

Lamin A/C regulates lipid metabolism and inflammation: insights from models of familial partial lipodystrophy 2

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Conflict of interest statement

OAM has received grant support from Regeneron Pharmaceuticals, CombiGene AB, and Rejuvenate Bio. EAO has received grant support from Rejuvenate Bio and served on its Scientific Advisory Board. EAO holds intellectual property rights on metreleptin use in lipodystrophy and is entitled to royalties. EAO has received consulting fees and clinical trial support from Regeneron Pharmaceuticals, Ionis Pharmaceuticals, Rhythm Pharmaceuticals, and Chiesi, with additional support from Novo Nordisk, Fractyl, and Morphic Medical. All other authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Abstract

Familial partial lipodystrophy 2 (FPLD2) is a rare disease characterized by adipose tissue loss and redistribution, and metabolic dysfunction. FPLD2 is caused by pathogenic variants in the *LMNA* gene, encoding nuclear lamins A/C, structural proteins that control nuclear function and gene expression. However, the mechanisms driving adipocyte loss in FPLD2 remain poorly defined. In this study, we recruited eight families with developing or established FPLD2 and performed clinical, histological, and transcriptomic analyses of subcutaneous adipose tissue biopsies. Bulk and single-nuclei RNA-sequencing revealed suppression of lipid metabolism and mitochondrial pathways, alongside increased inflammation. These signatures were mirrored in tamoxifen-inducible adipocyte-specific *Lmna* knockout mice, in which lamin A/C-deficient adipocytes shrank and disappeared. *Lmna*-deficient fibroblasts shared similar gene expression changes, linked to altered chromatin accessibility, underscoring lamin A/C's potential regulatory role in lipid metabolism and inflammatory programs. By directly comparing atrophic and hypertrophic adipose depots in FPLD2, and integrating human, mouse, and *in vitro* models, this study provides new insights into disease progression and potential therapeutic targets.

Abbreviations:

ASPC: adipose stem and progenitor cells

BAT: brown adipose tissue

ECM: extracellular matrix

eWAT: epididymal white adipose tissue

FPLD2: familial partial lipodystrophy 2

GSEA: gene set enrichment analysis

HFD: high-fat diet

LEC: lymphatic endothelial cells

Lmna^{ADKO}: adipocyte-specific lamin A/C knockout

Lmna^{fl/fl}: lamin A/C floxed mice

Lmna^{iADKO}: tamoxifen-inducible adipocyte-specific lamin A/C knockout

MEF: mouse embryonic fibroblasts

pmWAT: parametrial white adipose tissue

prWAT: perirenal white adipose tissue

psWAT: posterior subcutaneous white adipose tissue

rpWAT: retroperitoneal white adipose tissue

sWAT: subcutaneous white adipose tissue

SVC: stromal vascular cells

SVF: stromal vascular fraction

WAT: white adipose tissue

Introduction

Adipose tissue is a key metabolic and endocrine organ, and alterations in its mass or function have major health consequences. Whereas excess adipose tissue contributes to obesity and its comorbidities, lipodystrophy syndromes involve adipose loss, redistribution, and dysfunction. Despite their contrasting phenotypes, both conditions cause metabolic complications such as fatty liver, insulin resistance, and cardiovascular disease due to loss of safe lipid storage (1, 2). Initially estimated to affect ~1 in 1 million (3), lipodystrophy prevalence is now thought to be up to ~1 in 20,000, with genetic prevalence near ~1 in 7000 (4). The most common form, familial partial lipodystrophy type 2 (FPLD2, Dunnigan's disease), features selective subcutaneous fat loss from limbs and trunk with redistribution to the face, neck, and sometimes visceral depots (1, 5–7). Treatments include lifestyle interventions, management of hyperlipidemia and insulin resistance, including with GLP1 receptor agonists (8, 9), and recombinant leptin, which improves multiple metabolic abnormalities (10). However, mechanisms driving adipose loss in FPLD2 remain unclear, and defining them could identify new therapeutic targets.

FPLD2 arises from pathogenic *LMNA* missense variants encoding lamin A/C (11), key intermediate filament proteins forming the nuclear lamina. This structure supports the nucleus, regulates nuclear transport and mechanical responses, and organizes chromatin via lamina-associated domains (12–14). Mutations disrupting lamin A/C cause diverse laminopathies including muscular dystrophies, cardiomyopathies, neuropathies, and premature aging syndromes. In FPLD2, substitutions of arginine 482 (R482Q/W/L) disrupt a DNA-binding region, likely leading to transcriptional dysregulation (15–18). Thus, dissecting FPLD2 mechanisms may reveal broader principles of tissue-specific disease in laminopathies.

Fundamental studies of *Lmna* knockout (KO) mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) show abnormal nuclear morphology, altered nuclear pore complex distribution, and reduced cellular stiffness (19, 20). In mice, global *Lmna* deletion causes muscular dystrophy and premature

death, limiting studies of metabolic tissues like adipose (19, 21). Overexpression of FPLD2-associated *LMNA* R482Q/W in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes inhibits adipocyte differentiation, as does overexpression of wild-type lamin A/C (22), suggesting that disruption of lamin stoichiometry can impair adipogenesis. Transgenic mice overexpressing human R482Q lamin A under the aP2 (FABP4) promoter either lacked overt lipodystrophy (23) or developed mild adipose loss after prolonged high-fat diet (HFD) (24). These mice exhibited increased extracellular matrix (ECM) and fibrosis in white adipose tissue (WAT), even without lipodystrophy, implicating *Lmna* variants in adipose ECM remodeling (23). However, overexpression models and the aP2 promoter's macrophage activity (25) complicate interpretation, underscoring the need for better adipocyte-specific models. Beyond cell culture and mouse models, studies of human WAT in FPLD2 are rare due to limited tissue availability. Analyses of abdominal and thigh adipose tissue revealed downregulated lipid metabolism genes and heterochromatin defects, whilst dorsocervical fat, often hypertrophic in FPLD2, showed heterogeneous adipocyte morphology, fibrosis, and brown adipose-like features (23, 26, 27). These findings suggest complex adipose remodeling in FPLD2, but underlying mechanisms remain incompletely defined.

Our group previously developed an adipocyte-specific *Lmna* KO mouse (*Lmna*^{ADKO}) recapitulating FPLD2 features including progressive WAT loss and metabolic dysfunction (28). *Lmna*^{ADKO} mice failed to exhibit the normal diurnal oscillation in respiratory exchange ratio and thus were metabolically inflexible, whereas patients with FPLD2 exhibit increased energy expenditure and fat oxidation only upon dietary fat challenge, but not at baseline (29). *Lmna*^{ADKO} mice exhibited smaller adipocytes without macrophage infiltration, suggesting cell-autonomous mechanisms of adipocyte loss. Although lacking a pathogenic *LMNA* variant, the model confirmed the essential role of lamin A/C in adipocyte maintenance.

In this study, we recruited eight families with confirmed *LMNA* variants and obtained abdominal and upper neck subcutaneous biopsies for histologic and molecular WAT profiling. With 16 participants, this represents the largest FPLD2 biopsy cohort to profile adipose

transcriptomes at single-cell resolution. We also developed a tamoxifen-inducible adipocyte-specific *Lmna* KO model (*Lmna*^{iADKO}) to trace adipocyte loss dynamics in adult mice. Integration of human and mouse data revealed conserved suppression of lipid metabolism and activation of inflammatory pathways contributing to adipocyte degeneration. Combining these findings with chromatin accessibility analyses from *Lmna* KO MEFs demonstrated that lamin A/C deficiency alters accessibility of lipid and immune regulatory genes. Taken together, these results define shared molecular signatures upon loss or dysfunction of lamin A/C and highlight pathways of therapeutic relevance for treatment in FPLD2.

Results

Participants with FPLD2 display loss of adipose tissue and metabolic dysfunction

To investigate how pathogenic *LMNA* variants drive FPLD2 progression, we recruited eight families into the Longitudinal Evaluation of Adiposity Distribution and Adipocyte Biology in Children with Lipodystrophy (LEAD-ABC) study. Participants were stratified into three groups: Group C, unaffected family members or recruited controls; Group A, individuals with a pathogenic variant but without extensive symptoms; and Group B, patients with overt FPLD2 (Figure 1A). Whole genome sequencing identified five disease-causing *LMNA* variants across the eight pedigrees (Figure 1B). Participants with developing FPLD2 (Group A) retained visible subcutaneous white adipose tissue (WAT) on limbs and trunk without visceral WAT accumulation (Figure 1C). In contrast, participants with developed FPLD2 (Group B) exhibited classical fat redistribution: loss of subcutaneous WAT, increased visceral adiposity, and prominent fat accumulation in the upper neck and face (Figure 1D). These regional changes were visualized using fat shadow imaging (Figure 1E, Supplemental Figure 1A). Quantitatively, both developing and developed FPLD2 groups had reduced total body fat percentage compared to controls (Figure 1F). Individuals with FPLD2 specifically had reduced leg fat (Figure 1G), and those with developing FPLD2 already had decreased trunk fat (Figure 1H). MRI revealed no significant hepatic fat accumulation in participants with FPLD2 (Figure 1I and J).

We next evaluated metabolic parameters across groups. Participants with developed FPLD2 (Group B) exhibited increased glycated hemoglobin (Figure 1K), circulating triglycerides (Figure 1L), non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) (Figure 1M), and glucose area under the curve (AUC) post-OGTT (Supplemental Figure 1B), indicating impaired metabolic control. However, Homeostatic Model Assessment of Insulin Resistance (HOMA-IR) (Figure 1N), insulin AUC (Supplemental Figure 1C), NEFA AUC (Supplemental Figure 1D), fasted insulin (Supplemental Figure 1E), and the adipose tissue insulin resistance index Adipo-IR (Supplemental Figure 1F) did not differ significantly between groups. Circulating leptin (Figure 1O) and adiponectin (Figure

1P) were reduced in FPLD2, consistent with WAT loss. FGF21 (Figure 1Q) and GDF15 (Supplemental Figure 1G) were elevated in FPLD2, consistent with stress or metabolic dysfunction (30). Clinical characteristics are summarized in Table 1. Collectively, these data highlight patterns of adipose loss during FPLD2 progression and confirm that participants with developed, but not developing, FPLD2 exhibit metabolic dysfunction (1,31).

WAT biopsies from participants with FPLD2 have decreased fatty acid metabolism and increased inflammation gene expression

To study mechanisms of adipose loss, we collected subcutaneous WAT biopsies from the abdomen (atrophic) and dorsocervical upper neck (expanding) regions (1). Comparing these depots allows within-subject analysis of adipose redistribution in FPLD2. Histological analyses and Picrosirius Red staining showed visibly increased fibrosis in abdominal WAT with disease (Figure 2A), though variable sampling limited quantification. Adipocyte size was unchanged in abdominal samples across disease states (Figure 2B and C). Similar results were observed in the upper neck (Figure 2D-F). Skin biopsies were similar across groups (Supplemental Figure 1H). These data indicate that lipid-laden adipocytes remain morphologically comparable across disease states.

We next examined molecular changes driving FPLD2. Combined abdomen and upper neck biopsies within each group were analyzed by bulk RNA-seq (Figure 2G). Due to limited sample size, developing and developed FPLD2 groups were combined to analyze broad transcriptomic effects of *LMNA* variants. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) revealed upregulated inflammation, intermediate filament, and muscle-related pathways (Figure 2G and H), and downregulated mitochondrial, translational, and fatty acid metabolism pathways (Figure 2I-K). Fibrosis- and extracellular matrix (ECM)-related genes were altered, including downregulated *TMND* and upregulated *PDGFA*, *MMP7*, *MMP16*, and multiple collagen genes

(Supplemental Figure 1I). Thus, WAT from participants with *LMNA* variants shows decreased metabolism and increased inflammation, suggesting these contribute to disease progression.

Single nuclei RNA-sequencing identifies depot differences between upper neck and abdominal adipose biopsies

To define depot differences and identify cell types contributing to transcriptomic shifts (Figure 2), we performed snRNA-seq (10x Genomics) on patient WAT biopsies (n = 4-5), identifying seven major cell populations: adipocytes, adipose stem and progenitor cells (ASPCs), macrophages, endothelial cells, T cells, pericytes, and lymphatic endothelial cells (LEC) (Figure 3A and B) (32, 33). Other smaller cell populations such as mast cells, natural killer cells, and dendritic cells were detected but grouped into broader categories for downstream analysis.

In control tissues, the upper neck depot contained more adipocytes and fewer LECs, macrophages, and ASPCs than abdominal WAT (Figure 3C). We next sought to characterize the molecular differences in cell states between depots. Adipocytes formed two subclusters: Cluster 1 (adipogenic) and Cluster 2 (proinflammatory) (Figure 3D), with no difference in subcluster proportions between depots (Figure 3E). ASPCs divided into four subclusters; the upper neck depot had more adipogenic ASPCs and fewer proinflammatory or mTOR-high ASPCs, suggesting higher adipogenic potential in the upper neck depot (Figure 3F and G).

Among immune cells, lipid-associated macrophages (Cluster 3) were decreased in the upper neck versus abdomen (Figure 3H and I), and low-inflammatory T cells (Cluster 2) were also reduced (Figure 3J and K). High-inflammation endothelial cells (Cluster 3) were increased in the upper neck (Supplemental Figure 2A and B), whereas high-myogenesis pericytes and high-translation LECs were decreased (Supplemental Figure 2C-F). Thus, in healthy individuals,

upper neck WAT harbors more proadipogenic ASPCs and fewer proinflammatory macrophages without altering adipocyte identity.

snRNA-seq analyses reveal widespread shifts in cellular identity during FPLD2 progression

We next examined how cell type composition changes across disease states. We generated UMAP plots combining both depots across our three patient groups (Figure 4A), as well as stratified UMAPs by genotype (Supplemental Figure 3A) and sex (Supplemental Figure 3B). UMAPs combining both depots (Figure 4A) showed reduced adipocyte proportions in abdominal WAT of developing and developed FPLD2 (Figure 4B and C), consistent with WAT atrophy. LECs increased during developing FPLD2 but declined with progression (Figure 4B and C). Macrophages and pericytes increased in FPLD2 abdominal WAT (Figure 4C). In the upper neck, adipocytes decreased in developing FPLD2 but stabilized thereafter (Figure 4D and E). LECs followed a similar transient pattern (Figure 4D and E). Depot differences seen in controls (Figure 3C) persisted across genotypes (Figure 4F and G), suggesting intrinsic regional identity.

After characterizing changes in cell-type proportions, we next studied how cell identities change with FPLD2. GSEA of adipocytes showed reduced lipid metabolism and increased ECM and inflammation (Figure 4H), with leading edge genes listed in Supplemental Table 1. These data align closely with results from bulk RNA-seq of WAT from participants with FPLD2, which also showed suppression of fatty acid metabolism and increased inflammation (Figure-2G-K). Adipocyte subcluster composition was unchanged (Figure 4I). ASPCs displayed decreased oxidative phosphorylation and ribosomal genes but increased lipid metabolism (Figure 4J). Proadipogenic ASPCs (Cluster 2) were expanded, while proinflammatory ASPCs (Cluster 3) were reduced (Figure 4K). Macrophages overall were less inflammatory (Figure 4L), though lipid-associated macrophages (Cluster 3) increased (Figure 4M). Endothelial, T cell, pericyte,

and LEC populations showed altered metabolic, translational, and inflammatory gene expression (Supplemental Figure 3C-J). Collectively, adipocytes exhibit impaired fatty acid metabolism, ASPCs adopt a more adipogenic state, and macrophages show lipid-scavenging features during FPLD2 progression.

Cell proportions change with FPLD2 progression in a depot-specific manner

We next assessed how these cell proportion changes differed by depot. In FPLD2, proinflammatory adipocytes were enriched in the upper neck relative to the abdomen (Supplemental Figure 4A). Preadipogenic ASPCs increased in developing FPLD2 (Supplemental Figure 4B), possibly explaining dorsocervical WAT expansion. Lipid-associated macrophages were reduced in the upper neck (Supplemental Figure 4C), proinflammatory endothelial cells were increased in the upper neck (Supplemental Figure 4D), and proinflammatory T cells rose in developing FPLD2 (Supplemental Figure 4E). Pericytes were unchanged (Supplemental Figure 4F), and preadipogenic LECs were increased in early disease (Supplemental Figure 4G). Thus, depot-specific cellular shifts, particularly increased proinflammatory adipocytes and endothelial cells in the upper neck, may underlie the contrasting fat redistribution and metabolic features of FPLD2.

Inducible lamin A/C knockout in adipocytes causes lipodystrophy but not metabolic dysfunction

Bulk and snRNA-seq data from participants with FPLD2 revealed downregulation of metabolic pathways and upregulation of inflammatory signaling (Figures 2 and 4). To further investigate roles of lamin A/C in adipocyte maintenance, we generated tamoxifen-inducible adipocyte-specific *Lmna* knockout mice (*Lmna*^{iADKO}), extending our prior constitutive *Adipoq*-Cre model (28). Tamoxifen was administered intraperitoneally for five days to *Lmna*^{fl/fl} and *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice (Figure 5A). Two weeks post-tamoxifen, *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice exhibited reduced fat mass

(Figure 5B) without changes in body weight or lean mass (Supplemental Figure 5A and B). Posterior subcutaneous (psWAT) and epididymal WAT (eWAT) weights decreased at two to four weeks post-tamoxifen, partially recovering by 16 weeks (Figure 5C and D). Retroperitoneal WAT decreased at two weeks post-tamoxifen; BAT, perirenal WAT, and liver were unchanged (Supplemental Figure 5C). No sex differences were observed (Supplemental Figure 5D), and both sexes were used throughout these mouse studies. Histology revealed no overt WAT or liver changes (Figure 5E, Supplemental Figure 5F), though slight BAT whitening and partial bone marrow adipose loss appeared by eight weeks post-tamoxifen. UCP1 expression was unchanged in *Lmna*^{iADKO} mouse BAT two weeks post-tamoxifen and undetectable in psWAT (Supplemental Figure 5F and G). Circulating adiponectin decreased at four weeks post-tamoxifen (Figure 5F, Supplemental Figure 5H), but insulin sensitivity and glucose tolerance remained normal at six- and 12-weeks post-tamoxifen (Figure 5G and H, Supplemental Figure 5I and J). *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice thus model early adipocyte loss without confounding metabolic dysfunction, ideal for mechanistic studies.

Lamin A/C-deficient adipocytes shrink, become misshapen, and disappear from WAT

Using the mTmG reporter system (34), we tracked *Lmna* knockout adipocytes via GFP expression (Figure 5I). Two weeks post-tamoxifen, GFP+ adipocytes in psWAT were widespread and morphologically normal despite reduced fat mass, suggesting fewer adipocytes (Figure 5J-L). By six weeks post-tamoxifen, *Lmna* KO GFP+ adipocytes showed shrinkage, irregular shape, and membrane budding, while tdTomato+ cells increased, suggesting compensatory adipogenesis (Figure 5J and L). By 16 weeks post-tamoxifen, GFP+ adipocytes were nearly absent in psWAT from *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice. This same pattern was observed in eWAT (Figure 5M-O). Small GFP+ cells in WAT at six weeks post-tamoxifen disappeared by 16 weeks, suggesting that KO adipocytes do not persist in *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT (Supplemental Figure 6A and

B). Flow cytometry confirmed GFP+ SVCs were not elevated at six weeks post-tamoxifen in *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT, indicating no evidence of dedifferentiation of KO adipocytes (Supplemental Figure 6D and E). These data indicate *Lmna* knockout adipocytes progressively atrophy and are cleared from tissue, supporting lamin A/C's essential role in adipocyte maintenance.

***Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT mirrors FPLD2 WAT: increased inflammation, decreased fatty acid metabolism**

We performed bulk RNA-seq and proteomics on pmWAT two weeks post-tamoxifen, prior to morphological changes, and integrated GSEA analyses between both datasets (Figure 6A). GSEA revealed upregulated immune processes (myeloid activation, antigen binding) and downregulated oxidative phosphorylation and fatty acid biosynthesis (Figure 6B). Proteomics specifically showed elevated cell death and suppressed muscle-associated pathways (Figure 6C). Lipogenic genes and mitochondrial genes were repressed (Figure 6D and E), while proinflammatory and cell death genes increased (Figure 6F and G). Comparison with constitutive *Lmna*^{ADKO} WAT showed concordant suppression of metabolism and increased inflammation (Supplemental Figure 7A-D). Integration with human FPLD2 RNA-seq confirmed overlapping gene expression patterns: increased inflammation and decreased mitochondrial/lipid metabolism pathways (Figure 6H-J), highlighting lamin A/C's role in adipocyte homeostasis.

Lipogenic and mitochondrial protein expression is lower in *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT, accompanied by decreased respiration and altered mitochondrial structure

In *Lmna*^{iADKO} psWAT, which showed no change in mass two weeks post-tamoxifen (Figure 5C), PPAR γ and C/EBP α were unchanged in protein expression, whereas ChREBP and key lipogenic enzymes (ACC, FASN, SCD1) were reduced (Figure 7A, Supplemental Figure 8A). eWAT showed similar reductions, with slightly increased PPAR γ , possibly compensatory

(Figure 7B, Supplemental Figure 8B). Given the well-established link between lipid metabolism and mitochondrial function (35, 36), we examined mitochondrial protein expression and saw that OXPHOS proteins were reduced in *Lmna*^{iADKO} eWAT (Figure 7C, Supplemental Figure 8C), with decreased baseline, maximal, ATP-linked respiration, spare respiratory capacity, and proton leak in pmWAT adipocytes (Figure 7D and E, Supplemental Figure 8D–F). In contrast, *Lmna* KO adipocytes isolated from psWAT at the same time point did not exhibit changes in mitochondrial respiration (Supplemental Figure 8G–K), suggesting that reductions in lipid metabolism proteins (Figure 7A) may precede overt mitochondrial dysfunction following *Lmna* deletion in adipocytes. Mitochondrial DNA content remained unchanged in psWAT and pmWAT (Supplemental Figure 8L and M). Mitochondrial biogenesis and fission-fusion regulators (PGC1 α , MFN2, OPA1, VDAC1) were decreased in expression in *Lmna*^{iADKO} adipocytes; TOMM20 was unchanged (Figure 7F, Supplemental Figure 8N and O). Imaging revealed irregular mitochondrial clustering and polarization in *Lmna* KO adipocytes compared to controls (37), a potential sign of cell damage, as previously observed in MFN2 KO cells (38) (Figure 7G). TEM of *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT two weeks post-tamoxifen showed small lipid droplets with surrounding mitochondria, suggesting either active lipid synthesis, droplet fission, or budding (Figure 7H). Cristae were disorganized and adipocyte had potentially altered heterochromatin distribution, though overall mitochondrial area and droplet contacts were unchanged (Figure 7H–N). Deletion of *Lmna* in adipocytes thus impairs mitochondrial function and structure, contributing to adipocyte loss.

Adipocyte loss is not driven by increased lipolysis

Following our TEM observations of increased small lipid droplets in *Lmna*^{iADKO} adipocytes, we investigated whether enhanced lipolysis might cause adipocyte loss *in vivo*. Circulating glycerol decreased at four weeks post-tamoxifen and later, under fed and fasted conditions in *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice (Supplemental Figure 9A). Isoproterenol-stimulated lipolysis was

unchanged when normalized to fat mass at four weeks post-tamoxifen in *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice (Supplemental Figure 9B and C). Bulk RNA-seq showed downregulation of lipolytic genes at two weeks post-tamoxifen (Supplemental Figure 9D), but lipolytic proteins were not suppressed (Supplemental Figure 9E and F), indicating adipocyte loss occurs via lipolysis-independent mechanisms.

***Lmna*-deficient adipocytes show cell-autonomous proinflammatory gene expression**

snRNA-seq in human FPLD2 suggested immune signatures arise partly from macrophages and T cells. Spectral flow cytometry of *Lmna*^{iADKO} psWAT and pmWAT two weeks post-tamoxifen showed no differences in total SVCs, CD45⁺ cells, adipose tissue macrophages (ATMs, CD64⁺), and no change in identity of macrophages (CD11c⁺, TIM4⁺, CD163⁺) or T cells (CD4⁺, CD8⁺) (Supplemental Figure 10A-N). Whole WAT from *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice had few inflammatory transcript changes (Supplemental Figure 10O and P), but isolated *Lmna* KO adipocytes two weeks post-tamoxifen showed elevated *Il6*, *Il10*, *Nlrp3*, *Il1b*, and *Tnfa*, whereas SVF had minor changes (Supplemental Figure 10Q-T), suggesting cell-autonomous inflammatory signaling upon loss of lamin A/C. Cleaved caspase-3 was undetectable at two, four, and six weeks post-tamoxifen in *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT, and cGAS-STING markers were unchanged (Supplemental Figure 10U-W), indicating a non-classical, asynchronous cell death mechanism.

Fundamental role of lamin A/C in regulating lipid metabolism and inflammatory gene expression across cell types

We observed consistent gene expression changes in *Lmna*-deficient mouse adipocytes and human FPLD2 WAT: suppressed lipid metabolism and increased inflammation. To assess whether these changes are conserved across cell types, we analyzed publicly available

microarray and ATAC-seq data from *Lmna* KO mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs), which also show impaired mitochondrial respiration and irregular mitochondrial localization (Figure 8A) (39, 40). Integration of *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT RNA-seq with *Lmna* KO MEF datasets revealed coordinated dysregulation of lipid metabolism and inflammation at transcript and chromatin levels (Figure 8A-E). Overlapping genes included *Acsl4*, *Acsl6*, *Rbp1*, and *Scd27a3* (lipid homeostasis) and *Il1rl1*, *Il33*, *Cd44* (inflammation), suggesting lamin A/C directly regulates these programs across cell types.

ATAC-seq peak distribution across chromatin features was unchanged between control and KO MEFs (Figure 8F), consistent with lamin A/C binding ~30–40% of the genome (41, 42). Motif enrichment analysis near differentially expressed genes revealed KLF family motifs enriched in downregulated genes, and HNF1A/B, HOX, FOS/JUN motifs near upregulated genes (Figure 8G). *Klf4* and *Klf13* loci showed altered enhancer accessibility and reduced expression (Figure 8H and I). KLF4 regulates adipocyte differentiation (44), and KLF13 has been implicated in suppressing inflammation (45), suggesting loss of lamin A/C impairs adipocyte function and enhances inflammatory signaling. Together, these data indicate that lamin A/C loss disrupts enhancer accessibility and transcriptional regulation of lipid- and inflammation-related genes across diverse cell types, highlighting a conserved role in maintaining metabolic and immune gene programs, beyond adipocytes or FPLD2.

Discussion

In this study, we investigated mechanisms underlying lipodystrophy using human, mouse, and cell culture models to better understand FPLD2 progression and pathogenesis. We first analyzed participants with developing and developed FPLD2 and found, as expected, reduced body fat compared to healthy controls (7). Even before overt adipose loss and metabolic dysfunction, participants with developing FPLD2 displayed reduced total body fat. Only patients with developed FPLD2 had elevated HbA1c, hyperlipidemia, and FGF21, indicating that systemic metabolic dysfunction emerges later with severe adipose loss. The severity of metabolic syndrome in our FPLD2 groups may be underestimated, as many participants used metformin or lipid-lowering agents; however, some controls also showed metabolic abnormalities, making them appropriate comparators for depot-specific analyses.

Histological analyses of WAT from participants with FPLD2 revealed no significant change in adipocyte size between depots or groups, though fibrotic deposition appeared increased but heterogeneous. To address this variability and enable earlier detection, plasma biomarkers such as endotrophin, PIINP, or TIMP-1/2 should be explored (46-48). Although plasma inflammatory markers were unchanged (Table 1), identifying circulating disease markers could aid early diagnosis.

Mouse studies supported our human data: at two weeks post-tamoxifen, analogous to developing FPLD2, adipocyte size was unchanged in *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT (Figure 5K and N). Weeks later, adipocytes became shrunken and misshapen, followed by compensatory adipogenesis (Figure 5L and O). While *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT showed partial adipose mass recovery (Figure 5C and D), regeneration was incomplete, suggesting limited precursor capacity. Mice may regenerate adipocytes more effectively than humans, potentially explaining why mouse models incompletely recapitulate FPLD2. We propose that *LMNA*-variant precursors form adipocytes early in life, but as mature adipocytes turn over (~10-year lifespan), new adipocytes fail to efficiently replace them (49), consistent with FPLD2 onset around puberty.

Cross-species transcriptomic comparisons of human WAT and *Lmna*^{iADKO} pmWAT revealed consistent suppression of lipid metabolism and adipogenesis genes, particularly those in lipogenesis, TAG synthesis, and glyceroneogenesis. SCD1 was nearly absent in *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT (Figure 7A, B), and snRNA-seq showed reduced *SCD1* in developing and FPLD2 adipocytes (log2FC = -0.855 and -0.497, respectively). Lipid metabolic gene suppression extended to macrophages, pericytes, and endothelial cells in human FPLD2. Key lipogenic regulator ChREBP was decreased in *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT two weeks post-tamoxifen (Figure 7A and B). Prior work showed that adipocyte-specific ChREBP KO leads to reduced pmWAT but not sWAT in 16-week-old mice (50), potentially explaining the susceptibility of gWAT to be lost before psWAT in *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice (Figure 5C and D; Supplemental Figure 5D). Although SREBP1 protein levels were unchanged in total *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT, it was reduced in isolated adipocytes (Figure 7F), with downstream target repression (Figure 6D, 7A and B), suggesting impaired transcriptional activity. SREBP1 has an increasingly appreciated contribution to lipogenesis in WAT (51) and has been shown to interact with lamin A, with FPLD2-causing *LMNA* variants disrupting the interaction between lamin A and SREBP1 (52). Mice with constitutively active SREBP1 in adipose tissue exhibited lipodystrophy and metabolic dysfunction, driven by reduced adipogenic gene programs, further implicating SREBP1 with impaired WAT function (53). Moreover, *Scd1* KO induces autophagic adipocyte death, underscoring the importance of intact lipogenesis (54). The mechanism by which lamin A/C regulates lipid metabolism and adipocyte survival remains to be defined.

Across datasets, mitochondrial gene expression and function were impaired. *LMNA* variant WAT showed reduced oxidative phosphorylation across cell types, consistent with prior findings in *Lmna* KO MEFs, hearts from *Lmna* KO mice, and *LMNA* R482W iPSCs (39, 55, 56). While the sequence of lipid and mitochondrial defects is uncertain, lipogenic enzyme downregulation preceded OXPHOS disruption in *Lmna*^{iADKO} adipocytes (Figure 7A, Supplemental Figure 8G–K). Inflammatory pathways were also consistently upregulated across

datasets. Yet, flow cytometry on *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT and snRNA-seq of human WAT revealed no increase in activated macrophages or proinflammatory T cells. Instead, RT-qPCR showed upregulation of immune genes within *Lmna* KO adipocytes, suggesting adipocyte-intrinsic inflammation, corroborated by IL6/JAK/STAT3 and IL2/STAT5 activation in patient adipocytes (Figure 4H, Supplemental Figure 10Q and S). Inflammation may arise directly from lamin A/C loss or secondarily from lipogenic or mitochondrial defects. Indeed, ChREBP KO adipocytes recruit ATMs (50), increased inflammation in human WAT biopsies is associated with decreased lipogenic markers (57), and mitochondrial *Cri1* haploinsufficiency induces cytokine release and macrophage infiltration (58).

snRNA-seq provided insight into cellular contributions to disease progression. LECs increased in developing but declined in established FPLD2 (Figure 4B-E), suggesting lymphatic remodeling in response to adipocyte loss. Lymphatics regulate lipid and immune transport in WAT (59–61), and neurotensin-mediated LEC–adipocyte signaling represses BAT thermogenesis (62). Elevated VEGF-D, which expands lymphatics, improves metabolic health (63). Thus, changing LEC abundance may represent a compensatory but ultimately insufficient response. ASCs increased in both developing and developed FPLD2, suggesting attempted regeneration hindered by *LMNA* variant-driven adipogenic defects (22, 26, 64, 65). Lipid-associated macrophages also increased (Figure 4M), possibly to clear lipids from dying adipocytes, consistent with prior lipodystrophy models (66).

Our study offers a direct comparison of atrophic (abdominal) and hypertrophic (upper neck) depots in FPLD2. Adipocytes were transcriptionally similar, but stromal cells differed: upper neck ASCs were more proadipogenic, abdominal macrophages more proinflammatory, pericytes more adipogenic in the abdomen, and endothelial cells more inflammatory in the upper neck. These shifts may underlie depot-selective remodeling. Although prior studies reported increased fibrosis and smaller adipocytes in neck WAT (67), we saw neither. However,

snRNA-seq revealed distinct proinflammatory and adipogenic cell-type shifts with disease progression (Supplemental Figure 4A-D), elucidating depot-specific WAT remodeling.

Finally, we investigated the chromatin basis of transcriptional dysregulation. Lamin A/C loss alters chromatin accessibility both within and outside LADs (39, 68). We found shared gene expression changes between *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT and *Lmna* KO MEFs (Figure 8), notably suppression of lipid metabolism and activation of inflammatory pathways, potentially driven by altered enhancer accessibility. Limited overlap likely reflects cell-type differences and lamin A/C's context-dependent genomic interactions (69). Some changes may stem from stress-induced chromatin remodeling (70). Though our focus was WAT and MEFs, effects in other metabolic tissues warrant study. Collectively, our findings support a model in which lamin A/C disruption broadly impairs chromatin organization, driving lipid, mitochondrial, and inflammatory dysregulation across cell types, thereby maintaining metabolic homeostasis under normal conditions.

Despite these insights, our study has several limitations. Our human cohort spans a wide age range and includes both sexes, which may introduce variability and confound interpretation. We did not obtain biopsies from leg depots, which also undergo early atrophy in *LMNA*-related lipodystrophy. Because of adipocyte fragility, we used snRNA-seq instead of scRNA-seq, limiting detection of cytoplasmic transcripts. In mice, our adipocyte-specific *Lmna* KO model does not genetically mirror human FPLD2; future studies should employ knock-in models to assess pathogenic *LMNA* variants in WAT. Although both sexes were used, the mechanistic role of sex in lipodystrophy remains undefined. Another caveat is that tamoxifen at 100 mg/kg for five days can itself induce lipoatrophy (71). To minimize off-target effects, we used 50 mg/kg for five days, with control *Lmna*^{fl/fl} mice receiving identical treatment. In summary, lamin A/C is essential for adipocyte homeostasis, survival, lipid metabolism, and mitochondrial function; its disruption drives inflammation, adipocyte shrinkage, and eventual cell loss. These

findings reveal key pathways linking lamin A/C dysfunction to lipodystrophy and provide a framework for future therapies.

Materials & Methods

Additional Methods and Materials are available in the Supplementary Materials.

Sex as a biological variable

For human studies, we were limited by the rarity of FPLD2, and were unable to control for sex during patient recruitment – future studies should include larger numbers of patients to allow for these comparisons. Females tend to have a more severe FPLD2 phenotype, so most of the participants in our studies were women. For mouse studies, we analyzed both sexes during initial phenotyping and found that both male and female *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice had a similar pattern of fat mass loss at two weeks post-tamoxifen, with comparable necropsy data at this timepoint. Therefore, we used both sexes of mice throughout this study, designated in the figure legend or by the use of eWAT for males, and pmWAT for female mice.

Human participants

Participants carrying pathogenic LMNA variants (R482Q, n = 6; R482W, n = 4; R582L, n = 2; R584H, n = 2; R582C, n = 1) and their unaffected relatives were enrolled in this prospective, longitudinal observational study. Participants were classified into three groups: Group A, young individuals (ages 15–23) with LMNA variants who were developing signs of lipodystrophy but retained residual adipose depots; Group B, affected adult relatives (ages 39–63) with overt partial lipodystrophy characterized by fat loss from extremities, gluteal regions, and abdominal wall; and Group C, unaffected relatives (ages 23–58) serving as negative controls.

Physical examinations included anthropometric measurements (height, weight, waist and hip circumference), blood pressure, pulse rate, and full physical exam. Fasting blood samples (≥10 h) were collected to measure plasma glucose, insulin, HbA1c, C-peptide, leptin,

adiponectin, triglycerides, HDL/LDL cholesterol, liver enzymes (ALT, AST, GGT), kidney function (BUN, creatinine), CRP, FGF-21, and GDF-15.

A five-hour oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) with 75 g glucose was performed with blood sampling every 30 min to assess glucose, insulin, NEFA, and C-peptide. Indices of insulin resistance, including HOMA-IR and ADIPO-IR, were calculated from fasting values. Body composition was assessed using two complementary methods: MRI-based fat quantification (3 Tesla, Philips Healthcare) analyzed with a custom MATLAB program, and whole-body dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA; GE Lunar Prodigy, model PA +41744). Hepatic fat was quantified on a 3T clinical MRI system using a torso phased-array surface coil and breath-hold, single-shot, turbo-spin-echo localization sequences. Fat content was determined by two imaging- and one spectroscopy-based technique as previously published (72).

Incisional adipose tissue biopsies were obtained from affected (atrophic) and unaffected (preserved or hypertrophic) subcutaneous regions by a plastic surgeon. After sterile preparation and local anesthesia with 1% Xylocaine, a skin incision was made, and adipose tissue excised for subsequent analyses. Incisions were sutured, and participants observed in clinic for one hour.

Bulk RNA-sequencing from human and mouse WAT

For human tissue, RNA was isolated from 150–200 mg adipose using the RNeasy Lipid Tissue Mini Kit (Qiagen, 74804). For mouse tissue, total RNA was extracted from WAT using RNA STAT-60 (amsbio, CS-110). Following DNase treatment, RNA underwent quality control, library preparation, and strand-specific mRNA sequencing (Beijing Genomics Institute, China). Over 20 million paired-end 100 bp reads were generated on the DNBSEQ platform.

Read quality was assessed with FastQC (v0.12.1), and alignment performed using STAR (v2.7.11a) with the UCSC mm39 reference genome. Post-alignment quality control via FastQC ensured only high-quality data were used for differential expression

analysis via DESeq2. Data visualization employed native DESeq2 functions, ggplot2, plotly, and related R packages.

Pathway analysis was conducted on ranked log2 fold-change lists using Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA v4.3.3) and the Broad Institute MSigDB (v2024.1.Mm, M5 ontology sets). Enriched pathways were defined by FDR < 0.05, with the normalized enrichment score (NES) used to evaluate differential pathway magnitude (73). Plots were generated using ggplot2. All sequencing data are available through NCBI GEO (accession number XXXXXXXXX).

Single nuclei RNA-sequencing from human adipose tissue

Nuclei were isolated from 150–250 mg of tissue, minced in 1 mL nuclear extraction buffer (130-128-024, Miltenyi), and transferred into GentleMACS tubes. The h_tumor_01 protocol was run three times on the GentleMACS, followed by 10 min on ice. The homogenate was passed through a 70 µm filter and washed with 3 mL nuclei extraction buffer. Samples were centrifuged at 500 × g for 10 min at 4°C, supernatant removed, and the nuclear pellet resuspended in 2 mL 1% BSA in PBS. Samples were filtered through a 30 µm filter, rinsed with 2 mL 1% BSA in PBS, and centrifuged again (500 × g, 10 min, 4°C). Pellets were resuspended in 500 µL 1% BSA in PBS and filtered through a pre-wet 20 µm filter, which was rinsed with 500 µL 1% BSA in PBS. After a final centrifugation (500 × g, 10 min, 4°C), nuclei were resuspended in 50 µL 1% BSA in PBS. Nuclei were counted at the University of Michigan Advanced Genomics Core using a Logos cell counter.

Probes were hybridized, and samples were pooled and processed per manufacturer instructions for the 10X Genomics Chromium Fixed RNA Profiling Reagent Kits for Multiplexed Samples (PN 1000568). Library quality was assessed using the LabChip GXII HT (PerkinElmer) and quantified by Qubit (ThermoFisher). Pooled libraries underwent paired-end sequencing on an Illumina NovaSeq XPlus. BCL Convert Software (Illumina) generated

demultiplexed Fastq files, and the CellRanger Pipeline (10X Genomics) was used for alignment and count matrix generation.

Seurat v5.1.0 was used for filtering, normalization, dimensional reduction, clustering, gene expression visualization, and differential expression analysis. Cells were excluded if they had <1000 UMIs, <500 detected genes, >5% mitochondrial transcripts, or log10 Genes Per UMI < 0.80; genes were excluded if detected in <10 cells. SCTransform was used for normalization and variance stabilization, treating mitochondrial mapping percentage as a covariate. To integrate and correct for batch effects, Harmony was applied to the SCTransformed data via RunHarmony. Resulting embeddings were used for downstream dimensional reduction and clustering.

Thirty principal components were used for clustering and UMAP analysis, performed by a shared nearest neighbor (SNN) modularity optimization-based algorithm. Clusters were visualized using UMAPs and annotated to cell types using known marker genes and top differentially expressed genes per cluster. Pathway analysis was conducted as described for bulk RNA-seq.

Animals

Lmna^{fl/fl} mice had loxP sites flanking exons 10 and 11 of the *Lmna* allele (74). Adipoq-CreERT2 mice (025124) and mTmG mice (007576) were from the Jackson Laboratory. Control animals were *Lmna*^{fl/fl} and *Lmna*^{iADKO} mice were *Lmna*^{fl/fl} *Adipoq-Cre*^{ERT2+/-}. Animals described as *Lmna*^{CTRL} mTmG were *Adipoq-Cre*^{ERT2+/-} mTmG^{+/-}, and *Lmna*^{iADKO} mTmG mice were *Lmna*^{fl/fl} *Adipoq-Cre*^{ERT2+/-} mTmG^{+/-}. Unless otherwise noted, 12–14-week-old mice received intraperitoneal tamoxifen (50 mg/kg; 13258, Cayman Chemical) in sterile corn oil for five consecutive days to induce recombination, followed by a 10-day washout. Mice were euthanized by inhaled isoflurane overdose, and death confirmed by cervical dislocation or bilateral pneumothorax. Fat and lean mass were measured in live animals using an EchoMRI-

100H (EchoMRI LLC). Animals were group-housed under standard conditions (22°C, 30-60% humidity) with a 12-h light:dark cycle and free access to water and chow. Daily care was overseen by the Unit for Laboratory Animal Medicine at the University of Michigan.

Public data analysis from *Lmna* KO MEFs

Raw ATAC-seq data were mined from GEO accession GSE120389 and processed using the best practice nf-core atac-seq pipeline (v2.1.1) (81) with default configurations. Microarray data were downloaded from GEO accession GSE124467 and preprocessed as described in its original publication (39).

ATAC-seq analysis and integration with expression data

Differential accessibility analysis was performed using DiffBind (v3.12.0) (75). Briefly, a consensus peakset was generated, and read counting was done using `dba.count()` with `bUseSummarizeOverlaps=TRUE`. TMM and background-aware normalization was carried out with `dba.normalize()`. Enhancer-to-gene assignments were predicted using rGREAT (v2.6.0) (76). Chromatin state annotations for WT and KO peaksets were quantified by intersecting with the full-stack 100-segment ChromHMM model from Vu and Ernst 2023 (41) and visualized as grouped percentage bar plots. Genes and enhancers with concurrent chromatin and gene expression changes were stratified into eight directionality-based clusters (e.g., increased accessibility with increased expression). Gene Ontology enrichment was performed and visualized using clusterProfiler (v4.12.6) (77). For transcription factor motif analysis, peaks were ranked and binned by $\log_2$ fold change, and motif enrichment was assessed with monaLisa (v1.15.0) (78) using PWMs from JASPAR2020. Motifs with $|\log_2 \text{ enrichment}| > 2$ and $-\log_{10} \text{ adjusted p-value} > 4$ were deemed significant. ATAC-seq tracks and enhancer–gene connections were visualized using pyGenomeTracks (v3.9.0) (79).

Statistics

Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SD. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc test was used for human matched case-control comparisons and mouse data with two variables; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post hoc test for human comparisons across disease states; and Student's two-tailed *t*-test for two-genotype mouse comparisons. AUC for lipid and glycemic parameters was calculated by the linear trapezoidal method. All analyses used GraphPad Prism v10, with $p < 0.05$ considered significant.

Study approval

The study was approved by the University of Michigan IRB (HUM #00174659); all participants provided written informed consent. Identifying tattoos in patient photos were removed with Photoshop's Generative Fill. Animal studies complied with University of Michigan IACUC policies (protocol PRO00011544).

Data availability

snRNA-seq and bulk RNA-seq data is available through NCBI GEO. Raw data values are provided in the Supporting Data Values file.

Author contributions

JNM, RLS, CNL, SM, EAO, and OAM conceived the studies and planned the experimental design. JNM, RLS, AN, AFF, BNO, MN, MDM, DG, OB, BD, REA, ADG, HM, RMU, ZL, HH, IDKH, YC, LZ, APS, KSH, KTL, and TAH performed the experiments. JNM, RLS, AN, MFF, BNO, MN, MDM, DG, OB, BD, ADG, CNL, SM, EAO, and OAM analyzed the data. JNM and OAM wrote the manuscript, while all other authors edited and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by grants from the NIH to OAM and EAO (R01 DK125513), to OAM (R01 DK137798, R01 DK121759), JNM (T32 HD007505; F31 DK135181), RLS (T32 DK101357; F32 DK123887), and KTL (T32 DK071212, F32 DK122654). GF was supported by the Michigan Summer Undergraduate Research Experience (R25-DK141426). This research was also supported by the Michigan Diabetes Research Center (MDRC) (P30 DK020572), the Michigan Nutrition and Obesity Center (P30 DK089503), the Michigan Integrative Musculoskeletal Health Core Center (P30 AR069620), and the Michigan Mouse Metabolic Phenotyping Center in Live Models (U2C-DK135066), the MDRC Microscopy and Image Analysis Core, the University of Michigan Bioinformatics, Microscopy, Flow Cytometry, Advanced Genomics, and the Unit of Laboratory Animal Medicine (ULAM) Pathology Cores, the Caswell Diabetes Institute Atypical Diabetes Program and the University of Michigan Lipodystrophy Fund (gifted by Sopha, Baker and Rosenblum families as well as the White Point Foundation of Turkey). This work is the result of NIH funding, in whole or in part, and is subject to the NIH Public Access Policy. Through acceptance of this federal funding, the NIH has been given a right to make the work publicly available in PubMed Central.

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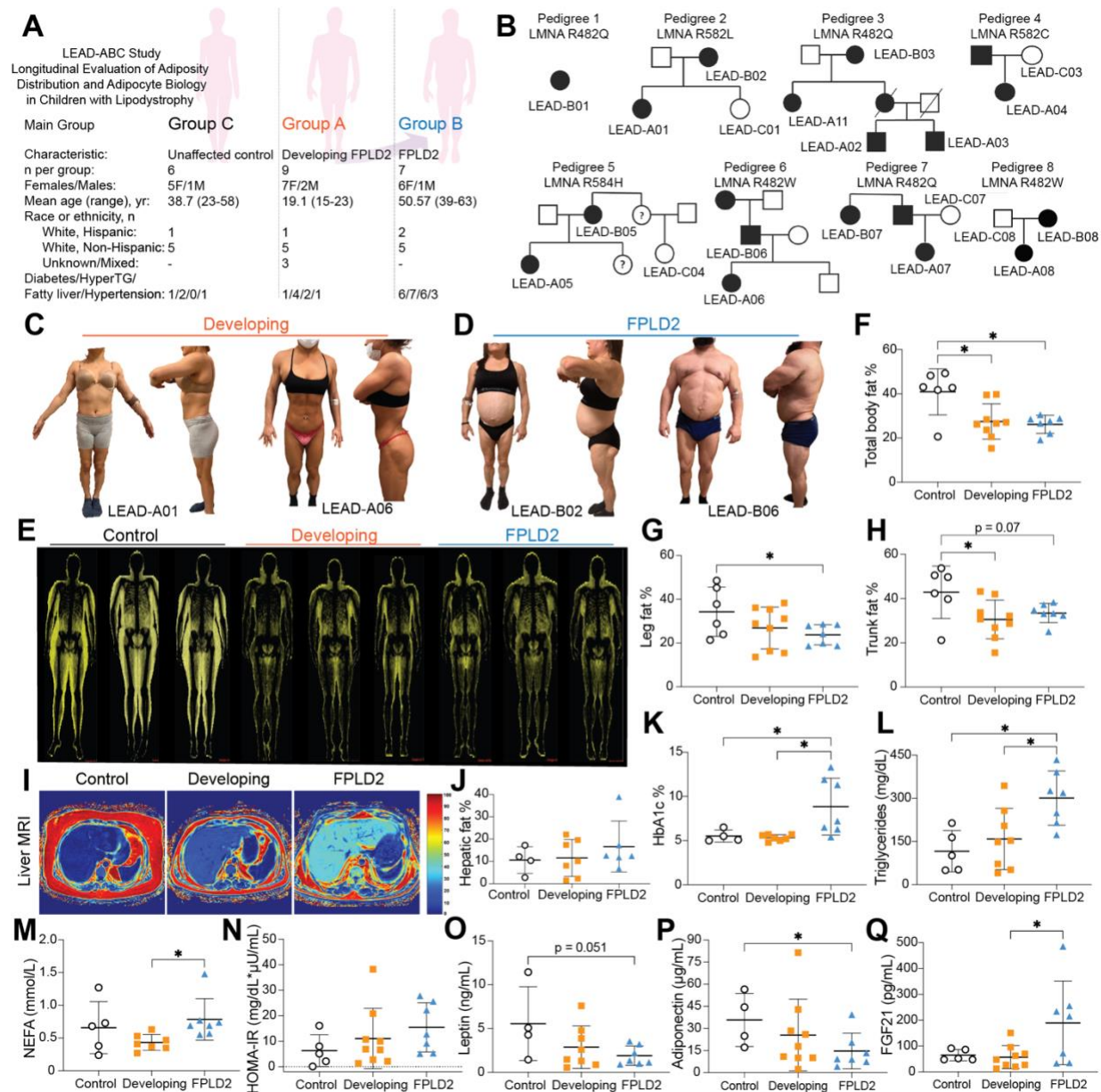


Figure 1. Clinical, metabolic, and molecular characterization of individuals with familial partial lipodystrophy type 2 (FPLD2). (A) Study design and patient groups. Groups include unaffected family members (Control, Group C, n = 6), genetically affected but clinically unaffected individuals (Developing, Group A, n = 9), and patients with FPLD2 (FPLD2, Group B, n = 7). (B) Pedigrees from multiple families with FPLD2. Filled symbols represent affected individuals, open symbols indicate unaffected individuals, question marks denote unknown phenotypic status. (C) Images of patients with developing FPLD2 with early signs of fat

redistribution. **(D)** Images of patients with FPLD2 phenotypes with peripheral lipoatrophy and upper trunk fat accumulation. **(E)** Whole body fat shadows. Quantification of fat mass percentage in **(F)** total body, **(G)** leg, and **(H)** trunk. **(I)** Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)-based hepatic fat fraction maps with **(J)** quantification. **(K)** Hemoglobin A1c percentages. **(L)** Triglyceride concentrations in plasma. **(M)** Non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA) concentrations. **(N)** Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance (HOMA-IR) scores. **(O)** Leptin concentrations. **(P)** Adiponectin concentrations. **(Q)** Fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF21) concentrations. Data are represented as mean $\pm$ SD. *P < 0.05. Statistical analyses were performed using one-way ANOVA, followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test.

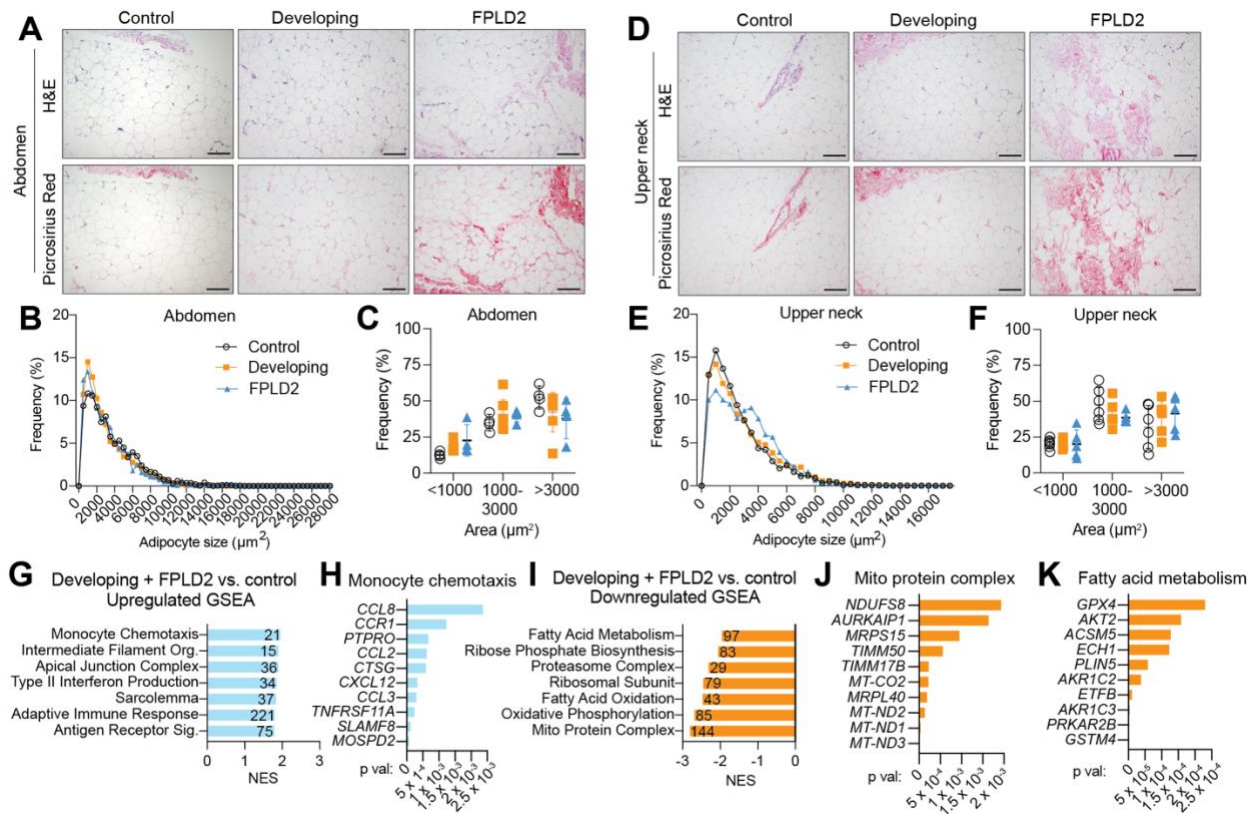


Figure 2. Biopsies from patients with FPLD2 have no change in adipocyte size, but bulk RNA-sequencing suggests decreased metabolism and increased inflammation in patient adipose tissue. (A) Representative adipose tissue histological images and Picrosirius Red-stained tissue for collagens from biopsies across patient groups in abdominal biopsies. Scale bar = 200 μm . (B) Frequency distribution of adipocyte size and (C) frequency of adipocytes less or greater than 2500 μm^2 from abdominal biopsies. (D) Histological images and Picrosirius Red analyses on upper neck biopsies. (E) Frequency distribution of adipocyte size and (F) frequency of adipocytes less or greater than 2500 μm^2 from upper neck biopsies. Bulk RNA-sequencing on patient biopsies. Biopsies from Group A and B were combined to compare to Group C. n = 4-5 samples (upper neck and abdomen combined) per group. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) identified (G) upregulated pathways with normalized enrichment scores (NES) and (H) leading edge genes for the monocyte chemotaxis pathway. (I) Downregulated GSEA pathways and leading edge genes for (J) mito protein complex and (K) fatty acid metabolism pathways.

Data are represented as mean $\pm$ SD. *P < 0.05. Statistical analyses were performed using two-way ANOVA, followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test.

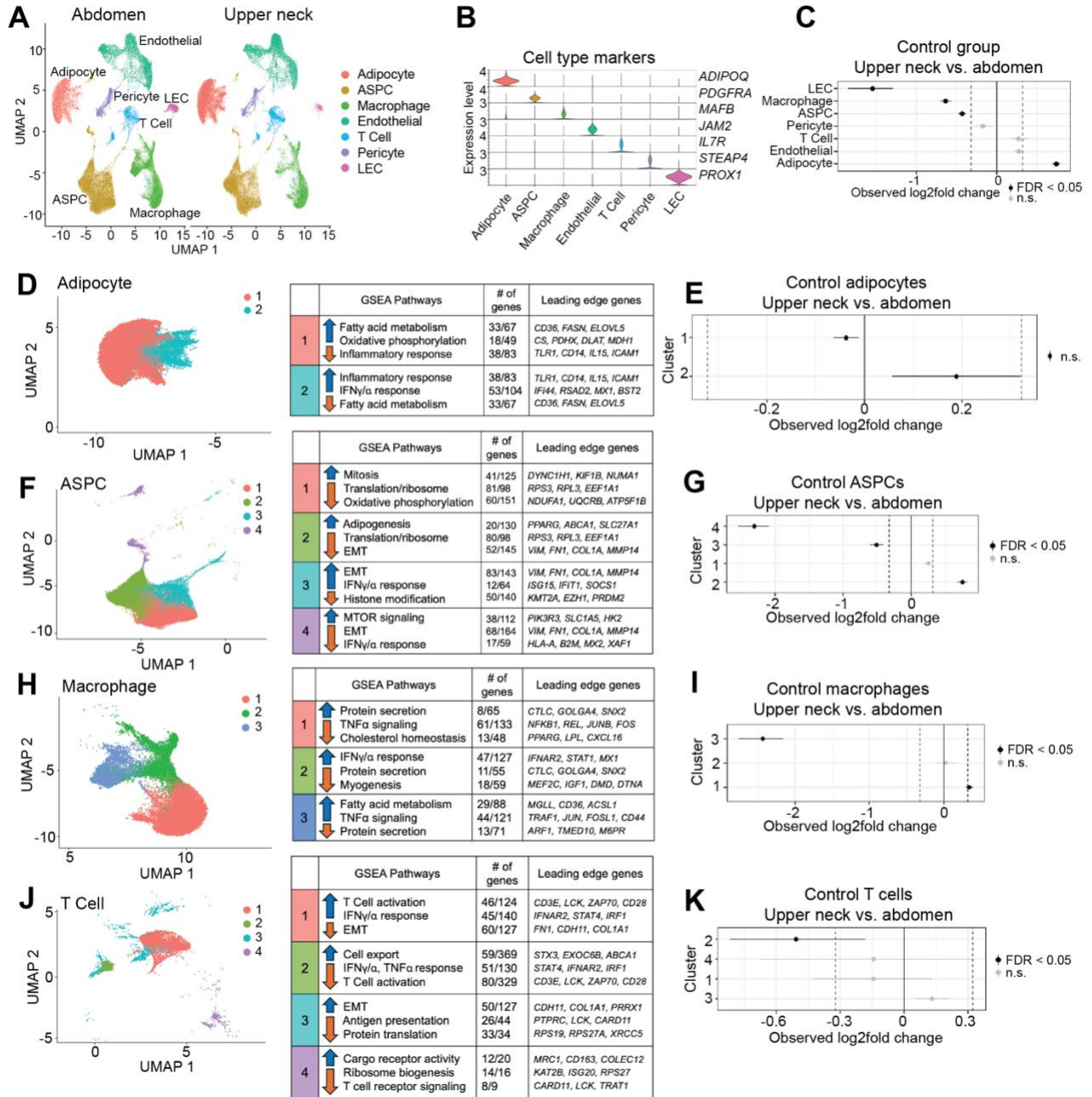


Figure 3. Single nuclei RNA-sequencing identifies changes in cell proportions and subclustering analyses between subcutaneous abdomen and upper neck adipose tissue in unaffected patients. (A) Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) of abdomen and upper neck biopsies across all patient groups (A, B and C); ASPC = adipose stem and progenitor cells, LEC = lymphatic endothelial cells. **(B)** Marker genes for each cell

population. **(C)** Permutation tests to identify changes in cell proportions in the upper neck relative to the abdominal biopsies from control patients (Group C); changes were statistically significant if the log2fold change was less or greater than 0.32, and the false discovery rate (FDR) was less than 0.05. **(D)** Adipocyte subclusters and corresponding GSEA pathways. **(E)** Adipocyte subclusters changes between the upper neck and abdomen in control patients. **(F)** ASPC subclusters with GSEA pathways. **(G)** ASPC subcluster changes in the upper neck relative to abdomen. **(H)** Macrophage subclusters with GSEA pathways. **(I)** Subcluster changes in macrophages in upper neck relative to abdomen. **(J)** T cell subclusters with GSEA pathways. **(K)** Subcluster changes in T cells in upper neck relative to abdomen.

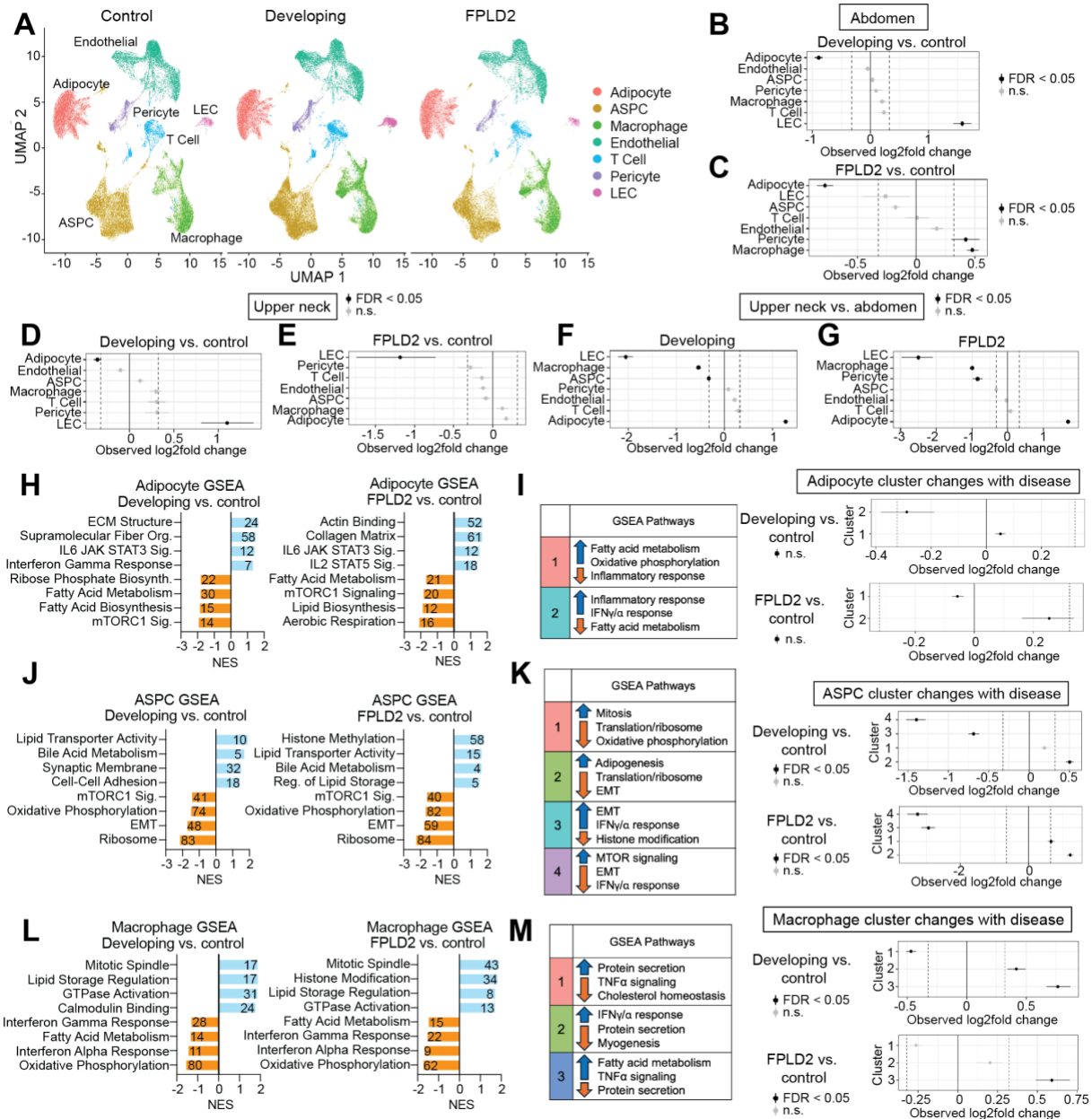


Figure 4. Single nuclei RNA-sequencing identifies changes in cell proportions and identity with progression of FPLD2. (A) UMAP of combined upper neck and abdomen biopsies across disease states; cell type markers are the same as in Figure 3. Permutation tests identified changes in cell proportion from abdominal biopsies from patients with **(B)** developing FPLD2 and **(C)** FPLD2 relative to control, and from upper neck biopsies in **(D)** developing FPLD2 and **(E)** FPLD2 relative to control. Cell proportion changes in the upper neck relative to

abdomen were identified in **(F)** developing and **(G)** FPLD2 disease states. **(H)** All adipocytes from developing or FPLD2 biopsies were analyzed via GSEA and compared to controls to identify population-level changes in cell identity. Sig = signaling; Org = organization. **(I)** Adipocyte subcluster analyses with corresponding GSEA pathways (same as in Figure 3) and subcluster changes with disease. **(J)** ASPC GSEA in developing or FPLD2 biopsies relative to controls. **(K)** ASPC subcluster changes with disease. **(L)** Macrophage GSEA in developing or FPLD2 biopsies relative to controls. **(M)** Macrophage subcluster changes with disease.

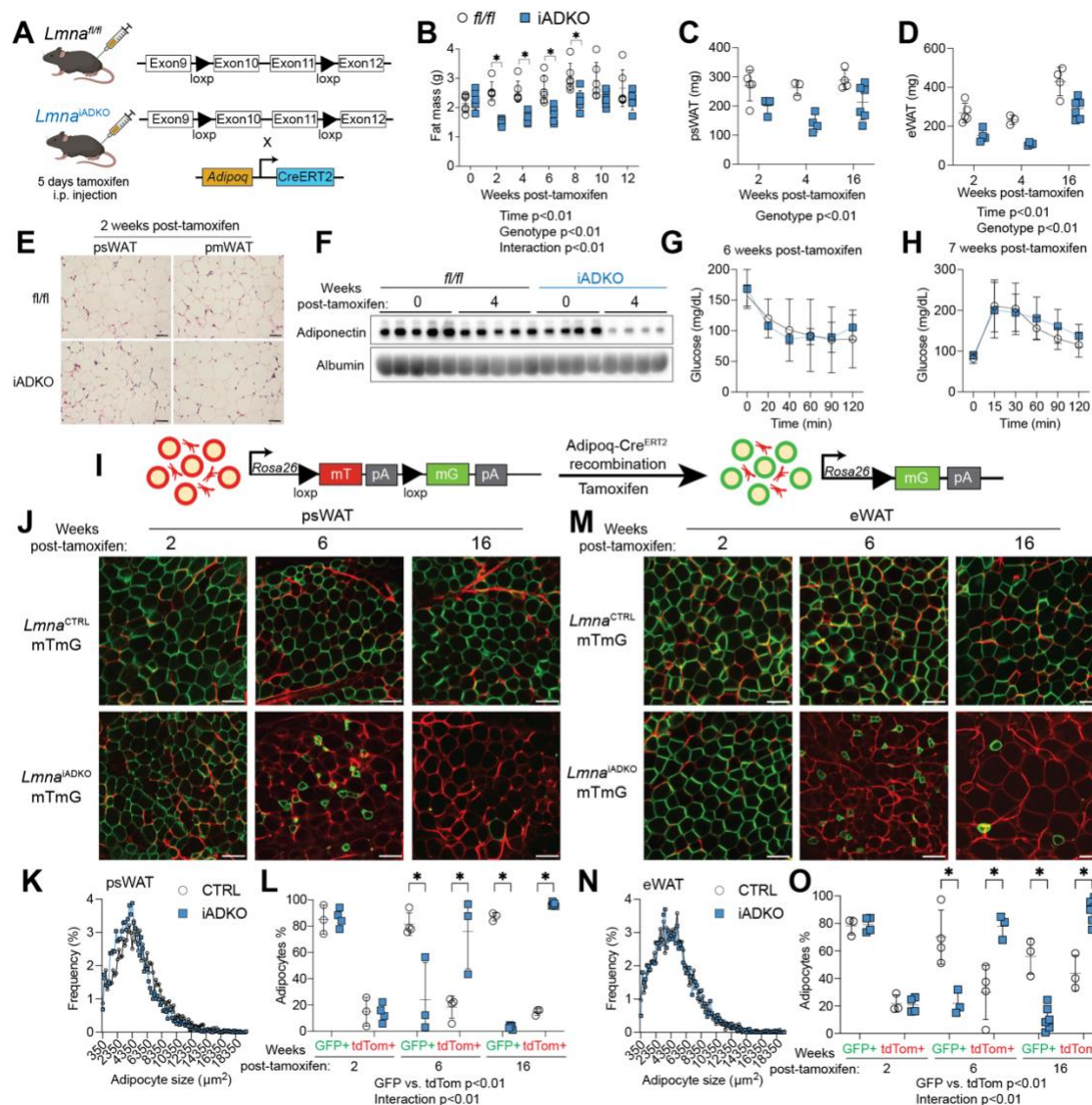


Figure 5. Tamoxifen-inducible adipocyte-specific *Lmna* knockout causes transient adipose tissue loss, and *Lmna*-deficient adipocytes shrink and disappear. All data from male mice besides histology from female mice. **(A)** Gene schematic of *Lmna*^{fl/fl} control mice and *Lmna*^{iADKO} inducible *Lmna* adipocyte-specific knockout mice. Adult mice were administered tamoxifen intraperitoneally (i.p.) for five consecutive days to induce recombination. **(B)** Fat mass after tamoxifen administration (n = 6). **(C)** Posterior subcutaneous white adipose tissue (psWAT) weights and **(D)** epididymal white adipose tissue (eWAT) weights at two-, four-, and 16-weeks post-tamoxifen (n = 3-6). **(E)** Representative histology of psWAT and parametrial WAT (pmWAT)

two weeks post-tamoxifen. Scale bar = 40 μ m. **(F)** Insulin tolerance test (ITT) six weeks post-tamoxifen (n = 6). **(G)** Glucose tolerance test (GTT) seven weeks post-tamoxifen (n = 6). **(H)** Serum adiponectin immunoblot at zero- and four-weeks post-tamoxifen (n = 4-5). **(I)** Schematic of mTmG reporter system induced by tamoxifen-mediated Cre activity. **(J)** Representative fresh confocal micrographs of psWAT (Scale bar = 100 μ m) and **(K)** quantification of psWAT adipocyte size at two-weeks post-tamoxifen (n = 3-4). **(L)** Quantification of psWAT GFP+ or tdTomato+ adipocytes. **(M)** Confocal micrographs of eWAT and **(N)** quantification of eWAT adipocyte size at two weeks post-tamoxifen. **(O)** Quantification of eWAT GFP+ or tdTomato+ adipocytes. Data are represented as mean $\pm$ SD. *P < 0.05. Statistical analyses were performed using two-way ANOVA, followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test.

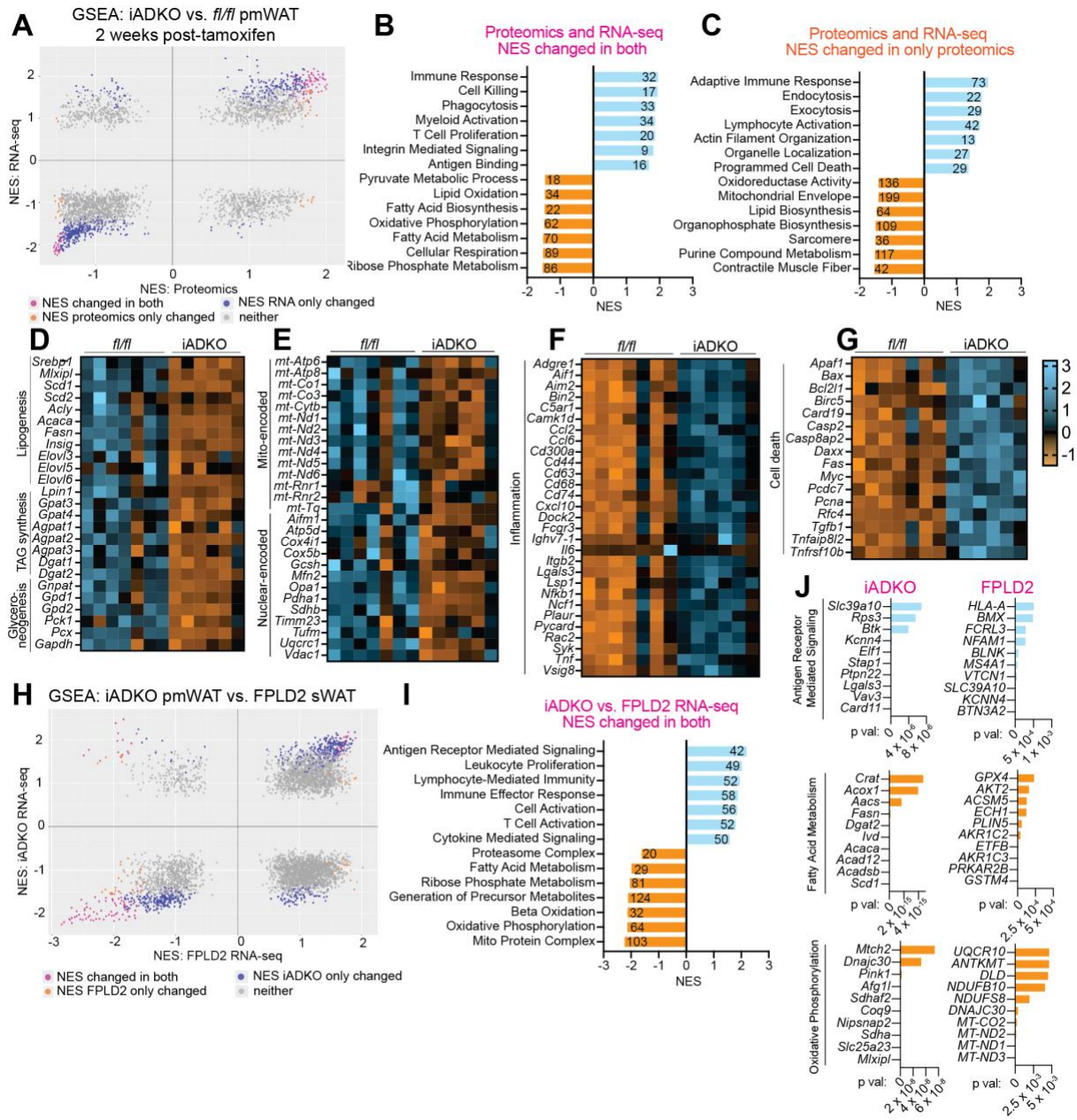


Figure 6. Bulk RNA-sequencing and proteomics of *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT reveals increased inflammation and reduced fatty acid metabolism and mitochondrial pathways, similar to human FPLD2 biopsies. All data from female mice. *Lmna*^{iADKO} and *Lmna*^{fl/fl} parametrial white adipose tissue (pmWAT) two-weeks post-tamoxifen was used for RNA-sequencing (n = 6-7) and proteomics (n = 5). **(A)** Integrative GSEA on bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) and proteomics. Pink dots symbolize that NES were significantly changed in both RNA-seq and proteomics

datasets, orange dots = NES only changed in proteomics, blue = NES only changed in RNA-seq. **(B)** Highlighted GSEA pathways changed in both proteomics and RNA-seq. Numbers on bars represent number of overlapping genes driving pathways. **(C)** Highlighted GSEA pathways changed in proteomics only. Heatmaps showing selected changes in genes driving **(D)** lipid biosynthesis, **(E)** mitochondrial function, **(F)** inflammation, and **(G)** cell death. **(H)** Integrative GSEA of *Lmna*^{iADKO} pmWAT bulk RNA-seq compared to FPLD2 bulk RNA-seq (Figure 2). **(I)** Highlighted GSEA pathways changed in both mouse and human RNA-seq datasets. **(J)** Leading-edge genes for GSEA pathways related to inflammation, fatty acid metabolism, and mitochondrial function for either iADKO or FPLD2 samples.

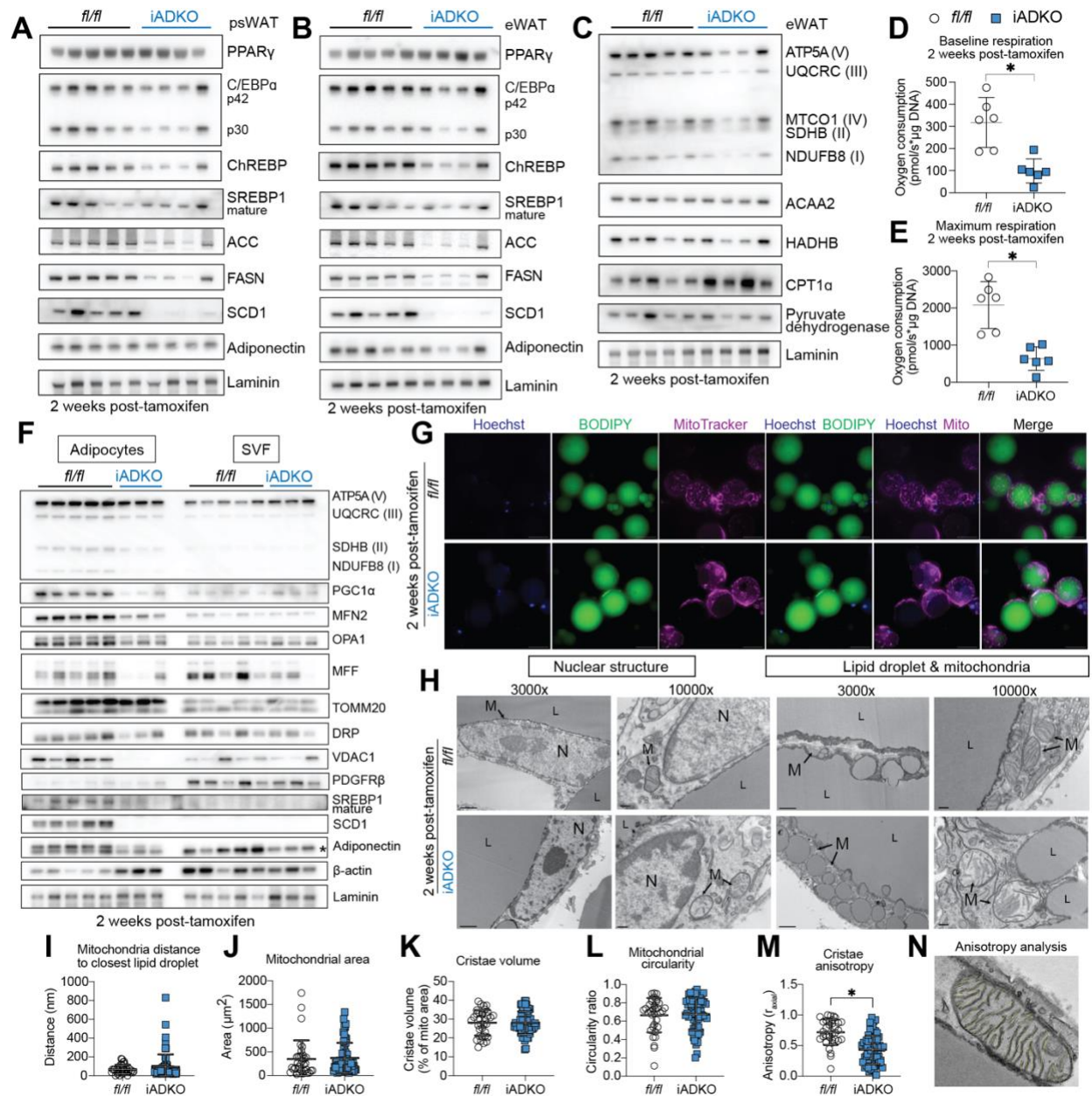


Figure 7. *Lmna*^{iADKO} adipocytes have reduced oxygen consumption and dysfunctional mitochondrial dynamics and structure. Data in (A) to (C), and in (H) are from male mice, and all other data is from female mice. Immunoblot analyses two-weeks post-tamoxifen of lipid metabolism and lipogenesis proteins in (A) psWAT and (B) eWAT (n = 4-5). Loading control = laminin. (C) Immunoblot of mitochondrial proteins in eWAT two-weeks post-tamoxifen (n = 4-5). Loading control = laminin. Oroboros Oxygraph-2k analyses of (D) baseline and (E) maximum

respiration in floated adipocytes from pmWAT two-weeks post-tamoxifen ($n = 6$). **(F)** Immunoblot of mitochondrial function and dynamics proteins in floated adipocytes and stromal vascular fraction (SVF) from pmWAT two-weeks post-tamoxifen ($n = 3-5$). * indicates non-specific band. Loading control = laminin and b-actin. **(G)** Confocal micrographs of floated adipocytes from pmWAT stained for nuclei (Hoechst), lipid (BODIPY), and mitochondria (MitoTracker Red), scale bar = 50 μm . **(H)** Transmission electron micrographs of eWAT two-weeks post-tamoxifen. Scale bar = 1 μm for 3000x; 200 nm for 10000x magnification images. Quantification of transmission electron micrographs: **(I)** Distance of mitochondria to closest lipid droplet, **(J)** Mitochondrial area, **(K)** Cristae volume per mitochondria, **(L)** Mitochondrial circularity, **(M)** Cristae anisotropy with **(N)** Example of anisotropy analysis. An average of nine adipocyte mitochondria were quantified per mouse, $n = 5-6$. Data are represented as mean $\pm$ SD. * $P < 0.05$. Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t-test.

Figure 8. *Lmna* KO mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) and adipocytes have shared patterns of altered gene expression, correlated with changes in chromatin accessibility.

(A) Schematic of dataset integration between *Lmna*^{iADKO} pmWAT RNA-seq and *Lmna* KO MEFs microarray and Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin (ATAC)-seq. Overlapping changed genes in RNA-seq of *Lmna*^{iADKO} WAT (iADKO), *Lmna* KO MEF microarray (MEF) and *Lmna* KO MEF ATAC-seq (ATAC) were identified, and GSEA was ran to identify changes in **(B)** lipid

metabolism Gene Ontology (GO) terms with their corresponding **(C)** overlapping leading edge genes, along with **(D)** inflammatory GO terms with **(E)** corresponding overlapping leading edge genes. **(F)** Distribution of chromatin features represented by percentage of overall chromatin composition compared between *Lmna* control (CTRL) and KO MEF ATAC-seq. **(G)** Enriched motifs in *Lmna* KO MEFs, stratified into four bins based on microarray gene expression changes, from most downregulated to most upregulated. **(H)** ATAC-seq signal tracks and visualization of significantly enriched regions and their predicted target genes. Red lines represent enhancers with a positive fold change upon *Lmna* KO, and blue lines are negative.

Table 1. Clinical, biochemical, and body composition parameters from patients with FPLD (FPLD), genetically affected but clinically unaffected individuals (Developing FPLD), and nonaffected individuals (Control). Data are expressed as mean $\pm$ SD.

Parameter	Control	Developing FPLD2	FPLD2	p-value
Weight	90 $\pm$ 5.5	78 $\pm$ 6.4	81 $\pm$ 6.4	0.4
BMI	31 $\pm$ 2.0	27 $\pm$ 1.7	29 $\pm$ 2.0	0.5
Waist Circumference	99 $\pm$ 6.2	87 $\pm$ 4.1	94 $\pm$ 2.3	0.2
Hip Circumference	107 $\pm$ 6.0	93 $\pm$ 4.6	98 $\pm$ 3	0.2
W/H ratio	0.9 $\pm$ 0.02	0.9 $\pm$ 0.01	0.9 $\pm$ 0.01	0.3
Fasting glucose (mg/dL)	129 $\pm$ 40	111 $\pm$ 12	221 $\pm$ 59	0.5
Fasting insulin (μ U/mL)	16 $\pm$ 1.3	38 $\pm$ 13	31 $\pm$ 4.3	0.3
HbA1c (%)	7 $\pm$ 1.0	6 $\pm$ 0.5 ^a	9 $\pm$ 1.1 [*]	0.01
Triglycerides (mg/dL)	116 $\pm$ 26	159 $\pm$ 33 ^a	301 $\pm$ 33 ^{**}	0.007
Total Cholesterol (mg/dL)	184 $\pm$ 13	166 $\pm$ 16	188 $\pm$ 12	0.4
HDL-cholesterol (mg/dL)	45 $\pm$ 4.0	38 $\pm$ 3	34 $\pm$ 3	0.1
LDL-cholesterol (mg/dL)	127 $\pm$ 9	111 $\pm$ 17	107 $\pm$ 10	0.4
AST (IU/L)	22 $\pm$ 1.3	25 $\pm$ 2.4	27 $\pm$ 2.3	0.5
ALT (IU/L)	22 $\pm$ 3.4	27 $\pm$ 3.4	36 $\pm$ 5.7	0.1
GGT (IU/L)	18 $\pm$ 3.5	19 $\pm$ 2.6	28 $\pm$ 4.3	0.08
C-reactive Protein (mg/L)	10 $\pm$ 4.6	2.1 $\pm$ 0.9	3.6 $\pm$ 1.6	0.3
Fasting FFA (mmol/L)	0.6 $\pm$ 0.1	0.5 $\pm$ 0.1 ^a	0.8 $\pm$ 0.1	0.09
Fasting C-Peptide (ng/mL)	2.3 $\pm$ 0.3	3.4 $\pm$ 0.8	3 $\pm$ 0.5	0.6
HOMA-IR	6 $\pm$ 2.2	11 $\pm$ 3.7	15 $\pm$ 3.4	0.3
ADIPO-IR	12 $\pm$ 4.3	16 $\pm$ 4.4	23 $\pm$ 3.2	0.2
Glucose AUC	51564 $\pm$ 12771	33731 $\pm$ 7923 ^a	83468 $\pm$ 18724	0.01
Insulin AUC	11317 $\pm$ 2012	46184 $\pm$ 19437	25525 $\pm$ 7669	0.2
Triglyceride AUC	39900 $\pm$ 10087	45220 $\pm$ 9449 ^c	94001 $\pm$ 12078	0.03
C-Peptide AUC	1807 $\pm$ 430	2990 $\pm$ 542	2435 $\pm$ 476	0.5
FFA AUC	96 $\pm$ 18	85 $\pm$ 18	149 $\pm$ 36	0.2
Leptin (pg/mL)	5562 $\pm$ 1491	3807 $\pm$ 1130	1905 $\pm$ 383 ^{&}	0.03
Adiponectin (pg/ μ L)	35735 $\pm$ 6360	25526 $\pm$ 7638	14724 $\pm$ 4209 [*]	0.09
FGF-21 (pg/mL)	152 $\pm$ 67	57 $\pm$ 14 ^c	190 $\pm$ 56	0.03

GDF-15 (pg/mL)	498 ± 55	371 ± 41 ^b	1174 ± 249 *	0.001
MCP-1 (pg/mL)	492 ± 94	572 ± 76	657 ± 45	0.7
IL-6 (pg/mL)	3.3 ± 0.5	0.9 ± 0.3 ^s	5.0 ± 3.1	0.03
TNFα (pg/mL)	167 ± 102	16 ± 3	72 ± 44	0.1
Control vs FPLD2: *p-value=0.04; **p-value=0.01; & p-value=0.03				
Developing FPLD2 vs FPLD2: ^a p-value= 0.01; ^b p-value=0.004; ^c p-value=0.04				
Control vs Developing FPLD: ^s p-value=0.04				

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; HbA1c, hemoglobin A1c; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; LDL, low-density lipoprotein, ALT: alanine aminotransferase, AST: aspartate aminotransferase, GGT: gamma-glutamyl transferase, NEFA: Non-esterified fatty acids, HOMA-IR: Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance; ADIPO-IR: Adipose Tissue Insulin Resistance Index, AUC: area under the curve, FGF: fibroblast growth factor, GDF: growth differentiation factor, MCP: monocyte chemoattractant protein, IL: interleukin, TNF: tumor necrosis factor.