

Long COVID and Serious Side Reactions to mRNA-Based Vaccines (VSITV) are Mainly Spike Protein-Induced Thrombotic Vasculitis

Ronald Palacios Castrillo*

Department of Immunology, Incor Health Clinic and The Kidney Institute, Santa Cruz, Bolivia

Abstract

Long COVID syndrome, known as Long COVID, refers to a series of debilitating symptoms that arise after infection with the SARS-CoV-2 virus. These symptoms are similar to those experienced by some people after vaccination with vaccines based on mRNA platforms (Pfizer, Moderna). With more than 200 million Long COVID patients worldwide and an increase in cases of moderate to severe reactions after administration of mRNA vaccines (VSITV), the effects on quality of life and economics are significant, for what is necessary to pay urgent attention to understand its pathophysiology and to provide an adequate diagnosis and treatment.

Keywords: Long COVID; mRNA Vaccines side effects; Immunothrombosis; Spike protein

Abbreviations: VSITV: Vaccine Spike Protein-Induced Thrombotic Vasculitis; NSITV: Natural Spike Protein-Induced Thrombotic Vasculitis

Introduction

In this article, we describe our perspective that both Long COVID and common side effects of mRNA vaccines (VSITV) induce persistent and prolonged expression of the Spike protein (SPIKE) in various tissues and organs of the body. This would induce coagulopathy, microscopic vasculitis, and endothelitis as the main drivers of the disease, and may also cause or worsen other common pathologies in Long COVID, such as mast cell activation syndrome, dysautonomia, and sudden deaths due to arrhythmias and heart attacks, reports of which continue to rise.

Given that the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein can independently induce fibrinoid microclot formation, platelet activation, and endothelitis, we predict that the persistence of the spike protein will be a key mechanism driving ongoing coagulopathy in Long COVID and in the VSITV. We discuss various treatment goals to address coagulopathy, endothelitis, and vasculitis and predict that treatment, especially if given early, with a combination of anticoagulants, antiplatelets, corticosteroids, and rapamycin/everolimus, will provide significant relief for many patients.

To focus attention on these treatment targets, we propose that the term Long COVID be changed to "Natural Spike Protein-Induced Thrombotic Vasculitis" (NSITV) and that serious side effects of mRNA vaccines be renamed "Vaccine Spike Protein-Induced Thrombotic Vasculitis" (VSITV) are mainly due to a persistent and disseminated cellular expression of the Spike protein". These ideas require urgent testing, especially as the world tries to live with COVID-19.

Literature review

Long COVID (or the post-acute sequelae of COVID-19) is a debilitating multisystem disease that causes significant disability [1]. The World Health Organization [2] has defined Long COVID as those cases in which a probable or confirmed infection by SARS-CoV-2 occurs, with onset of symptoms within three months, duration of at least two months and no alternative diagnosis. It is estimated that Long COVID affects more than 200 million people worldwide, with most cases considered "mild" [3,4] and even a third of them are asymptomatic [5,6]. In addition, a significant increase in the presentation of prolonged COVID-19-like symptoms (VSITV) has been observed after SARS-CoV-2 vaccination, especially with mRNA-based vaccines [7-11].

Patients with Long COVID experience on average 56 symptoms affecting nine different body systems [1], the most common being

fatigue, cognitive dysfunction, dyspnea, exercise intolerance, exacerbation of symptoms after exertion (PESE), sleep disorders and myalgias [1,3,12-14]. Given this broad definition, Long COVID is likely to be a multipathology disease [10-12]. Estimates of the long-term prevalence of COVID-19 vary [3,13,15-19], but studies in Scotland have shown that it affects 1.8%-3.2% of the population [20,21], in compared with cancer (2.5%), chronic kidney disease (3.2%), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (2.3%), and stroke (2.2%) [22]. Two meta-analyses have shown persistent symptoms in 43%-45% of patients after the acute phase of COVID-19 [3,13]. Follow-up studies suggest that 85% of patients presenting with symptoms two months after infection remain symptomatic at one year [23]. Similarly, resolution of symptoms after 90 days appears to be rare [24], leading to disability in a previously economically active population [1]. Consequently, the economic costs are estimated to be as high as \$25 billion in the UK alone [25]. In addition to its modest benefits in acute cases of COVID-19, vaccination provides a modest reduction in the odds of developing Long COVID (13% and 9% reduction after the first and second doses, respectively [26]. However, other investigations have shown that each SARS-CoV-2 reinfection increases the risk of death, hospitalization, and/or multi-organ complications, regardless of vaccination status [27]. Therefore, the protections provided by vaccination appear to be far from absolute, especially when many public health measures are being scaled back in various countries [28-30]. As a result, the prevalence of Long COVID continues to increase [31]. In addition, both the severity and type of side reactions to mRNA-based vaccines are increasing, as is the diversity of clinical manifestations and affected organs, from sudden death in healthy young people, including athletes, to myocarditis, endomyocarditis, pericarditis, venous and arterial thrombosis, meningoencephalopathies, peripheral neuropathies, systemic inflammatory syndromes such as Still's disease, gastrointestinal syndromes, and infertility due to orchitis (decreased spermatoocyte production) or premature ovarian failure due to oophoritis. The list of tissues and organs affected so far is extensive

*Corresponding author: Ronald palacios castrillo, Department of Immunology, Incor Health Clinic and The Kidney Institute, Santa Cruz, Bolivia; E-mail: ronalin50@gmail.com

Received: 19-Jul-2023, Manuscript No. JIDT-23-107110; **Editor assigned:** 24-Jul-2023, Pre QC No. JIDT-23-107110 (PQ); **Reviewed:** 07-Aug-2023, QC No. JIDT-23-107110; **Revised:** 14-Aug-2023, Manuscript No. JIDT-23-107110(R); **Published:** 21-Aug-2023, DOI:10.4173/2332-0877.23.S4.003.

Citation: Castrillo RP (2023) Long COVID and Serious Side Reactions to mRNA-Based Vaccines (VSITV) are Mainly Spike Protein-Induced Thrombotic Vasculitis. J Infect Dis Ther S4:003.

Copyright: © 2023 Castrillo RP. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

(you can review the report “The Frequency and Associations of Adverse Reactions of COVID-19 Vaccines Reported to Pharmacovigilance Systems in the European Union and the United States.

It is therefore evident that the majority of Long COVID and VSITV cases do not resolve over time, and their prevalence continues to rise, carrying significant economic costs for a previously productive workforce. Therefore, understanding the pathophysiology of Long COVID and VSITV is imperative, and treatments must be urgently implemented.

Vaccines based on mRNA platforms

The foundations that support VSITV: As of this writing, the following is indisputable regarding vaccines based on mRNA platforms:

1. After administration of the vaccine, the mRNA spreads in various tissues and cells begin to express the Spike protein (SPIKE) encoded by the mRNA in different organs and tissues.
2. The expression of the spike protein in cells can last longer than initially reported, reaching months and even years.
3. The widespread expression and duration of spike protein in various organs and tissues cannot be predicted or controlled with Pfizer and Moderna mRNA-based vaccines.
4. Like any foreign protein or antigen expressed in cells, spike protein triggers an antibody and T-lymphocyte-mediated immune response that destroys cells producing and expressing spike protein, which in turn results in a systemic inflammatory process.
5. Expression of the spike protein encoded by mRNA vaccines in endothelial cells renders them susceptible to destruction, inflammation, and dysfunction, which can lead to vasculitis and coagulopathy characterized by microthrombosis and hyperactivation of platelets. These effects may be direct, inherent to the abnormal expression of the spike protein in the endothelium, or mediated by the immune response induced by the spike protein, or both mechanisms.
6. The specific immune response against the spike protein will persist as long as there are cells in the tissues and organs that produce it. The longer the spike protein is present, the longer the immune-mediated inflammation lasts, resulting in chronic damage to the tissues and organs that contain cells that produce the spike protein encoded by the mRNA vaccines.
7. Administration of booster doses of mRNA vaccines will induce stronger, faster, and longer immune responses, as well as increased spike protein expression in cells, resulting in increased risk of destruction and damage to tissues and organs.

Acute COVID-19: The foundations that support Long COVID-19

Endothelial cells play vital roles in vascular homeostasis and hemostasis, including regulation of vascular tone, blood flow, fibrinolysis, and platelet aggregation [32-35]. Acute COVID-19 appears to be primarily a disease of the vascular endothelium leading to microcirculatory thrombotic vasculitis [33,34,36-43]. SARS-CoV-2 spike proteins allow the virus to bind to target cells through binding to Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme 2 (ACE2), followed by intracellular viral replication [42,44,45]. ACE2 is present in the tongue, nasal

mucosa, and lungs as the initial portal of entry, and is also found in the vasculature on endothelial cells. This gives SARS-CoV-2 ample opportunity to spread easily throughout the body, including across the blood-brain barrier [33,34,37,42,46-48].

Entry of SARS-CoV-2 into endothelial cells reduces ACE2 expression, leading to a proinflammatory and prothrombotic environment [34,49-51]. Endothelial injury may be the result of direct SARS-CoV-2 infection, leading to endothelial cell apoptosis and endothelitis, as well as subsequent systemic immuno-inflammatory responses [33,34,37,39,49,51,52].

Spike proteins change the structure of beta and gamma fibrinogen, complement 3, and prothrombin, resulting in the development of blood clots that are larger and more difficult to break down. Spike proteins can trigger clot formation in the blood even without thrombin and platelets. Spike protein alone can cause neuronal damage [53], destabilize microvascular haemostasis [54], induce thrombosis [55], (irreversibly) activate platelets [56-58] and alter endothelial function [43,59], with some effects not dependent on ACE2 [60] or possibly related to anti-spike antibodies [61]. Endothelial dysfunction results in impaired vascular tone and a prothrombotic state [32,34,35,37,43,49].

Post-mortem examination of critically ill patients with COVID-19 has revealed the presence of a generalized coagulopathy, with alveolar-capillary microthrombi nine times more frequent than in influenza A [62]. Furthermore, Pretorius et al., [40] found a significant microclot burden in acute patients with COVID-19, regardless of disease severity, compared with patients with type 2 diabetes and healthy controls. These microclots, of an amyloid nature, laid the foundation for the chronic sequelae following COVID-19.

Thrombi are known to develop from inflammation, partly due to platelet hyperactivation [63]. COVID-19 is a highly inflammatory disease, with the potential to trigger cytokine storms [64]. In fact, COVID-19 activates platelets and the complement system, causing endothelial dysfunction [43,65]. The resulting pro-inflammatory milieu can lead to a condition known as immunothrombosis, which especially affects the microvasculature [65]. In addition, the S1 subunit of the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein can directly interact with platelets and fibrin, causing microclot formation [36,56,66-68].

Specifically, the S1 subunit produces structural changes in β and γ fibrin (gene), complement 3, and prothrombin, resulting in the formation of extensive abnormal microclots [36,58,67-70]. These microclots appear to pathologically alter blood flow in systemic microcapillaries [36,71-73], including the brain [48], heart [73-75], lungs [46,73,76] and kidneys [73].

Microclots induced by spike protein are resistant to fibrinolysis, creating the potential for false-negative clot dissolving tests (such as D-dimer) [77] and making microclots persistent and central to pathogenesis of Long COVID and VSITV [36,69,78].

There are several proposed mechanisms that offer valid explanations for Long COVID. In many patients, it is possible that several of these pathologies coexist and interact with each other. Suggested ideas include Mast Cell Activation Syndrome (MCAS), neuroinflammation, viral reactivation, persistence of SARS-CoV-2 and/or spike protein, autoimmunity, and gut dysbiosis [9,79].

However, a pathology related to microclots, platelet hyperactivation, and endothelial dysfunction is being increasingly recognized [36,40,43,80-82]. In this sense, our perspective is that Long COVID and VSITV are mainly (although not exclusively) a form of thrombotic vasculitis.

Microclots in Long COVID patients were first described by Pretorius et al., [40], who found a persistent presence of fibrinolysis-resistant microclots in the blood, accompanied by platelet hyperactivation and dysregulated hemostasis disturbance. These microclots were visible macroscopically as a pellet in platelet-poor plasma samples after centrifugation (not seen in healthy controls or patients with type 2 diabetes), and levels were comparable to those found in patients with acute COVID-19 [82].

Clogging of the capillaries

Normally, human capillaries are 5-10 μm in diameter, allowing red blood cells (~8 μm in diameter) to circulate in single file due to their flexible structure [83]. However, microclots present in Long COVID patients have a diameter of 5 to 200 μm , which means that they can obstruct capillaries [82,83]. This can lead to ischemia-reperfusion injury at the microvascular level [83], explaining exacerbation of symptoms after Physical Exertion (PESE), which affects 75%-89% of patients. PESE is a diagnostic criterion for myalgic encephalomyelitis, which can be objectively demonstrated by cardiopulmonary exercise tests performed on consecutive days [1,83-87], and subsequent recovery is prolonged [88].

Microvasculature obstruction also explains other symptoms of Long COVID, such as chest pain, which can be caused by microvasculature ischemia [89]. Evidence of capillary obstruction has been found in several studies of the microvasculature of different organs in patients with Long COVID, providing evidence of systemic vascular changes [89-95]. These microvascular changes include a reduction in sublingual vascular density comparable to that seen in severe cases of acute COVID-19 [93], as well as a reduction in retinal vascular density [94,95], presence of fibrin thrombi obstructing capillaries in the skin [92] and loss of muscle capillaries [90,91]. Biomarkers of tissue hypoxia-induced microvascular remodeling, such as Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF), have been found in patients with Long COVID, probably as compensation for capillary occlusion [96-98]. However, any new vessels that form will also be susceptible to occlusion. Similar compensatory angiogenesis has been observed in multiple organs of severely acute patients with COVID-19 [99]. These findings are compatible with capillary occlusion by microclots.

Similar data have been observed in histopathology studies in patients suffering from VSITV, especially microscopic vasculitis and microthrombosis in different tissues and organs. In fact, a recent work reports the postmortem study of 325 patients who died after administration of the mRNA-based vaccines. They found that 53% of deaths due to VSITV affected the cardiovascular system, 17% the hematological system, 8% the respiratory system, and 7% affected multiple organ systems. Three or more systems were affected in 21 cases. A total of 240 deaths were directly adjudicated to vaccination with mRNA-based vaccines.

The presence of a coagulopathy in patients with Long COVID goes beyond “typical” symptoms and is associated with increased risk of cardiovascular disease, such as ischemic heart disease and myocardial infarction after acute COVID-19 infection [100-103]. Although this risk decreases with time, coagulopathic processes still persist in some people, suggesting that this condition is ongoing. Microclots have been found even more than 23 months after SARS-CoV-2 infection [82,103-109].

In addition, a sustained increase in circulating thrombogenic spike protein S1 subunit has been observed in Long COVID patients

compared to those who have recovered from COVID-19 infection [67,110-112], which may explain the risk continuous thrombosis in some cases. Analysis of COVID-19-induced microclots has also revealed the presence of spike protein (but not full-length SARS-CoV-2) and inflammatory markers within the clots [58,66,113]. Thus, clot dissolution can perpetuate clot formation and platelet activation by releasing trapped spike protein and inflammatory proteins, creating a vicious cycle [113,114]. Inflammatory protein retention/sequestration may also help explain why many patients with Long COVID and VSITV may present with “normal” laboratory test results. The most common test involves C-reactive proteins, which are elevated during inflammation, and may suggest blood clot formation. Pretorius research found that the insoluble microclots formed in long COVID tend to entrap inflammatory markers such as C-reactive proteins. Since these markers are no longer dissolved in plasma, when doctors take a sample of the plasma solution, the results return as normal. Another standard test for blood clots checks D-dimer levels. However, D-dimers are only released when blood clots begin to break down. As a result, patients who have blood clots but have not yet broken them down may frequently yield normal test results.

Platelet activation and endothelitis

Platelet hyperactivation and endothelitis are important features accompanying microclots in Long COVID and VSITV [43]. Endothelial damage markers in Long COVID correlate with increased symptom burden and decreased exercise tolerance [103,105,107,109,115-121], while hyperactivated platelets amplify and maintain endothelitis [116], contributing to the development and maintenance of Long COVID [82,104,108,122,123]. Furthermore, Long COVID patients who experience more pronounced cognitive deficits show higher levels of cerebral hypoperfusion [124] and neuroinflammation [125], with plasma inflammatory markers consistent with endothelitis [118,126,127]. Since endothelial dysfunction is a precursor to atherosclerosis, complications of COVID-19 could manifest in the coming decades [128].

Capillary occlusion caused by microclots and endothelitis can lead to poor systemic oxygen extraction [43,129-133]. Long COVID patients have higher blood lactate levels at rest and during exercise, indicating a lower anaerobic threshold [130]. The reduction in maximal oxygen consumption ($\text{VO}_2 \text{max}$) in Long COVID patients is due to peripheral limitation in oxygen delivery due to poor oxygen extraction at the capillary level [130-133], rather than physical deconditioning [134]. Indeed, poor oxygen extraction has been shown to be associated with exercise intolerance in Long COVID patients, along with plasma markers indicating endothelitis [133].

These findings are radiologically supported by magnetic resonance imaging using xenon, which demonstrate impaired pulmonary gas transfer in Long COVID patients, attributed to microclots, and correlated with decreased exercise tolerance and increased blood desaturation. Oxygen after physical exertion [135-137]. Ventilation/perfusion scans and single photon emission Computed Tomography (CT) after COVID-19 are preferable for evaluating capillary thrombosis and perfusion defects, as conventional CT pulmonary angiography may underestimate these problems [138], even in pediatric cases [139,140].

Taken together, these findings support the existence of microclots and may help explain the wide variety of symptoms in Long COVID due to multiorgan tissue hypoxia [129,131-133,136].

Co-pathologies

Beyond the central problem of tissue hypoxia resulting from thrombotic vasculitis, there are other consequences of persistent endothelial inflammation. Patients with Long COVID are at significantly elevated risk (HR>80) of dysautonomia [79], and some symptoms, such as postural tachycardia, may be partly explained by coagulopathy, particularly early in disease progression [80]. The autonomic nervous system innervates the walls of blood vessels to regulate vascular tone [32]. Sympathetic and parasympathetic fibers innervate the muscular layer of the vessels, while only parasympathetic fibers innervate the endothelial layer, making parasympathetic fibers more susceptible to the consequences of endothelial inflammation [32]. Nerve ischemia has been proposed as an etiology [9]. The resulting dysautonomia, where sympathetic function predominates, which is in the moderate to severe range in two-thirds of Long COVID patients, is independent of the initial severity of the infection [32,141] and is associated with exercise intolerance [142].

An important consequence of post-COVID-19 dysautonomia is Postural Orthostatic Tachycardia Syndrome (POTS) [143]. The etiology of POTS is multifactorial, but endothelial disease [144], hyperactive platelets [145,146], tissue hypoxia [147], immunothrombosis [146], and increased sympathetic activation [144,147-149] have all been implicated. POTS causes abnormal cerebral blood flow and oxygenation [150,151] consistent with the target organ consequences of thrombotic vasculitis in Long COVID and contributes to a variety of common Long COVID symptoms (eg: Fatigue, tremors, dizziness) [152]. Predominant sympathetic activation produces symptoms that can commonly be misdiagnosed as anxiety [153-155]. ACE2 downregulation and tissue hypoxia can reduce serotonin synthesis [156,157], while overactive platelets (which store serotonin) can cause serotonin depletion [113]. Therefore, the anxiety and depression present in some patients may be a consequence of coagulopathy and dysautonomia [158].

More cases of POTS have been observed after SARS-CoV-2 infection and vaccination (less frequent) [143,159]. It is increasingly recognized (see above, VSITV foundations) that Long COVID symptoms, diagnoses, and pathophysiology may also be triggered after SARS-CoV-2 vaccination in some patients [7,8,10,11] in which the persistence of the spike protein has been implicated [7-9]. With the same diseases occurring after vaccination and infection, we here suggest that the persistence of the spike protein (rather than the whole virus) may lead to Long COVID, POTS, and VSITV pathology. Given that the spike protein alone has been shown to induce microclotting *in vitro* [36] and that some of those vaccinated with an mRNA-based vaccine develop a thrombotic vasculitis similar to that of Long COVID-19, we believe this offers crucial insight of the etiology of Long COVID-19 and VSITV. Supporting this, and in line with the evidence presented above for Long COVID, several cases of post-COVID-19 vaccine retinal vascular occlusion have been reported, attributed to Susac syndrome (an autoimmune endotheliopathy) and microthrombi, with potential links to hyperviscosity syndrome [160].

It is true that Mast Cell Activation Syndrome (MCAS) appears to play an important role in both Long COVID and Postural Orthostatic Tachycardia Syndrome (POTS). Mast cells, found in the vasculature, are involved in inflammation, hemostasis, and endothelial cell activation. Their degranulation may contribute to immunological and thrombotic outcomes in COVID-19. In turn, platelet activation and ischemia-reperfusion can stimulate mast cell degranulation. Several mast cell mediators, such as heparin, tryptase, and VEGF, are directly involved in coagulopathy.

Thus, MCAS may be a direct consequence of persistent coagulopathy, even if activation was initiated through spike protein

exposure. The persistence of the spike protein may be a chronic trigger of MCAS. Although MCAS appears to be a co-pathology in some Long COVID patients, addressing the coagulopathy could have a dual benefit by reducing inappropriate and harmful mast cell activation as well as mitigating thrombogenesis.

Current evidence suggests that both Long COVID and VSITV are mostly a coagulopathy and vasculopathy causing multisystem symptoms due to systemic tissue hypoxia. The clinical similarity with other coagulopathic diseases, such as antiphospholipid syndrome, also supports this idea.

Thus, it is likely that Long COVID and VSITV are, in many cases, Spike protein-Induced Thrombotic Vasculitis (SITV). Therefore, the use of the terms NSITV and VSITV is proposed to describe these disorders, as they are more descriptive of the proposed mechanism and primary pathology. This helps focus attention on early therapeutic interventions to prevent chronic complications and also distinguishes these conditions from other pathologies that may predominate in some patients.

Importantly, this proposal is supported by current evidence, but research on Long COVID and VSITV is ongoing, and further studies are needed to fully understand their pathophysiology and develop effective therapeutic approaches [161-168].

Potential treatments

Therapeutic efforts for Long COVID to date have focused predominantly on rehabilitation and psychological therapy [169], perhaps due to the impression that Long COVID patients are recovering from acute COVID-19 rather than suffering a continuing pathology. Taking this pathology into account, these treatments can be harmful, due to PESE [1,87,170]. In fact, rehabilitation is largely ineffective in improving Long COVID symptoms [169]. We maintain that Long COVID patients (those with NSITV) will not be ready for rehabilitation until the underlying disease and its complications have been effectively treated.

Treatment targets for NSITV and VSITV are microclots, hyperactive platelets, and endothelitis. It is proposed that treatment of this multifaceted inflammatory coagulopathy with a single drug will be insufficient and a combination of anticoagulant, steroidal anti-inflammatory, and antiplatelet drugs will be required to achieve synergistic and superior results [81,114,156], and early intervention is recommended [43,114,156].

Anticoagulants

In acute cases of COVID-19, favorable outcomes have been hypothesized and achieved when coagulopathy is addressed [38,171,172], and NICE recommends anticoagulants in certain circumstances [173]. In a case series of Long COVID patients, early treatment with apixaban 5 mg B.I.D. (with aspirin, clopidogrel, and a proton pump inhibitor) for ≥ 1 month resulted in symptomatic resolution in 24/24 patients [81]. Symptomatic improvement was also correlated with a reduction in microclots and hyperactive platelets. Another case series (n=91) of anticoagulant/antiplatelet therapy showed that between 74% and 87% of patients reported an improvement in nine key symptoms and a concurrent reduction in microclots, but an increase in gastrointestinal bleeding [80].

Since Long COVID microclots are resistant to fibrinolysis [36,69,78], dabigatran may be superior, as it increases clot susceptibility to fibrinolysis more than other anticoagulants [174,175]. Heparin inhibits the binding of the ACE2 spike protein, which means that it

has antiviral and anticoagulant properties [60,176-178]. Heparin has been used to effectively treat conditions such as prolonged COVID-related perfusion defects [139], as well as microclots in the setting of pulmonary embolism [179]. In addition, obstetric patients (n=291) with Long COVID who received enoxaparin antepartum through six weeks postpartum reported ongoing symptoms of Long COVID less frequently than those who did not [180].

Antiplatelet drugs

The targets of antiplatelet therapy are hyperactive platelets and endothelitis. Emerging evidence suggests a unique role for P2Y12 inhibitors (eg: Ticagrelor, clopidogrel) that attenuate the interaction between platelets and endothelial cells and thus reduce platelet activation, endothelitis, and endothelial formation, clots more potently than aspirin [58,116]. In hospitalized patients with acute COVID-19, favorable outcomes (eg-reduced mortality) have been found with antiplatelet drugs, with increased survival being observed with dual antiplatelet therapy without increased risk of bleeding [181,182]. Others have found improved perfusion with tirofiban, along with aspirin, clopidogrel, and anticoagulants in prophylactic doses [183]. In a randomized controlled trial, hospitalized patients receiving aspirin had similar 28-day mortality rates vs standard care, but a slightly shorter hospital stay and a higher proportion of patients discharged alive within 28 days [184].

In Long COVID terms, obstetric patients taking aspirin 325 mg/d reported symptomatic improvement compared with those that did not [180]. In a case series of 24 Long COVID patients, aspirin was shown to reduce hyperactive platelets as a single agent, but required the addition of apixaban and clopidogrel to reduce microclots [81]. Similar findings were reported in a larger case series (n=91), which showed reduced platelet activation after anticoagulation with dual antiplatelet agents [80]. Considering the emerging evidence of Long COVID-like vaccine reactions, we note that aspirin has previously been explored as a method to reduce vaccine-induced acute endothelitis [185].

mTORC1 Inhibitors

A drug that should be considered is Rapamycin or Everolimus, an mTORC1 inhibitor that has excellent anti-inflammatory effects on endothelial cells in addition to its immunosuppressive effect that has given very good results in Takayasu vasculitis, kidney transplant rejections, Graft vs host disease and its use in coronary stents to prevent endothelial and myocyte proliferation of the arterial medial layer.

It is the author's opinion that the most reasonable treatment for severe NSITV and severe/serious VSITV, taking into account the importance of thrombotic vasculitis in its pathogenesis, is made up of: steroidal anti-inflammatory (Deflazacort doses of 15 to 30 mg/day, prednisolone 10-20 mg/day), anticoagulant (Apixaban 5-10 mg x day, Dabigatran 110-150 mg x day), antiplatelet drugs (Clopidogrel 75 mg BID x day, Ticagrelor 60-90 mg x day) and Rapamycin 1 mg BID x day or Everolimus 10 mg x day. In cases of mild to moderate NSITV and VSITV, the use of low doses of steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, anticoagulants, and antiplatelet drugs should be considered, and in cases in which no improvement is obtained, consider the use of Rapamycin or Everolimus.

Those patients with NSITV and VSITV with symptoms of anxiety and depression may benefit from the antidepressant Sertraline; this drug also has additional antiplatelet and endothelial protective properties. In addition, sertraline binds to the S1 subunit of the spike protein, blocking its interaction with ACE2 which may be important considering the growing evidence of persistence of the spike protein in

NSITV and VSITV [186-202].

Discussion and Conclusion

A growing body of evidence supports that NSITV and VSITV is primarily an endothelial and immunocoagulopathic disease initiated by SPIKE expression in cells following infection or the use of mRNA platform-based vaccines. We propose the use of the term NSITV and VSITV as it describes the pathophysiology of post-COVID-19 and post-vaccination presentations, and helps focus attention on early therapeutic intervention targeting microclots, hyperactive platelets, and endothelitis. This multifaceted coagulopathy requires synergistic polypharmacy to achieve symptomatic resolution. Thromboelastography can be used to mitigate the risk of bleeding.

Our perspective does not deny the need to find and treat other common pathologies in Long COVID and VSITV, but highlights how thrombotic vasculitis can cause, exacerbate, and interact with other pathologies. Future research should investigate the efficacy of aggressive anticoagulation, antiplatelet therapy (particularly early), and the use of Rapamycin/Everolimus, after COVID-19 infection or post-mRNA vaccine sequelae to treat NSITV and VSITV.

References

1. Davis HE, Assaf GS, McCorkell L (2021) Characterizing long COVID in an international cohort: 7 months of symptoms and their impact. *EClinicalMedicine* 38:101019.
2. World Health Organization. Post COVID-19 condition (Long COVID). 2022.
3. Chen C, Hauptert SR, Zimmermann L, Shi X, Fritsche LG, et al. (2022) Global Prevalence of Post-Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) Condition or Long COVID: A Meta-Analysis and Systematic Review. *J Infect Dis* 226:1593-1607.
4. Wulf Hanson S, Abbafati C, Aerts JG (2022) A global systematic analysis of the occurrence, severity, and recovery pattern of long COVID in 2020 and 2021. *Public Glob Health*.
5. Bliddal S, Banasik K, Pedersen OB (2021) Acute and persistent symptoms in nonhospitalized PCR-confirmed COVID-19 patients. *Sci Rep* 11: 13153.
6. Huang C, Huang L, Wang Y (2021) 6-month consequences of COVID-19 in patients discharged from hospital: A cohort study. *Lancet* 397:220-232.
7. Patterson BK, Francisco EB, Yogendra R (2022) SARS-CoV-2 S1 Protein Persistence in SARS-CoV-2 Negative Post-Vaccination Individuals with Long COVID/PASC-Like Symptoms.
8. Schieffer E, Schieffer B (2022) The rationale for the treatment of long-COVID symptoms-A cardiologist's view. *Front Cardiovasc Med* 9: 992686.
9. Turner S, Khan MA, Putrino D, Woodcock A, Kell DB, et al. (2023) Long COVID: Pathophysiological factors and abnormalities of coagulation. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 34:321-344.
10. Deans K, Millar E, Carroll HA (2022) The neurological safety of COVID-19 vaccines. *BMJ*.
11. Scholkmann F, May C-A (2023) COVID-19, post-acute COVID-19 syndrome (PACS, "long COVID") and post-COVID-19 vaccination syndrome (PCVS, "post-COVIDvac-syndrome"): Similarities and differences. *Pathol-Res Pract* 2023:246:154497.
12. Alkodaymi MS, Omrani OA, Fawzy NA (2022) Prevalence of post-acute COVID-19 syndrome symptoms at different follow-up periods: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 28: 657-666.
13. O'Mahoney LL, Routen A, Gillies C (2022) The prevalence and long-term health effects of Long COVID among hospitalised and non-hospitalised populations: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *eClinicalMedicine* 55:101762.
14. Twomey R, DeMars J, Franklin K, Culos-Reed SN, Weatherald J, et al. (2022) Chronic Fatigue and Postexertional Malaise in People Living With Long COVID: An Observational Study. *Phys Ther* 102.
15. Kenny G, McCann K, O'Brien C (2022) Identification of Distinct Long COVID Clinical Phenotypes Through Cluster Analysis of Self-Reported Symptoms. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 9:60.

16. Mehandru S, Merad M (2022) Pathological sequelae of long-haul COVID. *Nat Immunol* 23:194-202.
17. Zhang H, Zang C, Xu Z (2023) Data-driven identification of post-acute SARS-CoV-2 infection subphenotypes. *Nat Med* 29: 226-235.
18. Hastie CE, Lowe DJ, McAuley A (2022) Outcomes among confirmed cases and a matched comparison group in the Long-COVID in Scotland study. *Nat Commun* 13:5663.
19. Taquet M, Dercon Q, Luciano S, Geddes JR, Husain M, et al. (2021) Incidence, cooccurrence, and evolution of long-COVID features: A 6-month retrospective cohort study of 273,618 survivors of COVID-19. *PLOS Med* 2021.
20. Jeffrey K, Woolford L, Maini R (2023) Identifying Long COVID Using Electronic Health Records: A National Observational Cohort Study in Scotland.
21. Office of National Statistics. Prevalence of ongoing symptoms following coronavirus (COVID-19) infection in the UK. 2023.
22. QOF (Quality and Outcomes Framework) Database. Scotland-2016.
23. Tran V-T, Porcher R, Pane I, Ravaud P (2022) Course of post COVID-19 disease symptoms over time in the ComPaRe long COVID prospective e-cohort. *Nat Commun* 13:1812.
24. Whitaker M, Elliott J, Chadeau-Hyam M (2022) Persistent COVID-19 symptoms in a community study of 606,434 people in England. *Nat Commun* 13:1957.
25. Economist Impact. Understanding the future economic consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic. 2023.
26. Ayoubkhani D, Bermingham C, Pouwels KB (2022) Trajectory of long COVID symptoms after COVID-19 vaccination: community based cohort study. *BMJ* 069676.
27. Bowe B, Xie Y, Al-Aly Z (2022) Acute and postacute sequelae associated with SARS-CoV-2 reinfection. *Nat Med* 28:2398-2405.
28. Al-Aly Z, Bowe B, Xie Y (2022) Long COVID after breakthrough SARS-CoV-2 infection. *Nat Med* 28: 1461.
29. Gurdasani D, Drury J, Greenhalgh T (2021) Mass infection is not an option: We must do more to protect our young. *Lancet* 398:297-298.
30. Lazarus JV, Romero D, Kopka CJ (2022) A multinational Delphi consensus to end the COVID-19 public health threat. *Nature* 611:332-345.
31. ONS (2021) Coronavirus (COVID-19) vaccination and self-reported long COVID in the UK: 25 October 2021.
32. Amiya E, Watanabe M, Komuro I (2014) The Relationship between Vascular Function and the Autonomic Nervous System. *Ann Vasc Dis* 7:109-119.
33. Nägele MP, Haubner B, Tanner FC, Ruschitzka F, Flammer AJ (2020) Endothelial dysfunction in COVID-19: Current findings and therapeutic implications. *Atherosclerosis* 314:58-62.
34. Perico L, Benigni A, Casiraghi F, Ng LFP, Renia L, et al. (2021) Immunity, endothelial injury and complement-induced coagulopathy in COVID-19. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 17:46-64.
35. Yau JW, Teoh H, Verma S (2015) Endothelial cell control of thrombosis. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord* 15:130.
36. Grobelaar LM, Venter C, Vlok M (2021) SARS-CoV-2 spike protein S1 induces fibrin(ogen) resistant to fibrinolysis: Implications for microclot formation in COVID-19. *Biosci Rep* 41:20210611.
37. Huertas A, Montani D, Savale L (2020) Endothelial cell dysfunction: A major player in SARS-CoV-2 infection (COVID-19)? *Eur Respir J* 56:2001634.
38. Laubscher GJ, Lourens PJ, Venter C, Kell DB, Pretorius E (2021) TEG®, Microclot and Platelet Mapping for Guiding Early Management of Severe COVID-19 Coagulopathy. *J Clin Med* 10:5381.
39. Libby P, Lüscher T (2020) COVID-19 is, in the end, an endothelial disease. *Eur Heart J* 41:3038-3044.
40. Pretorius E, Venter C, Laubscher GJ, Lourens PJ, Steenkamp J, et al. (2020) Prevalence of readily detected amyloid blood clots in 'unclotted' Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and COVID-19 plasma: A preliminary report. *Cardiovasc Diabetol* 19:193.
41. Venter C, Bezuidenhout JA, Laubscher GJ (2020) Erythrocyte, Platelet, Serum Ferritin, and P-Selectin Pathophysiology Implicated in Severe Hypercoagulation and Vascular Complications in COVID-19. *Int J Mol Sci* 21:8234.
42. Zhang J, Tecson KM, McCullough PA (2020) Endothelial dysfunction contributes to COVID-19-associated vascular inflammation and coagulopathy. *Rev Cardiovasc Med* 21:315.
43. Wu X, Xiang M, Jing H, Wang C, Novakovic VA, et al. (2023) Damage to endothelial barriers and its contribution to long COVID. *Angiogenesis* 1-18.
44. Hoffmann M, Kleine-Weber H, Schroeder S (2020) SARS-CoV-2 Cell Entry Depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and Is Blocked by a Clinically Proven Protease Inhibitor. *Cell* 181:271-280.
45. Jackson CB, Farzan M, Chen B, Choe H (2022) Mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 entry into cells. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 23:3-20.
46. Menter T, Haslbauer JD, Nienhold R (2020) Ingestion and variegated findings in lungs and other organs suggesting vascular dysfunction. *Histopathol* 77: 198-209.
47. Stein SR, Ramelli SC, Grazioli A (2022) SARS-CoV-2 infection and persistence in the human body and brain at autopsy. *Nature* 612: 758-763.
48. Wenzel J, Lampe J, Müller-Fielitz H (2021) The SARS-CoV-2 main protease Mpro causes microvascular brain pathology by cleaving NEMO in brain endothelial cells. *Nat Neurosci* 24:1522-1533.
49. Roberts KA, Colley L, Agbaedeng TA, Ellison-Hughes GM, Ross MD (2020) Vascular Manifestations of COVID-19-Thromboembolism and Microvascular Dysfunction. *Front Cardiovasc Med* 7:598-400.
50. Verdecchia P, Cavallini C, Spanevello A, Angeli F (2020) The pivotal link between ACE2 deficiency and SARS-CoV-2 infection. *Eur J Intern Med* 76:14-20.
51. Xu S, Ilyas I, Weng J (2022) Endothelial dysfunction in COVID-19: An overview of evidence, biomarkers, mechanisms and potential therapies. *Acta Pharmacol Sin*.
52. Varga Z, Flammer AJ, Steiger P (2020) Endothelial cell infection and endotheliitis in COVID-19. *The Lancet* 395: 1417-1418.
53. Rong Z, Mai H, Kapoor S (2023) SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein Accumulation in the Skull-Meninges-Brain Axis: Potential Implications for Long-Term Neurological Complications in post-COVID-19.
54. Panigrahi S, Goswami T, Ferrari B (2021) SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein Destabilizes Microvascular Homeostasis. *Microbiol Spectr* 9:735.
55. Zheng Y, Zhao J, Li J (2021) SARS-CoV-2 spike protein causes blood coagulation and thrombosis by competitive binding to heparan sulfate. *Int J Biol Macromol* 193:1124-1129.
56. Perico L, Morigi M, Galbusera M (2022) SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein 1 Activates Microvascular Endothelial Cells and Complement System Leading to Platelet Aggregation. *Front Immunol* 13:827146.
57. Kuhn CC, Basnet N, Bodakuntla S (2023) Direct Cryo-ET observation of platelet deformation induced by SARS-CoV-2 spike protein. *Nat Commun* 14:620.
58. Zhang S, Liu Y, Wang X (2020) SARS-CoV-2 binds platelet ACE2 to enhance thrombosis in COVID-19. *J Hematol Oncol* 13:120.
59. Lei Y, Zhang J, Schiavon CR (2021) SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein Impairs Endothelial Function via Downregulation of ACE2. *Circ Res* 128:1323-1326.
60. Aschman T, Wyler E, Baum O (2023) Post-COVID syndrome is associated with capillary alterations, macrophage infiltration and distinct transcriptomic signatures in skeletal muscles.
61. Hejbøl EK, Harbo T, Agergaard J (2022) Myopathy as a cause of fatigue in long-term POST-COVID-19 symptoms: Evidence of skeletal muscle histopathology. *Eur J Neurol* 29:2832-2841.
62. Nirenberg MS, Requena L, Santonja C, Smith GT, McClain SA (2022) Histopathology of persistent long COVID toe: A case report. *J Cutan Pathol* 49:791-794.
63. Osiaevi I, Schulze A, Evers G (2022) Persistent capillary rarefaction in long COVID syndrome. *Angiogenesis*.
64. Schlick S, Lucio M, Wallukat G (2022) post-COVID-19 syndrome: retinal microcirculation as a potential marker for chronic fatigue. *Int J Mol Sci* 23:13683.
65. Szewczykowski C, Mardin C, Lucio M (2022) Long COVID: association of functional autoantibodies against g-protein-coupled receptors with an impaired retinal microcirculation. *Int J Mol Sci* 23:7209.

66. Iosef C, Knauer M, Nicholson M (2023) Plasma proteome of long-COVID patients indicates hypoxia-mediated vasculo-proliferative disease with impact on brain and heart function.
67. Patel MA, Knauer MJ, Nicholson M (2022) Elevated vascular transformation blood biomarkers in Long-COVID indicate angiogenesis as a key pathophysiological mechanism. *Mol Med* 28:122.
68. Shweiki D, Itin A, Soffer D, Keshet E (1992) Vascular endothelial growth factor induced by hypoxia may mediate hypoxia-initiated angiogenesis. *Nature* 359:843-845.
69. Ackermann M, Mentzer SJ, Kolb M, Jonigk D (2020) Inflammation and intussusceptive angiogenesis in COVID-19: everything in and out of flow. *Eur Respir J* 56:2003147.
70. Knight R, Walker V, Ip S (2020) Association of COVID-19 With Major Arterial and Venous Thrombotic Diseases: A Population-Wide Cohort Study of 48 Million Adults in England and Wales. *Circulation* 146: 892-906.
71. Ramadan MS, Bertolino L, Zampino R (2021) Cardiac sequelae after coronavirus disease 2019 recovery: a systematic review. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 27:1250-1261.
72. Xie Y, Xu E, Bowe B, Al-Aly Z (2022) Long-term cardiovascular outcomes of COVID-19. *Nat Med* 28: 583-590
73. Hulscher N (2023) Systematic review of auto psy fin dinas in de&this after COVID vaccination. ZENODO.
74. Constantinescu-Bercu A, Kessler A, de Groot R (2023) Analysis of thrombogenicity under flow reveals new insights into the prothrombotic state of patients with post-COVID syndrome. *J Thromb Haemost* 21: 94-100.
75. Fogarty H, Townsend L, Morrin H (2021) Persistent endotheliopathy in the pathogenesis of long COVID syndrome. *J Thromb Haemost* 19:2546-2553.
76. Partridge LJ, Urwin L, Nicklin MJH, James DC, Green LR (2021) ACE2-independent interaction of sars-cov-2 spike protein with human epithelial cells is inhibited by unfractionated heparin. *Cells* 10:1419.
77. Jevtic SD, Nazy I (2022) the COVID complex: a review of platelet activation and immune complexes in COVID-19. *Front Immunol* 13:807934.
78. Ackermann M, Verleden SE, Kuehnel M, Haverich A, Welte T, et al. (2020) pulmonary vascular endotheliitis, thrombosis, and angiogenesis in COVID-19. *N Engl J Med* 383:120-128.
79. Scherlinger M, Richez C, Tsokos GC, Boilard E, Blanco P (2023) The role of platelets in immune-mediated inflammatory diseases. *Nat Rev Immunol* 23:495-510.
80. Montazersaheb S, Hosseiniyan Khatibi SM, Hejazi MS, Tarhriz V, Farjami A, et al. (2022) COVID-19 infection: An overview on cytokine storm and related interventions. *Virology* 19:92.
81. Loo J, Spittle DA, Newnham M (2021) COVID-19, immunothrombosis and venous thromboembolism: biological mechanisms. *Thorax* 76:412-420.
82. De Michele M, d'Amati G, Leopizzi M, Iacobucci M, Berto I, et al. (2022) Evidence of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein on retrieved thrombi from COVID-19 patients. *J Hematol Oncol* 15:108.
83. Nyström S, Hammarström P (2022) Amyloidogenesis of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein. *J Am Chem Soc* 144:8945-8950.
84. Ryu JK, Sozmen EG, Dixit K, Montano M, Matsui Y, et al. (2021) SARS-CoV-2 spike protein induces abnormal inflammatory blood clots neutralized by fibrin immunotherapy. *Immunology*.
85. Moiseiwitsch N, Zwennes N, Szlam F, Sniecinski R, Brown A (2022) COVID-19 patient fibrinogen produces dense clots with altered polymerization kinetics, partially explained by increased sialic acid. *J Thromb Haemost* 20:2909-2920.
86. Whyte CS, Simpson M, Morrow GB, Wallace CA, Mentzer AJ, et al. (2022) The suboptimal fibrinolytic response in COVID-19 is dictated by high PAI-1. *J Thromb Haemost* 20:2394-2406.
87. Fujimura Y, Holland LZ (2022) COVID-19 microthrombosis: Unusually large VWF multimers are a platform for activation of the alternative complement pathway under cytokine storm. *Int J Hematol* 115: 457-469.
88. Gu SX, Tyagi T, Jain K, Gu VW, Lee SH, et al. (2021) Thrombocytopenia and endotheliopathy: Crucial contributors to COVID-19 thromboinflammation. *Nat Rev Cardiol* 18:194-209.
89. Hanley B, Naresh KN, Roufousse C, Nicholson AG, Weir J, et al. (2020) Histopathological findings and viral tropism in UK patients with severe fatal COVID-19: A post-mortem study. *Lancet Microbe* 1:245-253.
90. Marfella R, Paolisso P, Sardu C, Palomba L, D'Onofrio N, et al. (2021) SARS-COV-2 colonizes coronary thrombus and impairs heart microcirculation bed in asymptomatic SARS-CoV-2 positive subjects with acute myocardial infarction. *Crit* 25:217.
91. Pellegrini D, Kawakami R, Guagliumi G (2021) Microthrombi as a Major Cause of Cardiac Injury in COVID-19: A Pathologic Study. *Circulation* 143:1031-1042.
92. Dolby HW, Potey P, Wilder-Smith AB (2021) Histological Evidence of Pulmonary Microthrombosis and Vasculitis in Life-Threatening Respiratory Virus Diseases. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 8:640.
93. Logothetis CN, Weppelmann TA, Jordan A (2021) D-Dimer Testing for the Exclusion of Pulmonary Embolism Among Hospitalized Patients With COVID-19. *JAMA Netw Open* 4:2128802.
94. Hartmann J, Ergang A, Mason D, Dias JD (2021) The Role of TEG Analysis in Patients with COVID-19-Associated Coagulopathy: A Systematic Review. *Diagnostics* 11:172.
95. Davis HE, McCorkell L, Vogel JM, Topol EJ (2023) Long COVID: Major findings, mechanisms and recommendations. *Nat Rev Microbiol*.
96. Laubscher GJ, Khan MA, Venter C, Pretorius JH, Kell DB, et al. (2023) Treatment of Long COVID symptoms with triple anticoagulant therapy. *Res Sq*.
97. Pretorius E, Chantelle Venter, Gert Jacobus Laubscher (2021) Combined triple treatment of fibrin amyloid microclots and platelet pathology in individuals with Long COVID/Post-Acute Sequelae of COVID-19 (PASC) can resolve their persistent symptoms. *Res Sq*.
98. Pretorius E, Vlok M, Venter C (2021) Persistent clotting protein pathology in Long COVID/Post-Acute Sequelae of COVID-19 (PASC) is accompanied by increased levels of antiplasmin. *Cardiovasc Diabetol* 20: 172.
99. Kell DB, Pretorius E (2022) The potential role of ischaemia-reperfusion injury in chronic, relapsing diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis, Long COVID, and ME/CFS: Evidence, mechanisms, and therapeutic implications. *Biochem J* 479:1653-1708.
100. IOM. IOM 2015 Diagnostic Criteria/ Diagnosis/ Healthcare Providers/ Myalgic Encephalomyelitis/Chronic Fatigue Syndrome (ME/CFS). CDC. 2021.
101. Lim EJ, Kang EB, Jang ES, Son CG (2020) The Prospects of the Two-Day Cardiopulmonary Exercise Test (CPET) in ME/CFS Patients: A Meta-Analysis. *J Clin Med* 9:4040.
102. NICE. Myalgic encephalomyelitis (or encephalopathy)/chronic fatigue syndrome: Diagnosis and management. 2021.
103. Wright J, Astill S, Sivan M (2022) The Relationship between physical activity and Long COVID: A cross-sectional study. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 19:5093.
104. Moore GE, Keller BA, Stevens J (2023) Recovery from Exercise in Persons with Myalgic Encephalomyelitis/Chronic Fatigue Syndrome (ME/CFS). *Medicina* 59:571.
105. Vallejo Camazón N, Teis A, Martínez Membrive MJ, Llibre C, Bayés-Genís A (2022) Long COVID-19 and microvascular disease-related angina. *Rev Esp Cardiol Engl Ed* 75:444-446.
106. López Castro J (2020) Post-COVID-19 Syndrome (pc19s): Chronic reactive endotheliitis and disseminated vascular disease. *Acta Medica Port* 33: 859.
107. Prasannan N, Heightman M, Hillman T (2022) Impaired exercise capacity in post-COVID-19 syndrome: The role of VWF-ADAMTS13 axis. *Blood Adv* 6:4041-4048.
108. Pretorius E, Venter C, Laubscher GJ (2022) Prevalence of symptoms, comorbidities, fibrin amyloid microclots and platelet pathology in individuals with Long COVID/Post-Acute Sequelae of COVID-19 (PASC).
109. von Meijenfeldt FA, Havervall S, Adelmeijer J (2021) Sustained prothrombotic changes in COVID-19 patients 4 months after hospital discharge. *Blood Adv* 5:756-759.
110. Craddock V, Mahajan A, Krishnamachary B, Spikes L, Chalise P, Dhillon N (2022) Persistent Circulation of Soluble/EV-Linked Spike Protein and Viral RNA in Individuals with Post-Acute Sequelae of COVID-19. *SSRN Electron J*.

111. Klein J, Wood J, Jaycox J (2022) Distinguishing features of Long COVID identified through immune profiling. *Infect Dis (except HIV/AIDS)*.
112. Swank Z, Senussi Y, Manickas-Hill Z (2022) Persistent circulating Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) spike is associated with post-acute coronavirus disease 2019 sequelae. *Clin Infect Dis*.
113. Kruger A, Vlok M, Turner S (2022) Proteomics of fibrin amyloid microclots in long COVID/post-acute sequelae of COVID-19 (PASC) shows many entrapped pro-inflammatory molecules that may also contribute to a failed fibrinolytic system. *Cardiovasc Diabetol* 21:190.
114. Wang C, Yu C, Jing H (2022) Long COVID: The Nature of Thrombotic Sequelae Determines the Necessity of Early Anticoagulation. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol* 12:861703.
115. Ambrosino P, Calcaterra I, Molino A (2021) Persistent endothelial dysfunction in PostAcute COVID-19 Syndrome: A Case-Control Study. *Biomed* 9: 957.
116. Barrett TJ, Cornwell M, Myndzar K (2021) Platelets amplify endotheliopathy in COVID-19 *Sci Adv* 7: 2434.
117. Charfeddine S, Ibn Hadj Amor H, Jdidi J (2021) Long COVID 19 Syndrome: is it related to microcirculation and endothelial dysfunction? insights from tun-endcov study. *Front Cardiovasc Med* 8: 745-758.
118. Chioh FW, Fong S-W, Young BE (2021) Convalescent COVID-19 patients are susceptible to endothelial dysfunction due to persistent immune activation. *eLife* 10:64909.
119. Haffke M, Freitag H, Rudolf G (2022) Endothelial dysfunction and altered endothelial biomarkers in patients with post-COVID-19 syndrome and chronic fatigue syndrome (ME/CFS). *J Transl Med* 20:138.
120. Sollini M, Ciccarelli M, Cecconi M (2021) Vasculitis changes in COVID-19 survivors with persistent symptoms: An [18F]FDG-PET/CT study. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 48:1460-1466.
121. Turner S, Naidoo CA, Usher TJ (2022) Increased levels of inflammatory molecules in blood of Long COVID patients point to thrombotic endotheliitis. *bioRxiv*.
122. Kell DB, Laubscher GJ, Pretorius E (2022) A central role for amyloid fibrin microclots in long COVID/PASC: origins and therapeutic implications. *Biochem J* 479:537-559.
123. Tarasev M, Mota S, Gao X (2022) Possible role of p-selectin adhesion in long-COVID: a comparative analysis of a long-COVID case vs an asymptomatic post-COVID case. *bioRxiv*.
124. Ajčević M, Iskra K, Furlanis G (2023) Cerebral hypoperfusion in post-COVID-19 cognitively impaired subjects revealed by arterial spin labeling MRI. *Sci Rep* 13: 5808.
125. de Paula JJ, Paiva RERP, Souza-Silva NG (2023) Selective visuocognitive impairment following mild COVID-19 with inflammatory and neuroimaging correlation findings. *Mol Psychiatry* 28: 553-563.
126. Fei L, Santarelli G, D'Anna G (2021) Can SSRI/SNRI antidepressants decrease the "cytokine storm" in the course of COVID-19 pneumonia? *Panminerva Med*.
127. Mazza MG, Palladini M, De Lorenzo R (2021) Persistent psychopathology and neurocognitive impairment in COVID-19 survivors: Effect of inflammatory biomarkers at three-month follow-up. *Brain Behav Immun* 94:138-147.
128. Sitia S, Tomasoni L, Atzeni F (2010) From endothelial dysfunction to atherosclerosis. *Autoimmun Rev* 9: 830-834.
129. Baratto C, Caravita S, Faini A (2021) Impact of COVID-19 on exercise pathophysiology: A combined cardiopulmonary and echocardiographic exercise study. *J Appl Physiol* 130:1470-1478.
130. de Boer E, Petrache I, Goldstein NM (2022) Decreased fatty acid oxidation and altered lactate production during exercise in patients with post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 205:126-129.
131. Heerdt PM, Shelley B, Singh I (2022) Impaired systemic oxygen extraction long after mild COVID-19: potential perioperative implications. *Br J Anaesth* 128:246-249.
132. Singh I, Joseph P, Heerdt PM (2022) Persistent exertional intolerance After COVID-19. *Chest* 161:54-63.
133. Singh I, Leitner BP, Wang Y (2023) Proteomic profiling demonstrates inflammatory and endotheliopathy signatures associated with impaired cardiopulmonary exercise hemodynamic profile in Post-Acute Sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection (PASC) syndrome. *Pulm Circ* 13:12220.
134. Schwendinger F, Knaier R, Radtke T, Schmidt-Trucksäss A (2023) Low cardiorespiratory fitness post-COVID-19: A narrative review. *Sports Med* 53:51-74.
135. Norweg A, Yao L, Barbuto S (2023) Exercise intolerance associated with impaired oxygen extraction in patients with long COVID. *Respir Physiol Neurobiol* 313:104062.
136. Grist JT, Collier GJ, Walters H (2022) lung abnormalities detected with hyperpolarized 129 xe mri in patients with long COVID. *Radiology* 305:709-717.
137. Kooner HK, McIntosh MJ, Matheson AM (2022) 129 Xe MRI ventilation defects in ever-hospitalised and never-hospitalised people with post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. *BMJ Open Respir Res* 9:001235.
138. Dhawan RT, Gopalan D, Howard L (2021) Beyond the clot: perfusion imaging of the pulmonary vasculature after COVID-19. *Lancet Respir Med* 9:107-116.
139. Buonsenso D, Di Giuda D, Sigfrid L (2021) Evidence of lung perfusion defects and ongoing inflammation in an adolescent with post-acute sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection. *Lancet Child Adolesc Health* 5:677-680.
140. Heiss R, Tan L, Schmidt S (2022) Pulmonary Dysfunction after Pediatric COVID-19. *Radiology* 221250.
141. Larsen NW, Stiles LE, Shaik R (2022) Characterization of autonomic symptom burden in long COVID: A global survey of 2,314 adults. *Front Neurol* 13.
142. Ladlow P, O'Sullivan O, Houston A (2022) Dysautonomia following COVID-19 is not associated with subjective limitations or symptoms but is associated with objective functional limitations. *Heart Rhythm* 19:613-620.
143. Kwan AC, Ebinger JE, Wei J (2022) Apparent risks of postural orthostatic tachycardia syndrome diagnoses after COVID-19 vaccination and SARS-Cov-2 Infection. *Nat Cardiovasc Res* 1:1187-1194.
144. Chopoorian AH, Wahba A, Celedonio J (2021) Impaired endothelial function in patients with postural tachycardia syndrome. *Hypertension* 77:1001-1009.
145. Gunning WT, Kramer PM, Cichocki JA, Karabin BL, Khuder SA (2022) Platelet storage pool deficiency and elevated inflammatory biomarkers are prevalent in postural orthostatic tachycardia syndrome. *Cells* 11: 774.
146. Johansson M, Yan H, Welinder C (2022) Plasma proteomic profiling in postural orthostatic tachycardia syndrome (POTS) reveals new disease pathways. *Sci Rep* 12:20051.
147. Jammoul M, Naddour J, Madi A (2023) Investigating the possible mechanisms of autonomic dysfunction post-COVID-19. *Auton Neurosci* 245:103071.
148. Benarroch EE (2012) Postural Tachycardia Syndrome: A Heterogeneous and Multifactorial Disorder. *Mayo Clin Proc* 87:1214-1225.
149. Lambert E, Eikelis N, Esler M (2008) Altered sympathetic nervous reactivity and norepinephrine transporter expression in patients with postural tachycardia syndrome. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol* 1:103-109.
150. van Campen C (Linda) MC, Visser FC (2022) Long-Haul COVID patients: Prevalence of pots are reduced but cerebral blood flow abnormalities remain abnormal with longer disease duration. *Healthcare* 10: 2105.
151. Kharraziha I, Holm H, Bachus E (2019) cerebral oximetry in syncope and syndromes of orthostatic intolerance. *Front Cardiovasc Med* 6:171.
152. Kavi L (2022) Postural tachycardia syndrome and long COVID: An update. *Br J Gen Pract* 72:8-9.
153. Arnold AC, Ng J, Raj SR (2018) Postural tachycardia syndrome-Diagnosis, physiology, and prognosis. *Auton Neurosci* 215:3-11.
154. Fedorowski A (2019) Postural orthostatic tachycardia syndrome: Clinical presentation, aetiology and management. *J Intern Med* 285: 352-366.
155. Kesserwani H (2020) Postural Orthostatic Tachycardia Syndrome misdiagnosed as anxiety: A case report with a review of therapy and pathophysiology. *Cureus*.
156. Østergaard L (2021) SARS-CoV-2 related microvascular damage and symptoms during and after COVID-19: Consequences of capillary transit-time changes, tissue hypoxia and inflammation. *Physiol Rep* 9.
157. Sen A (2021) Does serotonin deficiency lead to anosmia, ageusia, dysfunctional chemesthesis and increased severity of illness in COVID-19? *Med Hypotheses* 153:110627.
158. Hsueh B, Chen R, Jo Y (2023) Cardiogenic control of affective behavioural state. *Nature* 615:292-299.

159. Safavi F, Gustafson L, Walitt B (2022) Neuropathic symptoms with SARS-CoV-2 vaccination. *Neurology*.
160. Finsterer J (2022) Retinal artery/vein occlusion complicating SARS-CoV-2 vaccinations. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis* 31:106617.
161. Arun S, Storan A, Myers B (2022) Mast cell activation syndrome and the link with long COVID. *Br J Hosp Med* 83:1-10.
162. Kunder CA, St John AL, Abraham SN (2011) Mast cell modulation of the vascular and lymphatic endothelium. *Blood* 118:5383-5393.
163. Huang AL, Bosco JJ, Peter K (2017) Mast Cell. *Circ Res* 121:899-901.
164. Motta Junior J da S, Miggiolaro AFR dos S, Nagashima S (2020) Mast cells in alveolar septa of COVID-19 patients: A pathogenic pathway that may link interstitial edema to immunothrombosis. *Front Immunol* 11.
165. Karhausen J, Choi HW, Maddipati KR (2020) Platelets trigger perivascular mast cell degranulation to cause inflammatory responses and tissue injury. *Sci Adv* 6:6314.
166. Guilarte M, Sala-Cunill A, Luengo O, Labrador-Horrillo M, Cardona V (2017) The mast cell, contact, and coagulation system connection in anaphylaxis. *Front Immunol* 8:846.
167. Shaik-Dasthagirisahab YB, Varvara G, Murmura G (2013) Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF), mast cells and inflammation. *Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol* 26:327-335.
168. Liu S, Suzuki Y, Takemasa E, Watanabe R, Mogi M (2022) Mast cells promote viral entry of SARS-CoV-2 via formation of chymase/spike protein complex. *Eur J Pharmacol* 930:175169.
169. Van Wambeke E, Bezler C, Kasproicz AM, Charles AL, Andres E, Geny B (2023) two-years follow-up of symptoms and return to work in complex post-COVID-19 patients. *J Clin Med* 12:741.
170. Society of Occupational Medicine. Long COVID and return to work-what works? 2022.
171. Hranjec T, Estreicher M, Rogers Bradley (2020) integral use of thromboelastography with platelet mapping to guide appropriate treatment, avoid complications, and improve survival of patients with Coronavirus disease 2019-related coagulopathy. *Crit Care Explor* 2:287.
172. Matli K, Farah R, Maalouf M, Chamoun N, Costanian C, Ghanem G (2021) Role of combining anticoagulant and antiplatelet agents in COVID-19 treatment: A rapid review. *Open Heart* 8:001628.
173. NICE (National Institute of Health and Care Excellence). COVID-19 rapid guideline:Managing COVID-19. 2023.
174. Ammollo CT, Semeraro F, Incampo F, Semeraro N, Colucci M (2010) Dabigatran enhances clot susceptibility to fibrinolysis by mechanisms dependent on and independent of thrombin-activatable fibrinolysis inhibitor. *J Thromb Haemost* 8:790-798.
175. Semeraro F, Incampo F, Ammollo CT (2016) Dabigatran but not rivaroxaban or apixaban treatment decreases fibrinolytic resistance in patients with atrial fibrillation. *Thromb Res* 138:22-29.
176. Gupta Y, Maciorowski D, Zak SE (2021) Heparin: A simplistic repurposing to prevent SARS-CoV-2 transmission in light of its *in-vitro* nanomolar efficacy. *Int J Biol Macromol* 183:203-212.
177. Mycroft-West CJ, Su D, Pagani I (2020) Heparin inhibits cellular invasion by SARS-CoV-2: Structural dependence of the interaction of the spike s1 receptor-binding domain with heparin. *Thromb Haemost* 120:1700-1715.
178. Tandon R, Sharp JS, Zhang F (2021) Effective inhibition of SARS-CoV-2 entry by heparin and enoxaparin derivatives. *J Virol* 95:1987.
179. Baker SR, Halliday G, Ząbczyk M (2023) Plasma from patients with pulmonary embolism show aggregates that reduce after anticoagulation. *Commun Med* 3:1-5.
180. Martingano D, Santana E, Mehta P (2023) effect of respiratory and anticoagulation medications on long COVID in the postpartum period. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 228:125-126.
181. Chow JH, Rahnavard A, Gomberg-Maitland M (2022) Association of early aspirin use with in-hospital mortality in patients with moderate COVID-19. *JAMA Netw Open* 5:223890.
182. Santoro F, Nuñez-Gil IJ, Vitale E (2022) Antiplatelet therapy and outcome in COVID-19: the Health Outcome Predictive Evaluation Registry. *Heart* 108:130-136.
183. Viecca M, Radovanovic D, Forleo GB, Santus P (2020) Enhanced platelet inhibition treatment improves hypoxemia in patients with severe COVID-19 and hypercoagulability. A case control, proof of concept study. *Pharmacol Res* 158:10495.
184. RECOVERY Collaborative Group (2022) Aspirin in patients admitted to hospital with COVID-19 (RECOVERY): A randomised, controlled, open-label, platform trial. *The Lancet* 143-151.
185. Kharbanda RK, Walton B, Allen M (20022) Prevention of inflammation-induced endothelial dysfunction. *Circulation* 105:2600-2604.
186. Köhler CA, Freitas TH, Stubbs B, Maes M, Solmi M, et al. (2018) Peripheral alterations in cytokine and chemokine levels after antidepressant drug treatment for major depressive disorder: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Mol Neurobiol* 55:4195-4206.
187. Chen Y, Wu Y, Chen S, Zhan Q, Wu D, et al. (2022) Sertraline is an effective SARS-CoV-2 entry inhibitor targeting the spike protein. *J Virol* 96:124522.
188. Schlienger RG, Meier CR (2003) Effect of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors on platelet activation. *Am J Cardiovasc Drugs* 3:149-186.
189. Serebruany VL, Glassman AH, Malinin AI (2023) Platelet/Endothelial biomarkers in depressed patients treated with the selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor sertraline after acute coronary events. *Circulation* 108:939-944.
190. Arishi NA, Althomali NM (2023) An Overview of Fluvoxamine and its Use in SARS-CoV-2 Treatment. *Cureus* 15:3415.
191. Sukhatme VP, Reiersen AM, Vayttaden SJ, Sukhatme VV (2021) Fluvoxamine: A review of its mechanism of action and its role in COVID-19. *Front Pharmacol* 12.
192. Fenton C, Lee A (2023) Antidepressants with anti-inflammatory properties may be useful in long COVID depression. *Drugs Ther Perspect* 39:65-67.
193. Mazza MG, Zanardi R, Palladini M, Rovere-Querini P, Benedetti F (2022) Rapid response to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors in post-COVID depression. *J Eur Coll Neuropsychopharmacol* 54:1-6.
194. Calusic M, Marcec R, Luksa L (2022) Safety and efficacy of fluvoxamine in COVID-19 ICU patients: An open label, prospective cohort trial with matched controls. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 88: 2065-2073.
195. Oskotsky T, Maric I, Tang A (2021) Mortality risk among patients with COVID-19 prescribed selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor antidepressants. *JAMA Netw Open* 4:2133090.
196. Utrero-Rico A, Ruiz-Ruigómez M, Laguna-Goya R (2021) A Short Corticosteroid Course Reduces Symptoms and Immunological Alterations Underlying Long-COVID. *Biomedicines* 9:1540.
197. Kooner HK, McIntosh MJ, Matheson AM, Venegas C, Radadia N, et al. (2022) 129Xe MRI ventilation defects in ever-hospitalised and never-hospitalised people with post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. *BMJ Open Respir Res* 9:1235.
198. Turner S, Laubscher GJ, Khan MA, Kell DB, Pretorius E (2023) Rapid flow cytometric analysis of fibrin amyloid microclots in Long COVID. SSRN.
199. General Medical Council. Prescribing unlicensed medicines. 2021.
200. Scalco AZ, Rondon MU, Trombetta IC (2009) Muscle sympathetic nervous activity in depressed patients before and after treatment with sertraline. *J Hypertens* 27:2429.
201. Sidhu B, Obiechina N, Rattu N, Mitra S (2013) Postural Orthostatic Tachycardia Syndrome (POTS). *Case Rep* 2013201244.
202. Grobbelaar LM, Kruger A, Venter C, Burger EM, Laubscher GJ, et al. (2022) Relative hypercoagulopathy of the SARS-CoV-2 beta and delta variants when compared to the less severe omicron variants is related to TEG parameters, the extent of fibrin amyloid microclots, and the severity of clinical illness. *In Seminars in thrombosis and hemostasis*.