

Casual correlation between overweight, obesity, and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure

A two-sample Mendelian randomization

Shiqiang Chen, BS^a, Qiang Zhang, BS^a, Xiaobing Zhang, BS^a, Peiyao Xie, BS^a, Hua Guo, BS^a, Fengling Lu, BS^a, Chaoyang Zhou, MPS^b, Fubo Dong, MPS^{b,*}

Abstract

This study aimed to detect the causal association of overweight and obesity on severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure through a two-sample Mendelian randomization (MR) method based on the genome-wide association studies datasets. All genome-wide association studies summary data of exposures and outcome used in this study were obtained from the IEU database derived from Europeans. The study mainly used the inverse variance weighted method to test causal relationship. Simultaneously, MR-PRESSO and MR-EGGER were used to detect the pleiotropy, and sensitivity analysis was performed using leave-one-out analysis. In the inverse variance weighted analyses, we found no causal association between obesity (e.g., OR = 1.15, 95% CIs = 0.96–1.37, $P = .13$ for obesity-ebi-a-GCST90000255), obesity subtypes (e.g., OR = 1.93, 95% CIs = 0.90–4.14, $P = .10$ for obesity and other hyperalimentation) as well as overweight (OR = 0.90, 95% CIs = 0.64–1.27, $P = .54$) and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure. The findings showed no causal association between obesity or overweight and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure. Further validation is needed regarding whether obesity or overweight is a risk factor for it.

Abbreviations: GWAS = genome-wide association studies, IVs = instrumental variables, IVW = inverse variance weighted, LD = linkage disequilibrium, LOO = leave-one-out, MR = Mendelian randomization, SNPs = single nucleotide polymorphisms, VitD = vitamin D.

Keywords: Mendelian randomization, obesity, overweight, severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure

1. Introduction

Novel coronavirus infection has been a worldwide pandemic for >4 years.^[1,2] Although the pathogenicity of novel coronaviruses is currently weakening and the characteristics of the disease have changed, there is still no sign of disappearing.^[3] Since the future variation of the virus cannot be predicted, novel coronavirus infection remains a major global public health problem, which needs continuous attention.^[4]

Following the relevant preventive measures, novel coronavirus infection has been largely controlled, and the number of cases has decreased significantly.^[5] Most of the infected persons have mild symptoms, but patients with severe symptoms of novel coronavirus infections are still a key concern. One of the major manifestations of severe patients of novel coronavirus infection is severe respiratory failure, which can be directly

life-threatening.^[6,7] Therefore, identifying the risk factors of severe patients infected with novel coronavirus as soon as possible can effectively reduce the risk of turning into severe patients.

Multiple studies have demonstrated that obesity was independent risk factor of respiratory failure in patients with COVID-19.^[8,9] In addition, it was not uncommon for overweight patients to experience respiratory failure in clinical practice. Unfortunately, few studies have proved the causal relationship between overweight, obesity and severe COVID-19 disease patients with respiratory failure. In previous studies, randomized controlled trials were the gold standard for exploring the relationship between risk factors and diseases, but due to the influence of potential confounding factors and reverse causality, they cannot be explained as clear causal relationships.^[10] In

This study was supported by 2023 Zhejiang Province Medicine and Health Science and Technology Program (No. 2023KY1348).

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are publicly available.

We used GWAS data publicly available. Ethical approval and appropriate patient consent were obtained in the original studies.

Supplemental Digital Content is available for this article.

^a Department of Emergency and Critical Care Medicine, Yuhuan People's Hospital, Taizhou, China, ^b Department of Critical Care Medicine, Yuhuan People's Hospital, Taizhou, China.

* Correspondence: Fubo Dong, Department of Critical Care Medicine, Yuhuan People's Hospital, Taizhou 317600, China (e-mail: dongfbyhcu@163.com).

Copyright © 2025 the Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial License 4.0 (CCBY-NC), where it is permissible to download, share, remix, transform, and build upon the work provided it is properly cited. The work cannot be used commercially without permission from the journal.

How to cite this article: Chen S, Zhang Q, Zhang X, Xie P, Guo H, Lu F, Zhou C, Dong F. Casual correlation between overweight, obesity, and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure: A two-sample Mendelian randomization. *Medicine* 2025;104:1(e41006).

Received: 25 August 2024 / Received in final form: 21 November 2024 / Accepted: 1 December 2024

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000000041006>

recent years, the rapid development of genome-wide association studies (GWAS) has provided an opportunity for the widespread application of Mendelian randomization (MR) research in causal inference.^[11,12]

MR is an analytical method that uses genetic variation as latent instrumental variables (IVs) to determine whether the observational association between risk factors and diseases conforms to causal effects.^[13] It can address the limitations of traditional epidemiological research methods. The genetic variations used in MR studies are typically single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) with significant differences selected from GWAS, which are reliably associated with the risk factors studied.^[14]

In summary, this study aimed to detect the causal association of overweight and obesity on severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure through a two-sample MR method based on the GWAS datasets.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Data source

All GWAS summary data used in this study were obtained from the IEU database (<https://gwas.mrcieu.ac.uk/>, accessed on February 2, 2024) derived from Europeans, in which we retrieved all overweight and obesity data as 12 exposures. Of these, overweight and obesity class 1 to 3 were derived from the study published in 2013 by Sonja I Berndt et al of the GIANT consortium including 93,015 cases and 65,840 controls with a total of 2,435,045 SNPs for overweight, 32,858 cases and 65,839 controls totaling 2,380,428 SNPs for obesity class 1, 9889 cases and 62,657 controls with 2,331,456 SNPs for obesity class 2, 2896 cases and 47,468 controls sum up to 2,250,779 SNPs for obesity class 3.^[15] We also obtained data on obesity and childhood obesity from a genome-wide association meta-analysis in 2012 that included 5530 cases and 8318 controls with 2,430,514 SNPs for obesity and 2,442,739 SNPs for childhood obesity, respectively.^[16] Furthermore, 6 subtypes of obesity, heart failure and body mass index 25plus, drug-induced obesity, extreme obesity with alveolar hypoventilation, obesity, and other hyperalimentation, obesity as well as obesity due to

excess calories were also obtained from FinnGen (<https://www.finnngen.fi/fi>).

Severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure (analysis I) as an outcome variable was downloaded from the IEU database (<https://gwas.mrcieu.ac.uk/>, accessed on February 2, 2024) likewise. The study included 1610 cases and 2205 controls after quality control and the exclusion of population outliers, totaling 8,095,360 SNPs published in 2020^[17] (Table 1).

2.2. Selecting instrumental variables

Firstly, the IVs included in this study were required to meet the following criteria: (i) SNPs significantly associated with obesity and overweight genome-wide were firstly screened, and the screening criterion was $P < 5 \times 10^{-6}$; (ii) SNPs with minimum allele frequency > 0.01 were screened; (iii) SNPs were excluded according to the criteria of $R^2 < 0.001$, window size = 10,000kb when the screened IVs were not present in the summary data of the endpoints, the linkage disequilibrium (LD) effect among SNPs was excluded; (iv) when the screened IVs were not present in the summary data of the outcome, proxy SNPs with high LD ($R^2 > 0.8$) to IVs were searched through the online platforms LD link for replacement^[18] (<https://ldlink.nci.nih.gov/>, February 2, 2024 accessed); (v) F -values were calculated for each SNP in the IVs to assess the strength of the IVs and exclude possible weak instrumental variables bias between the IVs and exposure factors, calculated as follows: $F = R^2(N - 2)/(1 - R^2)$ with R^2 being the proportion of variation in the exposure explained by the SNPs in the IVs, and the requirement for the F -value being > 10 .^[19,20]

Secondly, we conducted a harmonization process to align the effect alleles of the exposure and outcome SNPs, identify and exclude SNPs with incompatible alleles and palindromic SNP with intermediate frequency.^[19]

2.3. Mendelian randomization analysis

The inverse variance weighted (IVW) method with high confidence because of calculate the weighted mean to assess the

Table 1

Data sources of overweight, obesity, and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure.

Trait	Consortium	GWAS ID	Population			
			Case/control	Decent	SNPs	PMID
Exposure						
Overweight*	GIANT	ieu-a-93	93,015/65,840	European	2,435,045	23563607
Obesity class 1 [†]	GIANT	ieu-a-90	32,858/65,839	European	2,380,428	23563607
Obesity class 2 [‡]	GIANT	ieu-a-91	9889/62,657	European	2,331,456	23563607
Obesity class 3 [§]	GIANT	ieu-a-92	2896/47,468	European	2,250,779	23563607
Obesity	NA	ebi-a-GCST001475	5530/8318	European	2,430,514	22484627
Childhood obesity	EGG	ieu-a-1096	5530/8318	European	2,442,739	22484627
Heart failure and BMI 25plus	NA	finn-b-l9_HEARTFAIL_AND_OVERWEIGHT	23,701/195,091	European	16,380,466	
Drug-induced obesity [¶]	NA	finn-b-E4_OBESITYDRUG	115/209,884	European	16,380,447	
Extreme obesity with alveolar hypoventilation [¶]	NA	finn-b-E4_OBESITYXTRMALV	454/209,884	European	16,380,450	
Obesity and other hyperalimentation [¶]	NA	finn-b-E4_OBESITY_HYPER	8965/209,827	European	16,380,466	
Obesity [¶]	NA	finn-b-E4_OBESITY	8908/209,827	European	16,380,465	
Obesity due to excess calories [¶]	NA	finn-b-E4_OBESITYCAL	5883/209,884	European	16,380,461	
Outcome						
Severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure (analysis I)	NA	ebi-a-GCST90000255	1610/2205	European	8,095,360	32558485

* Body mass index (BMI) ≥ 25 kg/m².

† BMI ≥ 30 kg/m².

‡ BMI ≥ 35 kg/m².

§ BMI ≥ 40 kg/m².

|| ≥ 95 th percentile of BMI achieved before the age of 18 years old, representing 5% to 30% of any given cohort.

¶ A disorder involving an excessive amount of body fat.

GWAS = genome-wide association studies; SNPs = single nucleotide polymorphisms.

causality of the study is the primary method.^[21] To assess the robustness and credibility of our MR results, we also performed several sensitivity analyses when necessarily: (1) MR-Egger regression to evaluate the directional pleiotropy of instruments^[22]; (2) weighted median-based method^[23] when instrumental variables might be invalid; (3) maximum likelihood method^[24]; (4) MR-PRESSO test to identify outliers.^[25] MR analyses in our study were performed using the “TwoSampleMR” package in R software version 4.3.3. Since there were 12 exposures in this study, the *P*-values of the associations were corrected using the Bonferroni correction method considered statistically significant with a $P_{\text{Bonferroni}} < 0.004 (0.05/12 \times 1)$.^[26]

2.4. Sensitivity analysis

To verify the robustness of the above causal associations, we also used Cochran *Q* and funnel plots to test for heterogeneity,^[27]

as well as MR-Egger regression^[28] and MR-PRESSO to test for pleiotropy,^[29] with MRPRESSO simultaneously detecting and removing possible outliers. Finally, we also used leave-one-out (LOO) to identify the potential effect of each SNP.^[30]

3. Results

3.1. Included instrumental variables

Our study finally screened 288 IVs strongly related to obesity or overweight, involving a total of 12 exposure variables from the IEU database. The mean value of the *F*-statistic for IVs was calculated to be 32.38, ranging from 20.25 to 306.24. Each *R*² and the *F*-statistics indicated no evidence of weak instrumental bias. The proxy SNP would take the place of any SNPs that did not match the information in the summary data. Moreover, SNPs with intermediate or incompatible allele frequencies would be eliminated (Table S1, Supplemental Digital Content,

Table 2
Major Mendelian randomization results of severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure and obesity and overweight.

Outcome	Exposure	ID. exposure	Methods	N. SNPs	OR (95% CI)	<i>P</i>
Severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure (analysis I)	Obesity	ebi-a-GCST001475	IVW	14	1.15 (0.96–1.37)	.13
	Obesity	ebi-a-GCST001475	MR-Egger	14	1.68 (0.69–4.08)	.28
	Obesity	ebi-a-GCST001475	Weighted median	14	1.13 (0.89–1.44)	.32
	Obesity	ebi-a-GCST001475	Weighted mode	14	1.10 (0.77–1.57)	.61
	Obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITY	IVW	30	1.25 (0.98–1.58)	.07
	Obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITY	MR-Egger	30	1.60 (0.81–3.15)	.18
	Obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITY	Weighted median	30	1.14 (0.84–1.57)	.40
	Obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITY	Weighted mode	30	1.08 (0.56–2.10)	.82
	Obesity and other hyperalimentation	finn-b-E4_OBESITY_HYPER	IVW	29	1.27 (0.99–1.63)	.06
	Obesity and other hyperalimentation	finn-b-E4_OBESITY_HYPER	MR-Egger	29	1.93 (0.90–4.14)	.10
	Obesity and other hyperalimentation	finn-b-E4_OBESITY_HYPER	Weighted median	29	1.30 (0.93–1.81)	.12
	Obesity and other hyperalimentation	finn-b-E4_OBESITY_HYPER	Weighted mode	29	1.77 (0.86–3.65)	.13
	Obesity due to excess calories	finn-b-E4_OBESITYCAL	IVW	16	1.11 (0.89–1.39)	.35
	Obesity due to excess calories	finn-b-E4_OBESITYCAL	MR-Egger	16	1.61 (0.82–3.16)	.19
	Obesity due to excess calories	finn-b-E4_OBESITYCAL	Weighted median	16	0.98 (0.71–1.35)	.90
	Obesity due to excess calories	finn-b-E4_OBESITYCAL	Weighted mode	16	1.01 (0.69–1.46)	.98
	Drug-induced obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITYDRUG	IVW	8	1.02 (0.97–1.08)	.42
	Drug-induced obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITYDRUG	MR-Egger	8	1.07 (0.95–1.20)	.33
	Drug-induced obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITYDRUG	Weighted median	8	1.01 (0.94–1.08)	.74
	Drug-induced obesity	finn-b-E4_OBESITYDRUG	Weighted mode	8	1.01 (0.92–1.11)	.84
	Extreme obesity with alveolar	finn-b-E4_OBESITYXTRMALV	IVW	12	1.01 (0.93–1.09)	.82
	Extreme obesity with alveolar	finn-b-E4_OBESITYXTRMALV	MR-Egger	12	0.98 (0.83–1.16)	.84
	Extreme obesity with alveolar	finn-b-E4_OBESITYXTRMALV	Weighted median	12	0.99 (0.88–1.11)	.83
	Extreme obesity with alveolar	finn-b-E4_OBESITYXTRMALV	Weighted mode	12	0.98 (0.82–1.17)	.86
	Heart failure and BMI 25plus	finn-b-I9_HEARTFAIL_AND_OVERWEIGHT	IVW	22	0.76 (0.54–1.06)	.11
	Heart failure and BMI 25plus	finn-b-I9_HEARTFAIL_AND_OVERWEIGHT	MR-Egger	22	0.77 (0.43–1.37)	.38
	Heart failure and BMI 25plus	finn-b-I9_HEARTFAIL_AND_OVERWEIGHT	Weighted median	22	0.74 (0.47–1.18)	.20
	Heart failure and BMI 25plus	finn-b-I9_HEARTFAIL_AND_OVERWEIGHT	Weighted mode	22	0.75 (0.44–1.26)	.29
	Childhood obesity	ieu-a-1096	IVW	14	1.15 (0.96–1.37)	.13
	Childhood obesity	ieu-a-1096	MR-Egger	14	1.68 (0.69–4.08)	.28
	Childhood obesity	ieu-a-1096	Weighted median	14	1.13 (0.88–1.45)	.33
	Childhood obesity	ieu-a-1096	Weighted mode	14	1.10 (0.78–1.55)	.60
	Obesity class 1	ieu-a-90	IVW	36	1.07 (0.87–1.31)	.52
	Obesity class 1	ieu-a-90	MR-Egger	36	0.94 (0.55–1.60)	.82
	Obesity class 1	ieu-a-90	Weighted median	36	0.99 (0.74–1.33)	.96
	Obesity class 1	ieu-a-90	Weighted mode	36	0.94 (0.65–1.38)	.77
	Obesity class 2	ieu-a-91	IVW	29	1.05 (0.90–1.23)	.51
	Obesity class 2	ieu-a-91	MR-Egger	29	0.85 (0.55–1.30)	.45
	Obesity class 2	ieu-a-91	Weighted median	29	1.08 (0.86–1.35)	.53
	Obesity class 2	ieu-a-91	Weighted mode	29	1.02 (0.78–1.35)	.88
	Obesity class 3	ieu-a-92	IVW	10	0.95 (0.82–1.10)	.48
	Obesity class 3	ieu-a-92	MR-Egger	10	0.80 (0.48–1.32)	.40
	Obesity class 3	ieu-a-92	Weighted median	10	0.94 (0.77–1.14)	.51
	Obesity class 3	ieu-a-92	Weighted mode	10	0.94 (0.75–1.18)	.60
	Overweight	ieu-a-93	IVW	24	0.90 (0.64–1.27)	.54
	Overweight	ieu-a-93	MR-Egger	24	1.06 (0.40–2.77)	.91
	Overweight	ieu-a-93	Weighted median	24	0.84 (0.49–1.43)	.52
	Overweight	ieu-a-93	Weighted mode	24	0.76 (0.40–1.45)	.42

IVW = inverse variance weighted; SNPs = single nucleotide polymorphisms.

<http://links.lww.com/MD/O216>, which illustrates details information for each SNP corresponding to exposure and outcome variables).

3.2. Casual correlation of overweight and obesity on severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure

Table 2 showed the results of obesity and its subtypes or overweight with severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure using the 4 MR methods. The IVW method was the main results that we interested. In the IVW analyses, we found no causal association between obesity (e.g., OR = 1.15, 95% CIs = 0.96–1.37, $P = .13$ for obesity-ebi-a-GCST90000255), obesity subtypes (e.g., OR = 1.93, 95% CIs = 0.90–4.14, $P = .10$ for obesity and other hyperalimention) as well as overweight (OR = 0.90, 95% CIs = 0.64–1.27,

$P = .54$) and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure. The MR-Egger, weighted median, and weighted mode also validated this result. In addition, the MR-PRESSO method did not identify any outliers between them. Therefore, there was no causal relationship between exposures and outcome. Figure 1 displayed the scatter plot and forest plot of obesity-ebi-a-GCST90000255 with severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure. Other scatter plot and forest plot were shown in Figures S1 to S22, Supplemental Digital Content, <http://links.lww.com/MD/O217>.

3.3. Sensitivity analysis

Several sensitivity analyses, including the heterogeneity test, the pleiotropy test, and the LOO analysis, were performed in this

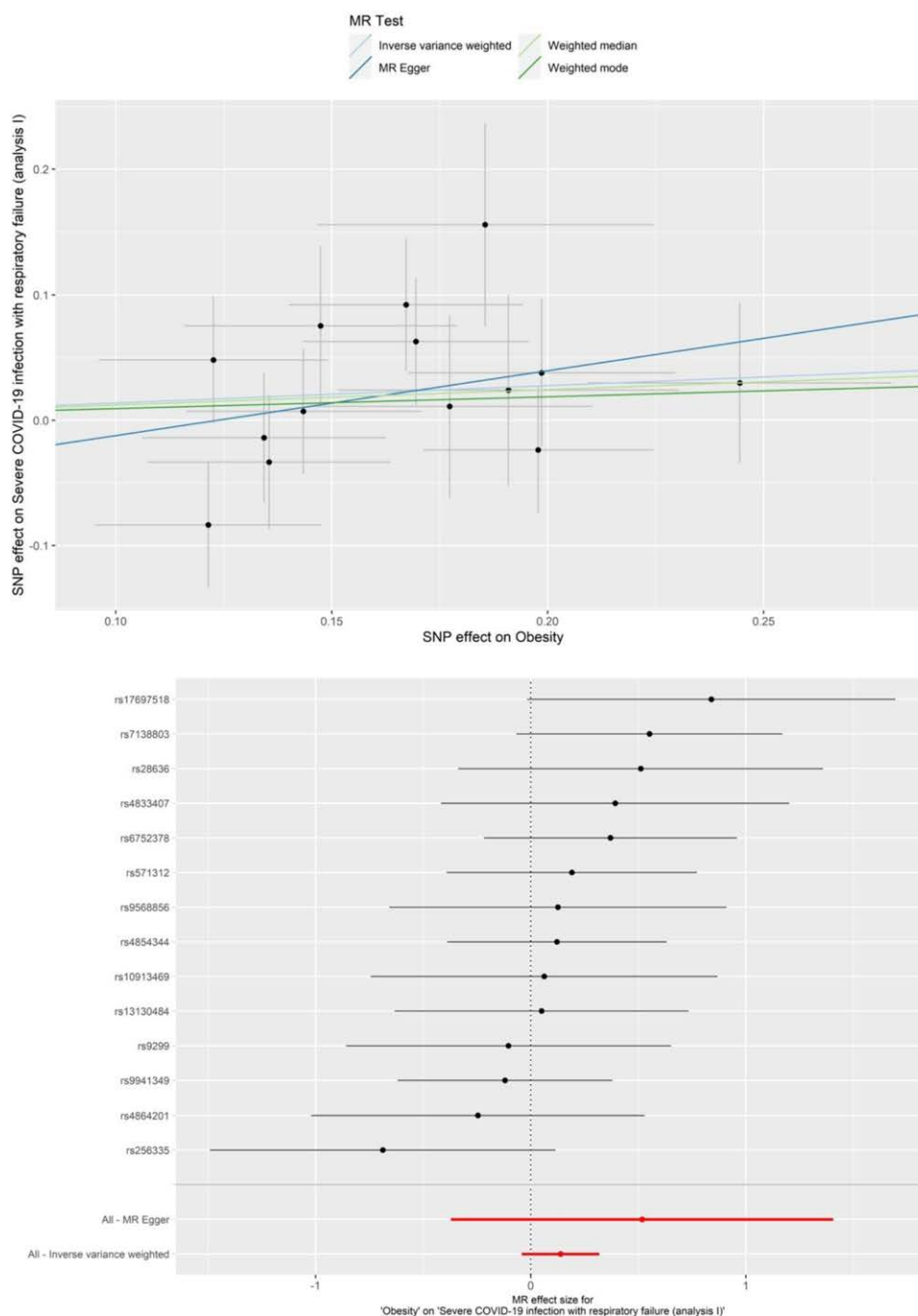


Figure 1. MR results of obesity-ebi-a-GCST90000255 and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure (scatter plot and forest plot).

study to confirm the robustness of the MR results. Firstly, the results of funnel plots and Cochran Q test showed that there was no heterogeneity in MR analysis (All P -values $> .05$) (Table 3, Fig. 2, and Figs. S23–S33, Supplemental Digital Content, <http://links.lww.com/MD/O217>). Secondly, the MR-Egger intercept test showed no pleiotropy in the results of the MR analyses (all P -values $> .05$) (Table 3). The results of MR-PRESSO similarly confirmed this result (Table 4). In addition, LOO analysis showed that rs11199714, rs734597, rs2027575, rs1994380, rs79598028, and rs35286147 may potentially affect the IVW result of obesity-finn-b-E4_OBESITY and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure (Fig. S34, Supplemental Digital Content, <http://links.lww.com/MD/O217>). However, similar SNPs were not found in other LOO analyses (Fig. 3 and Figs. S35–S44, Supplemental Digital Content, <http://links.lww.com/MD/O217>).

4. Discussion

Our study used GWAS data from IEU database to investigate the causal relationship between overweight, obesity, and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure by MR analysis. Moreover, we used various statistical analyses to ensure the

accuracy and reliability of the results. The results demonstrated that there was no causal connection between overweight, obesity, and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure.

Previous research on overweight, obesity, and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure were inconsistent with this study. As is well known, obesity causes chronic inflammation and the secretion of various cytokines. In acute infections caused by COVID-19, this relatively high level of cytokines can lead to more severe inflammation.^[31] Moreover, obesity-induced elevated blood glucose, blood pressure, and abnormal lipid metabolism are expressed in the form of metabolic syndrome, which weakens the immune system.^[31] It can be seen that the inflammation and metabolic adverse effects caused by obesity will have adverse effects on COVID-19. A systematic review highlighted that obesity was a risk factor for more severe disease in past pandemics. People with overweight or obese are particularly vulnerable to severe respiratory failure in a state of chronic low-grade inflammation.^[32] Numerous studies have also demonstrated that obesity was an important risk factor for severe COVID-19 disease such as respiratory failure, admission to the intensive care unit, and death.^[8,9,33] Remarkably, there was evidence that the severity of COVID-19 was associated with overweight and obesity, that is, the severity of COVID-19 appears to increase with increasing body mass index.^[34] A study conducted in Japan to explore the relationship between overweight, obesity, and the risk of COVID-19 severity showed that obesity and overweight were associated with the increased risk of severe COVID-19, respectively. The researchers also found that the relative risk for COVID-19 induced respiratory failure compared to the normal weight category were 1.57 for overweight and 2.45 for obesity.^[35] Potential pathophysiological mechanisms that may explain the strong relationship between the severity of COVID-19 and overweight/obesity include chronic pro-inflammatory states, excessive oxidative stress response, and immune impairment.^[36–40] Obesity may increase the severity of COVID-19 infection, since the inflammation and immune system of obese patients play a role in viral diseases.^[41] Compared with non-obese patients, obese patients have a higher viral load and longer virus shedding time.^[42] Patients with obesity affected by the SARS-CoV-2 virus may make disease progression and even experience respiratory failure.^[43] In addition, a study involving 56,033 hospitalizations found that obesity was independently associated with poorer patient prognosis in COVID-19 hospitalizations, and was connected with higher in-hospital mortality and higher rates of mechanical ventilation.^[44] The deleterious effects of obesity on the immune system increase the severity of infections and reduce the ability of the immune system to produce antibodies.^[45]

Although obesity is widely recognized as a predisposing risk factor for adverse outcomes of COVID-19 infection, several

Table 3
Heterogeneity and pleiotropy of severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure and obesity and overweight.

Outcome	Exposure	Heterogeneity (IVW)		Pleiotropy	
		Q	P value	MR-Egger intercept	P value
Severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure (analysis I)	Obesity	12.59	.48	-0.06	.41
	Obesity	36.06	.17	-0.03	.45
	Obesity and other hyperalimentation	37.21	.11	-0.05	.27
	Obesity due to excess calories	15.76	.40	-0.06	.28
	Drug-induced obesity	3.62	.82	-0.05	.46
	Extreme obesity with alveolar	10.40	.49	0.02	.73
	Heart failure and BMI 25plus	18.58	.61	0.00	.98
	Childhood obesity	12.59	.48	-0.06	.41
	Obesity class 1	26.19	.86	0.01	.61
	Obesity class 2	24.17	.67	0.03	.29
	Obesity class 3	6.99	.64	0.04	.50
	Overweight	21.60	.54	-0.01	.73

BMI = body mass index, IVW = inverse variance weighted.

Table 4
MRPRESSO testing of severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure and obesity and overweight.

Exposure	Outcome	Raw		Outlier corrected		Global P	Number of outliers	Distortion P
		OR (CI%)	P	OR (CI%)	P			
ebi-a-GCST001475	Severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure (analysis I)	1.12 (0.94–1.33)	.23	NA	NA	.53	NA	NA
finn-b-E4_OBESITY		1.16 (0.96–1.42)	.14	NA	NA	.23	NA	NA
finn-b-E4_OBESITY_HYPER		1.17 (0.96–1.44)	.14	NA	NA	.18	NA	NA
finn-b-E4_OBESITYCAL		1.08 (0.89–1.31)	.44	NA	NA	.60	NA	NA
finn-b-E4_OBESITYDRUG		1.02 (0.99–1.05)	.28	NA	NA	.88	NA	NA
finn-b-E4_OBESITYXTRMALV		1.01 (0.94–1.09)	.82	NA	NA	.46	NA	NA
finn-b-I9_HEARTFAIL_AND_OVERWEIGHT		0.76 (0.56–1.03)	.09	NA	NA	.71	NA	NA
ieu-a-1096		1.12 (0.94–1.33)	.23	NA	NA	.49	NA	NA
ieu-a-90		1.07 (0.92–1.26)	.38	NA	NA	.93	NA	NA
ieu-a-91		1.06 (0.92–1.23)	.41	NA	NA	.49	NA	NA
ieu-a-92		0.95 (0.83–1.08)	.45	NA	NA	.69	NA	NA
ieu-a-93		0.99 (0.75–1.29)	.92	NA	NA	.80	NA	NA

studies demonstrated a protective effect. This observation is known as the obesity paradox. Obesity paradox is that obesity does not necessarily shorten the expected survival time of patients, and may even be beneficial in some cases.^[46] It was

seen in respiratory disease,^[47,48] end-stage renal disease,^[49] and cardiovascular disease.^[50] Obese patients may exhibit higher survival rate and shorter hospital length-of-stay, potentially due to a greater metabolic reserve during the recovery phase

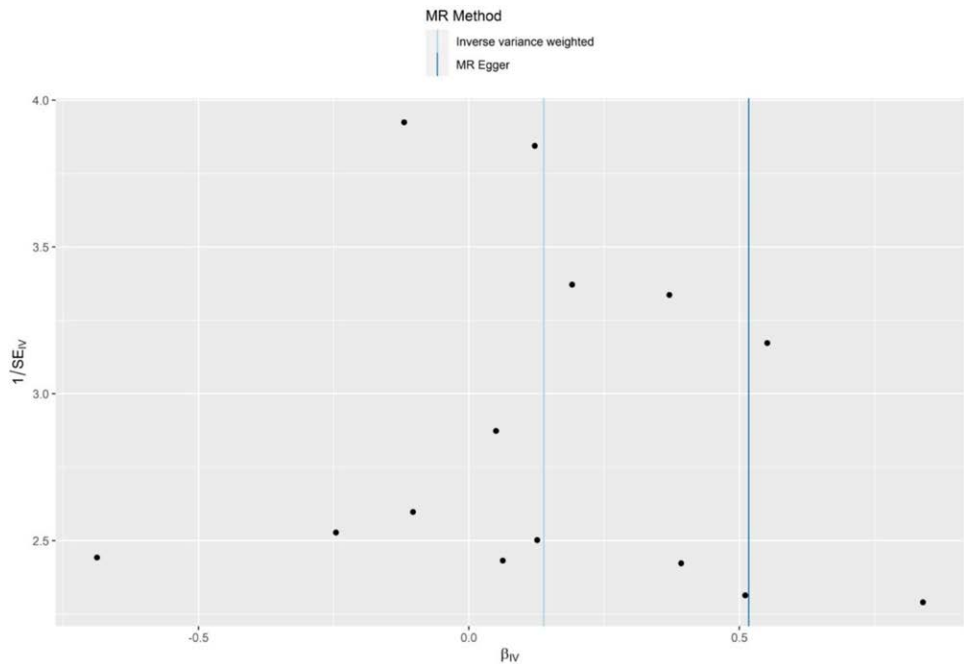


Figure 2. Funnel plot of obesity-ebi-a-GCST90000255 and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure.

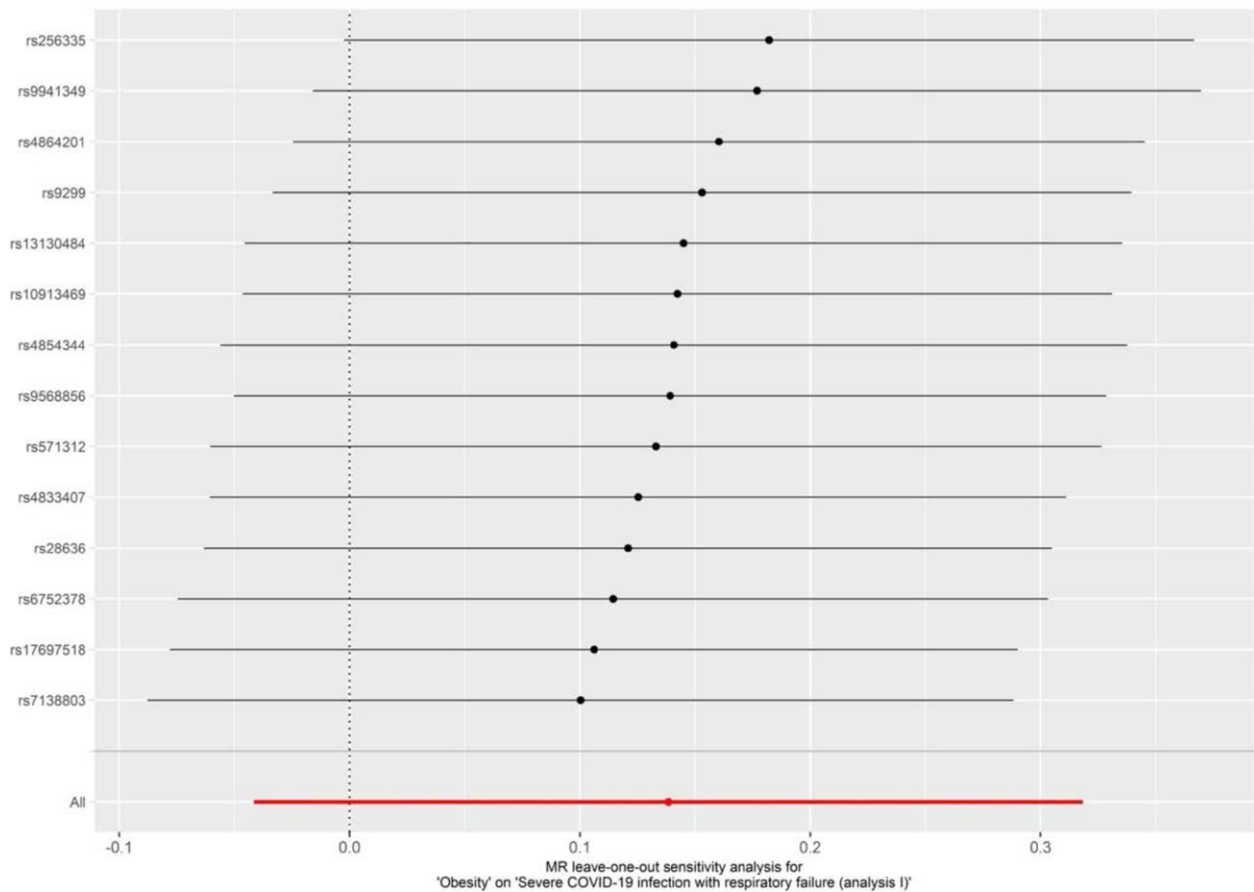


Figure 3. Leave-one-out analysis for obesity-ebi-a-GCST90000255 and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure.

of critical illness.^[51,52] Lavie et al found that there was an obesity paradox in COVID-19, with obese patients having lower mortality than normal-weight ones. The mortality of overweight patients was 36% lower than in normal-weight group, while the mortality in obese patients was 45% lower than in normal-weight group.^[53] Furthermore, Dana et al conducted a retrospective study suggested that COVID-19 patients admitted to the intensive care unit with moderate obesity had a lower risk of death (13.8%) than healthy-weight patients, or those with overweight or severe obesity (17.6%, 21.7%, and 50%, respectively).^[54] However, the new emerging evidence demonstrated that obesity was not associated with higher mortality rates in critically ill patients with COVID-19.^[55] In addition, a large meta-analysis involving 6268 patients indicated that obesity may have a protective effect in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome.^[56] One proposed pathophysiological mechanism for the reduced mortality in critically ill patients with obesity is preconditioning, a chronic pro-inflammatory state associated with obesity that creates a protective environment, limiting the detrimental effects of a more aggressive second hit.^[57] Notably, obesity predisposes to vitamin D (VitD) deficiency,^[58,59] and VitD has been shown to play a crucial role in the immune response of the respiratory system.^[60] A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials including 8128 participants found that VitD supplementation may have some beneficial effects on the severity of SARS-CoV-2-induced disease, especially in VitD-deficient patients.^[61] Clinical data suggested that VitD reduced respiratory virus replication and had a preventive effect on viral respiratory infections.^[60] Therefore, obese patients should pay more attention to supplementing VitD to cope with the risk of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

The strength of this study was the application of MR to infer the causal association between overweight, obesity and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure. As far as we know, the association between overweight, obesity, and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure has not been previously studied using MR. Nevertheless, several limitations of this study were noteworthy. Firstly, MR did not consider the interaction between genes and the environment. Secondly, the population included in this study was of European ethnicity. Therefore, our results cannot represent entire populations. Whether the results of this study represent the entire population still needs to be validated with more diverse populations. In the future studies, our conclusions can be verified by MR analysis of GWAS databases from different sources. Thirdly, although MR analysis can be used as a method to infer causal relationships between exposures and outcomes, there is still a need to confirm our findings with large-scale clinical studies or experiments.

5. Conclusions

The findings showed no causal association between obesity or overweight and severe COVID-19 infection with respiratory failure. Further validation is needed regarding whether obesity or overweight is a risk factor for it.

Acknowledgments

All authors would like to thank all investigators for the summary data of published GWAS from the IEU database (<https://gwas.mrcieu.ac.uk/>; <https://gwas.mrcieu.ac.uk/datasets/finn-b-I9VARICVE/>).

Author contributions

Conceptualization: Shiqiang Chen, Chaoyang Zhou.

Formal analysis: Shiqiang Chen, Qiang Zhang, Xiaobing Zhang, Peiyao Xie, Hua Guo, Fengling Lu.

Writing – original draft: Shiqiang Chen, Fubo Dong.

Writing – review & editing: Shiqiang Chen, Qiang Zhang, Xiaobing Zhang, Peiyao Xie, Hua Guo, Fengling Lu, Chaoyang Zhou, Fubo Dong.

References

- [1] Loza A, Wong-Chew RM, Jiménez-Corona ME, et al. Two-year follow-up of the COVID-19 pandemic in Mexico. *Front Public Health*. 2022;10:1050673.
- [2] Tracking development assistance for health and for COVID-19: a review of development assistance, government, out-of-pocket, and other private spending on health for 204 countries and territories, 1990–2050. *Lancet* (London, England). 2021;398:1317–43.
- [3] Ma Y, Xu S, Luo Y, et al. Predicting the transmission dynamics of novel coronavirus infection in Shanxi province after the implementation of the “Class B infectious disease Class B management” policy. *Front Public Health*. 2023;11:1322430.
- [4] Wu D, Mitchell J, Lambert JH. Global systemic risk and resilience for novel coronavirus with evolving perspectives. *Risk Analysis*. 2023;43:5–7.
- [5] Castruita JAS, Schneider UV, Møllerup S, et al. SARS-CoV-2 spike mRNA vaccine sequences circulate in blood up to 28 days after COVID-19 vaccination. *APMIS*. 2023;131:128–32.
- [6] Murakami N, Hayden R, Hills T, et al. Therapeutic advances in COVID-19. *Nat Rev Nephrol*. 2023;19:38–52.
- [7] Wang RS, Loscalzo J. Repurposing drugs for the treatment of COVID-19 and its cardiovascular manifestations. *Circ Res*. 2023;132:1374–86.
- [8] Wang J, Zhu L, Liu L, et al. Overweight and obesity are risk factors of severe illness in patients with COVID-19. *Obesity* (Silver Spring, Md). 2020;28:2049–55.
- [9] Rottoli M, Bernante P, Belvedere A, et al. How important is obesity as a risk factor for respiratory failure, intensive care admission and death in hospitalised COVID-19 patients? Results from a single Italian centre. *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2020;183:389–97.
- [10] Hariton E, Locascio JJ. Randomised controlled trials – the gold standard for effectiveness research: Study design: randomised controlled trials. *BJOG*. 2018;125:1716.
- [11] Maina JG, Balkhiyarova Z, Nouwen A, et al. Bidirectional Mendelian randomization and multiphenotype GWAS show causality and shared pathophysiology between depression and type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2023;46:1707–14.
- [12] Deng MG, Liu F, Liang Y, Wang K, Nie JQ, Liu J. Association between frailty and depression: a bidirectional Mendelian randomization study. *Sci Adv*. 2023;9:eadi3902.
- [13] Birney E. Mendelian randomization. *Cold Spring Harbor Perspect Med*. 2022;12:a041302.
- [14] Yarmolinsky J, Díez-Obrero V, Richardson TG, et al. Genetically proxied therapeutic inhibition of antihypertensive drug targets and risk of common cancers: a Mendelian randomization analysis. *PLoS Med*. 2022;19:e1003897.
- [15] Berndt SI, Gustafsson S, Mägi R, et al. Genome-wide meta-analysis identifies 11 new loci for anthropometric traits and provides insights into genetic architecture. *Nat Genet*. 2013;45:501–12.
- [16] Bradfield JP, Taal HR, Timpson NJ, et al. A genome-wide association meta-analysis identifies new childhood obesity loci. *Nat Genet*. 2012;44:526–31.
- [17] Ellinghaus D, Degenhardt F, Bujanda L, et al. Genomewide association study of severe Covid-19 with respiratory failure. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;383:1522–34.
- [18] Hemani G, Tilling K, Davey Smith G. Orienting the causal relationship between imprecisely measured traits using GWAS summary data. *PLoS Genet*. 2017;13:e1007081.
- [19] Hemani G, Zheng J, Elsworth B, et al. The MR-base platform supports systematic causal inference across the human phenotype. *eLife*. 2018;7.
- [20] Davies NM, Holmes MV, Davey Smith G. Reading Mendelian randomisation studies: a guide, glossary, and checklist for clinicians. *BMJ* (Clinical Research Ed). 2018;362:k601.
- [21] Yuan S, Larsson S. Causal associations of iron status with gout and rheumatoid arthritis, but not with inflammatory bowel disease. *Clinical Nutrition* (Edinburgh, Scotland). 2020;39:3119–24.
- [22] Bowden J, Davey Smith G, Burgess S. Mendelian randomization with invalid instruments: effect estimation and bias detection through Egger regression. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2015;44:512–25.

- [23] Bowden J, Davey Smith G, Haycock PC, Burgess S. Consistent estimation in Mendelian randomization with some invalid instruments using a weighted median estimator. *Genet Epidemiol*. 2016;40:304–14.
- [24] Nguyen LT, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2015;32:268–74.
- [25] Verbanck M, Chen CY, Neale B, Do R. Detection of widespread horizontal pleiotropy in causal relationships inferred from Mendelian randomization between complex traits and diseases. *Nat Genet*. 2018;50:693–8.
- [26] Kappelmann N, Arloth J, Georgakis MK, et al. Dissecting the association between inflammation, metabolic dysregulation, and specific depressive symptoms: a genetic correlation and 2-sample Mendelian randomization study. *JAMA psychiatry*. 2021;78:161–70.
- [27] Shu MJ, Li JR, Zhu YC, Shen H. Migraine and ischemic stroke: a Mendelian randomization study. *Neurol Ther*. 2022;11:237–46.
- [28] Cai J, Chen X, Wang H, et al. Iron status may not affect amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a Mendelian randomization study. *Front Genet*. 2021;12:617245.
- [29] Burgess S, Thompson SG. Interpreting findings from Mendelian randomization using the MR-Egger method. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2017;32:377–89.
- [30] Yu H, Wan X, Yang M, et al. A large-scale causal analysis of gut microbiota and delirium: a Mendelian randomization study. *J Affect Disord*. 2023;329:64–71.
- [31] Mathieu P, Lemieux I, Després JP. Obesity, inflammation, and cardiovascular risk. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2010;87:407–16.
- [32] Zakka K, Chidambaram S, Mansour S, et al. SARS-CoV-2 and Obesity: “CoVesity” – a pandemic within a pandemic. *Obes Surg*. 2021;31:1745–54.
- [33] Amin MT, Fatema K, Arefin S, Hussain F, Bhowmik DR, Hossain MS. Obesity, a major risk factor for immunity and severe outcomes of COVID-19. *Biosci Rep*. 2021;41:BSR20210979.
- [34] Caci G, Albini A, Malerba M, Noonan DM, Pochetti P, Polosa R. COVID-19 and obesity: dangerous liaisons. *J Clin Med*. 2020;9:2511.
- [35] Kadowaki T, Matsumoto N, Matsuo R, et al. Obesity, overweight, and severe prognosis in COVID-19 patients in Japan. *J Infect Chemother*. 2023;29:1109–13.
- [36] Luzi L, Radaelli MG. Influenza and obesity: its odd relationship and the lessons for COVID-19 pandemic. *Acta Diabetol*. 2020;57:759–64.
- [37] Fezeu L, Julia C, Henegar A, et al. Obesity is associated with higher risk of intensive care unit admission and death in influenza A (H1N1) patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obesity Rev*. 2011;12:653–9.
- [38] Andersen CJ, Murphy KE, Fernandez ML. Impact of obesity and metabolic syndrome on immunity. *Adv Nutr* (Bethesda, MD). 2016;7:66–75.
- [39] Sun Y, Wang Q, Yang G, Lin C, Zhang Y, Yang P. Weight and prognosis for influenza A(H1N1)pdm09 infection during the pandemic period between 2009 and 2011: a systematic review of observational studies with meta-analysis. *Infect Dis (London, England)*. 2016;48:813–22.
- [40] Yu L, Zhang X, Ye S, Lian H, Wang H, Ye J. Obesity and COVID-19: mechanistic insights from adipose tissue. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2022;107:1799–811.
- [41] Freuer D, Linseisen J, Meisinger C. Impact of body composition on COVID-19 susceptibility and severity: a two-sample multivariable Mendelian randomization study. *Metab Clin Exp*. 2021;118:154732.
- [42] Maier HE, Lopez R, Sanchez N, et al. Obesity increases the duration of influenza A virus shedding in adults. *J Infect Dis*. 2018;218:1378–82.
- [43] Costa ML, Souza CAS, Silva ACC, et al. Obesity and clinical severity in patients with COVID-19: a scoping review protocol. *Syst Rev*. 2021;10:51.
- [44] Elkhapery A, Abdelhay A, Boppana HK, et al. Higher body mass index is strongly linked to poor outcomes in adult COVID-19 hospitalizations: a National Inpatient Sample Study. *Obesity sci pract*. 2024;10:e692.
- [45] De Bandt JP, Monin C. Obesity, nutrients and the immune system in the Era of COVID-19. *Nutrients*. 2021;13:610.
- [46] LaCroix AZ, Lipson S, Miles TP, White L. Prospective study of pneumonia hospitalizations and mortality of U.S. older people: the role of chronic conditions, health behaviors, and nutritional status. *Public Health Reports (Washington, DC: 1974)*. 1989;104:350–60.
- [47] Chittal P, Babu AS, Lavie CJ. Obesity paradox: does fat alter outcomes in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease? *Copd*. 2015;12:14–8.
- [48] Keller K, Hobohm L, Münzel T, et al. survival benefit of obese patients with pulmonary embolism. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2019;94:1960–73.
- [49] Naderi N, Kleine CE, Park C, et al. Obesity paradox in advanced kidney disease: from bedside to the bench. *Prog Cardiovasc Dis*. 2018;61:168–81.
- [50] Horwich TB, Fonarow GC, Clark AL. Obesity and the obesity paradox in heart failure. *Prog Cardiovasc Dis*. 2018;61:151–6.
- [51] Schetz M, De Jong A, Deane AM, et al. Obesity in the critically ill: a narrative review. *Intensive Care Med*. 2019;45:757–69.
- [52] Hutagalung R, Marques J, Kobylka K, et al. The obesity paradox in surgical intensive care unit patients. *Intensive Care Med*. 2011;37:1793–9.
- [53] Lavie CJ, Coursin DB, Long MT. The obesity paradox in infections and implications for COVID-19. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2021;96:518–20.
- [54] Dana R, Bannay A, Bourns P, et al. Obesity and mortality in critically ill COVID-19 patients with respiratory failure. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2021;45:2028–37.
- [55] Perez AV, Viana MV, Dall’Orto Thomazini L, et al. BMI and mortality in critically ill patients with COVID-19: another brick in the wall of the obesity paradox. *Obesity (Silver Spring, Md)*. 2024;32:1474–82.
- [56] Ni YN, Luo J, Yu H, et al. Can body mass index predict clinical outcomes for patients with acute lung injury/acute respiratory distress syndrome? A meta-analysis. *Crit Care*. 2017;21:36.
- [57] Jose RJ, Manuel A. Does coronavirus disease 2019 disprove the obesity paradox in acute respiratory distress syndrome? *Obesity (Silver Spring, Md)*. 2020;28:1007.
- [58] Mejjaddam A, Höskuldssdóttir G, Lenér F, et al. Effects of medical and surgical treatment on vitamin D levels in obesity. *PLoS One*. 2023;18:e0292780.
- [59] Pereira-Santos M, Costa PR, Assis AM, Santos CA, Santos DB. Obesity and vitamin D deficiency: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obesity Rev*. 2015;16:341–9.
- [60] Hansdóttir S, Monick MM, Lovan N, Powers L, Gerke A, Hunninghake GW. Vitamin D decreases respiratory syncytial virus induction of NF-kappaB-linked chemokines and cytokines in airway epithelium while maintaining the antiviral state. *J Immunol (Baltimore, MD: 1950)*. 2010;184:965–74.
- [61] Meng J, Li X, Liu W, et al. The role of vitamin D in the prevention and treatment of SARS-CoV-2 infection: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Clin Nutr* (Edinburgh, Scotland). 2023;42:2198–206.