

IMPACT OF COVID-19 IN ALZHEIMER'S PATIENT'S

Swathy N. S.^{1*}, Mobin P. Chacko¹, Prasobh G. R.² and Grace N. Raju³

^{1*}Fifth Pharm D Student, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Center Parassala,
Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India.

¹Fifth Pharm D Student, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Center Parassala,
Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India.

²Principal and HOD, Department of Pharmacy Practice, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy
and Research Center Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India.

³Assistant Professor, Department of Pharmacy Practice, Sree Krishna College of pharmacy
and Research Center Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India.

Article Received on
16 August 2021,

Revised on 06 Sept. 2021,
Accepted on 26 Sept. 2021

DOI: 10.20959/wjpr202112-21885

*Corresponding Author

Swathy N. S.

Fifth Pharm D student, Sree
Krishna College of
Pharmacy and Research
Center Parassala,
Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala,
India.

ABSTRACT

Due to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) causes Alzheimer's disease a neurological complication of COVID-19. In AD patients multiple pathological changes such as the excessive expression of viral receptor angiotensin converting enzyme 2 and pro-inflammatory molecules may increase morbidity and mortality of covid 19. various neurologic symptoms like cognitive impairment has reported in covid 19 that may results in AD, SARS-CoV-2 may invade into the central nervous system, COVID-19- may induce inflammation, long-term hospitalization and delirium, and post-COVID-19 syndrome. In addition, uninfected AD patients behavioral symptoms may be worsen by covid 19 crisis and provide new challenges for AD prevention. In this review.we first know about the SARS-CoV-2 and AD-COVID-19.

KEYWORDS: COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2, Alzheimer's disease, Inflammation, Central nervous system.

INTRODUCTION

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) that affect predominantly the human respiratory system and has also targeting central nervous system (CNS).^[1,2] Incubation period is 5 days for SARS-CoV2, and the

symptoms are most likely to be of COVID-19 include fever, cough, and fatigue followed by or associated with headache, dyspnea, and hemoptysis.^[1,2] For severe cases Acute respiratory distress syndrome, acute cardiac problems, pneumonia, and multiorgan failure had also been observed^[1,2] Central nervous system is reported about 25% of COVID-19 patients have been reported.^[3] Other atypical respiratory symptoms include headache, dizziness, anosmia, stroke, and deteriorated consciousness or memory, impaired mental state, delirium, and electrolyte and metabolic derangements have been noticed in some patients.^[3] Among central nervous system (CNS) of COVID-19 and Alzheimer's disease (AD) comorbidities stand first.^[4] AD is a neurodegenerative disorder that affects memory and learning, behaviour, and cognitive performance of the patient. The hippocampus region of brain responsible for memory and learning processes becomes affected due to deposition of amyloid beta (A β) or neurofibrillary tangles (NFT) in the AD patients.^[5] AD appear mostly after age 60, and the patients become dependent on their caregivers and family members.^[5] As COVID-19 management needs isolation and quarantine, AD management needs attention to the patient always.^[2-4] The COVID-19 may cause burden to AD patient, caregivers, and family members and on the national and global economy. Common etiological factors may manage the therapeutic approach on both COVID-19 and AD. In present review has been designed to know the common links between COVID-19 and AD so that scientists, healthcare providers, policy-makers, and the general readers would be benefitted in managing the already suffered patient and also to safeguarding the future generation.

SARS-CoV-2 and AD-COVID-19

Coronaviridae is the family of SARS-CoV-2 and it is a non-segmented enveloped positive-sense RNA virus. SARS-CoV-2 can spread directly through droplets, aerosol, and fomite into the human body includes neural parenchyma, the nasal mucosa, the lamina cribrosa, retrograde axonal transport, and the olfactory bulb.^[6] The SARS-CoV-2 neurotropism character may be lead to invasion on the neural tissues by binding its spiked protein with angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptors present in the neurons and glial cells.^[6, 7] In lungs, epithelium of the upper and lower airways of ACE2 mostly.^[6,7,8] The heart, kidneys, and lungs consist of type I membrane protein ACE2 of renin-angiotensin systems. Spike (S) proteins of both SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2 form a trimer harbor of receptor-binding domain (RBD) that interacts with high affinity of lysine 31 on ACE2.^[6-8] Compared with those of other SAR-COVs, 10–20-fold increased affinity of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein towards ACE2 are found.^[8,9] On ACE2 receptor, SARS-CoV-2 may utilize the trans-synaptic

routes and olfactory bulb directly.^[10,11] SARS-CoV-2 stimulate astroglia, microglial activation, and neuroinflammatory cascade. The blood–brain barrier (BBB) become affected due to systemic inflammation due to disruption of brain homeostasis and neuronal death.^[11] Because of this infection of the brain stem might increase cardiovascular and respiratory regulation to chemosensory neural cells and cause respiratory failure results in intense hypoxia.^[10,11] The Combination of hypoxia and neuroinflammation destroy the cortical and hippocampal function caused by neurological disorders. The direct Central nervous system SARS-CoV-2 causes inflammatory mediators and release increased BBB permeability and heightened hypoxia.^[12] As the CNS is made of major histocompatibility antigen, it mainly depend on cytotoxic T lymphocytes for removal of virus. Mainly infected by toxic encephalopathy, acute encephalitis, and cerebrovascular attacks (CVAs).^[12] Headache and seizure are caused due to acute encephalitis; delirium and coma are caused due to infectious toxic encephalopathy while an increased risk of CVA is a manifested on SARS-CoV-2-provoked cytokine storm and coagulate abnormalities.^[12] Neuronal expression of ACE2 may high the nACh receptor and it may help to stimulate the nicotine, and makes the smokers much vulnerable towards neuropathological maladies.^[13]

Relationship between SARS-CoV-2 and AD

Viral infection

Numerous studies related AD to viral pathogen. The herpesvirus family including herpes simplex virus (HSV) and human herpesvirus (HHV) is the most studied viral family for AD.^[19,20,21] The results from this supported the hypothesis of epidemiological, post-mortem, animal, and cell-culture studies.^[54] For example, results from a cohort study on population basis shows reactivation of HSV seropositivity is highly correlated with incident AD.^[55] The damage on hippocampus as well as to the temporal and frontal lobes, are caused by HSV-induced herpes simplex encephalitis (HSE) on same brain areas that are affected in AD, to induce a cognitive phenotype related to AD.^[56,57,58] Cognitive impairment may also be observed together with neuroinflammation.^[59] The HSV-1 is the infection by the alteration of A β metabolism, calcium homeostasis dysregulation, synaptic dysfunction, and cultured human neuronal apoptosis and glial cells.^[60] The anti-HSV drugs have been shown to reduce A β and p-tau accumulation in the infected mouse brains and all these findings suggest the strong association of HSV will be related to pathogenesis of AD. With HSV-1, multiscale analysis of three independent Alzheimer's cohorts studies carried out by Readhead et al. AD is a regulatory relationships of viral abundance and modulators of A β production.^[19] The

pathologic effects of HHV-6A on AD are caused by the suppression of miR-155 and dysregulation of the autophagy and protein response.^[19,21] These studies provide evidence for the contribution of specific viral species to develop the neuropathology and AD.

In note A β and NFT are the hypotheses of AD as known, although they do not entirely explain the pathogenic mechanism. Recent evidence have shown that neuroinflammation hypothesis, though the causality needs to be addressed. Now a days evidence has also implicate viral infection in AD, although future studies are done to identify the underlying mechanisms for how each specific viral infection leads to AD.

Inflammo-proteomics

The respiratory syndromes of SARS-COV-2 have got attention when neurological co-manifestations have received atleast more than one-third of the patients had neurological symptoms.^[14] During the initial stage of illness most of the neurological symptoms had been manifested.^[15] Inflammatory mediators have been implicated in CNS manifestations, and immunological process in peripheral nervous system (PNS) abnormalities, while skeletal muscle injury has been considered the direct effect of SARS-CoV-2.^[10,16,17] The common link between inflammatory markers received most attention are interleukin 6 (IL-6), interleukin 1 (IL-1), cytoskeleton-associated protein 4 (CKAP4), and galectin9 are the common links between COVID-19 and AD manifestations.^[18]

IL-6

Plasma level of inflammatory cytokines had been reported to be associated with AD progression and related with immune responses.^[18] Like wise human cognitive performance had been inversely linked with chronic peripheral elevation of IL-6.^[18] It may also form significantly increased level of plasma IL-6 is reported in 47 AD patients compared with their agedpatient.^[19] The increase in acute-phase proteins in the serum of AD patients are initiative of compromised immunity. Memory and learning-related behavioral tests like Morris water maze test, hole-board test, elevated plus maze test on mice revealed that the mice deficient of IL-6 retain improved reference and spatial memory and demonstrate a better cognitive performance.^[20] Though exact mechanism has not been found yet, reduced IL-6 might mediate a signaling cascade involved in maintaining and restoring memory.^[20] An increased serum level of IL-6 had been linked with increased COVID-19 death.^[21] And also it linked for respiratory dysfunction.^[22,23] Plasma protein of IL-6 is the most used proteins in COVID-19 patients and marked as an indicator of disease.^[24] The increased serum IL-6 level is a

common indicator of respiratory complications occurred in COVID-19. In the replication of SARS-CoV-2 may elevate production of IL-6 and high respiratory distress. Since the IL-6 stands biomarker for AD and COVID-19 as common. Antibodies capable of blocking the IL-6 receptor are tocilizumab and sarilumab which have been undergoing phase 2/3 clinical trials as the putative medications against COVID-19.^[25] As inflammatory process of AD results in neurodegeneration that could be slowed down through reduced generation of IL-6, tenidap, a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug, had been found promising in AD therapeutics.^[26] IL-6 is a pleiotropic biomarker for CNS and respiratory system among which AD and COVID-19 worth mentioning. IL-1 is higher in the COVID-19 patient during disease start and entire range of disease progression.^[27,28]

IL-1

IL-1 is high in COVID-19 patient on starting stage of disease and entire range of disease progression.^[27,28] Anakinra, an IL-1 receptor antagonist recombinant is found effective in improving clinical symptoms like respiratory distress in 72% cases.^[27,28] Levels of IL-1 had also been reported high in AD patients.^[29] Impaired long-term potentiation and consolidation of memory and learning processes had been associated with increased IL-1 level.^[30] Injection of IL-1 β shows increased A β and NFT production in rat brain.^[31] And also blocking of IL-1 had been found AD ameliorating.^[32]

GAL-9

Gal-9 is a β -galactoside-binding protein it include immune reaction regulation. Its increased production had been associated with viral infection in the lung.^[33] The therapeutic strategies include suppressing Gal-9 production in COVID-19 pandemic.^[34] Gal-9 in the CNS had been reported to be a facilitator of oligodendrocyte maturation and myelin repair mechanism.^[35] Increased level of serum Gal-3 had been shown in AD patients.^[36] Galectin-3 is a promoter of A β oligomerization and toxicity in AD animal models.^[37] Galectin-3 is also an inflammatory marker whose modulation are promising in COVID-19 and AD therapeutics.

ApoE4 Allele

Apolipoprotein E in the central nervous system (CNS) is the main carrier of cholesterol and also an important constituent of very low-density lipoproteins (VLDL). The three alleles are ϵ 2, ϵ 3, and ϵ 4 which carry the ϵ 4 allele are at a high risk of developing AD as the ApoE ϵ 4 or ϵ 4 genotype increases fibrinogenesis in the brains of Alzheimer's disease patients.^[41] ApoE4 has reported in cerebral hemodynamics such as leakage of the blood-brain barrier and

cerebral amyloid angiopathy.^[41] APOE4 is a marker increasing COVID-19 severity.^[42,43] AD patients carrying the APOE4 allele are at a high risk of developing COVID-19.

ACE2 Upregulation

Ten times elevate expression of ACE2 gene, SARS-CoV-2 binding protein for cell entry, had been found in the brain tissues of the AD subject compared with those of their age-matched non-AD individuals.^[44] AD patients are at a high risk of COVID-19 comorbidity.

Nitric oxide level

Nitric oxide (NO) is an endothelium-derived relaxing factor and a neurotransmitter, plays an important role in memory and learning process and thus aids in maintaining behavioral and cognitive normalcy.^[45] SARS-CoV-2, binding with the vasoconstrictor type 1 angiotensin II receptor (AT1R) which is overexpressed on ACE2, might lower NO production on cerebral neurons. As COVID-19 patients would become much vulnerable to behavioral and cognitive decline, the manifestations of AD.^[46]

Cross-talk Between AD and COVID-19

Not only to the above mentioned similarity, there exists some disparity-oriented discourse between AD and COVID-19^[67] For example, headache, cough, and seizures are common features of COVID-19 but not of AD Some other contrasting features may also be seen.

Age

Older people are at a higher risk of having both AD and COVID-19.^[68] But, for patients aged over 80 years, further ageing is not a risk factor for COVID-19, rather for dementia and AD.^[68] On the other hand, AD susceptibility usually begins on or after 60 years of age and as aging advances, the AD become worse.^[69] Increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), exacerbate amyloid beta, aggregate and neurodegeneration, perturbed proteostasis, cardiovascular diseases (CVD), diabetes, hypertension, and lifestyle modification had been implicated in AD pathogenesis of the aged persons.^[69]

Sex

Compared with females, males had been found much increased in COVID-19 fatality.^[70] Increased ACE2 level may have effect on testosterone on ACE2, imbalance among ACE2 products (Ang 1–7, Ang 1–9), and dire onslaught of cytokine storm are among the possible factors affects men much than that of women.^[70] Thus, manipulation of ACE2 expression

through sex hormone modulators seems penetrate in treating COVID-19. The estrogen and testosterone levels had been found neuroprotective and amyloid beta-clearing agents.^[71] In females AD patients 80 years older, brain levels of androgen and estrogen had been found lower than their age-matched non-AD counterpart.^[72] In case of normal and AD male the level of androgen and testosterone had been observed as aging progresses over 70 years.^[72, 73] The sex hormone level contribute to the AD or COVID-19 in men and women. Keeping pace with this fact, treatment strategies might be formulated to sex hormone levels in many patients.

Treatments on covid-19 and AD

AD and COVID-19 differ in their pattern. AD is caused by deposition of A β or NFT abnormally a higher levels. The treatment strategies against AD focus mainly on A β production and its its clearance.^[74] COVID-19 is caused by SARS-CoV-2 by entering into host cell cause inflammatory, respiratory, cardiovascular, CNS, and psychological complications. Thus, COVID-19 treatment strategies include impede viral entry, viral replication, and subsequent symptom amelioration. In this SARS-CoV-2-directed drugs likeremdesivir, lopinavir, host-targeting agents such as ACE or ACE2 receptor inhibitor, angiotensin receptor blockers (ARB), and immunomodulators such as inhibitors to IL-6 and IL-1, and plasma therapy had been in practiced globally.^[75]

CONCLUSION

In the recent COVID-19 disease the long-term consequences have been shaking the healthcare professionals globally. Alzheimer's disease stands among the top-notch on recent COVID-19 pandemic. Etiological and physiological factors described in this review would make us understand the strategy of therapeutic algorithm against both COVID-19 and AD. We must understand that we have depend on only the data available recently and we must look towards future data from the scientific community to hold back the global crises like COVID-19 and AD.

REFERENCE

1. Desforges M, Le Coupanec A, Dubeau P Human coronaviruses and other respiratory viruses: underestimated opportunistic pathogens of the central nervous system? *Viruses*, 2019; 12(1): 14.
2. Asadi-Pooya AA, Simani L Central nervous system manifestations of COVID-19: a systematic review. *J Neurol Sci*, 2020; 413: 116832.

3. Mao L, Jin H, Wang M Neurologic manifestations of hospitalized patients with coronavirus disease 2019 in Wuhan, China. *JAMA Neurol*, 2020; 77(6): 1–9.
4. Fotuhi M, Mian A, Meysami S, Raji CA Neurobiology of COVID-19. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2020; 76(1): 3–19.
5. Hardy JA, Higgins GA Alzheimer's disease: the amyloid cascade hypothesis. *Science*, 1992; 256(5054): 184–1856.
6. Baig AM, Khaleeq A, Ali U, Syeda H Evidence of the COVID-19 virus targeting the CNS: tissue distribution, host-virus interaction, and proposed neurotropic mechanisms. *ACS Chem Neurosci*, 2020; 11(7): 995–998.
7. Li YC, Bai WZ, Hashikawa T The neuroinvasive potential of SARS-CoV2 may play a role in the respiratory failure of COVID-19 patients. *J Med Virol*, 2020; 92(6): 552–555.
8. Wrapp D, Wang N, Corbett KS Cryo-EM structure of the 2019-nCoV spike in the prefusion conformation. *Science*, 2020; 367(6483): 1260–1263.
9. Bridwell R, Long B, Gottlieb M Neurologic complications of COVID-19. *Am J Emerg Med*, 2020; 38(7): 1549.e3–1549.e7.
10. Sheraton M, Deo N, Kashyap R A review of neurological complications of COVID-19. *Cureus*, 2020; 12(5): e8192.
11. Steardo L, Steardo L Jr, Zorec R, Verkhatsky A Neuroinfection may contribute to pathophysiology and clinical manifestations of COVID-19. *Acta Physiol (Oxford)*, 2020; 229(3): e13473.
12. Wu Y, Xu X, Chen Z Nervous system involvement after infection with COVID-19 and other coronaviruses. *Brain Behav Immun*, 2020; 87: 18–22.
13. Kabbani N, Olds JL Does COVID19 infect the brain? If so, smokers might be at a higher risk. *Mol Pharmacol*, 2020; 97(5): 351–353.
14. Whittaker A, Anson M, Harky A Neurological manifestations of COVID-19: a systematic review and current update. *Acta Neurol Scand*, 2020; 142(1): 14–22.
15. Hartung H, Aktas O COVID-19 and management of neuroimmunological disorders. *Nat Rev Neurol*, 2020; 16: 347–348.
16. Varatharaj A, Thomas N, Ellul MA Neurological and neuropsychiatric complications of COVID-19 in 153 patients: a UK-wide surveillance study. *Lancet Psychiatry S*, 2020; 2215-0366(20): 30287–3028X.
17. Lahiri D, Ardila A COVID-19 pandemic: a neurological perspective. *Cureus*, 2020; 12(4): e7889.

18. Cojocaru IM, Cojocaru M, Miu G, Sapira V Study of interleukin-6 production in Alzheimer's disease. *Rom J Intern Med*, 2011; 49(1): 55–58.
19. Readhead B, Haure-Mirande JV, Funk CC, Richards MA, Shannon P, Haroutunian V, et al. Multiscale analysis of independent Alzheimer's cohorts finds disruption of molecular, genetic, and clinical networks by human Herpesvirus. *Neuron*, 2018; 99(1): 64–82 e7.
20. Mancuso R, Sicurella M, Agostini S, Marconi P, Clerici M. Herpes simplex virus type 1 and Alzheimer's disease: link and potential impact on treatment. *Expert Rev Anti-Infect Ther*, 2019; 17(9): 715–31.
21. Harris SA, Harris EA. Herpes simplex virus type 1 and other pathogens are key causative factors in sporadic Alzheimer's disease. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2015; 48(2): 319–53.
22. Wang H, Luo S, Shen Y, Li M Multiple enzyme release, inflammation storm and hypercoagulability are prominent indicators for disease progression in COVID-19: a multi-centered, correlation study with CT imaging score, 2020.
23. Ulhaq ZS, Soraya GV Interleukin-6 as a potential biomarker of COVID-19 progression. *Med Mal Infect*, 2020; 50(4): 382–383.
24. Patel H, Ashton NJ, Dobson RJ, Anderson LM Proteomic blood profiling in mild, severe and critical COVID-19 patients. *MedRxiv*, 2020.
25. Zhang C, Wu Z, Li J-W, Zhao H, Wang G-Q The cytokine release syndrome (CRS) of severe COVID-19 and interleukin-6 receptor (IL-6R) antagonist tocilizumab may be the key to reduce the mortality. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*, 2020; 55(5): 105954.6.
26. Hüll M, Fiebich BL, Lieb K, Strauss S Interleukin-6-associated inflammatory processes in Alzheimer's disease: new therapeutic options. *Neurobiol Aging*, 1996; 17(5): 795–800. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0197-4580\(96\)00107](https://doi.org/10.1016/0197-4580(96)00107).
27. Raphaël C, Marie K, David D, Cécile M Early IL-1 receptor blockade in severe inflammatory respiratory failure complicating COVID-19. *PNAS*, 2020; 117(32): 18951–18953.
28. Cavalli G, De Luca G, Campochiaro C Interleukin-1 blockade with high-dose anakinra in patients with COVID-19, acute respiratory distress syndrome, and hyperinflammation: a retrospective cohort study. *Lancet Rheumatol*, 2020; 2: e325–e331.
29. Griffin WS, Stanley LC, Ling C, White L Brain interleukin 1 and S-100 immunoreactivity are elevated in Down syndrome and Alzheimer disease. *PNAS*, 1989; 86(19): 7611–761.

30. Pugh RC, Fleshner M, Watkins LR, Maier SF, Rudy JW The immune system and memory consolidation: a role for the cytokine IL-1 β . *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*, 2001; 25(1): 29–41.
31. Sheng JG, Ito K, Skinner RD, Mrak RE, Rovnaghi CR, Van Eldik LJ, Griffin WS In vivo and in vitro evidence supporting a role for the inflammatory cytokine interleukin-1 as a driving force in Alzheimer pathogenesis. *Neurobiol Aging*, 1996; 17(5): 761–766.
32. Depino AM, Alonso M, Ferrari C, del Rey A, Anthony D Learning modulation by endogenous hippocampal IL-1: blockade of endogenous IL-1 facilitates memory formation. *Hippocampus*, 2004; 14(4): 526–535.
33. Lu X, McCoy KS, Xu J, Hu W Galectin-9 ameliorates respiratory syncytial virus-induced pulmonary immunopathology through regulating the balance between Th17 and regulatory T cells. *Virus Res*, 2015; 195: 162–171.
34. Caniglia JL, Guda MR, Asuthkar S A potential role for galectin-3 inhibitors in the treatment of COVID-19. *Peer J*, 2020; 8: e9392.
35. Rinaldi M, Thomas L, Mathieu P, Carabias P Galectin-1 circumvents lysolecithin-induced demyelination through the modulation of microglial polarization/phagocytosis and oligodendroglial differentiation. *Neurobiol Dis*, 2016.
36. Wang X, Zhang S, Lin F, Chu W, Yue S Elevated galectin-3 levels in the serum of patients with Alzheimer's disease. *Am J Alzheimers Dis Other*, 2015; 30(8): 729–732.
37. Tao CC, Cheng KM, Ma YL, Hsu WL Galectin-3 promotes A β oligomerization and A β toxicity in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *Cell Death Differ*, 2020; 27(1): 192–209.
38. Cancino GI, Yiu AP, Fatt MP, Dugani CB p63 regulates adult neural precursor and newly born neuron survival to control hippocampal-dependent behavior. *J Neurosci*, 2013; 33(31): 12569–12585.
39. Kazi AS, Tao JQ, Feinstein SI, Zhang L, Fisher AB, Bates SR Role of the PI3-kinase signaling pathway in trafficking of the surfactant protein A receptor P63 (CKAP4) on type II pneumocytes. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol*, 2010; 299(6): L794–L807.
40. Yanagita K, Nagashio R, Jiang SX, Kuchitsu Y Cytoskeleton-associated protein 4 is a novel serodiagnostic marker for lung cancer. *Am J Pathol*, 2018; 188(6): 1328–1333.
41. Hultman K, Strickland S, Norris EH The APOE ϵ 4/ ϵ 4 genotype potentiates vascular fibrin(ogen) deposition in amyloid-laden vessels in the brains of Alzheimer's disease patients. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*, 2013; 33(8).

42. Beerli MS, Rapp M, Silverman JM, Schmeidler J Coronary artery disease is associated with Alzheimer disease neuropathology in APOE4 carriers. *Neurology*, 2006; 66(9): 1399–1404.
43. Kuo CL, Pilling LC, Atkins JL, Masoli J APOEε4 genotype predicts severe COVID-19 in the UK Biobank community cohort. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*, 2020; 131: 2231–2232.
44. Lim KH, Yang S, Kim SH, Joo JY Elevation of ACE2 as a SARS-CoV-2 entry receptor gene expression in Alzheimer's disease. *J Inf Secur*, 2020; 81(3): e33–e34.
45. Susswein AJ, Katzoff A, Miller N, Hurwitz I Nitric oxide and memory. *Neuroscientist*, 2004; 10: 153–157.
46. Alkeridy WA, Almaghlouth I, Alrashed R A unique presentation of delirium in a patient with otherwise asymptomatic COVID-19. *J Am Geriatr Soc*, 2020; 10: 1111–1384.
47. Stanciu GD, Luca A, Rusu RN (2019) Alzheimer's disease pharmacotherapy in relation to cholinergic system involvement. *Biomolecules*, 2019; 10(1): 40.
48. Farhat SM, Ahmed T Neuroprotective and neurotoxic implications of $\alpha 7$ nicotinic acetylcholine receptor and A β interaction: therapeutic options in Alzheimer's disease. *Curr Drug Targets*, 2017; 18(13): 1537–1544.
49. Sharma K Cholinesterase inhibitors as Alzheimer's therapeutics (review). *Mol Med Rep*, 2019; 20(2): 1479–1487.
50. Hampel H, Mesulam MM, Cuello AC Revisiting the cholinergic hypothesis in Alzheimer's disease: emerging evidence from translational and clinical research. *J Prev Alzheimers Dis*, 2019; 6(1): 2–15.
51. Hoover DB Cholinergic modulation of the immune system presents new approaches for treating inflammation. *Pharmacol Ther*, 2017; 179: 1–16.
52. Gowayed MA, Refaat R, Ahmed WM, El-Abhar HS Effect of galantamine on adjuvant-induced arthritis in rats. *Eur J Pharmacol*, 2015; 764: 547–553.
53. Ulloa L The vagus nerve and the nicotinic anti-inflammatory pathway. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*, 2005; 4: 673–684.
54. Changeux JP, Amoura Z, Rey FA, Miyara M A nicotinic hypothesis for Covid-19 with preventive and therapeutic implications. *C R Biol*, 2020; 343(1): 33–39. Published 2020 Jun 5.
55. Farsalinos K, Niaura R, Le Houezec J, Barbouni A, Tsatsakis A, Kouretas D, Vantarakis A, Poulas K Editorial: nicotine and SARS-CoV-2: COVID-19 may be a disease of the nicotinic cholinergic system. *Toxicol Rep*, 2020; 7: 658–663.

56. Ferreira-Vieira TH, Guimaraes IM, Silva FR, Ribeiro FM Alzheimer's disease: targeting the cholinergic system. *Curr Neuropharmacol*, 2016; 14(1): 101–115.
57. Whitehouse PJ, Price DL, Struble RG, Clark AW, Coyle JT, Delon MR Alzheimer's disease and senile dementia: loss of neurons in the basal forebrain. *Science*, 1982; 215: 1237–1239.
58. Ramos-Rodriguez JJ, Pacheco-Herrero M, Thyssen D, Murillo-Carretero MI, Berrocoso E, Spires-Jones TL Rapid b-amyloid deposition and cognitive impairment after cholinergic denervation in APP/PS1 mice. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol*, 2013.
59. Mori F, Lai CC, Fusi F, Giacobini E Cholinesterase inhibitors increase secretion of APPs in rat brain cortex. *Neuroreport*, 1995; 6: 633–636.
60. Hampel H, Mesulam MM, Cuello AC The cholinergic system in the pathophysiology and treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *Brain*, 2018; 141(7): 1917–1933.
61. Naughton SX, Raval U, Pasinetti GM Potential novel role of COVID-19 in Alzheimer's disease and preventative mitigation strategies. *J Alzheimers Dis*, 2020; 76(1): 21–25.
62. Moein ST, Hashemian SM, Mansourafshar B, Khorram-Tousi A, Tabarsi P, Doty RL Smell dysfunction: a biomarker for COVID-19. *Int Forum Allergy Rhinol*, 2020; 10(8): 944–950.
63. Burns A Might olfactory dysfunction be a marker of early Alzheimer's disease? *Lancet*, 2000; 355: 84–85.
64. Han AY, Mukdad L, Long JL, Lopez IA Anosmia in COVID-19: mechanisms and significance. *Chem Senses*, 2020; 45(6): 423–428.
65. Equils O, Lekaj K, Fattani S, Wu A, Liu G Proposed mechanism for anosmia during COVID-19: the role of local zinc distribution. *J Translan Sci*, 2020; 7: 1–2.
66. Brewer GJ, Kanzer SH, Zimmerman EA, Molho ES, Celmins DF, Heckman SM, Dick R Subclinical zinc deficiency in Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease. *Am J Alzheimers Dis Other Dement*, 2010; 25(7): 572–575.
67. Gold MS, Sehayek D, Gabrielli S, Zhang X, McCusker C, Ben-Shoshan M COVID-19 and comorbidities: a systematic review and meta-analysis [published online ahead of print, 2020 Jul 14]. *Postgrad Med*, 2020; 1–7.
68. Covino M, De Matteis G, Santoro M et al Clinical characteristics and prognostic factors in COVID-19 patients aged ≥ 80 years. *Geriatr Gerontol Int*, 2020; 20(7): 704–708.
69. Xia X, Jiang Q, McDermott J, Han JJ Aging and Alzheimer's disease: comparison and associations from molecular to system level. *Aging Cell*, 2018; 17(5): e12802.

70. Maleki Dana P, Sadoughi F, Hallajzadeh J, Asemi Z, Mansournia MA, Yousefi B, Momen-Heravi M An insight into the sex differences in COVID-19 patients: what are the possible causes? *Prehosp Disaster Med*, 2020; 35(4): 438–441.
71. Elgendy IY, Pepine CJ Why are women better protected from COVID-19: clues for men? Sex and COVID-19. *Int J Cardiol*, 2020; 315: 105–106.
72. Pike CJ Sex and the development of Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurosci Res*, 2017; 95(1–2): 671–680.
73. Mielke MM, Ferretti MT, Iulita MF, Hayden K, Khachaturian AS Sex and gender in Alzheimer's disease - does it matter? *Alzheimers Dement*, 2018; 14(9): 1101–1109.
74. Lane CA, Hardy J, Schott JM Alzheimer's disease. *Eur J Neurol*, 2018; 25(1): 59–70.
75. Jamshaid H, Zahid F, Din IU et al (2020) Diagnostic and treatment strategies for COVID-19. *AAPS PharmSciTech*, 2020; 21(6): 222.