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1 **Relevance of SARS-CoV-2 related factors ACE2 and TMPRSS2 expressions in**
2 **gastrointestinal tissue with pathogenesis of digestive symptoms, diabetes-associated**
3 **mortality, and disease recurrence in COVID-19 patients**

4 **Short title: Relevance of ACE2 and TMPRSS2 gastrointestinal expressions in COVID-**
5 **19 pathogenesis**

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43

44 **Abstract**

45 **Introduction**

46 COVID-19 is caused by a new strain of coronavirus called SARS-coronavirus-2 (SARS-
47 CoV-2), which is a positive sense single strand RNA virus. In humans, it binds to angiotensin
48 converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) with the help a structural protein on its surface called the S-
49 spike. Further, cleavage of the viral spike protein (S) by the proteases like transmembrane
50 serine protease 2 (TMPRSS2) or Cathepsin L (CTSL) is essential to effectuate host cell
51 membrane fusion and virus infectivity. COVID-19 poses intriguing issues with imperative
52 relevance to clinicians. The pathogenesis of GI symptoms, diabetes-associated mortality, and
53 disease recurrence in COVID-19 are of particular relevance because they cannot be
54 sufficiently explained from the existing knowledge of the viral diseases. Tissue specific
55 variations of SARS-CoV-2 cell entry related receptors expression in healthy individuals can
56 help in understanding the pathophysiological basis the aforementioned collection of
57 symptoms.

58 **Materials and Methods**

59 The data were downloaded from the Human Protein Atlas available at
60 (<https://www.proteinatlas.org/humanproteome/sars-cov-2>) and the tissue specific expressions
61 (both mRNA and protein) of ACE2 and TMPRSS2 as yielded from the studies with RNA
62 sequencing and immunohistochemistry (IHC) were analyzed as a function of the various
63 components of the digestive tract. A digestive system specific functional enrichment map of
64 ACE2 gene was created using g:profiler (<https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/gost>) utility and the
65 data were visualized using Cytoscape software, version 3.7.2 (<https://cytoscape.org/>).

66 **Results**

67 The correlated expression (transcriptomic and proteomic) of ACE2 (to which SARS-CoV-2
68 binds through the S-spike) was found to be enriched in the lower gastrointestinal tract (GIT)
69 (highest in small intestine, followed by colon and rectum), and was undetectable in the upper
70 GIT components: mouth cavity (tongue, oral mucosa, and salivary glands), esophagus, and
71 stomach. High expression of ACE2 was noted in the glandular cells as well as in the
72 enterocytes in the lining epithelium (including brush border epithelium). Among other
73 digestive system organs, Gall bladder (GB) showed high expression of ACE2 in glandular
74 cells, while any protein expression was undetectable in liver and pancreas. TMPRSS2 was
75 found enhanced in GIT and exocrine glands of pancreas, and co-localized with ACE2 in
76 enterocytes.

77 **Conclusions**

78 Based on the findings of this study and supportive evidence from the literature we propose
79 that a SARS-CoV-2 binding with ACE2 mediates dysregulation of the sodium dependent
80 nutrient transporters and hence may be a plausible basis for the digestive symptoms in
81 COVID-19 patients. ACE2 mediated dysregulation of sodium dependent glucose transporter
82 (SGLT1 or SLC5A1) in the intestinal epithelium also links it to the pathogenesis of diabetes
83 mellitus which can be a possible reason for the associated mortality in COVID-19 patients
84 with diabetes. High expression of ACE2 in mucosal cells of the intestine and GB make these
85 organs potential sites for the virus entry and replication. Continued replication of the virus at

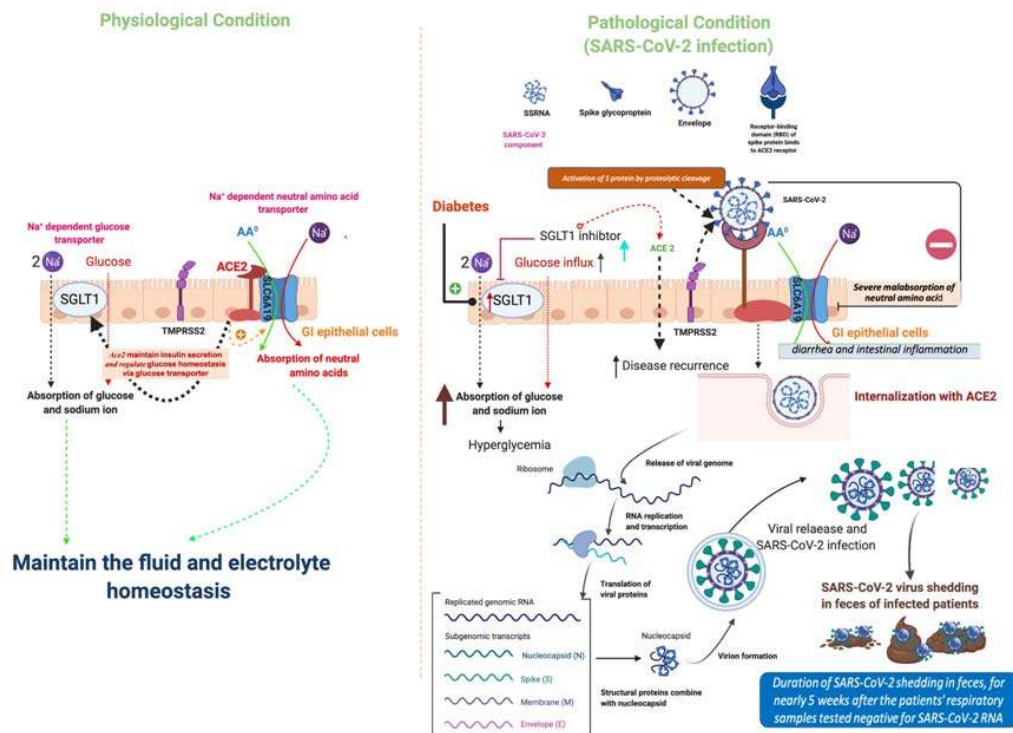
86 these ACE2 enriched sites may be a basis for the disease recurrence reported in some,
87 thought to be cured, patients.

88 **Keywords:** SARS-CoV2, digestive symptoms, recurrence, amino acid
89 transporter, glucose transporter

90

91 Graphical Abstract

92



93

94

95 Introduction

96 The world is currently reeling in an alarming outbreak of novel coronavirus disease 2019
97 referred to as COVID-19. COVID-19 is caused by a new coronavirus strain severe acute
98 respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS CoV-2)—a positive sense single strand RNA
99 virus. Recent studies which decoded structure of the virus showed binding of its S-spike
100 protein to a human protein- angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) (1-3). Following ACE2
101 binding, cleavage of the viral spike protein (S) by the serine proteases like transmembrane
102 serine protease 2 (TMPRSS2) or Cathepsin L (CTSL) is essential to effectuate host cell
103 membrane fusion and virus infectivity (4). Clinical presentation in COVID-19 patients is
104 highly diverse and majority of them primarily presents with pulmonary symptoms (cough,
105 fever, shortness of breath) (5). In addition, some of the patients present with digestive
106 symptoms like diarrhea, nausea, vomiting and abdominal pain (data ranges from 3.8% to
107 50.5%) (6). Digestive symptoms have been the only presentations in some of the patients
108 (8,9). Digestive symptoms are not unique to the COVID-19 and usually present in the
109 gastroenteritis caused by many other respiratory syndrome viruses like SARS-CoV-1 and
110 influenza A and B (10,11). However, how SARS-CoV-2 makes entry into the gastrointestinal
111 (GI) tissue leading to gastroenteritis-like features, does not imbibe sufficient and coherent
112 explanation in the light of the existing literature. Some investigators have speculated a fecal-
113 oral route of transmission based on fecal shedding of viral proteins and infectious virus in
114 some COVID-19 patients (12,13).

115 Knowing the expression pattern of ACE2 and one of the proteases, TMPRSS2 in
116 gastrointestinal tract (GIT) may explicate the pathogenesis of digestive symptoms in COVID-
117 19. Digestive juices and enzymes secreted from the liver, gall bladder (GB) and pancreas play
118 an important role in maintenance of the secretions and absorption of nutrients across
119 intestinal epithelium. Hence their possible dysfunction in COVID-19 patients needs to be
120 examined in order to understand pathogenesis of the digestive symptoms which, in turn,
121 prevent some COVID-19 associated mortality.

122 Existing literature on the role of ACE2 in regulation of the ion transporters which maintain
123 secretion/absorption across intestinal epithelium provide a clue that digestive symptoms in
124 COVID-19 may have an ACE2 based etiogenesis (11,14-16). Investigating the ACE2
125 expression pattern of digestive system components may also help to explain exacerbated
126 diabetic complications and mortality in COVID-19 patients. Diabetes has been noted as a co-
127 morbidity (16.2%) in COVID-19 and has contributed to increased mortality (22%) (17)
128 Existing literature implicates ACE2 mediated dysregulation of sodium dependent glucose
129 transporter (SGLT1 or SLC5A1) at intestinal epithelium in the pathogenesis of the diabetes
130 mellitus (18,19).

131 In this study, we aim at examining the plausibility (based on the tissue specific expression of
132 ACE2) whether any of the digestive system components can be involved in the continued
133 replication of the SARS-CoV-2 after pulmonary symptoms are relieved. Many incidences of
134 disease recurrence have been reported in COVID-19 patients even after being discharged
135 from the hospital. Studies have reported continued shedding of SARS-CoV-2 in the feces of
136 COVID-19 patients up to five weeks after disappearance of the pulmonary symptoms
137 bolstering the indication that a residual persisting of virus inside the digestive system
138 components may be a reason for the disease recurrence (20).

139 We aimed to validate transcriptomic and proteomic expression of ACE2 and TMPRSS2 in
140 the components of human digestive system (including liver, GB, and pancreas) in tissues

141 derived from the healthy individuals to understand pathophysiological basis of the digestive
142 symptoms in COVID-19 patients.

143 **Materials and Methods**

144 We analyzed the tissue specific distribution of ACE2 and TMPRSS2 (mRNA and protein) in
145 digestive system components (GIT, liver & GB, and pancreas) using RNA sequencing and
146 immunohistochemistry (IHC) data available in Human Protein Atlas
147 (<https://www.proteinatlas.org/humanproteome/sars-cov-2>). A digestive system specific
148 functional enrichment map of ACE2 gene was constructed using g:profiler
149 (<https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/gost>) utility and viewed with Cytoscape software, version 3.7.2
150 (<https://cytoscape.org/>). Since no direct subject or patient data were used in this study,
151 clearance from the Institutional Ethics Committee was precluded.

152 **Human Protein Atlas methods**

153 Estimation of mRNA expression and localization of human proteins were performed by the
154 source laboratory using deep sequencing of RNA (RNA-seq) and IHC in normal tissue.

155 **IHC**

156 As described by the source labs, specimens containing normal tissue were collected and
157 sampled from anonymized paraffin embedded material of surgical specimens, in accordance
158 with approval from the local ethics committee. The specimens were derived from surgical
159 material, normal was defined by morphological parameters and absence of neoplasia. IHC
160 staining was performed using a standard protocol on normal tissue microarray
161 (https://www.proteinatlas.org/download/IHC_protocol.pdf). Antibodies against human ACE2
162 (HPA000288, CAB026174) and TMPRSS2 (HPA035787) were labeled with DAB (3, 3'-
163 diaminobenzidine) stain. Protein expression score was done based on the staining intensity
164 (negative, weak, moderate or strong) and fraction of stained cells (<25%, 25-75% or >75%).
165 For each protein, the IHC staining profile was matched with mRNA expression data and
166 gene/protein characterization data to yield an 'annotated protein expression' profile.

167 **Transcriptomics**

168 The Human Protein Atlas collects transcriptomic data from the three databases (HPA, GTEx
169 and FANTOM5). HPA RNAseq was performed on human tissue samples from healthy
170 individuals (Accession no: PRJEB4337, Ensembl: ENSG00000130234 (version 92.38). Total
171 RNA was extracted from the tissue samples using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden,
172 Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The extracted RNA samples were
173 analyzed using either an Experion automated electrophoresis system (Bio-Rad Laboratories,
174 Hercules, CA, USA) with the standard-sensitivity RNA chip or an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer
175 system (Agilent Biotechnologies, Palo Alto, USA) with the RNA 6000 Nano Labchip Kit.
176 Only samples of high-quality RNA (RNA Integrity Number 7.5) were used for the mRNA
177 sample preparation for sequencing. mRNA sequencing was performed on Illumina
178 HiSeq2000 and 2500 machines (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) using the standard Illumina
179 RNA-seq protocol with a read length of 2x100 bases. Transcript abundance estimation was
180 performed using Kallisto v0.43.1 (<https://pachterlab.github.io/kallisto/about>). The normalized
181 Tags Per Million (TPM) for each gene from the three databases were calculated and included
182 in the Human Protein Atlas. Each tissue was categorized for the intensity of gene expression
183 using a cutoff value of 1 NX as a limit for detection across all tissues. A tissue was
184 categorized (i) enriched if it had NX level at least four times higher than other tissues, (ii) low
185 specificity if $NX \geq 1$ in at least one tissue, (iii) Not detected if $NX < 1$ in all tissues. Further

186 details of the assays and annotation used by the Human Protein Atlas can be accessed at:
187 <https://www.proteinatlas.org/about/assays+annotation#ihk>.

188 **Gene enrichment analysis and visualization**

189 Functional enrichment analysis of the ACE2 gene was performed with g: profiler web server
190 (<https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/gost>) and p-value computed using a Fisher's exact test with
191 multiple-test correction. Enrichment map visualization was done with the help of Cytoscape
192 software, version 3.7.2 (<https://cytoscape.org/>).

193 **Results** (Fig. 1-3, S1-3, Table 1, S1-2)

194 The transcriptomic and proteomic expression of ACE2 displayed high enrichment in the
195 lower GIT (small intestine, colon, and rectum) (Fig. 1, 2e-h, Table 1). It was highest in the
196 parts of small intestine followed by the colon and the rectum, and nearly absent
197 (negligible/low mRNA expression and undetectable protein expression) in the upper GIT
198 components: mouth cavity (including tongue, oral mucosa, and salivary glands), esophagus,
199 and stomach (Fig. 1, 2a-d). GB showed high glandular expression of ACE2, while any
200 protein expression was undetectable in appendix, liver (hepatocytes and bile duct), and
201 pancreas (exocrine and endocrine glandular tissue) (though minimal mRNA expression was
202 noted) (Fig. 3). Intense ACE2 expression was noted in the glandular cells as well as in the
203 enterocytes in the lining epithelium of the lower GIT (Fig. 2e-h). The cellular expression of
204 ACE2 was visible in the enterocyte cytoplasm and in the apical brush border (Fig. 2e-h,
205 marked with arrow heads). The digestive system specific functional enrichment map for
206 ACE2 gene were related to digestive functions like enzyme activity, amino acids transport,
207 and peptide metabolism at the brush border membrane of enterocytes in the intestinal
208 epithelium (Fig. S1, Table S1). TMPRSS2 was found enhanced in GIT and exocrine glands
209 of pancreas (Fig. S2, Table S2) and found co-localized with ACE2 in enterocytes (Fig. S3).

210 **Discussion**

211 We found enriched transcriptomic and proteomic expression of SARS-CoV-2 binding
212 receptor ACE2 in lower GIT (small intestine, colon, and rectum) and GB (Fig. 1-3, Table 1).
213 The digestive system specific functional enrichment map of the ACE2 gene suggests its role
214 in regulating secretory/absorptive functions at the brush border membrane of the enterocytes
215 in the intestinal lining epithelium (Fig.S1, Table S1). The co-localized expression of SARS-
216 CoV-2 cell entry associated protease TMPRSS2 in the enterocytes make these cells potential
217 sites for viral infection (Fig. S2-3, Table S2).

218 ACE2 is a homologue of angiotensin-I converting enzyme (ACE), the key enzyme of the
219 renin-angiotensin system (RAS). It is an integral membrane protein and localizes
220 predominantly at the apical surface of polarized epithelial cells where it is proteolytically
221 cleaved within its ectodomain to release a soluble form (21,22). Currently, SARS-CoV-2
222 mediated binding of ACE2 and the following downstream events leading to tissue damage
223 are little known. Presumptive understanding of SARS-CoV-2 driven pathology is being
224 borrowed from SARS-CoV-1 which was the etiological basis of SARS pandemic in 2003.
225 Uniquely, it acted on the same receptor as SARS-CoV-2 and led to many clinical
226 manifestations similar to COVID-19 (23). Studies utilizing cell lines to decipher SARS
227 pathology in lung tissue showed that the spike protein of SARS-CoV-1 (SARS-S) induced
228 TNF α production which facilitated virus entry (24). TNF α also led to inflammation of the cell
229 membrane and consequently tissue damage (22-24). SARS-CoV-1 was also showed to cause
230 downregulation of ACE2 expression at the cell membrane level (22,25). Existing literature
231 regarding expression of ACE2 in human tissues are rare. Hamming et al, studied ACE2

232 protein expression in human tissues in reference to SARS-CoV-1 (26). Our findings for
233 ACE2 protein expression in digestive system components are in line with the findings of their
234 study (26). Recently, enriched expressions of ACE2 (and TMPRSS2) in enterocytes and
235 mucus producing cells were shown using single cell m-RNA expression studies (27,28).
236 Enriched expression of SARS-CoV-2 binding receptor ACE2 in the mucosal glands and
237 enterocytes (including brush border cells) in the lining epithelium (Fig. 2e-h, Table 1) of the
238 lower GIT indicates that GI cells are potential sites for virus replication. Evidence of the viral
239 shedding in the feces shown in some studies indicates possible replication of the virus inside
240 the GI cells which, in turn may explain GI manifestations of COVID-19 in addition to disease
241 recurrence (29,30). Recent *in situ* studies using recombinant strain of SARS-CoV-2 showed
242 that the virus can potentially infect and replicate in human intestinal tissue (31,32). Further,
243 GIT to pulmonary spread of SARS-CoV-2 infection has been indicated by a study by Sun *et*
244 *al* who showed in a transgenic mouse expressing human ACE2 that a direct intragastric
245 inoculation of SARS-CoV-2 can cause productive infection and lead to pulmonary
246 pathological changes (33).

247 How the virus reaches the GI is arguable? Some authors speculated a fecal-oral route of entry
248 (8). Shedding of infectious SARS-CoV-2 in feces was also detected in occasional COVID-19
249 patients (12,13). We examined possibility of this route of entry based on the expression
250 pattern of ACE2 along the length of the GIT (Fig. 1, 2, Table 1). Negligible or very low
251 mRNA expression and undetectable proteomic expression of ACE2 in the mouth cavity
252 (including tongue, oral mucosa, and salivary glands), esophagus, and stomach (Fig. 1, 2a-d,
253 Table 1) indicate these parts of GIT can be resistant for the virus entry. But this observation
254 does not negate a possible site of virus entry through the ACE2 receptors present in the lower
255 GIT in case of fecal-oral transmission. It is then intriguing that how SARS-CoV-2 survives
256 extremes of pH within the digestive system milieu (gastric-1.5 to 3.5, pancreatic-7.5, bile
257 acid-7-8) while passing along the length of GIT. Recently, Chin *et al.*, 2020 showed *in vitro*
258 that SARS-CoV-2 can survive at wide range of pH values at room temperature (pH3-10)
259 (34). This can be further explained by an earlier study by Hirose *et al.*, who, in an
260 experimental, model demonstrated that RNA viruses like influenza A and B (when
261 swallowed) can survive extremes of pH and maintain infectivity with help of the mucus cover
262 lining GIT allowing their safe passage and even excretion in feces (35). Mucus cells are
263 abundant all along the length of the GIT which can contribute to the carriage and survival of
264 SARS-CoV-2 thereby contributing to the so hypothesized fecal-oral transmission. This also
265 hints that shedding of the virus in feces always may not be indicative of its replication in GI
266 cells; all those patients who shed virus in stools don't necessarily present with digestive
267 symptoms (29).

268 Healthy intestinal mucosa may not be well conducive for the entry of the virus due to the
269 presence of unique multi-layer barrier system, though a prior inflammatory condition which
270 disrupts mucosal barrier may render the lower GI entry of the SARS-CoV-2 using ACE2
271 receptor and its replication inside tissue plausible (36). Inflammatory conditions in GIT
272 enhance the expression of ACE2 in the luminal epithelium which can provide additional
273 support for the entry of the virus (37). Once inside the GI cells, the virus can replicate there
274 and may orchestrate viral toxin mediated cell injury ensuing further inflammation, thereby,
275 giving rise to gastroenteritis like symptoms (diarrhea, nausea, and vomiting, abdominal pain)
276 (22,24,38). Other than the fecal-oral route, an alternative route of viral entry to the GI cells
277 may be through the tissue microvasculature. Though this may not be highly probable but this
278 premise does warrant consideration. In that case, fecal viral shedding can happen after
279 sloughing of the inflamed/necrosed intestinal mucosa. Currently, data is limited which

280 support presence of SARS-CoV-2 in the blood, however such evidence is available for other
281 coronaviruses infections like SARS and MERS (29,39-41).

282 ACE2 is known to regulate sodium-dependent amino acid and glucose transporters in the
283 enterocytes brush border which physiologically engage in the absorption of nutrients from the
284 digested food, and maintain osmotic and electrolyte balance across the GI lining epithelium
285 (11,14). In a recent study Yan et al., 2020 showed that SARS-CoV-2 can bind to the complex
286 of ACE2 with BOAT1(Slc6a19)—a major sodium dependent neutral amino acid transporter
287 present in the epithelial lining of human intestine (and also in kidneys) (1,42). The
288 dysregulation of the intestinal ion transporters has been implicated in the pathophysiology of
289 infectious diarrhea and malabsorption disorders (15,16). Literature also suggests that a
290 dysregulation of these transporters can ensue interleukin/cytokine mediated intestinal
291 inflammation and can give rise to digestive symptoms (14). An enhanced GI expression of
292 ACE2 is known in inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs) which present with similar symptoms
293 as in COVID-19 patients (14,43).

294 Based on the findings of this study and supportive evidence from the literature, we propose
295 that a virus binding-ACE2 mediated dysregulation of the sodium dependent nutrient
296 transporters may be a plausible basis for the digestive symptoms in COVID-19. Prior
297 intestinal inflammatory conditions like IBD may raise the susceptibility of SARS-CoV-2
298 infection through fecal-oral transmission. ACE2 mediated dysregulation of SGLT1 and/or
299 SLC5A1 at intestinal epithelium also links it to the pathogenesis of diabetes mellitus (18,19).
300 The SGLT1 transporters are physiologically involved in active absorption of glucose across
301 the intestinal epithelium and its virus binding receptor ACE2 mediated dysregulation may
302 exacerbate the existing impaired glycemic control in COVID-19 patients with diabetes
303 mellitus (19). (Sufficient data on glycemic control in COVID-19 patients is lacking for now,
304 impaired glycemic control was stated as an independent risk factor predicting morbidity and
305 mortality in SARS patients with diabetes mellitus (44).) ACE2 mediated downregulation of
306 SGLT1 in intestinal epithelium prevents hyperglycemia in rat models of the diabetes mellitus
307 (45,46). Though direct evidence is lacking in terms of the effect of SARS-CoV-2 binding on
308 ACE2 on its signaling cascades, however, substantiation from SARS-CoV-1 studies (for
309 SARS) suggests that it can downregulate ACE2 expression (25). Such an eventuality can lead
310 to upregulation of SGLT1 thereby precipitating hyperglycemia (45,46). (SGLT1 inhibitors
311 are being used in treatment of diabetes mellitus, their use in COVID-19 patients may need a
312 rethinking for the dose adjustments (47).)

313 Our data showed undetectable expression of ACE2 and TMPRSS2 proteins in insulin
314 producing Islets of Langerhans of the pancreas raising an insulin independent possibility of
315 dysregulated intestinal SGLT1 transporters. This bolsters the rationale behind diabetes related
316 increased morbidity/mortality in COVID-19 patients. Apart from intestine SGLT1 is known
317 to be widely expressed in other human tissues like proximal tubule of kidney, heart, and liver
318 (proteomicsatlas.org/ENSG00000100170-SLC5A1/tissue) where it regulates the glucose
319 absorption. An ACE2-mediated dysregulation of SGLT1 in COVID-19 patients warrants
320 further investigation.

321 High expression of ACE2 in glandular cells of the GB indicates that this also can be a
322 potential site for the virus replication. (Contrastingly, we found low m-RNA and undetectable
323 proteomic expression of TMPRSS2 in glandular cells of GB, however, robust expression of
324 another serine protease CTSL is noted in these cells in the records of Human Protein Atlas
325 (48), which may be able to substitute for TMPRSS2 (1)) GB has a luminal connection to the
326 duodenum through cystic and common bile duct (CBD). Though this connection is guarded

327 by a sphincter (of Oddi) present in duodenal mucosa, it doesn't create an anatomical barrier
328 and, therefore, a viral invasion along the mucosal epithelium remains a possibility.

329 GB is the physiological storage site for the bile secreted from the hepatocytes, and pathology
330 of this organ can also contribute to the digestive symptoms present in COVID-19 patients.
331 GB has been a known reservoir for *Salmonella typhi*, a bacterium causing enteric fever, and
332 one of the cited reasons for disease recurrence (49). The thick mucin secreted from its
333 glandular cells can provide a protective environment for survival of SARS-CoV-2 (as we
334 discussed above for GI lining epithelium) (35). Hence, GB homing may act as a mechanism
335 for the replication of the virus even without ensuing a local tissue injury.

336 Continued replication of the SARS-CoV-2 in the intestinal tissue, and possibly in GB, may be
337 a potential reason for the recurrence of SARS-CoV-2 in the light of the diagnostic tests as has
338 been noted in some COVID-19 patients after being discharged from the hospital (40,50). A
339 post-mortem study of these organs in COVID-19 patients may provide some confirmation in
340 this regard.

341 Based on the observed pattern of tissue specific expression of ACE2 (which binds to SARS-
342 CoV-2) in the components of the digestive system in normal individuals, we propose that an
343 ACE2 based mechanism may be involved in the pathogenesis of digestive symptoms,
344 increased diabetes-associated mortality risk, and disease recurrence in COVID-19.

345

346 **Limitations**

347 All the aspects of the plausible SARS-CoV-2 binding receptor ACE2 mediated pathology in
348 the digestive system which we have discussed above are based on the distribution of the virus
349 cell entry related factors in the normal tissue. Hence, this study presents indirect evidence
350 which needs to be validated in actual patients before reaching any conclusion.

351

352 **Future directions**

353 Further studies are advisable to understand the molecular mechanisms involved in the SARS-
354 CoV-2 binding receptor ACE2 mediated dysregulation of the intestinal nutrient transporters
355 and finding out COVID-19 specific drug targets. Inter-individual variations in frequency of
356 the digestive symptoms, diabetes associated mortality, and recurrences may depend upon the
357 genotype specific variations in ACE2 expression and other patient specific characteristics
358 (like age, sex, and comorbidity). A study of these variables in the disease pathogenesis may
359 help in deciding personalized therapeutic management for the COVID-19 cases.

360 **Conflict of Interest**

361 All the authors declare "No Conflict of Interest".

362 **Author Contributions**

363 AK conceived the idea. AK wrote the first draft. MAF, VP, KR, MK, CK, KK, PK, PP, HN,
364 RKN, SNP, RQ, and SK revised the draft. RKN, KR, PP, PK, and VP contributed to data
365 analysis, and prepared tables and figures.

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368 **Data Availability**

369 Data used for this study can be accessed at the following link:
370 <https://www.proteinatlas.org/about/download>

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373 availability of data in the public domain. This manuscript has been released as a pre-print at
374 BioRxiv [bioRxiv 2020.04.14.040204, Kumar A, et al. (51)].

375

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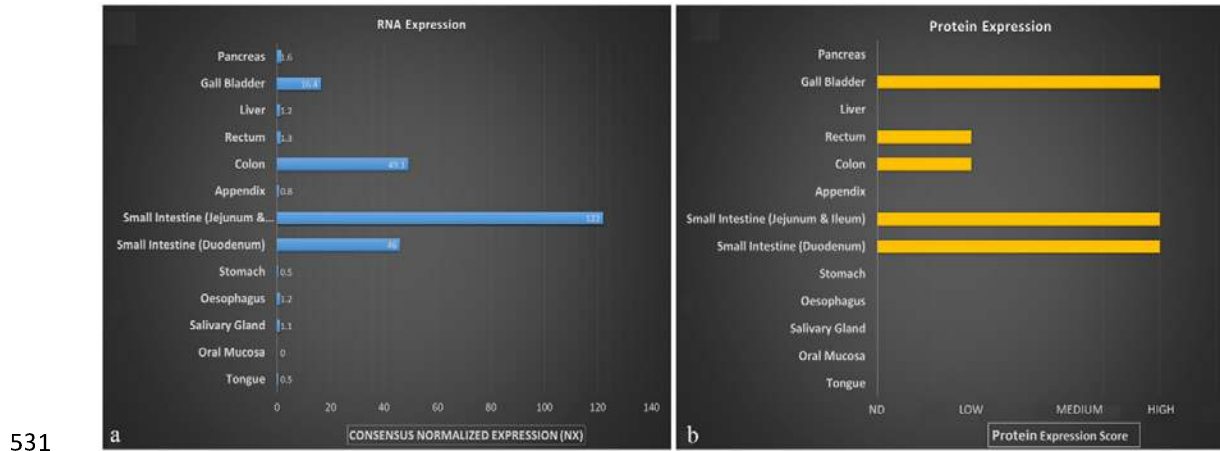
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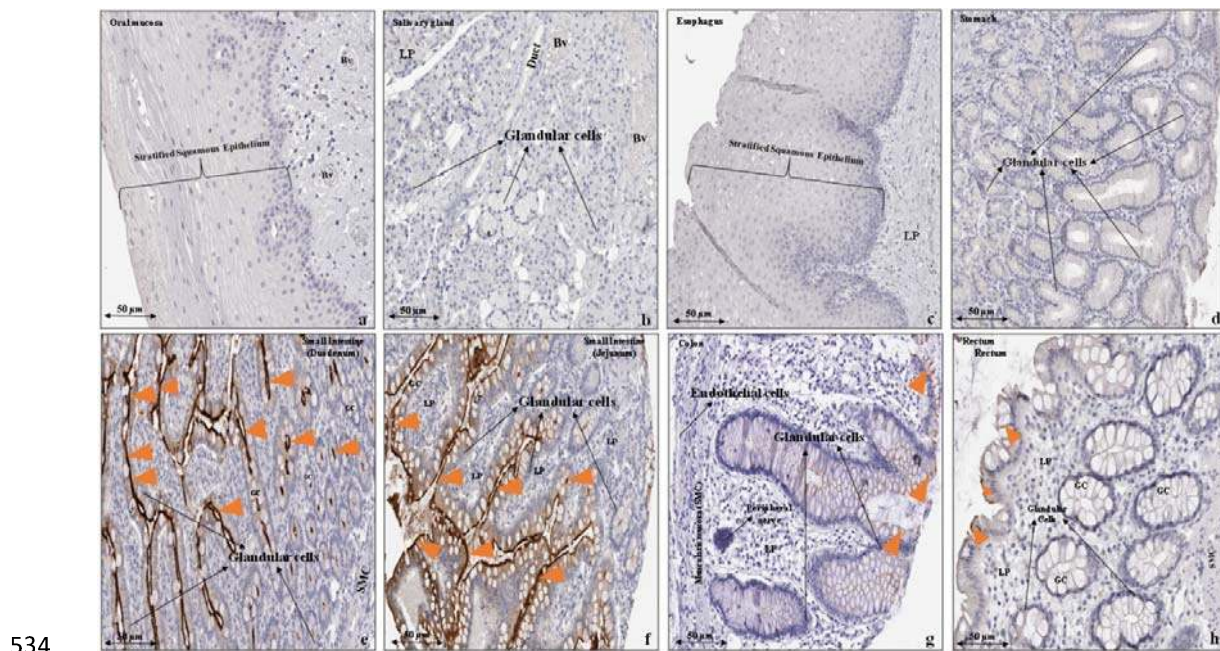
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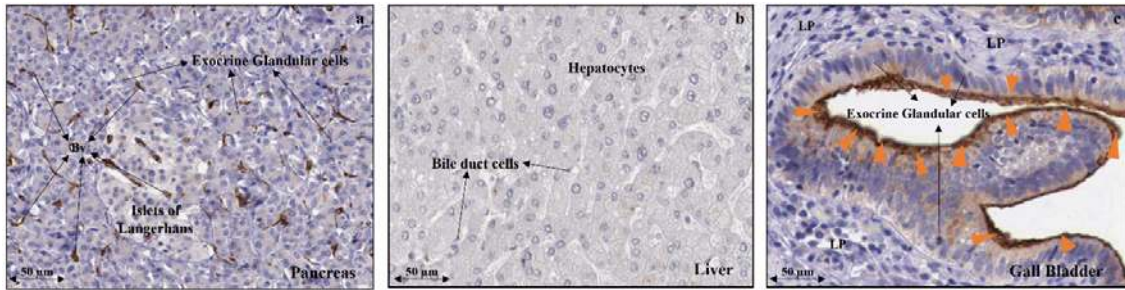
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530 **Figures and Tables**



532 **Figure 1 Physiological expression of SARS-CoV-2 binding receptor ACE2 in human digestive**
 533 **system a. mRNA b. Protein.** Data Source: The Human Protein Atlas.





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541 **Figure 3 Immunohistochemical expression of ACE2 protein in Human tissue a. Pancreas b.**

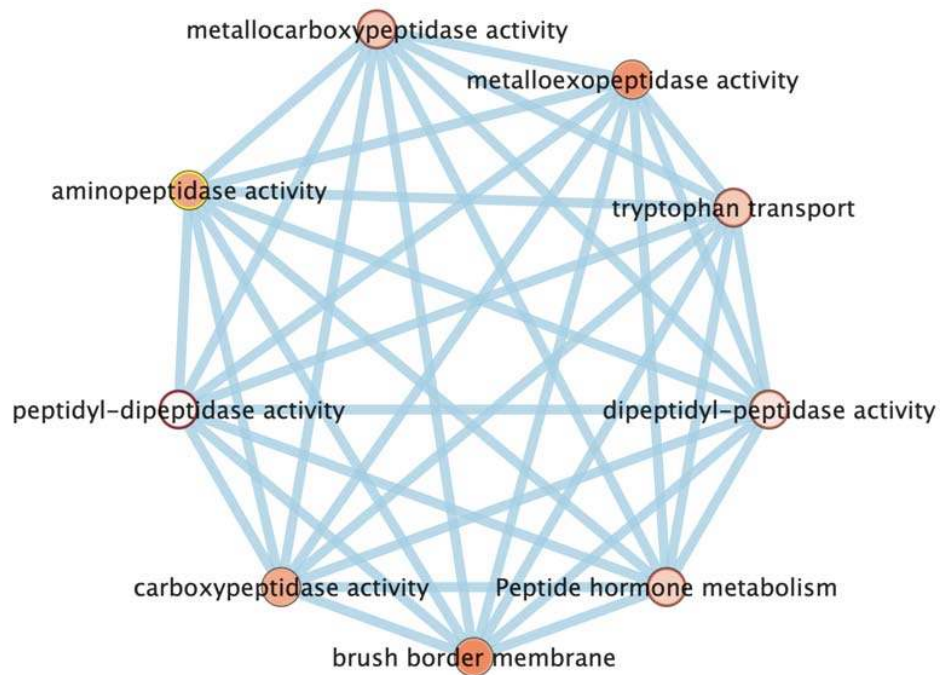
542 **Liver c. Gall bladder.** Orange arrow heads show antibody stained cells. (In pancreatic tissue blood

543 vessels (Bv) but not in the exocrine or endocrine glandular cells can be seen expressing ACE2.) Data

544 Source: The Human Protein Atlas. **Abbreviations:** Bv - Blood vessels, LP - Lamina propria, SMC -

545 Smooth muscle cells.

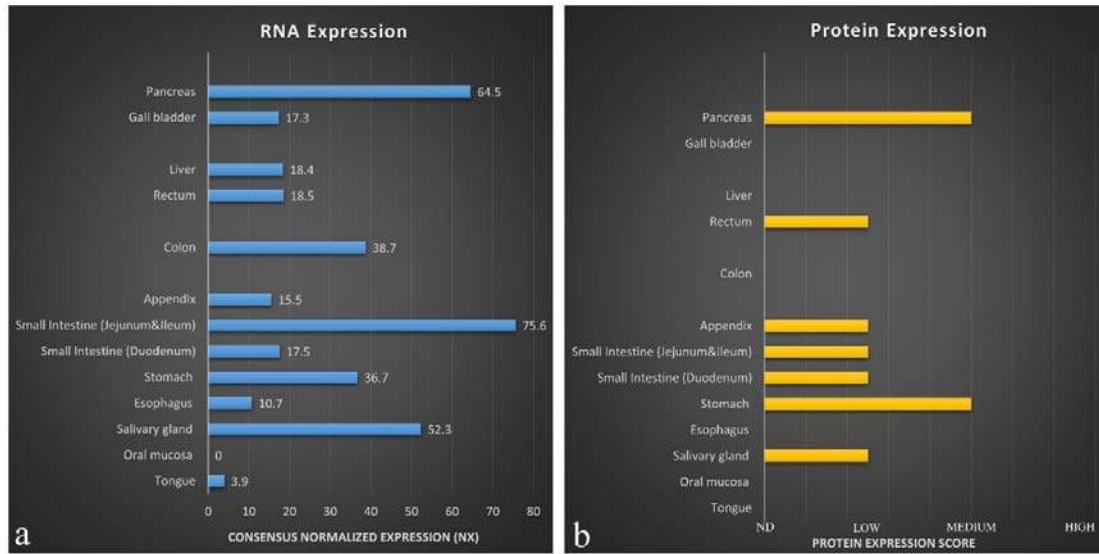
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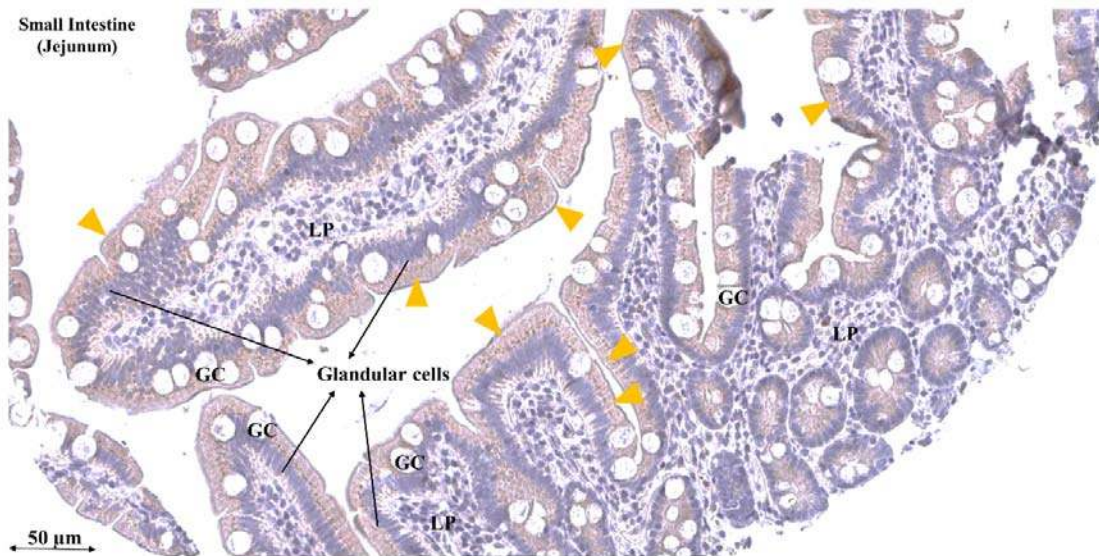
548 **Figure S1 ACE2 gene enrichment map for Digestive system functions.**

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550 **Figure S2 Physiological expression of SARS-CoV-2 cell entry associated protease TMPRSS2 in**
551 **human digestive system a. mRNA b. Protein.** Data Source: The Human Protein Atlas.

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554 **Figure S3 Immunohistochemical expression of TMPRSS2 protein in Small Intestine of human**
555 **gastrointestinal tract Orange arrow heads show antibody stained cells.** Data Source: The Human
556 Protein Atlas. **Abbreviations:** GC- goblet cells, LP - Lamina propria.

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559 Table 1 Physiological expression (mRNA and protein) of SARS-CoV-2 binding receptor
560 ACE2 in human digestive system.

Tissue	Cellular components	RNA Expression (NX)	Protein Expression
Tongue	Squamous epithelial cells	0.5	Not detected
Oral mucosa	Squamous epithelial cells	0	Not detected
Salivary gland	Glandular cells	1.1	Not detected
Esophagus	Squamous epithelial cells	1.2	Not detected
Stomach	Glandular cells	0.5	Not detected
Small Intestine (Duodenum)	Glandular cells	46.0	High
Small Intestine (Jejunum&Ileum)	Glandular cells	122.0	High
Appendix	Glandular cells	0.8	Not detected
	Lymphoid tissue		Not detected
Colon	Endothelial cells	49.1	Not detected
	Glandular cells		Low
	Peripheral nerve/ganglion		Not detected
Rectum	Glandular cells	1.3	Low
Liver	Bile duct cells	1.2	Not detected
	Hepatocytes		Not detected
Gall bladder	Glandular cells	16.4	High
Pancreas	Exocrine glandular cells	1.6	Not detected
	Islets of Langerhans		Not detected

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566 **Table S1 ACE2 gene enrichment for Digestive system functions.**

GO. ID	Description	P Value	FDR	Phenotype	Gene
GO:0008241	Peptidyl-dipeptidase activity	0.00397219	0.00397219	1	ACE2
GO:0008239	Dipeptidyl-peptidase activity	0.01853691	0.01853691	1	ACE2
GO:0004181	Metallocarboxypeptidase activity	0.03707382	0.03707382	1	ACE2
GO:0004180	Carboxypeptidase activity	0.06090698	0.06090698	1	ACE2
GO:0004177	Aminopeptidase activity	0.06487918	0.06487918	1	ACE2
GO:0008235	Metalloexopeptidase activity	0.07944389	0.07944389	1	ACE2
GO:0140272	Exogenous protein binding	0.10062893	0.10062893	1	ACE2
GO:0008238	Exopeptidase activity	0.1509434	0.1509434	1	ACE2
GO:0008237	Metallopeptidase activity	0.23965574	0.23965574	1	ACE2
GO:0004175	Endopeptidase activity	0.58126448	0.58126448	1	ACE2
GO:0070011	Peptidase activity, acting on L-amino acid peptides	0.8142999	0.8142999	1	ACE2
GO:0008233	Peptidase activity	0.84872559	0.84872559	1	ACE2
GO:0005515	Protein binding	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0140096	Catalytic activity, acting on a protein	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0015827	Tryptophan transport	0.03708254	0.03708254	1	ACE2
GO:0051957	Positive regulation of amino acid transport	0.17614208	0.17614208	1	ACE2
GO:0032800	Receptor biosynthetic process	0.24103652	0.24103652	1	ACE2
GO:0003081	Regulation of systemic arterial blood pressure by renin-angiotensin	0.2595778	0.2595778	1	ACE2
GO:0051955	Regulation of amino acid transport	0.30593097	0.30593097	1	ACE2
GO:0016486	Peptide hormone processing	0.32447224	0.32447224	1	ACE2
GO:1901890	Positive regulation of cell junction assembly	0.33374288	0.33374288	1	ACE2
GO:0032892	Positive regulation of organic acid transport	0.33374288	0.33374288	1	ACE2

GO:0051954	Positive regulation of amine transport	0.34301352	0.34301352	1	ACE2
GO:1903793	Positive regulation of anion transport	0.49134368	0.49134368	1	ACE2
GO:0051952	Regulation of amine transport	0.87143974	0.87143974	1	ACE2
GO:0044070	Regulation of anion transport	0.91779292	0.91779292	1	ACE2
GO:0019538	Protein metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0019222	Regulation of metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0015849	Organic acid transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0015711	Organic anion transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0010817	Regulation of hormone levels	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0009893	Positive regulation of metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0016485	Protein processing	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0032879	Regulation of localization	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0046942	Carboxylic acid transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0043270	Positive regulation of ion transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0043269	Regulation of ion transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0043170	Macromolecule metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0043112	Receptor metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0042445	Hormone metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0008152	Metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0001816	Cytokine production	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0001817	Regulation of cytokine production	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0006820	Anion transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0006812	Cation transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0006811	Ion transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0006807	Nitrogen compound metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0006518	Peptide metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2

GO:0006508	Proteolysis	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0071705	Nitrogen compound transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0071704	Organic substance metabolic process	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0071702	Organic substance transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0051604	Protein maturation	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0051050	Positive regulation of transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0051049	Regulation of transport	1	1	1	ACE2
GO:0031526	Brush border membrane	0.08612643	0.08612643	1	ACE2
GO:0005903	Brush border	0.16610098	0.16610098	1	ACE2
REAC:R-HSA-2980736	Peptide hormone metabolism	0.03360393	0.03360393	1	ACE2
REAC:R-HSA-392499	Metabolism of proteins	0.760808	0.760808	1	ACE2

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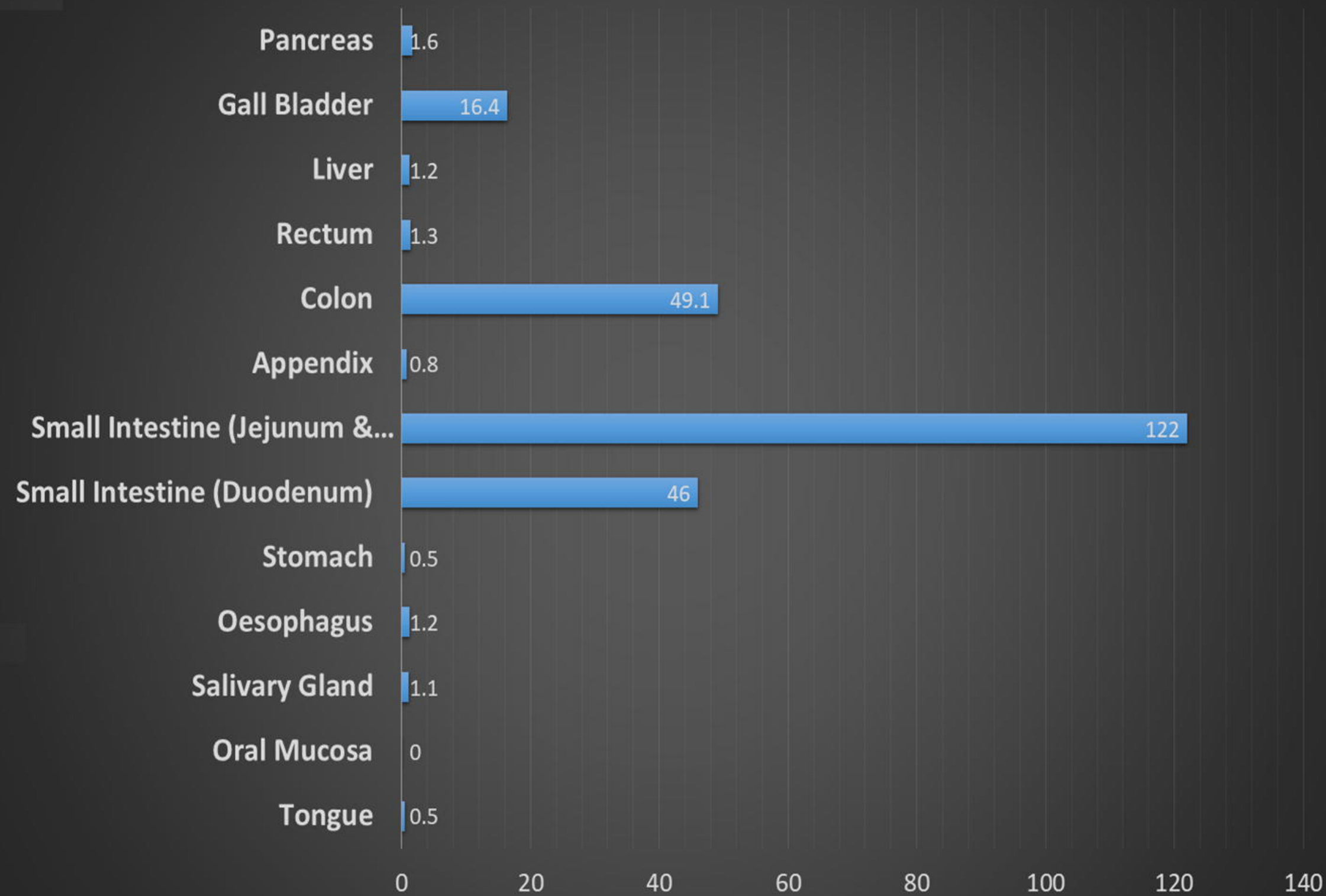
584 **Table S2 Physiological expression (mRNA and protein) of SARS-CoV-2 cell entry**
 585 **associated protease TMPRSS2 in human digestive system.**

586

Tissue	Cellular components	RNA Expression (NX)	Protein Expression
Tongue	Squamous epithelial cells	3.9	Not detected
Oral mucosa	Squamous epithelial cells	0	Not detected
Salivary gland	Glandular cells	52.3	Low
Esophagus	Squamous epithelial cells	10.7	Not detected
Stomach	Glandular cells	36.7	Medium
Small Intestine (Duodenum)	Glandular cells	17.5	Low
Small Intestine (Jejunum & Ileum)	Glandular cells	75.6	Low
Appendix	Glandular cells	15.5	Low
	Lymphoid Tissue		Not detected
Colon	Endothelia cells	38.7	Not detected
	Glandular cells		Not detected
Rectum	Glandular cells	18.5	Low
Liver	Bile duct cells	18.4	Not detected
	Hepatocytes		Not detected
Gall bladder	Glandular cells	17.3	Not detected
Pancreas	Exocrine glandular cells	64.5	Medium
	Islets of Langerhans		Not detected

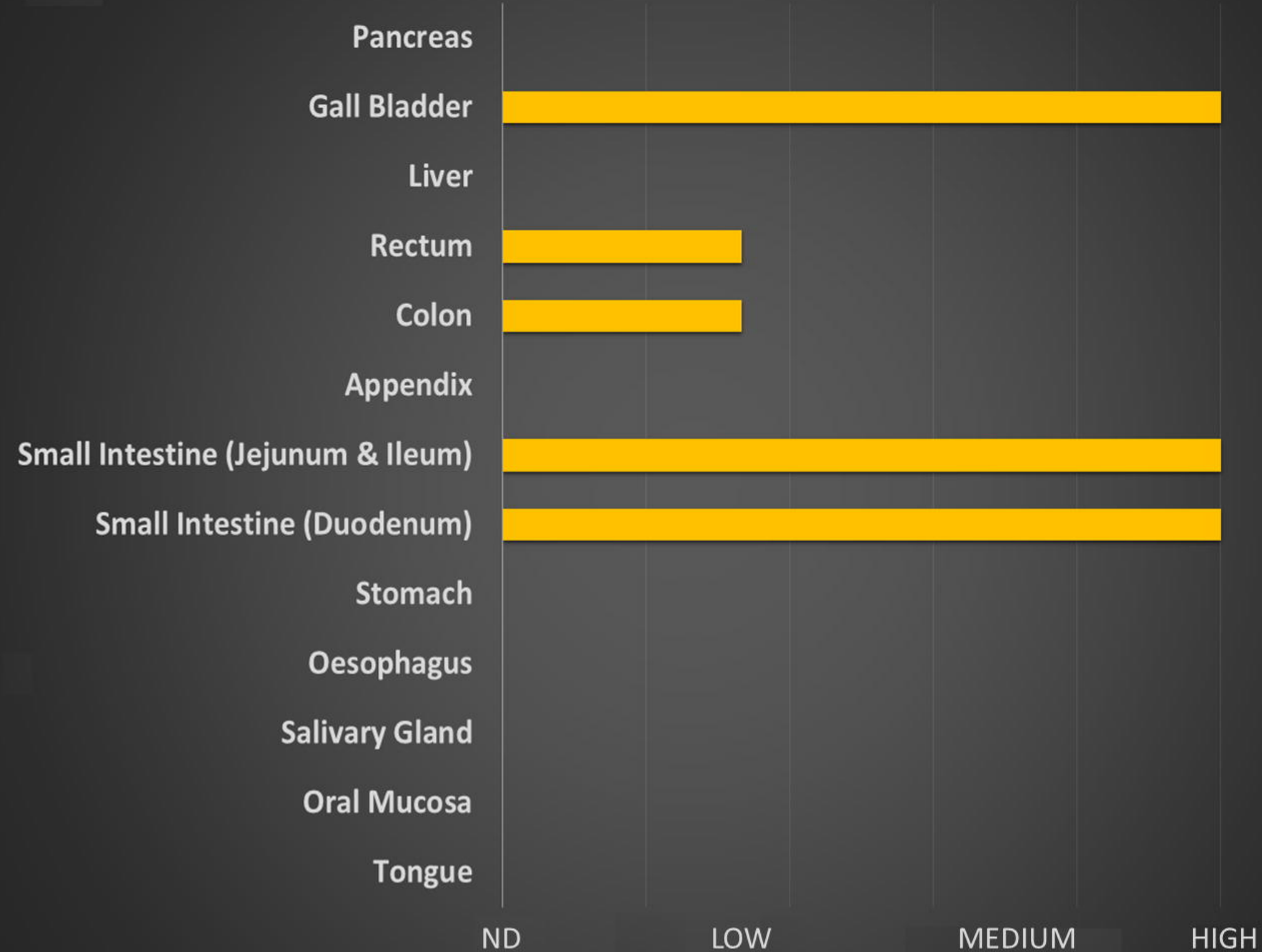
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RNA Expression



CONSENSUS NORMALIZED EXPRESSION (NX)

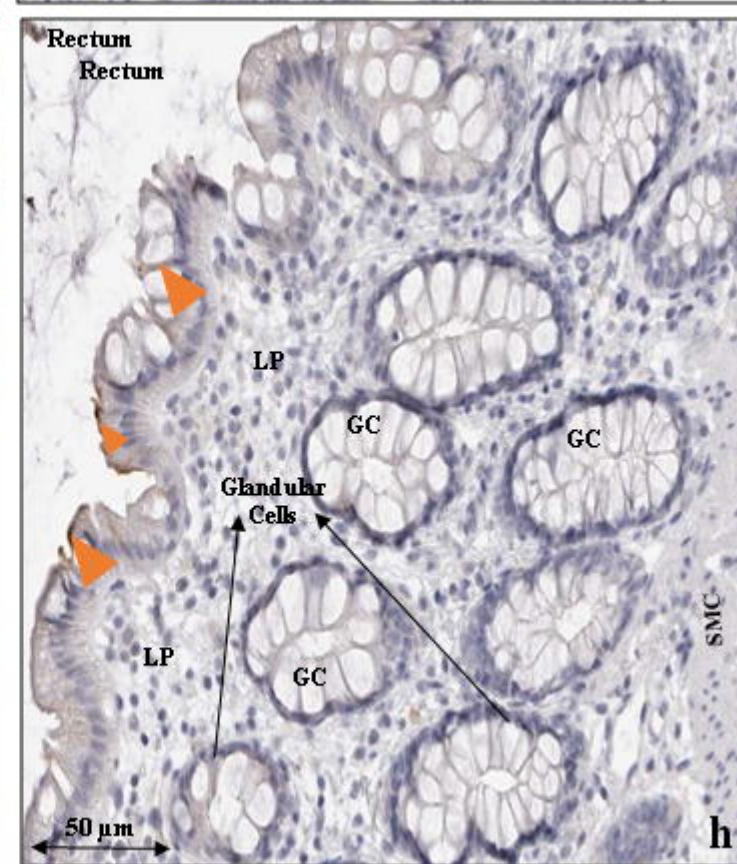
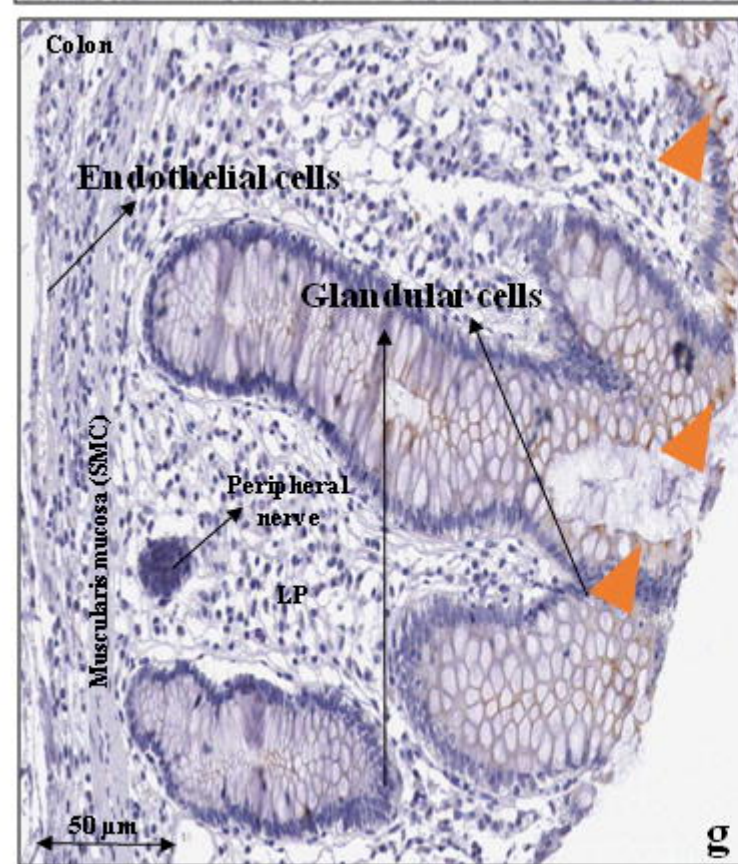
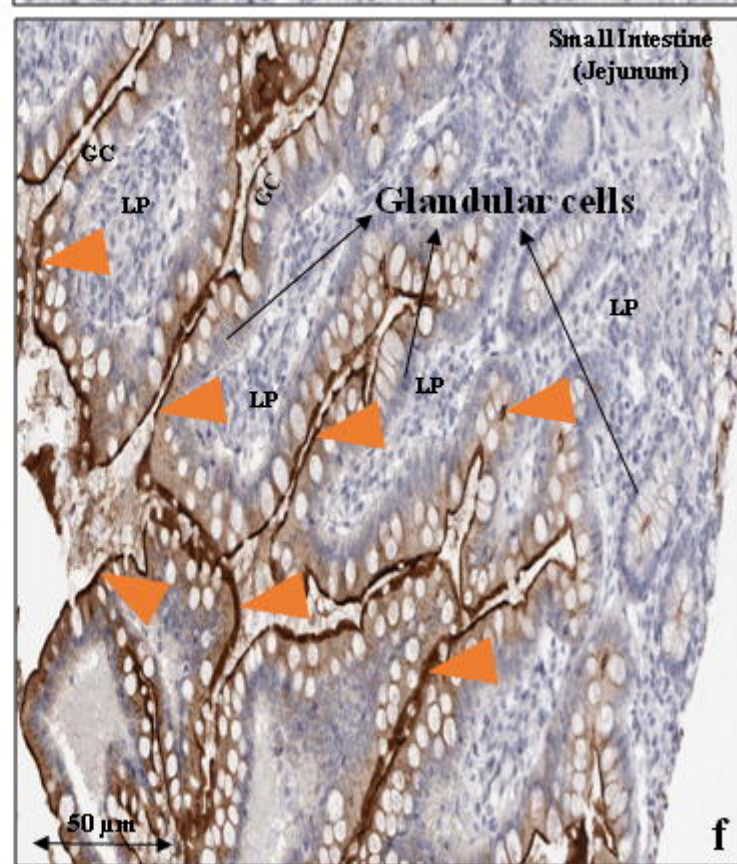
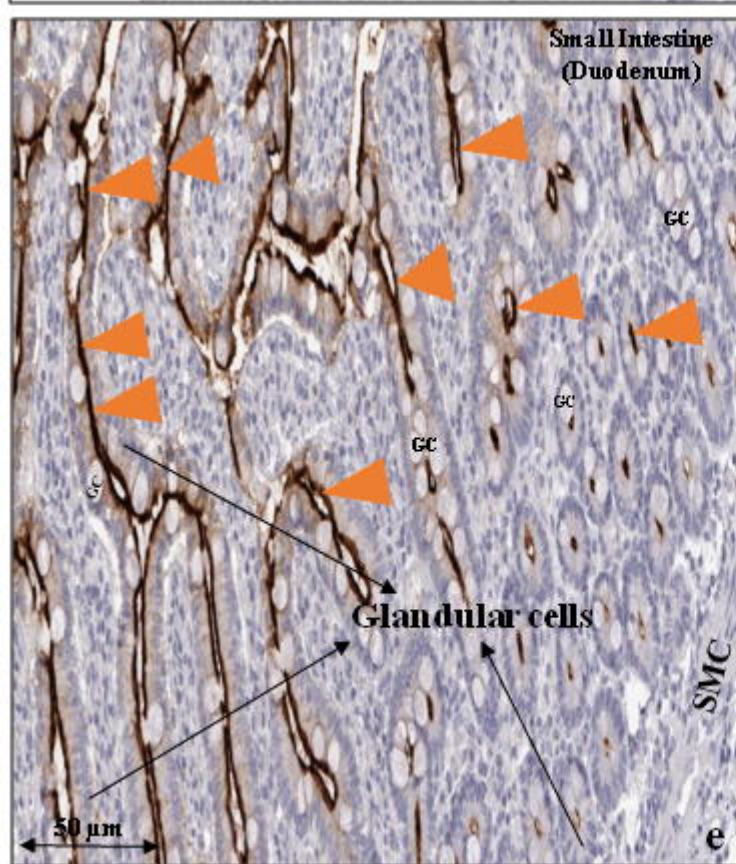
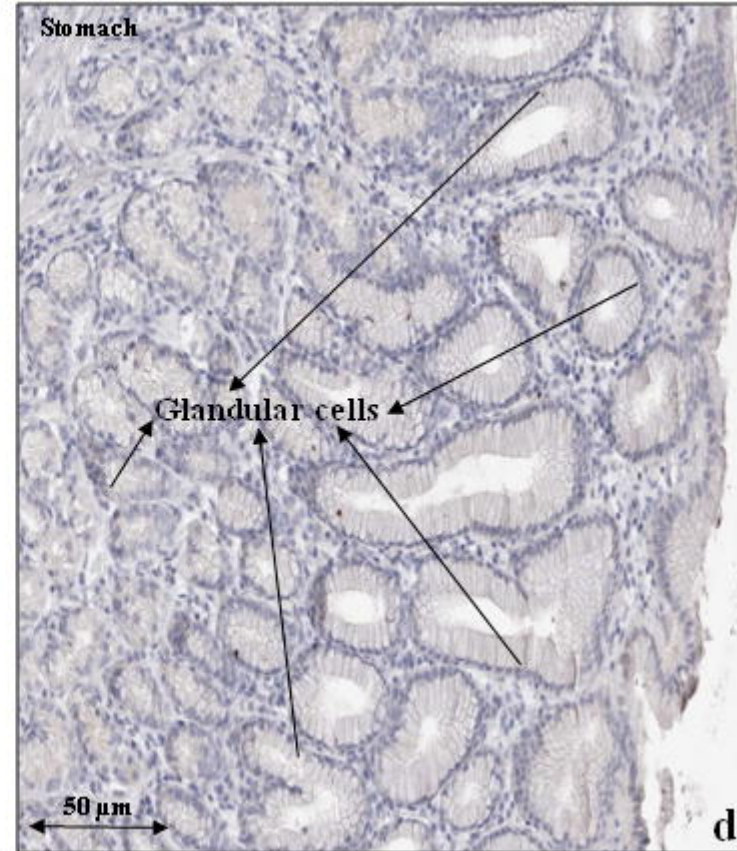
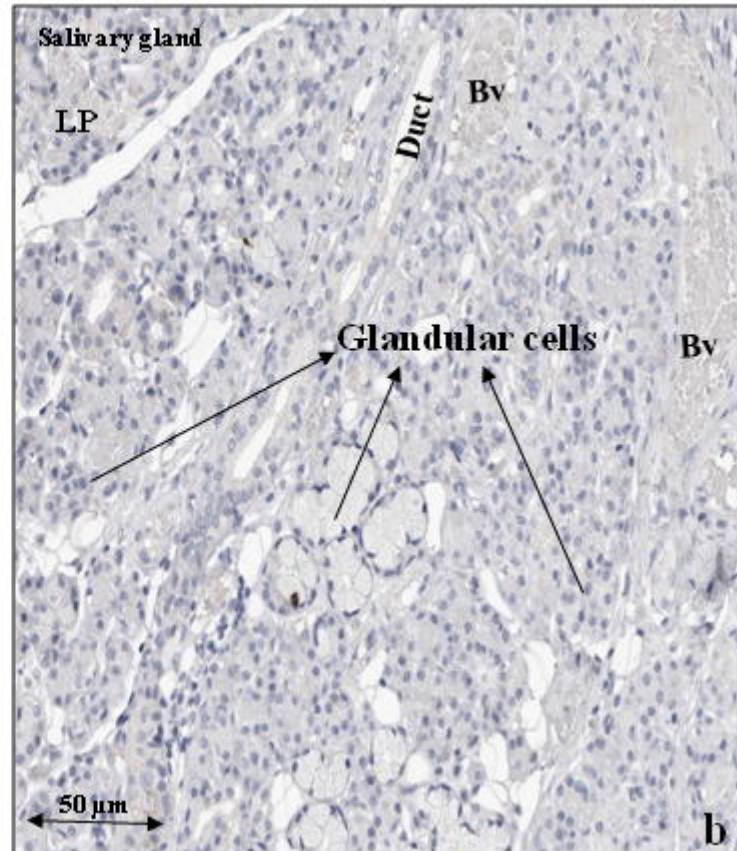
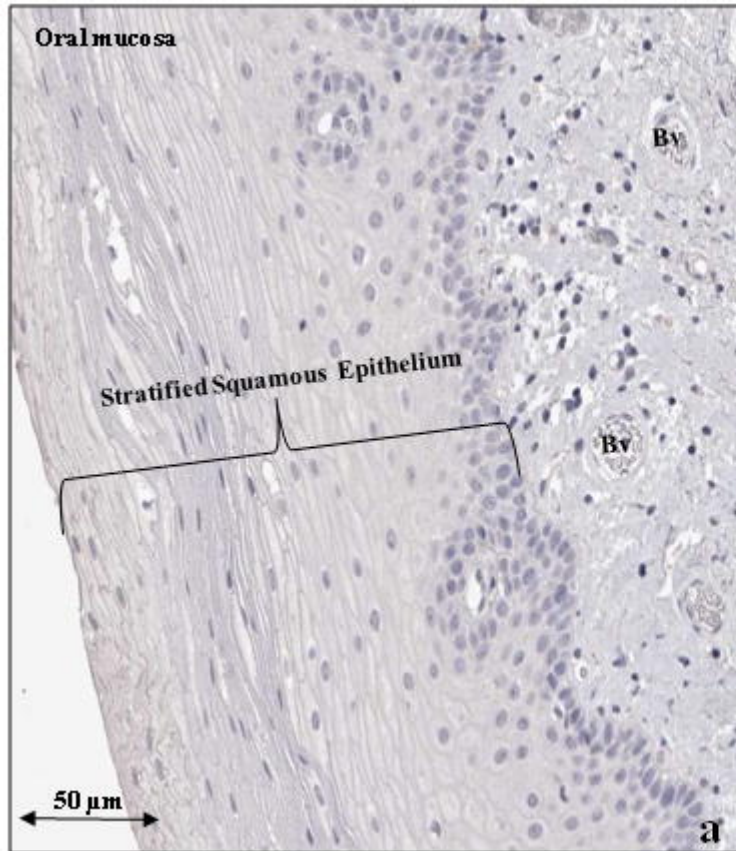
Protein Expression

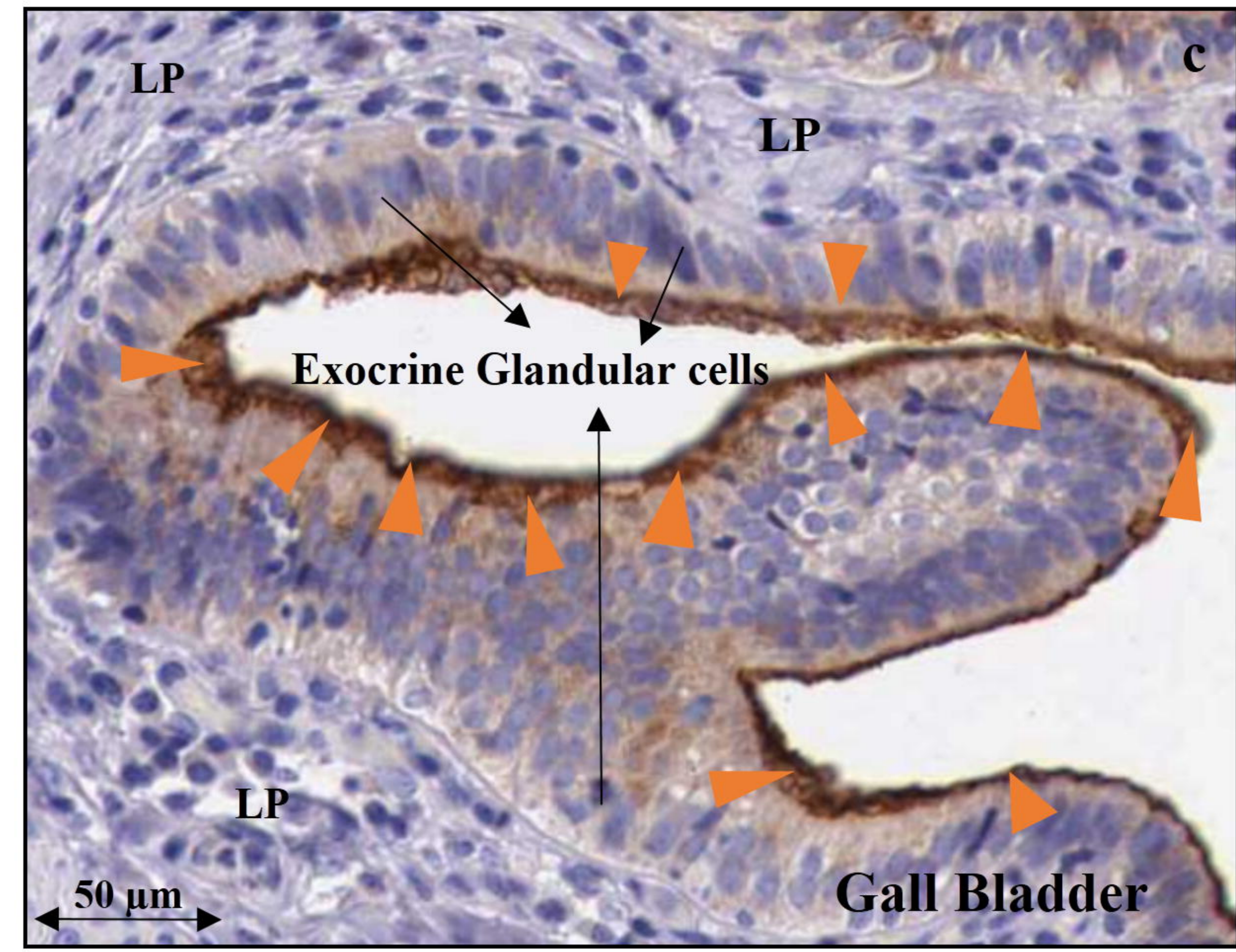
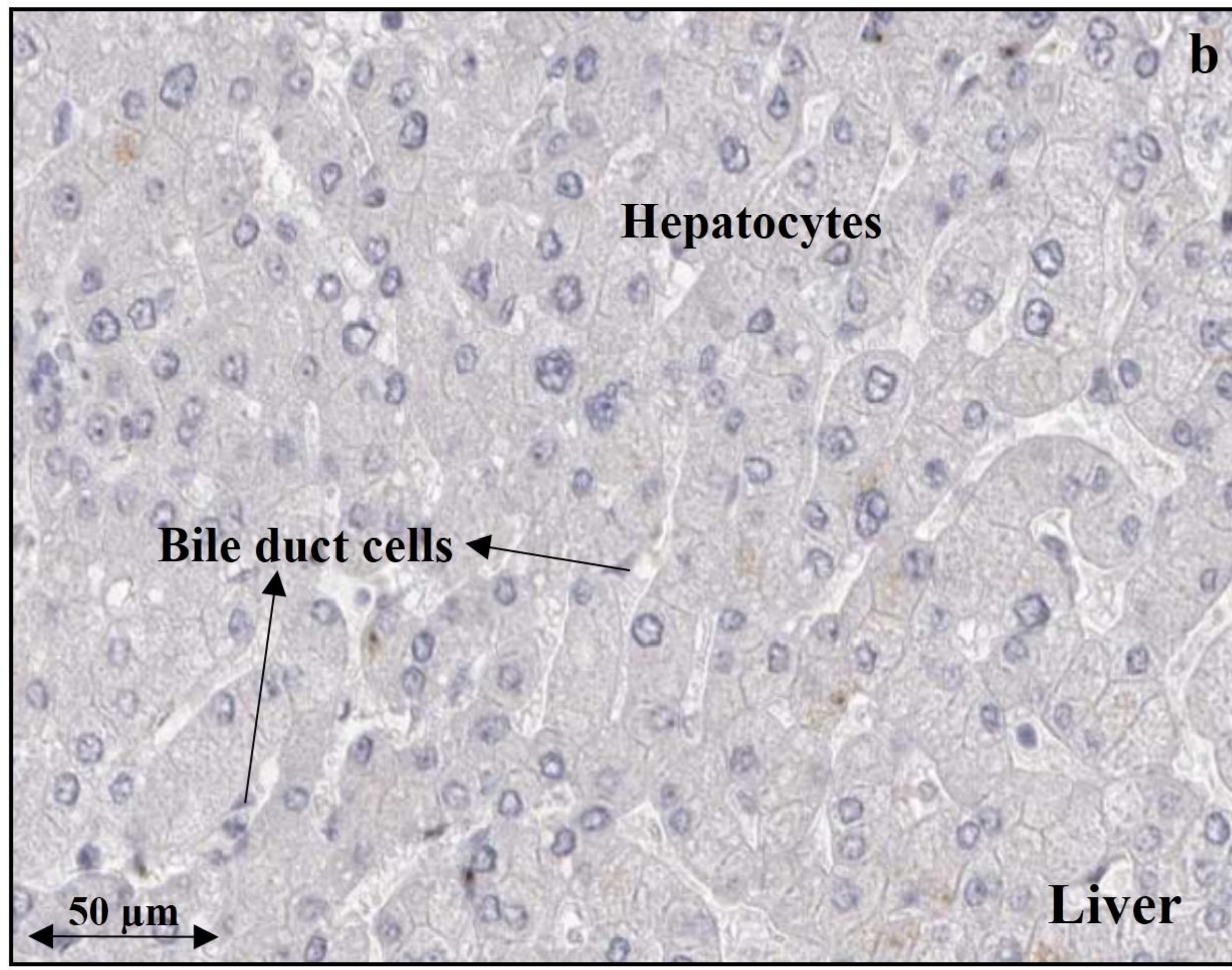
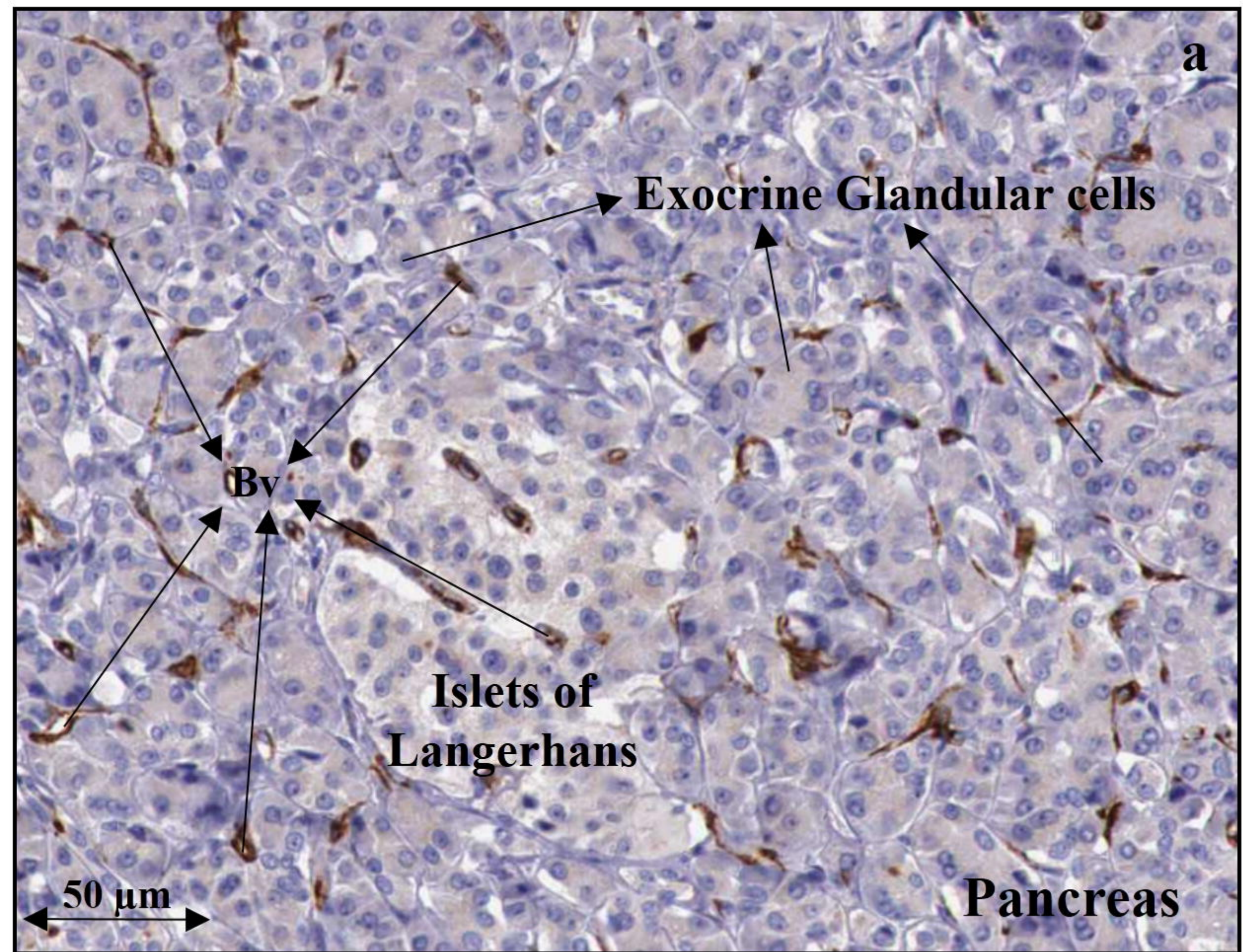


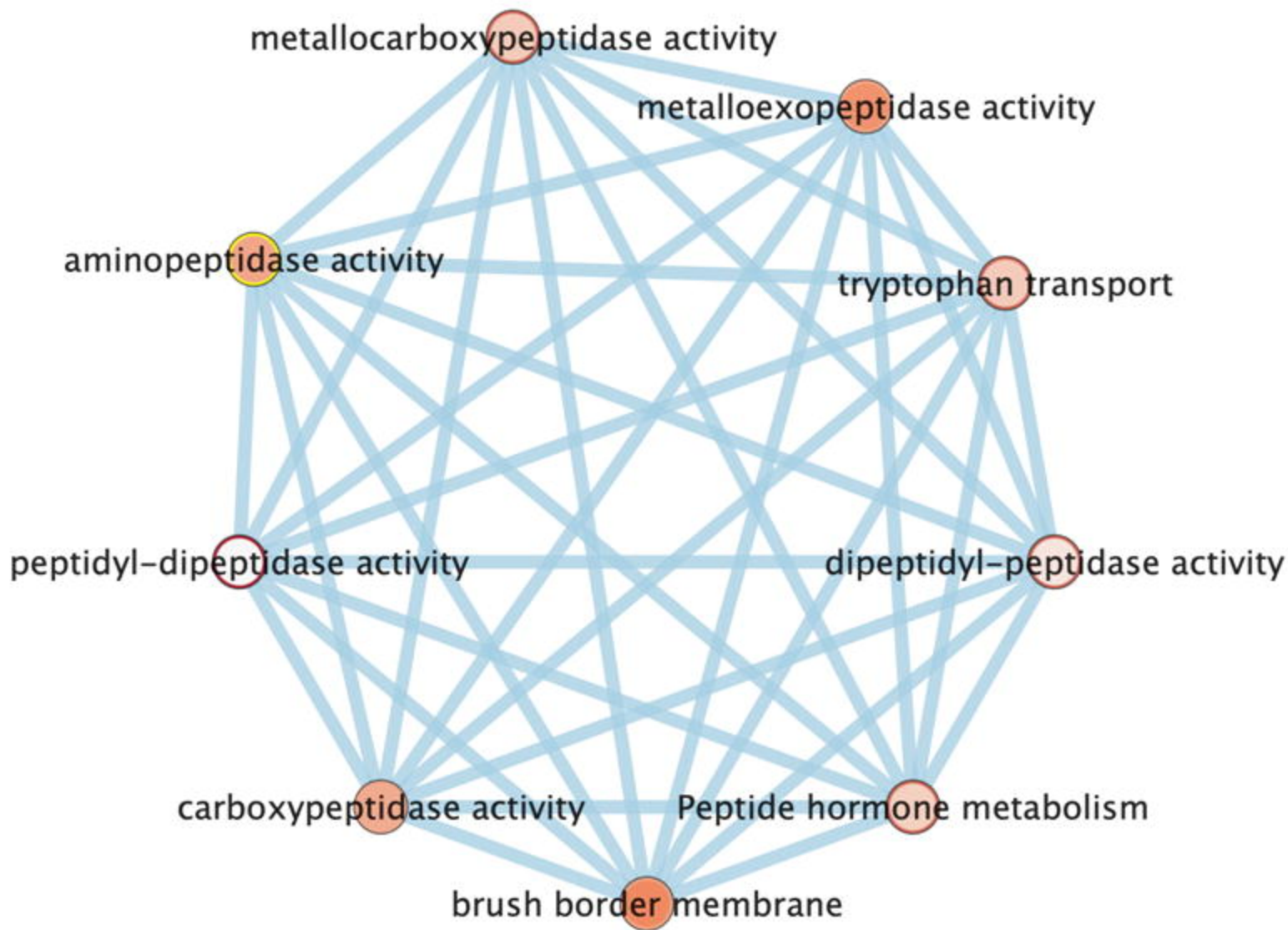
Protein Expression Score

a

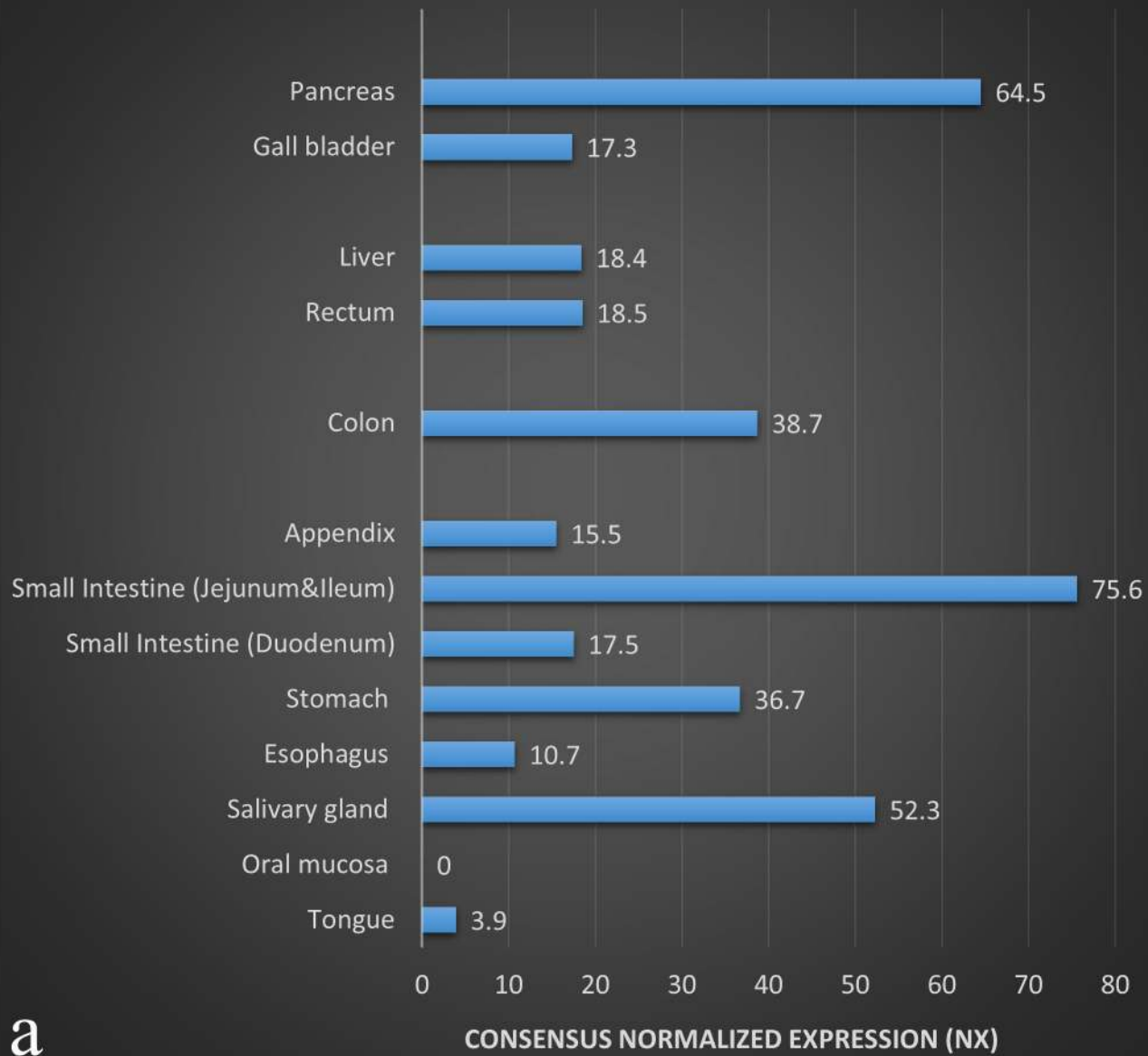
b





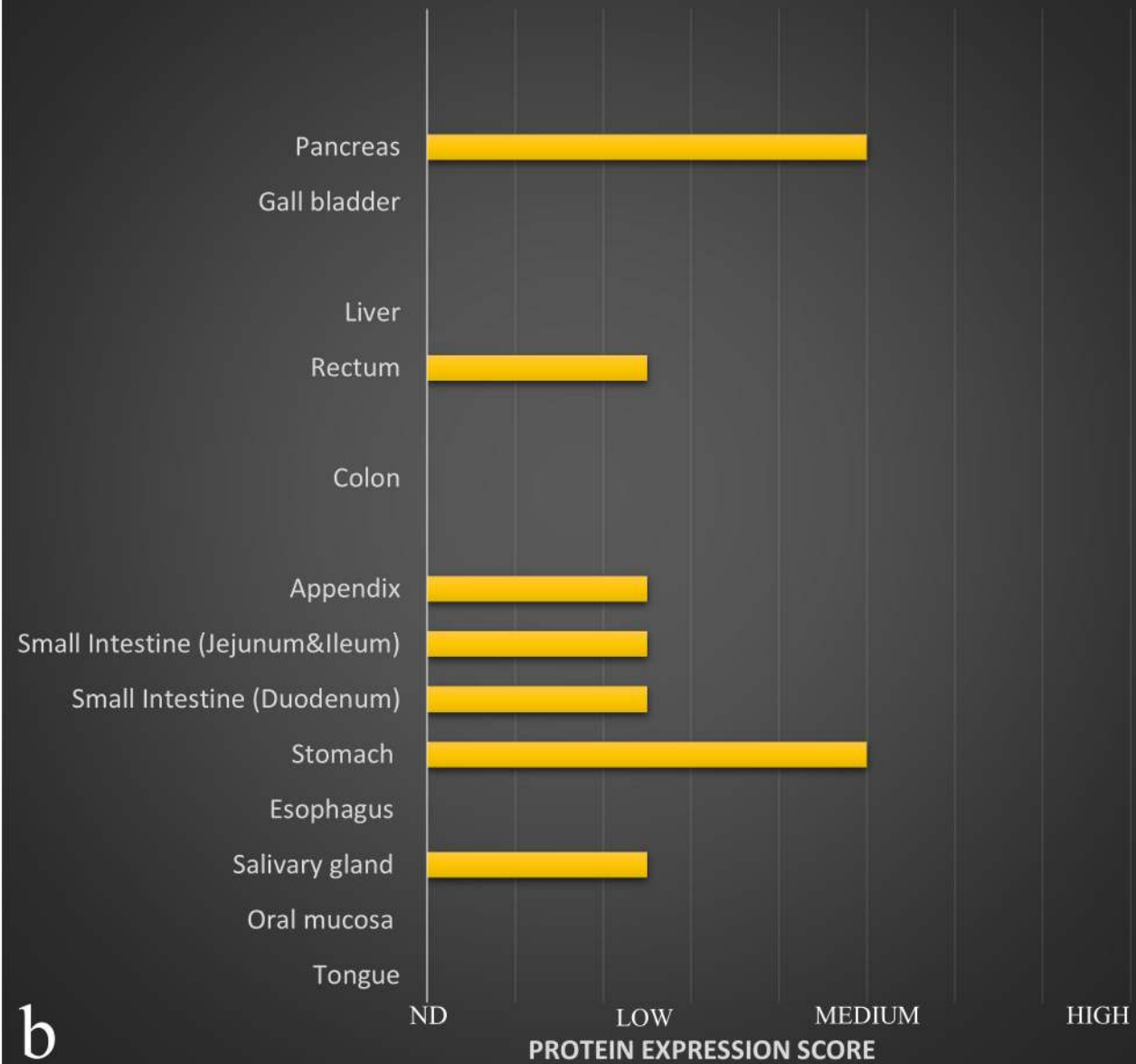


RNA Expression



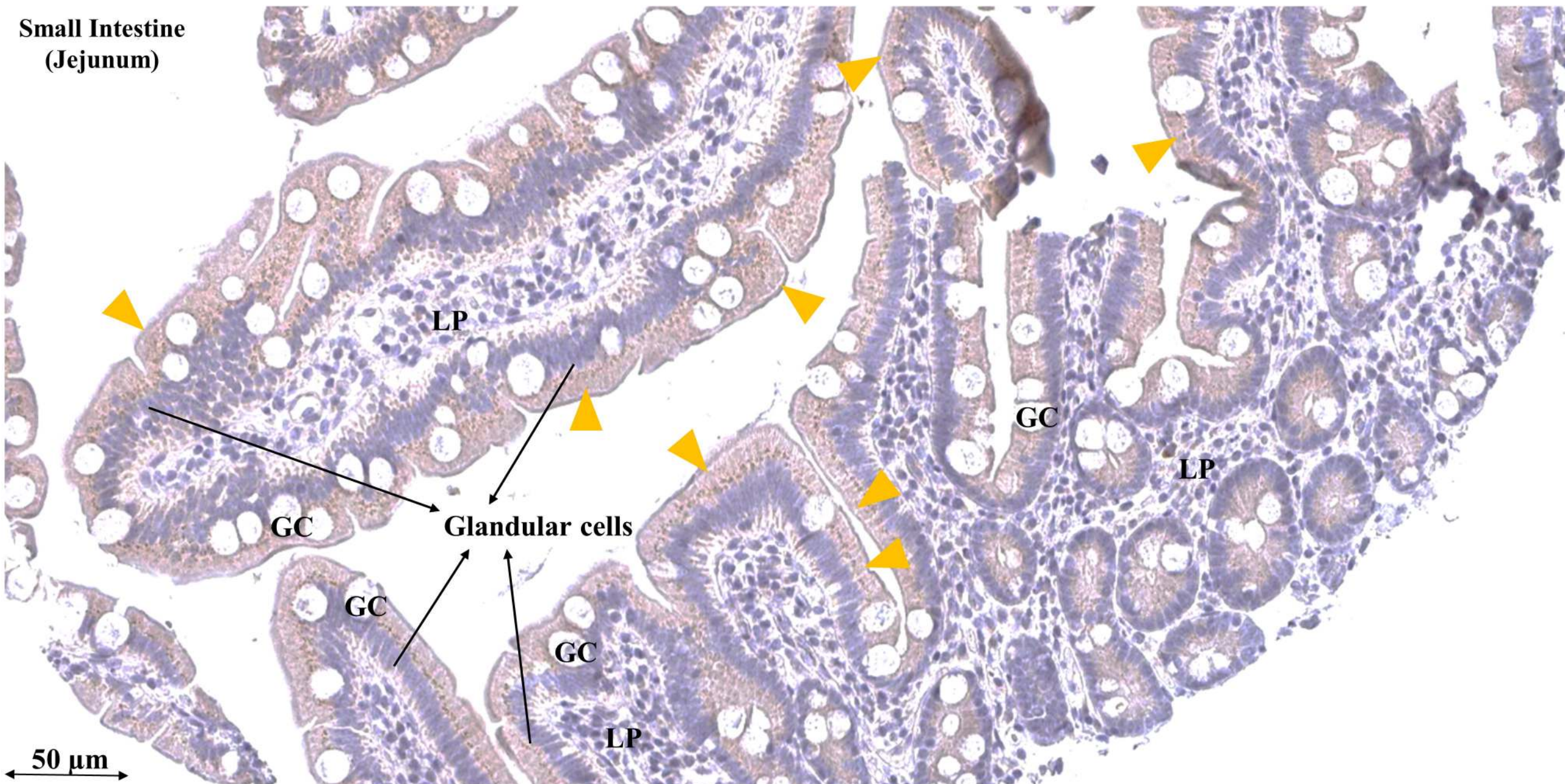
a

Protein Expression



b

**Small Intestine
(Jejunum)**



LP

GC

LP

GC

Glandular cells

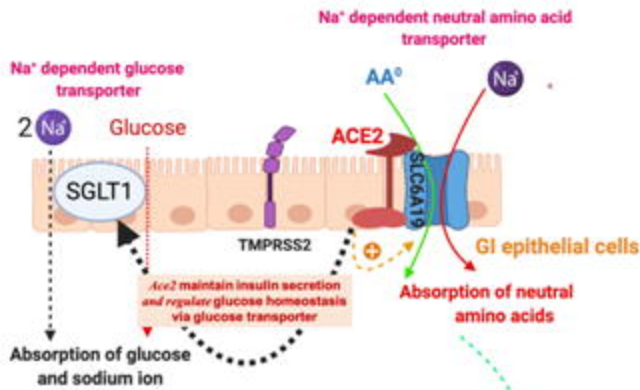
GC

GC

LP

50 μ m

Physiological Condition



Maintain the fluid and electrolyte homeostasis

Pathological Condition (SARS-CoV-2 infection)

