# An Up-to-Date Review on Guillain-Barre Syndrome

Harpreet Singh<sup>1\*</sup>, Asheesh Kumar Gupta<sup>1</sup>, Arvind Kumar<sup>1</sup>, Amrita Mishra<sup>1</sup>, Abhishek Sharma<sup>2</sup>, Arun Kumar Mishra<sup>2</sup>, Vikas Kumar Chaudhari<sup>3</sup>

# ABSTRACT

Guillain–Barré syndrome (GBS) is an infrequent acute paralytic polyneuropathy that impacts around one in every 1 lakh people. It can affect both children and adults. GBS is an autoimmune condition of the peripheral nervous system that is developed due to an immune-mediated response to antigens that react with the myelin sheath of peripheral nerves, causing demyelination and/or axonal injury. In serious conditions, GBS can cause respiratory failure and even death also. The treatment with intravenous immunoglobulin and/or plasmapheresis, with an aim to neutralize and dispose the circulating antibodies from the bloodstream, respectively, in addition to supportive measures to maintain motor function of nervous system is presently available.

**Keywords:** Acute paralytic polyneuropathy, Demyelination, Guillain–Barre Syndrome, Peripheral nerves *Asian Pac. J. Health Sci.*, (2022); DOI: 10.21276/apjhs.2022.9.45.45

## INTRODUCTION

Guillain–Barré syndrome (GBS) is a condition, in which the immune system attacks the peripheral nervous system. This can also be defined as a monophasic, immune-mediated polyneuropathy with an acute onset that often occurs after an antecedent infection.<sup>[1]</sup> GBS is a common cause of acute flaccid paralysis characterized by symmetrical weakness of the limbs and hyporeflexia or areflexia that lasts for 4 weeks.<sup>[2]</sup> Sensory symptoms such as numbness or paresthesia usually begin distally and follow a symmetrical pattern.<sup>[3]</sup> Acute inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy and acute motor axonal neuropathy are the two most common subtypes of GBS. Miller–Fischer syndrome, characterized by ophthalmoplegia, ataxia, and areflexia, is a less common subtype of GBS.<sup>[4]</sup>

GBS is most commonly caused by an infectious disease that causes the immune system to produce antibodies that react with gangliosides on nerve membranes.<sup>[5]</sup> This autoimmune response causes nerve damage or blockade. *Campylobacter jejuni* is the most common pathogen that is considered to cause signs and symptoms of GBS.<sup>[6]</sup>

GBS is currently treated with intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIg) and plasma exchange, both of which have been shown to be effective. Despite these treatment options, many patients continue to experience severe disease, pain, and residual deficits.<sup>[7]</sup>

In the present review, the team of authors focused on the history, epidemiology, causes, pathogenesis, signs and symptoms, diagnosis, therapeutic strategy of GBS, and the life after GBS.

# HISTORY

The clinical features of GBS were determined in 1859.<sup>[8]</sup> In some cases of peripheral neuropathy, lymphocytic inflammation of the nerve was described by Eichorst in 1877 and Leyden in 1880.<sup>[9]</sup> The characteristic cerebrospinal fluid findings of increased protein concentration and normal cell count in two French soldiers were described by Guillain, Barre, and Strohl in 1916.<sup>[10]</sup> Haymaker and Kernohan described the clinical and histopathological features of 50 fatal cases of GBS in 1949, including inflammatory changes of the peripheral nerve.<sup>[11]</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Research Laboratory, School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, IFTM University, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India.

<sup>2</sup>Central Facility of Instrumentation, Pharmacy Academy, IFTM University, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India.

<sup>3</sup>Department of Pharmacy, Rajkiran College of Pharmacy, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India.

Corresponding Author: Dr. Harpreet Singh, School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, IFTM University, Lodhipur-Rajput, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India. Mobile: +91-8865934783. E-mail: harpreetproctor@rediffmail.com

How to cite this article: Singh H, Gupta AK, Kumar A, Mishra A, Sharma A, Mishra AK, Chaudhari VK. An Up-to-Date Review on Guillain–Barre Syndrome. Asian Pac. J. Health Sci., 2022;9(4S):233-237. Source of support: Nil

Conflicts of interest: None.

Received: 04/04/2022 Revised: 05/05/2022 Accepted: 27/05/2022

In the mid-1950s, Waksman and Adams used homologous or heterologous peripheral nerve tissue combined with Freund adjuvant to induce experimental allergic neuritis in animals.<sup>[12]</sup>

Plasma exchange was discovered to be an effective treatment in the 1980s, and intravenous immunoglobulin efficacy was demonstrated in the 1990s (IVIg).<sup>[13]</sup>

#### **E**PIDEMIOLOGY

An annual incidence rate of GBS has increased with age (0.06/100,000 in children and 27/100,000 in elderly people aged 80 and up), and males are slightly more prone than females to develop this disease.<sup>[14]</sup> Seasonal variations have been reported, presumably due to changes in infectious antecedents, but these findings are rarely statistically significant.<sup>[15]</sup> In the past 5 years, reports from a variety of geographic areas have been published, indicating that the disorder's local incidence rate may be higher in some areas, possibly due to higher rates of infectious organism exposure. There have been several outbreaks of GBS, the most recent of which was linked to *C. jejuni* infections. The disorder can affect multiple family members, but this is unusual and could be due to a coincidence, a common antecedent infectious history, or unknown heritable factors.<sup>[16]</sup>

<sup>©2022</sup> The Author(s). This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/ licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Similarly, only a small percentage of infected people (roughly one percent) will mount the specific humoral immune response that causes GBS in *C. jejuni* outbreaks. Overall, the estimated lifetime risk of developing GBS for any individual is less than one in 1000, based on the incidence rate and life expectancy.<sup>[16]</sup>

## CAUSES

The exact cause of GBS is not known. It can be triggered by a variety of infections, the most common of which is a respiratory infection that causes cold or influenza-like symptoms such as fever, runny nose, cough, and generalized aches and pains.<sup>[17]</sup> Reports are there as following infection with the Zika virus and COVID-19 virus. There is no link between the severity of symptoms and the development of GBS; a person is just as likely to develop the syndrome after a minor flu-like episode as they are after a severe one.<sup>[18]</sup>

The specific infectious organism is rarely identified, partly because the infection has usually subsided by the time GBS manifests, and partly because most doctors do not bother to look for it.<sup>[19]</sup>

Microorganisms that cause respiratory illness and can then trigger GBS include *Cytomegalovirus* and an unusual bacterium called *Mycoplasma*.<sup>[20]</sup>

Gastroenteritis is the second most common antecedent illness that causes diarrhea, nausea, and vomiting.<sup>[21]</sup> Again, the exact identity of the infecting organism is usually unknown, but infection with *C. jejuni*, a common food contaminant, is the most frequently identified cause when thoroughly investigated.<sup>[22]</sup>

The Epstein–Barr virus, which causes infectious mononucleosis, can also be a trigger. The virus that causes acquired immune deficiency syndrome that has been linked to GBS. It usually occurs in the early stages of human immunodeficiency virus infection, before the immune system has been severely compromised; it can happen as soon as a few weeks after the initial infection.<sup>[23]</sup>

# **RISK FACTORS**

GBS can affect people of all ages. However, the risk increases with age. Males are more likely to suffer from it. Infection with campylobacter, a type of bacteria commonly found in undercooked poultry, influenza virus, cytomegalovirus, Epstein–Barr virus, Zika virus, hepatitis A, B, C, and E, HIV, the virus that causes AIDS, Mycoplasma pneumonia, surgery, trauma, Hodgkin's lymphoma, influenza vaccinations or childhood vaccinations, COVID-19 virus can all cause GBS.<sup>[16]</sup>

#### COMPLICATIONS

GBS wreaks havoc on the patients' nerves. People with GBS may experience the symptoms such as the weakness or paralysis can spread to the breathing muscles, which can be fatal. Up to 22% of people with GBS require temporary breathing assistance from a machine within the 1<sup>st</sup> week of being hospitalized for treatment. The majority of GBS patients recover completely or have only minor residual weakness, numbness, or tingling. GBS is known to cause blood pressure fluctuations and irregular heart rhythms (cardiac arrhythmias).<sup>[24]</sup> One-third of GBS patients experience severe nerve pain, which can be alleviated with medication. GBS can cause sluggish bowel function and urinary retention. People who are unable to move as a result of GBS are at risk of developing blood clots. Taking blood thinners and wearing support stockings may be advised until you are able to walk independently. Being immobile also increases the chances of developing bedsores (pressure sores). Frequent repositioning may aid in avoiding this issue.<sup>[2]</sup>

## **P**ATHOGENESIS

GBS is thought to be an immune-mediated demyelinating neuropathy with an acute onset in the majority of cases. Approximately two-thirds of cases are preceded by an acute influenza-like illness from which the patient has recovered by the time the neuropathy manifests. GBS is linked to infections with *C. jejuni, Cytomegalovirus, Epstein–Barr virus,* and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, as well as prior vaccination.<sup>[25]</sup>

There has been no evidence of an infectious agent in the affected nerves, so an immunologic reaction is the most likely cause. By immunizing experimental animals with a peripheral nerve myelin protein, a similar inflammatory disease of the peripheral nerves can be reproduced.<sup>[26]</sup>

Activated macrophages cause segmental demyelination, which triggers a T-cell-mediated immune response. When these T-cells are transferred to a naive animal, the lesions are similar. Furthermore, lymphocytes from people with GBS have been shown to cause demyelination in myelinated nerve fiber tissue cultures. Antibodies in the bloodstream that reacts with peripheral nerve components could also play a role.<sup>[27]</sup>

#### SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS

GBS can be triggered by a variety of infections, the most common of which is a respiratory infection that causes cold or influenza-like symptoms such as fever, runny nose, cough, and generalized aches and pains; pinprickling or needle sensations in distal areas such as the fingers, toes, and ankles; weakness in the lower extremities that spreads to the upper body; inability to walk or climb stairs, as well as difficulties with facial movements, speaking, chewing, and swallowing; dual vision and erroneous eye movement; severe pain that may be achy, shooting, or cramping in nature, and that is worse at night; difficulties with bladder or bowel function; tachycardia; low or high blood pressure; and difficulty in breathing.<sup>[17]</sup>

Some of them are discussed in detail:

# **MUSCLE DEFICIENCY**

Damage to the motor nerves that connect the brain to the muscles cause weakness, which is usually the most prominent clinical feature of GBS. Weakness usually starts in the legs and is symmetrical, affecting both sides of the body equally, though there may be some differences from side to side.<sup>[28]</sup>

A stroke, on the other hand, usually affects only one side of the body, resulting in weakness.<sup>[29]</sup> The distal muscles (the parts of the limbs farthest from the spinal cord) are the most affected in some people.<sup>[30]</sup> The muscles closest to the spinal cord (proximal muscles) are weaker in others.<sup>[31]</sup> GBS affects roughly half of the population, causing weakness in both the proximal and distal muscles. Their thighs, legs, ankles, and feet all weaken at the same time, causing their legs to become limp and flaccid.<sup>[32]</sup>

#### **A**BNORMAL **S**ENSATIONS

Although weakness is usually the most noticeable symptom of GBS, abnormal sensations are frequently the first symptoms, appearing

hours to days before weakness.<sup>[33]</sup> Sensory symptoms affect 50–70% of GBS patients, and they can take many different forms.<sup>[34]</sup> Paresthesias are a type of abnormal sensation. They are referred to as dysesthesias if they are particularly unpleasant.<sup>[35]</sup> Paresthesias include sensations such as pins and needles or tingling. Numbness or loss of sensation is also common complaints, but they are less common.<sup>[36]</sup> The toes, feet, or fingers are usually the parts of the limbs farthest from the spinal cord that experiences these sensations.<sup>[37]</sup>

## PAIN

GBS is a condition, in which the paralysis is so severe that it overshadows all other symptoms.<sup>[38]</sup> Pain is an unavoidable part of the disease, but it is not always given the attention it deserves.<sup>[39]</sup> Pain has been reported in more than 80% of people with GBS in some studies.<sup>[40]</sup>

Doctors frequently overlook and undertreat it, particularly in the early stages of awareness, but it can be detected through a neurologic examination. In rare cases, there may be a loss of sensation or an abnormal sensation with little or no weakness.<sup>[41]</sup>

# DIAGNOSIS

The clinical features of acutely evolving weakness and loss of reflexes following an antecedent illness, such as an upper respiratory tract infection or diarrhea, are used to diagnose GBS.<sup>[42]</sup>

Electrophysiologic studies and cerebrospinal fluid examinations, which are obtained through spinal tap, are the most commonly used diagnostic tests (lumbar puncture). The results of these tests are usually positive, confirming the clinical suspicion. If the diagnosis is still in doubt, additional tests may be required to rule out the possibility of another disease masquerading as GBS.<sup>[43]</sup>

GBS and its variants are diagnosed using electrodiagnostic testing of nerves and muscles. Furthermore, the tests can provide a prognosis estimate. The doctor can usually make a working diagnosis of GBS based on the patient's history and physical findings. A definitive diagnosis, on the other hand, is required for treatment planning, prognosis, and proper treatment. Given the risk of respiratory failure and the possibility of hastening recovery with appropriate immune-modulating therapies, it is critical to get a correct diagnosis as soon as possible so that treatment can begin in a timely and appropriate manner.<sup>[44]</sup>

Obviously, a person suffers from tick paralysis, arsenic poisoning, or another disorder that resembles GBS should not be treated as if they have the disease. A doctor, on the other hand, would not want to manage a person with GBS anywhere other than an intensive care unit.<sup>[45]</sup>

Nerve function testing can be performed in a variety of settings, including the emergency room and the intensive care unit, but it is most commonly done in a specialized laboratory. As soon as the test is finished, the results are available. The results of the electromyographic and nerve conduction studies can confirm that GBS is the correct diagnosis and rule out other causes of acutely developing weakness. Testing procedures available till date are safe and non-invasive. As a result, when a person is suspected of having GBS, electrical testing is the next step in the diagnostic process.<sup>[46]</sup>

# THERAPEUTIC STRATEGY

GBS is treated with a multi-disciplinary approach that includes both general medical treatment and immunological therapies. To avoid or manage complications, respiratory, cardiac, and hemodynamic function must be monitored, as well as prophylaxis for deep vein thrombosis, management of possible bladder and bowel dysfunction, early initiation of physiotherapy and rehabilitation, and psychosocial support. Furthermore, pain control with opioids or non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs is critical.<sup>[47]</sup>

Applicable treatments:

- Plasma exchange therapy (plasmapheresis): The liquid portion of the blood (plasma) is extracted and separated from the blood cells. The blood cells are then reintroduced into the body of the donor, which produces more plasma to compensate for what was lost. Plasmapheresis may work by removing antibodies from plasma that contributes to the immune system's attack on peripheral nerves.<sup>[48]</sup>
- Immunoglobulin therapy: A vein is used to administer immunoglobulin containing healthy antibodies from blood donors (intravenously). Immunoglobulin at high doses can block the damaging antibodies that may contribute to GBS.<sup>[49]</sup>

# THE GBS AND LIFE AFTER IT

Patients who do not fully recover may experience pain, neuropathic pain, overuse pain, fatigue, emotional issues, and abnormal sensations. Pain is an underappreciated symptom of GBS that can last for years. It could be neuropathic pain or pain caused by overuse of muscles that have not fully recovered. During the paralytic stage of the illness, pain is also present.<sup>[50]</sup>

Pain is a vital defense mechanism that protects us from harming ourselves. When you put your hand in a flame, skin receptors detect the heat and quickly send the information to the brain, allowing the hand to be withdrawn before serious injury occurs. Nociceptive pain is the term for this type of physiologic pain. However, any neuropathic disease, including GBS, can damage the nerve fibers that transmit these messages in a normal situation, resulting in neuropathic pain.<sup>[51]</sup>

Persistent residual fatigue is one of the most common complaints of GBS patients following an acute paralytic illness, but it has received very little research attention; most early studies on the ultimate outcome of GBS do not even mention it.<sup>[52]</sup> Many of these studies are based on phone interviews or chart reviews conducted long after the patient has been discharged from the neurologist's care, and minor complaints may have been overlooked.<sup>[53]</sup>

Patients who are suffering from the aftereffects of the acute illness, such as weakness, pain, and fatigue, may also develop depression. Despite constant assurances that the disease almost never returns, anxiety about a possible recurrence is common. These concerns are shared by the patient and his or her entire family. Financial difficulties may have arisen as a result of the illness and may last for years, particularly if the patient has been unable to return to work.<sup>[54]</sup>

As they recover from GBS paralysis and become more active, some patients notice that continued activity, such as walking, causes abnormal sensations, such as tingling in the toes or fingers, and that continued activity causes fatigue and even collapse.<sup>[55]</sup> These unusual sensations serve as an early warning sign of impending exhaustion. This type of warning should be used by the patient as a cue to sit down and rest. The tingling and fatigue usually go away with time.<sup>[56]</sup>

# CONCLUSION

GBS is an immunocompromised pathological state, in which peripheral nerves are mainly affected. It happens rarely around the globe by a rate of about 0.1%. A mix infection of virus and bacteria in the upper respiratory tract are involved. GBS is an immunological issue therefore; immunoglobulin therapy, as well as medicines for symptomatic relief is advised for effective treatment.

# ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors are thankful to the Management IFTM University for providing necessary infrastructure to carry out the review work.

## REFERENCES

- Hardy TA, Blum S, McCombe PA, Reddel SW. Guillain-Barré syndrome: Modern theories of etiology. Curr Allergy Asthma Rep 2011;11:197-204.
- Berg VD, Walgaard C, Drenthen J, Fokke C, Jacobs BC, Doorn PA. Guillain Barré syndrome: Pathogenesis, diagnosis, treatment and prognosis. Nat Rev Neurol 2014;10:469-82.
- 3. Windebank AJ, Grisold W. Chemotherapy-induced neuropathy. J Peripheral Nerv Syst 2008;13:27-46.
- Dash S, Pai AR, Kamath U, Rao P. Pathophysiology and diagnosis of guillance Barre Syndrom-challenges and needs. Int J Neurosci 2015;125:235-40.
- Rodríguez Y, Rojas M, Pacheco Y, Acosta-Ampudia Y, Ramírez-Santana C, Monsalve DM, *et al*. Guillain Barré syndrome, transverse myelitis and infectious diseases. Cell Mol Immunol 2018;15:547-62.
- Jacobs BC, Rothbarth PH, Van der Meché FG, Herbrink P, Schmitz PI, De Klerk MA, Van Doorn PA. The spectrum of antecedent infections in Guillain-Barré syndrome: A case-control study. Neurol 1998;51:1110-5.
- Nayeem A, Mohammad QD, Susan ZS. A systematic review on immunotherapy for Guillain-Barre syndrome. J Banglad Coll Physic Surg 2022;40:57-64.
- Solanki C, Chitroda H, Jethloja H, Parmar F, Raichura R, Rana J, *et al.* Factor affecting recovery after Guillain-Barre syndrome: A narrative review. IP Ind J Lib Sci Infor Tech 2022;6:97-101.
- 9. Eichhorst H. Neuritis acuta progressiva. Virchows Arch Pathol Anat 1877; 67: 265-274.
- Haymaker W, Kernohan JW. The Landry-Guillain-Barre syndrome. A clinicopathologic report of fifty fatal cases and a critique of the literature. Medicine (Baltimore) 1949; 28: 59-1.
- 11. Guillain G, Barré JA, Strohl A. Sur un syndrome de radiculo-névrite avec hyperalbuminose du liquide céphalo-rachidien sans réaction cellulaire. Remarques sur les caractéres cliniques et graphiques des réflexes tendineux. Bull Soc Méd Hôp Paris 1916; 40: 1462-470.
- 12. Burns TM. Guillain-Barré syndrome. Semin Neurol 2008;28:152-67.
- Gürses N, Uysal S, Çetinkaya F, Işek I, Kalayci AG. Intravenous immunoglobulin treatment in children with Guillain-Barré syndrome. Scand J Infect Dis 1995;27:241-3.
- Sejvar JJ, Baughman AL, Wise M, Morgan OW. Population incidence of Guillain-Barré syndrome: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Neuroepidemiology 2011;36:123-33.
- 15. Willison HJ, Jacobs BC, Van-Doorn PA. Guillain-Barré syndrome. Lancet 2016;388:717-27.
- 16. Nachamkin I, Allos BM, Ho T. Campylobacter species and Guillain-Barré syndrome. Clin Microbio Rev 1998;11:555-67.
- 17. Parry GJ, Steinberg JS. Guillain-Barre Syndrome: From Diagnosis to Recovery. United States: Demos Medical Publishing; 2007.

- Kuitwaard K, Koningsveld R, Ruts L, Jacobs BC, Van Doorn PA. Recurrent Guillain-Barré syndrome. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2009;80:56-9.
- 19. Schneider SA, Hennig A, Martino D. Relationship between COVID-19 and movement disorders: A narrative review. Eur J Neurol 2022;29:1243-53.
- Laman JD, Huizinga R, Boons GJ, Jacobs BC. Guillain-Barré syndrome: Expanding the concept of molecular mimicry. Trends Immunol 2022;43:296-308.
- 21. Ooi ST, Lorber B. Gastroenteritis due to listeria monocytogenes. Clin Infect Dis 2015;40:1327-32.
- 22. Lacey RW. Food-borne bacterial infections. Parasitology 1993;107:S75-93.
- 23. Houen G, Trier NH. Epstein-Barr virus and systemic autoimmune diseases. Front Immunol 2021;11:587380.
- 24. Castillo MS. Physical therapy differential diagnosis for a patient with viral central nervous system infection in acute care: A case study. Philippine J Phys Ther 2022;1:1-13.
- 25. Dimachkie MM, Barohn RJ. Guillain-Barré syndrome and variants. Neurol Clin 2013;31:491-510.
- Wekerle H, Lassmann H. The immunology of inflammatory demyelinating disease. In: McAlpines Multiple Sclerosis. London: Churchill Livingstone, Elsevier; 2006. p. 491-555.
- 27. Yang M, Peyret C, Shi XQ, Siron N, Jang JH, Wu S, *et al.* Evidence from human and animal studies: Pathological roles of CD8(+) T Cells in autoim periph neuropat. Front Immunol 2015;6:532.
- 28. Donofrio PD. Guillain-Barré syndrome. Continuum (Minneap Minn) 2017;23:1295-309.
- 29. Craig BT, Kinney-Lang E, Hilderley AJ, Carlson HL, Kirton A. Structural connectivity of the sensorimotor network within the non-lesioned hemisphere of children with perinatal stroke. Sci Rep 2022;12:1-12.
- Martin JH. Neuroplasticity of spinal cord injury and repair. In: Handbook of Clinical Neurology. Vol. 184. Netherlands: Elsevier; 2022. p. 317-30.
- 31. Watanabe D, Tsukamoto H, Abe T, Kitao R, Okuma A, Mihara M, *et al.* Ultrasonographic evaluation reveals thinning of cervical nerve roots and peripheral nerves in spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy. Neurol Sci 2022;42:1-8.
- 32. Cheng Y, Liu K, Li C, Zhang W, Wu X, Fang S. Risk factors for mechanical ventilation in patients with Guillain-Barré syndrome. Neurocrit Care 2022;1:1-8.
- 33. Ropper AH, Shahani BT. Pain in Guillain-Barré syndrome. Arch Neurol 1984;41:511-4.
- 34. Esposito S, Longo MR. Guillain-Barré syndrome. Autoimmun Rev 2017:16:96-101.
- Elian N, Mitsias M, Eskow R, Jalbout ZN, Cho SC, Froum S, et al. Unexpected return of sensation following 4.5 years of paresthesia: Case report. Implant Dent 2005;14:364-70.
- Christogianni A, Bibb R, Davis SL, Jay O, Barnett M, Evangelou N, et al. Temperature sensitivity in multiple sclerosis: An overview of its impact on sensory and cognitive symptoms. Temperature (Austin) 2018;5:208-23.
- Stone KD, Kornblad CA, Engel MM, Dijkerman HC, Blom RM, Keizer A. Lower limb peripersonal space and the desire to amputate a leg. Psychol Res 2021;85:1221-33.
- Florian IA, Lupan I, Sur L, Samasca G, Timiş TL. To be, or not to be Guillain-Barré syndrome. Autoimmun Rev 2021;20:102983.
- Kelly G, Mrengqwa L, Geffen L. "They don't care about us": Older people's experiences of primary healthcare in Cape Town, South Africa. BMC Geriatr 2019;19:98.
- Yao S, Chen H, Zhang Q, Shi Z, Liu J, Lian Z, et al. Pain during the acute phase of Guillain-Barré syndrome. Medicine (Baltimore) 2018;97:e11595.
- 41. Peri A, Grohé C, Berardi R, Runkle I. SIADH: Differential diagnosis and clinical management. Endocrine 2017;55:311-9.
- 42. Piccione EA, Salame K, Katirji B. Guillain-Barré syndrome and related disorders. In: Katirji B, Kaminski H, Ruff R, editors. Neuromuscular

Disorders in Clinical Practice. New York: Springer; 2014.

- Doherty CM, Forbes RB. Diagnostic lumbar puncture. Ulster Med J 2014;83:93-102.
- Leonhard SE, Mandarakas MR, Gondim F, Bateman K, Ferreira M, Cornblath DR, *et al.* Diagnosis and management of GBS in ten steps. Nat Rev Neurol 2019;15:671-83.
- McDonald CM. Clinical approach to the diagnostic evaluation of hereditary and acquired neuromuscular diseases. Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am 2012;23:495-563.
- Sonoo M, Menkes DL, Bland J, Burke D. Nerve conduction studies and EMG in carpal tunnel syndrome: Do they add value? Clin Neurophysiol Pract 2018;3:78-88.
- Meena AK, Khadilkar SV, Murthy JM. Treatment guidelines for Guillain-Barré syndrome. Ann Indian Acad Neurol 2011;14:S73-81.
- 48. Patten E. Therapeutic plasmapheresis and plasma exchange. Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci 1986;23:147-75.
- Kuwabara S, Mori M, Ogawara K, Hattori T, Oda S, Koga M, et al. Intravenous immunoglobulin therapy for Guillain-Barré syndrome with IgG anti-GM1 antibody. Muscle Nerve 2001;24:54-8.

- Su SC, Lyu RK, Chang CW, Tseng WE. The first Guillain-Barr? Syndrome after SARS-CoV-2 vaccination in Taiwan. Acta Neurol Taiwana 2022;31:46-51.
- 51. Woolf CJ. What is this thing called pain? J Clin Invest 2010;120:3742-4.
- 52. Rekand T, Gramstad A, Vedeler CA. Fatigue, pain and muscle weakness are frequent after Guillain-Barr? Syndrome and poliomyelitis. J Neurol 2009;256:349-54.
- Hersberger KE, Messerli M. Development of clinical pharmacy in Switzerland: Involvement of community pharmacists in care for older patients. Drugs Aging 2016;33:205-11.
- 54. Marsh L. Depression and Parkinson's disease: Current knowledge. Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep 2013;13:409.
- 55. Ropper AH. The Guillain-Barré syndrome. N Engl J Med 1992;326:1130-6.
- Carruthers BM, Jain AK, De Meirleir KL, Peterson DL, Klimas NG, Lerner AM, *et al.* Myalgic encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome: Clinical working case definition, diagnostic and treatment protocols. J Chronic Fatigue Synd 2003;11:7-115.