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Hepatic ceramide synthesis links systemic inflammation to organelle dysfunction in cancer

Ying Liu[1, #, *], Ting Miao[1, #], Alice Wang[2], Ezequiel Dantas[3], Ah-Ram Kim[1], Zhongjie Zhang[1], Xiaomei Sun[1], Richard Binari[1], John M. Asara[4, 5], Yanhui Hu[1], Marcus D. Goncalves[3], Tobias Janowitz[2,6], Norbert Perrimon[1, 7, *]

[1] Department of Genetics, Blavatnik Institute, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, USA

[2] Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York, NY 11724 USA

[3] Department of Medicine, New York University Grossman School of Medicine, New York, NY 10016, USA

[4] Department of Medicine, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA

[5] Division of Signal Transduction, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Boston

[6] Northwell Health Cancer Institute, Northwell Health, New Hyde Park, New York, NY 11042 USA

[7] Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Boston, MA, USA

[#] Authors contribute equally

*Correspondence:

Ying Liu: ying_liu@hms.harvard.edu

Norbert Perrimon: perrimon@genetics.med.harvard.edu

Abstract

Paraneoplastic syndromes arise when tumor-derived cytokines reprogram distant organs.

Although mediators such as Interleukin-6 have been implicated, how these signals impair

host organ function remains incompletely defined. Here, we identify a cytokine-lipid axis

that drives hepatic autophagy dysfunction. Specifically, in *Drosophila*, the gut tumor-

derived interleukin-like cytokine Upd3 induces the expression of the triglyceride lipase

CG5966, which we named "*cancer-associated lipid mobilizer* (*calm*)", and the ceramide

synthase *schlank* in the fat body/liver, which rewires fat body lipid metabolism resulting in

an autophagic-flux blockade. Genetic reduction of either *CG5966* or *schlank* restores

organelle homeostasis and mitigates paraneoplastic phenotypes. This mechanism is

conserved in mammals: in mice, IL-6 upregulates the lipoprotein lipase *Lpl* and ceramide

synthases which in turn trigger a hepatic autophagy-flux blockade; in humans, hepatic *LPL*

and ceramide synthases expression correlates with poorer survival in hepatocellular

carcinoma. Our findings position hepatic lipid metabolism rewiring, especially ceramide

synthesis as a critical, conserved node coupling systemic inflammation to organelle

dysfunction, and suggest this pathway as a possible therapeutic entry point for cancer-

associated liver disorders.

Introduction

Introduction

Paraneoplastic syndromes are systemic disorders in cancer patients caused by tumor-

derived factors that disrupt distant organs (Pelosof and Gerber, 2010). Among these

factors, cytokines, particularly interleukin-6 (IL-6), are prominent paraneoplastic factors

that drive diverse clinical manifestations (Ferrer et al., 2023; Flint et al., 2016; Pelosof and

Gerber, 2010; Wu et al., 2017). IL-6 activates the JAK/STAT signaling pathway in remote

tissues, rewiring gene expression to induce inflammation, thrombopoiesis, and wasting

(Ding et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2025; Stone et al., 2012). One of IL-6's known target is the liver,

a central hub of systemic metabolic regulation (Fearon et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2025). In

response to chronic inflammatory cues including IL-6, the liver increases gluconeogenesis

and acute-phase protein production while promoting adipose lipolysis and skeletal muscle

proteolysis, a combination that culminates in cancer cachexia (Ding et al., 2021; Liu et al.,

2025). Within hepatocytes, basal autophagy is essential for proteostasis and organelle

quality control (Qian et al., 2021). Consistent with this, genetic ablation of core autophagy

genes leads to the accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins and p62/SQSTM1-positive

inclusions, oxidative stress, hepatomegaly, and hepatic steatosis, underscoring the role of

autophagy in maintaining liver function (Komatsu et al., 2007, 2005; Ni et al., 2014).

However, whether tumor-derived signals impair hepatic autophagy in a way that

contributes to paraneoplastic syndromes remains unknown.

Autophagy is a dynamic membrane-trafficking process that is intrinsically linked to lipid

metabolism, making it a highly lipid-demanding pathway. In particular, phospholipids are

essential for autophagosome biogenesis, providing the structural components for

membrane expansion and remodeling (Harayama and Riezman, 2018; Rowland et al.,

2023). Autophagosome formation begins with the nucleation of an isolation membrane

(phagophore), which elongates and engulfs cytosolic cargo before sealing into a mature

autophagosome (Ryter et al., 2013; Ueno and Komatsu, 2017). This process is tightly

regulated by the availability and supply of phospholipids that are synthesized from fatty

acyl-CoA and glycerol-3-phosphate. The fatty acyl-CoAs can be produced *de novo* or

liberated from other lipid species through lipolysis, thereby linking autophagic dynamics to

fundamental lipid metabolic pathways (Harayama and Riezman, 2018; Rowland et al.,

2023). Consistently, recent studies have shown that long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases

(ACSLs), which channel fatty acids into *de novo* phospholipid synthesis, relocalize to

nascent phagophores, facilitating lipid production required for membrane expansion (Dong

et al., 2018; Schütter and Graef, 2020). Autophagosome formation is therefore influenced

by membrane delivery to the phagophore, and its expansion also requires the ubiquitin-like

protein Atg8/LC3 (Weidberg et al., 2011; Xie et al., 2008). Increasing Atg8 enlarges

autophagosomes through membrane elongation and cargo capture, while reducing them

yields smaller vesicles (Weidberg et al., 2011; Xie et al., 2008). Thus, in metabolically

stressed liver, tumor-induced shifts in lipid supply or Atg8 abundance may influence

autophagosome number and/or size, with direct consequences for autophagic capacity

(Rowland et al., 2023; Schütter and Graef, 2020; Ueno and Komatsu, 2017).

Dysregulated sphingolipid metabolism exemplifies how lipid imbalances can disrupt

autophagy. Ceramides synthesized *de novo* from serine and palmitoyl-CoA by a family of

ceramide synthases (CerS1–6), can accumulate in metabolic diseases and some cancers

(Hannun and Obeid, 2018; Mullen et al., 2012). While modest ceramide increases can

trigger protective autophagy (Taniguchi et al., 2012), chronic or excessive accumulation

impairs autophagic flux, often by compromising lysosomal integrity (Gabandé-Rodríguez

et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016). Mechanistically, high ceramide levels destabilize lysosomes,

leading to defective hydrolase maturation and leakage of cathepsins into the cytosol,

thereby blocking the final stages of autophagic degradation (Gabandé-Rodríguez et al.,

2014; Liu et al., 2016; Turk et al., 2001). These findings raise the possibility that tumor-

driven alterations in lipid flux, particularly the accumulation of ceramides, could blunt

hepatic autophagy and may contribute to hepatic disorders.

Drosophila melanogaster offers a powerful genetic system for dissecting such cross-organ

interactions. Multiple fly tumor models exhibit paraneoplastic-like phenotypes, enabling

systematic analysis of underlying tumor-host signaling (Bilder et al., 2021; Cheng et al.,

2025; Liu et al., 2022). In the Yorkie (Yki) model, gut tumors induced by overexpressing an

active form of the oncoprotein Yki, the fly homolog of YAP (*esg>yki^{act}*; referred to as Yki

flies), elicit systemic effects reminiscent of human paraneoplastic syndromes (Kwon et al.,

2015). These Yki-driven tumors secrete circulating factors, including PDGF- and VEGF-

related factor 1 (Pvf1) and the IL-6-like cytokine Unpaired 3 (Upd3), which acts on distant

tissues like muscle and fat body to induce wasting (Ding et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2025; Song

et al., 2019). The genetic and physiological tractability of the fly fat body, an organ

analogous to the vertebrate liver and adipose tissue, makes it an ideal model to investigate

how tumor-derived cytokines reshape hepatic lipid metabolism and autophagy to drive

paraneoplastic pathology (Liu et al., 2025). Here, guided by a cross-organ gene expression

analysis of paraneoplastic progression, we demonstrate that tumor-derived Upd3 activates

JAK–STAT signaling to upregulate the lipase *CG5966* and the ceramide synthase *schlank* in

the fat body, disrupting lipid homeostasis and triggering severe autophagy dysfunction.

Importantly, this pathogenic axis is conserved in mouse and human, as IL-6 drives

expression of lipoprotein lipase (LPL) and ceramide synthases. Further, elevated *LPL* and

CERS5/6 expression are significantly associated with reduced survival in hepatocellular

carcinoma. Together, these findings suggest that hepatic lipid metabolism, namely

ceramide synthesis may be a therapeutic target for cancer-associated hepatic dysfunction.

Results

Identification of CG5966 as a paraneoplastic factor

In cancer patients, the timing of paraneoplastic syndrome onset frequently diverges from

tumor growth (Pelosof and Gerber, 2010). Similarly, in the Yki gut-tumor model, peripheral

organ dysfunction (renal failure, muscle degeneration, ovary atrophy) emerges with a delay,

robust by day 8 following tumor maturation at day 5 (Kwon et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2025;

Song et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2024). To distinguish the effects of tumor burden from tumor-

driven systemic signals, we leveraged our full-body single-nucleus transcriptomic data

generated previously (Liu et al., 2025), which records gene expression dynamics of both gut

tumors and host organs at days 5 and 8. By integrating fold-change and significance of

gene-expression shifts between these timepoints across cell clusters, we quantified a

progression association index of genes (Fig. 1a). Among cell clusters, enterocytes (ECs)

exhibited the largest share of genes associated with progression, consistent with continued

differentiation of tumor intestinal stem cells (ISCs) into ECs, followed by follicle cells and

indirect flight muscle, reflecting ovarian atrophy and muscle decline, respectively (Fig.

S1a). Notably, while fat body proportions were relatively stable at both days (Liu et al.,

2025), this tissue showed a high fraction of progression-associated genes (Fig. S1). Top

genes identified by the progression association index, including *CG14275, Pepck1, IM2,*

CG5966, and *ScsβA*, were predominantly upregulated in the fat body (Fig. 1a; FigS1b-f). Of

these, we previously implicated *Pepck1* and *ScsβA* as causal mediators of hepatic

gluconeogenic dysregulation and cachectic decline (Liu et al., 2025). Together, these

analyses point to the fat body, a fly tissue with many liver-like functions, as a central driver

of paraneoplastic progression.

Among the top candidates, *CG5966* is an unannotated gene (Fig. 1a). To test whether its

induction contributes to pathogenesis rather than simply reflecting end-stage dysfunction,

we combined esg-LexA/LexAop to activate Yki in ISCs (*esg-LexA, LexAop-Yki^{act}*) with Lpp-

Gal4/UAS to knockdown *CG5966* specifically in the fat body (*Lpp-Gal4, UAS-CG5966-*

RNAi). Fat-body *CG5966* depletion did not alter GFP-labelled gut tumor size nor phospho-

Histone 3 (pH3) signal, a cell mitoses marker, indicating no effect on tumor burden or

proliferation (Fig. 1b-d). In contrast, *CG5966* knockdown significantly reduced bloating, as

measured by the abdomen-to-head (A/H) ratio and total body fluid, suggesting an

attenuation of paraneoplastic progression (Fig. 1b, e-g). Consistent with rescue of systemic

decline, climbing ability improved and lifespan was extended in Yki flies upon fat-body

CG5966 knockdown (Fig. 1h, i). Collectively, these data identify *CG5966* as a fat-body-

expressed contributor to paraneoplastic pathology in the Yki model, while not impacting

gut tumor growth.

CG5966 targets a subset of triglycerides and reroutes fatty acids into phospholipids

We next investigated the pathogenic mechanism of CG5966. FlyBase annotates *CG5966* as

a putative triglyceride (TG) lipase. As it associates with cancer and is a lipase, we named

CG5966 as Cancer-Associated Lipid Mobilizer (calm). Sequence alignment with classical

human lipases revealed the signature motif G-x-S-x-G in CG5966, as well as the conserved

catalytic triad residues (Ser199-Asp227-His312) required for lipid hydrolysis (Fig. S2a).

Complementing this, 3D structural modeling using AlphaFold revealed the closest

similarity to human pancreatic lipase (PNLIP) and lipoprotein lipase (LPL) (Fig. 2a, b),

supporting a close functional relationship between CG5966 and these lipases. Because Yki

flies show reduced total TG levels (Kwon et al., 2015), we initially hypothesized that

CG5966 simply drives bulk TG hydrolysis to deplete energy stores. However, fat-body-

specific *CG5966* knockdown in Yki flies did not restore total TG levels in the abdomen

carcass mainly containing fat body tissue (Fig. S2b), suggesting its selective role in TG

hydrolysis. To test substrate preference of CG5966 independent of tumors, we profiled

lipids in wild-type flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* overexpression (Fig. S2c).

Consistent with the observations in Yki flies, total TG abundance remained unchanged

upon *CG5966* overexpression (Fig. 2c). By contrast, species-resolved lipidomics revealed

selective depletion of TGs bearing 16:0, 16:1, 18:0, or 18:1 acyl chain upon *CG5966*

overexpression (Fig. 2d-g; S2d), suggesting that CG5966 preferentially acts on specific

molecular TGs. To further assess the lipase activity of CG5966, we performed molecular

docking using TG (16:0/18:1/18:1), one of the most abundant TG species in both fly and

mammals that was significantly depleted upon *CG5966* overexpression. The Boltz-2

docking model positioned the ester bond of the TG substrate in close proximity to the

catalytic triad, with a predicted binding free energy of -8.2 kcal/mol, indicating a highly

efficient substrate recognition (Fig. 2h) (Mirdita et al., 2022; Passaro et al., 2025).

Altogether, our data suggest CG5966 preferentially targets TG containing C16 and C18 acyl

chains.

As the induction of *CG5966* may not be the leading reason of total TG depletion in our

tumor model, we investigated the possible physiological consequences of CG5966-

mediated C16/18 TG liberation. Lipidomic profiling indicated that the same acyl chains

appear enriched in phospholipids: C18:1 increased in PE/PC/PI/PG (Fig. 2d; Fig. S2e),

C18:0 increased in PI (Fig. 2e; Fig. S2f), and C16:1/C16:0 increased in PE/PC/PG (Fig. 2f,g;

Fig. S2g,h). In line with these compositional shifts, total phospholipid pools (PC, PG, PI)

increased upon *CG5966* overexpression (Fig. S2i-k). Given that phospholipids are major

membrane building blocks (Harayama and Riezman, 2018), we hypothesized that CG5966

play a role in supplying membrane-lipid precursors. If so, it would interact with membrane-

lipid biogenesis regulators or enzymes. To test this, we used AlphaFold-Multimer (AFM) to

screen putative CG5966 protein–protein interfaces with markers of specific compartments

(lysosome, ER, Golgi, plasma membrane) and lipid-metabolic enzymes (Fig. S2l) (Evans et

al., 2021). We modeled 3,686 proteins (five AF-M models each; 18,430 total predictions)

and, using integrated Local Interaction Score (iLIS) (Kim et al., 2024), retained 248 high-

confidence interfaces (1.35%), corresponding to 158 candidate interactors (Fig. 2i; Fig.

S2l). Clustering of these candidates by interacting sites yielded 13 groups (Fig. 2j). The

most enriched group (Cluster 1) contains membrane-lipid biogenesis regulators, and the

second enriched group (cluster 8) includes factors acting at multiple steps of autophagy

(Fig. 2k). We further checked the interacting interfaces by these top two cluster of proteins,

autophagy factors interact CG5966 at out surface, whereas the membrane-lipid biogenesis

regulators interact closely to the catalytic triad residues (Ser199-Asp227-His312),

suggesting a coordinated procession of lipid (Fig. 2i). Top-scoring partners in the

membrane-biogenesis cluster included PGAP5, PIG-H, GPAA1/GAA1 (GPI-anchor

synthesis/remodeling) (Kinoshita et al., 2006; Kinoshita, 2020; Tiede et al., 2000), and

glycosyltransferases (e.g., α4GT2) implicated in ER/Golgi membrane maturation (Fig. 2k)

(Hamel et al., 2010). From the autophagy enriched cluster 8, we recovered autophagy-

trafficking factors involved in multiple steps of autophagy process, including Atg12

(ubiquitin-like conjugation system required for autophagosome formation) (Mulakkal et al.,

2014), Rab26/27/40 (small GTPases coordinating vesicle dynamics) (Gillingham et al.,

2014), CG5367 (Cathepsin L4), and GILT1 (a lysosomal thiol-reductase linked to

autolysosome function) (Kongton et al., 2014) (Fig. 2k, m-p). Based on these predictions,

we investigated whether CG5966 mediated TG hydrolysis regulates autophagy in the fat

body. we assayed autophagy *in vivo* with CYTO-ID® Autophagy Detection Reagent that

stains pre-autophagosomes, autophagosomes, and autolysosomes. Indeed, fat-body

CG5966 overexpression increased the number of autophagic vesicles (pre-

autophagosomes, autophagosomes, and autolysosomes), while vesicle sizes were

unchanged (Fig. 2q-s). This is consistent with previous report that autophagosome

formation depends on the membrane delivery, while size scaling requires other regulators

such as ubiquitin-like protein Atg8/LC3 (Weidberg et al., 2011; Xie et al., 2008). Altogether,

our results suggest that CG5966 preferentially liberates C16/C18 acyl chains from TG

fueling phospholipid synthesis, thereby expanding membrane lipid supply and promoting

autophagosome formation.

CG5966 promotes autophagosome formation in Yki flies

We next asked whether CG5966 modulates autophagy in the Yki model. Fat-body staining

in Yki flies revealed a robust increase in number of autophagic vesicles, mirroring the effect

of *CG5966* overexpression in wild-type animals, with an additional enlargement of vesicle

sizes unique to the Yki background (Fig. 3a). Both phenotypes (increased vesicle numbers

and sizes) were suppressed by fat-body-specific *CG5966* depletion (Fig. 3a-c). Increase in

autophagic vesicle numbers suggests elevated autophagosome formation, typically

indicative of enhanced initiation of the autophagy process; supporting this, expression of

the autophagy-initiating kinase *Atg1* was elevated in the fat body of Yki flies at day 8 (Fig.

S3a). To test whether autophagosome formation was increased in Yki flies, we depleted

Atg1 specifically in the fat body of Yki flies. As expected, *Atg1* knockdown blunted

autophagic-vesicle staining, reducing both vesicle numbers and sizes (Fig. 3d-f). We then

examined whether autophagy initiation contributes to paraneoplastic syndrome in Yki flies.

Indeed, fat-body-specific *Atg1* depletion did not alter tumor burden or proliferation (Fig. 3g–

i) but significantly reduced bloating and total body fluid (Fig. 3j, k) and improved climbing

ability (Fig. 3l). Together, these data suggest that CG5966-mediated autophagosome

formation contributes to paraneoplastic syndrome in Yki flies. Notably, while CG5966

increases vesicle numbers in both wild-type and Yki contexts, vesicle enlargement is Yki-

specific, suggesting altered autophagic flux under tumor conditions and involvement of

other players.

Autophagic flux is blocked in Yki flies

Although the increased number of autophagic vesicles observed in the fat bodies of Yki

flies suggests enhanced autophagy initiation, the enlarged vesicle size raises the possibility

that autophagy is either genuinely upregulated or, alternatively, blocked at a later stage of

the pathway. Efficient autophagic flux requires lysosomal degradation following

autophagosome-lysosome fusion (Galluzzi et al., 2017); we therefore examined lysosomal

morphology in the fat body using LysoTracker that stains acidic organelles such as

lysosomes and autolysosomes. Similar to autophagic vesicles, both lysosome numbers

and sizes were increased in Yki flies, and these morphology alterations were suppressed by

fat-body specific *CG5966* depletion (Fig. 4a-c). The parallel enlargement of autophagic

vesicles and lysosomes led us to assess autophagosome-lysosome fusion.

The co-staining revealed that the enlarged autophagic vesicles and lysosomes largely

overlapped, suggesting the expanded vesicles in Yki fat bodies were predominantly

autolysosomes (autophagosome-lysosome hybrids) (Fig. 4d,e); the increased average size

of autophagic vesicles and lysosomes largely reflect accumulation of enlarged

autolysosomes. Consistent with the role of CG5966 in supplying lipids for autophagosome

formation, its depletion in Yki flies reduced autolysosome numbers (overlap-positive

vesicles), concomitantly decreasing the size of both autophagic vesicles and lysosomes

(Fig. 4b,c,f).

The observation that vesicle enlargement is specific to the Yki background suggests that tumor context alters autophagic flux in addition to CG5966-mediated autophagosome formation. To further explore the mechanism, we profiled classical autophagy flux markers in the fat body in Yki flies. In line with increased autophagic vesicle numbers, immunoblotting revealed elevated levels of Atg8-II (LC3-II), the lipidated, membrane-bound form associated with autophagosomes (Fig. S4a) (Xie et al., 2008), as well as increased total Atg8, reflecting transcriptional upregulation (Fig. S4b). Together with the accumulation of enlarged autolysosomes, these data suggest an elevated autophagosome biogenesis and point to a defect in late-stage clearance. Because the anti-p62/Ref(2)P antibody we tested did not perform reliably in the adult fat body, we assessed cathepsin L (Ctsl) maturation as a lysosomal function readout. Ctsl is synthesized as a pro-enzyme that is proteolytically processed into a mature lysosomal form (Turk et al., 2001). Notably, Yki flies displayed elevated levels of pro-Ctsl (Fig. 4g), indicating an impaired lysosomal proteolysis and a late-stage autophagy blockade. Altogether, these findings indicate that vesicle enlargement in Yki flies arises from two coordinated defects: heightened CG5966-mediated autophagosome biogenesis and impaired lysosomal clearance.

Ceramide accumulation underlies lysosomal dysfunction in Yki flies

We further asked what blocks autophagy flux in Yki. Late-stage autophagy can fail for several reasons, including impaired autophagosome-lysosome fusion, defective lysosomal acidification, compromised hydrolase processing, and perturbations in lysosomal membrane lipids that alter enzyme activity (Luzio et al., 2007). We surveyed our Yki datasets (transcriptome, metabolomics, lipidomics) and found that whole-body ceramide levels approximately doubled in Yki flies relative to controls (Fig. 4h). Elevated ceramide has been linked to lysosomal enzyme dysfunction and reduced autophagic flux (Gabandé-Rodríguez et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016), suggesting a lipid-driven mechanism. In *Drosophila*, ceramide synthesis is catalyzed by the ceramide synthase schlank. To test

whether excess ceramide causes the lysosomal defect, we depleted *schlank* in the fat

body and assessed CtsL maturation. *schlank* knockdown reduced the accumulation of

pro-CtsL in Yki flies, indicating improved lysosomal proteolysis (Fig. 4i). Consistently,

schlank depletion decreased lysosome numbers and sizes (Fig. 4j-l). Importantly,

autolysosome numbers were also reduced (Fig. 4m), and fewer enlarged autolysosomes

normalized average autophagic vesicle sizes (Fig. 4n). Notably, *schlank* knockdown did not

change autophagic vesicle numbers (Fig. 4o), aligning with our model that autophagosome

biogenesis is mediated by CG5966. Functionally, relieving the lysosomal block improved

host physiology. Without altering tumor burden or proliferation (Fig. 4p–r), *schlank*

depletion reduced bloating and total body fluid (Fig. 4p,s,t), restored climbing ability, and

extended survival in Yki flies (Fig. 4u,v). Together, these findings support a model in which

ceramide accumulation-induced lysosomal dysfunction blocks autophagic clearance; the

consequent accumulation of enlarged, dysfunctional autolysosomes contribute causally

to paraneoplastic syndrome pathology in the Yki model.

The JAK–STAT pathway drives fat body autophagy dysregulation

We next asked what upstream signal induces fat-body autophagy dysregulation. Many TG

lipases (e.g., *brummer/bmm*, fly homolog of *ATGL*) are upregulated when insulin signaling

is low to mobilize stored energy (Wang et al., 2011). Although Yki flies exhibit reduced

systemic insulin activity due to elevated circulating ImpL2 (an insulin-like peptide

antagonist) (Kwon et al., 2015), *CG5966* expression was not suppressed by restoring fat

body insulin signaling via overexpression of a constitutively active from of the insulin

receptor (*InRca*) (Fig. S5a). Beyond insulin, prior work showed increased Upd3/JAK-STAT

and Pvf1/Pvr-RTK signaling in Yki flies (Ding et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022, 2025; Song et al.,

2019); we therefore tested whether these pathways regulate *CG5966*. Among these

candidates, *Upd3* overexpression in intestinal stem cells (ISCs) (*esg>Upd3*) led to an

upregulation of *CG5966* in the fat body (Fig. 5a). Consistently, fat body expression of

constitutively active from of Stat92E (*Lpp>Stat92E^act-HA*) increased *CG5966* expression

(Fig. 5b). Strikingly, the ceramide synthase *schlank* showed the same regulatory pattern

(Fig. 5c, d). These results suggest that the Upd3/JAK-STAT pathway induces expression of

both *CG5966* and *schlank* in wildtype flies.

To validate this regulatory axis in the tumor context, we used the dual binary systems:

GAL4-UAS to express Yki in ISCs and LexA-LexAop to deplete the JAK-STAT pathway

components *hop* (JAK) and *Stat92e* (STAT) in the fat body. As expected, inhibition of JAK-

STAT pathway reduced *CG5966* and *schlank* expression (Fig. 5e-h). Published Stat92e

ChIP-seq dataset (ENCODE, ENCSR290OJD/ENCFF873KIF) revealed STAT-binding motifs

and putative Stat92E occupancy within promoter and intronic regions of *CG5966* and

schlank (Fig. 5i). In agreement, fat body ChIP confirmed Stat92E association at these loci

(Fig. 5j). Consistent with the gene expression regulation, inhibiting JAK-STAT signaling in the

fat body lowered whole-body ceramide (Fig. 5k), reduced the size and number of

autophagic vesicles and lysosomes, decreased autolysosome abundance (Fig. 5i-q), and

cleared the accumulation of pro-CtsL (Fig. 5r), indicating restored lysosomal maturation.

Together, these data indicate that Upd3/JAK-STAT signaling upregulates two effectors of

autophagy in the fat body: *CG5966*, which boosts autophagosome biogenesis; and

schlank, which elevates ceramide and impairs lysosomal function, together driving

autophagy dysregulation in Yki flies.

Conserved pathogenic mechanism in mouse models and humans

We next asked whether this dysregulation axis is conserved in mammals. We used

C57BL/6 mice bearing Lewis lung carcinoma (LLC) tumors engineered either to secrete IL-6

(LLC+IL-6) or not (LLC). LLC+IL-6 mice exhibit rapid weight loss, indicating progress of

paraneoplastic syndrome (Liu et al., 2025). To examine if mammalian lipases that

functionally homologous to CG5966 acts downstream of IL-6 in tumor-bearing mice, we

profiled expression of putative mammalian orthologs of *CG5966*, *Pnlip* and *Lpl* in liver as

well as adipose tissue, the major TG storage site in mammals. *Pnlip* is predominantly

expressed in the pancreas, thus was undetectable in either adipose tissue or liver.

Conversely, *Lpl* was induced in both tissues of LLC+IL-6 mice (Fig. 6a, b). Given that

triglyceride (TG) stores in mammals reside predominantly in adipose tissue. These data

suggest that IL-6 promotes lipolysis in both adipose tissue and liver, aligning with our

observation of elevated lipolysis in the fly fat body, which is functionally analogous to

mammalian adipose tissue and liver. To map underlying lipid fate, we performed lipidomics

on adipose tissue and liver in LLC and LLC+IL-6 mice. In adipose tissue, C16/C18 acyl

chains were depleted from TG in LLC+IL-6 mice (Fig. 6c; Fig. S6a), suggesting selective

liberation of C16/18 fatty acids. A similar selective TG depletion was evident in the liver

(Fig. 6d; Fig. S6b), where phospholipids (PC, PI, PE, PG) with C16/C18 chains were

significantly enriched (Fig. 6e-h; Fig. S6c-e), paralleling our fly data. Together, our data

reveal a conserved regulation of lipolysis by IL-6 in both fly and mammalian tumor models

and suggest that lipolysis provides C16/18 fatty acids for specific phospholipid production.

Given that TG substrates for lipolysis are predominantly stored in mammalian adipose

tissue, our findings further point to a possible adipose-liver communication mechanism,

whereby adipocyte triglyceride hydrolysis fuels hepatic phospholipid biosynthesis in the

mouse paraneoplastic syndrome model.

Mammalian liver preferentially generates C22–C24 ceramide from acyl-CoAs by CerS2

(Pewzner-Jung et al., 2010). However, in the LLC+IL-6 mice, C16:0 was depleted from

hepatic TG while C16 ceramide was enriched (Fig. 6h), suggesting an elevated hepatic

ceramide production from palmitoyl-CoA derived from lipolysis. Motivated by this

observation, we examined hepatic ceramide synthesis by measuring the expression of

ceramide synthases (CerS1–6) in liver following IL-6 induction. Among them, *CerS4*, *CerS5*,

and *CerS6* were upregulated (Fig. 6i-k; Fig. S6f). Given reported substrate preferences of

CerS4 (favoring C18 and 20), CerS5 and CerS6 (mostly C16) (Mizutani et al., 2005; Pewzner-

Jung et al., 2010; Riebeling et al., 2003), these inductions are consistent with the observed

redistribution of C16 acyl chains in TG and ceramide. Next, we asked whether autophagy is

blocked similarly as observed in our fly model. Indeed, immunoblot markers of autophagic

flux indicated a late-stage block at the autolysosome in livers of LLC+IL-6 mice (Fig. 6l),

evidenced by: accumulation of pro-CtsL, indicating impaired lysosomal maturation;

elevated SQSTM1/p62, indicating defective cargo degradation; incompletely glycosylated

LAMP2, consistent with lysosomal biogenesis/maturation defects; and increased LC3-II,

which, in the context of rising p62, supports impaired flux downstream of autophagosome

formation (Klionsky et al., 2021). Together, these findings mirror the phenotype of blocked

autophagic clearance in Yki flies. To assess consequences of dysregulations of autophagy

in mammalian tumor model, we turned to an inducible lung-cancer model ($Kras^{LSL-G12D}/+;$

$Lkb^{\wedge flox/flox}$; "KL" mice), in which tumors were initiated by intranasal Ad-Cre. In this model,

~70% of mice display cachexia (>15% body-weight loss) 5-6 weeks following the tumor

induction (Goncalves et al., 2018). We assessed the expression correlation of $CerS$ and

their weight loss in cachectic and non-cachectic groups, and found that expression of

$CerS4$ and $CerS5$, two CerS with substrate preference for C16 and C18-20 fatty acids,

positively correlated with weight loss (Fig. 6m, n), reinforcing their link to paraneoplastic

syndrome progression.

Extending these findings to humans, we analyzed non-diseased liver from GTEx project

(226 participants). Because IL-6 activates STAT3, we asked whether hepatic $CERS4/5/6$

expression corresponds with STAT3 activity. Expression of $CERS5$ and $CERS6$ positively

correlated with canonical IL-6/STAT3 targets (CRP, $HIF1A$, $TIMP1$) and with $STAT3$ itself (Fig.

6o-r; Fig. S6g-j) (Castell et al., 1990; Dien et al., 2006; Johnson et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2007),

suggesting IL-6 driven regulation of $CERS5$ and $CERS6$ in the human liver. To explore the

clinical relevance of hepatic lipolysis and ceramide synthesis, we analyzed transcriptomic

data from the TCGA Pan-Cancer Hepatocellular Carcinoma cohort (372 participants)

(Hoadley et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018). In alignment with our fly and mouse model findings,

higher hepatic LPL expression associated with worse survival (Fig. 6t). We then examined

genes in human de $novo$ ceramide synthesis pathway (Fig. 6s): $CERS5$ and $CERS6$ were

significantly associated with worse survival (Fig. 6u,v; Fig. S6k-n). We also assessed

$DEGS1$, which catalyzes the desaturation of dihydroceramide to ceramide (Fig. 6s); higher

$DEGS1$ aligned with adverse outcomes. By contrast, $DEGS2$, a bifunctional C4-

hydroxylase/desaturase with tissue-restricted roles (Ota et al., 2023; UniProt DEGS2 entry,

2025; Jojima et al., 2023), showed no such association, consistent with its lower hepatic

relevance (Fig. S6o). Collectively, these cross-species data support a conserved

mechanism: Upd3/IL-6/JAK-STAT signaling induces *LPL* and *CerS* expression (notably

CerS5/6), driving a late-stage autophagy block, and contributing to paraneoplastic

syndrome.

Discussion

Interleukin-6 (IL-6) is a central cytokine in the metabolic crosstalk between tumors and the

host, coordinating systemic inflammation and altered fuel handling that drive

paraneoplastic syndromes (Barton, 2001; Johnson et al., 2018). Our work builds upon this

understanding by identifying a novel, cytokine-driven lipid axis that causes paraneoplastic

hepatic dysfunction. We demonstrate that the *Drosophila* IL-6 ortholog, Upd3, activates

the JAK-STAT pathway in the fat body, a liver-like tissue, to simultaneously upregulate two

key effectors: the triglyceride lipase *CG5966* (putative ortholog of human *LPL*) and the

ceramide synthase *schlank* (ortholog of human *CERS*). This coordinated upregulation

diverts liberated fatty acids into both phospholipids and ceramides. While the increase in

phospholipids promotes the formation of new autophagosomes, the concurrent

accumulation of ceramides impairs lysosomal function, blocking autophagic clearance at

a late stage. This dual-pronged mechanism, initiating autophagy while simultaneously

blocking its completion, leads to a severe buildup of dysfunctional autolysosomes that

contributes to hepatic pathology. Importantly, we show that this pathogenic axis is

conserved in mouse models of cancer cachexia and that elevated hepatic CERS

expression correlates with poor survival in human hepatocellular carcinoma, suggesting

this pathway as a potential therapeutic target.

IL-6 orchestrates a systemic mobilization of energy storage through its coordinated actions

on adipose tissue and the liver, though upregulating *LPL* and other lipases, to stimulate

triglyceride hydrolysis, increasing the circulation of free fatty acids (Agca and Kir, 2024). As

we have previously shown, IL-6/JAK-STAT3 signaling in the liver also induces gluconeogenic

programs and elevates *PDK3*, which inhibits pyruvate dehydrogenase and shunts carbon

away from mitochondrial oxidation (Liu et al., 2025). This rerouting creates an uncommon

metabolic mismatch: the liver is flooded with fatty acids from adipose tissue while its

capacity for complete fatty acid oxidation is constrained. Faced with this chronic fatty acid

overload, hepatocytes may buffer the excess by channeling them into alternative

pathways, including the synthesis of phospholipids and ceramides. As such, we propose

that IL-6's normally adaptive role in substrate mobilization becomes maladaptive when

sustained in a cancer context. The liberated fatty acids, unable to be efficiently oxidized,

are progressively redirected into membrane lipids and bioactive sphingolipids, setting the

stage for lipid-driven organelle dysfunction.

This prolonged fatty acid oversupply directly perturbs membrane biogenesis and

autophagy. Autophagosome formation requires a continuous supply of membrane lipids

(Harayama and Riezman, 2018), supporting this, studies have shown that phospholipids

fueled by *de novo* lipogenesis are essential for efficient autophagic flux (Rowland et al.,

2023). However, we show that ceramide accumulation rewires autophagy in a context-

dependent manner. Sustained elevation of ceramide compromises lysosomal function by

causing membrane permeabilization, altering cathepsin processing, and ultimately

blocking late-stage autophagic clearance (Gabandé-Rodríguez et al., 2014; Liu et al.,

2016). Our observation that IL-6 signaling leads to the accumulation of enlarged

autolysosomes and defective lysosomal maturation is consistent with a model where fatty

acid redirection into phospholipids drives autophagy initiation, but the concurrent

synthesis of ceramides perturb flux at the lysosome.

Ceramide synthases are sophisticatedly regulated, integrating hormonal, stress, and

kinase signals. For instance, their transcription is controlled by factors like 17β-estradiol,

GPER1, and FOXP3 (Qi et al., 2021; Wegner et al., 2014), and their activity is modulated post-translationally by phosphorylation via kinases such as CK2 and PKC (Fresques et al., 2015; Mullen et al., 2012). Our data place IL-6 and the JAK-STAT pathway as a novel upstream regulator of hepatic *CerS4/5/6*, adding a critical inflammatory dimension to this complex regulatory landscape. Importantly, *CerS5* and *CerS6* emerge as particularly actionable effectors of IL-6-associated hepatic dysfunction. These isoforms preferentially generate C16-ceramide, a lipid species implicated in hepatic insulin resistance, steatosis, and inflammation (Chavez and Summers, 2012; Pewzner-Jung et al., 2010). Our finding that IL-6 induces *CerS5/6* suggests a pernicious feed-forward loop where cytokine-driven ceramide accumulation sustains insulin resistance, organelle stress, and lysosome-limited autophagy. Supporting this, higher *CerS5/6* expression is significantly associated with reduced survival in hepatocellular carcinoma. This data suggests that targeting this axis, especially by selectively inhibiting CerS5/6, could represent a promising strategy to mitigate lipotoxic stress and restore autophagy-lysosome competence in cancer-associated hepatic dysfunction. In conclusion, we offer insights into a mechanistic link from chronic inflammation to a failure of lipid homeostasis and lysosome-limited autophagy, nominating the IL-6/CerS axis as a key driver of cancer-associated hepatic dysfunction.

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Author Contributions

Y.L., T.M, and N.P. conceived the study and designed the experiments. Y.L. and T.M. conducted the majority of the experiments and the data analysis. Y.L. and A.W. carried out the mouse experiments. A.H.K performed AFM analysis. Y.L., T.M. and Y.H. were responsible for the bioinformatics analysis. J. M. A. helped for the lipidomics analysis. R.B generated the transgenic fly strains. Z.J.Z and X.M.S. helped for western blotting and

plasmid construction. Y.L., T.M. and N.P. interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript

with contributions and feedback from all authors. All authors reviewed and approved the

final manuscript.

Materials and Methods

***Drosophila* strains**

All flies were maintained on standard cornmeal fly food containing yeast and agar. Crosses

were reared at 18°C to inactivate Gal4 and LexA. Adult offspring flies were collected within

2 days after emerging, kept at 18°C for an additional day and subsequently shifted to 29°C

for indicated days to induce transgene and/or RNAi expression. Fly food was changed every

2 days. Stocks used in this study include *esg-LexA::GAD* (BDSC 66632), *tub-Gal80ts, Lpp-*

Gal4 (Song et al., 2017), *LexAop-Yki3SA-GFP* (Saavedra et al., 2021), *UAS-CG5966-RNAi*

(RNAi #1: VDRC 13163, RNAi #2: VDRC 13164), *UAS-hop-RNAi* (BDSC 32966), *UAS-*

Stat92e-RNAi (BDSC 33637), *UAS-schank-RNAi* (BDSC 29340), *UAS-Atg1-RNAi* (BDSC

26731), *UAS-HA-Stat92E* dominant-active form (Ekas et al., 2010), *UAS-Upd3* (Woodcock

et al., 2015), and *UAS-Pvf1*(Xu et al., 2022). *w1118* was used as control. Female flies are

used in all experiments as they showed a more significant and consistent bloating

phenotype.

Plasmid and transgenic *Drosophila* strains

The full-length cDNA of *CG5966* (FlyBase ID: FBcl0163613) was obtained from DGRC

(Stock 1514588). The insert was first cloned into pENTR-TOPO (Thermo Fisher) following

the manufacturer's protocol, then transferred into the *pWALIUM10-moe UAS* destination

vector by Gateway LR recombination to generate *UAS-CG5966*. Positive clones were

verified by colony PCR and complete Sanger sequencing. Endotoxin-reduced plasmid DNA

was prepared by EndoFree midiprep for embryo injections. ΦC31 integrase–mediated

transgenesis was used to integrate *UAS-CG5966* into standard attP docking sites: attP40

on chromosome 2L (25C7) or attP2 on chromosome 3L (68A4). Plasmid DNA was injected

into pre-blastoderm embryos by in-house microinjection. Surviving G_0 adults were crossed

individually to balancer stocks, and transformants were identified in the G_1 by *mini-white*

marker selection. GAL4-dependent overexpression of *CG5966* was verified in the fat body

by RT-qPCR.

Lipidomics

Lipidomics and metabolomics of fly samples were performed following the classic Folch

method (Folch et al., 1957). 15 adult flies or 40 abdomens were used for lipidomics and

metabolomics. Solid samples were homogenized in a 1 mL Dounce homogenizer (TIGHT)

on ice with 0.6 mL chloroform and 0.3 mL methanol (2:1 chloroform-methanol mixture).

Homogenized samples were transferred to a 15 mL glass tube with a Teflon cap, and an

additional 0.6 mL chloroform and 0.3 mL methanol were added to make the final volume

approximately 1.8 mL. Samples were vortexed briefly and incubated at room temperature

on a rotator for 30–45 minutes. Following incubation, 0.2 volumes (0.36 mL) of HPLC-grade

deionized water (HPLC dH2O) were added. The mixture was vortexed three times (5

seconds each), followed by centrifugation at 1000 × g for 10 minutes at 4°C. The lower

phase, containing non-polar lipids, was transferred to a clean 1.85 mL glass test tube using

a glass pipette. The phase was dried under nitrogen gas for approximately 30 minutes, and

the dried lipids were stored at -80°C to prevent oxidation. The non-polar lipids were

resuspended in 35 μL of HPLC-grade 50% methanol/50% isopropyl alcohol (IPA) and then

injected and analyzed using untargeted LC-MS/MS on a Thermo QExactive Plus Orbitrap

mass spectrometer. Lipid molecules were identified using LipidSearch version 4.2 (Thermo

Scientific). Ion intensity was quantified by measuring the area size of identified peaks.

Protein lysate preparation and Western blot

30 abdomens with gonads and guts removed were dissected and lysed in RIPA lysis buffer

(50 mM Tris, pH = 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1% Triton X-

100, 1× complete ULTRA Mini EDTA-free protease inhibitor (Roche), and 1 mM PMSF).

Dissected tissues in RIPA buffer were mixed with zirconium oxide beads (NextAdvance) and

homogenized using a TissueLyser II (Qiagen). Homogenates were incubated on ice for 15

min and centrifuged for 15 min at 16,000 × g at 4 °C. Supernatants were transferred to new

tubes, and protein concentrations were determined using the BCA Protein Assay Kit

(Pierce) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were diluted to equal

protein concentrations with RIPA buffer and stored at –80 °C. Equal amounts of total

protein were mixed with 4× Laemmli sample buffer (Bio-Rad) containing 10% β-

mercaptoethanol to a final 1× concentration, boiled at 95 °C for 5 min, and centrifuged at

16,000× g for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were transferred to new tubes. Equal amounts

of sample were loaded to a Mini-PROTEAN TGX Stain-Free Precast Gels (Bio-Rad) and ran

using 1× Tris/Tricine/SDS Running Buffer (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Spectra Multicolor Broad Range Protein Ladder (ThermoFish) was used as a

molecular weight marker. The samples on the gel were transferred to a FL PVDF membrane

using Tris/Glycine Buffer (Millipore) for 16 min, according to the manufacturer's

instructions. The membrane was then blocked with 1% Casein in 1× Tris Buffered Saline

(TBS) (Bio-Rad) for 1 hour at room temperature. Next, the membrane was incubated in a

primary antibody dilution in 1% Casein in 1× TBS overnight at 4 °C with gentle shaking.

Primary antibodies were used at the following concentrations: 1:1000 mouse anti-Ctsl

(R&D Systems, MAB22591, 1:2000 rabbit anti-Atg8 (Abcam, ab109364). Next, the

membrane was washed three times quickly in TBST, followed by three 10-min washes in

TBST with gentle shaking. The membrane was then incubated with fluorescently labeled

secondary antibody in 1% Casein in 1× TBS for 1 h at room temperature with gentle

shaking. The dilution of the fluorescently labeled secondary antibody was used as follow:

1:2500 hFAB™ Rhodamine; 1:2500 Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Secondary Antibody,

DyLight™ 800 4X PEG; 1:2500 IRDye 680RD Goat anti-Mouse IgG Secondary Antibody. After

incubation, the membrane was washed three times quickly in TBST, followed by three 10-

min washes in TBST with gentle shaking. Then, the membranes were imaged using a Biorad

Chemidoc MP imager.

Quantitative RT-PCR of fly samples

For fly samples, Nucleospin RNA kit (Macherey-Nagel) was used to extract RNA. cDNA was

synthesized using iScript™ cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad, 1708890) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. qPCR was performed with Thermal Cycler CFX 96 Real-Time

System qPCR machine using iQ™ SYBR® Green Supermix (Bio-Rad). *RP49* and *CG13220*

were used as housekeeping genes. Primers used are listed in the supplemental file.

Body fluid measurements

Body fluid measurement was described previously (Xu et al., 2024). Briefly, flies were

weighted, then dried at 65 °C for 5 hours, and weighted again. Body fluid is calculated by

subtracting the second read from the first one.

Climbing index and survival curve of flies

To assess the climbing ability, flies were transferred to a new vial and then tapped down to

the bottom. Vials were imaged after 4 seconds. Percentages of flies in the upper 2/3 of the

vial were recorded. 4 independent vials for each genotype were tested to generate the

climbing index. Survival of flies was analyzed by calculating the percentage of flies alive in

each vial incubated at 29 °C. 3 vials of 10-16 flies from each genotype were tested and flies

were flipped to vials with fresh food daily.

Gut and fly imaging

Adult fly guts were dissected in cold 1X PBS and fixed for 30 minutes in 1X PBS with 4%

formaldehyde. Samples were washed three times in 1X PBS with 0.3% Triton X-100 (PBT)

and then mounted in Vectashield with DAPI (Vector Laboratories, H-1200). For pH3

staining, washed guts were incubated with blocking buffer (5% NDS in PBT) for 1 hour at

room temperature. Primary antibodies and rabbit anti-pH3 (1:500, CST 9701S) were

incubated overnight at 4°C. Guts were washed three times in PBT before incubating with

secondary antibody, donkey anti-rabbit 565 (1:2000, Molecular Probes A31572), for 1 hour.

After three washes in PBT, guts were mounted in Vectashield with DAPI (Vector

Laboratories, H-1200). Confocal images were taken with Nikon Ti and Ti2 Spinning Disk at

the Microscopy Resources on the North Quad (MicRoN) core facility at Harvard Medical

School with Nikon Elements Acquisition Software AR (v5.02). Tumors were quantified by

measuring the average GFP signaling strength of gut tumors from individual flies using Fiji-

imageJ. Adult fly phenotypes were imaged using a ZEISS Axiozoom V16 fluorescence

microscope. Bloating was quantified by the ratio between abdomen and head

compartment size using Fiji-imageJ.

Live imaging of autophagic vesicle and lysosome

For live imaging of autophagy and lysosomes, abdominal cuticles were dissected in cold

Schneider's insect medium. Samples were then incubated for 10 minutes at room

temperature in a staining buffer composed of Schneider's medium, CYTO-ID® Autophagy

Detection Reagent (1:1000, Enzo Life Sciences ENZ-KIT175), Hoechst nuclear stain

(1:1000), and LysoTracker™ Deep Red (500 nM, Thermo Fisher Scientific L12492). Following

incubation, the samples were rinsed once with fresh Schneider's medium and then twice

with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Finally, the stained cuticles were transferred to a

glass slide with mounting medium, coverslipped, and immediately visualized using a Nikon

Ti2 Spinning Disk confocal microscope.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation

ChIP assay was performed using SimpleChIP® Plus Enzymatic Chromatin IP Kit (Cell Signaling, 9005). For each immunoprecipitation, fat bodies from 50 adult flies with HA-tagged dominant-active Stat92e fat body expression were dissected and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Samples were cross-linked with 1.5% formaldehyde for 20 minutes at room temperature (RT). After stopping cross-linking by adding glycine solution for 5 minutes at RT, samples were washed twice with 1 ml 1X PBS containing 1X Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (PIC) and disaggregated using 1 ml dounce homogenizer. Nuclei were prepared according to the manufacturer's protocol and were lysed with Diagenode Bioruptor sonicator to release the cross-linked chromatin. Chromatins were diluted in 1X ChIP buffer and incubated with 10 ul HA-Tag (C29F4) Rabbit mAb (Cell Signaling, 3724) or Normal Rabbit IgG (Cell Signaling, 2729) overnight at 4°C with rotation. 30 ul ChIP-Grade Protein G Magnetic Beads (Cell Signaling, 9006) were incubated with each immunoprecipitation for 2 hours at 4 °C with rotation. Beads were washed and incubated in 150 µl 1X ChIP Elution Buffer at 65 °C for 30 minutes with vortexing (1200 rpm) to elute the chromatin. Reversing cross-links was done by adding 6 µl 5M NaCl and 2 µl Proteinase K to the eluted chromatin supernatant and incubating 2 hours at 65°C. DNA was purified from each sample using Spin Columns provided by the kit. 1 ul DNA sample was used as template for qPCR to detect enrichments of certain DNA regions. qPCR of a fragment in the Sam-S gene region was used as the negative control. Primers used are listed in the supplemental file.

Mouse models

The $Kras^{G12D/+}$; $Lkb1^{f/f}$ mice have been described before (Ji et al., 2007), and were further backcrossed to FVB mice. Tumor induction in adult FVB mice (12- to 20-week-old) was achieved by intranasal administration of 75 µL of PBS containing 2.5×10^7 pfu of Adenovirus CMV-Cre (Ad5CMV-Cre) obtained from the University of Iowa Gene Transfer Vector Core (Iowa City, IA) and 1 mM $CaCl_2$. We had previously defined mice as CACS if they lost more than 15% of body weight from their peak weight over the course of the experiment, otherwise they were classified as NCACS (Goncalves et al., 2018; Queiroz et

al., 2022). Male mice were used for liver RNAseq, both male and female mice were used in

all other experiments. The *Kras*$^{G12D/+}$; *Lkb1*$^{f/f}$ mice experiments were approved by the

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of Weill Cornell Medical College and

maintained as approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at

Weill Cornell Medicine (NYC).

C57BL/6J mice were obtained from the Jackson Laboratory (Strain #000664). After a week

of acclimation, 2 x 10^6 Lewis Lung Carcinoma (LLC) cells or LLC cells edited to produce IL-6

(LLC-IL6) were subcutaneously inoculated into their right flank. Mice were kept in

pathogen-free conditions on a 24 hour 12:12 light-dark cycle. Male C57BL/6J mice were

used in the experiments. C57BL/6J mice experiments were approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory (CSHL) and

were conducted in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care

and Use of Laboratory Animals. Body weights and clinical signs of cachexia were

monitored daily. Handling was kept to a minimum. Mice were sacrificed when tumor size

exceeded 2 cm length, when weight loss exceeded 15% from peak weight, or when showing

clinical signs of discomfort indicative of cachectic endpoint as stated by the Animal

Cachexia Score (ACASCO): piloerection, diarrhea or constipation, hunched posture,

tremors, and closed eyes. Death was confirmed by cervical dislocation. Mice injected with

LLC-IL6 cells reached >15% bodyweight loss endpoint. Mice in the LLC group were

sacrificed 22-24 days after injection of the LLC cell line, when tumors reached 2 cm in

length. LLC group mice did not reach cachectic endpoint but did exhibit a mild cachectic

phenotype, characterized by reduced adipose and muscle tissue mass, and splenomegaly

compared to non-tumor bearing control group mice.

Plasma measurements from C57BL/6J mice

Tail vein bleeds were performed using a scalpel via tail venesection without restraint.

Plasma samples were collected using heparin-coated hematocrit capillary tubes to avoid

coagulation and were processed as follows: centrifuge spin at 14,000 rpm for 5 min at 4°C,

snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. IL-6 levels were measured from plasma

using the mouse IL-6 Quantikine ELISA Kit (#M6000B; R&D Systems).

Lewis Lung Carcinoma (LLC) cell line

LLC cells were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and cultured in

complete growth medium consisting of Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)

(#10027CV; Corning) containing 10% of Heat-Inactivated Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (#10-

438-026; Thermo Fisher) and 1x Penicillin-Streptomycin solution (#15-140-122; Thermo

Fisher) under sterile conditions. 1x Trypsin-EDTA (#15400054; Thermo Fisher) was used for

cell dissociation. Cells were resuspended in FBS-free DMEM and viable cells were counted

using a Vi-Cell counter prior to subcutaneous injection of 2×10^{6} viable cells diluted in

100μL DMEM into the right flank of each C57BL/6J mouse.

LLC cells were edited to constitutively produce interleukin-6 (IL-6). LLC cells were seeded

into 24-well plates with 50,000 cells per well. After 24 hours, they were transfected with a

total of 500ng of plasmid (comprising 2.5:1 PB-IL6 plasmid and PBase plasmids) using

Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher) according to the manufacturer's protocol. PBase

plasmid was obtained from System Biosciences (#PB210PA-1) and PB-IL6 was obtained

from VectorBuilding comprising mouse Il6 cDNA driven by EF1a promoter and flanked by

piggyBac elements. After 48 hours, the media was changed and replaced with DMEM

media supplemented with 3 μg/ml puromycin. After 14 days of antibiotic selection, the

media was replaced with DMEM media for 24 hours, followed by isolation of monoclonal

populations by serial dilutions in a 96-well plate. To identify clones with constitutive IL-6

expression, we measured IL-6 in the cell supernatant for each clone using the Mouse IL-6

ELISA Kit (#ab222503; Abcam).

Lipid extraction and profiling in mice

Lipid extracts were analyzed using a Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC system (Thermo Scientific)

coupled with a QExactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) mass

spectrometer. Chromatographic separation was achieved on an ACQUITY UPLC CSH C18

column (130Å, 1.7 µm, 2.1 mm × 100 mm) with an ACQUITY UPLC CSH C18 VanGuard pre-

column (130Å, 1.7 µm, 2.1 mm × 5 mm) (Waters, Milford, MA) with column temperature at

50 ˚C. For the gradient, mobile phase A consisted of an acetonitrile-water mixture (6:4), and

mobile phase B was a 2-propanol-acetonitrile mixture (9:1), both phases containing 10 mM

ammonium formate and 0.1% formic acid. The linear elution gradient was: 0-3 min, 20% B;

3- 7 min, 20-55% B; 7-15 min, 55-65% B; 15-21 min, 65-70% B; 21-24 min, 70-100% B; and

24-26 min, 100% B, 26-28 min, 100-20% B, 28-30 min, 20% B, with a flow rate of 0.35 mL/

min. The autosampler was at 4˚C. The injection volume was 5 µL. Needle wash was applied

between samples using a mixture of dichloromethane-isopropanol-acetonitrile (1:1:1).

ESI-MS analysis was performed in positive and negative ionization polarities using a

combined full mass scan and data-dependent MS/MS (Top 10) (Full MS/dd-MS^2) approach.

The experimental conditions for full scanning were as follows: resolving power, 70,000;

automatic gain control (AGC) target, 1×10^6; and maximum injection time (IT), 100 ms. The

scan range of the instrument was set to m/z 100-1200 in both positive and negative ion

modes. The experimental conditions for the data-dependent product ion scanning were as

follows: resolving power, 17,500; AGC target, 5×10^4; and maximum IT, 50 ms. The isolation

width and stepped normalized collision energy (NCE) were set to 1.0 m/z, and 10, 20, and 40

eV. The intensity threshold of precursor ions for dd-MS2 analysis and the dynamic exclusion

were set to 1.6×10^5 and 10 s. The ionization conditions in the positive mode were as follows:

sheath gas flow rate, 50 arb; auxiliary (AUX) gas flow rate, 15 arb; sweep gas flow rate, 1 arb;

ion spray voltage, 3.5 kV; AUX gas heater temperature, 325 ˚C; capillary temperature, 350 ˚C;

and S-lens RF level, 55. The ionization conditions in the negative mode were as follows:

sheath gas flow rate, 45 arb; auxiliary (AUX) gas flow rate, 10 arb; sweep gas flow rate, 1 arb;

ion spray voltage, 2.5 kV; AUX gas heater temperature, 320 ˚C; capillary temperature, 320 ˚C;

and S-lens RF level, 55.

Thermo Scientific™ LipidSearch™ software version 5.0 was used for lipid identification and

quantitation. First, the product search mode was used during which lipids were identified

based on the exact mass of the precursor ions and the mass spectra resulting from product

ion scanning. The precursor and product tolerances were set to 10 and 10 ppm mass

windows. The absolute intensity threshold of precursor ions and the relative intensity

threshold of product ions were set to 30000 and 1%. Next, the search results from the

individual positive or negative ion files from each sample were aligned within a retention time

window (±0.25 min) and then all the data were merged for each annotated lipid with a

retention time correction tolerance of 0.5 min. The annotated lipids were then filtered to

reduce false positives by only including a total grade of A or B or C for PC and SM; otherwise

only including grade A or B.

Bulk RNA-Sequencing from KL livers

Total RNA was extracted from the liver using TRIzol (Thermo Fisher), followed by a clean-up

step using RNeasy kit (Qiagen). One microgram of total RNA from each sample was

submitted to the WCM Genomics Resources Core Facility. Raw sequenced reads were

aligned to the mouse reference GRCm38 using STAR (v2.4.1d, 2-pass mode) aligner, and

raw counts were obtained using HTSeq (v0.6.1). Differential expression analysis, batch

correction and principal component analysis (PCA) were performed using R Studio Version

4.2.2 and DESeq2 (v.1.38.3). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) analysis was performed

with the R package fGSEA (10.18129/B9.bioc.fgsea), using the Reactome pathway

database contained in the 2022 release of Mouse Molecular Signatures Database from the

Broad Institute (https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/mouse/collections.jsp).

Quantitative RT-PCR of mouse samples

For LLC and IL6-secreting LLC mouse samples, 100 mg of liver tissue was lysed in 1 mL of

qiazol, using Qiagen TissueLyser II, at 20 Hz for 4 minutes. Samples were centrifuged at

12,000 g at 4 degrees C for 12 minutes to separate aqueous layer from organic layer and

any debris. Approximately 600 microliters of RNA containing aqueous layer was collected

and processed using Qiagen RNeasy lipid RNA extraction kit and QiaCube machine to

isolate RNA in 50 microliter elution volumes. RNA concentrations of all samples were

quantified, and samples were further diluted using ddH20 to reach a standard

concentration of 100 ng/uL for each sample. cDNA was synthesized using iScript™ cDNA

Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad, 1708890) according to the manufacturer's protocol. qPCR was

performed with Thermal Cycler CFX 96 Real-Time System qPCR machine using iQ™ SYBR®

Green Supermix (Bio-Rad). RN18 was used as housekeeping gene. Primers used are listed

in the supplemental file.

Public datasets, Software, Quantification and Statistical Analyses

Transcriptomic data from non-diseased liver samples of 226 individuals were obtained

from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) Project. Additionally, transcriptomic data and

corresponding survival records were obtained from the Hepatocellular Carcinoma (LIHC)

cohort of 372 patients in the PanCancer Atlas of The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) Program

(Hoadley et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018). Sex and gender were not considered in the design of

present research, and related information was not collected for the analysis. Kaplan-Meier

survival curves were generated using the R packages survival and survminer. We used

Biorender and PyMOL for a subset of figures, and ChatGPT to proofread parts of the text.

After using ChatGPT, the authors reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full

responsibility for the content of the publication. GraphPad Prism was used for statistical

analysis, gene expression correlation analysis, and generation of figures. Data distribution

was assumed to be normal, but this was not formally tested. Animals and samples were

randomly assigned to experimental groups, and the data collection was randomized. Data

collection and analysis were not performed blind to the conditions of the experiments.

Statistical analysis was done with student's t test (two experimental groups) or ordinary

one-way ANOVA (three or more experimental groups) by the default settings of GraphPad

Prism (ns indicates not significant, ∗ indicates p<0.05, ∗∗ indicates p<0.01, ∗∗∗ indicates

p<0.001, ∗∗∗∗ indicates p<0.0001). Gene expression levels (qPCR) were normalized to the

mean of control samples. Error bars indicate the standard deviations with the mean as the

center. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment, for fly

experiments, each biological replicates contains 10-16 flies otherwise noted; for mouse

experiment, each biological replicates is one mouse.

a

- 00_epithelial__cell
- 01_muscle_cell
- 02_indirect__flight_muscle
- 03_heart_muscle
- 04_visceral_muscle_of_midgut
- 05_intestinal_stem_cell
- 06_enterocyte
- 07_enterocyte-like
- 08_enteroendocrine_cell
- 09_cardia
- 10_hindgut_A
- 11_hindgut_B
- 12_hindgut_C
- 13_fat_body
- 14_oenocyte
- 15_hemocyte
- 16_tracheal_cell
- 17_malpighian_tubule_principal_cell
- 18_salivary_gland
- 19_ventral_nervous_system
- 20_cell_body_glial_cell
- 21_follicle_cell
- 22_follicle_cell_stage 9+*
- 23_stretch_follicle_cell
- 24_stalk_follicle_cell
- 25_cyst_stem_cells
- 26_germline_cell_A_unknown_stage
- 27_germline_cell_B_germline_cyst
- 28_germline_cell_C_unknown_stage
- 29_oviduct
- 30_female_reproductive_system_A
- 31_female_reproductive_system_B
- 32_neuron _A
- 33_neuron _B

Figure 1. Identification of CG5966 as a paraneoplastic factor

a, Progression association index of differential expressed genes across cell clusters. **b**, Images of gut tumors and phenotypes of Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 6. **c**, Quantification of gut tumors (GFP signal, arbitrary units) of Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 6 (n = 8). **d**, Total pH3 counts per gut of control flies and Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 6 (n = 8). **e**, The bloating quantification by abdomen/head (A/H) size ratio. **f**, Quantification of bloating phenotypes of control flies and Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 6 (A/H ratio, n=9). **g**, Body-fluid levels of Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 6 (n = 4). **h,i**, The climbing ability at day 6 (**h**) (n = 4) and survival curve (**i**) (n = 3) of control flies, Yki flies, and Yki flies with fat-body *CG5966* depletion. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment.

a CG5966 vs PNLIP
CG5966 PNLIP

b CG5966 vs LPL
CG5966 LPL

c TG
● Ctrl ● CG5966-OE

d C18:1
● Ctrl ● CG5966-OE

e C18:0
● Ctrl ● CG5966-OE

f C16:1
● Ctrl ● CG5966-OE

g C18:0
● Ctrl ● CG5966-OE

h TG Docked in CG5966
Green: TG (16:0_18:1_18:1)
Red: CG5966 Catalytic Triad

i AFM screen for CG5966
FDR@0.01: 0.55
FDR@0.05: 0.34
FDR@0.10: 0.22

j Clustered interaction fingerprint of CG5966
Amino Acid Coordinate

k Interactions of CG5966
PGAP5 | Atg12
CG10425 | Rab26
PIG-H | CG5966 | Rab27
CG5326 | Rab40
alpha4GT2 | CG5367
CG31523 | GILT1
GAA1
Membrane lipid biosynthesis | Autophagy

l Interacting sites
Cluster 1
Cluster 8

m CG5966 - Atg12
A: CG5966
B: Atg12
iLIS: 0.42 ipTM: 0.72

n CG5966 - Rab26
A: CG5966
B: Rab26
iLIS: 0.24 ipTM: 0.5

o CG5966 - Rab27
A: CG5966
B: Rab27
iLIS: 0.37 ipTM: 0.59

p CG5966 - Rab40
A: CG5966
B: Rab40
iLIS: 0.23 ipTM: 0.51

q FB>+ | FB>CG5966
30um

r Autophagic vesicle number
● Ctrl ● CG5966-OE

s Autophagic vesicle size
● Ctrl ● CG5966-OE

Figure 2. CG5966 is a triglyceride lipase that promotes autophagosome formation.

a,b, 3D structural modeling using AlphaFold demonstrating similarity of human PNLIP (**a**) and LPL (**b**) to CG5966. **c**, Relative levels of Abdomen TG levels of flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* overexpression (n=4). **d-g**, Relative levels of Abdomen C18:1 (**d**), C18:0 (**e**), C16:1 (**f**), and C16:0 (**g**) acyl chains levels of flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* overexpression (n=4), data were retrieved from lipidomics analysis. **h**, Molecular docking of TG (16:0/18:1/18:1) to CG5966 by the Boltz-2 docking model. **i**, AFM prediction of interacting partners of CG5966. **j**, Cluster of predicted interacting partners of CG5966 based on interacting sites. Y-axis present grouping of interacting patterners and X-axis indicate the interacting sites of CG5966. **k**, Predicted interactions between CG5966 with membrane lipid biosynthesis and autophagy regulators by AFM. **l**, Predicted interacting pocket of CG5966. **m-p**, AFM prediction of interaction between CG5966 and Atg12 (**m**), Rab26 (**n**), Rab27 (**o**), Rab40 (**p**). **q**, Live imaging of fat bodies with autophagic vesicle staining dye in flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* overexpression at day 7. **r, s**, Quantification of autophagic vesicle numbers (**r**) and sizes (**s**) in **r**. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment.

Figure 3. CG5966 promotes autophagosome formation in the fat body of Yki flies.

a, Live imaging of fat bodies with autophagic vesicle staining dye in Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 7. **b**, **c**, Quantification of autophagic vesicle numbers (**b**) and sizes (**c**) in **a**. **d**, Live imaging of fat bodies with autophagic vesicle staining dye in Yki flies with or without fat-body *Atg1* depletion at day 7. **e**, **f**, Quantification of autophagic vesicle numbers (**e**) and sizes (**f**) in **d**. **g**, Images of gut tumors and phenotypes of Yki flies with or without fat-body *Atg1* depletion at day 6. **h**, Quantification of gut tumors (GFP signal, arbitrary units) of Yki flies with or without fat-body *Atg1* depletion at day 6 (n = 8). **i**, Total pH3 counts per gut of control flies and Yki flies with or without fat-body Atg1 depletion at day 6 (n = 8). **j**, Quantification of bloating phenotypes of control flies and Yki flies with or without fat-body Atg1 depletion at day 6 (A/H ratio, n=9). **k**, Body-fluid levels of Yki flies with or without fat-body *Atg1* depletion at day 6 (n = 4). **l**, The climbing ability at day 6 (n = 4) of control flies, Yki flies, and Yki flies with fat-body *Atg1* depletion. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment.

Figure 4. Autophagic flux is blocked in Yki flies.

a, Live imaging of lysosomes in Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 7.

b, **c**, Quantification of lysosome numbers (**b**) and sizes (**c**) in **a**. **d**, Live imaging of lysosome

and autophagic vesicles in Yki flies at day 7. **e**, Quantification of sizes of autophagic

vesicles, autolysosome and lysosome in Yki flies. **f**, Quantification of autolysosome

numbers in Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 7. **g**, Western blot

showing pro and matured forms of CtsL in Yki and control flies. Rhodamine was used as

loading control. **h**, Relative levels of whole-body ceramide levels of Yki and control flies

(n=3), data were retrieved from lipidomics analysis. **i**, Western blot showing pro and

matured forms of CtsL in control flies, Yki flies with or without fat-body *schlank* depletion at

day 7. Rhodamine was used as loading control. **j**, Live imaging of lysosomes and

autophagic vesicles in Yki flies with or without fat-body *schlank* depletion at day 7. **k-n**,

Quantification of lysosome numbers (**k**) and sizes (**l**), autophagic vesicle numbers (**m**) and

sizes (**n**), autolysosome numbers (**o**) in **j**. **p**, Images of gut tumors and phenotypes of Yki

flies with or without fat-body *schlank* depletion at day 6. **q**, Quantification of gut tumors

(GFP signal, arbitrary units) of Yki flies with or without fat-body *schlank* depletion at day 6 (n

= 8). **r**, Total pH3 counts per gut of control flies and Yki flies with or without fat-body *schlank*

depletion at day 6 (n = 8). **s**, Quantification of bloating phenotypes of control flies and Yki

flies with or without fat-body *schlank* depletion at day 6 (A/H ratio, n=9). **t**, Body-fluid levels

of Yki flies with or without fat-body *schlank* depletion at day 6 (n = 4). **u**, **v**, The climbing

ability at day 6 (**u**) (n = 4) and survival curve (**v**) (n = 3) of control flies, Yki flies, and Yki flies

with fat-body *schlank* depletion. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001, ns

indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological

replicates in each experiment.

Figure 5. The JAK–STAT pathway regulates *CG5966* and *schlank* expression in the fat body.

a, **c**, qRT–PCR of *CG5966* (**a**) and *schlank* (**c**) mRNA in the fat body of flies with or without ISC *Upd3* or *Pvf1* expression (*esg>Upd3* or *Pvf1*) at day 8 (n = 3). **b**, **d**, *CG5966* (**b**) and *schlank* (**d**) mRNA in the fat body of flies with or without fat-body Stat92E-act (constitutive-activated form of Stat92e) expression at day 8 (n = 3). **e**, **g**, *CG5966* (**e**) and *schlank* (**g**) mRNA in the fat body of control, Yki flies, and Yki flies with fat-body *hop* depletion at day 6 (n = 3). **f**, **h**, *CG5966* (**f**) and *schlank* (**h**) mRNA in the fat body of Yki flies with or without fat-body *Stat92e* depletion at day 6 (n = 3). **i**, Data from the ChIP-seq database indicating enrichment of Stat92e binding at the *CG5966* and *schlank* promoter and gene regions. **j**, ChIP revealed the enrichment of haemagglutinin (HA)-tagged Stat92E-act binding at the *CG5966* and *schlank* gene regions, shown by fold changes relative to control IgG at day 8 (n = 3 biological replicates). Neg, negative control. **k**, Relative levels of whole-body ceramide levels of control, Yki flies, and Yki flies with fat-body *hop or Stat92E* depletion at day 6 (n = 3), data were retrieved from lipidomics analysis. **l**, Live imaging of lysosome and autophagic vesicles in Yki flies with or without fat-body *hop* or *Stat92e* depletion at day 7. **m-q**, Quantification of autophagic vesicle numbers (**m**) and sizes (**n**), lysosome numbers (**o**) and sizes (**p**), and autolysosome numbers (**q**) in **l**. **r**, Western blot showing pro and matured forms of CtsL in control flies, Yki flies with or without fat-body *hop* or *Stat92* depletion at day 7. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment.

Figure 6. Conserved pathogenic mechanism in mouse models and humans.

a, **b**, qRT–PCR of *Lpl* mRNA in adipose tissue (**a**) and liver (**b**) B6 mice injected with LLC cells with (n = 4) or without (n = 5) and IL-6 expression. **c,d**, Relative adipose (**c**) and liver (**d**) TG levels of B6 mice injected with LLC cells with or without IL-6 expression (n=5). **e-h**, Relative levels of liver C18:1 (**e**), C18:2 (**f**), C18:3 (**g**), and C16:0 (**h**) acyl chains levels of B6 mice injected with LLC cells with or without IL-6 expression (n=5). **i-k**, qRT–PCR of *CerS4* (**i**), *CerS5* (**j**), *CerS6* (**k**) mRNA in liver of B6 mice injected with LLC cells with or without IL-6 expression. **i**, Western blot showing forms of CtsL, LAMP2, LC3, and P62 in liver of B6 mice injected with LLC cells with or without IL-6 expression, with the loading control GAPDH. **m,n**, Correlation plots showing the positive relationship between liver CerS4 (**m**) and CerS5 (**n**) expression (n = 10) versus weight loss of KL mice. **o-r**, Correlation plots showing the positive relationship between expression of STAT3 and CerS5 (**o**), CPR and CerS5 (**p**), STAT3 and CerS6 (**q**), CPR and CerS6 (**r**) in non-diseased liver samples of 226 participants in the GTEx Project. TPM, transcript per million. **s**, Pathway map showing de novo ceramide synthesis pathway in human. **t-w**, Kaplan–Meier survival curves displaying the estimated survival probabilities of people with hepatocellular carcinoma with low (bottom third) and high (top third) hepatic expression of LPL (**t**), CERS5 (**u**), CERS6 (**v**), and DEGS1 (**w**). $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment.

a

- 00_epithelial_cell
- 01_muscle_cell
- 02_indirect_flight_muscle
- 03_heart_muscle
- 04_visceral_muscle_of_midgut
- 05_intestinal_stem_cell
- 06_enterocyte
- 07_enterocyte-like
- 08_enteroendocrine_cell
- 09_cardia
- 10_hindgut_A
- 11_hindgut_B
- 12_hindgut_C
- 13_fat_body
- 14_oenocyte
- 15_hemocyte
- 16_tracheal_cell
- 17_malpighian_tubule_principal_cell
- 18_salivary_gland
- 19_ventral_nervous_system
- 20_cell_body_glial_cell
- 21_follicle_cell
- 22_follicle_cell_stage 9+*
- 23_stretch_follicle_cell
- 24_stalk_follicle_cell
- 25_cyst_stem_cells
- 26_germline_cell_A_unknown_stage
- 27_germline_cell_B_germline_cyst
- 28_germline_cell_C_unknown_stage
- 29_oviduct
- 30_female_reproductive_system_A
- 31_female_reproductive_system_B
- 32_ neuron _A
- 33_neuron_ B

06_enterocyte
(2341)

21_follicle_cell
(1750)

02_indirect_flight_muscle
(1358)

13_fat_body
(1151)

b CG14275   c Pepck1   d IM2   e CG5966   f ScsβA

Fat body

Figure S1, related to Figure 1.

a, Distribution of progression associated genes across cell clusters. **b-f**, Expression of CG14275 (**b**), Pepck1 (**c**), IM2 (**d**), CG5966 (**e**), ScsbetaA (**f**) across cell clusters, data retried from snRNA-seq.

Figure S2, related to Figure 2.

a, Amino acid sequence alignments showing similarity of human lipases to *CG5966*. **b**, Whole-body TG levels of Yki flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* depletion at day 6 (n = 4). **c**, Lipidomics analysis setting. **d-h**, Proportions of significantly changed abdomen TG (**d**), and lipid species containing C18:1 (**e**), C18:0 (**f**), C16:1 (**g**), or C16:0 (**h**) Acyl chains in flies with or without fat-body *CG5966* overexpression (n=4), data were retrieved from lipidomics analysis. **i-k**, Proportions of abdomen PC (**i**), PG (**j**), PI (**k**) of flies with or without fat-body CG5966 overexpression (n=4), data were retrieved from lipidomics analysis. **l**, AFM analysis setting. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment.

Atg1 (Log2 Expression)

Figure S3, related to Figure 3.

Log2 expression of *Atg1* in day 5 and day 8 control and Yki flies, data were retrieved from

snRNAseq analysis.

Figure S4, related to Figure 4.

a, Western blot of Atg8 (LC3) of abdomen samples from control and Yki flies. **b**, Log2

expression of *Atg8a* in day 5 and day 8 control and Yki flies, data were retrieved from

snRNAseq analysis.

CG5966

963 **Figure S5, related to Figure 5.**

964 *CG5966* mRNA expression in the fat body of control, Yki flies, and Yki flies with fat-body

965 *InR-act* (active form of InR) expression at day 6 (n = 3). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001,

966 ****p < 0.0001, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates biological

967 replicates.

Figure S6. related to Figure 6.

a,b, Proportions of significantly changed adipose (**a**) and liver (**b**) TG levels of B6 mice injected with LLC cells with or without IL-6 expression (n=5). **c-e**, Proportions of significantly changed lipid species containing C18:1 (**c**), C18:2 (**d**), or C16:0 (**e**) acyl chains of B6 mice injected with LLC cells with or without IL-6 expression in liver (n=5). **f,** qRT–PCR of *CerS2* mRNA in liver of B6 mice injected with LLC cells with or without IL-6 expression. **g-j,** Correlation plots showing the positive relationship between expression of HIF1A and CerS5 (**g**), TIMP1 and CerS5 (**h**), HIF1A and CerS6 (**i**), TIMP1 and CerS6 (**j**) in non-diseased liver samples of 226 participants in the GTEx Project. TPM, transcript per million. **k-o**, Kaplan–Meier survival curves displaying the estimated survival probabilities of people with hepatocellular carcinoma with low (bottom third) and high (top third) hepatic expression of CERS1 (**k**), CERS2 (**l**), CERS3 (**m**), CERS4 (**n**), and DEGS2 (**o**). *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, ns indicates not significant. Error bars indicate SDs. n indicates the number of biological replicates in each experiment.

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Lyamzaev, K.G., Lystad, A.H., Lytvynchuk, L., Ma, A.C., Ma, C., Ma, M., Ma, N.-F., Ma,
Q.-H., Ma, X., Ma, Y., Ma, Z., MacDougald, O.A., Macian, F., MacIntosh, G.C.,
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