

Since January 2020 Elsevier has created a COVID-19 resource centre with free information in English and Mandarin on the novel coronavirus COVID-19. The COVID-19 resource centre is hosted on Elsevier Connect, the company's public news and information website.

Elsevier hereby grants permission to make all its COVID-19-related research that is available on the COVID-19 resource centre - including this research content - immediately available in PubMed Central and other publicly funded repositories, such as the WHO COVID database with rights for unrestricted research re-use and analyses in any form or by any means with acknowledgement of the original source. These permissions are granted for free by Elsevier for as long as the COVID-19 resource centre remains active. Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Medical Hypotheses

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/mehy

Adipocytes in obesity: A perfect reservoir for SARS-CoV-2?

JingJing Zhu^{a,b,1,2}, John P.H. Wilding^{b,3}, Ji Hu^{a,*,4}

^a Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, the Second Affiliated Hospital of Soochow University, Suzhou, Jiangsu, People's Republic of China ^b Department of Cardiovascular and Metabolic Medicine, Institute of Life Course and Medical Sciences, University of Liverpool, United Kingdom

ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Keywords: Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 Adipocyte Obesity Lipid metabolism Research evidence suggests that adipocytes in obesity might facilitate SARS-CoV-2 replication, for it was only found in adipose tissue of individuals with overweight or obesity but not lean individuals who died from COVID-19. As lipid metabolism is key to adipocyte function, and viruses are capable of exploiting and manipulating lipid metabolism of host cells for their own benefit of infection, we hypothesize that adipocytes could not only impair host immune defense against viral infection, but also facilitate SARS-CoV-2 entry, replication and assembly as a reservoir to boost the viral infection in obesity. The latter of which could mainly be mediated by SARS-CoV-2 hijacking the abnormal lipid metabolism in the adipocytes. If these were to be confirmed, an approach to combat COVID-19 in people with obesity by taking advantage of the abnormal lipid metabolism in adipocytes might be considered, as well as modifying lipid metabolism of other host cells as a potential adjunctive treatment for COVID-19.

Introduction

COVID-19 severity and obesity

SARS-CoV-2 is a positive-sense, single-stranded RNA virus. By binding its spike (S) protein to the host membrane receptor – angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2), SARS-CoV-2 enters host cells by endocytosis for replication and infection [1]. People with obesity are susceptible to acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infection with severe symptoms/complications and poor prognosis [2], and the consequently high hospitalization and mortality statistics should prioritize action for this particularly vulnerable population [3]. Obesity has long been associated with susceptibility to severe outcomes following respiratory viral infections such as influenza [4]. As the most significant character to define obesity – fat mass, can it promote SARS-CoV-2 infection [5]? Outside of the adipocyte, several lines of evidence suggest that excess adiposity could lead to impaired immune cell responses/defense against viral infection [6]. Inside of the adipocyte, can it actually facilitate SARS-CoV-2 replication to boost the infection quantitatively in patients with obesity? Body composition measurements indicate that the percentage of fat mass could exceed 40 % in people with severe obesity [5], and ACE2 (assisting SARS-CoV-2 entry into the host cell) gene expression at the mRNA level is present in human adipose tissue, although protein expression has not been confirmed [7]. However, it is interesting to note that viral replication was only found in adipose tissue of individuals with overweight or obesity who died from coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), but not in those with a BMI < 25 Kg/m² [8].

SARS-CoV-2 and adipocytes in obesity

The key question is whether viral replication is associated with the quality of the adipocyte. Adipocytes are most specialized for lipid metabolism in terms of lipogenesis and lipolysis [9]. Even though SARS-

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2023.111020

Received 7 July 2022; Received in revised form 17 December 2022; Accepted 30 December 2022 Available online 27 January 2023 0306-9877/© 2023 Published by Elsevier Ltd.







Abbreviations: ACE2, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; ERGIC, ER-to-Golgi intermediate compartment; FFAs, free fatty acids; LDs, lipid droplets; SARS-CoV-2, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; S protein, spike protein; TAGs, triacylglycerols.

^{*} Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: zhujingjing1987@qq.com (J. Zhu), j.p.h.wilding@liverpool.ac.uk (J.P.H. Wilding), huji@suda.edu.cn (J. Hu).

¹ Permanent: Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, the Second Affiliated Hospital of Soochow University, Suzhou, Jiangsu, 215004, People's Republic of China.

² Clinical Sciences Centre, Aintree University Hospital, Liverpool, Longmoor Lane, Liverpool, L9 7AL, United Kingdom.

³ Permanent: Clinical Sciences Centre, Aintree University Hospital, Liverpool, Longmoor Lane, Liverpool, L9 7AL, United Kingdom.

⁴ Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, the Second Affiliated Hospital of Soochow University, Suzhou, Jiangsu, 215004, People's Republic of China.

CoV-2 replication was observed in cultured human adipocytes, the differentiation/lipid accumulation status was not examined in these adipocytes [10]. Further study indicated that SARS-CoV-2 replication was accompanied by high levels of intracellular lipid/ triacylglycerol (TAG) in human adipocytes [8], which is consistent with the observation that viral replication was only detected in adipose tissue of patients who died from COVID-19 with obesity and overweight [8]. However, we speculate that rather than the most obvious manifestation - very high intracellular TAGs, abnormal lipid metabolism in adipocytes may be the potential target for SARS-CoV-2 to hijack to promote its infection in obesity [11]. This is supported by RNA viruses rely heavily on other various host lipid metabolites such as free fatty acids (FFAs) and phospholipids for its replication and further assembly [12]. Moreover, it has long been established that viruses are extremely good at exploiting and even modifying lipid signaling, synthesis and compartmentalization of host cells for their own benefit of entry and infection [13]. Therefore, as the site where significant abnormal lipid metabolism occurs, adipocytes in obesity might facilitate SARS-CoV-2 replication in themselves to boost the subsequent infection.

The hypothesis

In addition to impairing host immune defense against viral infection, adipocytes could facilitate SARS-CoV-2 entry, replication and assembly intracellularly to boost the viral infection in obesity. This could mainly be mediated by SARS-CoV-2 hijacking the abnormal lipid metabolism in the adipocytes. Hence, adipocytes in obesity might be a perfect reservoir for SARS-CoV-2.

Evaluation of the hypothesis

Adipocytes play a crucial role in maintaining metabolic and immunologic homeostasis, especially by mobilizing FFAs from lipid droplets (LDs) to the extracellular environment – lipolysis [14]. Excess FFAs lipolyzed from adipocytes (abnormal lipid metabolism) in obesity are lipotoxic [15]. They could impair *T*-cells function, attenuate the adhesion and phagocytic activity of macrophages, and even induce their apoptosis, thereby weakening the host's immune defense against the viral infection [15,16]. In parallel, excess FFAs could systemically boost SARS-CoV-2 transmission by directly assisting membrane fusion between virus and other host cells (than adipocytes) in obesity [17]. This is realized by palmitoylation sites of viral S protein -covalent attachment of FFAs to the cytoplasmic side of viral S proteins in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) [1,18].

Besides promoting the viral transmission among other host cells, how could adipocytes in obesity become a perfect reservoir for SARS-CoV-2 by facilitating the viral entry, replication and assembly?

Free fatty acids: bait, fuel or shield?

As the major fuel tank located in the nearly first line of defense [19], adipocytes are extremely susceptible to be hijacked by invading pathogens. Although adipocytes are capable of eliciting immune responses (as immune cells do) [20], the disadvantage of immobility (mobility is a significant feature of immune cells) may have prompted them to develop unusual defense strategies against invading pathogens, which is a research area worth exploring. As no SARS-CoV-2 replication was detected in the adipose tissue of lean individuals who died from COVID-19 [8], we speculate that adipocytes could adapt their lipid metabolism to defend against SARS-CoV-2 infection. For instance, flux of FFAs from plasma lipoproteins (hydrolyzed by lipoprotein lipase secreted by adipocytes) or the lipolysis – a 'bait' [21], might lure and assist SARS-CoV-2 entry into adipocytes by palmitoylation mediated-membrane fusion for its later destruction (discussed in Lipid droplets: Nemesis).

By contrast, SARS-CoV-2 entry into adipocytes could be boosted in obesity either by overexpression of *ace2* or excess lipolysis induced-

membrane fusion [22]. Once inside the adipocytes, abundant 'ready to use' intracellular FFAs resulted from lagged lipogenesis - turnover of intracellular FFAs to TAGs stored in LDs (another key feature of abnormal lipid metabolism in obesity) [23], might directly be exploited by SARS-CoV-2 for phospholipid synthesis and S protein modification, thereby intensifying its assembly in adipocytes. Recent studies have demonstrated that SARS-CoV-2 replication could be extensively reduced by reducing content of FFAs in host cells [24]. In terms of fueling SARS-CoV-2 replication and assembly in adipocytes, these abundant intracellular FFAs might be subject to β -oxidation in the mitochondria before channeling into the tricarboxylic acid cycle for adenosine triphosphate (ATP) production. This tremendous workload of energy generation might explain high levels of oxidative stress in SARS-CoV-2-infected host cells of individuals with obesity [25]. Moreover, inhibition of mitochondrial β-oxidation of FFAs using trimetazidine has been suggested as a potential treatment for COVID-19-induced acute cardiac injury [26], as FFAs are the primary energy source for cardiomyocytes (similar to adipocytes) function and metabolism [27,28].

It is intriguing to note that SARS-CoV-2 might also use adipocytes in obesity as a hideout for immune evasion. Though immune cell infiltration is a hallmark of adipose tissue in obesity [29], the abundant intracellular FFAs (resulting from lagged lipogenesis) might disrupt lipid rafts in cytokine signal transduction [30], thereby blocking the immune response against SARS-CoV-2 in adipocytes in obesity.

Lipid droplets: Nemesis or culprit?

LDs are paramount in regulating adipocyte metabolism including buffering FFA-elicited lipotoxicity by lipogenesis [31]. As TAGs are accumulated between the two leaflets of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane, nascent LDs are proposed to emerge by budding from the outer leaflet or by excision of the outer and inner leaflets of the ER membrane [32], either of which processes could temporarily interrupt membrane integrity, thereby decreasing the surface tension of ER membrane [33]. As a result, vigorous formation of LDs in adipocytes could significantly loosen the ER membrane [34], which might be fatal for the formation of SARS-CoV-2 replication organelles, for high surface tension is indispensable for its tethering on the ER membrane [35]. Although these organelles consist of complex membrane structures that might potentially increase the surface tension of the ER membrane to facilitate tethering of double-membrane vesicles for viral replication [36], once lured inside the adipocytes, SARS-CoV-2 viral nucleic acids might be susceptible to intracellular destruction. The nemesis – vigorous formation of LDs, will disrupt the ER membrane and inhibit the formation of the replication organelles. Without this protective microenvironment, the viral nucleic acids exposed to the cytosol will be rapidly destroyed by triggering innate immune responses [37], which might imply why no evidence of SARS-CoV-2 replication was detected in adipose tissue of lean individuals who died from COVID-19 [8].

By contrast, besides copious material and energy (excess intracellular FFAs), lagged formation of LDs in adipocytes in obesity could also provide the ER membrane with proper tension for SARS-CoV-2 to tether its replication organelles and indulge in replication. Paradoxically, inhibition of formation of LDs was observed to suppress SARS-CoV-2 propagation in host cells [38]. However, it should be noted that in these experiments, the net effects of inhibiting synthesis of lipid mediators to interrupt formation of LDs was lowering intracellular content of FFAs [38], which matches increasing formation of LDs in adipocytes.

Adipocytes: medium?

Secretory autophagy is exploited by various positive-sense RNA viruses for assembly and transmission [39]. Even though it is increased adipocyte degrative autophagy with which obesity is associated [40], SARS-CoV-2-induced oxidative stress might switch the increased degrative autophagy to secretory autophagy by altering the crosstalk

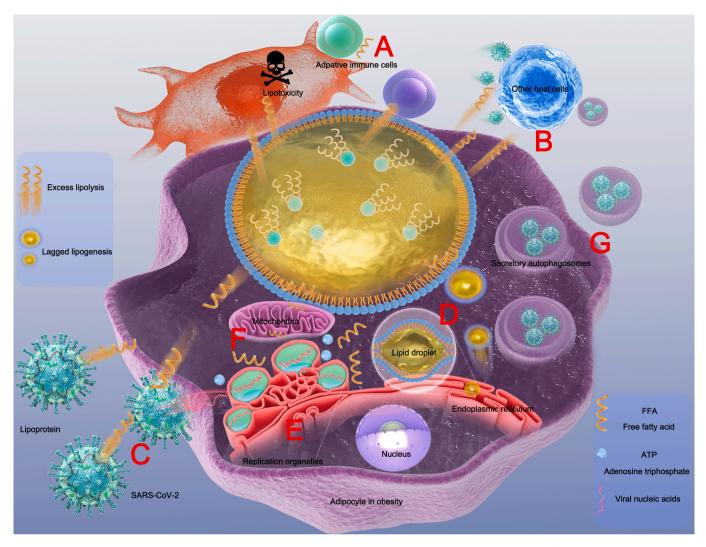


Fig. 1. In obesity (A) adipocytes could protect SARS-CoV-2 against host immune defense. (B) SARS-CoV-2 could hijack excess lipolysis to boost its transmission systemically as well as (C) entry into the adipocytes. (D) Lagged lipogenesis could supply SARS-CoV-2 with (E) the ER membrane with proper tension to tether its replication organelles; (F) FFA and ATP for its replication and assembly. (G) SARS-CoV-2 could promote secretory autophagy-mediated exocytosis.

between the mitochondria and lysosomes [41,42]. SARS-CoV-2 exocytosis/infectivity can thus be boosted, for the traditional 'one assembly processed by the ER-to-Golgi intermediate compartment at a time' being bypassed by multiple virus assemblies being packed in a single secretory autophagosome.

Conclusion

We hypothesize that in obesity adipocytes could protect SARS-CoV-2 against host defense by inducing lipotoxicity in immune cells. Concurrently, SARS-CoV-2 could hijack the abnormal lipid metabolism in the adipocytes, specifically excess lipolysis and lagged lipogenesis, to boost its entry (as well as into other host cells), replication, assembly and even immune evasion. Furthermore, SARS-CoV-2 could promote secretory autophagy-mediated exocytosis to enhance the viral infectivity. Taken together, the adipocytes in obesity can be a perfect reservoir for SARS-CoV-2 (Fig. 1).

Tackling obesity has never been an easy task, but reflected on excess (*e.g.*, saturated) FFAs lipolyzed from adipocytes in obesity systemically boosting SARS-CoV-2 entry by palmitoylation mediated-membrane fusion, taking advantage of this abnormal lipid metabolism with unsaturated FA supplementation could be a potential therapy, as unsaturated FFAs could block the viral entry into host cells by interfering its S

protein binding to ACE2 [43]. Modifying lipid metabolism of other host cells might be another promising adjunctive treatment for COVID-19, as activation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ in immune cells could induce lipogenesis/reduce intracellular FFAs to orchestrate host defense against SARS-CoV-2 infection [44–46].

Funding

This work was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China – General Projects (Grant No: 82170836, Recipient: Ji Hu), the China Scholarship Council (Grant number: 202006920018, Recipient: JingJing Zhu, John P. H. Wilding), and the Second Affiliated Hospital of Soochow University (Grant number: SDFEYBS1815, Recipient: JingJing Zhu).

Consent statement/Ethical approval Not required.

Declaration of Competing Interest

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.

Medical Hypotheses 171 (2023) 111020

References

- V'Kovski P, Kratzel A, Steiner S, Stalder H, Thiel V. Coronavirus biology and replication: implications for SARS-CoV-2. Nat Rev Microbiol 2021;19(3):155–70.
 Stefan N, Birkenfeld AL, Schulze MB. Global pandemics interconnected - obesity,
- [2] Stefan A, Britchield A, Schulz WD. Global pandemics interconnector "obesity, impaired metabolic health and COVID-19. Nat Rev Endocrinol 2021;17(3):135–49.
 [3] Jackson-Morris AM, Nugent R, Ralston J, Barata Cavalcante O, Wilding J.
- Strengthening resistance to the COVID-19 pandemic and fostering future resilience requires concerted action on obesity. Glob Health Action 2020;13(1):1804700.
- [4] Almond MH, Edwards MR, Barclay WS, Johnston SL. Obesity and susceptibility to severe outcomes following respiratory viral infection. Thorax 2013;68(7):684–6.
- [5] Volgyi E, Tylavsky FA, Lyytikainen A, Suominen H, Alen M, Cheng S. Assessing body composition with DXA and bioimpedance: effects of obesity, physical activity, and age. Obesity (Silver Spring) 2008;16(3):700–5.
- [6] Marti A, Marcos A, Martinez JA. Obesity and immune function relationships. Obes Rev 2001;2(2):131–40.
- [7] Hikmet F, Mear L, Edvinsson A, Micke P, Uhlen M, Lindskog C. The protein expression profile of ACE2 in human tissues. Mol Syst Biol 2020;16(7):e9610.
- [8] Zickler M, Stanelle-Bertram S, Ehret S, Heinrich F, Lange P, Schaumburg B, et al. Replication of SARS-CoV-2 in adipose tissue determines organ and systemic lipid metabolism in hamsters and humans. Cell Metab 2022;34(1):1–2.
- [9] Morigny P, Boucher J, Arner P, Langin D. Lipid and glucose metabolism in white adipocytes: pathways, dysfunction and therapeutics. Nat Rev Endocrinol 2021;17 (5):276–95.
- [10] Reiterer M, Rajan M, Gómez-Banoy N, Lau JD, Gomez-Escobar LG, Ma L, et al. Hyperglycemia in acute COVID-19 is characterized by insulin resistance and adipose tissue infectivity by SARS-CoV-2. Cell Metab 2021;33(11):2174–2188.e5.
- [11] Bódis K, Roden M. Energy metabolism of white adipose tissue and insulin resistance in humans. Eur J Clin Invest 2018;48(11).
- [12] Konan KV, Sanchez-Felipe L. Lipids and RNA virus replication. Curr Opin Virol 2014;9:45–52.
- [13] Mazzon M, Mercer J. Lipid interactions during virus entry and infection. Cell Microbiol 2014;16(10):1493–502.
- [14] Yang A, Mottillo EP. Adipocyte lipolysis: from molecular mechanisms of regulation to disease and therapeutics. Biochem J 2020;477(5):985–1008.
- [15] de Jong AJ, Kloppenburg M, Toes RE, Ioan-Facsinay A. Fatty acids, lipid mediators, and T-cell function. Front Immunol 2014;5:483.
- [16] Calder PC, Bond JA, Harvey DJ, Gordon S, Newsholme EA. Uptake and incorporation of saturated and unsaturated fatty acids into macrophage lipids and their effect upon macrophage adhesion and phagocytosis. Biochem J 1990;269(3): 807–14.
- [17] Karpe F, Dickmann JR, Frayn KN. Fatty acids, obesity, and insulin resistance: time for a reevaluation. Diabetes 2011;60(10):2441–9.
- [18] Wu Z, Zhang Z, Wang X, Zhang J, Ren C, Li Y, et al. Palmitoylation of SARS-CoV-2 S protein is essential for viral infectivity. Signal Transduct Target Ther 2021;6(1).
- [19] Bosch M, Sweet MJ, Parton RG, Pol A. Lipid droplets and the host-pathogen dynamic: FATal attraction? J Cell Biol 2021;220(8).
- [20] Song J, Deng T. The Adipocyte and Adaptive Immunity. Front Immunol 2020;11: 593058.
- [21] Thompson BR, Lobo S, Bernlohr DA. Fatty acid flux in adipocytes: the in's and out's of fat cell lipid trafficking. Mol Cell Endocrinol 2010;318(1–2):24–33.
- [22] Al-Benna S. Association of high level gene expression of ACE2 in adipose tissue with mortality of COVID-19 infection in obese patients. Obes Med 2020;19: 100283.
- [23] Engin A. Fat Cell and Fatty Acid Turnover in Obesity. Adv Exp Med Biol 2017;960: 135–60.

- [24] Williams CG, Jureka AS, Silvas JA, Nicolini AM, Chvatal SA, Carlson-Stevermer J, et al. Inhibitors of VPS34 and fatty-acid metabolism suppress SARS-CoV-2 replication. Cell Rep 2021;36(5):109479.
- [25] Alam MS, Czajkowsky DM. SARS-CoV-2 infection and oxidative stress: Pathophysiological insight into thrombosis and therapeutic opportunities. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev 2022;63:44–57.
- [26] Al-Kuraishy HM, Al-Gareeb AI, Welson NN, Batiha GE. Trimetazidine and COVID-19-induced acute cardiac injury: a missed key. Int J Clin Pharm 2022;44(3):832–3.
- [27] Lopaschuk GD, Ussher JR, Folmes CD, Jaswal JS, Stanley WC. Myocardial fatty acid metabolism in health and disease. Physiol Rev 2010;90(1):207–58.
 [28] Rutkowski JM, Stern JH, Scherer PE. The cell biology of fat expansion. J Cell Biol
- [28] Rutkowski JM, Stern JH, Scherer PE. The cell biology of fat expansion. J Cell Biol 2015;208(5):501–12.
- [29] Sun K, Kusminski CM, Scherer PE. Adipose tissue remodeling and obesity. J Clin Invest 2011;121(6):2094–101.
- [30] Rao R, Logan B, Forrest K, Roszman TL, Goebel J. Lipid rafts in cytokine signaling. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev 2004;15(2–3):103–10.
- [31] Olzmann JA, Carvalho P. Dynamics and functions of lipid droplets. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 2019;20(3):137–55.
- [32] Dugail I, Le Lay S. Adipocyte Lipid Droplet Physiology. In: Bastard J–P, Fève B, editors. Physiology and Physiopathology of Adipose Tissue. Paris: Springer Paris; 2013. p. 123–39.
- [33] Ben M barek K, Ajjaji D, Chorlay A, Vanni S, Forêt L, Thiam AR. ER Membrane Phospholipids and Surface Tension Control Cellular Lipid Droplet Formation. Dev Cell 2017;41(6):591–604.e7.
- [34] Ducharme NA, Bickel PE. Lipid droplets in lipogenesis and lipolysis. Endocrinology 2008;149(3):942–9.
- [35] Sitarska E, Diz-Munoz A. Pay attention to membrane tension: Mechanobiology of the cell surface. Curr Opin Cell Biol 2020;66:11–8.
- [36] Snijder EJ, Limpens RWAL, de Wilde AH, de Jong AWM, Zevenhoven-Dobbe JC, Maier HJ, et al. A unifying structural and functional model of the coronavirus replication organelle: Tracking down RNA synthesis. PLoS Biol 2020;18(6).
- [37] Ori D, Murase M, Kawai T. Cytosolic nucleic acid sensors and innate immune regulation. Int Rev Immunol 2017;36(2):74–88.
- [38] Dias SSG, Soares VC, Ferreira AC, Sacramento CQ, Fintelman-Rodrigues N, Temerozo JR, et al. Lipid droplets fuel SARS-CoV-2 replication and production of inflammatory mediators. PLoS Pathog 2020;16(12).
- [39] Mutsafi Y, Altan-Bonnet N. Enterovirus Transmission by Secretory Autophagy. Viruses 2018;10(3):139.
- [40] Nuñez CE, Rodrigues VS, Gomes FS, de Moura RF, Victorio SC, Bombassaro B, et al. Defective regulation of adipose tissue autophagy in obesity. Int J Obes (Lond) 2013;37(11):1473–80.
- [41] Todkar K, Ilamathi HS, Germain M. Mitochondria and Lysosomes: Discovering Bonds. Front Cell Dev Biol 2017;5:106.
- [42] Ponpuak M, Mandell MA, Kimura T, Chauhan S, Cleyrat C, Deretic V. Secretory autophagy. Curr Opin Cell Biol 2015;35:106–16.
- [43] Goc A, Niedzwiecki A, Rath M. Polyunsaturated omega-3 fatty acids inhibit ACE2controlled SARS-CoV-2 binding and cellular entry. Sci Rep 2021;11(1):5207.
- [44] Anghel SI, Wahli W. Fat poetry: a kingdom for PPAR gamma. Cell Res 2007;17(6): 486–511.
- [45] Vallee A, Lecarpentier Y, Vallee JN. Interplay of Opposing Effects of the WNT/beta-Catenin Pathway and PPARgamma and Implications for SARS-CoV2 Treatment. Front Immunol 2021;12:666693.
- [46] Kruglikov IL, Scherer PE. The Role of Adipocytes and Adipocyte-Like Cells in the Severity of COVID-19 Infections. Obesity (Silver Spring) 2020;28(7):1187–90.