

1 Review


2 Are Nutraceuticals Effective in COVID-19 and Post-COVID 3 Prevention and Treatment?

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21 **Abstract:** The beginning of the end or the end of the beginning? After two years mastered by
22 COVID-19 pandemic, we are now witnessing a turnaround. The reduction of severe cases and
23 deaths from COVID-19 has led to an increasing importance of a new disease called post-COVID
24 syndrome. Post-COVID is the term used to denote persistence of symptoms in those who have re-
25 covered from SARS-CoV-2 infection. Immune, antiviral, antimicrobial therapies, as well as ozone
26 therapy, have been used to treat COVID-19 disease. Vaccines have then become available and ad-
27 ministered worldwide to prevent the resurgence of the disease. However, the pandemic is not over
28 yet at all, given the emergence of new omicron variants. New therapeutic strategies are urgently
needed. In this view, great interest was found in nutraceutical products, including vitamins (C, D
and E), minerals (zinc), melatonin, probiotics, flavonoids (quercetin) and curcumin. This review
summarizes the role of nutraceuticals for the prevention and/or treatment of COVID-19 disease and
post-COVID syndrome.

21 **Keywords:** post-COVID; Long-COVID; COVID-19; nutraceuticals; nano-nutraceuticals
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1. Introduction

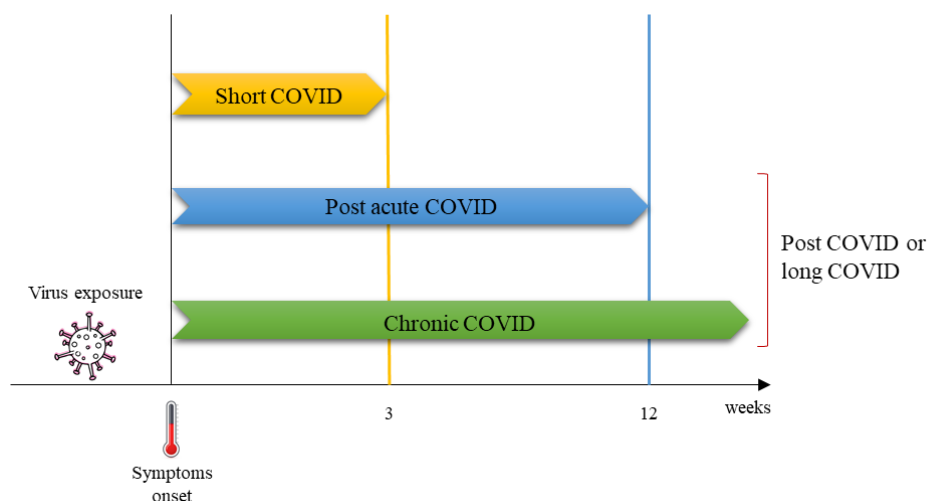
COVID-19, namely Coronavirus Disease, is today’s most infectious disease caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). The virus is an enveloped, single-stranded, positive-sense ribonucleic acid (RNA) viruses and belongs to the family Coronaviridae (subfamily Coronavirinae) [1]. It was first detected on 12 December 2019 in Wuhan City, Hubei Province, China [2]. Since then, it quickly spread to other countries round the world, becoming a threat to global health [3]. The pandemic breakout has attained worrisome proportions, stunning national healthcare systems into inaction and necessitating worldwide deployment. Its alarmingly quick transmission and a considerable percentage of morbidity and mortality made the World Health Organization recognize it as a pandemic on March 11, 2020 [4]. Globally, on 5 Aug 2022, there have been 579.092.623 confirmed cases of COVID-19, including 6.407.556 deaths, reported to WHO.

As of 2 Aug 2022, a total of 12,308,330,588 vaccine doses have been administered [5]. COVID-19 is now recognized as a multi-organ disease with a broad spectrum of manifestations. The first variants of COVID-19 [6] led to fever, dry cough, fatigue, and myalgia, and for some, bacterial superinfection in most case of COVID-19 patients. In severe cases, symptoms progress to COVID-19-associated acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) and respiratory failure requiring intensive care unit (ICU)-level care. After the COVID-19 era, that is not finished at all yet [7], with new variants emerging (including BA.4 and BA.5 omicron) [8,9], we have now entered the post-COVID era. Fortunately, today in most cases, COVID-19 has become very similar to a flu-like illness. Mainly, the hassle of quarantine remains, as well as the fear of infecting weak people, with previous pathologies (or diseases) or people who are not vaccinated. What worries the most is what will happen next, indeed a lot of the individuals, recovered from COVID-19, have developed persistent or new symptoms lasting weeks or months, a condition that is called “Post-COVID syndrome” [10]. The number of people suffering from symptoms after SARS-CoV-2 infection is dramatically increasing. They report a myriad of symptoms affecting different systems: neurocognitive post-COVID (brain fog, dizziness, loss of attention, confusion), autonomic post-COVID (chest pain, tachycardia, palpitations) [11], gastrointestinal post-COVID (diarrhea, abdominal pain, vomiting), respiratory post-COVID (general fatigue, dyspnea, cough, throat pain), musculoskeletal post-COVID (myalgias, arthralgias), psychological-related post-COVID (post-traumatic stress disorder, anxiety, depression, insomnia), and other manifestations (ageusia, anosmia, parosmia, skin rashes) [12]. Post-COVID syndrome is increasingly recognized as new clinical entity in the context of SARS-CoV-2 infection and has been defined a second pandemic [13]. This disease is not easy to study, since symptoms usually seen in post-COVID can also be present in the general population that has been exposed to other infectious agents or to a catastrophic situation, like the current pandemic, and be mostly related to lockdown, unemployment, anxiety, fear, social alarm, or others. Furthermore, in most cases it is very difficult to trace the variant responsible of the onset of the disease, also because the post-COVID syndrome becomes evident after some time, even long after the disease has ended. Thus, it is difficult to decide if “possible” and “probable” cases must be considered as post-COVID symptoms. Moreover, post-COVID syndrome may differ on the basis of the variant of COVID-19 that has determined the disease. Fortunately, the prevalence of post omicron COVID-19 condition is lower than that of the other strains [14]. Given the number and heterogeneity of symptoms attributable to post COVID and the emergence of new variants, including the most recent BA.4 and BA.5 [15], several studies are still addressed to the prevention and treatment these diseases. Regarding post-COVID syndrome, the first variants usually led to pneumonia-pulmonary fibrosis in post-COVID patients [16]. Now, post-COVID patients complain asthenia, general fatigue, dyspnea, and weakness. Currently, several vaccines and drugs are being evaluated for the prevention and treatment of COVID-19 [17,18]. New therapeutic strategies have also been suggested, including repurposing [19,20] and several effective treatment research trials are currently underway. Other developing non-traditional drug development methods include physical exercise [21], yoga and meditation [22], faster and less expensive methodologies to discover new effective anti-SARS-CoV-2 medicines. Nutraceuticals have a proven ability of immune-boosting, antiviral, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory effects [23]. These include Zn, vitamin D, vitamin C, curcumin, cinnamaldehyde, probiotics, selenium, lactoferrin, quercetin, and others [24]. Therefore, their use provides possible alternative prophylactic and therapeutic support along with standard therapies for COVID-19 in adults and children [25–27]. Moreover, dietary habits and lifestyle changes may influence the course of the disease [28,29]. The aim of this review is to examine the role of nutraceuticals, prebiotics and probiotics and diet supplementation in the prevention and treatment of SARS-CoV-2 viral infection and post-COVID syndrome.

2. Post-COVID syndrome

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Currently, there is no universally accepted definition of post-COVID syndrome. It was defined for the first time by Greenhalgh et al. [30] as COVID-19 associated illness extending for more than three weeks after the onset of symptoms, and chronic COVID-19 as persistent symptoms extending beyond 12 weeks after the onset of symptoms [31]. Depending upon the duration of symptoms, post COVID or long COVID was divided into two stages-post acute COVID where symptoms extend to more than 3 weeks, but less than 12 weeks, and chronic COVID where symptoms extend beyond 12 weeks (Figure 1) [30].

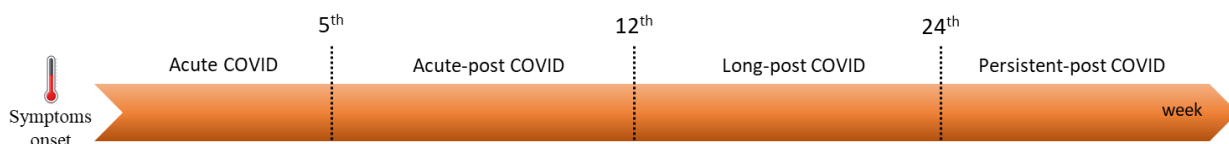


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Figure 1. First classification of post-COVID [30].

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Then, several studies reported new terms, such as Long-COVID, Long Haulers and Chronic- COVID: thus, a new classification was needed [32]. An integrative classification of post-COVID symptoms was proposed, which lasted to more than 24 weeks, and is: Post-Acute COVID (symptoms from week 5 to week 12), Long post-COVID (symptoms from week 12 to week 24) and Persistent Post-COVID (symptoms lasting more than 24 weeks) (Figure 2).



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Figure 2. Classification of post-COVID as reported by Fernandez-de-Las-Penas et al. [12]

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The definition of “Long-COVID” is not always the same. The terms “Post-COVID syndrome”, “Long COVID” or “Long Haulers” are sometimes used interchangeably to mean the same thing [33,34]. However, this is not exactly true. In most cases, Long-COVID is used to mean post-acute COVID [35], or post-acute sequelae of COVID-19, a condition characterized by the persistence of COVID-19 symptoms beyond 3 months [36]. However, some authors use the term “Long COVID” to indicate symptoms extending beyond 12 weeks from initial symptoms, which is chronic COVID-19 [37]. In our opinion, it is better to refer to the classification of post-COVID to avoid mistakes.

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3. Nutraceuticals and dietary supplements against COVID-19 disease and post-COVID syndrome

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The term nutraceutical is a combined terminology for nutrition and pharmaceuticals that popularly reflects the food or its part that has medicinal benefits on health. Nutraceuticals comprise active phytochemicals isolated from plants, dietary supplements, and

functional foods with medicinal properties [38,39]. Nutraceuticals have numerous advantages over synthetic drugs, as they are generally easily accessible and have negligible side effects if administered at the already used and tested dosages. Nutraceuticals include “immune boosting” foods and nutrients, which are those that can regulate the immune system, as zinc, vitamins, curcumin, resveratrol and selenium [40]. Considering COVID-19, where there is a lack of effective preventive and curative drugs available and where the mutants of the SARS-CoV-2 spread enormously affecting a great number of populations, one of the crucial weapons is a robust immune system. The most common therapies for COVID-19 are represented by antiviral agents, antimicrobials, anti-inflammatories, immunomodulators, angiotensin II receptor blockers, bradykinin B2 receptor antagonists and corticosteroids [41]. Along with conventional treatment strategies, the additional use of nutraceuticals has been considered possibly beneficial in the treatment and/or prevention of COVID-19 and post-COVID-19 [42–47]. Higher age, obesity, weakened immune system, and underlying diseases such as diabetes mellitus are the known risk factors associated with COVID-19 disease severity [48]. For these reasons, the role of nutraceuticals, probiotics, and supplements in reducing the risk of SARS-CoV-2 infection or mitigating the symptoms of COVID-19 has been widely investigated [49]. The use of nutraceuticals for COVID-19 has been often studied in relation to their interaction with angiotensin-2 converting enzyme (ACE2), the functional receptor of SARS-CoV-2 [50]. The binding between SARS-CoV-2 spike glycoprotein with ACE2 receptor leads to ACE2 downregulation and the resulting enhance in the level of angiotensin-2 (Ang II) and augmentation of Ang II/Ang II receptor type 1 (AT1R) axis activation that are associated with proinflammatory responses [51]. Consequently, natural compounds that can reduce the ACE2 activity may be useful in the treatment of the patients with COVID-19. SARS-CoV-2 utilizes its spike glycoprotein which has a homotrimeric structure to enter the host cells. This spike glycoprotein receptor-binding domain (RBD) interacts with the ACE 2 on the host cells. The recent Omicron variant has caused great concern with 32 mutations in the spike glycoprotein including unprecedented 15 mutations in the RBD [52]. Numerous molecular modeling docking studies on natural compounds have been carried out to assess their anti-ACE2 activity through their ability to prevent RBD–ACE2 interaction [53–55]. Laboratory and clinical data support the possible benefits that some bacterial and molecular products may exert on the immune response to respiratory viruses and their regulatory role in systemic inflammation or endothelial damage, which represent two crucial aspects of COVID-19 [56]. In this regard, the use of probiotics, prebiotics, and postbiotics has been also studied in the fight against SARS-CoV-2 infection [57]. There is clinical evidence that modulation of the intestinal microbiota through the use of these supplements might positively control COVID-19 progression. Some of the main findings were represented by the decrease in the duration of the disease and the severity of symptoms as fatigue, olfactory dysfunction and breathlessness, nausea and vomiting and other gastrointestinal symptoms of COVID-19 disease [58]. Vitamin C, vitamin D and vitamin E, flavonoids, prebiotics, probiotics, zinc and melatonin are the principal dietary supplements that are currently being evaluated for their use in COVID-19 [59]. Moreover, recent studies showed that the administration of high doses of the vitamins C, D, and E, in addition to omega-3 fatty acids and zinc may potentially have a clinical benefit for hospitalized patients [60]. Due to their immunomodulatory and antioxidant effects, these supplements may reduce the viral load, the disease severity, and hence the hospital stay. Moreover, the lack of these nutritional substances is associated with higher susceptibility to infections and dysfunction of the immune system. However, there are no explicit randomized controlled trials (RCTs) on the role of vitamin supplementation in the context of COVID-19 infection, neither in the prevention nor in the treatment. Therefore, clinical trials are needed to confirm the role these dietary supplements may have for COVID-19 prevention and treatment [61,62]. The use of nutraceuticals in post-COVID syndrome is currently under study. Several reports are described in adults [63,64], older [65] and children [66,67], for different

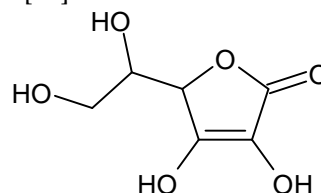
182 symptoms, also including olfactory loss [68], telogen effluvium [69], depression and anx-
183 iety [70].

185 3.1. Vitamins

186 Vitamins are micronutrients that perform an essential role in the proper structuring
187 and functioning of proteins as well as in several physiological processes and signaling
188 pathways in the body. The term “micronutrients” refers to the fact that these nutrients are
189 required in small, usually microgram, amounts daily. However, in critical illness, the re-
190 quirements for these micronutrients can increase significantly [71]. Their usefulness in
191 COVID-19 patients has been demonstrated and recent studies are addressed to the inves-
192 tigation of their mechanism of action [72].

194 3.1.1. Vitamin C

195 Vitamin C, also known as ascorbic acid (Figure 3), is a powerful molecule with plei-
196 otropic functions. It has been demonstrated to play an important part in immune function;
197 it serves as antioxidant, antiviral, anticancer and exerts antithrombotic effects among
198 many other physiological benefits [73].



199
200 **Figure 3.** Structure of vitamin C

201 At pharmacological doses, vitamin C may be beneficial to patients affected by
202 CARDS and other respiratory illnesses. In addition, high-dose intravenous vitamin C
203 (HDIVC) may be beneficial in patients with different viral diseases [74]. Vitamin C exerts
204 its antiviral properties by supporting lymphocyte activity, increasing interferon- α pro-
205 duction, modulating cytokines, reducing inflammation, improving endothelial dysfunc-
206 tion, and restoring mitochondrial function. High dose of vitamin C has the potential to
207 have a virucidal effect since it inhibits viral growth when multiplied *in vitro* [75]. Current
208 evidence describes the possible use of vitamin C in the prevention or treatment of patients
209 with SARS-CoV-2 infection [76,77]. Its use has been suggested used as a primary preven-
210 tative measure for susceptible populations such as the elderly, those suffering from
211 comorbidities, and healthcare workers with higher exposure risks [78]. Vitamin C can sup-
212 press the cytokine storm, reduce oxidative stress, decrease inflammation, prevent throm-
213 botic complications, and diminish alveolar and vascular damage [79]. However, the neg-
214 ative effect of vitamin C is that it can result in urinary stones or nephropathies [80]. The
215 recently reported randomized trial in sepsis demonstrated poorer outcome in those pa-
216 tients receiving vitamin C [81]. Other studies are ongoing, or have recently finished, to
217 evaluate the use of vitamin C in the treatment of COVID-19 (Table 1). A double-blind RCT
218 by Majidi et al. (2021) [48] evaluated the effect of vitamin C supplementation on the bio-
219 chemical and pathological parameters and survival duration in critically ill patients with
220 COVID-19. The daily supplementation of 500 mg vitamin C for 2 weeks significantly in-
221 creased the survival duration of the COVID-19 patients during the post-supplementation
222 period. This study also demonstrated that the vitamin C supplementation had no adverse
223 effect on the kidney function, arterial blood gas parameters and other serum electrolytes
224 including sodium, calcium, and phosphorus. In one of the first RCTs, Liu et al (2020) [82]
225 had hypothesized that HDIVC could be added to the treatment of CARDS and multiorgan
226 dysfunction related to COVID-19. The authors predict that HDIVC could suppress cyto-
227 kine storms caused by COVID-19, help to improve pulmonary function and reduce mor-
228 tality for patients with COVID-19. Furthermore, HDIVC showed advantages in terms of

stability, availability, safety and cost compared with other treatments. Zhao et al. (2021) [83], in a retrospective case series study, evaluated the beneficial effects of HDIVC in patients with COVID-19 pneumonia in severe condition. Twelve patients were enrolled: six severe and six critical. All patients received high-dose intravenous vitamin C (average 163 mg/kg in severe patients), but on average, about a 10% higher dose was given to critically ill patients. Patients had significant improvements in C-reactive protein (CRP), lymphocyte count, and CD4. After HDIVC therapy, greater improvements were observed in severe patients than in critical ones. HDIVC (11 g per day average or more for a 70-kg person) was shown to be beneficial in terms of inflammatory response and immune and organ function for the treatment of COVID-19 patients. In a retrospective before-after case-matched clinical study, Zhao et al (2021) [84] studied the outcome and clinical courses of patients with moderate COVID-19 treated with an HDIVC protocol (100 mg/kg/day) for seven days from admission with a control group treated without the HDIVC. The HDIVC and control groups each comprised 55 patients. For the primary outcomes, there was a significant difference in the number of patients that evolved from moderate to severe type between the two groups. There was a substantial decrease in the number of patients in the HDIVC that evolved from moderate to severe disease ($p = 0.03$). Additionally, compared to the control group, there was a shorter duration of systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS, $p = 0.0004$) and lower SIRS occurrence ($p = 0.0086$) during the first week. A recent placebo-controlled pilot study by Zhang et al. (2021) of high dose intravenous ascorbate in 56 critically ill COVID-19 patients showed significantly reduced mortality [85]. The trial was carried out in 3 hospitals located in Hubei, China, and used a daily dose of 24 g of ascorbate. HDIVC did not affect ventilation-free days, but possibly provided a potential signal of benefit in oxygenation for critically ill patients with COVID-19, with an improvement in PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio.

Table 1. Studies regarding the use of vitamin C in the treatment of COVID-19

Dose of Vitamin C	N° of participants	Duration of Intervention	Outcome of Interest	Ref.
500 mg	120 hospitalized critically ill patients with COVID-19	14 days	a higher mean survival duration compared with that of the control group (8 vs. 4 days, $p < 0.01$)	[48]
24 g of IVC	308 adults diagnosed with COVID-19 and transferred into ICUs	7 days	ventilator-free days in the 28 days since admission to the ICU. Changes in SOFA scores, in plasma biomarkers of inflammation and in pulmonary infection.	[82]
162.7 mg/kg for severe and 178.6 mg/kg for critical patients.	12 COVID-19 patients (six severe and six critical)	3 months	improvement of CRP, body temperature, lymphocyte counts, CD4 ⁺ T cell counts, P/F and SOFA score	[84]

100 mg/kg/day and a rate of 1 g/h for 7 days recovery	55 moderate COVID- 19 patients	1 month	a shorter duration of SIRS ($P = 0.0004$); lower CRP levels ($P = 0.005$) and higher num- ber of CD4 ⁺ T cells from Day 0 (on admission) to Day 7 ($P = 0.04$)	[84]
24 g of IVC	56 critical COVID-19 patients	7 days	improvement in P/F ratio ($P = 0.01$); decline in IL- 6 ($P = 0.04$)	[84]

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3.1.2. Vitamin D

Over the last decade, the key role of vitamin D in inflammation and immunoregulation has been increasingly recognized [86]. The prognostic and therapeutic role of vitamin D in COVID-19 has been widely studied [87–89]. Recently, clinical trials and *meta*-analysis studies regarding the role of vitamin D in preventing COVID-19 infection, progression and severity, have been reported [90,91]. Vitamin D deficiency seems to aggravate COVID-19 [92]. The severity of hypovitaminosis D appears to relate to the prognosis of COVID-19 since COVID-19 cases with hypovitaminosis D were more prone to experience severe COVID-19 (relative risk 1.59 with $P = 0.02$ if vitamin D insufficiency < 30 ng/mL) [93]. Moreover, hypovitaminosis D was found to be associated with greater COVID-19 mortality risk (IRR = 1.56 with $P < 0.001$ if vitamin D deficiency; $P = 0.404$ after adjustment [94]. Vitamin D is not only a fat-soluble vitamin but also a steroid hormone, playing a vital role in modulating the immune system together with maintaining serum calcium homeostasis [95]. Vitamin D can be derived from supplements in the form of vitamin D2 (ergocalciferol) or D3 (cholecalciferol) (Figure 4). Sun exposure remains the main source of vitamin D, whereby skin exposure to ultraviolet B (UVB) radiation results in the conversion to its hydroxylated metabolites, through the activity of specific hydroxylases. Among these, calcifediol (25-hydroxyvitamin D3) and calcitriol (1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3) are the immunologically active forms.

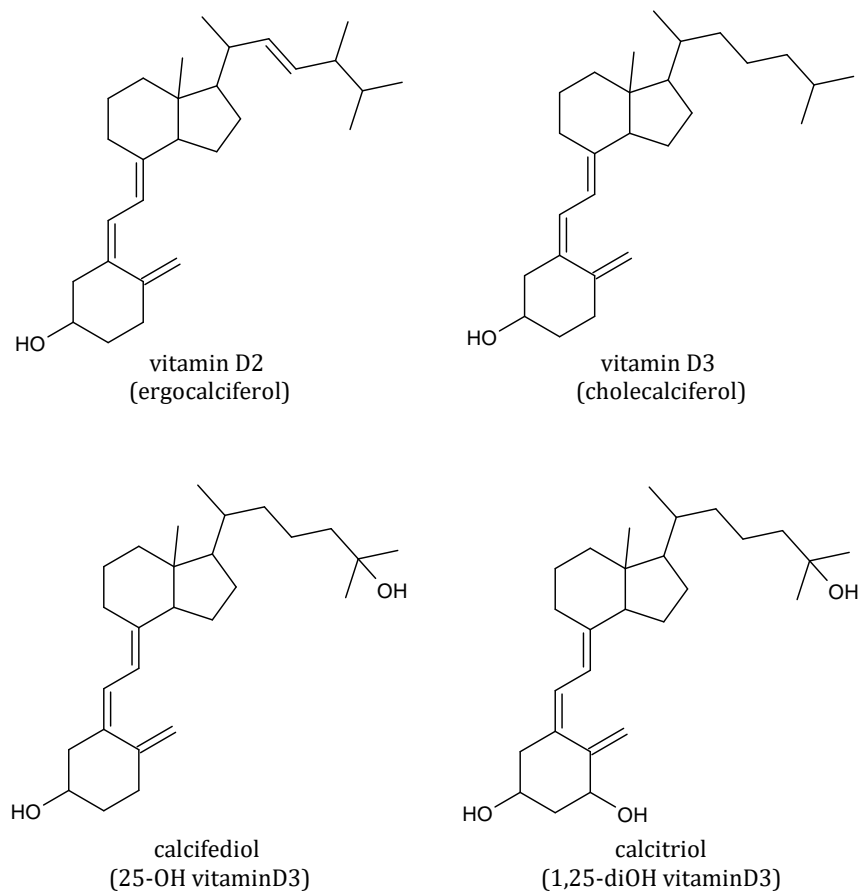


Figure 4. Structures of vitamin D2, D3 and its main metabolites

By binding to the vitamin D response elements (VDRE) located in the promoter region of various genes, it may prevent COVID-19 adverse outcomes by regulating the renin-angiotensin system (RAS), the innate and adaptive cellular immunity, the physical barriers, and the host frailty and comorbidities. First, vitamin D reduces pulmonary permeability in animal models of CARDS by modulating the activity of RAS and the expression of the ACE2 [96]. SARS-CoV-2 infection downregulates ACE2 activity and accumulates toxic Ang II and metabolites, which subsequently develop into CARDS or fulminant myocarditis. Vitamin D mitigates lipoprotein (LPS)-induced acute lung injury by inducing the ACE2/Ang 1–7 axis and by suppressing both renin and the ACE/Ang II/AT1R axis [97]. Further, vitamin D modulates multiple mechanisms of the immune system to contain the virus including reduction of the entry and replication of SARS-CoV-2, decreases concentration of pro-inflammatory cytokines and increases levels of anti-inflammatory cytokines, enhances the production of natural antimicrobial peptide and activates defensive cells such as macrophages that could destroy SARS-CoV-2 [98,99]. Accordingly, there is a growing number of data showing an association between serum calcifediol and the different clinical outcomes of SARS-CoV-2 infection, particularly concerning COVID-19 related severity and mortality, as further underlined by some pilot meta-analysis studies. Since the publication of these studies, several new data have been released, that have cast some light even on the calcifediol thresholds defining vitamin D status possibly associated with the SARS-CoV-2 infection susceptibility and COVID-19 related outcomes [100]. A preliminary study that evaluated the antiviral potential of various molecules against SARS-CoV-2 documented the inhibitory effect of calcitriol on the nasal epithelium infected with the virus [101]. In addition, a study investigating the targets of SARS-CoV-2 using genomics guided tracing has also confirmed the role of vitamin D in COVID-19. Glinksky (2020) explored vitamin D as a putative repressor of ACE2 expression and found

that vitamin D appeared to inhibit ACE2 expression in human bronchial smooth muscle cells by means of the VDR and other transcription factors. Of the 332 genes coding for the prey proteins of SARS-CoV-2, vitamin D affects the expression of 84 (25%). These prey proteins carry out a host of cellular functions which are disrupted by infection. This suggests that, in addition to inhibiting the expression of ACE2, vitamin D is able to disrupt the function of 19 out of 27 (70%) SARS-CoV-2 proteins [102]. Annweiler et al. (2020) [92] hypothesized that high-dose vitamin D supplementation could improve the prognosis of COVID-19 in high-risk older patients. The first reports indicated that cases with COVID-19 had, on average, significantly lower calcifediol levels compared with negative patients (respectively, 11.1 ng/mL versus 24.6 ng/mL, $P = 0.004$) [103]. Similarly, significant inverse correlations were found in 20 European countries between the mean serum calcifediol concentrations and the number of COVID-19 cases, as well as with mortality [104]. A RCT study showed that a 5000 IU daily vitamin D3 supplementation for 2 weeks reduces the time to recovery for cough and gustatory sensory loss among patients with sub-optimal vitamin D status and mild to moderate COVID-19 symptoms. This was also seen from their decreases in BMI and IL-6 levels over time [105]. A randomized prospective open-label study in India of 87 patients with COVID-19 and hypovitaminosis D also reported that supplementing vitamin D in addition to standard care improved inflammatory markers significantly. In the patients that received 60,000 IU of daily supplemental vitamin D for eight days, levels of C-reactive protein, lactate dehydrogenase, IL-6, ferritin, as well as neutrophil to lymphocyte ratios showed significant improvement compared to patients receiving no supplements [106]. Further studies have revealed that using Vitamin D 200,000–300,000 IU bolus and then reducing to a maintenance dose, lessens the severity and risk of contracting COVID-19 [107]. The issues and morbidities associated with COVID-19, such as pneumonia/CARDS, inflammation, inflammatory cytokines, and thrombosis, can be ameliorated by vitamin D [108]. Furthermore, severe COVID-19 patients are often predisposed to bone fragility and osteoporosis, that can be related to vitamin D deficiency and altered platelet-related parameters. Thus, the association between vitamin D and PLT influencing the risk and outcome of COVID-19 disease has been studied [109]. Finally, hypovitaminosis D was found to be associated with greater COVID-19 mortality risk (IRR = 1.56 with $P < 0.001$ if vitamin D deficiency; $P = 0.404$ after adjustment) [110]. Most of the abovementioned reasons and evidence reinforce the use of supplementation with vitamin D as potential prophylaxis against COVID-19, especially considering the tolerability and excellent safety profile offered by even high doses of vitamin D. Recently, it has been speculated that vitamin D may play a complementary role in the development of vaccine efficacy [111]. Actually, vitamin D deficiency (calcifediol below 50 nmol/L) is still widespread despite its important role [112].

3.1.3. Vitamin E

Supplementation with nutrients that are a source of vitamin E has been used to control nutritional deficiencies, obesity and promote adequate nutritional status in COVID-19 patients by possibly improving immune response and antioxidant status during the infectious phase [113]. The term vitamin E refers to a class of liposoluble compounds, comprising tocopherols and tocotrienols, all presenting a hydroxylated chromanol ring attached to a hydrophobic phytyl side chain. Despite the existence of multiple tocopherol and tocotrienol vitamers, the attribute of ‘vitamin’ is only given to α -tocopherol [114]. α -TOH is a lipid-soluble antioxidant required for the preservation of cell membranes, as it acts as a defense against oxidative stress [115]. It traps reactive species generated by oxidative stress, such that its antioxidant and therapeutic properties may be applied to prevent the oxidative explosion associated with SARS-CoV-2 [116]. Even though vitamin E has very little evidence of antiviral actions, it is able to reduce inflammatory cytokine production, promote T cell proliferation and differentiation and influence inflammatory responses in different tissues, including the lungs, via direct scavenging oxidative stress and

356 modulation of oxidative eicosanoid pathways and prostaglandin synthesis [117]. Vitamin
357 E has been revealed to enhance the immune response both in animal and human models
358 through the following mechanisms: decreased production of nitrogen oxide resulting in
359 prostaglandin E2 downregulation and inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2, initiation of T-lym-
360 phocyte signals, and modulation of the Th1/Th2 balance. Furthermore, it acts as an im-
361 munomodulator through protein kinase C [118]. Investigations of antioxidant vitamins
362 effectiveness, especially vitamin E, are still ongoing as a potential treatment for COVID-
363 19 patients. Nevertheless, several studies showed immunoregulatory functions and pre-
364 ventive functions from the oxidative disruption caused by vitamin E. This has contributed
365 to its recognition as a potential supplement for COVID-19 treatment [117]. Vitamin E sup-
366 plementation at a high dose of 500 mg/kg can also act as a therapeutic drug to inhibit
367 ferroptosis, one of the central mechanisms of programmed cell death in COVID-19 pa-
368 tients, and reduce ferroptosis damage to multiple organs, including lung, kidney, liver,
369 intestine, heart and nervous system [119,120]. The use of Vitamin E has been also studied
370 in vulnerable populations such as the elderly and pregnant women, conditions in which
371 the effect of COVID-19 infection is particularly dangerous for the health [121]. In preg-
372 nancy important alterations occur in the hematological, immune, cardiovascular and res-
373 piratory systems. As COVID-19 mainly affects these systems, doctors have concerns re-
374 garding COVID-19's influence on pregnant women. In effect, COVID-19 may cause ob-
375 stetric complications like miscarriage, preterm labor, pre-eclampsia, and fetal distress
376 [122]. Increased ROS has been reported due to the production of free superoxide radicals
377 and mitochondrial activity of placental origin during pregnancy. Poorly controlled OS
378 results in the development of trophoblast dysregulation, which can lead to obstetric com-
379 plications such as hypertensive disorders and fetal growth retardation [123]. As an anti-
380 oxidant molecule, vitamin E can decrease oxidative stress (OS) during pregnancy [124]. A
381 recent study evaluated maternal serum afamin and vitamin E levels in pregnant women
382 with COVID-19 and its association with composite adverse perinatal outcomes. Afamin is
383 a specific binding pleiotropic glycoprotein for vitamin E and it is an indicator of OS. This
384 prospective, case-control study consisted of 60 pregnant women with COVID-19 infection
385 and 36 age-matched pregnant women without any defined risk factors. The study in the
386 group of women with COVID -19 showed high levels of afamin and low levels of vitamin
387 E in all trimesters of pregnancy. This suggests the increased oxidant status and consump-
388 tion of antioxidants in the etiopathogenesis of COVID-19 [125].
389

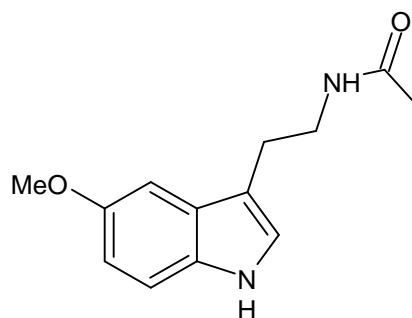
390 3.2. Zinc

391 The transition metal zinc (Zn), after iron, is the second most abundant trace metal in
392 the human body, and it is essential for multiple cellular functions, including the preser-
393 vation of immune health, playing a critical role in antiviral immunity. Zn also acts as an
394 anti-inflammatory agent and functions as an antioxidant, membrane stabilizer. Zn defi-
395 ciency can lead to immunodeficiency and severe lymphopenia, which is caused by a cor-
396 responding decrease in developing B cells in the bone marrow; furthermore, Zn potenti-
397 ates a type-I Interferon effect. Marked neutrophilia is detected in severe COVID-19 pa-
398 tients. Interestingly, coronavirus RNA polymerase activity appears to be inhibited by zinc,
399 which could confer this metal a role in preventing coronavirus entry into cells and reduc-
400 ing coronavirus virulence [126]. Due to the immunomodulatory and anti-viral properties
401 of zinc, it has the potential to be a supportive treatment in COVID-19 patients [60]. It has
402 been suggested that zinc supplementation may increase the efficacy of other treatments
403 currently under investigation such as hydroxychloroquine [127]. Furthermore, a retro-
404 spective study including 141 individuals affected by COVID-19 in the general practice
405 setting showed that zinc in combination with low-dose hydroxychloroquine was associ-
406 ated with significantly fewer hospitalizations [128]. A case series of four COVID-19 pa-
407 tients treated with high-dose zinc also showed both clinical symptomatic improvements
408 [129]. Studies have shown that zinc supplementation is able to decrease COVID-19 related

409 symptoms such as lower respiratory tract infection. These effects have been suggested to
410 be due to inhibition of viral uncoating, binding and replication, and may be relevant to
411 COVID-19. To date, there is no definitive knowledge regarding the amount of zinc that
412 may be required to have a therapeutic effect on COVID-19 patients. Factors such as the
413 presence of pre-existent zinc deficiency, the variance in zinc bioavailability caused by dif-
414 ferent formulation, dose and delivery methods, especially the issues affecting oral zinc
415 absorption, may all influence the clinical outcomes [130]. A RCT provided the first evi-
416 dence showing the safety and feasibility of intravenous zinc treatment and the ability of
417 administering high-dose intravenous zinc to reverse the acute phase zinc deficiency asso-
418 ciated with COVID-19 [131]. These findings support further investigation of this treatment
419 in larger RCTs.
420

421 3.3. Melatonin

422 Melatonin (*N*-acetyl-5-methoxytryptamine, Figure 5) is a multifunctional hormone,
423 which is secreted mostly by the pineal gland, and maximally at nighttime; its secretion is
424 extremely high in infants and adolescents, much lower in the elderly.
425



426
427 **Figure 5.** Structure of melatonin

428 Basically, this molecule helps to regulate many other hormones and maintains the
429 body's circadian rhythm. Melatonin is significantly involved in the complex network of
430 psycho-neuroendocrine immunology (PNEI), stress management and aging mechanisms;
431 furthermore, this compound interacts with cortisol and with a series of immunity and
432 inflammasome pathways, which have been shown to derange in COVID-19 [113]. In prin-
433 ciple, melatonin should be useful in protecting against the SARS-CoV2 infection and to
434 reduce the symptoms of COVID-19 patients. Most importantly, use of melatonin is one of
435 the only treatments which may significantly reduce the mortality of severe COVID pa-
436 tients. Since the primary target of melatonin is the host immune system, its protective
437 effects against a SARS-CoV-2 infection will not be weaker against any of the gene-mutated
438 new variants. This advantage exceeds what any specific vaccine or antiviral drug can
439 achieve. Furthermore, its broad protective effects prepare the host against the future up-
440 coming pandemics with different pathologies [132]. Melatonin is not virucidal, but it has
441 indirect anti-viral actions due to its anti-inflammation, anti-oxidation and immune en-
442 hancing features. Anti-inflammatory effects are thought to be through sirtuin-1 (SIRT-1)
443 mediated downregulation of macrophage polarization and suppression of nuclear factor
444 kappa-B (NF-κB). The anti-oxidative effect of melatonin cooperates with its anti-inflam-
445 matory actions by up-regulating anti-oxidative enzymes (e.g. superoxide dismutase),
446 down-regulating pro-oxidative enzymes (e.g. nitric oxide synthase), and it may also inter-
447 act directly with free radicals, functioning as free radical scavenger. Furthermore, melato-
448 nin exerts regulatory actions on the immune system and directly enhances the immune
449 response by improving proliferation and maturation of natural killing cells, T and B lym-
450 phocytes, granulocytes and monocytes in both bone marrow and other tissues [133]. Its
451 direct inhibitory effects on the entry of the SARS-CoV-2 virus into the human host have
452 recently been explored [134]. Melatonin can bind to both SARS-CoV-2 RBD and ACE 2

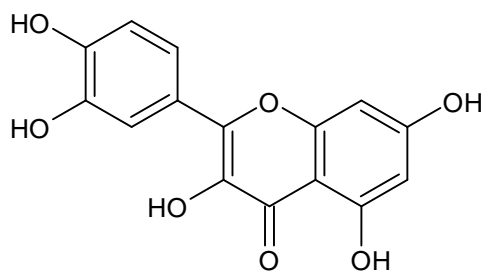
demonstrating the fact that it can strongly prevent viral entry into the host cells through dual binding effects. It is also known that melatonin is a significant calmodulin inhibitor. Calmodulin is required for the stability and activation of ACE2. So, it appears that melatonin has a 2 prolonged effect on ACE2, one by binding it and the other by inhibiting calmodulin [122]. It also has been hypothesized that melatonin significantly inhibits inflammasome stimulation which could indirectly reduce the intensity of the cytokine storm and lung destruction [135]. Moreover, it can cause a restoration of circadian rhythm and mitochondrial metabolism [136]. By restoring antioxidant status and restoring sleep patterns in critically ill COVID 19 patients, melatonin could serve as an adjuvant in COVID 19 management [137]. Recently, Hasan et al. (2021) [138] completed a single-center, prospective, RCT which was specifically designed to test the protective effects of melatonin in severe COVID-19 patients. All patients received standard therapy with oxygen intubation, remdesivir (as an antiviral), levofloxacin (for protection against secondary bacterial infection), dexamethasone (as an anti-inflammatory) and enoxaparin (as an anticoagulant). Half of them additionally received 10 mg melatonin. The results were highly promising with 13 deaths out of 76 patients in the conventional therapy group (mortality rate of 17.1%) compared to only 1 death out of 82 patients in melatonin group (mortality rate of 1.2%). Thus, the mortality of the severe COVID-19 patient was reduced by 93% as a result of melatonin treatment compared to the conventional treatment alone patients. Based on the evidence mentioned above, melatonin should be strongly recommended for the treatment of COVID-19 patients.

3.4. Flavonoids

Flavonoids are a large class of phytochemicals commonly found in several foods and vegetables in the human diet with numerous valuable pharmacological properties, including antioxidant, antitumor and anti-inflammatory effects [139]. Different flavonoids have been also investigated *in vitro* and *in vivo* regarding their antiviral properties [140]. Flavonoids have shown antiviral activity via inhibition of viral protease, RNA polymerase, and mRNA, virus replication, and infectivity [141]. More importantly, flavonoids demonstrated anti-viral and immunomodulatory activities against coronaviruses [142]. Therefore, flavonoids are currently a widely discussed source of agents potentially applicable in the management of COVID-19 [143]. Several inflammatory pathways associated with SARS-CoV-2 can potentially be targeted by flavonoids, such as the modulation of with NOD-like receptor protein 3 (NLRP3) inflammasome, toll-like receptors (TLRs) or bromodomain containing protein 4 (BRD4), and the activation of the nuclear factor erythroid-derived 2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) or the effects on ACE2 [144]. Furthermore, they also modulate the immune system to improve the organism defense, modulating macrophage profile and natural killer cells, and increasing anti-inflammatory mechanisms [145]. An instructive molecular modeling study revealed that epicatechin from *Hypericum perforatum* provided a better static and dynamic inhibition for ACE2 with highly favorable pharmacokinetic properties than the other known ACE2 inhibiting compounds, ensuring solid binding with critical amino acid residues of ACE2 [146]. Another study showed that the citrus flavonoid naringin is able to inhibit ACE2 enzyme showing estimated docking energy very low (− 6.85 kcal/mol) [147]. Several flavonoids, including apigenin, fisetin, luteolin, kaempferol, jusanin and quercetin have been effectively used for the prevention and/or treatment of COVID-19 [148,149] and post-COVID [150–152].

3.4.1. Quercetin

Quercetin (also known as 3,3',4',5,7-pentahydroxyflavone, Figure 6) is a widely distributed plant flavonoid, found in several vegetables, leaves, seeds, and grains, where it is conjugated with residual sugars to form quercetin glycosides [153].



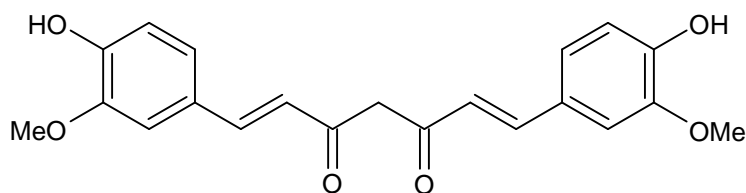
505
506 **Figure 6.** Structure of quercetin

507 It shows antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anti-cancer and immunoprotective effects
508 and it can prevent many chronic diseases, added to the ability to inhibit lipid peroxidation,
509 platelet aggregation, capillary permeability, and stimulate mitochondrial biogenesis. Fur-
510 thermore, quercetin has been studied for its promising antiviral effects due to its ability to
511 inhibiting polymerases, reverse transcriptase, proteases, suppressing DNA gyrase, and
512 binding viral capsid proteins [154]. The prophylactic phytochemical quercetin supple-
513 mentation, in the form of foods or nutraceuticals, may help in the management of COVID-
514 19 through multiple mechanisms [155]. Molecular docking studies have highlighted that
515 quercetin is able to inhibit the major druggable targets of SARS-CoV-2 including 3-chy-
516 motrypsin-like protease (3CLpro) and papain-like protease (PLpro), which are two en-
517 zymes essential for viral replication and therefore important drug targets [156], RNA-de-
518 pendent RNA polymerase and spike (S) protein [157]. Nguyen et al. (2012) [158] demon-
519 strated that quercetin inhibits the activity of recombinant SARS-CoV 3CLpro by up to
520 80%. More recently, Abian et al. (2020) reported that quercetin inhibits SARS-CoV-2
521 3CLpro activity by destabilizing its structure [159]. Recent molecular modeling studies
522 assess that quercetin inhibits 3CLpro and PLpro with a docking binding energy corre-
523 sponding to -6.25 and -4.62 kcal/mol, respectively [160]. Furthermore, quercetin has ad-
524 ditional activities specifically aimed at counteracting COVID-19. Specifically, it alters the
525 expression of 98 of 332 (30%) of genes encoding protein targets of SARS-CoV-2 in human
526 cells, thus it potentially interferes with the activities of 23 of 27 (85%) SARS-CoV-2 proteins
527 [161]. Moreover, quercetin inhibits protein disulfide isomerase (PDI), an enzyme impli-
528 cated in platelet-mediated thrombin formation at the site of vascular injury and may miti-
529 gate coagulation abnormalities associated with patients with COVID-19 [162]. Finally, it
530 may interact with NLRP3 [163]. These receptors are activated by SARS-CoV-2 leading to
531 a cytokine storm and destructive inflammation and causes ALI/CARDS in patients with
532 COVID-19 [164]. Activation or inhibition of the NLRP3 inflammasome is influenced by
533 regulators such as thioredoxin interacting protein (TXNIP), SIRT1 and NRF2. The anti-
534 inflammatory activity of quercetin is related to the suppression of the NLRP3 inflama-
535 some by acting on these regulators. Additionally, quercetin suppresses inflammation
536 through interference in various signaling pathways, especially NF- κ B [165]. With regard
537 to human studies, the interim results from one of RCT revealed that quercetin supplemen-
538 tation enhanced viral clearance and partially reduced the symptoms severity [166]. In an-
539 other RCT, were evaluated the therapeutic efficacy of quercetin in combination with anti-
540 viral drugs in hospitalized COVID-19 patients. The results showed that quercetin was able
541 to reduce the hospitalization period. Also, the serum levels of quantitative C-reactive pro-
542 tein (q-CRP), lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), and alkaline phosphatase (ALP) were de-
543 creased more effectively after taking quercetin [167]. Moreover, a pilot, controlled and
544 open-label RCT demonstrated that the administration of Quercetin Phytosome[®] (QP), a
545 novel bioavailable form of quercetin, statistically shortened the timing of molecular test
546 conversion from positive to negative, reducing at the same time symptom severity and
547 negative predictors of COVID-19 [168]. Di Pierro et al. (2021) [169] established that the
548 administration of a daily dose of QP for 30 days in 152 COVID-19 outpatients resulted in
549 a reduction in the frequency and length of hospitalization, the need for noninvasive oxy-

550 gen therapy, progression to intensive care units, and in the number of deaths. In combi-
551 nation with standard care, when used in the early stages of viral infection, quercetin could
552 improve the early symptoms and help in preventing the severity of progression of
553 COVID-19. In addition, the results also confirmed the very high safety profile of quercetin
554 and suggested possible anti-fatigue and pro-appetite properties. Recently, Rondanelli et
555 al. (2022) [170] evaluated also the potential effect of 3 months' supplementation with QP
556 (250 mg twice a day) as prevention against symptomatic COVID-19. This pilot study,
557 which was carried out on 120 subjects (males, 63; females, 57; age 49 ± 12), demonstrated
558 that QP administration determined a 14% higher protection factor of contracting the
559 COVID-19 infection. The results obtained are encouraging, but further studies including
560 a larger number of participants and with a longer follow-up are required to permit to
561 consider quercetin for regular prophylaxis of COVID-19.
562

563 3.5. Curcumin

564 Curcumin (diferuloylmethane, Figure 7) is the primary curcuminoid derived from
565 the rhizome of Turmeric (*Curcuma longa*). It has shown diverse biological functions, such
566 as anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, anticancer and antimicrobial properties. Besides the
567 antifungal and antibacterial properties, it may also act as an anti-viral compound, by in-
568 hibiting the replication in a wide-range of viruses [171]. Therefore, it was proposed as a
569 potential treatment against COVID-19 [172].
570



571
572 **Figure 7.** Structure of curcumin

573 Curcumin is, in fact, an interesting compound to study for management or treatment
574 of COVID-19, thanks to its relative safety and to its broad-spectrum of antiviral activity
575 against enveloped viruses, including SARS-CoV-2, by multiple mechanisms such as direct
576 interaction with viral membrane proteins, disruption of the viral envelope, inhibition of
577 viral proteases and induce host antiviral responses. Moreover, it may suppress SARS-
578 CoV-2 infection by directly modifying spike protein and or ACE2 and inducing host anti-
579 viral responses by targeting NRF2 and HMGB1 and exert immunomodulatory activity by
580 blocking NF- κ B, inflammasome, HMGB1, and IL-6 driven inflammatory responses. Fi-
581 nally, it dampens ROS production by inhibiting NADPH oxidase and alleviates oxidative
582 tissue injury by increasing antioxidant defenses by modulating NRF2 [173]. Manoharan
583 et al. (2020) [174] indicated curcumin as a wonder drug in COVID-19 management as it is
584 a potential inhibitory agent by blocking the host viral interaction (viral spike protein—
585 ACE2 receptor) at an entry site in humans and it may also act as an attenuator via modu-
586 lating the proinflammatory effects of Ang II-AT1 receptor-signaling pathways by reduc-
587 ing respiratory distress in the treatment of COVID19. Moreover, they elucidated that
588 emulsion form of topical application of curcumin may effectively prevent the SARS-CoV2
589 infection in humans, as the viral entry site of ACE2 receptor is predominantly distributed
590 at the nasal cells, mucosal surface of respiratory tract and eyes. Finally, Liu et al. (2020)
591 [175] suggested curcumin as a therapeutic agent against pneumonia and acute lung injury
592 or fatal CARDS in humans resulting from coronaviral infection. Several computational
593 studies underline the ability of curcumin to interact with several target proteins of SARS-
594 CoV-2. Shanmugarajan et al. (2020) [176] showed that curcumin inhibits the binding of
595 spike glycoprotein to ACE2 receptor, thereby attenuating the viral infection. Patel et al.
596 (2021) [177] showed that curcumin and its derivatives act as inhibitors of the spike protein

597 displaying binding energies, ΔG , ranging from -10.98 to -5.12 kcal/mol (6CRV) and -10.01
598 to -5.33 kcal/mol (6M0J). The most interesting compound was bis-demethoxycurcumin,
599 which showed the best binding affinity to the spike protein of SARS-CoV2. Jena et al.
600 (2021) [178] described the potential of catechin and curcumin to interact with the S protein
601 of SARS-CoV-2 and ACE2 of human cell membrane and also to the RBD/ACE2-complex.

602 *In vitro* studies are specified below. Marín-Palma et al. (2021) described the combined
603 antiviral/anti-inflammatory effects of curcumin during SARS-CoV-2 infection [179]. They
604 demonstrated that curcumin (10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) exhibited antiviral effect of 99% and 99.8%,
605 against DG614 strain and Delta variant, respectively, suggesting that this nutrient affects
606 the SARS-CoV-2 replicative cycle and exhibits virucidal effect: these effects seemed to be
607 independent of the virus strain/variant. Moreover, the pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-
608 1β , IL-6, and IL-8) released by peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) triggered by
609 SARS-CoV-2 were decreased after treatment with curcumin. The study by Bormann et al.
610 [180] demonstrated that curcumin potently neutralizes SARS-CoV-2 in Vero E6 and hu-
611 man Calu-3 cells at low subtoxic concentrations. Furthermore, curcumin treatment signif-
612 icantly reduced SARS-CoV-2 RNA levels in cell culture supernatants. The effectiveness of
613 curcumin on outcomes of hospitalized COVID-19 patients has also been recently reviewed
614 [181]: the adjunct treatment with different formulations of curcumin led to reductions in
615 typical symptoms, duration of hospitalization, and deaths in COVID-19 patients and, at
616 the same time, to the amelioration of cytokine storm manifestation by reducing pro-in-
617 flammatory factors and stimulating anti-inflammatory pathway. Interestingly, the bio-
618 availability of curcumin can be increased by 2000% when using piperine as an adjuvant. A
619 double-blind, controlled RCT indicated that administration of a combination of curcumin
620 and piperine reduced the days of remission of symptoms, the oxygen requirement. Dose-
621 escalating studies have indicated the safety of curcumin over 3 months [182].
622

623 3.6. Prebiotics and probiotics

624 Gastrointestinal disorders are usual in COVID-19 patients and may impact the host's
625 intestinal microbiota, meaning there are changes in the diversity and population of bene-
626 ficial bacteria and that these are associated with disease severity [183,184]. Dysbiosis has
627 been vastly associated with COVID-19 severity [185]. The reduction of gut microbiota
628 richness persists even six months after recovery following SARS-CoV-2 infection [186].
629 The modulation of the intestinal microbiota by probiotics, prebiotics, synbiotics, postbiot-
630 ics, paraprobiotics, and psychobiotics represent a potential adjuvant approach for enhanc-
631 ing the health of COVID-19 patients [187,188]. Specific probiotic intake can reduce gastro-
632 intestinal symptoms of COVID-19 and the effects of using antibiotics which worsen these
633 symptoms and reconstitute the gut microbiome, along with consequent modulation of the
634 immune system, a decrease in vulnerability to infections and increased number of re-
635 sistance genes [189]. A therapeutic approach with probiotics can modulate other key
636 points in the severity of COVID-19 cases: improved production of Treg cells to control
637 inflammation [190], reduced D-dimer level involved in COVID-19 coagulopathy [191];
638 and intensification in immune efficacy of COVID-19 vaccine [192,193]. However, more
639 studies should be carried out to evaluate the effects of probiotics and establish the right
640 doses, intervention time and action mechanisms against COVID-19. Two important
641 groups of prebiotics are represented by fructo-oligosaccharides and galacto-oligosaccha-
642 rides which exist in low quantities in foods and show beneficial effects on human health
643 [194]. Among prebiotics [195], tea polyphenols (TPs) have been shown to regulate the gut
644 microbiota to prevent or alleviate COVID-19 through the gut-lung axis [196]. Gut and
645 lungs have been demonstrated to be part of a shared mucosal immune system and have
646 inflammatory process and immune responses linked by the gut-lung axis [197,198]. There-
647 fore, the fine-tuning of host-microbiota balance in the lung and gut can be useful in
648 fighting against COVID-19. Given the ability of probiotics to act as immunomodulator,

anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and antiviral, the use of probiotics may be a way to support the reconstitution of the gut microbiota [199]. Probiotics are living micro-organisms which provide benefits to the host's health when administered in adequate doses [200]. Some their general mechanisms are represented by inhibition of bacterial adherence and invasion capacity in the intestinal epithelium, enhancement of the gut barrier function and boosting of the immune system [201]. Probiotics have been reported to confine the virus entry by healing the ACE2 containing epithelial barrier. Probiotics also release ACE-inhibitory peptides that could reduce Ang II expression and induce the synthesis of short chain fatty acids that regulate blood pressure and inflammation. They reduce NO production and stress oxidative and this can lead to the downregulation of inflammatory (NLRP3 and NF-κB) pathways. Bacteriocin and other anti-, as well as proinflammatory cytokines, produced by the effects of probiotics, might balance pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokine levels and increase the T-cell count in the SARS-CoV-2-infected patients. Finally, probiotics might also reduce hyaluronan synthesis, which eventually could improve CARDS [202]. Some clinical trials regarding the study of probiotics for management of COVID-19 are already undergoing and the results may provide future direction for the prevention of this pandemic [203]. The beneficial effects of the consumption of probiotics may contribute to the prevention and treatment of some symptoms of COVID-19, provided they are associated with a healthy diet. Some representative RCTs of probiotic intervention in COVID-19 are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Some representative RCTs of probiotic intervention in COVID-19.

Study type	Study subjects	Age group	Number enrolled	Intervention/treatment	Primary Outcome measures	Ref
Single-blind RCT	patients with COVID-19	≥18 y	152	Oxygen-ozone therapy with dietary supplements SivoMixx *	Number of patients, in treatment, needing orotracheal intubation	[204]
RCT	COVID-19 patients requiring hospitalization	18–60 y	300	Combination of <i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> CECT7481, <i>L. plantarum</i> CECT 7484, <i>L. plantarum</i> CECT 7485, and <i>Pediococcus acidilactici</i> CECT 7483 vs Placebo	Severity progression of COVID-19, Stay at ICU, Mortality ratio.	[205]
Double-blind RCT	People with household contact of	≥1 y	182	Probiotic (<i>Lactobacillus rhamnosus</i>)	Changes in Shannon bacteria diversity	[206]

	COVID-19 patient			GG) vs Placebo		
Double-blind RCT	Healthcare workers without COVID-19	≥20 y	314	Probiotic (Lactobacillus) vs Control (Maltodextrin)	Incidence of SARS-CoV-2 infection in healthcare workers	[207]
Open label RCT	COVID-19 patients requiring hospitalization	≥18 y	40	Dietary Supplement: Probiotic vs No intervention	Cases with discharge to ICU	[208]
Double-blind RCT	COVID-19 patients with diarrhea	≥18 y	108	Synbiotic (Omnibiotic AAD: 2 Bifidobacterium strains, Enterococcus, 7 Lactobacillus strains) vs Placebo	Duration of diarrhea	[209]

*SivoMixx: *Streptococcus thermophilus* DSM322245; *Bifidobacterium lactis* DSM32246; *Bifidobacterium lactis* DSM32247; *Lactobacillus acidophilus* DSM32241; *Lactobacillus helveticus* DSM32242; *Lactobacillus paracasei* DSM32243; *Lactobacillus plantarum* DSM32244 and *Lactobacillus brevis* DSM27961.

3.7. Nano-nutraceuticals

Nanotechnology is widely used in different field of research with countless biomedical science applications, from cancer nanomedicine [210] to antimicrobial activity [207,208] and finally, advancements in the area of nanomedicine in healthcare have been carried out in fighting the COVID-19 pandemic [211–215]. Nanomedicine applications and lipid-based nanoparticles can also help in the development of effective vaccines and/or therapeutics against COVID-19 [216]. Potential immuno-nanomedicine strategies to fight COVID-19 have been also proposed [217]. Recently, nano-nutraceuticals have been suggested to manage pre- and post-COVID infections [218–220], including fisetin flavonoid nanoparticles [221], resveratrol and zinc nanoparticles [222], and curcumin nanoparticles [223]. Actually, for example the clinical use of curcumin is hindered by its low oral bioavailability. The use of several formulations, including packaging with nanoparticles, liposomes, and micelles represents a suitable strategy to improve curcumin bioavailability [224]. Sharma et al. reported that curcumin-encapsulated polysaccharide nanoparticle (CUR-PS-NPs) potently inhibit the release of cytokines, chemokines, and growth factors associated with damage of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein by deactivation of MAPK/NF-κB signaling in epithelial cells [225]. The nano-formulation of curcumin termed “Nanocurcumin” increases dissolution rate, saturation solubility, bioavailability, and drug stability. Tahmasebi et al. (2021) [226] in a randomized, double-blind-placebo controlled trial study showed that the nanocurcumin treatment led to changes in anti-inflammatory factors, including increased the number of suppressor Treg cells, as well as elevated levels of transcription factor FOXP3, IL10, IL35, and TGF-β, and increased secretion of anti-inflammatory cytokines in the Nanocurcumin-treated group compared to the placebo group. The same research group [227] also demonstrated that Nanocurcumin was

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able to reduce the frequency of Th17 cells and their related inflammatory factors in the curcumin intervention group in both mild and severe COVID-19 patients.

4. Conclusions

It is now established that nutrition and nutritional supplements are an important role in the prevention and treatment of COVID-19 disease and post-COVID syndrome. Post-COVID syndrome is referred to a variety of symptoms with a duration beyond the acute phase of COVID-19. It is mainly characterized by pulmonary, musculoskeletal, digestive and neurological problems. It represents an emerging global crisis. However, the mechanisms by which SARS-CoV-2 may cause post-COVID syndrome and the best therapeutic options are not clearly defined. Besides the common therapies used for COVID-19, flavonoids, curcumin, melatonin, prebiotics, probiotics and vitamin C, D and E have shown encouraging data suggesting their use to prevent and counteract the symptoms of COVID-19 pandemic infection and they are currently under study in the prevention and treatment of post-COVID syndrome, as well. Nano-nutraceuticals may represent new strategies for the development of new therapies to curb COVID-19 and post-COVID syndrome. In any case, new studies are urgently needed to further investigate the molecular mechanisms played by nutraceuticals in the prevention and treatment of post-COVID syndrome. This will allow a more rational and efficient use of these safe products.

Abbreviations

ACE2 = Angiotensin-2 converting enzyme

ALP = Alkaline phosphatase

Ang II = Angiotensin II

AT1R = Ang II receptor type 1

BRD4 = Bromodomain containing protein 4

CARDS = COVID-19-associated acute respiratory distress syndrome

COVID-19 = Coronavirus Disease

CRP = C-reactive protein

HDIVC = High-Dose Intravenous Vitamin C

ICU = Intensive care unit

IVC = Intravenous vitamin C

LDH = Lactate dehydrogenase

LPS = Lipoprotein

NF- κ B = Nuclear factor kappa-B

NLR = Nod-like receptor

NLRP3 = NLR family pyrin domain containing 3

NRF2 = Nuclear factor erythroid-derived 2-related factor 2

OS = Oxidative stress

PBMCs = Peripheral blood mononuclear cells

P/F = PaO₂/FiO₂

PNEI = Psycho-neuroendocrine immunology

q-CRP = Quantitative C-reactive protein

QP = Quercetin Phytosome®

RAS = Renin-angiotensin system

RBD = Receptor-binding domain

RCT = Randomized controlled trial

SARS-CoV-2 = Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2

SIRS = Systemic inflammatory response syndrome

SIRT-1 = Sirtuin-1

SOFA = Sequential Organs Failure Assessment

TLRs = Toll-like receptors

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