PLIN5 phosphorylation orchestrates mitochondria lipid droplet coupling to control hepatic lipid flux and steatosis

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Abstract

Steatotic liver disease is common, yet the mechanisms by which hepatocytes cope with surges in
dietary fatty acids remain unclear. Using single-cell tissue imaging (scPhenomics) and spatial
proteomics, we mapped lipid handling across dietary states. Fasting remodeled mitochondria and
lipid droplets (LDs), increasing mitochondria-LD contacts, whereas contacts were infrequent in
Western diet-fed male mice. Fasting also elevated perilipin-5 (PLIN5), a mediator of mitochondria-
LD tethering. PLIN5 overexpression modulated contact formation in a phosphorylation-
dependent manner: the S155A variant enhanced organelle contacts and LD expansion, while the
S155E variant reduced contacts and yielded fewer, smaller LDs. Overexpression of the S155A

variant in WD reduced lipotoxicity. These data reveal an adaptive organelle-interaction program

that channels lipids during nutrient stress and is attenuated by an obesogenic diet. Our work

establishes scPhenomics for spatially resolved cell-state analysis and identifies PLIN5

phosphorylation as a lever to tune hepatocyte lipid flux, suggesting therapeutic potential for

targeting mitochondria-LD coupling.

Introduction

Steatotic liver disease, caused by excessive hepatic lipid buildup, is a common condition

affecting about one-third of adults worldwide [1]. Interestingly, fasting also induces lipid buildup in

the liver due to increased fatty acid (FA) transport from adipose tissue and a concurrent reduction

in Very Low-Density Lipoprotein (VLDL) secretion [2, 3]. However, it remains unclear how

hepatocytes manage this lipid influx during nutrient deprivation and whether these mechanisms

can be harnessed to restore function in steatosis.

The liver plays a central role in regulating lipid metabolism, alternately promoting lipid

oxidation and synthesis depending on nutrient availability. Following a meal, lipids produced by

the liver are sent to adipose tissue for storage. During fasting, FAs stored in adipose tissue are

mobilized to the liver, where they are used to synthesize alternative fuel sources [4]. Notably, in

homeostasis, lipid metabolism is spatially segregated within the liver, with periportal hepatocytes

primarily involved in lipid oxidation and pericentral hepatocytes associated with lipid synthesis [5,

6]. How these different populations of hepatocytes adapt to the influx of lipids observed during

fasting and disease remains poorly understood.

Metabolic flexibility, defined as the ability to sense and respond to changes in nutrient

availability, is crucial for regulating adaptive organ responses [2, 7]. In hepatocytes, this flexibility

depends on the rapid structural reorganization of organelles, which form interconnected

networks known as metabolic sub-compartments. For example, the remodeling of mitochondrial-

LD contacts has been shown to facilitate lipid transfer either for oxidation in the mitochondria or

storage in LD, depending on the cell and tissue type [8, 9]. Perilipin 5 (PLIN5) is one of several

proteins known to facilitate mitochondria-LD interactions [10, 11]. It localizes to LD and recruits

mitochondria via a unique C-terminal region [12-14]. While remodeling of mitochondrial and LD

organization has been shown in liver physiology and disease, its functional outcomes remain

unclear, partly because of challenges in studying these processes in tissues.

In this study, we examined the effects of increased hepatic lipid flux on organelle

organization, focusing on mitochondria and LDs – key organelles that form contact sites to

regulate lipid metabolism [15, 16]. Using a novel single-cell phenotypic profiling (scPhenomics)

approach across different nutritional states, we discovered that mitochondria-LD contact sites

are upregulated throughout the lobules of fasted mice but not in mice fed a short-term WD to

mimic steatotic liver disease. Combined with spatial proteomics, we identified the upregulation

of PLIN5. *In vivo* overexpression of PLIN5 promoted the formation of mitochondria-LD contact

sites in a phosphorylation-dependent manner and increased triglyceride (TG) storage in LDs. In

short-term WD feeding, forming mitochondria-LD contacts protected hepatocytes from

lipotoxicity by channeling potentially harmful free fatty acids (FFA) into LDs. Consistently,

prolonged exposure to WD, in both mouse and human samples, was associated with increased

abundance of mitochondrial-LD interactions. These findings suggest that the dynamic assembly

and disassembly of mitochondria-LD contact sites play a pivotal role in hepatic lipid management

and may offer a therapeutic target.

Results

Mitochondria and LD topologies mirror the spatial zonation of hepatic lipid utilization and

synthesis.

Hepatocytes are organized along sinusoids within the lobule, the functional unit of the

liver (Extended Fig. 1A). Recent studies, including our own, have demonstrated that

mitochondrial morphology, LD content, and lipid metabolism vary across the periportal-

pericentral axis (PP-PC) [17-19]. We mapped organelle topology at single-cell resolution to further

investigate the relationship between organelle structure and lipid metabolism. To this aim,

confocal images of liver sections from transgenic mtDendra2 mice [20] stained with BODIPY and

phalloidin to mark mitochondria, LDs, and cell structure, respectively, were acquired (Fig. 1A).

The orientation of the PP-PC axis was determined using actin labeling of the bile ducts in the

portal triad (Extended Fig. 1B-D). In addition, Dendra2 fluorescent intensity was consistently

higher in PP regions, providing an additional indirect landmark for tissue orientation (Extended

Fig. 1E).

We extracted cellular and organelle features using a custom Python-based workflow

(Python v. 3.10) that employs deep-learning segmentation [21]. The segmented hepatocytes (Fig.

1B) were assigned a spatial coordinate (a value 0-1) by calculating their distance from the central

vein and dividing it by the total PP-PC length (Fig. 1C). The PP-PC axes were manually cropped

(dashed rectangle). Similarly, we segmented organelles and measured geometrical parameters

(such as area, density, sphericity; see Materials and Methods) using the region props function

within the scikit-image [22] and (Fig. 1D). Analysis of eighteen PP-PC axes from three mice showed

an average axis length of 250 microns comprising 12-16 cells per axis (Fig. 1E). To ensure there

was at least one hepatocyte per bin, we divided the PP-PC axes into 12 bins with bin 1 being the

closest to the portal vessels and bin 12, closest to the central vein. Over 80% of the cells analyzed

in the segmented regions were HNF4α hepatocytes (Extended Fig. 1F).

We plotted representative mitochondrial and LD features across the PP-PC axis

(Supplementary data 1). Mitochondria in portal and mid-lobular hepatocytes displayed higher

sphericity (where a value of 1 indicates a perfect sphere) and lower density. In contrast,

pericentral hepatocytes (bins 9-12) exhibited lower sphericity, indicating a more tubular

morphology, along with increased mitochondrial density (Fig. 1F). LDs appeared sparse and small

in the portal regions (bins 1-3). A lower LD abundance persisted through bin 9, followed by a sharp

increase in bins 10-12, reflecting the higher LD content in pericentral hepatocytes (Fig. 1G). The

average LD area gradually increased from bins 3-9 before slightly decreasing in pericentral

regions, where LD numbers were the highest (bins 10-12; Fig. 1G).

To validate that measurements from two-dimensional (2D) sections accurately represent

the three-dimensional (3D) morphology of organelles, we also assessed mitochondrial and LD

features in confocal Z-stacks (Extended Fig. 2). We manually segmented individual hepatocytes

and rendered cell and organelle surfaces using Imaris software (Extended Fig. 2A and B). The

inverse relationship between mitochondrial sphericity and density that we observed in 2D was

confirmed in 3D (Extended Fig. 2C). Similarly, LD features were also zonated along the PP-PC axis

in both 2D and 3D datasets (Extended Fig. 2D). Dimensionality reduction had no impact on

organelle features, showing similar trends in both 2D and 3D. Cell area in the 2D and 3D datasets

is shown (Fig. 1H and Extended Fig. 2E). An illustration summarizing the organelle features

observed in three independent experiments is shown (Extended Fig. 2F).

Next, we examined whether the combination of topological features encoded spatial

signatures. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed by integrating the mitochondrial

and LD features in Supplementary data 1. The analysis showed that neighboring hepatocytes

cluster together (Fig. 1I). Each PCA dot represents the averaged mitochondrial and LD features for

each bin/cell along the PP-PC axis (R1-R12). Three clusters emerged: R1-R3, R4-R10, and R11-R12.

The inclusion of neighboring cells within clusters may reflect overlapping functions (Fig. 1I).

Overall, the single-cell phenotypic profiling (scPhenomics) of mitochondria and LDs

efficiently used 2D datasets, allowing faster data acquisition, larger sample sizes, and automated

analysis. This novel scPhenomics approach recapitulates spatial signatures associated with the

functional dichotomy of lipid oxidation versus synthesis/storage, potentially defining the hepatic

zones responsible for lipid handling.

Increased lipid flux rewires organelle circuits in the zonated liver.

To examine how increased hepatic lipid influx impacts organelle features, we subjected

mtDendra2 mice to different dietary conditions: control diet (CNTR), fasting overnight (16 hours),

or fed a WD for four weeks. Liver sections were stained with BODIPY and phalloidin to label LDs

and cell structure, respectively, followed by scPhenomics workflow analysis (Fig. 2A-C;

Supplementary data 1).

Fasting leads to hepatic lipid accumulation due to increased lipid influx from adipose

tissue. As expected, LD content increased across the entire lobule (Fig. 2B). While LD size

remained relatively uniform, the number of LDs was higher in pericentral (PC) hepatocytes.

Mitochondria in periportal (PP) and mid-lobular regions appeared longer and thicker (Fig. 2B,

insets). Notably, long and thick mitochondria frequently wrapped around LDs, forming extensive

contact sites between the two organelles (Fig. 2B, insets). However, a subset of mitochondria

within each hepatocyte retained spherical morphology and did not interact with LDs (Fig. 2B

arrowheads).

Dietary lipid influx also leads to hepatic lipid accumulation in WD-fed mice. Four weeks of

Western diet (WD) consumption was sufficient to induce simple steatosis (Extended Fig. 3A)

without causing lobular inflammation or hepatocellular ballooning (Extended Fig. 3A). To rule out

the possibility that de novo lipogenesis (DNL) was activated [23, 24], we examined the expression of

DNL enzymes and transcription factors (Extended Fig. 3C). Increased lipid influx due to fasting led

to transcriptional inhibition, as previously reported [24]. However, four weeks of WD feeding had

no effect on expression levels, suggesting that steatosis in WD-fed mice was due to esterification

of dietary lipids to form LDs. One exception was the expression levels of stearoyl-CoA desaturase

1 (SCD1) (Extended Fig. 3C). SCD1 activity is crucial for TG packaging and LD expansion [25, 26], which

may represent an adaptive response to lipid excess.

Although WD-fed mice accumulated LD throughout the lobule, their size, number, and

distribution differed markedly from those in fasted mice (compare Fig. 2B and C). Specifically, LDs

in PP and mid-lobular hepatocytes were larger than those in PC regions. The WD-fed mice had

more spherical mitochondria with reduced LD interactions (Fig. 2C). Overall, increased exogenous

lipid flux, whether through fasting or WD, triggered distinct remodeling of both LDs and

mitochondria. Employing scPhenomics allowed for precise quantification of organelle features

across different zones and dietary conditions (Fig. 2D and E). Notably, most features were

influenced by both the spatial positioning of the cells and the dietary intervention. This supports

the notion that LD and mitochondrial features encode spatial morphological signatures of

zonation, providing insights into the cellular metabolic state.

Next, we integrated topological features from mitochondria and LDs to assess how spatial

signatures changed in response to dietary perturbation. When plotted on a 2D PCA, hepatocytes

from CNTR, fasted, and WD-fed mice formed tightly packed clusters, highlighting the significant

impact of dietary state on organelle topology (Fig. 3A). Incorporating a third component into the

analysis further increased the spatial diversity within each dietary group. This demonstrates the

distinct remodeling of organelles that depends on both the spatial positioning of the cell and the

metabolic state (Fig. 3B). We used a dendrogram combined with a heatmap to further examine

the information encoded by organelle features. This approach uses unsupervised clustering to

group mitochondria and LD average features based on similarity. The resulting heatmaps reveal

distinct spatial patterns of organelle features under different nutritional conditions. CNTR-fed

hepatocytes clustered into roughly three groups, consistent with the PCA data and potentially

representing three zones. In contrast, fasted and WD-fed hepatocytes clustered into at least two

groups of neighboring cells (Fig. 3C).

To examine how individual cells along the PP-PC axis (R1-R12) respond to either fasting or

WD, Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated, and the pairwise correlations are shown in

the heatmap (Fig. 3D). Compared with organelles from CNTR-fed cells, fasted organelles showed

low correlation coefficient values (light-dark purple), indicating that fasting induces extensive

remodeling of LD and mitochondria architecture. Conversely, organelle features from WD-fed

livers exhibited a high correlation with the corresponding features from the CNTR diet, indicating

low organelle remodeling in WD-fed livers. However, a subset of PP hepatocytes (R1-R3) was

significantly affected by WD, as demonstrated by the low coefficient values when compared with

CNTR.

Of the features we measured, mitochondria-LD contacts were significantly affected by

fasting and WD (Fig. 2). The distribution of mitochondria-LD contacts across the lobule and diet

is shown in Fig. 3E. In the CNTR diet, LD content was low and localized to PC hepatocytes (Fig.

1G), consistent with the absence of mitochondria-LD overlapping pixels in PP and mid-lobular

regions (R1-R8), and relatively low pixel overlap in PC regions. Conversely, fasting dramatically

increased the overlapping pixels throughout the lobule, except for R11 and R12 in PC regions. In

contrast, WD-fed mice exhibited only a modest increase in overlapping pixels, with values similar

to those measured in PC regions of CNTR-fed mice (Fig. 3E). The heightened LD-mitochondria

interactions in response to fasting and the significant reduction of these interactions in WD-fed

mice were relatively uniform across the lobule.

Comparative proteomics of sorted hepatocytes from fed and fasted mice

To identify candidates that mediate mitochondria-LD interactions, we performed spatial

proteomics. PP and PC hepatocytes were enriched from four ad-lib-fed CNTR and overnight-fasted

mice using surface markers and fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS, as previously described

[18]). The sorted hepatocytes and unsorted total control were subjected to tandem mass tag (TMT)-

based quantitative mass spectrometry for total proteome analysis. Out of 4,999 proteins

identified, 1,865 (37%) in CNTR-fed mice and 1,734 (35%) in fasted mice exhibited zonation

(Supplementary data 2). PCA analysis shows clustering of the spatially sorted hepatocytes is

influenced by their lobular position (PP or PC) and the diet (fed or fasted) (Extended Fig. 4A).

Plotting of the PC/PP ratios in CNTR-fed or fasted hepatocytes shows that sorting of hepatocytes

was not influenced by fasting (Extended Fig. 4B and C).

The fasting response in the two hepatocyte populations was examined using volcano plots

(Fig. 4A). A significant overlap was observed between PP and PC hepatocytes in both upregulated

and downregulated proteins. For example, the mitophagy receptor BNIP3, which is enriched in

PC regions [18, 27, 28], was upregulated in both PP and PC hepatocytes during fasting, consistent with

increased mitophagy under these conditions. Notably, over half of the PP and PC proteomes

remained unchanged in response to fasting, suggesting that zonation is largely preserved during

nutritional stress, with only a subset of the proteome undergoing remodeling (Extended Fig. 4D).

Pathway analysis revealed that many regulated pathways are common to PP and PC hepatocytes

and were linked to mitochondrial function and lipid metabolism (Extended Fig. 4E).

In ad-libitum CNTR diet-fed mice, many hepatic lipid pathways (summarized in Fig. 4B) are

zonated, as shown by the nonuniform expression of key enzymes (Fig. 4C). In response to fasting,

lipid pathway proteins were either upregulated or downregulated throughout the lobule (Fig. 4C

compares PP and PC in the fasted state). As expected, the expression of proteins involved in FA

and cholesterol synthesis was largely reduced during nutrient deprivation. An exception was

observed in proteins involved in TG synthesis, an anabolic process that paradoxically increases

during fasting [29]. This likely facilitates the temporary storage of the excess free FA in LDs to prevent

lipotoxicity. Additionally, proteins involved in catabolic processes, such as FA lipolysis, oxidation,

and ketogenesis, were also upregulated (Fig. 4C).

To understand how mitochondria-LD contacts form in the fasted liver, we examined the

expression of proteins involved in mediating these interactions. In the fed liver, PP-PC zonation

observed in the expression of proteins related to mitochondrial dynamics and LD formation (Fig.

4D and E, compare PP and PC columns in fed mice) may be related to the differences in

mitochondrial topology and LD content (Fig. 1F and G). For instance, proteins associated with

mitochondrial biogenesis were highly expressed in PP hepatocytes, consistent with our previous

findings of greater mitochondrial mass in PP regions [18]. In response to fasting, many of these

proteins were upregulated, aligning with the extensive remodeling observed using scPhenomics

(Figs. 2 and 3). Notably, the LD coat protein, PLIN5, was significantly upregulated in the fasted

liver (Fig. 4E). Indeed, basal PLIN5 levels in livers from CNTR and WD-fed mice were comparable

but doubled in response to fasting (Fig. 4F). Additionally, endogenous PLIN5 localized to the

mitochondria-LD interface in fasted mice (Extended Fig. 5A). In summary, in homeostasis (i.e.,

fed mice), conflicting metabolic processes are spatially separated at the protein level. However,

in fasting, only the essential metabolic processes are upregulated and carried out by all

hepatocytes.

To determine if mitochondria-LD interactions can be remodeled in WD-fed mice, we fasted

(overnight) WD-fed mice. Mitochondria-LD interactions were quantified using co-localization

analysis in Imaris software (Extended Fig. 5B-C). Fasting induced mitochondrial elongation and

enhanced mitochondria-LD interactions in both the fasted and WD-fasted mice. Notably, LD size

increased, with larger droplets observed in fasted WD-fed mice, suggesting that mitochondria-LD

contact sites may facilitate channeling lipids for storage in LDs (Extended Fig. 5B). While 4-week

WD feeding causes steatosis, organelle dynamics remain functional and responsive to fasting,

making it a valuable experimental model for manipulation.

Mitochondria-LD contact sites promote LD expansion in fed mice

To investigate the functional role of mitochondria-LD contact sites, we overexpressed

PLIN5 in the mouse liver, using an AAV8 viral vector. Age-matched mice were fed either CNTR or

WD for two weeks, followed by the overexpression of PLIN5 variants. Specifically, these included

the WT PLIN5, a truncated version lacking the mitochondria binding domain (PLIN5 CΔ (1-424)),

and two phosphorylation mutants: a phospho-null (PLIN5 S155A) and a phospho-mimetic (PLIN5

S155E). Four weeks following the viral transduction, liver tissue and serum samples were

collected for microscopy and biochemical analysis (Fig. 5A and Supplementary Fig. 1).

Next, we assessed the impact of PLIN5 overexpression on LDs and mitochondria

morphologies using scPhenomics. Representative images of PP, mid-lobular (M), and PC

hepatocytes from mice fed a CNTR diet are shown in Fig. 5B (corresponding whole lobule images

in Extended Fig. 6). When compared to null, the overexpression of WT PLIN5 caused only minor

changes in LD size without changing their overall lobular distribution. However, WT PLIN5

overexpression significantly affected mitochondrial morphology. Hepatocytes 1-6 showed an

increased circularity index (spherical morphology), whereas hepatocytes 7-12 exhibited a lower

circularity index (tubular; Fig. 5D comparing WT PLIN5 with the control null). Hepatocytes

overexpressing PLIN5 S155A displayed elongated mitochondria closely associated with large LDs

throughout the lobule, despite being fed the CNTR diet. In contrast, hepatocytes expressing PLIN5

S155E had fewer, smaller, and more sparsely distributed LDs (Fig. 5C). Mitochondria in these cells

were predominantly spherical, with a reduced mitochondria area (Fig. 5D). Overexpression of the

truncated PLIN5 CΔ (1-424) variant, which lacks the mitochondria binding domain, did not affect

mitochondrial morphology but led to the formation of small LDs throughout the lobule, likely due

to a dominant negative effect on lipolysis [30]. Lastly, when comparing the ability of PLIN5 variants

to promote mitochondria-LD interactions, PLIN5 S155A demonstrated the most pronounced

effect across the entire lobule (Fig. 5E). Together, these findings suggest that PLIN5-mediated

mitochondria-LD contact sites promote lipid storage in a phosphorylation-dependent manner.

Mitochondria-LD contacts mitigate oxidative stress induced by 4-week feeding of WD

We examined the influence of PLIN5 overexpression on mitochondria-LD interactions in

WD-fed mice. Representative images from PP, M, and PC hepatocytes are shown in Fig. 6A

(corresponding whole lobule images, Extended Fig. 7A). Overexpression of WT PLIN5 in WD-fed

mice noticeably affected mitochondria length, similar to that observed in the CNTR diet-fed mice.

However, under these conditions, mitochondria-LD contact sites appeared more frequently than

in CNTR diet-fed mice (Fig. 6A, comparing WT and null). In hepatocytes expressing PLIN5 S155A,

mitochondria-LD contacts were observed throughout the lobule. In contrast, hepatocytes

expressing PLIN5 S155E displayed mitochondria that were round and that rarely wrapped around

LDs (Fig. 6A). In addition, the LD content in tissues expressing WT PLIN5 and PLIN5 S155E was

lower when compared with PLIN5 S155A (Extended Fig. 7A). As expected, the truncated variant,

PLIN5 CΔ (1-424), failed to recruit mitochondria to LDs. Together, the phenotypes induced by

overexpression of PLIN5 variants in the CNTR diet were consistent with those observed in WD.

Furthermore, in both CNTR and WD, PLIN5 S155A and S155E variants impacted mitochondrial

morphology and facilitated the assembly and disassembly of mitochondria-LD contacts,
respectively (Fig. 6A and B).

Next, we examined how the overexpression of PLIN5 variants in mice fed either CNTR or
WD affected whole body and liver physiology. WD-fed mice gained significant weight compared
to those on the CNTR diet. Overexpression of PLIN5 variants had no additional effect on body
weight, serum cholesterol, and FFA (Extended Fig. 7B, D, and E). However, the increase in serum
glucose levels, caused by WD, was significantly reduced in mice expressing the PLIN5 S155E
variant (Extended Fig. 7C). Tissue TG levels in PLIN5 S155A-expressing mice on WD were higher
than those measured in null-expressing mice (Fig. 6C). This is consistent with the idea that
mitochondria-LD contact sites promote TG storage in LDs. Consistently, although FFA levels
reached saturation in WD-fed mice, the difference between CNTR-fed and WD-fed mice was
greater in PLIN5 S155E, supporting higher lipolysis activity (Fig. 6D). These results support the
hypothesis that mitochondria-LD interactions facilitate lipid storage.

The rise in TG levels resulted from the esterification of dietary FAs to form TG, rather than
activation of DNL, as expression levels of lipogenesis enzymes, at both the RNA and protein levels,
were unchanged, nor the phosphorylation status of key enzymes (Extended Fig. 8). However, WD
and the overexpression of PLIN5 variants had an additive effect on SCD1 expression, which was
not observed in CNTR diet-fed mice (Extended Fig. 8A). SCD1 converts saturated FAs into
monounsaturated FAs (MUFAs), a crucial step in the synthesis and storage of TGs within LDs.
Because upregulation of SCD1 was observed in PLIN5 S155A, S155E, and CΔ (1-424) variants, but
only S155A displayed mitochondria-LD contact, larger LDs, and higher TG levels. The MUFAs
produced by SCD1 may cooperate with PLIN5 S155E to upregulate oxidative genes and smaller
LDs, as previously shown [15, 31]. We conclude that mitochondria-LD interactions promoted the
incorporation of excess dietary lipids into TG and storage in LDs.

Excess FAs in WD cause oxidative stress and damage to membranes, leading to hepatocyte
injury and inflammation [32-34]. We hypothesized that mitochondria-LD interactions reduce
lipotoxicity by promoting the storage of excess FFA. To test this, we measured NADP/NADPH
levels, reduced glutathione (GSH), and Malondialdehyde (MDA). The measured values were $\log_2$-
transformed and analyzed in R using the limma package. For each assay, a linear model was fit

with diet (CNTR vs. WD) and PLIN5 variant as factors. Two contrasts were tested: 1) Assessing

within-variant the influence of the WD by comparing WD samples to the mean of the CNTR diet

(i.e., whether the linear WD/CNTR fold change differs from 1) and 2) Assessing whether the WD

effect in each variant differed from that in the null group. This comparison reveals if the

magnitude of the PLIN5 variant WD/CNTR diet change significantly deviates from the change in

the null WD/CNTR diet.

Four weeks of WD feeding led to a significant increase in MDA, a reporter for lipid

peroxidation, in null control mice (Fig. 6E). Although the MDA levels were significantly higher in

all WD-fed, PLIN5 variants overexpressing mice, only PLIN5 S155A levels were significantly lower

than the null control, suggesting that mitochondria-LD contact reduce lipid peroxidation (Fig. 6E).

An opposite trend was measured with the redox state indicator NADP/NADPH. Four weeks of WD

feeding resulted in lower NADP/NADPH levels in null, WT, and S155A variants. However, the

S155E had significantly higher NADP/NADPH levels compared with null, indicating an oxidative,

potentially damaging environment (Fig. 6F). Lastly, reduced glutathione serves as an antioxidant,

alleviating oxidative stress. Levels of GSH were significantly lower in PLIN5 S155E, consistent with

a more oxidizing and potentially harmful environment (Fig. 6G). Collectively, by sequestering

excess FA into LDs, mitochondria-LD interactions mitigate cellular damage caused by the

overabundance of FFAs.

Mitochondria-LD contacts are associated with higher lipid content in mice and humans

To investigate whether mitochondria-LD interactions are associated with lipid buildup

over time, mtDentra2 mice were fed a WD for 4, 8, and 12 weeks. Liver sections were labeled,

imaged, and analyzed with scPhenomics. Mitochondria-LD contacts were more frequent after 12

weeks on WD (Extended Fig. 9A-B). Following 12 weeks of WD feeding, LD total area increased,

and mitochondria became tubular, indicated by lower circularity values (Extended Fig. 9C). PLIN5

expression, however, was unchanged (Extended Fig. 9D).

The association between mitochondria-LD contacts was also examined in the human liver.

Histopathology was performed on twelve liver biopsies from healthy donors (10 females and 2

males; cohort description in Materials and Methods). Steatosis in the samples is incidental, of

unknown origin, and reflects the prevalence of steatosis in the population. The samples were

divided into three groups based on lipid content (Fig. 7A-B). To examine mitochondria-LD

interactions, liver sections were stained to label mitochondria and LD (Fig. 7C). High-resolution z-

stacks of PP and PC hepatocytes were captured, and cellular and organelle surfaces were

rendered using Imaris software (Fig. 7D). Although no significant difference was observed in the

number of LD per cell (Fig. 7F), the volume distribution of LDs in the "mild" group was notably

higher (Fig. 7G), as was the extent of mitochondria-LD colocalization per cell (Fig. 7H). Despite the

limited sample size, the expression levels of PLIN5 were higher in livers with higher lipid content,

consistent with mitochondria-LD interactions (Fig. 7I). These findings establish a correlation

between lipid content and mitochondria-LD interactions, as well as their remodeling over the

course of chronic WD exposure.

Discussion

This study examined how increased lipid flux affects the structure, organization, and

function of organelles across different liver zones. We developed an imaging-based technique

with a single-cell resolution to interrogate organelle topology in the native tissue environment.

Applying scPhenomics to map changes in organelles, we identified distinct zonal patterns that

depend on nutritional status. To our knowledge, using organelle features as classifiers of function

has mainly been applied to cells in culture. This phenotypic profiling offers novel insights into liver

zonation and organelle interactions, highlighting their functional roles in tissue adaptation to

metabolic cues. Our study also highlights the utility of scPhenomics in identifying spatially

relevant phenotypes that can be integrated with other single-cell methods [19, 35, 36].

One prominent structural adaptation we identified was the remodeling of mitochondria-

LD contact sites in response to nutritional stress. In fasted livers, mitochondria-LD contacts

spanned the lobule, while in WD-fed tissues, they were scarce (Fig. 2B-C and 3E). These

differences link mitochondrial-LD interactions with lipid metabolism, consistent with prior studies

linking them with lipid oxidation or storage [37-40]. We show that mitochondria-LD contacts facilitate

FA esterification to form TG for storage, thereby reducing lipotoxicity by confining potentially

harmful FFA in LDs. This explains the high abundance of mitochondria-LD interactions in the

fasted liver (Fig. 2B). The absence of mitochondria-LD interactions in short-term WD-fed mice is

consistent with inefficient storage of FFA in LDs, which contribute to inflammation and cell

damage. To examine this mechanistically, we identified proteins involved in mitochondria-LD

interactions using spatial proteomics.

The LD coat protein, PLIN5, was upregulated in the fasted liver. On the surface of LDs,

PLIN5 inhibits lipolysis by directly binding to Adipose Triglyceride Lipase (ATGL), thus indirectly

promoting LD expansion [30]. During fasting, however, Protein Kinase A (PKA) phosphorylates PLIN5

on S155, facilitating the release of FAs via lipolysis [15, 31, 38]. We found that *in vivo* overexpression

of PLIN5 S155A promoted extensive mitochondrial-LD interactions, increased TG content, and

enlarged LD size. Conversely, mitochondria did not interact with LD in PLIN5 S155E-overexpressing

livers, consistent with the dissociation of PLIN5 and the utilization of FAs. Interestingly, in starved

myoblasts, PLIN5 phosphorylation promotes FA transport into the mitochondria for oxidation

rather than storage in LDs [39]. These findings suggest that PLIN5-mediated mitochondrial-LD

contacts direct lipid flux differently across cell types and nutritional states. We were unable to

measure the direction of FA transfer in the current study due to the challenges of performing this

assay *in vivo*. Further experiments are needed to fully elucidate the regulatory mechanisms across

organ systems and nutritional states.

Several studies have reported that fasting induces the formation of the mitochondria-LD

contact site [2, 3]. Interestingly, mitochondria-LD contact sites have also been reported in mice fed

a high-fat diet and in genetic mouse models of obesity [17, 41]. While we detected mitochondria-LD

contacts in fasted mice, we did not initially observe them in short-term WD-fed mice. Extending

WD feeding in mice was accompanied by a rise in mitochondria-LD interactions (Extended Fig. 9).

In the healthy human liver, higher mitochondria-LD colocalization was observed in livers with

higher lipid content, which was also associated with higher PLIN5 expression (Fig. 7D-H). Overall,

our results show that mitochondria-LD contacts are remodeled over time, consistent with the

progressive nature of steatotic liver disease [42, 43]

During short-term WD exposure, mitochondria-LD contacts protect from oxidative stress.

Overexpression of PLIN5 S155A reduced lipid peroxidation and improved redox imbalance, while

PLIN5 S155E worsens these effects (Fig. 6E-G). Increasing PLIN5 benefits lipid and glucose

regulation, promoting cellular health [14, 44, 45]. We propose that fasting-related lipid influx remodels

mitochondria-LD contacts to support storage and prevent lipotoxicity, whereas in nutrient excess,

this adaptive response is disrupted, leading to harmful lipid buildup. Notably, PLIN5 S155A

overexpression in WD-fed mice reduces damage by channeling FFA into LDs. However, prolonged

WD exposure may turn mitochondria-LD contacts into contributors to disease progression (Fig. 7,

Extended Fig. 10). Because FFA levels are not significantly reduced by PLIN5 overexpression, it is

plausible that PLIN5 overexpression protects against lipotoxicity via an alternative mechanism.

Furthermore, our study supports the notion that PLIN5-mediated contacts promote FFA

esterification; however, it remains inconclusive whether mitochondria attached to lipid droplets

contribute to DNL. Additional experiments are needed to determine whether dissociation of

mitochondrial-LD interactions can reverse and prevent disease progression. Supporting this is a

recent study showing PLIN5 deletion protects against MASLD [46]. Overall, these findings highlight

the critical role of dynamic contact sites in lipid management and cellular health (Fig. 8).

Lipid-related pathways are compartmentalized across different organelles [17, 47, 48]. Fasting

led to the upregulation of proteins involved in membrane contact sites, indicating enhanced

organelle interactions (Fig. 4E). This suggests rewiring of organelle-organelle interactions beyond

mitochondria and LDs [5, 38]. Notably, Mitofusin 2 (Mfn2) and Mitoguardin 2 (MIGA2), both of which

localize to the ER, facilitate lipid transfer between mitochondria and the ER, and subsequently

store lipids in LDs [49, 50]. Since the ER plays a key role in lipid metabolism and glycemic control, the

benefits of PLIN5 S155A overexpression in high-fat diet mice likely involve ER-mediated processes.

Future studies involving scPhenomics could deepen understanding of these organelle interactions

[37, 51, 52].

The study underscores the critical role of mitochondrial morphology and organelle

interactions in metabolic flexibility. In the fed state, mitochondrial subpopulations facilitate lipid

oxidation and storage in PP and PC, respectively [38, 40, 53]. Nutritional stress, such as fasting, triggers

a unified mitochondrial response across the liver, driven by PLIN5 modulation, enabling

simultaneous lipid oxidation to support ketogenesis and temporary storage in LD to avoid

damage. These dynamic interactions are vital for metabolic adaptation and may be disrupted in

chronic liver disease, influencing liver cancer development [27, 54].

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Figure legends

Figure 1. LD and mitochondrial topology define zones in the lobule. (A) Confocal image of a liver

lobule from mtDendra2 (green) transgenic mouse. Actin was labeled with phalloidin (yellow), and

lipid droplets with LipidTox (magenta). A representative PP-PC axis is marked with a dotted

rectangle. **(B)** Segmentation of hepatocytes guided by actin and mitochondria labeling. **(C)** Color

map representing the spatial positioning of hepatocytes based on their distance from the central

vein. Scale bar 100μm. **(D)** Segmentation of lipid droplets and mitochondria within cells. Scale bar

5μm. **(E)** Quantification of PP-PC axis length and number of hepatocytes per axis. Data presented

as mean ± SD from 18 PP-PC axes analyzed from three mice (Supplementary data 1). Statistical

significance was calculated using a two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test. **(F-H)** Quantification of

morphological features, including mitochondrial sphericity, mitochondrial density, LD count, and

LD area. **(H)** Quantification of average hepatocyte cell area across the PP-PC axis. **(I)** Principal

Component Analysis plot of hepatocyte (R1-R12) clustering. Data presented as mean ± SD.

Extended Figure 1. Anatomical landmarks guide tissue orientation in scPhenomics. (A)

Anatomical organization of the mouse liver lobule. The model was created with Biorender.com.

Representative confocal images of whole lobule (left), PP-PC axes (middle), and close-up on PP

hepatocytes (right), from mtDendra2 transgenic mice fed a control (CNTR) diet **(B)**, overnight

fasted **(C)**, or Western Diet (WD) **(D)**. Mitochondria are shown in green, actin was labeled with

phalloidin (yellow), LDs were labeled with LipidTox (magenta), and the PP marker E-cadherin is

shown in cyan. Arrowheads point at actin-rich structures in the portal regions that also label with

E-cadherin. Scale bar 100 μm. **(E)** mtDendra2 fluorescence intensity is shown across space and

dietary conditions. Data is presented as mean ± SD from 18 PP-PC axes analyzed from three mice

(Supplementary data 1). **(F)** Liver sections from Dendra2 mice fed, fasted, or WD-fed were labeled

with DAPI (white), HNT4a (red), and actin (yellow). The proportion of hepatocytes (HNF4a^{+}/DAPI[+]

cells) across three PP-PC axes was calculated. PV: portal vein; CV: central vein; PP: periportal; PC:

pericentral; LD: Lipid droplets

Extended Figure 2. Single-cell analysis of LD and mitochondrial structure in 3D. (A)

Representative projection of a z-stack from mtDendra2 mice showing mitochondria (green), LDs

(magenta), and actin (yellow). Scale bar 10 μm. **(B)** 3D surfaces depicting mitochondria (green),

LDs (magenta), and actin (yellow) at single-cell resolution. Cells are numbered 1 to 12 along the

PP-PC axis. Scale bar 2 μm. **(C)** Analysis of mitochondrial sphericity and density. **(D)** Analysis of LD

volume and count. **(E)** Analysis of cell volume. **(F)** Schematic representation of mitochondria and

LDs phenotypes along the PP-PC axis. The schematic was created with Biorender.com. A

representative lobule is shown; similar trends were observed in 3 independent experiments. PV:

portal vein; CV: central vein; LD: lipid droplet.

Figure 2. Increased lipid flux induces rewiring of LD and mitochondria circuits. (A-C)

Representative confocal images of PP-PC axes from mtDendra2 transgenic mice fed control

(CNTR) diet, overnight fasted or Western Diet (WD). Mitochondria are shown in green, actin was

labeled with phalloidin (yellow), and lipid droplets were labeled with LipidTox (magenta). Per

condition, representative PP and PC cells are shown in enlarged insets. Scale bar 5μm **(D-E)** LD

and mitochondria features, including area (total and average per cell), count, circularity, intensity,

perimeter, minimal distance, and density, are shown across space and dietary conditions.

scPhenomics data is presented as mean ± SD from 18 PP-PC axes analyzed from three mice

(Supplementary data 1). PV: portal vein; CV: central vein; PP: periportal; PC: pericentral; LD: Lipid

droplets

Extended Figure 3. Hepatic steatosis and DNL in short-term WD feeding. (A) Confocal images of

liver sections from C57BL/6J mice fed either a CNTR or WD, as indicated. LDs were labeled with

LipidTox (white). **(B)** Liver sections from mice fed either CNTR or WD for 4 weeks stained with

H&E. Scale bar 100 μm. **(C)** Relative expression levels of lipogenesis enzymes (Fasn, Acaca, Acly,

Scd1) and transcription factors (Srebp1c, ChREBP, and LXRa) in control diet (CNTR), fasted, or 4-

week WD-fed mice. Data are presented as mean ± SD from n=5 independent experiments.

Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA, with a Bonferroni post hoc test

was employed to correct for multiple comparisons. LD: lipid droplets; PP: periportal; PC:

pericentral; CNTR: control; WD: Western diet; DNL: de novo lipid synthesis.

Figure 3. scPhenomics informs of cellular states and zonation of lipid metabolism

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) plots of single-cell organelle features (R1-R12) under

different dietary conditions in **(A)** two dimensions (2D) and **(B)** three dimensions (3D). **(C)**

Heatmap showing single-cell (R1-R12) organelle features under different dietary conditions. **(D)**

Correlation Matrix Heatmap of organelle features under different dietary conditions. **(E)** Heat

map of mitochondria and LDs overlapping pixels across the PP-PC axis (R1-R12) and diets. All plots

were created with data in Supplementary data 1.

Figure 4. Fasting-induced remodeling of the hepatic proteome in spatially sorted hepatocytes

(A) Volcano plot showing the PP or PC, fast-to-fed log2 fold-change (x-axis), and the -log10 p-value

(y-axis) for identified proteins. Color coding highlighting significance based on p-value and fold

change. Proteomics data were analyzed using the Limma R package (version 3.40.6). **(B)** Lipid

pathways in hepatocytes. The schematic was created with Biorender.com. **(C-E)** Heatmaps of

proteins involved in lipid metabolic pathways **(C)**, mitochondrial dynamics and structure **(D)**,

mitochondria-LD interactions, and LD formation **(E)** across PP and PC sorted hepatocytes from fed

and fasted mice. Heatmap values were derived from the means of three independent

experiments and normalized to the total protein expression in livers from fed mice. (**F**) Western

blot analysis of PLIN5 levels under different dietary conditions. Statistical significance was

calculated using two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test from n=5 independent experiments.

Extended Figure 4. Comparative proteomics of spatially sorted hepatocytes. (A) Principal

component analysis (PCA) of spatially sorted hepatocytes from fed (n=4 mice) and fasted mice

(n=3 mice). Volcano plot showing the PC to PP log2 fold-change (x-axis) and the -log10 p-value (y-

axis) for identified proteins in fed **(B)** and fasted **(C)**. PP and PC proteins are shown in red and blue

in fed, or light red and light blue in the fasted mice, respectively. **(D)** Venn diagram illustrating PP

or PC signature proteins in fed and fasted mice. **(E)** GO enrichment analysis for the proteomics

data in the spatially sorted cells.

Extended Figure 5. Fasting induces mitochondria-LD interactions. (A) Confocal images of liver

sections from mtDendra2 (green) transgenic mice fed control, WD, or overnight fasted or WD-

fed-overnight fasted. LDs were labeled with Lipidtox (magenta) and actin with phalloidin (yellow).

Colocalization between mitochondria and LD is shown in white. Scale bar 3μm. **(B)** Mitochondria-

LD colocalization was quantified as the overlapping pixels normalized to the area under different

dietary conditions. Data presented as mean ± SD from n=5 independent experiments. Statistical

significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA and Bonferroni correction for multiple

comparisons. **(C)** Localization of endogenous PLIN5 in liver sections from fed and fasted Dendra2

mice. WD: western diet; LD: lipid droplets.

Figure 5. Mitochondria-LD contacts promote LD expansion. (A) Experimental design schematic.

(B) Representative confocal images of periportal (PP), mid-lobular (M), and pericentral (PC)

hepatocytes from mtDendra2 (green) mice fed a control diet (CNTR) and overexpressing PLIN5

variants. Actin is labeled with phalloidin (yellow), and LDs are labeled with LipidTox (magenta).

Scale bar 5μm. **(C)** scPhenomics of LD features, including total area, density, and count, across the

PP-PC axis from mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants. **(D)** scPhenomics of mitochondrial features,

including area and circularity, across the PP-PC axis from mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants.

scPhenomics data is presented as mean ± SD from 12 PP-PC axes analyzed from two mice. **(E)** Heat

map of mitochondria and LDs overlapping pixels across the PP-PC axis (R1-R12) from mice

overexpressing PLIN5 variants.

Extended Figure 6. *In vivo* remodeling of mitochondria-LDs interactions using PLIN5 variants

overexpression. (A) Representative confocal images of liver sections from control (CNTR) diet-fed

mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants. Images show mitochondria (green), LDs (magenta), and actin

(yellow). Scale bar 20 μm. PV: portal vein; CV: central vein. WT: wild type.

Figure 6. Mitochondria-LD contacts promote lipid storage, reducing WD-induced lipotoxicity.

(A) Representative confocal images of periportal (PP), mid-lobular (M), and pericentral (PC)

hepatocytes from mtDendra2 (green) mice fed a Western Diet (WD) and overexpressing PLIN5

variants. Actin is labeled with phalloidin (yellow), and LDs are labeled with LipidTox (magenta).

Scale bar 5μm. **(B)** Heat map of mitochondria and LDs overlapping pixels across the PP-PC axis

(R1-R12) from WD-fed mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants. Triglyceride **(C)** and free fatty acids

(FFA) **(D)** were measured in the livers of mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants, fed either CNTR or

WD. Statistical significance was calculated with two-way ANOVA and Tukey's test to correct for

multiple comparisons. Data presented as mean ± SD from $n = 10$ independent experiments.

Malondialdehyde (MDA) **(E)**, NADP/NADPH **(F)**, and reduced glutathione (GSH) **(G)** were

measured in the livers of mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants, fed either CNTR or WD. Values are

presented as WD/CNTR diet ratios. For each assay, a linear model was fit with diet (CNTR vs.

WD) and genotype as factors. WD effect for each variant was compared to the Null group.

Within each variant group, WD was compared with the mean CNTR diet to test if different

from 1 (*q<0.15; **q<0.01; ***q<0.01). Moderated t-statistics and associated p-values were

obtained using empirical Bayes shrinkage (eBayes). Multiple testing correction was applied

across assays using the Benjamini–Hochberg method, and adjusted p-values (q-values) are

reported.

Extended Figure 7. Overexpression of PLIN5 variants in WD-fed mice. (A) Representative

confocal images of liver sections from Western Diet (WD)-fed mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants.

Images show mitochondria (green), LDs (magenta), and actin (yellow). Scale bar 20 μm. **(B)**

Weight gain in mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants and fed CNTR or WD (n=10 mice per diet).

Serum FA **(C)**, cholesterol **(D),** and glucose **(E)** levels in mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants and

fed CNTR or WD (n=5 per diet). Data presented as mean ± SD, statistical significance was

calculated with two-way ANOVA and Tukey's test to correct for multiple comparisons. PV: portal

vein; CV: central vein; WT: wild type. CNTR: control; WD: western diet; FA: fatty acid.

Extended Figure 8. The effect of PLIN5 variants and WD on DNL. (A) Relative expression of mRNA

levels of lipogenesis enzymes Fatty acid synthase (Fasn), Acetyl-CoA carboxylase 1 (Acaca), ATP

citrate lyase (Acly), Stearoyl-CoA desaturase-1 (Scd1) in mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants fed a

control diet (CNTR), or 4-week WD-fed. Data presented as mean ± SD from n=5 independent

experiments. Statistical significance was calculated using a two-way ANOVA and Tukey's test to

correct for multiple comparisons. **(B)** Fatty acid synthase (FASN) expression levels in mice

overexpressing PLIN5 variants and fed CNTR or WD (n=10 mice per diet). **(C)** Relative

phosphorylated Acetyl-CoA carboxylase 1 (ACC1) and phosphorylated hormone-sensitive lipase

(HSL) in mice overexpressing PLIN5 variants fed a control diet (CNTR), or 4-week WD-fed. Data

presented as mean ± SD from n=10 independent experiments. Statistical significance was

calculated using a two-way ANOVA and Tukey's test to correct for multiple comparisons.

Representative Western blots are shown. DNL: de novo lipid synthesis; PV: portal vein; CV: central

vein; WT: wild type. CNTR: control; WD: western diet.

Figure 7. Mitochondria-LD contacts are associated with higher lipid content in the human liver.

(A) Histopathological summary of 12 healthy liver samples. Color coding indicates grouping based

on the degree of steatosis. **(B)** Oil-red-o staining of a representative individual from each group.

(C) Immunofluorescence staining of mitochondria (green), LDs (magenta), actin (yellow), and GS

(white) in a liver section from a representative individual with minimal or mild steatosis. **(D)**

Volume rendering of mitochondria (green), LDs (magenta), and actin (yellow) in a representative

PP and PC hepatocytes from patients with minimal or mild steatosis. Colocalizing pixels are shown

in white. Quantification of LD count per cell **(E)**, LD volume **(F)**, colocalization **(G)**, and PLIN5

expression levels **(H).** Data presented as mean ± SD from n=3 (none); n=2 (minimal); and n=3

(mild) patients. Each dot in E-G represents a cell. Statistical significance was calculated using a t-

test. PV: portal vein; CV: central vein.

Extended Figure 9. Increased mitochondria-LD interactions correlate with prolonged WD-

feeding in mice. (A) Representative confocal images of liver sections from mtDendra2 mice fed

WD for 4, 8, and 12 weeks. Mitochondria (green), LDs (magenta), and actin (yellow). Scale bar 5

μm. **(B)** Heat map of mitochondria and LDs overlapping pixels across the PP-PC axis (R1-R12) and

prolonged WD feeding. **(C)** Relative PLIN5 mRNA expression in mice fed WD for 4,8, and 12 weeks.

Data presented as mean ± SD from n=3 independent experiments. Statistical significance was

calculated using a two-way ANOVA and Tukey's test to correct for multiple comparisons. PV: portal

vein; CV: central vein. WT: wild type.

Figure 8. PLIN5-induced mitochondria-LD contacts regulate lipid homeostasis. Proposed model

of mitochondria-LD contacts regulation by PLIN5. PLIN5 induces mitochondria-LD contacts in a

phosphorylation-dependent manner. PLIN5 S155A induces contact sites promoting the

esterification of FFA to form TG and storage in LDs, which is protective from oxidative stress due

to increased dietary lipids. In PLIN5 S155E, mitochondria and LDs are rarely associated, LDs are

smaller, and antioxidant capacity is reduced. In long-term WD feeding, the abundance of

mitochondria-LD contacts increases, suggesting that the assembly of these contacts may be part

of an adaptive response. The model was created with Biorender.com.

Supplement Figure 1. *In vivo* **overexpression of PLIN5. (A)** Relative Plin5 mRNA expression in

mouse livers is presented as the mean ± SEM from n=10 mice. **(B)** Representative immunoblot

and quantification of PLIN5 protein levels from one mouse per group. An antibody generated

against the human PLIN5 carboxy terminus (upper panel) detects endogenous and exogenous

full-length PLIN5 but does not detect the CΔ (1-424) variant. PLIN5 levels are relative to

endogenous in the Null CNTR mouse. An antibody generated against amino acids within the

amino terminus of human PLIN5 (lower panel) detects all forms of exogenous PLIN5 but does not

detect endogenous levels in Null CNTR mice. PLIN5 levels are relative to WT exogenous levels in

CNTR mice. Full-length PLIN5 migrates at 50 kDa and the CΔ (1-424) PLIN5 migrates below 50 kDa.

An intense non-specific >50kDa band is present in all samples and a <50kDa band of

undetermined origin is seen in WD-fed mouse samples.

Materials and methods

Animal experiments

Experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the National

Cancer Institute and in compliance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals

(National Institutes of Health publication 86-23, revised 1985). All experiments were conducted

on ad libitum-fed on normal chow diet (NIH-31 Open Formula) or western diet (TD.120528,

Envigo), four to ten weeks old C57BL/6J (strain# 000664) or mtDendra2 excised [20] (photo-

activatable mitochondria; strain# 018397) male mice obtained from Jackson Laboratories.

Intra-cardiac fixation, tissue processing, and immunofluorescence

Mice were anesthetized with 250 mg/kg Xylazine and 50 mg/kg Ketamine (diluted in saline)

injected intraperitoneally (i.p.). The liver was fixed by transcardial perfusion of ice-cold PBS for 2

min followed by ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS at a rate of 5 ml/min. Livers were

harvested and stored in 4% PFA in PBS overnight and processed in a sucrose gradient before

embedding in OCT (Tissue-Tek). Blocks were kept at -80 °C until 10 μm thick slices were made

with a cryostat and slides prepared. Slides were stored at -80 °C until thawed, rehydrated, and

blocked with 0.1% Triton X-100 and 10% FBS in PBS for 1 h at room temperature. Next, slides were

incubated with primary antibody at 4 °C overnight. The following day, the slides were washed

three times, 15 min each, and then incubated with a secondary antibody for 1 h at room

temperature. After three 15 min washes, slides were mounted with Fluoromount-G and a

coverslip (#1).

Confocal microscopy and scPhenomics

Tile scans and z stacks were acquired using a Leica SP8 inverted confocal laser scanning

microscope using a 63x oil objective and a 1.4 numerical aperture.

Whole lobule images were analyzed using a custom Python script (Python v. 3.10) using the deep-

learning Cellpose package for segmentation [21]. Individual hepatocytes were identified by first

creating a combination channel of actin and Gaussian-blurred mitochondria. We applied a

custom-trained Cellpose model to this combination channel to generate hepatocyte segments.

The central and portal veins were manually segmented, and their total length was measured.

Segmented hepatocyte distance to the central vein was normalized to the total PP-PC length and

then binned into 12 regions to ensure at least one hepatocyte per bin. Code will be available upon

publication.

Mitochondria and lipid droplets were segmented using their own custom-trained Cellpose

models. Lipid droplet segments were also subjected to an intensity threshold to remove false-

positive segments. The mitochondria and lipid droplet segments were used to quantify organelle

counts per cell, densities, mitochondrial and lipid fluorescence intensities, as well as geometric

parameters, including total and average area, average perimeter, circularity, eccentricity, solidity,

and ferret diameter using the region props function from scikit-image [55]. The shortest

mitochondria to lipid droplet distance, percent mitochondria/lipid droplet overlap, and

mitochondria Circularity = 4*pi*area / perimeter^2 were quantified.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed using FactoMineR ver.2.11 R package. The

following variables were used in calculations: counts, Total Area, Average Area, Average

Perimeter, Average Eccentricity, Average Solidity, Average Feret, Average Mito Int, Average Lipid

Int, Average Organelle Min Dist, Average Circularity, and Average Density. Unsupervised clustering

was performed using the hclust (method = "complete") command of stats ver. 4.3.0 R package

and heatmap were visualized using pheatmap ver 1.0.12. Correlation values were calculated with

default settings ("cor" command of "stats" R package), rounded to 2 decimal places, and

visualized using the ggplot function.

For 3D evaluation, surfaces were generated using Imaris (Bitplane 9.9.0) for mitochondria, lipid

droplets, and the whole cell. Geometrical measurements were exported into Excel.

Histology

Mouse liver tissues were also used for independent histological analysis of liver steatosis with

hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) by Histoserv (Germantown, MD).

Liver perfusion and hepatocyte isolation

Livers of anesthetized mice were perfused by inserting a 22-gauge syringe into the portal vein and

delivering 25 ml of pre-warmed (37 °C) perfusion buffer [Krebs-Henseleit buffer (Sigma) with 0.5

μM EDTA], followed by 50 ml collagenase A buffer [Krebs-Henseleit buffer, with 0.1 mM Ca2Cl and

0.4 mg/ml collagenase A (Sigma)]. After perfusion, livers were transferred into a Petri dish,

flooded with cold PBS and hepatocytes gently released using forceps. Dissociated cells were

collected and filtered through a 100 μm cell strainer. Cells were centrifuged at 50 rpm for 5 min

at 4 °C to obtain a hepatocyte enriched pellet. Pellets were resuspended in cold PBS, filtered

through a 40 μm cell strainer and centrifuged at 50 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C. Percoll diluted in 10x

Hank's buffer (Sigma) was added to cell suspension and centrifuged at 50 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C.

and the supernatant containing dead cells was removed by aspiration. The pellet was

resuspended in cold PBS and cell number determined.

Fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) of PP and PC populations.

Cell sorting was performed on a FACSAria Fusion cell sorter (BD Biosciences). Forward and side

light scatter was used to distinguish cells from debris and to identify single cells. Zombie-Green

fixable live dead dye (1:500, BioLegend) was used to discriminate live and dead cells. The PP and

PC populations were identified using anti-E-cadherin-PE and anti-CD73-APC antibody staining

(1:150; BioLegend). The PP- and PC-specific gates were set after spectral compensation using

appropriate fluorescent minus (FMO) controls.

Protein Digestion and TMT labeling

Cells were lysed in 50 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, 8M urea, and 10% methanol, followed by sonication.

Lysates were clarified by centrifugation and protein concentration was quantified using a BCA

protein estimation kit (Thermo Fisher). A 250 ug was alkylated and digested by incubating

overnight at 37oC in trypsin at a ratio of 1:50 (Promega). Digestion was acidified by adding formic

acid (FA) to a final concentration of 1% and desalted using Pierce peptide desalting columns

according to the manufacturer's protocol. Peptides were eluted from the column using 50%

ACN/0.1% FA, dried in a speedvac and kept frozen at -20oC for further analysis.

For TMT labeling, 125 ug of each sample was reconstituted in 50 μl of 50 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, 500

ug of TMTpro-16plex label (Thermo Fisher) in 100% ACN. After incubating the mixture for 1 h at

room temperature with occasional mixing, the reaction was terminated by adding 8 l of 5%

hydroxylamine. As there were more than 16 samples, we generated a pooled sample consisting

of equal amounts of lysate from each condition and TMT labeled. The pool was added to each

TMT experiment. The TMT-labeled peptides were pooled and dried in a speedvac. The samples

were desalted, and excess TMT label was removed using peptide desalting columns (Thermo

Fisher). A 100 ug aliquot of labeled peptide mixture was fractionated using a high pH reversed

phase.

High pH reversed-phase fractionation.

The first-dimensional separation of peptides was performed using a Waters Acquity UPLC system

coupled with a fluorescence detector (Waters) using a 150 mm x 3.0 mm Xbridge Peptide BEMTM

2.5 μm C18 column (Waters) operating at 0.35 ml/min. The dried peptides were reconstituted in

100 μl of mobile phase A solvent (3 mM ammonium bicarbonate, pH 8.0). Mobile phase B was

100% acetonitrile (Thermo Fisher). The column was washed with mobile phase A for 10 min

followed by gradient elution 0- 50% B (10-60 min) and 50-75 %B (60-70 min). Fractions were

collected every minute. These 60 fractions were pooled into 24 fractions. Fractions were vacuum

centrifuged, and lyophilized fractions were stored at -80°C until analysis by mass spectrometry.

Mass Spectrometry acquisition

The lyophilized peptide fractions were reconstituted in 0.1% TFA and subjected to nanoflow liquid

chromatography (Thermo Ultimate™ 3000RSLC nano LC system, Thermo Fisher) coupled to an

Orbitrap Eclipse mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher). Peptides were separated using a low pH

gradient using a 5-50% ACN over 120 min in a mobile phase containing 0.1% formic acid at 300

nl/min flow rate. MS scans were performed in the Orbitrap analyzer at a resolution of 120,000

with an ion accumulation target set at 4e5 and max IT set at 50ms over a mass range of 400-1600

m/z. Ions with a determined charge state between 2 and 5 were selected for MS2 scans in the ion

trap with CID fragmentation (Turbo; NCE 35%; maximum injection time 35 ms; AGC 1×104). The

spectra were searched using the Real Time Search Node in the tune file using mouse Uniprot

database using Comet search algorithm with TMT16 plex (304.2071Da) set as a static modification

of lysine and the N-termini of the peptide. Carbamidomethylation of cysteine residues

(+57.0214 Da) was set as a static modification, while oxidation of methionine residues

(+15.9949 Da) was set up as a dynamic modification. For the selected peptide, an SPS–MS3 scan

was performed using up to 10 b- and y-type fragment ions as precursors in an Orbitrap at 50,000

resolution with a normalized AGC set at 500 followed by maximum injection time set as "Auto"

with a normalized collision energy setting of 65.

Data Analysis

Acquired MS/MS spectra were searched against the mouse Uniprot protein database along with

a contaminant protein database using SEQUEST in the Proteome Discoverer 2.4 software (Thermo

Fisher). The precursor ion tolerance was set at 10 ppm and the fragment ions tolerance was set

at 0.02 Da, with methionine oxidation included as a dynamic modification**.**

Carbamidomethylation of cysteine residues and TMTpro16 plex (304.2071 Da) were set as static

modification of lysine and the N-terminus of the peptide. Trypsin was specified as the proteolytic

enzyme, with up to 2 missed cleavage sites allowed. Searches used a reverse sequence decoy

strategy to control for the false peptide discovery and identifications were validated using the

Percolator algorithm in Proteome Discoverer 2.4.

Reporter ion intensities were adjusted to correct for lot-specific impurities according to the

manufacturer specification and the abundances of the proteins were quantified using the

summation of the reporter ions for all identified peptides. A two-step normalization procedure

was applied on a 24-plex TMT experiment [2 TMT experiments with 12 samples each]. First, the

reporter abundances were normalized across all the channels to account for equal peptide

loading. Secondly, the intensity from the pooled sample was used to normalize the batch effect

from the multiple TMT experiments. Samples were further normalized using the voom algorithms

and quantile normalization from the Limma R package (v3.40.6). Differential peptide expression

analysis was performed using Limma, where zonation was determined by the p-value (0.05)

and/or FC (≥1.2); and pathway enrichment analysis was performed using Fisher's Exact test with

GO database. Graphpad Prism 9 and Biorender was used for visualization.

The mass spectrometry dataset will be available upon publication.

Seahorse assay

A Seahorse XFe96 Analyzer and XF Mito Stress Test Kit (Agilent Technologies) was used to measure

the oxygen consumption rate (OCR) and extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) of PP and PC sorted

cells. A day prior to the assay, the cartridge sensor was hydrated overnight with Seahorse

Bioscience Calibration Solution at 37 °C without CO_2. After sorting, cells were seeded in a 96-well

seahorse plate at a density of 5.0×10^4 cells/well and allowed to adhere for 2 h. After 2 h, cell

media was replaced with serum-free Seahorse XF Base media containing glucose, pyruvate, and

glutamine (pH 7.4), and the cells were incubated at 37 ℃ in a non-CO_2 incubator for 1 h. OCR and

ECAR were measured after the injection of oligomycin (1.5 μM), FCCP (1 μM), and

rotenone/antimycin (0.5 μM). Four independent experiments were conducted with six to eight

replicates per population and treatment condition per experiment. All data was normalized to

BCA (Thermo Fisher). Measurements for basal respiration and maximum respiration capacity

were presented as a percentage normalized to PP fed.

Overexpression of PLIN5 variants in mice

Four-week-old C57BL/6 J male mice and mtDendra2 excised male mice were housed five per cage

in a facility (12 h light/dark cycle) and fed either a control chow diet (NIH-31 Open Formula) or

Western Diet (WD; TD.120528, Envigo) for two weeks. Mice were then injected via tail vein with

an AAV8-ABLp vector: Null, mPlin5 WT, S155A, S155E, CΔ (1-424), driven by a liver-specific

albumin promoter, at a titer of 4.5×10^{11} GC (Vector Biolabs, Philadelphia, PA). After AAV8

transduction, mice were fed the control chow diet or WD for four weeks. At the end of the

experiment, serum and liver tissue were collected.

Serum analysis

Kits were used according to manufacturer's instructions to measure β-hydroxybutyrate (Abcam),

free fatty acid FUJIFILM (Wako Diagnostics), triglycerides (Pointe Scientific), cholesterol (Thermo

Scientific), insulin (Crystal Chem Inc).

Blood Glucose

Blood was collected from the tail vein, and glucose was measured using testing strips and monitor

(Ascencia Diabetes Care).

Triglyceride (TG), Malondialdehyde (MDA), and Glutathione measurements

Pulverized liver tissue samples were lysed, and the supernatant was collected after centrifugation

at 13,000 rpm for 10 minutes. Triglyceride levels were measured with a Colorimetric Assay Kit

(Elabscience), Cellular Malondialdehyde (MDA) levels were measured with a Lipid Peroxidation

(MDA) Assay Kit (Abcam), NADP/NADPH (Sigma MAK479), and total cellular glutathione (GSH)

levels were estimated through the GSH Glo™ Assay Kit (Promega). Each kit was used per the

manufacturer's instructions, and results were normalized to protein amount, and absolute

numbers were converted to fold change.

Western blot analysis

Proteins from primary hepatocytes or pulverized liver were extracted by homogenization in RIPA

lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% sodium dodecyl

sulfate, and 50 mM Tris HCl pH 8.0) containing EDTA, PMSF, and Halt Inhibitor Cocktail (Thermo

Fisher), followed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm at 4 °C for 30 min. Protein concentration was

determined using a Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher). Lysates were boiled at 95 °C

for 5 min, and 5-10 μg aliquots were fractionated by SDS-PAGE and then transferred to

nitrocellulose 0.45 μm membrane (Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked for 1 h at room

temperature in 5% non-fat milk in 1x Tris-buffered saline + 0.1% Tween 20 (TBST) then incubated

with primary antibody diluted in 5% BSA in 1x TBST at 4 °C overnight. Membranes were washed

three times with TBST, then incubated in the secondary antibody diluted in 5% non-fat milk in 1x

TBST for 1 h at room temperature. Membranes were washed three times with TBST, and then

Clarity ECL Western blot substrate solution (Bio-Rad) was applied for detection. The membranes

were imaged using the ChemiDoc Imaging System (Bio-Rad). Bands were quantified with

ImageLab (Bio-Rad).

RNA isolation and Quantitative PCR

RNA was isolated from pulverized liver tissue using the TissueLyser LT and RNeasy mini kit

(Qiagen). A High-Capacity RNA to cDNA kit (Thermo Fisher) was used to synthesize random-

primed cDNA from 2 µg DNAse treated RNA. Real time PCR was conducted in 384 well-plates

using a ViiA7 Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems). Singleplex reactions (5 µl) containing a

FAM-MGB expression assay for Plin5 (Mm00508854_m1) or Tbp control (Mm01277041_m1)

(Thermo Fisher) were performed using cDNA synthesized from 8 ng RNA and 1× Fast Advanced

Master Mix (Thermo-without Amp Erase UNG) were performed in triplicate. The comparative Ct

method (delta, delta Ct) was used to determine relative expression normalized to Tbp (Applied

Biosystems® ViiA™ 7Real-Time PCR System Getting Started Guides).

Human liver sample collection

Human tissue was acquired with informed consent under an NIH IRB-approved protocol

(NCT01915225) during risk-reducing surgery performed on patients with germline mutation in

the tumor suppressor CDH1. Mutations in CDH1 are a frequent cause of the hereditary diffuse

gastric cancer (HDGC) syndrome, which is associated with gastric adenocarcinoma, lobular breast

cancer, and cleft lip/palate. These patients undergo risk-reducing total gastrectomy, and some

consent to a liver biopsy during the surgery. While these patients often have microscopic stage

1A cancers, none had deeply invasive or metastatic carcinoma in their livers.

The tissue procured was characterized as normal upon visible inspection, followed by

histopathological evaluation. Tissue was procured within approximately 20 minutes of the

incision and then fixed in 1% PFA in PBS for 48 or 72 hours. It was then washed in PBS and

incubated in 30% sucrose in PBS for at least 24 hours before being embedded in OCT. OCT blocks

were stored at -80 °C.

Statistical analyses of MDA, GSA, and NADP/NADPH

All assay values were $\log_2$-transformed prior to modeling. Statistical analyses were performed in

R using the limma package. For each metabolite, a linear model was fit with diet (control diet, CD

vs. Western diet, WD) and genotype as factors. Two sets of contrasts were tested. The first was

to assess whether the WD effect in each genotype differed from that in the Null group, where

contrasts were constructed as (WD – CD for each genotype) – (WD – CD for Null). This evaluates

whether the magnitude of the WD–CD change deviates significantly from the corresponding

change in the Null genotype. The second was to test within-genotype WD vs. CD, where WD

samples were compared against the mean of CD samples of the same genotype to test whether

the $\log_2$(WD/CD) ratio differed from zero (i.e., whether the linear WD/CD fold change differed

from 1). Moderated t-statistics and associated p-values were obtained using empirical Bayes

shrinkage (eBayes). Multiple testing correction was applied across assays using the Benjamini–

Hochberg method, and adjusted p-values (q-values) are reported.

Supplement table 1:

Antibodies	Source	Identifier	Dilution
APC anti-mouse CD73 antibody	Biolegend	127210	1:150
Alexa Fluor® 594 anti-mouse/human CD324 (E-Cadherin) Antibody	Biolegend	147306	1:100
Anti-mouse IgG, HRP-linked Antibody	Cell Signaling	3662S	1:2500
Anti-rabbit IgG, HRP-linked antibody	Cell Signaling	7076S	1:10000
Cyclophilin B (D1V5J) Rabbit monoclonal antibody	Cell Signaling	43603S	1:1000
Phospho-HSL (Ser565) Antibody	Cell Signaling	4137S	1:1000

β-Actin (13E5) Rabbit monoclonal antibody	Cell Signaling	4970S	1:1000
β-actin (8H10D10) Mouse monoclonal antibody	Cell Signaling	3700S	1:1000
β-tubulin (9F3) Rabbit monoclonal antibody	Cell Signaling	2128S	1:1000
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Absorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor 568	Invitrogen™	A11011	1:400
Alexa Fluor™ 568 Phalloidin	Invitrogen™	A12380	1:100
Alexa Fluor™ 647 Phalloidin	Invitrogen™	A22287	1:100
Perilipin 5 Polyclonal antibody	Proteintech	26051-1-AP	1:2000
OXPAT Polyclonal Antibody	Invitrogen™	PA5-114352	1:500
GAPDH	Cell Signaling	2118S	1:1000

Dyes		
Alexa Fluor™ 568 Phalloidin	Thermo Fisher	A12380
HSC LipidTOX™ Deep Red Neutral Lipid Stain, for cellular imaging	Thermo Fisher	H34477
Buffers		
RIPA Lysis buffer	Thermo Fisher	J62524-AE

Thermo Scientific™ Halt™ Protease and Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail (100X)	Thermo Fisher	78442
Prec Plus Protein Dual Color Standards	Bio-Rad	1610374
10X Tris/Glycine/SDS	Bio-Rad	1610732
2X Laemmli Sample Buffer	Bio-Rad	1610737
Clarity Western ECL Substrate	Bio-Rad	1705061
Seahorse XF base medium, without phenol red, 500 mL	Aglient	103335-100
Seahorse XF 1.0 M glucose solution, 50 mL	Aglient	103577-100
Seahorse XF 100 mM pyruvate solution, 50 mL	Aglient	103578-100
Seahorse XF 200 mM glutamine solution, 50 mL	Aglient	103579-100
Seahorse XF Calibrant Solution 500 mL	Aglient	100840-000
Seahorse XF Cell Mito Stress Test kit	Aglient	103010-100
Seahorse XF Mito Fuel Flex Test kit	Aglient	103260-100
Collage I, Rat Tail, 100 mg	Corning	354236
Phosphate Buffered Saline, pH 7.2, 1X	Quality Biological	111-056-101
Hanks' Balanced Saline pH 7.2, 1X	Thermo Fisher	14174-095
Acetic acid	Sigma Aldrich	A6283

Collagenase from Clostridium histolyticum	Sigma Aldrich	C5138
Krebs-Henseleit Buffer Modified	Sigma Aldrich	K3753
Calcium chloride solution	Sigma Aldrich	21115
Sodium bicarbonate	Sigma Aldrich	S6014
Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt solution	Sigma Aldrich	03690
HEPES solution	Sigma Aldrich	H0887
Fetal Bovine Serum	Thermo Fisher	26140079
TMTpro™ 16plex Label Reagent set	Thermo Fisher	A44520
HiSelect ™ Phosphopeptide enrichment kit	Thermo Fisher	A32992
High Select TM Phosphopeptide Enrichment kit	Thermo Fisher	A32993
Trypsin Platinum	Promega	VA9000
Urea	Sigma Aldrich	51457
Methanol	Sigma Aldrich	34860
Trifluoroacetic acid	Sigma Aldrich	302031
Acetonitrile solution	Sigma Aldrich	900686
qPCR		
Plin5	Thermo Fisher	Mm00508854_m1
Tbp	Thermo Fisher	Mm01277041_m1
Taqman Fast Advanced Master Mix	Thermo Fisher	4444963

High-Capacity RNA to cDNA kit	Thermo Fisher	4388950
RNeasy mini kit	Qiagen	74104
Assay		
Pierce^{TM} BCA Protein Assay kit	Thermo Fisher	23225
Triglyceride (TG) Colorimetric assay kit	Thermo Fisher	EEA028
NADP/NADPH assay kit	Sigma	Sigma- MAK479
Non-esterified Free Fatty Acids (NEFA/FFA) Colorimetric Assay Kit	Elabscience	E-BC-K013-M
GSH-Glo™ Glutathione Assay	Promega	V6911
Lipid peroxidation assay kit	Abcam	ab233471
Other		
Pierce^{TM} Peptide Desalting Spin Columns	Thermo Fisher	89851
Seahorse XF96 V3 PS culture Microplates	Aglient	101085-004
Mini-Protein® TGX^{TM} Precast Gels	Bio-Rad	4568084
Trans-Blot Turbo NC Transfer Packs	Bio-Rad	1704158

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Figure 1. LD and mitochondiral topology define zones in the lobule

Extended Figure 1 Anatomical landmarks guide tissue orientation in scPhenomics

Extended Figure 2. Single-cell analysis of LD and mitochondrial structure in 3D

Fig. 2 Increased lipid flux induces rewiring of LD and mitochondria circuits

Extended Figure 3. Hepatic steatosis and DNL in short-term WD feeding

Fig 4. Fasting-induced remodeing of hepatic proteome

Extended Figure 4. Comparative proteomics of spatially sorted hepatocytes

A.

Fed | Fasted

Mitochondria LDs PLIN5

B.

Control | Fasted

WD | Fasted WD

Mitochondria LDs Actin colocalization

C.

Mitochondria-LDs colocalization

0.0050

0.0003

<0.0001

Number of colocalizing pixels/area

Control | Fasted | WD | WD+fasted

Extended Figure 5. Fasting induce Mitochondria-LD interactions

Fig 5. Mitochondria-LD contacts promote LD expansion in vivo

Extended Figure 6. In vivo remodeling of mitochondria-LDs interactions

Fig. 6
Mitochondria-LD contacts promote lipid storage, reducing WD-induced lipotoxicity

Extended Figure 7.
Over expression of PLIN5 variants in WD-fed mice

Extended Figure 8. The effect of PLIN5 variants and WD on DNL

Figure 7.
Mitochondria-LD contacts are associated with higher lipid content in human livers

Extended Figure 9.
Increased mitochondria-LD interactions correlate with prolonged WD-feeding in mice.

FA: Fatty Acid; PLIN5: Perilipin 5; LD: lipid droplet; WD: western diet

Figure 8. PLIN5-induced mitochondria-LD contacts regulate lipid homeostasis

Supplementary Figure 1. In vivo overexpression of PLIN5