## Claims and reasons about mild COVID-19 in children

#### S. Falahi<sup>1</sup>, A. Abdoli<sup>2</sup> and A. Kenarkoohi<sup>3</sup>

1) Zoonotic Diseases Research Centre, Ilam University of Medical Sciences, Ilam, 2) Department of Parasitology and Mycology, School of Medicine, Jahrom University of Medical Sciences, Jahrom and 3) Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Ilam University of Medical Sciences, Ilam, Iran

#### Abstract

The elderly form the main risk group in the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, and age is recognized as a major risk factor for the severity of infection and mortality of COVID-19. The severity of the infection in children is milder than in adults. Although the pathophysiology of COVID-19 is not fully understood, several possible factors and mechanisms have been suggested for the lower severity of infection in children.

© 2021 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd.

Keywords: Children, coronavirus disease 2019, mild infection, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2, young people Original Submission: 20 February 2021; Revised Submission: 28 February 2021; Accepted: 10 March 2021

Article published online: 17 March 2021

**Corresponding author:** A. Kenarkoohi, Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Ilam University of Medical Sciences, Ilam, Iran.

E-mail: a.kenarkoohi@gmail.com

### Introduction

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic is still continuing and millions of infections have been reported [1]. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), with its high transmissibility, has put a lot of stress on the world since late 2019, and the effects of this infection on the human population are still being studied [2,3].

Reinfection with SARS-CoV-2 remains to be fully clarified. Children from a broad spectrum of ages can be infected by SARS-CoV-2 but most infected children do not show symptoms of COVID-19, or their disease is less severe than in adults and they recover 1-2 weeks after symptom onset [4,5].

According to CDC data, in the USA children <18 years of age represent 1.7% to 12% of all COVID-19 cases [5,6]. Although serious illness in children with COVID-19 has been reported, their hospitalization rate is also much lower than in

adults [5]. Both children and adults are susceptible to COVID-19, but outcomes as well as clinical presentations were more favourable for children [4,7]. According to contact tracing data, children are mostly not the index patients and they become infected with SARS-CoV-2 from adults. Secondary infections from children as the source were also uncommon [4].

Although serious illness in children with COVID-19 has been reported, hospitalization or death is rare [5,8]; however, a small number of deaths have been recorded [9]. Like adults, children with an underlying disease, such as diabetes, obesity, congenital heart disease, genetic conditions or conditions affecting the nervous system or metabolism have higher risk for serious complications of COVID-19 [10,11].

It is now accepted that COVID-19 is less severe in children and infants than in adults. Several hypotheses and possible mechanisms that may cause mild disease in children have been proposed.

## Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2

Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE-2) is the SARS-CoV-2 receptor. It seems that ACE-2 expression in the respiratory tract of children is less than in that of adults [12]. In addition, in adults, because of underlying problems and the use of some

drugs such as ACE inhibitors, ACE-2 expression increases, which in turn increases the virus entry into cells [13], although some researchers believe in protective effects of ACE-2 in lung disease [14].

There are two forms of ACE-2: a membrane-bound form and a soluble form. Some researchers believe that soluble ACE-2 is more common in children than adults, and that this form of ACE-2 acts like a neutralizing antibody and neutralizes SARS-CoV-2, in other words, the soluble ACE-2 in children has a protective role [15,16].

# Bradykinin and angiotensin-converting enzyme

A group of researchers suggested that a bradykinin storm in individuals with COVID-19 is responsible for many of the clinical symptoms of the disease, and that changes in the renin-angiotensin system in individuals with COVID-19 lead to increased bradykinin levels. Bradykinin is one of the important components in regulating blood pressure and reduces blood pressure with its vasodilatory role. In addition, bradykinin increases vascular permeability and oedema in lung tissue. Increased bradykinin levels in the body cause pain and induce neutrophils to inflammatory tissue. Increased bradykinin has been reported to cause symptoms such as dry cough, an initial decrease in oxygen saturation, and increased vascular permeability [17]. Bradykinin is further degraded and inactivated by ACE. Children have more ACE in the serum than adults, so it can be hypothesized that children break down bradykinin more than adults, so they do not show the adverse effects of elevated bradykinin levels.

## **Endothelial system**

The endothelium and the coagulation system are also different in children compared with adults, which makes children less susceptible to thrombotic complications [18]. Activation of coagulation pathways and formation of microthromboses as a result of endothelial damage due to SARS-CoV-2 infection of endothelial cells, as well as angiogenesis, play an important role in the pathogenesis of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Endothelial cells maintain vascular health with anticoagulant and anti-inflammatory activities. Endothelial cells have ACE-2, and SARS-CoV-2 enters them. Endothelial cell damage with the entry of SARS-CoV-2 and subsequent inflammation and the creation of a prothrombotic environment is another pathophysiological mechanism of COVID-19. Both the entry of SARS-CoV-2 into the endothelium and the decrease in ACE-2 on endothelial cells, which is followed by an increase in angiotensin 2, increase inflammation and coagulation. Children generally have healthy vascular systems and less endothelial damage. In adults, the endothelium is more vulnerable and the presence of cardiovascular disease exacerbates vascular damage [19].

## **Respiratory tract**

The characteristics of the respiratory tissues of children and adults are also different. In adults, reduction of ciliary movement of cells in the respiratory tract can be an important factor in the rapid access of the virus to the lower respiratory tract, a feature that is not present in the respiratory systems of children. In addition, children's lungs may have a greater capacity for repair after infection [20].

## Frequency of underlying diseases

One of the important risk factors for the severity of COVID-19 is underlying diseases, and the prevalence of underlying diseases is higher in adults than in children [21,22].

## **Vaccines and vaccination**

Immune system differences are probably one of the main reasons for the difference in disease severity between children and adults [19]. Some infections and vaccinations can provide extensive protection against other infectious agents through innate immune mechanisms. This process is called trained immunity. Trained immunity is the memory of an innate immune system that acts non-specifically without producing antibodies. Although reversible and short-lived [23], the frequency of childhood vaccinations causes sufficient trained immunity in this period. Vaccines, such as bacillus Calmette–Guérin (BCG) for tuberculosis, can increase the basal level of innate immunity and stimulate resistance to other pathogens like COVID-19 (known as trained innate immunity). As a result, a child's immune system is ready to respond quickly to pathogens [19].

Some live vaccines have non-specific immunomodulatory effects rather than giving protection against their target pathogens. It has also been postulated that this contributes to agerelated differences in COVID-19 severity [24,25], supported by the fact that children have also generally been vaccinated with BCG and other live-attenuated vaccines more recently and frequently than adults [24,26].

## Immune system in children and adults

The presence of natural antibodies is higher in children; they are part of the innate immune system and cause a faster response to infectious agents. Natural antibodies can contain the infection until the acquired immune system is activated and antigen-specific antibodies are produced [27]. Another point is cross-immunity, it is also possible that common cold coronaviruses in children have caused cross-protection against SARS-CoV-2 [15].

Like other organs and systems, the immune system can be affected by aging. According to several studies, aging causes changes in the body's immune factors and may lead to a decrease in the strength of immune responses, a phenomenon called immunosenescence. In addition, inflammation is beneficial if it is short-lived and controlled, but harmful if it is severe and uncontrollable. One possible mechanism of SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis is the overproduction of inflammatory cytokines called cytokine storms. In children, the production of inflammatory cytokines is lower than in adults, and the amount of pro-inflammatory cytokines increases with age. Cytokine storms are more likely to occur in adults than in children. In general, inflammation increases with age, a phenomenon also known as 'inflame-aging' or 'inflammaging'. The production of interleukin-6 increases with age, and interleukin-6 is the major cytokine in the formation of cytokine storms. Increased production of inflammatory cytokines, especially interleukin-6, in adults compared with children leads to a higher chance of developing a cytokine storm in adults than in children [28]. In addition, the hyperinflammation underlying paediatric inflammatory multisystem syndrome is different to that observed in adults with severe COVID-19, which includes higher levels of interleukin-7 and interleukin-8 and lower levels of effector CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. It has been shown that SARS-CoV-2 infection in children leads to a less robust activation of T cells against virus spike protein [29]. Immunosenescence is promoted by ageing, refers to the gradual deterioration of the immune system by natural ageing [30], and probably contributes to partly reduced SARS-CoV-2 clearance. Inflammaging is another age-related conversion in the immune response of elderly individuals and has been linked to some inflammatory conditions, which can correlate with severe outcome of SARS-CoV-2 infection [31,32]. Interferons play an important role in innate antiviral defence. This third part of the immune system plays a probable role in the age-related severity of COVID-19; increases in autoantibodies against type I interferon through life are correlated with the severe outcome of COVID-19 pneumonia [33,34].

## **Co-infections in childhood**

Children may be co-infected with other viruses, especially human coronaviruses, that could interfere with the replication of a possible SARS-CoV-2 infection. On the other hand, periodic repeated infections with such viruses can enhance the activation of the immune response, ranging from innate immunity to epigenetic changes in trained immunity, resulting in possible clearance of SARS-CoV-2 infection [35,36]. Although some arguments proposed that pre-existing cross-reactive antibodies from recurrent human coronavirus infections might protect children against COVID-19, these data must be interpreted and used with caution. Most people have antibodies for circulating human coronaviruses which originate from childhood [37,38]. However, levels of cross-reactive antibodies and T cells increase with age as a result of re-infection with human coronaviruses over a lifetime. SARS-CoV-2 can bind to these crossreactive non-neutralizing antibodies, that facilitate the entry of the virion to macrophages and other cells through an antibodydependent enhancement mechanism and followed by productive replication of virions [39,40]. Children have lower defective neutralizing activity antibody than adults, resulting in less antibody-dependent enhancement of virus infection of cells. This phenomenon may explain the greater susceptibility of adults to severe COVID-19 [21,29].

## **Child microbiome**

Differences in the microbiome and immune microenvironment of oro/nasopharyngeal, lung and gastrointestinal systems may act as an alternative potential player for modulation of COVID-19 outcome in children [41,42].

Host-microbiome systems and their composition with specific interest in the microbial community at various body sites play a basic role in the induction and regulation of systemic or local immune responses and inflammation in mucosal tissues, and of its homeostasis against other microbial pathogens [43,44].

The naso/oropharynx of children is often colonized with communities of viruses and bacteria, more so than adults. The interactions between and competition with invading organism might limit the growth and spread of infecting organism such as SARS-CoV-2 [45,46].

### Viral load and exposure

As in many other infections, viral load affects the severity of outcome in COVID-19, so lower viral exposure dose may be another factor responsible for the less severe outcome [47–49]. Children may have had lower dose exposure to SARS-CoV-2 in comparison with adults. For SARS-CoV-1 and Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus, later generations of virus progeny were reported to have lower virulence compared with the first generation of viruses [50], and children are routinely infected by adults—parents or family members—carrying a second- or third-generation SARS-CoV-2 with probably lower pathogenicity.

## Thymus activity

The thymus is a lymphoid organ that degenerates with age. Its activity changes during childhood into adulthood and differences in its activity may affect the severity of COVID-19 in children and adults [51]. Thymus atrophy is one of the aetiologies of immunosenescence in elderly individuals that leads to inflammaging [52]. As the thymus degenerates in the elderly, production of naive T cells and T-cell receptor repertoire diversity decrease, which can lead to weakened immune responses, especially to new infectious agents [51,52].

### Sex hormones

Sex hormones have been proposed as one of the possible factors affecting the differences in severity of SARS-CoV-2 infection between male and female individuals. Female sex hormones appear to have a protective effect against COVID-19 by acting on the immune system and in their anti-inflammatory role [16,53].

Although it should be noted that, generally, the level of sex hormones in children is lower than in adults, further research efforts are required to investigate the putative effect and mechanism of sex hormones on disease severity. SARS-CoV-2 entry depends on ACE-2 through employing TMPRSS2 serine protease activity for S protein priming [28,54]. Androgen hormones increase the expression of *TMPRSS2*; given that levels of sex hormones in children are significantly lower than in adults, they may have lower expression of *TMPRSS2* and as a result SARS-CoV-2 entry and replication in children might be limited [54]. In addition, the relationship between sex hormones and the renin-angiotensin system is complex and controversial and sex hormones appear to affect ACE-2 expression [55,56]. Differences in levels of these hormones in children and adults may affect the severity of disease between them.

## Conclusion

Although there are several factors responsible for less severe SARS-CoV-2 infection in children, especially age-related differences in immune responses and different endothelial system function or physiology, the exact mechanisms/determinants of COVID-19 outcome in children and adults are still unclear. Many more investigations based on well randomized case-control studies are needed to explain in more detail the less severe outcome of SARS-CoV-2 infection in children.

## **Conflicts of interest**

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare for this study.

## **Author contributions**

All authors contributed to study design and conceptualization, writing the original draft, review and editing, and discussion.

## Funding

No funding.

#### References

- Falahi S, Kenarkoohi A. COVID-19 reinfection: prolonged shedding or true reinfection? New Microb New Infect 2020;38:100812.
- [2] Abdoli A, Falahi S, Kenarkoohi A, Shams M, Mir H, Jahromi MAM. The COVID-19 pandemic, psychological stress during pregnancy, and risk of neurodevelopmental disorders in offspring: a neglected consequence. J Psychosom Obstet Gynaecol 2020;41:247–8.
- [3] Kenarkoohi A, Noorimotlagh Z, Falahi S, Amarloei A, Mirzaee SA, Pakzad I, et al. Hospital indoor air quality monitoring for the detection of SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) virus. Sci Total Environ 2020;748: 141324.
- [4] Ding Y, Yan H, Guo W. Clinical characteristics of children with COVID-19: a meta-analysis. Front Pediatr 2020;8:431.

© 2021 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd, NMNI, 41, 100864

This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

- [5] Sisk B, Cull W, Harris JM, Rothenburger A, Olson L. National trends of cases of COVID-19 in children based on US State Health Department data. Pediatrics 2020;146(6):e2020027425.
- [6] Hageman JR. The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). Pediatr Ann 2020;49:e99–100.
- [7] Zheng F, Liao C, Fan Q-h, Chen H-b, Zhao X-g, Xie Z-g, et al. Clinical characteristics of children with coronavirus disease 2019 in Hubei, China. Curr Med Sci 2020:1–6.
- [8] Hong H, Wang Y, Chung H-T, Chen C-J. Clinical characteristics of novel coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in newborns, infants and children. Pediatrics Neonatol 2020;61:131–2.
- [9] Rodriguez-Gonzalez M, Castellano-Martinez A, Cascales-Poyatos HM, Perez-Reviriego AA. Cardiovascular impact of COVID-19 with a focus on children: a systematic review. World J Clin Cases 2020;8:5250-83.
- [10] Puopolo K, Hudak M, Kimberlin D, Cummings J. Initial guidance: management of infants born to mothers with COVID-19. In: Elk grove village: American academy of pediatrics committee on fetus and newborn, section on neonatal perinatal medicine, and committee on infectious disease; 2020.
- [11] Rastogi D. Quantifying the contribution of obesity to incident childhood asthma: it's about time. Pediatrics 2018;142(6):e20182979.
- [12] Lingappan K, Karmouty-Quintana H, Davies J, Akkanti B, Harting MT. Understanding the age divide in COVID-19: why are children overwhelmingly spared? Am J Physiol-Lung Cell Mol Physiol 2020;319: L39-44.
- [13] Brodin P. Why is COVID-19 so mild in children? Acta Paediatr 2020;109:1082–3.
- [14] Imai Y, Kuba K, Rao S, Huan Y, Guo F, Guan B, et al. Angiotensinconverting enzyme 2 protects from severe acute lung failure. Nature 2005;436(7047):112-6.
- [15] Ciaglia E, Vecchione C, Puca AA. COVID-19 infection and circulating ACE2 levels: protective role in women and children. Front Pediatr 2020;8:206.
- [16] Falahi S, Kenarkoohi A. Sex and gender differences in the outcome of patients with COVID-19. J Med Virol 2021;93:151–2.
- [17] Garvin MR, Alvarez C, Miller JI, Prates ET, Walker AM, Amos BK, et al. A mechanistic model and therapeutic interventions for COVID-19 involving a RAS-mediated bradykinin storm. Elife 2020;9:e59177.
- [18] Ackermann M, Verleden SE, Kuehnel M, Haverich A, Welte T, Laenger F, et al. Pulmonary vascular endothelialitis, thrombosis, and angiogenesis in Covid-19. N Engl J Med 2020;383:120-8.
- [19] García-Salido A. Three hypotheses about children COVID19. Pediatr Infect Dis | 2020;39(7):e157.
- [20] Mason RJ. Pathogenesis of COVID-19 from a cell biology perspective. Eur Resp J 2020;55(4):2000607.
- [21] Zimmermann P, Curtis N. Why is COVID-19 less severe in children? A review of the proposed mechanisms underlying the age-related difference in severity of SARS-CoV-2 infections. Arch Dis Child 2020.
- [22] Zhou F, Yu T, Du R, Fan G, Liu Y, Liu Z, et al. Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study. Lancet 2020.
- [23] Netea MG, Domínguez-Andrés J, Barreiro LB, Chavakis T, Divangahi M, Fuchs E, et al. Defining trained immunity and its role in health and disease. Nat Rev Immunol 2020:1–14.
- [24] Netea MG, Giamarellos-Bourboulis EJ, Domínguez-Andrés J, Curtis N, van Crevel R, van de Veerdonk FL, et al. Trained immunity: a tool for reducing susceptibility to and the severity of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Cell 2020.
- [25] Moorlag S, Arts R, Van Crevel R, Netea M. Non-specific effects of BCG vaccine on viral infections. Clin Microbiol Infect 2019;25: 1473–8.
- [26] Hamiel U, Kozer E, Youngster I. SARS-CoV-2 rates in BCG-vaccinated and unvaccinated young adults. JAMA 2020;323:2340–1.

- [27] Carsetti R, Quintarelli C, Quinti I, Mortari EP, Zumla A, Ippolito G, et al. The immune system of children: the key to understanding SARS-CoV-2 susceptibility? Lancet Child Adol Health 2020;4:414–6.
- [28] 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 2020:1–15.
- [29] Bacher P, Rosati E, Esser D, Martini GR, Saggau C, Schiminsky E, et al. Pre-existing T cell memory as a risk factor for severe 1 COVID-19 in the elderly. medRxiv; 2020.
- [30] Mahbub SL, Brubaker AJ, Kovacs E. Aging of the innate immune system: an update. Curr Immunol Rev 2011;7:104–15.
- [31] Franceschi C, Garagnani P, Parini P, Giuliani C, Santoro A. Inflammaging: a new immune-metabolic viewpoint for age-related diseases. Nat Rev Endocrinol 2018;14:576-90.
- [32] Caruso C, Buffa S, Candore G, Colonna-Romano G, Dunn-Walters D, Kipling D, et al. Mechanisms of immunosenescence. Immun Ageing 2009;6:10.
- [33] Takaoka A, Yanai H. Interferon signalling network in innate defence. Cell Microbiol 2006;8:907–22.
- [34] Bastard P, Rosen LB, Zhang Q, Michailidis E, Hoffmann H-H, Zhang Y, et al. Autoantibodies against type I IFNs in patients with lifethreatening COVID-19. Science 2020;370(6515).
- [35] Zimmermann P, Curtis N. COVID-19 in children, pregnancy and neonates: a review of epidemiologic and clinical features. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2020;39:469-77.
- [36] Steinman JB, Lum FM, Ho PP-K, Kaminski N, Steinman L. Reduced development of COVID-19 in children reveals molecular checkpoints gating pathogenesis illuminating potential therapeutics. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2020;117:24620–6.
- [37] Dijkman R, Jebbink MF, El Idrissi NB, Pyrc K, Müller MA, Kuijpers TW, et al. Human coronavirus NL63 and 229E seroconversion in children. J Clin Microbiol 2008;46:2368–73.
- [38] Monto AS, Lim SK. The Tecumseh study of respiratory illness. VI. frequency of and relationship between outbreaks of coronavims infection. J Infect Dis 1974;129:271–6.
- [39] Pierce CA, Preston-Hurlburt P, Dai Y, Aschner CB, Cheshenko N, Galen B, et al. Immune responses to SARS-CoV-2 infection in hospitalized pediatric and adult patients. Sci Trans Med 2020;12(564).
- [40] Gorse GJ, Donovan MM, Patel GB. Antibodies to coronaviruses are higher in older compared with younger adults and binding antibodies are more sensitive than neutralizing antibodies in identifying coronavirus-associated illnesses. J Med Virol 2020;92:512–7.
- [41] Zuo T, Zhang F, Lui GC, Yeoh YK, Li AY, Zhan H, et al. Alterations in gut microbiota of patients with COVID-19 during time of hospitalization. Gastroenterology 2020.
- [42] De Maio F, Posteraro B, Ponziani FR, Cattani P, Gasbarrini A, Sanguinetti M. Nasopharyngeal microbiota profiling of SARS-CoV-2 infected patients. Biological Procedures Online. 2020.
- [43] Bunyavanich S, Do A, Vicencio A. Nasal gene expression of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 in children and adults. JAMA 2020.
- [44] Xiao F, Tang M, Zheng X, Liu Y, Li X, Shan H. Evidence for gastrointestinal infection of SARS-CoV-2. Gastroenterology 2020;158: 1831–1833. e3.
- [45] Nickbakhsh S, Mair C, Matthews L, Reeve R, Johnson PC, Thorburn F, et al. Virus-virus interactions impact the population dynamics of influenza and the common cold. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2019;116: 27142–50.
- [46] Gonzalez AJ, Ijezie EC, Balemba OB, Miura TA. Attenuation of influenza A virus disease severity by viral coinfection in a mouse model. J Virol 2018;92(23):e00881. 18.
- [47] Memoli MJ, Czajkowski L, Reed S, Athota R, Bristol T, Proudfoot K, et al. Validation of the wild-type influenza A human challenge model

© 2021 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd, NMNI, 41, 100864

This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

NMNI

HINIpdMIST: an A(HINI)pdm09 dose-finding investigational new drug study. Clin Infect Dis 2015;60:693-702.

- [48] Geddes L. Does a high viral load or infectious dose make covid-19 worse. New Scientist 2020;27.
- [49] Falahi S, Kenarkoohi A. Transmission routes for SARS-CoV-2 infection: review of evidence. New Microb New Infect 2020;38:100778.
- [50] Kelvin AA, Halperin S. COVID-19 in children: the link in the transmission chain. Lancet Infect Dis 2020.
- [51] Rezzani R, Nardo L, Favero G, Peroni M, Rodella LF. Thymus and aging: morphological, radiological, and functional overview. Age 2014;36:313–51.
- [52] Kellogg C, Equils O. The role of the thymus in COVID-19 disease severity: implications for antibody treatment and immunization. Hum Vaccines Immunother 2020;1–6.

- [53] Pinna G. Sex and COVID-19: a Protective role for reproductive steroids. Trends Endocrinol Metab 2021;32:3–6.
- [54] Mihalopoulos M, Levine AC, Marayati NF, Chubak BM, Archer M, Badani KK, et al. The resilient child: sex-steroid hormones and COVID-19 incidence in pediatric patients. J Endocr Soc 2020;4(9): bvaa106.
- [55] Gagliardi MC, Tieri P, Ortona E, Ruggieri A. ACE2 expression and sex disparity in COVID-19. Cell Death Discov 2020;6(1):1-2.
- [56] Kalidhindi RSR, Borkar NA, Ambhore NS, Pabelick CM, Prakash Y, Sathish V. Sex steroids skew ACE2 expression in human airway: a contributing factor to sex differences in COVID-19? Am J Physiol-Lung Cell Mol Physiol 2020;319:L843–7.