High-throughput detection and quantification of phosphatidylcholines and sphingomyelins from single cells by chip-based nanoelectrospray ionisation

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Abstract

Recent advances in single-cell genomics and transcriptomics technologies have transformed our understanding of cellular heterogeneity in growth, development, ageing and disease. Despite these advances, however, single-cell metabolite profiling (i.e., metabolomics) methods have comparatively lagged behind due to limitations in technology. We have developed a high-throughput method for the detection and quantification of a wide range of phosphatidylcholine (PC) and sphingomyelin (SM) species from single cells that combines fluorescence-assisted cell sorting (FACS) with automated chip-based nanoelectrospray ionisation (nanoESI) and shotgun lipidomics. We show herein that our method is capable of quantifying more than 50 different PC and SM species from single cells and can easily distinguish between cells of different lineages or cells treated with exogenous fatty acids. Moreover, our method can detect more subtle differences in the lipidome between cell lines of the same cancer type. Our approach has the capacity to be run in parallel with other single-cell technologies to deliver near-complete multi-omics data on cells with a similar phenotype and has the capacity to significantly advance our current knowledge on cellular heterogeneity.

Introduction

The recognition that cells of the same lineage (*i.e.,* supposedly identical cells) can present heterogeneous genomic/transcriptomic features has generated great interest in recent years. This work has largely been driven by the development of methods for profiling of single cells, particularly single-cell transcriptomic profiling, and has provided astonishing new insight into the fundamental biological processes of cell heterogeneity and clonal variation in growth, development, and disease[1]. Despite the

rapid advances of single-cell genomics and transcriptomics, the development of methods to

comprehensively assay metabolites directly from single cells (*i.e.,* single-cell metabolomics) has

lagged. This is for several reasons, chief among them being the trace levels of metabolites present within

cells (*e.g.,* attomol to low fmol range), the complex array of metabolite present within cells (*e.g.,* 100s

to potentially 1000s of different molecules), and an inability to use amplification strategies common in

single-cell transcriptomics to augment analyte signal. However, measuring the rapid and dynamic

metabolic processes within cells would arguably provide a better phenotypic assessment than that of

transcriptomics, which essentially only measures the "potential" of a cell (*i.e.*, not all actively

transcribed products are translated downstream).

Mass spectrometry (MS) is the current technology of choice for the comprehensive profiling of

metabolites from biological tissues due to both its broad specificity in metabolite detection and its

sensitivity in detecting very low amounts of analyte from biological samples (*e.g.,* fmol to pmol range).

MS is also emerging as a key technology in the detection of analytes from single cells; however, there

are some limitations in the sensitivity and/or specificity of currently available technologies. Imaging-

based mass spectrometry techniques such as matrix-assisted laser desorption ionisation (MALDI)-MS

are perhaps the most developed and utilised single-cell metabolomics techniques in the field to date.

MALDI-MS has been used to detect both polar metabolites and lipids from a range of cell types,

including algae[2], yeast[3–7], cultured mammalian cells[8], single neurons from pond snails[9,10], plant leaves

and/or bulbs[11] and insects[12]. There are, however, several limitations of a MALDI-MS approach to

single-cell metabolomics. As its name implies, MALDI requires the application of a matrix to enable

ionisation of metabolites, and the type of matrix used can limit the type of metabolite able to be detected.

Furthermore, the MALDI laser width is within the range of 5-20 μM (*i.e.,* the diameter of a mammalian

cell), placing limitations on the ability of the method to discriminate signal from single cells in close

spatial proximity. Nevertheless, improvements in MALDI-MS data processing have enabled the

detection of spatially-resolved metabolites from discrete cell populations co-cultured together[13].

MALDI spatial resolution has also been improved through the use of either oversampling techniques or

transmission mode MALDI sources, which, when combined with post-source ionisation, can improve

both imaging resolution and metabolite signal respectively (*e.g.,* 0.6-2 μM)[14,15]. Secondary ion mass

spectrometry (SIMS) is another popular imaging-based MS technique used in single-cell metabolomics,

owing to its improved spatial resolution over MALDI (*e.g.,* 50-500 nm). However, SIMS suffers from

low molecular ionisation alongside extensive fragmentation of target compounds, limiting both its

sensitivity and specificity for metabolite identification. Despite these limitations, SIMS has been used

for the detection of metabolites from sea hare single neurons[16], as well as the detection of choline

fragments arising from membrane lipids in HeLa cells[17,18]. A related technique, laser-ablation

electrospray ionisation (LAESI)-MS, provides slightly poorer spatial resolution (*e.g.,* ~30 μM) with a

high level of analyte fragmentation making metabolite identification challenging. LAESI has been used

for the detection of several small polar metabolites (*e.g.,* amino acids and sugars) from onion[19,20] and

daffodil[19] bulb single cells.

Direction infusion nanoelectrospray ionisation (nanoESI)-based methods are also commonly in use for

single-cell metabolite analysis. NanoESI capillaries are an ideal size for directly sampling and infusing

the contents of a single cell into the mass spectrometer for detection. This approach has been used to

detect a wide array of polar metabolites and lipids from single cells, including plant cells[21,22] and

cultured mammalian cells[23–25]. When coupled with light microscopy this technique can provide spatial

information on cells and even sample directly from live cells. However, this process is quite laborious

and requires the use of micromanipulators for handling and sampling from single cells, thus limiting its

high-throughput potential. Some improvements to the throughputness of the technique have been made

through the use of a continuous sampling arm that uses dual-bore quartz needles to sample from cells

located on a movable stage (i.e, single probe MS)[26–28]. However, the spray duration per cell is limited

(~3 min) and precludes the acquisition of tandem mass spectrometry data crucial for metabolite

identification. Improvements in spray duration from a single cell have been made by reducing the flow

of analyte into the instrument (*i.e.,* picoelectrospray ionisation)[29]. Using this method Wang and

colleagues were able to characterise several biomarkers for different breast cancer cell subtypes[29],

including membrane lipid species and nucleotides.

In this work we sought to develop an MS-based single-cell lipidomics workflow that is both high

throughput and quantitative. To that end, we combined single cell isolation by fluorescence-assisted

cell sorting (FACS) with shotgun lipidomics and a chip-based nanoESI ionisation source. This nanoESI

source is fully automated and has been used previously for single cell assay using its liquid-extraction

surface analysis (LESA) operating mode[30,31]. In this work we operated the instrument in direct infusion

mode following FACS of single cells into a 96 well plate format, allowing us to generate stable

nanospray from a single cell for more than 30 minutes. We used a semi-targeted shotgun lipidomics

approach that could facilitate both improved sensitivity and provide broad specificity in detecting a

range of lipid species that may be present amongst different cell types. Using this approach we have been

able to detect and quantify more than 50 discrete phosphatidylcholine (PC) and sphingomyelin (SM)

species from single cells isolated from different mammalian cell types, and we demonstrate the utility

of our method for detecting potentially clinically relevant heterogeneity in prostate cancer cells.

Results

Detection of phosphatidylcholine and sphingomyelin from single cells

We have developed a high throughput, quantitative method for the analysis of PC and SM from single

cells by combining FACS with shotgun lipidomics using chip-based nanoESI. All methods are

described in detail below (see Method details). Briefly, to develop this method we grew both

immortalised myocytes (C2C12) and hepatocarcinoma cells (HepG2) under the same conditions in 75

cm^2 culture flasks. At approximately 80-90% confluency cells were trypsinised and counted.

Approximately 1-2 million cells of each type were centrifuged (300 x g, 5 min) and resuspended in PBS

containing 10% foetal calf serum (FCS) and 2 mM EDTA. This process was then repeated to remove

all traces of media. Cells were then sorted by FACS directly into a 96 well plate preloaded with

methanol spiked with 0.01% butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) and internal standards (PC 17:0/17:0 and

dihydrosphingomyelin, DHSM, 12:0). Plates were sealed and stored at -80ºC until run. Prior to analysis

a small amount of methanol:chloroform containing 5 mM ammonium acetate was added to each well

to achieve a final ratio of 2:1 v/v. Samples were then directly infused into the mass spectrometer via the

chip-based nanoESI source. Shotgun lipidomics were performed by acquiring a precursor scan for *m/z*

184 in positive ion mode to identify any PC or SM species present across a mass range of 640 – 850

m/z. Data from empty wells containing solvent and internal standards were also acquired for background

subtraction.

We first acquired baseline precursor *m/z* scans from three independent lots of fifty C2C12 or HepG2

cells sorted into a single well by FACS. The resulting mass spectra for C2C12 cells are shown in Figure

1A. The data demonstrate a typical profile of both PC and SM species normally detected within C2C12

cells, with PC 34:1 (760.6 *m/z*) being the most abundant endogenous species present. Importantly, both

PC and SM species are being detected at a similar intensity to that seen with cell extracts obtained using

a standard extraction protocol before analysis by shotgun lipidomics (*vide infra*). We next infused up

to 18 singly sorted C2C12 or HepG2 cells and acquired the same precursor *m/z* 184 scan, with

representative spectra from 7 randomly selected single C2C12 cells shown in Figure 1B. Not

surprisingly there was a substantial increase in noise within our single-cell spectra; however, both the

relative intensity and masses of each species detected closely matches that obtained from the fifty cell

samples (Figure 1A). We calculated the signal-to-noise (S/N) for several PC and SM species at differing

intensities (shown on Figure 1B) demonstrating that the intensity of many of the detected PC and SM

species are well above the background noise present.

Figure 1: Precursor ion scan of *m/z* 184 obtained from fifty (**A&C**, n=3 biological replicates) and singly isolated (**B&D**, n=7) C2C12 cells obtained by FACS. Cells were grown under normal culture conditions (**A&B**) or cultured overnight in the presence of 50 μM docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, **C&D**). Signal-to-noise (S/N) was calculated using the S-to-N Script in Analyst (v1.6.3, SCIEX, Framingham, MA, USA). Internal standards (ISTD) phosphatidylcholine (PC) 17:0/17:0 & dihydrosphingomyelin (DHSM) 12:0 were added at a concentration of 1 pmol and 1.38 fmol for fifty and single cells respectively.

To confirm that our method was accurately detecting PC and SM species from single cells we performed a second set of experiments in which our C2C12 cells were cultured overnight in the presence of 50 μM docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n-3). DHA is an omega-3 (n-3) polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) consisting of 22 carbons and 6 carbon-carbon double bonds, with the first double bond being located at the third carbon from the methyl end of the fatty acid. Vertebrates are unable to synthesise PUFA *de novo* as they lack both the Δ12 and Δ15 desaturases necessary to create either n-3 and omega-6 (n-6) PUFA. Vertebrate cells can elongate and desaturate long-chain PUFA such as linolenic acid (18:3n-3) to form very long-chain PUFA such as DHA, but this conversion is extremely limited within human cells[32]. FCS provides exogenous lipids to cultured cells, but it contains only very low levels of n-3 PUFA[33]. By including DHA within our culture media we can be confident that any detected increase in DHA-containing PC species (*i.e.,* species containing ≥6 carbon-carbon double bonds) can be directly attributed to the experimental conditions and thereby validate our single-cell lipidomics workflow. Overnight culture of C2C12 cells in the presence of DHA indeed produced the expected increase in DHA-containing PC species in both the fifty and single-cell spectra, including noticeable increases in PC 38:6 (806.8 *m/z*), PC 40:7 (832.7 *m/z*), and PC 40:6 (834 *m/z*) (Figure 1C&D respectively). This increase in DHA-containing PC species within the single-cell spectra of DHA-treated cells

demonstrates that we are measuring real biological information that is above the noise of the instrument,

and together these data establish the validity of our approach for detecting biological variability in the

lipids of single cells.

The inclusion of internal standards meant that we could perform relative quantitation on both PC and

SM species detected from single cells. To achieve this we performed identification of PC and SM

species detected from C2C12 and HepG2 single cells (n=17-18) with S/N >4 using Lipidview software

(v1.3b, SCIEX, Framingham, MA, USA). Lipid species underwent background subtraction before

relative quantification from internal standards. All lipid species detected within single C2C12 and

HepG2 cells are shown in Figure 2A&B respectively, including those detected under normal culture

conditions (CON) and those from media supplemented with DHA. Overall we were able to detect 56

distinct PC and SM species from CON and DHA-treated single HepG2 and C2C12 cells. These data

not only demonstrated a clear shift in lipid profile in DHA-supplemented cells, but we were also able

to observe some inherent heterogeneity in PC and SM species within each of the cell lines and growth

conditions. To further explore this heterogeneity we performed t-distributed stochastic neighbour

embedding (t-SNE; Figure 3) on our single-cell lipidomics dataset. This analysis showed clear

clustering of data from each cell and treatment type, demonstrating that our method can discriminate

easily between single cells from both different lineages and culture conditions. Also apparent within

the data was some heterogeneity within a given cell line/ fatty acid treatment, which is demonstrated

particularly within control HepG2 cells by the spread of the data across the second dimension of the t-

SNE plot. Taken together, these data suggest that our single-cell lipidomics method can easily

distinguish differences in the lipid profile of single cells isolated from different cell lines and can also

detect biological variation driven by the enrichment of exogenous lipid species.

Figure 2: heatmaps of phosphatidylcholine (PC) and sphingomyelin (SM) species detected in single isolated **A** C2C12 and **B** HepG2cells. Cells were cultured under normal conditions (CON) or after overnight culture with 50 μM docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). Lipids were quantified from internal standards as described under method details and are present as quantified amount (fmol).

Figure 3: t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) of all single-cell data from both C2C12 & HepG2 cells grown in both control (CON) and DHA-supplemented media.

FACS has very little effect on cell PC & SM profile

As FACS is known to change the polar metabolite profile of cells[34] we needed to determine if FACS could also affect the profile of PC and SM present within cells. To that end we compared bulk lipid extracts prepared using the traditional method of lipid extraction from adherent cells (*i.e.,* bulk cell extract) to that of fifty cells isolated by FACS. Full methods for cell extraction and data acquisition are described below (see Method details). Briefly, to obtain bulk cell lipid extracts we grew both C2C12 & HepG2 cells to ~80% confluency in 6 well plates (*i.e.,* ~1 million cells/well, n=3) and extracted each well following overnight exporsure to either control or DHA-supplemented media using a modified MTBE method[35,36]. The organic phase of the bulk cell extract was then diluted approximately 500x with methanol:chloroform (2:1 v/v) containing 5 mM ammonium acetate prior and analysed by shotgun lipidomics. We then compared the relative intensity of both PC and SM species present in the bulk cell extracts with that of fifty cells sorted by FACS from both C2C12 & HepG2 cells grown in either control or DHA-supplemented media (Figure 4). No statistically significant differences in the relative intensity of PC or SM species were detected between bulk cell extracts or fifty-sorted C2C12 cells grown in control media, nor were any differences detected between bulk or fifty-sorted HepG2 cells grown in either control or DHA-containing media. Some small but statistically significant differences were observed between a few relatively minor ether PC species (PC O-38:4, PC O-40:3 and PC O-40:5) between bulk extract and fifty-sorted DHA-supplemented C2C12 cells (Figure 4A); however, these are extremely minor components of the cell membrane. Together these data suggest that FACS has very little impact PC or SM profile, which further supports the validity of our methodological approach.

Figure 4: Comparison of PC and SM species detected in either bulk cell extract or fifty cells obtained by FACS for both (**A**) C2C12 cells and (**B**) HepG2 cells treated grown in control (CON) or DHA-supplemented media. Lipids shown are present at >1% relative abundance in either sample, values are mean±SEM (n=3). Welch t-test, * $P < 0.05$. Statistical output from all PC and SM species detected is available in the supplemental material (Table S1).

Single-cell lipidomics can distinguish between different prostate cell lines

In the final part of this work we sought to validate our single-cell lipidomics workflow against an experimental condition with more subtle yet potentially clinically relevant biological heterogeneity. We chose to use prostate cancer as our model for several reasons. First, it is widely reported that PC composition varies between different immortalised prostate cancer cell lines[37–39]. Most recently Young and colleagues reported discrete differences in sum compositional PC species present across six different prostate cancer cell lines[38]. For example, PC 34:1 was reported at ~50% of total PC within the LNCaP prostate cancer cell line, whereas the PC3 cell line purportedly contained ~30% PC 34:1[38]. Furthermore, applying single-cell lipidomics techniques to the study of prostate cancer is likely to yield clinically relevant information. Elevated expression of fatty acid synthase (FASN) is common in metastatic, castration-resistant prostate cancer, and higher levels of phospholipids containing saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids are linked with greater metastatic potential in both prostate and other cancer types (reviewed by Butler et al.[40]). Acquired docetaxel resistance in prostate cancer cells can also increase overall PC and SM levels as well as the levels of some specific PC species[39]. For these reasons prostate cancer was chosen as a model for our "proof-of-principle" experiments.

To that end we performed shotgun lipidomics on four different prostate cell lines sorted by FACS: three cancerous (DU145, LNCaP & PC3) and a non-tumorigenic immortalised prostate epithelial cell line (PNT1). All cell lines were grown in the same media and were approximately the same passage number. We initially confirmed the heterogeneity reported in the literature PC species between the different prostate cancer cell lines by analysing fifty sorted cells (n=3 per cell line). The resulting PC profile proved to be very similar to that described by Young et al.[38], where PC 34:1 was present at ~48% of total PC in LNCaP cells and ~26% of PC within PC3 cells (Figure 5A). We next performed single-cell lipidomics analysis on the four prostate cell lines (n=18 cells per line) and were able to detect just over 50 discrete PC and SM species from single cells (Figure 5B). Not surprisingly, the overwhelming pattern of lipid species abundance in single cells closely mirrored that of the fifty cells data with some heterogeneity being apparent within discrete cells of each line. Finally, we performed t-SNE on our prostate cell single-cell lipidomics dataset, producing the plot shown in Figure 5C. The data broadly clusters into three groups consisting of LNCaP, PC3, and a combination of DU145 and PNT1 cells. This suggests that there is some similarity in lipid profile between DU145 and PNT1 cells that is present even at the single-cell level. Increased heterogeneity appears to be present across the whole prostate single-cell dataset when compared with our previous model of two cell lines of different lineages treated with exogenous fatty acids (Figure 3); however, the data still show relatively tight clustering within the three broad groups of prostate cancer cell lines (Figure 5C). This provides evidence that our single-cell lipidomics workflow is powerful enough to detect more subtle biological variation in cellular heterogeneity such as that found across different cancer cell lines.

Figure 5: Analysis of PC and SM species from four different prostate cell lines, including cancerous
(DU145, PC3 & LNCaP) and non-tumorigenic (PNT1) cells. **A** the ten most abundant PC species
detected from the four prostate cell lines. Data acquired from fifty cells obtained by FACS (n=3) and
expressed as a percent of total PC (±SEM). **B** PC and SM species detected from single cells across the
four prostate cell lines (n=18). Data are expressed as relative intensity within each cell. **C** tSNE of the
single-cell data acquired from the four prostate cell lines.

Discussion

In the present study we have described a high-throughput single-cell lipidomics workflow that can

detect and quantify a high number of PC and SM species from single cells. To do this we have developed

a workflow that combines single-cell FACS with automated chip-based nanoESI and shotgun

lipidomics. This workflow utilises a 96-well plate platform for both FACS and mass spectrometry but

could be easily adapted to a 384 well plate format to further increase the throughput. We have used this

workflow to study single-cell heterogeneity across two different cell lineages and have validated the

lipids measured as being true biological measurements by performing experiments designed to

manipulate the cell lipidome in a very predictable way (*i.e.,* overnight DHA supplementation, Figures

1-3). Using this approach we could detect and quantify more than 50 different PC and SM species within

singly-isolated C2C12 and HepG2 cells. We have also applied our method to the study of single-cell

lipidome heterogeneity across four different prostate cell lines, including three cancerous (DU145,

LNCaP, PC3) and one non-tumorigenic cell line (PNT1). Together these validate the robustness of the

method and highlight its potential for detecting clinically relevant parameters.

FACS is a common method used for single-cell isolation and is routinely complexed with other single-

cell profiling methodologies including transcriptomics. It has been previously reported that FACS can

affect the polar metabolome of cells significantly[34]; however, we have determined that it has little to no

discernible impact on the PC and SM profile of cells (Figure 4). Other single-cell isolation methods

such as microfluidics, magnetic-activated cell sorting, and manual cell picking might also be easily

complexed upstream of our single-cell shotgun lipidomics platform in place of FACS if desired.

However, use of FACS for single sorting offers the ability to sort cells based on cell surface markers to

deliver enhanced information relevant to cell phenotypes. Modern FACS instruments can sort cells by

up to 15 or more fluorescently labelled species per cell, which would allow the linking of complex cell

phenotypes to their lipidome to provide enhanced detail on phenotype-drive heterogeneity. Moreover,

when used in parallel with existing single-cell transcriptomics methods it could provide near-complete

multi-omics data acquisition of distinct cell populations sharing phenotypic traits. In turn such data

would provide a much more thorough understanding of the role of cellular heterogeneity across a range

of fundamental biological and disease-driven research questions and could augment the delivery of

personalised medicines for diseases with high levels of inherent lipid heterogeneity (*e.g.,* certain

cancers).

In this work we chose to apply our method to the study of prostate cancer for two main reasons. Firstly

we know that prostate cancer cell lines differ in the abundance of discrete PC species present[37–39] .

Furthermore, changes in lipid metabolism have clinical significant in prostate cancer and are highly

implicated in its pathogenesis, metastatic potential and resistance to treatment [39,40]. Profiling of PC and

SM from singly isolated prostate cancer cell lines revealed both intra- and extra-cell line heterogeneity,

and three broad groups of cells were able to be clustered by t-SNE: PC3, LNCaP and a third group of

combined DU145 and PNT1 cells (Figure 5C). This is an interesting finding as PNT1 cells are a non-

tumorigenic immortalised prostate epithelial line[41], yet show a similar lipidome to CNS metastases-

derived DU145 primary prostate adenocarcinoma cells[42]. In terms of metastatic potential, PC3 cells are

thought to be the most aggressive, with LNCaP being relatively more quiescent and DU145 somewhere

in between[43,44]. The relative abundance of PC species detected within PC3, LNCaP and DU145 prostate

cancer cells lines in the present study aligns well with that previously reported[37–39]; however, we could

find no publicly available datasets describing the lipidome of PNT1 prostate epithelial cells. Young et

al. also described a similar PC profile between DU145 cells and the immortalised BPH-1 prostate

epithelial cell line; however, significant differences were observed between phospholipid double-bond

positional isomers and the expression of fatty acid desaturase 2 (FADS2) relative to stearoyl-CoA

desaturase 1 (SCD1)[38]. This translates to prostate cancer cell lines containing a different fatty acid

carbon-carbon double bond profile compared to prostate epithelial cells, but such data cannot be derived

using traditional lipidomics profiling by tandem mass spectrometry. We know that extracellular fatty

acids heavily influence lipid metabolism in prostate cancer cells[45] and so the lipidome of our DU145

and PNT1 cells may simply represent the "default" or baseline lipid profile of prostate cells cultured *in

vitro* in the absence of any influential biological effect. Future work may focus on complexing our

single-cell lipidomics workflow with advanced mass spectrometry-based techniques that can determine

more subtle lipid structural information. For example, ozone-induced dissociation could be used to

determine carbon-carbon double bond position to enhance the detail of data able to be collected from a

single cell [46]. The Paternò-Büchi reaction has also been used to determine carbon-carbon double bond

position in single cells, but this reaction requires UV irradiation of the sample through a glass

micropipette needle during electrospray and is likely not compatible with our workflow[47]. Such data

would likely be of increased clinical relvance in prostate and other cancers, and our method could easily

be complexed with techniques such as liquid biopsy to study circulating tumour cells obtained from

cancer patients.

While developing this workflow we also sought to expand coverage of the single-cell lipidome to

include phosphatidylethanolamines (PE), which are typically the second-most abundant class of

phospholipid present in mammalian cells. To do this we used a neutral ion loss scan of 141 Da in

positive ion mode using settings previously reported[48]. While we could detect numerous PE species in

our bulk cell extracts and fifty FACS cell samples, significant contaminant species were detected within

320 our single cell population including ions corresponding with PE 32:0 in both C2C12 and HepG2 cells

321 and PE O-36:5 in HepG2 cells only (Supplemental material, Figure S1). The overall relative intensity

322 of ions detected using our neutral loss scan for PE was also significantly lower than that of PC/SM;

323 leading us to conclude that PE was below the limit of detection for our single-cell method. Charge-

324 switch derivatisation strategies have been successfully used to improve detection in a range of lipid

325 species[49,50], and there is a chemical derivatisation strategy that can impart a fixed positive charge on

326 PE and phosphatidylserine aminophospholipids[51–54]. Future work may target refining such

327 derivatisation strategies to expand lipidome coverage for single cells using our method. Moreover, our

328 approach could be easily adapted to study the polar metabolome, and future work will focus on

329 developing this methodology further. In particular, complexing our method to capillary electrophoresis

330 may yield enhanced coverage and high-throughput assay of the single-cell metabolome[55].

331 In summary, we have developed a high-throughput and quantitative method for the detection of PC and

332 SM lipids from singly isolated cells. Using our method we could quantify more than 50 distinct PC and

333 SM species from single cells of different cell lineages. By using FACS to sort cells our method could

334 be used to provide enhanced data on the relationship between cellular phenotypes and their lipidome,

335 and moreover our approach could be run in parallel with other single-cell methods to deliver near-

336 complete multi-omic assay of cells of similar phenotypes. Our work continues to advance the progress

337 of the development of single-cell metabolomics methods has the potential to improve our knowledge

338 and understanding of cellular heterogeneity.

Method details

Cell culture

HepG2 and C2C12 cells were obtained from American Type Cell Culture Collection (ATCC; Manassas, Virginia, USA), while prostate cell lines (LNCaP, PC3 DU145, and PNT1) were gifted by Dr Andrew Hoy (University of Sydney Australia). HepG2 and C2C12 were cultured in high-glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FCS (Sigma-Aldrich Pty Ltd, Sydney, NSW, Australia) incubated at 37ºC in 5% CO_2. Prostate cancer cell lines were cultured in Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) medium supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine and 10% heat-inactivated FCS (ThermoFisher Scientific, Melbourne, VIC, Australia). Medium was changed every three days and cells were passaged at ~80-90% confluency by trypsinisation. Cell lines were regularly screened for mycoplasma infection. Cell number was determined by trypan staining using an automated cell counter (Invitrogen™ Countess II, ThermoFisher Scientific, Melbourne, VIC, Australia).

DHA supplementation

Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) was obtained from Avanti Polar lipids (Alabaster, AL, USA) and dissolved in 100% ethanol at a concentration of 100 mM. DHA was conjugated to fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin (2% w/v) in media to increase both its solubility and bioavailability [56]. 25 μL of DHA stock or 25 μl of 100% ethanol (CON) was added per 50 mL of normal growth media containing 2% (w/v) of fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin serum (BSA; Sigma-Aldrich Pty Ltd, Sydney, NSW, Australia). Media was sterile filtered by passing it through a 0.2 μM PES filter, and then both CON and DHA-containing media were incubated in a water bath for 2 hours at 55ºC to conjugate DHA to BSA. Conjugated media was then stored at 4ºC until used. Cells were incubated overnight in the presence of CON or DHA-conjugated media prior to harvest.

Bulk cell lipid extraction

All solvents and additives used for lipid extraction were of the highest grade available (either LCMS or HPLC grade) and obtained from ThermoFisher Scientific (Melbourne, VIC, Australia). Bulk cell extracts were prepared from adherent cells grown in 6 well plates. C2C12 cells were seeded at $1x10^5$ cells/well and HepG2 at $2x10^5$ cells/well and grown to ~70-80% confluency (~2-3 days). Cells were then treated with CON or DHA-containing media and harvested the following day (final confluency ~80-90%). Media was removed from wells and cells were washed with ice-cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4). Methanol containing 0.01% BHT (300 μl) was added to each well, and plates were scraped into 2.0 mL eppendorfs. An additional 100 μl of methanol was used to wash each well/scraper and was combined with cell extract. Empty wells were also scraped for background normalisation. To the methanolic cell extracts, 920 μl of methyl tert-butyl ether was added, and samples were vortexed at 1200 rpm for 2-3 hours at room temperature (MixMate ®, Eppendorf South Pacific,

Sydney, NSW Australia). Following this, 230 µl of 150 mM ammonium acetate was added and samples

were vortexed vigorously for a minimum of 30 seconds. Sample were centrifuged for 5 mins at 2,000 *x*

g to induce phase separation, and the upper organic phase was removed to a 2 mL glass vial. This

organic phase was then diluted 500-fold in methanol:chloroform (2:1 v/v) containing 5 mM ammonium

acetate and stored at -30ºC until analysis. Prior to analysis 40 µl of diluted cell lipid extract was added

to a 96 well plate, which was then sealed.

Single cell sorting and lipid extraction

HepG2 and C2C12 cells were grown in 75 cm^2 flasks until ~70-80% confluent before being treated

overnight with CON or DHA media. The following day cells (~80-90% confluency) were trypsinised

and counted. Prostate cells (LNCaP, DU145, PC3 and PNT1) were grown to ~80-90% confluency

before harvest by trypsination followed by cell counting. 1-2 million cells of each line were centrifuged

(300 *x* g, 5 min) and resuspended in PBS containing 10% FCS and 2 mM EDTA. This process was then

repeated to remove all traces of growth media. Cells were placed on ice and sorted within an hour by

FACS (BD FACSAria™ III, BD Biosciences, Sydney, NSW Australia) directly into a 96 well plate

preloaded with methanol spiked with 0.01% BHT and internal standards (PC 17:0/17:0 and

dihydrosphingomyelin, DHSM, 12:0; Avanti Polar Lipids, Alabaster, AL, USA). Internal standards

were added at rate of 1000 fmol per well for fifty cells and 1.38 fmol per single cell. Plates were sealed

and stored at -80ºC until analysis. Prior to analysis methanol:chloroform containing 5 mM ammonium

acetate was added to each well to achieve a final ratio of 2:1 v/v (final volume 40 µl). Empty wells

containing solvent and internal standard only were included for background subtraction.

Mass spectrometry and lipid identification

Nanoelectrospray ionisation (nanoESI) mass spectrometry of lipid extracts was performed using a

hybrid triple quadrupole linear ion trap mass spectrometer (QTRAP® 5500, SCIEX, Framingham, MA,

USA), equipped with an automated chip-based nanoelectrospray source (TriVersa Nanomate®, Advion

Biosciences, NY, USA). PC and SM data were acquired in positive ion mode using a precursor ion scan

of *m/z* 184, with spray and acquisition parameters having been described in detail elsewhere [48].

Aspiration of 10 µl of sample from each well generated a stable spray time of ≥30 minutes.

Lipids were identified from acquired data using Lipidview™ software (v1.2b, SCIEX, Framingham,

MA, USA). Processing settings in Lipidview™ were set at a mass tolerance of 0.5 Da, with a minimum

intensity of 0.1% and a minimum signal-to-noise ratio of 4. Smoothing and deisotoping of lipid species

were enabled. Lipid species were identified from target lists (see supplement material Table S2), and

peak area for each detected lipid species was then exported. These data underwent futher processing in

R [57], including background subtraction and quantification from internal standards. Lipid nomenclature

follows recommendations for the level of molecular detail known [58]; and in the present study we report

lipids as class (*e.g.,* PC or SM) followed by the total number of carbons and carbon-carbon double

bonds present within the fatty acids separated by a colon (*e.g.,* a PC with 34 carbons and 1 double bond

as PC 34:1). At the level of identification available by the technique used in this study some ambiguity

exists between isobaric PC species containing either odd-chain or ether-linked fatty acid species, and

in the absence of further structural detail we chose to report such species as ether-linked only where

overlap exists.

Statistical analysis

414 Statistical analysis was conducted in R [57], with t-distributed stochastic neighbour embedding (t-SNE)

415 being performed using the Rtsne package [59]. Parameters for t-SNE were set at default values except for

416 perplexity which was set at $\sim N^{\wedge}(1/2)$ where N is the number of samples analysed. Comparison between

417 relative intensity of PC and SM species detected from bulk cell extracts and fifty sorted cells was

418 performed using an unpaired t test with Welch's correction, with statistical significance set at $P < 0.05$.

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