REVIEW

JOURNAL OF WILEY MEDICAL VIROLOGY

Vitamin D and COVID-19: Role of ACE2, age, gender, and ethnicity

Bruk Getachew | Yousef Tizabi 🗅

Revised: 6 May 2021

Department of Pharmacology, College of Medicine, Howard University, Washington DC, USA

Correspondence

Yousef Tizabi, Department of Pharmacology, College of Medicine, Howard University, Washington, DC 20059, USA. Email: ytizabi@howard.edu

Funding information

Howard University College of Medicine Bridge Funds and Pilot Study Awards Program, Grant/Award Number: BFPSAP 2020-2021: NIH/NIGMS. Grant/Award Number: 2 SO6 GM08016-39

Abstract

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) virus, disproportionally targets older people, particularly men, ethnic minorities, and individuals with underlying diseases such as compromised immune system, cardiovascular disease, and diabetes. The discrepancy in COVID-19 incidence and severity is multifaceted and likely involves biological, social, as well as nutritional status. Vitamin D deficiency, notably common in Black and Brown people and elderly, is associated with an increased susceptibility to many of the diseases comorbid with COVID-19. Vitamin D deficiency can cause over-activation of the pulmonary renin-angiotensin system (RAS) leading to the respiratory syndrome. RAS is regulated in part at least by angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2), which also acts as a primary receptor for SARS-CoV-2 entry into the cells. Hence, vitamin D deficiency can exacerbate COVID-19, via its effects on ACE2. In this review we focus on influence of age, gender, and ethnicity on vitamin D-ACE2 interaction and susceptibility to COVID-19.

KEYWORDS

angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2), co-morbidity-COVID-19, cytokine Storm, SARS-CoV-2, vitamin D deficiency

| INTRODUCTION 1

1.1 | COVID-19 overview

The pandemic initiated in 2019, commonly referred to as (coronavirus disease 2019 [COVID-19]), quickly resulted in a global health crisis that is continuing to date. Although up to 85% of individuals affected by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) are asymptomatic or have mild illness, 15% require oxygen, and 5% require intensive care unit (ICU) admission.¹ The differences in the incidence and severity of COVID-19 are likely to be multifaceted, depending on various biological (such as age, gender, and ethnicity), social (smoking status, co-morbidities),² and nutritional factors (e.g., vitamin and nutrient deficiency).^{3,4} Understanding these risk factors is essential in providing further protection in such vulnerable populations. It is of importance to note

that there also exist significant interactions among these factors (e.g., aging, gender, and ethnicity).

It is now believed that dysregulated renin-angiotensin system (RAS) pathway is directly related to COVID-19 morbidity and mortality.⁵ In fact, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptor, which is an integral part of the RAS pathway, has been established as the functional host receptor for SARS-CoV-2 entry into the alveolar cells.⁶ This receptor is also used by SARS-CoV virus, which is responsible for acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS).⁷ In addition to dysregulated RAS pathway, a variety of other mechanisms including cytokine storm, neutrophil activation, and increased microcoagulation, might contribute to COVID-19 complications.⁸ Interestingly, all these other mechanisms are also affected by RAS. Thus, dysregulated RAS system may at least partially be responsible for the cytokine storm⁹ neutrophil activation,¹⁰ and thrombotic complications.¹¹ However, central to this discussion is that ARDS may be EY- MEDICAL VIROLOGY

aggravated by vitamin D deficiency and tapered down by activation of the vitamin D receptor (VDR).^{3,12} Moreover, it has been shown that people of Black, Asian, and minority ethnic (BAME) backgrounds are at a higher risk of developing more severe symptoms than Caucasians, possibly due to vitamin D deficiency.¹³

Early on, it was suggested that countries that lie above 35° north latitude have a relatively higher COVID-19 mortality rate (e.g., 0.6% of patients in southern latitude vs. 14.6% of patients in northern latitude),¹⁴ due to the possibility that at latitude over 35° north, people do not receive sufficient sunlight to retain adequate vitamin D levels during winter.³ However, more recent data appearing in "Reported Cases and Deaths by Country or Territory" by the United Nations Geoscheme.^{15,16} does not support the latitude correlation with COVID-19 risk. In fact, it has been argued that the discrepancy may be due to the higher prevalence of elderly populations in European countries (above 35° North).¹⁷ In addition to age and ethnicity, gender/sex may also be a factor in this equation as it appears that men account for the majority of the severely ill and fatal outcome in COVID-19 compared with women, although men are only slightly more likely than women to be infected.^{2,18} Hence, in this review, following a brief discussion on association of age, gender, and ethnicity with COVID-19 outcome we will be focusing on mechanistic interaction of vitamin D with all these factors, primarily through ACE2.

1.2 | Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2)

ACE2 is identified as a functional receptor for both coronavirus (CoV) that causes the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS)¹⁹ and now SARS-CoV-2 that causes COVID-19.⁶ It is hypothesized that the ACE2 gene constitutes a genetic risk factor for SARS-CoV-2 infection.²⁰ In this regard, ACE2 variants previously reported to be associated with disorders such as hypertension and other cardio-vascular diseases, may also be responsible for response variations to COVID-19.^{21,22} Indeed, the possible role of genetic variants, gene expression, and epigenetic factors associated with ACE2 in the pathophysiology of COVID-19 has been suggested.²³

ACE2, is an important regulator of the RAS.²⁴ ACE2 receptor is part of the dual RAS system consisting of ACE-Ang-II-AT₁R axis and ACE-2-Ang-(1-7)-Mas axis. The activated ACE-Ang-II-AT₁R axis may lead to a myriad of health issues including pro-inflammatory and pro-fibrotic effects in respiratory system, vascular dysfunction, myocardial fibrosis, nephropathy as well as defects in insulin secretion, and increased insulin resistance.^{25,26} It is hypothesized that SARS-CoV-2 infection downregulates ACE2 activity, resulting in toxic Ang II accumulation which in turn may cause ARDS or fulminant myocarditis.²⁷ Activation of the ACE-2-Ang-(1-7)-Mas axis, on the other hand, has anti-inflammatory, antifibrotic, anti-antioxidative stress as well as protective effects on vascular function, myocardial fibrosis, nephropathy, pancreatitis, and insulin resistance.^{26,28} Thus, the balance between these two axes, which may be influenced by age, sex, and ethnicity as well as body mass index (BMI) can affect the response to COVID-19.² Interestingly, it was recently suggested that metformin, a drug used in diabetes, may specifically be helpful in co-morbid diabetes-COVID-19 conditions, not only due to its effect in lowering the blood sugar level but also because of its enhancement of ACE2 expression leading to cardiopulmonary protection.^{29,30}

1.3 | Aging and COVID-19

As an emerging infectious disease, the whole population is broadly vulnerable to COVID-19. Early in the SARS-CoV-2 outbreak, it was noted that older adults accounted for a disproportionate number of severe cases and deaths due to COVID-19³¹ and this has been corroborated by a number of epidemiological and observational studies.³² The majority of patients are 50 years of age or older^{2,4} and fewer than 1% of patients are under 10 years of age.³³ Advanced age is now considered the principal risk factor for COVID-19 complications. It has been speculated that immune-senescence is a key determinant of outcome in SARS-CoV-2 infections.³² Therefore, it is not surprising that elderly people with underlying disorders such as hypertension and other cardiovascular diseases, asthma, diabetes, and immune deficiency are at the highest risk of morbidity due to COVID-19.^{1,2,4,34}

It has been suggested that the disproportionate SARS-CoV-2 mortality suffered by elderly is due largely to well-recognized features of aging such as: the presence of subclinical systemic inflammation without overt disease, a blunted acquired immune system and chronic inflammation, downregulation of ACE2, and accelerated biological aging.³⁵ Immunosenescence, entailing changes that occur in both innate and adaptive immunity with aging, is a lowgrade inflammatory state triggered by continuous antigenic stimulation and is considered also an important contributor to underlying conditions associated with aging.³⁶ Specifically, reduction of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) and telomeric DNA (telDNA) modulation of systemic inflammation and progressive depletion of telDNA reservoir during aging, are considered as main players in immunosenescence.³⁷ Interestingly, telDNA reservoir is even lower in aged men compared with aged women, which may also be a contributory factor to gender disparity in response to COVID-19,37 and discussed further below.

In addition, the thymus, a specialized primary lymphoid organ, within which thymus cell lymphocytes or T cells mature and are critical to the adaptive immune system, could also be a crucial player in the modulation of the immune response toward SARS-CoV-2. Indeed, it has been suggested that reduction in thymopoiesis and thymic output observed after age 40 may at least partially be responsible for COVID-19 severity observed in patients beyond this age.³⁸ This contention is further supported by the observation that the absence of thymopoietic mechanisms could be associated with cytokine storm, most often reported in adult COVID-19 subjects, especially in the older COVID-19 patients.³⁹ Cytokine storm occurs as a result of an exaggerated increase in the immune response to a pathogen such as SARS-CoV-2 infection, and appears to be a major player in COVID-19 morbidity and mortality.^{40,41}

It is noteworthy that immune senescence, occurs in a complex context, where the aging immune system interacts with an aging body that is undergoing complex metabolic reshaping and remodeling, resulting in a limited capacity of the elderly to fight infection.^{42,43} Thus, it appears that failure to trigger an effective adaptive immune response may explain why the elderly cannot optimally control viral replication, leading to endothelial injury, cytokine storm, and disseminated organ injury.⁴⁴

1.4 | Gender/sex and COVID-19

Although the terms "gender" and "sex" are distinct, they are used interchangeably, and we continue the same indifference here. In general terms, "sex" refers to the biological differences between males and females, such as the reproductive organs and genetic differences, whereas "gender" refers to the socially constructed identities and behavior of men, women, or gender diverse people.

It is known that females have increased resistance to viral, bacterial, fungal, and parasitic organisms than males⁴⁵ and less susceptibility to microbial infections due to a higher innate immune response than males.⁴⁶ For example, women express higher levels of interferon-gamma (IFN- γ), lymphotoxin b (LTb), granzyme A (GZMA), interleukin-12 receptor b2 (IL12Rb2), and granulysin (GNLY) and are less likely to produce extreme immune responses to bacterial or viral infections than men.⁴⁶ On the other hand, male patients have higher circulating levels of TNF- α than female patients, which correlates with a worse sepsis prognosis.⁴⁷ The protection of females against microbial and viral affections is attributed to the protection provided by the X chromosome and sex hormones, which modulate innate and adaptive immunity.⁴⁵

Differences in male and female susceptibility and response to viral infections lead to gender/sex-dependent differences in incidence and disease severity.⁴⁸ Previous clinical studies have shown that women are less susceptible to acquire viral infections and have a reduced cytokine production and that female patient tend to have a higher macrophage and neutrophil activity as well as antibody production and response.⁴⁹ For infectious diseases caused by viruses, there are numerous and diverse ways in which sex/gender can impact differential susceptibility between males and females. Although many studies have addressed the sex/gender discrepancy in COVID-19, very few reports have analyzed the underlying cause of gender disparity in COVID-19.^{50,51}

Based on an early meta-analysis of 77,932 patients, it was concluded that the morbidity, severity, and mortality of males due to COVID-19 were significantly higher than those of females.¹⁸ The first cases of COVID-19 that occurred in China indicated the presence of gender differences and later studies indicated that men were over two times more likely to die from COVID-19 than women.³⁴ Another study examining 799 patients in the Tongji Hospital in Wuhan, China found that of 113 COVID-19 deaths, 73% were male and 27% were female.⁵¹ However, the authors hypothesized that this discrepancy could be due to an increased prevalence of cardiopulmonary disease and smoking in men.⁵¹ A more recent report from the Global Health 50/50 research initiative's sexdisaggregated data consisting of several countries also indicates an increased fatality in men due to COVID-19.⁵²

As the COVID-19 pandemic spreads, the differences between male and female mortality and infectivity remain an area of active investigation. The current literature suggests that men tend to have a higher risk of severe infection and mortality related to COVID-19. It is believed that elevated estrogen levels in women may reduce the severity and mortality of COVID-19 deaths through an elevation in the innate and humoral response.⁵³

1.5 | Ethnicity and COVID-19

Ethnicity is a complex epidemiological entity made up of genetic, social, cultural, and behavioral patterns. Although ethnicity considerations in COVID-19 are lacking, there is consistent evidence of greater infection rates amongst ethnic minorities.⁵⁴ For example, disparities in healthcare access and socioeconomic status, as well as higher levels of medical co-morbidities, are believed to be responsible for the increased risk of contracting COVID-19 in certain ethnic groups.⁵⁵ Furthermore, data from the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) suggests that ethnic differences may influence susceptibility and mortality between COVID-19 patients.⁵⁶ For instance, even though African American constitute only 13% of the US population, 33% of hospitalized COVID-19 patients consisted of this ethnic minority. However, the higher incidence of co-morbid conditions in this ethnicity adds a layer of complication to interaction between ethnicity and COVID-19.54,55 In this regard, underlying conditions such as diabetes can significantly contribute to adverse outcome to COVID-19. Currently, both diabetes and COVID-19 are considered worldwide pandemics with similar risk factors such as obesity, nonwhite ethnicity, and poorer socioeconomic status.³⁰

In addition to co-morbid conditions, several other factors may contribute to certain ethnic group vulnerability. Thus, it is speculated that globalization due to the interaction of individuals from diverse migrant and ethnic backgrounds plays a role. For example, cohabiting in intergenerational familial units, differences in educational background, professional roles, socioeconomic status, and healthseeking behaviors are different in Black, Asian, and other ethnic communities compared to the White population, which can influence the risk and response to infectious diseases.⁵⁷ However, further studies on mechanisms that may contribute to increased risk of COVID-19 morbidity and mortality in ethnic minority communities are necessary.

1.6 | Aging and ACE2

Mortality due to COVID-19 is highly associated with advanced age, owing in large part to severe respiratory tract infection. Whether ACE2 level in the lung specifically contributes to age-associated EY-MEDICAL VIROLOGY

GETACHEW AND TIZABI

vulnerability is currently unknown. Typically, ACE2 expression decreases with age in both sexes. However, as indicated above, men have a more significant age-dependent decrease in ACE2 compared with women.⁵⁸ Interestingly, a similar scenario is observed in rats. Thus, the level of ACE2 is dramatically reduced with aging in both sexes, but this reduction is significantly higher in aged male compared with female rats.⁵⁹

Compared with young individuals, older persons, particularly those with cardiovascular disease have reduced ACE2 levels and hence are more predisposed to exaggerated inflammation, which by itself can further reduce ACE2 expression, leading to a vicious cycle in the context of COVID-19.⁶⁰

Some studies suggest that child-specific plasma ACE2 profile may be the reason behind the discrepancy in COVID-19 infection between the young and the old. Moreover, children usually have higher plasma ACE2 levels than adults.⁶¹ For example, ACE2 plasma levels in children (6 months to 17 years of age) were 13–100 U/L compared with 9–67 U/L in the adult population.⁶² This decrease of ACE2 with age seems to parallel the increase in COVID-19 mortality in the aged population. Interestingly, the two host receptors that have been proposed for COVID-19 virus, CD26 and ACE2, are both associated with senescence.⁶³

1.7 | Gender and ACE2

There is increasing evidence that sex and sex hormones affect many components of the circulating as well as tissue-based RAS including ACE2.^{64–66} More recently, it was shown that estrogen modulates the local RAS in human atrial myocardium via downregulation of ACE and simultaneous upregulation of ACE2, angiotensin II receptor 2 (AT2R), and MAS expression levels.⁶⁷ The ACE2/Ang1-7/Mas receptor axis appears to be of greater relevance in women than in men.⁶⁷ ACE2 expression not only varies between males and females, but also by age. Hence, elderly men have a more significant decrease in ACE-2 compared with elderly women.⁵⁸ A decrease in ACE2 expression/activity may lead to sustained ACE-mediated generation of Ang-II and downstream signaling deleterious to organ functions including that of lung, kidney, and heart.⁶⁸ Thus, hormonal and genetic factors could lead to ACE2 overexpression in females, accounting at least partially for the better outcome and lower death rate in female SARS-CoV-2 patients. However, it remains to be determined whether indeed the expression of ACE2 differs in the lungs of male or female patients.49

1.8 | Ethnicity and ACE2

Studies show that genetics along with other risk factors can determine an individual's susceptibility to respiratory tract infections.⁶⁹ Since ACE2 receptor on host cells acts as an entry point for SARS-CoV-2,⁷⁰ it has been hypothesized that the ACE2 gene constitutes a genetic risk factor for SARS-CoV-2 infection.²⁰ Variations in immunity and ACE2 expression may lead to specific vulnerability and intensity of SARS-CoV-2 infection.⁵⁸ ACE2 variants were previously reported to be associated with disorders such as hypertension and other cardiovascular diseases.²¹ These diseases are often comorbid with COVID-19 and may pose promising genetic factor candidates for COVID-19 susceptibility. Moreover, variation in the expression of ACE2 and associated epigenetic factors may play a significant role in determining an individual's or ethnic susceptibility to COVID-19.²³

ACE2 expression differs between the world's three main racial groups: Africans, Asians, and Caucasians,² where Asians have significantly higher ACE2 expression in various organs, but not in the lung compared to the other two ethnic groups.^{2,50,70} Interestingly, there was also a gender-dependent site variation in the ACE2 levels of the Caucasian group, signifying interactions between aging and ethnicity. Whereas age-dependent decrease in ACE2 expression was observed in the blood, colon, adrenal gland, nerves, adipose tissue, and salivary glands of the males, such observation was absent in nerves, adipose tissue, or saliva of the females.²

Studies focusing on the Black population, show a reduced molecular expression of ACE2 compared with other races. Reduced plasma levels of ACE2 are also observed within populations of African descent including, African Americans and more specifically in individuals with pre-hypertensive status, diabetes, and renal disease.⁷¹ This may at least partially explain the reason for the higher predisposition for developing essential arterial hypertension and early end-organ damage in Blacks leading to higher mortality due to COVID-19 in this race.^{72,73}

1.9 | Vitamin D

Vitamin D is a group of fat-soluble secosteroid (a steroid with a "broken" ring) hormone, produced endogenously from 7dehydrocholesterol with the help of sunlight or ultraviolet irradiation that is mainly involved in controlling calcium and phosphorus homeostasis. The most important compounds in this group in humans are vitamin D3 or cholecalciferol and vitamin D₂ or ergocalciferol. the liver, cholecalciferol is converted to calcifediol In (25-hydroxycholecalciferol), whereas ergocalciferol is converted to 25-hydroxyergocalciferol. These two vitamin D metabolites, called 25-hydroxyvitamin D or 25(OH)D, are measured in serum to determine a person's vitamin D status. A main distinction between the two vitamins is that vitamin D3 comes mainly from food of animal origin, whereas vitamin D₂ comes from fungi. In addition, calcifediol is further hydroxylated by the kidneys to form calcitriol or 1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol (1,25(OH)2D).74 The primary enzyme responsible for the later reaction is CYP27B1 in the kidneys, although other tissues including various epithelial cells, cells of the immune system, and the parathyroid gland also contain this enzymatic activity.⁷⁵ Calcitriol, which is the biologically active form of vitamin D circulates as a hormone in the blood, and by regulating the concentration of calcium and phosphate promotes the healthy growth and remodeling of bone. It also has an effect on cell growth,

neuromuscular and immune functions, 76,77 where the later leads to a reduction of inflammation. 78

Vitamin D deficiency afflicts almost 50% of the population worldwide and is considered a public health problem affecting not only the elderly but also people across all life stages.^{79,80} A majority of healthy individuals have low vitamin D concentration, mainly at the end of the winter due to inadequate sun exposure.⁷⁶ In fact, individuals who stay at home or might be night workers may suffer from vitamin D deficiency for the same reason.⁸¹ Vitamin D deficiency is an independent risk factor for total mortality in the general population⁸² and is associated with increased susceptibility to respiratory infections.⁸³ According to Endocrine Society and Society for Adolescent Health and Medicine, the following cut-offs for 25(OH)D with specific designations are adopted to define vitamin D status: deficiency: < 50 nmol/L; insufficiency: 50-75 nmol/L; sufficiency: ≥ 75 nmol/L. Hypovitaminosis D is defined as 25(OH)D levels < 75 nmol/L or (30 ng/mL), and severe vitamin D deficiency is defined as 25(OH)D levels < 25 nmol/L.^{15,84}

1.10 | Vitamin D and COVID-19

There is now sufficient evidence to indicate that vitamin D deficiency compromises the respiratory immune function and can result in an increased risk of COVID-19 severity and mortality.⁸⁵ Indeed, SARS-CoV-2 positivity rate is associated with circulating 25(OH)D levels,⁸⁶ and various degrees of vitamin D deficiency are correlated with various degrees of COVID-19 severity and mortality.⁸⁷ Moreover, vitamin D may lower the risk of COVID-19 infections and deaths through different mechanisms discussed below. Vitamin D deficiency is also believed to be involved in ARDS, heart failure, and sepsis, all features of critically ill COVID-19 patients.^{85,88} Vitamin D deficiency may also be related to geographic variations in incidences of ARDS and COVID-19.89 Thus, it has been suggested that vitamin D may be used prophylactically to decrease the severity of illness caused by SARS-CoV-2, especially in settings where hypovitaminosis D is common.⁵ Vitamin D supplementation may also protect musculoskeletal health in those at risk of deficiency due to being housebound.14

The postulated mechanisms involved in vitamin D protection against COVID-19 include interaction with ACE2 (discussed below), suppression of cytokine response as well as maintenance of cell junctions and strengthening cellular immunity.⁸⁵ Suppression of cytokine response and reduced severity/risk for ARDS were evident by a meta-analysis where regular oral vitamin D₂/D₃ intake (in doses up to 2000 IU/day) was found to be safe and protective against acute respiratory tract infection and COVID-19.^{5,85} Nonetheless, further research is needed to understand the effects of Vitamin D and the role of various cytokines prevalent in nasal/pharyngeal illnesses on COVID-19 pathogenesis, which may actually lead to novel therapeutic indications.⁹⁰

1.11 | Vitamin D and ACE2

Vitamin D is a negative endocrine RAS modulator and inhibits renin expression and generation. It can induce ACE2/Ang-(1-7)/MasR axis activity and inhibit renin and the ACE/Ang II/AT1R axis, thereby increasing the expression and concentration of ACE2, MasR, and Ang-(1-7) and producing a potential protective role against acute lung injury/acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS). Vitamin D also helps contain the virus by dampening the entry and replication of SARS-CoV-2 via multiple mechanisms. These mechanisms include: reduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines and increasing antiinflammatory cytokines, enhancement of natural antimicrobial peptides, and activation of defensive cells such as macrophages that could destroy SARS-CoV-2.91 More importantly and directly relevant to the subject, vitamin D might alleviate ARDS and acute lung injury induced by SARS-CoV-2 by modulating ACE2.⁹² Therefore, targeting the unbalanced RAS and ACE2 downregulation with vitamin D is a potential therapeutic approach to combat COVID-19 and ARDS.⁹³ Moreover, since angiotensin type 1 receptor (AT1R) antagonists and vitamin D can increase the expression of ACE2 independently, the possibility of repurposing AT1R antagonists and combining it with vitamin D to treat COVID-19, appears as an attractive option.⁹⁴

It was reported earlier that vitamin D administration enhances the level as well the mRNA expression of VDR and ACE2 in a rat model of LPS-induced acute lung injury, suggesting that increased expression of ACE2 and VDR had a role in vitamin D protection against acute lung injury⁹⁵ Thus, clinical features and pathological changes of lung tissues in the calcitriol (a synthetic vitamin D)treated LPS rats were remarkably milder than controls.⁹⁵ It was later confirmed that vitamin D may decrease LPS-induced acute lung injury by inducing ACE2/Ang-(1-7) axis and suppressing renin and the ACE/Ang II/AT1R axis.⁹⁶

Compared with subjects with sufficient 25(OH)D levels (\geq 30 ng/ml), those with insufficiency (15–29.9 ng/mL) and deficiency (<15 ng/ml) may present with higher circulating Ang II concentrations. Furthermore, those with vitamin D deficiency may have blunted renal plasma flow responses to infused Ang II.⁹⁷ Normalization of vitamin D concentrations, however, can lower RAS activity by transcriptional suppression of renin expression and hence restore normal renal flow.¹²

It was also observed that calcitriol decreased ACE concentration and ACE/ACE2 ratio and enhanced ACE2 concentration in diabetic rats. Thus, calcitriol treatment effectively weakened ACE upregulation and ACE2 downregulation in such rats.⁹⁸ Interestingly, administration of another synthetic vitamin D analog, paricalcitol, led to increased levels of ACE2 in tubular cells and decreased levels of ACE2 within the circulation, effectively slowing the development of nephropathy in diabetic rats.⁹⁹ It was later reported that calcitriol suppresses Ang II receptor type 1 (AT1) and ACE and reduces Ang II formation in the spontaneously hypertensive rats with an eventual elevation of ACE2, MasR, and Ang-(1-7) production.¹⁰⁰

1.12 | Aging, vitamin D and COVID-19

The correlation between COVID-19 severity and age can be explained based on immune decline (immune-senescence) and vitamin D insufficiency. Although there is a complex interplay between vitamin D and various components of the innate and adaptive immune responses to bacterial and viral infections, vitamin D has been found to modulate macrophages' response, preventing the release of inflammatory cytokines and chemokines.¹⁰¹ As alluded to earlier, COVID-19 is exacerbated by the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Thus, patients with common variable immunodeficiency and bronchiectasis,¹⁰² as well as older adults with mild to severe vitamin D deficiency.¹⁰³ constitute high-risk groups for succumbing to COVID-19. In addition, patients with cardiovascular diseases, diabetes mellitus, obesity, and smoking, all of which are significant risk factors in COVID-19 and would eventually require ventilatory support may present with vitamin D deficiency.¹⁰⁴ Thus, it has been suggested that vitamin D status may be a surrogate indicator for morbidity and mortality of patients with COVID-19, particularly in the elderly.¹⁰⁵

1.13 | Gender, vitamin D, and COVID-19

COVID-19 has a significantly higher lethality in men than in women (ratios up to 3:1), suggesting the presence of sexdependent biological factors underlying these differences in disease outcome.¹⁰⁶ It is known that in general, innate and acquired immune responses are more intense in females than in males.¹⁰⁷ This can provide women with a more effective defense to fight new and infective pathogens, favoring viral clearance. Another significant explanation for sex differences in COVID-19 lethality is the sex-dependent modulation of cellular receptors and co-receptors used by SARS-CoV-2 to enter human host cells. In particular, ACE2 is encoded on X-chromosome in sites commonly escaping the inactivation of one X-chromosome in mammalian XX cells and could therefore be overexpressed in women.¹⁰⁸ Moreover, estrogen induces an increase of ACE2 expression that, as reported above, could play a protective role in acute respiratory distress.⁶⁷ On the other hand, androgen can increase the expression and activation of transmembrane serineprotease 2, (TMPRSS2), which facilitates virus-cell membrane fusion, thus favoring the infection.¹⁰⁹

A large number of patients with COVID-19 exhibit severe cardiovascular damage and those with pre-existing cardiovascular diseases appear to have an increased risk of death.¹¹⁰ Estrogen has known protective effects on the cardiovascular system mediated by estrogen receptors, resulting in the activation of endothelial nitric oxide synthase. Moreover, estrogen modulates serum lipoprotein and triglyceride levels and influences the expression of coagulant and fibrinolytic proteins. These estrogen-mediated actions could represent a further reason for the sex-specific differences in the outcome of COVID-19.¹¹¹ Sex differences have also been observed in the immunemodulatory and anti-inflammatory effects of vitamin D in some autoimmune diseases. In particular, it was reported that vitamin D induces a stronger inhibition of the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and a higher increase of anti-inflammatory cytokines in lymphocytes of female patients afflicted with multiple sclerosis in comparison with those from male patients.¹¹² Hence, it was suggested that vitamin D in an estrogen-dependent manner controls T cell differentiation.¹¹³ Moreover, estrogen seems to increase the expression of the nuclear VDR gene in CD4 + T cells and to decrease the expression of CYP24A1, the cytochrome P450 component of the 25-hydroxyvitamin D(3)–24-hydroxylase enzyme which inactivates vitamin D,¹¹⁴ hence giving an edge to women in combatting COVID-19. However, it is noteworthy that post-menopausal women tend to exhibit vitamin D deficiency.¹¹⁵

1.14 | Ethnicity, vitamin D, and COVID-19

There are now strong indications that the acquisition, transmission, and severity of COVID-19 might be influenced by ethnicity.¹¹⁶ Specifically, Black, Asian, and Minority ethnic community may be more susceptible to severe presentations of COVID-19.117 For example, in Chicago, more than 50% of COVID-19 cases and nearly 70% of COVID-19 deaths involve Black individuals, although Blacks make up only 30% of the population. Similarly, in Louisiana, 70.5% of deaths have occurred among Black persons, who represent 32.2% of the state's population. In Michigan, 33% of COVID-19 cases and 40% of deaths have occurred among Black individuals, who represent 14% of the population. In New York City, Backs and Hispanics, accounting for 28% and 34% of deaths, respectively, represent 22% and 29% of population, respectively.¹¹⁸ Moreover, in predominantly Black counties in the United States, the infection rate is more than three-fold higher and death rate is over six-fold higher than in predominantly White counties. Aside from the co-morbid condition, it must be acknowledged that the communities where many Black people reside are in poor areas characterized by high housing density, high crime rates, and poor access to healthy foods. Since low socioeconomic status alone is a risk factor for total mortality independent of any other risk factor, such social determinants of health must be considered in a complex equation, including COVID-19 mortality.¹¹⁸

Hypertension has a significantly higher prevalence in Blacks compared with Caucasians,¹¹⁹ partly, due to lower activity of the ACE2 enzyme in this population.¹²⁰ ACE2, unlike classical ACE, is responsible for the degradation of angiotensin II. In this way, SARS-CoV-2 would induce the reduction of this protective mechanism of ACE2 on pulmonary parenchyma, worsening the harmful action of angiotensin II on the lungs of patients infected by this virus.^{23,28}

Vitamin D has essential benefits on health through multiple mechanisms including interaction with ACE2. However, African Americans have considerably lower vitamin D serum levels than White Americans. BAME produces less vitamin D as a result of higher skin melanin content.¹²¹ These differences in vitamin D serum concentrations between groups may account for many of the aforementioned health disparities such as susceptibility of black people to hypertension, diabetes, and COVID-19.^{122,123} Moreover, in controlled clinical trials, vitamin D administration has shown a protective effect against respiratory infections in healthy patients as well as in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and other related pathologies, including COVID-19.¹²⁴ Nonetheless, additional studies are imperative to gain a better understanding of the interaction of vitamin D with ACE2 and its role in COVID-19.

2 | CONCLUSION

In summary, vitamin D deficiency in elderly people, particularly men as well as in select ethnic groups such as Blacks may contribute to higher morbidity and mortality in these populations due to COVID-19. ACE2 may be a common denominator in the susceptibility of these individuals, although further investigation in this regard is warranted. Nonetheless, supplement with vitamin D may be of particular benefit against COVID-19 in select populations where the risk of vitamin D deficiency is high.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Supported by NIH/NIGMS (2 SO6 GM08016-39) and Howard University College of Medicine Bridge Funds and Pilot Study Awards Program (BFPSAP) 2020-2021.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors declare that there are no conflict of interests.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Yousef Tizabi and Bruk Getachew conceived and discussed the idea. Bruk Getachew wrote the first draft. Yousef Tizabi provided critical advice and reviewed the manuscript. Both authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are openly available as listed in the references.

ORCID

Yousef Tizabi D https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1703-1842

REFERENCES

- Wu Z, McGoogan JM. Characteristics of and important lessons from the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) outbreak in China. JAMA. 2020;323:1239-1242. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama. 2020.2648
- Chen N, Zhou M, Dong X, et al. Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of 99 cases of 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia in Wuhan, China: a descriptive study. *Lancet*. 2020;395: 507-513. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(20)30211-7

MEDICAL VIROLOGY

- Lips P, Cashman KD, Lamberg-Allardt C, et al. Management of endocrine disease: current vitamin D status in European and Middle East countries and strategies to prevent vitamin D deficiency; a position statement of the European Calcified Tissue Society. Eur J Endocrinol. 2019;180:23-54.
- Yang J, Zheng Y, Gou X, et al. Prevalence of comorbidities and its effects in coronavirus disease 2019 patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Infect Dis. 2020;94:91-95. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.ijid.2020.03.017
- Panarese A, Shahini E. Letter: COVID-19, and vitamin D. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2020;51:993-995.
- Zhang H, Penninger JM, Li Y, Zhong N, Slutsky AS. Angiotensinconverting enzyme 2 (ACE2) as a SARS-CoV-2 receptor: molecular mechanisms and potential therapeutic target. *Intensive Care Med.* 2020; 46(4):586-590. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-020-05985-9
- Li W, Moore MJ, Vasilieva N, et al. Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 is a functional receptor for the SARS coronavirus. *Nature*. 2003; 426:450-454.
- Quesada-Gomez JM, Entrenas-Castillo M, Bouillon R. Vitamin D receptor stimulation to reduce acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) in patients with coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 infections: revised Ms SBMB 2020_166. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol. 2020;202: 105719. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsbmb.2020.105719
- Mahmudpour M, Roozbeh J, Keshavarz M, Farrokhi S, Nabipour I. COVID-19 cytokine storm: the anger of inflammation. *Cytokine*. 2020;133:155151. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cyto.2020.155151
- Nabah YN, Mateo T, Estellés R, et al. Angiotensin II induces neutrophil accumulation in vivo through generation and release of CXC chemokines. *Circulation*. 2004;110(23):3581-3586. https:// doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000148824.93600.F3
- Dielis AW, Smid M, Spronk HM, et al. The prothrombotic paradox of hypertension: role of the renin-angiotensin and kallikrein-kinin systems. *Hypertension*. 2005;46(6):1236-1242. https://doi.org/10. 1161/01.HYP.0000193538.20705.23
- Grober U, Kisters K. Influence of drugs on vitamin D and calcium metabolism. *Dermatoendocrinol.* 2012;4:158-166.
- Centre. ICNAaR. (2020). ICNARC Report on COVID-19 in Critical Care. Available online at: https://www.icnarc.org/Our-Audit/ Audits/Cmp/Reports. Accesed April 17, 2020.
- Rhodes JM, Subramanian S, Laird E, Kenny RA. Editorial: low population mortality from COVID-19 in countries south of latitude 35 degrees north supports vitamin D as a factor determining severity. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther.* 2020;51(12):1434-1437. https:// doi.org/10.1111/apt.15777
- 15. Society for Adolescent Health and Medicine. Recommended vitamin D intake and management of low vitamin D status in adolescents: a position statement of the society for adolescent health and medicine. J Adolesc Health. 2013;52:801-803.
- COVID-19. Dashboard by the Centre for System Science and Engineering (CSSE) at Johns Hopkins University(JHU). https://www. arcgis.com/apps/opsdashboard/index.html/bda7594740fd402994 23467b48e9ecf6]. COVID-19 Live Update. https://www.worldo meters.info/coronavirus/
- Bureau PR. Countries With the Oldest Populations in the World. Washington, DC: PRB; 2020.
- Wei M, Yuan J, Liu Y, Fu T, Yu X, Zhang ZJ. Novel coronavirus infection in hospitalized infants under 1 year of age in China. JAMA. 2020;323:1313-1314. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama. 2020.2131
- Li LQ, Huang T, Wang YQ, et al. COVID-19 patients' clinical characteristics, discharge rate, and fatality rate of meta-analysis. J Med Virol. 2020;92:577-583. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.25757
- Chen YY, Zhang P, Zhou XM, et al. Relationship between genetic variants of ACE2 gene and circulating levels of ACE2 and its metabolites. *J Clin Pharm Ther.* 2018;43:189-195.

WILEY-MEDICAL VIROLOGY

- 21. Patel SK, Wai B, Ord M, et al. Association of ACE2 genetic variants with blood pressure, left ventricular mass, and cardiac function in Caucasians with type 2 diabetes. *Am J Hypertens.* 2012;25: 216-222.
- Zhang SF, Tuo JL, Huang XB, et al. Epidemiology characteristics of human coronaviruses in patients with respiratory infection symptoms and phylogenetic analysis of HCoV-OC43 during 2010-2015 in Guangzhou. *PLoS One.* 2018;13:e0191789.
- Choudhary S, Sreenivasulu K, Mitra P, Misra S, Sharma P. Role of genetic variants and gene expression in the susceptibility and severity of COVID-19. Ann Lab Med. 2021;41(2):129-138. https://doi. org/10.3343/alm.2021.41.2.129
- Donoghue M, Hsieh F, Baronas E, et al. A novel angiotensinconverting enzyme-related carboxypeptidase (ACE2) converts angiotensin I to angiotensin 1–9. *Circ Res.* 2000;87(5):E1-E9.
- Lakatta EG, Levy D. Arterial and cardiac aging: major shareholders in cardiovascular disease enterprises: part II: the aging heart in health: links to heart disease. *Circulation*. 2003;107(2):346-354. https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000048893.62841.F7
- Gebhard C, Regitz-Zagrosek V, Neuhauser HK, Morgan R, Klein SL. Impact of sex and gender on COVID-19 outcomes in Europe. *Biol Sex Differ*. 2021;11:29.
- Hanff TC, Harhay MO, Brown TS, et al. Is there an association between COVID-19 mortality and the renin-angiotensin system: a call for epidemiologic investigations. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2020:ciaa329.
- Imai Y, Kuba K, Rao S, et al. Angiotensin- converting enzyme 2 protects from severe acute lung failure. *Nature*. 2005;436:112-116.
- Menendez JA. Metformin and SARS-CoV-2: mechanistic lessons on air pollution to weather the cytokine/thrombotic storm in COVID-19. Aging. 2020;12(10):8760-8765. https://doi.org/10.18632/ aging.103347
- Chowdhury TA. Diabetes and COVID-19: diseases of racial, social and glucose intolerance. World J Diabetes. 2021;12(3):198-205. https://doi.org/10.4239/wjd.v12.i3.198
- Wang W, Tang J, Wei F. Updated understanding of the outbreak of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) in Wuhan, China. J Med Virol. 2020;92:441-447. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.25689
- Nikolich-Zugich J, Knox KS, Rios CT, Natt B, Bhattacharya D, Fain MJ. SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19 in older adults: what we may expect regarding pathogenesis, immune responses, and outcomes. *GeroScience*. 2020;42:505-514. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11357-020-00186-0
- 33. Novel Coronavirus Pneumonia Emergency Response Epidemiology Team. The epidemiological characteristics of an outbreak of 2019 novel coronavirus diseases (COVID-19) in China. Zhonghua liu xing bing xue za zhi = Zhonghua liuxingbingxue zazhi. 2020;41:145-151. https://doi.org/10.3760/cma.j.issn.0254-6450.2020.02.003
- Guan WJ, Ni ZY, Hu Y, et al. Clinical characteristics of coronavirus disease 2019 in China. N Engl J Med. 2020;382:1708-1720. https:// doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa2002032
- Bajaj V, Gadi N, Spihlman AP, Wu SC, Choi CH, Moulton VR. Aging, immunity, and COVID-19: how age influences the host immune response to coronavirus infections? *Front Physiol*. 2021;11:571416. https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2020.571416
- Moskalev A, Stambler I, Caruso C. Innate and adaptive immunity in aging and longevity: the foundation of resilience. *Aging Dis.* 2020; 11(6):1363-1373. https://doi.org/10.14336/AD.2020.0603
- Storci G, Bonifazi F, Garagnani P, Olivieri F, Bonafè M. The role of extracellular DNA in COVID-19: clues from inflamm-aging. Ageing Res Rev. 2021;66:101234. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.arr. 2020.101234
- Chen CJ. Reply: thymopoiesis, inflamm-aging, and COVID-19 phenotype. *Pediatr Neonatol.* 2020;61(3):366-367. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.pedneo.2020.04.006

- Scarpa R, Costa L, Del Puente A, Caso F. Role of thymopoiesis and inflamm-aging in COVID-19 phenotype. *Pediatr Neonatol.* 2020; 61(3):364-365. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedneo.2020.04.001
- Meftahi GH, Jangravi Z, Sahraei H, Bahari Z. The possible pathophysiology mechanism of cytokine storm in elderly adults with COVID-19 infection: the contribution of "inflame-aging". *Inflamm Res.* 2020;69(9):825-839. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00011-020-01372-8
- Samprathi M, Jayashree M. Biomarkers in COVID-19: an up-todate review. Front Pediatr. 2021;8:607647. https://doi.org/10. 3389/fped.2020.607647
- Bonafè M, Prattichizzo F, Giuliani A, Storci G, Sabbatinelli J, Olivieri F. Inflamm-aging: why older men are the most susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 complicated outcomes. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.* 2020;53:33-37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cytogfr.2020.04.005
- Prattichizzo F, Bonafè M, Giuliani A, et al. Rejsponse to: letter to the editor on "Bonafe M, Prattichizzo F, Giuliani A, Storci G, Sabbatinelli J, Olivieri F. Inflamm-aging: why older men are the most susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 complicated outcomes. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev" by Eugenia Quiros-Roldan, Giorgio Biasiotto and Isabella Zanella. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev. 2020;(20):30189-1. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cytogfr.2020. 07.013
- Cunha LL, Perazzio SF, Azzi J, Cravedi P, Riella LV. Remodeling of the immune response with aging: immunosenescence and its potential impact on COVID-19 immune response. *Front Immunol.* 2020;11:1748. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2020.01748
- Jaillon S, Berthenet K, Garlanda C. Sexual dimorphism in innate immunity. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol*. 2017;56:308-321. https://doi. org/10.1007/s12016-017-8648-x
- Hewagama A, Patel D, Yarlagadda S, Strickland FM, Richardson BC. Stronger inflammatory/cytotoxic T-cell response in women identified by microarray analysis. *Genes Immunity*. 2009;10:509-516. https://doi.org/10.1038/gene.2009.12
- Schröder J. Gender differences in human sepsis. Archiv Surg. 1998; 133:1200-1205. https://doi.org/10.1001/archsurg.133.11.1200
- Klein SL, Roberts CW. Sex hormones and immunity to infection. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg. 2010. https://doi.org/10.1007/ 978-3-642-02155-8
- Kopel J, Perisetti A, Roghani A, et al. Racial and gender-based differences in COVID-19. Front Public Health. 2020;8(418):28. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2020.00418
- 50. Hua. Cai. Sex difference and smoking predisposition in patients with COVID-19. *Lancet Respir Med.* 2020;8(4):e20.
- 51. Wenham C, Smith J, Morgan R. COVID-19: the gendered impacts of the outbreak. *Lancet*. 2020;395(10227):846-848.
- Sex, gender and COVID-19. 2020. Global Health 5050. https:// globalhealth5050.org/covid19/. Accessed February 04, 2020.
- Pirhadi R, Sinai Talaulikar V, Onwude J, Manyonda I. Could estrogen protect women from COVID-19? J Clin Med Res. 2020; 12(10):634-639. https://doi.org/10.14740/jocmr4303
- Garg S, Kim L, Whitaker M, et al. Hospitalization rates and characteristics of patients hospitalized with laboratory-confirmed coronavirus disease 2019–COVID-NET, 14 states, March 1–30, 2020. MMWR Morb Mortal Weekly Rep. 2020;69:458-464. https:// doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6915e3
- Dowd JB, Aiello AE. Socioeconomic differentials in immune response. *Epidemiology*. 2009;20:902-908.
- Pan D, Sze S, Minhas JS, et al. The impact of ethnicity on clinical outcomes in COVID-19: a systematic review. *EClinicalMedicine*. 2020;23:100404. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2020.100404
- 57. Brewster LM, van Montfrans GA, Oehlers GP, Seedat YK. Systematic review: antihypertensive drug therapy in patients of African and South Asian ethnicity. *Intern Emerg Med.* 2016;11:355-374.

- Chen J, Jiang Q, Xia X, et al. Individual variation of the SARS-CoV-2 receptor ACE2 gene expression and regulation. *Aging cell*. 2020;19: e13168.
- Xie X, Chen J, Wang X, Zhang F, Liu Y. Age- and gender-related difference of ACE2 expression in rat lung. *Life Sci.* 2006;78: 2166-2171.
- Rodrigues Prestes TR, Rocha NP, Miranda AS, Teixeira AL, Simoes-E-Silva AC. The anti-inflammatory potential of ACE2/angiotensin-(1-7)/Mas receptor axis: evidence from basic and clinical research. *Curr Drug Targets*. 2017;18(11):1301-1313. https://doi.org/10. 2174/1389450117666160727142401
- Bénéteau-Burnat B, Baudin B, Morgant G, Baumann FC, Giboudeau J. Serum angiotensin-converting enzyme in healthy and sarcoidotic children: comparison with the reference interval for adults. *Clin Chem.* 1990;36:344-346.
- Ciaglia E, Vecchione C, Puca AA. COVID-19 infection and circulating ACE2 levels: protective role in women and children. Front Pediatr. 2020;8:206.
- Vankadari N, Wilce JA. Emerging WuHan (COVID-19) coronavirus: glycan shield and structure prediction of spike glycoprotein and its interaction with human CD26. Emerg Microbes Infect. 2020;9: 601-604. https://doi.org/10.1080/22221751.2020.1739565
- Chappell MC, Marshall AC, Alzayadneh EM, Shaltout HA, Diz DI. Update on the angiotensin converting enzyme 2-angiotensin (1-7)-Mas receptor axis: fetal programing, sex differences, and intracellular pathways. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)*. 2014;4:201.
- Gupte M, Thatcher SE, Boustany-Kari CM, et al. Angiotensin converting enzyme 2 contributes to sex differences in the development of obesity hypertension in C57bl/6 mice. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 2012;32(6):1392-1399.
- Liu J, Ji H, Zheng W, et al. Sex differences in renal angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (Ace2) activity are 17beta-oestradioldependent and sex chromosome-independent. *Biol Sex Differ*. 2010; 1(1):6.
- Bukowska A, Spiller L, Wolke C, et al. Protective regulation of the Ace2/Ace gene expression by estrogen in human atrial tissue from elderly men. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)*. 2017;242(14):1412-1423.
- Gheblawi M, Wang K, Viveiros A, et al. Angiotensin converting enzyme 2: SARS-CoV-2 receptor and regulatory of the renin angiotensin system. *Circ Res.* 2020;126:1456-1474. https://doi.org/ 10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.120.317015
- Benetti E, Tita R, Spiga O, et al. ACE2 gene variants may underlie interindividual variability and susceptibility to COVID-19 in the Italian population. *Eur J Hum Genet*. 2020;28:1-13.
- Zhao S, Cao P, Chong MKC, et al. The time-varying serial interval of the coronavirus disease (Covid-19) and its gender-specific difference: a data-driven analysis using public surveillance data in Hong Kong and Shenzhen, China from January 10 to February 15, 2020. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2020;41:750-751. https://doi. org/10.1017/ice.2020.64:1-8
- Soro-Paavonen A, Gordin D, Forsblom C, et al. Circulating Ace2 activity is increased in patients with type 1 diabetes and vascular complications. J Hypertens. 2012;30(2):375-383.
- Cohall D, Ojeh N, Ferrario CM, Adams OP, Nunez-Smith M. Is hypertension in African-descent populations contributed to by an imbalance in the activities of the ACE2/Ang-(1-7)/Mas and the ACE/ Ang II/AT₁ axes? J Renin Angiotensin Aldosterone Syst. 2020;21(1): 1470320320908186. https://doi.org/10.1177/1470320320908186
- Kenyon C. ACE-1 I/D polymorphism associated with COVID-19 incidence and mortality. *an ecological study*. https://doi.org/10. 20944/preprints202004.0262.v1
- Holick MF. Vitamin D: extraskeletal health. Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am. 2010;39(2):381-400.table of contents. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.ecl.2010.02.016

- Townsend K, Evans KN, Campbell MJ, Colston KW, Adams JS, Hewison M. Biological actions of extra-renal 25-hydroxyvitamin D-1alpha-hydroxylase and implications for chemoprevention and treatment. Steroid Biochem Mol Biol. 2005;97(1-2):103-109. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.jsbmb.2005.06.004
- Tangpricha V, Pearce EN, Chen TC, Holick MF. Vitamin D insufficiency among free-living healthy young adults. Am J Med. 2002;112:659-662.
- 77. Sassi F, Tamone C, D'Amelio P. Vitamin D: nutrient, hormone, and immunomodulator. *Nutrients.* 2018;10:1656-1669.
- Office of Dietary Supplements Vitamin D"ods. https://nih. gov. 2020.
- Holick MF. The vitamin D deficiency pandemic: approaches for diagnosis, treatment and prevention. *Rev Endocrine Metab Disord*. 2017;18:153-165.
- Rubin R. Sorting out whether vitamin D deficiency raises COVID-19 risk. JAMA. 2021;325(4):329-330. https://doi.org/10.1001/ jama.2020.24127
- Holick MF. Sunlight and vitamin D for bone health and prevention of autoimmune diseases, cancers, and cardiovascular disease. Am J Clin Nutr. 2004;80:16785-16885.
- Melamed ML, Michos ED, Post W, Astor B. 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels and the risk of mortality in the general population. Arch Intern Med. 2008;168:1681629-1681637. https://doi.org/10.1001/ archinte.168.15.1629
- McCartney DM, Byrne DG. Optimisation of Vitamin D status for enhanced Immuno-protection against Covid-19. Ir Med J. 2020; 113:58.
- Holick MF, Binkley NC, Bischoff-Ferrari HA, et al. Endocrine Society evaluation, treatment, and prevention of vitamin D deficiency: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2011;96:1911-1930. https://doi.org/10.1210/jc. 2011-0385
- Grant WB, Lahore H, McDonnell SL, et al. Evidence that vitamin D supplementation could reduce risk of influenza and COVID-19 infections and deaths. *Nutrients.* 2020;12:988.
- Kaufman HW, Niles JK, Kroll MH, Bi C, Holick MF. SARS-CoV-2 positivity rates associated with circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels. *PLoS One*. 2020;15(9):e0239252. https://doi.org/10.1371/ journal.pone.0239252
- Daneshkhah A, Agrawal V, Eshein A, et al. The possible role of vitamin D in suppressing cytokine storm and associated mortality in COVID-19 patients [preprint]. *Infect Dis (except HIV/AIDS)*. 2020. https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.08.20058578
- Baeke F, Takiishi T, Korf H, Gysemans C, Mathieu C. Vitamin D: modulator of the immune system. *Curr Opin Pharmacol.* 2010;10: 482-496.
- Marik PE, Kory P, Varon J. Does vitamin D status impact mortality from SARS-CoV-2 infection? *Med Drug Discov*. 2020;6:1-2.
- Jain N, Varman R, Tarbox JA, Nguyen T. Biomolecular endotype factors involved in COVID-19 airway infectivity: a systematic review. Auris Nasus Larynx. 2021;48(1):32-40. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.anl.2020.11.006
- Kumar R, Rathi H, Haq A, Wimalawansa SJ, Sharma A. Putative roles of vitamin D in modulating immune response and immunopathology associated with COVID-19. *Virus Res.* 2021;292: 198235. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virusres.2020.198235
- Xiao D, Li X, Su X, Mu D, Qu Y. Could SARS-CoV-2-induced lung injury be attenuated by vitamin D? Int J Infect Dis. 2021;102: 196-202. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.10.059
- Malek Mahdavi A. A brief review of interplay between vitamin D and angiotensin-converting enzyme 2: Implications for a potential treatment for COVID-19. *Rev Med Virol.* 2020;30(5):e2119. https:// doi.org/10.1002/rmv.2119

WILEY - MEDICAL VIROLOGY

- Rafiullah M. Can a Combination of AT1R antagonist and vitamin D treat the lung complication of COVID-19? *Am J Med Sci.* 2020; 360(4):338-341. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjms.2020.07.018
- Yang J, Zhang H, Xu Z. Effect of vitamin D on ACE2 and vitamin d receptor expression in rats with LPS-induced acute lung. *Injury*. 2016;47:2816-2821.
- Xu J, Yang J, Chen J, Luo Q, Zhang Q, Zhang H. Vitamin D alleviates lipopolysaccharide-induced acute lung injury via regulation of the renin-angiotensin system. *Mol Med Rep.* 2017;16:7432-7438.
- 97. Tomaschitz A, Pilz S, Ritz E, et al. Independent association between 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D and the reninangiotensin system: the Ludwigshafen risk and cardiovascular health (LURIC) study. *Clin Chim Acta*. 2010;411:1354-1360.
- Lin M, Gao P, Zhao T, et al. Calcitriol regulates angiotensinconverting enzyme and angiotensin converting-enzyme 2 in diabetic kidney dis- ease. *Mol Biol Rep.* 2016;43:397-406.
- Riera M, Anguiano L, Clotet S, et al. Paricalcitol modulates ACE2 shedding and renal ADAM17 in NOD mice beyond proteinuria. *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol*. 2016;310:F534-F546.
- 100. Cui C, Xu P, Li G, et al. Vitamin D receptor activation regulates microglia polarization and oxidative stress in spontaneously hypertensive rats and angiotensin II-exposed microglial cells: role of renin- angiotensin system. *Redox Biol.* 2019;26:101295.
- Helming L, Böse J, Ehrchen J, et al. 1alpha,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D3 is a potent suppressor of interferon gamma-mediated macrophage activation. *Blood.* 2005;106:4351-4358.
- 102. Amaya-Mejía AS, O'farrill-Romanillos PM, Galindo-Pacheco LV, et al. Vitamin D deficiency in patients with common variable immunodeficiency, with autoimmune diseases and bronchiectasis. *Rev Alerg Mex.* 2013;60:110-116.
- Meehan M, Penckofer S. The role of vitamin D in the aging adult. J Aging Gerontol. 2014;2:60-71.
- Baktash V, Hosack T, Patel N, et al. Vitamin D status and outcomes for hospitalised older patients with COVID-19. *Postgrad Med J*. 2020. https://doi.org/10.1136/postgradmedj-2020-138712
- Munshi R, Hussein MH, Toraih EA, et al. Vitamin D insufficiency as a potential culprit in critical COVID-19 patients. J Med Virol. 2020; 93:733-740. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.26360
- Peckham H, Gruijter N, Raine C, et al. Sex-bias in COVID-19: a metaanalysis and review of sex differences in disease and immunity. Res Square. 2020. https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-23651/v1
- Ghosh S, Klein RS. Sex drives dimorphic immune responses to viral infections. J Immunol. 2017;198(5):1782-1790. https://doi.org/10. 4049/jimmunol.1601166
- Tukiainen T, Villani AC, Yen A, et al. Landscape of X chromosome inactivation across human tissues. *Nature*. 2017;550(7675): 244-248. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature24265
- Pozzilli P, Lenzi A. Commentary: testosterone, a key hormone in the context of COVID-19 pandemic. *Metabolism*. 2020;108: 154252. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.metabol.2020.154252
- 110. Evans PC, Rainger GE, Mason JC, et al. Endothelial dysfunction in COVID-19: a position paper of the ESC Working Group for Atherosclerosis and Vascular Biology, and the ESC Council of Basic Cardiovascular Science. *Cardiovasc Res.* 2020;116:2177-2184. https://doi.org/ 10.1093/cvr/cvaa230 https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org.
- 111. Regitz-Zagrosek V, Oertelt-Prigione S, Seeland U, Hetzer R. Sex and gender differences in myocardial hypertrophy and heart

failure. Circ J. 2010;74(7):1265-1273. https://doi.org/10.1253/ circj.cj-10-0196

- Correale J, Ysrraelit MC, Gaitán MI. Gender differences in 1,25 dihydroxyvitamin D3 immunomodulatory effects in multiple sclerosis patients and healthy subjects. J Immunol. 2010;185(8): 4948-4958. https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.1000588
- 113. Spanier JA, Nashold FE, Mayne CG, Nelson CD, Hayes CE. Vitamin D and estrogen synergy in Vdr-expressing CD4(+) T cells is essential to induce Helios(+)FoxP3(+)T cells and prevent autoimmune demyelinating disease. J Neuroimmunol. 2015;286:48-58. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneuroim.2015.06.015
- 114. Cheema C, Grant BF, Marcus R. Effects of estrogen on circulating "free" and total 1,25- dihydroxyvitamin D and on the parathyroidvitamin D axis in postmenopausal women. *J Clin Invest*. 1989;83: 537-542. https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI113915
- Capatina C, Carsote M, Caragheorgheopol A, Poiana C, Berteanu M. Vitamin d deficiency in postmenopausal women biological correlates. *Maedica (Bucur)*. 2014;9(4):316-322.
- Pareek M, Bangash MN, Pareek N, et al. Ethnicity and COVID-19: an urgent public health research priority. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10234): 1421-1422. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30922-3
- Mandal A, Baktash V, Hosack T, Missouris CG. Vitamin D status and COVID-19 in older adults. *Aging Clin Exp Res.* 2020;32(11): 2425-2426. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40520-020-01716-8
- 118. Yancy CW. COVID-19 and African Americans. JAMA. 2020;323: 1891-1892. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.6548
- 119. Lackland DT. Racial differences in hypertension: implications for high blood pressure management. *Am J Med Sci.* 2014;348: 135-138.
- 120. Akinyemiju T, Do AN, Patki A, et al. Epigenome-wide association study of metabolic syndrome in African-American Adults. *Clin Epigenetics*. 2018;10:49.
- 121. Alzaman NS, Dawson-Hughes B, Nelson J, D'Alessio D, Pittas AG. Vitamin D status of black and white Americans and changes in vitamin D metabolites after varied doses of vitamin D supplementation. Am J Clin Nutr. 2016;104:205-214.
- 122. Grant WB, Peiris AN. Possible role of serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D in Black-White health disparities in the United States. J Am Med Dir Assoc. 2010;11:617-628.
- 123. Entrenas Castillo M, Entrenas Costa LM, Vaquero Barrios JM, et al. Effect of calcifediol treatment and best available therapy versus best available therapy on intensive care unit admission and mortality among patients hospitalized for COVID-19: A pilot randomized clinical study. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol. 2020;203:105751. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsbmb. 2020.105751
- 124. Ames BN, Grant WB, Willett WC. Does the high prevalence of vitamin D dDeficiency in African Americans contribute to health disparities? *Nutrients*. 2021;13(2):499.

How to cite this article: Getachew B, Tizabi Y. Vitamin D and COVID-19: Role of ACE2, age, gender, and ethnicity. *J Med Virol.* 2021;93:5285-5294. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.27075