

Differences in RAAS/vitamin D linked to genetics and socioeconomic factors could explain the higher mortality rate in African Americans with COVID-19

Virna Margarita Martín Giménez, León Ferder, Felipe Inserra, Joxel García and Walter Manucha 

Ther Adv Cardiovasc Dis

2020, Vol. 14: 1–12

DOI: 10.1177/
1753944720977715

© The Author(s), 2020.
Article reuse guidelines:
sagepub.com/journals-
permissions

Abstract: COVID-19 is said to be a pandemic that does not distinguish between skin color or ethnic origin. However, data in many parts of the world, especially in the United States, begin to show that there is a sector of society suffering a more significant impact from this pandemic. The Black population is more vulnerable than the White population to infection and death by COVID-19, with hypertension and diabetes mellitus as probable predisposing factors. Over time, multiple disparities have been observed between the health of Black and White populations, associated mainly with socioeconomic inequalities. However, some mechanisms and pathophysiological susceptibilities begin to be elucidated that are related directly to the higher prevalence of multiple diseases in the Black population, including infection and death by COVID-19. Plasma vitamin D levels and evolutionary adaptations of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) in Black people differ considerably from those of other races. The role of these factors in the development and progression of hypertension and multiple lung diseases, among them SARS-CoV-2 infection, is well established. In this sense, the present review attempts to elucidate the link between vitamin D and RAAS ethnic disparities and susceptibility to infection and death by COVID-19 in Black people, and suggests possible mechanisms for this susceptibility.

Keywords: African Americans, COVID-19, renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, vitamin D

Received: 20 June 2020; revised manuscript accepted: 6 November 2020.

Introduction

Currently, morbidity and mortality rates due to COVID-19 are highest in Black populations in many places around the world. The American Community Survey and Johns Hopkins University have indicated that the infection rate is over 3-fold, and the mortality rate 6-fold, higher in countries with a large Black population than in those with White majorities.¹

In general, there are marked health disparities between White and African Americans, where the mortality rate of multiple etiologies (cardiovascular and renal disease, diabetes, cancer, and others) for African Americans is significantly higher than

for White Americans. Some explanations for such disparities generally include social environment, lifestyle behaviors, socioeconomic status, and access to preventive health care services. Nevertheless, many studies indicate that these factors are not enough to explain such differences. In this sense, it is well established that high vitamin D serum levels have essential benefits on health through multiple mechanisms. African Americans have considerably lower vitamin D serum levels than White Americans. These differences in vitamin D serum concentrations between groups may account for many of the aforementioned health disparities,^{2–8} including the susceptibility of Black people to suffering hypertension,

Correspondence to:
Walter Manucha
Instituto de Medicina y
Biología Experimental de
Cuyo (IMBECU), Consejo
Nacional de Investigaciones
Científicas y Tecnológicas
(CONICET), Mendoza,
Argentina

Departamento de Patología,
Facultad de Ciencias Médicas,
Área de Farmacología,
Universidad Nacional de Cuyo,
Libertador 80, Mendoza,
5500, Argentina
wmanucha@yahoo.com.ar

Virna Margarita Martín Giménez
Instituto de Investigaciones en
Ciencias Químicas,
Facultad de Ciencias Químicas
y Tecnológicas, Universidad
Católica de Cuyo, San Juan,
Argentina

León Ferder
Felipe Inserra
Universidad Maimónides,
Buenos Aires, Argentina

Joxel García
AMBITNA, Ambitious
Solutions for Health Cures,
Chevy Chase, MD, USA

diabetes mellitus, and COVID-19. The latter was recently highlighted by the Wall Street Journal in its article entitled “Vitamin D and Coronavirus Disparities” (<https://www.wsj.com/articles/vitamin-d-and-coronavirus-disparities-11587078141>). Low vitamin D values are also associated with a higher incidence of respiratory infection.⁹ 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.^{10–25}

Additionally, it has been observed that hypertension is an essential risk factor for SARS-CoV-2 infection,²⁶ and that the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) is implicated in this process.^{27,28} In this regard, it is known that hypertension has a significantly higher prevalence in Black people, possibly because this race presents certain peculiarities compared with the White race.²⁹ Since the leading causes of death in Black people during slavery were salt-depletive diseases such as vomiting, fevers, and diarrhea, it is argued that African slaves with an improved genetic capacity to conserve salt had a unique survival advantage over the rest. This also allowed them to bequeath their genotype to the next generations of Western Black people. Therefore, it is assumed that, for this reason, African Americans have a higher frequency of subjects with an improved genetic ability to retain salt than African Black people.³⁰ The sodium retention observed in Black populations causes the inhibition of systemic RAAS (sRAAS) by negative feedback. Thus, decreased renin plasma levels compensate for the tendency to retain salt.³¹

An analogy of the natural sRAAS inhibition observed in Black people is that induced using RAAS inhibitors. In this regard, in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, the hypothesis has been proposed that RAAS blocker drugs could be a risk factor for patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection since their mechanism of action raises the synthesis of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) by negative feedback.³² Indeed, experimental work has demonstrated that the use of these antihypertensive drugs increases ACE2 levels.³³ ACE2 is the receptor to which SARS-CoV-2 binds to enter the cell to cause infection.^{34,35}

It has also been suggested that SARS-CoV-2, upon entering the cell through its binding to ACE2 receptors, causes a decrease in intracellular

levels of ACE2. 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.³⁶ As shown in Figure 1, disadvantageous environmental factors, such as social adversity, favor an imbalance between ACE/ACE2.^{37–43} This is critical in the African American population due to the lower activity of the ACE2 enzyme, as determined by genetics or epigenetics. This disequilibrium predisposes Black subjects to high blood pressure and cardiovascular risk as well as to lung damage by COVID-19. Additionally, the consequent low levels of angiotensin 1–7 and Mas receptor activation may reduce tissue protection and increase inflammatory response upon a stimulus such as a coronavirus aggression.^{36,37} Genetic and epigenetic changes were also detected that seem to correspond to the increased risk among African Americans of developing both diabetes and a greater number of related cardiac, vascular, and renal complications.^{44,45} In this context, a controlled interventional study was designed, with high doses of vitamin D in African Americans in an attempt to counteract the described adverse situations. A selected laboratory and genomic response will confirm whether the effect is beneficial.⁴⁶

For these reasons, we suggest that, in addition to disadvantageous socioeconomic and environmental factors present in Black populations, the higher susceptibility of dark-skinned people to infection and mortality by COVID-19 could be influenced by vitamin D deficiency/insufficiency and the particularities of RAAS in this race.

Vitamin D deficiency/insufficiency in dark-skinned people

A study based on the analysis of data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey cycles 2007/2008 through 2013/2014 was performed to describe the prevalence of vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency in adults aged ≥ 60 years from the United States (US). In this study, followed by other related studies,^{47–55} Black patients showed a higher prevalence of vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency than White patients.

Reduced 25-hydroxyvitamin D serum levels in Black people are related to the increase in skin

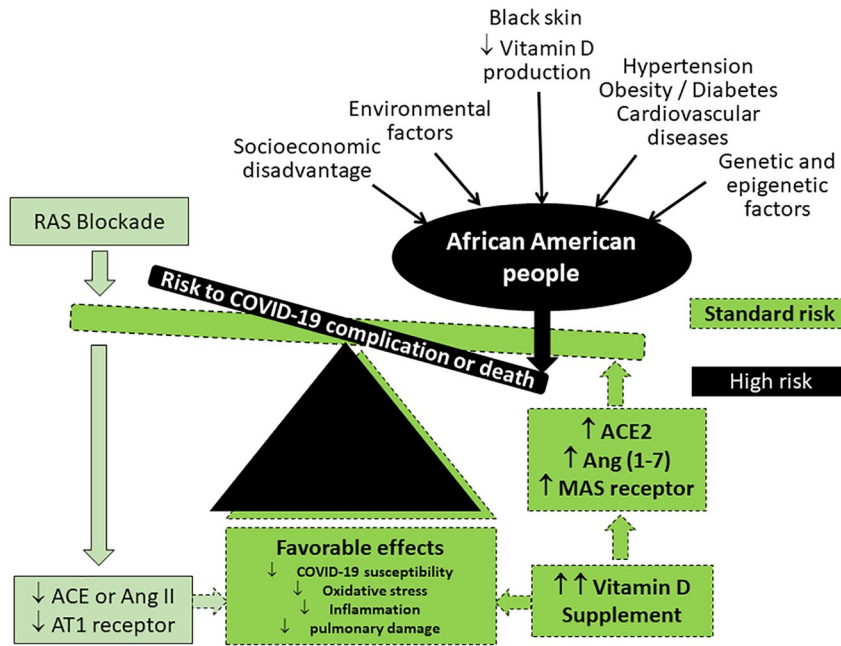


Figure 1. Imbalanced protective and harmful factors related to SARS-CoV-2 infection in African Americans. Multiple genetic and epigenetic factors added to the lack of balance between ACE/ACE2 are critical in the African American population, predisposing it to diseases such as hypertension and diabetes mellitus that worsen the pathophysiology of COVID-19 and increase morbidity and mortality in Black people. ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme; ACE2, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2.

pigment and consequent decrease in dermal and hepatic vitamin D₃ synthesis.^{56–58} People with darker skin need higher doses of ultraviolet B radiation from sunlight than White people to synthesise sufficient amounts of vitamin D.^{59,60} In this regard, vitamin D serum levels of a customarily pigmented population were compared with those of an albino Black population in a province of South Africa. Albino children had considerably higher vitamin D levels than normally pigmented children, even though dietary intake and sunlight exposure was similar in both groups. Despite these differences, the parathyroid hormone, plasma and red blood cell magnesium, and plasma calcium levels remained practically unchanged in both groups. This reinforces the idea that the vitamin D deficiency observed in Black people is due mainly to their increased skin pigmentation.⁶¹ A study on infant rickets in North America reported that vitamin D deficiency might occur in children with dark skin, regardless of their social or ethnic origin. Therefore, the administration of vitamin D supplements to children with over pigmented skin whatever their race or economic and social background becomes essential.^{62–64} A clinical trial demonstrated that supplementation

with 4000 IU/day of vitamin D₃ for 1 year in African American men caused the disappearance of any significant difference between their serum levels of 25(OH)D and that of White men.^{65,66} Likewise, vitamin D supplementation is especially recommended in obese Black people, since this population group, in particular, has a significant risk of suffering from secondary hyperparathyroidism and vitamin D deficiency.^{67,68} In this sense, vitamin D deficiency was compared in obese and non-obese African American children. The obese group had a more significant initial vitamin D deficiency and was even more resistant to treatment with vitamin D₃ supplements than the non-obese group.⁶⁹ Another study compared vitamin D serum levels of a Norwegian population with an African population (both groups comprised healthy young people and pregnant women). The results showed that, despite the abundant ultraviolet radiation available in the African region studied, vitamin D deficiency was significantly higher in the African population group.⁷⁰ Serum levels of vitamin D in winter were measured in a low-income, multiracial elderly population composed of Black, White, and Asian people. The results showed that all groups had

low levels of vitamin D, but the lowest percentage (almost half compared with the other ethnic groups) of vitamin D insufficiency was observed in Black subjects. In contrast, percentages in the White and Asian subsets were very similar between them.⁷¹ It has also been suggested that, although Black people synthesise lower concentrations of vitamin D₃ than White people in response to normal sunlight exposure levels in winter and summer, both Black and White populations seem to have a similar ability to absorb and produce vitamin D after repeated exposure to B ultraviolet light at high doses.⁷² Although vitamin D synthesis decreases with age in both older Black and White people, the health ABC prospective cohort study showed that mortality was higher in Black than in older White patients, which could be related to the lower vitamin D serum levels found in Black people.⁷³

The distinctive vitamin D deficiency observed in Black populations does not seem to affect their bone health (except for the elderly) since their bones are resistant to resorption caused by parathyroid hormone. They also display a superior ability to achieve a more effective renal conservation of calcium than White people. Despite this, vitamin D deficiency may affect many other homeostatic mechanisms, predisposing the Black race to several pathologies.⁷⁴⁻⁷⁷ It has been observed, for instance, that Black people with tuberculosis have lower serum levels of vitamin D than healthy Black subjects. These circumstances suggest that there may be an association between vitamin D deficiency and susceptibility to pulmonary pathologies.^{78,79} A similar situation was observed in young African patients with vitamin D deficiency whose low vitamin D serum level was related to the severity and prevalence of asthma in these patients.^{80,81}

The incidence of end-stage renal disease is markedly higher in Black than in White populations, which would be related to the renoprotective effects of vitamin D and its deficiency in dark-skinned people.^{82,83} It has been suggested that vitamin D also plays an essential role in the regulation of blood pressure, where deficient concentrations of vitamin D may cause an elevation of blood pressure values. This response would be a possible explanation for the greater susceptibility of Black people to developing hypertension compared with White people.⁸⁴ It has also been determined that there is a strong inverse association between C-reactive protein and vitamin D plasma levels.

Patients with vitamin D deficiency have higher levels of C-reactive protein, which may influence the development of cancer and multiple cardiovascular diseases (another explanation for the high prevalence of these pathologies in the Black race).^{85,86} Additionally, it has been observed that vitamin D deficiency would be related to the development of cardiovascular disease in African American people with type 2 diabetes mellitus. The explanation for this is that vitamin D deficiency would cause downregulation of hydrogen sulfide and cyclic adenosine monophosphate – two crucial signalling molecules related to the prevention of cardiovascular oxidative stress and inflammation. Interestingly enough, this downregulation has not been observed in White diabetic patients. In this sense, *in vitro* studies have shown that vitamin D supplementation increases hydrogen sulfide and cyclic adenosine monophosphate levels. It also contributes to reducing oxidative stress caused by elevated glucose levels, which would be responsible for greater cardiovascular inflammation in African American diabetic subjects. The results suggest that the higher incidence of cardiovascular disease in African American patients compared with White diabetic patients would be a consequence of, among other causes, vitamin D deficiency.⁸⁷ Another study has also demonstrated that vitamin D deficiency causes methylation changes in leukocyte DNA, which could induce immune system impairment in patients with vitamin D deficiency.⁸⁸ For instance, systemic lupus erythematosus is an autoimmune pathology with a high incidence among African American women. This would also be related to vitamin D deficiency since this vitamin may prevent cellular aging due to telomere shortening, which is a crucial factor in the development and progression of this chronic disease.⁸⁹

Furthermore, another study suggests that skin pigmentation and dietary habits are not the only determining factors in vitamin D deficiency. There is also a genetic association between vitamin D status and the degree of African ancestry of the studied population, since serum concentrations of vitamin D were correlated inversely with high, medium, low, or null African ancestry. Moreover, the effects of diet and sunlight on the rise in vitamin D serum levels were significantly lower in the high African ancestry group than in low/medium ancestry groups.⁹⁰ However, vitamin D supplementation may reduce this relationship.⁹¹ The possible ethnic association was

supported by the results of the Canadian Laboratory Initiative on Pediatric Reference Intervals (CALIPER) cohort of healthy children and adolescents and the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), which compared children from different ethnic groups to assess the influence of ethnicity on the concentration of multiple biomarkers. The results showed that vitamin D was one of the biomarkers whose serum levels are influenced by ethnicity.^{92,93} Vitamin D binding protein (the leading vitamin D carrier protein in plasma) levels are also lower in Black than in White Americans, which suggests that plasma levels of this protein do not affect the bioavailability of vitamin D in Black people. Despite this, the existence of racial differences in common genetic polymorphisms of Vitamin D binding protein may be responsible for lower vitamin D serum levels in Black subjects, since changes in their affinity for vitamin D directly influence its bioavailability.⁹⁴

Collectively, it is clear that there is a close relationship between vitamin D deficiency (due to either genetic, ethnic, or phenotypic causes) and the prevalence of morbidity and mortality in many pathologies, such as COVID-19 in Black people.

Peculiarities of RAAS in Black populations

African Americans have significantly higher rates of hypertension and related diseases, with Black hypertensive patients being less responsive to treatment with RAAS inhibitors than White hypertensive patients.^{95,96} Changes in plasma renin activity, angiotensin II, and aldosterone levels were studied in White and Black hypertensive patients undergoing a high-salt diet followed by a low-salt diet. It was observed that the increase in all plasma components of RAAS after the reduction in salt intake was significantly higher in White than in Black patients, suggesting a less responsive sRAAS in Black patients.⁹⁷ The lower sRAAS responsiveness in Black people usually causes hypertension treatment in these patients to require the administration of diuretic drugs or calcium channel blockers in a higher percentage of cases than in White hypertensive patients. This is because antihypertensive monotherapy with RAAS blockers does not achieve efficient results.⁹⁸

Black people are usually characterized by having a significantly reduced plasma renin activity

compared with White subjects, which cannot be explained by differences in dietary sodium intake between Black and White populations.⁹⁹ Hence, it has been proposed that this lower activity could be related to the maintenance of sodium balance, given the higher tendency of Black people to retain this ion as a genetic adaptation for improving sodium conservation in people that initially inhabited semitropical regions where sodium intake was usually low and hard to acquire.⁹⁹ A study of the differences in renal plasma flow in healthy Black populations under a high-salt diet has shown an overactivation of renal RAAS but not of sRAAS in Black people. Slight vasoconstriction was observed in response to angiotensin II infusion before the administration of an ACE inhibitor (captopril). Significant renal vasodilation caused by this inhibitor was also observed, in addition to an improvement of vasoconstriction response to angiotensin II infusion after captopril administration. Continuous renal plasma flow under modulation from a low-salt to a high-salt diet was also noted. These observations suggest higher renal concentrations of angiotensin II in these Black patients. The overactivated intrarenal RAAS would also be responsible for the negative feedback to reduce renin plasma levels in Black people.¹⁰⁰ The capacity of the Black race to retain sodium and water through the genetic polymorphisms of the renal tubular epithelial sodium channel would have allowed the survival of African slaves. It is known that a typical biochemical profile in hypertensive Black people is low or high plasma aldosterone levels, low or null plasma angiotensin I and II levels, and low or null renin activity/concentration. Therefore, there are two hypertension phenotypes in Black people: low or null renin and increased aldosterone concentrations (primary aldosteronism) or low levels of both renin and aldosterone (Liddle syndrome).^{30,101,102} Following this, by using RAAS equilibrium analysis (a novel, highly precise method of RAAS assessment), lowered systemic levels of angiotensin I and II were observed in Black hypertensive patients compared with White hypertensive patients.¹⁰³

It is worth noting that the elevated sodium reabsorption observed in African American patients with obesity and hypertension was accompanied by functional medullary hypoxia associated with increased solute reabsorption. This suggests an increase in oxidative stress in African Americans that can worsen hypertension, diabetes mellitus, and many other

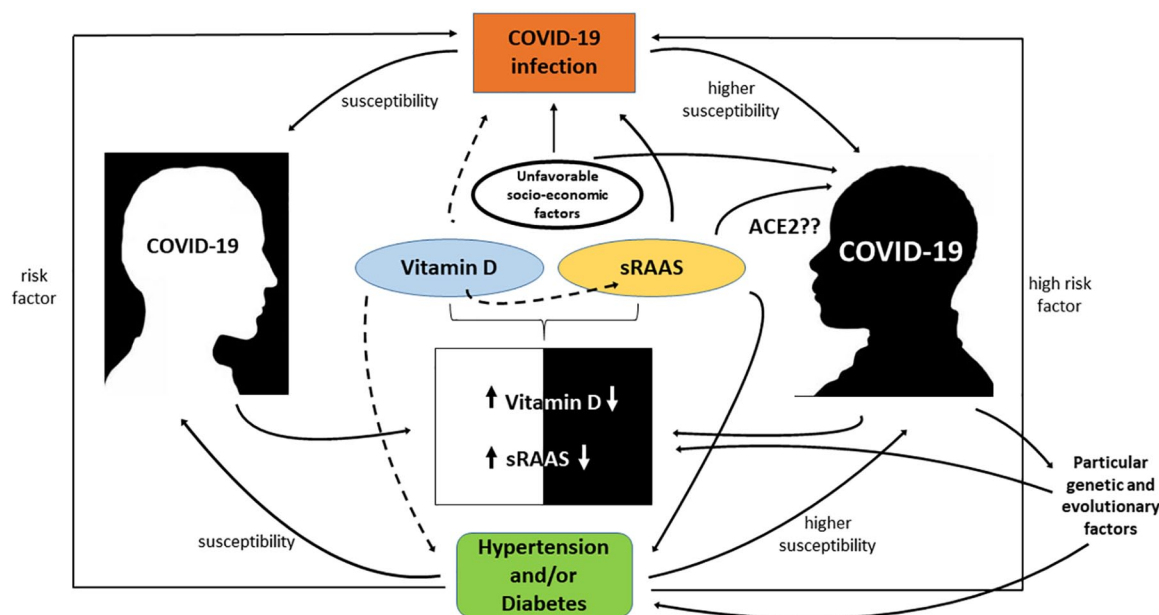


Figure 2. Differential susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2 infection of Black and White populations. Unfavorable socioeconomic factors, low vitamin D levels, and a less-responsive sRAAS impact the susceptibility to infection and death by COVID-19 in Black people. Compared to White people, African Americans have a higher prevalence of hypertension and diabetes mellitus, which are important risk factors for SARS-CoV-2 infection. Dark-skinned, African ancestry level and an increased ability to retain sodium are some of the main genetic and evolutionary factors of this differential ethnic susceptibility. Solid lines indicate stimulation/induction, while dashed lines indicate inhibition/blocking. ACE2, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; RAAS, renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, sRAAS, systemic RAAS.

pathologies (including COVID-19) in comparison with White hypertensive patients.¹⁰⁴

This evidence would support the idea that, in Black populations, RAAS is inhibited naturally at a systemic level. Therefore, an analogy between this particular behavior and the effect of RAAS inhibitors on ACE2 receptors could be established in COVID-19. However, some studies propose the idea that hypertension in Black people could develop from an imbalance between the RAAS (ACE/Ang II/AT1 receptor) pressor arm and the depressor axis [ACE2/Ang-(1-7)/Mas receptor], where ACE2 as protective RAAS axis would be reduced in hypertensive Black patients.¹⁰⁵ Moreover, another study reported that ACE2 expression was increased only in Asians but not in other ethnic populations.¹⁰⁶ Concerning genetic polymorphisms, African American people have an insertion/deletion polymorphism in the angiotensin I converting enzyme gene, which stimulates higher production of tissue angiotensin II and would predispose them to the development of hypertension and related diseases more frequently than White people.¹⁰⁷

Moreover, the frequency of the T235 allele of the angiotensinogen gene and the angiotensinogen level was found to be more significant in Black than in White individuals. This racial RAAS disparity would also contribute to the differences in blood pressure levels between White and Black subjects.^{108,109} It has also been suggested that the (-535)T allele of angiotensin II type 1 receptor and (-344)T allele of aldosterone synthase can increase the risk of developing hypertension in African Americans but not in Latinos.¹¹⁰

Therefore, how RAAS influences mechanisms of susceptibility of Black populations to infection and death by COVID-19 remains unclear. For this reason, more studies should be performed to confirm the proposed hypotheses.

Conclusions and perspectives

Figure 2 summarizes our conceptual explanation of why African American people have the abovementioned susceptibility in the current pandemic. Either due to African genetic ancestry

or phenotypic features of the Black race – such as increased skin pigmentation – and the vitamin D deficiency/insufficiency prevalent in Black people, there is greater susceptibility in this ethnic group to infection and death due to SARS-CoV-2 infection. As a consequence, it is of vital importance to encourage vitamin D intake in the Black population, not only through the diet but also through nutritional supplements. Moreover, it would be necessary to carefully analyze and adjust current vitamin D recommendations since they have been determined assuming there are no disparities between vitamin D requirements in White people and other racial/ethnic groups. In this sense, Rusińska *et al.* have made specific recommendations for people with a dark complexion.¹¹¹

Regarding its peculiarities in the Black race, RAAS could participate in the higher prevalence of infection and death by SARS-CoV-2 in this population. The specific mechanisms involved, however, remain unclear. The expression level of human ACE2 in different tissues, especially in the lungs, may be crucial for the susceptibility to, development, symptoms, and progression of COVID-19. The lower responsiveness of the RAAS in Black people could be related to this, although data are conflicting and this hypothesis is yet to be confirmed.

Author contributions

All authors participated in the conception and design of this review with a substantial contribution to data analysis and interpretation, as well as drafting and critical revision of the article for content and form.

Funding

The authors disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: This work was funded by grants from the Research and Technology Council of Cuyo University (SECyT), Mendoza, Argentina, and from ANPCyT FONCyT, both of which were awarded to Walter Manucha. Grant no. PICT 2016-4541

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

ORCID iD

Walter Manucha  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2279-7626>

References

1. Yancy CW. COVID-19 and African Americans. *JAMA* 2020; 323: 1891–1892.
2. Grant WB and 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.
3. Williams DR, Mohammed SA, Leavell J, *et al.* Race, socioeconomic status, and health: complexities, ongoing challenges, and research opportunities. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2010; 1186: 69–101.
4. Harris SS. Does vitamin D deficiency contribute to increased rates of cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes in African Americans? *Am J Clin Nutr* 2011; 93: 1175S–1178S.
5. Gupta AK, Brashear MM and Johnson WD. Low vitamin D levels, prediabetes and prehypertension in healthy African American adults. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis* 2012; 22: 877–882.
6. Signorello LB, Han X, Cai Q, *et al.* A prospective study of serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels and mortality among African Americans and non-African Americans. *Am J Epidemiol* 2013; 177: 171–179.
7. Durazo-Arvizu RA, Aloia JF, Dugas LR, *et al.* 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels in African American and Nigerian women. *Am J Hum Biol* 2013; 25: 560–562.
8. Chauveau P and Aparicio M. Ethnicity and vitamin D. *Nephrol Ther* 2013; 9: 398–402.
9. Carpagnano GE, Di Lecce V, Quaranta VN, *et al.* Vitamin D deficiency as a predictor of poor prognosis in patients with acute respiratory failure due to COVID-19. *J Endocrinol Invest.* Epub ahead of print 9 August 2020. DOI: 10.1007/s40618-020-01370-x.
10. Grant WB and Giovannucci E. The possible roles of solar ultraviolet-B radiation and vitamin D in reducing case-fatality rates from the 1918–1919 influenza pandemic in the United States. *Dermatoendocrinol* 2009; 1: 215–219.
11. Urashima M, Segawa T, Okazaki M, *et al.* Randomized trial of vitamin D supplementation to prevent seasonal influenza A in schoolchildren. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2010; 91: 1255–1260.
12. Gruber-Bzura BM. Vitamin D and influenza-prevention or therapy? *Int J Mol Sci* 2018; 19: 2419–2436.
13. Greiller CL and Martineau R. Modulation of the immune response to respiratory viruses by vitamin D. *Nutrients* 2015; 7: 4240–4270.

14. Jolliffe DA, Greenberg L, Hooper RL, *et al.* Vitamin D to prevent exacerbations of COPD: systematic review and meta-analysis of individual participant data from randomised controlled trials. *Thorax* 2019; 74: 337–345.
15. Rejnmark L, Bislev LS, Cashman KD, *et al.* Non-skeletal health effects of vitamin D supplementation: a systematic review on findings from meta-analyses summarizing trial data. *PLoS One* 2017; 12: e0180512.
16. Yamshchikov AV, Desai NS, Blumberg HM, *et al.* Vitamin D for treatment and prevention of infectious diseases: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Endocr Pract* 2009; 15: 438–449.
17. Charan J, Goyal JP, Saxena D, *et al.* Vitamin D for prevention of respiratory tract infections: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Pharmacol Pharmacother* 2012; 3: 300–303.
18. Bergman P, Lindh AU, Bjorkhem-Bergman L, *et al.* Vitamin D and respiratory tract infections: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *PLoS One* 2013; 8: e65835.
19. Mao S and Huang S. Vitamin D supplementation and risk of respiratory tract infections: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Scand J Infect Dis* 2013; 45: 696–702.
20. Das RR, Singh M, Panigrahi I, *et al.* Vitamin D supplementation for the treatment of acute childhood pneumonia: a systematic review. *ISRN Pediatr* 2013; 2013: 459160.
21. Jolliffe DA, Griffiths CJ and Martineau AR. Vitamin D in the prevention of acute respiratory infection: systematic review of clinical studies. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 2013; 136: 321–329.
22. Xiao L, Xing C, Yang Z, *et al.* Vitamin D supplementation for the prevention of childhood acute respiratory infections: a systematic review of randomised controlled trials. *Br J Nutr* 2015; 114: 1026–1034.
23. Yakoob MY, Salam RA, Khan FR, *et al.* Vitamin D supplementation for preventing infections in children under five years of age. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2016; 11: CD008824.
24. Vuichard Gysin D, Dao D, Gysin CM, *et al.* Effect of vitamin D3 supplementation on respiratory tract infections in healthy individuals: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *PLoS One* 2016; 11: e0162996.
25. 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.
26. Zuin M, Rigatelli G, Zuliani G, *et al.* Arterial hypertension and risk of death in patients with COVID-19 infection: systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Infect* 2020; 81: e84–e86.
27. Busse LW, Chow JH, McCurdy MT, *et al.* COVID-19 and the RAAS—a potential role for angiotensin II? *Crit Care* 2020; 24: 136.
28. South AM, Diz DI and Chappell MC. COVID-19, ACE2, and the cardiovascular consequences. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 2020; 318: H1084–H1090.
29. Lackland DT. Racial differences in hypertension: implications for high blood pressure management. *Am J Med Sci* 2014; 348: 135–138.
30. Wilson TW and Grim CE. Biohistory of slavery and blood pressure differences in Blacks today. A hypothesis. *Hypertension* 1991; 17(Suppl. 1): I122–I128.
31. Zilbermint M, Hannah-Shmouni F and Stratakis CA. Genetics of hypertension in African Americans and others of African descent. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019; 20: 1081.
32. Sommerstein R and Grani C. Preventing a covid-19 pandemic: ACE inhibitors as a potential risk factor for fatal Covid-19. *BMJ* 2020; 368: m810.
33. Li XC, Zhang J and Zhuo JL. The vasoprotective axes of the renin-angiotensin system: physiological relevance and therapeutic implications in cardiovascular, hypertensive and kidney diseases. *Pharmacol Res* 2017; 125: 21–38.
34. 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.
35. Hoffmann M, Kleine-Weber H, Schroeder S, *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 cell entry depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and is blocked by a clinically proven protease inhibitor. *Cell* 2020; 181: 1–10.
36. Kuba K, Imai Y, Rao S, *et al.* Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 protects from severe acute lung failure. *Nature* 2005; 436: 112–116.
37. Perlot T and Penninger JM. ACE2 - from the renin-angiotensin system to gut microbiota and malnutrition. *Microbes Infect* 2013; 15: 866–873.
38. Bousquet J, Anto JM, Iaccarino G, *et al.* Is diet partly responsible for differences in COVID-19

- death rates between and within countries? *Clin Transl Allergy* 2020; 10: 16.
39. Fernández-Quintela A, Milton-Laskibar I, Trepiana J, *et al.* Key aspects in nutritional management of COVID-19 patients. *J Clin Med* 2020; 9: E2589.
 40. Ajilore O and Thames AD. The fire this time: the stress of racism, inflammation and COVID-19. *Brain Behav Immun* 2020; 88: 66–67.
 41. Steenblock C, Todorov V, Kanczkowski W, *et al.* Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and the neuroendocrine stress axis. *Mol Psychiatry* 2020; 25: 1611–1617.
 42. Frontera A, Cianfanelli L, Vlachos K, *et al.* Severe air pollution links to higher mortality in COVID-19 patients: the “double-hit” hypothesis. *J Infect* 2020; 81: 255–259.
 43. Alifano M, Alifano P, Forgez P, *et al.* Renin-angiotensin system at the heart of COVID-19 pandemic. *Biochimie* 2020; 174: 30–33.
 44. Chatterjee R, Maruthur NM and Edelman D. Novel risk factors for type 2 diabetes in African-Americans. *Curr Diab Rep* 2015; 15: 103.
 45. Akinyemiju T, Do AN, Patki A, *et al.* Epigenome-wide association study of metabolic syndrome in African-American Adults. *Clin Epigenetics* 2018; 10: 49.
 46. Norris KC, Edwina Barnett M, Meng Y-X, *et al.* Rationale and design of a placebo controlled randomized trial to assess short term, high-dose oral cholecalciferol on select laboratory and genomic responses in African Americans with hypovitaminosis D. *Contemp Clin Trials* 2018; 72: 20–25.
 47. Orces C, Lorenzo C and Guarneros JE. The prevalence and determinants of vitamin D inadequacy among U.S. older adults: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2007–2014. *Cureus* 2019; 11: e5300.
 48. Patience S. Vitamin D deficiency in at-risk groups. *Community Pract* 2013; 86: 38–40.
 49. Darji K, Tobin C, Bryan ZT, *et al.* Vitamin D deficiency and atopic dermatitis: consider disease, race, and body mass. *Skinmed* 2017; 15: 415–420.
 50. Shea MK, Houston DK, Tooze JA, *et al.* Health, aging and body composition study. Correlates and prevalence of insufficient 25-hydroxyvitamin D status in Black and White older adults: the health, aging and body composition study. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2011; 59: 1165–1174.
 51. Burke NL, Harville EW, Wickliffe JK, *et al.* Determinants of vitamin D status among Black and White low-income pregnant and non-pregnant reproductive-aged women from Southeast Louisiana. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2019; 19: 111.
 52. Nesby-O’Dell S, Scanlon KS, Cogswell ME, *et al.* Hypovitaminosis D prevalence and determinants among African American and White women of reproductive age: third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988–1994. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2002; 76: 187–192.
 53. Reed SD, Laya MB, Melville J, *et al.* Prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency and clinical associations among veiled East African women in Washington State. *J Womens Health (Larchmt)* 2007; 16: 206–213.
 54. Talwar SA, Swedler J, Yeh J, *et al.* Vitamin-D nutrition and bone mass in adolescent Black girls. *J Natl Med Assoc* 2007; 99: 650–657.
 55. Davis LM, Chang SC, Mancini J, *et al.* Vitamin D insufficiency is prevalent among pregnant African American adolescents. *J Pediatr Adolesc Gynecol* 2010; 23: 45–52.
 56. Bell NH. Bone and mineral metabolism in African Americans. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 1997; 8: 240–245.
 57. Benitez-Aguirre PZ, Wood NJ, Biesheuvel C, *et al.* The natural history of vitamin D deficiency in African refugees living in Sydney. *Med J Aust* 2009; 190: 426–428.
 58. Gallagher JC, Peacock M, Yalamanchili V, *et al.* Effects of vitamin D supplementation in older African American women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2013; 98: 1137–1146.
 59. Horton-French K, Dunlop E, Lucas RM, *et al.* Prevalence and predictors of vitamin D deficiency among African immigrants living in Australia. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2019; 16: E2855.
 60. Harris SS. Vitamin D and African Americans. *J Nutr* 2006; 136: 1126–1129.
 61. Cornish DA, Maluleke V and Mhlanga T. An investigation into a possible relationship between vitamin D, parathyroid hormone, calcium and magnesium in a normally pigmented and an albino rural Black population in the Northern Province of South Africa. *Biofactors* 2000; 11: 35–38.
 62. Shah M, Salhab N, Patterson D, *et al.* Nutritional rickets still afflict children in north Texas. *Tex Med* 2000; 96: 64–68.

63. McGillivray G, Skull SA, Davie G, *et al.* High prevalence of asymptomatic vitamin D and iron deficiency in East African immigrant children and adolescents living in a temperate climate. *Arch Dis Child* 2007; 92: 1088–1093.
64. Tseng M, Giri V, Bruner DW, *et al.* Prevalence and correlates of vitamin D status in African American men. *BMC Public Health* 2009; 9: 191.
65. Garrett-Mayer E, Wagner CL, Hollis BW, *et al.* Vitamin D₃ supplementation (4000 IU/d for 1 y) eliminates differences in circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D between African American and White men. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2012; 96: 332–336.
66. Cashman KD, Ritz C, Adebayo FA, *et al.* Differences in the dietary requirement for vitamin D among Caucasian and East African women at Northern latitude. *Eur J Nutr* 2019; 58: 2281–2291.
67. Yanoff LB, Parikh SJ, Spitalnik A, *et al.* The prevalence of hypovitaminosis D and secondary hyperparathyroidism in obese Black Americans. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 2006; 64: 523–529.
68. Saintonge S, Bang H and Gerber LM. Implications of a new definition of vitamin D deficiency in a multiracial us adolescent population: the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey III. *Pediatrics* 2009; 123: 797–803.
69. Rajakumar K, Fernstrom JD, Holick MF, *et al.* Vitamin D status and response to vitamin D₃ in obese vs. non-obese African American children. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2008; 16: 90–95.
70. Feleke Y, Abdulkadir J, Mshana R, *et al.* Low levels of serum calcidiol in an African population compared to a North European population. *Eur J Endocrinol* 1999; 141: 358–360.
71. Harris SS, Soteriades E, Coolidge JA, *et al.* Vitamin D insufficiency and hyperparathyroidism in a low income, multiracial, elderly population. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2000; 85: 4125–4130.
72. Dawson-Hughes B. Racial/ethnic considerations in making recommendations for vitamin D for adult and elderly men and women. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2004; 80(Suppl. 6): 1763S–1766S.
73. Kritchevsky SB, Toozé JA, Neiberg RH, *et al.*; Health ABC Study. 25-Hydroxyvitamin D, parathyroid hormone, and mortality in Black and White older adults: the health ABC study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2012; 97: 4156–4165.
74. Aloia JF. African Americans, 25-hydroxyvitamin D, and osteoporosis: a paradox. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2008; 88: 545S–550S.
75. Cosman F, Nieves J, Dempster D, *et al.* Vitamin D economy in Blacks. *J Bone Miner Res* 2007; 22(Suppl. 2): V34–V38.
76. Akhter N, Sinnott B, Mahmood K, *et al.* Effects of vitamin D insufficiency on bone mineral density in African American men. *Osteoporos Int* 2009; 20: 745–750.
77. Sakamoto R, Thorpe D, Knutsen R, *et al.* Ethnic variations in serum 25(OH)D levels and bone ultrasound attenuation measurements in Blacks and Whites. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities* 2018; 5: 439–448.
78. Gibney KB, MacGregor L, Leder K, *et al.* Vitamin D deficiency is associated with tuberculosis and latent tuberculosis infection in immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa. *Clin Infect Dis* 2008; 46: 443–446.
79. Abhimanyu, Meyer V, Jeffery TJ, *et al.* Vitamin D status in South Africa and tuberculosis. *Lung* 2015; 193: 975–984.
80. Freishtat RJ, Iqbal SF, Pillai DK, *et al.* High prevalence of vitamin D deficiency among inner-city African American youth with asthma in Washington, DC. *J Pediatr* 2010; 156: 948–952.
81. Pillai DK, Iqbal SF, Benton AS, *et al.* Associations between genetic variants in vitamin D metabolism and asthma characteristics in young African Americans: a pilot study. *J Investig Med* 2011; 59: 938–946.
82. Melamed ML, Astor B, Michos ED, *et al.* 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels, race, and the progression of kidney disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2009; 20: 2631–2639.
83. Manucha W and Juncos LI. The protective role of vitamin D on the heart and the kidney. *Ther Adv Cardiovasc Dis* 2017; 11: 1753944716675820.
84. Rostand SG. Vitamin D, blood pressure, and African Americans: toward a unifying hypothesis. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 2010; 5: 1697–1703.
85. Chandler PD, Scott JB, Drake BF, *et al.* Impact of vitamin D supplementation on inflammatory markers in African Americans: results of a four-arm, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. *Cancer Prev Res (Phila)* 2014; 7: 218–225.
86. Myburgh PH, Towers GW, Kruger IM, *et al.* CRP genotypes predict increased risk to co-present with low vitamin D and elevated CRP in a group of healthy Black South African women. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2018; 15: E111.


87. Jain SK, Manna P, Micinski D, *et al.* In African American type 2 diabetic patients, is vitamin D deficiency associated with lower blood levels of hydrogen sulfide and cyclic adenosine monophosphate, and elevated oxidative stress? *Antioxid Redox Signal* 2013; 18: 1154–1158.
88. Zhu H, Wang X, Shi H, *et al.* A genome-wide methylation study of severe vitamin D deficiency in African American adolescents. *J Pediatr* 2013; 162: 1004–1009.e1.
89. Hoffecker BM, Raffield LM, Kamen DL, *et al.* Systemic lupus erythematosus and vitamin D deficiency are associated with shorter telomere length among African Americans: a case-control study. *PLoS One* 2013; 8: e63725.
90. Signorello LB, Williams SM, Zheng W, *et al.* Blood vitamin D levels in relation to genetic estimation of African ancestry. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2010; 19: 2325–2331.
91. Haddad SA, Ruiz-Narváez EA, Cozier YC, *et al.* Association of degree of European genetic ancestry with serum vitamin D levels in African Americans. *Am J Epidemiol* 2018; 187: 1420–1423.
92. Tahmasebi H, Asgari S, Hall A, *et al.* Influence of ethnicity on biochemical markers of health and disease in the CALIPER cohort of healthy children and adolescents. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 2020; 58: 605–617.
93. Schleicher RL, Sternberg MR, Looker AC, *et al.* National estimates of serum total 25-hydroxyvitamin D and metabolite concentrations measured by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry in the US population during 2007–2010. *J Nutr* 2016; 146: 1051–1061.
94. Powe CE, Evans MK, Wenger J, *et al.* Vitamin D-binding protein and vitamin D status of Black Americans and White Americans. *N Engl J Med* 2013; 369: 1991–2000.
95. Williams SF, Nicholas SB, Vaziri ND, *et al.* African Americans, hypertension and the renin-angiotensin system. *World J Cardiol* 2014; 6: 878–889.
96. Papademetriou V, Narayan P and Kokkinos P. Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers in African-American patients with hypertension. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)* 2004; 6: 310–314.
97. He FJ, Markandu ND, Sagnella GA, *et al.* Importance of the renin system in determining blood pressure fall with salt restriction in Black and White hypertensives. *Hypertension* 1998; 32: 820–824.
98. Bakris GL, Smith DH, Giles TD, *et al.* Comparative antihypertensive efficacy of angiotensin receptor blocker-based treatment in African-American and White patients. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)* 2005; 7: 587–595.
99. Sagnella GA. Why is plasma renin activity lower in populations of African origin? *J Hum Hypertens* 2001; 15: 17–25.
100. Price DA and Fisher ND. The renin-angiotensin system in Blacks: active, passive, or what? *Curr Hypertens Rep* 2003; 5: 225–230.
101. Spence JD. Lessons from Africa: the importance of measuring plasma renin and aldosterone in resistant hypertension. *Can J Cardiol* 2012; 28: 254–257.
102. Akintunde AA, Salawu AA, Oloyede T, *et al.* Renin activity and aldosterone assay among Nigerians with hypertension and normotension: an insight into normative values and clinical correlates. *Curr Hypertens Rev* 2018; 14: 29–34.
103. van Rooyen JM, Poglitsch M, Huisman HW, *et al.* Quantification of systemic renin-angiotensin system peptides of hypertensive Black and White African men established from the RAS-Fingerprint®. *J Renin Angiotensin Aldosterone Syst* 2016; 17: 1470320316669880.
104. Textor SC, Gloviczki ML, Flessner MF, *et al.* Association of filtered sodium load with medullary volumes and medullary hypoxia in hypertensive African Americans as compared with Whites. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2012; 59: 229–237.
105. Cohall D, Ojeh N, Ferrario CM, *et al.* 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: 1470320320908186.
106. Cao Y, Li L, Feng Z, *et al.* Comparative genetic analysis of the novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV/SARS-CoV-2) receptor ACE2 in different populations. *Cell Discov* 2020; 6: 11.
107. Moskowitz DW. Hypertension, thermotolerance, and the “African gene”: an hypothesis. *Clin Exp Hypertens* 1996; 18: 1–19.
108. Bloem LJ, Manatunga AK, Tewksbury DA, *et al.* The serum angiotensinogen concentration and variants of the angiotensinogen gene in White and Black children. *J Clin Invest* 1995; 95: 948–953.
109. Rotimi C, Puras A, Cooper R, *et al.* Polymorphisms of renin-angiotensin genes

among Nigerians, Jamaicans, and African Americans. *Hypertension* 1996; 27: 558–563.

110. Henderson SO, Haiman CA and Mack W. Multiple polymorphisms in the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (ACE, CYP11B2, AGTR1) and their contribution to hypertension in African Americans and Latinos in the multiethnic cohort. *Am J Med Sci* 2004; 328: 266–273.

111. Rusińska A, Płudowski P, Walczak M, *et al.* Vitamin D supplementation guidelines for general population and groups at risk of vitamin D deficiency in Poland—recommendations of the Polish society of pediatric endocrinology and diabetes and the expert panel with participation of national specialist consultants and representatives of scientific societies—2018 update. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)* 2018; 9: 246.

Visit SAGE journals online
<http://tac.sagepub.com>

 SAGE journals