

Risk Factors Associated with the Progression and Proliferation of Novel Covid-19: A Systematic Review

Farouk S. Nas¹, Muhammad Ali^{2*}, Muhammad S. Abdallah³, Lurwan Mu'azu⁴

¹Department of Biological Sciences, Bayero University Kano, Nigeria
 ²Department of Microbiology, Federal University Gusau, Nigeria
 ³Department of Microbiology, Yobe State University Damaturu
 ⁴Department of Biological Sciences, Federal University Gusau, Nigeria

***Corresponding Author:** *Muhammad Ali*, Department of Microbiology, Federal University Gusau, Nigeria *Email:* alimuhd4real@gmail.com

Abstract: Since December 2019, infectious pneumonia broke out in Wuhan, Hubei province. The pathogen was designated as SARS-CoV-2 by the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses, and this pneumonia was named as Coronavirus Disease2019 (COVID-19) by World Health Organization (WHO). Nowadays, there were about 34,804,348 cases of COVID-19 confirmed worldwide, with a total of 1,030,738 deaths in 216 countries/territories according to WHO report as of October 4th, 2020. The rapidly increasing of patients, especially the critical or mortal patients, brought a big challenge to the public health. Several factors are responsible for the severity and mortality of COVID-19 disease. From different studies, it had been found that patients with comorbidities such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus, acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), cardiovascular disease, cancer, COPD, asthma, renal disease, kidney disease, liver disease, hepatic disease, pneumonia, obesity, and also for the history of smoking were responsible for the development of the disease or death. The paper was aimed to review the risk factors associated with the progression and proliferation of Covid-19.

Keywords: Covid-19, Infections, Risk factors, Virus

1. INTRODUCTION

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) originated from Wuhan (Hubei state, China), carrying similar DNA structure to SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) and MERS (Middle East Respiratory Syndrome) has spread throughout the world and creating massive panic to the human life [1,2]. The disease has the worst feature to transmit from person to person [3], considering this feature and its loftv infection rate on January 30, 2020. the World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 as a global emergency. To date, it has infected more than 34 million people and over 1 million have died. As no proven treatment/medicine or vaccine is available to date [4] the harm of COVID-19 has already overtaken SARS and MARS [5].

Although the infection rate is very high, all the patients getting infected by this disease don't always die. The global recovery rate is about 75.2% and the death rate is about 2.96% until October 4, 2020. This information suggests that there may be some factors that influence the risk of death or critical medical states of the patients. That's why it is important to identify and

estimate such risk factors to predict the severe complication of the patients for avoiding or to minimize the severity [6]. Patients with COVID-19 present primarily with various symptoms like fever, cough, dyspnea, myalgia, and fatigue [7,8]. Although most of the COVID-19 infected patients are thought to be recovered after few days, male patients, older patients (age greater than 60 years) and patients with various chronic diseases may have fatal outcomes [9]. Several factors are responsible for the severity and mortality of COVID-19 disease. From different studies, it had been found that patients with comorbidities such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus, acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), cardiovascular disease, cancer, COPD, asthma, renal disease, kidney disease, liver disease, hepatic disease, pneumonia, obesity, and also for the history of smoking were responsible for the development of the disease or death [10,11,12].

2. GLOBAL DISTRIBUTION OF COVID-19

According to World Health Organization Coronavirus (Covid-19) Dashboard updated 04th October, 2020, a total number of 34,804,348 cases of COVID-19 infection have been confirmed worldwide, with a total of 1,030,738 deaths. In addition, over 216 countries and territories have reported at least a case of COVID-19 infection. The most countries with the highest burden of the infection include the United States of America (7,256,234), India (6,549,373), Brazil (4,880,523), Russia (1,215,001), Columbia (841,531) Peru (821,564)

and South Africa (679,716) [13] All the continents of the world have reported at least a case. The Americas region has the highest number of reported cases while Western pacific region has the least number of COVID-19 infections. Table 1 below represents the regional number of confirmed COVID-19 cases as of 4th October, 2020.

Table1. Number of confirmed COVID-19 and death cases as of 4th October, 2020 According to Region

Region	Confirmed cases	Total death
Africa	1,198,550 (03%)	26,264 (03%)
Americas	16,990,036 (49%)	568,358 (55%)
Eastern Mediterranean	2,585,780 (07%)	63,156 (06%)
Europe	6,187,384 (18%)	240,148 (23%)
South-East Asia	7,335,273 (21%)	119,167 (12%)
Western Pacific	625,642 (02%)	13,632 (01%)
Others	741 (<01%)	13 (<01%)
Globally	34,804,348	1,030,738 (100%)

3. PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

COVID-19 can affect the upper respiratory tract (sinuses, nose, and throat) and the lower respiratory tract (windpipe and lungs) [14]. The lungs are the organs most affected by COVID-19 because the virus accesses host cells via the Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 enzyme (ACE2), which is most abundant in type II alveolar cells of the lungs [15]. The virus uses a special surface glycoprotein called a "spike" to connect to ACE2 and enter the host cell [16]. The density of ACE2 in each tissue correlates with the severity of the disease in that tissue and some have suggested decreasing ACE2 activity might be protective [17], though another view is that increasing ACE2 using angiotensin II receptor blocker medication could be protective [18]. As the alveolar disease progresses. respiratory failure might develop and death may follow [19]. SARS-CoV-2 may also cause respiratory failure through affecting the brain stem as other coronaviruses have been found to invade the Central Nervous System (CNS). While virus has been detected in cerebrospinal fluid of autopsies, the exact mechanism by which it invades the CNS remains unclear and may first involve invasion of peripheral nerves given the low levels of ACE2 in the brain [20]. The virus also affects gastrointestinal organs as ACE2 is abundantly expressed in the glandular cells of gastric, duodenal and rectal epithelium [21] as well as endothelial cells and enterocytes of the small intestine [10].

The virus can cause acute myocardial injury and chronic damage to the cardiovascular system [22]. An acute cardiac injury was found in 12% of infected people admitted to the hospital in Wuhan, China, and is more frequent in severe disease [23]. Rates of cardiovascular symptoms are high, owing to the systemic inflammatory response and immune system disorders during disease progression, but acute myocardial injuries may also be related to ACE2 receptors in the heart [22]. ACE2 receptors are highly expressed in the heart and are involved in heart function [22,24]. A high incidence of thrombosis and venous thremboembolism has been found in ICU patients with COVID-19 infections, and may be related to poor prognosis [25]. Blood vessel dysfunction and clot formation (as suggested by high D-dimer levels) are thought to play a significant role in mortality, incidences of clots leading to pulmonary embolisms and ischaemic events the brain have been noted within as complications leading to death in patients infected with SARS-CoV-2. Infection appears to set off a chain of vasoconstrictive response within the body, constriction of blood vessels within the pulmonary circulation has also been posited as a mechanism in which oxygenation decreases alongside the presentation of viral pneumonia [26]. Another common cause of death is complications related to the kidneys [26]. Early reports show that up to 30% of hospitalized patients both in China and in New York have experienced some injury to their kidneys, including some persons with no previous kidney problems [27]. Autopsies of people who died of COVID-19 have found diffuse alveolar damage (DAD), and lymphocyte-containing inflammatory infiltrates within the lung [28].

4. IMMUNOPATHOLOGY

Although SARS-CoV-2 has a tropism for ACE2-expressing epithelial cells of the respiratory tract, patients with severe COVIDhave symptoms of systemic hyper 19 inflammation. Clinical laboratory findings of granulocyteelevated IL-2, IL-7, IL-6, macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), interferon- γ inducible protein 10 (IP-10), monocyte chemo-attractant protein 1 (MCP-1), Macrophage inflammatory protein $1-\alpha$ (MIP- 1α) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) indicative of cytokine release syndrome (CRS) suggest an immunopathology underlying (64). Additionally, people with COVID-19 and acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) have classical serum biomarkers of CRS, including elevated C-reactive protein (CRP), lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), D-dimer, and ferritin Systemic inflammation [29]. results in vasodilation, allowing inflammatory lymphocytic and monocytic infiltration of the lung and the heart. In particular, pathogenic GM-CSF-secreting T-cells were shown to correlate with the recruitment of inflammatory IL-6-secreting monocytes and severe lung pathology COVID-19 patients in [30]. Lymphocytic infiltrates have also been reported at autopsy [28].

5. COVID-19 ASSOCIATED RISK

5.1. Age

Age and gender are well-established risk factors for severe COVID-19 outcomes: over 90% of the COVID-19-related deaths in the UK have been in people over 60, and 60% in men [31]. According to Report of the WHO-China Joint Mission on Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) mortality increases with age, with the highest mortality among people over 80 years of age. Recent studies also reported that elderly contacts were more likely to encounter COVID-19 infection [32,33]. According Nigeria Centre for Diseases Control, subjects within 31 - 40 years age category are more susceptible to contracting the disease in Nigeria which accounted for 24%. It however, said more death have been recorded among people of 60 years and above. Higher mortality among older people in Nigeria is due to co-morbidity from diseases such as diabetes, hypertension, asthma and cardiovascular diseases [34]. The immunity of the age may be weaker than younger adults, making them more susceptible to infection. Therefore, more efforts are needed to protect the elderly from the infection of COVID-19.

5.2. Co-Morbidities

Various pre-existing conditions have also been associated with increased risk. For example, the Chinese centre for disease control and prevention reported in a study of 44,672 individuals (1,023 deaths) that cardiovascular disease; hypertension, diabetes, respiratory disease and cancers were associated with an increased risk of death [35]. Most of those who die of COVID-19 have pre-existing (underlying) condition, including hypertension, diabetes mellitus, cancer, obesity, and cardiovascular disease [36]. According to March data from the United States, 89% of those hospitalized had preexisting conditions [37]. The Italian Istuto Superiore di Sanita reported that out of 8.8% of deaths where medical chart were available, 96.1% of people has at least one comorbidity with the average person having 3.4 diseases [38]. According to this report the most common comorbidities are hypertension (66% of deaths), type 2 diabetes (29.8% of deaths), ischemic heart disease (27.6% of deaths), atrial fibrillation (23.1% of deaths) and chronic renal failure (20.2% of deaths). Most critical respiratory comorbidities according to the CDC are: moderate or severe asthma pre-existing COPD, pulmonary fibrosis, cystic fibrosis [38]. A UK cross-sectional survey of 16,749 patients who were hospitalized with COVID-19 showed that the risk of death was higher for patients with cardiac, pulmonary and kidney disease, as well as cancer, dementia and obesity [39]. Obesity was associated with treatment escalation in a French intensive care cohort [40] (n = 124) and according to him, the odds of developing severe COVID-19 were seven times higher in patients with obesity.

A systematic review [41] indicated that people with diabetes were up to three times more likely to have severe symptoms or die from COVID-19, and the situation is likely to be worse for people with uncontrolled diabetes [42]. A metaanalysis showed that hypertension; cardiovascular and cerebrovascular disease increased the odds for severe COVID-19 by 2.3, 2.9 and 3.9 times, respectively [43]. Another that hypertension meta-analysis indicated increased the risk of mortality from COVID-19 by 3.5 times [29]. In a meta-analysis, patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) were at increased risk of severe complications or death from COVID-19 [44].

A study in the United Kingdom suggested that the presence of respiratory disease, including asthma, increased patients' risk of mortality from COVID-19 [45]. Cancer patients are more likely to experience severe COVID-19 [46]. A study in Wuhan, China, showed that the mortality rate from COVID-19 was significantly increased in patients with cancer and was particularly high among those with blood cancers [47].

5.3. Gender

Early reviews of epidemiologic data showed greater impact of the pandemic and a higher mortality rate in men in China and Italy [2,48]. The Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention reported the death rate was 2.8% for men and 1.7% for women [2]. Later reviews in June 2020 indicated that there is no significant difference in susceptibility or in CFR between genders [49,50]. One review acknowledges the different mortality rates in Chinese men, suggesting that it may be attributable to lifestyle choices such as smoking and drinking alcohol rather than genetic factors [51]. Sex-based immunological differences, lesser prevalence of smoking in women and men developing comorbid conditions such as hypertension at a vounger age than women could have contributed to the higher mortality in men [52]. In Europe, 57% of the infected people were men and 72% of those died with COVID-19 were men [53]. As of April 2020, the US government is not tracking sex-related data of COVID-19 infections [54]. Research has shown that viral illnesses like Ebola, HIV, influenza and SARS affect men and women differently [54].

According to Nigerian Centre for Disease Control (NCDC), as of 12th July 2020, out of 32,558 cases recorded, 21,385 (66%) are male while 11,173 (34%) are females. Similar study conducted by Frontier in Public Health Study in China showed that more men than women were susceptible to suffering severe Covid-19 complication. According to them, higher incidence in men for most of the diseases could correlate with general demographic fact of a shorter life expectancy in men when compared to women in China and world in general. A Professor of Molecular Microbiology and Immunology at John Hopskins Bloomberg School of Public Health (Sabra Klein) stated that there is greater immune response in female as compared to men and this greater immunity can be a blessing in many cases for women [55]. In addition to that; in Nigeria, higher incidence among men may be attributed to the high exposure of men as most of the women are

house wives and always at home. Therefore, the women are less expose to the environment in Nigeria. According to medical experts, Covid-19 mainly affects the immune system, and there is ongoing research in Nigeria in understanding the cause of the increased rate of infections in Men.

5.4. Smoking and Alcohol

In a meta-analysis [44], smokers were 1.5 times more likely to have severe complications from COVID-19 and had a higher mortality rate. Evidence stemming from meta-analysis of several smaller research papers also suggests that smoking can be associated with worse patient outcomes [56]. When someone with existing respiratory problems is infected with COVID-19, they might be at greater risk for severe symptoms [38]. Alcohol impairs the body's ability to fight infections such as COVID-19 [57]. Even a single heavy drinking session can measurably reduce immune function. Intoxication can also interfere with taking precautions against infection.

5.5. Physical Inactivity

Physical activity provides multiple short- and long-term health benefits, including improving the immune system, stress and anxiety [58]. Physical activity is also associated with prevention of heart disease, hypertension, diabetes and overweight and obesity, which are risk factors for severe COVID-19 disease [59].

5.6. Pollution

A relation between exposure to air pollution and mortality from COVID-19 has been hypothesized [60]. Air pollution compromises lung function, which increases the risk for vulnerability to respiratory infection, including COVID-19.

6. CONCLUSION

The present review revealed that several factors are responsible for the severity and mortality of COVID-19 disease. It had been found that with comorbidities patients such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus, acute distress respiratory syndrome (ARDS), cardiovascular disease, cancer, hepatic disease, pneumonia, obesity, and also for the history of smoking and drinking alcohol were responsible for the development of the disease or death. Mortality rate among hospitalized COVID-19 patients was high in male gender and older aged patients.

REFERENCES

- Chen N, Zhou M, Dong X, Qu J, Gong F, Han Y, Qiu Y, Wang J, Liu Y, Wei Y, Yu T. (2020). Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of 99 cases of 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia in Wuhan, China: a descriptive study. The Lancet. 2020 Feb 15;395(10223):507-13. (https ://doi.org/ 10.10 16/S0140-6736 (20) 30211-7)
- [2] Surveillances V. The epidemiological characteristics of an outbreak of 2019 novel coronavirus diseases (COVID-19)—China, 2020. China CDC Weekly. 2020;2(8):113-22.
- [3] Grabinskinski LE, Menachery VD. (2020). Return of the Coronavirus: 2019-nCoV. Viruses. Feb;12(2):135.
- [4] Heymann DL, Shindo N. (2020) COVID-19: what is next for public health?. The Lancet. ;395(10224):542-5. (https://doi.org /10 .10 16 /S0140-6736(20)30374-3)
- [5] Lu H, Stratton CW, Tang YW. (2020). Outbreak of Pneumonia of Unknown Etiology in Wuhan China: the Mystery and the Miracle. J Med Virol. (https://doi.org/ 10.10 02/jmv .25678)
- [6] Zumla A, Hui DS, Perlman S. (2015). Middle East Respiratory Syndrome. The Lancet. 386(9997):995-1007.
- [7] Yang J, Zheng Y, Gou X, Pu K, Chen Z, Guo Q, et al. (2020). Prevalence of co-morbidities in the novel wuhan coronavirus (COVID-19) infection: A systematic review and metaanalysis. International Journal of Infectious Diseases, 8, 782–792.
- [8] Noor FM and Islam MM. (2020). Prevalence of clinical manifestations and co-morbidities of coronavirus (COVID-19) infection: A metaanalysis. Fortune Journal of Health Sciences, 3, 55–97. https://doi.org/10.26502/fjhs009.
- [9] Wu C, Chen X, Cai Y, et al. (2020). Risk factors associated with acute respiratory distress syndrome and death in patients with coronavirus disease 2019 pneumonia in Wuhan China. JAMA Internal Medicine, 180(7), 1–11.
- [10] Zhang J, Wang X, Jia X, Li J, Hu K, Chen G, et al. (2020). Risk factors for disease severity, unimprovement, and mortality of COVID-19 patients in Wuhan, China. Clinical Microbiology and Infection, 26, 767–772.
- [11] Yu C, Lei Q, Li W, Wang X, Liu W, Fan X, et al. (2020). Clinical characteristics, associated factors, and predicting COVID-19 mortality risk: A retrospective study in wuhan, China. American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 59, 168–175.
- [12] Zhou F, Yu T, Du R, Fan G, Liu Y, Liu Z, et al. (2020). Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: A retrospective cohort study. The lancet, 395, 1054–1062.

- [13] World Health Organization. COVID-19 Global epidemiological situation 4th October, 2020
- [14] Rathore JS and Ghosh C (2020). "Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2), a newly emerged pathogen: an overview". Pathogens and Disease. 78 (6). doi:10.1093/femspd/ftaa042. ISSN 2049-632X. OCLC 823140442.
- [15] Verdecchia P, Cavallini C, Spanevello A, Angeli F (2020). "The pivotal link between ACE2 deficiency and SARS-CoV-2 infection". European Journal of Internal Medicine. 76: 14– 20. doi:10.1016/j.ejim. 2020. 04.037. PMC 7167588. PMID 32336 612.
- [16] Letko M, Marzi A, Munster V (2020).
 "Functional assessment of cell entry and receptor usage for SARS-CoV-2 and other lineage B betacoronaviruses". Nature Microbiology. 5 (4): 562–569. doi:10.1038/ s41564-020-0688-y. PMC 7095430. PMID 32094589.
- [17] Rodríguez-Puertas, R. (2020). "ACE2 activators for the treatment of COVID 19 patients". Journal of Medical Virology. 92 (10): 1701–1702. doi:10.1002/jmv.25992. PMC 72 67413. PMID 32379346.
- [18] Gurwitz D (2020). "Angiotensin receptor blockers as tentative SARS-CoV-2 therapeutics". Drug Development Research. 81 (5): 537–540. doi:10.1002/ddr.21656. PMC 7228359. PMID 32129518.
- [19] Gibson, Peter G; Qin, Ling; Puah, Ser Hon (2020). "COVID-19 acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS): clinical features and differences from typical pre-COVID-19 ARDS". The Medical Journal of Australia. 213 (2): 54–56.e1. doi:10.5694/mja2.50674. PMC 7361309. PMID 32572965.
- [20] Li YC, Bai WZ, Hashikawa T (2020). "The neuroinvasive potential of SARS-CoV2 may play a role in the respiratory failure of COVID-19 patients". Journal of Medical Virology. 92 (6): 552–555. doi:10.1002/ jmv.25728. PMC 7228394. PMID 32104915.
- [21] Gu J, Han B, Wang J (2020). "COVID-19: Gastrointestinal Manifestations and Potential Fecal-Oral Transmission". Gastroenterology. 158 (6): 1518–1519. doi:10.1053 /j.gastro. 2020.02.054. PMC 7130192. PMID 32142 785.
- [22] Zheng YY, Ma YT, Zhang JY, Xie X (2020).
 "COVID-19 and the cardiovascular system".
 Nature Reviews. Cardiology. 17 (5): 259–260.
 doi:10.1038/s41569-020-0360-5. PMC
 7095524. PMID 32139904.
- [23] Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, Ren L, Zhao J, Hu Y, et al. (2020). "Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China". Lancet. 395 (10223): 497–506.

doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30183-5. PMC 7159299. PMID 31986264.

- [24] Turner AJ, Hiscox JA, Hooper NM (2004).
 "ACE2: from vasopeptidase to SARS virus receptor". Trends in Pharmacological Sciences. 25 (6): 291–4. doi:10.1016/ j.tips. 2004.04.001. PMC 7119032. PMID 15165 741.
- [25] Abou-Ismail MY, Diamond A, Kapoor S, Arafah Y and Nayak L (2020). "The hypercoagulable state in COVID-19: Incidence, pathophysiology, and management ". Thrombosis Research. Elsevier BV. 194: 101– 115. doi:10.1016/j.thromres. 2020.06. 029. ISSN 0049-3848. PMC 73057 63. PMID 32788101.
- [26] Wadman M. (2020). "How does coronavirus kill? Clinicians trace a ferocious rampage through the body, from brain to toes". Science. doi:10.1126/science.abc3208.
- [27] Coronavirus: Kidney Damage Caused by COVID-19, Johns Hopkins Medicine, C. John Sperati, updated 14 May 2020.
- [28] Eketunde AO, Mellacheruvu S, Oreoluwa P. (2020). "A Review of Postmortem Findings in Patients With COVID-19". Cureus. Cureus, Inc. doi:10.7759/cureus.9438. ISSN 2168-8184. PMID 32864262. S2CID 221352704.
- [29] Zhang C, Wu Z, Li JW, Zhao H, Wang GQ (2020). "The cytokine release syndrome (CRS) of severe COVID-19 and Interleukin-6 receptor (IL-6R) antagonist Tocilizumab may be the key to reduce the mortality". International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents. 55 (5): 105954. doi:10.1016/ j.ijanti micag. 2020. 105954. PMC 7118634. PMID 32234467.
- [30] Gómez-Rial J, Rivero-Calle I, Salas A, Martinón-Torres F. (2020). "Role of Monocytes/Macrophages in Covid-19 Pathogenesis: Implications for Therapy". Infection and Drug Resistance. 13. doi:10.2147/ IDR.S258639. PMID 32801787. Retrieved 29 September 2020.
- [31] NHS England. COVID-19 daily deaths. https://web.archive.org/web/20200501094237/
- [32] https://www.england.nhs.uk/statistics/statistical -work-areas/covid-19-daily-deaths/ (2020).
- [33] Bi Q, Wu Y, Mei S, et al. (2020). Epidemiology and transmission of COVID-19 in 391 cases and 1286 of their close contacts in Shenzhen, China: a retrospective cohort study. Lancet Infect Dis. S1473-3099 (20):30287–5. doi:10.1016/S1473-3099 (20) 30287-5.
- [34] Jing QL, Liu MJ, Zhang ZB, et al. (2020). Household secondary attack rate of COVID-19 and associated determinants in Guangzhou, China: a retrospective cohort study. Lancet Infect Dis. doi:10.1016/S1473-3099 (20)30471-0.

- [35] Nigeria Center for Disease Control. COVID-19 Nigeria. (2020). Accessed April 10 – 12 July, 2020.
- [36] Deng G, Yin M, Chen X. and Zeng F. (2020). Clinical determinants for fatality of 44,672 patients with COVID-19. Crit. Care 24, 179
- [37] World Health Organization "WHO (2020) Director-General's statement on the advice of the IHR Emergency Committee on Novel Coronavirus"
- [38] Garg S, Kim L, Whitaker M, O'Halloran A, Cummings C, Holstein R, et al. (2020). "Hospitalization Rates and Characteristics of Patients Hospitalized with Laboratory-Confirmed Coronavirus Disease 2019 – COVID-NET, 14 States, 1–30 March 2020". MMWR. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report. 69 (15): 458–464. doi:10.15585/ mmwr.mm6915e3. PMID 32298251.
- [39] "Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19)". Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 11 February 2020. Retrieved 19 June 2020
- [40] Docherty, A. B. et al. (2020). Features of 16,749 hospitalised UK patients with COVID-19 using the ISARIC WHO clinical characterisation protocol. Preprint at *medRxiv* https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.23.2007604 2.
- [41] Simonnet A, et al. (2020). High prevalence of obesity in severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) requiring invasive mechanical ventilation. Obesity. doi:10.1002/ oby.22831.
- [42] Roncon L et al. (2020). Diabetic patients with COVID-19 infection are at higher risk of ICU admission and poor short-term outcome. J Clin Virol. 127. doi:10.1016/j. jcv.2020. 10 4354
- [43] Williamson E, et al. (2020). Factors associated with COVID-19-related death using Open SAFELY. Nature. 2020 (https://doi.org/ 10.10 38/s41586-020-2521-4).
- [44] Wang B, et al. (2020). Does comorbidity increase the risk of patients with covid-19: Evidence from meta-analysis. Aging (Albany NY). 12(7):6049–57.
- [45] Alqahtani J, et al. (2020). Prevalence, severity and mortality associated with COPD and smoking in patients with COVID-19: a rapid systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One. 15(5):e0233147.
- [46] Williamson E, et al. (2020). OpenSAFELY: factors associated with COVID-19-related hospital death in the linked electronic health records of 17 million adult NHS patients. medRxiv. doi.org/10.1101/2020.05.06.200929 99.
- [47] Tian J, et al. (2020). Clinical characteristics and risk factors associated with COVID-19 disease severity in patients with cancer in Wuhan,

China: a multicentre, retrospective, cohort study. Lancet Oncol. 21(7):893.

- [48] Meng Y, et al. (2020). Cancer history is an independent risk factor for mortality in hospitalized COVID-19 patients: a propensity score-matched analysis. J Hematol Oncol. 13(1):75.
- [49] Wenham C, Smith J, Morgan R. (2020).
 COVID-19: the gendered impacts of the outbreak. Lancet. 395 (10227):846–848.
 doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30526-2.24.
- [50] Hu Y, Sun J, Dai Z, Deng H, Li X, Huang Q, et al. (2020). "Prevalence and severity of corona virus disease 2019 (COVID-19): A systematic review and meta-analysis". Journal of Clinical Virology. 127: 104371. doi:10.1016/ j.jcv. 20 20.104371. PMC 7195434. PMID 323 158 17.
- [51] Fu L, Wang B, Yuan T, Chen X, Ao Y, Fitzpatrick T, et al. (2020). "Clinical characteristics of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in China: A systematic review and meta-analysis". The Journal of Infection. 80 (6): 656–665. doi:10.1016/j.jinf. 2020. 03.041. PMC 7151416. PMID 32283155.
- [52] Yuki K, Fujiogi M, Koutsogiannaki S (2020).
 "COVID-19 pathophysiology: A review".
 Clinical Immunology. 215: 108427. doi:10.10
 16/j.clim.2020.108427. PMC 7169933. PMID
 32325252. S2CID 216028003.
- [53] Rabin, RC. (2020). "In Italy, Coronavirus Takes a Higher Toll on Men". The New York Times. Retrieved 7 April 2020.

- [54] EURO/WHO (2020). "COVID-19 weekly surveillance report". www.euro.who.int. Retrieved 7 April 2020.
- [55] Gupta AH. (2020). "Does Covid-19 Hit Women and Men Differently? U.S. Isn't Keeping Track". The New York Times, Retrieved 7 April 2020
- [56] The Cable, www.thecable.ng;volume 144, 312, 140. Accessed on 7th May, 2010
- [57] Zhao Q, Meng M, Kumar R, Wu Y, Huang J, Lian N, et al. (2020). "The impact of COPD and smoking history on the severity of COVID-19: A systemic review and meta-analysis". Journal of Medical Virology. 92 (10): 1915– 1921. doi:10.1002/jmv.25889. PMC 7262275. PMID 32293753.
- [58] WHO (2020). Regional Office for Europe, Alcohol and COVID-19: what you need to know. Copenhagen: WHO Regional Office for Europe; 2020. http://www.euro.who.int/__ data /assets/pdf_ file/0010/437608/ Alcohol-and-COVID-19-what-you-need-to-know.pdf.
- [59] Nieman DC et al. (2019). The compelling link between physical activity and the body's defense system. J Sport Health Sci. 8(3):201-17.
- [60] WHO. Global action plan on physical activity 2018–2030: more active people for a healthier world.
- [61] Liang D, et al. (2020). Urban air pollution may enhance COVID-19 case-fatality and mortality rates in the United States. 2020. medRxiv. doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020. 05.04.20090746

Citation: Farouk S. Nas et al, Risk Factors Associated with the Progression and Proliferation of Novel Covid-19: A Systematic Review. ARC Journal of Immunology and Vaccines. 2020; 5(1): 9-15.

Copyright: © 2020 Authors. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.