

## COVID-19 AND PERIODONTAL DISEASE – ETHIOPATHOGENIC AND CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS

Maria-Alexandra Martu<sup>1</sup>, George-Alexandru Maftai<sup>2\*</sup>, Irina-Georgeta Sufaru<sup>1\*</sup>, Igor Jelihovschi<sup>3</sup>, Ionut Luchian<sup>1</sup>, Loredana Hurjui<sup>4</sup>, Ioana Martu<sup>5</sup>, Liliana Pasarin<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Grigore T. Popa”, Faculty of Dental Medicine, Department of Periodontology, Iasi, Romania

<sup>2</sup>University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Grigore T. Popa”, Faculty of Dental Medicine, Department of Oral Pathology, Iasi, Romania

<sup>3</sup>Phd Student, University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Grigore T. Popa”, Department of Microbiology, Iasi, Romania

<sup>4</sup>University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Grigore T. Popa”, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Physiology, Iasi, Romania

<sup>5</sup>University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Grigore T. Popa”, Faculty of Dental Medicine, Department of Prosthetic Dentistry, Iasi, Romania

*Corresponding author:* Maftai George Alexandru: [maftai.george.gm@gmail.com](mailto:maftai.george.gm@gmail.com),  
Sufaru Irina Georgeta: [irina\\_ursarescu@yahoo.com](mailto:irina_ursarescu@yahoo.com)

*All authors had equal contributions with the first author*

### Abstract

SARS-CoV-2 was first discovered in December 2019 as the etiologic agent of a serious respiratory illness later called COVID-19 or coronavirus disease 2019. The first COVID-19 case was reported in Wuhan, China and since then, has reached a pandemic level, spreading all over the world and multiplying faster than any other respiratory disease known until now in modern times, with more than 85 million confirmed cases and almost 2 million deaths, according to the latest information from the World Health Organization (WHO).

Periodontal disease is one of the most common diseases of the oral cavity that has systemic implications in the overall health homeostasis. It is an inflammatory disease that involves a series of dysbiotic events caused by periodontopathogenic microflora that causes destruction of the periodontal tissues locally, and an exacerbated proinflammatory status systemically. Diabetes mellitus, metabolic syndrome and obesity, hypertension, cardiovascular disease, chronic kidney disease, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and autoimmune diseases have been identified as risk factors for both periodontitis and severe Covid-19 infections. These diseases have similar inflammatory pathways that are involved in the progression of these conditions, thus, it is fair to assume a pathological common link.

**Keywords:** COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2, Periodontal disease, Cytokines, Immune system, Oral transmission

### 1. Introduction

Covid-19 is a worldwide infection that challenged the functionality of every aspect of our lives, from healthcare to the economy to journalism to education. The velocity of the spread illustrated a challenge both for health care providers, policymakers and also higher education medical schools [1].

Coronaviruses belong to the Nidovirales order, which includes also Roniviridae, Arteriviridae, Mesoniviridae

and Coronaviridae families. Coronaviruses have a specific complex RNA genome and causes a variety of systemic diseases in mammals going from respiratory infections, enteritis to fatal human respiratory illness [2].

Covid-19 it is a respiratory disease caused by a new type of coronavirus called SARS-CoV-2. The name coronavirus comes from the latin word “corona” and reflects the image of the virus seen under an electron microscope as round areas that

resemble with the solar corona. These viruses, pertaining to the coronavirus family were discovered in humans in 1965. Coronavirus belongs to the family Coronaviridae which, in general, gives the human host mild respiratory diseases. Lately, the human population encountered three major coronaviruses that caused major disease outbreaks, first is SARS-CoV appeared in 2002, followed by the Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS -CoV) in 2012 and the third and the latest: severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV2) [3].

In December 2019, several cases of pneumonia of unknown etiology were reported in Wuhan, China. The outbreak began in early December and the number of cases increased rapidly. More than 80,000 cases were reported in China by March 15, 2020, with more than 3,000 deaths[4]. COVID 19 soon turned into a pandemic. Initial reports showed that although the majority of COVID-19 cases have a mild to moderate pathological response, approximately 20% of cases are severe and the fatality rate seems to depend on age and sex (higher percentage in the elderly and in men) [5].

Oral diseases such as caries and periodontal disease, are some of the most prevalent diseases globally thus they represent an important public health issue and exert major health and economic burdens for the socio-economic interface, communities and also for individuals [6].

Periodontal diseases are a group of pathologies of an inflammatory nature in which a host response is induced by microbial etiologic factors that mediate inflammatory events, which lead to tissue destruction in susceptible subjects [7]. The global prevalence of severe periodontitis in 2017 reached almost 800 million people [8].

Periodontitis is an inflammatory infectious disease of a chronic nature that is multifactorial and it affects not only the

supporting tissues of the dental unit but it also has nefarious systemic effects [9]. Escalating evidence in the literature indicates that periodontal disease is correlated to several chronic systemic diseases, due to the fact that it is a chronic low-burden inflammation. These pathologies include diabetes mellitus, metabolic syndrome and obesity, cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, autoimmune diseases, Alzheimer disease and cancer [10-13]. All of these systemic diseases, with the addition of old age and smoking, have been described as risk factors for severe COVID-19 infections [14].

The purpose of this article is to draw attention to common pathological and inflammatory pathways between periodontal disease and COVID-19, and further imply that periodontitis could be a contributing or exacerbating factor for COVID-19 severity.

## **2. Epidemiology of COVID-19 and periodontal disease**

The causative agent of the outbreak has been identified as a beta-coronavirus with a genomic sequence related to the 2003 severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS), called SARS-CoV-2. It is most likely derived from bats, but may be amplified by an intermediate host [3].

In the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, the transmission dynamics was considered to be via the exposure of the population to the wet markets [4], however, later in march 2020 the number of people who developed the disease without exposure to the wet markets has increased, and it was suggested that rather a man to man spreading of the COVID-19 was more plausible [15].

Similar to other respiratory viruses, the direct or indirect droplet borne infection is considered to be the principal way of spreading. The velocity of the spread of SARS-CoV-2 has been swift.

Already over 85 million people have been infected and almost 2 million people have died as a result of the disease globally [16]. Older individuals and those with comorbidities have a higher risk of developing a severe form of COVID-19 infection [17].

Another world resource consuming disease is represented by periodontal disease, which is the most commonly diagnosed oral disease. Periodontal disease has two stages, gingivitis and periodontitis. The first stage is reversible with the aid of dental prophylaxis, while the second stage, the irreversible one, represents an inflammatory disease of the deeper supporting structures of the tooth [9].

Periodontal disease develops when oral periodontopathogenic bacteria adhere to the teeth in the gingival socket and cause an immune response from the host. Bacteria are present as a planktonic form or in the bacterial plaque or biofilm, which is composed of salivary glycoproteins and extracellular polysaccharides [18].

Periodontal disease represents one of the most common diseases worldwide affecting 20% to 50% of the world population, according to certain studies [6, 19, 20]. If we take a look at the prevalence of periodontal disease we observe that it increases directly with age, and men have a higher prevalence and severity when compared to women [19].

The most important risk factors for periodontitis are represented by age, gender, hereditary factors, diabetes mellitus and smoking. Periodontal disease has been linked to certain systemic conditions such as pregnancy, menopause but also many systemic diseases like atherosclerosis, diabetes mellitus, and autoimmune disorders (such as AIDS or rheumatic diseases) via an increased level of serum C - reactive protein (CRP), a marker used in determining the level of inflammation in the body [21]. These same factors, with the addition of smoking as a major risk factor, have been also

associated with COVID-19, and since the levels of CRP shows us the systemic proinflammatory status, it is possible that periodontal status may indicate the risk and the severity of COVID-19.

### 3. Ethiopathogenic mechanisms and diagnosis of Covid-19

Coronaviruses are a group of related RNA viruses that have a specific and complex genome and cause a variety of systemic diseases in mammals that can range from respiratory infections to enteritis to fatal human respiratory illness. The structure of a coronavirus is represented by membrane, envelope, nucleocapsid and spike proteins, these last proteins are important because when they interact with a specific cell receptor from the host and mediate the membrane passing process, the Covid-19 disease commences [22]. It has been reported in the literature that SARS-CoV-2 interacts with angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) and dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP4) [23]. This receptor is highly expressed in nasal goblet cells, ciliated airway cells, type II alveolar pneumocytes, enterocytes, renal tissues and cardiovascular tissues [24-26].

Some authors have reported in the scientific literature that the most frequent locations for the inoculation are in the upper aerodigestive tract, with the highest expression patterns of ACE2 being the oral mucosa, vocal cords, salivary glands and the sinuses, while lower levels of ACE2 were reported in the tonsils, pharyngeal and laryngeal epithelium [27].

Patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 can develop a wide range of symptoms such as fever, dry cough, shortness of breath, gastrointestinal and other symptoms, such as abdominal pain, diarrhea, anorexia, vomiting, myalgias, headaches, dizziness, anosmia, dysgeusia, sore throat, fatigue, and chills. However, the main clinical symptom remains pulmonary inflammation, and in more

severe cases tachypnea, dyspnea and also severe pneumonia can be present, which can trigger respiratory failure, septic shock and multiorgan failure [28].

The immune response in Covid-19 has two phases. The first phase is the body's response directly to the viral infection, and the second phase is represented by the cytokine storm reaction and this causes autoimmune induced damage to lungs, gastric mucosa, brain and other structures. Infection with SARS-CoV-2 determines a complex activation of neutrophils, T helper 17 (Th17) cells, Th1 cells, dendritic cells and higher levels of Immunoglobulin-1 (IL-1), IL-6, and IL-10, IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-4, IL-10, Interferon-  $\gamma$  (INF- $\gamma$ ), Tumor Necrosis Factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ), interferon gamma-induced protein 10, and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 and these information led to the idea that high levels of ACE2 expression after infection were involved with immune system dysregulation and followed the cytokine storm [29]. A weakened innate immune system leads to a higher SARS-CoV-2 viral count, overresponse of the adaptive immune system and cytokine storm. In another study, the authors verified the connection between C-reactive protein and vitamin D and they found out vitamin D deficiency can exacerbate the response to the cytokine storm [30].

Other manifestations associated with Covid-19 are high levels of iron, lymphocytopenia, decreased platelet count, and high ESR (erythrocyte sedimentation rate) [31].

High reactivity of platelets and thrombotic reaction contributes to morbidity through increased platelet-leukocyte interactions. Children with COVID-19 present milder symptoms when compared to adults. More often observed symptoms include acute chest infections, pyrexia, dry cough, sore throat, sneezing, myalgia and lethargy. Another important syndrome associated with SARS-CoV-2

observed in children is multisystem inflammatory syndrome [32].

The positive diagnosis of COVID-19 is based on a molecular or antigen test that detects viral RNA and on a suggestive clinical history, including exposure history and clinical manifestations of SARS-CoV-2 [33]. Covid-19 initial stages clinically mimics any other viral respiratory disease, so infection with SARS-CoV-2 must be differentiated from influenza, parainfluenza, coronavirus, adenovirus, HIV and bacterial pneumonias. Pulmonary inflammation is the major pathologic manifestation of COVID-19 and patients should undergo a chest X-ray or CT scan examination in order to see if there are modifications such as peribronchial thickening or pneumonia [34]. However, CT should be reserved only to hospitalized patients with specific clinical indications for this evaluation [35].

Abnormal blood test results show higher levels of C-reactive protein, lactate dehydrogenase, ferritin, procalcitonin, creatine kinase, alanine aminotransferase, aspartate aminotransferase and low albumin [36].

#### 4. Interactions between Covid-19 and Periodontal disease

Periodontitis represents an inflammatory disease that is associated with several chronic systemic diseases like diabetes, metabolic syndrome, asthma, cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, cancer, renal disease, autoimmune diseases, Alzheimer disease, Viral Hepatitis. All of these systemic conditions, plus smoking, have been described as being risk factors for severe infections with SARS-CoV-2 [5,7, 37].

Another important factor that could underline the connection between COVID-19 and periodontitis is age. Periodontal disease affects elderly people, because they have some associated risk factors such as: poor oral hygiene, longtime medication, chronic diseases, and from the

COVID-19 point of view, patients over 65 years represent a higher risk group due to chronic comorbidities and the weakened immune response [7, 38].

Hypertension is the main risk factor for cardiovascular disease and epidemiological studies demonstrated an association between hypertension, cardiovascular disease and periodontitis [39]. High density CRP is a marker present in cardiovascular diseases and also in periodontitis where is increased by large production of cytokines. Hypertension represents one of the main comorbidities to the COVID-19 patients [40].

Oral dysbiosis represents the loss of the balance of the oral microbial communities and it is associated with many oral diseases like periodontitis, candidiasis and others. The main bacteria involved in the appearance of periodontitis are *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Tanerella forsythia*, *Treponema denticola*, *Prevotella intermedia*, *Selenomona*, *Aggregatibacter* and others [41].

The series of events that develop in the oral cavity that lead to oral dysbiosis is a process called polymicrobial synergy, where bacteria interacts and causes tissue damage and complex inflammation [42]. Patients diagnosed with Covid-19 had higher levels of ACE2 on the oral mucosa and also an increased presence of *Prevotella*, *Fusobacterium*, *Veillonella*, therefore this could constitute an important proof of the link between periodontitis and Covid-19 [43].

Rheumatoid arthritis is a chronic inflammatory disease that has been correlated with periodontal disease, several studies showed that people with rheumatoid arthritis have a worsened systemic status if they suffer also from periodontitis [44]. With regards to the Covid-19 infection, the main concern of rheumatologists is the susceptibility of rheumatoid arthritis subjects of developing more severe symptoms. On the other hand the treatment with hydroxychloroquine for

rheumatoid arthritis has also been reported as an effective treatment for certain cases of Covid-19, however further studies are necessary to assess its effectiveness for these patients [45].

The ethiopathogeny of cancer is not yet fully understood, however, according to some studies, it can appear due to microorganisms that increase the inflammation in the body. That being said, there is not enough evidence in the literature that establishes a causal link between cancer and periodontal disease [46]. There is however an increased susceptibility of cancer patients to develop Covid-19 infection due to their suppressed immune response, but also a more adverse outcome due to many other systemic issues like respiratory infections, nutritional problems and also vitamin and mineral absorption deficiencies [47].

Smoking is the most important risk factor in periodontal disease and it affects the disease progression but more importantly, it's response to periodontal treatment [48]. The key mechanisms that would give us the upper hand in the fight with periodontal disease and Covid-19 are crippled by smoking. Those mechanisms are the immune response of the host, the normal activity of periodontal tissues and a powerful microenvironment to fight against pathogens. Furthermore, smoking increases the expression of ACE2 and is an additional risk factor in the progression of Covid-19, but more studies are necessary to determine the real risk of Covid-19 among smokers [49].

Regarding the possible direct link between Covid-19 and periodontitis many studies have shown a potential connection, starting with the bacteria involved in COVID-19 infection that seems to be the same to those from the oral cavity. Periodontal affected tissues represent a wide entry point for bacterial or viral pathogens like SARS-CoV-2, due to the clinical manifestation represented by extended ulcerated areas. Also



periodontitis increases the systemic inflammation burden and this leads to the release of proinflammatory cytokines and tissue destruction mediators in the circulatory system [50].

The cytokine storm caused by the COVID-19 infection is very similar to the cytokine imbalance involved in the development of periodontitis, suggesting a possible link between COVID-19 and periodontitis complications [51]. In both Covid-19 and periodontitis the recruitment of cells of inflammation is caused by chemokines. In patients with Covid-19 hospitalized in the intensive care unit, elevated serum levels of IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-7, IL-10, IL-17, IL-2, IL-9, Th17, IFN-gamma, GM-CSF, G-CSF, IL-8, TNF- $\alpha$ , MIP1B, MCP1, MIP1A and IP10 were observed [29].

## 5. Dental practitioner recommendations

The best way of treating someone is prevention. Is highly important to respect social distancing and isolation in order not to transmit the infection. The more effective actions in order to reduce the risk of infection is washing hands frequently, home quarantine if you are infected, travel restrictions, use of masks to cover both mouth and nose when talking, sneezing or coughing.

Medical staff should prevent and control the infections during the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, and the ways of preventing an infection should be explained carefully to every patient. Patients should be highly advised not to come to the medical, dental or any type of practice if they have symptoms of Covid-19 infection. Another important aspect is using triage protocols so that the medical staff can determine if the patient genuinely needs a physical doctor's appointment, or he can be investigated using telehealth strategies.

Considering the fact that some periodontal procedures are considered high risk, such as the use of water-air spray, sonic and ultrasonic scaling, polishing with rotary instruments and other aerosol generating maneuvers, practitioners are advised to limit as much as possible these procedures during these times and even postpone them if the patient is suspect of infection with SARS-CoV-2. Doctors and assistants must investigate every patient thoroughly for signs of Covid-19 infection, and these investigative actions must be made outside the clinic, in a separate building [51].

Medical staff should offer patients and workers, alcohol based 60-95% hand sanitizers and also tissues for personal use.

Patients with Covid-19 symptoms should be evaluated separately and they should not wait among other patients until he is investigated.

Others methods used for preventing infection with SARS-CoV-2 are represented by the oral mouthwashes, because they have the capacity of reducing microorganism load inside the oral cavity [52]. There are many mouthwashes that can be used, but the most effective are those with chlorhexidine 0.020%, due to the fact that it is effective on Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria and also on viruses like influenza A, parainfluenza, herpes virus 1, cytomegalovirus and hepatitis B. Other mouthwashes that can be used are those based on hydrogen peroxide, cetylpyridinium chloride and iodopovidone [51].

**Conclusions.** It is unclear until now if infection with Covid-19 offers immunity or for how long it lasts. Another issue is the fact that the presence of antibodies may not offer immunity. All in all, the best way of keeping healthy is by respecting the preventive measures.

## References:

1. Norina F. COVID-19 challenges in dental health care and dental schools. *Rom J Oral Rehab.* 2020 Apr;12(2):6-12.
2. Bartas M, Brázda V, Bohálová N, Cantara A, Volná A, Stachurová T, Malachová K, Jagelská EB, Porubiaková O, Červený J, Pečinka P. In-depth bioinformatic analyses of nidovirales including human SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV viruses suggest important roles of non-canonical nucleic acid structures in their lifecycles. *Frontiers in microbiology.* 2020 Jul 3;11:1583.
3. Gorbalenya AE, Baker SC, Baric R, Groot RJ, Drosten C, Gulyaeva AA, Haagmans BL, Lauber C, Leontovich AM, Neuman BW, Penzar D. Severe acute respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus: The species and its viruses—a statement of the Coronavirus Study Group.
4. Li Q, Guan X, Wu P. Early transmission dynamics in Wuhan, China, of novel Coronavirus-infected pneumonia. *N Engl J Med.* 2020;382(13):1199–1207.[PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
5. Cao Y, Hiyoshi A, Montgomery S. COVID-19 case-fatality rate and demographic and socioeconomic influencers: worldwide spatial regression analysis based on country-level data. *BMJ open.* 2020 Nov 1;10(11):e043560.
6. Peres MA, Macpherson LM, Weyant RJ, Daly B, Venturelli R, Mathur MR, Listl S, Celeste RK, Guarnizo-Herreño CC, Kearns C, Benzian H. Oral diseases: a global public health challenge. *The Lancet.* 2019 Jul 20;394(10194):249-60
7. Slots J. Periodontitis: facts, fallacies and the future. *Periodontology 2000.* 2017 Oct;75(1):7-23.
8. GBD 2017 Oral Disorders Collaborators, Bernabe E, Marcenes W, Hernandez CR, Bailey J, Abreu LG, Alipour V, Amini S, Arabloo J, Arefi Z, Arora A. Global, regional, and national levels and trends in burden of oral conditions from 1990 to 2017: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease 2017 study. *Journal of dental research.* 2020 Apr;99(4):362-73.
9. Hajishengallis G. Periodontitis: from microbial immune subversion to systemic inflammation. *Nature Reviews Immunology.* 2015 Jan;15(1):30-44.
10. Liccardo D, Cannavo A, Spagnuolo G, Ferrara N, Cittadini A, Rengo C, Rengo G. Periodontal disease: A risk factor for diabetes and cardiovascular disease. *International journal of molecular sciences.* 2019 Jan;20(6):1414.
11. Sanz M, Marco del Castillo A, Jepsen S, Gonzalez-Juanatey JR, D'Aiuto F, Bouchard P, Chapple I, Dietrich T, Gotsman I, Graziani F, Herrera D. Periodontitis and cardiovascular diseases: Consensus report. *Journal of Clinical Periodontology.* 2020 Mar;47(3):268-88.
12. Gomes-Filho IS, Cruz SS, Trindade SC, Passos-Soares JD, Carvalho-Filho PC, Figueiredo AC, Lyrio AO, Hintz AM, Pereira MG, Scannapieco F. Periodontitis and respiratory diseases: A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Oral Diseases.* 2020 Mar;26(2):439-46.
13. Nazir MA. Prevalence of periodontal disease, its association with systemic diseases and prevention. *International journal of health sciences.* 2017 Apr;11(2):72.
14. Xu L, Mao Y, Chen G. Risk factors for 2019 novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) patients progressing to critical illness: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Aging (Albany NY).* 2020 Jun 30;12(12):12410.
15. Ralp R, Lew J, Zeng T. 2019-nCoV (Wuhan virus), a novel Coronavirus: human-to-human transmission, travel-related cases, and vaccine readiness. *J Infect Dev Ctries.* 2020;14(01):3–17. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
16. <https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus/>
17. Clark A, Jit M, Warren-Gash C, Guthrie B, Wang HH, Mercer SW, Sanderson C, McKee M, Troeger C, Ong KL, Checchi F. Global, regional, and national estimates of the population at increased risk of severe COVID-19 due to underlying health conditions in 2020: a modelling study. *The Lancet Global Health.* 2020 Aug 1;8(8):e1003-17.
18. Karched M, Bhardwaj RG, Inbamani A, Asikainen S. Quantitation of biofilm and planktonic life forms of coexisting periodontal species. *Anaerobe.* 2015 Oct 1;35:13-20.
19. Nazir M, Al-Ansari A, Al-Khalifa K, Alhareky M, Gaffar B, Almas K. Global Prevalence of Periodontal Disease and Lack of Its Surveillance. *The Scientific World Journal.* 2020 May 28;2020.
20. Papapanou PN, Susin C. Periodontitis epidemiology: is periodontitis under-recognized, over-diagnosed, or both?. *Periodontology 2000.* 2017 Oct;75(1):45-51.
21. Schenkein HA, Papapanou PN, Genco R, Sanz M. Mechanisms underlying the association between periodontitis and atherosclerotic disease. *Periodontology 2000.* 2020 Jun;83(1):90-106.
22. V'kovski P, Kratzel A, Steiner S, Stalder H, Thiel V. Coronavirus biology and replication: implications for SARS-CoV-2. *Nature Reviews Microbiology.* 2020 Oct 28:1-6.
23. Zhang H, Penninger JM, Li Y, Zhong N, Slutsky AS. Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) as a SARS-CoV-2 receptor: molecular mechanisms and potential therapeutic target. *Intensive care medicine.* 2020 Apr;46(4):586-90.
24. Wang Y, Wang Y, Luo W, Huang L, Xiao J, Li F, Qin S, Song X, Wu Y, Zeng Q, Jin F. A comprehensive

- investigation of the mRNA and protein level of ACE2, the putative receptor of SARS-CoV-2, in human tissues and blood cells. *International journal of medical sciences*. 2020;17(11):1522.
25. Nejadi Babadaei MM, Hasan A, Haj Bloukh S, Edis Z, Sharifi M, Kachooei E, Falahati M. The expression level of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 determine the severity of COVID-19: lung and heart tissue as targets. *Journal of Biomolecular Structure and Dynamics*. 2020 May 9(just-accepted):1-3.
26. Fan C, Li K, Ding Y, Lu WL, Wang J. ACE2 expression in kidney and testis may cause kidney and testis damage after 2019-nCoV infection. *MedRxiv*. 2020 Jan 1.
27. Descamps G, Verset L, Trelcat A, Hopkins C, Lechien JR, Journe F, Saussez S. ACE2 protein landscape in the head and neck region: the conundrum of SARS-CoV-2 infection. *Biology*. 2020 Aug;9(8):235.
28. Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, Ren L, Zhao J, Hu Y, Zhang L, Fan G, Xu J, Gu X, Cheng Z. Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. *The lancet*. 2020 Feb 15;395(10223):497-506.
29. Jose RJ, Manuel A. COVID-19 cytokine storm: the interplay between inflammation and coagulation. *The Lancet Respiratory Medicine*. 2020 Apr 27.
30. Daneshkhah A, Agrawal V, Eshein A, Subramanian H, Roy HK, Backman V. The possible role of Vitamin D in suppressing cytokine storm and associated mortality in COVID-19 patients. *MedRxiv*. 2020 Jan 1.
31. Kermali M, Khalsa RK, Pillai K, Ismail Z, Harky A. The role of biomarkers in diagnosis of COVID-19—A systematic review. *Life Sciences*. 2020 May 13:117788.
32. She J, Liu L, Liu W. COVID-19 epidemic: disease characteristics in children. *Journal of medical virology*. 2020 Mar 31.
33. Tang YW, Schmitz JE, Persing DH, Stratton CW. Laboratory diagnosis of COVID-19: current issues and challenges. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 2020 May 26;58(6).
34. Long C, Xu H, Shen Q, Zhang X, Fan B, Wang C, Zeng B, Li Z, Li X, Li H. Diagnosis of the Coronavirus disease (COVID-19): rRT-PCR or CT?. *European journal of radiology*. 2020 Mar 25:108961.
35. Li Y, Xia L. Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): role of chest CT in diagnosis and management. *American Journal of Roentgenology*. 2020 Jun;214(6):1280-6.
36. Ferrari D, Motta A, Strollo M, Banfi G, Locatelli M. Routine blood tests as a potential diagnostic tool for COVID-19. *Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine (CCLM)*. 2020 Apr 16;1(ahead-of-print).
37. Surlin P, Gheorghe DN, Popescu DM, Martu AM, Solomon S, Roman A, Lazar L, Stratul SI, Rusu D, Foia L, Boldeanu MV. Interleukin-1 $\alpha$  and-1 $\beta$  assessment in the gingival crevicular fluid of periodontal patients with chronic hepatitis C. *Experimental and Therapeutic Medicine*. 2020 Sep 1;20(3):2381-6.
38. Applegate WB, Ouslander JG. COVID-19 presents high risk to older persons. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*. 2020 Apr;68(4):681.
39. Zhao MJ, Qiao YX, Wu L, Huang Q, Li BH, Zeng XT. Periodontal disease is associated with increased risk of hypertension: a cross-sectional study. *Frontiers in physiology*. 2019 Apr 25;10:440.
40. Iaccarino G, Grassi G, Borghi C, Ferri C, Salvetti M, Volpe M. Age and multimorbidity predict death among COVID-19 patients: results of the SARS-RAS study of the Italian Society of Hypertension. *Hypertension*. 2020 Aug;76(2):366-72.
41. Kinane DF, Stathopoulou PG, Papapanou PN. Periodontal diseases. *Nature Reviews Disease Primers*. 2017 Jun 22;3(1):1-4.
42. Lamont RJ, Koo H, Hajishengallis G. The oral microbiota: dynamic communities and host interactions. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*. 2018 Dec;16(12):745-59.
43. Chakraborty S. The usual anaerobic bacterial suspects extracted from a global metagenomic database of Covid19 patients from Peru, Cambodia, China, Brazil and the US-Prevotella, Veillonella, Capnocytophaga, Fusobacterium, Oribacterium and Bacteroides should be monitored for colonization.
44. Corrêa JD, Fernandes GR, Calderaro DC, Mendonça SM, Silva JM, Albiero ML, Cunha FQ, Xiao E, Ferreira GA, Teixeira AL, Mukherjee C. Oral microbial dysbiosis linked to worsened periodontal condition in rheumatoid arthritis patients. *Scientific reports*. 2019 Jun 10;9(1):1-0.
45. Owens B. Excitement around hydroxychloroquine for treating COVID-19 causes challenges for rheumatology. *The Lancet Rheumatology*. 2020 May 1;2(5):e257.
46. Dizdar O, Hayran M, Guven DC, Yilmaz TB, Taheri S, Akman AC, Bilgin E, Hüseyin B, Berker E. Increased cancer risk in patients with periodontitis. *Current Medical Research and Opinion*. 2017 Dec 2;33(12):2195-200.
47. Wang H, Zhang L. Risk of COVID-19 for patients with cancer. *The Lancet Oncology*. 2020 Apr 1;21(4):e181.
48. Jiang Y, Zhou X, Cheng L, Li M. The impact of smoking on subgingival microflora: From periodontal health to disease. *Frontiers in Microbiology*. 2020 Jan 29;11:66.
49. Vardavas CI, Nikitara K. COVID-19 and smoking: A systematic review of the evidence. *Tobacco induced diseases*. 2020;18.
50. Fabri GM. Potential Link between COVID-19 and Periodontitis: Cytokine Storm, Immunosuppression, and Dysbiosis. *Oral Health and Dental Management*. 2020;20(1):1-5.



51. Sahni V, Gupta S. COVID-19 & Periodontitis: The cytokine connection. *Medical Hypotheses*. 2020 May 30:109908.
52. Balcos C, Saveanu I, Hurjui L, Grădinaru I, Jipu R, Baci D, Nicolau A, Budala D, Zetu I, Feier R, Armencia AO. Knowledge and preventive practices regarding covid-19 infection among dentists in Iași. *Rom J of Medical and Dental Education*, 2020, 9(4):109-114