

Developed and updated by <u>Paul Marik, MD</u> Chief of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine Eastern Virginia Medical School, Norfolk, VA June 17th, 2020

URGENT! Please circulate as widely as possible. It is crucial that every pulmonologist, every critical care doctor and nurse, every hospital administrator, every public health official receive this information immediately.

This is our recommended approach to COVID-19 based on the best (and most recent) literature. This is a very dynamic situation; therefore, we update the guideline as new information emerges. Please check the EVMS website for updated versions of this protocol.

EVMS COVID website: <u>https://www.evms.edu/covid-19/covid_care_for_clinicians/</u> Short url: <u>evms.edu/covidcare</u>





FLCC website: https://covid19criticalcare.com/

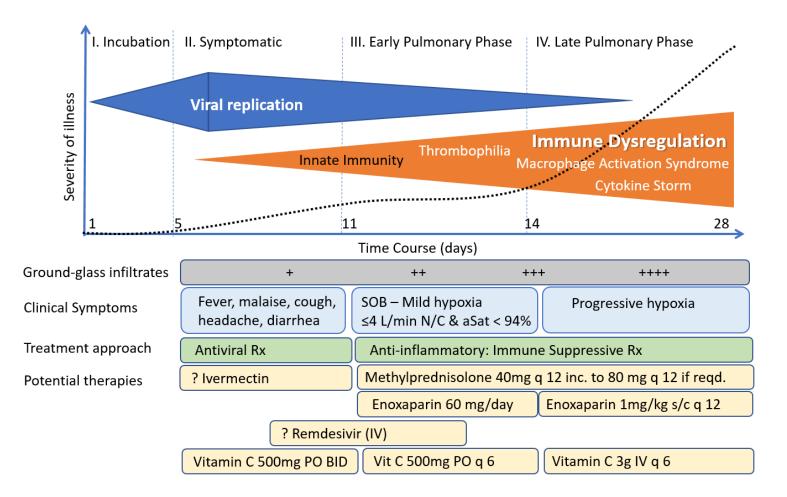


Figure 1. The course of COVID-19 and General Approach to treatment

THIS IS A STEROID RESPONSIVE DISEASE: HOWEVER, TIMING IS CRITICAL

Prophylaxis

While there is extremely limited data, the following "cocktail" may have a role in the prevention/mitigation of COVID-19 disease. This cocktail is cheap, safe, and widely available.

- Vitamin C 500 mg BID and Quercetin 250-500 mg BID [1-7]
- Zinc 75-100 mg/day (acetate, gluconate or picolinate). Zinc lozenges are preferred. After 1 month, reduce the dose to 30-50 mg/day. [1,8-12]
- Melatonin (slow release): Begin with 0.3mg and increase as tolerated to 2 mg at night [13-16]
- Vitamin D3 1000-4000 u/day [17-24]
- *Optional:* Famotidine 20-40mg/day [25]

Symptomatic patients (at home):

- Vitamin C 500 mg BID and Quercetin 250-500 mg BID
- Zinc 75-100 mg/day
- Melatonin 6-12 mg at night (the optimal dose is unknown)
- Vitamin D3 2000-4000 u/day
- Optional: ASA 81 -325 mg/day
- Optional: Famotidine 20-40mg/day
- Optional: Ivermectin 150-200 ug/kg (single dose) [26-28]
- In symptomatic patients, monitoring with home pulse oximetry is recommended. Ambulatory desaturation < 94% should prompt hospital admission. [29]
- Not recommended: chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine. The use of these agents is extremely controversial. Notwithstanding, the retraction of the Lancet paper,[30] there is a paucity of data to support the use of these drugs. [31-35] It is possible that the efficacy of these drugs requires the co-administration of Zinc. [36,37]

Mildly Symptomatic patients (on floor):

- Vitamin C 500 mg q 6 hourly and Quercetin 250-500 mg BID (if available)
- Zinc 75-100 mg/day
- Melatonin 6-12 mg at night (the optimal dose is unknown)
- Vitamin D3 2000-4000 u/day
- Enoxaparin 60 mg daily [38-47] Consider increasing the dose to 1mg/kg q 12 hourly in those with a high D-Dimer or an increasing D-Dimer (see Xa monitoring below)
- Methylprednisolone 40 mg q 12 hourly ; increase to 80 mg q 12 hourly in patients with progressive symptoms and increasing CRP. [48-54]
- Famotidine 40 mg daily (20 mg in renal impairment)
- *Optional: Remdesivir,* 200 mg IV loading dose D1, followed by 100mg day IV for 9 days. [55,56] This agent has been reported to reduce time to recovery (based on an ordinal scale). [56] The benefit of this agent on patient centered outcomes is unclear.
- Optional: Ivermectin 150-200 ug/kg (single dose)
- N/C 2L /min if required (max 4 L/min; consider early t/f to ICU for escalation of care).
- Avoid Nebulization and Respiratory treatments. Use "Spinhaler" or MDI and spacer if required.
- Avoid CPAP or BiPAP
- T/f EARLY to the ICU for increasing respiratory signs/symptoms and arterial desaturation.

Respiratory symptoms (SOB; hypoxia- requiring $N/C \ge 4$ L min: admit to ICU):

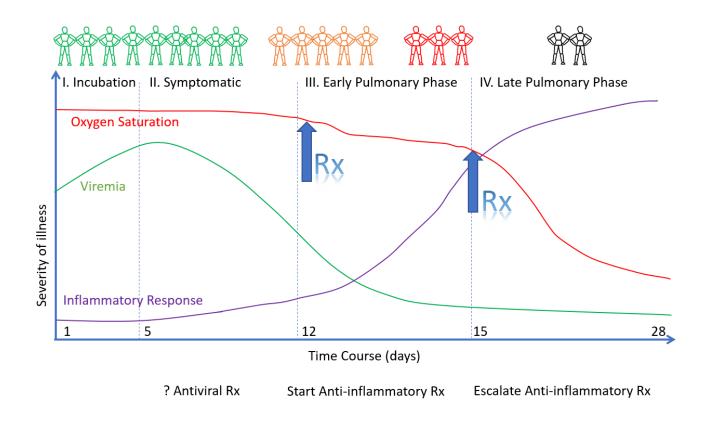
Essential Treatment (dampening the STORM); MATH +

- 1. *Methylprednisolone* 80 mg loading dose then 40 mg q 12 hourly for at least 7 days and until transferred out of ICU. In patients with an increasing CRP or worsening clinical status increase the dose to 80 mg q 12 hourly, then titrate down as appropriate. [48-54]
- 2. **Ascorbic acid (Vitamin C)** 3g IV q 6 hourly for at least 7 days and/or until transferred out of ICU. Note caution with POC glucose testing (see below). [57-65]
- 3. Full anticoagulation: Unless contraindicated we suggest FULL anticoagulation (on admission to the ICU) with enoxaparin, i.e. 1 mg kg s/c q 12 hourly (dose adjust with Cr Cl < 30mls/min). [38-47] Heparin is suggested with CrCl < 15 ml/min. Due to augmented renal clearance patients may have reduced anti-Xa activity despite standard dosages of LMWH.[66] We therefore recommend monitoring anti-Xa activity in underweight and obese patients, those with chronic renal failure and in those patients with an increasing D-dimer, aiming for an anti-Xa activity of 0.6-1.1 IU.ml.</p>

Note: A falling SaO2 despite respiratory symptoms should be a trigger to start anti-inflammatory treatment (see Figure 2).

Note: Early termination of ascorbic acid and corticosteroids will likely result in a rebound effect with clinical deterioration (see Figure 3).

Figure 2. Timing of the initiation of anti-inflammatory therapy



Additional Treatment Components (the Full Monty)

- 4. Melatonin 6-12 mg at night (the optimal dose is unknown).
- 5. Famotidine 40 mg daily (20 mg in renal impairment)
- 6. Vitamin D 2000-4000 u PO daily
- 7. Thiamine 200 mg IV q 12 hourly [67-71]
- 8. Magnesium: 2 g stat IV. Keep Mg between 2.0 and 2.4 mmol/l. Prevent hypomagnesemia (which increases the cytokine storm and prolongs Qtc). [72-74]
- 9. *Optional:* Azithromycin 500 mg day 1 then 250 mg for 4 days (has immunomodulating properties including downregulating IL-6; in addition, Rx of concomitant bacterial pneumonia). [75]
- 10. *Optional:* Simvastatin 80 mg/day. Of theoretical but unproven benefit. Simvastatin has been demonstrated to reduce mortality in the hyper-inflammatory ARDS phenotype. [76] Statins have pleotropic anti-inflammatory, immunomodulatory, antibacterial, and antiviral effects. In addition, statins decrease expression of PAI-1. Due to serious drug-drug interactions with drugs including amiodarone, amlodipine, erythromycin, *azithromycin*, telithromycin, verapamil, diltiazem, cyclosporin, HIV protease inhibitors, etc, atorvastatin 80 mg is preferred.
- 11. *Optional:* Remdesivir. The role of this agent in patients with more advanced pulmonary involvement appears to be limited.
- 12. Broad-spectrum antibiotics if superadded bacterial pneumonia is suspected based on procalcitonin levels and resp. culture (no bronchoscopy). Due to the paradox of hyper-inflammation and immune suppression (a major decrease of HLA-DR on CD14 monocytes) secondary bacterial infection is not uncommon.
- 13. Maintain *EUVOLEMIA* (this is not non-cardiogenic pulmonary edema). Due to the prolonged "symptomatic phase" with flu-like symptoms (6-8 days) patients may be volume depleted. Cautious rehydration with 500 ml boluses of Lactate Ringers may be warranted, ideally guided by non-invasive hemodynamic monitoring. Diuretics should be avoided unless the patient has obvious intravascular volume overload. Avoid hypovolemia.
- 14. Early norepinephrine for hypotension. It should however be appreciated that despite the cytokine storm vasodilatory shock is distinctly uncommon in uncomplicated COVID-19 (not complicated by bacterial sepsis).
- 15. Escalation of respiratory support (steps); Try to avoid intubation if at all possible, (see Figure 4)
 - Accept "permissive hypoxemia" (keep O2 Saturation > 84%); follow venous lactate and Central Venous O₂ saturations (ScvO₂) in patents with low arterial O₂ saturations
 - N/C 1-6 L/min
 - High flow nasal canula (HFNC) up to 60-80 L/min
 - Trial of inhaled Flolan (epoprostenol)
 - Attempt proning (cooperative repositioning-proning) [77,78]
 - Intubation ... by Expert intubator; Rapid sequence. No Bagging; Full PPE. Crash/emergency intubations should be avoided.
 - Volume protective ventilation; Lowest driving pressure and lowest PEEP as possible. Keep driving pressures < 15 cmH₂O.
 - Moderate sedation to prevent self-extubation
 - Trial of inhaled Flolan (epoprostenol)
 - Prone positioning.

There is widespread concern that using HFNC could increase the risk of viral transmission. There is however, no evidence to support this fear. HFNC is a better option for the patient and the health care system than intubation and mechanical ventilation. CPAP/BiPAP may be used in select patients, notably those with COPD exacerbation or heart failure.

A sub-group of patients with COVID-19 deteriorates very rapidly. Intubation and mechanical ventilation may be required in these patients.

16. Salvage Treatments

- High dose corticosteroids; 120 -250 mg methylprednisolone q 6-8 hourly
- Plasma exchange [79-81]. Should be considered in patients with progressive oxygenation failure despite corticosteroid therapy as well as in patients with severe MAS. Patients may require up to 5 exchanges. FFP is required for the exchange; giving back "good humors" appears to be more important than taking out "bad humors".
- In patients with a large dead-space ventilation i.e. high PaCO₂ despite adequate minute ventilation consider "Half-dose rTPA" to improve pulmonary microvascular blood flow; 25mg of tPA over 2 hours followed by a 25mg tPA infusion administered over the subsequent 22 hours, with a dose not to exceed 0.9 mg/kg followed by full anticoagulation.[82,83]
- Siltuximab and Tocilizumab (IL-6 inhibitors).[84,85] These agents should only be considered once the above measures have failed.
- Convalescent serum; the role and timing of convalescent serum are uncertain. [86-89] COVID-19 pulmonary disease is immune mediated, and it would therefore appear paradoxical to enhance the antibody response with convalescent serum. [90]
- CVVH with cytokine absorbing/filtering filters [91] This treatment strategy appears to have a very limited role.
- Janus Kinase inhibitors downregulate cytokine expression and may have a role in this disease. [92-94]
- ?? ECMO < 60 yrs. and no severe comorbidities/organ failure [95]. Unlike "typical ARDS" patients do not progress into a resolution phase. Rather, patients with COVID-19 progress to a severe fibro-proliferative phase and ventilator dependency. ECMO in these patients would likely serve little purpose.

17. Treatment of Macrophage Activation Syndrome (MAS)

- A sub-group of patients will develop MAS. This appears to be driven by SARS-CoV-2 induced inflammasome activation and increased IL-1 β production (see Figure 5). [96,97]
- A ferritin > 4400 ng/ml is considered diagnostic of MAS. Other diagnostic features include increasing AST/ALT and increasing CRP. [98]
- *"High dose corticosteroids."* Methylprednisolone 120 mg q 6-8 hourly for at least 3 days, then wean according to Ferritin, CRP, AST/ALT (see Figure 6). Ferritin should decrease by at least 15% before weaning corticosteroids.
- Consider plasma exchange.
- Anakinra (competitively inhibits IL-1 binding to the interleukin-1 type I receptor) can be considered in treatment failures.

18. Monitoring

- On admission: PCT, CRP, IL-6, BNP, Troponins, Ferritin, Neutrophil-Lymphocyte ratio, D-dimer and Mg.
- Daily: *CRP, Ferritin, D-Dimer and PCT*. CRP and Ferritin track disease severity closely (although ferritin tends to lag behind CRP). Early high CRP levels are closely associated with the degree of pulmonary involvement and the CT score. [99]
- Thromboelastogram (TEG) in patients with high D-dimer and repeated as indicated.
- In patients receiving IV vitamin C, the Accu-Chek[™] POC glucose monitor will result in spuriously high blood glucose values. Therefore, a laboratory glucose is recommended to confirm the blood glucose levels. [100,101]
- Monitor QTc interval if using azithromycin and monitor Mg++ (torsades is uncommon in monitored ICU patients)
- No routine CT scans, follow CXR and chest ultrasound.
- ECHO as clinically indicated; Pts may develop a severe cardiomyopathy.

19. Post ICU management

- a. Enoxaparin 40-60 mg s/c daily
- b. Methylprednisolone 40 mg day, then wean slowly
- c. Vitamin C 500 mg PO BID
- d. Melatonin 3-6 mg at night

Figure 3. Premature discontinuation of corticosteroids and IV vitamin C (after 4 days) and the effect of reinitiation of this combination on the CRP profile.



Page 7 of 23 | EVMS Critical Care COVID-19 Management Protocol 06-17-2020 | evms.edu/covidcare

Figure 4.

Deterioration

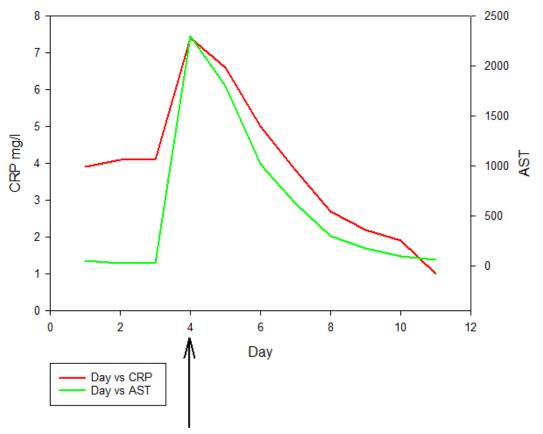
General schema for respiratory support in patients with COVID-19 Try to avoid intubation if possible

Recovery

Low flow nasal cannula Typically set at 1-6 liters/minute High flow nasal cannula Accept permissive hypoxemia (O₂ Saturation > 86%) Titrate FiO₂ based on patient's saturation Accept flow rates of 60 to 80 L/min • • Trial of inhaled Flolan (epoprostenol) Attempt proning (cooperative proning) Invasive mechanical ventilation Target tidal volumes of ~6 cc/kg. Lowest driving pressure and PEEP • Sedation to avoid self-extubation **Trial of inhaled Flolan Prone positioning** · Exact indication for prone ventilation is unclear. • Consider in patients with Pa02/Fi02 ratio <150. VV-ECMO Indications remain unclear. Early discussion with ECMO center or team may be advisable.

Page 8 of 23 | EVMS Critical Care COVID-19 Management Protocol 06-17-2020 | evms.edu/covidcare

Figure 5. SARS-CoV-2 induced Macrophage Activation Syndrome (MAS) treated with Vitamin C 3g IV q 6 and increased methylprednisolone (125 mg q 8 hourly)



Methylprednisolone 120mg Q 8 hourly

Key Concepts of the EVMS Treatment Protocol

This is a very complex disease; many of the mysteries are still unravelling. However, a number of concepts are key to the management of this "treatable disease." They include:

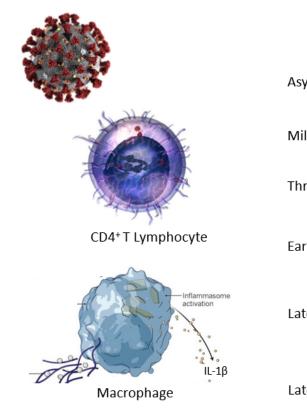
- 1. Patients transition through a number of different phases (clinical stages). The treatment of each phase is distinct ... this is critically important (see Figures 1 & 2).
- 2. As patients progress down the pulmonary cascade the disease becomes more difficult to reverse. The implications of this are twofold.
 - a. Early treatment is ESSENTIAL to a good outcome (this is critical)
 - b. Treatment in the late pulmonary phase may require escalation of the dose of corticosteroids, as well as the use of salvage methods (i.e. plasma exchange).
- 2. It is important to recognize that COVID-19 patients present with a variety of phenotypes, likely dependent on genetic heterogeneity, blood type, sex and androgen status, age, viral load, immunological and nutritional status, and co-morbidities (see Figure 6).[51,102-107] The phenotype at presentation likely determines the optimal approach to treatment.
- 3. COVID-19 is a treatable disease; it is inappropriate to limit therapy to "supportive care" alone. Furthermore, it is likely that there will not be a single "magic bullet" to treat COVID-19. Rather, we should be using multiple drugs/interventions that have synergistic and overlapping biological effects that are safe, cheap and "readily" available. The impact of COVID-19 on middle- and low-income countries will be enormous; these countries will not be able to afford expensive designer molecules.
- 4. The pulmonary phase is characterized by immune dysregulation, [85,92,94,96,97,105,108-116] a pulmonary microvascular injury (endothelialitis),[116-119] with activation of clotting and a pro-coagulant state together with the characteristics of an organizing pneumonia.
- 5. It should be noted that SARS-CoV-2 as compared to all other respiratory viruses, upregulates cytokines and chemokines while at the same time down regulating the expression of Interferon alpha (the hosts primary antiviral defence mechanism). [96,109] This factor is critical to understanding the treatment of COVID-19 organizing pneumonia. (see Figure 7).[109]
- 6. THIS is NOT ARDS (at least initially). The initial pulmonary phase neither looks like, smells like nor is ARDS.[120-122] The ground glass infiltrates are peripheral and patchy, and do not resemble the dependent air space consolidation (sponge/baby lung) seen with "typical ARDS".[123] Extravascular lung water index (EVLWI) is normal or only slightly increased; this by definition excludes non-cardiogenic pulmonary edema (ARDS). Lung compliance is normal (this excludes ARDS). Patients are PEEP unresponsive. Treating patients as if they ARDS is a very dangerous approach. The hypoxia is due to severe ventilation/perfusion mismatch likely due to the microvascular narrowing, thrombosis and vasoplegia.



7. The core principles of the pulmonary phase (MATH+) is the use of anti-inflammatory agents to dampen the "cytokine storms" together with full anticoagulation to limit the microvascular and macrovascular clotting and supplemental oxygen to help overcome the hypoxia.

- 8. Patients in whom the cytokine storm is not "dampened" will progress into the "H phenotype" characterized by poor lung compliance, severe oxygenation failure and PEEP recruitability (see Figure 8). Progression to this phase is exacerbated by ventilator induced lung injury (VILI). The histologic pattern of the "H Phenotype" is characterized by an acute fibrinous and organizing pneumonia (AFOP), with extensive intra-alveolar fibrin deposition called fibrin "balls" with absent hyaline membranes.[107,124-127] Corticosteroids seem to be of little benefit in established AFOP. High dose methylprednisolone should be attempted in the "early phase" of AFOP, however many patients will progress to irreversible pulmonary fibrosis with prolonged ventilator dependency and ultimately death.
- 9. The combination of steroids and ascorbic acid (vitamin C) is essential. Both have powerful synergistic anti-inflammatory actions. [58] Vitamin C protects the endothelium from oxidative injury.[59,128-130] Furthermore, vitamin C Increases the expression of interferon-alpha (this is critical) ([4] while corticosteroids (alone) decease expression of interferon-alpha. [131-134] It should however be noted that when corticosteroids are used in the pulmonary phase (and not in the viral replicative phase) they do not appear to increase viral shedding.
- Notwithstanding the very important and impressive results of the Recovery-Dexamethasone study, methylprednisolone is the corticosteroid of choice for the pulmonary phase of COVID-19. This is based on pharmacokinetic data (better lung penetration),[135] genomic data specific for SARS-CoV-2,[136] and a long track record of successful use in inflammatory lung diseases.
- 11. For prophylaxis and treatment of the early symptomatic phase, we suggest the combination of Quercetin (a plant polyphenol), Vitamin C and Zinc. This is based on intriguing basic-science data, which indicates that:
 - a. Zinc is essential for innate and adaptive immunity.[9] In addition, Zinc inhibits RNA dependent RNA polymerase *in vitro* against SARS-CoV-2 virus.[8]
 - b. Quercetin has direct viricidal properties against a range of viruses, including SARS-CoV-2.[2,6] In addition, quercetin acts as a zinc ionophore. [137]
 - c. Vitamin C improves the potency of Quercetin and its antiviral activity.[2]
- 12. It should also be noted that Vitamin D may be a very powerful prophylactic and treatment strategy against COVID-19. [17-24] Vitamin D deficiency explains, in part, the enormous geographic variation in mortality of this disease.

Figure 6. COVID-19 Subtypes of Infections (Phenotypes)



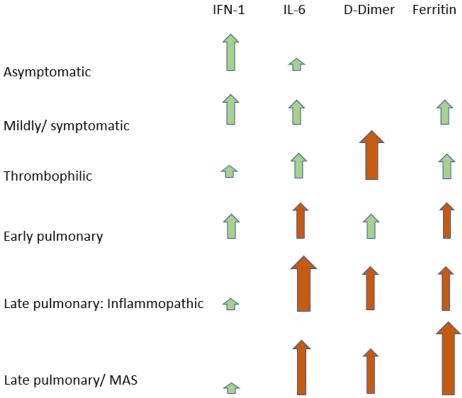
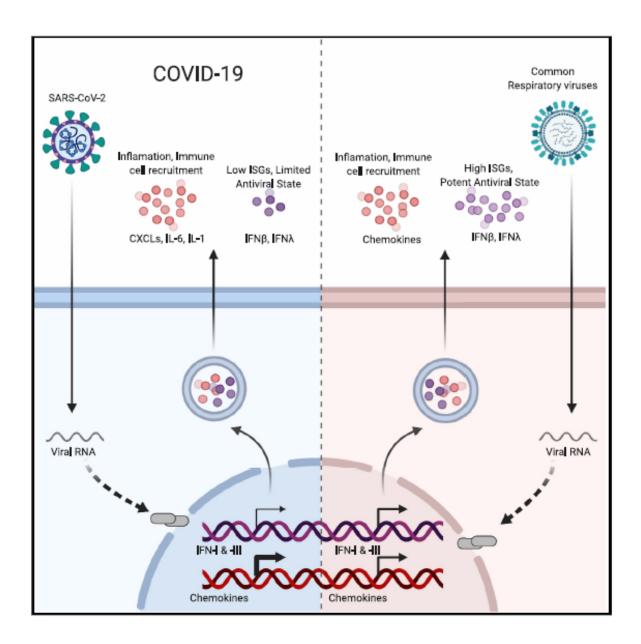


Figure 7. Imbalanced host response to SARS-CoV-2 drives development of COVID-19. [109] Open Access Publication with permission.



Scientific Rationale for MATH+ Treatment Protocol (pulmonary phase)

Three core pathologic processes lead to multi-organ failure and death in COVID-19:

- Hyper-inflammation ("Cytokine storm") a dysregulated immune system whose cells infiltrate and damage multiple organs, namely the lungs, kidneys, and heart. It is now widely accepted that SARS-CoV-2 causes aberrant T lymphocyte and macrophage activation resulting in a "cytokine storm." [85,92,94,96,97,105,108,110-115]
- 2) Hyper-coagulability (increased clotting) the dysregulated immune system damages the endothelium and activates blood clotting, causing the formation of micro and macro blood clots. Clotting activation may occur directly due to increased expression of Factor Xa as well as endothelial injury with the release of large aggregates of van Willebrand factor. These blood clots impair blood flow. [38-47,118,119,138,139]
- Severe Hypoxemia (low blood oxygen levels) lung inflammation caused by the cytokine storm, together with microthrombosis in the pulmonary circulation severely impairs oxygen absorption resulting in oxygenation failure.

The above pathologies are not novel, although the combined severity in COVID-19 disease is considerable. Our longstanding and more recent experiences show consistently successful treatment if traditional therapeutic principles of early and aggressive intervention is achieved, before the onset of advanced organ failure. It is our collective opinion that the historically high levels of morbidity and mortality from COVID-19 is due to a single factor: the widespread and inappropriate reluctance amongst hospitalists and intensivists to employ anti-inflammatory and anticoagulant treatments, including corticosteroid therapy *early in the course of a patient's hospitalization*. It is essential to recognize that it is not the virus that is killing the patient, rather it is the patient's overactive immune system. [90,94] The flames of the "cytokine fire" are out of control and need to be extinguished. Providing supportive care (with ventilators that themselves stoke the fire) and waiting for the cytokine fire to burn itself out simply does not work... this approach has FAILED and has led to the death of tens of thousands of patients.

"If what you are doing ain't working, change what you are doing"- PEM

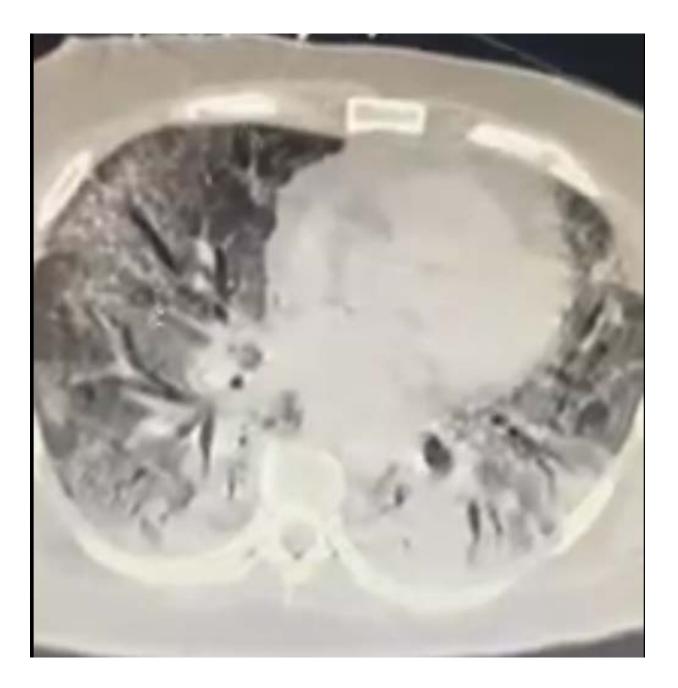
The systematic failure of critical care systems to adopt corticosteroid therapy resulted from the published recommendations against corticosteroids use by the World Health Organization (WHO), the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), the American Thoracic Society (ATS), Infectious Diseases Association of America (IDSA) among others. A very recent publication by the Society of Critical Care Medicine and authored one of the members of the Front Line COVID-19 Critical Care (FLCCC) group (UM) identified the errors made by these organizations in their analyses of corticosteroid studies based on the findings of the SARS and H1N1 pandemics. [48,140] Their erroneous recommendation to avoid corticosteroids in the treatment of COVID-19 has led to the development of myriad organ failures, which have overwhelmed critical care systems across the world and led to excess deaths. The recently announced results of the RECOVERY-DEXAMETHASONE study provides definitive and unambiguous evidence of the lifesaving benefits of corticosteroids and strong validation of the MATH + protocol. The RECOVERY-DEXAMETHASONE study, randomized 2104 patients to receive dexamethasone 6 mg (equivalent to 32 mg methylprednisolone) once per day (either by mouth or by intravenous injection) for ten days and were compared with 4321 patients randomized to usual care alone. Dexamethasone reduced deaths by one-third in ventilated patients (rate ratio 0.65 [95% confidence interval 0.48 to 0.88]; p=0.0003) and by one fifth in other patients receiving oxygen only (0.80 [0.67 to 0.96]; p=0.0021).

There was no benefit among those patients who did not require respiratory support (1.22 [0.86 to 1.75; p=0.14). The results of this study STRONGLY support the EVMS protocol, which recommends the use of corticosteroids for the "pulmonary phase" of COVID-19. It should be noted that we would consider the non-titratable 'fixed" dose of dexamethasone used in the RECOVERY-DEXAMETHASONE study to be very low. Furthermore, as indicated above, we consider methylprednisolone to be the corticosteroid of choice for the treatment of COVID-19 pulmonary disease.

Our treatment protocol targeting the key pathologic processes has achieved near uniform success, *if begun within 6 hours* of a COVID-19 patients presenting with shortness of breath and/or arterial desaturation and requiring supplemental oxygen. If such early initiation of treatment could be systematically achieved, the need for mechanical ventilators and ICU beds will decrease dramatically. The systematic used of the MATH+ protocol in 2 hospital in the USA has reduced the hospital mortality from COVID-19 to approximately 3.5%

Front Line COVID-19 Critical Care Working Group

Figure 8. The consequences of "steroid" avoidance". CT scan after 23 days of "supportive care" demonstrating the late fibroproliferative (irreversible) phase of COVID-19 lung disease (Image kindly provide by Dr. Pierre Kory, from NYC).



References

- 1. Maggini S, Beveridge S, suter M. A combination of high-dose vitamin C plus zinc for the common cold. Journal of International Medical Research 2012; 40:28-42.
- 2. Colunga Biancatelli RM, Berrill M, Catravas JD et al. Quercetin and Vitamin C: experimental therapy for the prevention and treatment of SARS-CoV-2 via synergistic action. Front Immunol 2020.
- 3. Kyung Kim T, Lim HR, Byun JS. Vitamin C supplementaion reduces the odds of developing a common cold in Republic of Korea Army recruits: a randomised controlled trial. BMJ Mil Health 2020.
- 4. Colunga Biancatelli RM, Berrill M, Marik PE. The antiviral properties of vitamin C. Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 2020; 18:99-101.
- 5. Khaerunnisa S. Potential inhibitor of COVID-19 main protease (Mpro) from several medicinal plant compuns by molecular docking study. medRxiv 2020.
- 6. Chen L, Li J, Luo C et al. Binding interaction of quercetin-3-B-galactoside and its synthetic derivatives with SARS-CoV 3CL: structure-activity relationship reveal salient pharmacophore features. Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry Letters 2006; 14:8295-306.
- 7. Yi L, Li Z, Yuan K et al. Small molecules blocking the entry of severe respiratory syndrome coronavirus into host cells. J Virol 2020; 78:11334-39.
- 8. te Velthuis AJ, van den Worm SH, Sims AC et al. Zn2+ inhibits Coronavirus and Arterivirus RNA polymerase activity In Vitro and Zinc ionophores block the replication of these viruses in cell culture. PLos Pathog 2010; 6:e1001176.
- 9. Gammoh NZ, Rink L. Zinc in Infection and Inflammation. Nutrients 2017; 9.
- 10. Hemila H. Zinc lozenges and the common cold: a meta-analysis comparing zinc acetate and zinc gluconate, and the role of zinc dosage. J Royal Soc Med Open 2017; 8:1-7.
- 11. Singh M, Das RR. Zinc for the common cold. Cochrane Database of Syst Rev 2013; 6:CD001364.
- 12. Hoeger J, Simon TP, Beeker T et al. Persistent low serum zinc is associated with recurrent sepsis in critically ill patients A pilot study. PloS ONE 2017; 12:e0176069.
- 13. Colunga Biancatelli RM, Berrill M, Mohammed YH et al. Melatonin for the treatment of sepsis: the scientific rationale. J Thorac Dis 2020; 12 (Suppl 1):S54-S65.
- 14. Reiter RJ, Abreu-Gonzalez P, Marik PE et al. Therapeutic algorithm for use of melatonin in patients with COVID-19. Front Med 2020; 7:226.
- 15. Reiter RJ, Sharma R, Ma Q et al. Melatonin inhibits COVID-19-induced cytokine storm by reversing aerobic glycolysis in immune cells: A mechanistic analysis. Medicine in Drug Discovery 2020; 6:100044.
- 16. Zhang R, Wang X, Ni L et al. COVID-19: Melatonin as a potential adjuvant treatment. Life Sci 2020; 250:117583.
- 17. Grant WB, Lahore H, McDonnell SL et al. Evidence that Vitamin D supplementation could reduce risk of influenza and COVID-19 infections and deaths. Nutrients 2020; 12:988.
- 18. Lau FH, Majumder R, Torabi R et al. Vitamin D insufficiency is prevalent in severe COVID-19. medRxiv 2020.
- 19. Marik PE, Kory P, Varon J. Does vitamin D status impact mortlality from SARS-CoV-2 infection? Medicine in Drug Discovery 2020.
- 20. Rhodes JM, Subramanian S, Laird E et al. Editorial: Low population mortality from COVID-19 in countries south of 35 degrees North supports vitamin D as a factor determining severity. Alimentary Pharmacology & Therapeutics 2020; (in press).
- 21. Dancer RC, Parekh D, Lax S et al. Vitamin D deficiency contributes directly to the acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS). Thorax 2015; 70:617-24.

- 22. LLie PC, Stefanescu S, Smith L. The role of vitamin D in the prevention of coronavirus disease 2019 infection and mortality. Aging Clin Exp Res 2020.
- 23. Daneshkhah A, Eshein A, Subramanian H. The role of vitamin D in suppressing cytokine storm of COVID-19 patients and associated mortality. medRxiv 2020.
- 24. Bergman P, Lindh AU, Bjorkhem-Bergman L et al. Vitamin D and respiartory tract infections: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. PloS ONE 2013; 8:e65835.
- 25. Freedberg DE, Conigliaro J, Sobieszczyk ME et al. Famotidine use is associated with impoved clinical outcomes in hospitalized COVID-19 patients: A propensity score matched retrospective cohort study. medRxiv 2020.
- 26. Caly L, Druce JD, Catton MG et al. The FDA-approved drug Ivermectin inhibits the replication of SARS-CoV-2 in vitro. Antiviral Res 2020.
- 27. Patel AN, Desai SS, Grainger DW et al. Usefulness of ivermectin in COVID-19 illness. medRxiv 2020.
- 28. Rajter JC, Sherman MS, Fatteh N et al. ICON (Ivermectin in COvid Ninteen) study: Use of ivermectin is associated with lower mortality in hospitalized patients with COVID-19. medRxiv 2020.
- 29. Jouffroy R, Jost D, Prunet B. Prehospital pulse oximetry: a red flag for early detection of silent hypoxemia in COVID-19 patients. Crit Care 2020; 24:313.
- 30. Mehra MR, Desai SS, Ruschitzka F et al. Hydroxychloroquine or chloroquine with or without a macrolide for treatment of COVID-19: a multinational registry analysis. Lancet 2020.
- 31. Hernandez AV, Roman YM, Pasupuleti V et al. Hydroxychloroquine or chloroquine for the treatment of prophylaxis of COVID-19: A living systematic review. Ann Intern Med 2020.
- Borba MG, Val FF, Sampaio S. Effect of High vs Low Doses of chloroquine diphosphate as adjunctive therapy for patietns hospitalized with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infection. A randomized clinical trial. JAMA Network Open 2020.
- 33. Mahevas M, Tran VT, Roumier M et al. Clinical efficacy of hydroxychloroquine in patients with COVID-19 pneumonia who require oxygen: observational comparative study using routine care data. BMJ 2020; 369:m1844.
- 34. Rosenberg ES, Dufort EM, Udo T et al. Association of treatment with hydroxychloroquine or azithromycin with in-hospital mortality in patients with COVID-19 in New York State. JAMA 2020.
- 35. Boulware DR, Pullen MF, Bangdiwala AS et al. A randomized trial of hydroxychloroquine as postexposure prophylaxis for Covid-19. N Engl J Med 2020.
- 36. Shittu MO, Afolami OI. Improving the efficacy of chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine against SARS-CoV-2 may require zinc additives A better synergy for future COVID-19 clinical trials. Le Infezioni in Medicine 2020; 2:192-97.
- 37. Carlucci PM, Ahuja T, Petrilli C et al. Hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin plus zinc vs hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin alone: outcomes in hospitalized COVID-19 patients. medRxiv 2020.
- 38. Bikdeli B, Madhavan MV, Jimenez et al. COVID-19 and thrombotic or thromboembolic disease: Implications for prevention, antithrombotic therapy, and follow-up. J Am Coll Cardiol 2020.
- 39. Connors JM, Levy JH. COVID-19 and its implications for thrombosis and anticoagulation. Blood 2020.
- 40. Klok FA, Kruip MJ, van der Meer NJ et al. Incidence of thrombotic complications in critically ill ICU patients with COVID-19. Thrombosis Research 2020.
- 41. Zhai Z, Li C, Chen Y et al. Prevention and treatment of venous thromboembolism assocaited with Coronavirus Disease 2019 Infection: A consensus statement before guidelines. Thromb Haemost 2020.

Page 18 of 23 | EVMS Critical Care COVID-19 Management Protocol 06-17-2020 | evms.edu/covidcare

- 42. Paranjpe I, Fuster V, Lala A et al. Association of treatment dose anticoagulation with in-hospital survival among hospitalized patietns with COVID-19. J Am Coll Cardiol 2020.
- 43. Iba T, Levy JH, Levi M et al. Coagulopathy of coronavirus disease 2019. Crit Care Med 2020.
- 44. Joly BS, Siguret V, Veyradier A. Understanding pathophysiology of hemostasis disorders in critically ill patients with COVID-19. Intensive Care Med 2020.
- 45. Helms J, Tacquard C, Severac F et al. High risk of thrombosis in patients with severe SARS-CoV-2 infection: a multicenter prospective cohort study. Intensive Care Med 2020; 46:1089-98.
- 46. Varatharajah N, Rajah S. Microthrombotic complications of COVID-19 are likely due to embolism of circulating endothelial derived ultralarge Von Willebrand Factor (eULVWF) decorated-platelet strings. Federal Practitioner 2020.
- 47. Du L, Kao RY, Zhou Y et al. Cleavage of spike protein of SARS coronavirus by protease factor Xa is associated with viral infectivity. Biochemical & Biophysical Research Communications 2007; 359:174-79.
- 48. Villar J, Confalonieri M, Pastores SM et al. Rationale for prolonged corticosteroid tratment in the acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) caused by COVID-19. Crit Care Expl 2020; 2:e0111.
- 49. Fadel R, Morrison AR, Vahia A et al. Early course corticosteroids in hospitalized patients with COVID-19. medRxiv 2020.
- 50. Chroboczek T, Lacoste M, Wackenheim C et al. Beneficial effect of corticosteroids in severe COVID-19 pneumonia: a propensity score matching analysis. medRxiv 2020.
- 51. Wu C, Chen X, Cai Y et al. Risk factors associated with acute respiratory distress syndrome and death in patients with Coronavirus disease 2019 pneumonia in Wuhan, China. JAMA Intern Med 2020.
- 52. Cruz AF, Ruiz-Antoran B, Gomez AM et al. Impact of glucocorticoid treatment in SARS-CoV-2 infection mortality: A retrospective controlled cohort study. medRxiv 2020.
- 53. Liu J, Zheng X, Huang Y et al. Successful use of methylprednisolone for treating severe COVID-19. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2020.
- 54. Meduri GU, Bridges L, Shih MC et al. Prolonged glucocorticoid treatment is associated with improved ARDS outomces: analysis of individual patients' data from four randomized trials and trial-level meta-analysis of the updated literature. Intensive Care Med 2016; 42:829-40.
- 55. Wang Y, Zhang D, Du G et al. Remdesivir in adults with severe COVID-19: a randomised, doubleblind, placebo-controlled, multicenter trial. Lancet 2020.
- 56. Beigel JH, Tomashek KM, Dodd LE et al. Remdesivir for the treatment of Covid-19-Preliminary report. N Engl J Med 2020.
- 57. Marik PE, Khangoora V, Rivera R et al. Hydrocortisone, Vitamin C and Thiamine for the treatment of severe sepsis and septic shock: A retrospective before-after study. Chest 2017; 151:1229-38.
- 58. Barabutis N, Khangoora V, Marik PE et al. Hydrocortisone and Ascorbic Acid synergistically protect and repair lipopolysaccharide-induced pulmonary endothelial barrier dysfunction. Chest 2017; 152:954-62.
- 59. Marik PE. Hydrocortisone, Ascorbic Acid and Thiamine (HAT therapy) for the treatment of sepsis. Focus on ascorbic acid. Nutrients 2018; 10:1762.
- 60. Marik PE. Vitamin C for the treatment of sepsis: The scientific rationale. Pharmacol Therapeut 2018; 189:63-70.
- 61. Cheng RZ. Can early and high-dose vitamin C prevent and treat coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). Medicine in Drug Discovery 2020.
- 62. Wang Y, Lin H, Lin BW et al. Effects of different ascorbic acid doses on the mortality of critically ill patients: a meta-analysis. Ann Intensive Care 2019; 9:58.

- 63. Fowler AA, Truwit JD, Hite D et al. Vitamin C Infusion for TReatment In Sepsis-Induced Acute Lung Injury- CITRIS-ALI: A Randomized, Placebo Controlled Clinical Trial. JAMA 2018; 322:1261-70.
- 64. Boretti A, Banik BK. Intravenous vitamin C for reduction of cytokines storm in acute respiratory distress syndrome. PharmaNutrition 2020; 12:100190.
- 65. Iglesias J, Vassallo AV, Patel V et al. Outcomes of metabolic resuscitation using ascorbic acid, thiamine, and glucocorticoids in the early treatment of sepsis. Chest 2020.
- 66. Tomasa-Irriguible TM, Martinez-Vega S, Mor-Marco E et al. Low molecular weight heparins in COVID-19 patients: beware of augmented renal clearance! Crit Care 2020; 24:325.
- 67. Menezes RR, Godin AM, Rodrigues FF et al. Thiamine and riboflavin inhibit production of cytokines and increase the anti-inflammatory activity of a corticosteroid in a chronic model of inflammation induced by complete Freund's adjuvant. Pharmacological Reports 2020; 69:1036-43.
- 68. Mallat J, Lemyze M, Thevenin D. Do not forget to give thiamine to your septic shock patient! J Thorac Dis 2016; 8:1062-66.
- 69. Moskowitz A, Donnino MW. Thiamine (vitamin B1) in septic shock: a targeted therapy. J Thorac Dis 2020; 12 (suppl 1):S78-S83.
- 70. Woolum JA, Abner EL, Kelly A et al. Effect of thiamine administration on lactate clearance and mortality in patients with septic shock. Crit Care Med 2018; 46:1747-52.
- 71. Marik PE. Thiamine: An essential component of the metabolic resuscitation protocol. Crit Care Med 2018; 46:1869-70.
- 72. Lee CY, Jan WC, Tsai PS et al. Magnesium sulfate mitigates acute lung injury in endotoxemia rats. J Trauma 2011; 70:1177-85.
- 73. Salem M, Kasinski N, Munoz R et al. Progressive magnesium deficiency inceases mortality from endotoxin challenge:Protective effects of acute magnesium replacement therapy [abstract]. Crit Care Med 1995;A260.
- 74. Jiang P. Does hypomagnesemia impact on the outcome of patients admitted to the intensive care unit? A systematic review and meta-analysis. Shock 2019; 47:288-95.
- 75. Hung IF, To KK, Chan JF et al. Efficacy of Clarithromycin-Naproxen-Oseltamivir combination in the treatment of patients hospitalized for influenza A (H3N2) infection. An open-label randomized, Controlled, Phase IIb/II trial. Chest 2017; 151:1069-80.
- 76. Calfee CS, Delucchi KL, Sinha P et al. Acute respiratory distress syndrome subphenotypes and differential response to simvastatin: secondary analysis of a randomised controlled trial. Lancet Resp Med 2018; 6:691-98.
- 77. Xu Q, Wang T, Quin X et al. Early awake prone position combined with high-flow nasal oxygen therapy in severe COVID-19; a case series. Crit Care 2020; 24:250.
- 78. Elharrar X, Trigui Y, Dois AM et al. Use of prone positioning in nonintubated patients with COVID-19 and hypoxemic acute respiratory failure. JAMA 2020.
- 79. Keith P, Day M, Perkins L et al. A novel treatment approach to the novel coronavirus: an argument for the use of therapeutic plasma exchange for fulminant COVID-19. Crit Care 2020.
- 80. Keith P, Wells AH, Hodges J et al. The therapeutic efficacy of adjunct therapeutic plasma exchange for septic shock with multiple organ failure: A single center retrospective review. Crit Care 2020.
- 81. Busund R, Koukline V, Utrobin U et al. Plasmapheresis in severe sepsis and septic shock: a prospective, randomised, controlled trial. Intensive Care Med 2002; 28:1434-39.
- 82. Poor HD, Ventetuolo CE, Tolbert T et al. COVID-19 critical illness pathophysiology driven by diffuse pulmonary thrombi and pulmonary endothelial dysfuncion responsive to thrombolysis. medRxiv 2020.

Page 20 of 23 | EVMS Critical Care COVID-19 Management Protocol 06-17-2020 | evms.edu/covidcare

- 83. Wang J, Najizadeh N, Moore EE et al. Tissue plasminogen activator (tPA) treatment for COVID-19 associated respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS): A case series. J Thromb Haemost 2020.
- 84. Xu X, Han M, Li T et al. Effective treatment of severe COVID-19 patietns with Tocilizumab. ChinaXiv 2020.
- 85. Zhang C, Wu Z, Li JW et al. The cytokine release syndrome (CRS) of severe COVID-19 and interleukin-6 receptor (IL-6R) antagonsit Tocilizumab may be the key to reduce the mortality. Int J Antimicrob Agents 2020.
- 86. Zeng QL, Yu ZJ, Gou JJ et al. Effect of convalescent plasma therapy on viral shedding and survival in COVID-19 patients. Clin Infect Dis 2020.
- 87. Li L, Zhang W, Hu Y et al. Effect of convalescent plasma therapy on time to clinical improvement in patients with severe and life-threatening COVID-19. A randomized clinical trial. JAMA 2020.
- 88. Fleming AB, Raabe V. Current studies of convalescent plasma therapy for COVID-19 may underestimate risk of antibody-dependent enhancement [letter]. J Clin Virol 2020; 127:104388.
- 89. Duan K, Liu B, Li C et al. Effectiveness of convalescent plasma therapy in severe COVID-10 patients. PNAS 2020.
- 90. Jacobs JJ. Neutralizing antibodies mediate virus-immue pathology of COVID-19. Med Hypotheses 2020; 143:109884.
- 91. Brouwer WP, Duran S, Kuijper M et al. Hemoadsorption with CytoSorb shows a decreased observed versus expected 28-day all-cause mortality in ICU patients with septic shock: a propensity-score-weighted retrospective study. Crit Care 2019; 23:317.
- 92. Wu D, Yang XO. TH17 responses in cytokine storm of COVID-19: An emerging target of JAK2 inhibitor Febratinib. J Microbiol Immunol Infect 2020.
- 93. Favalli EG, Biggioggero M, Maioli G et al. Baricitinib for COVID-19: a suitable treatment? Lancet Infect Dis 2020.
- 94. Mehta P, McAuley DF, Brown M et al. COVID-19: consider cytokine storm syndromes and immunosuppression. Lancet 2020; 395:1033-34.
- 95. Henry MB, Lippi G. Poor survival with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation in acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) due to coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): Pooled analysis of early reports. J Crit Care 2020; 58:27-28.
- 96. Giamarellos-Bouboulis EJ, Netea MG, Rovina N et al. Complex immune dysregulation in COVID-19 patients with severe respiratory failure. Cell Host & Microbe 2020.
- 97. McGonagle D, Sharif K. The role of cytokines including interleukin-6 in COVID-19 induces pneumonia and macrophage activation syndrome-like disease. Autoimmunity Reviews 2020.
- 98. Kyriazopoulou E, Leventogiannis K, Norrby-Teglund A et al. Macrophage activation-like syndrome: an immunological entity associated with rapid progression to death in sepsis. BMC Medicine 2017; 15:172.
- 99. Tan C, Huang Y, Shi F et al. C-reactive protein correlates with computed tomographic findings and predicts severe COVID-19 early. J Med Virol 2020.
- 100. Howell AP, Parrett JL, Malcom DR. Impact of high-dose intravenous vitamin C for treatment of sepsis on point-of-care blood glucose readings. J Diabetes Sci Technol 2019.
- 101. Stephenson E, Hooper MH, Marik PE. Vitamin C and Point of Care glucose measurements: A retrospective, Observational study [Abstract]. Chest 2018; 154 (suppl.):255a.
- 102. Zhao J, Yang Y, Huang H et al. Relationship between ABO blood group and the COVID-19 susceptibility. medRxiv 2020.
- Banerjee A, Pasea L, Harris S et al. Estimating excess 1-year mortality associated with the COVID-19 pandemic according to underlying conditions and age: a population-based cohort study. Lancet 2020; 395:1715-25.

- 104. Goren A, Vamo-Galvan S, Wambier CG et al. A preliminary observation: Male pattern hair loss among hospitalized COVID-19 patients in Spain- A potential clue to the role of androgens in COVID-19 severity. J Cosmetic Dermatol 2020.
- 105. Huang C, Wang Y, Li X et al. Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. Lancet 2020.
- 106. Guan W, Ni Z, Hu Y et al. Clinical characteristics of Coronavirus disease 2019 in China. N Engl J Med 2020.
- 107. von der Thusen J, van der Eerden M. Histopathology and genetic susceptibility in COVID-19 pneumonia. Eur J Clin Invest 2020.
- 108. Zhou Y, Fu B, Zheng X et al. Pathogenic T cellls and inflammatory monocytes incite inflammatory storm in severe COVID-19 patients. Immunology 2020.
- 109. Blanco-Melo D, Nilsson-Payant BE, Liu WC et al. Imbalanced host response to SARS-CoV-2 drives development of COVID-19. Cell 2020.
- 110. Zhou F, Yu T, Du R et al. Clinical course and risk factor for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study. Lancet 2020.
- 111. Giamarellos-Bourboulis EJ, Netea MG, Rovina N et al. Complex immune dysregulation in COVID-19 patients with severe respiratory failure. medRxiv 2020.
- 112. Qin C, Zhou L, Hu Z et al. Dysregulation of the immune response in patiens with COID-19 in Wuhan, China. Lancet Infect Dis 2020.
- 113. Ye Q, Wang B, Mao J. The pathogenesis and treatment of the "Cytokine Storm" in COVID-19. J Infection 2020.
- 114. Moore JB, June CH. Cytokine release syndrome in severe COVID-19. Science 2020.
- 115. Tay MZ, Poh CM, Renia L et al. The trinity of COVID-19: immunity, inflammation and intervention. Nature Reviews 2020; 20:363-74.
- 116. Leisman DE, Deutschman CS, Legrand M. Facing COVID-19 in the ICU: vascular dysfunction, thrombosis, and dysregulated inflammation. Intensive Care Med 2020; 46:1105-8.
- 117. Teuwen LA, Geldhof V, Pasut A et al. COVID-19: the vasculature unleashed. Nature Reviews 2020.
- 118. Varga Z, Flammer AJ, Steiger P et al. Endothelial cell infection and endotheliitis in COVID-19. Lancet 2020.
- 119. Ackermann M, Verleden SE, Kuehnel M et al. Pulmonary vascular endothelialitis, Thrombosis, and Angiogenesis in COVID-19. N Engl J Med 2020.
- 120. Gattinoni L, Chiumello D, Caironi P et al. COVID-19 pneumonia: different respiratory treatment for different phenotypes? Intensive Care Med 2020; 46:1099-102.
- 121. Chiumello D, Cressoni M, Gattinoni L. Covid-19 does not lead to a "typical" Acute Respiratory Distress syndrome. Lancet 2020.
- 122. Gattinoni L, Chiumello D, Rossi S. COVID-19 pneumonia: ARDS or not? Crit Care 2020; 24:154.
- 123. Gattinoni L, Pesenti A. The concept of "baby lung". Intensive Care Med 2005; 31:776-84.
- 124. Carsana L, Sonzogni A, Nasr A et al. Pulmonary post-mortem findings in a large series of COVID-19 cases from Northern Italy. medRxiv 2020.
- 125. Copin MC, Parmentier E, Duburcq T et al. Time to consider histologic pattern of lung injury to treat critically ill patietns with COVID-19 infection [letter]. Intensive Care Med 2020.
- 126. Menter T, Haslbauer JD, Nienhold R et al. Post-mortem examination of COVID19 patients reveals diffuse alveolar damage with severe capillary congestion and variegated findings of lungs and other organs suggesting vascular dysfunction. medRxiv 2020.
- 127. Xu Z, Shi L, Wang Y et al. Pathological findings of COVID-19 associated with acute respiratory distress syndrome. Lancet Resp Med 2020.

- 128. May JM, Qu ZC. Ascorbic acid prevents oxidant-induced increases in endothelial permeability. Biofactors 2011; 37:46-50.
- 129. Utoguchi N, Ikeda K, Saeki K et al. Ascorbic acid stimulates barrier function of cultured endothelial cell monolayer. Journal of Cellular Physiology 1995; 163:393-99.
- 130. Han M, Pendem S, Teh SL et al. Ascorbate protects endothelial barrier function during septic insult: Role of protein phosphatase type 2A. Free Radic Biol Med 2010; 48:128-35.
- 131. Elenkov IJ. Glucocorticoids and the Th1/Th2 balance. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2004; 1024:138-46.
- 132. Shodell M, Siegal FP. Corticosteroids depress INF-alpha-producing plasmacytoid dentritic cells in human blood. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2001; 108:446-48.
- 133. Thomas BJ, Porritt RA, Hertzog PJ et al. Glucocorticosteroids enhance replication of respiratory viruses: effect of adjuvant interferon. Scientific Reports 2014; 4:7176.
- Singanayagam A, Glanville N, Girkin JL et al. Corticosteroid suppression of antiviral immunity increases bacterial loads and mucus production in COPD exacerbations. Nature Communications 2018; 9:2229.
- 135. Braude AC, Rebuck AS. Prednisone and methylprednisolone disposition in the lung. Lancet 1983;995-97.
- Draghici S, Nguyen TM, Sonna LA et al. COVID-19: disease pathways and gene expression chnages predict methylprednisolone can improve outcome in severe cases. Nature Reviews 2020.
- Dabbagh-Bazarbachi H, Clergeaud G, Quesada IM et al. Zinc ionophore activity of Quercetin and Epigallocatechin-gallate:From Hepa 1-6 cells to a liposome model. J Agric Food Chem 2014; 62:8085-93.
- 138. Tang N, Bai H, Chen X et al. Anticoagulant treatment is associated with decreased mortality in severe coronavirus disease 2019 with coagulopathy. medRxiv 2020.
- 139. Sardu C, Gambardella J, Morelli MB et al. Is COVID-19 an endothelial disease? Clinical and basic evidence. medRxiv 2020.
- 140. Yam LY, Lau AC, Lai FY et al. Corticosteroid treatment of severe acute respiratory syndrome in Hong Kong. J Infection 2007; 54:28-39.