrovascular disease	It was reported three cases of stroke secondary to neurocysticercosis. MRI demonstrated cortical and subcortical infarction areas and cisternal cysts. Angiographic showed arteritis of basilar and carotid arterial system. Infarcts happened in small arteries in most cases, but middle cerebral and carotid arteries can be affected.	[80]
Spinal cord lesions	In the spinal regions cervical and lumbosacral was found cystic lesions, in a patient. Anthelmintic and anti-inflammatory treatment was initiated with albendazol (2x400 mg/day) and steroids (prednisone 60 mg/day) for 4 weeks. The patient was retreated.	[81]
	Spinal cysticercosis presented mainly with motor symptoms (21/27 patients): paraparesis and paraplegia were the most common signs; one-third of patients had sphincter dysfunction.	[82]
	Intramedullary spinal cord neurocysticercosis presenting as Brown-Séquard syndrome, i.e. , paralysis and loss of proprioception on the same side as the lesion, and loss of pain and temperature sensation on the contralateral side.	[83]
Neuroendocrine syndromes	The signs of cysticercosis in the sellar region include headache, vision loss, hypopituitarism, seizures, and meningitis.	[84]
Papilledema	Case report of papilledema due to NCC in brain ventricle.	[85]
Claude's syndrome	Case report due to NCC lesion in the midbrain characterized by contralateral hemiataxia and oculomotor cranial nerve palsy.	[86]
Chronic inflammation in the brain tissue	The main histological alterations in neurocysticercosis are edema, perivascular infiltrate, gliosis, fibrosis, granulomatosis and calcification. Chronic inflammatory reaction are responsible for NCC alterations in the human brain.	[87]
Loss of vision and ataxia	Case report of non-communicating hydrocephalus with headaches, ataxia and loss of vision due to intraventricular cyst.	[88]
Dizziness and ataxic gait	Case report of a rare racemose cysticercose in the cerebellar hemisphere.	[89]
Parkinsonism	A patient with parkinsonism secondary to NCC. Scans showed edema in the midbrain. Parkinsonism symptoms were exacerbated after albendazole treatment. Symptoms improved after methylprednisolone pulse therapy for 5 days, and levodopa/carbidopa for eight months.	[90]