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Is obesity the missing link between COVID-19 severity and air pollution?

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Response to Reviewers:	<p>Reviewer #1: The authors addressed all my requests and significantly improved the manuscript. The manuscript can be accepted in current form for publication on Environmental Pollution.</p> <p>Response to Reviewer #1: Dear Reviewer 1, thank you again for your positive feedback and for helping us to improve our manuscript.</p> <p>Reviewer #2: Thank you for the revisions! I have some comments to the new text</p> <p>Abstract: It was very interesting to see the epidemiological data in Table 1. However I do not agree with your statement that you have "showed that obesity may be the missing link between COVID-19 severity and high level of air pollution", rows 16-17. As you yourselves remark, Veneto has a much lower incidence that Lombardia, despite Veneto having higher PM levels and more obesity. But I think this might be due to the fact that Table 1 presents incidence. Perhaps covid mortality would have shown a clearer pattern, since it is a marker of severity.</p> <p>Response: Dear Reviewer 2, thank you for your constructive comments. We have modified rows 16-17 as follow: “(...)We hypothesized that obesity may be one of the links between COVID-19 severity and high level of air pollution. First, obesity is a predisposing factor for SARS-Cov-2 infection and worse COVID-19 outcomes(...)”</p> <p>Furthermore, we have added data relating to mortality rate for COVID-19 in Italian regions, as a marker of severity (table1). We did not find a positive correlation between</p>

mortality rate for COVID-19 and overweight/obesity prevalence, being the first higher in the northern regions, similarly to Sars-cov2 Incidence, and the latter in the southern ones.

However, some variables should be taken into account in the interpretation of data relating COVID-19 lethality. In fact, it is acknowledged that those regions that experienced the greatest number of COVID-19 cases adopted different health policies in the management of the pandemic. In particular, as we explained in section 5, Lombardy, the most hit region by the virus, adopted a conservative approach to testing, partially forced by the scarcity of resources, limiting diagnostic swabs to severe symptomatic cases; this approach is likely to have overestimated the mortality rate for COVID-19 compared to regions that have carried out more extensive screenings such as Veneto. We focused on this aspect in section 5, as follow:

"(...)However, although the two regions adopted similar approaches in terms of social distancing and retail closures, Veneto proceeded towards a more proactive strategy for the containment of the virus, with a policy based on extensive testing of both symptomatic and asymptomatic cases, whereas Lombardy opted instead for a more conservative approach to testing, with a stronger focus only on symptomatic cases [35]. It is likely that the different regional policies may have overestimated the mortality data reported in Lombardy compared to Veneto, making data related to virus lethality uncertain and difficult to interpret(...)"

Moreover, we cannot rule out that virus lethality was really higher in Lombardy, where hospitals were significantly more overcrowded during the outbreak compared to other regions, such as Veneto. We emphasized this aspect in section 5, as follow:

(...)Furthermore, it has been reported that in Lombardia, where during the pandemic outbreak hospitals were overcrowded and contaminated, and medications, mechanical ventilators, oxygen, and personal protective equipment were not available, home care and mobile clinics have been encouraged [36]; on the other hand, it is reasonable to hypothesize that in Veneto, where the pandemic did not reach the same frightening proportions, a more patient-centered care strategy has been adopted. The different health-care strategies adopted by the two neighboring regions could explain the milder impact of the pandemic and the lower virus lethality in Veneto in comparison to Lombardia, despite the higher air pollution levels and overweight/obesity prevalence (Table 1)(...)"

There seems to be a contradiction between the abstract (row 21) and Section 3 (row 112): "obesity may partly mediate air pollution-induced lung injury" and "ponderal excess although not a mediator of air pollution-derived injury". Do you consider obesity to be a mediator or not?

Response: Thank you for your comments. We do not consider obesity a mediator, but an effect modifier of smog-induced lung-injury. We have corrected the abstract as follow:

(...)Moreover, it has been shown that obesity may intensify the detrimental effects of air pollution on the lungs, and this is not surprising if we consider that these conditions share an excessive activation of the immune system and a lung inflammatory infiltrate(...)

Section 2, row 68: I would think it is too early to say that the evidence is "unequivocal".

Response: We modified "unequivocal evidence" with "emerging evidence".

Section 5, row 164: "advanced age is one of the most important predictors for severe Covid 19". This is not confirmed by the data in Table 1, the correlation between incidence and ageing index is -0.06. But as said before, perhaps covid mortality would show a stronger correlation with age.

Response: We have added mortality rate index in table 1, which do not show a correlation with the ageing index. However, strong evidence in literature support the hypothesis that advanced age predict severe covid-19. We emphasized this aspect in section 5, as follow:

"(...)Although we do not derive a significant correlation between the ageing index and mortality rate for COVID-19 ($p=.6$), which is influenced itself by several other variables,

it is worth recalling that advanced age was previously proved a predictive factor for severe COVID-19 (...).
Moreover, data related to virus mortality are uncertain and difficult to interpret, as explained previously.

Table 1: please give the definition of Ageing index in the foot note (now it appears only in Section 5).

Response: We have added this information in the foot now of table 1.

Minor comments:

You use the word "re-known", what does it mean? Abstract row 18, Section 3 row 81, Conclusion row 210.

Response: We have deleted the word reknown from the text.

Section 1, row 57: Should be "(ARDS) - one of the worst..."

Response: We have corrected the sentence.

Section 1, row 58: Should be "correlated to a hyper-activation"

Response: We have corrected the sentence.

Section 1, row 59: Should be "as reflected by the increase of pro-inflammatory cytokines"

Response: We have corrected the sentence.

Section 4, row 129: Perhaps delete "Intriguingly"?

Response: We have deleted "intriguingly"

Section 4, row 146: Should be "prospective population studies are"

Response: We have corrected the sentence.



“Is obesity the missing link between COVID-19 severity and air pollution?”

Dear Editor,

Thank you for your kind consideration of our manuscript entitled “Is obesity the missing link between COVID-19 severity and air pollution?” for publication in Environmental Pollution as article type "Correspondence", in reference to the previously published article “Can atmospheric pollution be considered a co-factor in extremely high level of SARS-CoV-2 lethality in Northern Italy?”* of Conticini E et al.

We also thank the reviewers for their positive feedback and their constructive comments that helped in our efforts to improve the manuscript. We have revised the manuscript according to the minor revisions; changes requested by the reviewer 2 are highlighted in bold. We hope it will now be acceptable for publication. The revised manuscript has been approved by all authors.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Clara'.

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1 **Is obesity the missing link between COVID-19 severity and air pollution?**

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9 **Abstract**

10 In the previous publication “Can atmospheric pollution be considered a co-factor in
11 extremely high level of SARS-CoV-2 lethality in Northern Italy?” Conticini et al. hypothesized
12 that the surplus of lethality of the novel SARS-CoV-2 in Northern Italy may be at least in part
13 explained by the evidence of highest pollution reported in this area, as both severe COVID-
14 19 and smog exposure are correlated to an innate immune system hyper-activation with
15 subsequent lung inflammation and injury. Since this hypothesis alone does not fully explain
16 why specific subgroups of patients are at major risk, **we hypothesized that obesity may**
17 **be one of the links between COVID-19 severity and high level of air pollution. First,**
18 **obesity is a predisposing factor for SARS-Cov-2 infection and worse COVID-19**
19 **outcomes**, and unequivocal evidence demonstrated that fat mass excess is independently
20 associated with several pulmonary diseases and lung inflammation. Moreover, it has been
21 shown that obesity **may intensify the detrimental effects of air pollution on the lungs,**
22 and this is not surprising if we consider that these conditions share an excessive activation
23 of the immune system and a lung inflammatory infiltrate. Finally, fat mass excess has also
24 been speculated to be itself a consequence of air pollutants exposure, which has been

25 proved to induce metabolic disruption and weight gain in murine models. In conclusion,
26 although many variables must be taken into account in the analysis of the pandemic, our
27 observations suggest that obesity may act as effect modifier of smog-induced lung-injury,
28 and the concomitant presence of these two factors could better explain the higher virulence,
29 faster spread and greater mortality of SARS-CoV-2 in Northern Italy compared to the rest of
30 the country.

31 **Keywords:** obesity, air pollution, covid-19 lethality, immune system

32 **Main Text**

33 **1. Introduction**

34 In the previous publication “Can atmospheric pollution be considered a co-factor in
35 extremely high level of SARS-CoV-2 lethality in Northern Italy?” Conticini et al. investigated
36 the correlation between high lethality of the novel Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome
37 CoronaVirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and the atmospheric pollution in Northern Italy, one of the
38 worst hit areas in Europe by the pandemic [1]. In fact, it has been observed that the Northern
39 regions of Lombardy and Emilia Romagna showed death rates of about 12%, unexpectedly
40 higher compared to the rest of the country, where it was around 4.5% [2]. In particular, the
41 authors hypothesized that the surplus of lethality in Northern Italy may be at least in part
42 explained by the evidence of highest pollution reported in this area. To note, Fattorini D. &
43 Regoli, F. recently reported data on the distribution of atmospheric pollutants (Nitric Oxid,
44 NO₂; atmospheric particulate matter with a diameter ≤ 2.5 μ m, PM_{2.5}; and atmospheric
45 particulate matter with a diameter ≤ 10.0 μ m, PM₁₀) in Italian regions during the last 4 years,
46 the number of days exceeding regulatory limits, and the years of the last decade (from 2010
47 to 2019) in which the limits have been exceeded for at least 35 days. In this regard, they
48 highlighted that Northern Italy has been constantly exposed to air pollution; moreover, air-

49 quality data have been shown to significantly correlate with cases of Coronavirus Disease
50 19 (COVID-19) in up to 71 Italian provinces providing that chronic exposure to atmospheric
51 contamination may have played a role in facilitating the spread of the virus [3], and this is
52 not surprising if we consider that atmospheric particulate matter can act as a carrier for many
53 chemical and biological contaminants, including viruses, as they can facilitate their transport
54 and spread [4].

55 Furthermore, Conticini et al. highlighted that both acute respiratory distress syndrome
56 (ARDS) – **one of the worst** COVID-19 clinical manifestation, strongly associated with
57 intensive care unit (ICU) and death - and air pollution exposure **are correlated to a hyper-**
58 **activation of the innate immune system**, as reflected by the increase of pro-inflammatory
59 cytokines in either serum or lung parenchyma [1].

60 However, this hypothesis alone does not fully explain why particular subgroups of subjects
61 are at major risk of severe manifestation of COVID-19. Therefore, we **hypothesized** that
62 obesity may represent a further missing link between COVID-19 lethality and air pollution in
63 Northern Italy.

64 **2. Obesity as predisposing factor for worse COVID-19 outcome**

65 The features most associated with COVID-19 infection and its respiratory complications are
66 male gender, older age, cardiovascular disease, diabetes and higher BMI [5-7]. Although
67 assessment of obesity is rarely reported in clinical studies, **emerging evidence** suggest that
68 fat mass excess is associated with either COVID-19 prevalence or severity. In fact, a recent
69 study involving 4103 patients diagnosed with COVID-19 in an academic hospital in the
70 United States proved that a BMI >40 kg/m², suggestive for severe obesity, was one of the
71 strongest predictive factors for hospitalization (OR 6.2) [8]. Moreover, another retrospective
72 study including 103 hospitalized patients with COVID-19, showed that morbid obesity was
73 associated with admission to ICU [9], while Simonnet A. et al. reported that weight excess

74 in 124 patients admitted to ICU for SARS-CoV-2 was an independent predictor for the need
75 of invasive mechanical ventilation [10]. **Finally, it has been recently proved that**
76 **abdominal visceral fat is significantly associated with COVID-19 radiological severity**
77 **and clinical outcomes [11].** These findings reinforce the hypothesis that obesity
78 represents an independent risk factor for COVID-19 prevalence and severity.

79 **3. Obesity as effect modifier of air pollution-induced lung dysfunction**

80 Several evidence support the hypothesis that a mutual relationship between obesity, air
81 pollution and lung inflammation may exist. First, it is largely known that excessive fat mass
82 is associated with several respiratory pathological conditions, such as asthma, obstructive
83 sleep apnea, obstructive chronic pulmonary disease and ARDS [12]. The detrimental effects
84 of the increased fat mass on lung could be mediated not only by the anatomical
85 encumbrance of adipose tissue in excess, but also by the low grade systemic inflammation
86 typically associated to obesity [13,14]; the chronic systemic inflammation on the one hand
87 contributes to the metabolic disruption associated with adipose tissue expansion and on the
88 other hand it can exert detrimental effects on the immune system, making it more susceptible
89 to infections and less responsive to vaccinations, antivirals and antimicrobial drugs [15].
90 Intriguingly it has recently been observed that adipocytes can accumulate within the lungs
91 of obese subjects, thus generating an abnormal ectopic fat deposition site and exerting a
92 role in enhancing pulmonary inflammatory infiltrate [16], similarly to what happens in the
93 lungs of subjects exposed to air pollutants, as previously highlighted by Conticini et al [1].
94 Moreover, if it is largely accepted that air pollution may contribute to the pathogenesis of
95 pulmonary diseases, some studies have also highlighted that the expansion of adipose
96 tissue, namely visceral fat, is strongly associated with air pollution-induced lung dysfunction
97 [16-19], and this is not surprising considering that both fat excess and air pollution-derived
98 lung injury have been linked to increased local and systemic inflammation [21-22]. In this
99 regard, it has been observed in Asian men that obesity may exhibit a synergistic effect on

100 the relationship between prolonged exposure to air pollutants and worse pulmonary function,
101 suggesting that excessive fat, especially the abdominal one, may intensify the adverse
102 effects of air pollutants on lung function [18].

103 Another link between air pollution, obesity and COVID-19 severity may be Vitamin D
104 deficiency; obesity is closely associated with low vitamin D levels, as higher body mass
105 index leads to lower vitamin concentrations [23] and, in light of its largely known and
106 beneficial immunomodulating actions, Vitamin D deficiency may represent an independent
107 risk factor for COVID-19 severity [24, 25]. Interestingly, air pollution itself predisposes to
108 lower levels of vitamin D, as air pollutants skin deposition prevents local vitamin D synthesis
109 [26].

110 Taken together these considerations, it appears reasonable to hypothesize that ponderal
111 excess, although not a mediator of air pollution-derived lung injury, may represent an effect
112 modifier of this damage, since obesity can intensify the detrimental effects of air pollutants
113 on the lungs [27].

114 **4. Is obesity a consequence of air pollution?**

115 In addition to representing a contributing factor to the development of smog-induced lung
116 damage, obesity has also been speculated to be itself a consequence of air pollution,
117 although few evidence support this hypothesis. In fact, it is largely accepted that
118 environmental factors, such as the presence of endocrine disrupting compounds (EDCs),
119 play a key role in the pathogenesis of ponderal excess, and specific EDCs, including also
120 inhaled pollutants, are identified as “obesogenic and/or diabetogenic” [20, 28, 29]. To
121 interest, a recent metanalysis found that long-term exposure to ambient air pollution
122 represents a predisposing factor not only for obesity but also for Type 2 Diabetes [30].
123 Furthermore, the exposure to Bisphenol A, an organic synthetic compound commonly
124 employed as plasticizer, may exert detrimental effects on glycemc homeostasis [31]. To

125 note, it is largely known that obesity is strongly associated with type 2 diabetes [32], which
126 is itself an independent risk factor for poor prognosis in COVID-19 patients [5-7]. It has been
127 observed that in Chinese cities, where the smog is alarmingly increasing, the amount of air
128 pollutants and the prevalence of obesity are strongly correlated, especially among older
129 people, suggesting that aged subjects are more sensitive to ambient air pollutants [19],
130 which is relevant considering that both advanced age and obesity are major risk factors for
131 COVID-19 severity [5-7]. Although it is almost impossible to define the causal relationship
132 between obesity and air pollution from epidemiological studies, some evidence deriving from
133 preclinical studies support that air pollutants may represent a direct contributing factor to the
134 pathogenesis of obesity; In fact, air pollutants might act as “obesogens” by altering the
135 methylation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR γ) or PPAR γ target
136 molecules, known to exert a pivotal role in the regulation of adipogenesis [33], or via their
137 binding to the α and β estrogen receptors (ER), actively involved in the regulation of energy
138 metabolism pathways [34]; furthermore, a recent preclinical study showed that inhaled air
139 pollutants can activate local and systemic inflammatory processes, leading to recruitment of
140 inflammatory cells in adipose tissue with consequent weight gain and metabolic disruption
141 [21]; these findings suggest that air pollution may predispose to obesity and its comorbidities
142 in several ways, although prospective population **studies** are needed to confirm this
143 hypothesis.

144 **5. Obesity, pollution and COVID-19 cases in Italy: an epidemiological analysis**

145 In light of the previous considerations, we would ideally expect a similar trend in obesity
146 prevalence, air quality data and **COVID-19 severity** in Italy; however, while the incidence of
147 COVID-19 infections, **the mortality rate for COVID-19** and mean NO₂, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀
148 levels follow a similar trend, as they are higher in the North compared to the South of the
149 country, the prevalence of obesity/overweight seems to behave in the opposite way, being
150 higher in the southern regions compared to the northern ones (Table 1). However, many

151 variables must be taken into account in the interpretation of these data. First, the disparity
152 in obesity prevalence within the country may be explained by the different cultural buffering,
153 socio-economic condition, and the heterogeneous availability of obesity care public services
154 between the northern and southern Italy [35]; therefore, even if air pollution plays a role in
155 obesity development, this could be limited by the other several factors involved in the
156 pathogenesis of this multifactorial disease. Second, if it is true that the prevalence of
157 ponderal excess is higher in the southern regions, it has also been reported that the
158 population living in the northern ones is older, as expressed by the ageing index, which
159 represent the ratio of elderly persons (aged 65 and over) to the number of young persons
160 (from 0 to 14) (Table 1). **Although we do not derive a significant correlation between**
161 **the ageing index and mortality rate for COVID-19 ($p=.6$), which is influenced itself by**
162 **several other variables, it is worth recalling that advanced age was previously proved**
163 **a predictive factor for severe COVID-19 [5-7].**

164 Furthermore, Italian regions adopted different health policies in the management of the
165 pandemic, and this has certainly influenced the spread of Sars-Cov2 infection; for example,
166 in Veneto, despite the higher NO₂, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ levels in the weeks preceeding SARS-
167 Cov2 outbreak and the greater prevalence of overweight/obesity, there were lower
168 cumulative incidence of Covid-19 cases and **mortality** compared to Lombardia. However,
169 although the two regions adopted similar approaches in terms of social distancing and retail
170 closures, Veneto proceeded towards a more proactive strategy for the containment of the
171 virus, with a policy based on extensive testing of both symptomatic and asymptomatic cases,
172 whereas Lombardy opted instead for a more conservative approach to testing, with a
173 stronger focus only on symptomatic cases [36]. **It is likely that the different regional**
174 **policies may have overestimated the mortality data reported in Lombardy compared**
175 **to Veneto, making data related to virus lethality uncertain and difficult to interpret.**
176 Furthermore, it has been reported that in Lombardia, where during the pandemic outbreak

177 hospitals were overcrowded and contaminated, and medications, mechanical ventilators,
 178 oxygen, and personal protective equipment were not available, home care and mobile clinics
 179 have been encouraged [37]; on the other hand, it is reasonable to hypothesize that in
 180 Veneto, where the pandemic did not reach the same frightening proportions, a more patient-
 181 centered care strategy has been adopted. The different health-care strategies adopted by
 182 the two neighboring regions could explain the milder impact of the pandemic **and the lower**
 183 **virus lethality** in Veneto in comparison to Lombardia, despite the higher air pollution levels
 184 and overweight/obesity prevalence (Table 1). Intriguingly, when we analyzed specific sub-
 185 regions of Lombardia, in which comparable health policy strategies were adopted, we noted
 186 that in Bergamo, by far the most affected by the pandemic, PM2.5 and PM10 levels
 187 registered between February 10 and March 10 were 35.4 ug/m3 and 43.8 ug/m3, higher
 188 than the mean regional ones, and overweight/obesity prevalence was 36.2% [38], which is
 189 still higher than the one reported in Lombardia (Table 1). These data suggest that other
 190 variables in association to obesity and pollution should be taken into consideration in the
 191 analysis of the pandemic trend, but they do not exclude that the two factors may act
 192 synergistically to facilitate the spread and severity of COVID-19.

Regions	COVID-19 Cumulative Incidence per 100000 inhab. ^a	Mortality rate for COVID-19 standardized per 100000 inhab. ^b	NO2 (ug/m3) ^c	PM2.5 (ug/m3) ^c	PM10.0 (ug/m3) ^c	Overweight and/or Obesity Prevalence (%) ^d	Ageing Index ^e
Lombardia	913.64	129.3	36.66	31.15	43.25	35.4	169.1
Piemonte	722.15	39.8	30.88	/	/	37.5	210.3
Emilia-Romagna	629.76	64.1	31.91	/	41.29	42.4	185.6
Veneto	301.8	26.4	33.52	42.88	71.74	40.6	177.6
Toscana	267.59	17.4	29	15.63	26.76	36.4	209.1
Liguria	635.42	51.3	/	/	/	34.3	260.4
Lazio	136.04	8.2	33.57	15.28	32.41	40.3	167.3

Marche	442.35	42.4	23.68	26.53	48.53	42.3	201.8
Campania	79.7	6.4	22.9	23.01	37.02	50.9	134.7
Puglia	112.09	9.3	11.4	15.73	25.65	45.8	175
Trentino	1007.77	57.2	48.18	20.35	32.15	34	142.4
Sicilia	61.54	4.2	25.28	/	/	46.6	158.6
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	273.61	17.9	15.46	/	44.9	41	223.2
Abruzzo	250.23	19.4	34.7	22.05	33.25	44.6	197.6
Alto Adige	489.29	57.2	41.54	/	/	34.7	127.2
Umbria	162.81	5.4	25.46	20.67	26.04	43	209.6
Sardegna	82.7	6.5	19.28	/	/	38.8	221.2
Calabria	59.11	4.3	17.31	10.94	21.67	48.4	168.3
Valle d'Aosta	953.32	94.1	/	/	/	37.8	187.2
Molise	143.64	4.4	15.03	/	/	48.4	224.8
Basilicata	65.02	2.6	/	/	17.1	51.3	200.3

193

194 **Table 1. Covid-19 cumulative incidence per 100000 inhab., NO₂, Mortality rate for COVID-19**
195 **standardized per 100000 inhab., PM_{2.5}, PM_{10.0} mean levels registered from the 10th of February to the**
196 **10th of March 2020, Overweight/Obesity prevalence and Ageing Index in Italian Regions.** Data have been
197 obtained from: Ministero della Salute (www.salute.gov.it), updated to June 19, 2020 ^a; Report on impact of the
198 Covid-19 epidemic on the total mortality, Istat, June 4, 2020 ^b; European Environment Agency
199 (<https://www.eea.europa.eu/themes/air/air-quality-and-covid19/monitoring-covid-19-impacts-on>) updated to
200 June 29, 2020 ^c; Studio Passi (2015-2018) ^d; Istat, Indicatori Demografici 2020 ^e. **COVID-19 Cumulative**
201 **Incidence per 100000 inhab.:** number of new cases per 100000 inhab. From March 3 to June 19, 2020.
202 **Mortality rate for COVID-19 standardized per 100000 inhab.:** adjustment of the mortality rate that allows to
203 compare populations having different age distributions; the standardization method by age consists of
204 summarizing the mortality rates calculated for each specific age group on a standard population (in this case
205 the Italian population at Census 2011). **Ageing Index:** the ratio of elderly persons (aged 65 and over) to the
206 number of young persons (from 0 to 14). **Abbreviation:** COVID-19, Corona Virus Disease 2019; inhab.,
207 inhabitants; NO₂, nitric oxide; PM_{2.5}, atmospheric particulate matter with a diameter ≤ 2.5 μ m; PM_{10.0},
208 atmospheric particulate matter with a diameter ≤ 10.0 μ m.

209 Conclusion

210 The high degree of smog has been proposed as an explanation for the increased COVID-
211 19 severity in Northern Italy, strengthened by the observation that ARDS and smog-induced
212 lung damage share similar pathogenetic mechanisms involving an hyperactivation of the

213 innate immune system. However, this hypothesis alone does not fully explain why particular
214 subgroups of subjects, such as elderly and obese patients, are at major risk of severe
215 manifestation of COVID-19.

216 In the current correspondence, we suggested that obesity may be one of the missing piece
217 to complete this puzzle. In fact, in addition to representing a predisposing factor for COVID-
218 19 infection and worse clinical outcomes, fat mass excess has also been associated to
219 increased pulmonary and systemic inflammation, similarly to what happens in the lungs of
220 subjects exposed to air pollutants and of patients diagnosed with COVID-19. In particular,
221 obesity may be considered as an effect modifier of smog-derived lung injury, since its
222 presence intensifies the detrimental effects of air pollutants on the lungs and it predisposes
223 to Sars-Cov-2 infection and severity. Although several variables, such as age and health
224 care policies, must be taken into account in the analysis of the pandemic trend, our
225 observations suggest that ponderal excess and air pollution may act synergistically to
226 contribute to severe COVID-19, and that the concomitant presence of obesity together and
227 air pollution could better explain the higher virulence, faster spread and greater mortality of
228 SARS-CoV-2 in Northern Italy compared to the rest of the country.

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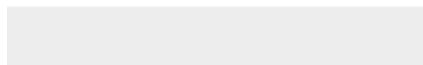
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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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Carla Lubrano and Lucio Gnessi, Writing – review & editing