

1 **Long COVID and the cardiovascular system – elucidating causes and cellular mechanisms**
2 **in order to develop targeted diagnostic and therapeutic strategies.**

3 **A joint Scientific Statement of the ESC Working Groups on Cellular Biology of the Heart**
4 **and Myocardial & Pericardial Diseases**

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1 **Abstract**

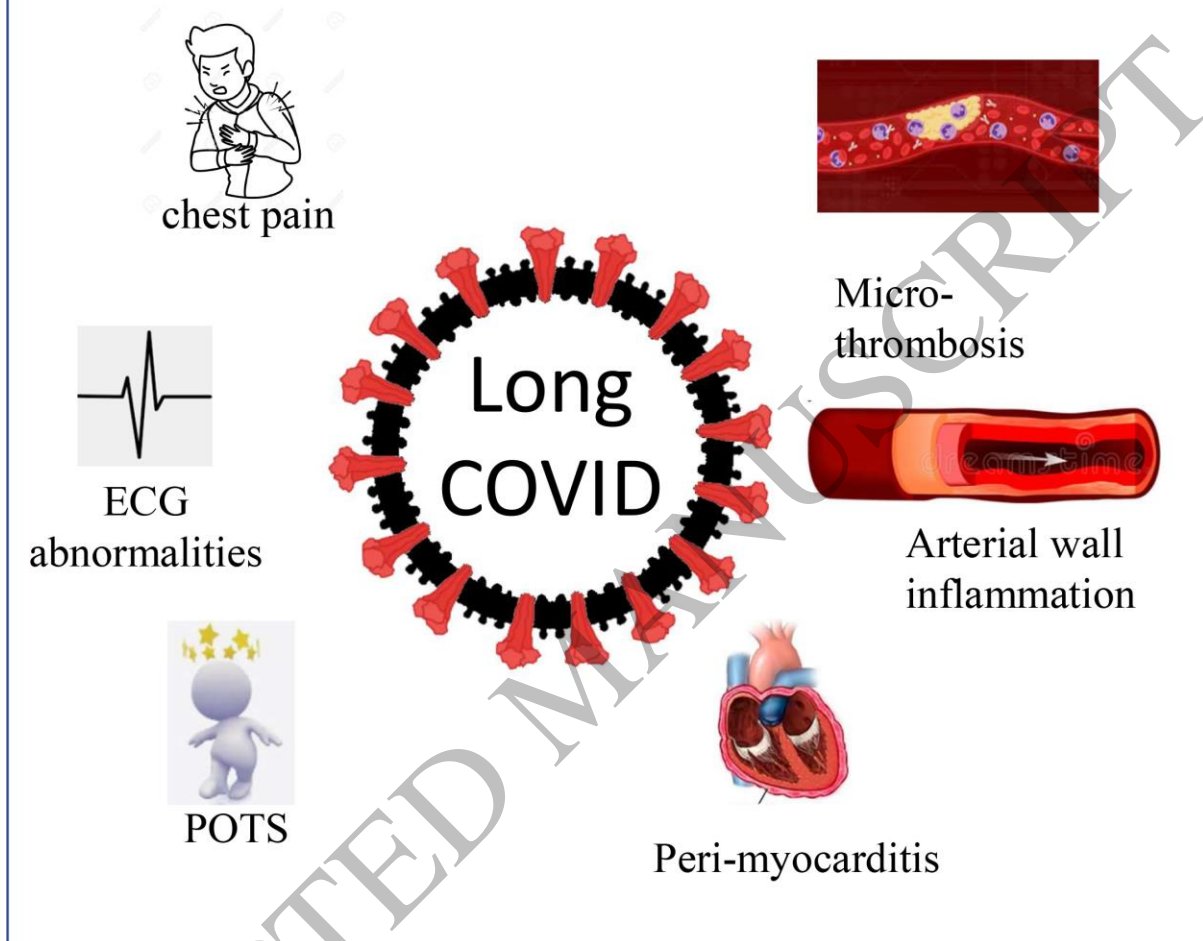
2 Long COVID has become a world-wide, non-communicable epidemic, caused by long-lasting multi-
3 organ symptoms that endure for weeks or months after SARS-CoV-2 infection has already subsided. This
4 scientific document aims to provide insight into the possible causes and therapeutic options available for
5 the cardiovascular manifestations of long COVID. In addition to chronic fatigue, which is a common
6 symptom of long COVID, patients may present with chest pain, ECG abnormalities, postural orthostatic
7 tachycardia, or newly developed supraventricular or ventricular arrhythmias. Imaging of the heart and
8 vessels has provided evidence of chronic, post-infectious peri-myocarditis with consequent left or right
9 ventricular failure, arterial wall inflammation or micro-thrombosis in certain patient populations. Better
10 understanding of the underlying cellular and molecular mechanisms of long COVID will aid in the
11 development of effective treatment strategies for its cardiovascular manifestations. A number of
12 mechanisms have been proposed, including those involving direct effects on the myocardium, micro-
13 thrombotic damage to vessels or endothelium, or persistent inflammation. Unfortunately, existing
14 circulating biomarkers, coagulation and inflammatory markers, are not highly predictive for either the
15 presence or outcome of long COVID when measured 3 months after SARS-CoV-2 infection. Further
16 studies are needed to understand underlying mechanisms, identify specific biomarkers and guide future
17 preventive strategies or treatments to address long COVID and its cardiovascular sequelae.

18

19

20 **Keywords:** COVID-19, long COVID, post COVID, virus, cardiovascular, cardiac

Graphical abstract



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2
3

Graphical Abstract

1 **Long-COVID syndrome**

2 **Epidemiology**

3 As of May 2022, over 500 million people world-wide have been infected with the SARS-CoV-2 virus and
4 its mutant variants. COVID-19, the disease caused by SARS-CoV-2, is burdened by an overall mortality
5 rate of 1%,¹ and in 2020 represented the third and second leading cause of mortality amongst people aged
6 45-84 or over 85 years old in US, respectively.² In some countries, including France, Spain and the UK,
7 COVID-19 was the leading cause of death in the last 2 years.^{3,4} Studies have estimated that 4.5% to
8 36.6% of all COVID-19 patients continue to suffer from symptoms more than 3 months post-infection, a
9 condition referred to as “post COVID” or “long COVID” (defined below).⁵⁻⁹ This rises as high as 76%
10 amongst those who required hospitalization during the infectious phase.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ A recent retrospective
11 analysis of 273,618 patients with proven prior SARS-CoV-2 infection revealed that 36.6% had long
12 COVID, with at least one of the 9 predefined, typical long-COVID symptoms recorded in electronic
13 health record (EHR) data between 3 and 6 months post infection.¹² Notably, in a matched control
14 population of 106,578 patients who previously had influenza, 29.7% experienced at least one of the
15 symptoms during the same period of observation.¹² Considering the possibility of selection and reporting
16 bias, this suggests that many aspects of long COVID are similar to other post viral diseases, even if there
17 are significant differences in prevalence, clinical manifestation or disease duration between post-viral
18 syndromes.^{7,8} A particular feature of SARS-COV-2 infection is that a single patient can be infected
19 several times within a relatively short time despite effective vaccination. A further alarming observation
20 is, that the morbidity, mortality and development of long COVID is largely not predictable, especially in
21 young patients.

22 Successful wide-spread vaccination against SARS-CoV-2 has reduced the severity of acute infection,
23 although concern remains about the possible escape of viral mutants with greater infectivity.¹⁵

24 Furthermore, the population of acutely infected individuals increasingly includes younger individuals who
25 are unvaccinated, and those whose immunity is waning post-vaccination.^{16,17} Therefore, more patients

1 with long COVID and possibly a shift in the age distribution of long COVID patients to those of younger
2 age may be anticipated.

3 Several clinical cardiovascular manifestations of long COVID have been reported in small studies with
4 questionable clinical relevance. However, a recent analysis of 153,760 individuals in national healthcare
5 databases from the US Department of Veterans Affairs, with comparison to over 10 million contemporary
6 and historical controls, revealed a significant increase in the incidence of cardiovascular disease in
7 surviving patients, and a 55% increase in combined cardiovascular outcome, 1 year after COVID-19.¹⁸
8 Notably, increased risk was observed even in non-hospitalized patients, with risk related to the severity of
9 the acute infection.¹⁸

10 *Clinical implication: Long COVID will clearly lead to an enormous health care burden on top of the*
11 *costs of acute COVID-19 medical support, which are already substantial. There is therefore an urgent*
12 *need to improve the diagnosis and treatment of long COVID, especially in the cardiovascular domain.*¹⁹
13

14 In this document, we discuss the main proposed mechanisms of long COVID, with a special emphasis on
15 the cardiovascular sequelae of COVID-19.

17 **2.2. Definition of acute, post-acute, and long COVID**

18 The post-viral convalescence of COVID-19 can last for several months up to a year or even longer. There
19 is no unique definition of this syndrome, and several different terms are used (**Table 1**). Most commonly,
20 the post-SARS-CoV-2 viral period is divided into “acute” (<4 weeks), “post-acute”, “new” or “ongoing”
21 (4 to 12 weeks) and “chronic (or long or post) COVID” (lasting 12 weeks or longer) phases.^{20, 21}

22 Additionally, patients hospitalized during severe SARS-CoV-2 infection and still hospitalized several
23 weeks or months after the acute infection due to severe complications when no longer infected, are
24 usually called “in-hospital post-COVID patients”. In this document, we use the term “long COVID”

1 where signs and symptoms continue beyond the acute phase of COVID-19, in line with the definition by
2 NICE and the NIH (who refer to it as post-Acute Sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection or PASC).^{22, 23} A
3 strict definition of long COVID requires confirmation of previous infection with SARS-CoV-2, either
4 with evidence of prior positivity for PCR or nucleocapsid antigen.

5

6 **2.3. General symptoms of long COVID**

7 The clinical presentation of long COVID patients varies considerably. A diverse range of over 200
8 symptoms have been reported for long COVID, involving all organs, which suggests that long COVID is
9 a systemic, multi-organ disease. Many symptoms are mild, non-specific and reversible, but moderate,
10 severe and persistent symptoms have also been reported, including thromboembolic consequences, lung
11 fibrosis, chronic inflammatory myocarditis, cardiovascular autonomic vegetative dysregulation (eg:
12 Postural Orthostatic Tachycardia Syndrome or POTS), and chronic post-viral fatigue syndrome (similar to
13 myalgic encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome, ME/CFS) leading to chronic disability.^{10, 24-27} The
14 most common symptoms are of neurologic-neuropsychiatric character (e.g. fatigue, brain fog, cognitive
15 disorders, insomnia, depression, post-exercise malaise, decrease of general health condition), followed by
16 pneumological (e.g. dyspnoea, cough) and cardiovascular symptoms (e.g. hypotonia, palpitation,
17 tachycardia, chest pain). Neuronal infection and intracerebral viral invasion may also contribute to
18 neurological-related symptoms affecting the heart-brain axis.²⁸ Further typical symptoms are joint and
19 muscle pain, hair loss, dermatological or other organ-related manifestations.

20 *Clinical implication: Cardiovascular symptoms are common in long-COVID patients and are the third-*
21 *most-frequent manifestation of the disease.*

22

1 **1.4 Risk factors**

2 Although more men experience symptoms from *acute* COVID-19 disease, 55-75% of long COVID
3 patients are women, with the greatest prevalence in those aged 40-60y.^{12, 29} Other predictors of long
4 COVID include: a greater body-mass index, older age, presence of combined symptoms from 5 or more
5 different organs during the SARS-CoV-2 infection, and, importantly severe COVID-19 disease requiring
6 hospitalization (**Table 2**).^{5, 10, 12, 24-26, 30} A combination of several factors, including severity of the illness
7 during acute COVID-19 infection, clinical symptoms, and lower SARS-CoV-2 IgG level, have been
8 found to be predictive for the development of PASC or long-COVID syndrome.³¹ Risk can be estimated
9 using the PASC score (a clinical symptom-based score combined with antibody signature) or other
10 calculated score.^{5, 32} However, all risk factors investigated, especially the laboratory parameters, have
11 been assessed in patients who were either hospitalized or had an outpatient visit due to severe symptoms.
12 Since approximately 90% of patients were not medically seen or isolated during the acute infection
13 because of a mild-moderate diseases course, an exact estimation of long-COVID risk factors for non-
14 hospitalized patients is not possible.

15 *Clinical implication: Risk of long COVID can be calculated for patients with severe COVID-19, based*
16 *on associated risk factors, but is difficult to predict for mild and non-hospitalized cases.*

17

18 **1.5 Diagnosis and patient management**

19 The main diagnostic process for long COVID aims to either verify or exclude objective organ disorders,
20 such as newly developed autoimmune or post-inflammatory chronic myocarditis or lung fibrosis, or
21 unexpected progression of pre-existing diseases, e.g.: chronic obstructive lung disease, coronary artery
22 disease, chronic kidney dysfunction, diabetes mellitus, re-activation of autoimmune or endocrine
23 disorders. Detailed guidelines for general diagnosis of long COVID, artificial intelligence-based
24 diagnostic or prediction models for patient management have been published in several specific journals,
25 addressing primary, secondary and tertiary care workers, and specific medical professionals.^{23, 30, 33-41}

1 **Cardiovascular manifestations of long COVID**

2 The *cardiovascular symptoms* of long COVID are a consequence of multiple cardiac and extracardiac
3 pathological sequelae (**Figure 1**), including residual respiratory abnormalities with abnormally low peak-
4 of-maximal oxygen consumption, pulmonary hypertension, muscular deconditioning, cytokine
5 dysregulation, left or right ventricular dysfunction, chronotropic incompetence, altered parasympathetic
6 tone or increased heart rate variability (**Table 3**).^{19, 21, 42-49}

7 Generally, patients who required hospitalization during the acute COVID-19 phase present with more
8 severe cardiovascular symptoms in long COVID, and with much higher incidence than in mild-to-
9 moderate or asymptomatic patients.^{18, 50-53} For hospitalized patients who had elevated cardiac troponin T,
10 the in-hospital, 6-month and 12-month mortality rates were 28.6%, 32.2%, and 33.2%, respectively,
11 compared with 4.1%, 4.9%, and 4.9% mortality of patients with low-level positive troponin T and 0%
12 mortality in those with undetectable troponin T.⁵³ Patients with high troponin T during index
13 hospitalization were re-hospitalized significantly more often and developed long-term symptoms.⁵³

14 *Clinical implication: There are currently few randomized studies of long-COVID symptoms. Reports of*
15 *cardiovascular symptoms are based entirely on individual subjective assessment, with the challenge*
16 *being to verify the underlying cause.*

17
18 Several studies have reported *cardiac manifestations* in patients affected by long COVID, although their
19 prevalence varies according to the population studied and the methodology with which the data were
20 collected (**Table 4**). Temporary or persistent ECG and Holter-ECG abnormalities have been described in
21 some long COVID patients, at a frequency ranging from <1% in young athletes to as high as 27.5% in
22 patients requiring hospitalization due to cardiovascular complications.^{54, 55} The prevalence of ECG
23 changes depends on the time since acute COVID-19 infection, the patient population and pre-existing
24 cardiovascular abnormalities. The changes detected include sinus tachycardia, unspecific ST-changes,

1 ST-elevation without signs of myocardial ischemia, T-wave abnormalities, prolonged QT interval, low
2 voltage, development of new complete or incomplete bundle branch block.^{24, 54, 55} ECG combined with tilt
3 table test is useful for the diagnosis of POTS.⁵⁶

4 Although most COVID-19-related acute abnormalities in ventricular size, geometry and function resolve
5 over time, some abnormal echocardiographic findings may remain, including adverse left and right
6 ventricular remodelling, diastolic and systolic dysfunction, pulmonary hypertension, pericardial effusions,
7 or reduced LV or RV global longitudinal strain.^{47, 50, 57-59} It has been suggested that such late pathological
8 findings can be correlated with the severity of the acute COVID-19, the time since the acute illness and
9 the number of persisting symptoms.⁶⁰

10 In-depth characterization of cardiac involvement by cardiac magnetic resonance imaging (cMRI) has
11 revealed ongoing myocardial oedema, inflammation, fibrosis, impaired LV and RV function and
12 pericardial enhancement and/or effusions in some patients studied after the acute phase of COVID-19.
13 Some studies were relatively small with <50 patients, and conflicting results have been reported regarding
14 the actual prevalence. Accordingly, the significance of these findings depend on patient population and
15 time between COVID-19 disease and imaging time (**Table 4**).^{27, 61-65} Furthermore, even in hospitalized
16 severe COVID-19 patients, myocarditis-like injury was limited to three or less myocardial segments in
17 88% of cases, with no associated LV dysfunction.²⁷ A recent meta-analysis of cardiac involvement of
18 long-COVID syndrome assessed by cMRI reported decreased LV and RV function in non-athlete, long-
19 COVID patients as compared to healthy controls.⁶⁶ The cMRI abnormalities seen in patients recovered
20 from acute COVID-19 are not always associated with pre-existing co-morbidities, other chronic clinical
21 conditions, severity of the acute COVID-19 illness or persistence of symptoms.^{63, 67} A prospective case-
22 control cMRI study of 149 healthcare workers found that cardiovascular abnormalities were no more
23 common in seropositive versus seronegative individuals 6 months following mild COVID-19.⁶⁸ The exact
24 prevalence and incidence of these cardiovascular signs in long COVID patients is still unclear, due to
25 substantial differences between studies, cMRI protocols, timing of disease, and patient selection criteria.

1 To complement cMRI information, functional PET/CT studies could be useful to demonstrate PET tracer
2 uptake in active inflammatory lesions^{69, 70}. However, to date, this specific application has rarely been
3 employed in the clinical context of long COVID.⁷¹ [18F]-FDG- PET/CT imaging of 10 patients with
4 persisting long COVID symptoms exhibited significantly higher target-to-blood pool ratio in the thoracic
5 aorta, right iliac artery, and femoral arteries, compared to controls.⁷² Whole-body [18F]-FDG PET/CT
6 images of long COVID patients revealed increased [18F]-FDG uptake in several tissues (lung,
7 mediastinal lymph node, large vessels) in a subgroup of patients, and a brain hypometabolism of
8 individuals suffering from persistent anosmia and/or ageusia.⁷³ Cardiac 18F-FDG PET/CT of 5 patients
9 with cardiac symptoms in the post-acute COVID phase displayed higher 18F-FDG-PET uptake of the LV
10 lateral and inferolateral walls, suggesting “myocardial fatigue syndrome”.⁷⁴

11 *Clinical implication: Although cardiac manifestations occur in some patients affected by long COVID,*
12 *in some cases these might have already existed before they had COVID-19, even if the patients did not*
13 *have previous corresponding complaints, but this is difficult to assess, due to missing individual*
14 *comparative baseline measures. Additionally, several diagnostic investigations have been performed in*
15 *highly pre-selected patient populations and their wider applicability is difficult to ascertain.*

16
17 **Table 5** summarizes the newly diagnosed *cardiovascular manifestations* during the long COVID phase.
18 New hypertension and diabetes mellitus have been diagnosed in up to 10% and 2.4% of individuals,
19 respectively. Indirect hemodynamic consequences may be caused by chronic kidney disease,⁷⁵⁻⁷⁷ or
20 gastrointestinal disorders.⁷⁸ Several case reports and small case series report stroke,^{79, 80}
21 microangiopathy⁸¹, venous thromboembolism,^{79, 82} heart failure,⁷⁹ or need for hospitalization.⁸² In a large
22 retrospective study, mean 140 days post-discharge, 29.4% of patients required re-hospitalization, with a
23 mortality rate 7.7-fold greater than those in a control group with matched clinical characteristics.⁸³
24 Cardiovascular involvement with Kawasaki syndrome (especially in children) has been reported in
25 delayed Multisystem Inflammatory Syndrome (MIS) induced by COVID-19 disease.^{84, 85} The Kawasaki-

1 like, MIS in children (MIS-C, also called pediatric MIS or PMIS) and in adults (MIS-A) is a very rare (2
2 in 100,000) complication of SARS-CoV-2 infection, which manifests in the post-acute phase of infection
3 and is characterized by generalized hyperinflammation with cardiovascular involvement.⁸⁶⁻⁸⁹

4 *Clinical implication: Multiorgan diagnostic screening procedures may reveal hidden systemic diseases*
5 *and presence of risk factors. The increased prevalence of risk factors in a predominantly young or*
6 *middle-aged population warrants attention and suggests the importance of ongoing systematic and*
7 *cardiovascular assessment of long COVID patients.*

8

9 **Circulating clinical biomarkers predictive for cardiovascular** 10 **manifestations of long COVID**

11

12 Several studies have evaluated whether standard clinical biomarkers can predict the severity and duration
13 of long COVID. Only a few of these studies have considered novel biomarkers using unbiased approaches
14 to predict cardiovascular manifestations associated with long COVID. Overall, these studies suggest that
15 circulating inflammatory and coagulation biomarkers may persist during long COVID, and therefore
16 potentially indicate altered cardiac metabolism and increased thromboembolic and cardiovascular risks.
17 However, most biomarker studies are based on small patient datasets and are lacking either: laboratory
18 confirmation of prior SARS-CoV-2 infection; longitudinal evaluation; appropriate match-controlled
19 groups to ascertain specificity for long COVID; replication with independent data sets; and/or evaluation
20 of biomarker correlation with specific manifestations of long COVID, notably cardiovascular. Further
21 studies are therefore required to assess the longitudinal evolution of these biomarkers during the time
22 course of long COVID. Ongoing large-scale studies, including BIOMARK-COVID (NCT04664023),
23 French COVID Cohort (NCT04262921), MOIST Study (NCT04525404), PHOSP-COVID, follow-up

1 study of the ISARIC cohort⁹⁰, COVIDOM-study⁹¹ and the use of large-scale screening technologies will
2 hopefully provide more conclusive data.

3 **Circulating inflammatory and cardiac-related markers**

4 There are some indications that levels of proinflammatory markers remain elevated in patients with long
5 COVID.⁹² (**Table 6**). In particular, several inflammatory markers that are typically elevated during the
6 acute disease, including C-reactive proteins (CRP) and interleukins (IL), may remain elevated when
7 measured 2 or more months post-disease onset.⁹³⁻⁹⁵ However, the percentage of long-COVID patients
8 with elevated inflammatory markers reported by various studies varies widely, from 10% to 73%, and
9 some inflammatory markers, such as interleukin-6, show inconsistent association with long-COVID
10 symptoms^{13, 95-103} It is important to note that most published biomarker studies that have examined
11 association with patient outcome (eg: CRP^{99, 104} and ferritin^{101, 105}) are very preliminary and inconclusive
12 due to small patient numbers, the presence of confounding factors, or lack of appropriate control groups.
13 One notable exception is the study by Phetsouphanh et al., in which inflammatory markers in long-
14 COVID patients were compared with matching populations of individuals recovered from COVID-19,
15 unexposed controls and individuals infected with other coronaviruses.¹⁰⁶ Time-dependent elevations of
16 inflammatory biomarkers were detected, and combinations of the plasma levels of IFN- β , PTX3
17 (pentraxin-3), IFN- γ , IFN- λ 2/3 and IL-6 characterized long COVID with 78.5–81.6% accuracy. Finally,
18 among the various efforts to identify new diagnostic biomarkers for long COVID, small-scale mass
19 spectrometry-based multiplex assays and machine learning studies have been conducted but so far these
20 remain explorative studies and far from clinical translation.^{107 108}

21 **Circulating coagulation biomarkers**

22 Elevated blood levels of coagulation markers (D-dimer, factor VIII, von Willebrand factor, plasma
23 soluble thrombomodulin) have been detected during long COVID,^{13, 98, 109} together with increased
24 erythrocyte sedimentation rate,¹⁰¹ altered vascular responsiveness¹⁰⁰ and structural membrane homeostasis
25 of red blood cells,¹¹⁰ raising the possibility of long-term risks of thromboembolic diseases and

1 endotheliopathy for long COVID patients (**Table 6**). Persistently elevated D-dimer was found in 3
2 reported cases of STEMI in post-COVID patients with no prior cardiovascular risk factors.¹¹¹ Higher
3 levels of D-dimer at acute COVID-19 admission also correlated with persistent lung damage in long
4 COVID patients.¹¹²

5 **Current research on novel biomarkers of long COVID**

6 Metabolic phenotyping approaches have been deployed to find novel predictive markers of long COVID
7 (**Table 6**), but are all at the exploratory research level and require validation. An elevated blood taurine
8 level with a reduced glutamine/glutamate ratio at 3 months post-COVID was identified, potentially
9 reflecting liver, heart and muscle damage.¹¹³ Lower nitrite and nitrite/nitrate levels were found in
10 recovered COVID-19 patients.¹¹⁴ Since nitric oxide (NO) plays an important role in the cardiovascular
11 system, further research is warranted to elucidate whether NO levels could reflect cardiovascular damage.
12 Potential molecular biomarkers that could help predicting cardiovascular outcomes of patients with
13 SARS-CoV-2 infection are non-coding RNAs, due to their dynamic regulation in response to disease. In
14 fact, several microRNAs and lncRNAs that could potentially influence symptoms were reported to be
15 differentially expressed in acutely infected patients. Upregulation of miR-21, miR-155, miR-208a and
16 miR-499 in COVID-19 patients was suggested to be a predictor of chronic myocardial damage and
17 inflammation.^{115, 116} Most of these targets still require validation for their predictive value regarding the
18 onset of short and/or long-term cardiovascular events following SARS-CoV-2 infection.¹¹⁷

19 ***Clinical implication: Currently there are no specific biomarkers of long COVID. The diverse, organ-***
20 ***specific, circulating biomarkers that have been detected are a consequence of the COVID-19 infection-***
21 ***related organ disorders, with their established diagnostic and predictive values.***

22

1 Cellular and molecular mechanisms of cardiovascular long COVID

2 manifestations

3 Increasing research data are available about the cellular and molecular mechanisms that may drive cardiac
4 and vascular injuries associated with long COVID (**Figure 2**). An *in silico* study by Hachim *et al.*¹¹⁸
5 identified several genes to be differentially expressed in various cell types which are known to play roles
6 in endothelial cell function and cardioprotection, namely in migration and regulation of cellular response
7 to stress, and in viral infection. However, it is conceivable that different causes and underlying
8 mechanisms may be responsible for the different clinical manifestations of long COVID, leading to
9 multiple types of disease presentations.

10

11 Cellular response

12 **Table 7** summarizes the cellular dysregulation that occur in long-COVID syndrome. Long-COVID
13 manifestations involve autoimmune responses, with self-damaging effector responses by autoreactive T
14 cells and autoantibodies to self-antigens produced by plasma cells. Several research groups investigated
15 the B- and T- cell populations in different time intervals after infection onset. Files *et al.* found increased
16 expression of Programmed Cell Death protein (PD1) in convalescent individuals lasting up to 45 days,¹¹⁹
17 while Yao *et al.* detected SARS-CoV-2-specific memory B cells and interferon- γ -secreting T cells in 70%
18 of patients up to 9 months.¹²⁰ Lack of naïve T and B-cells expressing CD127 and TIM-3, as well as
19 increase in activated myeloid cells, and plasmacytoid dendritic cells were reported.¹⁰⁶ Interestingly,
20 expression of several B- and T-cell surface molecules persisted in longitudinal samples, suggesting a role
21 for prolonged cellular dysregulation in long-COVID patients.¹¹⁹ New onset autoantibodies appear in
22 hospitalized patients with COVID-19¹²¹ and may continue following infection,¹²² but their contribution to
23 long COVID remains to be determined.

1 The sequelae of other viral infections (eg. influenza, parvo-virus B19, Epstein-Barr, Dengue or Ebola) are
2 usually shorter and present fewer and less severe symptoms over time.^{9, 12, 75, 123} Nevertheless, the clinical
3 similarities with long COVID suggest autoimmune reactive inflammation associated with release of auto-
4 antigens by activated or dying neutrophils, elevation of neutrophils to lymphocytes ratio (NLR) and
5 neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs), which lead to the conversion of acute SARS-CoV-2 infection to
6 long COVID.^{124, 125}

7 SARS-CoV-2 infection activates mast cells. Since acquired mast cell clonality is characterized by
8 aggravation of inflammation and generalized allergy, causing chronic multiorgan manifestation and
9 typically fatigue syndrome, activation of mast cells has been proposed as one of the possible causes of
10 long-COVID syndrome.¹²⁶ However, since systemic mastocytosis is difficult to diagnose from blood
11 samples, the significance of this hypothesis is weak, and remains to be confirmed.

12 An additional immune mechanism contributing to long COVID could involve epigenetic reprogramming
13 of hematopoietic progenitors, which alters the phenotype of blood cells. A recent, real-time deformability
14 cytometry analysis of blood samples from a small number of patients (17 acute COVID-19 patients, 14
15 recovered and 20 healthy volunteers), showed that COVID-19 infection caused significant changes in the
16 size and stiffness of red blood cells and leukocytes.¹²⁷

17 *Scientific implication: The hypothesis that immune dysregulation is involved in the cardiovascular*
18 *manifestation of long COVID is currently highly speculative, but may provide a possible explanation*
19 *for the multiorgan character of the long-COVID syndrome, and justifies further investigation.*

21 **Molecular pathomechanisms and cellular senescence**

22 The majority of long-COVID patients suffer from chronic fatigue syndrome, a disease entity very similar
23 to ME/CFS. ME/CFS has been suggested to be related to mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress,
24 and the same pathomechanism has therefore been suggested for fatigue in long COVID (**Table 7**).¹²⁸

1 The clear vulnerability of most elderly patients to the devastating impact of SARS-CoV-2 and long
2 COVID indicates a possible effect of infection on accelerated senescence of the immune system.^{129, 130} It
3 is possible that the viral infection enhances the diffuse pro-inflammatory status in organs susceptible to
4 aging. Most cardiomyocytes are terminally differentiated and, with aging, release inflammatory cytokines
5 related to the senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP),¹³¹ causing various cardiac
6 dysfunctions.¹³² A correlation has been observed between the degree of “biological” aging, as determined
7 by telomere length, and severity of acute COVID-19.^{133, 134} Even more alarming is evidence that prior
8 infection with SARS-CoV-2 may accelerate the epigenetic “clock”¹³⁵ by increasing methylation at age-
9 sensitive DNA CpG islands and by shortening telomeres,¹³⁶ since significant telomere shortening in blood
10 cells and an acceleration of biological aging (5 years above normality) have been reported in COVID-19
11 survivors,¹³⁶ suggesting that COVID-19–induced epigenetic alterations could contribute to long-COVID
12 symptoms.

13 Although the molecular mechanisms underlying this effect are far from being elucidated, it is possible
14 that interaction of the viral S-protein with SARS-CoV-2 cellular receptors¹³⁷ induces replicative
15 senescence and overexpression of SASP factors,^{138, 139} with long-lasting consequences on cardiomyocyte
16 function or persistent activation of cardiac-resident fibroblasts.¹⁴⁰ In this respect, the use of senolytic
17 drugs to eliminate senescent cells from tissues could help to limit the consequences of accelerated tissue
18 senescence in long COVID, as recently demonstrated in animal models of SARS-CoV-2 infection.^{141, 142}
19 However, this research remains at an early stage and current senolytics are unlikely candidates as they are
20 generally untested clinically and present some unwanted toxicity.

21 *Scientific implication: The molecular pathomechanisms of the cardiovascular manifestations of long*
22 *COVID are largely unexplored, due to lack of respective cell culture or animal models.*

23

1 **Persistence of viral particles and the role of hidden reservoirs**

2 Although the SARS-CoV-2 virus is typically cleared within the first weeks of infection, viral particles can
3 persist in some patients,¹⁴³ leading to sustained T- and B-cell activation and potentially causing long
4 COVID.⁷⁸ Viral persistence might be facilitated by immunosuppressive treatment, or by residence within
5 immune-privileged sites or hidden reservoirs such as the intestines.^{78, 144, 145} Another possibility is immune
6 exhaustion following prolonged antigen stimulation.¹⁴⁶ The presence of a viral superantigen within
7 SARS-CoV-2 has also been suggested, which could overstimulate the immune response thereby inducing
8 a paradoxical, negative immunological feedback loop.¹⁴⁷ In some patients, reactivation of latent Epstein-
9 Barr virus (EBV) or cytomegalovirus (CMV) infection occurs during acute COVID-19. EBV reactivation
10 anticipates some symptoms of long COVID, despite little viral mRNA remaining in the blood.¹⁴⁸
11 Nevertheless this suggests antivirals during the acute phase may lessen some long COVID effects, at least
12 in certain patients.

13 The extent to which cells of the myocardium can be virally infected during the acute phase is debated.
14 There is some evidence for infection of cardiomyocytes in cardiac biopsies,¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵¹ but differentiating true
15 myocyte infection from stromal, vascular, or inflammatory cell infection precludes any definite
16 conclusions. Furthermore, whether any viral particles isolated would be replication competent is not
17 clear.^{140, 143, 152} However, when assessed according to established criteria, there is little evidence for acute
18 or persistent lymphocytic myocarditis even amongst patients with persistent cardiac symptoms after a
19 COVID-19 infection.¹⁵³ Since SARS-CoV-2 infects alveolar macrophages¹⁵⁴, and increased numbers of
20 macrophages have been detected in hearts of patients deceased with COVID-19, another possibility is that
21 there is a unique type of myocarditis associated with diffusely infiltrative cells of monocytes/macrophage
22 lineage.¹⁵⁵

23 *Scientific implication: Based on current evidence it is unlikely that viral persistence in myocardium*
24 *contributes to post-acute COVID-19 cardiovascular sequelae. However, the long-term consequences of*
25 *the viral infected myocardium should be further evaluated.*

1

2 **Persistence of vascular and endothelial dysfunction and pro-thrombotic** 3 **complications**

4 The endothelium has been proposed to underly the pathology behind the clinical presentation in severe
5 COVID-19 and contribute to long-term cardiovascular complications.¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁵⁸ (Table 8). Importantly,
6 several pathologic processes persist even once SARS-CoV-2 is no longer detectable. These processes
7 include microthrombosis, deterioration of capillary integrity, capillary flow disturbance and heterogeneity
8 of capillary transit time with reduced oxygen extraction.¹⁵⁹ The end result is microvascular and alveolar
9 gas exchange malfunction, further leading to hypoxaemia of diverse organs including heart, brain, lung
10 and kidney and sequelae of the disease.¹⁵⁹

11 Endotheliopathy and coagulation markers remain elevated in a significant proportion of convalescent
12 patients,^{98, 109} suggesting that the infection creates a chronic coagulopathy, endotheliitis or
13 microangiopathy with microthrombosis which may drive myocardial dysfunction,¹⁸ although so far, the
14 effect on heart function appears to be relatively minimal.²⁷ This condition should be appropriately
15 monitored in the future by studies in larger patient cohorts, taking advantage of advanced imaging
16 systems such as cMRI.

17 *Clinical implication: Micro- and macro- vessel changes are associated with endothelial dysfunction,*
18 *coagulopathy and microthrombi, and are likely to be major factors in the persistence of cardiovascular*
19 *manifestations of long-COVID syndrome.*

20

21 **Genetic underpinnings of long COVID**

22 Women tend to be at higher risk for long COVID,⁹⁰ despite the mortality rate being higher for men during
23 the acute phase.^{160, 161} Genetic variants were implicated in shaping the immune response in several viral

1 diseases,¹⁶² and preclinical data indicates that ACE2 expression levels are sex-dependent.¹⁶⁰ Despite the
2 involvement of ACE2 in SARS-CoV-2-host cell interaction, no association between serum ACE activity
3 and COVID-19 disease severity has been found.¹⁶³

4 Whole-exome and -genome sequencing of 659 patients with life-threatening COVID-19 pneumonia found
5 genetic variants predicted to be loss-of-function (pLOF) at 13 loci previously associated with other life-
6 threatening viral illness (e.g. influenza pneumonia). Genetic variants associated with poor clinical
7 outcomes in acute COVID-19 patients occurred in genes participating in type I interferon (IFN)
8 immunity, suggesting that impaired type I IFN production might underlie life-threatening COVID-19
9 pneumonia.^{164, 165} Considering that inflammation and immunological alterations have been indicated as
10 potential mechanisms of the cardiovascular sequelae of long COVID,¹⁶⁶ the results of these genetic
11 studies might implicate IFN family members as critical molecules involved in the persistent myocardial
12 inflammatory response after SARS-CoV-2 infection.¹⁸ Despite this, recent data evaluating circulating
13 levels of IFN and COVID-19 severity have concluded that IFNs levels do not reflect the clinical status of
14 COVID-19 patients and are not recommended as a marker of disease severity.¹⁶⁷

15 A genome-wide association study involving 1,980 patients with COVID-19-induced respiratory failure,
16 found a single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) at ABO blood group genetic locus to be associated with
17 COVID-19 severity.¹⁶⁸ Despite the association between ABO blood groups and long-term cardiovascular
18 outcomes¹⁶⁹ and the presence of cardiometabolic alterations observed in long-term SARS-CoV-1
19 survivors,¹⁷⁰ the role of ABO locus genetic variants in the determinism of long-term cardiovascular
20 alterations after SARS-CoV-(1/2) infection is still unknown. However, considering that the ABO locus
21 has been associated with genetic susceptibility for many different diseases (e.g., cancer, cardiovascular
22 diseases, infections, hematologic disorders etc.¹⁷¹), it would be hard to pin-point any specific mechanisms
23 involving ABO groups and long COVID sequelae.

1 Recently, international, large scale, genetic consortia such as the COVID Human Genetic Effort¹⁷² have
2 been formed, with the aim of defining the genetic determinants of long COVID and its cardiovascular
3 features.¹⁷³

4 *Clinical implication: Considering the variability of presentations and the differences in individual*
5 *susceptibility to long COVID, genetic research in this field may hold promise. Genetic research in*
6 *COVID-19, including GWAS studies in COVID-19 and long COVID populations, focused on host*
7 *genetic variants associated with specific sub-phenotypes, should be pursued in order to identify*
8 *mechanistic targets for therapeutic intervention.*¹⁷⁴⁻¹⁷⁶

9

10 **Current and future strategies for investigating the mechanism of long COVID**

11 Several animal models expressing human ACE2 have been developed to permit investigation of the acute
12 effects on SARS-CoV-2 infection.¹⁷⁷ This approach was used to demonstrate that SARS-CoV-2-induced
13 senescence, a putative mechanism of long COVID as discussed above, could be eliminated using
14 senolytics in hamster and mouse models of acute COVID-19.^{141, 142} Cardiomyocytes derived from iPSC
15 (iCM) have been used to investigate acute infection by SARS-CoV-2,¹⁵¹ although important caveats arise
16 regarding their maturity. 3D cellular models such as human cardiospheres and engineered cardiac tissue
17 may be better models of the myocardium,^{140, 150} even if their utility in investigating long COVID remains
18 to be established. The use of mouse-adapted SARS-CoV-2 provides the opportunity to study both acute
19 and long-term effects of infection.¹⁷⁸

20

21 **Outstanding questions related to long COVID**

22 As can be seen from the discussion above, many aspects about the causes and cardiovascular
23 consequences of long COVID remain to be understood. Some of the key immediate questions are:

- 1 1. Is long COVID a continuation of the active COVID-19 disease in a milder form, or a new
- 2 multiorgan disease based on the virus-induced morphological and functional changes?
- 3 2. To what extent is long COVID different from the sequelae of infection with other post-respiratory
- 4 viruses?
- 5 3. What are the long-term (>1 year) cardiovascular consequences of long COVID?
- 6 4. What are the long-term consequences of the subclinical findings, such as hemodynamic non-
- 7 significant perimyocarditis or pericardial effusion detected after COVID-19 infection?
- 8 5. What are the long-term consequences of the hemodynamic compromise of the patients with
- 9 POTS or autonomic dysfunction or COVID-induced hypertension?
- 10 6. What are the long-term consequences of the viral load of cardiomyocytes inducing subclinical or
- 11 clinical myocarditis?
- 12 7. What are the long-term consequences of the activated EBV viremia during active infection;
- 13 regarding chronic active infection or autoimmune diseases or increased incidence of
- 14 malignancies?
- 15 8. Does COVID-19 induce dyslipidemia similar to the previous MERS coronavirus variants, and
- 16 will it lead to accelerated atherosclerosis processes?
- 17 9. How can long COVID be prevented?
- 18 10. Is there any specific biomarker with high diagnostic value for cardiovascular effects of long
- 19 COVID?
- 20
- 21

22 **Approaches for further development of diagnostic procedures and**

23 **therapeutic options for cardiovascular long COVID**

24 **manifestations**

26 **Diagnostic procedure**

27 The ESC Council for Cardiology Practice has published a position paper on the evaluation and
28 management of long COVID patients with new cardiovascular symptoms.³⁶ Management guidelines

1 apply to people with both suspected or confirmed prior acute COVID-19, irrespective of whether they had
2 a positive or negative SARS-CoV-2 PCR test, but proven infection by presence of nucleocapsid
3 antibody.²³ The cardiovascular symptoms of long COVID are difficult to distinguish from the cardiac
4 fatigue syndrome caused by other organ diseases, such as lung fibrosis, chronic thromboembolic or
5 gastroenteric or peripheral muscle or joint diseases.

6 Here, we focus on the general diagnostics of cardiovascular symptoms and findings, that have been
7 suggested for long-COVID patients at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, as discussed in more detail
8 in specific guidelines.^{21-23, 30, 33, 36}

9

10 **Cardiovascular diagnostics that are suggested for long-COVID patients**

- 11 1. Routine measurements of troponin T or I in all COVID patients shortly after first negative PCR
12 test. Hospitalized patients with elevated troponin during acute COVID-19 infection have a
13 substantial higher mortality than patients without troponin elevation.^{19, 179-181} Since troponin is not
14 measured in non-hospitalized patients with no, mild or moderate symptoms, the subclinical
15 cardiac complications are severely underestimated. However, this option is still of clinical
16 relevance.
- 17 2. Routine laboratory measurements of inflammatory (CRP), coagulation (D-dimer) and organ
18 (kidney, musculoskeletal, rheumatic, hematologic) disease parameter, ECG and chest X-ray for
19 all long-COVID patients.
- 20 3. Cardiology screening of *symptomatic patients with previous heart disease or hospitalized* during
21 COVID-19 infection 1 month after the infection with ECG, laboratory investigations,
22 echocardiography, Holter-ECG, chest X-ray and spirometry/spiro-ergometry;
- 23 4. Cardiology screening of *asymptomatic patients with previous heart disease* 3 month after COVID
24 infection with ECG, laboratory investigations, echocardiography. Further specific investigations
25 (eg. stress testing, Holter-ECG) should be considered if necessary.
- 26 5. Cardiovascular screening of *symptomatic, non-hospitalized long-COVID patients without history*
27 *of pre-existing cardiovascular disease* with mild-moderate COVID disease at the primary care
28 with ECG and laboratory investigation. Option to admit the patients to a) secondary care for

1 echocardiography, Holter-ECG, chest X-ray and spirometry or spiroergometry or b) specific
2 Long-COVID outpatient clinics;

3 6. Cardiac -MRI for *athletes* before starting the active sport;

4 7. Cardiovascular rehabilitation to a) all COVID-19-hospitalized patients; b) all patients with history
5 of cardiovascular diseases; c) all long-COVID patients with cardiovascular symptoms of any
6 origin;

7 8. Cardiac MRI for all patients with new onset of cardiovascular disease developed after COVID-19
8 infection.

9 ***Clinical implication: Targeted cardiovascular investigations should be performed in long-COVID***
10 ***patients with a history of cardiac or cardiovascular diseases or who were hospitalized during the acute***
11 ***infection, with an individualised diagnostic plan. Symptom-oriented cardiovascular diagnostic***
12 ***screening procedures are useful for patients with a mild or moderate disease course to verify or***
13 ***exclude SARS-CoV-2-induced long-lasting organ disorders.***

15 **Therapeutic options for long COVID patients with cardiovascular symptoms**

16 Symptomatic treatment

17 To date, no pharmaceutical agents have been shown to ameliorate all symptoms, or improve imaging and
18 biomarker abnormalities caused by long COVID.⁹⁴ In most cases, the therapy of cardiac manifestations is
19 limited to symptomatic treatment, for example anti-vasospastic drugs in patients with atypical angina or
20 beta-blockers for palpitations. Medicinal treatment strategies for POTS include alpha-1 agonists, steroids,
21 compression garments, fluid and salt intake, whereas those for CFS include Toll-like receptor-3 agonists,
22 analgesics, and mitochondrial modulators including Coenzyme Q10. Therapy options for mast cell
23 activation syndromes include anti-histamines, mast cell stabilators or leukotriene antagonist.⁹⁴ Non-
24 steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs may be used to manage specific symptoms such as fever and pain.

1 Dietary supplements or other non-specific treatments

2 Several dietary supplements with putative antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, immunomodulatory, cardio- or
3 neuroprotective effects have been recommended, such as high-dose Vitamin C or different Vitamin
4 complexes, Iron, Selenium, Zinc, etc, beside antihistamines, H2-receptor blockers, or low-dose beta-
5 blockers.^{182, 183} Several patients report some symptom improvement, with individual reactions to these
6 substances. Anecdotal case reports have been published on hyperbaric oxygen therapy^{184, 185} or Aptamer
7 BC007¹⁸⁶ though without a strong scientific basis.

8 There are currently more than 300 interventional studies of “long COVID” or “post COVID” registered
9 on clinicaltrials.gov. The NIH has recently provided \$470 million to fund the “Researching COVID to
10 Enhance Recovery (RECOVER) Initiative” ([https://www.nih.gov/news-events/news-releases/nih-builds-
11 large-nationwide-study-population-tens-thousands-support-research-long-term-effects-covid-19](https://www.nih.gov/news-events/news-releases/nih-builds-large-nationwide-study-population-tens-thousands-support-research-long-term-effects-covid-19)).

12 *Clinical implication: There is currently no evidence-based data for therapy of long COVID, and a lack*
13 *of randomized clinical trials. Until the precise cause of long COVID and its cardiovascular*
14 *manifestations become clear, it is difficult to predict which interventions are likely to be effective.*
15 *However, given the increasingly intense investigation in this area, the situation is likely to improve.*

16

17 Rehabilitation programs

18 A personalized multi-disciplinary rehabilitation approach involving breathing, mobilisation, “paced”
19 training (pacing) and psychological interventions has improved lung function and physical capacity in
20 post-COVID patients.^{187, 188} Therefore, light aerobic exercise paced according to individual capacity may
21 be effective in treating post-COVID in some patients. However, certain long-COVID conditions such as
22 POTS or CFS with post-exertional malaise do not always respond favourably to physical rehabilitation.⁹⁴
23 It is important to emphasize the role of the patient in developing “coping” strategies to fight against long-
24 COVID. There are several e-cardiology programs or on-line training available (e.g. brain training,

1 fatigue-training, yoga, breathing-training), and also recommendations for home training for patients with
2 POTS¹⁸⁹ and wearable smartwatch measuring heart rate, blood pressure, ECG and some other
3 physiological parameters.^{38, 190} It is important that patients do regular check-ups and maintain their
4 cardiovascular health.

5 ***Clinical implication: Individual rehabilitation programs including “pacing” and “coping”, as well as***
6 ***on-line training programs are important therapeutic strategies for long-COVID patients.***

7 Vaccination

8 The Office for National Statistics UK study published a 41% decrease in self-reported long-COVID
9 symptoms if the vaccine was applied at least 2 weeks before the infection in more than 1 million infected
10 patients.¹⁹¹ Two doses vaccination before infection with SARS-CoV-2 was also associated with
11 substantial decrease in PASC in a smaller Israel study published in pre-print.¹⁹² Vaccination was
12 associated with improved symptoms in 56.7% of patients in a large (n=900 patients) cohort but also in
13 small case series of 163 patients with long COVID even if some patients reported unchanged
14 symptoms.¹⁹³

15 ***Clinical implication: Vaccination prior to COVID-19 infection significantly prevents the occurrence of***
16 ***long COVID after infection, but also reduces long-COVID symptoms if the patient was previously***
17 ***infected. An undoubted advantage of vaccination is the decrease in new infection and alleviation of the***
18 ***disease course of new infections, thereby reducing the incidence and severity of long COVID.***

20 Conclusion

21 Emerging evidence points to increasing numbers of patients suffering from long COVID in the future.
22 Many patients with severe COVID-19 illness will exhibit cardiac symptoms and some will show evidence
23 of possible myocarditis. While in some cases these symptoms are likely to revert over time, long-term

1 prognoses are difficult to estimate, and there may be instances where damage to the cardiovascular system
2 is long-lasting. Current therapeutic options for long COVID are limited to symptom-management,
3 rehabilitation programs and non-specific dietary interventions. Given the number of potential long
4 COVID patients, and the likelihood that SARS-CoV-2 and its variants becoming endemic, it is imperative
5 that we gain a better understanding of the cellular and molecular mechanisms of long COVID. Future
6 investigative and interventional studies will necessitate more accurate and specific diagnosis of long
7 COVID in accordance with established practise. It will be important to determine the precise similarities
8 and differences with other types of post-viral syndromes.

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6

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19 Pfizer, and Servier; all outside the submitted work.

1 **Tables**

2 **Table 1: Major clinical definitions for patients with Signs and symptoms of**
3 **COVID-19 beyond the period of acute SARS-CoV-2infection.**

Defining Organization	Proposed term	Definition	References
NIH	post-Acute Sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection (PASC)	Signs and symptoms of COVID-19 beyond 4 weeks from the onset of symptoms.	Herrera JE et al ²²
NICE	Ongoing symptomatic COVID-19	Signs and symptoms of COVID-19 from 4 weeks up to 12 weeks.	NifHaCE ²³
NICE	Post-COVID-19 syndrome	Signs and symptoms that develop during or after an infection consistent with COVID-19, continue for more than 12 weeks and are not explained by an alternative diagnosis.	NifHaCE ²³
NICE	Long COVID	Signs and symptoms that continue or develop after acute COVID-19. It includes both ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 (from 4 to 12 weeks) and post-COVID-19 syndrome (12 weeks or more).	NifHaCE ²³
WHO	Post-COVID	occurs in individuals with a history of probable or confirmed SARSCoV-2 infection, usually 3 months from the onset of COVID-19 with symptoms that last for at least 2 months and cannot be explained by an alternative diagnosis. Symptoms may be new onset [...] or persist.	¹⁹⁴
CDC/WHO	Multisystem inflammatory syndrome in children (MIS-C) or adults (MIS-A)	Symptoms appear between two and six weeks (four weeks on average) after COVID-19 infection.	^{195, 196}

4

5

1 **Table 2. Risk factors for development of Long-COVID syndrome**

Risk factors	References
Detected during active infection	
High level of SARS-CoV-2 RNAemia	148, 197, 198
High level of EBV RNAemia (latent EBV reactivation)	148
High level of INFα	148
Specific autoantibodies (e.g. ANA)	148
Low IgM and IgG subtype 3	32
Lower level of SARS-CoV-2 IgG	31
Anosmia	31
Diarrhoea	31
Severe COVID-19 disease requiring hospitalization	5
Presence of 5 symptoms from different organs during acute infections (fatigue, headache, dyspnea, hoarse voice, myalgia, but also loss of smell in pts age >70y)	5, 10, 12, 24-26, 30
High PASC Score	32
General	
Diabetes mellitus	5, 148
Female gender	12, 29
Greater body mass index	5
Older age	5
Any previous comorbidities if age>70y	5
Previous comorbidities: asthma, heart diseases	5, 32

2 Studies with highly selected patient groups (e.g. hospitalized and/or intensive care unit treatments, older
 3 age, or significant comorbidities, as inclusion criteria) were excluded.

4 EBV: Epstein-Barr Virus; INFα: interferon-alpha; ANA: antinuclear antibody; Ig: Immunoglobulin;

5 PASC: post-Acute Sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection;

1 **Table 3: Cardiac-related manifestations based on patient symptoms and their**
 2 **prevalence in long COVID patients**

3

Long COVID						
Post-acute COVID (4 - 12 weeks since COVID-19)				Post COVID		
Cardiac manifestations	Symptomatic (%)	Patients included in study (n)	References	Symptomatic (%)	Patients included in study (n)	References
Chest pain	12.7-28.9%	81-287	24, 199-202,205	5-30%	120-1733	10, 25, 46, 120, 203-208
Palpitation, tachycardia, atrial fibrillation	10-32%	51-2113	54, 200, 202, ,205, 209	0.3-20%	92-1733	10,25,203, 205,210,211-213
Dyspnea	13.1-92.1%	33-3290	13, 20, 24,97,193 201, 202,,205, 209,, 214-216,217	4.1-70%	66-2649	10, 25, 31,204, 205,206-208,210, 213,218, 219,220-222
Cough	9-42.3%	110-3290	13, 97, 199, 205, 214, 217	4.2-16.7%	120-958	31, 204, 208, 213
Exercise-induced dyspnea, exercise-induced ventilatory inefficiency	51%	51	54	14.6%-29%	28-55	112, 223
Dysautonomia				15.2-25%	92-205	213, 224
Postural tachycardia syndrome, orthostatic intolerance, inappropriate sinus tachycardia				11-41%	27-1890	49, 213, 225-227

4 Studies with highly selected patient groups (eg. only hospitalized and/or intensive care unit treatments,
 5 older age, or significant comorbidities, as inclusion criteria) were excluded.

6
7

1 **Table 4. Cardiac complications and their prevalence in patients with long COVID.**

Cardiac complications	Patients with cardiac complications (%)	Patients included in study (n)	References
Chronic myocarditis	0.4-28.9%	48-543	24, 27, 46, 54, 66, 228-231
Chronic pericarditis	1.9-27%	26-105	74, 232
Myocardial oedema	15.4 %	26	232
Myocardial fibrosis or scar	4%	26	232
Systolic or diastolic LV Dysfunction	0.06-35%	51-8983	54, 59, 66, 79, 200, 205, 208, 229, 211, 233-236
RV systolic dysfunction	7-22.6%	50-1414	59, 66, 205, 208, 211, 231
LV thrombus	2%	51	57
Coronary artery disease	8%	51	57
Acute myocardial infarction	1.5-8%	51-47780	46, 57, 83
Persistent systemic endothelial dysfunction	2.5-6.1%	72-133	237, 238
Coronary microvascular disease	18%	22	239
Heart failure	0.1-2%	543-8983	46, 79
Pulmonary hypertension	10-50%	102-145	21, 234, 240

2 Studies with highly selected patient groups (eg. only hospitalized and/or intensive care unit treatments,
 3 older age, or significant comorbidities, as inclusion criteria) were excluded.

4 LV: left ventricular; RV: right ventricular

5

1 **Table 5. Newly diagnosed cardiovascular complications and their prevalence in**
 2 **patients with long COVID.**

Cardiovascular complications	Patients with CV complications (%)	Patients included in study (n)	References
Hypertension	1.28-1.3%	512-538	203, 241
Diabetes mellitus	0.64-2.4%	287-512	24, 241
Stroke	0.1-6.7%	30-8983	79, 80
Venous Thromboembolism	0.2-12.5%	1062-8983	79, 82, 233
Hospitalization	4.5-29.4%	1062-47780	82, 83
Pediatric or Adult multisystem inflammatory syndrome with/without Kawasaki in children and adults	ca 0.15%	International health records	86

3 Studies with highly selected patient groups (e.g. only hospitalized and/or intensive care unit treatments,
 4 older age, or significant comorbidities, as inclusion criteria) were excluded.

5

1 **Table 6. Circulating biomarkers characterizing long-COVID syndrome**

Cardiac biomarkers	Comments and detection time post-infection	References
Troponin T/I	Depending on elevated troponin during hospitalization, interval between hospital discharge and labor measurements; 57-71 d	63, 205, 233
N-terminal pro-Brain Natriuretic Peptide (proBNP)	9.6 mo	233
Inflammatory biomarkers		
C-reactive protein (CRP)	30 d -3 mo	93, 94, 99, 101, 104, 242
Interleukins general (IL)	15 d – 3 mo	93, 94, 242, 243
IL-6	inconsistent association with Long-COVID symptoms; over 3 mo	13, 84, 96-99, 101-103
Ferritin	associated with patient outcome in small cohort; over 3 mo	101, 105
IFN- β , IFN- λ 1,	Combination of inflammatory markers are predictive for long COVID; 8 mo	106
CXCL9 and CXCL10	was also elevated in asymptomatic post-COVID patients; 8 mo	106
IL-8	was also elevated in asymptomatic post-COVID patients; 8 mo	106
TIM-3	was also elevated in asymptomatic post-COVID patients; 8 mo	106
Plasma ACE2 activity	was also elevated in asymptomatic post-COVID patients; 3-8 mo	106, 244
PTX3	8 mo	106
Procalcitonin	Correlated with microvessel disease, 3 mo	99
Coagulation biomarkers		
D-dimer	2 mo – 3 mo	98, 101, 109, 113
Factor VIII, vWF; Thrombomodulin	Returned to normal in >90% patients in convalescent phase; 68 d – 81 d	98, 109, 113
Novel biomarkers		
Taurin	3 mo	113
Reduced glutamine/glutamate ratio	3 mo	113
Lower nitrit, nitrite/nitrate	4 mo	114
Molecular biomarkers (long non-coding RNA, microRNA)	suggestive, not validated	115-117

2 IFN: Interferon; CXCL: Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand; TIM-3: soluble T cell immuno- globulin

3 mucin domain 3, ACE: Angiotensin Converting Enzyme ; PTX: pentraxin; vVF: von Willebrand Factor;

4

1 **Table 7. Proposed pathomechanisms of Long-COVID syndrome**

Pathomechanism	Comments and detection time post-infection	References
Cellular pathomechanism		
Dysregulation of SARS-CoV-2-specific memory B cells	9 mo	120
Interferon- γ -secreting T cells, elevated INF-beta, INF-delta1	9 mo	120
CD8+ T-cell activation expressing PD-1 and TIM3	45 days, 8 mo	119, 106, 243
Lack of B and T cells expressing CD127 and TIM-3	8 mo	106
T-cell exhaustion with reduced cytokine production	Starts during acute infection	245, 246
Epigenetic reprogramming of hematopoietic progenitors	8 mo	127
Elevated level of activated CD38+HLA-DR+ myeloid cells	8 mo	106
Activated CD14+CD16+ monocytes	8 mo	106,155
Persistent activation of cardiac-resident fibroblasts	n.r.	151
Higher number of plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs) expressing CD86 and CD38	8 mo	106
Mast cell activation	n.r.	126
Increased levels of circulating endothelial cells (CD45 ⁺ /CD31 ⁺ /CD133 ⁺ /DNA ⁺)	27-46 days	243
Elevation of neutrophils to lymphocytes ratio (NLR)	n.r.	124
Development of NET	n.r.	124, 247
Release of autoantigens by neutrophils	n.r.	124
Persistent antibodies	9 mo	120
Protracted immunosuppression (PICS) by latent virus reactivation		48
Molecular pathomechanisms		
Mitochondrial dysfunction	n.r.	128
Oxidative stress	n.r.	128
Telomere shortening of blood cells	n.r.	136
Epigenetic alterations	n.r.	136
Overexpression of SASP factors	n.r.	131, 140

2 IFN: Interferon; PD: Programmed death; TIM-3: soluble T cell immuno- globulin mucin domain 3; NET:

3 neutrophil extracellular trap; SASP: senescence-associated secretory phenotype; n.r. not reported

4

1 **Table 8. Vascular and endothelial dysfunction**

	Comments and detection time post-infection	References
Endothelial dysfunction		
Endotheliopathy	Together with coagulopathy parameters, endothelial cell activation occurs mostly in hospitalized patients; 68d - 4 mo	98, 109, 156, 158, 159, 248
Reduced oxygen extraction	In spite of normal resting lung function and imaging	159, 249
Vascular dysfunction		
Capillary flow disturbance, heterogeneity of capillary transit time, deterioration of capillary integrity	Blood-flow limiting conditions, reduced oxygen exchange; 4 mo	156-159
Vasculitis	In several organs	72, 250
Coagulopathies, thrombosis		
Coagulopathy	With elevated D-dimer, mostly in hospitalized patients; 68 d – 80 d	98, 109
Microthrombosis	In several organs; 80 d	159
Activation of Neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs)	Circulating markers were elevated in acute COVID but returned to baseline by 4 mo.	125

2

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

1 **Figure legends**

2 **Figure 1.** The major cardiovascular manifestations in patients with long COVID (left side), and likely
3 mechanistic contributing factors (right hand side).

4
5 **Figure 2.** The major mechanisms that may drive long COVID, and how they may interact.

6 Potential **cellular** mechanisms may involve: T-cells (Interferon-gamma, IF-beta, IF-delta1 secretion,
7 activation of CD8+, T-cell exhaustion); B-cells (Dysregulation of SARS-CoV-2-specific memory B
8 cells); Hematopoietic progenitors (Epigenetic reprogramming); Activated CD38+HLA-DR+ myeloid
9 cells; Plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs) expressing CD86 and CD38; Mast cell activation; Circulating
10 endothelial cells; Neutrophils (release of autoantigens, NETs); Activated monocytes; Protracted
11 immunosuppression by latent virus reactivation.

12 **Molecular mechanisms** may involve: Mitochondrial dysfunction; senescence; telomere shortening of
13 blood cells; oxidative stress.

14 **Genetic mechanisms** may involve: X-chromosome-associated ACE-2 receptor; Genes coding type I
15 interferon (IFN) immunity; ABO blood group genetic locus; epigenetic mechanisms.

16 **Vascular and endothelial mechanisms** may involve: Endotheliopathy; Deterioration of capillary
17 integrity (Capillary flow disturbance, Heterogeneity of capillary transit time); Vasculitis; Coagulopathies
18 or thrombosis.

19 **Persistence of viral particles** may contribute to the mechanism, either in Myocardial tissue or hidden
20 reservoirs in other organs.

21
22 **Graphical abstract**

23

24

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Figure 1

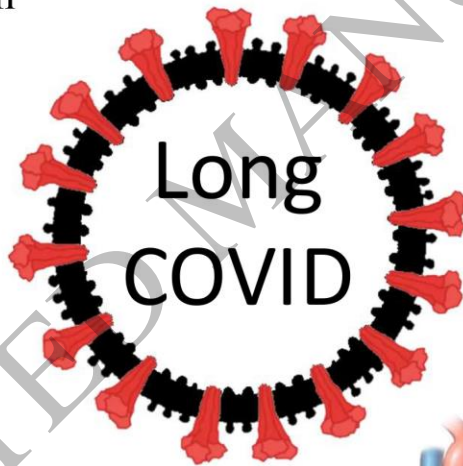
**Cardiovascular
manifestations**



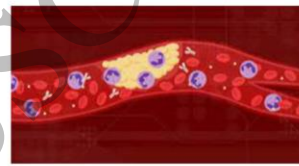
ECG
abnormalities



Postural
orthostatic
tachycardia



**Contributing
factors**



Micro-
thrombosis



Arterial wall
inflammation



Peri-myocarditis with
consequent left or
right ventricular
failure

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Figure 1
159x196 mm (.29 x DPI)

Figure 2

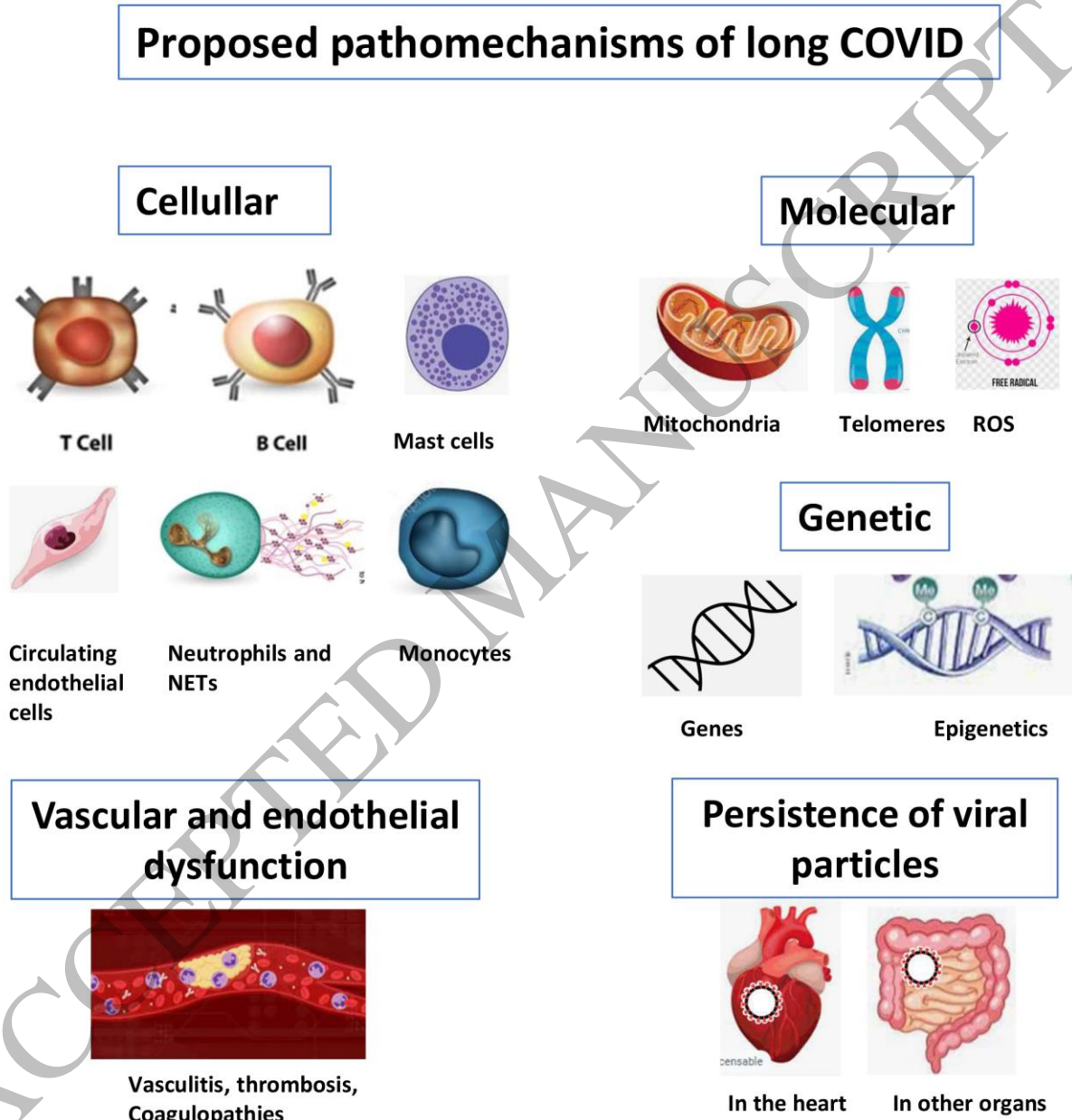


Figure 2
159x190 mm (.29 x DPI)

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