

Best insights on target molecules for drug design of nCOVID-19 based on pharmacological and peptide-based therapeutics

Seyed Hossein Shahcheraghi ^{1,5}, Venant Tchokonte-Nana ^{2,3}, Jamshid Ayatollahi ^{1,7}, Marzieh Lotfi ^{4,5,*}, Mahdie Hamidfar ¹, Benjamin Longo-Mbenza ⁶

¹Infectious Diseases Research Center, Shahid Sadoughi Hospital, Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences, Yazd, Iran; ²Comparative Anatomy, Experimental Anatomopathology and Surgery, Faculty of Health Sciences, University des Montagnes, Cameroon; ³Doctoral School, LOMO University of Research, Kinshasa, DR Congo; ⁴Abortion Research Center, Reproductive Sciences Institute, Shahid Sadoughi University of medical sciences, Yazd, Iran; ⁵Department of Medical Genetics, School of Medicine, Shahid Sadoughi University of medical sciences, Yazd, Iran; ⁶LOMO University of Research, Kinshasa, DR Congo; ⁷Hematology and Oncology Research Center, Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences, Yazd, Iran

***Corresponding author:** Marzieh Lotfi, Department of Medical Genetics, School of Medicine, Shahid Sadoughi University of medical sciences, Yazd, Iran. E-mail: marzeih.lotfi@gmail.com

DOI: 10.22034/HBB.2022.12

Received: January 23, 2022; **Accepted:** May 9, 2022

ABSTRACT

Coronavirus is a non-segmented virus related to *Coronaviridae* family with an envelope and RNA that has a huge positive-sense single-stranded genome. The causative agent of COVID-19, severe acute respiratory coronavirus syndrome-2 (SARS-CoV-2) first appeared in China in 2019. The role of these viruses in pneumonia has greatly improved through molecular techniques. The virus structural proteins, viral replication factors, viral endocytosis process and enzymes are the key targets for designing drugs against COVID-19. This review considered the main molecular and cellular targets as well as peptide-based and pharmaceutical treatments for COVID-19 aiming for a better design of drugs against viruses with the best insights on key factors in this infection.

Keywords: COVID-19, molecular target, cellular target, peptide

INTRODUCTION

Coronaviruses (COVs) are a group of viruses with an envelope and a huge

positive-sense single-stranded genome of RNA [1-3]. The main factors of survival of viruses are depend on various agents such as surface form, suspension medium, viral

Lotfi et al.

load, temperature, moisture [4-6]. The SARS CoV-2 is a causative agent of COVID disease 2019 (COVID-19) which, on 11 March 2020 the World Health Organization (WHO) confirmed it as a global pandemic [7,8]. While being similar to SARS-CoV, transmissions and diagnosis of COVID-19 are very different [9,10]. The source of the virus is unidentified, but the Huainan seafood wholesale market where individuals could buy the bats was recently linked to diagnosed cases [7,11].

Negligible respiratory infections in humans are often caused by COVs, the common cold infection being one of them. However, some latest CoVs, including Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS-CoV) and SARS-CoV, can make very serious infections [12,13].

The COVID-19 genome encodes a non-structural and great polyprotein with 30 kb size that is cut to produce 15/16 proteins, 5 attachable proteins and 4 structural proteins. The Envelope (E), the Membrane (M), the proteins of the Spike (S) surface and the Nucleocapsid (N) are necessary for gathering viruses and infection [14,15]. The S glycoprotein is a main factor because of its attachment to host cells and the host cell proteases can cleave it into a membrane-bound C-terminal S2 and an N-terminal S1 subunit [16,17]. Totally, the

Drug design of nCOVID-19

virus structural proteins, viral replication factors, viral endocytosis process and enzymes are the key targets for designing drug against COVID-19 [18,19].

The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has, so far, not approved any new or successful therapies for human coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 [20,21]. This review investigated the main molecular and cellular targets as well as the pharmaceutical and peptide-based therapies of COVID-19 for a better design of drug against this virus.

Methodology

To achieve the aims of this review, the databases of Scopus, Pub Med, Google Scholar, Medline, Open Access Journals, LISTA (EBSCO) and Web of Science were exploited using the following keywords: COVID-19, molecular and cellular targets, pharmaceutical treatment, peptide-based treatment based on the most recent articles.

Molecular therapeutics

The virus proteins are molecular targets for drugs. The N protein of SARS-CoV phosphorylated by Glycogen Synthase Kinase 3 (GSK3) inhibitors and GSK3 can suppress the replication of virus in SARS-CoV-infected Vero E6 cells [22]. Molecular targeted therapy can be also

Lotfi et al.

advanced to identify the S peptide for SARS and Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptor. Nevertheless, the genomic mutations and the impact of antibody-dependent improvement may influence on the effectiveness of previous vaccines or prompt an ineffective immune reaction [23-25].

The Cas13a/C2c2 effector of Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPR) related to aiming RNA has been shown to play an unplanned influence of uninhibited RNA-nuclease action together restricted target identification of RNA genes [26].

Targeting of S genes can be carried out by a accurately planned isothermic amplification primers and dynamic CRISPR guide RNAs (gRNA) [27]. The effectiveness of using oligonucleotides has been analyzed to target the RNA genome of the SARS-CoV-2, namely, Antisense Oligonucleotides (ASOs) or small interfering RNAs (siRNAs), as good treatment strategies [28].

When comparing SARS-Cov-2 genome sequences with SARS sequence, the enzymes catalytic domains like RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) are strongly conserved in the COVs [29]. Therefore, the enzyme types and S protein could be drug favorable targets for

Drug design of nCOVID-19

therapeutic ideas for COVID-19 to emerge [30,31].

The development of effective broad-spectrum replication inhibitors for viruses is relevant. The other targets for viral replication of COVs are the vital proteases of virus. Such enzymes play important roles in polyprotein synthesis and the replication of viruses. The correlation of the unliganded M (pro) structures of SARS-CoV-2 with an alpha-ketoamide inhibitor is a new discovery [32].

A recent identification of a sequence of acetamides of N-(tert-butyl)-2-(N-arylamido)-2-(pyridin-3-yl) known as potential inhibitors that target SARS-CoV 3CL protease [33,34]. New inhibitors of SARS-Cov 3CL protease have been designed, advanced and synthesized as mixtures containing electrophilic arylketone moiety [35].

It has been revealed that a protein as titled S-phase kinase-associated protein 2 (SKP2) is essential for poly-ubiquitination, which results in the degradation of its proteasome. Consequently, repression of SKP2 reduces replication of coronavirus while facilitating autophagy [36].

For entrance of SARS-CoV-2 to the cells, cellular proteases need to cleave the S protein at 2 places, the S protein priming, so cell and membrane of virus will be fused.

Lotfi et al.

Equally via S protein, SARS-CoV-2 uses a serine protease namely Transmembrane Protease Serine 2 (TMPRSS2) for entrance to the lung cells. The camostat mesylate inhibits the SARS-CoV-2 virus entry in the cells as TMPRSS2 inhibitor [37,38].

ACE2 has been revealed to be down regulated in the presence of virus. The efficacy of recombinant ACE2 in the treatment of severe respiratory distress syndrome acute lung infections has been proven [39]. Resolvable forms of ACE2 are helpful for COVID-19 patients as shown in recent studies because of its competitive SARS-CoV S protein binders, inhibiting binding to the host cell ACE2 [40,41]. In human tongue, TMPRSS2 and ACE2 have high expression on keratinocytes. Thus, the virus can reach the alveoli by replicating in the epithelial cells of the tongue. If it does, families can get infected via distributing chopsticks or other methods. In addition, androgens regulate TMPRSS2's expression, which could be the reason why men are further vulnerable to the infection [42,43].

Altogether, the molecular mechanisms by which coronavirus invade the host cells will offer new visions into the expansion of COVID-19 therapeutic outlooks by aiming key factors like viral ACE2 factor and S protein [20,44].

Drug design of nCOVID-19

DAMPs are several endogenous molecules which may be secreted or released by cytokines or stimuli of death [45]. They are many cytosolic or nuclear proteins including histones, mitochondrial transcriptions factor A (TFAM), HMGB1, family of heat shock protein, and the S100 family proteins. HMGB1 is a typical DAMP and is considered as the second plentiful nuclear protein among DAMPs. This protein is a structural factor which binds chromatin to preserve the integrity of the genome. However, inflammation and immune dysfunction are mediated by HMGB1 in response to oxidative injury, malnutrition, pathogens and hypoxia [46-48]. Thus, HMGB1 progressively becomes a desirable goal for different pathological conditions and diseases, particularly in severe diseases and septic shock [49]. Therefore, HMGB1 can performance comparable pathogenic roles in the COVID-19 infection through the mediation of immune dysfunctions and inflammation since it is considered a potential target for SARS [50].

Nitric Oxide (NO) is a crucial endogenous factor involved in many pathological and physiological procedures including relaxation of the smooth muscle, antimicrobial effects and important immune responses [51]. NO is widely

Lotfi et al.

applied to treat respiratory distress and hypertension with a worthy safety outline because of its good effective on selective pulmonary vasodilation [52]. Given the high rate of pulmonary complications in patients infected with COVID-19, NO therapy may be a successful candidate for the treatment of serious COVID-19 cases by lung damage alleviation [51]. Similarly, the main factors of signaling pathways such as mammalian Target of Rapamycin (mTOR) and serine-threonine kinase (AKT) as molecular targets may also be used to treat COVID-19 infection with novel anti-proliferative drugs [53].

Cellular therapeutics

Other means for controlling COVID-19 infection are the cellular targets such as endocytosis process. Adaptor associated kinase 1 (AAK1) as a regulator factor of endocytosis may be a key candidate in targeted therapy of COVID-19 [54].

NK cells are essential immune cells that are required to defend against microbial infections, malignant or stressed cells. NK cells may wield antiviral activity in the mediation of Antibody-Dependent Cellular Cytotoxicity (ADCC) against SARS-CoV, HIV, cytomegalovirus and Herpes Simplex type 1 (HSV-1). The application of NK cell therapy to improve immunity is a plausible approach for the identification and

Drug design of nCOVID-19

prevention of pneumonia of COVID-19 [16]. However, in cell therapy, the induction of the regeneration of damaged cells through the use of Mesenchymal Stromal Cells (MSCs) derived from allogeneic donors is therefore an efficient method for reducing inflammation in COVID patients [55].

It is documented that stem cells hematopoietic transplantation may make possible isolation and short-term development of driven T cells related to antiviral for treating cytomegalovirus infection. Therefore, it is believed that anti-SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells could be developed as possible adjunct therapy for patients diagnosed with COVID-19 [56]. Stimulation of CD4+ T cells are quickly carried out to create Granulocyte-Macrophage Colony-Stimulating Factor (GM-CSF) and other cytokines associated with inflammation specially IL-6 after COVID infection. The immunity produced by SARS-CoV-2 will decrease via blocking and inhibiting IL-6 receptors or GM-CSF [57].

The capability to create Neutrophil Extracellular Traps (NETs) is nonetheless a slight known influential role of neutrophils which contribute to organs injury and death in COVID-19. Neutrophils infiltration in lungs of COVID-19 patients has been

Lotfi et al.

proved. Furthermore, prior reports have linked abnormal NET creation to secretions, pulmonary infections, thrombosis in the airways, and cytokines creation. If assumptions are right, direct and/or indirect targeting of NETs with existing drugs will minimize the clinical severity of COVID-19 [58].

Lipids are core elements of cells that play a range of physiological role spanning from a functional building block to a signaling molecule and a primary power source. The lipids play a key role in viral infection including viral replication, viral membrane fusion into the host cell, endocytosis and exocytosis. Because lipids play an key role in the life cycle of virus, thus drugs that target lipids metabolism especially statins will be valuable drugs against SARS-CoV-2 infection [4].

Peptide-based Therapeutics

Presently, reports indicate that Fc-fusion proteins of cytokine receptors can apply as an antibody-like stimulus to reduce the extremely high rates of cytokine as a treatment approach of COVID-19 infected patients [59].

The viral and cell membrane fusion is related to SARS-CoV-2 proteins including Heptad Repeat 2 (HR2) and Heptad repeat 1 (HR1). Fusion-inhibitory activity of HR2-derived peptides (HR2P) and EK1

Drug design of nCOVID-19

protein (a modified OC43-HR2P peptide) have been reported to be good strategy against SARS-CoV-2 and would operate as virus fusion and cell entry inhibitors for the treatment of COVID-19 infection [60]. Lately, IPB02 – an HR2 sequence-based fusion inhibitory agent, has been produced which revealed high activity in the inhibition of COVID-19. A dual protein-based cell fusion investigation with an IC50 of 0.025 μ M identified the inhibitory effect of IPB02 on the cell fusion, a virus S protein-mediated cell act. A group of lipopeptides around IPB02 were formed by sequence truncation or extension. IPB02 structural activity studies have demonstrated the key roles of the N- and C-terminal amino acid motifs for their attachment and antiviral ability. Also, Circular dichroism spectroscopy has been applied as a valuable method to define the structure of cholesterol conjugated peptides. The results have indicated that the cholesterylated peptides show improved α -helical permanence [61].

Therapeutics as Immunotherapy

The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has permitted application of blood plasma of individuals whose COVID-19 disease has been cured with a high antibody titer and can be popular donors to Convalescent Plasma (CP). CP is a standard adaptive

Lotfi et al.

immunotherapy, used for prevention and treatment in several infectious diseases. This treatment by plasma might be more effective if COVID-19 patients are administered in early stages of the disease to remove the virus before it makes severe injury to the human lung [12,62].

The recovery of the COVID-19 patients can depend on developed monoclonal antibodies [63].

It has been reported that an antibody named CR3022 inhibits a highly conserved nucleotide sequence that enables SARS-CoV-2 to connect as cross-reactive. The Receptor-Binding Domain (RBD) with COVID-19 S protein CR3022 complex disclosed the characteristics of CR3022 building. The investigations have shown that CR3022 itself can target the binding epitope once the "up" orientation is the consequence of conformational differences with two RBDs on the COVID-19 S protein. This offers a mechanism and an idea for binding the antibody to the SARS-CoV-2 S protein [64].

Two monoclonal antibodies including sarilumab and Tocilizumab (TCZ) are the valued antibodies with extraordinary attraction for IL-6 cytokine receptors and have been used for treating rheumatoid arthritis [65]. Although in 2010, tocilizumab was primarily accepted by the

Drug design of nCOVID-19

FDA for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis, as a corticosteroid-keeping drug for the treatment of COVID-19 and cytokine releasing syndrome after chimeric antigen receptor T-cell (CAR T cell) treatment, it has become highly common in more recent years [66].

The severity of COVID-19 disease is dependent upon enhanced inflammatory factors [TNF- α , IL-6, IL-7, IL-2, IL-1 and IL-10] [67-69], proposing that cytokine storms contribute to COVID-19 growth. IL-6 is one of the main cytokines that perturb the immune system [70]. Therefore, TCZ and sarilumab can be suspected as IL-6 receptor antagonists for application as inhibitors of systemic dysfunctional inflammation in SARS-CoV-2 patients and patients with improved condition [51].

TNF- α is also an important cytokine which mediates the host's immune response. Its inhibition results in a significant decrease in the inflammation. The two TNF-inhibitors are adalimumab and golimumab. One of the beneficial mechanisms in COVID-19 patients may be the reduction of TNF rates via the antibodies and other medications described above, which appears to be enhancing mainly in crucial phases [71,72].

Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF) competes with VEGF receptors on

Lotfi et al.

the surface of endothelial cells to bind to VEGF, and since bevacizumab is a monoclonal antibody against VEGF, this antagonism will thus inhibit the effects of binding VEGF on its receptors; for example neovascularization and cell proliferation [51]. The rates of plasma VEGF increase significantly in patients with ARDS [73]. Bevacizumab may be a potential medicinal tool for ARDS – a common problem in the severe COVID-19 disease cases [74].

The most important therapeutic drugs from the beginning until now

Various potential approaches to COVID-19 therapy are considered, including host-targeted drugs, hormone therapy, viral drugs, intestinal microecological regulators, traditional Chinese medicines, and viral vaccines [42].

Neuraminidase inhibitor – Oseltamivir - is recommended as an influenza antiviral treatment and has been broadly applied in China for COVID-19 inhibition. Also, zanamivir and peramivir are safe drugs for COVID-19 and MERS as neuraminidase inhibitors [75]. Meanwhile, Interferon- α (IFN- α) is an important therapy for preventing coronavirus replication in animals and humans [42]. Clinical guidelines propose IFN- α (5,000,000 U) as an antiviral therapy, for the current new coronavirus [42].

Drug design of nCOVID-19

Furthermore, chloroquine diphosphate was identified as a possible antiviral drug with broad-spectrum [76], as it can prevent disease by enhancing endosomal pH that is essential for cell - virus fusion [77]. Owing to oseltamivir and Baloxavir antiviral action against influenza, oseltamivir has earned significant attention, and to a slighter grade baloxavir, as possible drug selections for COVID-19 [67].

While Camostat Mesylate is a confirmed protease inhibitor proven to hinder Calu-3 cells infection by SARS-CoV-2 and inhibit SARS-2 entrance by S protein into the lung cells [37], Hydroxycytidine (HC) is helpful in preventing MERS-CoV virus replication and SARS-CoV-2 disease in cultures of basic human epithelial cell of the airways [78].

As one of FDA-approved anti-parasitic drugs, 5 μ M of Ivermectin added to infected Vero cells with virus has decreased viral RNA rates after 48h of culture. Thus, it could be an active drug in contrast to COVID-19 [79].

Some investigations have shown that *Vitex trifolia* and *Sphaeranthus indicus* can decrease inflammatory cytokines by the NF- κ B pathway as a molecular mechanism implicated in SARS-CoV infection respiratory distress [80,81]. Similarly, protease inhibitors (lopinavir and ritonavir)

Lotfi et al.

have demonstrated an effective action against MERS and COVID-19 infections [82]. The Modeling homology means have been applied to structures of two proteases of SARS-CoV-2, coronavirus endopeptidase C30 (CEP_C30), papain like viral protease (PLVP), and CEP_C30 was found to bind more devotedly to ritonavir and lopinavir, proposing that the lopinavir and ritonavir may have valuable therapeutic effects on COVID-19, probably because of their inhibitory action on CEP_C30 key factor [83]. Favipiravir is also an effective agent against COVID-19 infection (EC50 related to Vero E6 cells = 61.88 μ M) [84].

Lately, clinical trials of favipiravir have finalized by Chinese researchers, which display its favorable clinical effectiveness in the therapy of new coronavirus pneumonia [42]. Remdesivir (GS-5734) is another potential medication, it is an adenine-derivative prodrug and its chemical construction is almost like to tenofovir alafenamide that is the HIV reverse transcriptase inhibitor. Other postulates also revealed the interference of remdesivir with virus polymerase, while in mouse models it displays effectiveness against COVID and MERS [85]. Other studies suggested that in vitro, remdesivir

Drug design of nCOVID-19

has inhibitory effect on SARS-CoV-2 (EC50 for Vero E6 cells = 0.77 μ M) [84]. the replication of DNA and RNA viruses can be inhibited by Ribavirin– a nucleoside with strong antiviral effect, by stopping the inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase enzyme action, vital for the Guanosine Triphosphate (GTP) production [86-88]. On the other hand, Arbidol (Umifenovir), a flu-infection antiviral drug commonly used in China and Russia, when associated with arbidol mesylate have been demonstrated to have a strong inhibitory role in decreasing SARS-CoV-2 reproduction in vitro [89].

It has also been found that teicoplanin and its byproducts including telavancin and dalbavancin, block the entrance of MERS and SARS viruses. Thus, they may play an important role in suppressing the viruses that rely on cathepsin L [90,91]. Nitazoxanide which is an effective antiviral and antiparasitic medication has a broad range of in vitro antiviral activity against many viruses including rotavirus, influenza, parainfluenza, RSV, and COVs. With respect to its mechanism of action, nitazoxanide is known to have a potent antiviral effect due to its capability to interact with the host-regulated signaling pathways related to virus replication rather than the specific mechanisms of virus [92].

Lotfi et al.

Quercetin and Vitamin D have been recognized as the mitigating agents of COVID-19 and can help to improve patients [93]. LJ003 and LJ001 are antiviral drugs of wide spectrum that cause both the blocking virus entrance into the host cells and degrading the viral membrane through producing oxygen single molecules [94].

EIDD-2801 is a new drug hopeful for its in-vitro effectiveness against SARS-CoV-2 virus and its outcomes from laboratories. EIDD-2801 is based on an orally ribonucleotide analog, EIDD-1931, engineered to enhance oral bioavailability and increase the uptake of drugs in non-human primates and also humans [78]. In cell investigations, EIDD-1931 sturdily inhibited replication recently of SARS-CoV-2, while a similar activity was previously reported for of MERS-CoV, SARS-CoV [51]. The EIDD-2801 proved its therapeutic and prophylactic properties in MERS and SARS murine models, displaying decreased viral lung titers, reduced weight loss, increased lung damage and enhanced lung function based on the dose and initiation time of treatment. EIDD-2801 seems more desirable drug compared to remdesivir [51].

Corticosteroids are also used for the treatment of ARDS and sepsis because of their outstanding antifibrotic, anti-

Drug design of nCOVID-19

inflammatory capability to inhibit deposition of collagen [95, 96]. Practical low and moderate doses of corticosteroids may exert possible therapeutic effects on patients with COVID-19 disease pneumonia [51]. Possibly other lipid-decreasing drugs and Statins – recognized inhibitors for COVID-19 infection treatment, like Proprotein Convertase Subtilisin/Kexin type 9 (PCSK9) inhibitors, are used particularly in the harshly infected individuals who are enduring diabetes and severe cardiovascular disease [97].

Artificial Intelligence (AI) technology has been used to check the drugs targeting AAK1. Among these drugs AAK1-binding compound, the Janus kinase inhibitor baricitinib, was predicted to be an appropriate potential medication of COVID-19 disease since typical doses of baricitinib drug for treatment were adequate to inhibit the main factor of AAK1 [98].

Glycyrrhizine is a dynamic component in Chinese traditional medicine (licorice root or radix glycyrrhizae, from the Glycyrrhiza glabra plant). The virus replication of SARS is inhibited by Glycyrrhizin in vitro and also this drug is applied as an alternative agent against this infection [99]. Baicalin, a huangqin-isolated flavonoid

Lotfi et al.

product (*Scutellaria baicalensis* Georgi, Chinese skullcap), has also inhibitory effect on coronavirus in vitro [100].

Totally, the viral processing of SARS-CoV-2 inside host cells is according to the figure. This virus binds itself to the human host cell's ACE2 receptor, allowing the viral RNA to be released into the host cell, causing a cascade that eventually results in

Drug design of nCOVID-19

respiratory infection. This diagram often depicts selected repurposed drugs and their aim positions of effect. ACE2: angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; IL-6: interleukin 6 and TMPRSS2: type 2 trans-membrane serine protease [101].

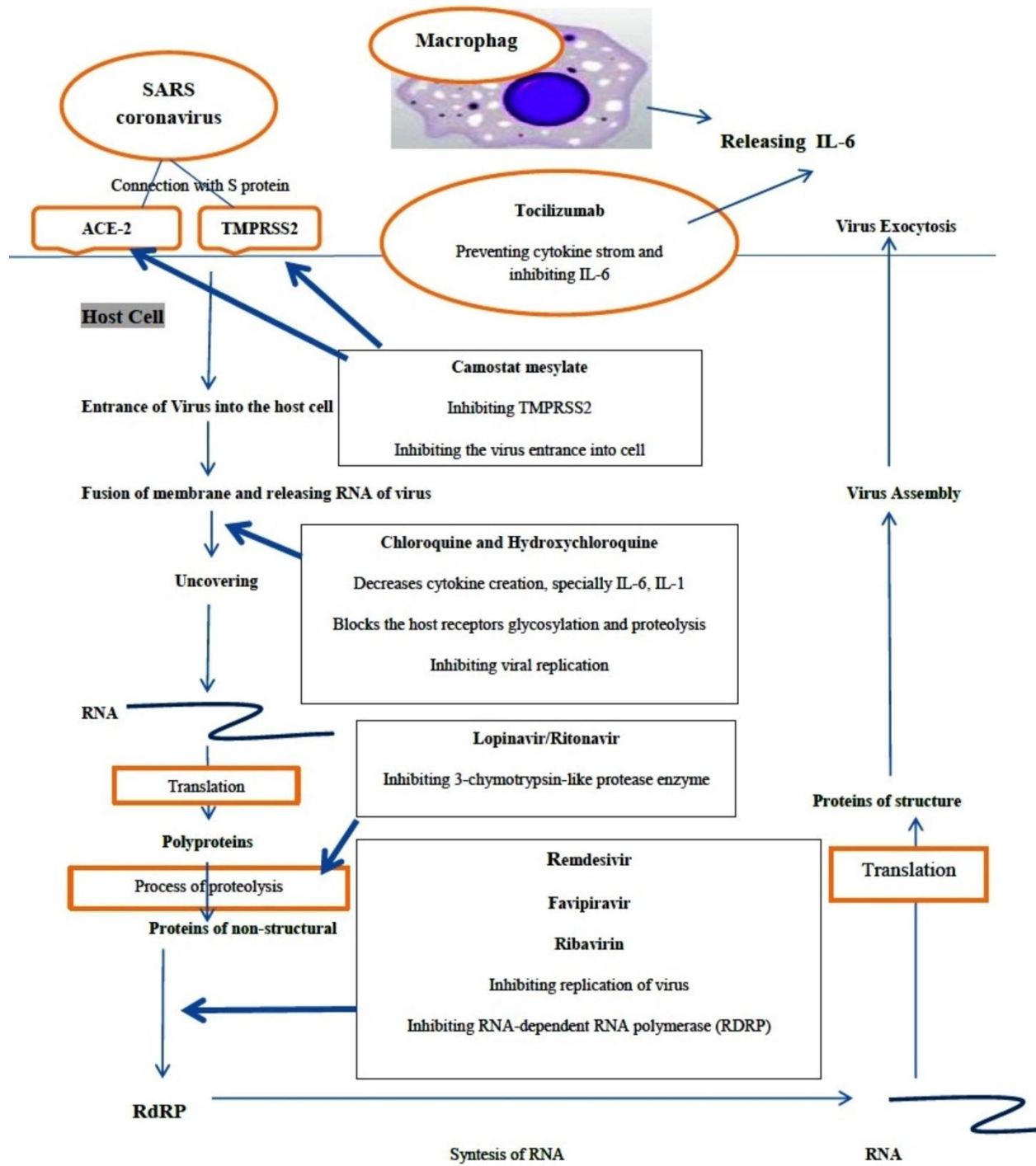


Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the entry, viral lifecycle and possible drug targets of SARS-CoV-2.

CONCLUSION

Molecular targets are key factors in the production of drugs against COVID-19. They are mainly including the virus proteins (especially S protein), replication agents and enzymes. The main factors of signaling pathways as molecular targets may also be used to treat COVID-19 infection with novel anti-proliferative drugs. Peptide and cell-based Therapeutics are also good ways in targeted therapy of COVID-19 such as proteins of HR1, HR2 on the virus and AAK1 as regulator factor of endocytosis. Therefore, targeting these factors with available drugs in the future researches can help improve patients' conditions.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Li G, Fan Y, Lai Y, Han T, Li Z, Zhou P, et al. Coronavirus infections and immune responses. *J Med Virol.* 2020; 92(4): 424-32.
- [2]. Payne S. Family Coronaviridae. *Viruses.* 2017; 9(6): 149-58.
- [3]. Hu B, Guo H, Zhou P, Shi Z-L. Characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 2020; 18(11): 1-14.
- [4]. Abu-Farha M, Thanaraj TA, Qaddoumi MG, Hashem A, Abubaker J, Al-Mulla F. The Role of Lipid Metabolism in COVID-19 Virus Infection and as a Drug Target. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2020; 21(10): 3544.
- [5]. Malik YA. Properties of Coronavirus and SARS-CoV-2. *Malays J Pathol.* 2020; 42(1): 3-11.
- [6]. Arakawa M, Morita E. Flavivirus replication organelle biogenesis in the endoplasmic reticulum: Comparison with other single-Stranded positive-sense RNA viruses. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2019; 20(9): 2336.
- [7]. Tobaiqy M, Qashqary M, Al-Dahery S, Mujallad A, Hershan AA, Kamal MA, et al. Therapeutic management of COVID-19 patients: A systematic review. *Infect Prev Pract.* 2020; 2(3): 100061.
- [8]. Hsu LY, Chia PY, Lim J. The Novel Coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) Pandemic. *Ann Acad Med Singap.* 2020; 49(105): 105-7.
- [9]. Vellingiri B, Jayaramayya K, Iyer M, Narayanasamy A, Govindasamy V,

Lotfi et al.

Giridharan B, et al. COVID-19: A promising cure for the global panic. *Sci Total Environ.* 2020; 725: 138277.

[10]. Ozma MA, Maroufi P, Khodadadi E, Köse Ş, Esposito I, Ganbarov K, et al. Clinical manifestation, diagnosis, prevention and control of SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) during the outbreak period. *Infez Med.* 2020; 28(2): 153-65.

[11]. El Zowalaty ME, Järhult JD. From SARS to COVID-19: A previously unknown SARS-CoV-2 virus of pandemic potential infecting humans—Call for a One Health approach. *One Health.* 2020: 100124.

[12]. Abd El-Aziz TM, Stockand JD. Recent progress and challenges in drug development against COVID-19 coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2)—an update on the status. *Infect Genet Evol.* 2020; 83: 104327.

[13]. Yang N, Shen H-M. Targeting the endocytic pathway and autophagy process as a novel therapeutic strategy in COVID-19. *Int J Biol Sci.* 2020; 16(10): 1724.

[14]. Shereen MA, Khan S, Kazmi A, Bashir N, Siddique R. COVID-19 infection: Origin, transmission, and characteristics of human coronaviruses. *J Adv Res.* 2020;24:91-98.

[15]. Prajapat M, Sarma P, Shekhar N, Avti P, Sinha S, Kaur H, et al. Drug targets for

Drug design of nCOVID-19

corona virus: A systematic review. *Indian J Pharmacol.* 2020; 52(1): 56.

[16]. Li H, Liu S-M, Yu X-H, Tang S-L, Tang C-K. Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): current status and future perspective. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2020; 55(5): 105951.

[17]. Mahmoud IS, Jarrar YB, Alshaer W, Ismail S. SARS-CoV-2 entry in host cells—multiple targets for treatment and prevention. *Biochimie.* 2020; 175: 93-98.

[18]. Saxena A. Drug targets for COVID-19 therapeutics: Ongoing global efforts. *J Biosci.* 2020; 45(1): 1-24.

[19]. Zhou Y, Hou Y, Shen J, Huang Y, Martin W, Cheng F. Network-based drug repurposing for novel coronavirus 2019-nCoV/SARS-CoV-2. *Cell Discov.* 2020; 6(1): 1-18.

[20]. Huang J, Song W, Huang H, Sun Q. Pharmacological therapeutics targeting RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, proteinase and spike protein: from mechanistic studies to clinical trials for COVID-19. *J Clin Med.* 2020; 9(4): 1131.

[21]. Drożdżal S, Rosik J, Lechowicz K, Machaj F, Kotfis K, Ghavami S, et al. FDA approved drugs with pharmacotherapeutic potential for SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) therapy. *Drug Resist Updat.* 2020; 53: 100719.

- [22]. Wu C-H, Yeh S-H, Tsay Y-G, Shieh Y-H, Kao C-L, Chen Y-S, *et al.* Glycogen synthase kinase-3 regulates the phosphorylation of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus nucleocapsid protein and viral replication. *J Biol Chem.* 2009; 284(8): 5229-39.
- [23]. Du L, He Y, Zhou Y, Liu S, Zheng B-J, Jiang S. The spike protein of SARS-CoV—a target for vaccine and therapeutic development. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 2009; 7(3): 226-36.
- [24]. Pyrc K, Berkhout B, van der Hoek L. Antiviral strategies against human coronaviruses. *Infect Disord Drug Targets.* 2007; 7(1): 59-66.
- [25]. Tetro JA. Is COVID-19 receiving ADE from other coronaviruses? *Microbes Infect.* 2020; 22(2): 72-73.
- [26]. Kellner MJ, Koob JG, Gootenberg JS, Abudayyeh OO, Zhang F. SHERLOCK: nucleic acid detection with CRISPR nucleases. *Nat Protoc.* 2019; 14(10): 2986-3012.
- [27]. East-Seletsky A, O'Connell MR, Knight SC, Burstein D, Cate JH, Tjian R, *et al.* Two distinct RNase activities of CRISPR-C2c2 enable guide-RNA processing and RNA detection. *Nature.* 2016; 538(7624): 270-73.
- [28]. Kruse RL. Therapeutic strategies in an outbreak scenario to treat the novel

- coronavirus originating in Wuhan, China. *F1000Res.* 2020;9:72.
- [29]. Venkataraman S, Prasad BV, Selvarajan R. RNA dependent RNA polymerases: insights from structure, function and evolution. *Viruses.* 2018; 10(2): 76.
- [30]. Letko M, Marzi A, Munster V. Functional assessment of cell entry and receptor usage for SARS-CoV-2 and other lineage B betacoronaviruses. *Nat Microbiol.* 2020; 5(4): 562-9.
- [31]. Lundin A, Dijkman R, Bergström T, Kann N, Adamiak B, Hannoun C, *et al.* Targeting membrane-bound viral RNA synthesis reveals potent inhibition of diverse coronaviruses including the middle East respiratory syndrome virus. *PLoS Pathog.* 2014; 10(5): 1004166.
- [32]. Zhang L, Lin D, Sun X, Curth U, Drosten C, Sauerhering L, *et al.* Crystal structure of SARS-CoV-2 main protease provides a basis for design of improved α -ketoamide inhibitors. *Science.* 2020; 368(6489): 409-12.
- [33]. Jacobs J, Grum-Tokars V, Zhou Y, Turlington M, Saldanha SA, Chase P, *et al.* Discovery, synthesis, and structure-based optimization of a series of N-(tert-butyl)-2-(N-arylamido)-2-(pyridin-3-yl) acetamides (ML188) as potent noncovalent small molecule inhibitors of the severe acute

respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) 3CL protease. *J Med Chem.* 2013; 56(2): 534-46.

[34]. Shie J-J, Fang J-M, Kuo T-H, Kuo C-J, Liang P-H, Huang H-J, *et al.* Inhibition of the severe acute respiratory syndrome 3CL protease by peptidomimetic α , β -unsaturated esters. *Bioorg Med Chem.* 2005; 13(17): 5240-52.

[35]. Konno S, Thanigaimalai P, Yamamoto T, Nakada K, Kakiuchi R, Takayama K, *et al.* Design and synthesis of new tripeptide-type SARS-CoV 3CL protease inhibitors containing an electrophilic arylketone moiety. *Bioorg Med Chem.* 2013; 21(2): 412-24.

[36]. Gassen NC, Niemeyer D, Muth D, Corman VM, Martinelli S, Gassen A, *et al.* SKP2 attenuates autophagy through Beclin1-ubiquitination and its inhibition reduces MERS-Coronavirus infection. *Nat Commun.* 2019;10(1): 1-16.

[37]. Hoffmann M, Kleine-Weber H, Schroeder S, Krüger N, Herrler T, Erichsen S, *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 cell entry depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and is blocked by a clinically proven protease inhibitor. *Cell.* 2020; 181(2): 271-80.

[38]. Tang D, Comish P, Kang R. The hallmarks of COVID-19 disease. *PLoS Pathog.* 2020; 16(5):1008536.

[39]. Zhang H, Baker A. Recombinant human ACE2: acting out angiotensin II in ARDS therapy. *Crit Care.* 2017; 21: 305.

[40]. Batlle D, Wysocki J, Satchell K. Soluble angiotensin-converting enzyme 2: a potential approach for coronavirus infection therapy? *Clin Sci.* 2020; 134(5): 543-45.

[41]. Xiu S, Dick A, Ju H, Mirzaie S, Abdi F, Cocklin S, *et al.* Inhibitors of SARS-CoV-2 entry: current and future opportunities. *J Med Chem.* 2020.

[42]. Guo G, Ye L, Pan K, Chen Y, Xing D, Yan K, *et al.* New Insights of Emerging SARS-CoV-2: Epidemiology, Etiology, Clinical Features, Clinical Treatment, and Prevention. *Front Cell Dev Biol.* 2020; 8: 410.

[43]. Lukassen S, Chua RL, Trefzer T, Kahn NC, Schneider MA, Muley T, *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 receptor ACE 2 and TMPRSS 2 are primarily expressed in bronchial transient secretory cells. *EMBO J.* 2020; 39(10): 105114.

[44]. Luan J, Lu Y, Jin X, Zhang L. Spike protein recognition of mammalian ACE2 predicts the host range and an optimized ACE2 for SARS-CoV-2 infection. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun.* 2020; 526(1): 165-69.

[45]. Tang D, Kang R, Coyne CB, Zeh HJ, Lotze MT. PAMP s and DAMP s: signal 0s

Lotfi et al.

- that spur autophagy and immunity. *Immunol Rev.* 2012; 249(1): 158-75.
- [46]. Andersson U, Tracey KJ. HMGB1 is a therapeutic target for sterile inflammation and infection. *Annu Rev Immunol.* 2011;29:139-62.
- [47]. Wang H, Ward MF, Fan X-G, Sama AE, Li W. Potential role of high mobility group box 1 in viral infectious diseases. *Viral Immunol.* 2006; 19(1): 3-9.
- [48]. Tsung A, Klune JR, Zhang X, Jeyabalan G, Cao Z, Peng X, *et al.* HMGB1 release induced by liver ischemia involves Toll-like receptor 4-dependent reactive oxygen species production and calcium-mediated signaling. *J Exp Med.* 2007; 204(12): 2913-23.
- [49]. Kang R, Chen R, Zhang Q, Hou W, Wu S, Cao L, *et al.* HMGB1 in health and disease. *Mol Aspects Med.* 2014; 40: 1-116.
- [50]. Chen G, Chen D-z, Li J, Czura CJ, Tracey KJ, Sama AE, *et al.* Pathogenic role of HMGB1 in SARS? *Med Hypotheses.* 2004;63(4):691-5.
- [51]. Zhang J, Xie B, Hashimoto K. Current status of potential therapeutic candidates for the COVID-19 crisis. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2020; 87: 59-73.
- [52]. Griffiths MJ, Evans TW. Inhaled nitric oxide therapy in adults. *N Engl J Med.* 2005;353(25): 2683-95.

Drug design of nCOVID-19

- [53]. Fagone P, Ciurleo R, Lombardo SD, Iacobello C, Palermo CI, Shoenfeld Y, *et al.* Transcriptional landscape of SARS-CoV-2 infection dismantles pathogenic pathways activated by the virus, proposes unique sex-specific differences and predicts tailored therapeutic strategies. *Autoimmun Rev.* 2020; 19(7): 102571.
- [54]. Neveu G, Ziv-Av A, Barouch-Bentov R, Berkerman E, Mulholland J, Einav S. AP-2-associated protein kinase 1 and cyclin G-associated kinase regulate hepatitis C virus entry and are potential drug targets. *J Virol.* 2015; 89(8): 4387-404.
- [55]. Horie S, Gonzalez HE, Laffey JG, Masterson CH. Cell therapy in acute respiratory distress syndrome. *J Thorac Dis.* 2018; 10(9): 5607.
- [56]. Zumla A, Hui DS, Azhar EI, Memish ZA, Maeurer M. Reducing mortality from 2019-nCoV: host-directed therapies should be an option. *Lancet.* 2020; 395(10224):35-36.
- [57]. Zhou Y, Fu B, Zheng X, Wang D, Zhao C, Qi Y, *et al.* Aberrant pathogenic GM-CSF+ T cells and inflammatory CD14+ CD16+ monocytes in severe pulmonary syndrome patients of a new coronavirus. *BioRxiv.* 2020.
- [58]. Barnes BJ, Adrover JM, Baxter-Stoltzfus A, Borczuk A, Cools-Lartigue J,

Lotfi et al.

Crawford JM, et al. Targeting potential drivers of COVID-19: Neutrophil extracellular traps. *J Exp Med.* 2020; 217(6): 20200652.

[59]. Hao S, Jin D, Zhang S, Qing R. QTY code-designed water-soluble Fc-fusion cytokine receptors bind to their respective ligands. *QRB Discovery.* 2020; 1: 4.

[60]. Xia S, Zhu Y, Liu M, Lan Q, Xu W, Wu Y, et al. Fusion mechanism of 2019-nCoV and fusion inhibitors targeting HR1 domain in spike protein. *Cell Mol Immunol.* 2020;17(7):765-767.

[61]. Zhu Y, Yu D, Yan H, Chong H, He Y. Design of potent membrane fusion inhibitors against SARS-CoV-2, an emerging coronavirus with high fusogenic activity. *J Virol.* 2020.

[62]. Chen L, Xiong J, Bao L, Shi Y. Convalescent plasma as a potential therapy for COVID-19. *Lancet Infect Dis.* 2020; 20(4): 398-400.

[63]. Ter Meulen J, Bakker AB, Van Den Brink EN, Weverling GJ, Martina BE, Haagmans BL, et al. Human monoclonal antibody as prophylaxis for SARS coronavirus infection in ferrets. *Lancet.* 2004; 363(9427): 2139-41.

[64]. Yuan M, Wu NC, Zhu X, Lee C-CD, So RT, Lv H, et al. A highly conserved cryptic epitope in the receptor binding

Drug design of nCOVID-19

domains of SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV. *Science.* 2020;368(6491): 630-33.

[65]. Raimondo MG, Biggioggero M, Crotti C, Becciolini A, Favalli EG. Profile of sarilumab and its potential in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis. *Drug Des Devel Ther.* 2017;11:1593.

[66]. Kotch C, Barrett D, Teachey DT. Tocilizumab for the treatment of chimeric antigen receptor T cell-induced cytokine release syndrome. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol.* 2019; 15(8): 813-22.

[67]. Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, Ren L, Zhao J, Hu Y, et al. Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. *Lancet.* 2020; 395(10223): 497-506.

[68]. Ruan Q, Yang K, Wang W, Jiang L, Song J. Clinical predictors of mortality due to COVID-19 based on an analysis of data of 150 patients from Wuhan, China. *Intensive Care Med.* 2020;46(5): 846-48.

[69]. Zhou F, Yu T, Du R, Fan G, Liu Y, Liu Z, et al. Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study. *Lancet.* 2020; 395: 1054-62.

[70]. Mehta P, McAuley DF, Brown M, Sanchez E, Tattersall RS, Manson JJ, et al. COVID-19: consider cytokine storm

Lotfi et al.

syndromes and immunosuppression. *Lancet*. 2020; 395(10229): 1033.

[71]. Imai Y, Kuba K, Rao S, Huan Y, Guo F, Guan B, *et al.* Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 protects from severe acute lung failure. *Nature*. 2005; 436(7047): 112-16.

[72]. Perricone C, Triggianese P, Bartoloni E, Cafaro G, Bonifacio AF, Bursi R, *et al.* The anti-viral facet of anti-rheumatic drugs: lessons from COVID-19. *J Autoimmun*. 2020; 111: 102468.

[73]. Thickett DR, Armstrong L, Christie SJ, Millar AB. Vascular endothelial growth factor may contribute to increased vascular permeability in acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2001; 164(9): 1601-5.

[74]. Fanelli V, Ranieri VM. Mechanisms and clinical consequences of acute lung injury. *Ann Am Thorac Soc*. 2015; 12: 3-8.

[75]. Zhang L-P, Wang M, Wang Y, Zhu J, Zhang N. Focus on a 2019-novel coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2). *Future Microbiol*. 2020; 15(10): 905-18.

[76]. Yan Y, Zou Z, Sun Y, Li X, Xu K-F, Wei Y, *et al.* Anti-malaria drug chloroquine is highly effective in treating avian influenza A H5N1 virus infection in an animal model. *Cell Res*. 2013;23(2):300-2.

[77]. Vincent MJ, Bergeron E, Benjannet S, Erickson BR, Rollin PE, Ksiazek TG, *et al.* Chloroquine is a potent inhibitor of SARS

Drug design of nCOVID-19

coronavirus infection and spread. *Virology*. 2005;2(1): 1-10.

[78]. Sheahan TP, Sims AC, Zhou S, Graham RL, Pruijssers AJ, Agostini ML, *et al.* An orally bioavailable broad-spectrum antiviral inhibits SARS-CoV-2 in human airway epithelial cell cultures and multiple coronaviruses in mice. *Sci Transl Med*. 2020; 12(541): 5883.

[79]. 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: 104787.

[80]. Alam G, Wahyuono S, Ganjar IG, Hakim L, Timmerman H, Verpoorte R. Tracheospasmodic activity of viteosin-A and vitexicarpin isolated from *Vitex trifolia*. *Planta Med*. 2002;68(11): 1047-49.

[81]. Srivastava RAK, Mistry S, Sharma S. A novel anti-inflammatory natural product from *Sphaeranthus indicus* inhibits expression of VCAM1 and ICAM1, and slows atherosclerosis progression independent of lipid changes. *Nutr Metab*. 2015; 12(1): 20.

[82]. Zumla A, Chan JF, Azhar EI, Hui DS, Yuen K-Y. Coronaviruses—drug discovery and therapeutic options. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*. 2016; 15(5): 327-47.

[83]. Lin S, Shen R, He J, Li X, Guo X. Molecular modeling evaluation of the

Lotfi et al.

binding effect of ritonavir, lopinavir and darunavir to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 proteases. *BioRxiv*. 2020.

[84]. Wang M, Cao R, Zhang L, Yang X, Liu J, Xu M, *et al.* Remdesivir and chloroquine effectively inhibit the recently emerged novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) *in vitro*. *Cell Res*. 2020; 30(3): 269-71.

[85]. Sheahan TP, Sims AC, Leist SR, Schäfer A, Won J, Brown AJ, *et al.* Comparative therapeutic efficacy of remdesivir and combination lopinavir, ritonavir, and interferon beta against MERS-CoV. *Nat Commun*. 2020; 11(1): 1-14.

[86]. Wenzel RP, Edmond MB. Managing SARS amidst uncertainty. *N Engl J Med*. 2003; 348(20): 1947-48.

[87]. Jones B, Ma E, Peiris J, Wong P, Ho J, Lam B, *et al.* Prolonged disturbances of in vitro cytokine production in patients with severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) treated with ribavirin and steroids. *Clin Exp Immunol*. 2004; 135(3): 467-73.

[88]. Ng EK, Ng P-C, Hon KE, Cheng WF, Hung EC, Chan KA, *et al.* Serial analysis of the plasma concentration of SARS coronavirus RNA in pediatric patients with severe acute respiratory syndrome. *Clin Chem*. 2003; 49(12): 2085-88.

Drug design of nCOVID-19

[89]. Khamitov R, Loginova S, Shchukina V, Borisevich S, Maksimov V, Shuster A. Antiviral activity of arbidol and its derivatives against the pathogen of severe acute respiratory syndrome in the cell cultures. *Vopr Virusol*. 2008; 53(4): 9-13.

[90]. Kabir MT, Uddin MS, Hossain MF, Abdulhakim JA, Alam MA, Ashraf GM, *et al.* nCOVID-19 pandemic: from molecular pathogenesis to potential investigational therapeutics. *Front Cell Dev Biol*. 2020; 8: 616.

[91]. Baron SA, Devaux C, Colson P, Raoult D, Rolain J-M. Teicoplanin: an alternative drug for the treatment of coronavirus COVID-19. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2020; 55(4): 105944.

[92]. Rossignol J-F. Nitazoxanide, a new drug candidate for the treatment of Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus. *J Infect Public Health*. 2016; 9(3): 227-30.

[93]. Glinsky G. Tripartite combination of potential pandemic mitigation agents: Vitamin D, Quercetin, and Estradiol manifest properties of candidate medicinal agents for mitigation of the severity of pandemic COVID-19 defined by genomics-guided tracing of SARS-CoV-2 targets in human cells. *Biomedicines*. 2020; 8(5): 129.

[94]. Barlow A, Landolf KM, Barlow B, Yeung SYA, Heavner JJ, Claassen CW, *et*

Lotfi et al.

al. Review of emerging pharmacotherapy for the treatment of coronavirus disease 2019. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2020;40(5): 416-37.

[95]. Heming N, Sivanandamoorthy S, Meng P, Bounab R, Annane D. Immune effects of corticosteroids in sepsis. *Front Immunol*. 2018; 9: 1736.

[96]. Rhen T, Cidlowski JA. Antiinflammatory action of glucocorticoids—new mechanisms for old drugs. *N Engl J Med*. 2005; 353(16): 1711-23.

[97]. Katsiki N, Banach M, Mikhailidis DP. Lipid-lowering therapy and renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system inhibitors in the era of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Arch Med Sci*. 2020; 16(3): 485.

[98]. Richardson P, Griffin I, Tucker C, Smith D, Oechsle O, Phelan A, et al. Baricitinib as potential treatment for 2019-nCoV acute respiratory disease. *Lancet*. 2020; 395(10223): 30.

[99]. Cinatl J, Morgenstern B, Bauer G, Chandra P, Rabenau H, Doerr H.

Drug design of nCOVID-19

Glycyrrhizin, an active component of liquorice roots, and replication of SARS-associated coronavirus. *Lancet*. 2003; 361(9374): 2045-46.

[100]. Chen F, Chan K, Jiang Y, Kao R, Lu H, Fan K, et al. *In vitro* susceptibility of 10 clinical isolates of SARS coronavirus to selected antiviral compounds. *J Clin Virol*. 2004; 31(1): 69-75.

[101]. Chakraborty R, Parvez S. COVID-19: An overview of the current pharmacological interventions, vaccines, and clinical trials. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 2020; 180: 114184.