

# Journal Pre-proof



Acute muscle mass loss predicts long-term fatigue, myalgia, and health care costs in covid-19 survivors

Saulo Gil, PhD, Gersiel Nascimento de Oliveira Júnior, MSc, Flavia Mori Sarti, PhD, Wilson Jacob Filho, MD; PhD, Igor Longobardi, MSc, José Antonio Orellana Turri, PhD, Samuel Katsuyuki Shinjo, MD; PhD, Eduardo Ferriolli, MD; PhD, Thiago Junqueira Avelino-Silva, MD; PhD, Alexandre Leopold Busse, MD; PhD, Bruno Gualano, PhD, Hamilton Roschel, PhD

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1 **Acute muscle mass loss predicts long-term fatigue, myalgia, and health care costs**  
2 **in covid-19 survivors**

3

4 **Running title:** Muscle atrophy impacts post-discharge outcomes.

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6 Saulo Gil, PhD<sup>1,2</sup>, Gersiel Nascimento de Oliveira Júnior MSc<sup>1</sup>, Flavia Mori Sarti, PhD<sup>5</sup>,  
7 Wilson Jacob Filho, MD; PhD<sup>3</sup>, Igor Longobardi, MSc<sup>1</sup>, José Antonio Orellana Turri,  
8 PhD<sup>5</sup>, Samuel Katsuyuki Shinjo, MD; PhD<sup>2</sup>, Eduardo Ferriolli, MD; PhD<sup>4</sup>, Thiago  
9 Junqueira Avelino-Silva, MD; PhD<sup>3</sup>, Alexandre Leopold Busse, MD; PhD<sup>3</sup>, Bruno  
10 Gualano, PhD<sup>1,2</sup>, Hamilton Roschel, PhD<sup>1,2</sup>

11

12 <sup>1</sup> Applied Physiology & Nutrition Research Group, School of Physical Education and  
13 Sport, Rheumatology Division, Faculdade de Medicina FMUSP, Universidade de Sao  
14 Paulo, Av. Prof. Mello Moraes, 65 - São Paulo, SP, Brazil.

15 <sup>2</sup> Rheumatology Division, Hospital das Clinicas HCFMUSP, Faculdade de Medicina  
16 FMUSP, Universidade de Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo, SP, BR.

17 <sup>3</sup> Laboratorio de Investigacao Medica em Envelhecimento (LIM-66), Servico de  
18 Geriatria, Hospital das Clinicas HCFMUSP, Faculdade de Medicina, Universidade de  
19 Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo, SP, BR.

20 <sup>4</sup> Division of Internal and Geriatric Medicine, Department of Internal Medicine - Ribeirão  
21 Preto Medical School, Universidade de Sao Paulo, Ribeirao Preto, SP, BR.

22 <sup>5</sup> School of Arts, Sciences and Humanities, University of São Paulo (USP), São Paulo,  
23 Brazil, SP, BR.

24

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31 **Brief summary:** COVID-19-related drastic muscle loss is not restored 6 months after  
32 hospital discharge, and this related higher frequency of persistent symptoms and greater  
33 total COVID-19-related health care costs 2 and 6 months after discharge.

34

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46

47 *Corresponding author (to whom reprint requests should be addressed):*

48 Hamilton Roschel, PhD

49 Applied Physiology & Nutrition Research Group; School of Physical Education and  
50 Sport; Laboratory of Assessment and Conditioning in Rheumatology; Faculdade de  
51 Medicina FMUSP, Universidade de Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo, SP, BR.  
52 Av. Dr. Arnaldo, 455 - Cerqueira Cesar - São Paulo, SP - Brasil  
53 Postal code: 01246-903  
54 Phone: + 55 11 3061.8789  
55 e-mail: [hars@usp.br](mailto:hars@usp.br)

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#### 4 **Abstract**

5 **Objective:** We examined the impact of loss of skeletal muscle mass in post-acute  
6 sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 (PASC) infection, hospital readmission rate, self-perception of  
7 health, and health care costs in a cohort of COVID-19 survivors.

8 **Design:** Prospective observational study.

9 **Setting and Participants:** Tertiary Clinical Hospital. Eighty COVID-19 survivors aged  
10  $59\pm 14$  years were prospectively assessed.

11 **Methods:** Handgrip strength and vastus lateralis muscle cross-sectional area ( $CSA_{VL}$ )  
12 were evaluated at hospital admission, discharge, and 6 months after discharge. PASC  
13 were evaluated 6 months after discharge (main outcome). Also, health care costs, hospital  
14 readmission rate, and self-perception of health were evaluated 2 and 6 months after  
15 hospital discharge. To examine whether the magnitude of muscle mass loss impacts the  
16 outcomes, we ranked patients according to relative  $CSA_{VL}$  reduction during hospital stay  
17 into either “high muscle loss” ( $-18\pm 11\%$ ) or “low muscle loss” ( $-4\pm 2\%$ ) group, based on  
18 median values.

19 **Results:** High muscle loss group showed greater prevalence of fatigue (76% vs. 46%,  
20  $P=0.0337$ ) and myalgia (66% vs. 36%,  $P=0.0388$ ), and lower muscle mass ( $-8\%$  vs. 3%,  
21  $P < 0.0001$ ) than low muscle loss group 6 months after discharge. No between-group  
22 difference was observed for hospital readmission and self-perceived health ( $P>0.05$ ).  
23 High muscle loss group demonstrated greater total COVID-19-related health care costs 2  
24 ( $\$77283.87$  vs.  $\$3057.14$ ,  $P=0.0223$ , respectively) and 6 months ( $\$90001.35$  vs.  
25  $\$12913.27$ ,  $P=0.0210$ , respectively) after discharge vs. low muscle loss group. Muscle  
26 mass loss was shown to be a predictor of total COVID-19-related health care costs at 2

27 (adjusted  $\beta$ =\$10070.81,  $P<0.0001$ ) and 6 months after discharge (adjusted  $\beta$ =\$9885.63,  
28  $P<0.0001$ ).

29 **Conclusions and Implications:** COVID-19 survivors experiencing high muscle mass  
30 loss during hospital stay fail to fully recover muscle health. In addition, greater muscle  
31 loss was associated with a higher frequency of post-acute sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 and  
32 greater total COVID-19-related health care costs 2 and 6 months after discharge.  
33 Altogether, these data suggest that the loss of muscle mass resulting from COVID-19  
34 hospitalization may incur in an economical burden to health care systems.

35

36

## 37 **Introduction**

38           The pandemic of the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) has caused morbidity  
39 and mortality at an unprecedented global scale with millions of confirmed cases,  
40 hospitalizations, and deaths<sup>1</sup>. The understanding of the acute symptoms and  
41 complications related to COVID-19 has been at the center of attention amongst the  
42 scientific community; however, emergent evidence has also shown an elevated  
43 prevalence of persistent symptoms in survivors of COVID-19 months after the resolution  
44 of acute symptoms, such as fatigue, weakness, dyspnea, decline in quality of life among  
45 others<sup>2-4</sup>, thus requiring further post-hospitalization care, which is severely impacting  
46 healthcare systems around the world.

47           Long-term bed rest due to prolonged hospital length of stay<sup>5,6</sup>, associated with a  
48 drastic increase in systemic inflammation (i.e., “cytokine storm”) typical of the COVID-  
49 19<sup>7,8</sup>, are potent catabolic stimuli that may exacerbate the loss of muscle mass commonly  
50 observed in hospitalized patients<sup>9</sup>. In fact, previous data show that in critical patients,  
51 hospital stay is thought to increase muscle wasting due to considerable exacerbated  
52 inflammation, pre-existing comorbidities, multi-organ dysfunction, and prolonged bed  
53 rest<sup>9-12</sup>. Accordingly, among different clinical conditions, lower muscle mass is  
54 considered an important predictor of poor outcomes, such as mortality, more days on  
55 intensive care unit (ICU), general morbidity, impaired physical function, lower quality of  
56 life, surgical complications, less odds of discharge destination to rehabilitation facilities  
57 and, higher hospitalization costs<sup>13-24</sup>.

58           Recently, we demonstrated that both muscle strength and mass assessed upon  
59 hospital admission are predictors of length of stay in patients with COVID-19<sup>25</sup>,  
60 indicating the prognostic value of muscle health in this disease. However, whether the  
61 magnitude of muscle waste due to hospitalization affects post-discharge prognosis in



62 COVID-19 patients is still to be elucidated. Therefore, we prospectively investigated the  
63 influence of muscle mass loss during hospitalization on post-acute sequelae of SARS-  
64 CoV-2 (PASC) infection, hospital readmission rate, self-perception of health and health  
65 care costs following hospital discharge in a cohort of COVID-19 survivors.

## 66 **Methods**

### 67 *Study design and participants*

68 This is a prospective observational study conducted between March 2020 and  
69 August 2021 in the Clinical Hospital of the School of Medicine of the University of Sao  
70 Paulo in Brazil (HCFMUSP) the largest tertiary referral teaching hospital in Latin  
71 America. This study was approved by the local Ethics Committee (Ethics Committee  
72 Approval Number 31303720.7.0000.0068). All patients provided written informed  
73 consent before entering the study. This manuscript was reported according to the  
74 Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE)  
75 Statement.

76 The inclusion criteria were: 1) age  $\geq 18$  years; 2) diagnosis of COVID-19 by PCR  
77 for SARS-CoV-2 from nasopharyngeal swabs or computed tomography scan findings  
78 (bilateral multifocal ground-glass opacities  $\geq 50\%$ ) compatible with the disease; 3)  
79 diagnosis of flu syndrome with hospitalization criteria on hospital admission, presenting  
80 respiratory rate  $\geq 24$  breaths per minute, saturation  $< 93\%$  on room air or risk factors for  
81 complications, such as heart disease, diabetes mellitus, systemic arterial hypertension,  
82 neoplasms, immunosuppression, pulmonary tuberculosis, and obesity, followed by  
83 COVID-19 confirmation. Exclusion criteria were: 1) cancer in the past 5 years; 2)  
84 delirium; 3) cognitive deficit that precluded the patient from reading and signing the  
85 informed consent form; 4) prior diagnosis of muscle degenerative disease (e.g.,

86 myopathies, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, stroke); 5) patients already admitted under  
87 invasive mechanical ventilation; 6) length of stay less than 5 days. Patients who met the  
88 inclusion criteria were considered to have moderate to severe COVID-19.

89 Handgrip strength and vastus lateralis muscle cross-sectional area was evaluated  
90 at the point-of-care within less than 48 hours upon hospital admission, at hospital  
91 discharge, and 6 months after discharge. Frequency of persistent symptoms (i.e., fatigue,  
92 myalgia, dyspnea, headache, chest pain, dizziness, nausea, anosmia, abdominal pain,  
93 vomiting, cough, diarrhea, runny nose, dysgeusia, earache, and fever) were evaluated 6  
94 months after discharge. Health costs, hospital readmission rate and self-perception of  
95 health (i.e., very poor, poor, regular, good, and very good) were evaluated 2- and 6-  
96 months following hospital discharge. Demographic, clinical, and biochemical data from  
97 the patients at admission were obtained through medical records.

#### 98 *Handgrip strength and vastus lateralis muscle cross-sectional area assessment*

99 Handgrip strength assessments were performed with the patient seated holding the  
100 dynamometer (TKK 5101; Takei, Tokyo, Japan) with the dominant hand and elbow  
101 positioned at a 90° angle. Three maximum attempts of 5 seconds with 1 minute interval  
102 between attempts were performed and the best result was used for analysis.

103 Vastus lateralis muscle cross-sectional area (CSA<sub>VL</sub>) was assessed by a B-mode  
104 ultrasound with a 7.5-MHz linear-array probe (SonoAce R3, Samsung-Medison,  
105 Gangwon-do, South Korea) as previously described<sup>26</sup>. Cross-sectional area analyses were  
106 performed in a blinded fashion by a single investigator using ImageJ (NIH, USA). Test-  
107 retest coefficient of variation for vastus lateralis CSA<sub>VL</sub> was 2.1%.

#### 108 *PASC and self-perception of health*

109           The prevalence of PASC was assessed 6-months following hospital discharge and  
110 the self-perception of health was assessed at 2- and 6-months following discharge. Both  
111 were assessed by means of the application of a structured questionnaire applied via a  
112 phone call.

113           To assess the presence of fatigue, myalgia, dyspnea, headache, chest pain,  
114 dizziness, nausea, anosmia, abdominal pain, vomiting, cough, diarrhea, runny nose,  
115 dysgeusia, earache, patients were asked whether they had experienced any of these  
116 symptoms after COVID-19 infection.

117           Self-perception of health was assessed using a Likert scale including the following  
118 items: very poor, poor, regular, good, and very good. The patients answered the following  
119 question: “In general, how do you consider your current health status?”.

#### 120           *Health care costs estimates*

121           Information on health services and products required within the last 2- and 6-  
122 months after discharge were obtained using a structured questionnaire including the  
123 following items: age, sex, ethnicity, educational attainment, household income,  
124 household residents, self-assessment of health status, physician consultations,  
125 consultations with other health professionals (physiotherapist, speech therapist, nurse,  
126 physical trainer, dietitian, among others), use of health services, hospitalizations, type of  
127 treatment (clinical, surgical, psychiatric, diagnostic exams, others), type of health care  
128 facility (public or private sector), form of payment for health services (out-of-pocket,  
129 health insurance, public funding), continuous use and other medications purchased or  
130 obtained within the Brazilian Unified Health System, and monetary values paid for health  
131 services and products (consultations, hospitalizations, diagnostic exams, medications,  
132 and other health care materials). The estimation of direct health care costs of patients was  
133 based on payers’ perspective.

134 Data referring to the number and type of health services used (physician  
135 consultations, consultations with other health professionals, and hospitalizations) were  
136 converted into costs by multiplying number of consultations or inpatient days by its  
137 monetary value, according to health specialty and type of health care facility (i.e., market  
138 prices for consultations and hospitalizations in the private sector, or public sector costs  
139 with human resources and other inputs for consultations and hospitalizations in the public  
140 sector).

141 Regarding medication, costs were estimated using self-declared out-of-pocket  
142 expenditures for patients who declared purchasing medication in the private sector,  
143 whereas costs with medication among patients who declared obtaining medication from  
144 the public sector were estimated using mean medication expenditures in public sector.  
145 Patients were also asked about additional out-of-pocket health expenditures necessary for  
146 diagnosis and treatment of skeletal muscle loss (exams, medical supplies, home care,  
147 among others), including type of product or service and their respective monetary value.

148 Monetary values of direct costs within 2- and 6- months after discharge were  
149 updated to the reference date of July 2021, to ensure comparability of data throughout  
150 time. Finally, the direct costs per patient were converted into US dollars, using the official  
151 exchange rate of the Brazilian Central Bank in the reference period.

#### 152 *Outcomes and stratification of patients*

153 Our primary outcome was prevalence of PASC. Patients were ranked according  
154 to the magnitude of the relative CSA<sub>VL</sub> loss following the hospitalization period, and then  
155 clustered into 50<sup>th</sup> percentiles, forming two groups: “high muscle loss” =  $-18 \pm 11\%$ ; and  
156 “low muscle loss” =  $-4 \pm 2\%$ .

#### 157 *Statistical analyses*

158 Data are presented as mean/median, standard deviation (SD), between-group  
159 difference and 95% confidence interval (CI), unless otherwise indicated. Normality data  
160 was assessed by Shapiro-Wilk test. Independent *t*-tests were performed to test possible  
161 between-group differences (i.e., high muscle loss vs. low muscle loss) for relative changes  
162 in handgrip strength and CSA<sub>VL</sub> loss at discharge (i.e., [discharge-  
163 admission]/admission\*100) and 6 months after discharge (i.e., [6-months post-discharge-  
164 admission]/admission\*100). Potential between-group differences in PASC, hospital  
165 readmission rate, and self-perception of health were tested by  $\chi^2$  test.

166 Possible between-group differences for health care costs at 2 and 6 months after  
167 discharge were tested by independent *t*-tests. The association of relative CSA<sub>VL</sub> loss with  
168 total COVID-19- related health costs was conducted using multivariable, linear  
169 regression models adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity (white, black, and yellow), body mass  
170 index (as a continuous variable), presence of type 2 diabetes mellitus and hypertension,  
171 and length of stay, or unadjusted models. Significance level was set at  $P \leq 0.05$ .

## 172 **Results**

### 173 *Patients*

174 Eighty patients who tested positive for SARS-CoV-2 during the hospitalization  
175 period were evaluated. Table 1 shows the demographic, biochemical, and clinical  
176 characteristics of the patients at hospital admission. Overall, 91.2% (73 out of 80) had a  
177 positive PCR test for SARS-CoV-2 at enrollment. The remaining patients (7 out of 80)  
178 had the diagnosis confirmed by serology assay to detect IgG against SARS-CoV-2 during  
179 hospital stay. The sample comprised patients of both sexes (51.2% male) with a mean  
180 (SD) age of 59 ( $\pm 14$ ) years, body mass index of 29.9 ( $\pm 5.1$ ) kg/m<sup>2</sup>. The proportion of

181 current smokers was 30.0%, and the most prevalent coexisting conditions were obesity  
182 (41.2%), hypertension (32.5%), and type 2 diabetes mellitus (31.2%).

183 The most commonly observed signs and symptoms at admission were dyspnea  
184 (82.0%), cough (67.5%), fever (58.8%), myalgia (28.7%), fatigue (27.5%), headache  
185 (21.2%), anosmia (20.0%), dysgeusia (18.8%), diarrhea (16.2%), chest pain (16.2%),  
186 nausea (10.0%), runny nose (10.0%), vomiting (8.8%), abdominal pain (7.5%), earache  
187 (4.3%), and dizziness (2.5%). Mean length of stay was 8 days (IQR: 5 - 12); 12.5% of the  
188 patients required intensive care; 1.2% used invasive mechanical ventilation.

### 189 *Vastus lateralis muscle cross-sectional area and handgrip strength*

190 As per design, muscle loss during hospitalization was significantly different  
191 between high and low muscle loss groups (-18% vs. -4%,  $P < 0.0001$ ). Importantly, this  
192 difference was sustained during follow up (-8% vs. 3%,  $P < 0.0001$ ), indicating that the  
193 high muscle loss group did not fully recover muscle mass lost during hospital stay 6  
194 months post-discharge, whereas the low muscle loss group did (Figure 1, panel A).

195 Handgrip strength data followed a similar pattern, with a higher decrease in  
196 strength being observed in the high muscle loss group (-18% vs. -8%,  $P = 0.0195$ ). Whilst  
197 the low muscle loss group fully recovered handgrip strength at the 6-month post-  
198 discharge assessment (9% vs. admission), the high muscle loss group still exhibited lower  
199 handgrip strength values (-7% vs. admission). However, no between-group difference  
200 was observed for this variable after 6 months of hospital discharge ( $P = 0.1714$ ) (Figure  
201 1, panel B).

### 202 *PASC, hospital readmission and self-perception of health*

203 High muscle loss group showed greater prevalence of fatigue (76% vs. 46%,  $P =$   
204 0.0337) and myalgia (66% vs. 36%,  $P = 0.0388$ ) than low muscle loss group 6-months  
205 post-hospital discharge, with chest pain showing borderline values to statistical

206 significance (23% vs. 3%,  $P = 0.0576$ ). No between-group differences were observed for  
207 the remaining symptoms (all  $P > 0.05$ ) (Figure 2, Panel A and B).

208 Fifteen percent of the patients in the high muscle loss group were readmitted to  
209 the hospital within 2 months after discharge vs 10% of the patients in the low muscle loss  
210 group; however, this difference did not achieve statistical significance ( $P = 0.1800$ ). Both  
211 groups presented comparable hospital readmission rates 6 months after hospital discharge  
212 (9% vs. 9%,  $P = 0.6422$ ) (Figure 2, Panel C).

213 No between-group differences were observed for any of the items of the self-  
214 perception of health questionnaire (all  $P > 0.05$ ) (Figure 2, Panel D).

#### 215 *Health costs estimates*

216 High muscle loss group exhibited greater costs than low muscle loss group for  
217 hospital admission and total COVID-19-related health care after 2 (\$64453.20 vs.  
218 \$523.54,  $P = 0.0419$  and \$77,283.87 vs. \$3,057.14,  $P = 0.0223$ ) and 6 months (\$70,083.07  
219 vs. \$7,251.35,  $P = 0.0492$  and \$90,001.35 vs. \$12,913.27,  $P = 0.0210$ ) following hospital  
220 discharge.

221 Adjusted linear regression model revealed muscle mass loss as a significant  
222 predictor of total COVID-19-related health care costs at 2 and (adjusted  $\beta = \$10,070.81$ ,  
223 95%IC = 5,623.17 to 14,518.44,  $P < 0.0001$ ) and 6 months after hospital discharge  
224 (Adjusted  $\beta = \$9,885.63$ , 95%IC = 5,405.00 to 14,366.27,  $P < 0.0001$ ). Unadjusted models  
225 elicited similar findings (Table 3).

#### 226 **Discussion**

227 In this study, we observed that patients showing substantial muscle mass loss  
228 during COVID-19 hospitalization were not able to fully restore muscle health 6 months  
229 following hospital discharge. These patients also exhibited greater prevalence of fatigue

230 and myalgia. Additionally, muscle loss showed to be an independent and significant  
231 predictor of total COVID-19-related health care costs up to 6 months after hospital  
232 discharge. Altogether, these data suggest that the loss of muscle mass resulting from  
233 COVID-19 hospitalization may incur in an economical burden to health care systems.

234         Muscle atrophy and weakness are detrimental effects often observed after long-  
235 term hospital stay, which may persist for long periods of time affecting prognosis,  
236 morbimortality and overall quality of life of patients in several conditions<sup>9, 27-30</sup>. Previous  
237 studies have demonstrated a reduction of about 5-7% of quadriceps femoral cross-  
238 sectional area after 5-14 days of muscle disuse (i.e., immobilization or bed rest)<sup>31-33</sup>. In  
239 the current study, we observed a mean decrease of nearly two-fold (~10%) in vastus  
240 lateralis muscle cross-sectional area in about 10 days of hospitalization among patients  
241 with COVID-19, indicating a higher magnitude of muscle loss in comparison to other  
242 catabolic conditions. Of note, when patients were stratified according to the magnitude  
243 of loss in vastus lateralis muscle cross-sectional area, patients who experienced greater  
244 losses of muscle mass (i.e.,  $\geq 18\%$ ) failed to fully restore muscle mass and strength 6-  
245 months after hospital discharge. This is concerning as skeletal muscle plays a pivotal role  
246 in different physiological processes such as immune response, serves as source of amino  
247 acids to maintain protein synthesis and preserve vital tissues and organs (e.g.; brain,  
248 cardiac and hepatic tissues)<sup>34</sup> during stress conditions, which are of physiological  
249 relevance in maintaining a healthy cardiometabolic and immunological profile<sup>35</sup>.

250         Early reports revealed that approximately 75% of COVID-19 survivors report at  
251 least 1 PASC following 6 months of in-hospital discharge<sup>36</sup>, with fatigue, dyspnea, cough,  
252 headache, loss of taste or smell, and cognitive or mental health impairments being the  
253 most commonly observed<sup>5, 37, 38</sup>. Interestingly, our findings revealed a greater frequency  
254 of fatigue and myalgia in patients experiencing greater loss of muscle mass, suggesting



255 that the magnitude of muscle mass loss may be associated with higher frequency of  
256 PASC. Although this is an interesting notion, it is important to highlight that our study  
257 design does not allow establishing causation.

258 In respect of self-reported perception of health, we observed an elevated frequency  
259 (i.e., > 35%) of patients reporting regular, poor, or very poor health status 2 and 6 months  
260 after hospital discharge. Despite the absence of no within- or between-group significant  
261 differences in these variables, one may argue that the slight increase (10%) in frequency  
262 of patients reporting very poor health status in the low muscle loss group may be  
263 unexpected. It is possible that self-reported perception of health may be related to other  
264 adverse effects commonly observed in COVID-19 survivors like depression, anxiety, and  
265 sleep disorders <sup>37</sup>.

266 The elevated prevalence of PASC and poor health status may increase the  
267 requirement of medical assistance and thus increasing health care costs. In this context,  
268 one could speculate that patients suffering more drastic losses of muscle during hospital  
269 stay due to COVID-19 (and greater prevalence of PASC) would be in greater need of  
270 health care assistance, ultimately resulting in increased health care costs related to this  
271 disease. This notion gains traction with the current findings indicating higher total  
272 COVID-19 related health costs in the high vs. lower muscle mass loss group 2 (US\$  
273 77283.87 vs. 3057.14) and 6 months (US\$ 90001.35 vs. 12913.27) after hospital  
274 discharge. Of note, our data indicate higher expenditures for management of COVID-19  
275 survivors than those observed in other medical conditions associated to low muscle mass  
276 during hospital stay such as major abdominal surgery ( $\approx$  US\$ 40000.00)<sup>39</sup>, thoracolumbar  
277 spine surgery ( $\approx$  US\$ 53128.00)<sup>40</sup>, and one-year postoperative ( $\approx$  US\$ 40000.00)<sup>41</sup>.

278 Collectively, the results of current study prompt the need for interventions able to  
279 mitigate the muscle mass loss arising from hospital stay as drastic muscle mass loss may

280 increase the risk for long-term sequelae and health care expenditures and resource  
281 utilization after hospital discharge. In this scenario, non-pharmacological therapies such  
282 as physical exercise and nutrition emerge as inexpensive and accessible strategies to  
283 counteract muscle loss <sup>42-45</sup> and improve recovery from PASC <sup>46</sup>. Indeed, the American  
284 Heart Association has provided strong evidence of the potential of physical activity in  
285 favorably impacting the increasing burden of diseases and its associated costs <sup>47</sup>.

286         This study is strengthened by the novelty of our findings highlighting that muscle  
287 health, namely the magnitude of muscle mass loss during hospitalization, is a prognostic  
288 indicator of some PASC (i.e., fatigue and myalgia) and health care costs in a prospective  
289 cohort of survivors. However, this study has some limitation, such as its observational  
290 design that hampers causative relationships; the relatively small sample size and short-  
291 term follow-up; and the patients' characteristics, which limit our inferences to  
292 hospitalized patients (most with comorbidities) who had moderate-to-severe disease; and  
293 potential recall bias occurring due to self-reported information on health care utilization  
294 and out-of-pocket expenditures. However, it is important to highlight that health care  
295 costs estimation was performed using micro-costing technique according to type of  
296 procedure, health professional specialty and type of health care facility (i.e., public, or  
297 private) to ensure that costs reflect diversity in utilization of health resources within the  
298 Brazilian health system.

299

### 300         **Conclusions and Implications**

301         In conclusion, COVID-19 survivors experiencing high muscle mass loss during  
302 hospital stay fail to fully recover muscle health and show greater presence of PASC,  
303 namely fatigue and myalgia, and higher costs with hospital admission and total COVID-

304 19-related health care 2 and 6 months after hospital discharge than those losing less  
305 muscle. These findings have two practical applications. From a clinical perspective,  
306 muscle mass loss emerges as measure of poor prognosis in hospitalized patients and, as  
307 such, should be therapeutically approached. From a public health standpoint, muscle loss  
308 following COVID-19 hospitalization was shown to be associated with greater health care  
309 costs, which can add pressure on the health care systems. Further efficacy and  
310 effectiveness studies should investigate the utility of interventions aimed at recovering  
311 muscle health in COVID-19 survivors in preventing health care costs and disease  
312 complications.

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## Figures and Legends

**Figure 1.** Relative change of the vastus lateralis cross-sectional area ( $CSA_{VL}$ ) (panel A) and handgrip strength (HGS) (panel B) at hospital discharge and 6 months after discharge (6mo), according to the magnitude of muscle loss. \* Indicates between-group differences in the same timepoint.

**Figure 2.** Prevalence of persistent symptoms related to COVID-19 after 2 (2mo) and 6 months (6mo) of hospital discharge, according to the magnitude of muscle loss. \* Indicates between-group differences for the same symptom.

**Table 1.** Demographics, biochemical, and clinical characteristics of patients at hospital admission.

	<b>All patients (n=80)</b>
<b>Sex, n (%)</b>	
Female	39 (48.8)
Male	41 (51.2)
<b>Age, n (%)</b>	
<65	49 (61.2)
>65	31 (38.8)
<b>Ethnicity, n (%)</b>	
White	45 (56.2)
Black	24 (30.0)
Asian	11 (13.8)
<b>Smoking status, n (%)</b>	
Never	60 (75.0)
Current	20 (30.0)
<b>Comorbidities, n (%)</b>	
Asthma	5 (6.2)
Heart failure	9 (11.2)
Obesity (BMI>30)	33 (41.2)
Type 2 diabetes	25 (31.2)
COPD	4 (5.0)
Chronic renal disease	5 (6.2)
Atrial fibrillation	4 (5.0)
Acute myocardial infarction	6 (7.5)
Systemic arterial hypertension	26 (32.5)
<b>COVID-19 testing, n (%)</b>	
Positive PCR for SARS-CoV-2	73 (91.2)
Positive IgG for SARS-CoV-2	7 (8.8)
<b>Acute COVID-19 symptoms, n (%)</b>	
Anosmia	16 (20.0)
Headache	17 (21.2)
Runny nose	8 (10.0)
Diarrhea	13 (16.2)
Dysgeusia	15 (18.8)
Dyspnea	66 (82.0)



**Continuation.**

	<b>All patients (n=80)</b>
Abdominal pain	6 (7.5)
Chest pain	13 (16.2)
Fatigue	22 (27.5)
Fever	47 (58.8)
Myalgia	23 (28.7)
Nausea	8 (10.0)
Earache	8 (4.3)
Cough	26 (67.5)
Dizziness	2 (2.5)
Vomiting	7 (8.8)
<b>Oxygen support, n (%)</b>	
No oxygen therapy	24 (30.0)
Oxygen therapy	51 (63.8)
Non-invasive ventilation	5 (6.2)
<b>Biochemical parameters</b>	
Hemoglobin, mean (SD), g/L	12.7 (2.1) [n=80]
Neutrophil, mean (SD), x10 <sup>3</sup> /mm <sup>3</sup>	6.1 (4.1) [n=76]
Lymphocytes, mean (SD), x10 <sup>3</sup> /mm <sup>3</sup>	1.3 (1.4) [n=74]
Platelets, mean (SD), x10 <sup>3</sup> /mm <sup>3</sup>	240.0 (123.0) [n=79]
C-reactive protein, mean (SD), mg/L	77.2 (66.6) [n=74]
D-dimer, mean (SD), ng/mL	1883.0 (3168.0) [n=56]
Creatinine, mean (SD), mg/dL	1.2 (0.9) [n=75]
Urea, mean (SD), mg/dL	50.9 (36.8) [n=77]
<b>Ground-glass opacities on CT findings (≥50%), n (%)</b>	16 (20.0)
<b>ICU admission, n (%)</b>	10 (12.5)
<b>Use of invasive mechanical ventilation, n (%)</b>	1 (1.2)
<b>Hospital length of stay (d), median (IQR)</b>	8 (5 - 12)
<b>Handgrip strength, kgF, median (IQR)</b>	22 (16 - 30)
<b>Vastus lateralis muscle CSA, cm<sup>2</sup>, median (IQR)</b>	12 (11 - 19)

Abbreviations-BMI: Body Mass Index; COPD: Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; CT: Computed Tomography; ICU: Intensive Care Unit; IQR: Interquartile Range; CSA: Cross-Sectional Area.

**Table 2.** Health care costs estimates after 2 and 6 months of hospital discharge.

	2 months after discharge			6 months after discharge		
	High muscle loss	Low muscle loss	Between-group difference (95%IC; P-value)	High muscle loss	Low muscle loss	Between-group difference (95%IC; P-value)
<b>Total COVID-19-related health costs (\$)</b>	77283.87±201245.09	3057.14±5746.25	74226.73 (10852.87 to 137600.60; <b>0.0223</b> )	90001.35±204952.34	12913.27±28854.27	77088.08 (11936.85 to 142239.32; <b>0.0210</b> )
<b>Costs with drugs (\$)</b>	1358.74±2034.77	863.43±1023.66	495.31 (-221.68 to 1212.31; <b>0.1730</b> )	4698.65±6282.79	4383.39±4967.15	315.26 (-2205.85 to 2836.38; <b>0.8041</b> )
<b>Healthcare assistance (\$)</b>	11918.27±56058.42	1739.25±4175.08	10179.01 (-7515.96 to 27873.99; <b>0.2556</b> )	18944.00±62011.39	3152.22±5428.04	15791.78 (-3802.84 to 35386.39; <b>0.1127</b> )
<b>Costs with prostheses, orthotics, and exams (\$)</b>	611.43±757.79	570.03±1124.34	41.40 (-385.41 to 468.20; <b>0.8474</b> )	1278.98±1514.76	1294.43±2279.02	-15.46 (-876.85 to 845.94; <b>0.9716</b> )
<b>Costs with hospital admission (\$)</b>	64453.20±195434.43	523.54±2891.95	63929.66 (2403.96 to 125455.35; <b>0.0419</b> )	70083.07±196969.27	7251.35±27594.32	62831.72 (224.14 to 125439.30; <b>0.0492</b> )

**Table 3.** Crude and adjusted linear regression models for the effect of muscle loss in health care costs estimates after 2 and 6 months of hospital discharge.

<b>2 months after discharge</b>								
	<b>Crude <math>\beta</math></b>	<b>95%IC</b>	<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>P-value</b>	<b>Adjusted<sup>a</sup> <math>\beta</math></b>	<b>95%IC</b>	<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>P-value</b>
<b>Total COVID-19-related health costs (\$)</b>	7705.79	5282.80 to 10128.78	0.331	<0.0001	10070.81	5623.17 to 14518.44	0.822	<0.0001
<b>6 months after discharge</b>								
	<b>Crude <math>\beta</math></b>	<b>95%IC</b>	<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>P-value</b>	<b>Adjusted<sup>a</sup> <math>\beta</math></b>	<b>95%IC</b>	<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>P-value</b>
<b>Total COVID-19-related health costs (\$)</b>	7944.22	5444.20 to 10444.24	0.330	<0.0001	9885.63	5405.00 to 14366.27	0.820	<0.0001

a = Adjusted for age as continuous variable, sex (male and female), ethnicity (white, black and yellow), body mass index as continuous variable, diabetes (yes or not), hypertension (yes or not), length of stay (in days) as continuous variable.



