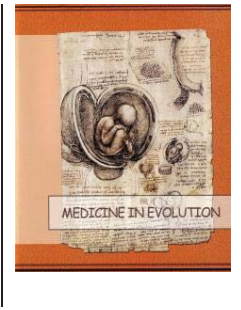


# Review

## Is air pollution involved in the epidemiological manifestation of viral infections with respiratory tropism?



**Ștefan I.M.<sup>1</sup>, Bădițoiu L.M.<sup>2</sup>, Popovici E.D.<sup>2</sup>, Pavel R.<sup>2</sup>, Anghel M.<sup>2</sup>, Anghel A.<sup>3</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Resident doctor epidemiology, Emergency "Pius Brînzeu" Hospital, Timișoara

<sup>2</sup>Department of Epidemiology, "Victor Babes" University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Timișoara, Romania

<sup>3</sup>Department of Biochemistry, "Victor Babes" University of Medicine and Pharmacy, Timișoara, Romania

Correspondence to:

Name: Ștefan Irina-Maria

Address: Timișoara, Cicio Pop street, No. 2, 2-nd floor

Phone: +40 744476380

E-mail address: popescuirina5@gmail.com

### Abstract

The article is a synthesis of current information from the literature regarding the link between chemical atmospheric pollutants and their impact on respiratory tract infections. The viruses most frequently involved in respiratory pathology are represented by: respiratory syncytial virus, adenoviruses, influenza virus, parainfluenza, rhino - and enteroviruses, after the SARS epidemic, MERS and COVID-19 pandemic, coronaviruses are etiological factors with significant fatality. The most common air pollutants are: PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and soil level O<sub>3</sub>. Increased levels of these pollutants influence the incidence and fatality of viral respiratory infections. Unlike PM<sub>10</sub>, which remains confined to the upper respiratory tract, PM<sub>2.5</sub> penetrates deep into the respiratory tree, causing local inflammatory reactions and impaired defense mechanisms. Also, the increase in susceptibility to respiratory infections is correlated with long-term exposure to high concentrations of: NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>.

**Keywords:** atmospheric pollution, COVID-19, respiratory infection

## INTRODUCTION

Air, the main component of the atmosphere, the gaseous shell that surrounds the Earth, is made of nitrogen (79.2%), oxygen (20.8%) and in an insignificant proportion, carbon dioxide, ammonia and water vapor. [1] It is considered a polluting factor, any substance in the air in excess, which could cause environmental disturbance, human discomfort and health disorders. Physical, chemical and biological pollution are known. The main air pollutants are: nitrogen oxides (nitrogen monoxide NO and nitrogen dioxide NO<sub>2</sub>), suspended particles (as main representatives PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>), sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) and ground-level ozone. (O<sub>3</sub>).

SUSPENDED PARTICLES - represents a complex mixture of solid and liquid particles, of various sizes, the most important being PM 10 (with a diameter between 2.5 and 10  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ ), respectively PM 2.5 (with a diameter less than 2.5  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ ). These particles come from natural sources (volcanic eruptions, rock erosion, soil particle suspension, sandstorms, aerosolization of pollen or sea waves) or from anthropogenic sources (road traffic, both by burning fossil fuels and by friction produced at the level of tires, agricultural and industrial activity - especially in the chemical and extractive fields, waste treatment). Larger diameter particles tend to remain in the nasal mucosa, while smaller ones slightly exceed this filter and reach the respiratory shaft, causing changes in respiratory cilia motility, inflammatory reactions and exacerbation of chronic lung pathology. In order to prevent harmful effects on human health and / or the environment, reference intervals are established, with internationally accepted values. Thus, according to law no. 104/2011, in force in Romania, the daily limit value for PM 10 is 50  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ , the annual limit value 40  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ , while the limit value established as a target until January 1, 2020, is 20  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ . For PM 2.5, the annual limit value is 25  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  and the limit value set as a target until January 1, 2020, is 20  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ . [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

OZONE is a stifling smell gas, very reactive, and oxidizing. If at atmospheric level 15-40 Km above earth's shell, offers protection against UV, ground level ozone represents a pollution factor. It is produced by chemical reactions between the sun's rays and organic gases, nitrogen oxides, emissions from power plants, refineries, chemical plants or road traffic. It has an irritating effect on the nasopharyngeal mucosa, produces pulmonary pathological changes even after the disappearance of acute symptoms, so it is considered to be a risk factor for asthma and a worsening factor for chronic lung disease. According to the Romanian legislation, the threshold alert is 240  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  for a period of 3h consecutive, the information threshold at 180  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ , for a period of 1h, and the target value is considered 120  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ . [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

NITROGEN OXIDES - The main nitrogen oxide present in the air is represented by nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), with a toxicity 4 times higher versus nitrogen monoxide (NO). The main source comes from the burning of fossil fuels, from industrial activity, from electricity production or from engine emissions. They are responsible for the formation of smog, reduced visibility in urban areas, the greenhouse effect and the appearance of acid rain. Increases the incidence of chronic respiratory pathology (asthma, chronic bronchitis), increases the number of hospitalizations and the death rate from lung pathology. The limit values for NO<sub>2</sub> are set at 200  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  for the hourly limit, 40  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  for the annual limit and 30  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  - the critical level for vegetation protection. The alert threshold value was set at 400  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ , measured for 3 consecutive hours, at representative points, on an area of at least 100 km<sup>2</sup> or for an entire area. [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

SULFUR DIOXIDE - is a colorless gas, with a pungent, bitter, non-flammable odor, water soluble, resulting from the burning of sulfur. It comes from natural sources - phytoplankton, bacterial fermentation in swampy areas, volcanic eruptions by oxidation of sulfur-containing gases, but also from burning fossil fuels in electrical installations, the activity of oil refineries, cement factories or materials processing industry. Short-term

exposure to high concentrations of sulfur dioxide causes severe respiratory distress, and long-term exposure predisposes to respiratory tract infections. It especially affects extreme ages and aggravates pre-existing lung diseases. It also potentiates the harmful effects of ozone. The hourly limit value for the protection of human health is set at  $350 \mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ , the daily limit value at  $125 \mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  and the critical level for the protection of vegetation at  $20 \mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ . The alert threshold, of  $500 \mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$ , is determined by measuring for 3 consecutive hours in representative points, on an area of at least  $100 \text{ km}^2$  or on an entire area. [1,2,4,5]

### *Aim and objectives*

This article aims to synthesize the knowledge from the specialized literature regarding the link between atmospheric chemical pollutants and their impact on acute viral respiratory infections.

Acute respiratory tract infections are a major cause of morbidity and mortality today, among all age groups and in all geographical regions. Pneumonia, one of the lower respiratory tract infections, affects 450 million people annually, with 3 million deaths worldwide in 2016, 2.56 million deaths in 2017, making it the 4th leading cause of death in world and the pathology transmissible with the highest fatality (for 2016). [6,7] Its incidence is 5 times higher in developing countries versus developed ones and from an etiological point of view, viral pneumonia occupies a main place, with approximately 200 million cases annually.

The relationship between air pollution and respiratory pathology was investigated before the current pandemic of COVID 19, in an attempt to quantify the correlation between pollution and morbidity / mortality from respiratory infections.

Since 2003, **Cui.Y. et al** studied the relationship between Air Pollution Index (API) - derived from  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{PM}$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$  concentrations and fatality from SARS, highlighting that the population in areas with moderately high Air Pollution Index has a risk of death from SARS with 84 % higher versus those living in regions with low API [RR = 1.84; 95% CI: 1.41-2.40], and the population in areas with high API has a double risk of mortality from SARS versus those living in areas with low API (RR = 2.18; 95% CI: 1.31 -3.65). [9]

In a study conducted in 6 cities in Italy, in the period 2001-2005, **Faustini. A et al.** demonstrated that a  $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  values leads to an increase in hospitalizations for respiratory diseases by 0.59% [90% CI: 0.10-1.08%] and outpatient mortality by 3.95% [90% CI: 1.53-6.43%], while a  $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in  $\text{NO}_2$  values determined an increase of 1.19% [90% CI: 0.23-2.15 %] of hospitalization following respiratory pathology. [10] Similarly, in a 2016 study by **Carugo. M et al**, in the Lombardy region, Italy, known for its high degree of pollution, showed that an increase of  $10 \mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  values corresponds to an additional mortality of 1.64% [90% CI: 0.56 -2.72] for  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and 0.46%, respectively [IC 90%: - 1.23-2.18] for  $\text{NO}_2$ . [11]

**Reilly.P.J** in 2018 also identifies a correlation between elevated levels of air pollutants and acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), when exposure to air pollutants occurs over a longer period of time. [12]

In a study conducted between 2010-2017 on a cohort of 19,093 patients at the Hospital in Antwerp, the province with the highest concentrations of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in Belgium, **Annik De Weerd et al** reported an association between the duration of artificial ventilation and exposure to air pollutants, 10 days before admission. [13]

After the previous flu pandemic, a study conducted in Asia in 2010 by the team led by **P.S. Chen** identified higher concentrations of the 2009  $\text{AH}_1\text{N}_1$  virus in the air during sandstorms, when concentrations of air pollutants -  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{CO}$ , were higher than on clear days. [14]

**Wei Su and colleagues** reported in 2019 in Jinan, China, a correlation between increased concentrations of air pollutants ( $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}$ ) and increased risk of developing influenza-like illness (ILI). Thus, a  $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  increase in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration was

associated with an increase in the relative risk of developing ILI of 1.01 [95% CI: 1.01-1.02], for an increase of 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  of PM 10 concentration, RR increased by 1.001 [95% CI: 1.00-1.01] and for a similar increase in SO<sub>2</sub> concentration, increased by 1.00 [95% CI: 1.0003-1.0012]. The increase in O<sub>3</sub> values was negatively correlated with ILI [RR 0.99; 95% CI: 0.98-0.99]. [15] Also, in 21 cities in China, in the period 2013-2014, the 10 PM  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  increase in PM2.5 was associated with an increase of 1,010 [95% CI: 1,003-1,018] per day and 1,006 [95% CI: 1,000.11.012] at three days, of the number of cases of measles, determined by a morbillivirus also transmitted by air. [16]

The positive correlation with the high concentrations of PM10, PM2.5, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, respectively the negative correlation with O<sub>3</sub> were also relevant in the study of **Wang,L et al**, from 2019. [17] In the same year, **C. Liu et al** , analyzed the degree of air pollution and mortality recorded in 652 cities in various regions, predominantly in the northern hemisphere. A significant, positive association was observed between PM10 and PM2.5 concentrations and overall mortality. An increase of 10  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  of the PM10 / PM2.5 concentration was correlated with an increase of 0.47% [95% CI: 0.35-0.58], respectively of 0.74% [95% CI: 0.53-0.95] of daily mortality attributable to respiratory pathology. [18]

Another category of studies focuses on the etiopathogenic mechanisms through which air pollutants can intervene in respiratory pathology. **Wei Su et al** show that the presence of suspended particles facilitates and increases the ability of the virus to attach to respiratory epithelial cells, and to penetrate deep into the respiratory tree. It also decreases the ability of macrophages to phagocytose the virus, increasing the susceptibility to infection. [15]

In an experimental study, **Jeong.S** and his team inoculated intratracheally with the pollutant factor PM 2.5 to a group of mice, and found a significant increase in the number of macrophages and neutrophils in lung tissue at 24 hours after exposure. Persistence of leukocyte infiltrate in the lungs and liver has persisted for at least two days after exposure. [19] Jie Yang et al report a significant increase in IL4, TGF- $\beta$ 1 and TNF- $\alpha$  (tissue and serological levels), an increased number of inflammatory cells, intracellular edema and significant tissue damage in a group of mice exposed to high concentrations of air pollutants (PM2.5, CO, NO<sub>x</sub>) versus the control group in the laboratory. [20]

In a recent mini-review, from 2020, **Cao Y et al** describes the harmful effects of pollutants on hair epithelial cells, changes in their structure, which leads to reduced mucociliary clearance, a factor determined in the occurrence of respiratory pathology. It also reports the correlation between prolonged exposure to high concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> and increased susceptibility to respiratory infections, with the risk of developing permanent lung damage. [2]

The emergence of the new SARS-COV2 coronavirus had as its starting point the city of Wuhan, Hubei Province, China, from where it spread very quickly around the world, with the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020. The speed of spread, the existence of seemingly random outbreaks, raised the issue of identifying the factors that led to this evolution, as well as the role of air pollution. Multiple recent studies have shown that pollution influences the transmission of SARS-COV2 coronavirus, but also sensitizes the respiratory tree by acting on protective mechanisms. The investigation of the pollution level of the regions with the highest number of cases, respectively the involvement of geographical factors were discussed especially in the Asian and Italian articles, in an attempt to identify the factors that led to the fulminant evolution of COVID 19.

**Z.Yongjian et al** (China, 2020) identify a positive correlation between the increase of O<sub>3</sub>, CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, PM10 / PM2.5 concentrations and the number of COVID-19 cases, simultaneously with a negative correlation between the number of cases and the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration, possible due to the virulicidal effect of SO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, for a 10  $\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$  increase in PM2.5 values, an increase of 2.24% [95% CI: 1.02-3.46] was reported in the number of confirmed daily cases, for PM10 an increase of 1.76% [ 95% CI: 0.89-2.63], for O<sub>3</sub> 4.76% [95%

CI: 1.99-7.52], and for NO<sub>2</sub> 6.94% [95% CI: 2.38-11.51]. Instead, an increase in SO<sub>2</sub> values by 10 µg / m<sup>3</sup> determined a decrease in the number of daily illnesses by 7.79% [95% CI: -14.57-1.01]. [21]

**Xiao Wu Ms et al** (USA, 2020) investigating 98% of the population of 3000 counties, reports that an increase of 1 µg / m<sup>3</sup> in the long-term mean concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> is associated with an increase in the mortality rate through COVID-19 with 15% [95% CI: 5-25]. [22]

**Travaglio. M et al** (UK, 2020) in a study on the correlation of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO concentrations with the fatality rate of SARS COV2 cases, identified a correlation between increased NO<sub>2</sub> and NO concentration and the severity of disease forms in England, as well as an inversely proportional relationship between O<sub>3</sub> concentration and severity of COVID-19 forms, respectively with the number of deaths. [2. 3]

**Conticini. E et al** (Italy, 2020), in a study that hypothesizes that exposure to high concentrations of polluted air for a longer period, leads to a weakening of the respiratory mechanisms, reports a correlation on the value of Air Quality Index (which measures the degree of pollution) and the number of deaths through Covid-19, in the regions of Lombardy and Emilia Romagna. After the onset of the pandemic, there was a decrease in pollution levels, but the number of cases did not decrease in direct proportion to them, which shows that the effects of pollution on the respiratory system are long-lasting and cannot be reversed in the short term. [24]

**Fattorini. D et al** (Italy, 2020) evaluated the distribution of air pollutants (PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>) for 4 years and highlighted the high level of pollution in northern Italy, as well as the correlation between the degree of pollution and the number of cases of COVID-19 in 71 provinces in Italy. [25].

**Ogen Y et al** (Italy, 2020) highlighted two European areas that showed significantly increased concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> between January and February 2020: northern Italy and the region of Madrid, Spain. Also these 2 regions presented the highest number of cases: Lombardy 2168 cases, Emilia Romagna 531 cases, Piedmont 175 cases, Veneto 115 cases, Madrid 498 cases, at the date of the study. Fatality was 12% for the regions of Lombardy and Emilia Romagna, compared to 4.5% in the rest of Italy. By March 2020, a total of 4443 deaths were caused by SARS COV2 in these two countries, and a percentage of 83% (3701 cases) of these deaths were recorded in areas where the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration exceeded 100 µmol / m<sup>2</sup>. Both regions are surrounded by mountain ranges, and low airflows cause a concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> close to the earth's surface. Topographic conditions together with atmospheric ones prevent the dispersion of air and pollutants, which can cause respiratory diseases. [26]

**Setti.L et al** (Italy, 2020) after an analysis of 34 PM<sub>10</sub> samples taken from the industrial region of the province of Bergamo, showed that the viral RNA of SARS-COV2 may exist associated with PM<sub>10</sub> in the external environment, and in conditions of atmospheric stability and high concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub>, can lead to the appearance of clusters. [27]

## CONCLUSIONS

In the current pandemic context, it becomes imperative to identify any risk factor and try to annihilate it, in order to control and subsequently stop this exacerbated manifestation of the epidemiological process. The most common air pollutants are PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and soil level O<sub>3</sub>. Increasing the values of these pollutants, even by a few units, has a decisive influence on the incidence and fatality of viral respiratory infections.

Suspended particles with a large diameter, PM<sub>10</sub>, remain largely confined to the nose and throat, while particles with a smaller diameter of PM<sub>2.5</sub> penetrate deep into the respiratory tract, affect mucociliary clearance, allowing agents to penetrate deep tracheobronchial infections and increases the ability of the virus to attach. It also causes local inflammatory reactions, with a decrease in the body's natural protection capacity against

inhaled infectious agents. The presence of NO and NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> in high concentrations and long-term exposure are correlated with increased susceptibility to respiratory infections.

## REFERENCES

1. Munteanu, Mioara Dumitrașcu, Romeo-Alexandru Iliuță. *Ecologie și protecția calității mediului*. Editura Balneară, București, 2011, 16-18 Available from: [http://bioclima.ro/ ECO.pdf](http://bioclima.ro/ECO.pdf)
2. Yu Cao, Miao Chen, Dan Dong, et al. Environmental pollutants damage airway epithelial cell cilia: Implications for the prevention of obstructive lung diseases. *Thorac cancer* 2020; 11: 505-510.
3. Junfeng Zhang, Yongjie Wei, Zhangfu Fang. Ozone Pollution: A Major Health Hazard Worldwide. *Front Immunol* 2019; 10: 2518.
4. Gerard Hoek, Ranjini M Krishnan, Rob Beelen, et al. Long-term air pollution exposure and cardio-respiratory mortality: a review. *J. Environ. Health*, 2013, 12: 43.
5. ARPM Galati, Raport privind starea mediului, 2011;17-61. Available from: <http://www.anpm.ro/documents/19877/2250777/CAP+2+CALITATEA+AERULUI.pdf/a486481c-b771-4259-acda-678dbe7b8ea8>
6. Bernadeta Dadonaite, Max Roser, Pneumonia. *Our World In Data*, 2011, Available from: <https://ourworldindata.org/pneumonia>.
7. \*\*\* Epidemiology of pneumonia, 2020. Available from: [https:// en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Epidemiology\\_of\\_pneumonia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Epidemiology_of_pneumonia).
8. Monika Jevsnik, Tina Ursic, Nina Zigon, et al. Coronavirus infections in hospitalized pediatric patients with acute respiratory tract disease. *BMC Infect. Dis*; 2012; 12:365.
9. Yan Cui, Zuo-Feng Zhang, John Froines, et al. Air pollution and case fatality of SARS in the People's Republic of China: an ecologic study. *J. Environ. Health*; 2003, Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1186/1476-069X-2-15>.
10. Annunziata Faustini, Paola Colasis, Gilberto Berti. Air pollution and multiple acute respiratory outcomes. *Eur Respir J*, 2013; 42:304-313.
11. Michele Carugo, Dario Consonni, Giorgia Randi, et al. Air pollution exposure, cause specific deaths and hospitalizations in a highly polluted Italian region. *Environ.Res*; 2016, 147: 415-424.
12. John. P. Reilly, Zhiguo. Zhao, Michael G.S. Shashaty, et al. Low to Moderate Air Pollutant Exposure and Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome after Severe Trauma. *Am.J. Respir Crit Care Med*; 2019, 199: 62-70.
13. Annick De Weerd, Bram G. Janssen, Bianca Cox et al. Pre-admission air pollution exposure prolongs the duration of ventilation in intensive care patients. *Intensive Care Med*; 2020, Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-020-05999-3>.
14. Pei-Shih-Chen, Feng Ta Tsai, Chien Kun Lin, et al. Ambient Influenza and Avian Influenza Virus during Dust Storm Days and Background Days. *Environ. Health Perspect.*; 2010, 118(9): 1211-1216.
15. Wei Su, Xiuguo Wu, Xingyi Geng, et al. The short term effects of air pollutants on influenza-like illness in Jinan China. *BMC Public Health*; 2019; 19: 1319.
16. Gongbo Chen, Wenyi Zhang, Shanshan Li, et al. Is Short-Term Exposure to Ambient Fine Particles Associated With Measles Incidence in China? A Multi -City Study. *Environ. Health*. 2017, 156: 306-311.
17. Lijun Wang, Ju Wang, Xiaodong Tan, et al. Analysis of Nox Pollution Characteristics in the Atmospheric Environment in Changchun City. *Atmosphere*; 2019; 11:30.
18. C. Liu, R. Chen, F. Sera, et al. Ambient Particulate Air Pollution and Daily Mortality in 652 Cities. *N. Engl. J. Med*; 2019, 381 ( 8): 705-715.
19. Soi Jeong, Sang A Park, Inwon Park, et al. PM2.5 Exposure in the Respiratory System Induces Distinct Inflammatory Signaling in the Lung and the Liver of Mice. *J. Immunol. Res.*; 2019, Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/3486841>.
20. Jie Yang, Yi Chen, Zhi Yu, et al. The influence of PM 2.5 on lung injury and cytokines in mice. *Exp. Ther. Med.*; 2019, 18: 2503-2511.

21. Zhu Yongjian, Xie Jingu, Huang Fengming, et al. Association between short-term exposure to air pollution and COVID-19 infection: Evidence from China. *Sci. Total Environ*; 2020, 727, .Avaliabe from:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.138704>.
22. Xiao Wu MS, Rachel C, Nethery PhD, et al. Exposure to air pollution and COVID-19 mortality in the United States. *medRxiv*; 2020, Available from: DOI: 10.1101/2020.04.05.20054502.
23. Marco Travaglio, Rebecka Popovic, Yizhou Yu, et al. Links between air pollution and COVID-19 in England. *medRxiv*; 2020,. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.16.20067405>.
24. Eduardo Conticini, Bruno Frediani, Dario Cro. Can atmospheric pollution be considered a co factor in extremely high level of SARS-CoV-2 lethality in Northern Italy?. *Environ. Pollut*; 2020, 261, Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.114465>.
25. Daniele Fattorini, Francesco Regoli. Role of the atmospheric pollution in the Covid-19 outbreak risk in Italy. *medRxiv*; 2020, Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.23.20076455>.
26. Yaron Ogen. Assesing nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) levels as a contributing factor to coronavirus (COVID-19) fatality. *Sci. Total Environ*; 2020, 726, Available from: [www.doi:10.1016/ j.scitotenv.2020.138605](http://www.doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.138605).
27. Leonardo Setti, Fabrizio Passarini, Gianluigi De Gennaro, et al. SARS-Cov-2 RNA Found on Particulate Matter of Bergamo in Northern Italy: First Preliminary Evidence. *medRxiv*; 2020, Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.15.20065995>.