



Gender Differences in Takotsubo Syndrome

Tsutomu Murakami ^{1,*,†}, Tomoyoshi Komiyama ^{2,*,†}, Hiroyuki Kobayashi ² and Yuji Ikari ¹

- ¹ Department of Cardiology, School of Medicine, Tokay University, Isehara 259-1193, Japan; ikari@is.icc.u-tokai.ac.jp
- ² Department of Clinical Pharmacology, School of Medicine, Tokay University, Isehara 259-1193, Japan; hkobayas@is.icc.u-tokai.ac.jp
- * Correspondence: tsutomu_chikara@hotmail.com (T.M.); komiyama@tokai-u.jp (T.K.)

+ These authors contributed equally to this work.

Simple Summary: The manifestation of Takotsubo Syndrome (TTS) may be different in males and females based on past reports and our clinical research. However, the gender differences in TTS are unknown because patients with TTS are predominantly female. TTS is common in females; however, approximately 10–20% of males have TTS and it has been reported that in-hospital complications mostly occur in males. TTS in males is often caused by physical stress and often develops in the hospital or during hospitalization. TTS in males is associated with severe cardiac complications, which may require careful observations and interventions. Regarding the pathogenic mechanism of TTS, it has been reported that decreased estrogen levels, common in postmenopausal females, are involved in the pathogenic mechanism. Moreover, the pathological findings and gene expression were different in males and females. From these results, it can be considered that the mechanism of the onset of TTS may be different between males and females.

Abstract: Most patients with Takotsubo Syndrome (TTS) are postmenopausal females. TTS in males is rare and gender differences have not been sufficiently investigated. Therefore, we investigated gender differences in TTS. TTS in males and females is often triggered by physical and emotional stress, respectively. Heart failure, a severe in-hospital complication, requires greater mechanical respiratory support in males. Fatal arrhythmias such as ventricular tachycardia and ventricular fibrillation and in-hospital mortality rates are higher in males. The white blood cell (WBC) count has been shown to be higher in males than in females with cardiovascular death compared with non-cardiovascular death. Therefore, the WBC count, a simple marker, may reflect severe TTS. Decreased estrogen levels, common in postmenopausal females, are a pathogenic mechanism of TTS. Females have a more significant increase in the extracellular matrix-receptor interaction than males. Moreover, the pathological findings after hematoxylin–eosin staining were different in males and females. Males had more severe complications than females in the acute phase of TTS; thus, more careful observations and interventions are likely required. From these results, it can be considered that the mechanism of the onset of TTS may be different between males and females. Therefore, it is necessary to fully understand the gender differences in order to more effectively manage TTS.

Keywords: Takotsubo Syndrome; gender differences; emotional stress; physical stress

1. Introduction

Takotsubo Syndrome (TTS), a relatively rare disease, occurs in approximately 2–3% of patients with suspected acute coronary syndrome [1]. In addition, considering that the proportion of females is overwhelmingly high, the probability of encountering TTS in males is low, and their clinical features are unknown [2]. Reports on the gender differences in TTS are insufficient. Most worldwide analyses have used a large number of registered cases; however, only a small number of male patients with TTS were examined [3–5]. In this review, we investigated the gender differences in TTS. The mechanism of the onset of



Citation: Murakami, T.; Komiyama, T.; Kobayashi, H.; Ikari, Y. Gender Differences in Takotsubo Syndrome. *Biology* **2022**, *11*, 653. https:// doi.org/10.3390/biology11050653

Academic Editor: Vincenzo Lionetti

Received: 28 March 2022 Accepted: 21 April 2022 Published: 24 April 2022

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2022 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). TTS is unclear and there is no specific treatment or prevention for TTS [6–9]. Therefore, we compared the similarities and differences between males and females with TTS and aimed to determine the reasons why the disease is overwhelmingly common in females, but more severe in males.

TTS was first discovered by a Japanese doctor in 1990 [10,11]. It was named Takotsubo because it is shaped like a takotsubo (octopus pot), a traditional trap for catching octopus in Japan [12]. The syndrome causes apical wall motion, which prevents a contraction during systole, resulting in the hypercontraction of the base of the heart. The disease is now known worldwide as Takotsubo cardiomyopathy or TTS [3,4,13–17]. The wall motion naturally improves in approximately two weeks after the onset with a good prognosis; therefore, there has been no progress in the research concerning the pathophysiology of TTS [18,19]. However, heart failure, acute mitral regurgitation, pulmonary hypertension, cardiogenic shock, and arrhythmia could lead to death in the acute phase from recent reports [20–22]. Furthermore, 3.7% of heart-related deaths occur during hospitalization and approximately 35% are due to heart failure [23]. However, the prognosis of a few hospitalized cases was not good [1,24]. We previously reported that TTS is more severe in males than in females [2]. This may be explained by the differences in stress responses between males and females because TTS is caused by stress. A decline in estrogen levels and the excess secretion of catecholamines may cause TTS, considering the high proportion of postmenopausal females with TTS [8,25]. TTS usually occurs in older postmenopausal women; therefore, decreased estrogen levels are thought to contribute to the onset of TTS and the theory remains promising [26,27]. However, the hypoestrogenic hypothesis cannot explain the mechanism of the onset of TTS in males. We previously reported that the rate of TTS associated with heart failure, arrhythmia, and in-hospital mortality is higher in males than in females [2]. Therefore, there may be another mechanism that increases the severity of TTS in males. Since the discovery of TTS, the detailed pathophysiology has not been elucidated and there is currently no cure or prevention for TTS. Therefore, a new approach is necessary. Hence, we observed the changes in the left ventricle myocardium during the acute phase via a left ventricle biopsy. A biopsy of the apical myocardium of the left ventricle during the acute phase of apical ballooning-type TTS was performed. The samples were analyzed using hematoxylin–eosin (H&E) staining and a DNA microarray [28].

We aimed to clarify the gender similarities and differences in TTS and to elucidate the disease onset mechanism. The clinical data including the clinical background, laboratory, echocardiography, and catheter data as well as the reported genetic analysis were obtained to determine the gender differences. The findings of this report will be very useful for the treatment of TTS in the acute phase and will contribute to the development of technologies for the accurate diagnosis of TTS.

2. The Proportion of Genders and Diagnosis of TTS

As shown in Figure 1, the proportion of males with TTS varies from report to report; the number of males with TTS was small in each country.

(1) As TTS is a relatively rare disease, most large-scale reports have used data from multicenter registries. Krishnamoorthy et al. [29] used the US National Inpatient Sample registry (20% registration of non-federal hospitals) [30] and Templin et al. used the registry data (The International Takotsubo Registry) of nine countries in Europe and the United States [4]. Our previous report [2] used the Tokyo Cardiovascular Care Unit (CCU) Network database (for those accommodated in CCUs at 71 facilities in Tokyo), and it is possible that severely ill patients were registered. Yoshizawa et al. [31] used the registry of 10 hospitals affiliated with 8 medical schools in eastern Japan that contained 10,622 cases with acute coronary syndrome (the Cardiovascular Research Consortium-8 Universities: CIRC-8U).

We selected the above four studies because they described the differences in TTS between males and females in detail. This is shown in Figure 1 below.



Figure 1. The gender differences in TTS in Japan, Europe, and the United States of America (USA). NI Sample, Nationwide Inpatient Sample; InterTAK Registry, The International Takotsubo Registry; CCU, Cardiovascular Care Unit; CIRC-8U, the Cardiovascular Research Consortium-8 Universities.

(2)From the 2008 modified Mayo Criteria [32], obstructive coronary artery disease is not an exclusion criterion for the diagnosis of TTS. Another major difference from the first edition of the Mayo Criteria is that after trauma, TTS can develop after an intracerebral hemorrhage (including a subarachnoid hemorrhage). However, it has been suggested that it may not be excluded and, therefore, not registered as TTS. In particular, male patients with coronary artery stenosis may be incorrectly diagnosed [13]. In addition, the subjective symptoms range from mild symptoms including chest discomfort to severe symptoms including respiratory distress from heart failure, shock, and left ventricular outflow tract stenosis. Mild cases might have been overlooked leading to the gender differences in TTS in each report. Currently, TTS is often diagnosed using the International Takotsubo Diagnostic Criteria (InterTAK Diagnostic Criteria) reported in 2018. Doctors have attempted to improve the accuracy of a TTS diagnosis using the InterTAK Diagnostic Score [33–35]. Recently, it has been reported that a differential diagnosis between TTS and acute myocardial infarction is possible due to the development of artificial intelligence in echocardiography [36]. Human monitoring is still necessary, but it is an area where further development is expected in the future [37].

3. Patient Backgrounds and Clinical Characteristics

3.1. Age

As shown in Table 1, the male patient group was younger than the female patient group. In addition, the average age of the patients from Japan was between 70 and 80 years whereas the patients from Europe and the United States were between 60 and 70 years of age, which could lead to an uneven ratio in the gender differences.

Country	Registry	Study Period	All, Years	Male, Years	Female, Years	<i>p</i> -Value	Ref.
USA	NI Sample	2009-2010	65.6 (64.9-66.2)	59.5 (56.6-62.3)	66.2 (65.5–66.8)	< 0.001	[29]
USA/Europe	InterTAK Registry	1998-2014	66.4 ± 13.1	62.9 ± 13.1	66.8 ± 13.0	< 0.001	[4]
Japan	Tokyo CCU Network	2010-2012	76 (67–82)	72 (64–81)	76 (68–83)	0.040	[2]
Japan	CIRC-8U	1997–2014	71.6 ± 11.2	71.8 ± 10.4	71.5 ± 11.4	0.899	[31]

Table 1. The differences in age between males and females.

USA, United States of America; NI Sample, Nationwide Inpatient Sample; InterTAK Registry, The International Takotsubo Registry; CCU, Cardiovascular Care Unit; CIRC-8U, the Cardiovascular Research Consortium-8 Universities; Ref., reference.

3.2. Preceding Stress and Symptoms at Admission

As shown in Table 2, there was a difference in preceding stress between the male and female patients. According to a report from the Tokyo CCU Network [2], 50.0% of males and 31.3% of females (p = 0.002) developed TTS due to physical stress and 19.0% of males and 31.0% of females (p = 0.039) developed the disease due to emotional stress. TTS in males and females was, therefore, caused by physical and emotional stress, respectively. Physical stress included acute respiratory failure, cerebrovascular accidents, infections, and postoperative trauma. Regarding the symptoms at admission, chest pain occurred in 39.3% of males and 51.4% of females (p = 0.051), but the difference was not significant. In addition, 35.7% of males and 32.8% of females had dyspnea (p = 0.613), but the difference was not significant. According to a report from the CIRC-8U [31], 64% of males and 46% of females (p = 0.007) developed the disease due to emotional stress. Concerning the symptoms at admission, chest pain occurred in 42% of males and 50% of females (p = 0.292), but the difference was not significant.

Registry		Male	Female	<i>p</i> -Value	Ref.
InterTAK Registry	Physical stress, %	50.8	34.3	< 0.001	[4]
	Emotional stress, %	14.5	29.2	< 0.001	
	Absence of stress, %	25.7	28.8	0.39	
Tokyo CCU Network	Physical stress, %	50.0	31.3	0.002	[2]
-	Emotional stress, %	19.0	31.0	0.039	
	Absence of stress, %	31.0	37.7	0.260	
CIRC-8U	Physical stress, %	64	46	0.007	[31]
	Emotional stress, %	10	26	0.004	
	Absence of stress, %	26	28	0.764	

Table 2. The differences in preceding stress between the male and female patients.

InterTAK Registry, The International Takotsubo Registry; CCU, Cardiovascular Care Unit; CIRC-8U, the Cardiovascular Research Consortium-8 Universities; Ref., reference.

According to the reports from the International Takotsubo Registry [4], 50.8% of males and 34.3% of females (p < 0.001) developed the disease due to physical stress and 14.5% of males and 29.2% of females (p < 0.001) developed the disease due to emotional stress, which was similar to that reported in Japan. Physical stress included acute respiratory failure, postoperative fractures, cerebrovascular accidents, infections, cancer, and emotional stress including sadness, panic, fear, anxiety, interpersonal problems, anger, disappointment, financial difficulties, and unemployment. Concerning the symptoms at admission, chest pain occurred in 65.2% of males and 77.0% of females (p = 0.001), with a significant difference. In addition, 47.8% of males and 46.8% of females had dyspnea (p = 0.82), but the difference was not significant.

These reports confirmed that physical and emotional stress were the main causes of TTS in males and females, respectively. Chest pain and dyspnea were the most common symptoms and more females complained of chest pain than males.

3.3. Examination of the Blood Tests

At present, there are only a few blood tests for TTS that have been compared and examined by gender; the results are shown in Table 3, although the data are limited.

Registry		Male	Female	<i>p</i> -Value	Ref.
InterTAK Registry	WBC (/µL)	10,680 (7650-15,600)	9690 (7400-12,480)	0.013	[4]
	CRP (mg/L)	5.00 (2.00-23.75)	3.80 (1.13-11.00)	0.021	
Tokyo CCU Network	WBC $(/\mu L)$	9100 (7100–11,970)	8100 (6400-11,000)	0.091	[2]
-	Peak CK (IU/L)	471 (198–713)	258 (143-394)	0.012	
	BNP (pg/mL)	233 (75–521)	199 (76–627)	0.855	
	CRP (mg/dL)	0.56 (0.1–3.0)	0.32 (0.1-2.1)	0.055	
CIRC-8U	WBC $(/\mu L)$	$10,\!685 \pm 4185$	9704 ± 4853	0.011	[31]
	Peak CK (IU/L)	799 ± 1838	779 ± 2180	0.065	
	CRP (mg/dL)	5.6 ± 7.1	2.7 ± 5.7	< 0.001	

 Table 3. The differences in examinations of blood tests between male and female patients.

InterTAK Registry, The International Takotsubo Registry; CCU, Cardiovascular Care Unit; CIRC-8U, the Cardiovascular Research Consortium-8 Universities; WBC, white blood cell count; CK, creatinine kinase; BNP, brain natriuretic peptide; CRP, C-reactive protein; Ref., reference.

The International Takotsubo Registry and CIRC-8U reported that the white blood cell (WBC) count (/ μ L) was higher in males than in females (10,680 (7650–15,600) vs. 9690 (7400–12,480); *p* = 0.013 [4] and 10,685 ± 4185 vs. 9704 ± 4853; *p* = 0.011 [31], respectively). The Tokyo CCU Network [2] reported no significant difference in the WBC count (/ μ L); however, the WBC tended to be higher in males than in females (9100 (7100–11,970) vs. 8100 (6400–11,000); *p* = 0.091).

Studies have reported that creatine kinase (CK) (a factor increase in the upper limit of the normal) at admission and peak CK (a factor increase in the upper limit of the normal) are higher in males, but the International Takotsubo Registry reported that there was no significant difference in the CK and peak CK values between males and females [4]. From the Tokyo CCU Network [2], the peak CK (IU/L) was higher in males than in females (471 (198–713) vs. 258 (143–394); p = 0.012); from the CIRC-8U [31], there was no significant difference in the peak CK (IU/L), but it tended to be higher in males (799 ± 1838 vs. 779 ± 2180; p = 0.065).

The International Takotsubo Registry and CIRC-8U reported that C-reactive protein (CRP) was higher in males than in females (5.00 (2.00–23.75) mg/L vs. 3.80 (1.13–11.00) mg/L; p = 0.021 [4] and 5.6 \pm 7.1 vs. 2.7 \pm 5.7; p < 0.001 [32], respectively). From the Tokyo CCU Network [2], there was no significant difference in CRP (mg/dL), but it tended to be higher in males than females (0.56 (0.1–3.0) vs. 0.32 (0.1–2.1); p = 0.055).

3.4. Examination of the Echocardiography

As shown in Table 4, most examples of TTS were the apical type and there was no difference between males and females. Regarding the left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) (%), the Tokyo CCU Network and CIRC-8U did not report any gender difference (48 (40–60) vs. 50 (40–64); p = 0.500 [2] and 44.7 \pm 13.2 vs. 46.2 \pm 13.0; p = 0.544 [31], respectively). The International Takotsubo Registry [4] reported a significant gender difference in cardiac dysfunction between males and females (39.0 \pm 11.5 vs. 41.3 \pm 11.8; p = 0.017), respectively. An apical thrombus was found in 2 of the 84 cases reported in the Tokyo CCU Network [2] and was more common in males.

3.5. The Co-Existence of Coronary Artery Disease

The Tokyo CCU Network [2] reported that 15.7% of males and 8.2% of females had coronary artery disease, but the difference was not significant (p = 0.061). The International Takotsubo Registry [4] reported that 21.1% of males and 14.7% of females had coronary artery disease and the difference was significant (p = 0.040). The CIRC-8U [31] reported

Registry		Male	Female	<i>p</i> -Value	Ref.
InterTAK Registry	Apical type, % 81.6		81.7	0.96	[4]
0,	Midventricular type, %	12.8	14.8	0.49	
	LVEF (%)	39.0 ± 11.5	41.3 ± 11.8	0.017	
Tokyo CCU Network	Apical type, %	90.5	90.8	0.918	[2]
	Midventricular type, %	N/A	N/A	N/A	
	LVEF (%)	48 (40-60)	50 (40-64)	0.500	
	LVOTO, %	4.8	9.2	0.196	
CIRC-8U	Apical type *, %	93.6	91.0	NS	[31]
	Midventricular type *, %	2.1	4.0	NS	
	LVEF (%)	44.7 ± 13.2	46.2 ± 13.0	0.544	
	LVOTO*,%	0	6	0.162	

that 19% of males and 5% of females had coronary artery disease and the difference was significant (p = 0.002).

Table 4. The differences in echocardiography images between the male and female patients.

InterTAK Registry, The International Takotsubo Registry; CCU, Cardiovascular Care Unit; CIRC-8U, the Cardiovascular Research Consortium-8 Universities; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; LVOTO, left ventricular outflow tract obstruction; * these factors were diagnosed by cardiac catheterization; N/A, not available; NS, not significant; Ref., reference.

3.6. Complications and Supportive Therapies during Hospitalization

Table 5 shows the details of the differences in complications and supportive therapies during hospitalization between male and female patients. According to the report from the Tokyo CCU Network, there was no significant difference in mortality between males and females (9.5% vs. 5.3%), but the mortality rate was higher in males [2]. The US National Inpatient Sample, International Takotsubo Registry, and CIRC-8U reported that the mortality rates were significantly higher in males than in females (4.8% vs. 2.1%; p = 0.04 [29], 7.3% vs. 3.8%; p = 0.025 [5], and 18% vs. 7%; p = 0.005 [31], respectively). The definition of heart failure varied from report to report, but heart failure was more common in males. In addition, cases requiring mechanical ventilation (invasive positive pressure ventilation or non-invasive positive pressure ventilation) were significantly higher in males in both the Tokyo CCU Network (28.6% vs. 12.7%; p < 0.05) [2] and the International Takotsubo Registry (29.5% vs. 16.0%; p < 0.001) [4]. Regarding the use of catecholamines, there was no difference between males and females reported by the Tokyo CCU Network (11.9% vs. 12.3%) [2], but the usage rate reported by the International Takotsubo Registry was significantly higher in males (21.0% vs. 11.2%; p < 0.001) [4]. Ventricular arrhythmias were more common in males, but the difference was not significant according to the US National Inpatient Sample (7.7% vs. 5.4%; *p* = 0.27) [29], Tokyo CCU Network (8.3% vs. 3.9%; p = not significant [3], and CIRC-8U (5% vs. 4%; p = 0.510) [31]. In summary, males usually developed more severe complications and were more likely to require invasive interventions.

Table 5. The differences in complications and supportive therapies during hospitalization between male and female patients.

Registry		Male	Female	<i>p</i> -Value	Ref.
NI Sample	NI Sample Mortality, %		2.1	0.04	[29]
	Respiratory failure, %	18.2	12.6	0.06	
	Ventricular arrhythmias, %	7.7	5.4	0.27	
InterTAK Registry	Mortality, %	7.3	3.8	0.025	[4]
	Respiratory support, %	29.5	16.0	< 0.001	
	Catecholamine use, %	21.0	11.2	< 0.001	

Registry		Male	Female	<i>p</i> -Value	Ref.
Tokyo CCU Network Mortality, %		9.5	5.3	NS	[2]
-	Heart failure *, %	20.2	10.6	< 0.05	
	Ventricular arrhythmias, %	8.3	3.9	NS	
	Respiratory support, %	28.6	12.7	< 0.05	
	Catecholamine use, %	11.9	12.3	NS	
CIRC-8U	Mortality, %	18	7	0.005	[31]
	Cardiovascular death, %	4	3	0.704	
	Death by other reasons, %	14	4	0.003	
	Heart failure, %	34	29	0.388	
	Ventricular arrhythmias, %	5	4	0.510	

NI Sample, Nationwide Inpatient Sample; InterTAK Registry, CCU, Cardiovascular Care Unit; The International Takotsubo Registry; CIRC-8U, the Cardiovascular Research Consortium-8 Universities; NS, not significant; *, heart failure was defined as Killip \geq III; Ref., reference.

3.7. Long-Term Outcomes and Therapies after Discharge

According to the International Takotsubo Registry, the mortality rates per patient/year were significantly higher in males than in females (12.9% vs. 5.0%; p < 0.001) and there was no significant difference in TTS recurrence (0.8% vs. 1.9%; p = 0.22) [4]. In addition, the use of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors or angiotensin II-receptor blockers at discharge was associated with an improved survival; survival was comparable between patients with and without beta-blockers from the retrospective registry data. In this paper, it should be noted that this analysis was from retrospective registry data based on discharge medication and has, therefore, inherent limitations.

From a report that prospectively enrolled patients in the Takotsubo Italian Network, beta-blockers were associated with a significantly higher long-term survival within the median follow-up (24.0 months) [38]. However, there were no significant differences in terms of TTS recurrence and cardiac death.

From the Danish nationwide registries, there was no significant difference between groups with respect to treatment with beta-blockers or angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors/angiotensin II-receptor blockers comparing the TTS recurrence of patients and those without TTS [39].

At present, there is no consensus on which drug is best for a long-term prognosis and the prevention of TTS recurrence. There is almost no mention of gender differences, so randomized controlled trial evidence is urgently needed [40].

It was reported that psychological anxiety was more common in patients with TTS and that the management thereof should be performed [40,41].

Moreover, it was reported that the long-term follow-up of patients with TTS revealed a rate of major adverse cardiac and cerebrovascular events of 9.9% per patient/year. The rate was higher in males than in females (16.0% vs. 8.7%; p = 0.002) [4]. Therefore, an aspirin treatment was considered to be effective. However, no association was found between aspirin use in TTS patients and a reduced risk of major adverse cardiac and cerebrovascular events at 30-day and 5-year follow-ups [42]. There is a supporting report that the presence of endothelial perturbation in females with TTS even at long-term from the index event by confirming the endothelial markers is involved in the vascular tone and in thrombosis as well as in residual platelet activation [43]. Patients with TTS must be monitored after discharge to reduce major adverse cardiac and cerebrovascular events at it is desirable to develop research on male as well as female patients.

4. Research Reports Supporting the Gender Differences in TTS

4.1. Effects of Estrogen Concentration

The cardioprotective effects of estrogen are well-known. Estrogen suppresses the RAS system and sympathetic nervous system. In an animal experiment using a TTS model, the group that received estrogen had a milder decrease in cardiac function and a milder

increase in the pulse rate than the group that did not receive estrogen [26]. However, reports have suggested that estrogen contributes to the onset of TTS. In addition, in female humans matched by age and gender, the estrogen blood concentrations at the onset of TTS and myocardial infarctions were high [44]. Although a decrease in estrogen concentration contributes to the onset of TTS, it is possible that an increase at the time of onset may prevent the aggravation of TTS in females, but further studies on males are required.

4.2. Gene Expression, KEGG Analysis, and Pathological Analysis of the Heart Muscle

In an animal experiment of a model of myocarditis caused by the Coxsackie virus B3, there was a difference in the expression of the Toll-like receptors between males and females. It was reported that myocarditis was more severe in males even though the amount of the virus that spread to the heart muscle was the same [45]. Concerning the onset of the octopus trap syndrome, there was a difference in the response at the level of the myocardial gene expression and it was speculated that it may contribute to the difference in TTS between males and females.

We examined the differences in stress response in the myocardium between the genders in patients with TTS using a microarray analysis and a gene expression analysis based on KEGG [28]. For this study, the biopsied samples were obtained from over-70year-old Japanese males and over-80-year-old Japanese females. Histopathological and DNA microarray analyses of the tissues from the left ventricle apex in the acute phase and apical ballooning-type were performed. KEGG analyses of the female patients confirmed the extracellular matrix (ECM)-receptor interaction pathway as well as the cell–cell interaction pathways such as cell adhesion molecules (CAMs) and the cytokine–cytokinereceptor interaction. The ECM-receptor and ECM-integrin interactions were strong (Table 6). This affected the interaction between the collagen, laminin, and integrin receptors. The KEGG analysis revealed that the ECM-receptor interaction was significantly increased in females than in males. We confirmed the changes in the expression levels of the various integrin subunits.

Category	Term	Count	%	<i>p</i> -Value	Bonferroni	Benjamini
KEGG_PATHWAY	hsa04512: ECM-receptor interaction	17	2.007084	$1.23 imes 10^{-7}$	$2.96 imes 10^{-5}$	2.96×10^{-5}
KEGG_PATHWAY	hsa04514: Cell adhesion molecules (CAMs)	17	2.007084	$8.61 imes 10^{-5}$	0.020544	0.010326
KEGG_PATHWAY	hsa04060: Cytokine– cytokine-receptor interaction	19	2.243211	0.004895	0.693482	0.325753

Table 6. The results of the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes analysis of female patients.

We then performed a pathological analysis using the same tissues used during the microarray analysis, which were obtained from over-70-year-old males and over-80-year-old females. The biopsied specimens were fixed in a 10% neutral formalin solution overnight, dehydrated in an ethanol series, and cut into 6 µm-thick paraffin blocks using a microtome. The sections were dehydrated in distilled water and stained with H&E.

The pathological findings after H&E staining were reported by Murakami et al. [28]. In the male patients with TTS, the necrosis area was broader with a lymphocytic infiltration and contraction band necrosis was observed with a high-power view. In contrast, in the female patients, only a few necrotic areas without a lymphocytic infiltration were observed.

5. Discussion

We investigated the gender differences in TTS using previous reports on TTS. Figure 1 shows a clear gender difference in TTS. More females had TTS in Japan, Europe, and the United States. A gender difference in TTS could be suggested just from these results.

The following factors could cause the gender difference in TTS. It has been shown that males often develop physical stress and females often develop emotional stress. In a recent report, it was stated that not only emotional stress and physical stress individually cause TTS, but a combination of both stresses also cause it [3]. Differentiating between the emotional and physical triggers of TTS would require a psychological evaluation to accurately recognize if the physical trigger did not also burden the emotional side of the patient [41]. Males who often develop TTS due to physical stress should be carefully monitored for psychological characteristics.

Although the reports of the studies vary, in-hospital death, heart failure, and lifethreatening arrhythmias such as ventricular tachycardia (VT) or ventricular fibrillation (VF) were more common in males. Therefore, males are more likely to require cardiopulmonary supportive therapies such as respiratory support by mechanical ventilation or non-invasive positive pressure ventilation and catecholamine use. Recently, it was reported that Impella mechanical circulatory support was effective for TTS with a cardiogenic shock (systolic blood pressure was 90.1 \pm 20.2 mmHg with the use of catecholamines) due to a low LVEF (19.4 \pm 8.3%) until the recovery of the LVEF [46]. However, it may not be effective in TTS involving right ventricular failure [47] and reports of gender differences require further cases.

We reported that the group with a high WBC count was prone to in-hospital cardiac complications (cardiac death, VT, VF, thromboembolism, heart failure, and a severe atrioventricular block) and it was reported that these complications may indicate myocardial inflammation in TTS [23]. It may reflect inflammation caused by physical stress itself. However, the WBC count tended to be higher in patients with cardiovascular death than in those with non-cardiovascular death. Therefore, the WBC count, a simple conventional marker, could be used to identify severe TTS [23].

From the Tokyo CCU Network, a high WBC count and a male gender were the independent predictors of in-hospital composite cardiac events in TTS (cardiovascular death, severe pump failure defined using Killip III, and serious ventricular arrhythmias such as VT or VF) [2]. The International Takotsubo Registry and CIRC-8U reported that males had several in-hospital complications and high WBC counts.

One of the other causes of high mortality in males with TTS was physical stress. From the CIRC-8U [31], there was no significant difference in cardiovascular death (4% vs. 3%; p = 0.704), but there were differences in the other causes of death (14% vs. 4%; p = 0.003) between males and females. A study on the in-hospital outcomes by the preceding trigger [48] reported that there were no significant differences in cardiac death (2% vs. 2%; p = 1.00) between the physical and emotional stress triggers, but there were differences in all-cause death (11% vs. 2%; p < 0.001) between the physical and emotional stress triggers. Physical stress often occurs in males and the severity of the underlying disease is involved in the mortality rate.

It has been reported that 50% of non-cardiac deaths were complicated by heart failure; the presence of heart failure during the onset of TTS causes further aggravation and makes it difficult to create a better treatment plan [23]. Myocardial inflammation and heart failure may aggravate TTS differently for males and females.

Other studies have described the differences in the expression of the Toll-like receptors between males and females [45]. In addition, microarray and gene expression analyses of left ventricular biopsy samples in males and females were performed. A KEGG analysis revealed that the ECM-receptor interaction in females significantly increased compared with males. We confirmed the changes in the expression levels of the various integrin subunits [28].

Moreover, the pathological findings after H&E staining of the left ventricular biopsy samples were different between males and females [28]. In males with TTS, the area of necrosis was broader with a lymphocytic infiltration and contraction band necrosis was found with a high-power view. In contrast, only a few necrotic areas without a lymphocytic infiltration were observed in females.

There are an increasing number of reports of an association between TTS and COVID-19. TTS in COVID-19 can be primary TTS due to the emotional stress associated with the global pandemic or secondary TTS due to a COVID-19 infection [49]. Patients who were hospitalized for COVID-19 pneumonia and subsequently developed TTS due to physical stress have been reported to have a poor prognosis [50]. In this report, there were 7 patients (4 males and 3 females) with TTS due to a COVID-19 infection. A total of 6 patients (4 males and 2 females) required respiratory support by intubation and 4 patients (2 males and 2 females) died. As the mortality of patients with secondary TTS due to COVID-19 is high, it is important to ensure an early diagnosis for COVID-19-infected patients and we believe that further cases need to be examined in the future.

6. Conclusions

Possible differences may exist between males and females based on past reports and our clinical research. The review of our research contributes to new developments in future studies. It should be noted that TTS in males becomes severe. We aim to elucidate the mechanisms of the development of TTS using a larger sample size to increase the reliability of the data in the future.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization: T.M. and T.K.; investigation, T.M. and T.K.; formal analysis, T.M.; validation, T.K., H.K. and Y.I.; data curation, T.M. and T.K.; writing—original draft, T.M. and T.K.; writing—review and editing, T.M. and T.K.; supervision, H.K. and Y.I. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research was funded by KAKENHI, grant number 18K15864 and 21K16068, and by The Research and Study Program of the Tokai University Educational System General Research Organization.

Institutional Review Board Statement: The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Institutional Review Board for Medical Ethics of Tokai University, School of Medicine IRB (15R135).

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: The data presented in this study are available in the article.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Redfors, B.; Vedad, R.; Angerås, O.; Råmunddal, T.; Petursson, P.; Haraldsson, I.; Ali, A.; Dworeck, C.; Odenstedt, J.; Ioaness, D.; et al. Mortality in takotsubo syndrome is similar to mortality in myocardial infarction—a report from the SWEDE-HEART registry. *Int. J. Cardiol.* 2015, 185, 282–289. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Murakami, T.; Yoshikawa, T.; Maekawa, Y.; Ueda, T.; Isogai, T.; Sakata, K.; Nagao, K.; Yamamoto, T.; Takayama, M. Gender Differences in Patients with Takotsubo Cardiomyopathy: Multi-Center Registry from Tokyo CCU Network. *PLoS ONE* 2015, 10, e0136655. [CrossRef]
- Imori, Y.; Kato, K.; Cammann, V.L.; Szawan, K.A.; Wischnewsky, M.; Dreiding, S.; Würdinger, M.; Schönberger, M.; Petkova, V.; Niederseer, D.; et al. Ethnic comparison in takotsubo syndrome: Novel insights from the International Takotsubo Registry. *Clin. Res. Cardiol.* 2021, 111, 186–196. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Templin, C.; Ghadri, J.R.; Diekmann, J.; Napp, L.C.; Bataiosu, D.R.; Jaguszewski, M.; Cammann, V.L.; Sarcon, A.; Geyer, V.; Neumann, C.A.; et al. Clinical Features and Outcomes of Takotsubo (Stress) Cardiomyopathy. N. Engl. J. Med. 2015, 373, 929–938. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Isogai, T.; Yasunaga, H.; Matsui, H.; Tanaka, H.; Ueda, T.; Horiguchi, H.; Fushimi, K. Out-of-hospital versus in-hospital Takotsubo cardiomyopathy: Analysis of 3719 patients in the Diagnosis Procedure Combination database in Japan. *Int. J. Cardiol.* 2014, 176, 413–417. [CrossRef]
- Kato, K.; Lyon, A.R.; Ghadri, J.-R.; Templin, C. Takotsubo syndrome: Aetiology, presentation and treatment. *Heart* 2017, 103, 1461–1469. [CrossRef]
- 7. Kato, K.; Kitahara, H.; Kobayashi, Y. Recurrence of Takotsubo Cardiomyopathy. Int. Cardiovasc. Forum J. 2016, 5, 50–52. [CrossRef]
- 8. Yoshikawa, T. Takotsubo cardiomyopathy, a new concept of cardiomyopathy: Clinical features and pathophysiology. *Int. J. Cardiol.* **2015**, *182*, 297–303. [CrossRef]
- Isogai, T.; Matsui, H.; Tanaka, H.; Fushimi, K.; Yasunaga, H. Early β-blocker use and in-hospital mortality in patients with Takotsubo cardiomyopathy. *Heart* 2016, 102, 1029–1035. [CrossRef]

- 10. Dote, K.; Sato, H.; Tateishi, H.; Uchida, T.; Ishihara, M. Myocardial stunning due to simultaneous multivessel coronary spasms: A review of 5 cases. *J. Cardiol.* **1990**, *21*, 203–214.
- Sato, H.; Tateishi, H.; Uchida, T. Takotsubo-type cardiomyopathy due to multivessel spasm. In *Clinical Aspect of Myocardial Injury:* From Ischaemia to Heart Failure; Kodama, K., Haze, K., Hon, M., Eds.; Kagakuhyouronsya Co.,: Tokyo, Japan, 1990; pp. 56–64. (In Japanese)
- 12. Sharkey, S.W.; Lesser, J.R.; Maron, M.S.; Maron, B.J. Why not just call it tako-tsubo cardiomyopathy: A discussion of nomenclature. *J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.* **2011**, *57*, 1496–1497. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 13. Templin, C.; Napp, L.C.; Ghadri, J.R. Takotsubo Syndrome: Underdiagnosed, Underestimated, but Understood? *J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.* **2016**, *67*, 1937–1940. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 14. Wagner, S.; Güthe, T.; Bhogal, P.; Cimpoca, A.; Ganslandt, O.; Bäzner, H.; Henkes, H. Aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage as a trigger for Takotsubo syndrome: A comprehensive review. *Rev. Cardiovasc. Med.* **2021**, *22*, 1241–1251. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Ghadri, J.-R.; Wittstein, I.S.; Prasad, A.; Sharkey, S.; Dote, K.; Akashi, Y.J.; Cammann, V.L.; Crea, F.; Galiuto, L.; Desmet, W.; et al. International Expert Consensus Document on Takotsubo Syndrome (Part I): Clinical Characteristics, Diagnostic Criteria, and Pathophysiology. *Eur. Heart J.* 2018, 39, 2032–2046. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Ghadri, J.-R.; Wittstein, I.S.; Prasad, A.; Sharkey, S.; Dote, K.; Akashi, Y.J.; Cammann, V.L.; Crea, F.; Galiuto, L.; Desmet, W.; et al. International Expert Consensus Document on Takotsubo Syndrome (Part II): Diagnostic Workup, Outcome, and Management. *Eur. Heart J.* 2018, 39, 2047–2062. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 17. Maekawa, Y.; Kawamura, A.; Yuasa, S.; Nesto, R.W.; Fukuda, K. Direct Comparison of Takotsubo Cardiomyopathy between Japan and USA: 3-year Follow-up Study. *Intern. Med.* **2012**, *51*, 257–262. [CrossRef]
- 18. Gianni, M.; Dentali, F.; Grandi, A.M.; Sumner, G.; Hiralal, R.; Lonn, E. Apical ballooning syndrome or takotsubo cardiomyopathy: A systematic review. *Eur. Heart J.* **2006**, *27*, 1523–1529. [CrossRef]
- 19. Akashi, Y.J.; Nakazawa, K.; Sakakibara, M.; Miyake, F.; Koike, H.; Sasaka, K. The clinical features of takotsubo cardiomyopathy. *QJM* **2003**, *96*, 563–573. [CrossRef]
- Izumo, M.; Nalawadi, S.; Shiota, M.; Das, J.; Dohad, S.; Kuwahara, E.; Fukuoka, Y.; Siegel, R.J.; Shiota, T. Mechanisms of acute mitral regurgitation in patients with takotsubo cardiomyopathy: An echocardiographic study. *Circ. Cardiovasc. Imaging* 2011, 4, 392–398. [CrossRef]
- Izumo, M.; Shiota, M.; Nalawadi, S.; Das, J.; Dohad, S.; Kuwahara, E.; Fukuoka, Y.; Siegel, R.J.; Shiota, T. Determinants of Secondary Pulmonary Hypertension in Patients with Takotsubo Cardiomyopathy. *Echocardiography* 2015, 32, 1608–1613. [CrossRef]
- Kagiyama, N.; Okura, H.; Tamada, T.; Imai, K.; Yamada, R.; Kume, T.; Hayashida, A.; Neishi, Y.; Kawamoto, T.; Yoshida, K. Impact of right ventricular involvement on the prognosis of takotsubo cardiomyopathy. *Eur. Heart J. Cardiovasc. Imaging* 2016, 17, 210–216. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Murakami, T.; Yoshikawa, T.; Maekawa, Y.; Ueda, T.; Isogai, T.; Konishi, Y.; Sakata, K.; Nagao, K.; Yamamoto, T.; Takayama, M. Characterization of predictors of in-hospital cardiac complications of takotsubo cardiomyopathy: Multi-center registry from Tokyo CCU Network. J. Cardiol. 2014, 63, 269–273. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 24. Sobue, Y.; Watanabe, E.; Ichikawa, T.; Koshikawa, M.; Yamamoto, M.; Harada, M.; Ozaki, Y. Physically triggered Takotsubo cardiomyopathy has a higher in-hospital mortality rate. *Int. J. Cardiol.* **2017**, 235, 87–93. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Akashi, Y.J.; Nef, H.M.; Lyon, A.R. Epidemiology and pathophysiology of Takotsubo syndrome. *Nat. Rev. Cardiol.* 2015, 12, 387–397. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Ueyama, T.; Hano, T.; Kasamatsu, K.; Yamamoto, K.; Tsuruo, Y.; Nishio, I. Estrogen attenuates the emotional stress-induced cardiac responses in the animal model of Tako-tsubo (Ampulla) cardiomyopathy. *J Cardiovasc. Pharmacol.* 2003, 42 (Suppl. S1), S117–S119. [CrossRef]
- 27. Ueyama, T.; Ishikura, F.; Matsuda, A.; Asanuma, T.; Ueda, K.; Ichinose, M.; Kasamatsu, K.; Hano, T.; Akasaka, T.; Tsuruo, Y.; et al. Chronic estrogen supplementation following ovariectomy improves the emotional stress-induced cardiovascular responses by indirect action on the nervous system and by direct action on the heart. *Circ. J.* 2007, 71, 565–573. [CrossRef]
- 28. Murakami, T.; Komiyama, T.; Matsumoto, S.; Kajiwara, H.; Kobayashi, H.; Ikari, Y. Examination of gender differences in patients with takotsubo syndrome according to left ventricular biopsy: Two case reports. J. Med. Case. Rep. 2021, 15, 281. [CrossRef]
- Krishnamoorthy, P.; Garg, J.; Sharma, A.; Palaniswamy, C.; Shah, N.; Lanier, G.; Patel, N.C.; Lavie, C.J.; Ahmad, H. Gender Differences and Predictors of Mortality in Takotsubo Cardiomyopathy: Analysis from the National Inpatient Sample 2009–2010 Database. *Cardiology* 2015, 132, 131–136. [CrossRef]
- 30. Brinjikji, W.; El-Sayed, A.M.; Salka, S. In-hospital mortality among patients with takotsubo cardiomyopathy: A study of the National Inpatient Sample 2008 to 2009. *Am. Heart J.* **2012**, *164*, 215–221. [CrossRef]
- Yoshizawa, M.; Itoh, T.; Morino, Y.; Taniai, S.; Ishibashi, Y.; Komatsu, T.; Taguchi, I.; Nishinari, M.; Ako, J.; Kyono, H.; et al. Gender Differences in the Circadian and Seasonal Variations in Patients with Takotsubo Syndrome: A Multicenter Registry at Eight University Hospitals in East Japan. *Intern. Med.* 2021, 60, 2749–2755. [CrossRef]
- Prasad, A.; Lerman, A.; Rihal, C.S. Apical ballooning syndrome (Tako-Tsubo or stress cardiomyopathy): A mimic of acute myocardial infarction. *Am. Heart J.* 2008, 155, 408–417. [CrossRef] [PubMed]

- Ghadri, J.R.; Cammann, V.L.; Jurisic, S.; Seifert, B.; Napp, L.C.; Diekmann, J.; Bataiosu, D.R.; D'Ascenzo, F.; Ding, K.J.; Sarcon, A.; et al. A novel clinical score (InterTAK Diagnostic Score) to differentiate takotsubo syndrome from acute coronary syndrome: Results from the International Takotsubo Registry. *Eur. J. Heart Fail.* 2017, *19*, 1036–1042. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Samul-Jastrzębska, J.; Roik, M.; Wretowski, D.; Łabyk, A.; Ślubowska, A.; Bizoń, A.; Paczyńska, M.; Kurnicka, K.; Pruszczyk, P.; Ciurzyński, M. Evaluation of the InterTAK Diagnostic Score in differentiating Takotsubo syndrome from acute coronary syndrome. A single center experience. *Cardiol. J.* 2021, 28, 416–422. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Keramida, K.; Backs, J.; Bossone, E.; Citro, R.; Dawson, D.; Omerovic, E.; Parodi, G.; Schneider, B.; Ghadri, J.R.; Van Laake, L.W.; et al. Takotsubo syndrome in heart failure and World Congress on Acute Heart Failure 2019: Highlights from the experts. ESC Heart Fail. 2020, 7, 400–406. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 36. Laumer, F.; Di Vece, D.; Cammann, V.L.; Würdinger, M.; Petkova, V.; Schönberger, M.; Schönberger, A.; Mercier, J.C.; Niederseer, D.; Seifert, B.; et al. Assessment of Artificial Intelligence in Echocardiography Diagnostics in Differentiating Takotsubo Syndrome From Myocardial Infarction. *JAMA Cardiol.* 2022. Online ahead of print. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 37. Wehbe, R.M.; Thomas, J.D. Validating Deep Learning to Distinguish Takotsubo Syndrome From Acute Myocardial Infarction-Beware of Shortcuts, Human Supervision Required. *JAMA Cardiol.* **2022**. Online ahead of print. [CrossRef]
- Silverio, A.; Parodi, G.; Scudiero, F.; Bossone, E.; Di Maio, M.; Vriz, O.; Bellino, M.; Zito, C.; Provenza, G.; Radano, I.; et al. Beta-blockers are associated with better long-term survival in patients with Takotsubo syndrome. *Heart* 2022. Online ahead of print. [CrossRef]
- Butt, J.H.; Bang, L.E.; Rørth, R.; Schou, M.; Kristensen, S.L.; Yafasova, A.; Havers-Borgersen, E.; Vinding, N.E.; Jessen, N.; Kragholm, K.; et al. Long-term Risk of Death and Hospitalization in Patients With Heart Failure and Takotsubo Syndrome: Insights From a Nationwide Cohort. J. Card. Fail. 2022. Online ahead of print. [CrossRef]
- 40. Singh, T.; Khan, H.; Gamble, D.T.; Scally, C.; Newby, D.E.; Dawson, D. Takotsubo Syndrome: Pathophysiology, Emerging Concepts, and Clinical Implications. *Circulation* **2022**, *145*, 1002–1019. [CrossRef]
- Gorini, A.; Galli, F.; Giuliani, M.; Pierobon, A.; Werba, J.P.; Adriano, E.P.; Trabattoni, D. Psychological Characteristics of Patients with Takotsubo Syndrome and Patients with Acute Coronary Syndrome: An Explorative Study toward a Better Personalized Care. J. Pers. Med. 2022, 12, 38. [CrossRef]
- D'Ascenzo, F.; Gili, S.; Bertaina, M.; Iannaccone, M.; Cammann, V.L.; Di Vece, D.; Kato, K.; Saglietto, A.; Szawan, K.A.; Frangieh, A.H.; et al. Impact of aspirin on takotsubo syndrome: A propensity score-based analysis of the InterTAK Registry. *Eur. J. Heart Fail.* 2020, 22, 330–337. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Amadio, P.; Porro, B.; Cavalca, V.; Barbieri, S.S.; Eligini, S.; Fiorelli, S.; Di Minno, A.; Gorini, A.; Giuliani, M.; Werba, J.P.; et al. Persistent long-term platelet activation and endothelial perturbation in women with Takotsubo syndrome. *Biomed. Pharm.* 2021, 136, 111259. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- Brenner, R.; Weilenmann, D.; Maeder, M.T.; Jörg, L.; Bluzaite, I.; Rickli, H.; De Pasquale, G.; Ammann, P. Clinical characteristics, sex hormones, and long-term follow-up in Swiss postmenopausal women presenting with Takotsubo cardiomyopathy. *Clin. Cardiol.* 2012, 35, 340–347. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 45. Roberts, B.J.; Dragon, J.A.; Moussawi, M.; Huber, S.A. Sex-specific signaling through Toll-Like Receptors 2 and 4 contributes to survival outcome of Coxsackievirus B3 infection in C57Bl/6 mice. *Biol. Sex Differ.* **2012**, *3*, 25. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 46. Napp, L.C.; Westenfeld, R.; Møller, J.E.; Pappalardo, F.; Ibrahim, K.; Bonello, L.; Wilkins, C.; Pershad, A.; Mannino, S.F.; Schreiber, T.L.; et al. Impella mechanical circulatory support for Takotsubo syndrome with shock: A retrospective multicenter analysis. *Cardiovasc. Revasc. Med.* 2021. Online ahead of print. [CrossRef]
- 47. Nakamori, T.; Nakamura, M.; Imamura, T. Implication of percutaneous left ventricular assist device for Takotsubo syndrome. *Cardiovasc. Revasc. Med.* **2022**. Online ahead of print. [CrossRef]
- Imori, Y.; Yoshikawa, T.; Murakami, T.; Isogai, T.; Yamaguchi, T.; Maekawa, Y.; Sakata, K.; Mochizuki, H.; Arao, K.; Otsuka, T.; et al. Impact of Trigger on Outcome of Takotsubo Syndrome—Multi-Center Registry From Tokyo Cardiovascular Care Unit Network. *Circ. Rep.* 2019, 1, 493–501. [CrossRef]
- 49. John, K.; Lal, A.; Mishra, A. A review of the presentation and outcome of takotsubo cardiomyopathy in COVID-19. *Monaldi. Arch. Chest Dis.* **2021**, *91*, 33759445. [CrossRef]
- 50. Hegde, S.; Khan, R.; Zordok, M.; Maysky, M. Characteristics and outcome of patients with COVID-19 complicated by Takotsubo cardiomyopathy: Case series with literature review. *Open Heart* **2020**, *7*, e001360. [CrossRef]