The Role of Vitamin D in COVID-19: A Review Study

Alzubaidi ZF^{©*1}, Ghanaim TNA² and Ibrahim SL¹

¹Department of Clinical and Laboratory Science, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Kufa, Al-Najaf, Iraq ²Faculty of Dentistry, University of Kufa, Al-Najaf, Iraq

*Corresponding author: Zubaida Falih Alzubaidi, Department of Clinical and Laboratory Science, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Kufa, Al-Najaf, Iraq Received: 01 November 2022 Accepted: 05 December 2022 Published: 15 December 2022

© 2022 The Authors. This is an openaccess article and is distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium provided the original work is properly cited.

Abstract

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is defined as the virus causing the present coronavirus disease outbreak (COVID-19) that has been initially discovered in Wuhan, China after complaints of severe pneumonia. The impact of vitamin D on complications and treatment of COVID-19, as well as its potential role in lowering the incidence of COVID-19, has been the subject of much investigation. The correlation between COVID-19 infections and vitamin D will be demonstrated in the presented work.

Keywords: SARS-CoV-2, vitamin D, COVID-19

Abbreviations: SARS: severe acute respiratory syndrome, SARS-CoV-2: severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2, ARDS: acute respiratory distress syndrome

1. Introduction

The WHO first identified COVID-19 in China in December 2019 and declared it a pandemic on March 11, 2020 [1]. The family of viruses known as coronaviruses (CoVs) is responsible for intestinal and respiratory disorders in both people and animals [2]. The advent of the SARS epidemic in China between the years 2002 and 2003 and the Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) in the Arabian Peninsula in the year 2012 demonstrate that they can potentially result in severe disease. They typically give people moderate cold. The globe was combating a new coronavirus since December 2019. The virus causing the present COVID-19 which has been discovered initially in Wuhan, China after reports of significant pneumonia is known as SARS-CoV-2 [3, 4]. With regard to COVID-19, there is no proven treatment at this time. Thus, prompt patient early isolation. diagnosis, and protective circumstances for stopping the infection were critical components in the management of COVID-19 patients. Treatment for COVID-19 was often supportive and included respiratory and nutritional assistance [5]. Even though almost all people with COVID-19 are asymptomatic or only experience minor signs, a few individuals might experience fatal clinical syndromes like ARDS (acute respiratory distress syndrome), pneumonia, microvascular thrombosis, myocarditis, and cytokine storm [6]. Single-strand positive-sense RNA from the genome of SARS-CoV-2 is contained within a membrane envelope with a mean diameter of 75 nm-150 nm. Coronaviruses have a crown-like shape (corona is *Latin* for garland or crown) due to the glycoprotein spikes covering the envelope. The SARS-CoV-2 genome is around 30 K nucleotides long. This virus shares over 85% of its homology with the SARS-CoV [7].

The effect of vitamin D in the management and side effects of COVID-19, as well as its potential role in lowering the incidence of COVID-19, have been the subject of much investigation. Through stimulating the release of cathelicidin and defensin proteins in macrophages and monocytes, vitamin D has antiviral action and prevents viral replication [8, 9]. The presented study will demonstrate how vitamin D affects COVID-19 infections and its role in preventing them.

1.1 Vitamin D as an immune response regulator

Another well-known role of vitamin D is immunomodulation [10]. Through the generation of numerous antimicrobial peptides (defensins, cathelicidins, and IL-37), it supports innate immunity. As demonstrated in **Figure 1**, vitamin D also influences adaptive immunity by regulating the key proinflammatory cytokines (like TNF-alpha, IL6, and interferon-gamma) and the response mediated by Th1 cells. In case of vitamin D insufficiency, this regulation is anticipated to be less effective, yet it may be restored with proper supplementation [11].

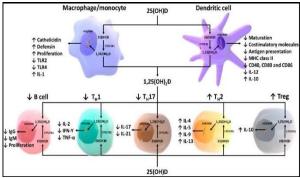


Figure 1: Schematic representation of vitamin D and its metabolites and action of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D on the innate and adaptive immune system [12].

1.2 Vitamin D and cardiovascular system in COVID-19

In addition to the myocardial injury and type 1 myocardial infarction, arrhythmias, acute cor syndromes, pulmonale, acute coronary cardiomyopathy, thrombotic problems, and cardiogenic shock, COVID-19 was linked to cardiovascular sequelae [13-15]. According to preclinical research, vitamin D might prevent atherosclerosis by preventing macrophages from becoming foam cells and by boosting cholesterol efflux [16]. In clinical and experimental tests of vitamin D insufficiency, the different cardiovascular risk factors that were linked to greater mortality from COVID-19 have been more evident as well. The risk factors that are related to vitamin D deficiency for CVD in COVID-19 are diabetes, hypertension, CKD, and obesity. Vitamin D deficiency might increase vascular resistance and vasoconstriction, upregulate the reninangiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS). and predispose to hypertension [17–30].

1.3 Vitamin D and pulmonary infections in COVID-19

A current meta-analysis that looked at a total of 1,787 patients who have pulmonary tuberculosis and the impact of supplementation with vitamin D on various outcomes showed a few benefits and came to the conclusion that the supplementation must be thought of as adjuvant therapy along with the antibiotics [31]. The correlation between viral infections and vitamin D was discovered as a result of seasonal variations in the levels of vitamin D and the corresponding rise in influenza. In contrast, except throughout pandemics, levels of serum vitamin D rise during summer and influenza almost disappears. Even in pandemics, cold months are when most people pass away [32]. Infections, particularly respiratory tract infections are linked to lower concentrations of vitamin D [33]. Because of its effects such as promoting T-lymphocyte chemotaxis and eliminating respiratory pathogens by triggering apoptosis and autophagy in the infected

epithelium, vitamin D is crucial in preventing respiratory system infections [34]. According to reports, a few COVID-19 patients with severe symptoms had low T-lymphocyte count [35]. This result supports the idea that vitamin D could be helpful in treating COVID-19 because vitamin D supplementation raises the level of T-lymphocytes [36].

Considering the demonstrated role of vitamin D in many infectious respiratory tract disorders, it stands to a role that vitamin D could be involved as well in the infection of SARS-CoV-2. The enhanced production of Th1 pro-inflammatory cytokines (which lead to cytokine storm) is the mechanism through which SARS-CoV-2 causes damage to the tissue of the lung and causes acute respiratory failure to occur [37]. Vitamin D decreases cytokine storm by converting the pro-inflammatory Th1 and Th17 response to the antiinflammatory Th2 and Treg response [38].

1.4 Mechanisms of vitamin D to reduce viral infections

Recent studies have shown a few of the mechanisms through which vitamin D lowers microbial infection incidence. Various pathways are used by vitamin D to lower risks of the viral infections and mortality. Three mechanisms are used by vitamin D to lower the risk of the common cold [39–43]:

- 1. adaptive immunity
- 2. cellular natural immunity
- 3. physical barrier

A recent study supported that vitamin D might help to reduce the incidence of COVID-19 mortality and infection. Maintaining cell junctions and gap junctions, boosting cellular immunity through the reduction of cytokine storm with an impact on the interferon γ and TNF, and regulating adaptive immunity through the suppression of T helper cell type 1 response and inducing T cells are a few examples of these. In HIV infection, supplementation with vitamin D has been reported to increase CD4 + T cell count as well [44].

Lymphopenia can be defined as one of the key signs of a severe infection with SARS-CoV-2 [45]. Vitamin D displayed activity in the tissue of the lung and had a protective effect on experimental interstitial pneumonitis in human cell lines as well as mice models [46]. Numerous in vitro researches had shown that vitamin D contributes significantly to the role of local "respiratory homeostasis," either through the stimulation of antimicrobial peptide expression or through directly preventing replication of the respiratory viruses [47]. Thus, heart failure and ARDS, which are symptoms of critically ill COVID-19 subjects can be caused by vitamin D inadequacy. Because of this, chronic CVD and reduced lung function might result from vitamin D deficiency promoting the renin-angiotensin system (RAS) [48]. People with these comorbidities make up a greater

proportion of the severe illness cases in COVID-19 [45].

2. Conclusion

Since higher blood levels of vitamin D have been associated with a decreased severity and risk of COVID-19, maintaining enough vitamin D blood levels by supplementations or sun exposure is advised for the general populace to be able to handle the pandemic.

3. Recommendation

Despite the fact that various work has demonstrated the immunomodulatory properties of vitamin D in addition to its important role in the preservation of immune homeostasis; well-designed randomized controlled trials have been considered necessary to clarify the plausible role of vitamin D in protective immune responses against the respiratory microbes and in the prevention of different types of acute infections of the respiratory tract.

References

- Shrikrushna SU, Quazi BA, Shubham S, et al. A review on Corona Virus (COVID-19). World J Pharma Life Sci. 2020;6(4):109-115.
- Cui J, Li F, Shi ZL. Origin and evolution of pathogenic coronaviruses. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2019;17(3):181-192.
- 3. Wu F, Zhao S, Yu B, et al. A new coronavirus associated with human respiratory disease in China. Nature. 2020;579(7798):265-269.
- 4. Zhou P, Yang XL, Wang XG, et al. A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of probable bat origin. Nature. 2020;579(7798):270-273.
- 5. Majumder J, Minko T. Recent Developments on Therapeutic and Diagnostic Approaches for COVID-19. AAPS J. 2021;23(1):14.
- Cascella M, Rajnik M, Aleem A, et al. Features, evaluation, and treatment of coronavirus (COVID-19). StatPearls. 2021.
- Petrosillo N, Viceconte G, Ergonul O, et al. COVID-19, SARS and MERS: are they closely related? Clin Microbiol Infect. 2020;26(6):729-34.
- White JH. Vitamin D metabolism and signaling in the immune system. Rev Endocr Metab Disord. 2012;13(1):21-29.
- 9. Gombart AF, Borregaard N, Koeffler HP. Human cathelicidin antimicrobial peptide

(CAMP) gene is a direct target of the vitamin D receptor and is strongly up-regulated in myeloid cells by 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3. FASEB J. 2005;19(9):1067-77.

- Bouillon R, Marcocci C, Carmeliet G, et al. Skeletal and extraskeletal actions of Vitamin D: current evidence and outstanding questions. Endocr Rev. 2019;40(4):1109-1151.
- Quesada-Gomez JM, Entrenas-Castillo M, Bouillon R. Vitamin D receptor stimulation to reduce acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) in patients with coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 infections: Revised Ms SBMB 2020_166. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol. 2020;202:105719.
- Charoenngam N, Holick MF. Immunologic Effects of Vitamin D on Human Health and Disease. Nutrients. 2020;12(7):2097.
- 13. Driggin E, Madhavan MV, Bikdeli B, et al. Cardiovascular considerations for patients, health care workers, and health systems during the COVID-19 pandemic. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2020;75(18):2352-2371.
- 14. Clerkin KJ, Fried JA, Raikhelkar J, et al. COVID-19 and Cardiovascular Disease. Circulation. 2020;141(20):1648-1655.
- Bangalore S, Sharma A, Slotwiner A, et al. ST-Segment Elevation in Patients with Covid-19 - A Case Series. N Engl J Med. 2020;382(25):2478-2480.
- 16. Yin K, You Y, Swier V, et al. Vitamin D Protects Against Atherosclerosis via Regulation of Cholesterol Efflux and Macrophage Polarization in Hypercholesterolemic Swine. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 2015;35(11):2432-42.
- 17. Maddaloni E, Buzzetti R. Covid-19 and diabetes mellitus: unveiling the interaction of two pandemics. Diabetes Metab Res Rev. 2020;36(7):e33213321.
- Dietz W, Santos-Burgoa C. Obesity and its implications for COVID-19 mortality. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2020;28:1005.
- Lighter J, Phillips M, Hochman S, et al. Obesity in patients younger than 60 years is a risk factor for Covid-19 hospital admission. Clin Infect Dis. 2020;71(15):896-897.
- 20. Simonnet A, Chetboun M, Poissy J, et al. High Prevalence of Obesity in Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2 (SARS-

CoV-2) Requiring Invasive Mechanical Ventilation. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2020;28(7):1195-1199.

- 21. Fang L, Karakiulakis G, Roth M. Are patients with hypertension and diabetes mellitus at increased risk for COVID-19 infection? Lancet Respir Med. 2020;8(4):e21.
- 22. Preliminary Estimates of the Prevalence of Selected Underlying Health Conditions Among Patients with Coronavirus Disease 2019-United States, February 12-March 28, 2020. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2020;69:382-386.
- 23. Cheng Y, Luo R, Wang K, et al. Kidney disease is associated with in-hospital death of patients with COVID-19. Kidney Int. 2020;97(5):829-838.
- Kunutsor SK, Apekey TA, Steur M. Vitamin D and Risk of Future Hypertension: Meta-Analysis of 283,537 Participants. Eur J Epidemiol. 2013;28(3):205-21.
- 25. Song Y, Wang L, Pittas AG, et al. Blood 25hydroxy vitamin D levels and incident type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. Diabetes Care. 2013;36(5):1422-8.
- Pereira-Santos M, Costa PR, Assis AM, et al. Obesity and vitamin D deficiency: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Obes Rev. 2015;16(4):341-9.
- 27. Dusso AS, Tokumoto M. Defective renal maintenance of the vitamin D endocrine system impairs vitamin D renoprotection: a downward spiral in kidney disease. Kidney Int. 2011;79(7):715-29.
- Yuan W, Pan W, Kong J,et al. 1,25dihydroxyvitamin D3 suppresses renin gene transcription by blocking the activity of the cyclic AMP response element in the renin gene promoter. J Biol Chem. 2007;282(41):29821-30.
- Li YC. Molecular mechanism of vitamin D in the cardiovascular system. J Investig Med. 2011;59(6):868-71.
- Chen S, Sun Y, Agrawal DK. Vitamin D deficiency and essential hypertension. J Am Soc Hypertens. 2015;9(11):885:901.
- 31. Wu HX, Xiong XF, Zhu M, et al. Effects of vitamin D supplementation on the outcomes of patients with pulmonary tuberculosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC Pulm Med. 2018;18(1):108.

- 32. Cannell JJ, Vieth R, Umhau JC, et al. Epidemic influenza and vitamin D. Epidemiol Infect. 2006;134(6):1129-40.
- 33. Mathyssen C, Gayan-Ramirez G, Bouillon R, et al. Vitamin D supplementation in respiratory diseases: evidence from randomized controlled trials. Pol Arch Intern Med. 2017;127(11)775-784.
- Adams JS, Ren S, Liu PT, et al. Vitamin ddirected rheostatic regulation of monocyte antibacterial responses. J Immunol. 2009;182(7):4289-95.
- 35. Chen G, Wu D, Guo W, et al. Clinical and immunological features of severe and moderate coronavirus disease 2019. J Clin Invest. 2020;130(5):2620-2629.
- Cantorna MT, Snyder L, Lin YD, et al. Vitamin D and 1,25(OH)2D regulation of T cells. Nutrients. 2015;7(4):3011-21.
- Lai C-C, Shih T-P, Ko W-C, et al. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and coronavirus disease-2019 (COVID-19): The epidemic and the challenges. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2020;55(3):105924.
- 38. Gorman S, Tan DHW, Lambert MJM, et al. Vitamin D(3) deficiency enhances allergeninduced lymphocyte responses in a mouse model of allergic airway disease. Pediatr Allergy Immunol. 2012;23(1):83-7.
- Abhimanyu, Coussens AK. The role of UV radiation and vitamin D in the seasonality and outcomes of infectious disease. Photochem Photobiol Sci. 2017;16(3):314-338.
- 40. Lang PO, Aspinall R. Vitamin D status and the host resistance to infections: what it is currently (not) understood. Clin Ther. 2017;39(5):930-945.
- 41. Gruber-Bzura BM. Vitamin D and Influenza-Prevention or Therapy? Int J Mol Sci. 2018;19(8):2419.
- 42. Gombart AF, Pierre A, Maggini S. A review of micronutrients and the immune systemworking in harmony to reduce the risk of infection. Nutrients. 2020;12(1):236.
- 43. Rondanelli M, Miccono A, Lamburghini S, et al. Self-care for common colds: The pivotal role of vitamin d, vitamin C, Zinc, and Echinacea in three main immune interactive

clusters (physical barriers, innate and adaptive immunity) involved during an episode of common colds-practical advice on dosages and on the time to take these nutrients/botanicals in order to prevent or treat common colds. Evid Based Complement Alternat Med. 2018;2018:5813095.

- 44. 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(4):988.
- 45. Tian Y, Rong L. Letter: Covid-19, and vitamin D. Authors' reply. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2020;51(10):995-996.
- 46. Tsujino I, Ushikoshi-Nakayama R, Yamazaki T, et al. Pulmonary activation of vitamin D3 and preventive effect against interstitial pneumonia. J Clin Biochem Nutr. 2019;65(3):245-251.
- 47. Zdrenghea MT, Makrinioti H, Bagacean C, et al. Vitamin D modulation of innate immune responses to respiratory viral infections. Rev Med Virol. 2017;27(1):e1909.
- Shi Y, Liu T, Yao L, et al. Chronic vitamin D deficiency induces lung fibrosis through activation of the renin-angiotensin system. Sci Rep. 2017;7(1):3312.

To access the full-text version of this article, please scan the QR code:

