Cardiovascular disease and Covid 19

Management and treatment

What are the considerations for cardiomyopathy and heart failure in COVID-19?

Cardiac dysfunction is moderately common among hospitalized patients with COVID-19 and confers a worse prognosis

Both de novo cardiomyopathy and worsening of underlying cardiomyopathy can be observed with COVID-19.

Human cardiomyocytes express the viral entry receptor, ACE2, and can be directly infected by SARS-CoV-2. Growth of the virus can cause contractile dysfunction and death of cardiomyocytes. Autopsy studies have revealed evidence of replicating virus in cardiomyocytes.

'Continued

- Myocarditis or inflammatory cardiac dysfunction should be considered in patients with COVID-19 who have elevated cardiac biomarkers with worsening hemodynamics and/or arrhythmias.
- Elevated NT-proBNP, elevated cardiac troponin and a history of preexisting heart failure are particularly important risk factors for mortality.

- An ECG should be employed to screen for evidence of ST-T wave changes.
- The ECG abnormalities in COVID-19 may be due to cytokine storm, hypoxic injury, electrolyte abnormalities, plaque rupture, coronary spasm, microthrombi, or direct endothelial or myocardial injury.
- While sinus tachycardia is the most common abnormality, others include supraventricular tachycardias such as atrial fibrillation or flutter, ventricular arrhythmias such as ventricular tachycardia or fibrillation, various bradycardias, interval and axis changes, and ST segment and T wave changes.
- Several ECG presentations are associated with **poor outcome**, including atrial fibrillation, QT interval prolongation, ST segment and T wave changes, and ventricular tachycardia/fibrillation.

there is evidence of cardiac dysfunction, consider select views for transthoracic echocardiography to define left ventricular/right ventricular (LV/RV) size and function, wall motion abnormalities, and/or pericardial effusion.







Fig. 2 Echocardiographic images of patients with COVID-19. **a** Diffuse thickening of the left-ventricular wall. **b** Right-ventricular enlargement and left-ventricular wall thickening. **c** A small amount of pericardial effusion behind the left-ventricular posterior wall (white

arrow). **d** M-mode graph of the left-ventricular basement showed ventricular wall dyskinesia and a decreased left-ventricular ejection fraction. **e** Color Doppler showed moderate-to-severe tricuspid regurgitation. **f** Continuous wave Doppler showed pulmonary hypertension



Implications for therapy

- Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs are generally not suggested in patients with myocarditis because they may cause renal impairment and sodium retention, which could further deteriorate acute ventricular dysfunction .
- In patients with fulminant myocarditis, a statement of the AHA recommends implementing the initial management protocol for cardiogenic shock, including administration of inotropes and/or vasopressors and mechanical ventilation. Longer term management may require mechanical circulatory support

High dose of steroids and intravenous immunoglobulins (IVIG)

- use of high-dose steroids in COVID-19 patients has given conflicting results.
- In one retrospective study, there was an improvement of survival but another investigation showed a reduction in viral clearance, increased risk of suprainfection and an increased mortality for all causes

IVIG

- purified IVIG, there is supportive evidence for their use in acute myocarditis .
- They gave encouraging result in a small group of five critical COVID-19 patients without clinically suspected myocarditis but no additional evidence exists in patients with COVID-19 established myocarditis.
- The immunomodulatory effects of IVIG are multifactorial, because they showed not only anti-viral effects, but also antiinflammatory effects by suppressing inflammatory cytokine

Antiviral agents

- Different anti-viral agents were expected to be effective in patients hospitalized with COVID-19: remdesivir, hydroxychloroquine, lopinavir/ritonavir, and interferon beta1a.
- Unfortunately, all these drugs had little or no effect on overall mortality, initiation of ventilation, and duration of hospital stay

- Due to concerns for myocarditis-related ventricular arrhythmias that may occur in the setting of ongoing inflammation, it is recommended that athletic patients avoid competition for three to six months after the initial diagnosis of COVID-19-related myocarditis.
- Return to competition can be considered after that time if LVEF and cardiac/inflammatory biomarkers have normalized and no concerning finding are seen on maximal exercise treadmill testing and ambulatory ECG monitoring

What are thrombosis risk and management considerations in COVID-19?

- Thromboembolism is a frequent complication for patients hospitalized with COVID-19.
- VTE incidence was higher among patients admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU; 27.9%) than the general medical wards (7.1%)
- Patients hospitalized with COVID-19 are also at risk for arterial thrombosis.
- In an analysis of 1,114 patients with COVID-19 (hospitalized and non-hospitalized), the 30-day event rates for major cardiovascular events were 8.3%, including catheter- or device-related arterial thrombosis (1.0% overall, 6.5% in ICU), myocardial infarction (1.3% overall, 7.7% in ICU), and stroke (0.1% overall).

- Routine use of VTE prophylaxis is strongly recommended for all patients hospitalized with COVID-19.
- For most patients, use of standard doses of low-molecular-weight heparin (e.g., enoxaparin 40 mg once daily) or unfractionated heparin (e.g., 5,000 units three times daily) is recommended by most society guidelines and guidance documents.
- For patients with critical illness in moderate or intensive care units, consideration can be made for intensifying the prophylactic regimen (e.g., enoxaparin 30-40 mg twice daily, unfractionated heparin 7,500 units three times daily).
- VTE prophylaxis is generally not recommended for patients with COVID-19 who are not hospitalized. The role of antiplatelet therapy (e.g., daily aspirin) is unknown at this time.

Different etiologies and hypothesized mechanism of COVID-induced myocardial injury.

Type of myocardial injury	Possible mechanism	Clinical consequences	Available evidence
Type 1 myocardial infarction	Systemic inflammatory response syndrome: ↑risk of plaque rupture and thrombus formation Cytokine storm due to imbalanced TH1/TH2 response ⇒DIC [71.4% non-survivors vs. 0.6% survivors (8)]: MOF	STEMI or NSTEMI (9) Thrombosis of coronary epi- and subepicardial arteries ⇒ focal myocardial necrosis and dysfunction (10)	Bangalore et al. (11) Xhuan et al. (12) Tang et al. (8) Sugiura et al. (10)
Type 2 myocardial infarction	Myocardial oxygen imbalance (↑demand for sepsis state, not satisfiable for COVID-19 induced hypoxaemia and vasoconstriction)	Severe myocardial ischaemia, ++ in patients with underlying CAD	Li et al. (5) Shi et al. (13) Guo et al. (14)
Venous thromboembolism	Hypercoagulable status + active inflammation + propensity for DIC + prolonged immobilization + oxidative stress + endothelial dysfunction + increased platelet reactivity + mechanical ventilation + liver dysfunction + central venous catheters + nutritional deficit	↑D-dimer (>1µg/mL on admission ⇒↑ in-hospital death), FDP, fibrinogen Pulmonary embolism or deep venous thrombosis [22.7% non-ICU and 27% in ICU patients (15)]	Tang et al. (10) Han et al. (15) Klok et al. (16)
Acute myocarditis	Indirect mechanism: innate immunity activation ⇒inflammatory cascade and exaggerated cytokine release Direct mechanism: ACE2 receptor (used by SARS-CoV2 for binding, overexpressed in diseased hearts)	STEMI-like presentation with myocardial degenerative changes and necrosis	Zhou et al. (17) Yao et al. (18) Beri et al. (19) Tavazzi et al. (20) Hu et al. (21) Zeng et al. (22) Sala et al. (23)
Stress cardiomyopathy	Infective +/- emotional trigger ⇒catecholamine induced myocardial stunning or macro- and micro-vascular spasm	Tako-tsubo syndrome	Moderato et al. (24) Meyer et al. (25) Chadha et al. (26)

ACE2, angiotensin-converting enzyme-2; CAD, coronary artery disease; DIC, disseminated intravascular coagulation; ICU, intensive care unit; MOF, multi-organ failure; NSTEMI, non STelevation myocardial infarction; SARS-CoV-2, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction; TH1, T-helper lymphocytes 1; TH2, T-helper lymphocytes 2; VTE, venous thromboembolism. +, plus; ++, above all; ↑, higher.

Algorithm for the diagnosis of COVIDinduced acute myocardial injury



NSTEMI management an approach based on individual risk is recommended

- *very high risk NSTEMI* patients should follow a similar management of STEMI;
- *high risk NSTEMI* patients should follow medical treatment while waiting for SARS-CoV2 test results and planning an early invasive therapy, possibly <24 h; in case of positive test, the patients should undergo ICA in a COVID-19 hospital;
- *low risk NSTEMI* could be firstly evaluated non-invasively, in order to exclude alternative etiology to type 1 MI, using coronary CT, if possible; if low risk is confirmed, they should follow conservative strategy.

summarizes the criteria for risk stratification of NSTEMI patients

Very high risk	High risk	Low risk
 Hemodynamic instability Cardiogenic shock Recurrent/refractory chest pain despite medical treatment Life-threatening arrhythmias 	 NSTEMI diagnosis already established Symptomatic/ asymptomatic dynamic new (or presumably new) 	No recurrence of symptoms and none of the very high or high-risk criteria. Also includes patients with: - History of revascularization - Early post-infarction
 Mechanical complications of mvocardial infarction 	 segment changes Resuscitated cardiac arrest 	 LVEF<40% or congestive HF GRACE risk score 109-
 Acute HF related to NSTEMI 	without ST-segment elevation or	140 - Diabetes mellitus
 ST-segment depression 1 mm in 6 leads + ST-segment elevation in aVr and/or V1 	cardiogenic shock - GRACE risk score > 140	Ruled out based on troponin levels

HF, heart failure, NSTEMI; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction.

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Multidisciplinary collaboration of systems for the management of **STEMI** diagnosed at non-PCI capable locations.





Figure 13 Management of patients with STEMI during COVID-19 pandemic

General recommendations:

• Only hospitals equipped to manage patients with COVID-19 should maintain 24/7 Cath lab service for Primary PCI

• Any STEMI patient should be managed assuming positive COVID-19 status

• Perform fibrinolysis only if not contraindicated

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Table 13 Management of chronic coronary syndromes during COVID-19 pandemic

- Continuation of medications in CCS patients is recommended during COVID-19 pandemic
- · Follow-up of CCS patients via tele-health is recommended
- Revascularization of CCS patients must be postponed in low to intermediate risk patients
- Postponing of non-invasive testing of CCS patients should be considered during COVID-19 pandemic
- CT angiography should be preferred to non-invasive functional testing during COVID-19 pandemic
- Screening for SARS-CoV-2 infection should be considered before cardiac surgery with nasopharyngeal swab and CT scan
- Revascularization of high-risk^a CCS patients may be considered during COVID-19 pandemic
- PCI may be considered over CABG in selected patients during COVID-19 pandemic^b
- Identification of COVID-19-free hospitals may be considered as "Hub" for cardiac surgery
- Invasive management of CCS in SARS-CoV-2 positive patients should be deferred until the patient has recovered whenever possible.

^aPatients with high-risk symptoms and/or coronary anatomy and/or large ischaemia as assessed by Heart team.

^bTo shorten hospital stay and keep ICU beds available for patients with COVID-19.

