

Since January 2020 Elsevier has created a COVID-19 resource centre with free information in English and Mandarin on the novel coronavirus COVID-19. The COVID-19 resource centre is hosted on Elsevier Connect, the company's public news and information website.

Elsevier hereby grants permission to make all its COVID-19-related research that is available on the COVID-19 resource centre - including this research content - immediately available in PubMed Central and other publicly funded repositories, such as the WHO COVID database with rights for unrestricted research re-use and analyses in any form or by any means with acknowledgement of the original source. These permissions are granted for free by Elsevier for as long as the COVID-19 resource centre remains active. Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Medical Hypotheses

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/mehy

Fecal microbiota transplantation for COVID-19; a potential emerging treatment strategy

Seyed Aria Nejadghaderi^{a,b}, Ehsan Nazemalhosseini-Mojarad^c, Hamid Asadzadeh Aghdaei^{d,*}

^a School of Medicine, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

^b Systematic Review and Meta-analysis Expert Group (SRMEG), Universal Scientific Education and Research Network (USERN), Tehran, Iran

^c Gastroenterology & Liver Diseases Research Center, Research Institute for Gastroenterology & Liver Diseases, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran,

^d Basic & Molecular Epidemiology of Gastrointestinal Disorders Research Center, Research Institute for Gastroenterology & Liver Diseases, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

ARTICLE INFO

Iran

Keywords: Fecal microbiota transplantation Gut microbiota COVID-19 SARS-CoV-2 2019-nCoV

ABSTRACT

At the end of 2019, an emerging outbreak caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) that first reported from Wuhan, China. The first manifestations of patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 was flu-like symptoms, while other type of manifestations, especially gastrointestinal manifestations were discovered recently. As of June 2020, there is no specific drug or treatment strategy for COVID-19, a disease caused by SARS-CoV-2, so different combination of antiviral drugs is currently being used. Gut microbiota mostly consists of four phyla, including Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria, and Actinobacteria. The interaction between gut microbiota and immune system through releasing some cytokines such as IL-1 β , IL-2, IL-10, TNF- α , and IFN- γ that play roles in the severity of COVID-19. In this article, a new potential treatment for COVID-19 by fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) is described. FMT revealed promising results in different diseases, especially recurrent clostridium difficile infection, and it might reduce length of hospital admission and severity of the disease by modification of gut microbiota composition.

Introduction

Current burden of COVID-19

In late December 2019, a new spices of coronaviruses called severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), causing COVID-19 disease, initially caused a large scale outbreak in Wuhan City, Hubei Province, China [1]. It rapidly spread to almost all countries and territories worldwide and the severe cases increased. As a result, the World Health Organization (WHO) declared the COVID-19 as a pandemic on March 11, 2020 [2]. As of late July 2020, it caused more than 16 million and 650,000 prevalent cases and deaths, respectively [3].

Treatment approaches for COVID-19

Since the beginning of the COVID-19 epidemic, lots of efforts have

been done to find a specific treatment for SARS-CoV-2, whereas the evidence on efficacy of current drugs used for SARS-CoV-2 is not sufficient [4]. Currently, two major groups of drugs are used for SARS-CoV-2 treatment. One, repurposed and investigational drugs, which target different levels in viral entry and replication system like inhibition of glycosylation of host cell receptors (chloroquine), inhibition of viral RNA polymerase (ribavirin), and inhibition of protease (lopinavir, ritonavir). Two, adjunctive therapies such as monoclonal antibodies, especially against interleukin (IL)-6, and convalescent plasma therapy [5]. Results of a systematic review and meta-analysis revealed that anticoronary virus drugs have higher rate of adverse events (AEs) (relative risk (RR): 1.74, 95% confidence interval (CI): 0.72, 4.18), including transaminitis, bradycardia, and diarrhea in interventional arms compared with controls despite of better efficacy of these drugs [6]. Although there is not enough literature and well-established clinical trials on the safety and efficacy of convalescent plasma therapy, enrolled participants of a clinical trial showed improved efficacy, including

* Corresponding author at: Basic and Molecular Epidemiology of Gastrointestinal Disorders Research Center, Research Institute for Gastroenterology and Liver Diseases, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, 21031/00 Velenjak Street, Shahid Chamran Highway, Tehran 1985717413, Iran.

E-mail address: hamid.asadzadeh@sbmu.ac.ir (H. Asadzadeh Aghdaei).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2020.110476

Received 30 September 2020; Received in revised form 5 November 2020; Accepted 26 December 2020 Available online 31 December 2020 0306-9877/© 2020 Published by Elsevier Ltd.







decreasing of sequential organ failure assessment score and no AEs were reported [7].

Effects of gut microbiota on human health

The gut microbiota is considered as a major part of the health because it plays roles in different aspects of human health [8]. For example, it can modulate different functions such as gut development [9], protecting from pathogens [10], preparing the energy and nutrients of nondigestible foods [8], and physiologic cerebral function [11]. The human gut microbiota mostly consists of bacteria, fungus, yeasts, viruses, and archaea [12]. The bacterial component of human gut microbiota mostly include Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Verrucomicrobia of phyla which the first two ones have the highest frequency [8,13]. Eukaryotic viruses such as rotavirus, astrovirus, and norovirus in addition to adenoviridae are some examples of human gut virome composition that are associated with diseases like gastroenteritis [14]. The fungal and yeasts components of human gut microbiota known as "gut mycome", including Candida, Aspergilli, Cryptococci, and Trichospora genera can play roles in natural history of hepatitis B virus infection and some other gastrointestinal disorders [15]. However, we mostly concentrate on the roles of bacterial component of human gut microbiota because bacteria is the dominant part of human gut microbiota and the roles of other components of human gut microbiota have not been described explicitly yet [16]. The gut microbiota imbalance has a potential link with some diseases such as pancreatic diseases [17], irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) [18], ulcerative colitis (UC) [19], obesity [20], bipolar disorder [21], Parkinson's disease and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) [22].

History and clinical applications of fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT)

To our knowledge, the earliest utilizing of FMT was at least in the fourth century in China [23]. The donor stool is suspended through some solutions, homogenized, filtered or strained, and finally, it is administered through lower and/or upper gastrointestinal (GI) tract or as gelatin capsules after centrifuging [24]. The fecal compositions that can be transferred by FMT include bacteria (*Escherichia coli, Bifidobacterium, Lactobacilli,* and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*), viruses (anelloviruses, *Microviridae,* and *Siphoviridae*), archaea and fungi (*Candida albicans*), human colonocytes, and metabolites [25–27].

FMT is an approved therapy for recurrent clostridium difficile infection (rCDI), and Quraishi et al. showed that it is more effective than vancomycin for rCDI (RR = 0.23, 95% CI = 0.07–0.80) [28]. In addition to rCDI, FMT has been evaluated for some other diseases or disorders like metabolic disorders [29] and hepatic encephalopathy [30]. Also, a case report reported the efficacy of FMT for a rare primary immunodeficiency disease called Good's syndrome [31]. FMT has some short- and long-treatment-related AEs, which has a range from minor to serious AEs, including abdominal discomfort, bloating, transmission of enteric pathogens, and induction of chronic diseases due to the imbalance the gut microbiome [32]. The dysbiosis in the function and structure of gut flora is a precipitating factor for C. difficile or other bacteria like Adherent-invasive Escherichia coli [33], Helicobacter sp. [34], and Campylobacter sp. [35] that are potential pathogens causing IBD to be colonized in the intestine and develop these diseases [36]. FMT help imbalanced intestinal microbiome to be reconstruction, so that it might prevent from or treat CDI or IBD [36]. Also, FMT for patients with viral infections like human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and patients receiving antiretroviral therapy (ART) is under explored and it was welltolerated in these individuals [37].

Up to July 2020, there is not definite treatment or vaccines for COVID-19. Here, we will describe a new potential treatment strategy for patients infected with severe SARS-CoV-2 infection who have presented with GI manifestations.

The hypothesis

Immune system, gut microbiota, and COVID-19

Some cytokines and chemokines, including IL-1B, IL-1RA, IL-7, IL-8, IL-9, IL-10, basic fibroblast growth factor (FGF), granulocyte colonystimulating factor (G-CSF), granulocyte-macrophage colonystimulating factor (GM-CSF), interferon gamma (IFN-y), IP-10, monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), macrophage inflammatory protein-1A (MIP-1A), MIP-1B, platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α), and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) were higher in patients with COVID-19 than healthy controls [38]. Also, some cytokines such as IL-2, IL-7, IL-10, G-CSF, IP-10, MCP-1, MIP-1A, and TNF- α might contribute to the severity of COVID-19 because these cytokines were higher in patients in intensive care units (ICU) than non-ICU patients [38]. The balance between proinflammatory cells (T-helper 17) and inflammatory regulatory cells (Treg) in the gut lead to homeostasis and health, which can be resulted by two pathways regulated by microorganisms, including microorganismassociated molecular patterns (MAMPs), and pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) [39]. Toll-like receptors (TLRs) have a major role in evocation of immunologic reactions, so altering the expression of TLRs might cause intestinal diseases [39].

In a cross-sectional multicenter study on 204 patients, about half of them presented with GI clinical manifestation, including lack of appetite, diarrhea, vomiting, and abdominal pain [40]. Meta-analysis of 2,477 patients showed that diarrhea and nausea/vomiting are the most common GI manifestations with 7.8% and 5.5% incidence rate, respectively [41]. Wanglong et al. revealed that Ruminococcus, Blautia, and Lactobacillus genera have a positive relationship with some host inflammatory cytokines, including IL-1β, IL-2, IL-4, IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, IL-12p70, IL-13, TNF- α , and IFN- γ [42]. The same study revealed that Bacteroides, Streptococcus genera, as well as Clostridiales order have a negative association with aforementioned inflammatory cytokines [42]. Other viruses like influenza virus and SARS can also cause damage in regulation of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory responses, a phenomenon which is called "cytokine storm" [43,44]. Moreover, some other species like Alistipes spp., Bilophila spp., and Clostridium spp. except for *Clostridium hathewayi* represented negative associations with cytokine responses which is beneficial for treatment of COVID-19 and can promote potential therapeutic methods based on microbiome alterations [45]. Lactobacillus genus have revealed potential efficacy in bacterial and viral infectious diseases such as infections due to Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), Cytomegalovirus (CMV), hepatitis C virus, and Cryptosporidium [46].

The microbiota in different sites of the human body can play antiviral roles against murine norovirus, rotavirus, influenza virus, and Respiratory Syncitial Virus (RSV) [47]. Expression of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) on GI cells and the relationship between GI and respiratory systems through gut-lung axis might be a reason for GI manifestations of COVID-19, and explain how the gut microbiota can effect on respiratory viral infection [47,48]. The most prevalent commensals in healthy population with median age of 48 years old are *Eubacterium*, *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii, Roseburia,* and *Lachnospiraceae taxa,* while in COVID-19 patients, including both antibiotic naïve and those received empirical antibiotics with median age of 55 years old, those commensals will drop and opportunistic pathogens like *Clostridium hathewayi, Actinomyces viscosus,* and *Bacteroides nordii* will be increased [49]. Another study introduced two other probiotics, *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium*, which were decreased in COVID-19 patients [50].

Lung microbiota and COVID-19

The effects of lung microbiota can also be remarkable. Although the diversity and population of lung microbiota is much less than gut, it has been found that in acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) the

number of microbes in the lung increases and the composition tend to be like the gut. For instance, the number of Bacteroidetes phylum and Enterobacteriaceae family increases in acute lung diseases [51]. Also, gut microbiota can contribute to pulmonary microbiota in some respiratory diseases like asthma or chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) [52]. Hilty et al showed that Haemophilus spp. and Prevotella spp. are higher in patients with asthma/COPD and controls, respectively [53]. As a result, the higher numbers of *Haemophilus* spp. can contribute to the severity and ICU admission of COVID-19 patients, according to findings of a systematic review and meta-analysis revealed that Haemophilus influenza were detected in 12% of patient with COVID-19 [54]. A pilot study on 15 patients with COVID-19 revealed that antibiotics-naïve COVID-19 patients had reduced numbers of some bacteria species, inclucidng Fecalibacterium prausnitzii, Eubacterium rectale, Ruminococcus obeum, and Dorea formicigenerans in comparison with patients received empirical therapy that were associated with severity of COVID-19 and fecal levels of SARS-CoV-2 [49]. Furthermore, *Firmicutes* phylum has the highest correlation with the severity of COVID-19, which seems to be as a result of effects of bacteria of this phylum on alterations in ACE2 expression [49].

As a result of mentioned effects of gut-lung axis and associations between gut microbiota and pulmonary diseases, FMT might also be effective in COVID-19 patients with pulmonary presentations.

As there is no specific drugs or treatment strategy for COVID-19 and based on the above data, fecal/gut microbiota transplantation of asymptomatic or COVID-19 cases with mild symptoms could be used as an adjuvant therapy in combination with local treatment guidelines, especially in severe or critically ill patients, and patients with digestive manifestations who do not response to other treatments.

Evaluation of the hypothesis

Current evidence on FMT for COVID-19

To our knowledge, there has not any completed clinical trial on the safety or efficacy of fecal/gut microbiota transplantation in patients with COVID-19 as of July 2020. Zhang et al. conducted a randomized-controlled trial (RCT) on patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 to discover the efficacy of washed microbiota transplantation on improving the severity of the disease [55]. This study had two arms which both arms received standard therapy, as well as washed microbiota suspension or placebo through nasogastric/nasojejunal tube or orally [55]. NCT04251767 was withdrawn in order to follow new disciplines of the government [55]. Some other ongoing clinical trials aim to evaluate the relationship between fecal microbiota composition and severity, mortality, and quality of life of patients with COVID-19 [56,57].

Cost-effectiveness of FMT

Compared to vancomycin, fidaxomicin, or vancomycin plus bezlotoxumab, FMT is the best treatment approach in case of costeffectiveness for rCDI [58]. In fact, there is no evidence to compare the cost-effectiveness of FMT with other potential therapeutic approaches for COVID-19, but it seems that costs of admission to ICU in addition to combination therapy with different antiretroviral drugs might be more than FMT, especially in critically ill patients [59].

Safety of FMT

Results of a systematic review on AEs of FMT showed that the incidence rate of AEs and severe AEs related to FMT are 28.5% and 9.2%, respectively [60]. The same study also revealed that occurrence of the AEs are more frequent in upper GI administration route than lower one [60]. The variety of AEs have a wide range from minor like bloating, abdominal discomfort, transient fever, and nausea/vomiting to serious AEs such as pneumonia, sepsis, transmission of enteric pathogens, and post-infectious IBS [61].

Conclusion

Gut microbiota dysbiosis correlates with different diseases, including digestive and non-digestive ones. Also, the gut microbiota plays roles in immune systems by different mechanisms like production of cytokines. As a result, FMT can be used as a novel treatment for COVID-19. Preclinical and clinical studies should be conducted to investigate the safety and efficacy of FMT and further underlying mechanisms of FMT in patients with COVID-19. Also, developing indications for suggesting FMT for patients affected with SARS-CoV-2 should be considered in further studies.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2020.110476.

References

- [1] Du Toit A. Outbreak of a novel coronavirus. Nat Rev Microbiol 2020;18. 123 123.
- [2] W.H. Organization. Virtual press conference on COVID-19-11 march 2020. https:// www.who.int/docs/default-source/coronaviruse/transcripts/who-audioemergencies-coronavirus-press-conference-full-and-final-11mar2020.pdf? sfvrsn=cb432bb3 2. 2020.
- [3] T.W.H.O. (WHO). Situation Report. https://www.who.int/emergencies/diseases/ novel-coronavirus-2019/situation-reports/. 2020, Accessed 31 May 2020.
- [4] Shih H-I, Wu C-J, Tu Y-F, Chi C-Y. Fighting COVID-19: A quick review of diagnoses, therapies, and vaccines. Biomed J 2020.
- [5] Sanders JM, Monogue ML, Jodlowski TZ, Cutrell JB. Pharmacologic Treatments for Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19): A Review. JAMA 2019;323(2020): 1824–36.
- [6] Zhong H, Wang Y, Zhang Z-L, et al. Efficacy and safety of current therapeutic options for COVID-19 - lessons to be learnt from SARS and MERS epidemic: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Pharmacol Res 2020;157. 104872 104872.
- [7] Olivares-Gazca JC, Priesca-Marín JM, Ojeda-Laguna M, et al. Infusion of convalescent plasma is associated with clinical improvement in critically ill patients with COVID-19: A pilot study. Revista de investigacion clinica; organo del Hospital de Enfermedades de la Nutricion 2020;72:159–64.
- [8] Flint HJ, Scott KP, Louis P, Duncan SH. The role of the gut microbiota in nutrition and health. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol 2012;9:577–89.
- [9] Murgas Torrazza R, Neu J. The developing intestinal microbiome and its relationship to health and disease in the neonate. J Perinatology 2011;31(Suppl 1): S29–34.
- [10] Candela M, Perna F, Carnevali P, et al. Interaction of probiotic Lactobacillus and Bifidobacterium strains with human intestinal epithelial cells: adhesion properties, competition against enteropathogens and modulation of IL-8 production. Int J Food Microbiol 2008;125:286–92.
- [11] Cryan JF, Dinan TG. Mind-altering microorganisms: the impact of the gut microbiota on brain and behaviour. Nat Rev Neurosci 2012;13:701–12.
- [12] Mai V, Draganov PV. Recent advances and remaining gaps in our knowledge of associations between gut microbiota and human health. World J Gastroenterol 2009;15:81–5.
- [13] Frank DN, St Amand AL, Feldman RA, Boedeker EC, Harpaz N, Pace NR. Molecularphylogenetic characterization of microbial community imbalances in human inflammatory bowel diseases. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2007;104:13780–5.
- [14] Scarpellini E, Ianiro G, Attili F, Bassanelli C, De Santis A, Gasbarrini A. The human gut microbiota and virome: Potential therapeutic implications. Digestive Liver Disease 2015;47:1007–12.
- [15] Ianiro G, Bruno G, Lopetuso L, et al. Role of yeasts in healthy and impaired gut microbiota: the gut mycome. Curr Pharm Des 2014;20:4565–9.
- [16] Lozupone CA, Stombaugh JI, Gordon JI, Jansson JK, Knight R. Diversity, stability and resilience of the human gut microbiota. Nature 2012;489:220–30.

S.A. Nejadghaderi et al.

- [17] Memba R, Duggan SN, Ni Chonchubhair HM, et al. The potential role of gut microbiota in pancreatic disease: A systematic review. Pancreatology 2017;17: 867–74.
- [18] DuPont HL. Review article: evidence for the role of gut microbiota in irritable bowel syndrome and its potential influence on therapeutic targets. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2014;39:1033–42.
- [19] Zhang SL, Wang SN, Miao CY. Influence of Microbiota on Intestinal Immune System in Ulcerative Colitis and Its Intervention. Front Immunol 2017;8:1674.
- [20] Zhang Z, Mocanu V, Cai C, et al. Impact of Fecal Microbiota Transplantation on Obesity and Metabolic Syndrome-A Systematic Review. Nutrients 2019;11:2291.
- [21] Gondalia S, Parkinson L, Stough C, Scholey A. Gut microbiota and bipolar disorder: a review of mechanisms and potential targets for adjunctive therapy. Psychopharmacology 2019;236:1433–43.
- [22] Fang X. Potential role of gut microbiota and tissue barriers in Parkinson's disease and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Int J Neurosci 2016;126:771–6.
- [23] Zhang P, Luo W, Shi Y, Fan Z, Ji G. Should we standardize the 1,700-year-old fecal microbiota transplantation? Am J Gastroenterol 2012;107:1755. author reply p.1755-1756.
- [24] Kelly CR, Kahn S, Kashyap P, et al. Update on Fecal Microbiota Transplantation 2015: Indications, Methodologies, Mechanisms, and Outlook. Gastroenterology 2015;149(2015):223–37.
- [25] Bojanova DP, Bordenstein SR. Fecal Transplants: What Is Being Transferred? PLoS Biol 2016;14. e1002503 e1002503.
- [26] Papanicolas LE, Choo JM, Wang Y, et al. Bacterial viability in faecal transplants: Which bacteria survive? EBioMedicine 2019;41:509–16.
- [27] Chehoud C, Dryga A, Hwang Y, et al. Transfer of Viral Communities between Human Individuals during Fecal Microbiota Transplantation. mBio 2016;7: e00322–00316.
- [28] Quraishi MN, Widlak M, Bhala N, et al. Systematic review with meta-analysis: the efficacy of faecal microbiota transplantation for the treatment of recurrent and refractory Clostridium difficile infection. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2017;46: 479–93.
- [29] Jayasinghe TN, Chiavaroli V, Holland DJ, Cutfield WS, O'Sullivan JM. The New Era of Treatment for Obesity and Metabolic Disorders: Evidence and Expectations for Gut Microbiome Transplantation. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2016;6:15.
- [30] Bajaj JS, Kassam Z, Fagan A, et al. Fecal microbiota transplant from a rational stool donor improves hepatic encephalopathy: A randomized clinical trial. Hepatology (Baltimore, MD) 2017;66:1727–38.
- [31] Jagessar SAR, Long C, Cui B, Zhang F. Improvement of Good's syndrome by fecal microbiota transplantation: the first case report. J Int Med Res 2019;47:3408–15.
 [32] Choi HH, Cho Y-S. Fecal Microbiota Transplantation: Current Applications,
- Effectiveness, and Future Perspectives. Clin Endosc 2016;49:257–65. [33] Rolhion N, Darfeuille-Michaud A. Adherent-invasive Escherichia coli in
- [33] Romon N, Darienne-Michaud A. Adherent-invasive escherichia con in inflammatory bowel disease. Inflamm Bowel Dis 2007;13:1277–83.
- [34] Laharie D, Asencio C, Asselineau J, et al. Association between entero-hepatic Helicobacter species and Crohn's disease: a prospective cross-sectional study. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2009;30:283–93.
- [35] Hansen R, Berry SH, Mukhopadhya I, et al. The microaerophilic microbiota of denovo paediatric inflammatory bowel disease: the BISCUIT study. PLoS ONE 2013;8. e58825 e58825.
- [36] Wang Z-K, Yang Y-S, Chen Y, Yuan J, Sun G, Peng L-H. Intestinal microbiota pathogenesis and fecal microbiota transplantation for inflammatory bowel disease. World J Gastroenterol 2014;20:14805–20.
- [37] Kang Y, Cai Y. Altered Gut Microbiota in HIV Infection: Future Perspective of Fecal Microbiota Transplantation Therapy. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses 2019;35:229–35.
- [38] Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, et al. Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. Lancet 2020;395:497–506.

- [39] Dhar D, Mohanty A. Gut microbiota and Covid-19- possible link and implications. Virus Res 2020;285. 198018 198018.
- [40] Pan L, Mu M, Yang P, et al. Clinical Characteristics of COVID-19 Patients With Digestive Symptoms in Hubei, China: A Descriptive, Cross-Sectional, Multicenter Study. Am J Gastroenterol 2020;115:766–73.
- [41] Suresh Kumar VC, Mukherjee S, Harne PS, et al. Novelty in the gut: a systematic review and meta-analysis of the gastrointestinal manifestations of COVID-19. BMJ Open Gastroenterol 2020;7.
- [42] Gou W, Fu Y, Yue L, et al. Gut microbiota may underlie the predisposition of healthy individuals to COVID-19. medRxiv 2020. p. 2020.2004.2022.20076091.
- [43] Liu Q, Zhou Y-H, Yang Z-Q. The cytokine storm of severe influenza and development of immunomodulatory therapy. Cell Mol Immunol 2016;13:3–10.
- [44] Huang K-J, Su I-J, Theron M, et al. An interferon-gamma-related cytokine storm in SARS patients. J Med Virol 2005;75:185–94.
- [45] Schirmer M, Smeekens SP, Vlamakis H, et al. Linking the Human Gut Microbiome to Inflammatory Cytokine Production Capacity. Cell 2016;167:1125–1136.e1128.
- [46] Kanauchi O, Andoh A, AbuBakar S, Yamamoto N. Probiotics and Paraprobiotics in Viral Infection: Clinical Application and Effects on the Innate and Acquired Immune Systems. Curr Pharm Des 2018;24:710–7.
- [47] Domínguez-Díaz C, García-Orozco A, Riera-Leal A, Padilla-Arellano JR, Fafutis-Morris M. Microbiota and Its Role on Viral Evasion: Is It With Us or Against Us? Front Cell Infect Microbiol 2019;9. 256 256.
- [48] Cole-Jeffrey CT, Liu M, Katovich MJ, Raizada MK, Shenoy V. ACE2 and Microbiota: Emerging Targets for Cardiopulmonary Disease Therapy. J Cardiovasc Pharmacol 2015;66:540–50.
- [49] Zuo T, Zhang F, Lui GCY, et al. Alterations in Gut Microbiota of Patients With COVID-19 During Time of Hospitalization. Gastroenterology 2020. pp. S0016-5085 (0020)34701-34706.
- [50] Xu K, Cai H, Shen Y, et al. [Management of corona virus disease-19 (COVID-19): the Zhejiang experience], *Zhejiang da xue xue bao*. Yi xue ban = J Zhejiang University. Med Sci 2020;49.
- [51] Fanos V, Pintus MC, Pintus R, Marcialis MA. Lung microbiota in the acute respiratory disease: from coronavirus to metabolomics. J Pediatric Neonatal Individualized Med (JPNIM) 2020;9:e090139.
- [52] Hauptmann M, Schaible UE. Linking microbiota and respiratory disease. FEBS Lett 2016;590:3721–38.
- [53] Hilty M, Burke C, Pedro H, et al. Disordered Microbial Communities in Asthmatic Airways. PLoS ONE 2010;5:e8578.
- [54] Lansbury L, Lim B, Baskaran V, Lim WS. Co-infections in people with COVID-19: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Infect 2020;81:266–75.
- [55] Zhang F. Washed Microbiota Transplantation for Patients With 2019-nCoV Infection. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/study/NCT04251767; 2020.
- [56] Buehler SBPKSBPK, Microbiota in COVID-19 Patients for Future Therapeutic and Preventive Approaches (MICRO-COV). https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/ NCT04410263; 2020.
- [57] Nseir S, Bacterial and Fungal Microbiota of Patients With Severe Viral Pneumonia With COVID-19 (MICROVID). https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04359706; 2020.
- [58] You JHS, Jiang X, Lee WH, Chan PKS, Ng SC. Cost-effectiveness analysis of fecal microbiota transplantation for recurrent Clostridium difficile infection in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2020.
- [59] Hill A, Wang J, Levi J, Heath K, Fortunak J. Minimum costs to manufacture new treatments for COVID-19. J Virus Erad 2020;6:61–9.
- [60] Wang S, Xu M, Wang W, et al. Systematic Review: Adverse Events of Fecal Microbiota Transplantation. PLoS ONE 2016;11:e0161174.
- [61] Wang JW, Kuo CH, Kuo FC, et al. Fecal microbiota transplantation: Review and update. J Formosan Med Assoc = Taiwan yi zhi 2019;118(Suppl 1):S23-s31.