Lipid droplets control mitogenic lipid mediator production in human cancer cells

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Abstract

Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) are components of membrane phospholipids and precursors of bioactive lipid mediators. Here, we investigated the crosstalk of three pathways providing PUFAs for lipid mediator production: (i) secreted group X phospholipase A_2 (GX sPLA$_2$) and (ii) cytosolic group IVA PLA$_2$ (cPLA$_2\alpha$), which both mobilize PUFAs from phospholipids, and (iii) adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL), which breaks down triacylglycerols (TAGs) stored in lipid droplets (LDs). Combining lipidomic and functional analyses, we demonstrate that lipid mediator production depends on TAG turnover. GX sPLA$_2$ directs PUFAs into TAGs and ATGL is required for their entry into lipid mediator biosynthetic pathways. ATGL also promotes the incorporation of LD-derived PUFAs into phospholipids representing substrates for cPLA$_2\alpha$. Additionally, inhibition of TAG synthesis mediated by acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase 1 (DGAT1) reduces the levels of mitogenic lipid signals and compromises tumour growth. This study expands the paradigm of PLA$_2$-driven lipid mediator signalling and identifies LDs as central lipid mediator production hubs.

Keywords: lipid droplets, diacylglycerol acyltransferase, adipose triglyceride lipase, phospholipase A$_2$, lipid mediators, cancer

Introduction

Fatty acids (FAs) are universal cellular energy sources and membrane building blocks. FAs are also involved in signalling pathways that control cell growth, inflammation and tumourigenesis (Röhrig & Schulze, 2016). The ensemble of signalling FAs is vastly expanded by the oxygenation of polyunsaturated FAs (PUFAs) by cyclooxygenase (COX), lipoxygenase (LOXs) and CYP450 monooxygenase enzymes into several families of bioactive lipid mediators, including the eicosanoids (Dennis & Norris, 2015). These short-lived autocrine and paracrine signalling molecules are released from cells to collectively modulate various processes in their microenvironment, e.g., to orchestrate a shift into pro-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory states. Pathways that control the availability of different PUFAs for oxygenation determine the types of lipid mediator species produced and the dynamics of their production (Wang & DuBois, 2010; Greene *et al*, 2011). Our current understanding of the control of PUFA supply for lipid mediator production is limited, particularly as this is intrinsically dependent on complex (PU)FA metabolism, including PUFA biosynthesis, uptake, storage, breakdown, lipid remodelling and trafficking (Pérez-Chacón *et al*, 2009; Astudillo *et al*, 2019; Jarc & Petan, 2020).

The canonical pathway that supplies arachidonic acid (AA) for eicosanoid production depends on the group IVA cytosolic phospholipase A_2 (cPLA$_2\alpha$), whose role in stimulus-induced eicosanoid production has been demonstrated in various pathophysiological settings (Bonventre *et al*, 2004; Shimizu, 2009; Murakami *et al*, 2011; Leslie, 2015). Upon cell activation, cPLA$_2\alpha$ binds to perinuclear membranes of the ER and Golgi complex and selectively hydrolyses phospholipids containing AA at the *sn*-2 position (Hayashi *et al*, 2021). Numerous other members of the PLA$_2$ superfamily promote lipid mediator production, either through activation of cPLA$_2\alpha$ or by acting independently on their respective phospholipid pools, thereby releasing not only AA but also other PUFAs (Saiga *et al*, 2005; Duchez *et al*, 2019; Astudillo *et al*, 2019). In particular, several secreted PLA$_2$s (sPLA$_2$s) have been implicated in lipid mediator production (Murase *et al*, 2016; Sato *et al*, 2020). The group X sPLA$_2$ is the most potent among mammalian sPLA$_2$s at hydrolysing the phosphatidylcholine (PC)-rich plasma membrane, lipoproteins and extracellular vesicles (Bezzine *et al*, 2002; Mounier *et al*, 2004; Jarc *et al*, 2018; Kudo *et al*, 2022). It releases various unsaturated FAs, including ω-3 and ω-6 PUFAs, and it is involved in inflammation, immunity and cancer (Surrel *et al*, 2009; Murase *et al*, 2016; Schewe *et al*, 2016; Pucer *et al*, 2013; Ogden *et al*, 2020; Kudo *et al*, 2022).

Recent studies suggest that besides membrane phospholipids, other cellular lipid pools, including neutral lipids stored in lipid droplets (LDs) or derived from lipoprotein uptake, are also sources of PUFAs for lipid mediator production (Dichlberger *et al*, 2014; Schlager *et*

al, 2015, 2017; Jarc & Petan, 2020). LDs are specialized organelles that store FAs and other
lipids in their esterified forms, primarily as triglycerides (TAGs) and sterol esters (Welte &
Gould, 2017; Olzmann & Carvalho, 2019). A hallmark role of LDs is taking up excess FAs to
prevent lipotoxicity and fine-tune FA release via lipolysis to match various cellular demands
(Listenberger *et al*, 2003; Rambold *et al*, 2015; Nguyen *et al*, 2017; Henne *et al*, 2018; Petan,
2020). Adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL), the major mammalian TAG lipase, provides FAs for
mitochondrial energy production, but it also controls FA-induced signalling pathways that
coordinate metabolism and inflammation (Zimmermann *et al*, 2004; Haemmerle *et al*, 2011;
Schweiger *et al*, 2017; Zechner *et al*, 2017). In immune and cancer cells, LDs have long been
implicated in AA storage, trafficking and eicosanoid production (Dvorak *et al*, 1983; Triggiani
et al, 1994; Bozza *et al*, 2011). It was only recently shown that ATGL provides precursors for
lipid mediator production and modulates neutrophil immune responses *in vivo* (Dichlberger *et
al*, 2014; Schlager *et al*, 2015; Riederer *et al*, 2017). However, it is not yet clear how LDs
manage PUFA trafficking for lipid mediator production in mammalian cells and how they
cooperate with the canonical PLA$_2$-mediated pathways (Guijas *et al*, 2014; Jarc & Petan,
2020).

The trafficking of PUFAs between membranes and LDs is an emerging mechanism
controlling PUFA oxygenation and lipid-induced oxidative damage, including ferroptotic cell
death. On the one hand, the sequestration of PUFAs into LDs limits their availability for
oxidation (Bailey *et al*, 2015; Jarc *et al*, 2018; Dierge *et al*, 2021). For instance, in fly embryos
exposed to hypoxia, membrane lipid peroxidation and neuronal damage are prevented via a
mechanism mediated by phospholipase D and diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) that
diverts PUFAs from phospholipids into TAGs stored within LDs (Bailey *et al*, 2015). On the
other hand, the proportion of (poly)unsaturated FAs released from LDs may determine
membrane saturation, oxidative stress and cell fate (Ackerman *et al*, 2018; Jarc *et al*, 2018).
Accordingly, in cancer cells exposed to exogenous PUFAs, LDs are enriched with PUFA-TAGs
and their hydrolysis by ATGL promotes oxidative stress-dependent cell death (Jarc *et al*,
2018). Under these conditions, the transfer of unsaturated FAs from membrane phospholipids
into LDs mediated by the human group X (hGX) sPLA$_2$ balances phospholipid and TAG acyl-
chain composition and prevents PUFA lipotoxicity (Pucer et al, 2013; Jarc *et al*, 2018). Based
on these findings, we hypothesize that LD turnover modulates membrane PUFA content and
affects PLA$_2$-mediated lipid mediator production.

Here, we investigated the crosstalk between different molecular pathways providing
PUFAs for lipid mediator production in human cancer cells. We show that the incorporation of
PUFAs into TAGs and their subsequent release via lipolysis are essential for production of
mitogenic lipid mediators. We demonstrate that LDs integrate several PUFA trafficking
pathways and act as central hubs that control PLA$_2$-driven lipid mediator production.

Furthermore, we provide evidence for a pathophysiological relevance of these findings by showing that inhibition of TAG synthesis impairs the production of mitogenic lipid mediators and reduces cancer cell proliferation in vitro and tumour growth in vivo.

Results

Membrane phospholipid hydrolysis by hGX sPLA$_2$ leads to enrichment of LDs with long-chain PUFA-TAGs

We have shown previously that hGX sPLA$_2$ releases various unsaturated FAs from adherent cells, including oleic acid (C18:1n–9; OA) and PUFAs (Jarc *et al*, 2018), and induces LD accumulation in several breast cancer cell lines (Pucer *et al*, 2013; Jarc *et al*, 2018). Recombinant hGX sPLA$_2$ also induced LD accumulation in other cancer and immortalised non-tumorigenic cell lines (Fig. 1A, B), suggesting that its effects on LD metabolism are not limited to specific cell types. Here we asked whether hGX sPLA$_2$ alters TAG acyl chain composition in LDs of MDA-MB-231 cells (Fig. 1C), a cell line showing enhanced proliferation and resistance to starvation upon treatment with hGX sPLA$_2$ (Pucer *et al*, 2013). Cells pre-incubated with [^{14}C]-OA readily incorporated the radiolabelled FA into phospholipids and TAGs, while hGX sPLA$_2$ treatment specifically increased the abundance of TAGs containing [^{14}C]-OA in various growth conditions (Fig. 1D; Supp. Fig. 1A, B). Lipidomic LC/MS analyses of TAG species extracted from hGX sPLA$_2$-treated serum-fed (Fig. 1E–H, J, K; Supp. Fig. 1C, D) and serum-starved cells (Fig. 1F, I) revealed an unexpected enrichment of TAG species with long-chain (Fig. 1J) and highly unsaturated FAs (Fig. 1K). This suggests that among the unsaturated FAs released by hGX sPLA$_2$, the polyunsaturated species are preferentially redistributed from membrane phospholipids into LDs. Experiments with serum-starved cells (Fig. 1D, F, I) demonstrated that serum lipoproteins, which are major targets for the enzyme (Guillaume *et al*, 2015; Jarc *et al*, 2018), are not required for hGX sPLA$_2$-induced enrichment of TAGs with PUFAs. This observation suggests a direct action of hGX sPLA$_2$ on the plasma membrane leading to enrichment of LDs with PUFA-containing TAGs.

ATGL-mediated LD breakdown is required for PGE$_2$ production in serum-starved cells

Serum withdrawal induces LD breakdown in most cell types (Bosch *et al*, 2020). Given the hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced enrichment of LDs with PUFAs, we next asked if starvation-induced breakdown of PUFA-rich LDs is sufficient to stimulate eicosanoid production. LD biogenesis was first stimulated with hGX sPLA$_2$ (or with exogenous AA) in cells grown in serum-rich medium. Then the cells were serum-starved in the absence of these stimuli to induce LD

breakdown (Fig. 2A; Supp. Fig. 2A). In comparison with untreated cells, the serum-starved

cells pre-treated with hGX sPLA$_2$ released more glycerol (Supp. Fig. 2C), an indicator of TAG

lipolysis, and produced more prostaglandin (PG)E$_2$ (Fig. 2B), a major AA-derived eicosanoid.

Although HeLa cells were unique among cell lines in showing a net reduction in neutral lipid

levels upon treatment with hGX sPLA$_2$ (Fig. 1A, B; Supp. Fig. 2B), there was an increase in

lipolysis (Supp. Fig. 2C) and PGE$_2$ production (Fig. 2B) during serum starvation. This is

indicative of an accelerated LD turnover in hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated HeLa cells that leads to net

reduction in LD levels and drives lipid mediator production. Similarly, pre-treatment with

exogenous AA led to increased PGE$_2$ production in starving MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells

(Supp. Fig. 2D). These observations indicate that LD breakdown drives PGE$_2$ synthesis.

We next investigated if ATGL, the rate-limiting enzyme in intracellular TAG lipolysis, is

responsible for LD breakdown and PGE$_2$ biosynthesis observed during starvation. ATGL

silencing using siRNA in MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells (Fig. 2C; Supp. Fig. 2E) reduced

glycerol release (Supp. Fig. 2F, G), increased LD abundance (Fig. 2D, F; Supp. Fig. 2H, J)

and reduced basal and hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced PGE$_2$ production during serum starvation (Fig. 2E;

Supp. Fig. 2I). ATGL deficiency also attenuated LD breakdown and suppressed the production

of PGE$_2$ in MDA-MB-231 cells pre-treated with exogenous AA (Supp. Fig. 2N, O). However,

although ATGL knockdown increased LD abundance also in A549 cells (Supp. Fig. 2E; Supp.

Fig. 2K, M), it unexpectedly augmented glycerol release (Supp. Fig. 2F, G) and failed to

suppress basal or hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced PGE$_2$ production (Supp. Fig. 2L). In contrast to the

effects of ATGL silencing, ATGL overexpression in the breast and cervical cancer cells (Fig.

2G; Supp. Fig. 2P) stimulated glycerol release (Fig. 2H) and enhanced PGE$_2$ production (Fig.

2I), albeit without significantly altering neutral lipid levels (Supp. Fig. 2R). The effects of ATGL

overexpression were fully reversed in the presence of ATGL-targeting siRNA (Fig. 2H, I).

Collectively, these data demonstrate that LD breakdown via ATGL is required for basal, AA-

induced and hGX-sPLA$_2$-stimulated PGE$_2$ production (Fig. 2J) in MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells,

but not in the A549 cells.

ATGL-mediated release of ω-3 and ω-6 PUFAs from LDs drives lipid mediator

production

The data presented above demonstrate that transient storage of AA within LD TAGs followed

by AA release from TAGs by ATGL are intermediate steps in basal and hGX-sPLA$_2$-stimulated

production of PGE$_2$. To find out if ATGL-mediated TAG lipolysis promotes the production of a

wider range of eicosanoids and related lipid mediators (which might also derive from other

PUFAs), we performed targeted liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry-based

metabololipidomics to examine the effects of ATGL silencing on the lipid mediator profiles of

untreated and hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated cells. Here, pre-treatment of breast cancer cells with hGX

sPLA$_2$ stimulated the starvation-induced production of numerous lipid mediators,
biosynthesised from different PUFAs by various enzymatic pathways (Fig. 3A–C, Supp. Fig.
3). hGX sPLA$_2$ promoted the synthesis of eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA)-derived lipid mediators,
as well as the production of AA-derived and DHA-derived products. ATGL depletion
suppressed the release of all of the hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced lipid mediators (Fig. 3A–C, Supp. Fig.
3). Furthermore, ATGL silencing strongly inhibited the basal, hGX-sPLA$_2$-independent
production of lipid mediators, including PGE$_2$. Starving cells pre-treated with hGX sPLA$_2$ also
released more unesterified PUFAs, including AA, EPA and DHA, which was prevented by
ATGL silencing (Fig. 3D). This suggested that a portion of hGX sPLA$_2$-released PUFAs is not
used for lipid mediator production or incorporated into membranes, but is rather released from
cells through lipolysis by ATGL. Overall, these observations suggest that ATGL controls the
availability of PUFAs for lipid mediator synthesis (Fig. 3E).
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222   *Inhibition of DGAT-mediated LD biogenesis impairs PGE$_2$ production*
To examine whether the incorporation of PUFAs into TAGs is a prerequisite for the conversion
of PUFAs into lipid mediators, we inhibited TAG synthesis using a combination of specific
inhibitors of DGAT1 and DGAT2 (DGATi), which mediate the final committed step in TAG
synthesis, and followed changes in LD turnover and lipid mediator production. Combined
inhibition of both DGATs was necessary because individual inhibition of DGAT1 or DGAT2 did
not reduce neutral lipid levels in hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated cells (Supp. Fig. 4A). Combined DGAT1
and DGAT2 inhibition during serum feeding strongly suppressed basal, hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced
and exogenous AA-induced LD accumulation (Fig. 4A, B, D). There was an almost complete
depletion of LDs in serum-fed DGATi-treated cells (Fig. 4B), which allowed only a minimal
breakdown of residual LDs during the subsequent serum starvation (Fig. 4A). Notably, cells
depleted of LDs displayed low basal PGE$_2$ release and did not increase PGE$_2$ production upon
stimulation with either hGX sPLA$_2$ or exogenous AA (Fig. 4C, E). These results were
corroborated by lipidomic analyses, which showed that combined inhibition of DGAT1 and
DGAT2 suppresses hGX sPLA$_2$-induced production of several AA- and EPA-derived lipid
mediators (Fig. 4F; Supp. Fig. 4B), reduces exogenous AA-induced production of
prostaglandins (Supp. Fig. 4C) and blunts the release of unesterified PUFAs from starving
MDA-MB-231 cells (Fig. 4G). Notably, DGATi treatment abolished PGE$_2$ production also in
A549 cells (Fig. 4C), whereas ATGL depletion failed to do so (Supp. Fig. 2L), suggesting that
TAG synthesis precedes eicosanoid production in these cells as well. Therefore, DGAT-
mediated TAG biosynthesis under serum-rich conditions is a prerequisite for lipid mediator
production in serum-starved cells.
Besides promoting LD breakdown, serum removal in MDA-MB-231 cells stimulates the
transcription of lipogenic genes, including the sterol-regulatory element binding 1 protein

(SREBP-1) transcription factor and key enzymes involved in FA synthesis (Pucer *et al*, 2013).

In accordance with ongoing lipogenesis, treatment of serum-starved cells with hGX sPLA$_2$

resulted in a net increase in TAG levels (Fig. 1F). To examine whether TAG synthesis occurring

during serum starvation regulates eicosanoid production, control and ATGL-depleted cells

were treated with DGAT1 and DGAT2 inhibitors during serum feeding or during serum

starvation. As expected, DGAT inhibition during serum feeding fully depleted MDA-MB-231

and HeLa cells of LDs, thereby abolishing the effects of hGX sPLA$_2$ and ATGL silencing on LD

abundance (Supp. Fig. 4D). In contrast, DGAT inhibition during serum starvation did not affect

LD abundance in these two cell lines (Fig. 4H; Supp. Fig. 4E), nor did it affect PGE$_2$ release in

MDA-MB-231 cells (Fig. 4H). However, DGAT inhibition in serum-starved A549 cells reduced

LD abundance and suppressed PGE$_2$ production (Fig. 4I). This was observed in both control

and in ATGL-deficient A549 cells indicating that the build-up of TAG stores during starvation

drives eicosanoid biosynthesis via an ATGL-independent mechanism. Accordingly, DGAT

inhibition during both serum feeding and starvation was necessary for full suppression of PGE$_2$

production in A549 cells (Supp. Fig. 4F).

Collectively, these results demonstrate that DGAT-mediated TAG synthesis and LD

turnover are required for lipid mediator production. ATGL-mediated breakdown of pre-existing

DGAT-induced LDs is the predominant mechanism of LD-driven eicosanoid production in the

serum-starved MDA-MB-231 breast and HeLa cervical cancer cells. On the contrary, A549

lung cancer cells employ TAG synthesis during starvation and ATGL-independent

mechanisms to support eicosanoid production.

cPLA$_2$α cooperates with ATGL and depends on LD turnover to drive eicosanoid

production

Given the well-accepted role of cPLA$_2$α in providing AA for eicosanoid biosynthesis, we next

asked whether cPLA$_2$α participates in LD-driven lipid mediator production. We speculated that

at least three main scenarios are possible (Fig. 5A): (a) cPLA$_2$α-induced incorporation of

phospholipid-derived AA into TAGs, followed by AA release from LDs by ATGL; (b) ATGL-

dependent transfer of TAG-derived AA into phospholipid pools, which are then accessed by

cPLA$_2$α; and (c) a lipid-droplet-independent action of cPLA$_2$α on membrane phospholipids.

To examine these possibilities, we first used siRNA to deplete cells of cPLA$_2$α alone or

in combination with ATGL (Fig. 5B; Supp. Fig. 5A, B). cPLA$_2$α deficient cancer cells had slightly

increased neutral lipid levels (Fig. 5B; Supp. Fig. 5C), but contained a significantly higher

number of LDs (Fig. 5C; Supp. Fig. 5E, F). This finding was particularly evident in ATGL-

deficient and hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treated starving cells and suggests a modulatory role of cPLA$_2$α

in LD turnover. In line with its major role in TAG lipolysis, the predominant effect of ATGL

silencing on LD morphology was an increase in LD diameters, along with some minor changes

in the number of LDs per cell (Fig. 5C; Supp. Fig. 5E, F). Most notably, cPLA$_2$α depletion in A549 cells, but not ATGL silencing, abolished basal and hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced eicosanoid release (Fig. 5B). On the contrary, while ATGL knockdown lowered PGE$_2$ production in MDA-MB-231 cells, cPLA$_2$α silencing did not alter PGE$_2$ levels. Of note, the silencing of cPLA$_2$α in HeLa cells led to a marked increase in PGE$_2$ release, which was partially reduced upon depletion of both ATGL and cPLA$_2$α (Fig. 5B). These data suggested that cPLA$_2$α modulates LD turnover and that its contribution to PGE$_2$ production during serum starvation is cell type-specific.

To find out more about the interplay between cPLA$_2$α and ATGL, we asked how reciprocal overexpression of one and silencing of the other might affect LD turnover and PGE$_2$ production (Fig. 5D). In all three cell lines, the overexpression of ATGL or cPLA$_2$α had a minimal effect on neutral lipid levels (Supp. Fig. 5D, G, H), but both significantly augmented PGE$_2$ production (Fig. 5D). ATGL silencing blocked PGE$_2$ production induced by overexpression of cPLA$_2$α in MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells, whereas cPLA$_2$α silencing only partially reduced ATGL-overexpression-driven eicosanoid production in MDA-MB-231 cells, and even increased it in HeLa cells. On the contrary, in A549 cells, ATGL knockdown did not affect cPLA$_2$α-induced PGE$_2$ production, but silencing of cPLA$_2$α reduced PGE$_2$ release from ATGL-overexpressing cells (Fig. 5D). Taken together, these data suggested that ATGL is the main enzyme in the provision of PUFAs for eicosanoid production in MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells, whereby cPLA$_2$α stimulation of eicosanoid production depends on ATGL. In contrast, in A549 cells, cPLA$_2$α has a dominant role in PGE$_2$ production, which is independent of ATGL, but is still associated with changes in LD turnover.

To examine if TAG synthesis is involved in cPLA$_2$α-driven lipid mediator production, cPLA$_2$α and ATGL were overexpressed in cells depleted of LDs using DGAT inhibitors (Fig. 5E; Supp. Fig. 5H). As expected, TAG synthesis was necessary for ATGL stimulation of eicosanoid production (Fig. 5E). However, in all three cell lines, cPLA$_2$α-overexpression-induced eicosanoid production was also completely abolished upon DGAT inhibition (Fig. 5E). Therefore, LDs are required for cPLA$_2$α-driven lipid mediator production. cPLA$_2$α and ATGL appear to have cell-type-specific roles that are either cooperative or complementary for both LD turnover and eicosanoid production. In the breast and cervical cancer cells, deficiency of ATGL impairs cPLA$_2$α-induced PGE$_2$ production, which suggests the possibility that the transfer of AA from TAGs to phospholipids is a prerequisite for the action of cPLA$_2$α.

ATGL and cPLA$_2$α have complementary roles in TAG and phospholipid acyl-chain remodelling

To examine how hGX sPLA$_2$, ATGL and cPLA$_2$α affect PUFA trafficking between the phospholipid and TAG pools in MDA-MB-231 cells during serum starvation, we performed

single and double knockdowns of ATGL and cPLA$_2$α followed by lipidomic analyses comparing

the lipid compositions of cells first pre-treated with hGX sPLA$_2$ during nutrient sufficiency and

subsequently serum-starved for 0 h, 3 h or 24 h (Fig. 6A).

First, hGX sPLA$_2$ treatment led to enrichment of both TAGs and phospholipids with

PUFAs (Fig. 6A; Supp. Fig. 6A; Supp. Fig. 7A). hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced PUFA-TAG enrichment

was seen for serum-fed MDA-MB-231 cells, and it persisted upon hGX sPLA$_2$ and serum

withdrawal.   Importantly,   the   levels   of   PUFA-containing   phospholipids   (PUFA-PLs)

progressively increased during the course of serum starvation (Supp. Fig. 6A). These data

suggest that a significant portion of sPLA$_2$-released PUFAs that are incorporated into TAGs in

serum-fed cells are gradually released via lipolysis during serum starvation and are re-

esterified into phospholipids.

Second, ATGL silencing led to an increased abundance of most TAG species, but also

altered phospholipid composition (Fig. 6A; Supp. Fig. 6A). The retention of various TAG

species within LDs due to ATGL deficiency is in agreement with the general lack of TAG acyl-

chain specificity of ATGL (Eichmann et al, 2012). During serum starvation, ATGL depletion

caused a gradual increase of numerous PUFA-TAGs (Fig. 6B), which confirmed that ATGL

hydrolyses PUFA-TAGs in starving cells. Importantly, ATGL deficiency reverted the elevation

of PUFA-PLs induced by hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment (Supp. Fig. 6A). This is consistent with a

reduced flux of PUFAs from TAGs into phospholipids due to ATGL depletion. Thus, ATGL

hydrolyses various TAG species, including numerous PUFA-TAGs, and provides PUFAs for

esterification into phospholipids.

Third, depletion of cPLA$_2$α predominantly affected phospholipid (Fig. 6A; Supp. Fig.

6A), but also altered TAG composition (Fig. 6C). Numerous PUFA-PC and PUFA-

phosphatidylethanolamine (PUFA-PE) species were progressively elevated in cPLA$_2$α-

deficient cells over the course of the serum starvation (Supp. Fig. 6A), which suggested that

these lipids are targeted by cPLA$_2$α. The decreased abundance of PUFA-PLs observed in

ATGL-deficient cells was reversed in double-knockdown cells (Fig. 6A; Supp. Fig. 6B), which

suggested that ATGL-derived PUFAs are incorporated into a phospholipid pool that is targeted

by cPLA$_2$α. A LION/web lipid ontology analysis suggested that the increased content of PUFA-

PLs in cPLA$_2$α-deficient cells leads to significant changes in membrane biophysical properties,

including   increased   lateral   diffusion,   reduced   bilayer   thickness   and   a   lower   transition

temperature (Supp. Fig. 7B, C). Furthermore, cPLA$_2$α silencing did not affect hGX-sPLA$_2$-

induced PUFA-TAG enrichment (Fig. 6A), but it reduced the content of SFA/MUFA-TAGs (Fig.

6C). This effect was fully reversed in double-knockdown cells, suggesting that cPLA$_2$α

depletion alters TAG composition in an ATGL-dependent manner. Therefore, ATGL promotes

the transfer of PUFAs from TAGs into a phospholipid pool that is targeted by cPLA$_2$α, which in

turn reciprocally modulates the TAG pool.

Collectively, our results suggest that hGX-sPLA$_2$-liberated PUFAs are first and
predominantly incorporated into TAGs of growing LDs, and are then redistributed into
phospholipids upon TAG lipolysis by ATGL, particularly during serum starvation (Fig. 6D).
Some of the ATGL-released PUFAs are directly used for eicosanoid production (i.e.,
independent of cPLA$_2$α), while some are re-esterified into phospholipids and can be then
mobilised by cPLA$_2$α for the production of eicosanoids.

LDs drive cancer cell proliferation by promoting eicosanoid production

Given that PGE$_2$ and other eicosanoids are mitogenic factors that promote tumour
growth (Wang & DuBois, 2010), we next asked whether LD turnover by DGAT and ATGL
affects cancer cell proliferation and possibly mediates the proliferative effect of hGX sPLA$_2$
(Surrel *et al*, 2009; Pucer *et al*, 2013). The induction of MDA-MB-231 cell proliferation by hGX
sPLA$_2$ was fully blocked by DGAT1 inhibition and by concurrent inhibition of both DGAT1 and
DGAT2; however, DGAT2 inhibition alone had no effects (Fig. 7A). Inhibition of DGAT1, but
not DGAT2, also reduced the basal, hGX-sPLA$_2$-independent rate of breast cancer cell
proliferation (Fig. 7A) and colony formation (Supp. Fig. 8A, B). As ATGL promotes lipid
mediator production, we hypothesized that ATGL overexpression should induce cell
proliferation in a COX/LOX-dependent manner. Indeed, alone or in combination with sPLA$_2$
treatment, ATGL overexpression stimulated cancer cell proliferation (Fig. 7B, C), which was
suppressed by the non-selective COX and LOX inhibitors indomethacin and
nordihydroguaiaretic acid, respectively (Fig. 7B, C). Exogenous PGE$_2$ stimulated MDA-MB-
231 cell proliferation, confirming its mitogenic potency under the present conditions (Supp. Fig.
8C). The effect of PGE$_2$ was suppressed by inhibition of DGAT1, but not by inhibition of
DGAT2, which suggested a positive-feedback loop between eicosanoids and DGAT1-
mediated TAG turnover. To examine the relevance of DGAT1-driven lipid mediator production
for cancer cell proliferation *in vivo*, we treated mice bearing aggressive MDA-MB-231
xenografts with DGAT1 inhibitors, followed tumour growth and determined lipid mediator
content in tumours. DGAT1 inhibitor treatments reduced tumour volume and prolonged the
survival of mice (Fig. 7D, E). Furthermore, tumour samples of DGAT1 inhibitor-treated mice
contained reduced levels of lipid mediators (Fig. 7F). Thus, DGAT1 inhibition supressed lipid
mediator production and tumour growth leading to prolonged survival of mice bearing breast
cancer xenografts. Altogether, these results with MDA-MB-231 cancer cells demonstrate that
DGAT1-mediated PUFA incorporation into LDs and PUFA release via ATGL drive basal and
hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced production of COX- and LOX-derived lipid mediators that in turn stimulate
cancer cell proliferation and tumour growth.
cPLA$_2$α-induced eicosanoid production promotes cancer cell proliferation and tumour
growth (Leslie, 2015; Koundouros *et al*, 2020), although this activity has not yet been

associated with LDs. As cPLA$_2$α has a major role in LD-dependent eicosanoid production in

A549 cells (Fig. 5B), we asked whether cPLA$_2$α stimulates A549 cell proliferation in a DGAT-

and COX-dependent manner. Indeed, cPLA$_2$α-overexpression led to increased A549 cell

proliferation, which was blocked by either DGAT or COX inhibitors (Fig. 8G), demonstrating

that DGAT-mediated TAG synthesis and COX-mediated conversion of cPLA$_2$α-released AA

into lipid mediators are required for cPLA$_2$α-stimulated A549 lung cancer cell proliferation.

Exogenous hGX sPLA$_2$ also stimulated A549 cell proliferation, which was suppressed by

inhibition of DGAT and COX (Fig. 8G). Finally, in MDA-MB-231 cells, where DGAT-mediated

TAG synthesis was required for cPLA$_2$α-stimulated PGE$_2$ production (Fig. 5E), cPLA$_2$α

overexpression resulted in higher proliferation rates, which were reduced by DGAT inhibition

(Fig. 8H). Together, these data demonstrate that LD biogenesis controls both hGX-sPLA$_2$- and

cPLA$_2$α-mediated cancer cell proliferation, which is driven by lipid mediators produced by COX

and LOX enzymes.

Discussion

In this study, we provide evidence that TAG turnover controls the production of a wide range

of ω-3 and ω-6 PUFA-derived oxygenated lipid mediators. We show that the esterification of

PUFAs into TAGs and their lipolytic release from LDs are necessary for PUFA entry into lipid

mediator biosynthetic pathways. We demonstrate that ATGL liberates ω-3 and ω-6 PUFAs

from TAGs, alters membrane phospholipid composition and drives lipid mediator production

via COX and LOX (Fig. 8I). Our data further suggest that LDs control canonical, PLA$_2$-induced

lipid mediator biosynthesis pathways by sequestering exogenous and membrane-derived

PUFAs via DGAT1 and by modulating membrane PUFA content by delivering PUFAs into

phospholipids via ATGL. We demonstrate that lipid mediator production induced by hGX

sPLA$_2$, which initially releases PUFAs from the plasma membrane and serum lipoproteins,

depends on DGAT-driven enrichment of TAGs with PUFAs as well as ATGL-mediated

lipolysis. Lipid mediator production induced by cPLA$_2$α, which acts on perinuclear membranes

to release AA for eicosanoid production, also depends on intact TAG turnover. These findings

change the paradigm of PLA$_2$-mediated inflammatory and mitogenic signalling by integrating

membrane hydrolysis with LD metabolism. Furthermore, inhibition of DGAT-mediated TAG

synthesis compromises lipid mediator release from cancer cells, thereby suppressing basal,

sPLA$_2$- and cPLA$_2$α-induced cancer cell proliferation and reducing tumour growth in vivo. This

study identifies the LD organelle as a central lipid trafficking hub that controls major PUFA

supply routes for lipid mediator biosynthesis.

One of the most striking findings of the present study is that LD turnover regulates

eicosanoid production from both exogenously-added PUFAs and membrane-hydrolysis-

derived PUFAs suggesting that the build-up of PUFA-rich TAG stores is a required step in the control of lipid mediator signalling. A similar mechanism has been described in cardiomyocytes, whereby exogenous FAs have to be esterified into TAGs and then released by ATGL to activate peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) signalling (Haemmerle *et al*, 2011; Zechner *et al*, 2012). Furthermore, as we found DGAT activity to be a prerequisite for both ATGL-induced and sPLA$_2$/cPLA$_2$α-induced eicosanoid production, it can be assumed that LDs control PUFA availability for eicosanoid production through the regulation of both TAG and membrane phospholipid pools.

Our previous data showed that breast cancer cells challenged with exogenous PUFAs depend on the balance between DGAT1-mediated sequestration of PUFAs into LDs and their release via ATGL-mediated lipolysis to survive lethal oxidative damage (Jarc *et al*, 2018). In support of this, inhibition of DGAT activity diverts dietary PUFAs towards esterification into membrane phospholipids, thereby increasing their peroxidation and leading to ferroptosis in acidic tumours (Dierge *et al*, 2021). Accordingly, DGAT1 increases the resilience of cancer cells against the stress of increased FA acquisition, which is a hallmark of transformed cells (Wilcock *et al*, 2022). It was recently shown that DGAT1-mediated TAG synthesis is required for prostaglandin formation during macrophage activation (Castoldi *et al*, 2020) and *Drosophila* oogenesis (preprint: Giedt *et al*, 2021). Our results suggest that DGAT activity controls cancer cell growth and proliferation by generating PUFA stores in LDs, which can be used for the production of potent, albeit short-lived, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory lipid signalling molecules. As these signalling molecules are released from cells to act in autocrine and paracrine manners, they can modulate tumour growth by altering the function of cancer cells, immune cells and other cells in the tumour microenvironment (Wang & DuBois, 2010; Greene *et al*, 2011). Thus, in addition to their protective role against nutrient deficiency, lipotoxicity and oxidative stress (Petan, 2020), LDs modulate tumour growth also through the control of lipid mediator-dependent cell-autonomous and non-cell-autonomous mitogenic and inflammatory signalling pathways, and thus emerge as targets for therapeutic intervention. Targeting the DGAT enzymes might improve cancer treatments, particularly under conditions of elevated lipid influx (e.g., abundance of dietary fats, dyslipidemia, oncogene-driven elevated endogenous FA synthesis, high autophagic flux) (Chitraju *et al*, 2017; Nguyen *et al*, 2017; Dierge *et al*, 2021).

sPLA$_2$ enzymes display tissue- and cell-specific expression patterns and differ in their membrane binding affinities and hydrolytic activities depending on the phospholipid composition and structural features of their target lipid assemblies (Lambeau & Gelb, 2008; Murakami *et al*, 2020). Their ability to promote lipid mediator production has been attributed either to direct PUFA release from phospholipids (e.g., in the case of hGX sPLA$_2$) or cooperative action with cPLA$_2$α (e.g., in the case of the group IIA sPLA$_2$) (Hanasaki *et al*, 1999;

Bezzine *et al*, 2002; Saiga *et al*, 2005). Regardless of the particular PLA$_2$(s) involved, the

release of PUFAs from phospholipids has been considered the final step in the control of PUFA

entry into oxygenation pathways. Here, we show that lipid mediator production by two of the

most potent mammalian PLA$_2$s, hGX sPLA$_2$ and cPLA$_2$α, depends on LD turnover. Notably,

hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells showed an enrichment of both TAGs

and phospholipids with PUFAs, but their release from TAGs by ATGL was essential for their

conversion into lipid mediators and preceded the action of cPLA$_2$α. Intriguingly, in A549 lung

cancer cells, cPLA$_2$α rather than ATGL was required for hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced PGE$_2$ production,

but intact TAG synthesis was still a prerequisite for both hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced and cPLA$_2$α-

induced eicosanoid synthesis and cell proliferation. This suggests that lipid mediator

production could be mediated in different cell types by various combinations of PLA$_2$s and

(TAG) lipases, but the LD emerges as a central hub that controls the trafficking and final

destination of PUFAs.

This study provides a novel view of PLA$_2$-mediated inflammatory and mitogenic

signalling, which integrates membrane hydrolysis with cellular LD metabolism. LDs could be

the missing link that will help explain the elusive cross-talk between sPLA$_2$s and cPLA$_2$α in lipid

mediator biosynthesis (Mounier *et al*, 2004; Saiga *et al*, 2005; Lambeau and Gelb, 2008). It

will be interesting to investigate in future studies whether LD metabolism governs PLA$_2$-

induced lipid mediator production in various pathophysiological settings. Finally, the hGX

sPLA$_2$-induced incorporation of ω-3 and ω-6 PUFAs into TAGs, which is a novel mechanism

of enzymatically-induced enrichment of LDs with phospholipid-derived PUFAs, could help

clarify the various proposed roles of the group X sPLA$_2$ that extend beyond lipid mediator

production (Li *et al*, 2010; Sato *et al*, 2011; Murase *et al*, 2016; Schewe *et al*, 2016; Murakami

et al, 2020). For example, PUFA-enriched TAGs have been observed in visceral adipose tissue

of patients with colorectal cancer, along with elevated expression of hGX sPLA$_2$ and

prostaglandin biosynthetic enzymes (Liesenfeld *et al*, 2015).

Our results indicate that different cell-type-specific mechanisms might explain the

dependence of cPLA$_2$α-induced eicosanoid production on LDs. In the MDA-MB-231 and HeLa

cells, cPLA$_2$α depends on TAG synthesis and ATGL-mediated TAG lipolysis to drive the

incorporation of PUFAs into phospholipids, which are then targeted by cPLA$_2$α. In A549 cells,

cPLA$_2$α controls basal and sPLA$_2$-induced PGE$_2$ production independently of ATGL, although

its activity still depends on intact LD biogenesis. In both cases, our data suggest that cPLA$_2$α-

mediated AA release for eicosanoid production occurs downstream of, and is controlled by,

LD turnover. Interestingly, cPLA$_2$α has also been shown to drive mitochondrial β-oxidation of

both FAs and eicosanoids for energy production (Slatter *et al*, 2016), which is another

indication that ATGL and cPLA$_2$α share common metabolic and signalling pathways.

Altogether, our findings suggest that LD turnover regulates the supply of PUFAs for lipid

mediator production via at least two pathways: direct delivery of LD-derived PUFAs, which is independent of cPLA$_2$α; and an indirect route, which requires cPLA$_2$α but depends on LDs for the control of PUFA availability in membrane phospholipids. Notably, our data indicate that other lipases and LD breakdown mechanisms (e.g., lipophagy) besides (or instead of) ATGL might contribute to LD-dependent lipid mediator biosynthesis.

One of the intriguing questions that remains to be addressed in future studies is whether PUFA trafficking between the TAG core and the LD phospholipid monolayer is relevant for lipid mediator production. In principle, TAG lipolysis-derived PUFAs can be re-esterified in monolayer phospholipids and targeted by cPLA$_2$α or other PLA$_2$s. In agreement with this, cPLA$_2$α, COXs, several prostaglandin synthetases and *de novo* produced eicosanoids have been localised to LDs (Wooten *et al*, 2008; Moreira *et al*, 2009; Bozza *et al*, 2011; Cruz *et al*, 2020; Ward *et al*, 2020). In addition, cPLA$_2$α is involved in remodelling of membrane shape and it might affect LD biogenesis and lipolysis by altering membrane composition and its biophysical properties (Gubern *et al*, 2008; Guijas *et al*, 2014; Antonny *et al*, 2015; Astudillo *et al*, 2019; Cao *et al*, 2019; Jarc & Petan, 2020, Zoni *et al*, 2021). In agreement with this, our results indicate that cPLA$_2$α modulates membrane PUFA-phospholipid content and LD metabolism, including LD abundance and TAG acyl-chain composition. The molecular basis and functional relevance of these findings are currently unclear. We speculate that eicosanoid production does not necessarily occur on LDs as isolated cytosolic platforms, but at specific LD–ER contact sites that enable rapid lipid and protein transfer between the structures involved (i.e., the ER membrane bilayer, the LD phospholipid monolayer and TAG core) (Schuldiner & Bohnert, 2017). Such compartmentalisation would support the interplay among cPLA$_2$α, ATGL and other enzymes in the control of LD turnover, membrane remodelling and the eicosanoid synthesis machinery.

In conclusion, our study reveals that LDs are essential for lipid mediator production and cancer cell proliferation. Esterification of PUFAs into TAGs by the DGAT enzymes and PUFA release from LDs (which depends on TAG lipolysis by ATGL, and/or other lipases depending on the cell type) drives lipid mediator production either directly, by feeding PUFAs into the COX/LOX machinery, or by redirecting some of the PUFAs into membrane phospholipids first, whereby they are then targeted by cPLA$_2$α. Notably, both exogenous and sPLA$_2$-membrane-hydrolysis-derived PUFAs have to cycle through LDs to be converted into lipid mediators, which reveals that LDs are optimal storage reservoirs for excess PUFAs that actively control PUFA release. LDs thus have an important regulatory role in lipid mediator production, thereby potentially affecting numerous downstream signalling pathways that are involved in inflammation, immunity and cancer.

Materials and methods

Materials

MDA-MB-231 human breast adenocarcinoma cells, A549 human lung carcinoma cells, HeLa human cervical adenocarcinoma cells, C2C12 mouse myoblasts cells, and Caco-2 human colorectal adenocarcinoma cells were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, USA). J774A.1 mouse reticulum cell sarcoma macrophages were from the European Collection of Authenticated Cell Cultures (ECACC, UK), and MDA-MB-231 human breast adenocarcinoma cells with stable luciferase 2A and RFP expression (MDA-MB-231/Luciferase-2A-RFP) were from GeneTarget (USA). PC-3 human prostate adenocarcinoma cells were a kind gift from Dr. Mojca Pavlin (University of Ljubljana, Slovenia). OV-90 human ovarian papillary serous adenocarcinoma cells, TOV-112D human ovarian endometrioid carcinoma cells, TOV-21G human ovarian clear cell carcinoma cells and Ishikawa human endometrial adenocarcinoma cells were a kind gift from Dr. Brett McKinnon (Berne University Hospital, Switzerland). SGBS human Simpson-Golabi-Behmel syndrome preadipocytes were a kind gift from Dr. Merce Miranda (Joan XXIII University Hospital Tarragona, Spain), and SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cells were a kind gift from Dr. Boris Rogelj (Jožef Stefan Institute, Slovenia). RPMI-1640 culture medium was from ATCC (USA), and Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium nutrient mixture F-12 (DMEM/F12), DMEM with high glucose and GlutaMAX supplement (DMEM-GlutaMax), foetal bovine serum, Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS), TrypLE Select and Opti-MEM were from Life Technologies (USA). AA and PGE_2 standards were from Cayman Chemical (USA), and BODIPY 493/503, Lipofectamine RNAiMAX, Lipofectamine 3000, High-capacity cDNA reverse transformation kits were from Thermo Fisher Scientific (USA). Hoechst 33342 nuclear stain was from Enzo Life Sciences (USA). Human ATGL-targeting and $cPLA_2\alpha$-targeting siRNAs and the AllStars Negative Control siRNA were from Qiagen (Germany). T863 (DGAT1 inhibitor), PF-06424439 (DGAT2 inhibitor), indomethacin (COX inhibitor), nordihydroguaiaretic acid (LOX inhibitor), essentially fatty acid-free (EFAF) bovine serum albumin (BSA) (cat. no. A7511), FAF-BSA (cat. no. A8806) and Nile red were from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). High Pure RNA isolation kits were from Roche (Germany), horseradish-peroxidase-labelled secondary antibodies were from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories (USA), ATGL antibodies (cat. no. #2138) were from Cell Signaling Technology (USA), $cPLA_2\alpha$ antibodies (cat. no. sc-454) were from Santa Cruz (USA) and β-actin antibodies (cat. no. NB600-532) were from Novus Biologicals (UK). Recombinant wild-type hGX $sPLA_2$ was prepared as described previously (Pucer *et al*, 2013). The full-length cDNAs coding for human $cPLA_2\alpha$ (NCBI RefSeq NM.024420.3) and ATGL (NCBI RefSeq NM.020376.4) were cloned into the pcDNA 4/HisMaxC vector (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) using Gibson assembly cloning kits (New England Biolabs, USA), after

577 removal of the N-terminal His-tag region. All of the other chemicals were of at least analytical
578 grade, and were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA) or Serva (Germany).
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Cell culture and treatments
MDA-MB-231 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium, A549 cells in DMEM/F12 medium
containing 2 mM L-glutamine (Gibco, USA), and HeLa cells in DMEM-Glutamax medium, all
supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum. Adherent cells were detached using TrypLE
Select. Unless otherwise indicated, the cells were seeded in 24-well plates at a density of 3
$\times 10^4$ (MDA-MB-231), 2.5 $\times 10^4$ (A549) or 1.5 $\times 10^4$ (HeLa) cells/well and grown for 48 h in
complete medium, followed by 24 h of serum deprivation in their respective media containing
0.02% EFAF-BSA. Aliquots of stock solutions of AA and PGE_2 in absolute ethanol were stored
under argon at –80 ºC. Prior to addition to cell cultures, AA was resuspended in the relevant
complete medium and incubated for 1 h at room temperature. Unless otherwise indicated,
T863 and PF-06424439 were added to cells 2 h before treatments with recombinant hGX
$sPLA_2$ (1–10 nM) or AA (10 μM), and were present in the medium for the duration of the
treatments. Prior to addition to cell culture, radiolabelled $[^{14}C]$-OA was saponified by removing
ethanol from the stock aliquot of $[^{14}C]$-OA and resuspending in 50 μL 0.1 mM NaOH. Saponified
$[^{14}C]$-OA was incubated in the relevant complete medium for 30 min at room temperature and
stored at –20 ºC.
596

Silencing of ATGL and cPLA₂α expression using small-interfering RNAs
Reverse transfection was performed in 24-well plates at cell densities of 6 $\times 10^4$ (MDA-MB-
231), 5 $\times 10^4$ (A549) or 3 $\times 10^4$ (HeLa) cells/well, or in 6-well plates at 3 $\times 10^5$ (MDA-MB-231),
2.5 $\times 10^5$ (A549) or 1.5 $\times 10^5$ (HeLa) cells/well. Gene expression silencing was performed with
a 20 nM mixture of two ATGL-specific siRNAs (10 nM each) or a 40 nM mixture of four siRNAs
specific for cPLA₂α. Non-targeting siRNA controls contained 20 nM (for ATGL) or 40 nM (for
cPLA₂α) AllStars Negative Control siRNA (Qiagen). Transfection complexes were generated
using 1 μL/well Lipofectamine RNAiMAX in 24-well plates, or 7.5 μL/well in 6-well plates, with
Opti-MEM medium, according to manufacturer instructions.
606

Transient overexpression of ATGL and cPLA₂α
For transient overexpression experiments, the cells were seeded in complete medium in 24-
well plates at a density of 9 $\times 10^4$ (MDA-MB-231), 6 $\times 10^4$ (A549) and 4.5 $\times 10^4$ (HeLa) cells/well,
or in 6-well plates at 4.5 $\times 10^5$ (MDA-MB-231), 3 $\times 10^5$ (A549) and 2.5 $\times 10^5$ (HeLa) cells/well.
Cells were then incubated for 24 h in complete medium, washed, and transfected with 0.5
μg/well plasmid DNA in 24-well plates, or 2.5 μg/well in 6-well plates, using Lipofectamine 3000

and Opti-MEM medium, according to manufacturer instructions; they were then left for 6 h in serum-depleted medium containing 0.02% EFAF-BSA (serum starvation). After 6 h, the cells were washed and treated according to the experimental set-up.

Real-time quantitative PCR

Real-time quantitative (q)PCR analysis was performed as described previously (Pucer *et al*, 2013; Brglez *et al*, 2014b). Briefly, the cells were seeded in complete medium in 6-well plates at 3 ×10^5 (MDA-MB-231), 2.5 ×10^5 (A549) and 1.5 ×10^5 (HeLa cells) cells/well, grown 48 h in complete medium, followed by 24 h under serum deprivation in medium containing 0.02% EFAF-BSA. Total RNA was isolated from cell lysates and first-strand cDNA was generated using High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kits (Applied Biosystems, USA), according to the manufacturer instructions. qPCR analysis was performed on a StepOnePlus real-time PCR system (Thermo Scientific, USA) using FastStart Universal SYBR Green Master (Rox; Roche, Switzerland). Calibrator cDNA was transcribed from Quantitative PCR Human Reference Total RNA (Agilent Technologies, USA). Relative gene expression was calculated upon normalisation to two reference genes, considering primer-specific PCR efficiency and error propagation.

Western blotting

The cells were seeded in complete medium in 6-well plates and reverse transfected with siRNAs and/or transiently transfected with pDNA, as described above. Cell lysates were prepared by scrapping adherent cells in Tris-glycine sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) sample buffer (2×) (Novex, Life Technologies, USA) that contained 800 mM dithiothreitol (Sigma-Aldrich, USA), with the addition of Halt protease inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Scientific, USA). Lysates were incubated at 95 °C for 10 min and stored on ice. Total protein concentrations were determined using Pierce 660 nm protein assays (Thermo Scientific, USA). Proteins (10–40 µg) were separated on 10% SDS-PAGE gels and then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Serva, Germany). The membranes were blocked for 1 h (for ATGL) or 2 h (for cPLA$_2$α) in 5% non-fat dry milk in TBS/0.1% Tween-20 (TBST) or in 1% Western blocking reagent (WBR) (Roche Applied Science, Germany) in TBS (for β-actin), and incubated overnight at 4 °C in the presence of rabbit anti-human primary antibodies for ATGL (1:1000 dilution) or mouse anti-human primary antibodies for cPLA$_2$α (1:250 dilution), both in 5% non-fat dry milk in TBST, or in rabbit anti-human primary antibodies for β-actin (1:5000 dilution) in 0.5% WBR in TBS. After washing with TBST, the membranes were incubated for 1 h with horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:10,000 dilution) in 5% non-fat dry milk in TBST for ATGL, in 0.5% WBR in TBST for cPLA$_2$α, and in 0.5% WBR in TBS for β-

actin. The signals were visualised using Lumi-Light Western Blotting Substrate (Roche Applied

Science, Germany) on a Gel Doc XR system (Bio-Rad, USA).

Neutral lipid quantification by flow cytometry

Cellular neutral lipid levels were quantified by flow cytometry as described previously (Pucer

et al, 2013). Floating and adherent cells were harvested and centrifuged at 300× *g* for 10 min,

and the pellets were resuspended in 500 μL 1 μg/mL Nile Red solution in DPBS. After a 10-

min incubation in the dark, cell analysis was performed by flow cytometry on a FACSCalibur

system, equipped with a 488-nm Ar-ion laser, and using the CellQuest software (Becton

Dickinson, USA) and an FL-1 (530/30) filter, for at least 2×10^4 events per sample.

Triglyceride assays

Cellular TAG contents were determined using TAG assay kits - quantification (Abcam, USA).

MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells were seeded in 6-well plates at 1.5×10^5 and 7×10^4 cells/well,

respectively. After 24 h, MDA-MB-231 cells were treated with 10 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ and HeLa

cells with 1 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ in complete medium for 48 h. Cell lysates were prepared and used

for TAG quantification according to the manufacturer instructions.

Glycerol release assays

Cellular lipolytic activity was assessed by measuring glycerol release in cell supernatants.

Briefly, the cells were reverse transfected and seeded in 48-well plates at a density of 3×10^4

(MDA-MB-231 cells) or 1.5×10^4 cells/well (HeLa cells). For reverse transfection, 0.5 μL

Lipofectamine RNAiMAX, 20 nM siRNA and 40 μL OPTI-MEM medium were used per well.

After 24 h, the cells were washed, placed in serum-starvation medium containing 0.02% EFAF-

BSA, and transfected with 0.250 μg plasmid DNA for protein overexpression using

Lipofectamine 3000, according to the manufacturer instructions. After 6 h, the cells were

washed and treated with 10 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ for 48 h in complete medium. Cell supernatants

were collected in low-binding microcentrifuge tubes and centrifuged for 10 min (4 °C, 16,000×

g), and the glycerol concentrations were determined using the Glycerol Cell-Based assay kits

(Cayman Chemicals, USA), according to the manufacturer instructions.

Untargeted lipidomic analysis of phospholipids and triglycerides

For untargeted lipidomic analysis of hGX sPLA$_2$-induced changes in TAG acyl-chain

composition, MDA-MB-231 cells were seeded in complete medium on 10-cm plates at 1×10^6

cells/plate. After 24 h, the cells were treated with 1 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ in complete medium for 48

h. Cell lysates were prepared by washing the cells twice with DPBS and scraping in 1 mL lysis

buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 2 mM EDTA, 2 μL Halt protease inhibitor cocktail), followed

by centrifugation for 10 min (1000× g, 4 °C). Cell pellets were resuspended in 150 µL lysis buffer and sonicated on ice. Total lipids were extracted in chloroform/methanol (2/1, v/v) containing 1% acetic acid, 500 nM butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) and internal standards (IS; 100 pmol 17:0/17:0/17:0 triacylglycerol, Larodan, Solna, Sweden) under constant shaking for 1 h (30 rpm/min, 4 °C). After centrifugation at 3300 rpm for 20 min at room temperature, the upper aqueous layer was removed, and the organic solvents were evaporated using a sample concentrator (Techne, UK) equipped with the Dri-Block DB-3 heater (Techne, UK). Lipids were resolved in 200 µL chloroform and stored at –20 ºC. Prior to mass spectrometry, the samples were placed at room temperature and dried and resuspended in 1 mL chloroform/methanol (2/1, v/v). An aliquot of each sample (20 µL) was mixed with 180 µL isopropanol, and 5 µL was used for chromatographic separation on an Acquity-UPLC system (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA), equipped with an ACQUITY BEH C18 column (2.1 × 50 mm, 1.7 µm; Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA). A SYNAPT[TM]G1 qTOF HD mass spectrometer (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA) equipped with an ESI source was used for detection. Data acquisition was carried out using the MassLynx 4.1 software (Waters), and the lipid classes were analysed with the Lipid Data Analyser 1.6.2 software. The data were normalised for recovery, extraction and ionisation efficacy by calculating analyte/internal standard ratios (AU) and expressed as percentage composition.

To determine the changes in the phospholipid and TAG profiles in ATGL-depleted and cPLA$_2$α-depleted cells, MDA-MB-231 cells were seeded in complete medium on 6-well plates at 3 ×10^5 cells/well and reverse transfected with ATGL-specific and/or cPLA$_2$α-specific siRNAs, as described above. After 24 h, the cells were washed and grown for 48 h in complete medium in the presence or absence of 10 nM sPLA$_2$. The cells were then washed twice with DPBS and serum starved for the following 24 h in RPMI-1640 medium containing 0.02% EFAF-BSA. Samples were collected (at 0, 3, 24 h of serum starvation) by placing the plates on ice, washing the cells twice with ice-cold DPBS, and scraping the cells in 300 µL lysis buffer, followed by centrifugation for 10 min (1000× g, 4 °C). The cell pellets were resuspended in 150 µL lysis buffer and sonicated on ice. Then, 10 µL of each sample was used for protein determination (Pierce 660). Total lipids were extracted by transferring the pellets into 2 ml tubes followed by homogenisation in 700 µL of a 3:1 (v/v) mixture of methyl tert-butyl ether and methanol, containing 1% acetic acid, 500 nM BHT and IS (8 pmol 18:3/18:3/18:3 triacylglycerol, 14:0/14:0 phosphatidylcholine, Larodan, Solna, Sweden; 50 pmol 17:0/17:0 phosphatidylethanolamine, 12 pmol 17:0/17:0 phosphatidylserine, Avanti Polar Lipids, Alabaster, AL, USA), with two steel beads on a mixer mill (30 Hz, Retsch, Germany) at 4 °C. After homogenisation, the samples were mixed at room temperature under constant shaking for 30 min. Then 140 µL distilled H$_2$O was added, and the samples were thoroughly mixed and centrifugated (14,000 rpm, 10 min), to establish phase separation. The organic phase (500 µL) was transferred into new tubes and

the organic solvent was evaporated off under a stream of nitrogen. The residual protein slurry was dried and used for protein determination after lysis in 400 µL NaOH/SDS (0.3 M/0.1%). Prior to mass spectrometry analysis, the lipids were resolved in 200 µL isopropanol /methanol/H_2O (70/25/10, v/v/v). Chromatographic separation was performed on a 1290 Infinity II LC system (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) equipped with a C18 column (Zorbax RRHD Extend; 2.1 × 50 mm, 1.8 µm; Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA), using a 16 min linear gradient from 60% solvent A (H_2O; 10 mM ammonium acetate, 0.1% formic acid, 8 µM phosphoric acid) to 100% solvent B (2-propanol; 10 mM ammonium acetate, 0.1% formic acid, 8 µM phosphoric acid). The column compartment was kept at 50 °C. A Q-TOF mass spectrometer (6560 Ion Mobility; Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) equipped with electrospray ionisation source (Dual AJS) was used for detection of the lipids in positive and negative Q-TOF mode. Data acquisition was carried out using the MassHunter Data Acquisition software (B.09; Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Lipid species were manually identified and lipid data were processed using MassHunter Quantitative Analysis (B.09.00; Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Data were normalised for recovery, extraction and ionisation efficiency by calculation of the analyte/ internal standard ratios, and are expressed as fmol/µg protein. Lipidomic data were analysed by multiple t-test analysis of log-transformed data to compare two conditions at a time, using GraphPad Prism 9.0.2 (GraphPad Software, USA). Lipid ontology enrichment analysis was performed using the LION/web enrichment and principal component analysis modules (Molenaar *et al*, 2019).

Thin layer chromatography of radiolabelled cellular lipids

MDA-MB-231 cells were seeded in complete medium on T-25 flasks at a density of 5 ×10^5 cells/flask. After 24 h, the cells were treated with 1 µCi/sample [^{14}C]-OA for 18 h, washed twice with DPBS, and treated with 10 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ under three different conditions: (a) 24 h in complete medium; (b) 24 h in complete medium followed by 96 h serum deprivation in 0.02% EFAF-BSA in RPMI-1640; and (c) 24 h in 0.02% FAF-BSA in RPMI-1640 followed by 96 h in 0.02% EFAF-BSA in RPMI-1640. Lipid extraction was performed with 1 mL hexane/ isopropanol (3:2, v/v) under constant shaking for 10 min at room temperature, and repeated twice. The samples were stored in microcentrifuge tubes at –20 ºC. Total proteins were isolated from cell remnants in 2 mL lysis buffer (0.3 M NaOH, 0.1% SDS) under constant shaking for 2 h at room temperature. Protein concentrations were determined using BSA standard solutions (Thermo Scientific, USA) and the BCA protein assay reagent (Thermo Scientific, USA). Samples of cellular lipids were dried, resuspended in 20 µL chloroform (repeated three times), and loaded onto the stationary phase of silica TLC plates immobilised on a polymeric binder (Merck, Germany). Dry TLC plates were developed using chloroform/ methanol/ acetone/ acetic acid/ H_2O (50/10/20/12/5, v/v/v/v/v) for phospholipid separation, and hexane/ diethyl

760 ether/ acetic acid (70:29:1, v/v/v) for neutral lipid separation. Radiolabelled lipids were detected
761 with autoradiography using an imager (PhosphorImager SI; Amersham Biosciences, UK). To
762 quantify the TAG content, the TLC plates were incubated in an iodine steam, the TAG patches
763 were cut out and placed in vials with scintillation cocktail, and the radioactivity was measured
764 using a liquid scintillation counter (Tri-Carb 1600CA; PerkinElmer, USA).
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Lipid mediator analysis using UPLC-MS-MS
MDA-MB-231 cells were seeded in complete medium in 6-well plates at 3×10^5 cells/well. In
case of ATGL silencing, cells were reverse transfected with ATGL-specific siRNAs as
described above. After 24 h, the cells were treated with 10 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ and/or a mixture of
20 μM DGAT1 and 20 μM DGAT2 inhibitors for 48 h, washed with DPBS and left for 24 h in
RPMI-1640 medium containing 0.02% EFAF-BSA. Cells with DGAT inhibition were treated
with the inhibitors also during the serum starvation phase. The cells were lysed and total
protein concentrations were determined as described above. Supernatants were collected in
low-binding microcentrifuge tubes, centrifuged at 4 °C (16,000× g, 10 min) and stored at –80
°C before shipping on dry ice. 1 mL of the supernatants (MDA-MB-231 experiment) were first
mixed with 2 mL of ice-cold methanol containing deuterium-labelled internal standards (200
nM d8-5S-HETE, d4-LTB$_4$, d5-LXA$_4$, d5-RvD2, d4-PGE$_2$ and 10 µM d8-AA; Cayman
Chemical/Biomol GmbH, Hamburg, Germany) to facilitate quantification and sample recovery.
Samples were kept at −20 °C for 60 min to allow protein precipitation.
Tumour samples for UPLC-MS-MS analysis were collected from mice xenografts. After
cancer cell injection and visible tumour growth, mice were subcutaneously treated daily with
T863 at a dose of 9.6 mg/kg or corresponding vehicle (0.2% DMSO) for two weeks before
being sacrificed and sampled for tumours. Tumour samples (30–50 mg) were weighed and 25
µL methanol of each mg tumour was added and then homogenized. After that, samples were
centrifuged (16,000× g, 4 °C, 5 min), and 800 µL (corresponding to 32 mg tumour) were filled
up to 2 mL methanol and 1 mL PBS was added containing deuterium-labelled internal
standards (200 nM d8-5S-HETE, d4-LTB$_4$, d5-LXA$_4$, d5-RvD2, d4-PGE$_2$ and 10 µM d8-AA;
Cayman Chemical/Biomol GmbH) to facilitate quantification and sample recovery. Lipid
mediator analysis using UPLC-MS-MS was performed as described previously (Werz *et al*,
2018) with some minor modifications (Werner *et al*, 2019). Briefly, after centrifugation (1200×
g, 4 °C, 10 min) 8 mL of acidified H$_2$O was added (final pH = 3.5) and the samples were
subjected to solid phase extraction. The solid phase cartridges (Sep-Pak® Vac 6cc 500 mg/ 6
mL C18; Waters, Milford, MA) were equilibrated with 6 mL methanol and then with 2 mL H$_2$O
prior sample loading onto the columns. After washing with 6 mL H$_2$O and additional 6 mL *n*-
hexane, lipid mediators were eluted with 6 mL methyl formate. The eluates were brought to
dryness using a TurboVap LV evaporation system (Biotage, Uppsala, Sweden) and

resuspended in 200 μL methanol/water (50/50, v/v) for UPLC-MS-MS analysis. Lipid mediator

profiling was analyzed with an Acquity™ UPLC system (Waters, Milford, MA, USA) and a

QTRAP 5500 Mass Spectrometer (ABSciex, Darmstadt, Germany), equipped with a Turbo V™

Source and electrospray ionization. Lipid mediators were separated using an ACQUITY

UPLC® BEH C18 column (1.7 μm, 2.1 × 100 mm; Waters, Eschborn, Germany) at 50 °C with

a flow rate of 0.3 mL/min and a mobile phase consisting of methanol/water/acetic acid of

42/58/0.01 (v/v/v) that was ramped to 86/14/0.01 (v/v/v) over 12.5 min and then to 98/2/0.01

(v/v/v) for 3 min (Werner *et al*, 2019). The QTrap 5500 was operated in negative ionization

mode using scheduled multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) coupled with information-

dependent acquisition. The scheduled MRM window was 60 sec, optimized lipid mediator

parameters were adopted (Werner *et al*, 2019), and the curtain gas pressure was set to 35 psi.

The retention time and at least six diagnostic ions for each lipid mediator were confirmed by

means of external standards (Cayman Chemical/Biomol GmbH). Quantification was achieved

by calibration curves for each lipid mediator. Linear calibration curves were obtained for each

lipid mediator and gave r^2 values of 0.998 or higher (for fatty acids 0.95 or higher). Additionally,

the limit of detection for each targeted lipid mediator was determined (Werner *et al*, 2019).

Quantification of PGE$_2$ in cell supernatants

The amounts of PGE$_2$ released into culture medium were routinely determined using a

commercial enzyme immunoassay (Prostaglandin E$_2$ Express ELISA kits; Cayman Chemicals,

USA). The cells were seeded in 24-well plates and reverse transfected with siRNAs as

described above. After 24 h, the cells were transfected with plasmid DNA as described above

and treated with 10 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ and/or 10 μM AA and/or a mixture of 20 μM T863 and 20

μM PF-06424439 (DGAT inhibitors) for 48 h in complete medium. The cells were then washed

and serum starved for 24 h in the appropriate culture medium containing 0.02% EFAF-BSA.

In some experiments, DGAT inhibitors were included in the serum-starvation phase. Cell

supernatants were collected in low-binding microcentrifuge tubes, centrifuged at 4 °C (16,000×

g, 10 min) and immediately used for analysis or stored at –80 °C for up to 7 days. For analysis,

50 μL undiluted samples were used, and standard curves prepared by diluting the PGE$_2$

standard in culture medium.

Confocal microscopy

Cytosolic LDs were visualised using BODIPY 493/503 neutral lipid staining. Cells were reverse

transfected and seeded on glass-bottomed culture plates at 6 ×10^4 (MDA-MB-231 cells), 3

×10^4 (HeLa cells) and 5 ×10^4 (A549 cells) cells/well. Twenty-four hours later, the media were

replaced and the cells were treated with 10 nM hGX sPLA$_2$ and the DGAT inhibitors in complete

medium for 48 h, followed by 24-h starvation in serum-free medium containing 0.02% EFAF-BSA. For confocal microscopy, the cells were washed twice with DPBS, stained with 1 µg/mL BODIPY 493/503 and 1 µg/mL Hoechst stain solution in RPMI-1640 medium for 15 min in a CO_2 incubator, washed twice with DPBS, and left in fresh RPMI-1640 medium. Live imaging was carried out at the beginning of and after the 24-h serum starvation using a confocal laser scanning microscope (LSM 710; Carl Zeiss, Germany) and a stage-top microscope CO_2 incubation system (Tokai Hit, Japan). Images were processed using the Zen software (Carl Zeiss, Germany).

LD counting and diameter analysis

Confocal microscopy images of BODIPY 493/503 stained LDs were used for computer image analysis with the ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, USA) and the LD Counter Plugin (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2581434). Analysis was performed on 32-bit two-dimensional images, whereby the numbers and sizes of the LDs were determined according to the plugin instructions. LD diameters were calculated from the LD surface areas. Analyses were performed on at least 40 cells/sample. Data were loaded into the Prism 9.0.2 software (GraphPad Software, USA), with the geometric means of the LD diameters and numbers calculated per individual cell in the samples, followed by the statistical analysis.

Cell proliferation

MDA-MB-231/Luciferase-2A-RFP cells were seeded in complete medium in 96-well plates at 5×10^3 cells/well in at least triplicates. After 24 h, the cells were treated with 20 µM DGAT1 and 20 µM DGAT2 inhibitors and/or 1 µM PGE_2 and/or 10 nM hGX $sPLA_2$ as described above, and left in complete medium for 72 h. PGE_2 was replenished every 24 h by direct addition to the culture medium. In transient transfection experiments, the cells were seeded in complete medium on 48-well plates at 3×10^4 (MDA-MB-231/Luciferase-2A-RFP cells) or 1.5×10^4 (A549 cells) cells/well. After 24 h, the cells were washed and transfected with 0.250 µg plasmid DNA/well using 0.5 µL P3000 reagent and 1 µL Lipofectamine 3000 in OptiMEM medium, and incubated in RPMI-1640 (MDA-MB-231) or DMEM/F12 with 2 mM L-glutamine (A549) containing 0.02% EFAF-BSA. After 6 h, the cells were treated with 10 nM recombinant hGX $sPLA_2$ in complete medium, with 25 µM (A549) or 50 µM (MDA-MB-231) indomethacin, 25 µM nordihydroguaiaretic acid, and/or 20 µM each of the T863 and PF-06424439 DGAT1 and DGAT2 inhibitors, respectively. A549 cell proliferation was determined after 48 h using the direct cell proliferation assay kits (CyQUANT; Invitrogen, USA). MDA-MB-231/Luciferase-2A-RFP cell proliferation was determined by measuring RFP fluorescence emission (excitation, 558 nm; emission, 583 nm) on a microplate reader (Infinite M1000; Tecan, Austria). The final

data were obtained after subtracting the background signal of the blank samples that contained
culture medium without cells.

Clonogenic assay

MDA-MB-231 cells were seeded in 24-well plates in complete medium as described above.
After 24 h, the cells were treated with 20 µM T863 and/or 20 µM PF-06424439 and left for 24
h. Cells were then washed and harvested for cell counting. 500 cells/well were seeded in 6-
well plates and colony formation followed for nine days in complete medium containing 20 µM
T863 and/or 20 µM PF-06424439. Medium was replaced every 48–72 h. For analysis, colonies
were washed with DPBS, fixed in 100% cold methanol at 4 °C for 15 min and stained with
0.5% crystal violet in DBPS. Images were taken for colony counting with ImageJ software
(National Institutes of Health, USA).

Mouse studies

All animal experiments were performed according to the directives of the EU 2010/63 and were
approved by the Administration of the Republic of Slovenia for Food Safety, Veterinary and
Plant Protection of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Foods, Republic of Slovenia (Permit
Number U34401-9/2020/9). Laboratory animals were housed in IVC cages (Techniplast), fed
standard chow (Mucedola) and tap water was provided ab libitum. Mice were maintained in
12-12 h dark-light cycle at approximately 40–60% relative humidity and an ambient
temperature of 22 °C. All animals used in the study were healthy and accompanied with health
certificate from the animal vendor. Health status was confirmed by FELASA recommended
Mouse Vivum immunocompetent panel (QM Diagnostics). To test the anti-tumour effect of
DGAT1 inhibition, female 8–10 weeks old SCID C.B-17/IcrHsd-*Prkdc^{scid}* mice (Envigo, Italy)
were used for xenograft cancer studies. $3×10^6$ MDA-MB-231/Luciferase-2A-RFP cells were
implanted into the right flank of the mouse. When a certain tumour dimension reached 5 mm,
subcutaneous daily treatments were started with T863 at a dose of 9.6 mg/kg or with
corresponding 0.2% DMSO vehicle. Body weight and tumour size via calliper measurements
were performed every couple of days. Tumour burden was calculated using the formula
$V=(a*b*c*\Pi)/6$. Animals were humanely euthanized either when the observed tumour
dimension reached 12 mm, the tumour ulcerated or when animals lost over 20% of their own
body mass. Tumour samples at the end of the experiment were collected and snap frozen in
liquid nitrogen for further UPLC-MS-MS analysis.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using Prism 9.0.2 (GraphPad Software, USA). Unless
otherwise indicated, the data are presented as means ±SEM of at least three independent

experiments. Statistical significance was determined using t-tests, one-way or two-way ANOVA, followed by Bonferroni, Sidak or Tukey's multiple comparison tests. P values <0.05 were considered as statistically significant.

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Author contributions

E.J.J. performed most of the experiments, analysed the data, and prepared manuscript draft; A.P.J. and V.B. performed initial lipidomic experiments; Š.K. prepared samples for lipid mediator mass spectrometry analysis and performed LD diameter analysis; T.O.E. performed mass spectrometry analyses, designed experiments, contributed ideas and revised the paper; R.Z. provided materials, designed experiments, contributed ideas and revised the paper; G.L. contributed materials, ideas and revised the paper; P.M.J., J.G. and O.W. performed lipid mediator mass spectrometry analyses and revised the paper; D.L. and A.G.U. performed in vivo studies, and R.J. revised the paper; T.P. conceptualised the study, analysed the data, prepared the figures and illustrations, and wrote the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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Figures and figure legends

Figure 1. sPLA$_2$ promotes enrichment of LDs with long-chain PUFA-containing triglycerides. (A,

B) LD levels in control cells and cells treated with 10 nM recombinant hGX sPLA$_2$ for 48 h in serum-rich

medium. (**A**) Neutral lipid content was quantified by Nile Red staining and flow cytometry (n = 3 independent experiments; 20000 cells per treatment). (**B**) Representative live-cell confocal microscopy images of LDs stained with BODIPY 493/503 (green) and nuclei with Hoechst 33342 (blue). (**C**) Diagram illustrating the hypothesis that unsaturated fatty acids released through sPLA$_2$ membrane hydrolysis are incorporated into triacylglycerols (TAGs) and lead to lasting changes in LD TAG acyl-chain composition. (**D**) hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced changes in the incorporation of radiolabelled oleate into cellular TAGs in MDA-MB-231 cells grown in complete medium for 24 h (Fed), in complete medium for 24 h followed by 96 h of serum starvation (Fed + Starved), and in serum-free medium for 96 h (Starved) (n = 4 independent experiments). (**E**) Diagram illustrating the experimental treatments used for lipidomic analysis in (F)–(K). (**F–K**) TAG lipidomic analyses of MDA-MB-231 cells treated with recombinant hGX sPLA$_2$ in complete medium for 48 h (Fed; F–H, J, K) or in the absence of serum for 96 h (Starved; F, I). Cell lysates were collected and analysed by UPLC/qTOF-MS (n = 4 independent experiments). (**G–I**) sPLA$_2$-induced changes in the levels of individual TAG species presented as a representative z-score heat-map (G) and volcano plots (H, I) prepared by log$_2$ data transformation and multiple t-test analyses (n = 4 independent experiments). Statistically significant changes ($-\log_{10}$(P value) > 1.30) in TAGs containing mostly saturated and mono-unsaturated FAs (SFA/MUFA-TAGs with 0–2 double bonds; blue) and those containing polyunsaturated FAs (PUFA-TAGs with 3–12 double bonds; red) are shown. (**J, K**) sPLA$_2$-induced changes in relative levels of TAG species grouped by number of acyl-chain C-atoms (chain length) and double bonds (chain unsaturation). (A–K) Data are means ±SEM of at least three independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (unpaired t-tests).

Figure 2. ATGL-mediated LD breakdown is required for PGE₂ production in serum-starved cancer cells. (A) Diagram illustrating the experimental set-up used to load cells with LDs (Feeding) and then to induce their breakdown (Starvation). (**B**) PGE₂ levels in cell supernatants of control and hGX-sPLA₂-treated cells quantified by ELISA at the end of the starvation period. (**C**) Diagram illustrating the experimental conditions used in (D)–(F) and Supp. Fig. 1(E)–(O). (**D, E**) LD levels and PGE₂ production in ATGL-silenced control and sPLA₂-treated cells grown as shown in (C) and analysed at the beginning (Fed) and at the end of the serum starvation period (Fed + Starved). Neutral lipids were quantified by Nile Red staining and flow cytometry, PGE₂ was quantified by ELISA. (**F**) Representative confocal microscopy images showing effects of ATGL depletion on cellular LD content in control and hGX-sPLA₂-treated cells, under serum-rich (Fed) and serum-free (Fed + Starved) conditions. LDs and nuclei were

stained using BODIPY 493/503 and Hoechst 33342, respectively. (**G**) Diagram illustrating the
experimental set-up used in (H), (I) and Supp. Figure 1P, R. (**H, I**) Glycerol release and PGE$_2$ production
in ATGL-overexpressing serum-starved cells (both untreated and hGX sPLA$_2$ pretreated), in comparison
with cells co-transfected with ATGL-specific siRNAs (ATGL^{KD+OE}), non-targeting siRNA (scrambled) and
control plasmid (empty), grown as illustrated in (G). (**J**) Diagram illustrating the proposed model of LD-
mediated eicosanoid production in cancer cells. Data are means ±SEM of two (H) or three (B–E, I)
independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (two-way ANOVA with Tukey (I) or
Bonferroni (D, E, H) adjustment; unpaired t-tests (B)).

Figure 3

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Figure 3. ATGL-mediated lipolysis drives production of a wide spectrum of bioactive lipid
mediators. (**A–D**) UPLC-MS-MS analysis of lipid mediators released from serum-starved MDA-MB-231
cells pre-treated with hGX sPLA$_2$, and from ATGL-depleted cells without and with hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-
treatment, presented as volcano plots (A), a heat map (B), and individual graphs (C, D). Cells were
treated as shown in Fig. 2C. Volcano plots were prepared using log$_2$-transformed fold-change values
and multiple t-test analysis, and the heat map by –logP data transformation and two-way ANOVA with

Sidak adjustment (n = 3 independent experiments). (**E**) Diagram illustrating the involvement of hGX

sPLA$_2$ and ATGL in the production of a wide range of PUFA-derived cyclooxygenase (COX) and

lipoxygenase (LOX) signalling molecules. Data are means ±SEM of three independent experiments. *,

P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (two-way ANOVA with Sidak adjustment).

Figure 4

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Figure 4. DGAT-mediated LD biogenesis is required for lipid mediator production in serum-

starved cancer cells. (**A**) Diagram illustrating the experimental conditions used (top) and cellular

neutral lipid content before (Fed) and after (Fed + Starved) serum starvation in cells treated with DGAT1

(T863) and DGAT2 (PF-06427878) inhibitors (DGATi), without and with stimulation of LD biogenesis by

hGX sPLA$_2$ during serum sufficiency. (**B**) Representative confocal microscopy images of live cells under

nutrient-replete conditions and treated with DGAT inhibitors in the absence and presence of hGX sPLA$_2$.

LDs and nuclei were visualised using BODIPY 493/503 and Hoechst 33342 staining, respectively, and

confocal microscopy. (**C**) DGATi-induced changes in PGE$_2$ production in serum-starved cancer cells

(Fed + Starved), without and with additional stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment.

Cells were treated according to (A). (**D, E**) DGATi-induced changes in neutral lipids (D) and PGE$_2$

production (E) in serum-starved MDA-MB-231 cancer cells (Fed + Starved), without and with additional

stimulation of LD biogenesis by arachidonic acid (AA) pre-treatment. Cells were treated according to

(A). (**F, G**) DGATi-induced changes in the profiles of lipid mediators and fatty acids released from serum-

starved MDA-MB-231 cells treated with hGX sPLA$_2$, without and with treatment with an equimolar mix

of DGAT1 and DGAT2 inhibitors according to (A). Volcano plots (F) show significant changes ($-\log_{10}$(P

value) >1.30) in individual lipids between hGX sPLA$_2$-treated *versus* control cells (left) and hGX sPLA$_2$-

treated *versus* hGX sPLA$_2$- and DGATi-treated (right) cells and were prepared using $\log_2$-transformed

fold-change values and multiple t-test analysis (n = 4 independent experiments). (**H, I**) Diagrams

illustrating the experimental conditions used (top) and changes in PGE$_2$ production induced by DGATi

treatments during serum starvation in control (SCR) and ATGL-depleted (ATGL^{KD}) MDA-MB-231 (H)

and A549 (I) cells, without and with hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment. (A, D, H, I) Neutral lipid content was

quantified by Nile Red staining and flow cytometry. (C, E, H, I) PGE$_2$ levels were determined in cell

supernatants as described in Methods. (F, G) UPLC-MS/MS analysis of lipid mediators and FAs in cell

supernatants was performed as described in Methods. Data are means ±SEM of at least three (A, C, D,

E, H, I) or four (F, G) independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (two-way ANOVA

with Tukey (A, H, G, I) or Bonferroni (C, D, E) adjustment).

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Figure 5. cPLA₂α depends on LD turnover to drive lipid mediator production. (**A**) Scheme illustrating hypothetical models of interplay between cPLA₂α and LDs in providing PUFAs for lipid mediator production. (**B**) Changes in neutral lipid content and PGE₂ production induced by ATGL (ATGL^KD) and cPLA₂α (cPLA₂α^KD) single and double (Double^KD) knockdowns, in comparison with control siRNA-treated cells (SCR), without and with stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA₂ pre-treatment. (**C**) Diagram illustrating the experimental conditions used (top), representative live-cell confocal microscopy images (middle) and image analysis (bottom) of LDs in ATGL (ATGL^KD) and cPLA₂α (cPLA₂α^KD) single and double (Double^KD) knockdown MDA-MB-231 cells, in comparison with non-targeting control siRNA-treated cells (SCR), without and with stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA₂ pre-treatment. LDs were stained with BODIPY 493/503 (green) and nuclei with Hoechst 33342 (blue)

and images analysed using ImageJ and the LD Counter Plugin. Box plots are showing changes in LD

diameters and bar plots changes in LD numbers per cell in serum-fed (Fed) and serum-starved (Starved)

cells. Data are geometric means (diameter analysis) or means (number analysis) ±SEM (n >40

cells/sample) of two independent experiments. (**D**) PGE$_2$ production in cells with reciprocal

knockdown/overexpression of cPLA$_2$α and ATGL. Cells were reverse transfected with siRNAs specific

for ATGL (ATGL^{KD}) and/or cPLA$_2$α (cPLA$_2$α^{KD}), then forward transfected with ATGL-encoding (ATGL^{OE})

and/or cPLA$_2$α-encoding (cPLA$_2$α^{OE}) plasmids, without and with pre-treated with hGX sPLA$_2$, as

illustrated in the scheme (top). In controls (control), non-targeting siRNA reverse transfections were

combined with backbone ('empty') vector forward transfections. (**E**) DGAT inhibition (DGATi)-induced

changes in PGE$_2$ production in serum-starved control cells (empty) and in cells overexpressing ATGL

(ATGL^{OE}) or cPLA$_2$α (cPLA$_2$α^{OE}), without and with additional stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA$_2$

pre-treatment. Neutral lipid content was quantified by Nile Red staining and flow cytometry (B), PGE$_2$

levels were determined in cell supernatants using ELISA (B, D, E). Data are means ±SEM of two (B,

A549 cells) or at least three independent experiments *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (nested one-

way ANOVA with Sidak adjustment (C, box plots), two-way ANOVA with Tukey (B, C, E) or Dunnet (D)

adjustment).

Figure 6

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Figure 6. ATGL and cPLA₂α cooperatively modulate PUFA trafficking between triglycerides and

membrane phospholipids. (**A–C**) Untargeted lipidomic analysis of phospholipids and triglycerides

(TAGs) in serum-starved MDA-MB-231 cells depleted of ATGL (ATGL^{KD}), cPLA₂α (cPLA₂α^{KD}), or both

(Double^{KD}), without and with hGX sPLA₂ pre-treatment under serum-rich conditions, and grown as

shown in the diagram (A). Volcano plots show significant changes (–log₁₀(P value) >1.30) in individual

lipids between each treatment condition *versus* control cells (unless otherwise indicated), and were

prepared by log₂ fold-change (FC) data transformation and multiple t-test analysis (n=3 independent

experiments). TAGs and phospholipids (PLs) containing saturated and mono-unsaturated acyl chains

(SFA/MUFA-TAGs, SFA/MUFA-PLs, with 0–3 and 0–2 double bonds, respectively) and those containing

polyunsaturated FAs (PUFA-TAGs, PUFA-PLs, with at least 4 and 3 double bonds, respectively) are

colour-coded as indicated. TG, triglyceride; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PI,

phosphatidylinositol, PS, phosphatidylserine. (**D**) Schematic illustration of the predominant pathways

involved in LD-mediated PUFA trafficking between the membrane phospholipid and TAG pools in

serum-starved cancer cells.

Figure 7

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Figure 7. LD-mediated lipid mediator production promotes cancer-cell proliferation and tumor

growth. (A) Proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells treated with T863 (DGAT1i) and PF-06427878 (DGAT2i),

or an equimolar mix of both DGAT inhibitors (DGATi), grown under nutrient-rich conditions in the

absence and presence of hGX sPLA$_2$. (**B, C**) Proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells overexpressing ATGL

(ATGL^{OE}), treated with indomethacin (B) or nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA) (C), in the absence and

presence of hGX sPLA$_2$. (**D**, **E**) Tumour growth (D) and corresponding Kaplan-Meier survival curves (E)

of mice bearing MDA-MB-231 xenografts and treated daily with the DGAT1 inhibitor T863 or with 0.2%

DMSO vehicle. Significance was determined by log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test (**F**) DGAT1-inhibitor-induced

changes in the abundance of lipid mediators and PUFAs in tumour samples isolated from mice bearing

MDA-MB-231 xenografts and treated daily with DGAT1 inhibitor T863 or with 0.2% DMSO vehicle. The

volcano plot depicts significant changes ($-\log_{10}$(P value) >1.30) in individual lipids detected by UPLC-

MS/MS in DGAT1i-treated *versus* vehicle-treated mice and was prepared using $\log_2$-transformed fold-

change values and multiple t-test analysis (n = 4 independent experiments). (**G**) Proliferation of A549

cells overexpressing cPLA$_2$α (cPLA$_2$α^{OE}) and grown in the absence and presence of DGATi,

indomethacin and recombinant hGX sPLA$_2$. (**H**) Proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells overexpressing

cPLA$_2$α (cPLA$_2$α^{OE}) and grown in the absence and presence of DGATi and recombinant hGX sPLA$_2$.

Data are means ±SEM of three independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (two-

way ANOVA with Tukey (A), Bonferroni (B, C) or Sidak (G, H) adjustments).

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Supplementary Material

Manuscript title:

Lipid droplets control mitogenic lipid mediator production in human cancer cells

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Contents:

Supplementary Figures and Supplementary Figure Legends

Supplementary Figure 1. sPLA₂-induced changes in LD metabolism and composition. (**A, B**)
Diagram illustrating the experimental set-up for oleate incorporation analyses shown in (B) and in Figure
1D. (B) Representative thin layer chromatography (TLC) plate showing that in hGX-sPLA₂-treated cells,
oleate is preferentially incorporated into TAGs, but not into phosphatidylcholine (PC) or cholesterol
esters (CE). (**C, D**) Lipidomic analysis of hGX-sPLA₂-induced PUFA-TAG enrichment in MDA-MB-231
cells grown under serum-rich conditions. (C) Representative XY z-score plot showing colour-coded

39 changes in the levels of TAG acyl-chain unsaturation. Data are means ±SEM of three or four (D)

40 independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (unpaired t-tests (D).

Supp. Fig. 2

Supplementary Figure 2. ATGL-mediated LD breakdown drives PGE$_2$ production in starving MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells, but not in A549 cells. (**A**) Neutral lipid contents in control and hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated cells at the beginning of and after serum starvation. (**B**) Total cellular triglycerides (TAGs) in control and hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells quantified using a biochemical assay. (**C**) Glycerol released from fed and starving control and hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated cells. (**D**) PGE$_2$ levels in cell supernatants of control and AA-treated cells. (**E**) Representative western blot showing siRNA-induced ATGL knock down (ATGL^{KD}) in comparison with control (untransfected [untr.] and non-targeting siRNA-transfected [SCR] cells), treated and grown as shown in Fig. 2C. (**F, G**) Glycerol released in cell supernatants of control and ATGL-depleted serum-fed and serum-starved cells, either untreated or treated with hGX sPLA$_2$. (**H, I, K, L**) Neutral lipid and PGE$_2$ levels in ATGL-silenced control and sPLA$_2$-treated cells grown and analysed as shown in Fig. 2C. (**J, M**) Representative confocal microscopy images showing effects of ATGL depletion on cellular LD content in control and hGX-sPLA$_2$-treated cells, under serum-rich (Fed) and serum-free (Fed + Starved) conditions. LDs and nuclei were stained using BODIPY 493/503 and Hoechst 33342, respectively. (**N, O**) Changes in LD levels and PGE$_2$ production induced by ATGL silencing in control and arachidonic acid (AA)-treated cells analysed as shown in Fig. 2C. (**P**) Representative western blot showing ATGL protein overexpression in cells transfected with ATGL-encoding plasmid (ATGL^{OE}) in comparison with those transfected with control (Empty) vector or ATGL-specific siRNA (ATGL^{KD}), grown as illustrated in Fig. 2G. (**R**) Neutral lipid levels in ATGL-overexpressing in untreated and hGX-sPLA$_2$-pretreated serum-starved cells, in comparison with those co-transfected with ATGL-specific siRNA (ATGL^{KD+OE}), non-targeting siRNA (scrambled) and control plasmid (empty), grown as shown in Fig. 2G. (A, H, K, N, R) Neutral lipids were quantified by Nile Red staining and flow cytometry. (D, I, L, O) PGE$_2$ was quantified by ELISA at the end of starvation. Data are means ±SEM of two (D) or three (A–C, F–I, K, L, N, O) independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni (B, F–I, K, L, N, O) or Tukey (A, C, R) adjustment; unpaired t-test (D)).

Supplementary Figure 3. Depletion of ATGL suppresses both basal and hGX-sPLA₂-stimulated lipid mediator production in breast cancer cells. hGX-sPLA₂-induced and ATGL knockdown (ATGL^KD)-induced changes in selected lipid mediators (as indicated) released from serum-starved MDA-MB-231 cells. Data are means ±SEM of three independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (two-way ANOVA with Sidak adjustment). DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; 4-HDHA, 4-hydroxydocosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; HEPE, hydroxyeicosapentaenoic acid; HETE, hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; AA, arachidonic acid; TXB₂, thromboxane B₂.

Supplementary Figure 4. Lipid mediator production induced by hGX sPLA₂ or exogenous AA

depends on DGAT-mediated LD biogenesis. (A) Neutral lipid content in MDA-MB-231 cells grown in

the absence and presence of T863 (DGAT1i) and PF-06427878 (DGAT2i), or an equimolar mix of both

DGAT inhibitors (DGATi), without and with stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA$_2$ during serum
sufficiency. (**B**) hGX-sPLA$_2$-induced and DGAT inhibition (DGATi)-induced changes in selected lipid
mediators (as indicated) released from serum-starved MDA-MB-231 cells. Cells were treated as shown
in Figure 4A. (**C**) AA-induced and DGATi-induced changes in selected lipid mediators (as indicated).
Cells were treated as shown in Figure 4A. (**D, E**) Diagrams illustrating the experimental conditions used
(top) and representative live-cell confocal microscopy images of control (SCR) and ATGL-depleted
(ATGL^{KD}) MDA-MB-231 and HeLa cells treated with DGAT inhibitors during serum feeding (D) and
during serum starvation (E), without and with hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment. LDs and nuclei were visualised
using BODIPY 493/503 and Hoechst 33342 staining and confocal microscopy. (**F**) Diagram illustrating
the experimental conditions (left) and graph showing DGAT inhibition (DGATi)-induced changes in PGE$_2$
production in serum-starved control (SCR) and ATGL-depleted (ATGL^{KD}) A549 cells, without and with
stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment. Neutral lipids were measured at the end of
starvation with Nile Red staining and flow cytometry. Lipid mediators were quantified by UPLC-MS-MS.
(F) PGE$_2$ levels were determined in cell supernatants as described in Methods. Data are means ±SEM
of three (A) or four (B, C) independent experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (two-way
ANOVA with Tukey (A), Sidak (B, C) or Bonferroni (F) adjustment). EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; HEPE,
hydroxyeicosapentaenoic acid; AA, arachidonic acid; TXB$_2$, thromboxane B$_2$; HDHA,
hydroxydocosahexaenoic acid; HETE, hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; PGE$_2$, prostaglandin E$_2$; PGD$_2$,
prostaglandin D$_2$.

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Supplemental Figure 5 cPLA₂α cooperates with ATGL in mediating LD-driven lipid mediator
production. (**A**) Quantitative PCR analysis of cPLA₂α gene expression in control (SCR) and cPLA₂-
knockdown (cPLA₂αKD) cells grown for 48 h in complete medium and serum starved for 24 h. (**B**)

Representative western blots showing basal levels of cPLA$_2$α protein expression in the four cancer cell
lines (top) and cPLA$_2$α and ATGL protein expression in single and double knockdown A549 cells, without
and with hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment (bottom). (**C**) Diagram illustrating the experimental conditions used
(top), and changes in neutral lipid content in serum-fed cells induced by ATGL (ATGL^{KD}) and cPLA$_2$α
(cPLA$_2$α^{KD}) single and double (Double^{KD}) knockdowns, in comparison with control siRNA-treated cells
(SCR), without and with stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA$_2$ treatment. (**D**) Quantitative PCR
analysis of cPLA$_2$α gene expression in control (empty) and cPLA$_2$α-overexpressing (cPLA$_2$α^{OE}) cells
grown for 48 h in complete medium and serum starved for 24 h. (**E, F**) Diagram illustrating the
experimental conditions used, representative live-cell confocal microscopy images and image analysis
of LDs in ATGL (ATGL^{KD}) and cPLA$_2$α (cPLA$_2$α^{KD}) single and double (Double^{KD}) knockdown HeLa and
A549 cells, in comparison with non-targeting control siRNA-treated cells (SCR), without and with
stimulation of LD biogenesis by hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment. LDs were stained with BODIPY 493/503
(green) and nuclei with Hoechst 33342 (blue) and images analysed using ImageJ and the LD Counter
Plugin. Box plots are showing changes in LD diameters and LD numbers per cell in serum-fed (Fed)
and serum-starved (Starved) cells. Data are geometric means (diameter analysis) or means (number
analysis) ±SEM (n >40 cells/sample) of two independent experiments. (**G**) Diagram illustrating the
experimental conditions used (top), and neutral lipid levels in cells with reciprocal
knockdown/overexpression of cPLA$_2$α and ATGL. Cells were reverse transfected with ATGL-targeting
(ATGL^{KD}) and/or cPLA$_2$α-targeting (cPLA$_2$α^{KD}) siRNAs, then forward transfected with ATGL-encoding
(ATGL^{OE}) and/or cPLA$_2$α-encoding (cPLA$_2$α^{OE}) plasmids, and/or pre-treated with hGX sPLA$_2$. In controls
(control), non-targeting siRNA reverse transfections were combined with backbone ('empty') vector
forward transfections. (**H**) Diagram illustrating the experimental conditions used (top), and DGAT
inhibition (DGATi)-induced changes in neutral lipids in serum-starved control cells (empty) and in cells
overexpressing ATGL (ATGL^{OE}) or cPLA$_2$α (cPLA$_2$α^{OE}), without and with additional stimulation of LD
biogenesis by hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment. Neutral lipid content was quantified by Nile Red staining and
flow cytometry. Data are means ±SEM of two (A, D; C, A549 cells) or at least three independent
experiments. *, P <0.05; **, P <0.01; ***, P <0.001 (unpaired t-tests (A, D); two-way ANOVA with Tukey
(C, E–G) or Dunnet (H) adjustments; nested one-way ANOVA with Sidak adjustment (E, F)).

A

B

Supplementary Figure 6. Membrane phospholipid PUFA content is modulated by sPLA$_2$, cPLA$_2$α

and ATGL. (**A, B**) Untargeted lipidomic analysis of phospholipids in MDA-MB-231 cells depleted of

ATGL (ATGL^{KD}), cPLA$_2$α (cPLA$_2$α^{KD}) or both (Double^{KD}), without and with hGX sPLA$_2$ pre-treatment,

and grown as shown in (B). Volcano plots show significant changes (–log$_{10}$(P value) >1.30) in individual

lipids between each treatment condition *versus* control cells (unless otherwise indicated), and were

prepared by log$_2$ fold-change (FC) data transformation and multiple t-test analysis (n=3 independent

experiments). Phospholipids (PLs) containing saturated and mono-unsaturated acyl chains

(SFA/MUFA-PLs with 0–2 double bonds) and those containing polyunsaturated FAs (PUFA-PLs with at

least 3 double bonds) are colour-coded as indicated. PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE,

phosphatidylethanolamine; PI, phosphatidylinositol, PS, phosphatidylserine.

Supplementary Figure 7. LION-term enrichment analysis for significant changes in membrane properties induced by sPLA₂, cPLA₂α and ATGL. (A) Heat map of z-score scaled lipid levels of phospholipids and triglycerides in serum-starved MDA-MB-231 cells depleted of ATGL (ATGL^{KD}), cPLA₂α (cPLA₂α^{KD}) or both (Double^{KD}), without and with hGX sPLA₂ pre-treatment under serum-rich conditions. (B, C) LION-term enrichment analysis of the full data set (B) and pairwise comparisons of phospholipid data from cPLA₂α-depleted and control (SCR) cells (C) in ranking mode. The cut-off value of significant enrichments is indicated by the grey line (q <0.05). Data were analysed using three principal components, and lipids were clustered into five groups by hierarchical clustering (A, B). Bar colours are scaled according to the enrichment (−log q-values). FDR, false-discovery rate.

Supplementary Figure 8. Inhibition of DGAT1 reduces colony formation and PGE$_2$-induced proliferation in MDA-MB-231 cells. (**A, B**) Representative images (A) and graph (B) of DGAT inhibition-induced changes in colony formation of MDA-MB-231 cells treated grown in complete medium for nine days and treated with T863 (DGAT1i) and PF-06427878 (DGAT2i), or an equimolar mix of both DGAT inhibitors (DGATi). (**C**) Proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells treated with 1 µM exogenous PGE$_2$ in the absence and presence of T863 (DGAT1i) and PF-06427878 (DGAT2i), or an equimolar mix of both DGAT inhibitors (DGATi). Data are means ±SEM of three independent experiments. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$ (unpaired t-test (B); two-way ANOVA with Tukey (C) adjustment).

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