

Editorial

SARS-CoV-2-Cholesterol Interaction: A Lot of Food for Thought

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With over 80 million cases, and 1,800,000 deaths reported at the end of 2020 by the World Health Organization, the "CoronaVirus Disease-2019" (CoViD-19) pandemic, caused by the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), should be viewed as a global catastrophe.

In the only 12 months hitherto elapsed from SARS-CoV-2 identification and genomic characterization [1], while safe, effective, and officially approved anti-CoViD-19 vaccines are now available to be progressively administered to mankind worldwide, an unprecedented and incredible amount of data have also been published about the SARS-CoV-2 infection pathogenesis and virus–host relationships.

Within this challenging and intriguing context, the selective interaction taking place between the viral spike (S) protein's subunit 1 (S1) and the high-density lipoprotein (HDL) scavenger receptor B type 1 (SR-B1), which has been elegantly described in a recent article by Dr Wei and coworkers [2], significantly expands our knowledge on host–pathogen relationships. More in detail, following SARS-CoV-2 interaction with HDL-bound cholesterol and, thereafter, with the SR-B1 molecule expressed by pulmonary tissues, as well as by a variety of extra-pulmonary tissues, a facilitated viral entry into angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE-2)-harbouring cells is observed [2].

This is of interest when considering the widespread distribution of the ACE-2 viral receptor throughout host cells and tissues [3], on one side, along with SR-B1 co-expression by several of the aforementioned cytotypes [2], on the other. Within such an intricate landscape, adequate attention should be also paid to the pivotal role played by transmembrane serine protease 2 (TMPRSS2), a furin-like enzyme acting on the viral S1 receptor binding domain (RBD) polybasic cleavage site, thus enabling SARS-CoV-2 RBD attachment to ACE-2-expressing cells [3]. Since TMPRSS2 activation is an androgen-dependent process [3], this would represent a plausible explanation for the less pronounced susceptibility of females to SARS-CoV-2 infection in comparison to male patients [4].

Notwithstanding the above, it would be interesting to investigate if women in menopause—a life season during which an increase in total cholesterol levels is commonly found [5]—become more prone to acquire SARS-CoV-2 infection and to additionally develop, thereafter, more severe CoViD-19 forms, as the result of an enhanced virus-cholesterol-SR-B1 interaction. In this respect, it would be also worthwhile to assess whether, and to what extent, cholesterol-lowering drugs like statins [6] may interfere with SARS-CoV-2 uptake on behalf of SR-B1 and ACE-2 co-expressing cells and tissues.

Another intriguing issue within the complex host-pathogen interaction dynamics is that related to the hitherto characterized "comparative pathology models" of SARS-CoV-2 infection and CoViD-19, a number of which could faithfully recapitulate their main pathogenetic features, with special emphasis on the strategies put in place by the viral agent for host cell targeting and colonization [7].

Among these putative infection and disease models, prions appear to be, in my opinion, a particularly intriguing pathogens' group, although we are dealing with a category of non-viral and "unconventional" agents, which are responsible for "transmissible spongiform encephalopathies" (TSE), or "prion diseases" (PD), in man and animals [8].



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Indeed, as a veterinary and academic pathologist involved since almost 30 years in the study of TSE pathogenesis, with special reference to sheep and goat scrapie—the PD “prototype” [9],—I would like to emphasize herein that a selective binding of human prions to plasma low-density lipoproteins has been clearly documented [10]. Still noteworthy, the host “cellular prion protein” (PrP^c) has been shown to be tightly associated with cholesterol-rich “lipid rafts” located in cell membranes, with such interaction(s) additionally playing an important role in the context of the conversion process of PrP^c into its “pathological (or disease) counterpart” (PrP^{Sc} or PrP^D) and, thereby, in prion propagation [11]. A direct connection has been also established between the level(s) of circulating blood cholesterol, on one side, and the clinico-pathological TSE progression in experimentally challenged mice, on the other [12].

Although we don’t know yet if, and to what extent, SARS-CoV-2 interacts with PrP^c, the aforementioned relationships occurring between prions and plasma lipoproteins, as well as between PrP^c and cell membrane lipid raft-associated cholesterol, make this topic worthy of ad hoc investigations.

While Dr Wei and coworkers should be warmly congratulated for their nice and elegant study [2], providing a lot of food for insightful thought, another recent work has identified cholesterol 25-hydroxylase (CH25H) and its enzymatic product, 25-hydroxycholesterol (25HC), as powerful inhibitors of SARS-CoV-2 replication [13].

In conclusion, it is my strong belief that adequate research efforts should be made in order to characterize suitable “comparative pathology models” able to recapitulate the intricate and complex interaction dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 with human cells and tissues. Albeit classified as “unconventional” (and non-viral) agents, prions—of both animal and human origin—could provide a valuable option in this direction.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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