CLINICAL FINDINGS OF COVID-19 PANDEMIC: A BRIEF REVIEW

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Abstract

A novel coronavirus was identified as the cause of a cluster of pneumonia cases, at the end of 2019, in Wuhan, a city in the Hubei Province of China. The WHO announced the disease was caused by a new corona virus called COVID-19 acronym of corona virus disease 2019. It rapidly spread, resulting in an epidemic throughout China, followed by an increasing number of cases in other countries throughout the world with varying degrees of illness. becoming pandemic. As the understanding of COVID-19 is evolving, an attempt has been made in this review article to provide an insight into the clinical findings of covid-19. The objective of this brief review is to raise awareness among the healthcare providers for better management and prevention of covid-19 outbreak.

keywords:COVID-19,SARS-CoV-2, Pneumonia, Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome, Pandemic

Introduction

A cluster of idiopathic pneumonia cases were reported in December2019, in Wuhan, Hubei, China [1]. Scientists employed real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), and identified the

etiology being a novel corona virus labeled as Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Corona virus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). This was later called coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) [2,3].COVID-19 seems to be contagious and spreads rapidly [4]. Transmission is from close contact and droplets produced as a result of coughing or sneezing of infected person. There is scarce evidence to suggest airborne transfer [5].

COVID-19 is а spherical or pleomorphic enveloped particles containing single-stranded (positivesense) RNA associated with nucleoprotein within capsid а comprised of matrix protein. The envelope bears club-shaped glycoprotein projections[6]. The viral protein binds with the human protein receptor(Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme-2)ACE2 which is a membranebound amino peptidase [7]. ACE2 is abundant in lung, heart, kidney, and adipose tissue [8,9]. Binding of viral with ACE2 allows protein for membrane fusion and introduction of COVID-19RNA into the cell. released RNA genome of the virus is then replicated and translated into various types of viral proteins. The replicated RNA genome synthesized viral proteins are finally assembled together into new viruses, before they escape and attack other

cells [10,11].It was observed that, slower association between virus and receptor can result in longer incubation period, while still maintaining a relatively higher level of human bodv.[12] concentration in COVID-19 has a longer incubation period and is more contagious, while SARS presents with more symptoms and disease severity [13].

Clinical findings

According to a report from the Chinese Center for Disease Control Prevention that included approximately confirmed 44.500 infections. 87 percent of patients were between 30 and 79 years old [14]. Recent studies reveal that the clinical characteristics of Covid-19 mimic those of SARS-CoV [15,16,17]. Fever and cough were the dominant symptoms and gastrointestinal symptoms were uncommon, which suggests a difference in viral tropism as compared with SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and seasonal influenza[18,19].COVID-19 manifests with a wide clinical spectrum ranging from asymptomatic patients to septic shock and multi organ dysfunction. Based the severity of on presentation the disease may be classified into mild, moderate, severe, and critical. Patients with mild illness may present with symptoms of an upper respiratory tract viral infection. These include dry cough, mild fever, congestion, sore headache, muscle pain, and malaise. It is also characterized by the absence of serious symptoms such as dyspnea. The majority (81%) of COVID-19 cases are mild in severity [20]. Furthermore, radiograph features are also absent in such cases [21].

Patients with mild disease can quickly

deteriorate into severe or critical cases. Moderate Disease patients present with respiratory symptoms of cough, shortness of breath, and tachypnea. However, no signs and symptoms of severe disease are present. Patients with severe disease present with severe pneumonia, acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), sepsis, or septic shock. Clinical presentations include the presence of severe dyspnea, tachypnea (respiratory rate > 30/minute), respiratory distress. Even in severe forms of the disease, fever can be absent or moderate [20]. In addition, 5% of patients can develop a critical disease with features respiratory failure, cardiac injury, septic shock, or multiple organ dysfunction [20,21]. Data from the Chinese Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) suggest that the case fatality rate for critical patients is 49% [20]. Patients with preexisting morbidities have a higher case fatality rate. These co morbidities include diabetes. respiratory disease. cardiovascular disease, hypertension, oncological and complications. Patients without co-morbidities have a fatality rate[21].Organ lower case dysfunction (eg, shock, respiratory distress syndrome [ARDS], acute cardiac injury, and acute kidney injury) and death can occur in severe cases [15].

Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS)

The Lung alveolar cells contain abundant amounts of ACE2, thus allowingCOVID-19 to harbor within the alveoli [8]. SARS-CoV-2(severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2) mainly invades alveolar epithelial cells, resulting in respiratory symptoms. About 41.8 % of patients develop acute

respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) [22].(COVID-19) represents pneumonia from SARS-CoV-2infection leading to ARDS. Its manifestations can be viewed as a combination of the 2 processes, namely viral pneumonia and ARDS [23]. ARDS causes diffuse alveolar damage in the lung. There is hyaline membrane formation in the alveoli in the acute stage, and this is followed by interstitial widening, edema and then fibroblast proliferation in the organizing stage. COVID-19typical ARDS causes the ARDS pathological changes of diffuse alveolar damage in the lung[24,25]. Pulmonary thrombosis is common in sepsis-induced ARDS. Coagulation dysfunction appears to be common in COVID-19, and is detected by elevated D-dimer. In fatal cases there is diffuse micro vascular thrombosis, suggesting a thrombotic micro-angiopathy, and most deaths from COVID-19 ARDS evidence of a thrombotic have Disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC)[26].

Mortality increases with the severity of the disease. Patients greater than 65 years of age present with worse degrees of ARDS and have a higher mortality likelihood [27].Older age was associated with greater risk development of ARDS and death likely less rigorous owing to immune response. Although high fever was associated with the development of ARDS, it was also associated with better outcomes among patients with [23].Laboratory ARDS findings associated with the development of **ARDS** include neutrophilia, lymphopenia, elevated C-reactive protein (high-sensitivity and normal), elevated blood urea nitrogen, elevated d-dimer, prolonged PT, and elevated LDH. Laboratory markers predicting mortality of COVID-19 ARDS

patients include low albumin, elevated blood urea nitrogen, and elevated LDH [22,27].

Myocardial injury

The mechanism of acute myocardial injury caused by SARS-CoV-2 infection might be related to ACE2. ACE2 is widely expressed not only in the lungs but also in the cardiovascular system and, therefore, ACE2-related signalling pathways might also have a role in heart injury. Other proposed mechanisms of myocardial injury include cytokine а storm triggered by an imbalanced response by type 1 and type 2 T helper cells and dvsfunction respiratory and hypoxaemia caused by COVID-19, resulting in damage to myocardial cells[28,29]. The most common causes COVID-19-related death associated with the lungs and heart [30]. Myocardial injury includes acute coronary syndrome, heart failure, myocarditis, hypotension shock, and sepsis [31,32].Regardless of previous cardiac history, heart failure is commonly encountered in severe cases of COVID-19[31,33]. In severe cases it is presented with elevated levels of N-terminal pro-Btype natriuretic peptide (NT pro-BNP) and troponin levels, especially [34]. suspected that pulmonary hypertension causing right heart failure also contributes to these cases [35,31].Elevated high-sensitivity troponin (HS-troponin) and creatinine brand kinase-myocardial (CK-MB) levels can independently predict severe COVID-19 cases [32,33,36,37]. A recent meta-analysis has shown troponin elevation in severe cases [38]. CK itself does not predict severity [78a]. Also patients with elevated HStroponin and CK-MB are suspected to have myocarditis or heart failure [28,36]. Acute kidney injury

Human kidney is a target for novel severe acute respiratory syndrome corona virus 2 [SARS-CoV-2] infection. Acute kidney injury (AKI) is a severe symptom after COVID-19 infection, the incidence of which is second only to respiratory system injuries [24].AKI develops in 40% to 60% of COVID-19 ICU patients, including 20% to 30% who require renal replacement therapy (RRT). **Patients** may become dehydrated even before hospitalization because they have not been eating or have diarrhea. drinkina. battling fever. Aggressive di-uresis can induce hypovolemia. "Acute tubular necrosis" (ATN) may ensue from a cytokine storm and respiratory failure.[40]. An important report on autopsy findings from deceased patients with COVID-19demonstrated prominent acute proximal tubular injury [41].

It is one of the most frequent organ damage of corona virus, with a sharp rise in serum creatinine (SCr) level and a sharp decrease in urine output [42]. Systematic analysis showed that 75% of MERS-CoV infected patients developed acute renal failure (ARF) with a median interval of 11 days from symptom onset, and 6.7% of SARS-CoV infected patients with ARFwere diagnosed after a median of 20 days from symptom onset [42,43]. The latest epidemiological and clinical characteristics study showed that 3with COVID-19 19% patients had symptoms of AKI, and about 9% patients with renal failure received continuous blood purification [28]. Acute kidney injury presents with elevated urea and cystatin-C levels in severe COVID-19 infection [22,27,44,45]. There are two postulates

concerning the cause of acute kidney injury. One is from kidneys harboring more ACE2 levels than the lung or especially in the proximal convoluted tubules. However, COVID-19 RNA is not encountered in the urine [46]. The other theory relates to injury via acytokine storm [45]. But whether the AKI of COVID-19 is caused by a coronavirus-induced cytopathic effect cytokinestorm-induced systemic inflammatory response remains unclear. Based on kidney injury severity, patients may acquire continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT). presumed lt is CRRTpotentially serves as a means of removing large cytokine levels from the system, regardless of kidney injury [44,45].

Conclusions

The COVID-19 pandemic being more infectious than SARS or MERS is spreading across the globe at an alarming rate. From the clinical findings it appears that elderly and immuno compromised patients are at the greatest risk of fatality. Since no confirmed medication or vaccine has been developed, there is a need to closely monitor the vital functions in patients with COVID-19 and take early clinical interventions. Current clinical management includes infection prevention and control and measures supportive care, including supplemental oxygen and mechanical ventilatory support when indicated. Prophylactic vaccination is required for the future prevention of CoV-related epidemic or pandemic.

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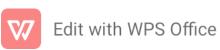
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