

CHAPTER 1

COVID-19: PATHOGENESIS, EPIDEMIOLOGY, CLINICAL FINDINGS & TREATMENT

Selcuk Nazik

*(Assoc. Prof. Dr.); Infectious Diseases and
Clinical Microbiology Department*

Faculty of Medicine, KSU, Kahramanmaras/Turkey,

e-mail: nazikselcuk83@gmail.com

ORCID ID: 0000-0003-0587-0104

PATHOGENESIS

In order to better understand the pathogenesis of COVID-19 disease, it is necessary to know the structure of the SARS-CoV-2 virus. As a result of SARS-CoV-2 replication, non-structural proteins (NSP), structural proteins and other accessory proteins are encoded. The most important structural proteins are spike (S), envelope (E), membrane (M) and nucleocapsid (N) proteins.

Each monomer of the S protein, which has a trimeric structure, is approximately 180 kDa and consists of two subunits. As a result of folding the S1 subunit onto itself, independent N-terminal domains (NTD) and C-terminal domains are formed. The N-terminal domain (NTD) and C-terminal domains are involved in the binding of the virus to the receptor on the host cell surface. The S2 subunit mediates the fusion and entry of the virus into the cell. Previously, it has been shown that inhibitory peptides prepared specifically for the S2 subunit domains for SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV infections inhibit the entry of viruses into lung cells. Although these inhibitory peptides are not at

the same level, it has been reported that they may be effective in SARS-CoV-2 infections. The S protein binds to the angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE2) receptor of the host cell, and this complex is subjected to a proteolytic process by the host type II transmembrane serine protease (TMPRSS-2), and the virus enters the cell. ACE2, which is especially expressed in type 2 alveolar epithelial cells, is accepted as the cellular entry receptor of SARS-CoV-2 to humans. Electron microscopy studies have shown that SARS-CoV-2 binds to ACE2 receptors with higher affinity than SARS-CoV. It has been reported that SARS-CoV-2 can enter cells independently of ACE2 in case of high viral load. The D614G mutation detected in the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein occurs in cases identified after April and May 2020 in the COVID-19 outbreak. In this mutation detected at residue 614 of the S protein, glycine replacement occurs instead of aspartic acid. In the SARS-CoV-2 genome, it has been detected in spike mutations accompanied by D614G mutation. It has been found that especially the D614G mutation is critical for infectivity and the presence of this mutation correlates with the high viral load in the nasopharynx of COVID-19 patients. After the SARS-CoV-2 host membrane fusion is achieved, the entry of the virus into the cell is completed and viral genomic RNA is released in the cytoplasm and converted into viral polymerase proteins. Uncoated RNA synthesizes 2 polyproteins (viral replicase polyproteins), pp1a and pp1ab, which encode NSP and form a replication transcription complex (RTC) in the double-membrane vesicle. RTC continuously duplicates and synthesizes a series of subgenomic RNAs that encode helper and structural proteins. Negative (-) polarity genomic RNA is synthesized and used as a template to create subgenomic or genomic positive (+) polarity RNA. While viral RNA and N structural protein are replicated, transcribed or synthesized in the cytoplasm, the S, M, and E protein are transcribed in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and transferred to the Golgi. Viral RNA - N complex, S, M and E proteins are assembled in the ER-Golgi spacer (ERGIC) to form a mature virion. This assembled structure is then released from the host cells to the extracellular space by exocytosis. Envelope membrane (E) proteins are relatively small viral structural proteins that assist in the assembly and release of virions. M proteins are 222 amino acid long structural proteins that function together with the E, N and S proteins and play an important role in RNA packaging. Nucleocapsid proteins (N), on the other hand, play an important role in the packaging of viral RNA into the ribonucleocapsid and assist in increasing viral RNA transcription and replication. It contributes to the establishment of order by interacting with the M protein during viral assembly. In

addition to structural proteins, the SARS-CoV-2 genome encodes a large number of NSPs that are involved in the replication and assembly stages of the virus. These proteins contribute to viral pathogenesis by preventing or modifying early transcription regulation, helicase activity, immunomodulation, gene transactivation, and antiviral response.

COVID-19 is a viral respiratory infection. SARS-CoV-2 that causes COVID-19 is a cytopathic virus; It particularly affects the bronchial epithelial cells and causes destruction of the infected cells within 3-5 days through apoptosis. Debris formed by the destruction of the bronchial epithelium and the viral particles released cannot be thrown out because the muco-ciliary activity is impaired and they begin to fill the alveoli. Eventually type II pneumocyte hyperplasia and extensive alveolar damage occurs; If the organized debris cannot be cleaned, fibrosis starts in the lung parenchyma after the second week. On the other hand, as muco-ciliary activity is impaired, upper respiratory tract bacteria also descend into the alveoli with micro-aspirations, causing bronchopneumonia. In post-mortem examinations, bronchopneumonia foci caused by bacteria and sometimes fungi are observed in most of the patients. COVID-19 pathogenesis consists of different stages. It can be divided into three stages from the onset of symptoms. The hallmark of the first seven days is viral activity. Although RT-PCR positivity continues, infective virus cannot be detected after the eighth day of the disease. The peak of the activity of dendritic cells, CD4 and CD8 T lymphocytes as well as the destruction of the cells infected by the virus within 3-5 days plays a role in the end of the viral activity period. T lymphocytes are responsible for the clearance of the virus, and their activities peak at the end of the first week. In post-mortem examinations, two more stages are defined after the end of viral activity. These stages are intertwined and differ from patient to patient. After the end of viral activity, the debris becomes organized and cleared in patients with a severe clinical course, and after about the second week, fibrosis and necrotizing pneumonia draw attention.

As a result; Antiviral therapy should be administered within the first week of viral activity. No significant benefit should be expected from antiviral treatment after viral activity ends. The extent of the damage and the regeneration ability of the host determine the fate of COVID-19. Regeneration ability decreases with age. Therefore, advanced age is among the important parameters that have an effect on the severity of the disease.

EPIDEMIOLOGY

In December 2019, the Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention and Wuhan city health authorities reported an outbreak of pneumonia of unknown cause in Wuhan City. On January 7, 2020, the Chinese Center for Disease and Control detected a new coronavirus from patients' lower respiratory tract samples, and announced on January 11 that it showed a genomic sequence. This novel coronavirus was later named severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2). The World Health Organization (WHO) named this infection caused by SARS-CoV-2 identified in 2019 as COVID-19.

It has been shown that this disease is transmitted from person to person, especially adults are susceptible to COVID-19 and the severity of the disease is related to age. At the same time, hypertension, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, etc. The disease has been shown to be more severe in people with comorbidities. In a study by Chen et al, examining 99 patients hospitalized in the same hospital with the diagnosis of COVID-19, they showed that older men were more likely to become infected and rapidly entered acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), which created a life-threatening situation. In a study where comorbidities were analyzed, it was shown that approximately 17% of the patients had hypertension, 8% had diabetes, 5% had cardiovascular diseases and 2% had respiratory system diseases.

Many respiratory viruses show seasonal characteristics, the best known of these is influenza. While some scientists think that COVID-19 may have a seasonal characteristic and will decrease with the warming of the weather, some scientists think that this virus is not similar to the influenza virus and will not be affected by the season, presenting the disease as a supporting evidence for the occurrence of the disease in hot regions. There is not enough evidence to say that this virus may show a seasonal characteristic.

CLINICAL FINDINGS & TREATMENT

As a result of the studies carried out during the pandemic process, new information about the natural course of COVID-19 are added. Common symptoms of infection are respiratory symptoms, fever, cough, and dyspnoea. Symptoms such as headache, sore throat, runny nose, muscle and joint pain, extreme weakness, new sense of smell and taste, diarrhea can also be seen. Although the disease can be asymptomatic, in severe cases, pneumonia, severe acute

respiratory tract infection, kidney failure and even death may develop. While the fatality rate was 11% in the SARS epidemic and 35-50% in MERS-CoV, the fatality rate was reported as 3.8% according to the COVID-19 report of the People's Republic of China. This speed is 2.6% in our country as of May 2020.

Asymptomatic infection: In the literature, quantitative RT-PCR (nasopharyngeal swab samples) test positivity has been reported in asymptomatic individuals in community screenings. In most of the asymptomatic cases, some symptoms have developed in the later stage of the infection, but there are also cases who are asymptomatic during the clinical follow-up period.

First Application

Characterized primarily by fever, cough, shortness of breath, and bilateral infiltrates on lung imaging.

Pneumonia is the most common serious symptom of COVID-19. There are no specific clinical features that can reliably distinguish COVID-19 from other respiratory viral infections. In a study examining 138 patients hospitalized with COVID-19 pneumonia in Wuhan, the most common clinical features at the onset of the disease were:

- Fever 99%
- Fatigue 70%
- Dry cough 59%
- Anorexia 40%
- Myalgia 35%
- Dyspnea 31%
- Sputum production has been reported to be 27%.

In the study conducted by Li et al on 425 cases, the contagiousness coefficient (R_0) was estimated to be 2.2, which means that on average, each patient spread infection to 2.2 people. Generally, an outbreak will increase as long as R_0 is greater than 1, and control measures aim to make R_0 less than 1.

Other cohort studies from Wuhan with patients with confirmed COVID-19 have reported a similar set of clinical findings. However, fever may not be a universal finding. In one study, fever was reported in almost all patients, but very low-grade fever was $<38^\circ\text{C}$ in about 20%. Another study on 1099 patients from Wuhan and other regions in China found that fever (axillary temperature measured above 37.5°C) was present in only 44 percent of patients at admission, but ultimately at 89 percent during hospitalization. In the first cohort studies from China, smell and taste disturbances (anosmia and dys-

geusia) were also reported as common symptoms in patients with COVID-19. In a survey of 59 patients with COVID-19 in Italy, 34 percent reported loss of either sense of smell or taste, and 19 percent stated that they lost both. Whether this is a hallmark of COVID-19 remains unclear.

Other, less common symptoms include headache, sore throat, and rhinorrhea. In addition to respiratory symptoms, gastrointestinal symptoms (eg. nausea and diarrhea) have also been reported; In some patients, these may also be the application complaint. In a systematic meta-analysis of studies reporting on gastrointestinal symptoms in patients with confirmed COVID-19, the prevalence of gastrointestinal symptoms was 18 percent overall; Diarrhea, nausea / vomiting or abdominal pain were reported in 13, 10, and 9%, respectively.

Dermatological findings in patients with COVID-19 are not well defined. There are rare reports of urticarial rashes and transient livedo reticularis.

TREATMENT

The structure and usage of antiviral drugs used in treatment will be explained under separate headings.

Favipiravir

Favipiravir (6-fluoro-3-hydroxy-2-pyrazinecarboxamide) is licensed in Japan for the treatment of complicated influenza infections because it inhibits the reproduction of influenza virus ($IC_{50} = 0.022 \mu\text{g} / \text{mL}$). Favipiravir is 54% bound to serum proteins, metabolized in the liver and excreted in the urine. In in vitro experiments, Ebola is recommended to be used at a dose 50% higher than the recommended dose in phase III studies for influenza treatment in modeling based on the effect of Ebola virus reproduction at a density of $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. In a study conducted with the recommended dose ($2 \times 1600\text{mg}$ on the first day, then $2 \times 600\text{mg}$) in a severe COVID-19 patient, the favipiravir concentration was found to be below the measurement limit of $1 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, which is well below the lowest EC_{50} ($9.7 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). Favipiravir recommended in phase III studies A = Early phase viral activity 1-7 days B = Organization of the debris 8-12 days C = Complications organizing pneumonia; necrotizing pneumonia 12 - 17 days A B C 5 dose is for viruses with an IC_{50} value of $\approx 3.2 \mu\text{M}$. However, IC_{50} values of favipiravir for SARS-CoV-2 were almost always above the working limits ($> 100 \mu\text{M}$), so no inhibition could be shown.

Ivermectin

Ivermectin is an anti-parasitic drug widely used in veterinary medicine. The US Food and Drug Administration has confirmed that ivermectin suppresses the replication of SARS-CoV-2 in vitro. However, even with a dose ten times the recommended doses, the desired lung tissue density cannot be achieved. Therefore, it is recommended that inhaler forms be developed and evaluated in clinical studies.

Lopinavir

Lopinavir is a viral protease enzyme inhibitor. In in vitro studies, the lopinavir / ritonavir combination was found to be effective for SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV at accessible doses (SARSCoV EC₅₀, 17.1 μM). Consistent with the in vitro findings, lopinavir / ritonavir has been found to be effective in the treatment of SARS and MERS in clinical studies. In vitro studies show that lopinavir / ritonavir is highly effective on SARS-CoV-2. Pharmacokinetic studies show that a blood density of 10 μg / ml can be achieved with 2 x 400/50 mg lopinavir / ritonavir administration, which includes in vitro EC₅₀ values. A mathematical model study evaluating the very high protein binding capacity of lopinavir / ritonavir has been claimed that the desired density may not be achieved in the lung tissue. In this respect, a loading dose on the first day of clinical use should be considered.

Remdesivir

Remdesivir is an effective nucleoside analogue to Filoviruses (Ebola, Marburg et al.). After parenteral administration, it passes from the blood to the tissues in a very short time and the active compound remains in the cells for a longer time. In vitro studies have shown that it inhibits the proliferation of RSV, MERS-CoV and SARS-Cov-2. When 10 mg / kg is administered parenterally, it reaches a density of 10 μM. There is evidence that the active metabolite accumulated in the cells will reach the effective concentration as a result of administration of remdesivirine as a single daily dose for two hours.

Hydroxychloroquine

Hydroxychloroquine (HCQ) is used in the treatment of malaria. Hydroxychloroquine binds very poorly to proteins, rapidly spreads to tissues, and its half-life is reported to be 32 ± 9 days. Although its anti-viral mechanism

of action is not fully known, it is mainly pointed out that it prevents infection when cells are used before they become infected. It has been reported that the effective dose is reached when 2 x 400 mg is used for five days. The most important side effect is QT prolongation. It has been calculated that the daily dose that causes QT prolongation is 2x600 mg and above. QT prolongation occurred in an average of 3.6 ± 1.6 days in patients who received 400 mg on the first day and 200 mg thereafter.

REFERENCES

- Tang D, Comish P, Kang R. The hallmarks of COVID-19 disease. *PLoS Pathog* 2020;16(5):e1008536.
- Ou X, Liu Y, Lei X, et al. Characterization of spike glycoprotein of SARS-CoV-2 on virus entry and its immune cross-reactivity with SARS-CoV. *Nat Commun* 2020;11(1):1620.
- Cantuti-Castelvetri L, Ojha R, Pedro LD, et al. Neuropilin-1 facilitates SARS-CoV-2 cell entry and infectivity. *Science* 2020;370(6518):856-60.
- Plante JA, Liu Y, Liu J. et al. Spike mutation D614G alters SARS-CoV-2 fitness. *Nature* 2020. doi: 10.1038/s41586-020-2895-3. Online ahead of print.
- Zhang L, Jackson CB, Mou H, et al. The D614G mutation in the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein reduces S1 shedding and increases infectivity. *bioRxiv* 2020;2020.06.12.148726. doi: 10.1101/2020.06.12.148726.
- Jiang S, Hillyer C, Du L. Neutralizing antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 and other human coronaviruses. *Trends Immunol* 2020;41(5):355-9.
- Naqvi AAT, Fatima K, Mohammad T, et al. Insights into SARS-CoV-2 genome, structure, evolution, pathogenesis and therapies: Structural genomics approach. *Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Basis Dis* 2020;1866(10):165878.
- Hedrick TL, Murray BP, Hagan RS, Mock JR. COVID-19: Clean up on IL-6. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* 2020;63(4):541-543.
- Zhu N, Wang W, Liu Z, et al. Morphogenesis and cytopathic effect of SARS-CoV-2 infection in human airway epithelial cells. *Nat Commun* 2020;11(1):1-8.
- Polak SB, Van Gool IC, Cohen D, von der Thüsen JH, van Paassen J. A systematic review of pathological findings in COVID-19: a pathophysiological timeline and possible mechanisms of disease progression. *Mod Pathol* 2020;33(11):2128-2138.
- Grosse C, Grosse A, Salzer HJF, Dünser MW, Motz R, Langer R. Analysis of cardiovascular findings in COVID-19 fatalities: High incidence of pulmonary artery thrombi and acute suppurative bronchopneumonia. *Cardiovasc Pathol* 2020;49.

- Mirzaei R, Goodarzi P, Asadi M, et al. Bacterial co-infections with SARS-CoV-2. *IUBMLife* 2020;72(10):2097-2111.
- Roden AC, Bois MC, Johnson TF, et al. The Spectrum of Histopathologic Findings in Lungs of Patients With Fatal Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) Infection. *ArchPathol Lab Med* 2021;145(1):11-21.
- Wölfel R, Corman VM, Guggemos W, et al. Virological assessment of hospitalized patients with COVID-2019. *Nature* 2020;581(7809):465-469.
- Woodland DL. Cell-mediated immunity to respiratory virus infections. *Curr Opin Immunol* 2003;15(4):430-435.
- Chen J, Lau YF, Lamirande EW, et al. Cellular Immune Responses to Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus (SARS-CoV) Infection in Senescent BALB/c Mice: CD4+ T Cells Are Important in Control of SARS-CoV Infection. *J Virol* 2010;84(3):1289-1301.
- Sauter JL, Baine MK, Butnor KJ, et al. Insights into pathogenesis of fatal COVID-19 pneumonia from histopathology with immunohistochemical and viral RNA studies. *Histopathology* 2020;77(6):915-925.
- Park JJH, Decloedt EH, Rayner CR, Cotton M, Mills EJ. Clinical trials of disease stages in COVID 19: complicated and often misinterpreted. *Lancet Glob Heal* 2020;8(10):e1249-e1250.
- Brooke RT, Fahy GM. Reversing immunosenescence for prevention of COVID-19. *Ageing (Albany NY)* 2020;12(12):11161-11162.
- Singhal T. A Review of Coronavirus Disease-2019 (COVID19). *The Indian Journal of Pediatrics* 2020;87(4):281-286.
- Li Q, Guan X, Wu P, et al. Early Transmission Dynamics in Wuhan, China, of Novel Coronavirus-Infected Pneumonia. *N Engl J Med* 2020;382(13):1199-1207.
- Chen L, Liu HG, Liu W, et al. Analysis of clinical features of 29 patients with 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia. *Zhonghua Jie He He Hu Xi Za Zhi. Zhonghua Jie He He Hu Xi Za Zhi* 2020;43(0):E005.
- Yang J, Zheng Y, Gou X, et al. Prevalence of comorbidities in the novel Wuhan coronavirus (COVID19) infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Infect Dis. Int J Infect Dis* 2020;94:91-95.
- Huang X, Wei F, Hu L, et al. Epidemiology and Clinical Characteristics of COVID-19. *Arch Iran Med* 2020;23(4):268-271.
- Li Q, Guan X, Wu P, et al. Early Transmission Dynamics in Wuhan, China, of Novel Coronavirus-Infected Pneumonia. *N Engl J Med* 2020;382(13):1199-1207.
- <https://covid19.saglik.gov.tr/Eklenti/39551/0/covid-19rehberigenelbilgilerepidemiyojojivetanipdf.pdf>Last reached date 19.03.2021.
- Mentré F, Taburet AM, Guedj J, et al. Dose regimen of favipiravir for Ebola virus disease. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2015;15(2):150-151.

- Sleeman K, Mishin VP, Deyde VM, Furuta Y, Klimov AI, Gubareva L V. In vitro antiviral activity of favipiravir (T-705) against drug-resistant influenza and 2009 A(H1N1) viruses. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2010;54(6):2517-2524.
- Lou Y, Liu L, Yao H, et al. Clinical Outcomes and Plasma Concentrations of Baloxavir Marboxil and Favipiravir in COVID-19 Patients: An Exploratory Randomized, Controlled Trial. *Eur J Pharm Sci* 2021;157:105631.
- Caly L, Druce JD, Catton MG, Jans DA, Wagstaff KM. The FDA-approved drug ivermectin inhibits the replication of SARS-CoV-2 in vitro. *Antiviral Res* 2020;178(March):3-6.
- Schmith VD, Zhou J, Lohmer LRL. The Approved Dose of Ivermectin Alone is not the Ideal Dose for the Treatment of COVID-19. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2020;108(4):762-765.
- De Wilde AH, Jochmans D, Posthuma CC, et al. Screening of an FDA-approved compound library identifies four small-molecule inhibitors of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus replication in cell culture. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2014;58(8):4875-4884.
- Yao T-T, Qian J-D, Zhu W-Y, Wang Y, Wang G-Q. A Systematic Review of Lopinavir Therapy for SARS Coronavirus and MERS Coronavirus-A Possible Reference for Coronavirus Disease-19 Treatment Option. *J Med Virol* 2020;92(6):556-563.
- Dickinson L, Boffito M, Back D, et al. Sequential population pharmacokinetic modeling of lopinavir and ritonavir in healthy volunteers and assessment of different dosing strategies. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2011;55(6):2775-2782.
- Thakur A, Tan SPF, Chan JCY. Physiologically-Based Pharmacokinetic Modeling to Predict the Clinical Efficacy of the Coadministration of Lopinavir and Ritonavir against SARS-CoV-2. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2020;108(6):1176-1184.
- Warren TK, Jordan R, Lo MK, et al. Therapeutic efficacy of the small molecule GS-5734 against Ebola virus in rhesus monkeys. *Nature* 2016;531(7594):381-385.
- Humeniuk R, Mathias A, Cao H, et al. Safety, Tolerability, and Pharmacokinetics of Remdesivir, An Antiviral for Treatment of COVID-19, in Healthy Subjects. *Clin Transl Sci* 2020 Sep;13(5):896-906.
- Morrisette T, Lodise TP, Scheetz MH, Goswami S, Pogue JM, Rybak MJ. The Pharmacokinetic and Pharmacodynamic Properties of Hydroxychloroquine and Dose Selection for COVID-19: Putting the Cart Before the Horse. *Infect Dis Ther* 2020;9(3):561-572.

- Wang M, Cao R, Zhang L, et al. Remdesivir and chloroquine effectively inhibit the recently emerged novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) in vitro. *Cell Res* 2020;30(3):269-271.
- Garcia-Cremades M, Solans BP, Hughes E, et al. Optimizing Hydroxychloroquine Dosing for Patients With COVID-19: An Integrative Modeling Approach for Effective Drug Repurposing. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2020;108(2):253-263.
- Chorin E, Dai M, Shulman E, et al. The QT interval in patients with COVID-19 treated with hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin. *Nat Med* 2020;26(6):809.