Review Article

Available drug therapies on COVID-19 and its side effects: An overview



Namrata Malik¹, Umesh Pravin Dhuldhaj^{2,*}

Article info Received: 07 May 2022 **Revised:** 06 Aug 2022 Accepted: 18 Nov 2022

Global Sciences

Use your device to scan and read the article online



Keywords: COVID-19, SARS-CoV2, pathogenicity, prophylaxis

1. Introduction

The Covid-19 pandemic caused by the novel Coronavirus destroyed the routine of normal people outbreaks in China in December 2019 and gradually in March 2020 spreads all over the Globe. Coronavirus is a large family of viruses infecting both humans and animals. Humans can develop respiratory infections which can be as simple as the common cold or severe such as MERS (Middle Eastern Respiratory Syndrome) and SARS (severe acute respiratory syndrome) [1-3].

The very first coronavirus was detected in birds in the year 1937 and after 20 years of

<u>ABSTRACT</u>

The sudden outbreak of coronavirus turned into a pandemic and resulted in huge socio-economic and human losses becoming a public health emergency. It took just 3-4 months to spread and encroach all over the world and not even a single country is left was unaffected bv the coronavirus. WHO started clinical. epidemiological, and laboratory investigations in response to this outbreak to control the further spread of the virus. The coronaviruses are enveloped and pleomorphic. The spike proteins present on the virus surface mediate its entry into host cells. The vaccines recommended have been shown to reduce COVID-19 illness symptoms but somehow their role in the transmission of the disease is unclear. By contrast, immunomodulatory therapy has also benefitted patients. As long as SARS-CoV-2 spreads in the population there are chances of its mutation as RNA viruses mutate over time and its upcoming variants. The previous Delta variant and the latest Omicron variant may cause much more serious deaths and health issues. Variants reduce the effectiveness of monoclonal antibodies or antibodies generated by previously administered vaccines. This review focuses on the pathogenicity of coronavirus and various drug therapies available to date to cure the disease. The present study also highlights the target sites and side effects of available drugs for treating COVID-19.

> span i.e. in 1960 was again detected in human beings. To date, the known strains of coronaviruses are HCoV-229E, HCoV-0C43, HCoV-NL63. SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV. HCoVHKU1, and SARS-CoV-2. Among these, people get more often exposed to 229E, NL63, OC43, and HKU1, these four coronaviruses are responsible for MERS, SARS, and very recent notorious infectious diseases [4, 5].

> But the history of the coronavirus infection dates to the year 2002 when hundreds of cases of severe pneumonia were reported in Guangdong Province of China. Similar infection cases were also reported in Hong Kong, Vietnam, and Canada in February and

¹Department of Life Sciences and Biotechnology, Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj University, Panvel, Navi Mumbai Maharashtra 410206, India

²Department of Biotechnology, School of Life Sciences, Swami Ramanand Teerth Marathwada University, Nanded 431606, Maharashtra, India

^{*}Corresponding Author: Umesh Pravin Dhuldhaj (<u>umeshpd12@gmail.com</u>)

March in the year 2003. Then the World Health Organization (WHO) designated the causal virus as "SARS-CoV". In 2012 another coronavirus case was reported from Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. The patient was detected with acute pneumonia and renal failure. Similar cases were also reported in Jordan and UAE where the patients developed acute respiratory conditions with a mortality rate of around 60% [6].

The clinical features of this virus resembled SARS-CoV. The Coronavirus Study Group (CSG) of the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses decided to call the virus MERS-CoV [7]. On 11 February 2020, WHO named the new coronavirus infection Coronavirus Disease 2019 or COVID-19.WHO on March 10, 2020, reported 113702 confirmed cases of COVID-19 with 4012 total death cases worldwide. The infection of coronavirus is more prone to people having a weak immune system and also are already suffering from other diseases [<mark>8</mark>]. Approximately 20-51% of COVID-19-infected people are reported to have other diseases like heart and cerebrovascular diseases (7-40%), diabetes (10–20%), and hypertension (10-15%). Patients with weak immunity, respiratory failure, or weak lungs are more prone to death because of infestations of influenza, SARS-CoV and the Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus (MERS-CoV) and COVID-19 [9, 10].

Infections and transmissions of COVID-19 are highly contagious, within a short span it became a pandemic and within 3 months 165 countries got infected. At the site of origin, that is in China among the total number of cases of coronavirus infected with 3.9 % approximately of death cases registered. Globally among total cases of coronavirus infections, around 4.06 % of death cases are registered [11].

2. Taxonomy of Coronavirus

Order Nidoviralesconsists of three RNA virus families Coronaviridae, Roniviridae (pathogen of insects), and Arteriviridae (pathogen of birds). The Coronaviridae family comprises of two subfamilies, Coronavirinae and Torovirinae [12]. Coronavirinae comprises enveloped and spherical viruses

pathogenic to humans and animals whereas, Torovirinae consists of kidney or rod-shaped viruses causing enteric infections of horses, pigs, cattle, and goats. Coronavirinae can further be genotypically and serologically divided into four groups: alpha-coronavirus, beta-coronavirus, gamma-coronavirus, and delta-coronavirus [13]. Human infections are caused by alpha and beta-coronavirus. Alphacoronavirus contains human viruses HCoV-229E, HCoV-NL63, porcine transmissible gastroenteritis coronavirus (TGEV), PEDV, and porcine respiratory coronavirus (PRCV). Beta-coronavirus includes mouse hepatitis virus (MHV), SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-OC43, HCoV-HKU1, bat coronavirus HKU4, bovine coronavirus (BCoV), and various other animal pathogens. Their infestations result in multiple organ failures such as heart, kidney, liver, central nervous system, and gastrointestinal system [14] Gammacoronavirus infects whales and birds including avian infectious bronchitis coronavirus (IBV), and delta-coronavirus infects pigs and avian species including porcine delta-coronavirus (PdCV).

During electron microscopy, the coronavirus appears to have spikes around it. These rings of spikes around the viruses help them to bind or adhere to host surfaces. In Latin, Corona means crown or halo, which indicates its morphological appearance as a crown or sort of solar radiation around the virus particles which appears as club-shaped and measures around $\sim 20 \text{ nm}[\underline{15}]$. The genome of coronavirus is made of positivesense single-stranded RNA that weighs around 27 to 34 kb with helically symmetric nucleocapsid [16].

3. Genome of COVID-19

COVID-19 is pleomorphic, enveloped viruses. They have the largest positive-sense RNA genome typically ranging from 27 to 32 kb. COVID-19 is around 79% genetically similar to viruses belonging to the group SARS-CoV [<u>17</u>]. The genome of SARS-CoV is 29727 nucleotides in length and it has 11 open reading frames. These virions contain major structural proteins: the transmembrane (M) glycoprotein, the spike (S) glycoprotein, the envelope (E) protein, and the internal phosphorylated nucleocapsid protein (N) (See Figure 1) [18]. The nucleocapsid of the virus is composed of genomic RNA and N proteins, buried inside phospholipid bilayers. The spike proteins S cover the phospholipid bilayer mediating virus entry into host cells. Some coronaviruses contain another envelope protein with both hemagglutinations, and esterase functions called hemagglutininesterase protein (HE). They have distinctive morphology having club-shaped glycoprotein projections at their envelope. These projections give coronavirus the appearance of crowns and hence their name; *corona* in Latin means crown.



Fig. 1. A structure of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) coronavirus

4. Molecular basis of pathogenicity

The COVID-19 infection begins with viral entry into the host cells via its binding to the host cell receptors ACE2, angiotensinconverting enzyme 2 [19]. Both the virion and host cells' membrane fuses giving a passage for the coronavirus to enter inside the host cell. The viral genome which is positive-sense single-stranded RNA enters into the host cells and highjacks the host's translation machinery, by attaching itself to the host's producing ribosomes structural and nonstructural polyproteins (nsp). These nsps are further lysed by conserved proteases of the virus, like the main protease (MPro), chymotrypsin-like protease (3CLpro), and papain-like protease (PLpro) [20]. The viral proteinase PLpro acts as deubiquitinase, which brings about immune suppression by de-ubiquitination of interferon factor 3 and NF-κB, etc. This coronavirus genome encodes RNA-dependent RNA polymerase RdRp (nsp12) a replicase that further generates negative-stranded RNA templates to make multiple copies of viral genomic RNA.¹⁵RdRp can also be a drug target for antiviral therapy. The negative-strand RNA further forms 3' coterminal nested genomic mRNAs. The virus once inside the host cells will take 10-12 hours to replicate. Newly synthesizing virions

are grown into rough endoplasmic reticulum with the localizations of M proteins and concentrate at intracytoplasmic vesicles. Through the Golgi apparatus, the newly formed virions are released by exocytosis from plasma membranes. Infection of these viruses causes the formation of syncytia i.e., fusion or lysis of cells [21]. All these fragments formed help in the formation and packaging of new virions and hence spread the viral infection at a large scale.

The adherence of coronaviruses occurs in the host cells through S proteins or Spike proteins. S proteins are transmembrane glycoproteins present in coronavirus; they form homotrimers over the virus surface giving the virus its characteristic crown-like appearance [22]. These proteins are essential for viral entry into target cells and are thus important in therapeutic studies. S glycoprotein monomer contains two subunits S1 and S2. The S1proteinsubunit helps in virus attachment to target cell receptors and the S2 subunit helps in the fusion of both membranes [23]. S proteins play a crucial role in the tropism of coronaviruses: deletions in proteins some portions of S turn Transmissible Gastroenteritis Coronavirus (TGEV) into Porcine Respiratory Coronavirus (PRCV), leading to a change in tropism from

gastrointestinal to the respiratory tract. Group 1 coronaviruses bind to metalloproteases such as 229E adhere to human aminopeptidases N and NL63 binds to angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE-2). Group 2 coronaviruses on the host surface through the attachment of 9-O-acetylated neuraminic acid and SARS coronaviruses also binds to ACE-2 for entry into host cells.

5. Assay of Corona detections

The coronavirus (SARS-CoV2) genetically varies from SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV, but it shows 85% similarity with bat SARS-like coronaviruses (bat-SL-CoVZC45). Assay of corona detections is firstly done by screening existing antiviral molecules that could be of help in treating the disease. SARS-CoV2 infects upper respiratory tract epithelial cells and lungs in humans. COVID-19 when cultured in vitro in African green monkey kidney (Vero) cells E6 and human hepatoma cell line clone Huh-7 cell lines take around 6 days to reach a detectable limit, once infected it can be found in respiratory epithelial cells after 4 days [24].

The diagnosis of infected patients cannot be directly done on the basis of symptoms as the symptoms are non-specific and also asymptomatic infection is also observed in some of the patients. The confirmations and validations of coronavirus can be done by the Reverse transcription-polymerase chain (RT-PCR) or Next-generation reaction sequencing (NGS) by using the samples taken from patients such as nasopharyngeal swabs, sputum, lower respiratory tract secretions, blood, feces, etc by detecting nucleic acid of coronavirus. The samples taken from lower respiratory tracts are more accurate for the confirmation of the coronavirus [24]. The severity of SARS-CoV-2 is directly linked to the unpredictable nature of COVID-19 leading to further deadly complications. The RT-PCR performs amplifications and reverses transcriptions simultaneously henceforth there are more chances for the generation of lower molecular weight amplicons.

Biomarkers are important for categorizing patients and then proceeding with their proper line of treatment. Biomarkers such as hematological (lymphocyte and neutrophil count), inflammatory CRP (C-reactive

protein), ESR (erythrocyte sedimentation rate), PCT (procalcitonin), immunological IL-6 (interleukin-6), biochemical such as D-dimer, troponin, CK (creatine kinase) AST (aspartate aminotransferase), and also ARDS (acute respiratory distress syndrome) are taken into account for the same [25]. The manifestation of coronaviruses leads to leukopenia (decrease in the leukocyte count) while this count may or may not be affected during the initial stages, critical patients have elevated WBC levels [26]. Another symptom is lymphopenia in which the total number of lymphocytes, TCD4+, TCD8+, B cells, and Natural killer cells (NK cells) decreases [27]. The physiological response to infections of coronaviruses varies from patient to patient, in some cases, the liver enzymes are increased such as lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), muscle enzymes, and myoglobin. Normal cases have increased levels of C-reactive protein (CRP), erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR), and normal procalcitonin, and in serious cases, the D-dimer and peripheral blood lymphocytes spontaneously decrease and increased inflammatory factors. 2019-nCov can also be detected through the IgG antibody titers; it takes around 3 to 5 days after onset.

6. Modes of Transmission

The glycosylated spike (S) proteins can induce an immune response in human beings. The S protein priming to the ACE2 receptoriscatalyzed by the proteolytic enzyme serine protease TMPRSS211 of host cells. This also facilitates the invasion of coronaviruses into host cells [15]. Interaction between S protein and ACE2 initiates the infections and invasion of coronavirus. The affinity of the S protein belonging to SARS-CoV2 to ACE2 is very much higher in comparison to that of the SARS-CoV S protein [28]. Hence, the transmission rate of SARS-CoV2 is greater compared to SARS-CoV [29].

The infections and transmission of human coronaviruses occur through the respiratory tract. Experimentally the coronaviruses 229E and OC43 were observed in the intranasal inoculations of adult human samples [30]. The people coming in close contact with the infected patients can also be infected through the aerosol or airborne zoonotic droplets released during their coughing and sneezing actions. COVID-19 became a pandemic in the current situation and globally in each country; researchers are trying to find out their different routes of transmission and methods of prevention [31]. Coronaviruses infect the ciliated epithelium through binding domains i.e. virus spikes and enter inside the human cells through exopeptidase (Angiotensinconverting enzyme, ACE2) present in the membrane receptors of the lungs [32]. Coronaviruses damage the sites of infections with their replications [33]. Initial reports for coronavirus infections were only for rats, mice, cats, dogs, horses, turkeys, cattle, and pigs and after some time these viruses are transmitted to human beings similar way as that SARS-CoV. Proteolytic enzymes which break at the S2 position of the S protein of SARS-CoV lead to infections and fusion to the host membranes [34]. The human enteric coronaviruses (HECoV) can be successfully cultured in human embryonic intestinal organ culture and prone to endemic in developing countries and western countries having large migrants from developing countries and low socio-economic groups, also the greater transmission of this virus is observed in homosexual males in comparison to normal peoples [35].

7. Pathogenicity and Symptoms of COVID-19 associated with some organs

In several studies, it is found that the pathogenesis of SARS (caused by SARS-CoV), results in the tremendous release of a proinflammatory cytokine such as interleukin-6 (IL-6), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), and IL-12 [36]. Similarly, MERS (caused by MERS-CoV) causes a notable increase in the IL-6, IL-1β, and IL-8 but it has shown delayed proinflammatory cytokine induction of release [37]. Like that of SARS and MERS, the infection caused by SARS-CoV2 (in severe cases) also induces an increase in cytokines in plasma-like IL-6, IL-2, IL-7, IL-10, granulocytecolony stimulating factor, interferon- γ (IFN- γ) inducible protein, monocyte chemo-attractant protein, macrophage inflammatory protein 1α , and TNF- α [<u>38</u>]. COVID-19 associated with SARS-CoV-2 is responsible for lower respiratory tract infections and in adverse conditions can also lead to Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS), sepsis and septic shock and multi-organ failure, including acute kidney injury and cardiac injury.

7.1. Lungs

SARS-CoV2-associated COVID-19 is primarily targeted at the respiratory tract which majorly involves the lungs. In diseased conditions, the lung's alveoli get fluid and fibrin-filled and form hyaline membranes. The alveolar exudates contain several syncytial cells including macrophages. Viral invasion and its presence can be detected in Type II pneumonocytes and macrophages. Also, the alveolar septum can have edema and congestion resulting in the infiltrations of monocytes and lymphocytes. In adverse viral infection cases, the lungs can be affected by hemorrhage, necrosis, and over-hemorrhagic infarction [24].

7.2. Spleen, hilar lymph nodes, and bone marrow

COVID-19 infections lead to a decrease in the number of lymphocytes and the spleen becomes atrophic and the malfunctioning of bone marrow resulting in decreased Myelopoiesis is observed. Spleen also shows necrosis, focal hemorrhages, the proliferation of macrophages, and phagocytosis. Focal necrosis and a decrease in the number of lymphocytes are also observed in lymph nodes. With the analysis of the immunehistochemistry of CD4+ and CD8+, it was revealed that both the spleen and lymph nodes are having a loss in the number of T cells [24].

7.3. Heart and blood vessels

Infections of coronaviruses along with the lower respiratory organs will also damage the heart and myocardial cells. In diseased persons having damaged myocardial cells, infiltrations of monocytes and neutrophils are observed in the cardiac interstitium. Blood cells are also affected because of viral infections and loss of endothelial cells, endovasculitis, and thrombi are observed [8].

7.4. Liver and gall bladder

COVID-19 infections cause liver enlargement with dark-red colorations and liver dysfunction in critically ill patients. This virus directly targets the liver as the receptor of SARS-CoV-2 i.e., ACE2 is greatly expressed in cholangiocytes [39], hence disintegrated viral particles can also be observed in stool samples [40]. Hepatocytes are damaged and neutrophil infiltrations and congestions of sinusoids are also observed in coronavirus infections. Major symptoms of viral infections are the presence of microthrombi, infiltrations of lymphocytes and histiocytes, and gall bladder showing marked swellings [24]. Persons with comorbidity like COVID-19 infections and liver cirrhosis are prone to major chances of acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF) [41]. The viral invasion in the liver is enough to make people sicker [42].

7.5. Kidneys

Along with the heart, liver, and lungs, remarkable damage is also observed in kidneys like the destruction of renal tubules, epithelial cells, hyaline cells, and the occurrence of proteinaceous exudates in Bowman's capsule around glomeruli. The interstitium of the kidney shows the presence of microthrombi and fibrotic foci [24].

7.6. Other organs

SARS-CoV-2 infects and damages other organs also, like the central nervous system, stomach and bowel, and esophagus. Severe infections and invasion of COVID-19 lead to the destruction of neurons along with cerebral hyperemia and edema and marked focal necrosis in adrenal glands. The Epithelial mucosae of the esophageal, stomach, and bowel are destructed at variant levels [24].

8. COVID-19 Pandemic

The disease COVID-19 is the most notorious disease of this century caused by SARS-CoV-2. In a short span, this disease spread globally and harmed human beings potentially socio-economically and medically, hence on March 11, 2020, World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 as pandemic and as of April 12, 2020, globally 1,696,588 people were infected with 105,952 reported death cases [43]. The notable coronaviruses which cause harm to human beings are SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and SARS-CoV-2, which have originated from other mammals like bats, civet cats, camels, and pangolins [44]. COVID-19 or 2019-nCoV belongs to a group of enveloped positivesense RNA viruses. In comparison to DNA viruses, RNA viruses can mutate faster and there are more chances of strain modifications as mutations are negatively related to their genome [45]. Coronaviruses HCoV 229E, OC43, and NL63 are often detected in serology testing for mild to severe pathogenicity. Very fewer reports are available on HKU1, but its occurrence is reported worldwide, once it is infected there are more chances of its reinfection within a short span like a month [46, 47].

9. Available treatment therapies for COVID-19

The treatment policies and regulatory guidelines for the prevention of COVID-19 are somewhat different in each country. The guidelines as given by the WHO are accepted worldwide for the management of symptoms, and suggestions of caution to different patients like pediatric patients, pregnant women, and patients with co-morbidities. Initially, there were no approved treatment methods and general treatments were advised for the general and supportive management concerning requirements of patients, such as antipyretics for fever, oxygen therapy for respiratory distress, hydration maintenance, antibiotic treatments for bacterial infections, and ventilation for respiratory support. Medicine like hydroxychloroquine, chloroquine phosphate, remedesivir, and lopinavir/ritonavir are now globally recommended [48]. In the initial stages of a pandemic, ribavirin is thought to be having a synergistic effect along with interferon-alpha, and mycophenolic treatment is supposed to be monotherapy for recovery [49].

9.1. Allopathic

For the disease conditions and invasion of coronaviruses, the prior treatment suggestions are allopathic drugs. The drugs advised to COVID-19 patients i.e., Tocilizumab can significantly improve the health of patients and minimize the destruction. This could be one of the therapeutic strategies for the treatment of COVID-19 patients [39]. The emergence of this disease has occurred in China. the Chinese National Health Commission (NHC) for the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of COVID-19 suggested several groups of antiviral drugs including interferon α (IFN- α), lopinavir/ritonavir, chloroquine phosphate, ribavirin, and arbidol [5].

9.1.1. Hydroxychloroquine

As the Chinese NHC suggest allopathic drugs, among them Hydroxychloroquine (HCQ) is an important drug, which is a derivative of chloroquine (CQ), and after the declaration of the pandemic this drug is in high demand as it is having potential activity against SARS-CoV-2, in comparison to CQ [15]. The combinations of HCQ with azithromycin possess potent activity against SARS-CoV-2 in comparison to HCQ alone [50]. But these therapies have several issues and are dropped out as the HCO causes OT prolongation [51] while azithromycin showed pro-arrhythmic activity. As per the safety precautions concerns, ICMR (Indian Council of Medical Research) doesn't recommend HCQ to common people, this drug is only suggested for critical cases and frontline workers like healthcare workers who are directly exposed to COVID-19-positive populations. For the healthcare workers exposed to household personnel, the ICMR suggested they be isolated and home-quarantined even after treatment with the HCQ [52]. Some authors also suggested the HCQ treatment can also lead to radiological progression [53].

9.2. Ayurvedic and Yoga

Ayurvedic and Yoga are ancient Indian well-known therapies without any side effects. For the effective prevention of COVID-19, several local decoctions and kadha have been suggested and in some Indian regions were found to be very effective with no cases of COVID-19. Ayurveda and Yoga played a major role in immunity booster's and a healthy lifestyle instead of the treatment of therapies and prescriptions of medicine [54].

9.2.1 Local Prophylaxis

The points of human beings that are directly linked to organs like the eyes, nose, and mouth will act as the major entry points for SARS-COV-2 and invade the human body. Once the SARS-COV-2 enters the respiratory tract through the mouth and nose, it stays to some extent in the throat. SARS-COV-2 having fatty acid covers can easily attach to mucosal layers and take access inside the body through cell receptors. Ayurveda therapies target these mucosal entry points to prevent the entry of COVID-19 and improve innate immunological responses. Ayurveda mentions general measures such as hot water, hot food, herbal decoctions, gargling and with medicated water, steam inhalation acts as a barricade or frontline of inhibitors for the entry of the virus and also recover the patients with mild cases [54].

9.2.2. Medicated water

therapies Avurveda Ancient and recommends hot water and household spices in drinking hot water for the relief of mild symptoms of COVID-19 like sneezing, cough, and bodyache.⁴⁹The popular spices that can be used as medications along with the hot water are drv ginger (Zingiber officinale), vashtimadhu (Glycyrrhiza glabra), and nutgrass (Cyperus rotundus) rhizomes; khus (Vetiveriazizanioides), and Indian sarsaparilla (*Hemisdesmus* indicus) roots: coriander (Coriandrum sativum) and fennel seeds and (Cuminum *cyminum*); cinnamon (Cinnamomum verum) and catechu (Acacia *catechu*) barks [55].

9.2.3. Mouth rinse and gargle

То wash and clean the mouth, recommended avurvedic formulations are Gandusha and Kavala [54]. The major components used for the preparations of medicated water are turmeric (Curcuma *longa*) rhizome, yashtimadhu or liquorice (Glycyrrhiza glabra) stem, neem (Azadirachta indica) and catechu (Acacia arabica) barks, and natural salt. etc. The secondary metabolites or active components present in liquorice e.g., glycyrrhizin is having significant potential in the prevention of viral attachment and penetrations and help in inhibiting viral replications in comparison to viral drugs for SARS coronaviruses [56]. Also in Yoga therapy, salt water is recommended for nasal clearance and washing as Jala Neti [57].

9.2.4 Nasal oil application

For the prevention of viral entry and protection of the respiratory tract, ayurvedic

the

major

When

of

oils are effective. In Ayurveda, medicated oil such as vegetable and butter oil was prepared from sesame and coconut and administered through the nostrils [54].

9.2.5. Steam inhalation

Steam inhalations are a routine method in Allopathy Avurveda and for disease treatment. The hot water steam along with the aromatic oils prepared from menthol extract is effective in the treatment of nasal and broncho-constriction, throat congestion, headache, and sinusitis [54].

9.2.6. Rasavanas as Immunomodulators

Ayurvedic formulations like Rasayana are very much effective in the treatment of SARS-COV-2. These formulations are also helpful in the curing of immune hemostasis and immunomodulation [58]. SARS-COV-2 infections are faced by the defensive mechanism of the human body in which the adaptive immune response acts as the phase which helps in protective the elimination of viral infection [59]. The formulations prepared Rasavana from medicinal plants help in strengthening immunity and immunomodulation. The major plants used are Ashwagandha, Guduchi, Shatavari, Amalaki, and Yashtimadhu [54].

9.3. Homeopathy

Homeopathic therapeutics is recommended for chronic and communicable and also helps diseases in immune modulations. With the symptoms of the diseases, often recommended medicines are Aconite napellus, Arsenicum album, Bryonia alba, Gelsemium sempervirens, Rhus tox, Eupatorium perfoliatum, Ipeca caucunha, Belladonna, Camphora.

9.4. Immune system booster

The best strategy to fight against diseases is the prevention and enhancement of the immune system. The human body has a great immune system and with the maintenance of perfect body health, it gets better to fight against diseases. Good health and good nutrient supplement in their daily intake of food and ignorance of junk food enhance the immunity of human beings [5].

source for the major immunoglobulins and this therapy has significant recovery after prophylaxis. Convalescent plasma therapy is recommended for the treatment of hepatitis, mumps, polio, measles, rabies, influenza, Argentine hemorrhagic fever, SARS-CoV, MERS, and Ebola and is also effective in viral loads, cytokine responses [62].

immunoglobulin

concentrations

9.6. Vaccines on trials

9.5. Convalescent plasma

Convalescent plasma is the plasma

collected from the B cells of recovered

patients infected with Covid-19, which has pathogen-specific active antibodies. These

recovered patients are presumed to have

developed an efficient antibody response. This

slowly responding antibody therapy with the

aid of convalescent plasma helps in the

prevention of pathogen infection, minimizing

pathogenesis. With the varying symptom

severity, antibody therapy is recommended

for the treatments. The well-known antiviral therapy is a passive antibody treatment, used

more than a hundred years ago $[\underline{60}]$. In this

pathogen of interest. Passive antibody therapy

is primarily based on the pooling of

prophylactically administered, this passive antibody treatment has also shown effective

recovery in patients [61]. Plasma therapies

are nowadays recommended when the subject

is unable to generate antibodies. Plasma is the

it

contains

generations

post-exposure

antibodies.

therapy, antibodies directly target

as

of

To control pandemic situations, the administrations of novel vaccines are the most sought-after approach for the prevention of pathogenic diseases. Indian firms in collaboration with foreign laboratories launched several vaccines against coronavirus such as Covishield (Launched by Serum Institute Pune), Covaxin (Launched by Bharat Serum, Hyderabad), and Sputnik (Gamaleva Research Institute). Other than this DNA vaccine has been produced against four MERS coronavirus, whose phase I clinical trials started in September of 2019 [63] and one of the firms Moderna Inc. launched the first batch of mRNA vaccine against SARS-CoV-2 for phase I trials in the USA in February of 2020.

9.7. Mechanism of actions of some drugs and Side effects

Drugs tested to treat COVID-19 can be categorized as those that target the viral replication cycle and others controlling symptoms of the disease. Various steps in the viral lifecycle can act as targets for potential drugs to be used for treating COVID-19. Nonstructural proteins such as 3CL-pro, PLpro, RdRp, entry pathways for SARS-CoV2, and immune regulation pathways act as drug targets for various medicines [64]. Figure 2 shows a schematic representation of the SARS-CoV2 life cycle and various drug targets at different steps. Because of the serious effects of SARS-CoV-2 on human lives, it is of utmost importance to develop antiviral drugs effective against COVID-19. To stop the intrusion and proliferation of SARS-CoV-2 a combination of drugs or drugs with multiple targets can be employed.



Fig. 2. SARS-CoV2 life cycle and drug targets; ACE2: angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; and TMPRSS2: type 2 transmembrane serine protease

9.7.1. Antimalarial Drugs

During the initial period of SARS infection, based on symptoms, antimalarial drugs were recommended in most countries, and even India exported chloroquine to several other countries. These drugs have shown significant effects in the prevention of SARS and MERS virus replications. Chloroquine and its derivative hydroxychloroquine help in raising the pH of cellular organelles and lysosomes resulting in the enhancement of phagocytic degradations. These drugs are bits of help in the enhancement of the immune system against the pathogen, in combination with cell contents produced during phagocytosis. The drug can be administered solely or in combination with azithromycin [<u>65</u>].

initially used as Quinine was an antimalarial drug which is now taken over by chloroquine derivative and its hydroxychloroquine. Thev both are polymerase inhibitors targeting heme polymerase which kills the malarial parasite by accumulating toxic heme. These drugs are also used to treat rheumatoid arthritis and SLE (systemic lupus erythematosus) [66]. They can also be used as an antiviral drug in cases of Borna disease, hepatitis A and AIDS [67]. A decrease in viral load is also observed in SARS-CoV-2 patients [68]. Drugs cause inhibition of glycosylation of host cell receptors, and also inhibition of endosomal acidification which leads to the stoppage of viral protein production. Glycosylation inhibition results in the prevention of the binding of ACE2 receptors to the S protein and stops further viral replication, assembly, and release into the host cells. Inhibition of endosomal and lysosomal acidification prevents viral assembly and its re-release in host cvtoplasm [69]. the The immunomodulatory effects of the administration of these drugs are attenuation cytokine production, inhibition of of autophagy, and lysosomal activity in host cells [70].

9.7.1.1. Chloroquine

Chloroquine helps in the enhancement of the immune system raising the pH of cell organelles like lysosomes leading to phagocytosis of entering pathogens. It also checks the enzyme metabolism of viruses which includes viral polymerase (both DNA and RNA), glycosylations of viral protein, assembly and transport of viral particles, and finally its release. Chloroquine is also involved in the inhibitions of cellular receptors like ACE2, acidification of the cell surface for the prevention of attachment of viruses, and release of cytokine by immunomodulation [<u>71</u>].

9.7.3. Hydroxychloroquine

Similar to chloroquine, hydroxychloroquine also inhibits viral

metabolism-like enzyme processes and is also involved in raising the pH of cellular membranes to avoid viral attachments. The administration of hydroxychloroquine is involved in the prevention of viral assembly, transport, and release; it also inhibits the polymerizations of RNA and DNA [68].

9.7.4. Antiviral Drugs

In these pandemic conditions, the recommended antiviral drugs are those which are mostly used for the treatment of HIV such as Lopinavir and Ritonavir. Other recommended antiviral drugs which are involved in the inhibition of RNA synthesis areFavipiravir, Ribavirin, Remdesivir, and Galidesivir [70].

9.7.4.1. Remdesivir (GS-5734)

The most recommended antiviral drug is Remdesivir, which is involved in the inhibition of viral RNA polymerization by preventing the activity of RNA-dependent RNA polymerases (RdRps). It is a monophosphoramidate prodrug of a nucleotide analog. Remdesivirtriphosphate (RDV-TP) is similar to ATP which competes to incorporate into polymerizing viral RNA. Once it is incorporated into RNA, it blocks RNA synthesis at the +3 position. Inhibition of RNA synthesis immediately occurs after the addition of three more nucleotides, and then the chain is terminated. Remdesivir incorporation is not proofread bv exoribonucleases and remains in the RNA till it blocks further RNA synthesis [71].

9.7.4.2. Lopinavir; Ritonavir

Lopinavir is a protease inhibitor used along with ritonavir as a booster and an antiviral drug. It acts against the virus's main protease (MPro), chymotrypsin-like protease (3CLpro). These drugs bind to the catalytic site of the protease enzyme which is responsible for the replications of the virus and suppress the cleavage of viral polyprotein precursors into mature functional proteins [15].

9.7.4.3. Favipiravir

Like Lopinavir and Ritonavir, another recommended drug in the coronavirus pandemic is Favipiravir which inhibits viral replications by inhibiting RNA synthesis. It is a

50 | Page

synthetic prodrug and the active form of this drug is favipiravir-RTP formed by phosphoribosylation. This activated drug principally acts as an RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) substrate and gets incorporated into the growing polypeptide chain in place of a purine nucleotide halting further extension. This leads to the termination of viral protein synthesis [71].

9.8. Immunomodulatory

9.8.1. Azithromycin

Azithromycin belongs to the macrolides group of antibiotics. It is having antibacterial, antiviral, and immunomodulatory activities. The immunomodulatory properties present in Azithromycin are preventing pulmonary inflammatory disorders, down regulation of cytokine production, and maintaining and stabilizing the epithelial cell membrane. The action of this drug on viral mitigation is not clear; the principal mechanism which controls viral infection is by reducing cytokine production, respiratory viral infections, and downregulation of inflammatory also responses. The other mechanism involved in the immunomodulation includes inhibition of IL-8 cytokines leading to a reduction in chemotaxis of neutrophils in the lungs, reduction in reactive oxygen species production, enhancement in apoptosis caused by neutrophils, inhibitions of the nuclear transcription factor, activation and reduction in hypersecretions of mucus [67].

9.8.2. Interleukin-1 (IL-1) Antagonists

and canakinumab act Anakinra as Interleukin-1 receptor antagonists which prevent interleukin-1 binding to its IL-1 receptors. Interleukin-1 is responsible for several immunological responses like activations of IL-6. Anakinra competitively prevents the binding of IL-1 alpha and IL-1 beta to IL-1 receptors. Similarly, Canakinumab prevents the binding of IL-1 beta to IL-1 receptors by neutralizing it with the help of human monoclonal antibodies[72].

9.8.3. Interleukin-6 (IL-6) Receptor Antagonists

Interleukin-6 (IL-6) receptor antagonists bind to soluble and membrane-bound IL-6 receptors and inhibit IL-6-mediated signaling. IL-6 is involved in major immunological and physiological responses, helps in the T-cell activation, induction of antibody secretions and initiation of synthesis of acute-phase proteins. stimulation for the cell differentiation, and cell proliferation of hematopoietic precursors. The production of interleukin-6 is done by fibroblasts, monocyte, and T and B-cells [73]. Improvement in respiratory and hemodynamic parameters is reported in patients after IL-6 blockade [74]. Activation of T-lymphocytes and macrophages in COVID-19 patients results in the release of proinflammatory cytokines including IL-6 which bind to IL-6 receptors present on the target cells causing hyperinflammation [75]. Blocking the IL-6 receptor by IL-6 receptor antagonists in these patients results in weakened immune damage to target cells and inflammatory responses [76].

9.8.4. Janus Kinase (JAK) Inhibitors

Janus kinase (JAK)/ signal transducers and activators of transcription (STATs) act as the mediator for the signal transmission between interactions of membrane receptors of cells and growth factors with cytokines. Many cytokines are regulated by this mode of signal transduction. Janus kinase is involved in the modulation of intracellular activity (e.g., gene expression) bv phosphorylation and activation of STAT. The cytokine receptors are expressed in several cells of the immune system, hence JAK-mediated signaling plays a vital role in the pathogenesis of immunemediated diseases. The STATs activation (latent cytoplasmic transcription factors) and prevention of phosphorylation are modulated by JAK inhibitors. These JAK inhibitors prevent phosphorylation and bring about downregulation of the JAK/STAT signaltransduction pathway causing a significant reduction in cytokine release and hence decreased inflammation. Reports are there stating that JAK inhibitors can be used for COVID patient's treatment[77].

9.9. Side effects of available drugs

9.9.1. Remdesivir

The antiviral drugs administered during the infection of COVID-19 come along with several side effects. These side effects are reported in 66% of patients approximately; the major caution is observed in renal impairment when remdesivir is formulated with sulfobutyl ether beta-cyclodextrin sodium (SBECD). The patients treated with remdesivir also show infusion-related reactions, enhancement of hepatic enzyme concentrations indicating possible liver damage, and hypersensitivity (Table 1)[78].

9.9.2. Chloroquine and Hydroxychloroquine

During the initial outbreak of coronavirus, globally recommended drug was the Chloroquine and Hydroxychloroquine as it helps in the recovery of infected patients. These drugs are not suggested to infected patients without a prescription of medical practitioners or in a nonhospital setting as after administration of this drug patients have to face several side effects like cardiac arrhythmias (e.g., QT prolongation) and several unnecessary drug interactions [79]. It is also suggested that during chloroquine treatment other drugs which are responsible for OT prolongations should be avoided [79]. Patients having comorbidity are at high risk during the treatment of chloroquine, as the drug may cause retinal damage, reduced visual acuity and bilateral loss of vision. Patients suffering from diabetes and G6PD deficiency are at high risk. HCQ is a less toxic and preferred drug when compared to CQ [80].

9.9.3. Lopinavir and Ritonavir

The recommended antiviral drugs next to Remdesivir are Lopinavir and Ritonavir. Administration of these drugs into coronavirus-infected patients shows several side effects like that of chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine such as cardiac arrhythmias (e.g., QT prolongation) [79]. These drugs are having significant drug interactions but are not recommended to patients with hepatic disease or hepatitis.

9.9.4. Favipiravir

Similar to the above-mentioned drugs, favipiravir is also used in antiviral therapy. This drug is not recommended in the case of pregnancy, during animal studies it was observed that this drug can lead to the death of embryos and causes teratogenicity [105].

Action Action	References
1 Brivaracetam Binds to synaptic vesicle protein 2A (SV2A) influencing synaptic ve	esicle release [<u>81</u>]
2 Carbamazepine Induced Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis	[<u>82</u>]
PPARγ agonist, inhibits the development of pulmonary fibrosis and regu	ilates activation of
3 Cannabidiol fibroblast/myofibroblast, and is effective in the progressivity of corona by	v downregulation of [83]
SARS-CoV2, also it has immunomodulatory and anti-inflammato	ory activity
4 Cenobamate Anti-seizure medications	[<u>84</u>]
5 Clonazepam Anxiety Management	[85]
6 Clobazam Acute seizure management and ATV	[<u>86</u>]
7 Diazepam Acute seizure management and ATV	[86]
8 Eslicarbazepine CYP3A inducers	[84]
9 Ethosuxinide Seizure management	[77]
10 Gabapentin Neuropathic pain reliever	[87]
11 Lacosamide Antiepileptic drugs	[86]
12 Lamotrigine Antiepileptic drugs	[81]
13 Levetiracetam Reduce seizure threshold	[88]
14 Lorazenam Antidenressant	[89]
15 Ovcarbazenine Antiseizure management	[85]
16 Perampanel Neuroprotector antiviral	[90]
17 Phenytoin Antiseizure management	[91]
18 Phenoharhital Antiseizure management	[86]
10 Progabalin To control nerve pain from disbetas shindles spinal cord injury and	d fibromvalgia [92]
20 Drimidana To control net control net control address, spinar control injuty, and	[86]
20 Frindhe Friedrichte drug, seider management	[00]
21 Actigabilité Antionibertaire unig	[22]
22 Ruthanne Antepiepte utg	[04]
25 Sunname Annseizure unug 24 Tiagabine blocks CAPA untaka into programatic neurone	[77]
24 Hagabile blocks GADA uptake http://doi.org/	[23]
25 Topiranate Antiepheptic dug	[<u>04</u>]
26 Valproic acid Reducing its receptor ACE-2 expression level	[<u>94</u>]
27 Hydroxycnioroquine Potent in vitro innibitor of SAKS-C0/-2	[<u>95</u>]
20 Chlere and a ch	ISION to the cell
28 Chioroquine Memorane Decreases animity of ACE2 receptor for SARS-COV-2 by imp	pairing terminal
	win his size CVD2 A 4
29 Lopinavir/ritonavir	[<u>95</u>]
20 Democritica DNA descritica DNA descritica autori of topinavi	[07]
21 Equipment Physics P	[<u>97</u>]
S1 ravipitavit kiva-dependent kiva-polymerase minotor	[97]
32 Angiotensin/KAS Antiviral	[<u>61</u>]
33 Darunavir/cobisistat10 Antiviral	[98]
34 Interferons Antiviral	[99]
35 Nitazoxanide Potential against SARS-CoV-2	[97]
36 Oseltanivir Neuraminidase	[100]
37 Ribavirin (oral) Antiviral for MERS	[99]
38 Steroids Notfacts	[22]
39 Torilizumah Antivirale	[26]
40 II-6 inhibitors Curbs cutaking relaces syndroma by inhibiting II-6 recent	tors [102]
41 Anti-CM-CSE Reduce severity of cytoking release syndrome by inhibiting in-D fetcept	SE nathway [102]
42 Convalescent nlasma Antibady neutralization of virus	[104]

Table 1. List of the drugs, their target sites, and side effects

9.9.5. Azithromycin

Similar to other drugs recommended during COVID-19 infection, this drug also has several side effects in the patients. This drug is having significant drug interactions but patients with comorbidity are at high risk for cardiac arrhythmias (e.g., QT prolongation) [79].

9.10. Interleukin-1 (IL-1) Antagonists and Interleukin-6 (IL-6) Receptor Antagonists

Interleukin-1 (IL-1) antagonists have a significant effect on the virus multiplication and recovery of patients, but treatment with these drugs is not recommended for patients with thrombocytopenia and neutropenia who are at high risk as it will cause infusion-related reactions (anakinra). Administrations

of Interleukin-6 (IL-6) receptor antagonists in coronavirus-infected patients have a high risk of GI perforation and hepatotoxicity.

9.10.1. Janus Kinase (JAK) Inhibitors

Treatment of patients with Janus Kinase (JAK) inhibitors shows a reduction in viral infections, they also have a high risk of pulmonary embolism (PE), Thrombosis, including deep vein thrombosis (DVT), pulmonary embolism (PE), and GI perforation. This drug is not recommended for patients suffering from neutropenia, lymphopenia, and anemia.

10. Social impacts

Since March 23, 2020, after the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, the social life of

human beings is completely disturbed. Not only normal routine is disturbed, but it also has a major impact on socio-economic life, people lost their job. During the corona pandemic, around 2.6 billion people, or more than that was completely put under strict lockdown and the pandemic has taken the lives of many people. The strict lockdown kept people away from social gatherings, meetings, and several other celebrations resulting in a major loss in businesses at local and global levels. National and International tourism is maiorlv affected as all national and international flights were canceled; only Japan and Indonesia alone estimated a loss of 2.44 billion dollars during this pandemic. Not only the tourism industry but all manufacturing units and factories were closed as transportation are restricted, workers were not allowed to work, and production in every sector has been stopped during this pandemic. To date, COVID-19 is not been completely eradicated socially, and we are facing often lockdowns and we will continue to suffer from economic loss and social complications.

11. Conclusion

After the plague pandemic in 1919, the major outbreak of COVID-19 occurred in 2019 by SARS-CoV-2 belonging to the coronavirus family. SARS-CoV-2 which is highly dangerous and contagious has hit the world with an unsolicited surprise causing COViD-19, a highly transmissible disease that shows variations in the clinical profile. A thorough study and investigation are needed to understand the efficacy and safety profile for the treatment of COViD-19. Several drugs are available for viral infections in the modern sciences, but most of the drugs have major side effects, hence the development of safe vaccines is mandatory during this pandemic. The outbreak of COVID-19 infections is a major challenge for the healthcare industry to reduce the chances of infection and transmission. For the development of longterm drugs for such pathogenic viruses, researchers should focus on the mode of replications and infections associated with COViD-19, not only symptomatic infections but asymptomatic infections should also be given special interest.

Conflict of Interests

All authors declare no conflict of interest.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

No human or animals were used in the present research.

Consent for publications

All authors read and approved the final manuscript for publication.

Availability of data and material and Code availability

Data sharing does not apply to this article as no datasets were generated or analyzed during the current study.

Authors' contributions

All authors had equal role in study design, work, statistical analysis and manuscript writing.

Informed Consent

The authors declare not used any patients in this research.

Funding/Support

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

References

- 1. Fazeli-Nasab B (2021) Biological Evaluation of Coronaviruses and the Study of Molecular Docking, Linalool, and Thymol as orf1ab Protein Inhibitors and the Role of SARS-CoV-2 Virus in Bioterrorism. journal of ilam university of medical sciences 28 (6): 77-96. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.29252/sjimu.28.6.7</u> 7
- 2. Rahbar-Karbasdehi E, Rahbar-Karbasdehi F (2021) Clinical challenges of stress cardiomyopathy during coronavirus 2019 epidemic. Cellular, Molecular and Biomedical Reports 1 (2): 88-90. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.55705/cmbr.2021.</u> 145790.1018
- Mohammadi MR, Sabati H (2022) When Successive Viral Mutations Prevent Definitive Treatment of COVID-19. Cellular, Molecular and Biomedical Reports 2 (2):

98-108.

doi:10.55705/cmbr.2022.339012.1040

- Hamidi S, Sabouri S, Ewing R (2020) Does density aggravate the COVID-19 pandemic? Early findings and lessons for planners. Journal of the American Planning Association 86 (4): 495-509. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.20</u> 20.138861
- Hafeez A, Ahmad S, Siddqui SA, Ahmad M, Mishra S (2020) A review of COVID-19 (Coronavirus Disease-2019) diagnosis, treatments and prevention. Ejmo 4 (2): 116-125. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.14744/ejmo.2020.9</u>
- 0853 6. Zaki AM, Van Boheemen S, Bestebroer TM, Osterhaus AD, Fouchier RA (2012) Isolation of a novel coronavirus from a man with pneumonia in Saudi Arabia. New England Journal of Medicine 367 (19): 1814-1820. doi:https://doi.org/10.1056/NEIMoa1211

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1211</u> 721

 De Groot RJ, Baker SC, Baric RS, Brown CS, Drosten C, Enjuanes L, Fouchier RA, Galiano M, Gorbalenya AE, Memish ZA (2013) Commentary: Middle east respiratory syndrome coronavirus (merscov): announcement of the coronavirus study group. Journal of virology 87 (14): 7790-7792.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.01244-13</u>

- 8. Guan W-j, Ni Z-y, Hu Y, Liang W-h, Ou C-q, He J-x, Liu L, Shan H, Lei C-l, Hui DS (2020) Clinical characteristics of coronavirus disease 2019 in China. N Engl J Med 382 (18): 1708-1720. doi:https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa2002 032
- Alanazi KH, Abedi GR, Midgley CM, Alkhamis A, Alsaqer T, Almoaddi A, Algwizani A, Ghazal SS, Assiri AM, Jokhdar H (2020) Diabetes mellitus, hypertension, and death among 32 patients with MERS-CoV infection, Saudi Arabia. Emerging infectious diseases 26 (1): 166. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.3201%2Feid2601.1</u> <u>90952</u>
- Gutiérrez-González E, Cantero-Escribano JM, Redondo-Bravo L, San Juan-Sanz I, Robustillo-Rodela A, Cendejas-Bueno E, Influenza Working G (2019) Effect of vaccination, comorbidities and age on

mortality and severe disease associated with influenza during the season 2016– 2017 in a Spanish tertiary hospital. Journal of Infection and Public Health 12 (4): 486-491.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2018.11 .011

- 11. Yang W, Cao Q, Qin L, Wang X, Cheng Z, Pan A, Dai J, Sun Q, Zhao F, Qu J, Yan F (2020) Clinical characteristics and imaging manifestations of the 2019 novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19):A multicenter study in Wenzhou city, Zhejiang, China. Journal of Infection 80 (4): 388-393. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2020.02.</u> 016
- 12. Perlman S, Netland J (2009) Coronaviruses post-SARS: update on replication and pathogenesis. Nature reviews microbiology 7 (6): 439-450. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro2147</u>
- Zhong J, Tang J, Ye C, Dong L (2020) The immunology of COVID-19: is immune modulation an option for treatment? The Lancet Rheumatology 2 (7): e428-e436. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S2665-</u> 9913(20)30120-X
- 14. Zhu N, Zhang D, Wang W, Li X, Yang B, Song J, Zhao X, Huang B, Shi W, Lu R (2020) A novel coronavirus from patients with pneumonia in China, 2019. New England journal of medicine 382). doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa2001</u> 017
- 15. Liu C, Zhou Q, Li Y, Garner LV, Watkins SP, Carter LJ, Smoot J, Gregg AC, Daniels AD, Jervey S (2020) Research and development on therapeutic agents and vaccines for COVID-19 and related human coronavirus diseases. ACS Cent Sci 6 (3): 315–331. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1021/acscentsci.0c</u> 00272
- 16. Sexton NR, Smith EC, Blanc H, Vignuzzi M, Denison Peersen OB. MR (2016)Homology-based identification of а mutation in the coronavirus RNAdependent RNA polymerase that confers resistance to multiple mutagens. Journal of 90 virology (16): 7415-7428. doi:https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.00080-16
- 17. Maggo S, Dhull P, Dubey AP, Brashier D, Karan A, Singh NK, Joshi K (2020) Cytokine storm syndrome in COVID-19: diagnosis

and management strategies. Int J Health Sci Res 10 (5): 140-149

- Bárcena M, Oostergetel GT, Bartelink W, Faas FG, Verkleij A, Rottier PJ, Koster AJ, Bosch BJ (2009) Cryo-electron tomography of mouse hepatitis virus: Insights into the structure of the coronavirion. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 106 (2): 582-587. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.080527</u>
- 0106 19. Hoffmann M, Kleine-Weber H, Schroeder S, Krüger N, Herrler T, Erichsen S, Schiergens TS, Herrler G, Wu N-H, Nitsche A, Müller MA, Drosten C, Pöhlmann S (2020) SARS-CoV-2 Cell Entry Depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and Is Blocked by a Clinically Proven Protease Inhibitor. Cell 181 (2): 271-280.e278. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2020.02.</u>

052 DSC No. Control VM Ct. Julie CE, Massar Al

- 20. Báez-Santos YM, St. John SE, Mesecar AD (2015) The SARS-coronavirus papain-like protease: Structure, function and inhibition by designed antiviral compounds. Antiviral Research 115): 21-38. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.antiviral.20</u> <u>14.12.015</u>
- 21. Asghar R, Rasheed M, Ul Hassan J, Rafique M, Khan M, Deng Y (2022) Advancements in Testing Strategies for COVID-19. Biosensors 12 (6): 410. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.3390/bios1206041</u> <u>0</u>
- 22. Romero M, Efferth T, Serrano M Effect of artemisinin/artesunate as inhibitors of hepatitis B virus production in an "*in vitro*" replicative system. Antiviral Res 68): 75-83.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.antiviral.20</u> 20.104742

- 23. Ou X, Liu Y, Lei X, Li P, Mi D, Ren L, Guo L, Hu Guo R. Chen Τ, I (2020)Characterization of spike glycoprotein of SARS-CoV-2 on virus entry and its immune cross-reactivity with SARS-CoV. Nature communications 11 (1): 1-12. doi:https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-15562-9
- 24. Commission NH, Medicine NAoTC (2020) Diagnosis and treatment protocol for novel coronavirus pneumonia (Trial Version 7). Chinese Medical Journal 133 (09): 1087-1095.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1097/CM9.000000 000000819

- 25. Ponti G, Maccaferri M, Ruini C, Tomasi A, Ozben T (2020) Biomarcadores asociados con la progresión de la enfermedad COVID-19. Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci 57 (6): 389-399. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10408363.20</u> 20.1770685
- 26. Fan BE (2020) Hematologic parameters in patients with COVID-19 infection: a reply. American journal of hematology 95 (8): E215-E215.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1002/ajh.25847</u>

- 27. Zhang C, Wu Z, Li J-W, Zhao H, Wang G-Q (2020) Cytokine release syndrome in severe COVID-19: interleukin-6 receptor antagonist tocilizumab may be the key to reduce mortality. International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents 55 (5): 105954. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.</u> 2020.105954
- 28. Lu R, Zhao X, Li J, Niu P, Yang B, Wu H, Wang W, Song H, Huang B, Zhu N, Bi Y, Ma X, Zhan F, Wang L, Hu T, Zhou H, Hu Z, Zhou W, Zhao L, Chen J, Meng Y, Wang J, Lin Y, Yuan J, Xie Z, Ma J, Liu WJ, Wang D, Xu W, Holmes EC, Gao GF, Wu G, Chen W, Shi W, Tan W (2020) Genomic characterisation and epidemiology of 2019 novel coronavirus: implications for virus origins and receptor binding. The Lancet 395 (10224): 565-574. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-</u>

6736(20)30251-8

- 29. Tang B, Bragazzi NL, Li Q, Tang S, Xiao Y, Wu J (2020) An updated estimation of the risk of transmission of the novel coronavirus (2019-nCov). Infectious Disease Modelling 5): 248-255. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idm.2020.02</u>.001
- 30. Cascella M, Rajnik M, Aleem A, Dulebohn SC, Di Napoli R (2022) Features, evaluation, and treatment of coronavirus (COVID-19). Statpearls [internet]): Bookshelf ID: NBK554776. doi:PMID: 32150360
- 31. Ali I, Alharbi OML (2020) COVID-19: Disease, management, treatment, and social impact. Science of The Total Environment 728): 138861. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.20</u> 20.138861

32. Wan Y, Shang J, Graham R, Baric RS, Li F (2020) Receptor recognition by the novel coronavirus from Wuhan: an analysis based on decade-long structural studies of SARS coronavirus. Journal of virology 94 (7): e00127-00120. doi:https://doi.org/10.1128/UVI.00127.20

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.00127-20</u>

- Letko M, Marzi A, Munster V (2020) Functional assessment of cell entry and receptor usage for SARS-CoV-2 and other lineage B betacoronaviruses. Nature microbiology 5 (4): 562-569. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1038/s41564-020-0688-y</u>
- 34. Belouzard S, Chu VC, Whittaker GR (2009) Activation of the SARS coronavirus spike protein via sequential proteolytic cleavage at two distinct sites. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 106 (14): 5871-5876.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.080952 4106

- 35. Greenwood D, Slack RC, Barer MR, Irving WL (2012) Medical Microbiology E-Book: A Guide to Microbial Infections: Pathogenesis, Immunity, Laboratory Diagnosis and Control. With STUDENT CONSULT Online Access. Elsevier Health Sciences,
- 36. Li Y, Chen M, Cao H, Zhu Y, Zheng J, Zhou H Extraordinary GU-rich single-(2013)strand RNA identified from SARS coronavirus contributes an excessive innate immune response. Microbes and Infection 15 (2): 88-95. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micinf.2012. 10.008
- 37. Lau SK, Lau CC, Chan K-H, Li CP, Chen H, Jin D-Y, Chan JF, Woo PC, Yuen K-Y (2013) Delayed induction of proinflammatory cytokines and suppression of innate antiviral response by the novel Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus: implications for pathogenesis and treatment. Journal of General Virology 94 (12): 2679-2690. doi:https://doi.org/10.1099/vir.0.055533-
- 38. Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, Ren L, Zhao J, Hu Y, Zhang L, Fan G, Xu J, Gu X, Cheng Z, Yu T, Xia J, Wei Y, Wu W, Xie X, Yin W, Li H, Liu M, Xiao Y, Gao H, Guo L, Xie J, Wang G, Jiang R, Gao Z, Jin Q, Wang J, Cao B (2020) Clinical features of patients infected with 2019

novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. The Lancet 395 (10223): 497-506. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-</u> 6736(20)30183-5

- 39. Adebayo D, Morabito V, Andreola F, Pieri G, Luong TV, Dhillon A, Mookerjee R, Jalan R (2015) Mechanism of cell death in acute-on-chronic liver failure: a clinico-pathologic-biomarker study. Liver International 35 (12): 2564-2574. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/liv.12850
- 40. Yeo C, Kaushal S, Yeo D (2020) Enteric involvement of coronaviruses: is faecal-oral transmission of SARS-CoV-2 possible? The lancet Gastroenterology & hepatology 5 (4): 335-337. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-1253(20)30048-0</u>
- 41. Schütte A, Ciesek S, Wedemeyer H, Lange CM (2019) Influenza virus infection as precipitating event of acute-on-chronic liver failure. Journal of hepatology 70 (4): 797-799.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhep.2018.1</u> 1.015

- 42. Boettler T, Newsome PN, Mondelli MU, Maticic M, Cordero E, Cornberg M, Berg T (2020) Care of patients with liver disease during the COVID-19 pandemic: EASL-ESCMID position paper. JHEP Reports 2 (3): 100113. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhepr.2020.1</u> 00113
- 43. Organization WH (2020) Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): situation report, 73.):
- 44. Paules CI, Marston HD, Fauci AS (2020) Coronavirus infections—more than just the common cold. Jama 323 (8): 707-708. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.07</u> <u>57</u>
- 45. Ravikumar N, Nallasamy K, Bansal A, Angurana SK, Basavaraja G, Sundaram M, Lodha R, Gupta D, Jayashree M (2020) Novel Coronavirus 2019 (2019-nCoV) infection: Part **I**-Preparedness and management in the pediatric intensive care unit in resource-limited settings. Indian pediatrics 57 (4): 324-334. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s13312-020-1785-v
- 46. Fung S-Y, Yuen K-S, Ye Z-W, Chan C-P, Jin D-Y (2020) A tug-of-war between severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2

and host antiviral defence: lessons from other pathogenic viruses. Emerging microbes & infections 9 (1): 558-570. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1080/22221751.20</u> 20.1736644

47. Liu DX, Liang JQ, Fung TS (2021) Human coronavirus-229E,-OC43,-NL63, and-HKU1 (Coronaviridae). Encyclopedia of virology): 428.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016%2FB978-0-</u> 12-809633-8.21501-X

- 48. Tobaiqy M, Qashqary M, Al-Dahery S, Mujallad A, Hershan A, Kamal M, Helmi N (2020) Therapeutic management of patients with COVID-19: a systematic review. Infect. Prevent. Practice 2 (100061): 10-1016. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.infpip.2020.</u> 100061
- 49. Kumar D, Malviya R, Sharma PK (2020) Corona virus: a review of COVID-19. EJMO 4 (1): 8-25. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.14744/ejmo.2020.5</u> <u>1418</u>
- 50. Gautret P, Lagier J-C, Parola P, Hoang VT, Meddeb L, Mailhe M, Doudier B, Courjon J, Giordanengo V, Vieira VE, Tissot Dupont H, Honoré S, Colson P, Chabrière E, La Scola B, Rolain J-M, Brouqui P, Raoult D (2020) Hydroxychloroguine and azithromycin as a treatment of COVID-19: results of an openlabel non-randomized clinical trial. International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents 56 105949. (1): doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jantimicag. 2020.105949
- 51. Dongala T, Katari NK, Ettaboina SK, Krishnan A, Tambuwala MM, Dua K (2021) In vitro dissolution profile at different biological pH conditions of hydroxychloroquine sulfate tablets is available for the treatment of COVID-19. Frontiers in Molecular Biosciences 7): 613393.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fmolb.2020.6</u> 13393/full

- 52. COVID-19 NTf (2020) Advisory on the use of hydroxy-chloroquine as prophylaxis for SARS-CoV-2 infection. ICMR; New Delhi:,
- 53. Mahalmani VM, Mahendru D, Semwal A, Kaur S, Kaur H, Sarma P, Prakash A, Medhi B (2020) COVID-19 pandemic: A review based on current evidence. Indian journal of pharmacology 52 (2): 117.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.4103%2Fijp.IJP_31</u> 0_20

54. Tillu G, Chaturvedi S, Chopra A, Patwardhan B (2020) Public health approach of ayurveda and yoga for COVID-19 prophylaxis. The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine 26 (5): 360-364.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2020.01 29

55. Shrungeswara AH, Unnikrishnan MK (2019) Evolution of dietary preferences and the innate urge to heal: Drug discovery lessons from Ayurveda. Journal of Ayurveda and Integrative Medicine 10 (3): 222-226. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jajm.2017.0

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaim.2017.0 8.003

- 56. Cinatl J, Morgenstern B, Bauer G, Chandra P, Rabenau H, Doerr HW (2003) Glycyrrhizin, an active component of liquorice roots, and replication of SARSassociated coronavirus. The Lancet 361 (9374): 2045-2046. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(03)13615-X
- 57. Muktibodhananda S (2002) Hatha yoga pradipika: Light on hatha yoga. Bihar School of Yoga, India): 202-205
- Agarwal R, Diwanay S, 58. Patki P, Patwardhan В (1999)Studies on immunomodulatory activity of Withania (Ashwagandha) somnifera extracts in experimental immune inflammation. Journal of Ethnopharmacology 67 (1): 27doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-35. 8741(99)00065-3
- 59. Shi Y, Wang Y, Shao C, Huang J, Gan J, Huang X, Bucci E, Piacentini M, Ippolito G, Melino G (2020) COVID-19 infection: the perspectives on immune responses. vol 27. Nature Publishing Group. doi:https://doi.org/10.1038/s41418-020-0530-3
- 60. Luke TC, Kilbane EM, Jackson JL, Hoffman SL (2006) Meta-analysis: convalescent blood products for Spanish influenza pneumonia: a future H5N1 treatment? Annals of internal medicine 145 (8): 599-609. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-145-8-200610170-00139</u>
- 61. Bloch EM, Shoham S, Casadevall A, Sachais BS, Shaz B, Winters JL, Van Buskirk C, Grossman BJ, Joyner M, Henderson JP

(2020) Deployment of convalescent plasma for the prevention and treatment of COVID-19. The Journal of clinical investigation 130
(6): 2757-2765.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI138745</u>

- 62. Casadevall A, Pirofski L-a (2020) The convalescent sera option for containing COVID-19. The Journal of clinical investigation 130 (4): 1545-1548. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI138003</u>
- 63. Modjarrad K, Roberts CC, Mills KT, Castellano AR, Paolino K, Muthumani K, Reuschel EL, Robb ML, Racine T, Oh M-d, Lamarre C, Zaidi FI, Boyer J, Kudchodkar SB, Jeong M, Darden JM, Park YK, Scott PT, Remigio C, Parikh AP, Wise MC, Patel A, Duperret EK, Kim KY, Choi H, White S, Bagarazzi M, May JM, Kane D, Lee H, Kobinger G, Michael NL, Weiner DB, Thomas SJ, Maslow JN (2019) Safety and immunogenicity of an anti-Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus DNA vaccine: a phase 1, open-label, single-arm, dose-escalation trial. The Lancet Infectious Diseases 19 (9): 1013-1022. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(19)30266-X
- 64. Al-Bari MAA (2017) Targeting endosomal acidification by chloroquine analogs as a promising strategy for the treatment of emerging viral diseases. Pharmacology research & perspectives 5 (1): e00293. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1002/prp2.293</u>
- 65. Keni R, Alexander A, Nayak PG, Mudgal J, Nandakumar K (2020) COVID-19: emergence, spread, possible treatments, and global burden. Frontiers in public health 2020): 216. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2020.0</u> 0216
- 66. Rainsford K, Parke AL, Clifford-Rashotte Kean W (2015)Therapy and M, pharmacological properties of hydroxychloroquine and chloroquine in systemic treatment of lupus erythematosus, rheumatoid arthritis and related diseases. Inflammopharmacology 23 231-269. (5): doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s10787-015-0239-v
- 67. Savarino A, Boelaert JR, Cassone A, Majori G, Cauda R (2003) Effects of chloroquine on viral infections: an old drug against today's diseases. The Lancet Infectious

Diseases 3 (11): 722-727. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-</u> <u>3099(03)00806-5</u>

- 68. Wang M, Cao R, Zhang L, Yang X, Liu J, Xu M, Shi Z, Hu Z, Zhong W, Xiao G (2020) Remdesivir and chloroquine effectively inhibit the recently emerged novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) in vitro. Cell research 30 (3): 269-271. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1038/s41422-020-0282-0</u>
- 69. Guangdi L (2019) De Clercq Erik. Therapeutic options for the 2019): 149-150. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1038/d41573-020-00016-0</u>
- 70. Singh AK, Singh A, Shaikh A, Singh R, Misra A (2020) Chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine in the treatment of COVID-19 with or without diabetes: A systematic search and a narrative review with a special reference to India and other developing countries. Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews 14 (3): 241-246. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsx.2020.03. 011
- 71. Li G, De Clercq E (2020) Therapeutic options for the 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV). Nature reviews Drug discovery 19 (3): 149-150. doi:https://doi.org/10.1038/d41573-020-00016-0
- 72. Mehta P, McAuley DF, Brown M, Sanchez E, Tattersall RS, Manson JJ (2020) COVID-19: consider cytokine storm syndromes and immunosuppression. The lancet 395 (10229): 1033-1034. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30628-0
- 73. Maston LD, Jones DT, Giermakowska W, Resta TC, Ramiro-Diaz J, Howard TA, Jernigan NL, Herbert L, Maurice AA, Gonzalez Bosc LV (2018) Interleukin-6 trans-signaling contributes to chronic hypoxia-induced pulmonary hypertension. Pulmonary Circulation 8 (3): 2045894018780734. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1177/2045894018</u> 780734
- 74. Teachey DT, Rheingold SR, Maude SL, Zugmaier G, Barrett DM, Seif AE, Nichols KE, Suppa EK, Kalos M, Berg RA (2013) Cytokine release syndrome after blinatumomab treatment related to

abnormal macrophage activation and ameliorated with cytokine-directed therapy. Blood, The Journal of the American Society of Hematology 121 (26): 5154-5157. doi:https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2013-

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2013-</u> 02-485623

- 75. Laxminarayan R, Wahl B, Dudala SR, Gopal K, Mohan B C, Neelima S, Jawahar Reddy K, Radhakrishnan J, Lewnard JA (2020) Epidemiology and transmission dynamics of COVID-19 in two Indian states. Science 370 (6517): 691-697. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abd7</u> <u>672</u>
- 76. Xu L, Liu J, Lu M, Yang D, Zheng X (2020) Liver injury during highly pathogenic human coronavirus infections. Liver international 40 (5): 998-1004. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1111/liv.14435</u>
- 77. Chen B, Kessi M, Chen S, Xiong J, Wu L, Deng X, Yang L, He F, Yin F, Peng J (2020) The recommendations for the management of chinese children with epilepsy during the COVID-19 outbreak. Frontiers in pediatrics 8): 495. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fped.2020.00</u> <u>495/full</u>
- 78. Drug UF (2020) Administration. Fact sheet for health care providers: emergency use authorization (EUA) of remdesivir (GS-5734[™]).
- 79. Roden DM, Harrington RA, Poppas A, Russo AM (2020) Considerations for drug interactions on QTc in exploratory COVID-19 treatment. Circulation 141 (24): e906e907.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIO NAHA.120.047521

- 80. Saghir SA, AlGabri NA, Alagawany MM, Attia YA, Alyileili SR, Elnesr SS, Shafi ME, Al-Shargi OY, Al-Balagi N, Alwajeeh AS (2021) Chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine for the prevention and treatment of COVID-19: A fiction, hope or hype? An updated review. Therapeutics and clinical risk management 17): 371. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.2147%2FTCRM.S30</u> 1817
- 81. Kotloski RJ, Dowding J, Hermann BP, Sutula TP (2019) Chapter 25 - Epilepsy and aging. In: Dekosky ST, Asthana S (eds) Handbook of Clinical Neurology, vol 167. Elsevier, pp 455-475.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-</u> 804766-8.00025-X

82. Paudel (2020)V, Chudal D Carbamazepine-induced toxic epidermal necrolvsis managed bv mobile teledermatology in COVID-19 pandemic in Case rural Nepal. Reports in Dermatological Medicine 2020): Article ID: 8845759.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/88457 59

- 83. Esposito G, Pesce M, Seguella L, Sanseverino W, Lu J, Corpetti C, Sarnelli G (2020) The potential of cannabidiol in the COVID-19 pandemic. British journal of pharmacology 177 (21): 4967-4970. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/bph.15157
- 84. Asadi-Pooya AA, Attar A, Moghadami M, Karimzadeh I (2020) Management of COVID-19 in people with epilepsy: drug considerations. Neurological Sciences 41 (8): 2005-2011. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s10072-020-04549-5
- 85. Howard TL, Korlipara H, Sharoha N (2020) Prompt Use of Benzodiazepines for Anxiety Management in COVID-19-Positive Patients With Tracheostomy. The Primary Care Companion for CNS Disorders 22 (6): 26701.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.4088/PCC.2010278</u> 5

- 86. Fırat O, Yalçın N, Demirkan K (2020) COVID-19 & antiepileptic drugs: Should we pay attention? Seizure-European Journal of Epilepsy 80): 240-241. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seizure.202</u>0.07.005
- 87. Aksan F, Nelson EA, Swedish KA (2020) A COVID-19 patient with intense burning pain. Journal of NeuroVirology 26 (5): 800-801. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s13365-020-00887-4</u>
- 88. Kuroda N (2020) Epilepsy and COVID-19: associations and important considerations. Epilepsy & Behavior 108): 107-122. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yebeh.2020.</u> 107122
- 89. Ostuzzi G, Papola D, Gastaldon C, Schoretsanitis G, Bertolini F, Amaddeo F, Cuomo A, Emsley R, Fagiolini A, Imperadore G (2020) Safety of psychotropic medications in people with COVID-19: evidence review and practical

recommendations. BMC medicine 18 (1): 1-14. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-020-01685-9</u>

- 90. Altable M (2020) Perampanel, a novel neuroprotector and antiviral agent in COVID-19? Qeios 2020): ID: 0UGEE9. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.32388/0UGEE9</u>
- 91. Kow CS, Hasan SS (2021) Potential interactions between COVID-19 vaccines and antiepileptic drugs. Seizure-European Journal of Epilepsy 86): 80-81. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seizure.202 1.01.021</u>
- 92. El-Tallawy SN, Nalamasu R, Pergolizzi JV, Gharibo C (2020) Pain management during the COVID-19 pandemic. Pain and Therapy 9 (2): 453-466. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s40122-020-</u> 00190-4
- 93. Adkins JC, Noble S (1998) Tiagabine. Drugs 55 (3): 437-460. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.2165/00003495-199855030-00013</u>
- 94. Pitt B, Sutton NR, Wang Z, Goonewardena SN, Holinstat M (2021) Potential repurposing of the HDAC inhibitor valproic acid for patients with COVID-19. European Journal of Pharmacology 898): 173988. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejphar.2021. 173988</u>
- 95. Yao TT, Qian JD, Zhu WY, Wang Y, Wang GQ (2020) A systematic review of lopinavir therapy for SARS coronavirus and MERS coronavirus—A possible reference for coronavirus disease-19 treatment option. Journal of medical virology 92 (6): 556-563.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.25729

96. Khuroo MS (2020) Chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine in coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). Facts, fiction and the hype: a critical appraisal. International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents 56 (3): 106101.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag. 2020.106101

97. Wang D, Hu B, Hu C, Zhu F, Liu X, Zhang J, Wang B, Xiang H, Cheng Z, Xiong Y (2020) Clinical characteristics of 138 hospitalized patients with 2019 novel coronavirusinfected pneumonia in Wuhan, China. Jama 323 (11): 1061-1069. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.15</u> 85

- 98. Costanzo M, De Giglio MA, Roviello GN (2020) SARS-CoV-2: recent reports on antiviral therapies based on lopinavir/ritonavir, darunavir/umifenovir, hydroxychloroquine, remdesivir, favipiravir and other drugs for the treatment of the new coronavirus. Current medicinal chemistry 27 (27): 4536-4541. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.2174/0929867327</u> <u>666200416131117</u>
- 99. Arabi YM, Shalhoub S, Mandourah Y, Al-Hameed F, Al-Omari A, Al Qasim E, Jose J, Alraddadi B, Almotairi A, Al Khatib K (2020) Ribavirin and interferon therapy for critically ill patients with middle east respiratory syndrome: a multicenter observational study. Clinical infectious diseases 70 (9): 1837-1844. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciz544</u>
- 100. Tan Q, Duan L, Ma Y, Wu F, Huang Q, Mao K, Xiao W, Xia H, Zhang S, Zhou E, Ma P, Song S, Li Y, Zhao Z, Sun Y, Li Z, Geng W, Yin Z, Jin Y (2020) Is oseltamivir suitable for fighting against COVID-19: *In silico* assessment, in vitro and retrospective study. Bioorganic Chemistry 104): 104257. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioorg.2020. 104257</u>
- 101. Veronese N, Demurtas J, Yang L, Tonelli R, Barbagallo M, Lopalco P, Lagolio E, Celotto S, Pizzol D, Zou L (2020) Use of corticosteroids in coronavirus disease 2019 pneumonia: a systematic review of the literature. Frontiers in medicine 7): 170.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2020.00</u> <u>170/full</u>

102. Xu X, Han M, Li T, Sun W, Wang D, Fu B, Zhou Y, Zheng X, Yang Y, Li X (2020) Effective treatment of severe COVID-19 patients with tocilizumab. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 117 (20): 10970-10975.

doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.200561</u> 5117

- 103. Lin F-C, Chang G-D, Chern M-S, Chen Y-C, Chang S-C (2006) Clinical significance of anti-GM-CSF antibodies in idiopathic pulmonary alveolar proteinosis. Thorax 61 (6): 528-534. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1136/thx.2005.054</u> 171.
- 104. Shen C, Wang Z, Zhao F, Yang Y, Li J, Yuan J, Wang F, Li D, Yang M, Xing L (2020)

Treatment of 5 critically ill patients with COVID-19 with convalescent plasma. Jama 323 (16): 1582-1589. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.47</u> 83

105. Wang X, Guan Y (2021) COVID-19 drug repurposing: a review of computational

screening methods, clinical trials, and protein interaction assays. Medicinal research reviews (1): 5-28. 41 doi:https://doi.org/10.1002/med.21728

Copyright © 2023 by the author(s). This is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

How to Cite This Article:

Malik N, Dhuldhaj UP (2023) Available drug therapies on COVID-19 and its side effects: An overview. doi:10.55705/cmbr.2022.364739.1071

Download citation:

RIS; EndNote; Mendelev; BibTeX; APA; MLA; HARVARD; VANCOUVER

⁽cc)