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### **Review Article**

# Does SARS-CoV-2 Cause Acute Myocardial Injury: A Literature Review

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#### **ABSTRACT**

The Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) caused by Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has emerged as an eradefining pandemic. It has globally challenged all levels of healthcare systems. Previously, coronavirus was mentioned mostly in association with the common cold. However, COVID-19 has taken a much grimmer course now presenting as severe, and in some cases fatal, pneumonia. As the number of cases grows, we have learned that it affects not just the lungs but also other organs.

Till now, many studies have been highlighting the heart as the 2nd most common organ affected by this illness. The reports of acute myocardial injury caused by SARS-CoV2 warrant a special focus on the cardiovascular management of this infection. In our review, we have analyzed multiple studies that support the acute effect of COVID-19 on the heart by comparing various laboratory changes and imaging studies conducted on the patients.

#### **Introduction and Background**

The previous 6 months have seen their fair share of Nature turning against humans. The most recent example of this involves a novel strain of coronavirus. This virus has officially been named "Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus 2" (SARS-CoV-2) and the illness caused by this organism is called the "Coronavirus disease" (COVID-19) [1]. Coronavirus has been around for years, causing the usual common cold. However, this year, it has come forth as a highly infectious organism, threatening healthcare systems and economies around the world. By May 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) has reported more than 5.7 million cases known to be infected with this virus globally and about 0.35 million deaths since Dec 2019.

The United States has the highest number of confirmed cases in

the world, standing at a staggering 1,675,258 cases and 99,889 deaths attributed to COVID-19 as of May 29, 2020 [2]. Although lungs remain the primary target, the involvement of other organs by this virus has also attracted the attention of investigators.

The cardiovascular system has been observed as the second most commonly affected organ system [3]. Acute myocardial injury is emerging as an area of special concern in COVID-19. This finding demands a focus on protecting this vital organ to improve outcomes in such patients.

#### **Review**

It is common knowledge now that a novel coronavirus started an outbreak in Wuhan city of China in late December 2019, subsequently leading to what we now recognize as an era-defining pandemic.



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Taxonomically, this pathogen is an enveloped beta coronavirus whose genome consists of positive-sense RNA [4].

Its official name is "Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus 2" (SARS-CoV-2), with the disease caused by this organism labeled as the "Coronavirus disease" (COVID-19) [1]. Lungs are the primary target of this disease.

However, the involvement of other organ systems by COVID-19 is increasingly being reported with the heart being mentioned frequently. In its pathogenicity, SARS-CoV-2 is related to the Middle East Respiratory Syndrome virus (MERS), another member of the coronavirus family. MERS has been known to cause myocarditis and worsen existing cardiac problems [5]. Hence the hypothesis that SARS-CoV-2 may also harbor similar potential.

Literature has reported the percentage of cardiac injury in COVID-19 patients to be as high as 12% [6]. This raises a query about COVID-19 preferentially victimizing the heart and the lungs. One of the reasons for this observation is that, microscopically, the navigator for attachment and entry of SARS-CoV-2 into the cell is the ACE-2 receptor, primarily found on the pneumocytes and cardiomyocytes [7].

Scientists believe that hypoxia and inflammatory proteins may also play a role in cardiac involvement [8]. Some experts have suggested that "cytokine storm" (i.e. massive release of inflammatory proteins) may be responsible for the multi-organ dysfunction seen in COVID-19 [6, 7].

Pathological changes seen on postmortem examination of the affected hearts might be due to either a direct viral infection or a harmful immune response [9].

Chinese experts have proclaimed that the direct effect is observed more commonly in neonates while the immune effect is seen more in adults [10]. Such myocardial injury can sometimes manifest as ischemia while some studies have linked COVID-19 to congestive heart failure (CHF) [11]. The following table summarizes some common cardiovascular manifestations of COVID-19 as reported in some recent studies (Table 1).

Apart from these, complications related to hypercoagulability associated with the COVID-19 have also been seen. Many of the features of respiratory viral infections overlap with the symptoms of viral myocardial injury like shortness of breath, palpitations, and chest pain.

The common clinical manifestations of COVID-19 itself

include fever, chest pain, dry cough, dyspnea, muscle pain, confusion, headache, sore throat, rhinorrhea, diarrhea, nausea, and vomiting [14].

This overlap in symptomology can lead to inadvertent misdiagnosis. This necessitates prompt utilization of laboratory data in detecting acute myocardial injury alongside the clinical presentation.

Hence, we studied several case reports and compared such laboratory studies that can reliably detect acute myocardial injury in COVID-19 patients. These included electrocardiograms (ECG), echocardiogram (with accepted normal ranges of left ventricular ejection fraction as 55-70% and Left Ventricular End Diastolic Diameter as <5.6cm), cardiac enzymes, and other biochemical markers like high sensitivity cardiac troponin I (hs-cTnI), etc (Tables 2, 3).

The findings listed in these tables suggest that COVID-19-induced myocardial injury has manifold presentations including, but not limited to, myocardial ischemia and rhythm abnormalities, heart failure, and other disturbances in ventricular function.

Stimulated by these findings, we delved a bit further into literature and found that myocardial injury that arises acutely without any pre-existing cardiac disease has been reported by many authors. Wuhan Jinyintan Hospital, China conducted a retrospective analysis on 101 patients who lost their lives to COVID-19 between Dec 30, 2019, and Feb 16, 2020 [3].

83 of these patients (82.18%) had abnormal myocardial enzymes on admission with average hs-cTnI 16.55 U/L (high in 24.07% patients), BNP 61.9 pg/mL (high in 16.67% patients), and CK-MB 17 U/L (high in 16.67% patients).

These values titrated uphill with an average hs-cTnI 361.35 U/L (high in 72.28% patients), BNP 501.80 pg/mL (high in 40.59% patients), CK-MB 32.50 U/L (high in 55.45% patients) just 48 hours before their deaths. These findings depict that the myocardial injury arose acutely in these patients, as their conditions worsened. This data also highlights that hs-cTnI has a strong positive correlation with the severity of the myocardial injury.

Five of the first 41 COVID-19 patients in Wuhan had elevated levels of Troponin-I (TnI) which is a highly sensitive indicator of myocardial injury [6]. A case series analyzing troponin levels in 187 COVID-19 patients at the Seventh Hospital of Wuhan City, China, 2020 found that 52 (27.8%) patients had elevated troponin levels [22].

The patients with high troponin also had remarkably high N-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide (NT-proBNP) levels and malignant arrhythmias, corresponding to myocardial injury. Similarly, Wang et al. reported significant acute elevation of cardiac-specific biomarkers in patients admitted to ICU with COVID-19 while such elevations were not seen in non-ICU patients [23].

The markers they measured included CK-MB (18 U/L vs 14 U/L, P < 0.001); and hs-cTnI (11.0 pg/mL vs 5.1 pg/mL, P = 0.004). Together, these findings suggest an association of COVID-19 with acute myocardial inflammation as these biomarkers are strongly associated with myocarditis.

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Table 2: Cardiac markers at the time of presentation in index COVID-19 cases reported in the literature from March 2020- May 10, 2020.

| Authors                         | Cases (Age,<br>Gender) | Troponin* (Normal range: 0-0.034 ng/mL) | BNP* (Normal range: 0-125 pg/mL) | CK MB* (Normal range:<br>0-24 U/L or 0-4.9 ng/<br>mL) | Myoglobin* (Normal range:<br>0-85 ng/mL) |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|---|----------------------------------|---|--|
| He et al. [8]                   | 70 years, Male         | >0.034 ng/mL                            | 24,245 pg/mL                     | 72.6 U/L  |  |
| Zeng et al. [9]                 | 63 years, Male         | >10,000 ng/mL                           | 22,600 pg/mL                     |   | 390.97 ng/mL                             |
| Cui et al. [15]                 | 55 days, Female        | 0.025 ng/mL                             |                                  | 46 U/L  |  |
| Loghin et al. [16]              | 29 years, Male         | <0.02 ng/ml                             |                                  | 2034 U/L  | 55.0 ng/mL                               |
| Inciardi et al. [17]            | 53 years, Female       | 0.24 ng/mL                              | 5647 pg/mL                       | 20.3 ng/mL  |  |
| Hu et al. [18]                  | 37 years, Male         | >10 ng/mL                               | 21,025 pg/mL                     | 0.1129 ng/mL  |  |
| Kir et al. [19]                 | 49 years, Male         | <0.012 ng/mL                            | 38.3 pg/mL                       |   |  |
| Coyle et al. [20]               | 57 years, Male         | 0.02 to 7.33 ng/mL                      | 859 pg/mL                        |   |  |
|                                 | 11 years, Male         | 0.0486 ng/mL                            | 250.4 pg/mL                      |   |  |
| Dong et al. [21] (Labs from 3rd | 38 years, Male         | 0.0095 ng/mL                            | 2,085.7 pg/mL                    |   |  |
| day of presentation)            | 57 years, Male         | 0.1435 ng/mL                            | 8,222.1 pg/mL                    |   |  |
|                                 | 67 years, Male         | 0.0712 ng/mL                            | 4,450 pg/mL                      |   |  |

BNP= brain natriuretic peptide, CK-MB= creatine kinase- myocardial band.

**Table 3:** Imaging studies in index COVID-19 cases reported in the literature between March 2020- May 10, 2020.

| Authors              | Cases (Age,<br>Gender)  | Electrocardiographic changes  | Echocardiographic changes  | Other cardiac imaging   |
|----------------------|-------------------------|---|--|---|
| He et al. [8]        | 66 years,<br>Female     | Sinus rhythm with first degree AV nodal block that progressed to sinus tachycardia, high degree AV block and S1Q3T3 pattern before recovery | Enlarged right atrium and ventricle with<br>severe tricuspid regurgitation, Pulmonary<br>hypertension (Pulmonary artery<br>pressure>25 mmHg) |   |
|                      | 70 years, Male          | Sinus tachycardia with incomplete RBBB followed by ST-segment elevations in the inferior and precordial leads                               | Diffuse hypokinesis of anterior and inferior walls   |   |
| Zeng et al. [9]      | 63 years,<br>Asian Male | Sinus tachycardia   | Enlarged LV, diffuse dyskinesia, LVEF<br>32% (normal range: 55-70%), pulmonary<br>hypertension   |   |
| Loghin et al. [16]   | 29 years, Male          | ST-segment elevation in lead II, III, aVF and V6, Sinus tachycardia, Right axis deviation   | -  | -   |
| Inciardi et al. [17] | 53 years,<br>Female     | Low voltage, diffuse ST elevation (especially in inferior and lateral leads), ST depression and T wave inversion (V1, aVR)                  | Diffuse hypokinesis, thickened<br>interventricular septum, LVEF 40%,<br>Circumferential pericardial effusion<br>(maximum 11 mm)              | Cardiac MRI: increased wall<br>thickness, biventricular<br>hypokinesis (especially<br>apical), LVEF 35% |
| Hu et al. [18]       | 37 years, Male          | ST-segment elevation (lead III, aVF)  | Diffusely enlarged heart, LVEF 27%, trace pericardial effusion   | Emergency CT coronary angiogram: no stenosis  |
| Kir et al. [19]      | 49 years, Male          | Intermittent high degree AV block with AV dissociation and bradycardia; HR <20 beats/min  | No significant changes   |   |
| Coyle et al. [20]    | 57 years, Male          | Sinus tachycardia   | Diffuse hypokinesis with relative apical sparing and LVEF 35-40% on day 3  |   |
| Dong et al. [21]     | 11 years, Male          | -   | LVEF 22% with LVEDD: 5.5 cm  |   |
|                      | 38 years, Male          | -   | LVEF 26% with LVEDD: 7.2 cm  |   |
|                      | 57 years, Male          | -   | LVEF 22% with LVEDD: 10.8 cm   |   |
|                      | 67 years, Male          | -   | LVEF 30% with LVEDD: 8.5 cm  |   |

AV: atrioventricular, LV: Left Ventricle, MRI: Magnetic Resonance Imaging, TTE: transthoracic echocardiogram, LVEF: Left Ventricular Ejection Fraction, LVEDD: Left Ventricular End Diastolic Diameter.

Shaobo Shi et al. have reported cardiac injury in 12.7% of the 416 COVID-19 patients at Renmin Hospital of Wuhan University, as suggested by elevated cardiac markers like CK-MB (median 3.2 ng/mL vs 0.9 ng/mL in those without cardiac injury), myohemoglobin (median 128 vs 39  $\mu$ g/L), hs-cTnI (median 0.19 vs <0.006  $\mu$ g/L), NT-proBNP (median 1689 vs 139 pg/mL) [24].

Only 22 (26.8%) patients with cardiac injury had done ECG and 14 (63.6%) of these ECGs were abnormal with findings compatible with myocardial ischemia, such as T wave inversions, ST-segment depression, and the presence of Q waves.

Patients encountering acute myocardial injury appear to have a worse outcome than those who get just lung involvement. Zhou et al. described 191 patients from Jinyintan and Wuhan Pulmonary Hospitals in China suggesting that 46% of patients dying of COVID-19 had high hs-cTnI while only one percent of survivors had such elevations [25].

The fact that many other conditions may have falsely elevated cardiac biomarkers was pointed out by Wu et al. with high troponin levels seen in subarachnoid hemorrhage, pulmonary embolism, or kidney failure. Similarly, an elevated LDH may also be indicative

<sup>\*</sup>Some units have been altered using SI unit converter solely for the ease of the readers.

of tissue damage other than myocardial injury like renal, pulmonary or hepatic injury and sepsis, etc [26].

To avoid this floundering, researchers have establishing cut-off limits corresponding with high specificity for cardiac injury. For example, Zhang et al. have defined cardiac injury as hs-cTnI above the 99th percentile upper range of reference value chosen as 0.026 ug/L [27]. This criterion can drive more yield to the diagnostic utility of this test.

These authors also retrospectively analyzed 110 COVID-19 patients and found that 27.1 % of them had high levels of hs-cTnI and a high level of this biomarker at hospital admission was associated with high mortality (hazard ratio= 10.902, p=0.029).

The study reaffirms the above-mentioned observation that hs-cTnI is highly sensitive and specific for cardiac injury and the relatively common elevation of hs-cTnI in COVID-19 patients suggests its association with acute myocardial injury [28].

Lippi et al. reviewed 11 studies and found that 12% of patients show hs-cTnI value exceeding the 99th percentile in the upper limit of normal [29]. Given this observation and the clinical significance of hs-cTnI, the authors deemed it rational to suspect that SARS-COV-2 induced myocardial injury in these patients.

Mehra and Ruschitzka narrate in their article that, in elderly patients with coexisting heart disease, COVID-19 can cause stress cardiomyopathy or myocardial injury from fatally high levels of cytokines [30]. However, rarely, patients do present with fulminant myocarditis, which is the most severe form of acute myocardial injury leading to rapid decline and even fatality in most patients.

So, the spectrum of cardiac findings is COVID-19 patients is broad. The timelines of elevation of cardiac biomarkers and imaging findings do suggest that there is substantial evidence for the induction of acute myocardial injury by SARS-CoV-2.

From the studies that we have gathered, a suggestion arises that in order to make a baseline to follow the prognosis of COVID-19 patients, we should do an initial measurement of biomarkers of myocardial necrosis/injury such as hs-cTnI, CK-MB, NT proBNP, ECG, etc.

Following these biomarkers over time can then lead to early detection and management of acute cardiac injury. Further research should be done to define the need for imaging studies in such cases and to decide if adjunctive cardioprotective therapies may be advisable in patients with significantly elevated biomarkers supporting myocardial necrosis [31].

## **Conclusions**

SARS-CoV-2 is seen to cause acute insult to almost every organ, including the cardiovascular system. Acute myocardial injury can affect the prognosis of COVID-19 patients adversely. However, symptom imbrication can further lead to an inadvertent increase in mortality due to misdiagnosis.

To avoid this issue, cardiac-specific biomarkers and radiologic utilities can be deployed in patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection from the time of their presentation in the emergency department until discharge irrespective of pre-existing cardiac conditions, deeming it important for medical management. Standard guidelines can also be established for every symptomatic patient.

We further suggest that similar measures to improve the prognosis of COVID-19 patients from other specific organ injuries should also be explored.

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