

## Review

## Hypoalbuminemia in COVID-19: Molecular and Mechanistic Approach



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## Competing interests

The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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## Abstract

*Hypoalbuminemia is a clinical feature of COVID-19 which is caused by a multitude of processes in COVID-19, including acute liver damage (ALI), oxidative burst, viral-albumin binding, dysregulated immunological responses, and viral genome interference in the host cell, all of which lead to organ failure and patient mortality. We used a mechanistic approach to discuss number of potential molecular mechanisms that cause hypoalbuminemia, as well as some effective treatment methods. As this study employs molecular approaches to characterize hypoalbuminemia, this work is promising in molecular medicine and drug development.*

**Key words:** COVID-19, Hypoalbuminemia, Hospitalization, Mortality rate.

## Introduction

In December 2019, the first incidence of COVID-19 emerged as a series of Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS) in Wuhan, China (Tabibzadeh et al., 2021; Yuki et al., 2020), followed by a worldwide pandemic that quickly swept throughout the globe by April 6, 2020 (Sheam et al., 2020). The Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Corona Virus-19 (SARS-CoV-2) is a spherical, positive sense RNA virus with a ssRNA (27-32 kb long) that encodes ORF1 a/b, club-shaped glycoprotein (Kumar et al., 2020) or spikes, envelope, nucleocapsid, hemagglutinin-esterase, and other proteins (Tabibzadeh et al., 2021). SARS-CoV-2 is classified in the genus  $\beta$ -coronavirus in the order Nidovirales in the subfamily Coronavirinae in the family Coronaviridae, according to the International Committee on Virus Taxonomy (Cui et al., 2019). Two independently published findings from 2005 show that the natural host (Figure 1) is the horseshoe bat (*Rhinolophus affinis*) (Cui et al., 2019; Lau et al., 2005; Sheam et al., 2020) since the coronavirus isolated from the bat had 96 percent genomic uniqueness with SARS-CoV-2. However, the genetic distance implies an intermediate host, which is thought to be the Malayan pangolin (*Manis javanica*) (Sheam et al., 2020) but not confirmed yet.

Early COVID-19 research revealed symptoms of infection in the lower respiratory tract, such as fever with chills, pneumonia, dyspnea (Huang et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2020; Yuki et al., 2020), dry cough, shortness of breath, muscle pain, and loss of taste and smell (Sheam et al., 2020), but patients later developed headaches, dizziness, sputum production, and diarrhoea (Kumar et al., 2020; Sheam et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2020). Based on clinical examination, a research team led by Guan et al. (2020) found the lowest percentage of conjunctival congestion (Guan et al., 2020; Sheam et al., 2020). COVID-19, on the other hand, has been found to have a wide range of symptoms, ranging from moderate to severe hypoxia (Huang et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2020) and acute respiratory distress syndrome (Yuki et al., 2020). According to a survey of 2,134 pediatric COVID-19 patients in China, newborns and the elderly are more susceptible, while pediatric patients have a lower prevalence (Dong et al., 2020; Yuki et al., 2020).

We have previously reviewed the psychological impacts of COVID-19 (Khawar et al., 2021), nutraceuticals in relation to vitamin D and COVID infection (Farooq et al., 2022; Sohail et al., 2023), risk assessment in health workers during the pandemic (Amaan et al., 2020), and the second wave scenario and combating strategies (Khawar et al., 2022). In this review, our focus is on exploring the molecular pathways that are primarily affected in relation to hypoalbuminemia.

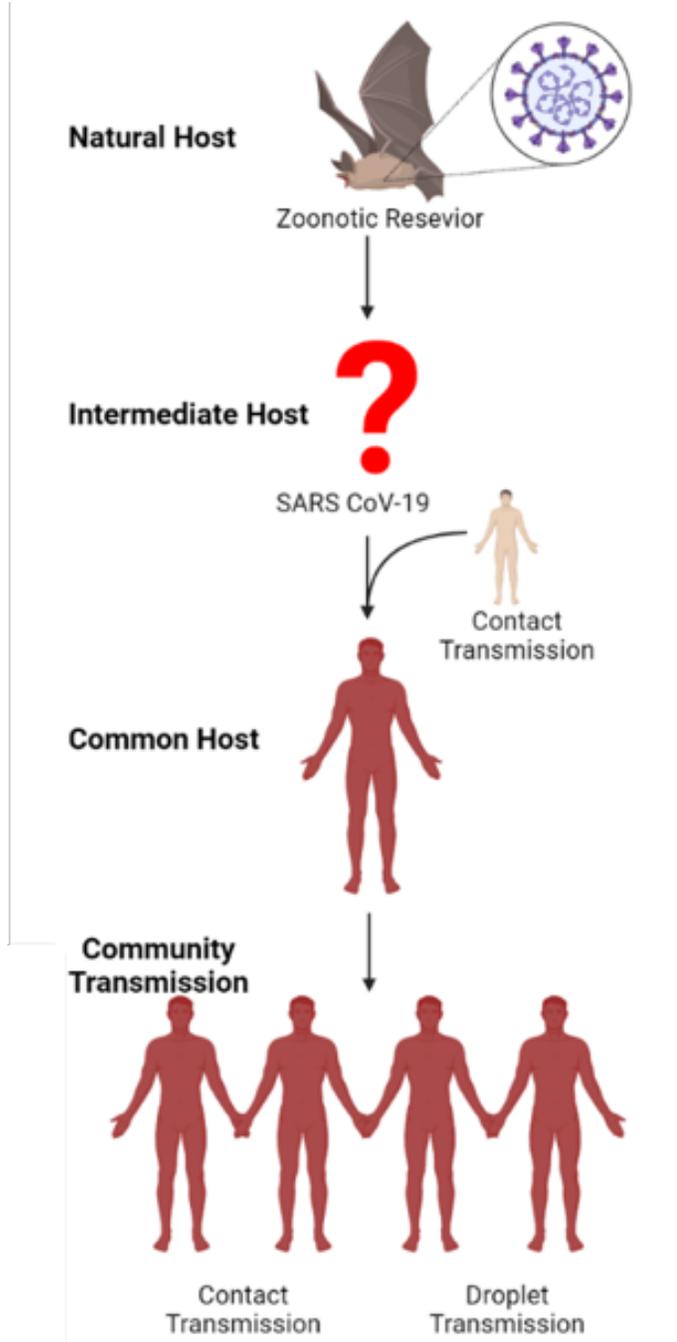


Figure 1: SARS-CoV-2 transmitted from its natural host *Rhinolophus affinis* to human through an undiscovered intermediate host. Community transmission is then triggered by close contact and airborne zoonotic droplets which include cough and sneezing.

## Albumin

Hepatocytes in liver produce human serum albumin (HSA), one of the most essential proteins present in our blood, weighing 66.5 kDA. Albumin levels are usually consistent between the

ages of 20 and 60, and albumin concentration in hepatocytes varies between 200 and 500 g/grams of liver. Serum albumin content has long been utilized as a health and disease indicator. Albumin is made up of 585 amino acids, with arginine, lysine, glutamate, and aspartate accounting for the majority of the charged amino acids (Moman et al., 2017). HSA's tertiary structure is heart-shaped and comprises two domains that are crucial for molecule transport and binding (He & Carter, 1992). Albumin may be found in both oxidized and reduced forms (Moman et al., 2017). The cystine-34 (Cys-34) residue in HSA serves as the primary and most significant extracellular antioxidant (Evans, 2002). The 16 imidazole histidine residues in albumin with a pH of 6.75 are crucial for performing buffer function relative to the ambient pH (King, 1961). Albumin serves antioxidant functions, endothelium stability, antithrombotic activity, and immunomodulation. Cysteine residue, domain I and II, and imidazole residue are the three major structural characteristics of albumin (Evans, 2002).

Within the hepatocytes, there is a unique manufacturing assembly line for albumin synthesis. In the nucleus, the blueprints for albumin production are transcribed from DNA. These mRNAs subsequently go to ribosomes, where they are translated into a 585-amino-acid-residue long albumin polypeptide. Albumin, like other secretory proteins, is not poured directly into the cytoplasm; instead, it follows an intracellular transit route. After translation, albumin polypeptide is transported from the endoplasmic reticulum to the Golgi apparatus, and subsequently to blood serum through intravascular spaces (Spinella et al., 2016). The concentration of potassium ions ( $K^+$ ) in hepatocytes has a big impact on this transport route (Rothschild et al., 1977). Albumin release is slowed down when potassium levels are low. Hepatocytes have a well-defined complex cytoplasm that serves as a highway for protein-containing vesicles to be transported outside the cell and discharged into liver lymph and eventually blood plasma.

## Albumin and COVID-19

The aim of this review is to focus on the suggested processes that cause hypoalbuminemia in COVID-19 patients, which, according to numerous studies, is independent of gender. Different research investigations on COVID-19 patients' serology have found indications of decreased HSA. We tried to compile most of the research that showed low HSA levels and compared albumin levels in COVID-19 individuals with severe and non-severe COVID-19, as indicated in the Table 1.

The average level of albumin in human blood is 34-35 g/L, but in severe COVID-19 patients, the level drops to as low as 20.3 g/L. At this level, many patients end up in the ICU and die, whereas non-severe patients show a few mild signs and symptoms.

SARS-CoV-2 targets ciliated bronchial epithelium and type-II pneumocytes through ACE-II, (Cui et al., 2019; Li et al., 2003; Qian et al., 2013), and its expressions are also found in numerous organs (Singhal, 2020), including the oral mucosa, kidney, brain, and thymus (Velasco et al., 2020). Hepatic endothelium contains high levels of ACE-II expression, and SARS-CoV-2 has been shown to cause hepatocyte lysis, leading to Acute Liver Injury (ALI) (Xu et al., 2020), making the liver a potential target for SARS-CoV-2 infection (Hamming et al., 2004; Hoffmann et al., 2020; Singhal, 2020; Tang et al., 2020; Velasco et al., 2020; Xu

et al., 2020). Albumin, is important for binding and transporting endogenous and exogenous molecules, antithrombotic functions, and antioxidant functions due to the presence of a free sulfhydryl group (Rahmani-Kukia et al., 2020) at the Cys-34 free end

amino acid residue (Spinella et al., 2016). Chemically, albumin's structure is susceptible to reversible or irreversible oxidation, thiolation, and nitrosylation via enzymatic or non-enzymatic reactions at residue Cys-34 (Spinella et al., 2016), resulting in

Table 1: Summary of COVID-19 patients with respect to rate of albumin in severe and non-severe patients

Sr. #	Study period	No. of Patients	Albumin (g/L)		References
			Severe	Non-Severe	
1	25 <sup>th</sup> January – 24 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	299	30.5	37.6	(J. Huang et al., 2020)
2	13 <sup>th</sup> January -28 <sup>th</sup> January	274	30.1	36.3	(Chen et al., 2020)
3	25 <sup>th</sup> December 2019 - 26 <sup>th</sup> January 2020	201	30.4	33.7	(Wu et al., 2020)
4	1 <sup>st</sup> January 2019 – 5 <sup>th</sup> February 2019	155	36.0	39.0	(Mo et al., 2020)
5	23 <sup>rd</sup> January 2020 - 8 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	135	36.0	49.9	(Wan et al., 2020)
6	18 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 22 <sup>nd</sup> February 2020.	115	34.4	40.4	(Zhang et al.)
7	15 <sup>th</sup> March 2020 and 31 <sup>st</sup> March 2020	48	29.0	39.2	(de la Rica et al., 2020)
8	16 <sup>th</sup> December 2019 -2 <sup>nd</sup> January2020	41	27.9	34.7	(Yang et al., 2020)
9	27 <sup>th</sup> January 2020	21	29.6	37.2	(Chen et al., 2012)
10	23 <sup>rd</sup> January 2020 -8 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	32	35.5	40.5	(C. Liu et al., 2020)
11	11 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 21 <sup>st</sup> January 2020	12	37.7	44.3	(Y. Liu et al., 2020)
12	27 <sup>th</sup> January 2020	21	30.2	37.3	(Chen et al., 2012)
13	10 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 -31 <sup>st</sup> January 2020	30	35.0	42.0	(M. Liu et al., 2020)
14	30 <sup>th</sup> December 2019 – 15 <sup>th</sup> January 2020	78	36.6	41.3	(Li et al., 2019)
15	28 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 6 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	17	46.0	44.9	(Chow et al., 2016)
16	21 <sup>st</sup> February 2020 – 31 <sup>st</sup> March 2020	427	20.3	28.3	(Aloisio et al., 2020)
17	13 <sup>th</sup> March 2020- 30 <sup>th</sup> April 2020	191	35.8	47.5	(Bastug et al., 2020)
18	23 <sup>rd</sup> January 2020 – 4 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	113	38.8	41.3	(Bi et al., 2020)
19	1 <sup>st</sup> March 2020 – 30 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	144	34.1	36.5	(Bonetti et al., 2020)
20	21 <sup>st</sup> January 2020 – 12 February 2020	80	32.8	36.8	(Cao et al., 2020)
21	1 <sup>st</sup> January 2020 – 20 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	456	37.9	40.2	(B. Cheng et al., 2020)
22	3 <sup>rd</sup> January 2020 – 26 February 2020	89	34.0	39.2	(L. Cheng et al., 2020)
23	15 <sup>th</sup> March 2020 – 31 <sup>st</sup> March 2020	48	29.0	39.2	(de la Rica et al., 2020)
24	13 <sup>th</sup> March 2020 – 12 <sup>th</sup> April 2020	65	40.9	42.0	(Deng et al., 2020)
25	23 <sup>rd</sup> January 2020 – 22 <sup>nd</sup> February 2020	114	29.9	35.6	(Feng et al., 2020)
26	5 <sup>th</sup> February 2020 – 8 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	95	30.5	34.9	(Gan et al., 2020)
27	28 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 9 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	210	30.8	36.2	(Gao et al., 2020)
28	March 2020 – April 2020	66	25.0	29.0	(Ghweil et al., 2020)
29	20 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 2 <sup>nd</sup> March 2020	189	34.2	39.7	(Gong et al., 2020)
30	28 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 29 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	74	26.5	29.4	(Guo et al., 2020)
31	1 <sup>st</sup> February 2020	53	31.7	41	(He et al., 2020)
32	20 <sup>th</sup> February 2020 and 30 <sup>th</sup> April 2020	61	31.0	39.5	(Hirashima et al., 2021)
33	21 <sup>st</sup> January 2020 – 9 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	101	32.3	36.5	(Hou et al., 2020)
34	24 <sup>th</sup> January 2020- 26 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	40	35.6	41.6	(H. Hu et al., 2020)
35	6 <sup>th</sup> February 2020 – 1 <sup>st</sup> March 2020	182	27.2	31.4	(J. Hu et al., 2020)
36	2 <sup>nd</sup> February 2020 – 31 <sup>st</sup> March 2020	469	31.4	32.7	(Hua et al., 2020)
37	2 <sup>nd</sup> January 2020	41	28.4	33.8	(C. Huang et al., 2020)
38	25 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 24 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	299	30.5	37.6	(J. Huang et al., 2020)
39	29 <sup>th</sup> January 2020- 6 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	2623	32.0	36.7	(W. Huang et al., 2020)
40	14 <sup>th</sup> March 2020 – 23 <sup>rd</sup> April 2020	1827	31.0	34.0	(Hundt et al., 2020)
41	21 <sup>st</sup> February 2020 – 2 <sup>nd</sup> April 2020	694	35.3	41.2	(Hong et al., 2020)
42	24 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 -17 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	115	33.2	35.5	(Lei et al., 2020)
43	January 2020 – 20 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	65	35.0	40.0	(W. Liu et al., 2020)
44	2 <sup>nd</sup> January 2020 – 15 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	523	36.3	40.7	(Li et al., 2021)
45	1 <sup>st</sup> January 2020 – 20 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	134	36.0	40.4	(Q. Liu et al., 2020)
46	17 <sup>th</sup> January 2020-13 <sup>th</sup> April 2020	232	35.2	38.4	(Lian, 2020)
47	20 <sup>th</sup> February 2020 – 17 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	1590	32.6	33.9	(Liang et al., 2020)
48	13 <sup>th</sup> January 2020-24 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	61	41.8	44.0	(J. Liu et al., 2020)
49	1 <sup>st</sup> February 2020 – 13 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	336	27.6	35.8	(Q. Liu et al., 2020)
50	10 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 -15 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	625	38.4	41.9	(S. Liu et al., 2020)
51	30 <sup>th</sup> December 2019 – 15 <sup>th</sup> January 2020	78	36.6	41.3	(D. Li et al., 2020)
52	16 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	523	38.9	40.7	(Ma et al., 2020)
53	12 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 26 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	118	33.1	33.6	(J. Zhou et al., 2020)
54	10 <sup>th</sup> March 2020- 2 <sup>nd</sup> June 2020	45	25.0	34.7	(Mori et al., 2020)

55	27 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 19 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	124	28.1	29.1	(Pan et al., 2020)
56	20 <sup>th</sup> February 2020 – 2 <sup>nd</sup> April 2020	570	30.0	34.7	(Toutkaboni et al., 2020)
57	30 <sup>th</sup> March 2020 – 15 May 2020	109	27.0	31.9	(Recinella et al., 2020)
58	29 <sup>th</sup> December 2019 – 1 <sup>st</sup> February 2020	191	29.0	33.5	(F. Zhou et al., 2020)
59	31 <sup>st</sup> January 2020 – 29 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	87	29.3	36.2	(Paliogiannis et al., 2021)
60	15 <sup>th</sup> March 2020 – 15 <sup>th</sup> May 2020	105	32.3	34.7	(Zinellu et al., 2021)
61	6 <sup>th</sup> April 2020 – 6 <sup>th</sup> May 2020	61	26.0	33.0	(Tsiouris et al., 2020)
62	1 <sup>st</sup> April 2020 – 31 <sup>st</sup> May 2020	144	29.8	33.3	(Varim et al., 2020)
63	March 2020 – April 2020	319	30.3	33.9	(F Violi et al., 2020)
64	10 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 28 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	85	33.2	37.6	(Gao et al., 2020)
65	15 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 28 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	143	32.0	38.6	(D. Wang et al., 2020)
66	29 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 10 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	28	30.5	35.0	(Feng et al., 2020)
67	28 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 4 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	199	31.6	34.9	(Deng et al., 2020)
68	12 <sup>th</sup> January 2020- 17 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	105	37.7	42.1	(Q. Wang et al., 2020)
69	20 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 10 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	275	34.3	41.0	(Y. Wang et al., 2020)
70	25 <sup>th</sup> December 2019 – 13 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	201	30.3	33.7	(Wu et al., 2020)
71	10 <sup>th</sup> February 2020 – 7 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	114	28.0	34.8	(Xue et al., 2020)
72	30 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 11 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	108	31.1	39.3	(Cieřlik-Guerra et al., 2014)
73	14 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 28 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	1663	34.5	35.7	(Yu et al., 2020)
74	22 <sup>nd</sup> January 2020 – 14 <sup>th</sup> March 2020	461	35.6	40.3	(Zeng et al., 2021)
75	January 2020 – April 2020	80	32.8	37.5	(C. Zhang et al., 2020)
76	17 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 8 <sup>th</sup> February 2020	645	41.0	42.5	(X. Zhang et al., 2020)
77	18 <sup>th</sup> January 2020 – 22 <sup>nd</sup> February 2020	115	34.4	40.4	(Y. Liu et al., 2020)
78	19 <sup>th</sup> February 2020 – 15 <sup>th</sup> April 2020	123	40.4	42.4	(C. Zhou et al., 2020)

free thiol groups that acts as an effective hunter for reactive oxidant species (ROS) such as H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sup>2-</sup>, OH, and others (Inoue et al., 2018; Spinella et al., 2016; Francesco Violi et al., 2020).

### Hypoalbuminemia in COVID-19

In a study (Mardani et al., 2020), increased aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) values were seen in 70 out of 200 COVID-19 patients, indicating ALI. Another research by Xu et al. (Chen et al., 2020) suggests that hepatotoxicity caused by viruses, as well as liver damage caused by immunological activation or inflammation, may result in increased levels of aminotransferases such ALT and AST. When such an abnormal state occurs, followed by high oxidative stress due to an innate immune response, ROS are released, which permanently oxidize Cys-34, destroying or decreasing its antioxidant function and causing tissue and organ damage (Inoue et al., 2018; Spinella et al., 2016; Violi et al., 2020) (Figure 2). By secreting cytokines, the endothelium, as one of the primary bodily defense lines, regulates innate and adaptive immune responses (Loganathan et al., 2021). Furthermore, infection raises inflammatory markers like as C-reactive protein, tumor necrosis factor, and others in COVID patients. The production of these acute phase proteins necessitates albumin consumption, resulting in hypoalbuminemia (T. Li et al., 2020). Binding and transport of particles is one of albumin's most essential functions. It is possible for the binding to be competitive or non-competitive. SARS-CoV-2 binds non-specifically and irreversibly to albumin; therefore, the equilibrium is determined by the relative HSA concentration and the free virus particle. As the infection progresses, the balance is disrupted, resulting in an increase in virus-albumin complexes (Figure 3). This causes a breakdown in albumin-mediated nutrient transportation, resulting in decreased cell nutrition and a cell's vulnerability to lysis, ultimately leading to organ failure. As a result, viral -albumin binding in the blood inhibits albumin from transporting nutrients (Johnson et al., 2020).

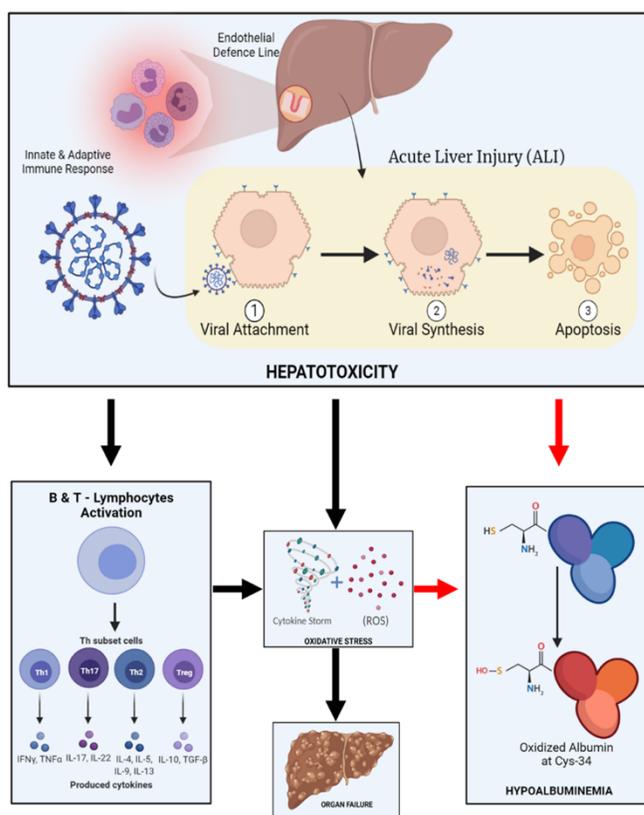


Figure 2: Various molecular mechanisms are responsible for organ dysfunction. These mechanisms include release of ROS by liver cells, immune cells and endothelium shown by black arrows cause overall organ damage. High oxidative stress and acute liver injury (ALI) shown by red arrows cause albumin oxidation which results in hypoalbuminemia.

Under stress, the immune system also releases proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines (Figure 2). T-subset cells such as Th1, Th2, and Th17 release cytokines such as IL-6, IL-7, IL-

10, G-CSF, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IP-10 in response to lymphocyte activation (Loganathan et al., 2021), resulting in a cytokine storm (Kouhpayeh et al., 2020) that causes significant oxidative stress (Loganathan et al., 2021) and hepatotoxicity in the liver (W. Huang et al., 2020). When albumin distribution is changed in intra and extravascular spaces owing to excess leakage via capillaries, the cytokine storm by immune response causes dysregulation of the inflammatory response, which is directly related with hypoalbuminemia in severe cases. In COVID-19 patients, inflammatory dysregulation and, indirectly, hypoalbuminemia have been related to increased mortality and long-term hospitalisation in severe instances (Viana-Llamas et al., 2021)

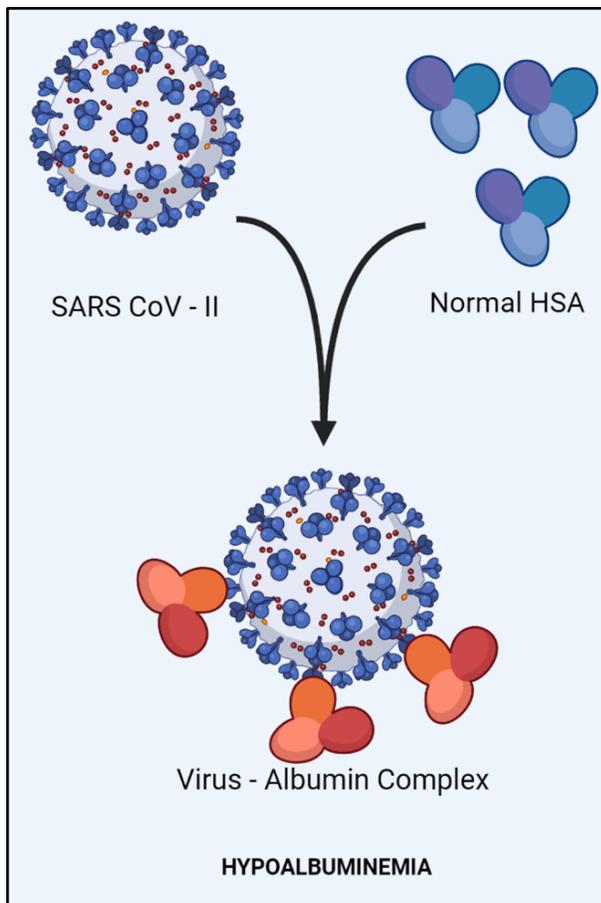


Figure 3: HSA (shown in blue) binds with viral particles resulting in viral – albumin complexes in serum. This binding diminishes the vital functions of albumin (shown in red) leading to hypoalbuminemia.

Hypoalbuminemia is linked to unfavourable outcomes including acute heart failure, sepsis, acute renal damage, and acute respiratory dysfunction syndrome (ARDS), according to a retrospective observational research (Viana-Llamas et al. 2021). In hypoalbuminemic conditions, cardiovascular and cardiac problems are more likely to arise due to a lack of physiological activities such as antioxidant, anti-coagulant, and anti-platelet characteristics, as well as colloidal osmotic functions (Viana-Llamas et al., 2021). It is possible that the viral genome instructs the host cell to release type-I interferons and proinflammatory cytokines, resulting in higher levels of IL-6, C-reactive proteins, and tumour necrosis factor. In COVID-19 patients, elevated levels of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6, IL-7, IL-10, G-CSF, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IP-10 have been found in several investigations. On the one hand, these cytokines increase ROS,

which accelerates ATP and NAD<sup>+</sup> depletion (Kouhpayeh et al., 2020) and, on the other hand, cell lysis (apoptosis or necrosis). This condition eventually leads to organ malfunction (Loganathan et al., 2021).

## Therapeutic Strategies

It has recently been shown that there should be an etiological therapy eliminating the underlying cause, rather than a symptomatic treatment, based on the concept that "hypoalbuminemia is not a disease but a symptom" (Sitges-Serra, 2001). In this work, we attempted to determine the processes underlying low HSA, which has resulted in higher mortality and hospitalization in COVID-19 patients, suggesting that 1) oxidative stress and 2) viral load are the primary causes of hypoalbuminemia. There is a potential that the normal HSA can be restored if oxidative stress and viral load are both lowered by medicines.

Furthermore, minimal benefit can be obtained when it is treated symptomatically, i.e., by administering salt-poor exogenous albumin, but this feature is disputed and currently under research, according to current evidence. A short comparative analysis of 17 non-COVID-19 patients found that recurrent albumin infusions improved liver cirrhosis (Tarao & Iwamura, 1983), and another unblinded and randomised trial of 100 cirrhotic and ascitic patients found the same findings (Romanelli et al., 2006). Some studies also show that albumin has some therapeutic effectiveness in cirrhosis, acting as a regulator of inflammation and oxidative stress, as well as better oxygenation in ARDS (Soeters et al., 2019). Several investigations and trials in severe liver injury have indicated that albumin infusion reduces the incidence of circulatory dysfunction, mortality, and morbidity, although albumin infusion is not the ultimate step in COVID-19 patients (Gatta et al., 2012). Another approach is albumin dialysis, which involves adapting some extracorporeal liver support systems, such as the Prometheus system and single pass albumin dialysis, to replace non-functional albumin with functional albumin. Despite this, clinical dietitians can assess with a proper diet plan for the patients that includes all raw amino acid residue for increasing albumin synthesis rate (Xu et al., 2020), and thus clinical dietitians can assess with a proper diet plan for the patients that includes all raw amino acid residue for increasing albumin synthesis rate. As a result, in order to eliminate the cause, COVID-19 patients should be treated with medicines that may protect the damaged organ, mostly the liver, while also preventing oxidative stress in general, such as ammonium glycyrrhizinate, which can speed up the disease recovery process (Xu et al., 2020).

## Conclusion

SARS-CoV-2 has infected people in every country on the planet since its discovery, causing numerous complications, organ failure, and death. Hypoalbuminemia, one of its clinical manifestations, has been linked to COVID-19 and has been used as a predictor of death and extended hospitalization. Low HSA is most likely caused by oxidative stress, viral attachment to albumin, capillary leakage, and a variety of other factors such as an overly controlled immune system, viral interference in the host genome, and minor problems. Most of the aforementioned factors enhance oxidative stress by secreting cytokines and chemokines, resulting in a cytokine storm in the body, which leads to hypoalbuminemia. Hypoalbuminemia causes HSA

essential characteristics to malfunction, resulting in extended hospitalization or even death of patients. To avoid this condition, a symptomatic strategy may be used to decrease the negative consequences of hypoalbuminemia, which includes dietary evaluations, albumin infusion, and eventually the use of an organ support system such as albumin dialysis. The pathogenic root-mechanisms should be eliminated by medicines when treated etiologically to reduce total oxidative stress. COVID-19 patients' mortality and hospitalization may be decreased because of this strategy.

## Future Perspectives

There is a lot of information about nearly every element of SARS-CoV-2, but it isn't comprehensive yet. Hypoalbuminemia, being one of the primary symptoms of COVID-19, necessitates additional research into some of its features, such as treatment methods based on genetic control or advancements in albumin infusion, which is still contentious, to reduce total hospitalization and death.

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