Article title: SARS-COV-2 acts as a test of Air Pollution, Lifestyle Disorders and Immune Tolerance dysregulation in human body: A detailed skeletal mechanism of SARS-COV-2 and the underlying factors that help in it's manifestation of immune system in COVID-19 patients: Literature review till date

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Preprint statement: This article is a preprint and has not been peer-reviewed, under consideration and submitted to ScienceOpen Preprints for open peer review.

Funder: No funder

DOI: 10.14293/S2199-1006.1.SOR-.PPD7TYA.v1

Preprint first posted online: 21 December 2021

Keywords: SARS-COV-2, COVID-19, immune system

SARS-COV-2 acts as a test of Air Pollution, Lifestyle Disorders and Immune Tolerance dysregulation in human body :

(A detailed skeletal mechanism of SARS-COV-2 and the underlying factors that help in it's manifestation of immune system in COVID-19 patients: Literature review till date)

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Introduction:

SARS-COV-2 explores every possible vulnerability in human body and uses it against the host. To treat this SARS-COV-2 induced COVID-19, we should consider and target the multiple factors this virus is targeting and identify the drugs for usage in a strategical way. This approach can save the patients from severe state of illness and damage associated with this disease.

COVID-19 has been associated with hyper inflammation [10-18] and delayed humoral immune responses [19,20,21,22,23,24]. Most of the complications with COVID-19 patients have been associated with early hypoxia, ARDS, pneumonia [60,77,35-39] and Acute Lung Injury [30-34]. Viral load has been found to be associated directly with incidence of lung injury/epithelial injury or remote organ injury in COVID-19 patients [25-30].

Conclusively, SARS-COV-2 is reported to be associated with severe immune dysregulation, delayed humoral responses and accelerated innate immune response mediated damages. As the pandemic is turning the world upside down, In order to address this disease we should first get an insight into the mechanism of action through which SARS-COV-2 is achieving the above said dysregulating or modulating effects on human immune system.

This article presents the basic or skeletal mechanism through which SARS-COV-2 dysregulates immune system by targeting innate immune system, adaptive immune system and different immune tolerance check points by dysregulating different miRNA's and the preexisting conditions or comorbidities of the patients. This article comprises of the comparative and comprehensive literature review targeting all topics with the data available/reported till date in the scientific community.

[P-1]

Entry:

1. SARS-COV-2 enters into the Nasal passage and then attaches to the ACE-2 receptor of airway epithelial cells [1102,1103,2159].
2. SARS-COV-2 can also enter into the mouth. It can either attach to ACE-2 receptor of oral mucosal epithelial cells or can infect CD-147 cells in the mouth [106].
3. After attachment of SARS-COV-2 RBD (Receptor Binding Domain) with ACE-2 receptor of the host cells, the virion entry into the host cell is then mediated and promoted by the disulfide bond confirmation [1104,1203,104, 1207,1208,154,137]. These disulfides bonds can be present at the surfaces of both SARS-COV-2 RBD and ACE-2 receptor [1104].
4. This confirmation mediated entry process of virion into host cells is further accelerated by the host TMPRSS-2 activity [145,135,137, 2159].
5. Oxidative Stress directly promotes the enhancement/increase of disulfide bonds at the surface of ACE-2 receptors [1105,1201,1202]. This presence of more disulfide bonds at the receptor surface makes it easy for the virus to enter into the cell [1104].
6. Easier entry process of virus into the cell makes the virus more infectious due to larger increase of viral load in lesser time.
7. Differently mutated SARS-COV-2 genome might have different amount of disulfide bonds at the surface of RBD which might impact the infectivity rate of that particular variant.
8. Loss/Mutations of Genome structure in SARS-COV-2 affects the efficiency of SARS-COV-2 in inducing mortality in humans [2302,1123,1151, 1152,1153,1154]. Reduction in the size of SARS-COV-2 genome structure might make it easier for the virus to get transferred in air due to loss of structural weigh relatively [2302]. This might also make the virus more transmissible.

[P-2]

Effect of SARS-COV-2 proteins on Immune System:

S.No	SARS-COV-2 Proteins	Upregulates / Increases [↑]	Downregulates / Decreases / Inhibits [↓]
1.	ORF-3a:	1) NF-KB [1156]. 2) Pyroptosis in Cells [550,451]. 3) Ab (Antibodies) [1130].	1) Inhibits the fusion of phagosomes with lysosomes [877].
2.	ORF-3b:	1) Ab [1130].	1) IFN [1126] .
3.	ORF-6:		1) IFN- I,III [1127,1825,1799]. 2) STAT-1, STAT-2 [1121, 989, 991, 990]. 3) MDA-5, MAVS, TBK-1,IRF-3 [1799].
4.	ORF-7a:	1) NF-KB [1156]. 2) Ab [1123,1129,1130]. 3) Stimulates CD14+ Monocytes to produce IL-6 and TNF- α [147]. 4) Protein Mutations reported [1123,1151,1152,1153,1154].	1) IFN [1123,1128]. 2) Targets Tetherin [1129]. 3) STAT-1, STAT-2 [1128].
5.	ORF-7b:	1) Ab [1130]. 2) Mutations/Deletions of Protein reported [1131,1155].	
6.	ORF-8:	1) IFN [1600,1825]. 2) Ab [1130]. 3) Induces ER (Endoplasmic Reticulum) Stress activated Unfolded Protein response which leads to the accelerated cell death [1600,1601, 1600, 1602]. 4) Protein Mutations/Deletions reported [1131,1155].	1) Downregulates MHC-I Complex [1125,1128,1132,1137]. 2) Interacts with TGF- β -1 -LTBP1 Complex [134].
7.	ORF-9b:		1) IFN - alp, bet, Lamb[1311,1826]. 2) RIG-I, MDA-5, MAVS [1311]. 3) TLR3 -TRIF [1311]. 4) cGAS-STING [1311] .
8.	ORF-10:		1) Ab [1130].
9.	PL-Pro / NSP-3:	1) Selectively promotes the Cleavage of TBK-1, IRF-3 and prevents their phosphorylation [1792, 791]. 2) Promotes de-ISGylation of ISG-15 [1792]. 3) Promotes dysregulation of TGF- β , MAPK, NF-KB [1791]. 4) Promotes the deubiquitination of RIG-I, STING, IRF-3, TBK-1, TRAF-3, TRAF-6 [1791]. 5) Mutations / Deletions reported [1799].	1) IFN [1792]. 2) Reduces the dimerization of STING [1792].

10.	3CL-Pro / M-Pro/ NSP-5:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Promotes / Increases the cleavage of TAB-1, NLRP-12 [2191]. 2) Increases NF-KB, NLRP-3 [2191]. 3) Pro-Caspase-1 [2191] 4) IL-1β [2191] 5) Increases Pyroptosis in cells [2191,2192,13]. 	-
11.	NSP-1:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Ab [1130]. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Decreases IFN [1128]. 2) Binds the ribosomal mRNA channel [994,993,995,992]. 3) IRF-3 [1120,1128]. 4) TYK-2, STAT-2 [1128].
12.	NSP-6:	-	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Decreases IFN [1127,1128]. 2) TBK-1 [1128]. 3) IRF-3 [1128].
13.	NSP-7:		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) IFN [1128].
14.	NSP-10:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Interacts with the enzymes of Oxido-reductase system and promotes the loss of inner mitochondrial potential to regulate the release of ROS (Reactive Oxygen Species) [144] 	-
15.	NSP-13: NSP-14: NSP-15:		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) IFN [1128,1799]. 2) IRF-3 [1799].
16.	Nucleocapsid N:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Ab [1135,1130]. 2) NF-KB [1156,1825]. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) IFN [1798]. 2) RIG-I, MAVS, TBK-I, IKK-ϵ [1797]. 3) STAT-1, SAT-2 [1798]. IRF-3 [1797].
17.	Membrane M:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Ab [1130]. 2) NF-KB [1156]. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) IFN [1128]. 2) RIG-I, MDA-5, MAVS, TBK-I, IKK-ϵ [1796].
18.	Envelope E:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) TLR-2 detects [452]. 2) Pro-Inflammatory IL-6, TNF-α and IFN-γ [452]. 3) Promotes Pyroptosis mediated cell death [2014,452,214]. 4) Ab response []. 	
19.	Spike Protein: S	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Increases Pro-Inflammatory cytokine IL-6 [1435,1431, 1109]. 2) Promotes the Pyroptosis mediated cell death [451]. 3) TLR-4 detects [453]. 4) Ab response [1130]. 	

[P-3]

Phase-1 Different PRR expression:

		REASONS				
S.No		SARS-COV-2	NICOTINE	CSE/ PM (PARTICULATE MATTER)/ Air Pollutants (Silica Dust, Diesel Exhaust)	MICROBIOTA DYSBIOSIS	ANTIBIOTICS
1.	Inflammation and Oxidative Stress in Airway epithelial cells :			Upregulated by: 1. Bush Fire [1264,1304]. 2. PM:2.5-10 [40,44]. 3. Silica Dust [857].	-	-
2.	ACE-2:		Up [1727]		-	-
Exo-PRR Expression:						
3.	TLR-2:	Senses SARS- COV-2 [452]	Down [1395, 1721]	Up [1543]	-	-
4.	TLR-4:	Senses SARS- COV-2 [1107, 1108,1109] Strong Binding Affinity to spike [1108]	1. Short term exposure Upregulates (Up) [1720] 2. Long Term Exposure Down regulates (Down) [1721, 1726, 1536, 1537, 1538]	CSE Upregulates [1401,1536, 1543,1534, 1536,1548]	-	-
5.	TLR-6:	TLR-6 and TLR- 1 might have binding affinity to Spike protein [1108]	Up [1543,1720].			
6.	TLR-1:					
Endo PRR Expression:						
5.	TLR-3:	Doesn't Detect [616,452]	Down [1722,1725,1222]		-	-
6.	TLR-7:	Detects [616] Possibly Down [1123,1149,11 50,1145,1146, 1147]	Down [1245]		Microbiota Dysbiosis Down regulates TR7 expression [1704,1705, 1707] (Gut microbiota	Independent of the route of Administration Antibiotics creates gut microbiota dysbiosis and Downregulates TLR7 expression

				controls TLR-7 expression at airway respiratory tract mucosal surfaces)	[2058] which can be lethal during viral infections [1704].
7.	RIG-I:	Downregulate s or Interferes [1311, 1796, 1797, 1799].	Down [1214,1216,1215]		
8.	MAVS:	Down [1311,1796, 1797]			

Up: Up Regulation

Down: Down-regulation

[P-4]

1. SARS-COV-2 delays Interferon (IFN) induction in all possible ways [1128, 1798,990,1121, 1141, 1142, 1143].
2. SARS-COV-2 interferes and downregulates Tetherin which is required by cells to prevent SARS-COV-2 from infecting other cells [1129].
3. This delayed release of IFN becomes detrimental during the early phase of severe COVID-19 by adding onto the ongoing inflammation during the early phase and Immunosuppression during the late phase of severe COVID-19 [1127,1797,1792,1128,1799].
4. The IFN regulatory factors IRF3 and IRF7 are key players in the regulation of type I and III IFN genes [1900].
5. Hatesuer et.al analyzed the role of IRF3 and IRF7 for the host response to IAV infections in *Irf3*^{-/-}, *Irf7*^{-/-}, and *Irf3*^{-/-Irf7}^{-/-} knockout mice [1900].
6. Hatesuer et. al reported that the absence of IRF3 had only a moderate impact on IFN expression while deletion of IRF7 completely abolished IFN- α production after IAV infection [1900]. In contrast, lack of both IRF3 and IRF7 resulted in the absence of both IFN- α and IFN β after IAV infection [1900].
7. SARS-COV-2 interferes with IRF-3 activity [1799,1311,1120,1128,1799,1797].
8. Minimal or No IRF-3 and TLR-3 activity observed in COVID-19 patients [616,452].

[P-5]

microRNA (miRNA):

1. miRNA's have important roles in both inside the cell, outside the cell and in bodily fluids [2205,2206,2207,2214,2215,2218].
2. miRNAs are so important for immune system regulation that they are transferred from mother to child through milk during early stages of birth [2220,2221].
3. Aberrant or dysregulated expression of miRNAs leads to the impaired innate and adaptive immune responses [2193,2201-2227].
4. Dicer is an enzyme that helps in the generation of miRNA's [2202,2203,2204,2205].
5. SARS-COV-2 targets lot of miRNA's and Dicer/Ago system pathways [2194].
6. miRNAs in COVID-19:
 - a) miR-223: Down [1800]. [↓]
 - b) miR-214: Down [1636,1637,1638]. [↓]
 - c) miR-16-5p: Down [1637]. [↓]
 - d) miR-92a-3p: Down [1637]. [↓]
 - e) Let-7i: Down [1820, 1627, 1821,1822,1823,1816,1819]. [↓]
 - f) miR-21: Down in mild [1820,1627,1821]. [↓]
 - g) miR-21 : significantly Upregulated in Severe COVID-19 [1822]. [↓]
 - h) miR-22 [].
 - i) miR-23a: Down [1817,1818]. [↓]
 - j) miR-23b: Down [1817,1818]. [↓]
 - k) miR-24: Down [1800,2231]. [↓]
 - l) miR-17: Down [1636,1584]. [↓]
 - m) miR-574-5p: Down [1636]. [↓]
 - n) miR-29a-3p: Down [1584]. [↓]
 - o) miR-126-3p: Down [1584]. [↓]
 - p) miR-34: [].
 - q) miR-31-3p: Down [1584]. [↓]
 - r) miR-146: Upregulated in COVID-19 [1823]. [↑]
 - s) miR-15b-5b : Upregulated in Severe COVID-19 [1627]. [↑]
 - t) miR-93-5p: Down [1637]. [↓]
 - u) miR-155: significantly Upregulated in COVID-19 [1822,1823]. [↑]
 - v) miR-499: significantly Upregulated in COVID-19 [1822]. [↑]
 - w) miR-208a: significantly Upregulated in COVID-19 [1822]. [↑]
 - x) miR-216: Down [1822,1817,1818]. [↓]
 - y) miR-223-3p: significantly downregulated in COVID-19 [1800]. [↓]
 - z) miR-150-5p: significantly downregulated in COVID-19 [1637]. [↓]
 - aa) miR-7-5p: significantly downregulated in COVID-19 [1800]. [↓]
 - ab) miR-495-3p: Down [1588]. [↓]
 - ac) miR-15b-5p, miR-486-3p and miR-486-5p upregulated only in severe COVID-19 patient [1627]. [↑]
 - ad) miR-7-5p, miR-24-3p, miR-145-5p and miR-223-3p: are reported to be markedly decreased in the elderly and diabetic groups which have the capability to inhibit S protein expression and SARS-CoV-2 replication [1800]. [↓]
 - ae) miR-17, miR-574-5p, and miR-214: are shown to induce degradation of the S glycoprotein, N and M proteins, and ORF1a of SARS-COV-2. SARS-COV-2 might bind to these miRNA [1636].

Tregs:

7. Importance of Tregs:
 - a) Regulatory T-cells (Tregs) are potent immune regulators [2207].
 - b) Tregs are required for controlling / suppressing inflammation at the early stages of viral infection [1654,1667].
 - c) Regulatory T cells (Tregs) are very much important and indispensable towards preventing autoimmunity [2201].
 - d) This is due to the ability of Treg cells to exert their suppressive function during inflammatory conditions [2201].
 - e) Tregs control the immune response to self and foreign particles (antigens) and help prevent autoimmune diseases by mediating immune tolerance [2228, 2201].
 - f) Tregs can suppress the activation, proliferation and cytokine production of CD4+ T cells and CD8+ T cells [2228].
 - g) Tregs can reduce Neutrophils and Th-17 cells during IAV infection [1654,1668,654,1659-1661].
8. 33 miRNA's are reported to be downregulated in nTregs [2202,2193]. They are miR-142-5p, miR-142-3p, miR-30b, miR-30c, miR-30e, let-7 and others [2202].
9. **35 miRNA's are reported to be significantly expressed in nTregs [2202,2193]. They are miR-223, miR-146, miR-21, miR-22 ,miR-23a ,miR-23b ,miR-24 ,miR-214, miR-155 and others [2202].**
10. Foxp-3 is crucial and essential for Tregs [1689,300,1578].
11. FoxO-1 and FoxO-3a together help FoxP-3 [1571,1572].

8.1) miR-29:

- i. FoxO3a is a direct target of miR-29a [1569].
- ii. miR-29a-3p is reported to be significantly decreased in critical COVID-19 patients [1584].
- iii. Cigarette smoke downregulates the expression of FoxO3 [1880].

8.2) miR-21-3p:

- i. Nersisyan et.al found that miRNA miR-21-3p has the largest probability of binding the human coronavirus RNAs [1619]. Nersisyan et.al through analysis of binding sites revealed high conservativity of miR-21-3p binding regions within RNAs of human coronaviruses and their strains including SARS-COV-2 [1619].
- ii. Jafarinejad et.al through computational studies revealed the presence of a binding site for miR-21-3p on SARS-COV-2 genome [1465].

8.3) miR-21-5p:

- i. Reduction in hsa-miR-21-5p expression has been reported in severe COVID-19 patients [1627].
- ii. miR-21-5p is upregulated in Treg and it positively regulates Foxp3 and negatively effects IL-10 expression [95, 96].
- iii. As miR has functions differently inside and outside the cells the dis-balance might cause different responses. Initial decrease and increase in systemic blood at later stages might lead to the dysregulation of effective communication during immune responses.

8.4) miR-21:

- i. miR-21 might be a direct regulator of FoxO-1 [2305].
- ii. miR-21 and miR-31 are important for FoxP-3 expression [1616].
- iii. miR-21 is an important regulator of (fork head box-P3) FoxP-3 Treg cells [1578,1616,2202,2193,1618,1615].
- iv. Furthermore, lipopolysaccharide (LPS) stimulation up-regulates miR-21 expression from healthy controls, but down-regulates miR-21 expression from RA patients [1607].
- v. Therefore, Dong et.al proposed that miR-21 may be part of a negative feedback loop in the normal setting but this feedback loop might be dysregulated and may contribute towards the imbalance of Th17 and Treg cells during inflammatory conditions ex: RA [1607].
- vi. During diseased / pro inflammatory state, decrease of miR-21 levels impairs Tregs /

- TH-17 cell balance [1578].
- vii. Decreased miR-21 expression correlates with the imbalance of Th17 and Treg cells in patients with rheumatoid arthritis [1607].
- viii. Extracellular miR-21 upregulation might play different role in modulating immune responses during inflammatory situations [1611].
- ix. Upregulation of miR-21 biases the differentiating of T cells away from memory T cells and toward inflammatory effector T cells [1621,1611].
- x. miR-21 targets negative feedback circuits in several signaling pathways [1621].
- xi. miR-21 expression is upregulated in Th17 cells as well [1608].
- xii. Several authors have found that miR-21 is most downregulated in mild COVID-19 patients [1820, 1627, 1821] proving the early onset of Treg and TH-17 dysregulation/imbalance [2420,2439,2421,2422,2423].
- xiii. miR-21 is significantly Upregulated in severe COVID-19 [1822] proving the loss of memory T cells in severe COVID-19 patients [2422,2424,2423,2425,2426,2427,2428].
- xiv. miR-155 and miR-21 as the two most upregulated miRNAs during the induction of MDSCs [1630,1607].
- xv. miR-155 [1822,1823] and MDSCs are elevated in severe COVID-19 patients [428,429,430,433,434,2003,2000,1061].

8.5) miR-24:

- i. miR-24-3p is a negative regulator of DNA damage and reduces DNA damage responses, cellular apoptosis, and susceptibility to chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [2229].
- ii. Hum et.al al through computational studies predicted that miR-24 has potential binding site on the Spike S protein of SARS-COV-2 genome [2294].
- iii. miR-24 has binding sites on SARS-COV-2 [1683,1465].
- iv. miR-24 is downregulated in COVID-19 patients [1800, 2231].
- v. Dysregulation of miR-24 might contribute towards the SARS-COV-2 induced DNA damage, cellular apoptosis and COPD phenotype in lungs of the infected patients.
- vi. Four miRNAs [miR-7-5p, miR-24-3p, miR-145-5p and miR-223-3p] are markedly decreased in the elderly and diabetic groups which can inhibit S protein expression and SARS-CoV-2 replication [1800].

8.6) miR-214:

- i. miR-214 regulates the function of Dendritic cells (DCs), T cells, NK Cells and Macrophages [1577, 1640-1643].
- ii. Downregulation of miR-214 enhances the heat shock protein-27 (HSP-27) which inhibits the differentiation of Tregs [1577, 1640-1643].
- iii. Downregulation of miR-214 leads to increased level of IL-17 [1647,1644-46,1580].
- iv. miR-214 is a negative regulator of TMPRSS-2 [1638]. As a results downregulation of miR-214 by SARS-COV-2 leads to an increased expression of TMPRSS-2. TMPRSS-2 accelerates the SARS-COV-2 entry process by cleaving the RBD [1638].
- v. SARS-COV-2 protein has affinity to bind to miR-214-3p [1626].
- vi. miR-214 downregulated in severe COVID-19 patients [1636,1637,1638].

8.7) miR-34:

- a) Reduced levels of host miR-34a-3p are found in severe COVID-19 patients [1588].

8.8) miR-29:

- i. The microRNA miR-29 controls innate and adaptive immune responses to intracellular bacterial infection by targeting interferon [1586].
- ii. miR-200, miR-16, miR-30 and miR-29 have binding sites on the ORF of SARS-COV-2 genome [2294]. All these miRNAs are also highly expressed in lung epithelial cells [2294].
- iii. Pierce et.al identify predicted miRNA binders to SARS-CoV-2 ORFs miR-23a (SARS-COV-2-1ab), miR-29a, -29c (SARS-COV-2-1ab, SARS-COV-2-N), miR-151a, -151b (SARS-COV-2-S), miR-4707-3p (S) [1683].
- iv. miR-29a-3p downregulated in COVID-19 patients [1584].
- v. Keikha et.al found that the relative expression of miR-31-3p, miR-29a-3p, and miR-126-3p were significantly decreased in critical COVID-19 patients [1584].

8.9) miR-23a:

- i. miR-23a downregulated in COVID-19 patients [1817,1818].
- ii. miR-23b downregulated in COVID-19 patients [1817,1818].

9.0) miR-223:

- i. miR-223 downregulated in COVID-19 patients [1800].

10) NOD-2:

- i. NOD-2 is important for Treg induction and effective viral clearance during RNA viral infections [1654,1656,1657,1658].

NOD-2 miRNAs:

10.1) miR-122:

- i. miR-122 regulates the NOD-2 expression directly [1680,1681,1686].
- ii. miR-122 binds to SARS-COV-2 with higher affinity [1685].

10.2) miR-320 -a/-b/-c:

- i. miR-320-a, miR-320-b, 320-c directly modulate the NOD-2 expression differentially during steady state and inflammatory states [1679,1757-1763].
- ii. miR-320a-3p and miR-320b are predicted to bind the SARS-COV-2 [1683,1465].

10.3) Other miRNA's:

- i. miR-192, miR-495, miR-512, miR-671, miR-124 have role in modulating NOD-2 expression [1680].
- ii. miR-192-5p and miR-323a-3p differentiated ICU non survivors from survivors in COVID-19 [1637]
- iii. miR-495-3p targets the ORF1ab region of the SARS-CoV-2 [1682].
- iv. miR-495-5p reduced in COVID-19 patients [1588].

10.4) CD-147:

- v. SARS-COV-2 affects CD-147 cells and NFAT family genes [106,1671-1678].
- vi. SARS-COV-2 is reported to affect CD-147 [106] and suppresses two important protein complexes by direct interaction with NOD-2 (NOD2), an important innate immunity component and gamma secretase complex [1678,1671,1672]. Importantly, in T cells CD147 suppresses T-cell receptor-dependent activation mainly by inhibition of nuclear factor of activated T cells (NFATs) [1678,1673,1674].
- vii. CD-147 is upregulated by higher glucose concentrations [1677]. This might give us one reason why co-morbid people are affected the most by SARS-COV-2 [1678].
- viii. Dysregulation of miRNAs might impair the NOD-2 expression and Treg cells.

10.5) other factors:

- ix. CSE delays/ modulates NOD-2 expression [1669,1530,1721].
- x. CSE modulates NOD-1 pathway [1670].

11. miR-4661:

- xi. SARS-COV-2 Spike S protein targets miR-4661 [1776].
- xii. miR-4661 targets IL-10 and IFN-Alpha [1745].

12. miR-15b:

- xiii. miR-15b-5b responsible for Th-17 in Arthritis patients [1581].
- xiv. miR-15b-5p, miR-486-3p and miR-486-5p were upregulated only in severe COVID-19 patient [1627].

13. Gut Microbiota controls Tregs:

It is now well established that resident microbes provide enormous advantages to the host, while dysbiosis can trigger acute and chronic inflammatory conditions [1746]. One of the mechanisms by which these microbes regulate immunity is through controlling Tregs and Th17 cells [1746].

14. Asymptomatic COVID-19 patients have early Tregs:

In an asymptomatic individual (single patient study), T lymphocyte exhibited peak proliferation (Ki-67) by day 7 after testing SARS-CoV-2 positive [1790]. T lymphocyte and Treg activation peaked by day 13, whilst frequencies of Th-1 and Treg increase over the first 28 days [1790].

15. SARS-COV-2 most probably dysregulates/ alters the miRNA's and delays/decreases Tregs but promotes Th-1 and Th-17 immune responses and associated miRNA's.

16. Decrease in Tregs has been observed in peripheral blood of mild COVID-19 patients

[1061,1062,1063,1064,1065,1066,1067,1068,1069,1070].

17. Early onset of Treg and TH-17 dysregulation/imbalance reported in COVID-19 patients [2420, 2439,2421,2422,2423].
18. Loss of subsets of memory T cells reported in severe COVID-19 patients [2422, 2424, 2423, 2425,2426,2427,2428].

[P-6]

1. Tfh (T follicular helper) cells:

2. Tfh cells are very important for B cell stimulation for antibodies, for determining the type of antibodies required and Germinal center formation against pathogens during viral infection [2228].
3. After DC's (Dendritic cells) present the MHC-II molecule, Naive CD4+ T cells then detect it through TCR (T cell receptor) to differentiate themselves into Tfh cells [1947,1976,2295].
4. TCF-1 and β -catenin are the down streams of TCR signaling that help in the differentiation of mature CD4+ T cells into T helper cell lineages [2296].
5. T cell factor 1 (TCF-1) is a key transcription factor of the Wnt signaling pathway, which activates Wnt target genes when bound by β -catenin [2262].
6. LEF-1 and TCF-1 orchestrate the Tfh differentiation by regulating differentiation circuits upstream of the transcriptional repressor Bcl-6 [2259].
7. TCF-1 directly binds to the Bcl-6 promoter and Prdm1 5' regulatory regions, which promotes /upregulates the Bcl-6 expression but represses Blimp-1 expression [2257].
8. Bcl-6 and Blimp-1 are reciprocal and antagonistic regulators of T follicular helper (Tfh) cell differentiation [2276].
9. Propelled by the antagonism of Bcl-6 and Blimp-1, activated CD4+ T cells undergo a bimodal fate decision during acute viral infection to become either Tfh (Bcl6⁺Blimp1⁻) cells or Th-1 (Bcl6⁻Blimp1⁺) cells [1947].
10. Tfh cells have upregulated expression of CXCR-5 and Bcl-6 expression [2276,2258,2269,2270,2271,2286].
11. Follicular B helper T cells express CXC chemokine receptor 5 (CXCR-5) , localize to B cell follicles, and support immunoglobulin (Ig) production [2251,2258].
12. TCF-1 is important for CD4+ and CD8+ T cell memory functions [2267,2268,2265].
13. Mechanistically, TCF-1 fuels the functionalities of exhausted CD8+ T cells by promoting the expression of an array of key effector function-associated transcription regulators, including Foxo1, Zeb2, Id3, and Eomes [2295].
14. TCF-1 (The Transcription Factor-1) preserves the effector functioning of exhausted CD8+ T cells during Chronic Viral Infections [2295].
15. In absence of effective TCF-1 signalling, CD4+ T cells preferentially differentiate into TNF- α inducing Th-1 cells rather than Tfh cells [2257,2258,2259,1947].
16. miR-24 is highly expressed in human lung epithelial cells [2294,2229].
17. miR-24 reduces DNA damage response, apoptosis and COPD in lungs [2229].
18. miR-24 is a key upstream molecule that regulates the expression of TCF-1 directly via targeting 3'-UTR (Untranslated region) of TCF-1 mRNA [2293,2232,2233].
19. SARS-COV-2 is predicted to bind to miR-24 on Spike S protein and other places of the viral genome structure [1683,1465,2294].
20. miR-24 is downregulated in severe COVID-19 patients [1800, 2231].
21. Reduced/Loss of Bcl-6 expression in Tfh cells observed in severe COVID-19 patients [2288].
22. Absence of Germinal centers (GC) have been observed and reported in severe COVID-19 patients [2288].
23. Other studies have also reported the delayed B cell responses in Severe COVID-19 patients [19,21,23,24].
24. Loss of TCF-1 expression in naïve CD4+ T cells has been observed in severe COVID-19 patients [2278,2279,2280].
25. Loss of TCF-1 expressed CD8+ T cells observed in severe COVID-19 patients [2279].
26. Tfh cells w.r.to M,N,S SARS-COV-2 proteins observed in COVID-19 patients [2234].
27. This Tfh cells increase in time dependent manner with robust response at 40 days from the onset of symptoms [2234].
28. In IAV, Tfh cells peak from 7 days [2236,2237,2238,2239].
29. This supports that SARS-COV-2 delays the Tfh cell formation directly by dysregulating miRNAs or by interfering with other pathways [2234].
30. B cells and associated antibodies are reported to be delayed in severe COVID-19 patients in several studies [2292,2288,19,21,23,24].

31. Prolonged persistence of SARS-COV-2 ranges from 2 weeks to 4 weeks in paediatrics and from anywhere between 50-60 days from the onset of symptoms in elder COVID-19 patients [2242-2247].
32. Steroid usage and diabetes mellitus are reported to increase the number of days of viral RNA persistence in bodily fluids of the patients [2247].

[P-7]

PMBC's:

1. Human PMBC's on stimulation with SARS-COV-2 expresses higher levels of IFN-I, III and associated ISGs in a dose dependent manner [2159,2187-2190].
2. SARS-COV-2 doesn't interfere efficiently with intracellular machinery responsible for anti-viral IFN and ISG's [2159].
3. PMBC's detection of SARS-COV-2 is dependent on TLR-7/8 [2159].
4. SARS-CoV-2 spike protein S1 subunit induces pro-inflammatory responses via toll-like receptor 4 signaling in murine and human macrophages [1431].

CD4+ T cells:

a) SARS-COV-2 reduces TCF-1 in CD4+ T cells:

1. TCF-1 is gene product of TCF-7 [2281,2263,2282].
2. Decreased expression of IL7R and TCF-7 genes in naïve T cell states of severe COVID-19 patients are reported [2278].
3. COVID-19 patients are reported with reduced TCF-1/TCF-7 [2281,2263,2282] expression in CD4+ T cells of Severe patients when compared with mild disease (no interstitial pneumonia and no oxygen requirement) [2280].
4. Convalescent/recovered COVID-19 patients are reported with TCF-1 expression and specific memory T cells [2279].
5. In CD4 T cells, TCF-1 promotes Th2 differentiation by inducing GATA3 expression and restricts IFN- γ expression by Th1 cells [2268].
6. In absence of effective TCF-1 signalling, CD4+ T cells preferentially differentiate into TNF- α inducing Th-1 cells rather than Tfh cells [2257,2258,2259,1947].
7. Expression of TCR and TCF1 are required for the CD4+ and CD8+ T cell memory programming [2267].
8. Supportively enough T cell suppression is observed in COVID-19 patients [593].
9. COVID-19 patients had significantly decreased T cells, both helper (CD4+) and cytotoxic (CD8+)T cells [1061].
10. Decrease in Tregs has been observed in peripheral blood of mild COVID-19 patients [1061,1062,1063,1064,1065,1066,1067,1068,1069,1070].
11. Early onset of Treg and TH-17 dysregulation/imbalance reported in COVID-19 patients [2420,2439,2421,2422,2423].
12. Loss of subsets of memory T cells reported in severe COVID-19 patients [2422,2424,2423,2425,2426,2427,2428].

[p-8]

1. **DC's:**
2. Healthy human pDC's upon stimulation with SARS-COV-2 are found to phenotypically diversifying into higher levels of IFN secreting p1-pDC's (PD-L1+ CD80-) [2159].
3. In the presence of TLR-7/8 inhibitor or in the absence of required TLR-7/8 signalling, SARS-COV-2 stimulated pDC's turn from IFN producing p1-pDC's to IL-6 and TNF- α inflammatory cytokines producing pDC's [2159].
4. The stimulation of pDC's with SARS-COV-2 is not dependent on ACE-2 or TMPRSS-2 mediated entry pathway but reported to be possibly dependent on NRP-1 receptor (Neuropilin-1) [2159].
5. miR-24 is a negative regulator of NRP-1 [2230].
6. As reported above SARS-COV-2 binds to miR-24 [1683,1465,2294] and also miR-24 has been found to be reduced in severe COVID-19 patients [2231,1800].
7. Reduction in miR-24 levels might act in upregulating NRP-1 expression.
8. P2-pDC (PD-L1+ CD80+) and p3-pDC (PD-L1- CD80+) are known for both innate and adaptive immune functions [2159].
9. Wu et.al reported that TLR-7 agonist ligands rescued the immune impairment in antibiotic-treated mice during Influenza virus (IAV) [1704].
10. Antibiotics are reported to dysregulate gut microbiota and TLR-7 expression at mucosal surfaces independent of the delivery Route i.e: either administered through oral or Intravenous ways [2058]. Antibiotics are known for dysregulating gut microbiota [1728] and gut microbiota is related to TLR-7 expression at mucosal surfaces [1704] and reduction in TLR-7 is associated with higher mortality in COVID-19 patients [616]. Microbiota regulates the TLR-7 expression at mucosal surfaces which is helpful during viral infections [1704,1705,1707].
11. People with less TLR-7 expression will have more inflammatory responses mediating pDC's during the early stage of the SARS-COV-2 infection [2159].
12. According to imagePeople with severe COVID-19 have reduced TLR-7 and TLR-3 expression at the beginning phase of COPD/ (oxygen requirement) when compared to mild and recovered COVID-19 patients [616,452].
13. Short term exposure to CSE upregulates/increases DC's, MHC-II, CD-40, CD-80, CD-83, CD-86 [1549,1552].
14. Long term exposure to CSE down regulates/decreases DC's, MHC-II, CD-40, CD-80, CD-83, CD-86 expression [1549,845,843,1558,1556].
15. Cigarette smoke/ Nicotine have suppressive effects on DC functioning which might lead to an impaired or delayed immune responses towards viral infections [1549].

[P-9]

NK (Natural Killer) Cells:

1. NK cells can get activated in APC independent manner [383].
2. NK cells require TLR-3/TLR-7 stimulation for efficient functioning during viral infections [381,382].
3. During viral infections, MDSC effector functions need to be regulated by NK T cells in absence of which immune suppression exercised by MDSC cause increased viral titers and mortality rates [368, 369].
4. SARS-COV-2 spike S1 protein affects NK cells activity differentially in K562 and lung epithelial cells [392]. On stimulation with SARS-COV-2, NK cells loose/have reduced degranulation nature in the Lung epithelial cells via HLA-E/NKG2A pathway but not the same in K562 cells [392].
5. Deletion of the NKG2C receptor encoding KLRC2 gene and HLA-E variants are proposed to be one of the risk factors for severe COVID-19 [388].
6. SARS-COV-2 is implied with reduced NK cell activity in Lung epithelial cells [388].
7. A lower NK cell count correlates the most with the worse survival rate and a longer duration of viral shedding in COVID-19 patients [396, 387-391, 393-399, 379, 1061].
8. Supportively enough higher/elevated MDSC activity is observed in severe COVID-19 patients [428].
9. NK cells decrease numerically and become functionally deficient after Trauma [619].

CSE:

10. Cigarette smoke exposure reduces the NK cell activity in primary or Secondary smokers [338, 341, 343, 339, 340, 342, 344, 345, 346].

Delayed Humoral Responses in Severe COVID-19 Patients:

1. Hasan et.al though their studies have attributed the severe form of Covid-19 to a dysfunctional innate immune response, such as a delayed and/or deficient type I/III interferon response, coupled with an exaggerated and/or a dysfunctional adaptive immunity [21].
2. Differences in T-cell (including CD4+ T- cells, CD8+ T-cells, T follicular helper cells, $\gamma\delta$ -T-cells, and regulatory T-cells) and B-cell (transitional cells, double-negative 2 cells, antibody-secreting cells) responses have been identified in patients with severe disease compared to mild cases [21].
3. Moreover, differences in the kinetic/titer of neutralizing antibody responses have been described in severe COVID-19 disease, which may be confounded by antibody-dependent enhancements [21].
4. Lucas et.al observed a correlation between anti-spike (S) immunoglobulin G (IgG) levels, length of hospitalization and clinical parameters associated with worse clinical progression [19]. Although high anti-S IgG levels correlated with worse disease severity, such correlation was reported to be time dependent [19].
5. Lucas et.al reported that deceased patients do not have higher overall humoral response than discharged patients [19]. However, they mount a robust, yet delayed, response, measured by anti-S, anti-receptor-binding domain IgG and neutralizing antibody (NAb) levels compared to survivors [19].
6. Delayed seroconversion kinetics reported to be correlated with impaired viral control in deceased patients [19]. Finally, although sera from 85% of patients display some neutralization capacity during their disease course, NAb generation before 14 day from disease onset is found to be a key factor for recovery [19].
7. These data indicate that COVID-19 mortality does not correlate with the cross-sectional antiviral antibody levels per se but, rather, with the delayed kinetics of NAb production [19]. Thalia et.al studied 55 Covid-19 patients (59.7 ± 16.2 years, 63.6% male), of which 28 (50.9%) died [23].
8. Thalia et.al observed the IgA and IgG positivity (IgA+ and IgG+) in 90.9% and 80% of total patients, respectively [23]. The highest IgA+ frequency was found at weeks 2 and 3 and the highest IgG+ at weeks 3 and 4 [23]. It is important to note that patients who died have lower IgA titers in the first two weeks however while a significant increase in IgA levels was found to be observed in the subsequent weeks [32].
9. Thalia et.al identified significant correlations between Ct values and immunoglobulin levels as both IgA and IgG correlated with Ct values in patients who died [23]. Thalia et.al though their study and results concluded that lower IgA titers in early Covid-19, which is associated with lower Ct values, may indicate patients at higher risk for death [23].
10. Fraser et.al reported that Peak serological responses for each Ig isotype occurred on different ICU days (IgM day 13 > IgA day 17 > IgG persistently increased), with the total Ig peaking at approximately ICU day 18 [24].
11. Fraser et.al found that COVID-19+ patients who died had earlier/similar peaks in IgA and total Ig in their ICU stay when compared with the patients who have survived [24].
12. Critically ill COVID-19 patients exhibit anti-SARS-CoV-2 serological responses, including those COVID-19 patients who ultimately died, suggesting that blunted serological responses did not contribute to mortality [24].
13. Decreased number of B cells reported in mild COVID-19 patients [1061].

Phase-2: COPD and Lung Injury:

[p-11]

1. SARS-COV-2 induces smooth muscle phenotype:

- a) SARS-COV-2 attaches to the ACE-2 receptor in airway epithelial cells and mediates the damage to the airway epithelial cells [1102,1103,2159].
- b) SARS-COV-2 mediates damage to the Endothelial Glycocalyx [1495,1496,1497].
- c) The endothelial glycocalyx is a vital regulator of vascular permeability. Damage to this delicate layer can result in increased protein and water transit [1496].
- d) SARS-COV-2 Infection induced Endothelial damage induces Systemic Injury and subsequent Vascular Endothelial Dysfunction [1460, 1497, 1495,1498,1502].
- e) SARS-COV-2 mediates micro vascular injury [2159].
- f) Inflammation and SARS-COV-2 mediated damage in airway trachea promotes Airway Smooth muscles damage and the remodeling of airway smooth muscles [2357, 1102, 2358, 2359, 2159].
- g) As a result of above mentioned damage, early COPD and early Hypoxic situation/phenotype occurs in COVID-19 patients during initial phase of entering Severe stage [60,77,35-39].

2. SARS-COV-2 and AT-II cells, ACE-2 expression in Lungs:

- a) Alveolar cells (AT-I and AT-II) account for almost 31% of cells in the Lung cells[2364, 2362].
- b) ACE2 expression is found abundantly in type-II pneumocytes/alveolar cells (AT-2), bronchial transient epithelial secretory cells respiratory epithelial cells, artery smooth muscle cells etc... [2362, 2363-2374].
- c) SARS-COV-2 attaches to ACE-2 receptors of AT-II cells [2362,1102,1103,2159].
- d) Exceptions:
 - i. ACE2 expression in nasal epithelium occurs in an age dependant manner [2362].
 - ii. That's why children attacked very lowly by virus as they have less ACE2 receptors.
 - iii. Children have lower innate and adaptive immunity as well. If they are getting attacked it's due to hyper blood pressure or living in polluted environment [2362].

3. ACE-2 down regulated:

- a) SARS-COV-2 enters into the host cell through disulfide bond conformational change [1104,1203,104, 1207,1208,154,137].
- b) ACE2 is downregulated once the conformational change is exhibited by SARS-COV-2 to enter the host cells [1328,2361].
- c) This SARS-CoV-2 Spike S Protein mediated downregulation of ACE-2 leads towards an impaired endothelial function [1328].
- d) Downregulation of ACE-2 expression leads to RAAS imbalance [1328,2360].
- e) AT-II(AT-2) cells synthesize the pulmonary surfactant, which is essential for maintenance of low surface tension at air and liquid interface in alveoli, to prevent lung collapse [2364].
- f) Downregulation of ACE-2 expression leads to RAAS imbalance [1328,2360].

ACE-2 and mitochondrial function:

- g) ACE-2 has a clear association and is associated with regulation of mitochondrial function [2376,2377,2378,2379,2380,1482].
- h) ACE-2 knockout mice exhibit impaired mitochondrial respiration and ATP production, which are compensated by overexpression of ACE-2 (hyperplasia) [1482,2379].
- i) Conclusively, SARS-CoV-2 may have an effect on mitochondrial function as well.

4. Alveolar air sac collapse:

- a) Viral and innate immune system stimulated inflammatory responses mediated damage to AT-II cells leads towards the collapse of Alveolar air Sacs [2362].
- b) Conclusively enough, analysis of Lungs obtained during autopsy from patients who died from COVID-19 are reported to demonstrate diffuse alveolar damage with necrosis of Alveolar lining cells, AT-II hyperplasia, linear inter-alveolar fibrin deposition, marked interstitial oedema with early inter-alveolar organization, and lymphocytic inflammation [2132].
- c) Similarly other authors have also reported the Hyperplasia of ACE-2 by SARS-COV-2 in COVID-19 patients [2029].

Exceptions:

ACE2 expression is fold higher in male in comparison to female lung samples, as shown by

Zhao et al. through single-cell RNA-seq [2365]. Likewise, in vitro studies demonstrated that oestrogen may regulate ACE2 expression in differentiated airway epithelial cells [2375, 2362].

5. Lung Oedematic situation.

1. Downregulation of ACE-2 increases the vascular permeability and induces Pulmonary Oedematic situation [1328,2361]. This gives way for Blood Monocytes to easily and rapidly traffic to the infection site i.e Lungs.
2. The damage of Glycocalyx and endothelial cells increases vascular permeability and results in the Oedematic situation in, around Lungs and airway passage making it easy for monocytes and other contents (like PAMPs, DAMPs, LPS etc..) to move in between Lungs and systemic blood.

6. LPS leakage from systemic blood:

- a. Co-morbid people have metabolic endotoxemia (ex:LPS) [2339,2340,2341,2318,2309].
- b. LPS at mild quantities promote inflammation [2351,368].
- c. Mild quantities of LPS promotes the airway inflammation and leads to hyper mucus secretion through NET's and Macrophages [1419,1421,1030].
- d. LPS binds to SARS-COV-2 and forms an aggregated complex to mimic secondary bacterial infection and mounts immense /boost inflammatory immune response [833,2315].
- e. Comorbid Patients with Systemic LPS, preexisting bacterial infections and Periodontitis was reported with severe manifestations in COVID-19 patients [2318,2322,237,1519,2326,2327, 19, 20,21,22].

7. DAMP release:

- a) HMGB-1 acts as a late driver of inflammatory and related immune processes [324,271,272, 404,407,408,412,424] and primes pro-inflammatory responses [322, 323, 325, 327, 400,409, 410] and leads to further inflammation mediated damage ex: fibrosis [278,275,276,447] through different HMGB-1 receptors like RAGE [484], TLR2, TLR4 [484-487,491,361,293, 315-317,413-415,420, 426,207-224], TLR9 [484,505], cluster of differentiation 24 (CD24)/Siglec-10 [488] etc...
- b) The DAMPs released from damaged cells (HMGB-1) [328,441,454-463,215], collapsed alveolar air sacs or surfactant from alveolar sacs mediate and further promote the inflammatory responses by stimulating more activated Neutrophils to the site through the leaky blood vessels [402,405, 471,478,322,481-491].

8. ROS:

- a) In the absence of effective clearing and increased ROS viral burden keep on increasing [985,963,981,984,985,998,999,1000,584, 918,919,1425,1002].
- b) SARS-COV-2 spike protein leakage into systemic blood in absence of effective clearance [1434].

9. PAMP/ Viral Burden:

- a) Viral Burden increase directly proportional to cell death [2381,2360].

10. Delayed IFN induction, endotoxin, DAMPs along with SAS-COV-2 viral burden stimulates the upregulation of PRR's inside Lungs.

11. Secondary Upregulation of PRR's:

- a) TLR-4 is upregulated during viral pro-inflammatory responses [1394,2030,2019].
- b) HMGB-1 induces increased TLR-4 expression during lung injury along with IL-1 β and TNF- α [2020].
- c) LPS induces increases TLR-4 expression [2025,2026].
- d) Hyperplasia of ACE-2 and AT-II cell occurs [1394,2132,2030,2360,2159,2364,1482].
- e) Similarly other PRR's are upregulated in COVID-19 patients during second phase as follows:

S.No:		Reasons:				
Exo PRR's:		SARS-COV-2	During Lung Injury / During acute viral infections	LPS Male:	Sepsis	Late COVID- 19
1.	TLR-2:	--	--	--	--	--
2.	TLR-4:	Up [1394,2030, 616,452]	Up [2019, 2016, 2017]	Up [2025, 2026, 2027,	Down [2024]	Down [616, 452]

				2018]		
3.	ACE-2:	Up [1394, 2030,2132, 2365]	ACE-2/ AT-II hyperplasia [1394,2132,2364,1482,2379]			
Endo PRR's:						
3.	TLR-3:	Up [616,452]	Up [1687,1695, 1694,2016, 2017]	--	--	Down [616, 452]
4.	TLR-7:	Up [616,452]	Up [1687,1695,1694]	--	--	Down [616, 452]
5.	RIG-I:	Up [616,452]	Up [1687,1695,1694]			

12. Secondary upregulation of PRR's promotes:

1. Secondary upregulation of PRR's further encourage the ongoing inflammatory responses mediated by Th-1 and Th-17 and further suppresses the Treg cells during viral infections [1687,1688,1696,1694,1697].
2. Secondary upregulation of PRR's TLR-3, TLR-7, RIG-I promotes Th-1 and Th-17 responses and further suppresses Tregs and NOD-2 expression during viral infections [1687,1695,1694].
3. Shi et.al showed that in IAV infected mice GQD controls inflammation by inducing Tregs but not by directly downregulating TLR-7 expression suggests that TLR-7 inflammatory response in the late stage of viral infections might be part of protective mechanism, while inhibiting viral, replication, increasing Tregs could result in reduced ratios of Th1/Th2 and Th17/Treg and subsequent avoidance of cytokine storm [1687].
4. This is in acceptance with other study which shows that although TLR-7 has a prominent role in promoting pro-inflammation during late/acute phase of viral infections, this act might mostly be attributed towards the protective role of TLR-7 in controlling the growth of viral infection during late phase but not during earlier phases of the infection [615].

5. Expression of Different Parameters:

	Viral Infections	SARS-COV-2 induced COVID-19
1. NOD-2:	Down [1687,1695,1694]	
2. Tregs:	Down [1687,1688,1696,1694,1697,1687,1689]	Down [2395-2402]
3. ROS:	Up	Up [985,963,981, 984, 985, 998, 999, 1000, 584, 918, 919, 1425 1002]
4. Th-1:	Up [1687,1688,1696,1694,1697]	Up [2384,2388,2389,2390]
5. Th-17:	Up [1687,1688,1696,1694,1697]	Up [2382, 2383,2385,2386,2387,2388]
6. Neutrophils:	Up [[1399,1424,1029,1036]. [1013,1014,1028,1030-1036,1044,1045] [1015-1020,1026	Up [194-199,598,597,1448,1449,2036, 2037,2038]

6. As a result Th-1 and Th-17 responses can be observed in COVID-19 patients due to the delayed responses from Tregs, Tfh and dysregulates miRNA's.
7. Supportively enough, T-Helper cell subset response is a determining factor in COVID-19 progression [2388, 2391].
8. High Th-1 responses are observed in COVID-19 patients [2384,2388,2389,2390].
9. Although Th2/Th1 Cytokine imbalance is reported to be associated with higher COVID-19 risk mortality [2384], Karolina et.al reported that there was no difference between Th1/Th2 responses between patients with severe and mild disease, except for levels of interleukin-6 (IL-6) and IL-10 [2392].

10. Overproduction of IL-6 reported in initial phases of Severe COVID-19 patients [2404-2412].
11. Overproduction of IL-6 along with TGF- β promotes Th-17 in SARS-COV-2[1610,2415].
12. Th-17 responses are reported to be higher in severe COVID-19 patients [2414, 2382, 2383, 2385, 2386, 2387,2388] and Neutrophils mediate Th-17 promotion in COVID-19 patients [2386].
13. Neutrophils elevated in COVID-19 patients when compared to Lymphocytes [2413].
14. Although Whole virion inactivated vaccines have been reported to elicitate Th-1 mediated responses and antibodies production [2393,2394], but conclusion cannot be drawn if Th-1 responses are protective or damaging in severe COVID-19 patients as they contribute towards both the resolution of infection and also in the damaging of the cells and tissues.
15. Reduced Treg activity has been reported in early and severe COVID-19 patients [2395-2402].
- 13. IgA dependency reduced in Lungs:**
 1. Starting from bronchioles to terminal bronchioles the low columnar epithelial layer changes into cuboidal [81]. Starting from bronchioles the ciliated cells and goblet cells starts decreasing and disappear completely towards the terminal bronchioles [81].
 2. Epithelial cells and mucus secreting Goblet cells plays a very important role during infections by acting as barriers [81].
 3. At Mucosal surfaces special class of antibody called IgA, in many cases are the first type of antibodies to encounter an invading microbe [2299].
 4. Lower IgA responses are associated with severe outcomes in patients [2300].
 5. Due to the absence of mucosal surfaces in lungs, Lung immune system is mainly dominated by innate immune responses during early stages of infections.
 6. As a result in the presence of viral load in the lungs, Innate immune system responds aggressively towards the virus as the entire burden to control the fastly replicating viral burden falls on the innate immune system.
- 14. Chemokines/Chemoattractants:**
 - a) COVID-19 patients are found with the following chemokines in Lungs, Plasma and Sera depending on the stage of the disease [2177].
 - b) CXCL-10: Increases directly with the severity of the COVID-19 disease [2177,2175].
 - c) CXCL-10 attracts Monocytes, NK Cells and Th-1 cells (with CXCR-3 expression) [2178,2179].
 - d) CCL-2: Upregulated in early, late and fatal stages of the COVID-19 infection and CCL-2 plays important role in attracting Monocytes [2177,2180,2181,2159].
 - e) CXCL-8: Highly upregulates in Severe COVID-19 patients [1319,2183,2159].
 - f) CXCL-8 attracts Neutrophils [2181].
 - g) CXCL-9: Highly upregulated in severe COVID-19 patients [1319,2183,2159].
 - h) CXCL-9 attracts T cells, NK cells [2182].
- 15. Load on Monocytes Increases:**
 - a) CXCL8/IL-8 is elevated in patients with COVID-19 because of its potent role in the recruitment and activation of neutrophils [2356].
 - b) As a result of the increased vascular permeability, increased dependence on Innate immune responses, Th-1 and Th-17 responses, resulted chemokines strongly attract the Monocytes to lungs.
 - c) The influx of Neutrophils, Macrophages and other Monocytes induce severe damage to the cells.
- 16. Massive Monocyte Influx:**
 - a) Neutrophils have been associated with devastating damage in viral immune responses [1399,1424,1029,1036].
 - b) Neutrophils mediate the Lung damage during ARDS and Acute Lung Injury [1013,1014,1028,1030-1036,1044,1045].
 - c) Neutrophils are reported to be elevated in severe COVID-19 patients [194-199].
- 17. NET's (Neutrophil Extracellular Traps) in COVID-19:**
 - a) Neutrophils and associated NET's(Neutrophil Extracellular Traps) have been implicated with SARS-COV-2 mediated damage in COVID-19 patients [598,597,1448,1449,2036,2037, 2038].
 - b) Monocytes, neutrophils, and platelets might cooperate to initiate and propagate venous thrombosis in mice [2165].
 - c) Extracellular DNA fibers produced during inflammation and also known as neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) have role in COVID-19 [239,241] and they contributes towards DVT (deep vein thrombosis) [1455] or thrombosis in COVID-19 pathogenesis [2035].

- d) Activated Neutrophils are associated with subsequent endothelial or Lung injury in COVID-19 patients [598,597,1448,1449,1451,1452,1453,1455,1419,1420,1421,1422,1012].
- e) Elastase and exacerbation of Neutrophil mediated innate immunity is reported to be involved in severe and negative manifestations of COVID-19 patients [2033].
- f) SARS-COV-2 viral burden along with other factors (systemic LPS and DAMPs) leads towards the NET's formation in systemic blood of Severe COVID-19 patient [1328,1450, 598,1452,1453,239,240,593,1031].
- g) NET's induced by Ventilators add on to the ongoing damage of Lung injury in COVID-19 patients [597, 1033]. Proteinase has been observed to be released from activated Neutrophils in mechanically ventilated patients in both non-COVID-19 and COVID-19 pneumonia [2034].

18. Hypoxia and Acute Lung Injury:

- a) Supportively enough, COVID-19 has been associated with hyper inflammation [10-18] and delayed humoral immune responses [19,20,21,22,23,24]. Most of the complications with COVID-19 patients have been associated with severe and early hypoxia, ARDS, pneumonia [60,77,35-39] and Acute Lung Injury [30-34].
- b) Viral load has been reported to be associated directly with incidence of lung injury/epithelial injury or remote organ injury in COVID-19 patients [25-30].
- c) Pulmonary Innate Immune response determines the outcome of Inflammation during Pneumonia and Sepsis-Associated Acute Lung Injury [649].

[p-14]

SARS-COV-2 enters into systemic blood and forms complex mimicking secondary infections [833].

19. Persistence of SARS-COV-2 RNA in sera/plasma/blood of COVID-19 patients:

- a) Prolonged persistence of SARS-COV-2 observed from anywhere between 2 weeks to 4 weeks in paediatrics and anywhere between 50-60 days from the onset of symptoms in elder COVID-19 patients [2242-2247].

20. Floating LPS+SARS-COV-2 induces Macrophage and Neutrophils activation like phenotype:

- a) Macrophage activation like syndrome can be observed during Sepsis [1442, 1445].
- b) **Macrophage activation like syndrome** reported in acute COVID-19 patients [1429,1443,1444,1446].
- c) SARS-COV-2 spike proteins in the absence of efficient clearance and delayed antibodies and elevated ROS promotes Macrophage/Neutrophil activation like syndrome in Systemic blood ultimately leading to immune dysregulation and Sepsis.

21. Systemic/Internal Organ Injury:

- 1. ACE-2 expression is detected in type II pneumocytes/alveolar cells (AT2), bronchial transient epithelial secretory cells respiratory epithelial cells, myocardial cells, endothelial cells and artery smooth muscle cells, oesophagus epithelial cells, neurons and glia, tongue epithelial cells, stomach, cholangiocytes, adipose tissue, pancreatic exocrine glands and islets, renal proximal tubule cells, podocytes, bladder urothelial cells, testis, uterus epithelial cells, ovary and breast, colon, and rectum cells [2362, 2363-2374].
- 2. In the absence of effective clearance and delayed humoral immune responses the floating spike proteins and virions enter into the systemic blood travel towards internal organs and get attached themselves to the ACE-2 receptors of organs and promote inflammation
- 3. As a result internal/systemic organ injury occurs.

[P-12]

Other Factors to be considered:

S.No:		Male:	Elder:	Kids:	Ethnics
1	ACE2:	Male have 3-fold higher ACE-2 expression [2365]. Oestrogen may regulate ACE2 expression in differentiated airway epithelial cells [2375, 2362].	Increases in Age dependent manner [2362].	Low [2362]	
2	LPS:	The LPS levels are statistically lower in women than in men in all ethnic groups [2321].	Increases in Age dependent manner [2320].	Low [2320]	Highest in South Asians [2321].
3	Vitamin-D:	Common around the world especially in European countries [2416,2417,2418].			

[p-13]

1. Secondary upregulation of PRR's further encourage the ongoing inflammatory responses mediated by Th-1 and Th-17 and further suppresses the Treg cells [1687,1688,1696,1694,1697].
2. Overproduction of IL-6 along with TGF- β promotes Th-17 in COVID-19 patients [1610].
3. SARS-COV-2 can either enter into the systemic blood or Systemic LPS / Endotoxin can get attached to Spike protein by passing through the following ways:
 - a) Endothelial damage [25-30,1328,2158].
 - b) Lung Injury [30-34].
 - c) Nasal injury during Nasal Swab testing [2066,2075,2067,2069, 2070,2071,2072,2073,2074].
4. **LPS as endotoxin:**
 - a) When certain types of bacteria die in our gut, they release components that are toxic (endotoxin) to us such as Lipopolysaccharides (LPS). LPS are natural components of some Bacterial membranes(even healthy ones). When the bacteria dies, the LPS is released in gut. Additionally, research shows that just one single processed, high-fat and high-carbohydrate meal can increase the level of LPS in our bloodstream by many fold. This LPS leakage into the bloodstream happens through the gaps between endothelial tight junctions [2339, 2340,2341,2318,2309].
 - b) Gut dysbiosis, Stress disorders, bad food habits, age and other existing or unresolved infections can be mainly attributed towards the increase in metabolic endotoxemia[2339,2340,2341,2318,2309].
 - c) LPS can remain elevated in the bloodstream over the course of weeks and months.This presence of LPS in the bloodstream is defined as metabolic endotoxemia [2340, 2341].
 - d) Increased Blood Microbiota and Circulating Microbial Metabolites or plasma levels of LPS and LPS-binding protein (LBP) are found in obese, diabetes and CVD(Cardiovascular Disease) patients [2309].
 - e) LPS levels in blood are almost double in older individuals compared to younger individuals [2320].
 - f) The age adjusted levels of LPS significantly vary in different ethnic groups, being the highest in South Asians [2321]. These LPS levels are statistically lower in women than in men in all ethnic groups [2321].
 - g) All the comorbid and elderly people are implied to be having something in common which is LPS [2309].
5. **Comorbidities and Viral Infections:**
 - a) Often comorbid and elderly people have been observed with exacerbated viral responses [2318, 2309].
 - b) LPS in circulation was reported to be connected to systemic immune activation during HIV infection [2331]. LPS, LBP, and soluble CD-14 levels are reported to be elevated in the plasma of dengue virus infected patients and strongly correlated with the disease severity [2332].
 - c) Endo toxin induced pulmonary inflammatory response is reported to be enhanced during the acute phase of influenza virus (pH1N1) infection [2328] and MERS [2318].
 - d) This similar synergistic enhancement of hypercytokinemia was observed as well with the Porcine Respiratory Coronavirus (PRCV) model [2329, 2330].
 - e) In both models, combinations of the virus with LPS can cause the induction of severe SARS conditions, disproportional (up to 60 times elevated) hypercytokinemia in lungs, and massive death of infected animals, although at the same time a single viral or LPS infection doesn't demonstrate such extreme outcomes [2309].
6. **Comorbidities and SARS-COV-2 Infections:**

Comorbidities such as obesity, type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases and old age are implied to be associated directly with severely negative outcome in Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infected COVID-19 patients [2318, 2322]. Severe COVID-19 reported in Elderly people [237].

7. LPS and SARS-COV-2:

- a) Sirivongrangson et.al reported the presence of Endotoxemia and circulating bacteriome in severe COVID-19 patients [1519]. Sirivongrangson et.al analyzed 19 patients of which 13 are in intensive care and 10 patients are receiving mechanical ventilation. Sirivongrangson et.al reported 8 patients with high endotoxin activity assay and about half of the patients with high serum BG levels which tends to be higher in later stage of the illness. 18 of 19 patients were reported to be positive for 16S rRNA gene amplification. Proteobacteria was found to be the most abundant phylum. The diversity of bacterial genera was reported to be decreased overtime [1519].
- b) Conclusively, in patients with severe pulmonary forms of COVID-19 almost 90% of this study have increased LPS levels where 40% have high and 30% have very high levels of endotoxin [1519].
- c) Zhou et.al through mendelian randomization using 6,492 hospitalized cases and over million controls demonstrated that serum LBP levels strongly correlate with the hospitalization rate of COVID-19 patients[2326].
- d) Elevated markers of gut leakage and inflammasome activation has been reported to be associated with both disease severity and cardiac involvement in severe COVID-19 patients [2327].
- e) In their study Hoel et.al investigated and measured the gut leakage marker (LPS-binding protein, LBP), the levels of a marker of enterocyte damage (intestinal fatty acid binding protein, IFABP), a gut homing marker (CCL25, ligand for chemokine receptor CCR9) , and markers of inflammasome activation (IL-1 β , IL-18 and their regulatory proteins) during three time points (day 1, 3-5 and 7-10) in 39 hospitalized COVID-19 patients who are associated with cardiac involvement [2327].
- f) Hoel et.al found the plasma LBP levels of these 39 hospitalized Severe COVID-19 patients with significant cardiac pathology to be high during both initial and hospitalization phase [2327]. This report of elevated plasma levels of LBP and CCL-25 but not IFABP when compared to the controls conclusively suggests an impaired gut barrier function and accentuated gut homing of T cells in in COVID-19 patients [2327]. Also, LBP levels were reported to be twice as high at baseline in COVID-19 patients with elevated cardiac markers when compared with those COVID-19 patients who do not have elevated cardiac markers [2327]. Hoel et.al also reported the moderate elevation of inflammasome activation marker levels in COVID-19 patients who have cardiac involvement [2327].

8. Periodontitis and SARS-COV-2:

- a) Periodontitis and other LPS bacterial diseases reported to be associated with priming inflammatory responses in COVID-19 patients [96-99, 102].
- b) People with higher tooth bacteria with might form a route for SARS-COV-2 to get into ear channel either through LPS or ACE-2 expression leading to inflammation mediated damage and ultimately hearing loss [913] in rare cases [19,20,21,22].

9. Parasitic Infections suppresses/decreases IFN- γ and provide protective effect:

- a) Toxoplasma gondii impairs the ability of lipopolysaccharide to activate NF-kB in cultures of infected macrophages [2334,2335]. Blastocyst have also been reported to dampen response to LPS in intestinal epithelial cells and monocytes [2336]. Giardia lamblia trophozoites strongly impair LPS-induced iNOS [2337,2338]. TLR4 is upregulated in response to infection with Cryptosporidium in vitro and contributes to nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-kB) activation [2333].
- b) Taken together Abdel-Hamed et.al reported that a high percentage (72.8%) of moderate COVID-19 patients are accompanied with parasitic infections while an increased number (20.7%) of serious cases were parasite free [2042]. The +ve role of parasitic infections in modulating the human immune response to COVID-19 infection is evident in the high level of IFN- γ in mild cases. A new prospect for the development of novel successful protection against COVID-19 infection has been provided by the unclear link between parasitic and viral infections [2042].
- c) This study proves that elevated IFN- γ leads to fatal results in severe COVID-19 patients.

10. Secondary Infections promote/boosts IFN- γ :

i. LPS at mild quantities promotes inflammation:

- a) Ray et.al reported that LPS exerts differential effects on immune responses in the lung depending on the dose [368]. In the context of exposure to the model allergen ovalbumin (OVA), a very low dose (< 1 ng) of LPS does not induce adaptive immunity and instead develops tolerance to OVA [2350, 368].
- b) An intermediate dose (100 ng) of LPS induces a Th2-biased response to OVA and promotes allergic airway inflammation [2351,368].
- ii. Systemic prevalence of bacterial products are attributed towards the induction of Low level inflammation and vascular abnormalities [2323].
- iii. Petruk et.al showed that SARS-COV-2 Spike S protein can directly bind to LPS and form an aggregated complex to promote and boost the proinflammatory immune activity [833].
- iv. Tumpara et.al showed that Pro-Inflammatory activity was boosted when Human PBMCs were stimulated with both Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein relative to LPS/spike alone [2315]. Tumpara et.al reported enhanced cytokine IL-6, TNF- α , IL-1 β , and CXCL8/IL-8 production in PBMCs within six hours when low levels of LPS were combined with purified SARS-COV-2 spike protein [2315].
- v. Tumpara et.al found that in the presence of 0.5 mg/mL (recombinant human plasma-purified α -1 antitrypsin) recAAT, however, LPS/spike induced TNF- α and IL-1 β mRNA expression and protein release were significantly inhibited (by about 46–50%) citing recAAT as one of the possible therapies for COVID-19 [2315].
- vi. Secondary infections strongly promotes IFN- γ [1782,1785,1786].
- vii. IFN- γ directly promotes miR-155 [1764, 2216, 817].
- viii. Higher miR-155 levels are strongly associated and correlated with high IFN- γ production, increased airway TH1 cytokine polarization (IFN- γ /IL-4 ratios) and increased pro-inflammatory responses [1764].
- ix. miR-155 increases by Th-1 and IFN- γ responses during viral infections as part of protective mechanism by providing inflammatory conditions to kill the virus [1764].
- x. Yao et.al demonstrated that miR-155 enhances Treg and Th17 cells differentiation and IL-17A production by targeting SOCS1 [1631].
- xi. Similar results have been reported by other authors [1785,1782].
- xii. SARS-COV-2 can either bind with LPS either in systemic blood or with Secondary infections (LPS bacteria) to promote the mir-155 and IFN- γ subsequently resulting in Th-1 and Th17 mediated responses resulting in severe inflammatory activity.
- xiii. Secondary bacterial induction and related responses delays viral clearance pathways [1786,1788,1787,1789].
- xiv. CSE:
 - a. Zhang et.al showed that Cigarette smoke induces increased expression of miR-155 [1633].
 - b. Preexisting elevated miR levels might contribute and modulate the ongoing responses.

11. miR-155 affects SHIP-1:

- a) miR-155 promotes pro-inflammation, cell death and subsequent release of DAMPS (HMGB-1) [1822,817, 1775,1783,1782,1764,1632].
- b) Inositol phosphatase SHIP-1 is a primary target of miR-155 [1768].
- c) miR-155 governs and regulates SHIP-1 negatively [1745,1772].
- d) During inflammation miR-155 governs and negatively regulates SHIP-1 [1745,1768,1769,1770, 1771,1772,1773].
- e) CD-24, Siglec-G/10 and SHIP-1 interactions are required for controlling and reducing the NF-KB mediated pro-inflammatory responses [2303,2304,541,2342].
- f) CD-24 and SHIP-1 interactions are importantly required for discriminating between Self and Non-Self or PAMPs and DAMPs during viral infections [751,754].
- g) miR-155 elevated in severe COVID-19 patients irrespective of the stage [1822,1823].
- h) Elevated miR-155 represses SHIP-1.

12. SARS-COV-2 dysregulates CD-24 regulating miRNA:

- a) SARS-COV-2 dysregulates the expression of miRNAs, let-7, miR-21, miR-29, miR-34 which might control the expression of CD-24.

Let-7:

- i. Let-7 family regulates RAS expression negatively [1815].
 - ii. SARS-COV-2 has binding sites for let-7 family [1816,1817,1818,1819].
 - iii. Let-7 is dysregulated in mild and largely downregulated or reduced in severe COVID-19 patients [1820,1627, 1821, 1822,1823].
 - iv. Consequently, reduced let-7 increases RAS [1815].
 - v. Increase in RAS leads to reduced CD-24 [666,673,671].
- b) Among the miRNAs involved in the regulation of members of the RAS family, apart from **Let-7** family, **miR-143** and **miR-145**, co-expressed in the same primary transcript, can target both KRAS and NRAS [1803,1804,1805,1806,1807,1808].

miR-145:

- i. miR-145 is decreased in severe COVID-19 [1800].

miR-21:

- i. miR-21 upregulates CD-24 expression [777].
- ii. miR-21-5p is downregulated in mild COVID-19 [1820,1627,1821].
- iii. miR-21 upregulated in severe COVID-19 patients [1822].

miR-34:

- i. miR-34a post transcriptionally downregulates CD-24 [777].
- i. miR-34a-5p significantly downregulated in severe COVID-19 [1585,1588].

miR-29:

- ii. miR-29b-3p significantly downregulated in severe COVID-19 [1585,1588].
- iii. miR-29a-3p is upregulated in COVID-19 [1823].

13. Conclusively, SARS-COV-2 dysregulates CD-24, Siglec-G/10 and SHIP-1 expression/axis and interactions by dysregulating the necessary miRNAs.

14. Importance of CD-24, Siglec-G/10 and SHIP-1 in preventing pro-inflammation:

- a) CD-24 and SHIP-1 interactions are importantly required for discriminating between Self and Non-Self or PAMPs and DAMPs during viral infections [751,754].
- a) CD24 binds DAMPs to reduce TLR ligand to reduce inflammation.
- d) Siglec-G/10 can suppress TLR4 signaling and NF-κB activation by forming a complex with CD24, which binds endogenous TLR ligands such as HSP and HMGB-1, but not LPS, providing selective repression of the inflammatory responses to Danger-Associated Molecular Patterns (DAMPs), but not pathogen.
- a) CD24 and Singlec G/10 regulates host response to DAMPs [488]. Ex: CD-24 can sense and bind to HMGB-1 [488].
- e) Most important part is the inflammation control. CD-24 and Singlec 10 interaction will activate the SHIP-1 (SHIP) kinase and provide an active signalling to NF-κB activation. This gives negative signalling to NF-κB to reduce the inflammatory cytokines production [2342,2303,2304,541].
- b) CD24 plays a very important role in inducing immune tolerance towards inflammation, CD24-Siglec-10 selectively repress tissue damage induced during inflammatory immune responses [752,753,732,488].
- f) Additionally, reduced CD24 expression has been indicated as a marker of failure in Immune tolerance [741,735].
- g) Mouse will die 100% if mouse is born with deficiency of CD24 molecules.
- c) Deletion of CD24 during inflammation leads to expansion of myeloid derived suppressor cells [685].
- h) CD24 and Singlec G/10 protects from Sepsis.

15. Importance of CD-24 in Preventing Sepsis:

- a) Chen et.al showed that Sepsis can be ameliorated by inhibiting sialidase mediated disruption of the CD24-Siglec-G interactions [541]. Suppressing inflammation is critical for the effective therapy of many infectious diseases. In mice, inflammatory responses to host danger-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), but not to microbial pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), are repressed by the interaction of CD24 and Siglec-G (SIGLEC-10 in human) [541]. Chen et.al used an intestinal perforation model of sepsis to show that

microbial sialidases target the sialic acid based recognition of CD-24 by Siglec-G/10 to exacerbate inflammation and proved that Sialidase inhibitors protect mice against sepsis by a mechanism involving both CD-24 and Siglec-g, whereas mutation of either gene exacerbates sepsis [541].

- b) This sialic acid mediated cross-reactivity with the host immune lectins is known to exert the immune response of different intensity in selected pathological stages [2343].
- c) Several studies have shown that SARS-COV-2 has higher binding affinity towards Sialic acid [2344, 2345-2348].

16. Nicotine and CD24:

- a) Nicotine exposure reduces the CD-24 expression through RAS-RAF-MEK pathway [666,673,671].

[p-14]

CD8+ T cells:

1. COVID-19 patients are found to be associated with earlier suppression of CTL / CD8+ T cell activity in severe COVID-19 cases [430, 428, 1799].
2. Lymphopenia reported in severe COVID-19 patients [599].

MHC:

13. SARS-COV-2 inhibits MHC-I [1125,1128,1132,1137].
14. SARS-COV-2 might inhibit MHC-II complex [1944].

TCF-1 and T cell Memory:

15. TCR/TCF-1 are required for the CD4+ and CD8+ T cell memory programming [2267].
16. CD8+ T cell mediated responses during viral infections require TCF-1 for the development of central memory CD8 T cells and optimal recall responses by these memory cells [2267].
17. MHC-II selected TCF-1/LEF-1 cells are redirected from CD4+ T cells to CD8+ T cells lineage [2297,2298].

TCF-1 for rescuing exhausted CD8+ T cells:

18. The Transcription actor TCF-1 preserves the effector function of exhausted CD8+ T cells during Chronic Viral Infections [2295].
19. Mechanistically, TCF-1 fuels the functionalities of exhausted CD8+ T cells by promoting the expression of an array of key effector function associated transcription regulators, including Foxo1, Zeb2, Id3, and Eomes [2295].

TCF-1 and miR-24:

20. miR-24 is highly expressed in lung epithelial cells [2294,2229].
21. miR-24 is a direct regulator of TCF-1. miR-24 regulates the expression of TCF-1 directly by targeting the 3'-untranslated region (UTR) of TCF-1 mRNA [2232,2233,2293].
22. Several computational studies predicted binding sites for miR-24 on SARS-COV-2 genome [1683,1465,2294].
23. miR-24 is found to be downregulated in severe COVID-19 patients [1800, 2231].

SARS-COV-2 reduced TCF-1 in CD8+ T cells of severe COVID-19:

24. Sekine et.al when compared both acute and convalescent COVID-19 patients observed that CD8+ T cell population was skewed towards an early differentiated memory (CCR7+ CD127+ CD45RA-/+ TCF1+) phenotype with TCF-1 in convalescent patients but not in severe COVID-19 patients [2279].
25. Possibly This might be in agreement with Willinger et.al who showed that on antigen (Ag) encounter and engagement with TCR or IL-15 receptor leads to the down-regulation of the WNT pathway transcription factors LEF1 (Lymphoid Enhancer binding Factor 1) and TCF7 (TCF-1) expression in human naive CD8+ T cells [2289].

MDSC:

26. In an asymptomatic individual (single patient study), T lymphocyte exhibits peak proliferation (Ki-67) by day 7 after testing SARS-CoV-2 positive [1790].
27. MDSCs suppress the CD8+ T cell and its antigen specific activity during severe viral infections and lung/organ injuries [615, 511, 1946, 368, 559,568, 617, 618, 639].
28. Suppressed CD8+ T cell activity observed in COVID-19 during earlier stages of severe COVID-19 patients [435, 428, 2002, 2003, 2000, 434, 429, 430,1058,1059,1060,1061].

Nicotine Exposure:

29. Nicotine exposure reduces CTL memory programming [822].
30. Nicotine reduces the expression of IP subunits LMP2, LMP7, RIG-I, NLRC-5, STAT-1 [1870].
31. NLRC-5 is required for the CD8+ T cell function and viral clearance [1870].
32. Nicotine affects IP (Immunoproteasome) involved in the regulation of MHC-I antigen presentation during viral infections [1870,1858-1869, 1870-1878,1883].
33. Nicotine results in T cell anergy and impairs the T cell receptor antigen mediated signal pathways [843,845].
34. Long term exposure to Nicotine promotes immunosuppression [1549,1556,1558].

Conclusion:

35. Additionally the earlier induction of MDSCs released during the acute internal/lung injury suppresses the CD8+ T cell activity even before they can clean the viral load [429,430,434,626,623,569,433].
36. SARS-COV-2 delays the early CTL responses by inhibiting MHC-I and MHC-II complex.

[p-15]

MDSCs:

a) Acute Lung Injury:

- a) Pulmonary Innate Immune responses determine the outcome of inflammation during Pneumonia and Sepsis associated Acute Lung Injury [649].
- b) Viral Burden increase directly proportional to Lung Injury cell death [2381, 2360, 25-30].
- c) Detectable Serum Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 Viral Load (RNAemia) Is Closely Correlated With Drastically Elevated Interleukin 6 Level in Critically Ill Patients With Coronavirus Disease 2019 [2325].
- d) MDSCs are induced by acute viral loads of SARS-COV-2 [428,429,430,433,434].
- e) During Blunt Chest Trauma MDSCs are induced and accumulate at the site of damage independent of the presence or absence of viral pathogens [617,618].
- f) These MDSCs subsequently suppress the antigen specific T cell responses [617,618,632,624,625, 621, 626].
- g) Elevated CRP promotes MDSC expansion [620].

b) IRF3 ^{-/-} and IRF 7^{-/-}:

1. Hatesuer et.al showed that in **IRF3 ^{-/-} and IRF 7^{-/-} double knockout mice** when infected by **IAV** virus resulted in a strong increase in mortality that's associated with a **massive influx of Granulocytes (G-MDSC's)** in the lung and **reduced activation of the adaptive immune responses** [1900].
2. Reduced adaptive immune responses reported in COVID-19 [19, 21, 23, 24, 32].

c) TLR-3:

1. TLR-3 signalling via TRIF is protective in Corona virus infections [830].
2. IRF-3, TRIF downstream of TLR-3 is interfered by SARS-COV-2 in COVID-19 patients [1799, 1311, 1120, 1128, 1797, 1799].
3. TLR-3 gene Polymorphisms reported to be associated with negative outcomes in COVID-19 [829, 2015].
4. Menezes et.al concluded that the COVID-19 MILD group had lower expression of TLR-3 when compared with the COVID-19 SEVERE group [616].
5. Zheng et.al showed that TLR-3 via TRIF has very minimal activity in severe COVID-19 patients [452].

d) TLR-7:

6. Gut Microbiota regulate TLR-7 expression at mucosal surfaces [1704, 1705, 1707].
7. Antibiotics administration (independent of the route)/abuse dysregulates gut Microbiota [2058].
8. Microbiota dysbiosis is fatal during viral infections [1704].
9. Artem et.al showed that certain subset of ISG's produced during COVID-19 vary from variant to variant which might decide the severity of COVID-19 disease [1123]. This subset includes sensors (TLR-7), signal transducers (MYD88, OAS2), transcriptional regulators (IRF3, IRF5) and restriction factors (GBP1, IFITM3, MX1) [1123] which help in combating the virus [1148]. One of these differentially expressed genes IFITM3 restricts SARS-COV-2 entry [1149, 1150].
10. Polymorphisms in IFITM3, MX1, and TLR-7 are linked to severity in COVID-19 patients [1145, 1146, 1147].
11. Reduced TLR-7 expression reported in severe COVID-19 patients [616,452].
12. In the absence of effective TLR-7 signalling the myeloid cells turn into MDSCs due to their failure in sensing viral RNA during the Lung Injury mediated by viral infection [615].
13. During IAV in the absence of effective TLR-7 signalling/ in TLR7 ^{-/-} mice, **IAV** promotes the accumulation of M-MDSCs into lungs due to Acute Lung injury and associated cell death [615].
14. M-MDSCs (Monocytic MDSC's) are found to be elevated in the blood of severe COVID-19 patients [428].
15. Increase in M-MDSCs observed in peripheral blood of mild COVID-19 patients [1061].

e) LPS:

16. Ray et.al showed that higher dose of LPS (1–100µg) [368] inhibits allergic airway inflammation by promoting MDSCs [368,2352,2353, 2354,2355,565].
17. This shows a new role for the MDSC as a TLR4/MyD88- but not TRIF-induced cell type that can influence T cell responses in the lung [1993, 368].
18. Menezes et.al concluded that the COVID-19 MILD group when compared with the COVID-19 SEVERE group had the over expression of TLR4 [616].
19. Elevates LPS mediates and promotes the induction of both G-MDSCs and M-MDSCs [368, 622,566,1993,896].
20. G-MDSCs and M-MDSCs are found to be recruited at the earlier stages of severe COVID-19 patients [428,2003,2000,434,429,430].

f) Other reasons:

21. SARS-CoV-2 suppresses phosphorylation and nuclear translocation of STAT1 and STAT2 [1798, 1128, 990, 1121]. Lung MDSC numbers almost double and accumulate faster in STAT1–/– mice in response to bacterial infection (LPS stimulation) and with fewer neutrophils as compared to that in wild-type mice [896, 368]. Immature Neutrophils can be observed during Sepsis [438,659,896].
22. SARS-COV-2 and pro-inflammation mediated cell death releases DAMP's [2012, 2013].
23. Elevated HMGB-1 promotes immunosuppression by promoting the MDSCs [265,281,266,267,285,405, 406].
24. Elevated miR-155 also promotes immunosuppression through MDSC expansion [1630, 1631, 1774].
25. MDSC activation by combined LPS and IFN-gamma treatment impairs DC development [622].
26. miR-155 and miR-21 as the two most upregulated miRNAs during the induction of MDSCs [1630,1607].
27. miR-21 upregulated in severe COVID-19 patients [1822].
28. miR-155 [1822,1823] and MDSCs are elevated in severe COVID-19 patients [428,429,430,433,434,2003,2000,1061].

g) Conclusion:

1. In the absence of effective signalling from TLR-3, TLR-7 and other PRR's SARS-COV-2 detection becomes difficult before the viral burden increases drastically.
2. In case of high respiratory viral loads with faster replication leads to injuries. Even before the virus can be cleared leading to an irreversible damage to Lungs [351, 352, 277, 446, 331].
3. As a result viral titers rise, SARS-COV-2 Spike S protein promote inflammation and cell death in the absence of effective viral sensing.
4. Increasing viral titers promote Monocyte attraction, activation and associated cell/tissue damage.
5. In the absence of effective signalling from CD-24, Siglec-10/G, SHIP-1 axis inflammation becomes unregulated.
6. Viral burden is directly proportional to Lung Injury.
7. LPS, HMGB-1 and miR-155 at moderate quantities promote pro-inflammation.
8. ROS increases.
9. Acute Lung Injury independent of virus promotes MDSC accumulation to the site of injury.
10. LPS, HMGB-1 and miR-155 at moderate quantities promote immunosuppression through MDSCs.
11. MDSC's induced promote immunosuppression immunity get dysregulated leading to sepsis.
12. Sepsis reported in COVID-19 patients.

h) Expression of PRR's during Late COVID-19:

S.No:	PRR's:	Reasons:
Exo PRR's:		
1.	TLR-4:	Up [616,452] in all.Down in severe patients when compared to mild [616,452] as in Sepsis [2024].
Endo PRR's:		
2.	TLR-3:	Down [616,452]
3.	TLR-7:	Down [616,452]
4.	RIG-I:	Down [616,452]

5.	IFN- γ :	Down [616,452]
6.	IL-6:	Down [616,452]

i) **Expression of PRR's during Severe COVID-19:**

1. Menezes et.al observed different PRR expression in Seventy nine (79) patients with severe COVID-19 on admission, according to World Health Organization (WHO) classification, and them divided into two groups: patients who needed mechanical ventilation and/or deceased (SEVERE, n = 50) and patients who used supplementary oxygen but not mechanical ventilation and survived (MILD, n = 29) [616].
2. Menezes et.al observed the PRR's expression and reported the following results [616]:
3. Since the mild and severe patients required Oxygen supplementation at the time of admission it's evident that the admitted patient's are in early COPD stage and we can conclude that secondary up regulation of PRR's has happened in these patients.
4. From Fig-1, Fig-2, Fig-5, Fig-6, Fig-7 we can see the secondary upregulation of PRR's (TLR-3, TLR-7, TLR-4, RIG, TLR-9) during the time of admission which is in acceptance with our earlier discussion.
5. From Fig-1 and Fig-2 it's evident that only people with more TLR-3 and TLR-7 expression have survived the COVID-19.
6. From Fig-3 and Fig-4 suggest the onset of Sepsis during severe COVID-19 as IFN- γ and IL-6 levels decreases.
7. Fig-5 shows upregulation of TLR-4 at late phase of severe COVID-19 patients shows the inflammation during Sepsis and subsequent imbalanced or dysregulated immune responses.

Different PRR expression in mild and Severe/critical COVID-19 patients who have Oxygen Supplementation during the time of admission [616]:

Figure-1:

TLR-3 Expression

Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-2:

TLR-7 Expression

Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-3:

IFN- γ Expression

Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-4:

IL-6 Expression

Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-4:
IL-10 Expression
 Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-5:
TLR-4 Expression
 Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-6:
RIG Expression
 Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-7:
TLR-9 Expression
 Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616])

Figure-8:
TLR-8 Expression
 Original Author : (Menezes et.al, [616], For more information or data please refer to original article)

Different PRR expression comparison between Healthy, Moderate, Severe and Critical COVID-19 patients through computational visualization:

Figure-9:
Different PRR expression computational visualization in COVID-19 patients
Original Author : (Zheng et.al, [452], For more information or data please refer to original article)

[p-16]

Conclusions:

1. SARS-COV-2 full trimeric Spike S protein induces inflammatory responses and pyroptosis mediated cell death [451,453,1431,1110,1109,1435].
2. SARS-COV-2 Envelope E protein induces pyroptosis mediated cell death with the production of TNF- α and IFN- γ [452,2014].
3. SARS-COV-2, ORF-3a induces pyroptosis mediated cell death [550,451].
4. SARS-COV-2, ORF8 protein induces Endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress activated unfolded protein responses leading to the cell death [1601,1600,1602,1130,1133].
5. SARS-COV-2 targets human genes mitochondrial deubiquitinase USP-30 and a sub-unit of Ubiquitin protein ligase complex FBX021 which leads to the premature cell death in infected cells through the collapse of mitochondria [2194].
6. ACE2 is downregulated once the conformational change is exhibited by SARS-COV-2 to enter the host cells [1328,2361].
7. This SARS-CoV-2 Spike S Protein mediated downregulation of ACE-2 leads towards an impaired impairs endothelial function [1328].
8. ACE-2 has a clear association and is associated with regulation of mitochondrial function [2376,2377,2378,2379,2380,1482].
9. ACE-2 knockout mice exhibit impaired mitochondrial respiration and ATP production, which are compensated by overexpression of ACE-2 (hyperplasia) [1482,2379].
10. Accelerated viral burden further promotes Monocyte (Neutrophils, Macrophages) mediated damage [1448,1036,1664,2038,1666,1011,1399,1424,1012,1013,1842,1843,596].
11. Viral burden keeps increasing and makes the AT-II cells get damaged [2362,1102,1103,2159].
12. Accelerated cell death leads to organ injury [30-34] and lung injury [1047].
13. Acute lung injury and the collapse of Alveolar air sacs leads to Hypoxia [2170, 2171, 35-39,2037].
14. SARS-COV-2 promotes NET's in COVID-19 patients [1450,2034,2036]
15. NET's contribute towards Thrombosis [2035,2165].
16. Organ injury mediated release of DAMPs in the absence of tolerance regulating pathways CD24, Tregs and in the absence of viral sensing pathways TLR-7 cannot sense viral RNA and fail to regulate/control the pro-inflammatory responses.
17. During internal injury MDSCs get accumulated to the damaged site rapidly in the absence of viral sensing [615].
18. SARS-COV-2 delays the very helpful and important adaptive Humoral immune responses [19,21,23,24,32,1061].
19. Early induction of MDSCs suppress the early cell mediated and other adaptive immune responses [428, 2003, 2000, 434, 429, 430, 2381,2360]. As a result CTL activity becomes inefficient [429,430,434,626,623,569, 433].
20. Inflammation mediated Sepsis occurs due to the enormous internal injury, elevated ROS and other factors like elevated LPS, MDSCs etc....
21. Analogous: Viral infection with secondary bacterial infection in co-morbid/polluted person (CSE and Nicotine inhaled people).

[p-17]

Possible Reasons for the severity of COVID-19:

1. Novel SARS-COV-2 spike S protein and genome structure are unique.
2. Hyper cleanliness is a reason for the delayed responses (ex: Clean water).
3. Air pollution :- (Global Warming) Inflammants in airway passage
 - a) P.M (Particular Matter)
 - b) Wooden Smoke
 - c) Diesel Exhaust
 - d) Bush Fire
 - e) Silica Dust
 - f) CSE (Cigarette Smoke extract)
 - g) Airway Inflammation and Oxidative Stress
4. Tobacco/Nicotine exposure: Immunosuppression
5. Lifestyle Disorders-
 - a) Stress
 - b) Lack of Sleep
 - c) Increases ROS/Oxidative stress
6. Microbiota in Gut (Healthy Bacteria)
 - a) Controls TLR-7 expression.
 - b) Controls Tregs
 - c) Stimulates adaptive responses
7. Antibiotic abuse: Reduces TLR-7 expression
8. Vitamin-D Deficiency:
 - a) Multiple functions during viral infections
 - b) Required for airway immune system
 - c) Increases GSH (Glutathione) in cells
9. LPS / Endotoxin in systemic blood : Co-morbid people like Obese and diabetes patients have higher LPS in their systemic blood
10. Pre existing LPS associated bacterial or fungal infections: Periodontitis, Gut bacterial infections, fungal infections
11. miRNA dysregulations: Previous or existing health problems or illnesses related to miRNA dysregulation will result in impaired coordination of immune system and associated responses .
12. Genetic mutations mediated immune dysfunctions.

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