Evolutionary stability of social commitment

Short title: Evolutionary stability of social commitment

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Abstract

The social amoeba *Dictyostelium discoideum* switches between the phase of solitary growth and social fruitification depending on nutrient availability. Under non-nutrient conditions, cells enter the social phase where they aggregate and differentiate to form fruiting bodies consisting of spores on top of non-viable altruistic stalk cells. Once cells aggregate, they complete fruiting body formation even with a renewed source of nutrients. This social commitment is puzzling because it deprives individual cells of the benefits of quickly resuming solitary growth. One idea posits that traits that facilitate premature dedifferentiation in response to nutrient recovery are somehow hindered from being selected in a social context. In this study, we studied the outcomes of premature dedifferentiation by forced refeeding. We show that when refed cells were allowed to resume sociality together with non-refed cells, besides some successfully becoming solitary outside of fruiting bodies, a large fraction was redirected to a sub-region of altruistic stalk regardless of their original cell fate. The lower cohesiveness of prestalk cells relative to prespore cells and comparably reduced cohesivity in refed cells was consistent with the redirection. Furthermore, application of a game theoretical model, which describes fruiting body formation among cells with differences in cell-cell association strategies, revealed a valley in the fitness landscape that prevents the invasion of mutants with the ability to dedifferentiate completely into a socially committed population. Our results provide a general scheme that naturally penalizes withdrawal from a society by evolving a specific division of labor such that less cohesive individuals become altruists.

Significance Statement

Evolution of unicellular to multicellular organisms must resolve conflicts of reproductive interests between individual cells and the group. In the social amoeba *Dictyostelium*, a transition from a solitary to multicellular group occurs under starvation. Once cells commit themselves to multicellular organization, the process continues even when shifting to an environment that favors solitary growth. Our study revealed that cells forced to partially revert to a de-committed state take an altruistic role through interaction with socially committed cells. The de-committed cells exhibited reduced cohesivity and were sorted out to altruistic positions in morphogenesis. This inevitably penalizes 'selfish' cells that revert to solitary growth too quickly. Our results explain group-level behaviors that is apparently difficult to understand from an individual-level fitness.

Key words: Cooperation; physiological irreversibility; valley of fitness landscape; division of labor; developmental stability; multicellularity

Introduction

Continued social interactions are fundamental to make cooperation fruitful for group members. However, the evolution of sociality is often faced with selection pressures that potentially lead to their collapse. Cheating that exploits the benefit of cooperation at the cost of others is a well-studied case of such risks. Nature has found ways to reduce the deleterious effects of cheating by making use of interactions among kin (1) and policing that suppress individual proliferation (2). In microbial cooperation (3), spatial interactions that keep the cooperator cells at close distances, such as spatial genetic drift in expanding colonies (4, 5) and kin recognition using cell-surface proteins (6, 7) play pivotal roles in reducing the advantage of cheating mutants. Besides cheating, sociality is also vulnerable to environmental changes that raise fitness of a cell as a solitary individual rather than as a social group member. Indeed, evolutionary loss of social behavior has been experimentally demonstrated in myxobacteria under conditions that impede their social interaction while favoring solitary reproduction (8). Phylogenetic and behavioral analyses have also shown that the evolutionary loss of social behavior appears to be a common phenomenon across taxa from insects to unicellular organisms (9–11). Social behavior exemplified by a high degree of division of labor and reproductive skew, in general, is thought to have crossed a 'point of no return' (12, 13) back to a solitary lifestyle due to its high complexity. The stabilization of cooperation against adverse evolutionary pressures is thought to be the key driving force that increases social complexity (14, 15).

How sociality is precluded from reverting to a free-living behavior is especially non-trivial in social groups consisting of individual cells that can survive on their own. One explanation is that social traits act disadvantageously for unicellular growth. For example, in the experimental evolution of fission yeast, high rates of apoptosis evolve because they promote snowflake-like sparse chains of clustered cells, which increases access to more nutrients and space. Since apoptosis is inevitably disadvantageous for solitary proliferation (14, 16), the antagonizing effect should facilitate the maintenance of multicellular traits (14, 15). However, such a trade-off may be limited to cases where individual cells can immediately escape the group, as is true in the case of the yeast snowflakes. In more elaborate multicellular groups, evolutionary transitions must occur in steps. Under selection pressure for solitary proliferation, myxobacteria exhibit intermediate social behaviors such as reduced frequency of sporulation and collective motility (8), hinting at the importance of intermediate phenotypes in the evolutionary transition (17). Given that sociality is a multifactorial trait that is regulated and constrained by a large number of genes, even in simple multicellularity (18), loss of sociality almost inevitably proceeds through a transition stage where a newly emerging lineage

exhibits the intermediate phenotype, meaning that it still interacts with the majority of other
socially committed cells within the multicellular group. In this situation, evolutionary
reversion may be prevented by a mechanism to suppress the proliferation of cells with the
intermediate phenotypes. However, when proliferation as free-living cells outweighs the
benefit of cooperation, social lineages should not be able to acquire a new costly
countermeasure. It is still possible that the preexisting social behavior itself comes with rather
unexpected bonus of acting inhibitory to reversion to a solitary lifestyle. If the intermediate
phenotype is recognized as 'nonself' from other social members, a defensive function that
social groups are equipped with can potentially harm them due to their incomplete target
specificity. For example, social microbes evolve traits that suppress the sporulation of
cheaters (19, 20). Although such suppression is thought to result from a mechanism that
adapts to combat competitors, how specific it is to a certain genotype is poorly explored. In
other examples, bacteriocins that suppress competitors are expected to spite cells that are
sensitive to the signal in an indiscriminatory manner (21). Given that such elimination of
'nonself' are common and fundamental defense strategies in both unicellular and multicellular
organisms (22), what may underlie many of the suppressive behaviors are some basic
mechanisms that exclude deviators from the original members, which would inevitably
suppress the intermediate phenotypes. Taken together, how the intermediate phenotypes
between a social and solitary state interact with the original social members is critical in
understanding the maintenance of social behaviors.

The social amoeba *Dictyostelium discoideum* is a soil-living eukaryote with
facultative sociality under non-nutrient conditions (23, 24). The cells grow and divide in the
presence of nutrient sources such as bacteria and fungi, however, when starved, they stop
foraging and aggregate to form a multicellular slug that culminates in a fruiting body composed
of differentiated spores and stalk cells. *Dictyostelium* has served as a model microorganism
to study cellular cooperation (25), especially since vacuolation and death of stalk cells that
support the spores (23, 24) can be viewed as an altruistic behavior. Interestingly, after 4 to 6
hours of starvation onward, cells become engaged in the differentiation process (26), and will
no longer quickly revert back to the growth phase even with renewed nutrient supply (27).
Instead, cells continue with the formation of fruiting bodies within 24 hours. The inability of
differentiating cells to switch back to the state of solitary amoeba (hereafter referred to as social
commitment) is dependent on the multicellular context. When cells that are mechanically
dissociated are replenished with nutrients, they dedifferentiate and revert to solitary growth
(26–28). Thus, unless differentiating cells are forced to separate and feed, the only way by
which cells can return to the solitary state is to first mature into encapsulated spores and then

to germinate, a long process that takes a few days. The evolutionary benefit of the social
commitment is puzzling, especially given that the social amoeba colonizes sites with
fluctuations in the nutrient environment, such as a frequent supply of rich dung or leaf mold
(29), which favor quick reversion to solitary proliferation. Existence of a phagocytic cell-type
that serves to remove intruding bacteria (30) suggests that it is not unusual for cells within a
slug to be exposed to nutrients. Given the fact that these cells are very small in number, it is
not hard to imagine situations where they are outnumbered and thus permitting strong invasive
perturbation similar to the idealized refeeding experiments in this work. To understand the
multicellular basis that maintains the social commitment in *Dictyostelium*, we studied the
outcome of cells that revert to a partially de-committed state while still in association with
socially committed cells. In our experiments, cells were forced to take the dedifferentiation
path by short-term refeeding, and their fates when mixed with socially committed cells were
traced by live-cell imaging. Based on the observation, a theoretical model was constructed
and analyzed to predict the evolutionary stability of the social commitment.
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Results

Forced refeeding experiments

Mechanically dissociated cells re-plated on agar without nutrients are known to rapidly
reaggregate and recapitulate the respective developmental stages within a few hours (31). We
exploited this unique property to investigate the interactions between socially committed and
de-committed cells. For partially de-committed cells, dissociated cells from the slug stage
were fed with bacteria *Escherichia coli* B/r for 3 or 5 h (hereafter referred to as RF3 and RF5
cells, respectively), then nutrients were removed again. The refed cells were then allowed to
reaggregate with cells that were not refed (NF cells, socially committed cells) (Fig. 1*A*). Thus,
this treatment mimics a situation that a rare cell makes a slug with socially committed cells, and
dedifferentiates due to engulfing bacteria within the slime sheath of the slug, where the bacteria
remained for 3 to 5 h before the terminal differentiation (approximately 18 to 23 h after
starvation). To track the cells, a strain harboring the prestalk (ecmAO-RFP) and prespore
(pspA-GFP) marker genes were used. Owing to the relatively long time (> 4–5 h) required
for the preexisting fluorescent proteins degrade (32), the fluorescence was used as identification
of their original cell fate. The parental strain without the fluorescent marker genes was used
for the negative identification of NF cells. The mixture of cells co-aggregated and jointly
formed a tight mound after 1.5–2 h (Fig. S1, Movies S1 and S2). In the mixture of NF cells
with and without the cell-type reporter (NF+NF), prestalk cells were found in the peripheral

region of the aggregate, while prespore cells were more uniformly distributed (Fig. 1*B*: NF+NF) in line with the previously described sorting pattern (33). In contrast, in the mixed aggregates of RF and NF cells, RF cells (fluorescent cells) were positioned at the periphery regardless of the original cell type (Fig. 1*B*: RF3/5+NF), while NF cells (non-fluorescent cells) were more abundant in the center of the aggregate. The refed treatment significantly affected cell positioning, and the difference in prespore positioning between the control and the refed condition was evident (Fig. 1*C*: overall model: GLM and analysis of deviance, cell fate: $F_{1,186}$ = 228.661, $P < 0.0001$, treatments: $F_{2,184}$ = 56.447, $P < 0.0001$, prespore cells in NF+NF versus RF5+NF: *t*-test, d.f. = 36.687, t = -7.606, adjusted $P < 0.0001$).

In the swap control, we observed a reciprocal pattern of fluorescent cells in the center and non-fluorescent cells in the periphery (Fig. S2*A*, RF(Fl-)+NF(Fl+)), indicating that expression of the marker genes itself did not affect the sorting pattern. RF cells were still fully capable of developing on their own, forming a tipped mound of normal morphology with timing indistinguishable from the NF cells (Fig. S2*B*). These results demonstrate that segregation was not due to the innate inability of RF cells to develop, but rather a relative behavior when in association with the NF cells. Cells dissociated and shaken without refeeding did not segregate from the freshly dissociated cells (Fig. S2*C*, RF(No-nutrient)+NF). Furthermore, refeeding with liquid growth medium had the same effect as refeeding with bacteria (Fig. S2*C*, RF(growth medium)+NF). These results indicate that the unique sorting pattern was not merely due to mechanical interruption but also required nutrient replenishment. Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (real-time PCR) analysis of the dissociated cells in suspension with or without nutrients (Table S1, see *SI* Methods) showed distinct patterns of gene regulation compared to unperturbed samples whose changes were relatively small (Fig. 1*D*, 'No-dissociation'). Dissociated cells exhibited reduced expression of cell-type differentiation marker genes (Fig. 1*D*, *pspA*, *ecmA*), indicating that dissociated cells were partially dedifferentiating regardless of the presence or absence of nutrients (bootstrap test, adjusted $P > 0.05$, Fig. 1*D*). Whereas genes encoding the main adhesion molecules (34) (*cadA*, *csaA*, and *tgrC1*) did not show nutrient-specific changes, *carA*, *acaA*, *pdsA,* and *dscA* genes (Fig. 1*D*) showed contrasting activity of being reduced by refeeding and induced in non-nutrient buffer (GLM and analysis of deviance, 'No-nutrient' versus 'Bacteria': adjusted $P < 0.05$, 'No-nutrient' versus 'Growth medium': adjusted $P < 0.01$, Fig. 1*D*). *CarA*, *acaA*, and *pdsA* are essential for the cAMP relay during cell aggregation, and *carA* is also required for chemotaxis to the relayed cAMP. *dscA* (discoidin I) is a GRGD (Gly-Arg-Gly-Asp) containing lectin implicated in the cell-substratum adhesion of cell streams during aggregation (35, 36).

Given that the refed cells show markedly reduced expression of the re-aggregation

genes, they are likely to fall behind in joining the cell clusters compared to the non-refed cells

by delayed chemotaxis.   A close observation of cell reaggregation, however, revealed that

refed cells often appear well mixed in the aggregate initially and then sorted out afterwards

(Movie S2).   A recent work suggested a concerted sorting mechanism of a tip-forming prestalk

subtype by competition between chemotaxis and cell-cell contact-based collective movement

during mound regeneration (37).   In the present case, however, the refed cells sorted to the

periphery and then to the base of the mound instead of the apical tip (Fig. S3A).   Furthermore,

the refed cells did not exhibit collective movement, but rather appeared to be sorted out

gradually without directed migration (Movie S2).   These observations point to an alternative

mechanism of cell segregation based on differential adhesion (38), where cell-type that position

themselves in the peripheral region of a cell mass should be less cohesive than those positioned

in the inner region.   We tested the ability of RF cells to associate with aggregates using a

cohesion assay (39).   Briefly, mechanically dissociated cells were suspended in the phosphate

buffer and shaken gently to facilitate cell agglutination by random collisions for 1.5, 3, and 5 h,

and the number of single unattached cells was quantified (Fig. 1E left, see SI Methods).   For

RF conditions, the assay was performed under the continued presence of nutrients to avoid the

chemotaxis effect by cAMP.   We found that cells in the bacterial suspension or liquid growth

medium were less cohesive (Fig. 1E left, 'Bacteria', 'Growth medium') than those in the

phosphate buffer (Fig. 1E left: GLM and analysis of deviance, Buffer 5 h versus Bacteria 5 h:

deviance = 424.93, d. f. = (1, 4), adjusted $P < 0.0001$, Buffer 5 h versus Growth medium:

deviance = 748.4, d. f. = (1, 4), adjusted $P < 0.0001$).   These results are consistent with an

earlier finding indicating a reduction in cell-cell cohesion during dedifferentiation (40).   In

addition, we found that the prespore cells constituted 55% of the unattached cells within the

phosphate buffer (Fig. 1E right, Buffer 5h, the gray bar), which deviated markedly from the

prespore percentage (82%) when most cells were in a single state (Fig. 1E right, Buffer+EDTA,

the white bar: GLM and analysis of deviance, Buffer+EDTA versus Buffer 5 h: deviance =

9.438, d.f. = (1, 4), adjusted $P < 0.0001$).   The occurrence of unattached prespore cells in the

presence of bacteria (Fig. 1E right, shaded bars 1.5, 3, and 5h) was comparable to that of the

non-adhesive control, thus the refed prespore cells tended to be more solitary state

(Buffer+EDTA versus Bacteria 5 h: deviance = 13.964, d.f. = (1, 4), adjusted $P = 0.572$).   Our

results indicate that prestalk cells are less cohesive than the prespore cells in line with earlier

literature (41).   The lower cohesiveness of prestalk cells relative to prespore cells (Fig. 1E

right) and comparably reduced cell-cell cohesivity in refed cells (Fig. 1E left) are consistent

with the peripheral positioning (Figs. 1B and C) of these cells.

Positional bias was also evident during the culmination.   The fruiting body of *D. discoideum* consists of a spore mass held aloft by a stalk.   In addition to the main stalk, stalk
cells constitute three other distinct terminal cell types: The upper and the lower cups and the
basal disc (Fig. 2*A*) (24).   4–6 h after plating, the cell mass elongated into a finger-like form
with a prespore cell mass between the two prestalk regions that later became the upper and the
lower cups, respectively (Figs. 2*B* and 2*C*, Fig. S3*B*, Movie S3), and the normal patterning was
observed in NF cell populations (Fig. 2*B*: NF+NF).   Accordingly, the positional frequency of
prespore and prestalk cells along the anterior-posterior axis was strongly anti-correlated (Fig.
2*B* NF+NF*,* GLM and analysis of deviance, slope = -2.03 ± 0.26, $F_{1,1198}$ = 59.21, P < 0.0001).
In contrast, in RF+NF populations, RF cells were abundant in the lower region (Fig. 2*B*, Fig.
S3*B*, Movie S4: RF3+NF, RF5+NF).   Consequently, the positional frequency of prespore and
prestalk cells was positively correlated (Fig. 2*B,* GLM and analysis of deviance, RF3+NF: slope
= 4.53 ± 0.25, $F_{1,998}$ = 356.89, P < 0.0001, RF5+NF: slope = 3.70 ± 0.31, $F_{1,648}$ = 152.38, P <
0.0001).   Later, these RF cells formed the future lower cup and the basal disc but were almost
completely excluded from the upper cup and the main stalk (Fig. 2*C*, RF3+NF).   A consistent
pattern was observed in the marker swap controls (Fig. 2*C*, RF3(Fl-):NF(Fl+) = 85:15,
RF3(Fl+):NF(Fl-) = 70:30) indicating that the sorting pattern was not due to the choice of
fluorescent marker strains.   Interestingly, there appeared to be a gradient-like sorting
preference in the posterior (lower) to anterior (upper) axis of the culminant.   In our standard
condition where RF cells were the minority, RF cells of both the prespore- and prestalk-origin
segregated to the lower prestalk region (Fig. 2*C*, RF3+NF).   When RF cells were the majority,
the refed prespore and prestalk cells were positioned according to their original cell fate.
However, there was still a positional bias within each domain: RF cells of prespore-origin were
found in the lower portion of the spore mass, and those of prestalk-origin occupied a lower
portion of the upper cup in addition to the lower cup (Fig. 2*C*, RF3(Fl+):NF(Fl-) = 70:30).

In the final hours of terminal differentiation (8 to 10 h after plating), the ectopic
positioning of refed cells was most notable in the basal disc region, which consists mainly of
secreted cellulose and vacuolating non-viable cells (42, 43).   In the controls ('No-dissociation',
NF+NF), the basal disc was occupied by cells of prestalk-origin (Figs. 2*D* and *E*: 'No-
dissociation', NF+NF) as expected (44).   In contrast, RF+NF (Figs. 2*D* and *E*: RF3+NF,
RF5+NF), RF cells of both prestalk and prespore origins were found intermingled with non-
fluorescent NF cells at the basal disc (Figs. 2*D* and *E*, overall model: GLM and analysis of
deviance, $F_{3,94}$ = 25.008, P < 0.0001, control versus Rf5: *t*-test, d.f. = 18.888, t = -12.292,
adjusted P < 0.0001).   In addition, cells scattered around the base (45) were amoeboid and
showed random movement (Movie S5), indicating that the cells escaped cell death as stalks.

In the non-feeding controls, these scattered cells on the agar surface were of prestalk origin

(Figs. 2*F* and *G*: 'No-dissociation', NF+NF), whereas in the RF+NF populations (Figs. 2*F* and

G: RF3+NF, RF5+NF), RF cells of both prespore and prestalk origins were found scattered

around the basal disc (Figs. 2*F* and *G*: overall model: GLM and analysis of deviance, $F_{3,86} =$

41.432, $P < 0.0001$, NF+NF versus RF5+NF: *t*-test, d.f. = 23.099 , t = -21.81, adjusted $P <$

0.0001).　The results (Figs. 2*F* and *G,* Movie S5) indicate that the final survivors at the

terminal phase included some solitary cells (amoeba) in addition to social cells (spores).　In

the terminal differentiation, RF cells in the RF+NF populations were more allocated to the

solitary amoeboid cells than NF cells (Fig. S4).

The growth cost of the social commitment

Our refeeding experiments indicate that *Dictyostelim* cells that dedifferentiate precociously are

penalized by being assigned a role of non-viable stalk (Figs. 1 and 2).　This observation is

interesting from an evolutionary point of view as it may reduce competitive disadvantages of

socially committed cells under nutrient-rich environments.　Given this, we went on to

investigate a basic question of how the social commitment imposes individual cells growth

costs.　If cells experience nutrient recovery at the slug stage ($s = 18$h, Fig. 3*A*), socially

committed cells should proceed to the later stages of development: Only rare solitary cells

would be able to grow (46, 47).　Therefore, the socially committed cells would bear two types

of growth costs: Growth delay incurred by fruiting body formation (*d*) and lag time for spore

germination (λ) (Fig. 3*A*).　On the other hand, without commitment, cells would revert to a

solitary state immediately after refeeding (Fig. 3*A*).　For quantification of the growth cost,

cells were released from the commitment by mechanical dissociation.　After 30h-incubation

from the slug stage (Fig. 3*A*: *d*), amoeboid cells and spores were harvested, and cell growth

was measured within the growth medium (Fig. 3*A*, 'Growth assay').　This result shows that

despite nutrient recovery, cell growth was delayed for approximately 9 h if cells were not

mechanically dissociated (Fig. 3*B*, [Estimated lag time λ, 'Refed & Dissociation': 15.24 ± 4.27

h, 'Refed & No-dissociation': 23.97 ± 4.35 h, 'Continuous starvation': 36.17 ± 4.03 h],

[Estimated growth rate: 'Refed & Dissociation': 0.067 ± 0.012, 'Refed & No-dissociation':

0.064 ± 0.012, 'Continuous starvation': 0.057 ± 0.009]).　The significant growth delay (Fig.

3*B*, 'Refed & No-dissociation' versus 'Refed & Dissociation': GLM and analysis of deviance,

$F_{1,21} = 12.175, P < 0.003$) highlights the cost for individual cells of remaining in the social group

under nutrient-rich environments.

Model analysis for evolutionary maintenance of the social commitment

If the non-committed strain is rewarded by such a growth advantage (Fig. 3), how stable is social commitment against adverse evolutionary pressures? To investigate how well the cell-fate reallocation (Figs. 1 and 2) could help maintain sociality, we analyze whether a rare mutant cell that reverts to the solitary state could invade a wild-type population with the framework of adaptive dynamics (48, 49). We considered a sufficiently large population of haploid and asexually reproducing cells which are exposed to nutrient recovery at each slug stage. The evolutionary trait is a degree of association with other cells, x $(0 \le x \le 1)$ (Table S2). Cells with any of the traits normally commit to the development and differentiation, and then express the trait x at the slug stage, with both cell fate and fitness decided according to x. A wild-type cell has the trait $x = x_{wt}$, where its default value is $x_{wt} = 1$ indicating full social commission. According to the value of x, a single cell simultaneously has probabilities to be a spore, stalk, and solitary cell. The probabilities are equivalent to the cell fate ratios in the clonal population with the trait x. The cell fate ratios at the initial stage of the evolution ($x = 1$) are designated as $SP_{initial} = 0.6$, $ST_{initial} = 0.2$, and $Sol_{initial} = 0.2$, respectively (for suitability of the parameters see, Fig. S5).

We consider that invasion of a rare mutant cell with the trait $x' = x_{wt} + \varepsilon$, ($\varepsilon$ is a sufficiently small negative value), and the mutant evolves a reduced level of cell-cell association, $x' < x_{wt}$. The rare mutant cell makes a chimera slug with the wild-type cells, and expresses the trait x' within the slug and reverts to a solitary state. We assume that the cell-cell association level x controls most of cohesion proteins as a 'master regulator', i.e., $x = 1$ indicates full social commission, and $x = 0$ is a solitary state where cohesion proteins are completely degradated (Fig. 4A). According to previous study and our experimental results (Fig. 1E) (41), cohesion of each cell fate is assumed to be distinctively different, and the highest is prespore, followed by in the order of prestalk, solitary cell (hereafter the allocation is referred to as 'canonical allocation'). When a cell has a reduced trait value ($x < 1$), the trait expression may induce cohesion degradation at the slug stage as the conceptual illustration of distribution shifts (Fig. 4A). For example, the prespore cell after the trait expression will exhibit reduced cohesion similar to an original prestalk or solitary cell. From our refed experiments (Figs. 1 and 2), a cell is assumed to play a cell fate role as determined by its own cohesivity, rather than its original fate role. Thus, given the order of cohesion (Fig. 1E) (41), a cell changes a role via evolution of reduced x in the order of prespore, prestalk, and solitary cell (Fig. 4B). With these evolutionary steps being described by the following differential equations:

$$\frac{dP(SP|x)}{dx} = k_1 P(SP|x),$$

$$\frac{dP(ST|x)}{dx} = -k_1 P(SP|x) + k_2 P(ST|x),$$ [1]

$$\frac{dP(Sol|x)}{dx} = -k_2 P(ST|x),$$

where $P(Z|x)$ is the probability of a cell with the trait x taking fate Z (SP: Spore, ST: Stalk,

Sol: Solitary cell). k_1, and k_2 are the rates of cell fate transition ($k_1 > 0$, $k_2 > 0$). If

$k_1 \gg k_2$, decrement of the spore probability is quickly but that of stalk probability is slow in

the evolution (Eq. **1**, Fig. 4*B*). On the other hand, if $k_1 \ll k_2$, vice versa. Our refed

experiments (Fig. 2) support the assumption $k_1 \gg k_2$, because we observed a much smaller

number of RF cells in prespore region of early fruiting bodies (quick $P(SP|x)$ decrement) but

abundant RF cells in the stalk region (lower cup and basal disc) (slow $P(ST|x)$ decrement).

We could select default values as $k_1 = 14.6$ and $k_2 = 6.3$, when evaluating cell fate

transition through shifts in the cohesion distribution following evolution of x (see, SI text).

The equation (Eq. **1**) is solved under the initial value at $x = 1$ (prespore: $SP_{initial}$, prestalk:

$ST_{initial}$, solitary: $Sol_{initial}$). Both the wild-type and mutant cells follow Eq. **1**.

Invasion fitness of the mutant cell is

$$W(x'; x_{wt}) = f(x'; x_{wt}) - f(x_{wt}; x_{wt}),$$ [2]

where, $f(x'; x_{wt})$ is survival probability of the mutant when the mutant interacts with the

wild-type cell, and $f(x_{wt}; x_{wt})$ is that of the wild-type cell that interacts with other wild-type

cell. Because the mutant is rare, interaction between mutant cells is ignored. Both

$f(x'; x_{wt})$ and $f(x_{wt}; x_{wt})$ are defined as the sum of the probabilities of becoming a spore

(social fitness) and a solitary amoeboid cell (solitary fitness) as follows,

$$f(x) = P(SP|x) + g\, P(Sol|x),$$ [3]

where, g represents the additional weight of solitary fitness as defined by nutrient

availability. Thus, for simplicity, amounts of nutrients directly contribute the solitary

fitness. Although the equation Eq. **3** simply describes the survival probability as a result of

resource allocation between solitary and social life, stalk differentiation costs survival

probability because $P(SP|x) + P(ST|x) + P(Sol|x) = 1$. We also consider another

formulation that assumes the spore success explicitly depended on altruistic stalk investment,

but the fitness plot (Fig. S6) shows fundamentally the same result as the formulation for the

resource allocation (Eq. **3**).

The invasion fitness when the mutant interacts with the wild-type cell with $x_{wt} = 1$

(Fig. 4*C*) showed a fitness valley under intermediate nutrient-rich condition ($g = 1$), owing to

the transient increase in the stalk fate probability during the evolution. In the starved condition

($g = 0$), the mutant is always disadvantageous, while in the nutrient-rich condition ($g = 10$)

the mutant rapidly evolves (Fig. 4C). Ecology-evolution-environment diagram (49) in Fig.

4D shows evolution under various environmental conditions and indicates that the evolutionary

equilibrium is $x = 0$ or $x = 1$ depending on the starting point of the evolution. The point

where the selection gradient vanishes, i.e. 'evolutionarily singular' (48, 49) is denoted as x^*.

The singular point x^* is in the 'bottom' of the valley (evolutionary repellor) (Fig. 4D,

'Canonical allocation'), and neither an evolutionarily stable strategy (ESS) (50) nor

convergence stable (48, 51) when evaluated under our assumed condition ($k_1 \gg k_2$) (for detail,

see SI text and Fig. S7). Thus, the model predicts that once the wild-type cells acquire

complete social commitment ($x = 1$), mutant invasion is blocked under a wide range of

intermediate nutrient-rich conditions.

The fitness valley (Figs. 4C, D) was caused by a direct consequence of division of

labor that assigns each cell fate with a varying degree of cell-cell cohesion in the order of

prespore > prestalk > solitary cell (canonical allocation). If the social amoeba were to

have an alternative type of allocation rule: With cohesion order of prestalk > prespore >

solitary cell (reverse allocation), and with prespore = prestalk > solitary cell (random

allocation), these systems did not prevent invasion of the solitary reversion mutant (Fig. 4D).

In the reverse allocation system, an evolutionary singular point x^* is partially solitary state

(Fig. 4D, 'Reverse allocation') and is ESS and convergence stable under our assumed condition

($k_1 \gg k_2$) (see SI text). The singular point x^* is found under starved conditions, where cells

become more 'selfish' and a fruiting body is slightly vulnerable than that of the complete social

commitment: Cells differentiate into more spores but less stalk cells. Under nutrient-rich

conditions, complete solitary mutant ($x = 0$) evolved (Fig. 4D). In the random allocation

system, there is no singular point (see SI text), and the equilibrium is $x = 1$ under starvation

conditions, and $x = 0$ under nutrient-rich conditions (Fig. 4D, 'Random allocation'). Taken

together, only the canonical allocation system can protect the social commitment under

nutrient-rich conditions.

Finally, to understand the range of the social defense, invasion of a cheating mutant

is investigated in addition to the solitary reversion mutant. We consider a rare cheating mutant

cell that has higher probability to be a spore than the wild-type cell within a chimera. An

evolutionary trait i denotes additional spore investment at the slug stage, thus the initial cell

fate probabilities for prespore, prestalk, and solitary cells, are $SP_{initial} + i$, $ST_{initial} - i$, and

$Sol_{initial}$, respectively. The trait of the wild-type cell is $i = i_{wt}$ where $i_{wt} = 0$ is the

default value. The trait of the cheating mutant is $i = i' = i_{wt} + \theta$, (θ is a sufficiently small

positive value). Especially, we focused a prolonged development time from the slug stage: In

the social amoeba, in dark and unbuffered conditions, cells suspend its development as a

migrating slug for a few days, which is believed to be a trait associated with finding a suitable

place for spore dispersal (24). The migrating slug induces a series of changes in cell fates

closely resembling those associated with the canonical allocation system: There is a sub-

population of prestalk cells left behind in the tail of the slugs (46), which are compensated by

trans-differentiation of prespore cells to prestalk cells (52). The time t represents the

prolonged development time from the slug stage ($t = 0$), and $t = 1$ indicates the maximum

migration time. Cell fate transition over development time is described as differential

equations including the derivative with respect to time t (Eq. **S18**-**S20** in SI text), which are

solved with the initial condition at $t = 0$ (prespore: $P_0(SP) = SP_{initial} + i$, prestalk:

$P_0(ST) = ST_{initial} - i$, solitary: $P_0(Sol) = Sol_{initial}$). The invasion fitness of the cheating

mutant $W(i'; i_{wt})$ is the sum of the probabilities of becoming a spore and a solitary cell (Eq.

S22, Eq. **S23** in SI text). The selection gradient (Eq. **S24** in SI text) is constant with respect

to i, and we found the condition that the cheating mutant evolves (red lines in Fig. 5, Eq. **S25**-

S27 in SI text). The model shows that the evolution of the cheating mutant is suppressed

under nutrient-rich conditions in the canonical allocation system, while in the reverse allocation

system the evolution is suppressed under starved conditions and enforced under nutrient-rich

conditions. In random allocation, cheating always evolves (Fig. 5). Thus, if the social

amoeba experiences only starved conditions, the reverse allocation system is suitable; however,

if nutrient-rich conditions, the canonical allocation system will demonstrate the comprehensive

defense capacity.

Discussion

Maintenance of cooperation is inextricably linked to the choice of social members to be

dispersed from a society (53). We show the choice of the leavers can canalize 'point of no

return' in the social evolution (12, 13). In *Dictyostelium*, our results suggest a mechanism that

employs the division of labor in which cells with a less cohesive propensity become altruists.

The dedifferentiating *Dictyostelium* cells take a prestalk-like cell state through interaction with

differentiating cells (Figs. 1 and 2); thus, the system penalizes precocious solitary reversion

(Fig. 4). Unlike policing, which entails inescapable costs in general (2), in the present scheme,

penalization occurs naturally through fruiting body formation and the social amoeba seems not

to pay explicit costs.

Furthermore, our model (Fig. 5) showed that the social system can also effectively
reduce the advantage of cheating mutants, which is consistent with earlier experimental
observations using natural isolates that suggest that cell fate conversion in slug migration may
suppress cheating (54).   From these results, it is tempting to speculate that the cooperative
system in the social amoeba could have first acquired fate allocation that is designed to suppress
cheating, and this in turn penalized solitary reversion as a byproduct.   Given that the
dedifferentiation process is regulated by several thousand genes (28, 55), the presence of the
fitness valley (Figs. 4*C* and *D*) acts as a strong resistance to the social commitment to break
down.   Furthermore, for microbes with large clonal populations, the chance of crossing the
fitness valley through genetic drift is slim (56) without additional mechanisms (57).   Even if
the social amoeba crossed the valley, the evolutionary progression may be too slow to manifest
itself, since the dedifferentiation process is known to be robust to genetic perturbation (55).
The limited applicability of our model is that we did not consider homeostatic regulation of cell
fate proportions in the social amoeba (27).   Our experimental observations showed that when
refed cells were in the majority (70%~ of the population), these cells tended to follow their
original cell fate developing fruiting bodies of normal morphology (Fig. 2*C*).   Thus, the
penalization for the solitary reversion seems to be effective in restricted conditions where the
mutant is in the minority (~15% of the population).   The frequency-dependency may buffer
cells from effects of the selection.   Future experimental evolution studies should clarify the
actual evolutionary process given their genetic background and developmental processes.

How the social commitment of *Dictyostelium* is evolutionarily maintained has been
a long-standing question ever since the observation was first reported (27).   Our experimental
results suggest an interesting cellular dynamics-based mechanism as to how this is implemented.
The initial prestalk-like positioning of refed cells to the mound periphery (Fig. 1*B*) can be
explained based on the mechanism of cell segregation (38) by differential adhesion of non-
refed cells and refed cells.   Consistent with this notion, the low cohesiveness of refed cells
comparable to that observed in the prestalk cells was confirmed under our experimental
conditions (Fig. 1*E*).   Later, the refed cells were positioned at the base of the mound (Fig.
S3*A*), which then formed the lower cup (Fig. 2*B*) and the basal disc (Fig. 2*D*).   The basal disc
and lower cup are well-known terminal states of prestalk cells (44, 58), however, how cells are
positioned at these locations is not well understood.   The localization of refed cells is distinct
from that of the primary stalk cells but similar to that of the 'anterior-like cells' (58–61) – a
small percentage of poorly characterized prestalk subtype that constitutes the basal disc, the
lower cup and the upper cup.   The lack of refed cells from the upper cup makes it distinct from
the anterior-like cells.   This, as well as its absence from the main stalk, may be related to

reduced sensitivity to cAMP due to the decreased *carA* gene expression in the refed cells (Fig.

1*D*), as low sensitivity to cAMP facilitates re-differentiation of prespore cells to lower cup cells

and inhibits prestalk cells positioning to the upper cup (62).

Cooperation is a fundamental force that leads to the emergence of collective-level

selection units (63, 64).   Paradoxically, the fact that individuals are allowed to choose a

solitary strategy among other options, such as to cooperate or to cheat, can in turn maintain

cooperation by reducing cheating interest (65).   In addition, the presence of cells ungrouped

can compensate cost of cooperation (66), and facilitate coexistence of diverse social traits as a

bet-hedging strategy to variable environmental conditions (47, 67).   However, such a solitary

cell-type may not be sufficient to maintain cooperation in environments that should act

favorably for solitary growth (Fig. 3), for example, relatively long nutrient-rich conditions

interrupted by brief intervals of starvation.   Under such conditions, perturbation be it

physiological or genetic that facilitates precocious reversion to solitary state, would be

beneficial for individual cells.   This notion is supported not only by our growth assay (Fig.

3*B*) but also by the fact that there indeed exists a small fraction of cells that are left behind from

the rear of a slug that can grow quickly after nutrient recovery (68).   In this regard, division

of labor in *Dictyostelium,* which less cohesive cells play the altruistic role, has two contrasting

end points: 1) they survive as solitary amoeboid cells by being left behind from the slugs (46)

and around the basal discs of a culminant (Fig. 2*F*), or 2) they end up in non-viable lower cup

cells or basal discs (Figs. 2*B–D*).   The social system appears to include a certain proportion of

a solitary cell-type in the first place as a bet-hedging strategy, but for those that are socially

committed, there is little payoff from quitting cooperation after sensing environment that favors

solitary reproduction (Fig. 4).   Our study provides a simple explanation for the emergence of

collective behavior that is apparently counterintuitive in terms of individual-level fitness.

Material and Methods

512   Detailed materials and methods can be found in SI text.

Refeeding experiments

Strains expressing cell fate markers were constructed from AX4 cells.   To obtain slug-stage

cells, vegetative cells were washed with the phosphate buffer (PB), and applied to a 1% PB

agar plate and incubated for 18 h.   PB containing 20 mM EDTA was applied to the slugs, and

the cells were mechanically dissociated by repeated pipetting and passed through a 23 G needle

and 40 μm cell strainer.   For refeeding, dissociated cells were co-suspended at 2 to 3 × 10^6

cells/mL with the concentrated *E. coli* B/r.   NF cells were cells suspended in PB immediately

after dissociation.   The mixed cell suspension at 1 to 2 $\times$ 10^6 cells/mL was plated on a glass-
bottomed dish (MatTek, Ashland, MA, USA) covered with a thin sheet of 1% PB agar.
Confocal fluorescence images were taken using an inverted confocal microscope (Nikon A1+)
and Z-slices were obtained using a Ti Z-drive.

Real-time PCR analysis

Dissociated slug cells were suspended in each solution, and shaken at 120 rpm, and harvested
at the selected time points.   Quantitative PCR amplification (qPCR) was performed using a
qPCR thermocycler (ABI7500, Applied Biosystems) with primer pairs and fluorescent beacons
(TaqMan probe MGB, Applied Biosystems) (Table S1).   The levels of relative gene
expression were calculated from the amplification value at the threshold cycle and the relative
standard curve for each gene, followed by normalization by *rnlA* amplification as an
endogenous control.

Growth assay

533 Vegetative cells were starved at 2 $\times$ 10^6 cells/cm^2.   *E. coli* suspension was applied either
534 directly to the slugs or after mechanical dissociation.   After 30h incubation, the samples were
535 harvested and washed 2 times to remove the bacteria.   Then, 3 $\times$ 10^6 cells were transferred
536 into 10 mL of the growth medium and shaken at 120 rpm.   The cell number at different times
537 was measured using a hemocytometer.

Statistical analysis

539 *P*-values from multiple comparisons were adjusted using Holm's method.   A generalized
540 linear model (GLM) and analysis of deviance for the fit were performed for the analysis listed
541 in Table S3.

Author contributions

545 Y.S., M.S., and S.S. designed the research; Y.S. initiated and performed all aspects of the
546 research including data and model analysis; Y.S., N.S., and S.S. contributed new reagents; Y.S.,
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Figure 1 Prestalk-like positioning and cell-state of refed cells. (*A*) A schematic of refeeding and reaggregation of a cell mixture. Dissociated cells shaken with *E. coli* for 3 or 5 h (Refed: RF3, RF5), washed and mixed with non-refed cells (Non-refed: NF) for development on agar. RF cells harbored prestalk (ecmAO-RFP, magenta) and prespore (pspA-GFP, green) markers. NF cells were the parental wild-type strain (AX4). (*B*) Representative images of mixed aggregates 1.5–2 h after plating (pspA: GFP-channel, ecmAO: RFP-channel, Merged: bright-field (grayscale) and fluorescence images). 'NF+NF': NF cells with the cell-type reporter mixed with NF cells without the cell-type reporter as a control condition. 'RF3+NF' and 'RF5+NF': Mixture of NF cells and RF3 or RF5 cells, respectively at RF:NF = 15:85 ratio. A scale bar = 50 μm. (*C*) Normalized mean distance between the aggregate center and cells of prestalk- or prespore-origin. The sample size N (biological replicate, aggregates): NF+NF = (4, 34), RF3+NF = (4, 35), RF5+NF = (3, 25). Circles: Values for individual aggregates, lines inside of box plots: The median values. *** $P < 0.0001$ by *t* test. (*D-E*) Cell-state change incurred by the nutrient and dissociation. (*D*) qRT-PCR analysis. Gene expression levels of dissociated cells in bacterial suspension 'B', growth medium 'G', non-nutrient buffer 'N' (left panel). Unperturbed slugs 18 h into starvation onward ('No-dissociation': Upper

right panel).   Gene expression levels were normalized by the 0 h point.   Gene targets were

clustered hierarchically.   The sample size N = 3 are biological replicates.   (*E*) Differences in

cell cohesiveness between RF and NF cells.   Number of single cells within a sample in

different solutions (left panel).   Proportion of single prespore cells in the total single cells

within a sample (right panel).   'E': Cells in the phosphate buffer containing EDTA

(Buffer+EDTA) as a control (most cells were in a single state).   The number (1.5, 3, and 5)

indicates hours shaken in suspensions.   The sample size N =3 are biological replicates, with

380–5966 cells per condition.   Error bars are standard error.

Figure 2 Refeeding redirects cells to the role of prestalk subtype. (*A*) A schematic illustration of the fruiting body. (*B*) Snapshots of the upper region of early fruiting bodies (left). Frequency of prestalk (magenta line) and prespore (green) marker-positive pixels along the anterior-posterior axis (right). No-dissociation (Nd): A fruiting body formed by unperturbed cells. In RF3+NF and RF5+NF, RF cells were found exclusively at the lower cup (arrow heads). The sample size N (biological replicate, fruiting body number): N: Nd = (2, 14), NF+NF = (3, 24), RF3+NF = (3, 20), RF5+NF = (3, 13). For abbreviations, see also Fig.1. (*C*) Early fruiting bodies consisted of different ratios of RF3 and NF cells. Fl+, Fl-: with/without cell-type markers, respectively. (*D*) Fluorescent images of the basal disc. Images of stalk cellulose staining (blue, calcofluor white) were merged with fluorescence images (pspA, ecmAO). Note RF cells of prespore origin are found in the basal disc (RF3+NF and RF5+NF) (arrow heads). (*E*) The ratio of prespore marker-positive to prestalk region in the basal disc. N: Nd = (3, 26), NF+NF = (3, 30), RF3+NF = (3, 23), RF5+NF = (3, 19). (*F*) Representative images of the basal region of fruiting bodies. Note isolated RF cells (fluorescent cells, left panel) scattered around the basal discs (white circles, right panel) in RF3+NF and RF5+NF. (*G*) The ratio of prespore marker-positive region to prestalk region in the scattered cells. N: Nd = (3, 23), NF+NF = (3, 23), RF3+NF = (3, 23), RF5+NF = (3, 21). All scale bars = 50 μm. Error bars: Standard error.

Figure 3 The social commitment imposes growth cost under nutrient recovery. (*A*) The schematic of the growth assay. Cells in the slug stage ($s =18$ h) are exposed to nutrient recovery. After 30h incubation (*d*) for the fruiting body maturation, cells were transferred into the growth medium ('Growth assay'). Under social commitment ('Refed & No-dissociation' and 'Continuous starvation'), cells ignore nutrient and develop into a fruiting body. Thus, cells restart growing after spore germination with the lag time λ. Without social commitment ('Refed & Dissociation'), cells quickly restart growing immediately after refeeding. (*B*) Growth curve assay. 'Refed & No-dissociation' (orange): A growth curve of cells from the non-dissociated refed slugs, 'Refed & Dissociation' (blue): Cells from refed slugs that were dissociated to release cells from social commitment, 'Continuous starvation' (black): Uninterrupted development under continued starvation. $\ln(N/N_0)$: Logarithm of relative population size that was normalized by the initial cell number. The error bars: Relative error. Circles: Individual values from three biological replicates. Regrowth of refed cells from non-dissociated slugs were significantly delayed compared to that of dissociated slugs (GLM, *P* < 0.003).

Figure 4 Social commitment in *Dictyostelium* is an evolutionarily stable strategy. (*A*) A intuitive explanation of cell fate transitions via evolution of trait x. The trait x ($0 \le x \le 1$) decides the cell-cell association level, which generally controls most of cohesion proteins as a 'master regulator' ($x = 1$: full social commission, $x = 0$: a solitary state, complete degradation of cohesion proteins). The solid lines indicate cohesion distributions of prespore (green), prestalk (magenta), and solitary cells (black) in the cell population. The evolution of reduced x can be illustrated as distribution shifts (dotted line). After the evolution, prespore cells (dotted green line) will exhibit reduced cohesion similar to original prestalk and solitary cells (solid magenta and black lines). From our experiments (Figs.1 and 2), cells are assumed to play a cell-fate role as determined by their own cohesivity. (*B*) Evolution of x and its link to the cell fate probability (Eq. **1**) for a spore (green), stalk (magenta), solitary cell (black), respectively. (*C*) The invasion fitness of the solitary reversion mutant within the wild-type

population $W(x'; x_{wt})$, where the wild-type trait is $x_{wt} = 1$. g is the additional weight for the solitary fitness as defined by nutrient availability. Note that the fitness function has a valley in the intermediate nutrient condition ($g = 1$) suggesting that the mutant cannot evolve when the evolution starts from the vicinity of $x = 1$. (D) Evolutionary directions and equilibrium under various environmental conditions. Black lines indicate analytical predictions for the singular point x^* (dotted line: Evolutionary repellor, solid line: Evolutionary attractor). Allows indicates the direction of selection. The red and blue colors indicate invasion fitness of the mutant interacts with the wild-type cell with $x_{wt} = 1$.

Figure 5 Division of labor in *Dictyostelium* effectively reduces cheating advantage.
Evolutionary trait i describes additional spore investment, i_{wt}: The wild-type cell trait, i':
The cheating mutant trait ($i_{wt} < i'$). $W(i'; i_{wt})$: Invasion fitness of the cheating mutant
within the wild-type population. t: Prolonged development time from the slug stage. Red
lines indicate the analytical predictions whether the cheater invades the wild-type population.
The cheater can invade under the conditions below the red line in canonical allocation system,
and above the line in reverse allocation system. In random allocation, cheating always
evolved. Initial cell fate probability of the mutant being prespore: 0.8, prestalk: 0, solitary
cell: 0.2, that of the wild-type strain being prespore: 0.6, prestalk: 0.2, solitary cell: 0.2 are
shown.