DRUG REPURPOSING AGAINST SARS-CoV-2

Editor: **Tabish Qidwai**

Bentham Books

Drug Repurposing Against SARS-CoV-2

Edited by

Tabish Qidwai

Faculty of Biotechnology Shri Ramswaroop Memorial University Lucknow-Deva Road U.P. India

Drug Repurposing Against SARS-CoV-2

Editor: Tabish Qidwai ISBN (Online): 978-981-5123-19-7 ISBN (Print): 978-981-5123-20-3 ISBN (Paperback): 978-981-5123-21-0 © 2023, Bentham Books imprint. Published by Bentham Science Publishers Pte. Ltd. Singapore. All Rights Reserved.

First published in 2023.

BENTHAM SCIENCE PUBLISHERS LTD.

End User License Agreement (for non-institutional, personal use)

This is an agreement between you and Bentham Science Publishers Ltd. Please read this License Agreement carefully before using the book/echapter/ejournal (**"Work"**). Your use of the Work constitutes your agreement to the terms and conditions set forth in this License Agreement. If you do not agree to these terms and conditions then you should not use the Work.

Bentham Science Publishers agrees to grant you a non-exclusive, non-transferable limited license to use the Work subject to and in accordance with the following terms and conditions. This License Agreement is for non-library, personal use only. For a library / institutional / multi user license in respect of the Work, please contact: permission@benthamscience.net.

Usage Rules:

- 1. All rights reserved: The Work is the subject of copyright and Bentham Science Publishers either owns the Work (and the copyright in it) or is licensed to distribute the Work. You shall not copy, reproduce, modify, remove, delete, augment, add to, publish, transmit, sell, resell, create derivative works from, or in any way exploit the Work or make the Work available for others to do any of the same, in any form or by any means, in whole or in part, in each case without the prior written permission of Bentham Science Publishers, unless stated otherwise in this License Agreement.
- 2. You may download a copy of the Work on one occasion to one personal computer (including tablet, laptop, desktop, or other such devices). You may make one back-up copy of the Work to avoid losing it.
- 3. The unauthorised use or distribution of copyrighted or other proprietary content is illegal and could subject you to liability for substantial money damages. You will be liable for any damage resulting from your misuse of the Work or any violation of this License Agreement, including any infringement by you of copyrights or proprietary rights.

Disclaimer:

Bentham Science Publishers does not guarantee that the information in the Work is error-free, or warrant that it will meet your requirements or that access to the Work will be uninterrupted or error-free. The Work is provided "as is" without warranty of any kind, either express or implied or statutory, including, without limitation, implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose. The entire risk as to the results and performance of the Work is assumed by you. No responsibility is assumed by Bentham Science Publishers, its staff, editors and/or authors for any injury and/or damage to persons or property as a matter of products liability, negligence or otherwise, or from any use or operation of any methods, products instruction, advertisements or ideas contained in the Work.

Limitation of Liability:

In no event will Bentham Science Publishers, its staff, editors and/or authors, be liable for any damages, including, without limitation, special, incidental and/or consequential damages and/or damages for lost data and/or profits arising out of (whether directly or indirectly) the use or inability to use the Work. The entire liability of Bentham Science Publishers shall be limited to the amount actually paid by you for the Work.

General:

2. Your rights under this License Agreement will automatically terminate without notice and without the

^{1.} Any dispute or claim arising out of or in connection with this License Agreement or the Work (including non-contractual disputes or claims) will be governed by and construed in accordance with the laws of Singapore. Each party agrees that the courts of the state of Singapore shall have exclusive jurisdiction to settle any dispute or claim arising out of or in connection with this License Agreement or the Work (including non-contractual disputes or claims).

need for a court order if at any point you breach any terms of this License Agreement. In no event will any delay or failure by Bentham Science Publishers in enforcing your compliance with this License Agreement constitute a waiver of any of its rights.

3. You acknowledge that you have read this License Agreement, and agree to be bound by its terms and conditions. To the extent that any other terms and conditions presented on any website of Bentham Science Publishers conflict with, or are inconsistent with, the terms and conditions set out in this License Agreement, you acknowledge that the terms and conditions set out in this License Agreement shall prevail.

Bentham Science Publishers Pte. Ltd. 80 Robinson Road #02-00 Singapore 068898 Singapore Email: subscriptions@benthamscience.net



CONTENTS

FOREWORD	i
PREFACE	ii
LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS	iii
CHAPTER 1 REPURPOSING DRUGS: A NEW PARADIGM AND HOPES FOR LIFE- THREATENING DISEASES	1
Ruchi Chawla, Varsha Rani, Krishan Kumar and Mohini Mishra	
INTRODUCTION	1
Drug Repurposing Strategies	3
Experimental Approaches	
Target Associated Screening/Binding Assays to Identify Target Candidate	
Phenotype-based Repurposing	
Clinical Approaches	
Computational Approaches	7
Re-profiling of Drugs Based on Target / Molecular Docking	7
Knowledge-based	
Signature Based	
Pathway Based Repurposing	8
Target-mechanism-based Repurposing	8
THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF REPURPOSING OF DRUGS FOR LIFE-	
THREATENING DISEASES	9
Advantages of Drug Repurposing	11
Cost and Time Minimization	11
Accessibility of Information Related to the Drug for Development of Repurposed	
Drug	11
Dosing Strength and Frequency	
THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF REPURPOSED DRUGS FOR THE TREATMENT OF	7
LIFE-THREATENING DISEASES	12
Tuberculosis	12
Cancer	13
Pulmonary Diseases	14
Cardiac Diseases	15
Antiviral Infections	15
Renal Dysfunction	17
IMPLICATIONS AND IMPORTANCE OF REPURPOSING DRUGS DURING	
PANDEMIC OUTBREAKS	18
CONCLUSION	18
CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION	19
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	19
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	19
REFERENCES	19
CHAPTER 2 EXPLORATION OF REPURPOSED AND ADJUVANT DRUGS IN COVID-19	
PATIENTS, AS WELL AS CHALLENGES AND ETHICAL ISSUES RELATED TO DRUG	
REPURPOSING	23
Malti Dadheech and Anand Kumar Maurya INTRODUCTION	. 25
POTENTIAL CANDIDATES FOR ADJUVANT THERAPY	
Vitamin D	
	41

Stilbenoids	
Curcumin	
Zinc (Zn)	
Melatonin	
Iron Chelators	
Vitamin C	
CHALLENGES RELATED TO DRUG REPURPOSING	
Limited Repository of Drugs	
Limited Efficacy of Repurposed Drugs	
Regulatory and Patent Considerations	
Accessibility of Data and Compound	
Uncertainty of Space for Repurposing Drugs	
Intellectual Property and Economic Considerations	
ETHICAL ISSUES RELATED TO DRUG REPURPOSING	
Regional Limitations of Clinical Research Ethics During Emergency Situations	
Fairness in Resource Distribution for Repurposed Drugs in Emergency Situations	
Involuntary Risk Burden	
Regulatory Aspects and Ethical Issues in Drug Repurposing for COVID-19	
CONCLUSION	
CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION	
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
REFERENCES	
CHAPTER 3 REPURPOSED DRUGS AGAINST SARS-COV-2 REPLICATION IN COV	ID-19 52
Kavita Vermal, Yoganchal Mishral, Sarika Singh2, Neha Kapoor and Neelam Yadav	50
INTRODUCTION	
SARS-CoV-2 Genome Structure	
SARS-CoV-2 Infection and Pathogenesis	
SARS-CoV-2 Genome Replication and Transcription	
Repurposed Drugs Against SARS-CoV-2 Replication	
Prevention of SARS-CoV-2 Entry into the Host Cell	
Nafamostat/Camostat	
Umifenovir	
Anti-viral Approach by Targeting the SARS-CoV-2 Protease	
Lopinavir/Ritonavir	
Inhibition of Viral RNA Replicase	
Remdesivir	
Favipiravir	
Ribavirin	
Penciclovir	
CONCLUSION	64
FUTURE PERSPECTIVE CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION	
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
REFERENCES	
CHAPTER 4 TARGETING THE VIRAL ENTRY PATHWAYS THROUGH REPURPOS	
DRUGS IN SARS-COV-2 INFECTION	
Manisha Mulchandani, Amit Kumar Palai, Anjali Bhosale, Farhan Mazahir and Awesh	
K. Yadav	

INTR	RODUCTION
DRU	G REPURPOSING
	Remdesivir
	Favipiravir
	Lopinavir and Ritonavir
	Hydroxychloroquine and Chloroquine
	Tocilizumab
	Darunavir
	Ribavirin
	Arbidol
	Camostat Mesylate
	Nafamostat
	Sofosbuvir
	Cepharanthine
	Nelfinavir
	Fluoxetine
	Enfuvirtide
	Role of Phytochemicals
DRU	GS REPURPOSING APPROACHES
	Machine Learning-Based
	Genetic Association
	Retrospecting Clinical Analysis
	Structure-Based
	Pathway Based
	Signature Based
	Artificial Intelligence-Based
	Experimental Approaches
	Target-Based
	Binding Assay
	Drug-Centric
	Phenotype Based
	Drug Repurposing Scenarios In Antiviral Drug Discovery
	Same Target – New Virus
	Same Target New Indication
	New Target New Indications
	Animal Models In SARS-CoV-2 Repurposing
	Limitation of Identified Repurposed Molecules
	Personalized Drug Repurposing
CON	CLUSION
	SENT FOR PUBLICATION
	FLICT OF INTEREST
	NOWLEDGEMENTS
REFI	ERENCES
	R 5 REPURPOSED DRUGS/POTENTIAL PHARMACOLOGICAL AGENTS
	NG CYTOKINE RELEASE AND INDUCTION OF COAGULATION IN COVID-19
	a Singh, Ajay Kumar Verma, Anuj Kumar Pandey and Jyoti Bajpai
	RODUCTION
MEC	HANISM OF PATHOGENESIS IN COVID-19
	SARS-CoV-2 Structure and Mutation
	SARS-CoV-2 Pathogenesis

VARIOUS PRO-INFLAMMATORY CYTOKINES AS TARGET OF REPURPOSED

DRUGS	
Cytokines, Types and Cytokine Storm	
Cytokines	
Cytokine Storm (CS)	105
COVID-19-associated Cytokine Storm	
Pro-inflammatory Cytokines	107
Interleukins	107
Transforming Growth Factor (TNF)	
Interferons (IFN)	
Granulocyte-Macrophage Colony-Stimulating Factor (GM-CSF)	
Drugs Repurposing	
Repurposed Drugs Targeting Pro-inflammatory Cytokines	
TARGETING INDUCTION OF COAGULATION IN COVID-19 PATIENTS	
COVID-19 Related Coagulopathy	
Endothelial Dysfunction and COVID-19	
Coagulation Test Analysis	
Venous Thromboembolic Prophylaxis	
Microvascular Thrombosin	120
Clinical Interventions for Therapeutic Anticoagulation	
CONCLUSION	
CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION	
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
REFERENCES	122
CHAPTER 6 HIGH THROUGHPUT SCREENING (HTS) METHODS FOR SCRI	EENING OF
KNOWN DRUGS FOR COVID-19	137
KNOWN DRUGS FOR COVID-19 Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai	137
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai	137
<i>Tejal Shreeya</i> and <i>Tabish Qidwai</i> INTRODUCTION	
<i>Tejal Shreeya</i> and <i>Tabish Qidwai</i> INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening	
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library	137 139 140 142
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS	137 139 140 142 142
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays	137 139 140 142 142 142 142
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay	137 139 140 142 142 142 142 143 143
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Anisotropy and Fluorescence Polarization (FA/FP)	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Anisotropy and Fluorescence Polarization (FA/FP) Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET)	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Anisotropy and Fluorescence Polarization (FA/FP) Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET)	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144 144 145
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144 144 145 145
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy Binding Based Assays	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144 144 145 145 145 145
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144 144 145 145 145 145
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy Binding Based Assays Fragment-based Drug Design (FBDD) Cell-based Assays	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144 144 144 145 145 145 145 145 145
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy Binding Based Assays Fragment-based Drug Design (FBDD) Cell-based Assays The Cell Viability Assay	137 139 140 142 142 142 143 143 143 144 144 144 144 145 145 145 145 145 145
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Anisotropy and Fluorescence Polarization (FA/FP) Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy Binding Based Assays Fragment-based Drug Design (FBDD) Cell-based Assays The Cell Viability Assay	$\begin{array}{c} 137\\ 139\\ 140\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145$
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Anisotropy and Fluorescence Polarization (FA/FP) Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy Binding Based Assays Fragment-based Drug Design (FBDD) Cell-based Assays The Cell Viability Assay Reporter Gene Assay Second Messenger Assay	$\begin{array}{c} 137\\ 139\\ 140\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145$
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy Binding Based Assays Fragment-based Drug Design (FBDD) Cell-based Assays The Cell Viability Assay Reporter Gene Assay Second Messenger Assay Two Hybrid Screening	$\begin{array}{c} 137\\ 139\\ 140\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145$
Tejal Shreeya and Tabish Qidwai INTRODUCTION High Throughput Screening Compound Library Methods of HTS Biochemical Assays Radiometric Assays SPA (Scintillating Proximity Assay) FlashPlate Assay Fluorescence Assays Fluorescence Anisotropy and Fluorescence Polarization (FA/FP) Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Time Resolves Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (TR-FRET) Fluorescence Correlation Spectroscopy Binding Based Assays Fragment-based Drug Design (FBDD) Cell-based Assays The Cell Viability Assay Reporter Gene Assay Second Messenger Assay	$\begin{array}{c} 137\\ 139\\ 140\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 142\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 144\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145\\ 145$

High Content Screening (HCS)	
Quantitative High Throughput Screening (qHTS)	
HTS METHODS FOR SCREENING OF KNOWN DRUGS AGAINST COVID-19	
Plaque Reduction Neutralization Test (PRNT)	150
Nanoluciferase SARS-CoV-2 Assay	
Pseudotyped Particle Entry Assay	
In-cell ELISA (icELISA)	
TMPRSS2 Biochemical Assay	
3CLpro Activity Assay	
Cell-based Assay-Fluorescence Microscopy	
Other Drugs	
Advantages of HTS	
Challenges in HTS Technology	153
Future Perspective	
Unmet Needs in Case of Screening	
Various Methods used for Target Identification	
CONCLUSION	
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	
CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION	157
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	157
REFERENCES	157
CHAPTER 7 DRUG REPURPOSING FOR COVID-19 USING COMPUTATIONAL	
METHODS	
Qo 'Rtcmcuj 'cpf 'Hgtq/ 'Mj cp	
INTRODUCTION	
CURRENT STATUS OF DRUG-REPURPOSING	
Repurposing Through a Drug-drug Interaction Network	
Repurposing through a Drug-target Interaction Network	
Repurposing Through Drug Pairwise Similarity	
Repurposing Through Model Hybridization & Systems Modelling	
Validation and Case Study	
Repurposing through Electronic Health Records	
RECENT ADVANCEMENTS IN AI ALGORITHMS FOR DRUG REPURPOSIN	
Graph Representation Learning	
REPURPOSED-DRUG THERAPIES UNDER INVESTIGATION AGAINST COV	
Therapy Targeting Virus	177
Therapy Targeting Host	
Therapy through Drug Combinations	
CHALLENGES IN RE-INSIGHT FOR DRUG REPURPOSING	179
Challenges in Data Sharing and Security	
PERSONALISED AND AI-GUIDED REPURPOSING	181
CONCLUSION	
CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION	
CONFLICT OF INTEREST	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
REFERENCES	
SUBJECT INDEX	3: 8
SUDJEUT INDEA	

FOREWORD

Drug repurposing is a process of identifying new uses of approved or investigated drugs. In the current scenario of deadly contagious coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), where no specific treatment options are available, drug repurposing is considered a very effective drug discovery strategy and could be considered the new avenue for the treatment of COVID-19. The book entitled **"Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2"** offers comprehensive and systematic coverage of repurposed and adjuvant drugs highlighting their therapeutic status in COVID-19 patients while assessing the challenges and ethical issues related to repurposing drugs.

The pathophysiology of SARS-CoV2 replication in COVID-19 and their modulation by repurposing drugs is explained in simple and lucid language and also through enriched illustrations. The wealth of information assembled by the authors will be useful to both Pharmacologists and Clinicians.

Uma Bhandari Department of Pharmacology School of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (SPER) Jamia Hamdard India

PREFACE

There are seven chapters in this book entitled "Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2." The book focuses on current trends in drug repurposing against SARS-CoV2.

The goal of this book is to give readers an overview of drug repurposing in life-threating diseases, drug repurposing in COVID-19, as well as various techniques involved in drug repurposing. The book aims to target students, research scholars, and physicians interested in the topic. The book's structure is well-organized and updated.

Chapter 1 by Ruchi Chawla discusses repurposing drugs: a new paradigm and hopes for lifethreatening diseases.

Anand *et al.*, in Chapter 2, outline the repurposed and adjuvant drugs in COVID-19 patients, as well as challenges and ethical issues related to drug repurposing. Chapter 3 by Neelam *et al.* presents the repurposed drugs against SARS-CoV-2 replication in COVID-19. In Chapter 4, Awesh Yadav *et al.*, describe the targeting of viral entry pathways through repurposed drugs in SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Repurposed drugs or potential pharmacological agents targeting cytokine release, and induction of coagulation in COVID-19 are discussed in Chapter 5 by Arpita Singh *et al.* In Chapter 6, Qidwai *et al.*, discuss the High-throughput screening (HTS) method for screening of known drugs. The last chapter by Khan *et al.*, discusses drug repurposing for COVID-19 using computational methods.

I believe this book will be of tremendous interest to students, doctors, researchers, and even patients and their families. Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to all of the contributors to this book, as well as the Bentham Publishing Editorial Board for providing us with this invaluable opportunity.

Tabish Qidwai

Faculty of Biotechnology, IBST Shri Ramswaroop Memorial University Lucknow-Deva Road Barabanki, 225003 U.P. India

List of Contributors

Ajay Kumar Verma	Department of Respiratory Medicine, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Anand Kumar Maurya	Department of Microbiology, All India Insititute of Medical Sciences, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh, India
Amit Kumar Palai	Department of Pharmaceutics, National Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (NIPER) Raebareli, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Anuj Kumar Pandey	Department of Respiratory Medicine, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Anjali Bhosale	Department of Pharmaceutics, National Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (NIPER) Raebareli, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Arpita Singh	Department of Pharmacology, Dr. Ram Manohar Lohia Institute of Medical Sciences, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Awesh K. Yadav	Department of Pharmaceutics, National Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (NIPER) Raebareli, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Farhan Mazahir	Department of Pharmaceutics, National Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (NIPER) Raebareli, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Feroz Khan	CSIR-CIMAP, Lucknow-226015, UP, India
Jyoti Bajpai	Department of Respiratory Medicine, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Kavita Verma	Department of Biochemistry, Dr. Rammanohar Lohia Avadh University, Ayodhya-224001, India
Krishan Kumar	Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of Technology, Varanasi-221005, India
Manisha Mulchandani	Department of Pharmaceutics, National Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (NIPER) Raebareli, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India
Malti Dadheech	Department of Microbiology, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Bhopal,
	India
Mohini Mishra	
Mohini Mishra Neha Kapoor	India Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of
	India Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of Technology, Varanasi-221005, India Department of Chemistry, Hindu College, University of Delhi-110007, Delhi,
Neha Kapoor	India Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of Technology, Varanasi-221005, India Department of Chemistry, Hindu College, University of Delhi-110007, Delhi, India Department of Biochemistry, Dr. Rammanohar Lohia Avadh University,
Neha Kapoor Neelam Yadav	India Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of Technology, Varanasi-221005, India Department of Chemistry, Hindu College, University of Delhi-110007, Delhi, India Department of Biochemistry, Dr. Rammanohar Lohia Avadh University, Ayodhya-224001, India

Tabish Qidwai	Faculty of Biotechnology, Shriramswaroop Memorial University, Lucknow, UP, India
Tejal Shreeya	Institute of Biophysics, Biological Research Centre, Szeged, Hungary, Europe
Varsha Rani	Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of Technology, Varanasi-221005, India
Yoganchal Mishra	Department of Biochemistry, Dr. Rammanohar Lohia Avadh University, Ayodhya-224001, India

iv

CHAPTER 1

Repurposing Drugs: A New Paradigm and Hopes for Life-threatening Diseases

Ruchi Chawla^{1,*}, Varsha Rani¹, Krishan Kumar¹ and Mohini Mishra¹

¹ Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of Technology, Varanasi-221005, India

Abstract: The process of repurposing drugs is an alternative to the conventional drug discovery process. It is a cost-effective and time-efficient process with high returns and low risk that utilizes mechanistic information of the existing drugs to investigate their novel applications against other disease conditions. The most significant benefit of drug repositioning is that it brings new life against novel/ orphan/ resistant diseases and pandemic outbreaks like COVID-19. As a result, widespread use of the drug repurposing strategy will not only aid in the more efficient fight against pandemics but will also combat life-threatening diseases. Therefore, repurposing drugs can provide a quick response to these unpredictable situations. In this chapter, we have tried to focus on various drug-repurposing strategies along with therapeutics for repurposing drugs against life-threatening diseases wherein little or no treatment is readily available.

Keywords: Drug-repurposing, Life-threatening diseases, New drug development, Phenotype screening.

INTRODUCTION

Drug repositioning is an alternative approach in drug development that opens new avenues for diseases wherein there is lack of appropriate treatment approaches. Drug repositioning (also known as drug repurposing, drug reprofiling, or drug retasking) is the process of identifying new modes of action, new indications, as well as new targets for already approved drugs or investigational drugs which have not been mentioned in any of the existing medical indications [1]. The availability of pre-clinical and clinical data allows for effective repurposing and the possibility of failure is relatively low in comparison to that of a new drug. As a result, the repurposed medicinal products require less time for clinical trials and regulatory approval [2]. The process of repurposing provides an abridged route to

* Corresponding author Ruchi Chawla: Department of Pharmaceutical Engineering & Technology, Indian Institute of Technology, BHU, Varanasi-221001, India; E-mails: ruchibits@gmail.com; rchawla.phe@iitbhu.ac.in

2 Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2

the conventional drug discovery process. It is a cost-effective and time-efficient process with high returns and low risk that utilizes mechanistic information of the existing drugs to investigate their novel application against other diseases and pathological conditions [3]. The most significant benefit of drug repositioning is that it brings new life against novel, orphan, resistant diseases and pandemic outbreaks like COVID-19. As a result, widespread use of the drug repurposing strategy will not only aid in the more efficient fight against pandemics but will also combat life-threatening diseases [4].

Life-threatening diseases are chronic, mainly debilitating diseases that significantly reduce a person's life expectancy. Major life-threatening diseases include cancer, diabetes, neurological conditions, coronary cardiovascular conditions and HIV/Aids [5], which are significantly impacting the global health economy. These life-threatening diseases can be prevented and treated, however, at times there is lack of response from the existing therapy. There might be a need for an alternative therapeutic regimen wherein, repurposing drugs can provide a potential backup for the same [4]. Sometimes, there are unexpected pandemics when life-threatening conditions emerge and no treatment is available, and under such circumstances, repurposition of drug products could be helpful. The majority of drugs currently repositioned in the market are a result of serendipity. The wellknown cardiovascular benefits of aspirin are among one of the most appropriately proven examples of repurposing. The results of clinical trial shifted the use of sildenafil from coronary artery disease to erectile dysfunction. Bupropion was initially developed as an antidepressant before its application in cessation of smoking. Botox (on botulinum toxin A) which was first used to treat eye muscle disorders, is currently having a widespread application in cosmetic and beauty industry. Minoxidil was used to treat high blood pressure prior to the discovery of its effect on hair growth. Thalidomide and its extracts have been repurposed to treat leprosy, multiple myeloma, myelodysplastic syndrome, mantle cell lymphoma, and metastatic prostate cancer [6, 7].

New drug development is a challenging process requiring enormous investment of money and time, with unpredictable return on investment [1]. *De novo* drug development takes around 10 to 15 years, which includes basic discovery, design of medicines, *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies (including safety and efficacy), clinical studies and ultimately market registration of drugs. In contrast, repurposing medication for life-threatening diseases takes only 5-11 years, as many intermediary steps are bypassed if the therapeutic potential of the drug for the disease is confirmed as shown in Fig. (1) [8, 9]. This approach provides several benefits over conventional drug development with lower costs in a shorter timeframe with fewer risks, as the effectiveness and safety of the original medication have already been established and approved by regulatory agencies

Repurposing Drugs

Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2 3

[4]. In this chapter, we will highlight various drug-repurposing strategies along with therapeutics for repurposing drugs against life-threatening diseases where little or no treatment is available.

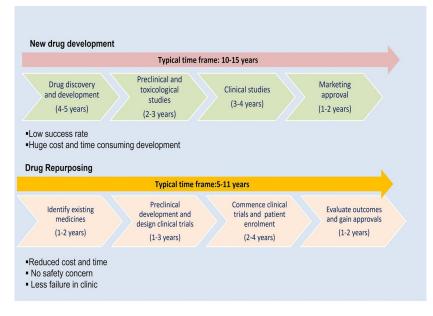


Fig. (1). The approximate time and major steps in the process of *de novo* drug development and repurposing of drugs.

Drug Repurposing Strategies

The primary objective of the drug discovery and development is to establish the therapeutic effectiveness with a very low toxicity-to-benefit ratio. As a result, strategies that use drug candidates with known therapeutic profiles (for drug repurposing) can significantly contribute to the drug development process, thereby reducing development time and costs. Drug candidates with known safety profiles can typically be selected from (a) approved FDA drugs, (b) drugs being studied for a different application, or (c) drugs abandoned or unsuccessful in clinical trials (phase II or III). The success of drug repositioning depends on maximizing therapeutic effectiveness for new targets while reducing off-target effects [10].

Repositioning of drugs is not a new concept, what is new is the ability to do it in a systematic and rational manner rather than relying on serendipity. As the prominence of drug repositioning is gaining practical applications, a number of companies are shifting their focus on developing strategies to make it a systematic exercise. Before moving the applicant drug further down the development

CHAPTER 2

Exploration of Repurposed and Adjuvant Drugs in COVID-19 Patients, as well as Challenges and Ethical Issues Related to Drug Repurposing

Malti Dadheech¹ and Anand Kumar Maurya^{1,*}

¹ Department of Microbiology, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Bhopal, India

Abstract: The Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19), also referred to as Novel Coronavirus Disease, is a contagious viral disease with a high rate of confirmed cases. Therefore, treatment options are urgently needed to fight the deadly virus. Since there is no standard treatment available, it results in increased morbidity and mortality. The development process of a new drug takes years, so it is crucial to focus on repurposed drugs to reduce the severity of this disease. This review aims to describe the regulatory and molecular aspects of repurposed and adjuvant drugs for COVID-19 based on registered clinical trials and online literature. The use of repurposed drugs brings its own ethical issues and challenges. The challenges of the correct interpretation of existing pre-clinical/clinical evidence and the generation of new evidence concerning drug repurposing in COVID-19 and the issues faced by the repurposing community will also be discussed in the review. When drug repurposing is employed in emergency situations, regional limitations of clinical research ethics, involuntary risk burden, regulatory aspects and ethical issues, fairness in resource distribution for repurposed drugs become an issue that requires careful ethical consideration.

Keywords: Adjuvant drugs, COVID-19, Ethical issues, Repurposed drugs.

INTRODUCTION

The pandemic of Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19) caused by Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Corona Virus-2 (SARS-CoV2) belongs to the Coronaviridae family of viruses, which is characterized by a high recombination rate that enables it to replicate among animals and humans. Occasionally, recombination in the virus genome within a random host gives rise to a contagious strain, which turns out to be highly pathogenic [1]. The confirmed cases of COVID-19 were heterogeneous and divided into 3 stages; 1) Mild, 2) Severe and 3) Critical cases. Clinical manifestations, such as fever, fatigue and cough, were

Tabish Qidwai (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2023 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} Corresponding author Anand Kumar Maurya: Department of Microbiology, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Bhopal 462020 Madhya Pradesh, India; E-mail:anand.microbiology@aiimsbhopal.edu.in

the most common in the majority of cases. Others were myalgia, increased levels of aspartate aminotransferase, C-reactive protein, creatine kinase and creatinine, mostly observed in the complicated cases [2].

Since no standard treatment is available, it results in increased morbidity and mortality. Apart from that, a lack of understanding about drug targets and individual perceptions are adding complications to treating the deadly disease. Therefore, therapeutic plans to counteract COVID-19 infection should be devised. It is very important to evolve a comprehensive understanding of how the virus takes over the host during the infection, and apply this understanding towards the development of both repurposed and adjuvant drugs.

The development process of a novel drug is very complicated, highly expensive and needs 10 to 15 years of research. After the production and designing of the drug, it is also important to examine its pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, toxicity and efficacy in cell and animal-based models [3].

Therefore, exploring effective therapeutic agents to combat COVID-19 is essential and urgent [4]. Therefore, it is very crucial to aim at already available anti-viral and adjuvant drugs to reduce the severity of the disease.

Drug repositioning is a process for the identification of new usage for formerly approved therapeutics and is considered a veritably successful approach for drug discovery because it involves less cost and time to find a remedial agent in comparison to the novel drug discovery process [5]. The molecular pathways of these medicines can also be involved in different diseases. According to a study, 75 percent of formerly approved drugs could be repositioned for the treatment of many diseases [6].

Drug repurposing (DR) can ameliorate the recovery rate by decelerating the replication of COVID-19 contagion and also reducing the symptoms. The Intensive Care Units (ICU) could also be relieved from the pressure by syncopating the time spent by the patients in ICU, which makes it an equal possibility for other patients as well to get the services [7]. Hence, the fastest process to manage the pandemic situation is to repurpose the formerly approved drugs that have been used with a known safety profile [3, 9].

Adjuvant drugs are non-habit-forming, non-opioid medications that can be used as "add-on therapy" to help in the treatment of pain (https://nwapain.com/adjuvant-medications). Frequently used supplements, such as Vitamin-C and zinc, have been reported to decrease the time and seriousness of viral diseases by raising the immune response [8]. The proof supporting supplement therapy as a treatment for infections caused by a virus is very restricted [9]. In the COVID-19 era and

rapidly increasing death rates, there is a desperate need for successful treatment options; whether these supplement molecules could be helpful for the patients infected with the SARS-CoV2 virus is a research question worth assessing [9].

The potential repurposing therapeutics to treat the SARS-CoV-2 infection are anti-malarial, anti-viral, anti-biotic, immunosuppressants, monoclonal antibodies, nti-anthelmintic, ngiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, Kinase inhibitors, anti-bacterial, anti-diabetic drugs, anti-tumoral, interferons and others [8].

Potential candidates for adjuvant therapy for SARS-CoV-2 are Resveratrol, stilbene-bases natural compounds, N. Sativa (Black seed), Zinc, HMG CoA reductase inhibitors (statins), Melatonin, Indomethacin, Iron chelators, Vitamin-D, Vitamin-C and others [10].

POTENTIAL CANDIDATES FOR ADJUVANT THERAPY

The potential candidates for adjuvant therapy are summarized below in Table 1.

Vitamin D

Vitamin D (Vit-D) shows antimicrobial and immunomodulatory activities and is also used as an adjuvant therapy to reduce the consequences of different conditions [11]. According to various studies, people with Vit-D deficiency have a greater chance of developing respiratory infections [12]. When the skin is exposed to UVB rays during the summer season, Vit-D is produced as a secosteroid [13]. COVID-19 severity can be very high in patients with hypovitaminosis (Skin produces less Vit-D in skin) [14]. Research shows that Vit-D plays an important role in balancing the renin-angiotensin system (RAS) and the reduction of lung damage [14]. From a molecular perspective, Vit-D accelerates the differentiation of monocytes into macrophages, enhances leukocyte recruitment and chemotaxis and increases the antimicrobial activity of the innate immune system [15]. It also promotes the production and secretion of defensins and cathelicidin and reinforces the barrier function of different organs [16].

Many studies obtained heterogeneous data by analyzing the role of Vit-D supplementation as treatment and preventive therapy of respiratory infections [16]. However, in most of the clinical trials on paediatric cases, the intervention consists of the administration of 400-1200 IU of Vit-D daily [17]. Therefore, supplements within this range can be advised for COVID-19 prevention.

Stilbenoids

Many plants produce stilbenoids as natural phenolic compounds. They are

CHAPTER 3

Repurposed Drugs Against SARS-CoV-2 Replication in COVID-19

Kavita Verma¹, Yoganchal Mishra¹, Sarika Singh², Neha Kapoor³ and Neelam Yadav^{1,*}

¹ Department of Biochemistry, Dr. Rammanohar Lohia Avadh University, Ayodhya-224001, India

² Neurosciences an Ageing Biology and Toxicology and Experimental Medicine Division, CSIR-Central Drug Research Institute, Lucknow-226031, India

³ Department of Chemistry, Hindu College, University of Delhi-110007, India

Abstract: COVID-19 caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2(SARS-CoV -2), has emerged as a global health problem. It was first reported in Wuhan city of China, in December 2019. Unfortunately, no specific and effective drug is available to treat SARS-CoV-2 infection in patients. There is an urgent need to control COVID-19pandemic. Research & development of novel molecules is a timeconsuming and labour-intensive procedure in the midst of a pandemic. The aim of drug repurposing is to find a therapeutically effective molecule from a library of pre-existing compounds. In the present article, a large number of anti-viral drugs with their potential efficacy in inhibiting replication of virus by targeting the virus S protein (Spike protein), 3-chymotrypsin-like protease (3CLpro), RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) and papain-like protease (PLpro), which play an important role in the replication cycle and pathogenesis of coronaviruses, were assessed as possible treatment options against SARS-CoV-2 infected COVID-19 patients. The continuing SARS-CoV-2 epidemic emphasises the importance of efficient anti-viral medications that can be administered swiftly to decrease morbidity, death, and viral transmission. Several breakthroughs in the development of COVID-19 treatment options might be made by repurposing widely active anti-viral medicines and chemicals that are known to suppress viral replication of related viruses.

Keywords: Anti-viral drugs, COVID-19, Drug repurposing, Remdesivir, Replication, SARS-CoV-2.

INTRODUCTION

COVID-19, a novel coronavirus illness, has become a pandemic danger to human health. It is a respiratory illness that causes dry cough, lethargy, fever, muscular

Tabish Qidwai (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2023 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} Corresponding author Neelam Yadav: Department of Biochemistry, Dr. Rammanohar Lohia Avadh University, Ayodhya-224001, Tel: +91 9453731722, India; E-mail:neelam2k4@gmail.com

SARS-CoV-2 Replication

pains, and shortness of breath, as well as pneumonia in certain cases [1, 2]. It can induce acute respiratory distress syndrome, which is a severe inflammation of the lung in which fluid builds up within and around the lungs, causing septic trauma owing to a significant drop in blood pressure and the body's parts being underfed for oxygen. This corona virus has an incubation period of 1 to 14 days. The degree of symptoms varies from patient to patient. Due to weakened or damaged immune systems, the elderly, children under the age of six, and individuals with a medical history of asthma, diabetes, or heart disease are especially sensitive to this condition. In December 2019, Wuhan, Hubei Province, China, was the centre of the epidemic [2, 3]. WHO declared this outbreak a Public Health Emergency of International Concern on January 30, 2020, because of its rapid spread and estimated reproductive number (Ro) of 2.2. As of March 20, 2020, it had reached approximately 187 countries (2, 66,073 confirmed cases) and 11,184 confirmed fatalities with a 4.4 ofcase fatality rate (CFT) [4].

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is the virus that causes COVID-19. Middle East respiratory sickness (MERS) virus (MERS-CoV) and SARS-CoV are two more related agents [5, 6]. They infiltrate the pulmonary epithelial cells, deliver their nucleocapsid, and hijack the cellular machinery to multiply in the cytoplasm, attacking the patient's lower respiratory system. The heart, kidneys, liver, gastrointestinal tract, and central nervous system are all affected by the virus family. The Coronaviridae family of enveloped single-stranded, positive-strand ribonucleic acids includes SARS-CoV-2 (RNA) structure.

It is critical to find efficient medicinal chemicals in order to respond quickly to this pandemic viral illness. Presently, due to the urgent need to stop COVID-19 infection, therapeutic approaches for this pandemic include repurposing existing anti-viral drugs that have an effect on the replication of novel SARS-CoV -2 coronavirus [7]. Therapeutic methods for COVID-19 infection patients are divided into two groups based on their targets: (1) medications that target the SARS-CoV-2 life cycle and (2) therapies that have efficacy on the host cells or human immune system. In this chapter, we discuss repurposed drugs with anti-viral effects against SARS-CoV-2 replication, as these substances provide great efficacy for early treatment of COVID-19 by inhibiting the virus life cycle. In addition, it may work as suitable preventive measure, as reported for neuraminidase inhibitors in the influenza virus.

Currently, several clinical trials are ongoing in which many immunomodulators and anti-viral drugs are being investigated for the treatment of COVID-19 patients. These trials aim to decrease the morbidity and mortality rate of this infectious disease until an effective vaccine or drug is developed.

SARS-CoV-2 Genome Structure

The SARS-CoV -2 genome is made up of a single-stranded positive-sense RNA [8]. The SARS-CoV -2 genome was recently sequenced and published to the NCBI genome database (NC 045512.2) with a size of 29.9 kb [9]. SARS-CoV-2 has 13-15 open reading frames (ORFs) with a total of 30,000 nucleotides in its genetic composition. The genome has a GC content of 38 percent and 11 proteincoding genes along with 12 expressed proteins. The genomic organisation of ORFs is strikingly similar to that of SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV [10, 11]. The ORFs are classified as replicase and protease (1a -1b), as well as important S, E, M, and N proteins, in a 5 ' - 3 ' order of occurrence and are regarded major drug/vaccine targets. These gene products play critical roles in the viral entrance, fusion, and host cell survival [12]. The SARS -CoV -2 genome is organised in a linear topology, with roughly 89 percent sequence similarity with other CoVs. The translated sequences of SARS-CoV -2 proteins were found in GenBank (Accession ID: NC 045512.2)]. SARS-whole CoV-2's genome encodes a 7096residue-long polyprotein that contains a variety of structural and non-structural proteins (NSPs). The viral genome's nucleotide content is mostly carried by two non-structural proteins (ORF1a and ORF1ab) and structural proteins. ORFs 1a and 1b encode polyproteins pp1a and pp1ab, respectively, with polyprotein pp1ab encoded *via* the ribosomal frameshift mechanism of gene 1b. These polyproteins are processed by proteinases (virally encoded), which result in the production of 16 proteins that are highly conserved across all CoVs in the same family.

SARS-CoV-2 Infection and Pathogenesis

In COVID-19 infection, SARS-CoV-2 infects its host cells by identifying the angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) enzymes [9]. ACE2 is a transmembrane protein found in the cells of the lungs, arteries, veins, intestines, heart and kidneys [13]. ACE2 operates as a vasodepressor in the pulmonary epithelium, stabilizing the effect of its homologous enzyme ACE1, which behaves as a vasoconstrictor, and both enzymes make up the oxygen-sensitive renin-angiotensin-system (RAS) [14]. The dynamic equilibrium between the expression of ACE1 and ACE2 regulates the RAS system in normoxia. However, in human pulmonary artery smooth muscle cells (hPASMC), ACE1 is upregulated by the hypoxia-inducible factor 1 (HIF-1) (a master regulator of the response to hypoxia) during chronic hypoxia (oxygen 2 percent for 12 days), but ACE2 expression is significantly reduced [15]. Similar results were found in male rats exposed to altitudes of 4,500 metres, which revealed higher levels of ACE1 and reduced expression of ACE2 in cardiac cells after 28 days [16]. As the level of expression of ACE2 (in pulmonary epithelial cells) has been shown to be certainly correlated with the rate of SARS-CoVinfection [9, 17 - 19], these findings are extremely important for the

Targeting the Viral Entry Pathways through Repurposed Drugs in Sars-Cov-2 Infection

Manisha Mulchandani¹, Amit Kumar Palai¹, Anjali Bhosale¹, Farhan Mazahir¹ and Awesh K. Yadav^{1,*}

¹ Department of Pharmaceutics, National Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (NIPER) Raebareli, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India

Abstract: SARS-CoV-2 belongs to the family coronviradae and the disease caused by this virus is known as COVID-19. Viral entry into the cell is favored by spike glycoprotein, which interacts with Angiotensin-converting-enzyme-2 (ACE-2). Moreover, proteins such as Transmembrane Protease Serine-2 (TMPRSS-2), are responsible for viral fusion with cellular epithelium. Traditional drug discovery methods and their development process are time-consuming as well as expensive. Thus, there is a need for a method that can overcome such drawbacks. Drug repurposing is an approach in which we can use an existing drug that is already being used for another disease. The repurposing of drugs is also known as repositioning. It is the process that identifies new therapeutic use for existing or available drugs. Hydroxychloroquine inhibits ACE-2 glycosylation virus entry to the host body; arbidol prevents fusion of viral lipid shell with cell membrane hence restricting contact and penetration of virus. Drug repurposing could be a successful strategy for the treatment of sporadic, neglected diseases, difficult-to-treat diseases, and the current pandemic situation, *i.e.*, COVID-19. However, there is no denying the fact that there are several limitations to this approach.

keywords: Animal model, Antiviral, Computational approach, COVID-19, Drug repurposing, Experimental approach, Phytochemicals, SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein, Viral inhibition.

INTRODUCTION

COVID-19 is caused by the infection of SARS-CoV-2 (severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2). This virus belongs to the Nidovirales order family coronviradae and has two subfamilies, Coronavirinae and Torovirinae. As the name suggests, it affects the respiratory system mainly. This virus spread like a

Tabish Qidwai (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2023 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} Corresponding Author Awesh K Yadav: Department of Pharmaceutics, National Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research, (NIPER) Raebareli, A Transit Campus at Bijnor-Sisendi Road, Near CRPF Base Camp, Sarojini Nagar, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh-226002, India; Tel: +918989154900; E-mail: awesh.yadav@niperraebareli.edu.in

Sars-Cov-2 Infection

fire in the jungle worldwide and became a pandemic leading to multiple infections and several deaths occur due to this virus. The general symptoms of people infected with SARS-CoV-2 are cough, chest discomfort, dyspnea (Which occurs in the majority of people), and symptoms that are related to gastrointestinal discomforts like vomiting and diarrhea (Which occur rarely). The immune system also gets affected; there will be a decrease in the lymphocyte count. It affects the major vital organs of the body lungs, heart, and kidneys. It is found that people infected with SARS-CoV-2 showed glassy opacity in the lungs. In clinical chemistry, it is found that there is an increase in the alanine transaminase, lactate dehydrogenase, and D- dimer count [1, 2].

Viral entry is by various proteins and enzymes (Figs. 1 and 2). The envelopeembedded surface-located spike (S) glycoprotein is responsible for coronavirus entrance. Most of the time, host proteases will cleave this S protein into the S1 and S2 subunits, which are important for receptor identification and membrane fusion. S1 is further separated into two parts: an N-terminal domain (NTD) and a C-terminal domain (CTD), both of which serve as receptor-binding entrance points. SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV, for example, use the S1 CTD to detect receptors (also called receptor binding domain). The spike protein of SARS-CoV-2 interacts with the Angiotensin-converting-enzyme-2 (ACE-2) receptor of the host cell (S). ACE-2 is an enzyme that breaks down the bigger protein angiotensinogen to produce tiny proteins that control cell activity. Angiotensin II (ANG II) can cause inflammation and the death of cells in the alveoli, which are important for delivering oxygen to the body; ACE-2 counteracts these negative effects of ANG II. The SARS-CoV-2 virus attaches to ACE-2 stops it from regulating ANG II signaling. As a result, the activity of ACE-2 is blocked, erasing the gaps in ANG II signaling and allowing more ANG II to reach injured tissues. In covid19 patients, this reduced breaking is expected to harm the lungs and heart. Another enzyme such as Transmembrane Prot Transmembrane Protease Serine-2 (TMPRSS-2) is encoded by the TMPRSS-2 gene in humans. TMPRSS-2 is a cell surface protein produced largely by endothelial cells in the respiratory and gastrointestinal systems. It functions as a serine protease, cleaving peptide bonds in proteins with serine as the nucleophilic amino acid at the active site. SARS-CoV-2 and other coronaviruses require TMPRSS-2 to enter the body. By binding to ACE-2, TMPRSS-2 activates the spike protein domain (a glycoprotein present on coronaviruses), causing the virus to fuse to the respiratory epithelia on the cell surface in case of non-endocytic entry. Cathepsin L is a cysteine protease that shows its best activity in a slightly acidic medium. Without cleavage of spike protein by this protease, the virus can not enter the cell; this process occurs when the virus follows endocytic entry. In addition, refer to Table 1 for brief information regarding the various variants of SARS-CoV-2.

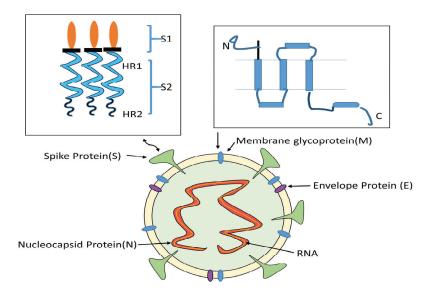


Fig. (1). Illustration of SARS-CoV-2 biological structure. S proteins of the coronavirus from their crown-like appearance. S proteins are cleaved by furin or related enzyme into S1 and S2 subunits in the Golgi complex region. The M-protein is composed of three parts, a short N-terminal domain (situated outside the particle), three transmembrane domains, and a carboxy domain (situated inside the particle).

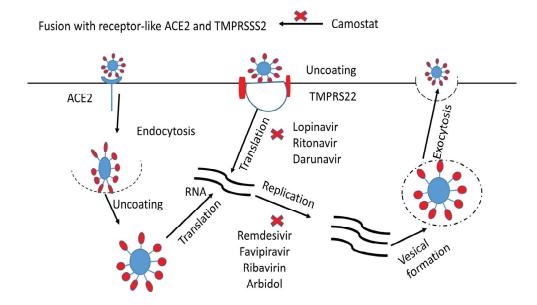


Fig. (2). Illustration of the mechanism of virus uptake inhibition by various repurposed drugs.

CHAPTER 5

Repurposed Drugs/Potential Pharmacological Agents Targeting Cytokine Release and Induction of Coagulation in COVID-19

Arpita Singh^{1,*, #}, Ajay Kumar Verma², Anuj Kumar Pandey² and Jyoti Bajpai²

¹ Department of Pharmacology, Dr. Ram Manohar Lohia Institute of Medical Sciences, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India,

² Department of Respiratory Medicine, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India

Abstract: Global public health has been challenged by the coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) and has been a threat to clinical management to fight this viral infection. Due to the lack of specific therapies, there is a race among the scientific fraternity to find its specific cure to date. COVID-19 symptoms range from mild fatigue to potentially fatal pneumonia, cytokine storm (CS), and multi-organ failure. Hence, investigating the repurposing of current medications for use in the management of COVID-19 patients is a realistic approach. It is prudent to investigate using repurposed medications in the management of COVID-19 patients. In the meantime, researchers are testing a number of antiviral and immunomodulatory medicines to combat the infection. Although antiviral as well as supportive medications are undoubtedly vital in the treatment of COVID-19 patients, anti-inflammatory agents play an essential part in COVID-19 patient care due to their potential to prevent additional injury and organ damage and/or failure. Moreover, COVID-19-mediated infection can be linked with coagulopathy. The most common thrombotic events in COVID-19 are venous thromboembolic (VTE), which are linked with increased severity of disease and poor clinical outcomes. Here, we evaluated medicines that potentially modulate pro-inflammatory cytokines and assist in COVID-19 management. We emphasized various pro-inflammatory cytokines as targets of repurposed drugs and targeted induction coagulation in COVID-19 patients using the available literature and studies.

Keywords: Anticoagulation, Coagulopathy, Cytokine storm, Interleukin-1, Interleukin-6, Pro-inflammatory cytokines, Repurposed drugs, SARS-CoV-2, Thrombosis, Tumor necrosis factor.

Tabish Qidwai (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2023 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} **Corresponding author Arpita Singh:** Department of Pharmacology, Dr. Ram Manohar Lohia Institute of Medical Sciences, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India; Tel: +91 9415675163, E-mail: drarpitasingh21@gmail.com # Authors contributed equally

INTRODUCTION

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), caused by the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2), has posed a significant threat to global public health. It was first reported as some unknown pneumonia cases in Wuhan, Hubei province, China, in December 2019. Still, we are competing with a different and new variant of the coronavirus to survive. This pandemic is one of the most difficult to control crises in the history of the world. The lives of millions of people are threatened, and many more are still fighting this virus lurking in the atmosphere [1, 2]. Due to this unprecedented mortality and morbidity rate, it is the need of the hour to identify potential targets and repurpose drugs as therapeutic options for this disease. Meanwhile, the scientific community is working tirelessly to find a specific cure for this disease. In this critical situation, drug repurposing is not only fast but also a feasible approach to analyse potent medications for fighting this infection with minimal side effects. We should know the structural analysis of drug target proteins and the pathogenesis of SARS- CoV-2 infection to develop therapeutic approaches [3].

Coronaviruses refer to the family Coronaviridae, subfamily Coronavirinae, and of the order *Nidovirales*, as per the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses. Further, the Coronavirinae subfamily is grouped into 4 genera: Alphacoronavirus, Betacoronavirus, Gammacoronavirus, and Deltacoronavirus [4]. SARS-CoV-2 belongs to the betacoronavirus genera (subgenus sarbecovirus). Alpha and Beta Coronaviruses can infect mammals, while Gamma and Delta CoV are able to infect birds [5]. Earlier in the past two decades, two other zoonotic strains of coronaviruses caused severe respiratory illnesses, namely, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS- CoV) as well as Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS), began to spread globally. In the years 2002 and 2003, SARS- CoV was the cause of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreaks in China, having a mortality rate of 10%, while MERS-CoV emerged in the year 2012, originating from the Arabian peninsula as an epidemic outbreak. The case fatality rate of MERS was much higher (around 35%) than SARS-CoV, while the basic reproductive number of MERS (R_0) was approx 1. It means the infected person can transmit the disease to up to one person [6 - 8].

SARS-CoV-2 is contagious and spreads mostly by respiratory droplets, with a high transmission rate in the first week of infection. The diagnosis of COVID-19 is carried out by a reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) test for coronavirus detection. It was observed that people affected by COVID-19 showed a peak viral load in the first week of illness that gradually decreased by the next week. COVID-19 is now known as a disease that can be associated with multi-organ disorders and a broad spectrum of clinical symptoms [6, 8].

102 Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2

Metagenomic RNA sequencing data of the SARS-CoV-2 unveiled 96.2% analogy to bat-CoV Ra TG13 and 79.6% sequence identity to SARS-CoV [9]. Due to this close phylogenetic similarity, bats were supposed to be the natural host of this virus [9].

This chapter briefly discusses the structure, mutation, and pathogenesis of SARS-CoV-2. Moreover, pro-inflammatory cytokines, cytokine storm (CS), COVID-19-associated CS, and pro-inflammatory cytokines as targets of repurposed drugs were presented. Moreover, we have conferred targeting induction of coagulation in COVID-19 patients.

MECHANISM OF PATHOGENESIS IN COVID-19

SARS-CoV-2 Structure and Mutation

SARS-CoV-2 is an enveloped, non-segmented, positive-sense RNA virus [10 -12]. SARS-CoV-2 is characterised by 4 structural proteins- spike (S), membrane (M), envelope (E), and nucleocapsid (N) proteins, which are primal for infectivity and replication [13 - 17]. There are six functional open reading frames (ORFs) which are arranged in order from 5' to 3': replicase (ORF1a/ORF1b), spike, envelope, membrane, and nucleocapsid [10]. The S protein consists of two subunits-S1 and S2. When S protein bulges from the membrane side, it gives the virus its appearance [18]. The S protein tip has a crowned (Latin corona) structure [18]. Also, the S protein is essential for binding to the angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptor, the key point where the virus enters the human body as well as the animal host [19]. In addition, S protein is the main player in immunogenic response and target of vaccines [19, 20]. M protein (~25-30kDa) is a transmembrane protein essential in viral pathogenesis [21]. S2 portion is highly conserved, and it helps in cell membrane fusion [21]. The E protein (8-12 kDa) is poorly understood, but it is supposed that it has a role in viral replication and infectivity [22, 23]. The N protein is involved in viral RNA replication, transcription, and synthesis control [24]. SARS-CoV-2 also features a hemagglutination-esterase (HE) dimer in structure, that binds to sialic acid and reflects esterase activity to aid viral S-protein cell entrance and propagation [25].

Evidence shows that there are unique mutations in the SARS-CoV-2 [26]. SARS-Co-V-2 mutant variants are as follows: UK variant (B.1.1.7), Brazilian variant (P.1) and South African variant (B.1.351) [27, 28]. The main mutation regions (of these variants) are located in spike protein. B.1.1.7 variants are more contagious and spread faster, which may be related to how well they bind to the ACE2 receptor [27, 29].

High Throughput Screening (HTS) Methods for Screening of Known Drugs for COVID-19

Tejal Shreeya^{1,2} and Tabish Qidwai^{3,*}

¹ Institute of Biophysics, Biological Research Centre, Szeged, Hungary, Europe

² Doctoral School of Theoretical Medicine, University of Szeged, Hungary, Europe

³ Faculty of Biotechnology, Shriramswaroop Memorial University, Lucknow, UP, India

Abstract: The emergence of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) in late 2019 has triggered an ongoing global pandemic whereby infection may result in a lethal severe pneumonia-like disease designated as coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). Thus, the repositioning of known drugs can significantly accelerate the development and deployment of therapies for COVID-19.

High throughput screening (HTS) is the use of automated equipment to rapidly test thousands to millions of samples for biological activity at the model organism, cellular, pathway, or molecular level. In its most common form, HTS is an experimental process in which 10^3-10^6 small molecule compounds of known structure are screened in parallel. Currently, this technique is being used to screen known compounds in several diseases, including COVID-19. In the current scenario, it is important to focus on the application of high-throughput screening (HTS) in the drug discovery process.

In this chapter, we have covered methods of the high-throughput screen and its use in screening known drugs against infectious diseases like COVID-19. Moreover, the challenges and future of these technologies have been focussed.

Keywords: COVID-19, Drug discovery, High Throughput Screening, SARS-CoV-2.

INTRODUCTION

A clinical condition or a disease in the body leads to the initiation of drug discovery. The unmet clinical need provokes the discovery of the drug. The process of drug discovery starts with a 'hypothesis' that is the result of initial research. The hypothesis may include activation or inhibition of any protein, enz-

Tabish Qidwai (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2023 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} **Corresponding author Tabish Qidwai**: Faculty of Biotechnology, Shriramswaroop Memorial University, Lucknow, UP, India; E-mail: tabish.iet@gmail.com

138 Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2

yme, or metabolic pathway. The hypothesis later resulted in a therapeutic effect in a disease state [1]. Drug discovery is a highly complex, tedious and multidisciplinary process, and its ultimate goal is to recognize new drugs with desired characteristics. A single marketed drug emerges from approximately a million screened compounds. For this, large compound libraries are screened. The process of drug discovery starts with the identification of suitable drug targets, which includes molecules such as enzymes and receptors, at times, ion channels also. Enzymes such as kinases, phosphatases, proteases and peptidases are the most common targets of HTS [2]. The next step is the target validation which is done *in vitro* and *in vivo* on animals. The ultimate validation is achieved in humans. Fig. (1) shows the entire process of Drug discovery. The modulators may be in respect to the target, such as agonist or antagonist, while in the case of receptors, it may be an activator or an inhibitor [3].

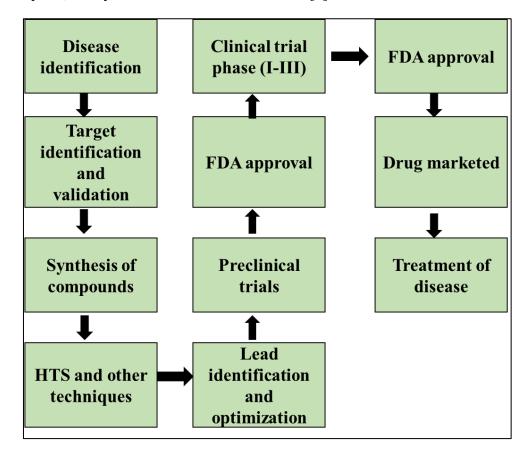


Fig. (1). Flowchart showing the process of drug discovery.

Drugs for COVID-19

Hit identification and lead optimization are very much intertwined with computational modelling [4]. The ultimate goal of target validation leads to "lead identification". For the purpose of target validation, various suitable assays are designed and developed. HTS exposes the target to various compound libraries in order to get lead identification. The selection of lead identification depends on selectivity, pharmacokinetics and physicochemical properties [3].

High Throughput Screening

High throughput screening is one of the most important method for the discovery of drugs in this modern technological world. It is used to identify "hits" from known compound libraries that might become a "lead" compound for optimization of the drug in the future. HTS is the first step in the search for an active compound with the potential to develop into an active compound.

This technology relies on various other branches of science, such as bioinformatics, combinatorial chemistry and parallel synthesis approaches. The ability to test a huge number of compounds quickly and efficiently provides a competitive opportunity, making HTS a crucial tool in many pharmaceutical companies which exploits this technique for the discovery of the drug [5]. Bioinformatics, genomics and proteomics help in the identification of novel biological targets that are related to the disease. The parallel synthesis approach and combinational chemistry yields a large number of small compounds which are already available for the purpose of drug discovery.

The primary purpose of screening is to search the compound libraries and recognize a compound that has desired characteristics and could interact with the selected system in a proper way. For this purpose various compounds are being assayed against the target in order to get a specific mechanism of action for *e.g.*, in the case of an enzyme, its activation or inhibition by the compound or its receptor-ligand interaction. The compound of interest with all the desired activities is recognized and is then allowed to undergo different biological assays in order to optimize the efficacy and drug-like properties. The refinement/processing of the screening is to develop a drug candidate with desired characteristics which could be further used for optimization and development of a new drug useful in the treatment of the disease [6]. The inverted pyramid in Fig. (2) shows how the ultimate compound of interest is achieved.

Drug Repurposing for COVID-19 using Computational Methods

Om Prakash¹ and Feroz Khan^{1,*}

¹ Technology Dissemination and Computational Biology Division, CSIR-Central Institute of Medicinal & Aromatic Plants, P.O.-CIMAP, Kukrail Picnic Spot Road, Lucknow-226015 (Uttar Pradesh), India

Abstract: In this chapter, we use computational methods to illustrate drug repurposing with the example of COVID-19. Here, the current status of drug discovery has been described with various aspects of drug repurposing interactions, use of algorithms in drug repurposing, re-evaluation of existing drugs, challenges in drug repurposing, and biological and computational interpretation of personalised and AI-guided repurposing. In addition, we present blueprints for pacing up the drug repurposing process using artificial intelligence. This chapter is devoted to the use of computational intelligence for drug repurposing against various diseases, including COVID-19.

Keywords: Artificial intelligence, Computational methods, COVID-19, Drug, Repurposing.

INTRODUCTION

Multiple drugs have been developed for various diseases [1]. The majority of them were discovered by serendipity. This process developed a huge collection of approved drugs, which provides an opportunity to rethink the purposes of drugs in various human physiological statuses. In today's scenario, re-thinking about the purpose of drugs is termed "Drug repurposing" [2]. It is a thematic terminology, representing a way of working for identification of those suggestive clues, which can provide a strong ground for rethinking the purpose of exiting or pipelined drugs. The back force for such repurposing comes due to the bonus benefit of getting rid of a major part of clinical trials; which may become very supportive for saving time & money, as well as approaching new prescriptions to the patients in a very cost-effective manner [2]. The theme of repurposing is not new; for decades, researchers have already been devoted to reviewing the aspects of

Tabish Qidwai (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2023 Bentham Science Publishers

^{*} **Corresponding author Feroz Khan:** Technology Dissemination and Computational Biology Division, CSIR-Central Institute of Medicinal & Aromatic Plants, P.O.-CIMAP, Kukrail Picnic Spot Road, Lucknow-226015 (Uttar Pradesh), India; E-mail: f.khan@cimap.res.in

162 Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2

existing drugs for various utilities. In this way, research outputs from previous studies became the ground for cultivating the idea for the identification of additional usage of previous studies [3].

Multiple reports are available, which show the success story as well as existing challenges regarding drug repurposing. Success represents the power of drug repurposing for fast drug identification for newly developing diseases, also useful for searching for solutions in pandemic situations. But, background information about molecular interactions with newly developing drugs is always challenging. Because molecular interactions follow relative behavior, a complete set of a system of molecular components is required to understand the behavior of each drug molecule. For such types of studies, the genomic ground is required to agitate the combinations of system properties to extract significant therapeutic interpretations. On the coarse side of such observations, attempts have been implemented with various interactomes to understand and interpret computational drug development. To handle the complexity of data analysis, algorithms from artificial intelligence were used for drug repurposing. These efforts of understanding the interactions are used for finding the hidden aspects, as well as unravelling the possible links among various drugs, targets, and human diseases. Such clues become very important for resolving possible drug repurposing. This seems possible because of the sharable functional behavior of protein-protein interactions, which shows that drug targeting for one disease may resolve another too [4].

About Data Size & its Handling with Computational Methods: Long-term experimental practices, dumped huge electronic data. Using such large data for rethinking any drug based on stored experimental data, the existence of false negatives is quite feasible. Therefore, handling big data requires high-end applications of information technology. In the mid-19th century, researchers had forecasted computational methods as an approval ground for human interpretations. These enhancements are only possible with artificial intelligence. When we consider forecasting for repurposing, AI dependencies also come into existence. Computation for such machine intelligence requires a high computation capacity of processors as well as high storage capacity. Concrete establishment in artificial intelligence, based on the novel wealth of data, is only feasible with high processing and storage capacity. Now it is well known that artificial intelligence is being implemented in diverse areas of research as well as technological developments in the area of data mining. Artificial intelligence is also revolutionizing the area of drug discovery by exposing patterns from biological data. The existing R&D units use artificial intelligence for computational drug discovery and development. These technologies define diseases and their therapeutic aspects with minimum error [5].

Computational Methods

This chapter introduces methods implemented for drug repurposing in general. Specific explanations of drug-repurposing were also provided with examples of COVID-19. Here, we discuss the current status in drug discovery, approaches already implemented for drug repurposing, computational methods used in drug repurposing, information about possible existing drugs used during pandemic conditions, challenges faced during drug repurposing, Biological and nonbiological criteria for handling personalized and Artificial Intelligence-guided repurposing. We also attempted to present a clear picture of the possible utilization of AI for speeding up drug repurposing. This chapter provides a strong rationale for drug repurposing against various human diseases, including COVID-19.

CURRENT STATUS OF DRUG-REPURPOSING

Drug repurposing is one of the enhancing ways of identifying new therapeutic molecules. Diversified utilization of various methods has been implemented for the discovery of drugs in the most efficient way. Methods used involve structurebased processes for the identification of drugs, *i.e.*, involving structures of ligands and proteins. Now the question arises of how to relate the combinations of structures for drug-repurposing. The point of attention is that the purpose of drugs can be represented by either structure of drug, or structure of protein, or both. The reason behind this is that here, repurposing is dependent on the known structures (*i.e.*, drugs and proteins) and their biological functionality. That means any type of link between drug and protein will present their existing relationships as in any standard network. Therefore, if our analysis process somehow re-establishes links between the drugs and proteins, then it will represent the repurposing of drugs. Now, the question arises, how many ways can present the interactions of drugs & proteins. Ultimately by implementing the structure-functionality linking, we have to perform a screening process for drug repurposing. Till now, docking followed by molecular dynamics-based virtual screening was the method for structurefunction-based screening. Now, big-data-based structure-functionality linking has become the evolving method for establishing an efficient way for screening molecules for possible functionalities. Here, we will discuss the linking-based content for drug-repurposing-based methods one by one [6].

Repurposing Through a Drug-drug Interaction Network

One way to observe drug repurposing may be the observation of drug-drug interactions. This process is based on pharmacological functions (PhFs). PhFs can be used as selective behavior of drugs for specific purposes because drugs with similar PhFs will be compactly clustered at one centroid, while non-clustered drugs may be picked for suitable re-purposing. These PhFs can be defined based

SUBJECT INDEX

A

Acid(s) 12, 13, 31, 32, 73, 81, 83, 102, 167, 168 ascorbic 31, 32 betulinic 81 glycyrrhetinic 83 meclofenamic 13 nucleophilic amino 73 sialic 102, 167, 168 Acquired immune deficiency syndrome 16 Activation 57, 104, 106, 107, 108, 110, 115, 117, 137, 139, 147 immunological 106 inflammasome 117 macrophage 107, 108 transcription factor 110 Activity 13, 15, 27, 29, 30, 31, 58, 60, 61, 63, 64, 65, 83, 104, 108, 144, 147, 148, 149, 151, 165 anti-apoptotic 165 anti-atherosclerotic 13 anti-inflammation 30 antimicrobial 27 anti-reverse transcriptase 83 bioluminescent 151 cardioprotective 15 enzymatic 144 immunomodulatory 27, 31 immunotherapeutic 149 Agents 13, 14, 42, 53, 78, 100, 106, 178 anti-inflammatory 78, 100 anti-tubercular 13 antiviral 178 immunosuppressive 106 tubulin depolymerization 14 Alveolar macrophage homeostasis 110 Analgesia 7, 11 Angina pectoris 14, 85 Angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor (ACEIs) 114, 115 Anticoagulation therapy 120

Antigen-presenting cells (APC) 108 Antihypertensive effect 17 Anti-inflammatory 32, 107, 108, 114 actions 114 immunomodulatory 32 myokine 108 responses 107 Antioxidant activity 29 Antiparasitic drug 60, 112 Antiphospholipid syndrome 118 Antiretroviral agent 10 Antiviral 76, 81, 82, 93, 115, 116, 150, 165, 168.172.178 action 76, 81, 82, 93, 115 activity 82, 115, 116, 150, 165, 168, 172, 178 Aspartate aminotransferase 26 Assays, cellular thermostability 5 Asthma 53 Atherosclerosis 15 Azithromycin 112, 113

B

BCG vaccines 40 Botulinum toxin 2 Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK) 115 BTK inhibitor 116

С

Cancer 2, 11, 13, 85 breast 2, 11, 13, 85 metastatic prostate 2 multidrug-resistant 13 Carotid artery disease 15 Cathepsin 57, 73, 79, 103 endosomal cysteine proteases 57 Chagas disease 36 Chinese herbal medicines 81 Conditions 2, 117 autoinflammatory 117

Tabish Qidwai (Ed.) All rights reserved-© 2023 Bentham Science Publishers

186

Subject Index

cardiovascular 2 life-threatening 2 Convolutional neural networks (CNN) 176 Coronaviruses 52, 57, 58, 62, 64, 73, 101, 166, 168, 178 glycan-recognizing 166 Corticosteroids, systemic 115 COVID-19 28, 30, 54, 64, 78, 81, 109, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 150, 152, 156, 181 contagious 64 cytokines 112, 113, 114 disease 28, 152, 156 hyperinflammation 116 immunopathology 109 infection 30, 54, 78, 81, 115, 150, 181 therapy 64, 115, 181 Crohn's disease 114 Cushing syndrome 11 Cyclosporine 33, 60, 65 Cytokine(s) 13, 14, 33, 73, 104, 105, 106, 108, 109, 112, 116, 118 anti-inflammatory 104, 105 antiviral 108 dysregulation 106 inflammatory 13, 14, 105, 106, 116 mediated response 105 pleiotropic 108 protease 73 release syndrome 105

D

Damage 17, 31, 92, 107 lung tissue 92 oxidative 31 renal 17 Detection protein 148 Diarrhea 60, 73, 77 Dihydroorotate dehydrogenase 151 Diseases 2, 8, 10, 12, 14, 15, 26, 28, 30, 38, 40, 53, 63, 65, 84, 75, 76, 88, 89, 90, 92, 101, 103, 110, 111, 117, 118, 137, 139, 161, 162, 175, 179, 180 cardiac 12, 15

Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2 187

cardiovascular 103 immune 110 infectious 28, 40, 53, 65, 84, 137, 175, 179 inflammatory 28 pulmonary 12, 14 respiratory 30, 92 viral 26, 30, 63, 76 Disorders 2, 12, 28, 30, 81, 93, 109, 116, 117, 118 autoimmune 28, 109 eve muscle 2 life-threatening 12 respiratory 81 sleep 30 **DNA 61** synthesis 61 topoisomerase 61 Drug(s) 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 32, 80, 112, 152, 164, 165, 176 antidiabetic 32 anti-inflammatory 12, 112 anti-influenza 152 antimalarial 16 antimycotic 14 antineoplastic 112 antiretroviral 80 anti-schizophrenic 13 anti-viral immunomodulatory 13 immunomodulatory 18 target interactions (DTIs) 164, 165, 176 Drug-repurposing 1, 8, 163, 175, 179 mechanism-based 8 Dysfunction 15, 28, 106, 118, 119, 120, 152 endothelial 15, 118, 119 immune 152 immunological 106 organ 120 Dyslipidaemia 15 Dyslipidemia 14 Dyspnea 73, 83

Е

Effective inhibitor for viral protease 59

188 Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2

Electrocardiography 121 Encocytosis 32, 33, 112 inhibiting clathrin-mediated 112 inhibition mechanism 32 Endogenous 62, 63 adenosine-triphosphate 63 nucleosides 62 Energy transfer, fluorescence resonance 144 Enzymes 14, 54, 58, 60, 62, 73, 74, 113, 138, 139, 150 dihydroorotate dehydrogenase 14 digestive 58 Epithelial cells 53, 54, 58, 79, 107, 108, 110 pulmonary 53, 54 Eroom's law 11 European medicines agency (EMA) 16

F

Factors 54, 60, 104, 105, 106, 108, 109, 110 homeostatic 110 hypoxia-inducible 54 leukaemia inhibitory 105, 108 myelopoietic growth 110 nuclear 60, 106 transforming growth 105, 109 tumour necrosis 104 Fibrinolysis 29, 118 Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS) 144, 145 Fragment-based drug design (FBDD) 145 Fusion peptide (FP) 79, 144

G

Glomerular filtration rate (GFR) 15, 17 Glycoprotein 15, 58, 73, 167 viral 15 Glycosylation 113 Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GMCSF) 106, 108, 110, 116 Green fluorescent proteins 145

Η

Hemolytic anemia 78 Hemophagocytosis 105 Hemostasis 57, 117 Hepatitis 59, 60, 63, 78, 79, 81, 90 C virus (HCV) 59, 60, 63, 79, 90 viral 79 Hepatocellular carcinoma 14 Host targeting agents (HTAs) 178 Human 15, 16, 40, 42, 58, 62, 63, 78, 80, 81 immunodeficiency virus (HIV) 15, 16, 40, 42, 58, 62, 78, 80, 81 metapneumovirus 63 Hydrophobicity 169, 170, 171 Hypertension 6, 7, 12, 14, 15 pulmonary 12 Hypertriglyceridemia 14 Hypoalbuminemia 106 Hypovitaminosis 27

I

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) 14 Illness, severe respiratory 101 Immune 60, 108 disorder 108 mediated diseases 60 Immunity 29, 32, 41, 82, 83, 92, 110, 150 anti-viral 29 Immunological responses 106, 112 Immunothrombosis 122 Inflammasome 109 Inflammation 104, 110 by pro-inflammatory cytokines 104 pulmonary 110 Influenza 15, 58, 63, 77, 78, 81 infections 63 Influenza virus 15, 53, 59, 61, 77 hemagglutinin 61 Inhibitors 5, 177 reninangiotensin system 177 tyrosine kinase 5 Injury 17, 100, 105

Tabish Qidwai

Subject Index

ischemia-reperfusion 17 Iron chelators 27, 31, 32

J

Janus kinase inhibitors 113

K

Kidney dysfunctions 78 Kinase 6, 26 creatine 26 distinct protein 6

L

Lactate dehydrogenase 73 Leucocyte-toleucocyte communication 107 Luminescence 147 Lung 110, 116 inflammation 110 injury, hindered hyperoxia-induced 116 Lung damage 27, 110, 111 cell-induced 111 Lupus erythematosus 40, 60 systemic 40

Μ

Macrophage 106, 109 activation syndrome 109 inflammatory protein (MIP) 106 Mass spectrometry 5, 6 Matrix metalloproteinases 32 Mechanism 5, 6, 8, 9, 16, 17, 31, 32, 33, 34, 57, 80, 90, 106, 117, 164 catalytic 57 pathogenic 117 Medications 2, 30, 40, 53, 81, 111, 112, 114, 115, 116, 121, 122 anti-inflammatory 115 anti-parasitic 116 antiviral 114

Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2 189

antiviral herbal 81 Medicines 35, 37, 40, 61, 62, 64, 76, 81, 100, 105, 111, 112, 114, 115, 116 adjuvant 115 anti-inflammatory 114, 115 anti-rheumatic 114 antiviral 114 herbal 81 immunomodulatory 100 immunomodulatory antineoplastic 115 traditional Chinese 81 Metalloprotease 106 Microvascular thrombosis 120 Middle East respiratory syndrome 79 Multiple 2, 10, 11, 90 myelomas 2, 10, 90 sclerosis 11 Murine leukemia virus (MLV) 150 Myelodysplastic syndrome 2 Myelopoiesis 110 Myeloproliferative neoplasms 115

Ν

Natural killer (NK) 105, 110 Nigella sativa 82 Novel coronavirus disease 25 Nuclear 106, 113, 116, 146 factor B (NFB) 106 magnetic resonance 146 trafficking 116 transport activity 113

0

Open reading frames (ORFs) 54, 102, 103 Osteoporosis 85 Oxygen 12, 32 consumption 32 insufficiency 12

P

Pain disorders 80

190 Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2

Pandemic outbreaks 1, 2, 18 Parkinson's disease 6 Pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) 106 Pathways 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 41, 82, 86, 89, 91, 117, 137, 138, 141, 147 gene mapping 10 intrinsic 117 metabolic 8, 86, 138 signalling 4, 141, 147 Peptide 79, 80, 89 hydrophobic 79 Phenotype(s) 1, 4, 6, 90, 111, 118 based repurposing 6 pro-inflammatory 111 prothrombotic 118 screening 1 Phenotypic drug screening methods 6 Phosphodiesterase 12, 14 Plaque reduction neutralization test (PRNT) 150 Pneumocytes 32, 82 infecting 82 Pneumonia 13, 41, 53, 81, 92 disease 92 respiratory 13 Polymerase 16, 59 Profiles 8, 88, 116, 121, 165, 167, 181 anti-inflammatory 121 antiviral 116 genetic regulation 8 immunomodulatory 116 Pro-inflammatory cytokines 100, 102, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 110, 111, 116, 121, 122 Properties 15, 28, 79, 82, 90, 110, 111, 114, 116, 118, 139, 164, 165, 168 antiangiogenic 90 antibacterial 28 anti-inflammatory 111, 114 anti-influenza 15 anti-proliferative 110 antiviral 82, 114 Protease 33, 34, 52, 54, 57, 62, 73, 103, 138, 141, 151, 177

transmembrane 103 Protease inhibitors 16, 62, 75, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81 metabolises 62 Protein(s) 8, 28, 32, 33, 54, 55, 57, 58, 59, 73, 74, 102, 103, 113, 143, 144, 145, 148, 155, 162, 163, 176 angiotensin 113 angiotensinogen 73 fluorescent 144, 145 fragment complementation assay 148 protein interactions 8, 143, 162 transmembrane 54, 102 Proteinases 54, 57 Proteomics transcriptomes 83 Pseudomonas aeruginosa 13

Q

Quantitative high throughput screening 148

R

Radiation-induced 14, 30 acute respiratory stress 30 fibrosis 14 RAS system 54 Reactive 29, 32, 115, 117 nitrogen species 29 oxygen species (ROS) 29, 32, 115, 117 Renal 12, 17, 106, 114 dysfunctions 12, 17, 106 function impairment 114 oxygenation 17 Renin-angiotensin system (RAS) 27, 54 Replicase 55, 57, 63, 103 transcriptase complex (RTC) 55, 103 viral 57, 63 Replication 13, 113 disrupting DNA 13 nucleic acid 113 Respiratory syndrome 15, 101 coronavirus 101 Retroviruses 82

Tabish Qidwai

Subject Index

Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction 101 Rheumatoid arthritis 10, 14, 42, 78, 80 RNA 29, 30, 53, 55, 57, 60, 63, 65, 75, 76, 78, 80, 103, 178 protein kinase 29 replication inhibition 57 subgenomic 103 transcription 55 viruses 60, 63 RNA-dependent RNA polymerase 52, 76, 77, 79, 81, 103, 152, 177 inhibitor 77.81 RNA polymerase 29, 55, 59, 60, 78, 86, 177 viral 60, 177 viral RNA-dependent 55, 59, 177 RNA polymerase inhibitor 81, 112, 177 Hepatitis 81 RNA production 62, 63 viral 62, 63

S

Serine 55, 57, 58, 73, 79, 151, 152 transmembrane protease 55, 151 protease inhibitors 58, 79, 152 Synthesis 13, 29, 55, 63, 104, 106, 109 immunoglobulin 109 Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) 40, 60 Systems 27, 53, 73, 118 damaged immune 53 gastrointestinal 73 hemostatic 118 renin-angiotensin 27

Т

Targets protein-protein interaction 145 Technique 5, 6, 83, 89, 137, 139, 140, 143, 144, 145, 152, 153, 154, 156 chromatography 5 genome editing 6 radioactive 143 spectrometry-based proteomics 89

Drug Repurposing against SARS-CoV2 191

Thelarge surface glycoproteins 55 Therapeutics, evidence-based 39 Therapy targeting virus 177 Thrombosis 58, 100, 117, 122 immune 117 small pulmonary 122 Transcriptase 57, 61, 62 Transforming growth factor (TGF) 105, 109 Trypanosoma 36 Tuberculosis, methicillin-resistant 13 Tumour necrosis 13, 104, 106, 107, 108, 109, 113, 114 factor (TNF) 104, 106, 107, 108, 109, 113, 114 Tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI) 5

V

Venous thromboembolism 117 Vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) 58 Viral 33, 52, 57, 59, 61, 81, 91, 102, 112, 113, 114, 122, 150, 152, 177 proteases 57, 59, 61, 177 protein 33, 113 replication 33, 52, 81, 91, 102, 112, 113, 114, 122, 150, 152 replication inhibition 113, 115 Viral RNA 62, 177 polymerase 177 replicase 62 Virus 15, 16, 26, 30, 32, 33, 52, 53, 58, 59, 62, 63, 72, 73, 82, 86, 91, 102, 150, 178 dengue 15 human immunodeficiency 15, 16 human parainfluenza 63 measles 63 murine leukemia 150 vesicular stomatitis 58

Ζ

Zika virus infection 15



Tabish Qidwai

Tabish Qidwai is an Associate Professor at SRM University, Lucknow-Deva road, Uttar Pradesh. India. He has worked as Director, Institute of Biosciences and Technology, SRM University, Lucknow India. He is working as Section Editor of Current Indian Science Journal (Bentham Science Journal). He previously served as an Assistant Professor in the Department of Biotechnology at Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University, Lucknow (A Central University) and Faculty of Engineering and Technology, Raja Balwant Singh College Agra, India. He did Master of Technology (M.Tech) in Biotechnology from Institute of Engineering & Technology, Lucknow. He received a Ph.D in Biotechnology from Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam Technical University (AKTU), formerly Uttar Pradesh Technical University, Lucknow, India. He has received various prestigious awards including the Rashtriya Gaurav Award for remarkable contributions to Science and Technology, Chancellor Gold Medal for first rank in University, SRMU Research Excellence Award, Teaching and Learning Innovation Award and several certificates of appreciation for significant contribution. He has more than 10 years of teaching and research experience in genomics and immunology, infectious disease research. He has published more than 52 book chapters, research articles, review articles in peer-reviewed international journals and authored/edited 5 books. He has an h index of 19 and i10 index of 25. He is a member of many national and international scientific societies and organizations including the Indian Science Congress Association, Indian Biophysical Society, Society of Biological Chemists India, Member of International Association of Engineers (IAENG), China, and European Federation of Biotechnology. His research interests are focused on functional genomics and immunology, malaria and computational biology.