**Title:** Glucocorticoid-Induced Metabolic Disturbances are Exacerbated in Obesity

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**Study Importance:**

1. What is already known about this subject?

* Glucocorticoids result in insulin resistance.
* Lipolysis can drive increased glucose production in the liver and result in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease.
* Glucocorticoids promote adipocyte lipolysis.

1. What does your study add?

* We show that obesity and glucocorticoid exposure synergistically combine to result in exacerbated hyperglycemia, insulin resistance and NAFLD
* These increases are concordant with synergistically elevated lipolysis
* We show that the adipocyte lipolytic gene ATGL/Pnpla2 is synergistically activated by obesity and glucocorticoids.

**Abstract**

**Objective:** To determine whether glucocorticoid-induced metabolic dysfunction is exacerbated in the presence of obesity.

**Methods:** Patients undergoing transsphenoidal adenomectomy were stratified according to disease (Control vs. Cushing’s disease) and obesity status (non-obese vs. obese) and metabolic outcomes were measured in serum. C57BL/6J adult male lean and obese mice were given dexamethasone for different durations and outcomes of fatty liver, insulin resistance and lipolysis were determined.

**Results:** Patients who were obese and had Cushing’s disease had elevated HOMA-IR scores and ALT levels when compared to all other groups. Similar outcomes were detected in obese mice given dexamethasone, significant synergistic elevations in liver fat and resistance to insulin were noted in these mice, along with synergistic elevations in markers of lipolysis.

**Conclusions:** The combination of chronically elevated glucocorticoids and obesity leads to exacerbations in metabolic dysfunction. Our findings suggest lipolysis may be a key player in glucocorticoid-induced insulin resistance and fatty liver in people with obesity.

**Introduction**

Cushing’s syndrome is an endocrine disorder that manifests in response to chronically elevated levels of glucocorticoids and is often associated with changes in adipose mass and distribution, fatty liver and impaired glucose tolerance (1). While Cushing’s disease is rare, it is estimated that at any given time 1-3% of the US, UK and Danish populations are prescribed exogenous corticosteroids, which may increase their risk for developing the metabolic complications observed in Cushing’s syndrome (2–5).

Similarly, obesity is accompanied by a multitude of metabolic complications, such as insulin resistance (6) and NAFLD (7) and is a worldwide epidemic. Comparing the high rates of medically prescribed corticosteroids with the prevalence of overweight and obesity in developed countries, the combination of obesity and glucocorticoid excess may be present in many individuals. Given the similar co-morbidities associated with obesity and chronically elevated glucocorticoids, we hypothesized that the combinations of these two conditions would lead to worse metabolic outcomes than either of them alone. This is supported by studies in rats showing that corticosterone and high-fat diets combine to cause worsened insulin resistance and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD; (8, 9)). However, the underlying mechanisms leading to these outcomes remain unclear.

There is an array of physiological changes that occur as a result of elevated glucocorticoids including decreased lean mass (10–12), increased fat mass (11, 13, 14), NAFLD (9) and increased lipolysis (15–17), all of which have been associated with decreased insulin sensitivity (18–20). Recent tissue-specific knockouts of glucocorticoid signaling molecules have implicated adipose tissue as a central node linking glucocorticoid action and lipolysis to systemic insulin resistance and NAFLD (21–24).

Here, we show that chronically elevated glucocorticoids in the presence of obesity have synergistic effects on lipolysis, insulin resistance and fatty liver disease. Obese glucocorticoid-treated mice have reduced fat mass compared to all other groups, yet have hyperglycemia and severe insulin resistance. Therefore, we speculate that lipolysis drives insulin resistance in obese animals.

**Methods**

**Patient Recruitment and data collection**: Written informed consent was obtained and the study was approved by the internal review board of the University of Michigan Medical System. All procedures follow the Helsinki declaration. Patients undergoing transsphenoidal adenomectomy at the University of Michigan were recruited and data was collected as described in Hochberg et al. (11). Control patients were those that had non-secreting adenomas and Cushing’s patients were those that had ACTH-secreting adenomas.

**Animal Procedures:** C57BL/6J adult male mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory at nine weeks of age. All animals were on a light dark cycle of 12/12hrs and housed at 22°C. Following a week of acclimation, chow-fed 12-week dexamethasone-treated mice were treated as described previously (11). Additional cohorts of mice used in these experiments either remained on a standard diet (normal chow diet; NCD; 5L0D LabDiet; 13% fat; 57% carbohydrate; 30% protein) or were provided a high fat diet (45% fat from lard; 35% carbohydrate mix of starch, maltodextrin and sucrose; 20% protein from casein; cat# D12451) for either eight or twelve weeks. Mice were group housed with four mice per cage and food consumption was measured weekly by weight reductions per cage and calculated to reflect estimated intake of each mouse per day in a given cage. Mice remained on their respective diets for the duration of the study. All mice were provided with access to food and water *ad libitum* throughout the study, unless otherwise noted. Mice were treated with an estimated dose of 1 mg/kg per day of water-soluble dexamethasone (Sigma–Aldrich) based on mL consumed per week, treatment was provided in their drinking water (NCD n=12; HFD n=32), or they were given regular drinking water (control group; NCD n=12; HFD n=22) for three or six weeks, as indicated. For the six-week dexamethasone treatment and prior to being euthanized, 16 HFD-fed, dexamethasone-treated mice appeared ill and died or were euthanized and thus removed from all analyses once symptoms were noticed. Due to the immunosuppressive nature of dexamethasone, we suspect the illness was due to infection, though this was not confirmed. Animal body weight and composition was determined weekly using a digital scale and EchoMRI 2100, respectively. At the end of treatment, mice were fasted for 16 h, dexamethasone water was not removed during this time, and euthanized by cervical dislocation at ZT3 after isoflurane anesthesia. Immediately following euthanasia, mice were dissected and the right inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT) and epididymal white adipose tissue (eWAT) depots were carefully removed and weighed. Adipose tissues, along with a section of the left lateral lobe of the liver were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen for later analysis. Small pieces of tissues were fixed in 10% phosphate-buffered formalin for histology. All animal procedures were approved by both the University of Tennessee Health Science Center and University of Michigan Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees.

**Insulin Tolerance Tests and Hyperinsulinemic Euglycemic Clamp Experiments:** Insulin responsiveness was assessed via an insulin tolerance test (ITT). Following a six hour fast, mice were given an intraperitoneal (IP) injection of insulin (Humulin R, Lilly, Indianapolis, IN, USA) as described in figure legends. Blood was collected from the tail and glucose was determined using a One Touch Ultra Glucometer (Lifescan). For the hyperinsulinemic euglycemic clamp experiments, C57BL/6J adult (70d) male mice were fed HFD for eight weeks and treated with dexamethasone in their drinking water for three weeks or regular drinking water. Animals were anesthetized with an IP injection of sodium pentobarbital (50−60 mg/kg). Indwelling catheters were inserted into the right jugular vein and the right carotid artery, respectively.  The free ends of catheters were tunneled subcutaneously and exteriorized at the back of the neck via a stainless-steel tubing connector (coated with medical silicone) that was fixed subcutaneously upon closure of the incision. Animals with healthy appearance, normal activity, and weight regain to or above 90% of their pre-surgery levels were used for the study. Experiments were carried out in conscious and unrestrained animals using techniques described previously (25–27). Briefly, the primed (1.0 Ci)-continuous infusion (0.05 Ci/min and increased to 0.1 µCi/min at t = 0) of [3-3H] glucose (50 µCi/ml in saline) was started at t = -120min. After a five hour fast, the insulin clamp was initiated at t = 0, with a prime-continuous infusion (40 mU/kg bolus, followed by 8.0 mU/kg/min) of human insulin (Novo Nordisk). Euglycemia (120~130 mg/dL) was maintained during the clamp by measuring blood glucose every 10 min and infusing 50% glucose at variable rates, accordingly.  Blood samples were collected from the right carotid artery at t = 80, 90, 100, and 120 min for determination of glucose specific activity.  Blood insulin concentrations were determined from samples taken at t = -10 and 120 min. A bolus injection of [1-14C]-2-deoxyglucose ([14C]2DG; PerkinElmer) (10 µCi) was given at t = 120 min. Blood samples were taken at 2, 5, 10, 15, and 25 min after the injection for determination of plasma [14C]2DG radioactivity. At the end of the experiment, animals were anesthetized with an intravenous injection of sodium pentobarbital and tissues were collected and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen for later analysis of tissue [1-14C]-2-deoxyglucose phosphate ([14C]2DGP) radioactivity. Blood glucose was measured using an Accu-Chek glucometer (Roche, Germany). Plasma insulin was measured using the Linco rat/mouse insulin ELISA kits.  For determination of plasma radioactivity of [3-3H]glucose and [1-14C]2DG, plasma samples were deproteinized with ZnSO4 and Ba(OH)2 and counted using a Liquid Scintillation Counter (Beckman Coulter LS6500 Multi-purpose Scintillation Counter). Glucose turnover rate, hepatic glucose production and tissue glucose uptake were calculated as described elsewhere (26–28).

**Serum Glycerol and Fatty Acid Determination:** Following 11 weeks of dexamethasone treatment, 21-week-old *ad libitum* chow fed C57BL/6J male mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and blood was collected into heparin-coated capillary tubes via retro orbital bleed both prior to and 15 minutes following intraperitoneal injection of 10mg/kg isoproterenol (Sigma-Aldrich) in Dulbecco’s phosphate-buffered saline (Thermo Fisher). Serum from these mice, as well as from a cohort of 28-week old mice on either HFD or chow, six-weeks post-dexamethasone treatment was collected following an overnight fast. Glycerol was assessed via Serum Triglyceride Determination Kit (Sigma-Aldrich) and fatty acids were quantified using the HR Series NEFA-HR(2) kit (Wako Diagnostics), in accordance with manufacturer’s guidelines.

**Cell culture:** 3T3-L1 fibroblasts (pre-adipocytes) were cultured in 10% newborn calf serum, Dulbecco's Modification of Eagle's Medium (DMEM; 4.5 g/L D-glucose) with penicillin, streptomycin and glutamine (PSG) until confluence. Cells were switched to a differentiation cocktail at two days post confluence (250nM dexamethasone, 500M 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine and 1g/mL insulin in 10% fetal bovine serum, in high glucose DMEM with PSG) for four days (29). Media was replaced with differentiation medium containing only insulin for an additional three days. For the following three days, cells remained in media with no additional treatment. To assess markers of lipolysis, cells remained in media and were treated with ethanol (vehicle) or 250nM dexamethasone for five days before lysing.

**Assessment of Triglyceride Content in Cells and Tissue:** 3T3-L1 cells were grown and treated as described above. At the end of the treatment period, cells were lysed in homogenization buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8, 5 mM EDTA, 30 mM Mannitol, protease inhibitor) and subjected to three freeze thaw cycles with liquid nitrogen, thawed at room temperature. Frozen liver tissue was homogenized using a TissueLyser II (Qiagen). Lipids were extracted using KOH and a chloroform to methanol (2:1) extraction. Triglyceride content was assessed using the Serum Triglyceride Determination Kit (Sigma) and absorbance was detected as described in (30).

**Histology:** Tissues were fixed in 10% phosphate-buffered formalin for 24 hours and then stored in 70% ethanol until further processing. Tissues were dehydrated, embedded in paraffin and sent to the University of Michigan Comprehensive Cancer Center Tissue Core where they were processed and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) to assess cell morphology.

**mRNA Extraction and Analysis:** Cells and tissues were lysed in TRIzol using the TissueLyser II, as decribed above, and RNA was extracted using a PureLink RNA kit (Life Technologies). cDNA was synthesized from 0.5-1g of RNA using the High Capacity Reverse Transcription Kit (Life Technologies). Primers, cDNA and Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Life Technologies) were combined in accordance with the manufacturer’s guidelines and quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) was performed as previously described (31) using the QuantStudio 5 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). mRNA expression level was normalized to *Actb* and analyzed using the  Ct method after evaluation of several reference genes. qPCR primer sequences are listed in Table 1.

**Protein Extraction and Analysis:** Cells and tissues were lysed in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 0.25% sodium deoxycholate, 1% NP40, 150 mM sodium chloride, 1 mM EDTA, 100 uM sodium orthovanadate, 5 mM sodium fluoride, 10 mM sodium pyrophosphate and 1x protease inhibitor), centrifuged at 14,000rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C. Lysates were heated with loading buffer at 85-95°C and proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE (Life Technologies) and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes overnight. Membranes were blotted using anti-adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL; 54 kDa; Cell Signaling Technologies; catalog #30A4). Antibody complexes were detected by anti-mouse and anti-rabbit fluorescent conjugated antibodies (Invitrogen) and visualized using an Odyssey CLx image scanner. Blots were quantified using Image Studio software version 5.2 (LiCOR) and normalized to Revert Total Protein Stain (LiCOR).

**Statistics**: All data are presented as mean +/- standard error of the mean. For animal studies, two-way ANOVA analyses were performed to test for significance of diet and dexamethasone treatment, as well as their interaction. Pairwise comparisons, normality and equal variance were tested using Shapiro-Wilk and Levene’s tests, respectively. Pending those results, a Mann-Whitney, Welch’s or Student’s *t*-test were used. P-values below p=0.05 were considered significant. All statistical tests were performed using the R software package version 3.30. All raw data and analysis scripts are available at https://github.com/BridgesLab/CushingAcromegalyStudy.

**Results**

# Dexamethasone-Induced Insulin Resistance is Worsened in the Presence of Obesity

We have previously published data suggesting gene expression differences in adipose tissue from patients with Cushing’s disease and controls depending on their obesity status (11). Based on this finding, we speculated that the glucocorticoid responses may vary according to obesity status. We re-analyzed their clinical data stratifying the Cushingoid and control groups by BMI (Figure 1A), classifying participants as either “Not obese” (BMI < 30) or “Obese” (BMI ≥ 30). We found no significant differences in BMI in the control group compared to the Cushing’s group. However, a near-significant interaction between obesity status and Cushing’s diagnosis for HOMA-IR score (p=0.057; Figure 1B) was observed. We observed a modest (17%) increase in HOMA-IR score when comparing non-obese subjects with and without Cushing’s disease, yet a 3.4-fold increase in patients with obesity.

To investigate if obesity status influences insulin sensitivity in the presence of elevated glucocorticoids we performed an insulin tolerance test (ITT) on lean (NCD) and diet-induced obese (HFD) mice that were untreated (Water) or treated with glucocorticoids (Dexamethasone). HFD-fed, dexamethasone-treated mice were significantly more resistant to insulin-stimulated glucose disposal when compared to all other groups (Figure 1C). Additionally, HFD dexamethasone-treated mice exhibited dramatic fasting hyperglycemia, with a significant interaction between diet and drug (p=0.00009; Figure 1D). While HFD animals had a 24% increase in fasting glucose when compared to NCD animals, in the presence of dexamethasone, HFD-fed animals had a 122% increase in fasting glucose relative to NCD controls not treated with dexamethasone. In the lean, NCD-fed animals, dexamethasone caused an 18% decrease in fasting glucose.

To evaluate glucose homeostasis in more detail we performed hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamps in obese mice (11 weeks of HFD) treated with dexamethasone for the three weeks. This shorter HFD/dexamethasone exposure still caused dramatic insulin resistance, hyperglycemia and reductions in lean mass (Supplementary Figures 1A-D). Animals were clamped while conscious and glucose levels during the clamp as well as insulin turnover rate were similar between groups (Supplementary Figure 1E,F). During the hyperinsulinemic phase, the glucose infusion rate was 39% lower in obese dexamethasone-treated mice when compared to obese controls indicating insulin resistance at euglycemia (Figure 1E). Basal endogenous glucose production (EGP) was 37% higher in the dexamethasone- treated group (p=0.026). Moreover, in the control group, EGP was reduced to near zero by a high dose of insulin but only reduced 70% in the dexamethasone group (p=0.0091) resulting in glucose production being higher during the insulin phase in dexamethasone-treated mice (p=0.014) when compared to controls (Figure 1F-G). Glucose turnover was slightly decreased in the presence of insulin (p=0.141; Figure 1H). Despite these modest changes in glucose turnover, there were significant reductions in the obese, dexamethasone-treated animals in 2-deoxyglucose uptake in heart (34% reduced, p=0.0003) and gastrocnemius tissues (68% reduced; p=0.00002; Supplementary Figures 1G-H). These data suggest that increased glucose production and its impaired suppression by insulin are the likely causes of poor glycemic control in obese, dexamethasone-treated animals.

# HFD-Induced Liver Steatosis in Dexamethasone-Treated mice

Obesity and chronic elevations in glucocorticoids are associated with NAFLD (32, 7). We observe increases in plasma ALT, a liver enzyme associated with liver disease, in Cushing’s patients with obesity (38% increase in non-obese subjects versus a 2.8 fold increase in subjects with obesity, p=0.13 for the interaction of disease and obesity status; Figure 2A). In our mouse model of HFD-fed, dexamethasone-treated mice, we observe drastically elevated liver triglycerides when compared to all other groups with a significant interaction of drug and diet (p=0.000068; Figure 2B). In support of this, H&E staining of hepatic tissue clearly depicts exacerbated lipid levels in the obese, dexamethasone-treated group when compared to obese controls and lean groups (Figure 2C).

We used qPCR to measure the expression of genes involved in hepatic *de novo* lipogenesis, *Srebf1* and *Fasn*, in liver lysates (Figure 2D). We observed no synergism in expression levels between HFD and dexamethasone. This finding indicates that lipid accumulation in response to dexamethasone treatment is likely occurring via mechanisms other than accelerated glucocorticoid-dependent activation of *de novo* lipogenesis.

# Dexamethasone Causes Decreased Fat Mass in Obese Mice

To understand the how dexamethasone effects body composition in these animals, we determined total fat mass. We observed reductions in fat mass in the HFD-fed dexamethasone-treated group (Figure 3A-B). These reductions do not appear to be depot-specific, as we observe reductions in both iWAT (65% reduced) and eWAT mass (59% reduced; Figure 3C). There were no significant reductions in fat mass, either by MRI or gross tissue weights of iWAT or eWAT depots in response to dexamethasone treatment in the chow-fed groups (Figure 3B-C). To determine if changes in body composition could be explained by altered caloric consumption (Figure 3D), we compared food intake among the groups. Surprisingly, we found that the dexamethasone-treated HFD-fed animals ate slightly more food (11% increase, p=0.032), even though they lost mass. These data suggest that the weight loss in obese animals provided dexamethasone is not due to reductions in food intake.

Dexamethasone Treatment Results in Increased Lipolysis

Lipolysis has previously been associated with insulin resistance (18, 33), is known to be elevated in patients with NAFLD (34), and has been shown to increase with glucocorticoid treatment (11, 15–17). To assess whether dexamethasone was affecting the lipid content in adipose tissue, we measured markers of adipocyte lipolysis in cultured adipocytes. 3T3-L1 fibroblasts were undifferentiated (pre-adipocytes); or differentiated and treated with vehicle or dexamethasone following differentiation. Dexamethasone treatment following differentiation led to decreased lipid content (52.4% reduction, p=0.005) and a 71% increase in the amount of glycerol in the media (p=0.001), suggesting increased lipolysis (Figure 4B). In order to identify a potential GR-dependent lipolytic target, we evaluated the levels of ATGL, the rate limiting enzyme in lipolysis. Expression of ATGL (encoded by the *Pnpla2* gene) was enhanced following dexamethasone treatment in 3T3-L1 cells at both the transcript (2.7 fold, p=0.002; Figure 4C) and protein (4.2 fold, p=0.025; Figure 4D-E) levels. These data show that glucocorticoids elevate both ATGL levels and metabolites of lipolysis in cultured adipocytes.

To measure the effects of glucocorticoid-induced lipolysis *in vivo,* we quantified glycerol levels in animals chronically exposed to dexamethasone in basal and stimulated conditions (Figure 4E). Stimulation of lipolysis was achieved via isoproterenol, a -adrenergic receptor agonist, or by a 16-hour fast. Dexamethasone treatment led to increases in glycerol in the fed (2.9 fold), fasted (1.5 fold) and isoproterenol-stimulated (1.4 fold, p<0.05 for all pairwise comparisons) conditions, indicating that dexamethasone enhances basal and stimulated lipolysis *in vivo* in chow-fed mice. Consistent with these findings, mRNA analysis from iWAT of these mice showed an upregulation of *Pnpla2* transcripts in the dexamethasone-treated mice compared to controls (2.1 fold, p=0.016; Figure 4F).

We next quantified serum glycerol concentrations in our HFD/NCD fed mice (Figure 5A). We observed a nearly two-fold increase in serum glycerol levels by dexamethasone treatment in the HFD-fed animals, compared with only a 18% increase in chow-fed mice (p=0.017 for the interaction between diet and dexamethasone). We tested if the increase in lipolytic metabolites was suppressed by insulin during the hyperinsulinemic euglycemic clamp in the obese mice (Figure 5B). Consistent with our previous results, there was a 40% elevation in serum basal non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA’s) in response to 3 weeks of dexamethasone treatment (p=0.004). During the insulin phase, dexamethasone treatment attenuated the ability of insulin to suppress serum NEFA levels with insulin leading to a 71% reduction in controls compared to only a 48% reduction in dexamethasone-treated mice (p=0.058). These findings suggest that dexamethasone elevates lipolysis to a greater extent in the obese setting.

We quantified mRNA and protein expression of ATGL in the iWAT of these mice (5C-E). Consistent with the hypothesis that ATGL activation could drive increased lipolysis in HFD and dexamethasone-treated mice, expression of ATGL was elevated in both dexamethasone-treated groups, with a significant synergistic effect of dexamethasone and obesity at both the transcript (p=0.02) and protein (p=0.043) levels. These data support the hypothesis that glucocorticoid-stimulated lipolysis is augmented in the context of obesity, potentially via increased transactivation of *Pnpla2*/ATGL.

**Discussion**

Chronic glucocorticoid elevations are associated with co-morbidities such as increased fat mass (11, 13, 14), decreased muscle mass (10–12), insulin resistance and NAFLD (1). These adverse effects are similar to those seen in obesity; however, the combination of chronically elevated glucocorticoids in the context of pre-existing obesity has not been assessed. Here, we show that the effects of glucocorticoid-induced insulin resistance and NAFLD are exacerbated when paired with obesity.

There are two major limitations to our human studies; small sample size, and that it was not possible to determine the physiological status of Cushing’s patients before they developed a tumor. We could not discern whether obesity was present prior to or after development of Cushing’s disease. To address the question of whether the obese state modulates the effects of glucocorticoid excess, we performed these mouse studies.

We found that obese, dexamethasone-treated mice exhibited hyperglycemia and severe insulin resistance when compared to obese control mice. This was primarily due to increased endogenous glucose production in these animals. The combination of obesity and elevated glucocorticoids also led to significant elevations in liver fat in mice and a trend towards elevated ALT levels in humans. Previous work from our lab shows increased fat mass following 12 weeks of dexamethasone treatment (11) in chow-fed mice, in accordance with what others have reported (35). However, to our surprise, the glucocorticoid treatment in obese mice led to a lipodystrophic phenotype. We evaluated glucocorticoid treatment in the context of diet-induced obesity; however, Riddell and colleagues have reported similar findings when providing HFD and glucocorticoids in concert to rats, prior to the onset of obesity (8, 9, 36). It is not clear whether diet or obesity status have similar mechanisms causing exacerbated metabolic risk, but these interactions deserve further evaluation.

Lipolysis has been linked to increased gluconeogenesis by several studies (37–41). Glucocorticoids are known to stimulate lipolysis (11, 15–17), possibly as a way to promote gluconeogenesis to maintain blood glucose levels. Lipolysis has been implicated in insulin resistance (18, 33) and NAFLD (34). We found synergistic elevations in glycerol, indicative of enhanced lipolysis, as well as in hepatic fat accumulation in the HFD-fed, dexamethasone-treated mice, but no data supporting enhanced hepatic *de novo* lipogenesis.

There is some debate as to which genes glucocorticoids are acting on to promote lipolysis. Downregulation of *Pde3b* (42) and upregulation of -adrenergic receptors (43) and ATGL transcripts (22, 44, 45) have been proposed as possible mechanisms. We found ATGL, the rate limiting enzyme for adipose triglyceride lipolysis, to be synergistically activated by obesity and glucocorticoid-treatment. These findings bear a resemblance to elevations in glycerol levels in obese, dexamethasone-treated mice when compared to diet or glucocorticoids alone. The mechanisms by which obesity and glucocorticoids synergize to activate ATGL expression are not clear at this time, nor are the relative contributions of other glucocorticoid receptor-dependent targets.

In summary, glucocorticoids are commonly prescribed drugs used to treat a multitude of health issues, but are known to induce a variety of adverse metabolic effects. Their actions in persons with obesity are not yet clear, even though there is a significant number of individuals with obesity routinely taking prescription glucocorticoids. The data presented here show that the obese state exacerbates several co-morbidities associated with chronically elevated glucocorticoids. These effects may be considered by physicians when determining glucocorticoid treatment options for patients with obesity.

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