

Relationship between human genetics and susceptibility to COVID-19 infection

Preetinder Kaur ^{1*}, Pawanjot Kaur ²¹(Independent Researcher), 1508, 146 Ave, NW, Edmonton, Alberta, T5Y2X9, Canada²(Independent Researcher), Don Bosco Senior Secondary School, Jharmari, Punjab, IndiaReceived November 16, 2020
Revised December 05, 2020
Accepted December 09, 2020
Published December 15, 2020

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

Abstract: Recent studies have shown that the progression of SARS-CoV-2 is associated with human genetic factors. Many patients have shown diverse clinical symptoms based on their age, sex, ABO blood type, underlying medical conditions, HLA system, and viral variants found in their samples. SARS-CoV-2 is considered more transmissible with higher morbidity rates as compared to the previous SARS outbreak. Several case studies have supported the direct relation of cardiovascular and pulmonary fatalities related to ACE2 polymorphisms during COVID-19 infection. SARS-COV-2 mutants and human genome polymorphisms are vital predictive markers in finding a cure for this pandemic. This review focuses on some of the critical genetic factors of the host that affect the array of immunological responses as a result of COVID-19 infection among individuals.

Keywords: ACE2; COVID-19; HLA; polymorphism; SARS-CoV-2; viral infection

1. Introduction

Coronavirus disease-2019 (COVID-19) was declared a pandemic by the World Health Organization on March 11, 2020, affecting more than 200 countries and 7 continents worldwide. The disease is caused by novel coronaviruses, which are zoonotic viruses, thus can transmit the infection from animals to humans. The International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV) has named the virus “Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2” (SARS-CoV-2) [1]. Coronaviruses, scientifically called *Orthocoronavirinae* or *Coronavirinae* are, a large family of enveloped viruses that belong to the subfamily *Coronavirinae* and order *Nidovirales* [2]. The *Coronavirinae* has four genera: *Alphacoronavirus*, *Betacoronavirus*, *Gammacoronavirus*, and *Deltacoronavirus*. To date, there are seven strains of human coronaviruses (HCoVs) discovered, including HCoV-229E, HCoV-NL63, HCoV-OC43, HCoV-HKU1, Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus (SARS-CoV), Middle East Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV), and SARS-CoV-2 [3, 4]. SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV are coronaviruses that caused severe infections in the human population [5-8]. SARS-CoV-2, formerly known as 2019-nCoV, first emerged in 2019 at Wuhan City. According to worldometer reports, the novel coronavirus strain has killed 969,287 people worldwide as of September 21, 2020 [9].

SARS-CoVs-2 have enveloped positive sense and SSRNA viruses, which attach to human cells via spike (S) proteins, thus confirming their human to human transmission [10]. S1 subunit of S proteins has receptor binding domain responsible for attachment to its functional receptor angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) in the human lungs and causing bronchial epithelial cells and type II pneumocytes infection [11-13]. COVID-19 causes mild symptoms like dry cough, sore throat, fever, body ache, fatigue, loss of taste and smell in some patients whereas, severe clinical impacts like seizures, stroke, and pneumonia in others [14]; in contrast, a significant population infected with COVID-19 does not show any symptoms (asymptomatic). Additionally, in many COVID-19 patients, morbidity and mortality are seen to be related to age, sex, and genetic makeup [15]. Therefore, the ability of SARS-CoV-2 infection raises many questions about its susceptibility and pathogenesis in individuals due to these factors. The main objective of this review is based on recent studies showing a link between novel coronavirus strain and host genetics [16]. Thus, the relationship between human genetics and COVID-19 needs to be uncovered to understand SARS-CoV-2 better to find its clinical cure. activity against human leukemia cell lines [9].

2. A brief history of coronaviruses and COVID-19

2.1 Origin of human coronaviruses

The history of human coronaviruses (HCoVs) dates back to the 1960s when a virus named ‘B814’ was screened from the respiratory tract of an adult with a common cold by Tyrrell and Bynoe [17]. The virus was successfully cultured by Hamre and Procknow and was named as ‘229E’ by Hamre [18]. Both ‘B814’ and 229E were found to have lipid covering to be virulent and ether-sensitive, unrelated to known paramyxoviruses [19]. Further, McIntosh et al.



Ms. Preetinder Kaur
1508, 146 Ave NW
Edmonton, Alberta, T5Y2X9
Canada
E-mail: preetinder.1489@gmail.com

discovered many ether-sensitive virus strains from human lungs and named them as 'OC' as they were organ cultured [20]. Electron microscopy done by Almeida and Tyrrell reported the similar morphology (pleomorphic, membrane coated with club-shaped projections and 80-150 nm-sized particle) for '229E' and 'OC' viruses, and these were also morphologically indistinguishable to the agents responsible for bronchitis infection in chickens [19-21]. Thus, a new group of viruses, including infectious bronchitis virus, mouse hepatitis virus, and gastroenteritis virus of swine, are categorized as a new genus of viruses. It was named 'Coronavirus' because of the crown-like appearance of its surface proteins [22-24].

2.2 Coronavirus outbreaks in the past

Previously coronaviruses were considered to infect animals until severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak caused by SARS-CoV in 2002 in Guangdong, China causing a cough, dyspnea, and pneumonia [25-26]. Later in 2012, an epidemic MERS showed similar clinical symptoms to SARS but was less transmissible with a mortality rate of ~34% compared to SARS, which has ~10% mortality rate [27-28]. Functional receptors for SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV are angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE2) and dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP4), respectively [28-29]. SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and SARS-CoV-2 belong to subgroup beta coronaviruses but are all distinct species of this genus [4, 28]. Presently, the whole world is suffering from COVID-19, and scientists are trying hard to defeat the novel SARS-CoV-2.

2.3 Case Reports: COVID-19 and Human Genetics

Herein we have underlined case studies of genetic factors directly linked to the survival and death of COVID-19 patients. Severe infection of SARS-CoV-2 is rare in healthy younger people. On the contrary, data from 14th May 2020 by the National Institute of Public Health in the Netherlands reported 3.5% of patients hospitalized were <35 years old, and 6 out of 7 patients died were men [30]. A case study in Iran where three brothers aged 54-66 years died from COVID-19 despite having any underlying medical complications led the scientists to hypothesize genetic predisposition to the SARS-CoV-2 infection in some individuals [31]. Additionally, another case report published the effect of X-linked agammaglobulinemia (XLA) on two patients aged 34 and 26 years in Italy who developed severe pneumonia after being infected with

SARS-CoV-2 but recovered [32]. Thus, suggesting that the patients born with XLA defects have higher chances of developing acute pneumonia as COVID-19 manifestation. A study of 4 young men with a loss-of-function mutation in the TLR7 gene present on the X chromosome affects type I and type II INFs. This immunological defect resulted in severe COVID-19 in all these patients requiring clinical ventilation and leading to the death of one [33].

A case study of Iran reported a death rate of 10% out of 9.5% of hospitalized COVID-19 patients with diabetes [34]. According to statistics published in a case report, 322,984 patients from the UK with variants of Alzheimer's disease were more susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 infection and the risk of progression to severe illness [35]. Data collected from 6 hospitals of Vancouver showed 87 percent COVID 19 patients with blood group A or AB required mechanical ventilation than patients with O/B blood types [36]. The location of TMPRSS2 on the 21q22.3 chromosome confirms its potential to cause SARS-CoV-2 infection in a population with Down syndrome [37].

3. Link between human genetics and COVID-19

SARS-CoV-2 is strangely selective in terms of morbidity and mortality in individuals. A large number of infected people did not get sick. Individuals suffering from medical complications like cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, cancer, and the older population reported severe COVID-19 symptoms. However, reported deaths due to COVID-19 also included the young and previously healthy people. Therefore, host genetics analysis can dive deeper to solve these mysteries behind individuals showing diverse clinical outcomes when encountered with the novel coronavirus.

3.1 Genome, transmission and pathogenesis of SARS-CoV-2

After the COVID-19 outbreak, the biological community seems curious to unlock the genome characteristics of SARS-CoV2. Various bioinformatics and biotechnological tools are being employed to accomplish this task. One such study suggests that the viral genome ranges from 26 to 32 kilobases [38]. SARS-CoV2 contains six ORFs in its genome [39]. Among the six ORFs, the first ORF (orf1ab), as shown in figure 1, comprises a significant portion of the genome (67%), is located at 5' end, and encodes 16 non-structural proteins (orf1abpolyproteins) [40]. Papain-like protease (nsp3) and chymotrypsin-like protease (nsp5),

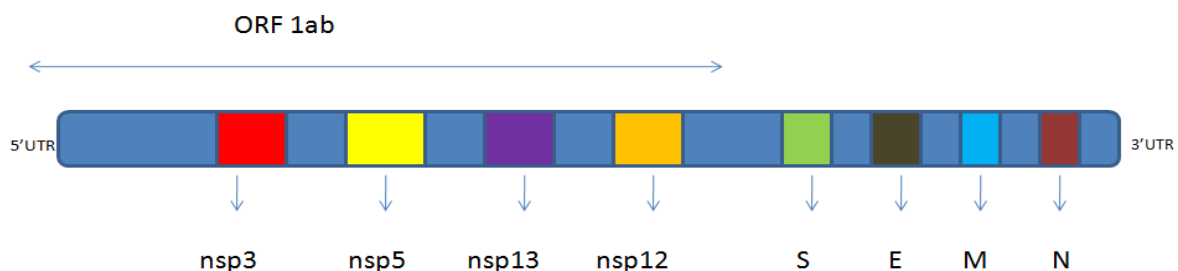


Figure 1: SARS-Cov2 genome showing non-structural proteins on 5' UTR of ORF1ab. nsp3 symbolizes papain-like protease, nsp5 represents chymotrypsin-like protease, nsp 13 represents helicase, and nsp12 represents RNA dependent RNA polymerase. In contrast, 3'UTR encoding structural proteins are Surface (S), envelope (E), membrane (M), and nucleocapsid (N) proteins.

helicase (nsp13), and RNA dependent RNA polymerase (nsp12) are involved in its replication and transcription. 3'ORF encodes structural proteins such as surface (S), envelope (E), membrane (M), nucleocapsid (N) proteins [41]. Apart from this, SARS-CoV2 contains two UTRs at 5' end and 3' end and are of an approximate size of 265 and 358 nucleotides, respectively [40]. Among the viral structural proteins, S protein is the principal protein involved in attachment with the host and viral entry in the host [41].

Compared to subtypes SARS and MERS, SARS-CoV-2 is causing more acute clinical symptoms and is more transmissible with high mutational rates [6, 42]. There are various modes of SARS-CoV2 transmission, including contact, droplet, animal to human, etc. [43]. Also, it is a common notion about all the types of SARS viruses that they have a high potential to shift to different host species bringing new diseases to the world. The emergence of SARS-CoV2 is also an example of a host-shifting mechanism. The alterations in Spike protein, particularly in its S1A domain, binds to glycoproteins such as CD147, which further binds to ACE2 determines infection in hosts [44]. Genetic polymorphism and allelic variants of the ACE2 gene decide on its binding and invasion in the host [45]. Moreover, the transmembrane protease serine 2 (TMPRSS2) is also essential for its entry [46]. Further, macrophages act as its reservoir inside the host cell, and other immune cells, including dendritic cells, act as a transporter and responsible for pathogenesis [47].

3.2 Influence of human genetics on SARS-CoV-2 infection

Host genomic variants are essential to understand host-pathogen interactions. Approaches used to study these gene variants include genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and multi-omics based methods [48]. Thus, ABO blood types, HLA haplotypes, Polygenic risk scores (PRS), and the connection of the available biobanks to Electronic health records (EHRs) are used to understand SARS-CoV-2 infection. For instance, the linkage of gene cluster 3p21.31 is known to be responsible for causing COVID-19 and respiratory failure [49-51]. GWAS studies also unfold the mystery of males being more susceptible to COVID-19 due to variation in the TLR7 gene, which is essential in innate immunity and is located on the X chromosome [52]. A recent study concluded that patients with inborn defects in type I IFNs were found to be infected with severe COVID-19 infection irrespective of their age, sex, and nationality [53]. Human Leucocyte Antigen (HLA) systems are essential in deciding the severity of COVID-19 infection as they can critically affect the response of immunoglobulins (Igs) in hosts during the viral life cycle [54-55].

3.2.1 Role of ABO blood type in SARS-CoV-2 susceptibility

Literature involving large numbers of genetic data of SARS-CoV-2 infected and non-infected people revealed a link between human genome association to lower or higher COVID-19 vulnerability and mortality. For instance, the people with blood group A are known to be associated with a greater risk of COVID-19, whereas people with blood

group O have lower susceptibility towards novel coronavirus [56]. The reason for these linkages can be formulated in the light of binding affinity reactions between the SARS-CoV-2 spike proteins and blood group antigens [41, 57]. The antigens on red blood cells can be expressed in the airway or alveolar epithelial cells and can serve as viable receptors for many infectious microorganisms [58-59]. SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2 structural studies showed similarity in the nucleic acid sequence and ACE2 receptor recognition pattern [57]. Antigens present on ABO blood groups lead to the formation of sialoside grouping, which further increases the binding of N-terminal domain (NTD) and RBD domains to CD147 and ACE2 respectively of SARS-CoV-2 virus [41, 60]. Therefore, the absence of blood group antigens from the erythrocyte surface of O group individuals makes them less susceptible to COVID-19 infection [61].

3.2.2 Role of ACE2 polymorphism in COVID 19 susceptibility

ACE2 receptors are found on apical surfaces of respiratory epithelial cells serve a critical role in SARS-CoV 2 spread and pathogenesis; therefore, the expression of these receptors can affect the susceptibility of SARS-CoV2 infection in individuals [62]. ACE2 is a crucial player in the Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone system (RAAS) as it hydrolyzes a potent vasoconstrictor, angiotensin II (Ang II), into lung-protective Ang-(1-7), which further binds to type 1 angiotensin II (AT₁) receptor causing a cascade of inflammation, vasoconstriction, fibrosis, and thrombosis reactions. Ang-(1-7) binds to type 2 angiotensin II (AT₂) receptor driving increased vasodilation and reduced inflammation, fibrosis, and thrombosis [62-63]. Therefore, ACE and ACE2 have opposite functions, and are their gene polymorphisms are related to severe hypertension and cardiovascular illness, which are directly associated with severe clinical COVID-19 complications [62,64,65]. The male population could be more affected due to the presence of the ACE2 gene on the X chromosome. According to studies, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in ACE2 receptors are associated with cardiovascular illnesses and low expression of ACE2 male carriers, directly linked to severe SARS-CoV-2 infection [66-68].

3.2.3 Role of SARS-CoV2 mutants on COVID-19 susceptibility

Mutations in the novel coronavirus and variations in human genetics can impact the clinical manifestations of COVID-19 to a greater extent [69]. The alterations in the viral genome can affect viral entry into the host cell, viral life cycle, transmission, and the onset of the host's immune response. However, the mutation rate is much lesser in novel coronavirus strains than older coronaviruses, confirming the high conservation of S protein in SARS-CoV-2 [70]. But a variant of SARS-CoV-2 with a mutation in S protein (D614G) significantly increased the transmissibility of COVID-19 infection, which has spread throughout the United States and Europe since its emergence in Wuhan [71]. Further, mutation R4081 in RBD from India leads to a weaker affinity between SARS-CoV-2 and ACE2, which could be an obstacle in vaccine designing for COVID-19 [70]. A research study conducted

in the United States concluded the higher mutation rates in the SARS-CoV-2 genome in females compared to the male population [72].

Table 1: Showing the effect of human genetic factors on SARS-CoV-2 infection

Human Genetics	COVID-19 susceptibility
ABO Blood Type	
A	Increased
O	Decreased
Genetic Sex	
Males (XY)	Increased
HLA Variant	Increased
Receptor polymorphism	
ACE2, TMPRSS2, CD14	Increased

4. Conclusion

Studies of SARS-CoV-2, as well as human genetics with the help of tools like genome-wide association studies (GWAS), provide insights into the host genetic, allelic polymorphisms including viral SNPs that are critical for understanding pathophysiology, the severity of clinical outcomes in patients and designing vaccination for COVID-19 pandemic [69]. The effect of some of the essential genetic factors on susceptibility to COVID 19 infection is highlighted in table 1. From recent studies on human genetics, it is concluded that inborn errors in genes can make some people more susceptible to severe forms of SARS-Cov-2 infection. Clinical trial results published by Mike Bogetofte predicted fewer chances of contracting SARS-CoV-2 in individuals with blood group O compared with non-O individuals [61]. The absence of stochastic X chromosome inactivation in males due to one copy of the X chromosome is held responsible for a higher rate of SARS-CoV-2 infection [73-74]. Thus, different clinical outcomes observed with COVID-19 patients could be associated with factors like older age, sex of a person, associated medical complications, ABO type, genetic variations, host-virus binding interactions, prior exposure to similar viruses, and much more. However, the genetic and biochemical aspects of the host and novel COVID-19 virus is yet to be uncovered. Additionally, SNPs in host receptors ACE2, TMPRSS2, CD14, along with human immune factors like HLA, cytokines are reported to have a significant influence on transmission and pathogenesis of SARS-CoV-2 infection [69]. Moreover, the role of several protein complexes genes such as vacuolar ATPases, retromer, P13K, ARP2/3, etc., is also studied, which highlighted the importance of multiple genes in SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis [75]. A changed viral genome can lead to the elicitation of an entirely different set of cytokines rush, which could be potentially more lethal to the host than wild viral forms. Thus, more novel approaches for in-silico and wet-lab studies are needed to understand SARS-CoV-2 better and its respective response in humans to deal with the COVID-19 pandemic.

Declarations

Author Contribution Preetinder Kaur: concept, structuring, writing, figure, and editing. Pawanjot Kaur: writing, editing, and figure.

Funding Not applicable

Acknowledgments We acknowledge the efforts of all research scholars, scientists, and doctors for their contribution to the better understanding of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Conflict of Interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- [1] Virus taxonomy: 2019 release; International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses - The International Code of Virus Classification and Nomenclature (2019). <https://talk.ictvonline.org/taxonomy/> (accessed 15 September 2020).
- [2] de Groot RJ, Baker SC, Baric RS, Brown CS, Drosten C, Enjuanes L, et al (2013). Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV): announcement of the Coronavirus Study Group. *J Virol.*; 87(14):7790–7792.
- [3] van der Hoek L (2007). Human coronaviruses: what do they cause? *Antivir Ther*;12(4B):651–658.
- [4] Chen B, Tian EK, He B, Tian L, Han R, Wang S, et al (2020). Overview of lethal human coronaviruses. *Signal Transduct Target Ther*; 5:89. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41392-020-0190-2>
- [5] Zhu N, Zhang D, Wang W, Li X, Yang B, Song J, et al (2020). A novel coronavirus from patients with pneumonia in China, 2019. *N Engl J Med*; 382(8):727-733.
- [6] Li Q, Guan X, Wu P, Wang X, Zhou L, Tong Y, et al (2020). Early transmission dynamics in Wuhan, China, of novel coronavirus-infected pneumonia. *N Engl J Med*; 382(13):1199-1207.
- [7] Lee KH, Yoo SG, Cho Y, La Y, et al (2019). Characteristics of community-acquired respiratory viruses infections except seasonal influenza in transplant recipients and non-transplant critically ill patients. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2019.05.007>
- [8] Alfaraj SH, Al-Tawfiq JA, Memish ZA (2019). Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus (MERS-CoV) infection during pregnancy: Report of two cases & review of the literature. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect*; 52(3):501-503.
- [9] Worldometer; COVID-19 Coronavirus pandemic (2020). <https://worldometers.info/coronavirus/> (accessed 21 September 2020)
- [10] Lee PI, Hsueh PR (2020). Emerging threats from zoonotic coronaviruses-from SARS and MERS to 2019-nCoV. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect*; 53(3):365–367.
- [11] Li W, Moore MJ, Vasilieva N, Sui J, Wong SK, Berne MA, et al (2003). Angiotensin-converting

- enzyme 2 is a functional receptor for the SARS coronavirus. *Nature*; 426(6965):450–454.
- [12] Qian Z, Travanty EA, Oko L, Edeen K, Berglund A, Wang J, et al (2013). Innate immune response of human alveolar type II cells infected with severe acute respiratory syndrome-coronavirus. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol*; 48(6):742–748.
- [13] Cui J, Li F, Shi Z-L (2019). Origin and evolution of pathogenic coronaviruses. *Nat Rev Microbiol*; 17(3):181–192.
- [14] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; Symptoms of Coronavirus (2020). <https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/symptoms-testing/symptoms.html> (accessed 21 September 2020)
- [15] Zhang X, Tan Y, Ling Y, Lu G, Liu F, et al (2020). Viral and host factors related to the clinical outcome of COVID-19. *Nature*; 583(7816):437–440.
- [16] LoPresti M, Beck DB, Duggal P, Cummings DAT, Solomon BD (2020). The Role of Host Genetic Factors in Coronavirus Susceptibility: Review of Animal and Systematic Review of Human Literature. *medRxiv*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.05.30.20117788>
- [17] Tyrrell DA, Bynoe ML (1966). Cultivation of viruses from a high proportion of patients with colds. *Lancet*; 1(7428):76–77.
- [18] Hamre D, Procknow JJ (1966). A new virus isolated from the human respiratory tract. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med*; 121(1):190–193. <https://doi.org/10.3181/00379727-121-30734>.
- [19] Kahn JS, McIntosh K (2005). History and Recent Advances in Coronavirus Discovery. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*; 24(11):S223–S227. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.inf.0000188166.17324.60>
- [20] McIntosh K, Kapikian AZ, Turner HC, Hartley JW, Parrott RH, Chanock RM (1970). Seroepidemiologic studies of coronavirus infection in adults and children. *Am J Epidemiol*; 91(6):585–592.
- [21] Almeida JD, Tyrrell DA (1967). The morphology of three previously uncharacterized human respiratory viruses that grow in organ culture. *J Gen Virol*; 1(2):175–178.
- [22] McIntosh K, Becker WB, Chanock RM (1967). Growth in suckling-mouse brain of “IBV-like” viruses from patients with upper respiratory tract disease. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*; 58(6):2268–2273.
- [23] Witte KH, Tajima M, Easterday BC (1968). Morphologic characteristics and nucleic acid type of transmissible gastroenteritis virus of pigs. *Arch Gesamte Virusforsch*; 23(1):53–70.
- [24] Tyrrell DA, Almeida JD, Cunningham CH, Dowdle WR, Hofstad MS, McIntosh K, et al (1975). Coronaviridae. *Intervirology*; 5(1–2):76–82.
- [25] Zhong NS, Zheng BJ, Li YM, Poon LLM, Xie ZH, Chan KH, et al (2003). Epidemiology and cause of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in Guangdong, People’s Republic of China, in February, 2003. *Lancet*; 362(9393):1353–1358.
- [26] Chinese SARS Molecular Epidemiology Consortium (2004). Molecular evolution of the SARS coronavirus during the course of the SARS epidemic in China. *Science*; 303(5664):1666–1669. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1092002>.
- [27] World Health Organisation (2015). Summary and risk assessment of current situation in Republic of Korea and China; MERS CoV Risk Assessment (2015). https://www.who.int/csr/disease/coronavirus_infections/risk-assessment-3june2015/en/ (accessed 24 September 2020)
- [28] Hu B, Ge X, Wang LF, Shi Z (2015). Bat origin of human coronaviruses. *Virology*; 12(1):221. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12985-015-0422-1>
- [29] Raj VS, Mou H, Smits SL, Dekkers DHW, Müller MA, Dijkman R, et al (2013). Dipeptidyl peptidase 4 is a functional receptor for the emerging human coronavirus-EMC. *Nature*; 495(7440):251–254.
- [30] Weekly update of the epidemiological situation of COVID-19 in the Netherlands (2020). <https://www.rivm.nl/coronavirus-covid-19/actueel/wekelijkse-update-epidemiologische-situatie-covid-19-in-nederland> (accessed 10 November 2020).
- [31] Yousefzadegan S, Rezaei N (2020). Case Report: Death due to COVID-19 in Three Brothers. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*; 102(6):1203–1204.
- [32] Soresina A, Moratto D, Chiarini M, Paolillo C, Baresi G, Focà E, et al (2020). Two X-linked agammaglobulinemia patients develop pneumonia as COVID-19 manifestation but recover. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*; 31(5):565–569.
- [33] van der Made CI, Simons A, Schuurs-Hoeijmakers J, van den Heuvel G, Mantere T, et al (2020). Presence of Genetic Variants Among Young Men With Severe COVID-19. *JAMA*; 324(7):1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.13719>
- [34] Abdi A, Jalilian M, Sarbarzeh PA, Vlaisavljevic Z (2020). Diabetes and COVID-19: A systematic review on the current evidences. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*; 166:108347. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabres.2020.108347>
- [35] Jeesson A (2020). The Alzheimer’s gene- predicting the severity of COVID-19. In: *Epidemiology Conference*. London, UK.
- [36] Molly Walker; More Evidence Points to Role of Blood Type in COVID-19 — Two studies find ties to infection susceptibility, severity, but with caveats (2020). *MedPageToday*.

- <https://www.medpagetoday.com/infectiousdisease/covid19/89117> (accessed 24 October 2020).
- [37] Hou Y, Zhao J, Martin W, Kallianpur A, et al (2020). New insights into genetic susceptibility of COVID-19: an ACE2 and TMPRSS2 polymorphism analysis. *BMC Med*; 18:216. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-020-01673-z>
- [38] Su S, Wong G, Shi W, Liu J, Lai ACK, Zhou J, et al (2016). Epidemiology, Genetic Recombination, and Pathogenesis of Coronaviruses. *Trends Microbiol*; 24(6):490–502.
- [39] Kumar S, Nyodu R, Maurya VK, Saxena SK (2020). Morphology, Genome Organization, Replication, and Pathogenesis of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). In Saxena S (eds) *Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19). Medical Virology: From Pathogenesis to Disease Control*; p:23–31. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-4814-7_3
- [40] Khailany RA, Safdar M, Ozaslan M (2020). Genomic characterization of a novel SARS-CoV-2. *Gene Rep*; 19:100682. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.genrep.2020.100682>
- [41] Silva-Filho JC, de Melo CGF, de Oliveira JL (2020). The influence of ABO blood groups on COVID-19 susceptibility and severity: A molecular hypothesis based on carbohydrate-carbohydrate interactions. *Med Hypotheses*; 144:110155.
- [42] Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, Ren L, Zhao J, Hu Y, et al (2020). Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. *Lancet*; 395(10223):497–506.
- [43] Graham RL, Baric RS (2010). Recombination, Reservoirs, and the Modular Spike: Mechanisms of Coronavirus Cross-Species Transmission. *J Virol*; 84(7):3134–3146.
- [44] Saini P (2020). COVID-19 pandemic: potential phase III vaccines in development. *T Appl. Biol. Chem. J*; 1(1):21–33.
- [45] Sironi M, Hasnain SE, Rosenthal B, Phan T, Luciani F, Shaw MA, et al (2020). SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19: A genetic, epidemiological, and evolutionary perspective. *Infect Genet Evol*; 84:104384. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2020.104384>
- [46] Pollitt KJG, Peccia J, Ko AI, Kaminski N, et al (2020). COVID-19 vulnerability: the potential impact of genetic susceptibility and airborne transmission. *Hum Genomics*; 14(1):17.
- [47] Yesudhas D, Srivastava A, Gromiha MM (2020). COVID-19 outbreak: history, mechanism, transmission, structural studies and therapeutics. *Infection*; 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-020-01516-2>
- [48] Murray MF, Kenny EE, Ritchie MD, Rader DJ, Bale AE, Giovanni MA, et al (2020). COVID-19 outcomes and the human genome. *Genet Med*; 22(7):1175–1177.
- [49] Khera AV, Chaffin M, Aragam KG, Haas ME, Roselli C, Choi SH, et al (2018). Genome-wide polygenic scores for common diseases identify individuals with risk equivalent to monogenic mutations. *Nat Genet*; 50(9):1219–1224.
- [50] Abul-Husn NS, Kenny EE (2019). Personalized medicine and the power of electronic health records. *Cell*; 177(1):58–69.
- [51] Ellinghaus D, Degenhardt F, Bujanda L, Buti M, Albillos A, Invernizzi P, et al (2020). Genomewide Association Study of Severe Covid-19 with Respiratory Failure. *N Engl J Med*; 383(16):1522–1534.
- [52] Scully EP, Haverfield J, Ursin RL, Tannenbaum C, Klein SL (2020). Considering how biological sex impacts immune responses and COVID-19 outcomes. *Nat Rev Immunol*; 20(7):442–447.
- [53] Zhang Q, Bastard P, Liu Z, Le Pen J, Moncada-Velez M, Chen J, et al (2020). Inborn errors of type I IFN immunity in patients with life-threatening COVID-19. *Science*; 370(6515):eabd4570. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abd4570>
- [54] Dendrou CA, Petersen J, Rossjohn J, Fugger L (2018). HLA variation and disease. *Nat Rev Immunol*; 18(5):325–339.
- [55] Shen L, Wang C, Zhao J, Tang X, Shen Y, Lu M, et al (2020). Delayed specific IgM antibody responses observed among COVID-19 patients with severe progression. *Emerg Microbes Infect*; 9(1):1096–1101.
- [56] Zhao J, Yang Y, Huang H, Li D, Gu D, Lu X, et al (2020). Relationship between the ABO Blood Group and the COVID-19 Susceptibility. *medRxiv*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.03.11.20031096>
- [57] Wu BB, Gu DZ, Yu JN, Yang J, Shen WQ (2020). Association between ABO blood groups and COVID-19 infection, severity and demise: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Infect Genet Evol*; 84:104485. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2020.104485>
- [58] Cooling L (2015). Blood Groups in Infection and Host Susceptibility. *Clin Microbiol Rev*; 28(3):801–870.
- [59] Stowell CP, Stowell SR (2019). Biologic roles of the ABH and Lewis histo-blood group antigens Part I: infection and immunity. *Vox Sang*; 114(5):426–442.
- [60] Wang W, Xia Y, Zhu J (2020). Research progress of the role of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) in the highly pathogenic human coronavirus pneumonia. *Chin J Clin Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*; 27(5):588–596.
- [61] Barnkob MB, Pottegård A, Støvring H, Haunstrup TM, Homburg K, Larsen R, et al (2020). Reduced

- prevalence of SARS-CoV-2 infection in ABO blood group O. *Blood Adv*; 4(20):4990–4993.
- [62] Gómez J, Albaiceta GM, García-Clemente M, López-Larrea C, Amado-Rodríguez L, Lopez-Alonso I, et al (2020). Angiotensin-converting enzymes (ACE, ACE2) gene variants and COVID-19 outcome. *Gene*; 762:145102. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gene.2020.145102>
- [63] Ingraham NE, Barakat AG, Reilkoff R, Bezdicek T, Schacker T, Chipman JG, et al (2020). Understanding the Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone-SARS-CoV-Axis: A Comprehensive Review. *Eur Respir J*; 56(1):2000912. <https://doi.org/10.1183/13993003.00912-2020>
- [64] Tikellis C, Thomas MC (2012). Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) is a key modulator of the renin angiotensin system in health and disease. *Int J Pept*; 2012: 256294. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/256294>
- [65] Guo T, Fan Y, Chen M, Wu X, Zhang L, He T, et al (2020). Cardiovascular implications of fatal outcomes of patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). *JAMA Cardiol*; 5(7):811-818. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamacardio.2020.1017>
- [66] Lu N, Yang Y, Wang Y, Liu Y, Fu G, Chen D, et al (2012). ACE2 gene polymorphism and essential hypertension: an updated meta-analysis involving 11,051 subjects. *Mol Biol Rep*; 39(6):6581–6589.
- [67] Guillon P, Clément M, Sébille V, Rivain JG, Chou CF, Ruvoën-Clouet N, et al (2008). Inhibition of the interaction between the SARS-CoV Spike protein and its cellular receptor by anti-histo-blood group antibodies. *Glycobiology*; 18(12):1085–1093.
- [68] Zhang Q, Cong M, Wang N, Li X, Zhang H, Zhang K, et al (2018). Association of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 gene polymorphism and enzymatic activity with essential hypertension in different gender: A case–control study. *Medicine (Baltimore)*; 97(42):e12917. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000000012917>
- [69] Ovsyannikova IG, Haralambieva IH, Crooke SN, Poland GA, Kennedy RB (2020). The role of host genetics in the immune response to SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19 susceptibility and severity. *Immunol Rev*; 296(1):205–219.
- [70] Jia Y, Shen G, Zhang Y, Huang K-S, Ho HY, Hor WS, et al (2020). Analysis of the mutation dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 reveals the spread history and emergence of RBD mutant with lower ACE2 binding affinity. *bioRxiv*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.09.034942>
- [71] Korber B, Fischer W, Gnanakaran SG, Yoon H, Theiler J, Abfalterer W, et al (2020). Spike mutation pipeline reveals the emergence of a more transmissible form of SARS-CoV-2. *bioRxiv*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.29.069054>
- [72] Wang R, Chen J, Gao K, Hozumi Y, Yin C, Wei G (2020). Characterizing SARS-CoV-2 mutations in the United States. *Research square*; rs.3.rs-49671. <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-49671/v1>
- [73] Lyon MF (1961). Gene Action in the X-chromosome of the Mouse (*Mus musculus* L.). *Nature*; 190(4773):372–373.
- [74] Kloc M, Ghobrial RM, Kubiak JZ (2020). The Role of Genetic Sex and Mitochondria in Response to COVID-19 Infection. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*; 181(8):629–634.
- [75] Daniloski Z, Jordon TX, Kasela S, Legut M, Maniatis S, Mimitou EP, et al (2020). Identification of Required Host Factors for SARS-CoV-2 Infection in Human Cells. *Cell*; 184:1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2020.10.03>