

1 **Impact of COVID-19 on exercise pathophysiology. A combined cardiopulmonary and**  
2 **echocardiographic exercise study.**

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28 **Background.** Survivors from COVID-19 pneumonia can present with persisting multisystem  
29 involvement (lung, pulmonary vessels, heart, muscle, red blood cells) that may negatively affect  
30 exercise capacity.

31 **Methods.** We sought to determine the extent and the determinants of exercise limitation in  
32 COVID-19 patients at the time of hospital discharge.

33 **Results.** Eighteen consecutive patients with COVID-19 and 1:1 age-, sex-, and body mass index-  
34 matched controls underwent: spirometry, echocardiography, cardiopulmonary exercise test and  
35 exercise echocardiography for the study of pulmonary circulation. Arterial blood was sampled at  
36 rest and during exercise in COVID-19 patients. COVID-19 patients lie roughly on the same oxygen  
37 consumption isophlets than controls both at rest and during submaximal exercise, thanks to  
38 supernormal cardiac output ( $p < 0.05$ ). Oxygen consumption at peak exercise was reduced by 30%  
39 in COVID-19 ( $p < 0.001$ ), due to a peripheral extraction limit. Additionally, within COVID-19 patients,  
40 hemoglobin content was associated with peak oxygen consumption ( $R^2 = 0.46$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) Respiratory  
41 reserve was not exhausted (median [IRQ], 0.59 [0.15]) in spite of moderate reduction of forced  
42 vital capacity ( $79 \pm 40\%$ ) Pulmonary artery pressure increase during exercise was not different  
43 between patients and controls. Ventilatory equivalents for carbon dioxide were higher in COVID-  
44 19 patients than in controls ( $39.5 [8.5]$  vs  $29.5 [8.8]$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and such an increase was mainly  
45 explained by increased chemosensitivity.

46 **Conclusions.** When recovering from COVID-19, patients present with reduced exercise capacity  
47 and augmented exercise hyperventilation. Peripheral factors, including anemia and reduced  
48 oxygen extraction by peripheral muscles were the major determinants of deranged exercise  
49 physiology. Pulmonary vascular function seemed unaffected, despite restrictive lung changes.

50 **New and noteworthy**

51 - At the time of hospital discharge, COVID-19 patients present with reduced functional capacity  
52 and exercise hyperventilation.

53 - Peripheral factors, namely reduced oxygen extraction (myopathy) and anemia, which are not  
54 fully compensated by a supernormal cardiac output response, account for exercise limitation  
55 before exhaustion of the respiratory reserve.

56 - Enhanced chemoreflex sensitivity, rather increased dead space, mainly account for exercise  
57 hyperventilation.

58 - The pulmonary vascular response to exercise circulation of survived COVID-19 patients do not  
59 present major pathological changes

60 **Keywords:** COVID-19; cardiopulmonary exercise test; exercise echocardiography; hemodynamics

61 **BACKGROUND**

62 Novel coronavirus-19 disease (COVID-19) pandemic has affected more than 100 millions of people  
63 all around the world up to February 2<sup>nd</sup> [1]. Despite obvious concerns on mortality rates, 98% of  
64 subjects survived [1], but survival was often associated with residual fibrotic lung abnormalities at  
65 discharge from hospitalization, as witnessed by preliminary studies with chest CT-scans [2] and  
66 pulmonary function tests [3]. Given the often severe involvement of multiple organs body  
67 functions during COVID-19, other abnormalities might persist at the resolution of the acute phase,  
68 potentially affecting subjects' wellbeing. Various forms of pulmonary vascular involvement  
69 (pulmonary macro- or micro-embolism [4], as well as inflammatory endothelitis with neo-  
70 angiogenesis [5] and blunted hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction [6]) have been reported,  
71 especially in the most severe cases. Cardiac involvement has been described in a small but not  
72 negligible proportion of patients during the acute phase [7]. Additionally, the huge systemic  
73 inflammatory response during COVID-19 could lead to anemia, which is a common finding in these  
74 patients and reduces blood oxygen carrying capacity [8]. Furthermore, hospitalization for COVID-  
75 19 generally lasts for several weeks, is characterized by prolonged bed rest and administration of  
76 myotoxic medications, that can promote profound deconditioning and muscle atrophy, especially  
77 in patients admitted to the intensive care unit. Additionally, concern has been raised on the  
78 potential of COVID-19 to be directly or indirectly associated with myopathic changes [9,10].  
79 However, the impact of all these multisystem alterations on patients' functional capacity at the  
80 time of hospital discharge after COVID-19 is still unknown. Based on the above considerations, we  
81 hypothesized that the oxygen flow from the mouth to mitochondria could be impaired at several  
82 steps (ventilatory or cardiac pump, pulmonary circulation, blood oxygen carrying capacity,  
83 muscular oxygen extraction) immediately after clinical resolution of COVID-19 pneumonia. Thus,  
84 we sought to quantify and describe the extent and the main mechanisms of exercise limitation in

85 these patients at the time of hospital discharge, combining cardiopulmonary exercise test with  
86 exercise echocardiography and comparing patients healed from COVID-19 with matched controls.  
87 Based on analogy with previous reports on survivors from Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome, we  
88 anticipated that COVID-19 could be associated with a ~20% reduction of exercise capacity [11-13].

89

## 90 **METHODS**

### 91 **COVID-19 patients**

92 Between 22<sup>nd</sup> of April and 5<sup>th</sup> of May 2020, we consecutively assessed patients just before their  
93 hospital discharge from San Luca Hospital, Istituto Auxologico Italiano, Milan, where they have  
94 been admitted for PCR-positive COVID-19 pneumonia.

95 We included patients that, at the time of evaluation, were become PCR-negative, were judged  
96 clinically healed and weaned from oxygen, could perform an exercise test and did not present  
97 relevant pre-existing cardiac, respiratory or musculoskeletal comorbidities. In particular, we  
98 excluded patients with pre-existing reduced left ventricular (LV) ejection fraction (< 50%) or  
99 valvular heart disease, pulmonary embolism, chronic obstructive lung disease (COPD) GOLD  
100 class>II, muscular myopathy, active malignancy or cognitive decline.

101 On the day before hospital discharge, enrolled patients underwent a full cardiorespiratory  
102 assessment, including pulmonary function test, echocardiography at rest, cardiopulmonary  
103 exercise test combined with exercise echocardiography. In all patients, a radial artery catheter was  
104 inserted into the right radial artery, using sterile techniques and local anesthetic.

### 105 **Control subjects**

106 We queried the database of patients who underwent a full cardiorespiratory assessment for  
107 unexplained dyspnea at Istituto Auxologico Italiano, Milan, between September 2016 and May  
108 2018. This cardiorespiratory assessment consisted of lung spirometry, cardiopulmonary exercise  
109 test combined with exercise stress echocardiography and dynamic assessment of operating lung  
110 volumes. We excluded patients with a cardiac or respiratory limitation to exercise [14], patients  
111 with reduced LV ejection fraction (< 50%) or valvular heart disease, those with echocardiographic  
112 estimate of high LV filling pressure, pulmonary embolism, COPD GOLD > grade II, muscular  
113 myopathy, active malignancy or cognitive decline.

114 Control subjects were matched 1:1 with COVID-19 patients for age, sex and body mass index  
115 (BMI). In case that more than one control subject matched with a COVID-19 patient, we chose the  
116 subject who underwent exercise cardiorespiratory study more recently.

117 The Ethics Committees of the Istituto Auxologico Italiano approved the study on 21st of April 2020  
118 (protocol number 2020\_04\_21\_04). All COVID-19 patients signed a written informed consent at  
119 the time of enrollment before undergoing a full cardiorespiratory assessment. All controls had  
120 signed a written informed consent for the use of their data for research purposes.

### 121 **Pulmonary function tests**

122 Lung spirometry was performed using automated equipment (Vmax SensorMedics 2200, Yorba  
123 Linda, CA, USA).

### 124 **Echocardiography at rest and during exercise**

125 Echocardiography at rest was performed according to current recommendations of the  
126 European/American Society of Echocardiography [15,16]. Left and right ventricular strain analysis  
127 was possible in COVID-19 patients only.

128 Exercise stress echocardiography was performed at the same time of cardiopulmonary exercise  
129 test (see below). At rest, during the last minute of the warm-up phase and at peak exercise,  
130 consecutive pairs of tricuspid regurgitant jet velocity and velocity time integral of the left  
131 ventricular outflow tract were collected. These 2 parameters allow the estimation of pulmonary  
132 artery pressure (PAP) and cardiac output (CO) respectively, as previously described [17-19]. We  
133 have already demonstrated the accuracy of exercise echocardiography for the assessment of  
134 pulmonary hemodynamics in our laboratory [18]. Results reflect the agreement of 2 independent  
135 and experienced cardiologists. Multipoint PAP-CO slopes were calculated from linear regressions.  
136 Average slopes were also calculated from pooled mPAP-CO relationships of each study group using  
137 an adjustment for individual variability as previously described [19]. At the same time, also tissue  
138 Doppler imaging of the tricuspid annulus was recorded, to assess S' wave, as a measure of right  
139 ventricular longitudinal systolic function. The ratio between S' wave and systolic PAP was  
140 computed as an estimate of right ventricular to pulmonary artery coupling, albeit it has been less  
141 validated than other echocardiographic parameters [20]. A single operator performed all  
142 echocardiographic examinations with a GE Logiq E9 ultrasound machine (General Electric  
143 Company, Boston, MA). Stored images were blindly reviewed and analyzed by two readers.

#### 144 **Cardiopulmonary exercise test**

145 Patients wore a non-rebreathing Hans-Rudolph mask connected to the V-MAX metabolic cart  
146 (Vmax SensorMedics 2200, Yorba Linda, CA, USA).

147 A symptom-limited exercise test was performed on a semi-recumbent cycle ergometer. Exercise  
148 started with a 20-30 W warm-up phase (depending on subject's fitness) lasting 3 minutes,  
149 followed by a personalized ramp increment in workload, in order to achieve exhaustion in 6-12  
150 minutes [14]. Subjects were encouraged to exercise up to their maximal volitional effort, with the

151 aim of obtaining a peak respiratory quotient > 1.1. Key measurements included standard breath-  
152 by-breath cardiorespiratory and breathing pattern parameters, and dynamic operating lung  
153 volumes calculated from inspiratory capacity maneuvers. At rest, during the last minute of the  
154 warm-up phase and at peak exercise, a flow-volume loop maneuver was performed [21] roughly at  
155 the same time of echocardiographic acquisition, and, only in COVID-19 patients, two milliliters of  
156 blood were sampled from the radial artery catheter. An average of the last 30-second period of  
157 exercise was taken as peak value for the variables of interest. The  $VE/VCO_2$  slope was calculated  
158 over the linear component of VE vs  $VCO_2$  [22] Results reflect the agreement of 2 independent and  
159 experienced operators.

#### 160 **Derived cardiorespiratory parameters**

161 The content of oxygen in arterial blood ( $CaO_2$ ) was calculated using the following formula:  
162  $CaO_2=1.39*SaO_2*Hb+0.0031*PaO_2$  [16], where  $SaO_2$  is oxygen saturation in arterial blood, Hb is  
163 hemoglobin and  $PaO_2$  is arterial oxygen partial pressure. In controls, the minor role of  $PaO_2$  in  
164 determining  $CaO_2$  was neglected, given that a radial artery catheter was not routinely placed.

165 By resolving Fick equation to obtain the arterial-venous oxygen difference from the direct measure  
166 of oxygen consumption ( $VO_2$ ) and from the echocardiographic estimate of cardiac output, we  
167 derived the content of oxygen in venous blood [23].

168 Physiological dead space was calculated in COVID-19 patients by using VE,  $VCO_2$ , as well as  $PaCO_2$   
169 directly measured from arterial blood [24,25].

#### 170 **Statistics**

171 In the absence of previous data on exercise limitation after COVID-19 at the time in which the  
172 study was conducted, but considering reports of ~20% reduction of exercise capacity after Severe  
173 Acute Respiratory Syndrome [11-13], we tested the hypothesis that  $VO_2$  at peak exercise would be



174 20% lower in COVID-19 patients as compared with controls. Considering a power of 80% and a  
175 significance level (alpha) of 0.05, and a standard deviation of 20%, we needed to include 18  
176 COVID-19 patients and 18 controls.

177 All continuous variables were reported as median and interquartile range [IQ] for homogeneity of  
178 data representation. Categorical data were reported as absolute numbers and proportions.  
179 Distribution of variables in terms of proximity to the normal curve and the homogeneity of  
180 variances were detected by Shapiro-Wilk test and Bartlett test, respectively. Numerical variables  
181 were analyzed with t test or Wilcoxon rank sum, according to their distributions. Categorical  
182 variables were analyzed with Chi-squared test or Fisher exact test in case of small cell sizes.  
183 Correlation analysis was performed with the Pearson product-moment or with Kendall's tau,  
184 where appropriate. Multiple linear regressions were performed to assess factors associated with  
185  $\text{VO}_2$  and the ratio between minute ventilation (VE) and carbon dioxide (VCO<sub>2</sub>) at peak. The  
186 variable selection for each model was performed by a stepwise method using Akaike's information  
187 criterion (AIC). All regression analysis met the assumptions for linearity, homoscedasticity,  
188 multicollinearity, and normality of residuals. An  $\alpha$  level of 0.05 was used for all hypothesis tests. All  
189 data analyses were performed using R Core Team (2020), Vienna, Austria.

190

## 191 **RESULTS**

### 192 *General and echocardiographic characteristics*

193 Out of 25 patients evaluated at the time hospital discharge after resolution of laboratory-  
194 confirmed COVID-19 pneumonia between 22<sup>nd</sup> of April and 5<sup>th</sup> of May 2020, 20 satisfied inclusion  
195 criteria for the study and 18 accepted to participate. They underwent a full cardiorespiratory  
196 assessment at the time of hospital discharge. Eighteen age-, sex- and BMI- matched controls were

197 chosen among 115 outpatients who underwent cardiopulmonary exercise test combined with  
198 exercise-stress echocardiography, pulmonary function test and dynamic assessment of operating  
199 lung volumes.

200 As shown in **Table 1**, it was a middle-aged, overweight population with a high prevalence of male  
201 sex. The main general characteristics of COVID-19 patients did not differ from control group (**Table**  
202 **1**), including the burden of mild comorbidities. Obesity was slightly but non-significantly more  
203 prevalent in controls, in spite of a non-different BMI between the two groups.

204 Patients with COVID-19 spent in median 30 [23-37] days in the hospital, where they had been  
205 treated with antiretroviral agents, steroids, antibiotics, hydroxychloroquine, and low-molecular  
206 weight heparin, in all cases at anticoagulant dosage as per local recommendations. Five patients  
207 (28%) underwent mechanical ventilation, 9 patients (50%) received non-invasive ventilation and 4  
208 patients (22%) necessitated only oxygen support.

209 Blood tests were within normal limits, except for mild anemia: COVID-19 patients presented with  
210 lower hemoglobin values than controls (11.3 [2.3] vs 14.5 [2.0] g/dL,  $p < 0.001$ ).

#### 211 *Cardiorespiratory function at rest*

212 Lung volumes of patients recovering from COVID-19 were smaller than controls (**Table 1**), with a  
213 relative reduction of both forced vital capacity (FVC) and forced expiratory volume in one second  
214 (FEV<sub>1</sub>) of 22% and 26% in median, respectively ( $p < 0.05$ ). Forty-five percent of COVID-19 patients  
215 presented with at least moderate restrictive lung disease, while 67% of controls had normal lung  
216 function tests ( $p < 0.01$ ).

217 At the same basal ventilation of controls, respiratory dynamics of COVID-19 were characterized by  
218 higher respiratory rate (24.0 [6.0] vs 18.5 [9.3] / min,  $p = 0.021$ ) with high dead space ventilation  
219 ( $V_D/V_T$  0.63 [0.05]), higher end-inspiratory lung volume (1.97 [1.25] vs 1.06 [1.00] L,  $p = 0.002$ ; e-

220 **Table 1**, <https://sandbox.zenodo.org/record/733386>), higher ventilatory equivalents for carbon  
221 dioxide ( $VE/VCO_2$  61 [7] vs 42 [16],  $p=0.003$ ) and lower end-tidal carbon dioxide pressure ( $P_{et}CO_2$   
222 29 [2] vs 32 [7],  $p=0.023$ ).  $SpO_2$  was in the normal range albeit slightly lower in COVID-19 as  
223 compared with controls ( $p<0.01$ ).

224  $CaO_2$  of COVID-19 patient was lower than controls ( $p<0.01$ ), and associated with hemoglobin levels  
225 ( $\tau$  0.62,  $p<0.001$ ). Arteriovenous oxygen difference was lower in COVID-19 ( $p<0.01$ ) but  
226 peripheral oxygen extraction at rest was not different between COVID-19 and controls.

227 Standard echocardiography did not show any relevant abnormality in COVID-19 patients, except  
228 for a mildly dilated right ventricle (**Table 3**). Global longitudinal strain of the left ventricle and right  
229 ventricular free wall strain in COVID-19 patients were -18 [4] and -22 [8] %, respectively.

230 Accordingly, one third of COVID-19 patients presented with an abnormal left or right ventricular  
231 strain, defined by cut-off values  $> -17$  and  $-20\%$ , respectively.

232 Both cardiac output and PAP were higher in COVID-19 than controls ( $p<0.05$ ), leading to similar  
233 total pulmonary resistance (TPR) in the 2 groups. The ratio between right ventricular S' wave and  
234 systolic PAP was not different between the two groups.

### 235 *Cardiorespiratory function during exercise*

236 Cardiorespiratory function at peak exercise is shown in **Table 2**. All patients affirmed to have  
237 performed a maximal volitional effort up to their limit. At peak exercise,  $VO_2$  was lower in COVID-  
238 19 patients than in controls ( $p<0.001$ ). The same held true for peak workload (64 [40] vs 128 [89]  
239 W,  $p<0.001$ ). Ninety-five percent of COVID-19 patients had a reduced exercise capacity, with a  
240 peak  $VO_2$  less than 70% of predicted in 61% of cases (vs 17% of controls,  $p=0.006$ ). Also the  
241  $VO_2$ /work slope was lower in COVID-19 than in controls ( $p<0.001$ ).

### 242 *Oxygen delivery and extraction during exercise*

243 **Figure 1** show cardiac output behavior as a function of arteriovenous oxygen difference and of  
244 peripheral oxygen extraction: COVID-19 patients lie roughly on the same isophlets than controls at  
245 rest and during submaximal exercise, at higher cardiac output and lower arteriovenous oxygen  
246 difference and peripheral extraction. Accordingly, the relationship between  $\text{VO}_2$  and cardiac  
247 output was rightward shifted in patients with COVID-19: at any  $\text{VO}_2$ , cardiac output was higher in  
248 COVID-19 patients than in controls (**Figure 2**). At peak exercise,  $\text{CaO}_2$ , arteriovenous difference and  
249 peripheral oxygen extraction were lower in COVID-19 than in the control group ( $p < 0.05$ ). Absolute  
250 cardiac output value was not different between groups at peak exercise, but it was supernormal in  
251 COVID-19 when expressed as percentage of predicted values ( $p = 0.004$ ). This occurred in spite of a  
252 mild chronotropic incompetence and a reduced systemic arterial pressure response in COVID-19  
253 as compared with controls ( $p < 0.05$ ). Finally, when analyzing COVID-19 patients alone,  $\text{VO}_2$  at peak  
254 was associated both with  $\text{CaO}_2$  ( $\tau = 0.58$ ,  $p = 0.012$ ) and with hemoglobin ( $R^2 = 0.46$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ; e-  
255 **Figure 1**, <https://sandbox.zenodo.org/record/733386>) <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4549376>.

#### 256 *Ventilation during exercise*

257 Overall, respiratory reserve was not exhausted in COVID-19 patients and similar to that of controls  
258 (**Table 2**). Additionally, the occurrence of expiratory or inspiratory flow limitation, as well as of  
259 dynamic hyperinflation during exercise did not differ between COVID-19 patients and controls  
260 (**Table 2 and e-Table 1**, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4549376>). Only two patients had a  
261 pattern consistent with respiratory limitation to exercise, presenting reduced lung volumes at rest  
262 and a respiratory reserve of 16%, but only one had mild oxygen desaturation at peak (from 98 to  
263 93%).

264 Ventilation during exercise was lower in COVID-19 patients than in control subjects, with lower  
265 tidal volume and higher respiratory rate ( $p < 0.05$ ). Nevertheless, ventilatory equivalents for  $\text{O}_2$  and

266 CO<sub>2</sub>, PetO<sub>2</sub>, and VE/VCO<sub>2</sub> slope were higher in COVID-19 patients than in controls, while PetCO<sub>2</sub>  
267 was lower (p<0.05). Accordingly, exercise hyperventilation as expressed by the VE/VCO<sub>2</sub> and  
268 PetCO<sub>2</sub> was higher in COVID-19 patients also during submaximal exercise (p<0.001), and was  
269 mainly linked with a low PaCO<sub>2</sub> set-point (**Figure 3**). As a notable exception, only the two patients  
270 presenting with respiratory limitation to exercise configured as outliers from this latter plot, and  
271 both of them had high V<sub>D</sub>/V<sub>T</sub> (0.63 and 0.64, respectively). Complete blood gas analysis at rest and  
272 at peak exercise in COVID-19 patients is shown in **Table 3**.

### 273 *Pulmonary circulation during exercise*

274 Three COVID-19 patients and 7 controls did not have a tricuspid regurgitant jet at peak exercise  
275 (p=0.137). Pressure-flow pairs of COVID-19 patients at rest and during submaximal exercise were  
276 upward and rightward shifted as compared with controls, but lay on the same regression slope  
277 (**Figure 4**), with non-different peak values (TPR of the whole population: 3.5 [1.7] WU). Individual  
278 pressure-flow pairs as well as averaged slopes for both patients' groups are shown in **e-Figure 2**  
279 and **e-Figure 3** (<https://sandbox.zenodo.org/record/733386>). In COVID-19 patients, SPAP and TPR at  
280 peak resulted unrelated to SaO<sub>2</sub>, PaO<sub>2</sub> and CaO<sub>2</sub>. Moreover, right ventricular function, even when  
281 normalized for right ventricular afterload, was similar in COVID-19 and controls.

### 282 *Cardiorespiratory adaptation to exercise according to COVID-19 severity*

283 We performed an exploratory analysis to highlight between-groups differences according to the  
284 type of ventilatory support undertaken during hospitalization (mechanical ventilation, non-  
285 invasive ventilation, oxygen mask), as shown in **e-Table 2** and **e-Table 3**  
286 (<https://sandbox.zenodo.org/record/733386>). As expected, both the length of hospitalization, as  
287 well as that of ventilatory support, decreased from mechanical ventilation to non-invasive  
288 ventilation to oxygen (p<0.05). Patients treated with mechanical ventilation tended to have lower

289 lung volumes as well as lower  $\text{VO}_2$  at peak, in spite of a not-exhausted ventilatory reserve. Patients  
290 treated with non-invasive ventilation were older, had non-significantly higher  $E/E'$  and higher PAP  
291 at rest, as well as higher PAP at peak in spite of non-different TPR. There were no major  
292 differences between the three groups in blood tests, echocardiographic parameters at rest and at  
293 peak exercise, as well as in oxygen delivery and extraction.

294

## 295 **DISCUSSION**

296 With this paper, we provide the first description of the cardiorespiratory adaptation to exercise in  
297 the recovery phase from COVID-19 pneumonia, at the time of hospital discharge. In particular, our  
298 results show that: 1) recovering COVID-19 patients presented a significantly reduced exercise  
299 capacity; 2) impairment of functional capacity was mainly related to peripheral factors (anemia  
300 and oxygen extraction) rather than a respiratory or cardiac limitation; 3) in spite of parenchymal  
301 lung disruption, pulmonary vascular function was not impaired after COVID-19; 4) exercise  
302 hyperventilation after COVID-19 is frequent and principally due to enhanced chemoreflex  
303 sensitivity rather than increased  $V_D/V_T$ . This information could be relevant not only for a better  
304 understanding of COVID-19 consequences, but also to give clearer indications to survivors on how  
305 they should behave once discharged from the hospital, especially in previously healthy subjects,  
306 who would expect to resume their usual lifestyle. In particular, our findings might help reassuring  
307 survivors from COVID-19 about the benignity of residual symptoms in most cases.

308  $\text{VO}_2$  at peak at the time of hospital discharge was reduced by 30% in COVID-19 patients. The  
309 extent of such functional impairment was larger than previous reports in survivors from severe  
310 acute respiratory syndrome caused by coronavirus, investigated either by 6-minute walking test  
311 (two studies) or standard cardiopulmonary exercise test (one study) later on during follow-up, i.e.

312 3-12 months after hospital discharge [11-13]. Nonetheless, the extent of such limitation is similar  
313 to a recent report describing cardiorespiratory fitness in COVID-19 patients, 2-3 months after  
314 disease onset [26]. Coherently with such previous reports [11,26], and extending those  
315 evidences providing a deeper insight in exercise pathophysiology, the great majority of our  
316 patients did not present respiratory limitation to exercise (normal respiratory reserve, absence of  
317 relevant expiratory or inspiratory flow limitation, or dynamic hyperinflation) despite restrictive  
318 pulmonary changes accounting for a reduction of 34% of lung volumes.

319 Instead, functional limitation seems to be mainly caused by reduced oxygen content secondary to  
320 anemia as well as by impaired peripheral extraction after COVID-19. In particular, COVID-19  
321 patients lie roughly on the same  $\dot{V}O_2$  and  $\dot{V}O_2/\text{CaO}_2$  isophlets of control subjects both at rest and  
322 during low-workload exercise, in spite of lower arteriovenous difference and oxygen extraction,  
323 thanks to higher cardiac output. However, at peak exercise the further increase of  $\dot{V}O_2$  in COVID-  
324 19 appeared to be mainly driven by cardiac output increase, while reaching an apparent limit of  
325 oxygen extraction. This finding might reflect myopathic changes occurring as a consequence of  
326 medications administered during the hospital stay (e.g. steroids, which were used in all our  
327 patients) as well as of the potential direct or indirect myopathic damage from COVID-19 [9,10],  
328 rather than muscle disuse. Indeed, it has been previously shown that prolonged bed rest should  
329 impair more stroke volume reserve rather than peripheral extraction in healthy subjects [27]. At  
330 variance, cardiac output reserve was supernormal in our COVID-19 patients, despite prolonged  
331 bed rest. We may try to explain this finding based on the peculiar hyperinflammatory setting of  
332 COVID-19, which can be associated with a longstanding high-output hemodynamic state [6].  
333 Interestingly, such supernormal cardiac output reserve occurred in spite of subtle  
334 echocardiographic abnormalities (mild right ventricular dilation and abnormal myocardial  
335 deformation indexes in one third of patients at rest, which is coherent with previous reports of

336 cardiac involvement after COVID-19 [7]) and of blunted heart rate and systemic blood pressure  
337 responses to exercise, potentially indicating a persisting autonomic imbalance after COVID-19 [28].  
338 Based on this latter, we may also speculate that such autonomic derangement might be associated  
339 with suboptimal distribution of cardiac output to exercising muscles, thus contributing to low  
340 peripheral oxygen extraction.

341 Furthermore, the cytokine storm and systemic inflammatory response that characterize COVID-19  
342 can be responsible for iron-restricted erythropoiesis with acute phase anemia [8], which could  
343 persist for a quite long time after resolution of pneumonia. Since each gram of hemoglobin can  
344 bind about 100 mL of oxygen [29], also anemia was obviously associated with reduced  $\text{VO}_2$ . Thus,  
345 in COVID-19 patients, that uniformly presented with a limit in oxygen extraction as compared with  
346 control subjects, lower hemoglobin values were associated with lower peak  $\text{VO}_2$ . The combination  
347 of these two peripheral factors (anemia and suboptimal extraction) was only partially  
348 compensated by a supernormal cardiac output, thus limiting exercise capacity well before  
349 exhaustion of the respiratory reserve. This result is encouraging since anemia and myopathic  
350 changes are expected to spontaneously recover during extended follow-up [12].

351 Additionally, it is interesting to note that, despite significant parenchymal disruption, pulmonary  
352 vascular function of COVID-19 was similar to that of control subjects. The pressure-flow  
353 relationship of the pulmonary circulation was upward and rightward shifted in COVID-19 patients  
354 as compared with controls, with a similar ratio between pulmonary artery pressure and cardiac  
355 output, which is consistent with invasive hemodynamic findings obtained in mechanically-  
356 ventilated COVID-19 patients [6]. Nonetheless, TPR resulted in both groups at the upper limit of  
357 normal at peak exercise. Indeed, both population were overall at increased risk for having heart  
358 failure with preserved ejection fraction, based on age, clinical history and comorbidities [30]. At  
359 variance from a recent report in severe COVID-19 evaluated in the acute phase of disease, where



360 right ventricular to pulmonary artery coupling was independently associated with survival, in our  
361 cohort  $S'$ /systolic PAP was not different between survived COVID-19 patients and controls, neither  
362 at rest nor during exercise [31].

363 Another peculiar aspect of COVID-19 exercise pathophysiology is hyperventilation.  $VE/VCO_2$  was  
364 high at rest and during exercise, due to enhanced chemoreflex sensitivity. Indeed, only two  
365 patients with respiratory limitation to exercise presented with a high  $VE/VCO_2$  due to high  $V_D/V_T$ ,  
366 while in all other patients, the ventilatory response was leftward shifted probably due to reflex,  
367 peripheral factors [24,25].

### 368 **Study limitations**

369 Despite we enrolled a small sample of COVID-19 patients, our study was adequately powered to  
370 detect meaningful differences in exercise pathophysiology between COVID-19 and control  
371 subjects. While the small sample size of our study may limit generalizability of our results, it did  
372 not prevent us from conducting an in-depth pathophysiological exploration of a representative  
373 population healed from severe COVID-19 pneumonia, that was evaluated with cardiopulmonary  
374 exercise test combined with blood gas analysis and echocardiography at the time of their hospital  
375 discharge. Furthermore, the characteristics of our population are in line with those of larger  
376 studies [32], with a quite fair distribution of the kind of ventilatory support required during  
377 hospitalization. However, the small representation of each group of patients corresponding to a  
378 given ventilatory support, prevented us from finding meaningful between-groups differences, an  
379 aim that goes beyond the scope of the present work. Furthermore, despite heterogeneous  
380 ventilatory support, in median our patients had a severe lung restriction after COVID-19.

381 Controls were not asymptomatic matched individuals, but outpatients who underwent a full  
382 cardiorespiratory assessment to investigate the etiology of shortness of breath, including 17% of

383 patients with mild COPD (GOLD I or II). Additionally, given the unresolved issues related to the  
384 non-invasive diagnosis of heart failure with preserved ejection fraction, we cannot exclude that  
385 some of these subjects (as well as of COVID-19 patients) may have had an early phase of such  
386 disease [33,34], explaining TPR at the upper limits of normal. However, control subjects ended up  
387 even after this test without any sign of cardiac or respiratory limitation to exercise, and presented  
388 a burden of mild comorbidities comparable to that of our representative COVID-19 population.  
389 Since a radial artery catheter was routinely placed only in COVID-19 survivors but not in controls,  
390 we could not have a comparison of blood gas analysis between controls and COVID-19 patients.  
391 However, having excluded control subjects with severe respiratory disease, we believe that this  
392 does not importantly affect the interpretation of our results. Finally, we could not measure lung  
393 diffusion properties in our patients. Nonetheless, in survivors from Severe Acute Respiratory  
394 Syndrome, the functional disability has been suggested to be out of proportion to the degree of  
395 lung function impairment [13].

396

## 397 **INTERPRETATION**

398 Exercise limitation is a frequent finding at the time of hospital discharge after COVID-19  
399 pneumonia. Reduced oxygen content and extraction, secondary to anemia and myopathic  
400 changes, rather than respiratory, pulmonary vascular or cardiac impairment, were the main  
401 contributors to reduced exercise capacity. Additionally, enhanced chemoreflex sensitivity triggers  
402 exercise hyperventilation after resolution of COVID-19 pneumonia. These findings might help  
403 reassuring survivors from COVID-19 on the benignity of residual symptoms in most cases.

404

405

406

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417

418

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540

541 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

542

543 **Figure 1. Cardiac output as a function of arteriovenous oxygen difference (on the left) and of**  
544 **peripheral oxygen extraction (on the right) at rest and during exercise.**

545 Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean.

546 Abbreviations:  $\text{CaO}_2$ =arterial oxygen content;  $\text{C(a-v)O}_2$ =arteriovenous oxygen difference;

547 CO=cardiac output

548

549 **Figure 2. Oxygen consumption as a function of cardiac output.** This relationship was rightward  
550 shifted in COVID-19 patients as compared with controls at rest and during submaximal exercise.

551 Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean.

552 Abbreviations: CO=cardiac output;  $VO_2$ =oxygen consumption.

553

554

555

556 **Figure 3. Exercise hyperventilation in COVID-19 patients and in controls.**

557 Abbreviations:  $\text{PaCO}_2$ =arterial partial pressure for carbon dioxide;  $\text{PetCO}_2$ =end-tidal partial  
558 pressure for carbon dioxide;  $\text{VCO}_2$ =carbon dioxide production;  $\text{V}_D$ =dead space;  $\text{V}_E$ =minute  
559 ventilation;  $\text{V}_T$ =tidal volume.

560

561 **Figure 4. Pressure-flow relationship of the pulmonary circulation in COVID-19 patients and**  
562 **controls.**

563 The horizontal dotted line marks the value of 30 mmHg; the oblique dotted line corresponds to a  
564 slope of the pressure/flow relationship of 3 mmHg/L/min.

565 Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean.

566 Abbreviations: CO=cardiac output; mPAP=mean pulmonary artery pressure

567

**TABLES**

**Table 1. General characteristics of study population**

	<b>Control patients N=18</b>	<b>COVID-19 patients N=18</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b><i>Demographics and anthropometrics</i></b>			
Age, years	65 (20)	66 (21)	0.911
Male sex, N (%)	13 (72)	13 (72)	1.000
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	26 (5)	26 (4)	0.298
<b><i>Comorbidities</i></b>			
Arterial hypertension, N (%)	11 (61)	11 (61)	1.000
Diabetes mellitus, N (%)	1 (6)	2 (11)	0.547
Obesity, N (%)	5 (28)	1 (6)	0.074
Smoke, N (%)	3 (17)	3 (17)	1.000
COPD, N (%)	3 (17)	3 (17)	1.000
CAD, N (%)	0 (0)	1 (6)	0.347
Atrial fibrillation			1.000
Paroxysmal, N (%)	1 (6)	1 (6)	
Permanent, N (%)	1 (6)	1 (6)	
<b><i>Pulmonary function test</i></b>			
FVC, L	4.02 (2.33)	2.66 (1.47)	0.002
FVC, % predicted	101 (10)	79 (47)	0.009
FEV <sub>1</sub> , L/min	3.06 (1.47)	2.01 (1.13)	0.016
FEV <sub>1</sub> , % predicted	105 (22)	79 (40)	0.059
FEV <sub>1</sub> /FVC	0.78 (0.09)	0.83 (0.11)	0.045
<b><i>Echocardiography at rest</i></b>			
LV EDV, ml	106 (21)	109 (39)	0.735
LV EF	0.61 (0.07)	0.58 (0.08)	0.801
LV mass index, g/m <sup>2</sup>	67 (16)	85 (21)	0.027
LA volume, ml	53 (20)	57 (26)	0.373
E/E' average	8 (3)	9 (5)	0.450
RV diameter, mm	35 (6)	40 (7)	0.029
S' RV, cm/s	11 (4)	14 (3)	0.155
<b><i>Hemodynamics, oxygen delivery and extraction at rest</i></b>			
SBP, mmHg	134 (30)	130 (20)	0.343
SPAP, mmHg	25 (10)	27 (11)	0.034
S' RV /SPAP, cm/s/mmHg	0.54 (0.23)	0.49 (0.11)	0.817
HR, bpm	75 (15)	82 (20)	0.760
CO, L/min	4.3 (0.9)	5.3 (1.5)	<0.001
SaO <sub>2</sub> , %	99.5 (2.5)	98.0 (2.0)	0.007
CaO <sub>2</sub> , mL/dL	19.6 (2.9)	17.1 (4.8)	<0.001
CvO <sub>2</sub> , mL/dL	12.3 (3.1)	10.5 (5.4)	0.318
C(a-v)O <sub>2</sub> mL/dL	7.3 (2.3)	5.7 (2.5)	<0.001
C(a-v)O <sub>2</sub> / CaO <sub>2</sub>	0.37 (0.10)	0.36 (0.17)	0.219

**Abbreviations:** BMI=body mass index, CAD=coronary artery disease,  $\text{CaO}_2$ = content of oxygen in arterial blood,  $\text{C(a-v)O}_2$ =arteriovenous oxygen difference, CO=cardiac output, COPD=chronic obstructive lung disease, COVID-19=novel coronavirus-19 disease, EDV=end-diastolic volume, EF=ejection fraction, FVC=forced vital capacity,  $\text{FEV}_1$ = forced expiratory volume in one second, HR=heart rate, LA=left atrium, LV=left ventricle, RV=right ventricle,  $\text{SaO}_2$ = arterial oxygen saturation, SBP=systolic blood pressure, SPAP=systolic pulmonary artery pressure.

**Table 2. Ventilatory and hemodynamic parameters of study population at peak exercise.**

	<b>Control patients N=18</b>	<b>COVID-19 patients N=18</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<i>Oxygen flow</i>			
VO <sub>2</sub> , ml/kg/min	22.8 (9.3)	14.8 (6.1)	<0.001
VO <sub>2</sub> , % predicted	90 (19)	59 (32)	<0.001
VO <sub>2</sub> /work slope	10.9 (1.9)	8.1 (1.2)	<0.001
O <sub>2</sub> pulse, mL/bpm	12.3 (3.6)	9.1 (2.0)	0.002
SaO <sub>2</sub> , %	97.0 (2.8)	96.8 (4.5)	0.042
CaO <sub>2</sub> , mL/dL	19.5 (2.5)	16.9 (5.0)	0.001
CvO <sub>2</sub> , mL/dL	3.3 (6.2)	6.3 (3.1)	0.081
C(a-v)O <sub>2</sub> , mL/dL	15.3 (5.6)	11.7 (2.5)	<0.001
C(a-v)O <sub>2</sub> / CaO <sub>2</sub>	0.81 (0.31)	0.66 (0.19)	0.006
RQ	1.18 (0.15)	1.08 (0.28)	0.263
<i>Ventilatory adaptation</i>			
VE, L/min	54.5 (36.1)	41.9 (20.6)	0.038
VE/MVV	0.45 (0.19)	0.41 (0.15)	0.369
RR, /min	32.5 (9.3)	34.5 (12.0)	0.035
VE/VO <sub>2</sub>	32 (10)	40 (10)	0.023
VE/VCO <sub>2</sub>	30 (9)	40 (9)	<0.001
PetO <sub>2</sub> , mmHg	112 (9)	117 (8)	0.037
PetCO <sub>2</sub> , mmHg	39 (10)	34 (5)	0.001
Dynamic hyperinflation, N(%)	10 (56)	7 (39)	0.317
Expiratory flow limitation, N (%)	5 (29)	3 (17)	0.370
VE/VCO <sub>2</sub> slope	28 (8)	32 (7)	0.007
<i>Cardiovascular adaptation</i>			
HR, bpm	142 (36)	120 (30)	0.023
HR, % predicted	89 (13)	78 (17)	0.009
CO, L/min	10.3 (2.8)	10.6 (2.7)	0.872
CO, % of predicted	86 (20)	105 (28)	0.004
SBP, mmHg	195 (31)	165 (38)	0.020
SPAP, mmHg	54 (28)	52 (10)	0.835
TPR, WU	3.6 (2.1)	3.4 (1.7)	0.646
S' RV, m/s	16 (3)	19 (5)	0.560
S' RV /SPAP, m/s/mmHg	0.41 (0.26)	0.36 (0.18)	0.831

**Abbreviations:** CaO<sub>2</sub>= content of oxygen in arterial blood, C(a-v)O<sub>2</sub>=arteriovenous oxygen difference, CO=cardiac output, HR=heart rate, MVV=maximal voluntary ventilation, O<sub>2</sub>=oxygen, PetO<sub>2</sub>=end-tidal pressure for oxygen, PetCO<sub>2</sub>= end-tidal pressure for carbon dioxide, RQ=respiratory quotient, RR=respiratory rate, RV=right ventricle, SaO<sub>2</sub>= arterial oxygen saturation, SBP=systolic blood pressure, SPAP=systolic pulmonary artery pressure, TPR=total pulmonary vascular resistance, VE=minute ventilation, VCO<sub>2</sub>=carbon dioxide production, VO<sub>2</sub>= oxygen consumption.



**Table 3. Blood gas-analysis in COVID-19 patients at rest and at peak exercise.**

	<b>REST</b>	<b>PEAK EXERCISE</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b>PH</b>	7.44 (0.02)	7.40 (0.05)	<0.001
<b>PaO<sub>2</sub>, mmHg</b>	81 (14.5)	79 (25)	0.271
<b>PaCO<sub>2</sub>, mmHg</b>	38 (5)	37 (5)	0.328
<b>(ET-a)O<sub>2</sub>, mmHg</b>	32 (19)	39 (26)	0.106
<b>(a-ET)CO<sub>2</sub>, mmHg</b>	9 (6)	4 (6)	<0.001
<b>Lac, mmol/L</b>	1.0 (0.4)	3.5 (2.8)	<0.001
<b>V<sub>D</sub>/V<sub>T</sub></b>	0.63 (0.05)	0.38 (0.16)	<0.001

**Abbreviations:** (a-ET)CO<sub>2</sub>= delta arterial/end-tidal partial pressure for carbon dioxide, (ET-a)O<sub>2</sub>= delta end-tidal/arterial partial pressure for oxygen, Lac=lactate, PaCO<sub>2</sub>=arterial partial pressure for carbon dioxide, PaO<sub>2</sub>=arterial partial pressure for oxygen, V<sub>D</sub>/V<sub>T</sub>=dead space ventilation.







