

**REVIEW on SARS-CoV-2 VIRUS TRANSMISSION MECHANISM in HUMAN**

Amirova MF, Azizova GI, Mammadova FI

*\*Correspondence: Mahira Amirova**Received: 10 June 2023; Accepted: 15 June 2023; Published: 25 June 2023*

**Citation:** Mahira Amirova. REVIEW on SARS-CoV-2 VIRUS TRANSMISSION MECHANISM in HUMAN. AJMCRR 2023; 2(7): 1-7.

**Abstract**

Coronavirus infection has been the most common form of pandemic with high mortality in recent decades, and the recent form of coronavirus mainly results in severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS-CoV). Prophylaxis & treatment of SARS-CoV remains the big problem of our century. However, this is impossible without knowledge of the subtle mechanisms of the virus entry into the body, stimulating organ damage and the spread of the disease. It is revealed, that the spike protein of the SARS-CoV-2 virus binds to target cells through the angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE2), which forms active angiotensin II; the SARS virus can also bind to the CD147 cell receptor. They are mainly located on the surface of respiratory and gastrointestinal epithelial cells and play role of the entry routes of infection. After the attachment of the virus to the cell, the spike protein is cleaved into subunits S1 and S2 as result of proteolysis through a transmembrane serine protease type 2. The virus then activates endocytosis. SARS-CoV-2 is capable of damaging alveocytes type I and II, as well as endothelial cells. This process leads to the expression and secretion of anti-inflammatory cytokines, detailed in this paper. Preventing the development of these mechanisms of SARS virulence forms the basis of today's official protocols.

**Key words:** SARS-CoV, cytokine storm, reactive oxygen forms, receptors.

**Introduction**

It is known that last outbreaks of coronavirus infections occurred in 2002 and 2012, but they were recent type of SARS-CoV-2 has the highest characterized by relatively low prevalence. The following types of coronaviruses are known: HCoV-229E, HCoV-OC43, HCoV-NL63, HCoV-HKU1, SARS-CoV-1, MERS-Cov, and SARS-CoV-2. The virulence and susceptibility [1]. The high mortality rate, as well as serious economic and social

disadvantages, have made the study of the mechanisms of this disease and therapeutic approaches the most pressing problem in medicine. Reactive oxygen forms (ROF) formed during metabolism are of great importance, as they act as messengers in the cell. It is known that ROF kinases can stimulate inflammatory signals in the cell by increasing the expression of transcription and inflammatory genes.

The coronavirus SARS-CoV, which caused China's severe acute respiratory syndrome in 2002-2003, and the Middle East coronavirus (MERS-CoV) in 2012, killed more than 10,000 people; Mortality was 10% in SARS-CoV and 37% in MERS-CoV [2]. In late 2019 was identified a new strain of coronavirus, identified by the WHO as SARS-CoV-2 and causing a new severe acute respiratory syndrome (COVID-19). As for its structure, on the outside of the virus are crown-shaped glycoprotein protrusions known as spike S-protein, which is designed to bind to the surface of the target cell. It has been found, that spike proteins have the ability to hide from innate immunity by undergoing conformational changes. The spike protein of the SARS-CoV-2 virus binds to target cells through angiotensin converting enzyme-2 (ACE2), which forms active angiotensin II [3].

ACE2 is mainly expressed in cells of the gastrointestinal tract, kidneys, blood vessels, heart and lungs. The SARS virus can also bind to the CD147 cell receptor, also known as BASIGIN [4]. As a result of the virus attaching to the cell, the spike protein is broken down into S1 and S2 subunits by proteolysis of the cell via trans-membrane serine protease type 2 (trans-membrane serine 2 protease, TMPRSS2). Then S1 subunit binds to ACE2, after which the S1-RBD PD-ACE2 complex dissociates, while the hydrophobic S2-FP (fusion peptide) peptide is released from S2, and the virus enters to the target cell by activating endocytosis [5]. Then the permanent mechanism of virus development is activated: target cell organelles perform translation on template viral RNA, resulting in the formation of structural proteins necessary for the virus development, which start a new generation of SARS-CoV-2 virions, and continue to damage new target cells. ACE2 CD147 and TMPRSS2 are the receptors sensitive to SARS-CoV-2, the upper branches of which are located on the surface of respiratory and gastrointestinal epithelial cells are the entry routes of infection [6, 7]. The products of the virus interaction with the target cell are recognized by specific Nod-receptors involved in the formation of the polyprotein complex, the inflammasome [8].

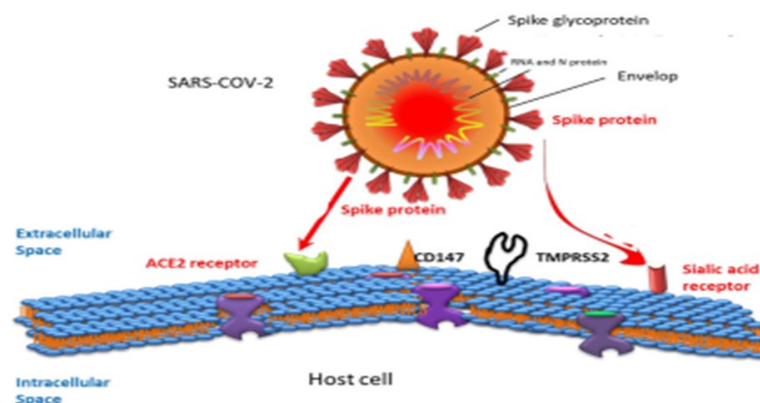


Fig 1. Interaction of SARS-CoV spike protein with process to move to the next stage, the cytokine cell CD147, ACE2, TMPRSS2 receptors. Is re- "storm" [18, 19, 20]. At this stage, the level of published with kind permission Tripathy S., 2020 inflammatory cytokines and chemo-attractants [9] continues to increase dramatically, so interleukins, monocyte chemo-attractant protein MCP-1 [21], Unlike strains with low virulence, SARS-CoV-2 macrophages inflammatory protein MIP-1a, TGF, passing into the lower respiratory tract gains the CCL2, CXCL10, CXCL9, TNF (CXCL9), tumor ability to damage alveocytes type I and II, as well as (CXCL9) increase sharply, even the cytokines HGF endothelial cells [10]. This process results in the and CXCL13 levels in the blood predict the severity expression and secretion of anti-inflammatory cyto- and the mortality in SARS-CoV patients [22]. kines. During the secretion of cytokines, the epithe- In severe cases of SARS-CoV-2 infection, there are lium of alveocytes undergoes pyroptosis, and the resulting products are phagocytosed by granulo- significant changes in the acute phase proteins of cytes and tissue macrophages [11]. In this condi- the blood, and at this stage markers such as C- tion, neutrophils and cytotoxic T cells, along with reactive protein, ferritin, ceruloplasmin[23], blood the formed cyto- and chemokines, cause severe pul- clotting factors [24, 25], serum enzymes indicate a monary pneumonia, which causes damage to lung failure of numerous organs. In about 82% of cases tissue, promotes the development of edema at the leukopenia, thrombocytopenia and loss of eosino- site of injury, causes acute respiratory distress syn- phils along with lymphopenia are observed in pe- drome, and results in fibrosis [12]. The age factor ripheral blood, sometimes leucocytes, neutrophils aggravates the pathological process, i.e. the changes are increased [26]. Viral respiratory infections stim- listed in the elderly are more pronounced [13, 14, ulate the inflammatory process and contribute to the 15]. By infecting the membranes of alveolar- development of pathophysiological processes capillary cells, SARS-CoV-2 enters the bloodstream against the background of an excess of cytokines, and can damage other organs and cells that have oxygen and/or nitrogen active forms. Mitochondria receptors on its surface: intestines, kidneys, esopha- is the main generator of reactive oxygen forms gus, heart, blood vessels, brain, bladder, etc [16]. In (ROF), and along with SARS-CoV 3b protein and the early stages of the disease, the nsp1 and rp6 non-structural protein 10 (nsp10) they can change proteins of the virus inhibit the formation of the course of processes in mitochondria [27]. SARS interferon. Vazquez C. et al. also state that NSP1 -CoV 3b may enter mitochondria [28, 29], while and NSP13 proteins of SARS-CoV-2 block nsp10 may interact specifically with the NADH 4L activation of interferon via different mechanisms subunit and cytochromoxidase II [28, 27]. It has [17]. Macrophages entering the site of inflammation also been shown, that after these interactions the continue to produce chemo-attractants for genes encoding mitochondrial DNA in peripheral mononuclear cells, and thus their concentration blood mononuclear cells, as well as genes sensitive increases rapidly, which triggers the inflammatory to oxidative stress such as peroxiredoxin 1 [30], the

ferritin heavy chain polypeptide gene are activated. apoptosis [41], which in turn contributes to the Oxidative stress increases the expression of 2D spread of the virus in the body.

type of anti-inflammatory phospholipase A2 [31],

which lowers antiviral immunity. Interestingly, in humans, phospholipase A2 is naturally activated as 2D ages [32]. In humans, there is also protein kinase, which is activated by mitogens from the damaging effects of the external environment, such as oxidative stress, accumulation of DNA damage, carcinogens and viruses. Thus, those who have a deletion of the *ncfl* gene that stimulates the formation of ROF and do not have Toll-like

receptor-4 (TLR4), which activates innate

immunity, have a natural resistance to respiratory viruses, including SARS COVID virus. Imai Y. et

al observed that the oxidized phospholipid was inducing lung injury and cytokine production by lung macrophages via TLR4-TRIF [33]. This is explained by the fact that living organisms with such deletions do not produce oxidized 1-palmitoyl

-2-arachidoinyl-phosphatidyl choline, which stimulates the formation of cytokines by macrophages and activates damaging mechanisms. It is also known that SARS-CoV 3CLpro protease

induces apoptosis in human promonocytes [34] by increasing the formation of ROF [35]. Occurrence of oxidative stress can lead to severe lung damage.

*In vivo* oxidative stress activates 3CLpro NF-kB-factor [36, 37], but inhibits protein-1-dependent transcription [38], so ROF-induced transmission of the 3CLpro-stimulated NF-kB signal may have played a leading role in the pathophysiology of SARSCoV infection. This is because the activation of the phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase/protein kinase pathway by various viruses during latent or chronic infections [39, 40] allows infected cells to avoid

All the data accumulated to date make it possible to correctly guide the process of treatment for SARS-CoV infection and reduce mortality among patients, prevent complications, and choose the right drugs to preserve the viability of organs and tissues. The further investigations will make even more accurately guide the processes of therapy and prevention of SARS-CoV infection seemingly incurable.

## References

1. Liu DX, Liang JQ, Fung TS. Human Coronavirus-229E, -OC43, -NL63, and -HKU1 (Coronaviridae). Encyclopedia of Virology. 2021;428-440. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-809633-8.21501-X.
2. Liu J, Xie W, Wang Y, et al. A comparative overview of COVID-19, MERS and SARS: Review article. Int J Surg. 2020;81:1-8. doi:10.1016/j.ijssu.2020.07.032.
3. Ni W, Yang X, Yang D, et al. Role of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) in COVID-19. Crit Care. 2020;24(1):422. Published 2020 Jul 13. doi:10.1186/s13054-020-03120-0.
4. Ragotte RJ, Pulido D, Donnellan FR, Hill ML, Gorini G, Davies H, Brun J, McHugh K, King LDW, Skinner K, Miura K, Long CA, Zitzmann N, Draper SJ. Human Basigin (CD147) Does Not Directly Interact with SARS-CoV-2 Spike Glycoprotein. mSphere. 2021 Aug 25;6(4):e0064721. doi: 10.1128/mSphere.00647-21. Epub 2021 Aug 11. PMID: 34378982; PMCID:

PMC8386461.

5. Lai AL, Freed JH. SARS-CoV-2 Fusion Peptide has a Greater Membrane Perturbating Effect than SARS-CoV with Highly Specific Dependence on Ca<sup>2+</sup>. *J Mol Biol.* 2021;433(10):166946. doi:10.1016/j.jmb.2021.166946.
6. Zang R, Gomez Castro MF, McCune BT, et al. TMPRSS2 and TMPRSS4 promote SARS-CoV-2 infection of human small intestinal enterocytes. *Sci Immunol.* 2020;5(47):eabc3582. doi:10.1126/sciimmunol.abc3582.
7. Hoffmann M., Kleine-Weber H., Schroeder S. et al. SARS-CoV-2 Cell Entry Depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and Is Blocked by a Clinically Proven Protease Inhibitor/ *Cell*, 2020, V. 181 (2), 16 April: 271-280.e8.
8. Wen H, Miao EA, Ting JP. Mechanisms of NOD-like receptor-associated inflammasome activation. *Immunity.* 2013;39(3):432-441. doi:10.1016/j.immuni.2013.08.037
9. Tripathy S., Dassarma B., Roy S., Chabalala H., Matsabisa M.. A review on possible modes of actions of Chloroquine/ Hydroxychloroquine: Repurposing against SAR-COV-2 (COVID 19) pandemic/ *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 2020, Aug., 56(2):106028; <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/341590117A>
10. Carcaterra M, Caruso C. Alveolar epithelial cell type II as main target of SARS-CoV-2 virus and COVID-19 development via NF-Kb pathway deregulation: A physio-pathological theory. *Med Hypotheses.* 2021 Jan;146:110412. doi: 10.1016/j.mehy.2020.110412. Epub 2020 Nov 23. PMID: 33308936; PMCID: PMC7681037.
11. Mason RJ. Pathogenesis of COVID-19 from a cell biology perspective. *Eur Respir J.* 2020;55(4):2000607. Published 2020 Apr 16. doi:10.1183/13993003.00607-2020.
12. Costela-Ruiz VJ, Illescas-Montes R, Puerta-Puerta JM, Ruiz C, Melguizo-Rodríguez L. SARS-CoV-2 infection: The role of cytokines in COVID-19 disease. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.* 2020;54:62-75. doi:10.1016/j.cytogfr.2020.06.001.
13. López-Otín C, Blasco MA, Partridge L, Serrano M, Kroemer G. The hallmarks of aging. *Cell.* 2013;153(6):1194-1217. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2013.05.039
14. *Front. Physiol.*, 12 January 2021 | <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2020.571416>
15. Bajaj V., Gadi N., Spihlman A.P. et al. Aging, Immunity, and COVID-19: How Age Influences the Host Immune Response to Coronavirus Infections? *Front. Physiol.*, 12 January 2021 | <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2020.571416>
16. Ni W, Yang X, Yang D, et al. Role of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) in COVID-19. *Crit Care.* 2020;24(1):422. Published 2020 Jul 13. doi:10.1186/s13054-020-03120-0.
17. Vazquez C, Swanson SE, Negatu SG, Dittmar M, Miller J, Ramage HR, Cherry S, Jurado KA. SARS-CoV-2 viral proteins NSP1 and NSP13 inhibit interferon activation through distinct mechanisms. *PLoS One.* 2021 Jun 24;16(6):e0253089. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0253089. PMID: 34166398; PMCID: PMC8224853.
18. Costela-Ruiz VJ, Illescas-Montes R, Puerta-Puerta JM, Ruiz C, Melguizo-Rodríguez L. SARS-CoV-2 infection: The role of cytokines in COVID-19 disease. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.* 2020;54:62-75. doi:10.1016/

- j.cytogfr.2020.06.001.
19. Jafarzadeh A, Chauhan P, Saha B, Jafarzadeh S, Nemati M. Contribution of monocytes and macrophages to the local tissue inflammation and cytokine storm in COVID-19: Lessons from SARS and MERS, and potential therapeutic interventions. *Life Sci.* 2020;257:118102. doi:10.1016/j.lfs.2020.118102.
  20. Song P, Li W, Xie J, Hou Y, You C. Cytokine storm induced by SARS-CoV-2. *Clin Chim Acta.* 2020 Oct;509:280-287. doi: 10.1016/j.cca.2020.06.017. Epub 2020 Jun 10. PMID: 32531256; PMCID: PMC7283076.
  21. Xi, X., Guo, Y., Zhu, M. et al. Higher expression of monocyte chemotactic protein 1 in mild COVID-19 patients might be correlated with inhibition of Type I IFN signaling. *Virology* 18, 12 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12985-020-01478-9>.
  22. Perreau, M., Suffiotti, M., Marques-Vidal, P. et al. The cytokines HGF and CXCL13 predict the severity and the mortality in COVID-19 patients. *Nat Commun* 12, 4888 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25191-5>.
  23. Hackler J, Heller RA, Sun Q, Schwarzer M, Diegmann J, Bachmann M, Moghaddam A, Schomburg L. Relation of Serum Copper Status to Survival in COVID-19. *Nutrients.* 2021 May 31;13(6):1898. doi: 10.3390/nu13061898. PMID: 34072977; PMCID: PMC8229409.
  24. Ryu JK, Sozmen EG, Dixit K, Montano M, Matsui Y, Liu Y, Helmy E, Deerinck TJ, Yan Z, Schuck R, Acevedo RM, Spencer CM, Thomas R, Pico AR, Zamvil SS, Lynch KL, Ellisman MH, Greene WC, Akassoglou K. SARS-CoV-2 spike protein induces abnormal inflammatory blood clots neutralized by fibrin immunotherapy. *bioRxiv [Preprint].* 2021 Oct 13:2021.10.12.464152. doi: 10.1101/2021.10.12.464152. PMID: 34671772; PMCID: PMC8528086.
  25. Huang I, Pranata R, Lim MA, Oehadian A, Alisjahbana B. C-reactive protein, procalcitonin, D-dimer, and ferritin in severe coronavirus disease -2019: a meta-analysis. *Ther Adv Respir Dis.* 2020;14:1753466620937175. doi:10.1177/1753466620937175.
  26. Letícia de Oliveira Toledo S, Sousa Nogueira L, das Graças Carvalho M, Romana Alves Rios D, de Barros Pinheiro M. COVID-19: Review and hematologic impact. *Clin Chim Acta.* 2020;510:170-176. doi:10.1016/j.cca.2020.07.016.
  27. Li Q, Wang L, Dong C, et al. The interaction of the SARS coronavirus non-structural protein 10 with the cellular oxido-reductase system causes an extensive cytopathic effect. *J Clin Virol.* 2005;34(2):133-139. doi:10.1016/j.jcv.2004.12.019.
  28. Varshney B, Agnihothram S, Tan YJ, Baric R, Lal SK. SARS coronavirus 3b accessory protein modulates transcriptional activity of RUNX1b. *PLoS One.* 2012;7(1):e29542. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0029542. Epub 2012 Jan 12. Erratum in: *PLoS One.* 2012;7(3). doi:10.1371/annotation/64ae6047-0f9b-4d17-a065-e08c153aa435. Agnihothram, Sudhakar [corrected to Agnihothram, Sudhakar]. PMID: 22253733; PMCID: PMC3257236.
  29. Singh K., Chaubey G., Chen J.Y., Suravajhala P. Decoding SARS-CoV-2 hijacking of host mitochondria in COVID-19 pathogenesis\ *Cell*



- Physiology, 20 JUL 2020, <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpcell.00224.2020>
30. Zhang H., Shen, J., Xu H. et al. Activation of Peroxiredoxin 1 by Fluvastatin Effectively Protects from Inflammation and SARS-CoV-2. Available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3606782> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3606782>.
  31. Snider J.M., Karen J.Y., Wang X. Group IIA secreted phospholipase A2 is associated with the pathobiology leading to COVID-19 mortality. *J. Clin. Investigation* <https://www.jci.org/articles/view/149236>
  32. Yamamoto K, Gelb M, Murakami M, Perlman S. Critical role of phospholipase A2 group IID in age-related susceptibility to severe acute respiratory syndrome-CoV infection. *J Exp Med*. 2015 Oct 19;212(11):1851-68. doi: 10.1084/jem.20150632. Epub 2015 Sep 21. PMID: 26392224; PMCID: PMC4612096.
  33. Imai Y, Kuba K, Neely GG, et al. Identification of oxidative stress and Toll-like receptor 4 signaling as a key pathway of acute lung injury. *Cell*. 2008;133(2):235-249. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2008.02.043.
  34. Lai CC, Jou MJ, Huang SY, Li SW, Wan L, Tsai FJ, Lin CW. Proteomic analysis of up-regulated proteins in human promonocyte cells expressing severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 3C-like protease. *Proteomics*. 2007 May;7(9):1446-60. doi: 10.1002/pmic.200600459. PMID: 17407183; PMCID: PMC7167764.
  35. Forcados G.E., Muhammad A., Oladipo O.O. et al. Metabolic Implications of Oxidative Stress and Inflammatory Process in SARS-CoV-2 Pathogenesis: Therapeutic Potential of Natural Antioxidants REVIEW article. *Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol.*, 26 May 2021 | <https://doi.org/10.3389/fcimb.2021.654813>.
  36. Meftahi G.H., Bahari Z., Jang Z., Iman M. A vicious circle between oxidative stress and cytokine storm in acute respiratory distress syndrome pathogenesis at COVID -19 infection *Ukr. Biochem. J.*, 2021, Vol. 93, N 1. doi: <https://doi.org/10.15407/ubj93.01.018>.
  37. Morgan MJ, Liu ZG. Crosstalk of reactive oxygen species and NF- $\kappa$ B signaling. *Cell Res*. 2011;21(1):103-115. doi:10.1038/cr.2010.178.
  38. Shi Q, Gibson GE. Oxidative stress and transcriptional regulation in Alzheimer disease. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 2007;21(4):276-291. doi:10.1097/WAD.0b013e31815721c3.
  39. Mizutani T, Fukushi S, Saijo M, Kurane I, Morikawa S. Importance of Akt signaling pathway for apoptosis in SARS-CoV-infected Vero E6 cells. *Virology*. 2004 Oct 1;327(2):169-74. doi: 10.1016/j.virol.2004.07.005. PMID: 15351204; PMCID: PMC7111732.
  40. Krystal GW, Sulanke G, Litz J. Inhibition of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-Akt signaling blocks growth, promotes apoptosis, and enhances sensitivity of small cell lung cancer cells to chemotherapy. *Mol Cancer Ther*. 2002 Sep;1(11):913-22. PMID: 12481412.
  41. Yao R, Cooper GM. Requirement for phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase in the prevention of apoptosis by nerve growth factor. *Science*. 1995 Mar 31;267(5206):2003-6. doi: 10.1126/science.7701324. PMID: 7701324.