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Evolutionary stability of social commitment

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21 **Abstract**

Conflict resolution between individual cells and a group is essential for multicellularity. The social amoeba *Dictyostelium discoideum* switches between solitary growth and social fruitification depending on nutrient availability. Under starvation, cells form fruiting bodies consisting of spores and non-viable altruistic stalk cells. Once cells socially committed, they complete fruitification even with a renewed source of nutrients. This social commitment is puzzling because it deprives individual cells of benefits of quickly resuming solitary growth. One idea posits that traits that facilitate premature de-commitment are somehow hindered from being selected. We studied outcomes of premature de-commitment by forced refeeding. We show that when refed cells resume sociality together with non-refed cells, besides some becoming solitary outside of fruiting bodies, a large fraction was redirected to a sub-region of altruistic stalk regardless of their original fate. The refed cells exhibited reduced cohesivity and were sorted out to the altruistic positions in morphogenesis. Furthermore, a theoretical model considering evolution of cell-cell association revealed a valley in the fitness landscape that prevents invasion of de-committing mutants. Our results provide a general scheme that naturally penalizes withdrawal from a society by evolving a specific division of labor that less cohesive individuals become altruists.

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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 behavior that is apparently difficult to understand from an individual-level fitness.

Main Text
Introduction

Cohesion of a group is fundamental to making cooperation fruitful for group members. However, evolution of cooperation is often faced with selection pressures that potentially lead to their collapse. Cheating that exploits benefit of cooperation at the cost of others is a well-studied case of such risks. Nature has found ways to reduce deleterious effects of cheating through interactions among kin [1] and policing that suppress individual proliferation [2]. In microbial cooperation [3], colony expansion that keeps the cooperator cells at close distances [4, 5] and kin recognition using cell-surface proteins [6, 7] play pivotal roles in cheating suppression. Besides cheating, cooperation is also vulnerable to transient 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 analyses have also shown that the social loss 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 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 the key driving force that increases social complexity [14, 15].

How sociality is precluded from reverting to a free-living lifestyle 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 to promote snowflake-like chains of cells with high nutrient availability. Since apoptosis is disadvantageous for solitary proliferation [14, 16], multicellularity should be maintained [14, 15]. However, such a trade-off may be limited to cases where individual cells can immediately escape the group. The example of the social loss in myxobacteria, which exhibits intermediate social behavior such as reduced sporulation and collective motility [8], hints at the importance of intermediate phenotypes in the evolutionary transition [17]. Given that even simple multicellularity is a multifactorial trait regulated by a large number of genes [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 other socially committed cells. In this situation, the social loss may be
prevented if the intermediate phenotypes are somehow hindered from being selected, but at
least, a new costly countermeasure should not evolve because they are in an environment that
favors solitary growth. One of the simplest ways is that the preexisting social defense itself
comes with a rather unexpected bonus of acting inhibitory to reversion to a solitary lifestyle. To
obtain the unexpected bonus, the defensive function should have incomplete target specificity.
For example, social microbes evolve traits that suppress the sporulation of cheaters [19, 20], but
how specific it is to a certain genotype is poorly explored. In other examples, bacteriocins spite
cells that are sensitive to the signal in an indiscriminatory manner [21]. Given that such
elimination of 'nonself' is a common and fundamental defense strategy in organisms [22], what
may underlie defensive behavior are exclusion of 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 behavior.
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 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],
since death of stalk cells that support the spores [23, 24] can be viewed as 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 solitary growth (hereafter
referred to as social commitment) is dependent on the multicellular context. When cells that
are mechanically dissociated are replenished with nutrients, they revert to solitary growth [26–
28]. Thus, unless mechanical dissociation, the only way by which cells return to the solitary
state is to mature into spores and then germinate, a long process that takes a few days.
Evolutionary benefit of the social commitment is puzzling, especially given that the social
amoeba colonizes sites with a frequent supply of rich dung or leaf mold [29], which favor quick
reversion to solitary growth. Existence of a phagocytic cell type that removes intruding bacteria
within a slug [30] suggests that it is not unusual for socially committed cells to be exposed to
nutrients. To understand the multicellular basis that maintains the social commitment in
Dictyostelium, we studied outcomes of premature de-commitment. 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 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
partially de-committed cells. For the 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) (Figure 1*A*). This
treatment mimics a situation that a rare cell makes a slug with socially committed cells and
dedifferentiates to engulfing bacteria within a slug, where the bacteria remained for 3 to 5 h
before the terminal differentiation (18 to 23 h after starvation). A strain harboring the prestalk
(ecmAO-RFP) and prespore (pspA-GFP) marker genes were used for identification of their
original cell fate owing to the time for degradation of fluorescent proteins (> 4–5 h) [32]. The
mixture of cells jointly formed a tight mound after 1.5–2 h (Figure 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
(Figure 1*B*: NF+NF) in line with the previously described sorting pattern [33]. In contrast, in the
mixture of RF and NF cells, RF cells (fluorescent cells) were positioned at the periphery
regardless of the original cell type (Figure 1*B*: RF3/5+NF), while NF cells (non-fluorescent cells)
were more abundant in the aggregation center. Thus, the refed treatment significantly affected
cell positioning (Figure 1*C,* Table S1: overall model: GLM and analysis of deviance, cell fate: *P* <
0.0001, treatments: *P* < 0.0001, prespore cells in NF+NF versus RF5+NF: *t*-test, adjusted *P* <
0.0001). In the swap control, we observed a consistent pattern (Figure S2*A*, RF(Fl-)+NF(Fl+)),
indicating that expression of the marker genes itself did not affect the sorting pattern.
Furthermore, our supporting data indicates that the segregation was relative behavior when RF
cells interact with the NF cells because RF cells were still fully capable of developing on their
own (Figure S2*B*), and the unique sorting pattern was not merely due to mechanical interruption
but also required nutrient replenishment (Figure S2*C*).
153   Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction analysis (real-time PCR, Table S2,
see *SI* Methods) showed that RF cells exhibited reduced expression of cell-type differentiation
marker genes (Figure 1*D*, *pspA*, *ecmA*), indicating partial dedifferentiation (Figure 1*D,* Table S1:
bootstrap test, adjusted *P* > 0.025). Whereas genes encoding the main adhesion molecules [34]
(*cadA*, *csaA*, and *tgrC1*) did not show nutrient-specific changes, *carA*, *acaA*, *pdsA,* and *dscA*
genes (Figure 1*D*) showed contrasting activity of being reduced by refeeding and induced in non-
nutrient buffer (Figure 1*D,* Table S1: GLM and analysis of deviance, 'No-nutrient' versus
'Bacteria': adjusted *P* < 0.05, 'No-nutrient' versus 'Growth medium': adjusted *P* < 0.01). *CarA*,
acaA, and *pdsA* are essential for the cAMP relay during cell aggregation, and *dscA* (discoidin I) is
implicated in the cell-substratum adhesion during aggregation [35, 36].
163   Given that RF cells show reduced expression of the re-aggregation genes, they are likely
to fall behind in joining cell clusters by delayed chemotaxis. However, RF cells appear well
mixed and then sorted out afterward (Figure S1, Movie S2). Although a recent work suggested a
sorting mechanism of a tip-forming prestalk subtype [37], RF cells are sorted to the periphery
and then to the base of the mound instead of the apical tip (Figure S3*A*). These observations
point to an alternative mechanism 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, a suspension of mechanically dissociated cells was shaken
to facilitate cell agglutination for 1.5, 3, and 5 h, and the number of single unattached cells was
quantified (Figure 1*E* left, see SI Methods). We found that cells in the bacterial suspension or
growth medium were less cohesive (Figure 1*E* left) than those in the phosphate buffer (Figure 1*E*
left, Table S1: GLM and analysis of deviance, Buffer 5 h versus Bacteria 5 h: adjusted *P* < 0.0001,
Buffer 5 h versus Growth medium 5h: adjusted *P* < 0.0001) as expected [40]. In addition, we
found that the ratio of prespore cells in the unattached cells within the phosphate buffer (55%)
was lower than that in the non-adhesive control (82%) (Figure 1*E* right), indicating that non-
refed prespore cells are cohesive than prestalk cells in line with earlier literature [41]. On the
other hand, refed prespore cells were less cohesive comparable to that of the non-adhesive
control (Figure 1*E* right, Table S1: GLM and analysis of deviance, Buffer+EDTA versus Bacteria 5
h: adjusted *P* = 0.572). The lower cohesiveness of prestalk cells relative to prespore cells (Figure
1*E* right) and comparably reduced cell-cell cohesivity in refed cells (Figure 1*E* left) are consistent
with the peripheral positioning (Figure 1*B*,*C*).
185   Positional bias was also evident during the culmination (4–6 h after plating) in the
stalk region. In addition to the main stalk, stalk cells of *D. discoideum* constitute three distinct
cell types: The upper and lower cups and basal disc (Figure 2*A*) [24]. The cell mass elongated
into a finger-like form with a prespore cell mass between the upper and lower cups (Figure 2*B*,*C*,
Figure S3*B*, Movie S3), and the normal pattern was observed in NF cells (Figure 2*B*: NF+NF). In
contrast, in RF+NF populations, both prespore and prestalk cells of RF cells were abundant in the
lower cup region (Figure 2*B*, Figure S3*B*, Movie S4: RF3+NF, RF5+NF). Accordingly, the positional
frequency of prespore and prestalk cells was anti-correlated in NF+NF, and positively correlated
in RF+NF (Figure 2*B,* Table S1: GLM with gamma error, NF+NF: slope = -2.03 ± 0.26, RF5+NF:
slope = 3.70 ± 0.31). Later, RF cells formed the lower cup and basal disc but were excluded from
the upper cup and main stalk (Figure 2*C*, RF3+NF). In contrast to our standard condition (RF cells
were the minority; Figure 2*C*, RF3+NF), when RF cells were the majority, refed prespore and
prestalk cells were positioned according to their original cell fate (Figure 2*C*, RF3(Fl+):NF(Fl-) =
70:30).
199   In the terminal differentiation (8 to 10 h after plating), the ectopic positioning of RF
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 (Figure 2*D,E*) as expected [44]. On the other hand, in
RF+NF (Figure 2*D,E*), RF cells of both prestalk and prespore origins were found at the basal disc
(Figure 2*D,E*, Table S1, NF+NF versus RF5+NF: *t*-test, adjusted *P* < 0.0001). In addition, cells
scattered around the base [45] were amoeboid and showed random movement (Movie S5),
indicating escape from death as stalks. In the controls, these scattered cells were of prestalk
origin (Figure 2*F,G*: 'No-dissociation', NF+NF), whereas in RF+NF (Figure 2*F,G*: RF3+NF, RF5+NF),
RF cells of both prespore and prestalk origins were found (Figure 2*F,G,* Table S1: NF+NF versus
RF5+NF: *t*-test, adjusted *P* < 0.0001). At the terminal differentiation, a higher proportion of RF
cells were allocated to the solitary amoeboid cells rather than spores, compared to NF cells in
the mixed cell population of RF+NF (Figure S4). These results (Figure 2*F,G,* Figure S4, Movie S5)

indicate that the final survivors at the terminal phase were solitary cells (amoeba) and social
cells (spores).
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The growth cost of the social commitment
Our refeeding experiments indicate that *Dictyostelium* cells that dedifferentiate precociously are
penalized by being assigned the role of the non-viable stalk (Figure 1,2). Here, we went on to
investigate a basic question of how the social commitment imposes individual cells growth
costs. Cells were released from the commitment by mechanical dissociation and two types of
growth costs were estimated: Growth delay incurred by fruiting body formation (d) and lag time
for spore germination (λ) (Figure 3A). We found no significant growth differences due to the
growth delay d ('Refed & No-dissociation' versus 'Refed & Dissociation': GLM and analysis of
deviance, *P* = 0.069); however, as the lag time for spore germination (λ), the socially committed
cells consumed approximately 9 h longer time to start cell growth than the de-committed cells
(Figure 3B, Table S1: Estimated lag time between cell inoculation and initiation of cell growth,
'Refed & Dissociation': 15.24 ± 4.27 h, 'Refed & No-dissociation': 23.97 ± 4.35 h). The significant
growth delay highlights the cost for individual cells of remaining in the social group under
nutrient-rich environments (Figure 3B, Table S1: 'Refed & No-dissociation' versus 'Refed &
Dissociation': GLM and analysis of deviance, *P* < 0.003).
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Model analysis for evolutionary maintenance of the social commitment
If the de-committed strain is rewarded by such a growth advantage (Figure 3), how stable is
social commitment against adverse evolutionary pressures? We analyze whether a rare mutant
cell that reverts to a solitary state could invade a wild-type population with the framework of
adaptive dynamics [46, 47]. We considered a sufficiently large population of haploid and
asexually reproducing cells that are exposed to nutrient recovery at each slug stage. The
evolutionary trait is a degree of association with other cells, x ($0 \leq x \leq 1$) (Table S3). Cells with
any of the traits normally commit to the differentiation, and then express the trait x at the slug
stage. Both cell fate and fitness are 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 commitment. 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 cell fate ratios in a clonal population with the trait x. The cell fate
ratios of the full social commitment ($x = 1$) are designated as spore: $SP_{initial} = 0.6$, stalk:
$ST_{initial} = 0.2$, and solitary: $Sol_{initial} = 0.2$, respectively (for suitability of the parameters see,
Figure S5).
We consider that invasion of a rare mutant cell with the trait $x' = x_{wt} + \varepsilon$, ($\varepsilon$ is a
sufficiently small negative value). 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 x
controls most of cohesion proteins as a 'master regulator', i.e., $x = 1$ indicates fully cohesive,
and $x = 0$ is complete degradation of cohesion proteins (Figure 4A). According to previous
study and our experimental results (Figure 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 as the conceptual

illustration of distribution shifts in Figure 4*A*. 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 (Figure 1,2), a cell is assumed to play a cell fate role as determined by its own
reduced cohesivity, rather than its original fate. Thus, given the order of cohesion (Figure 1*E*)
[41], a cell changes a role via evolution x in the order of prespore, prestalk, and solitary cell
(Figure 4*B*). 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). Note that $P(SP|x) + P(ST|x) + P(Sol|x) = 1$. 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 quick but
that of stalk probability is slow in the evolution (Eq. **1,** Figure 4*B*). On the other hand, if
$k_1 \ll k_2$, vice versa. Our refed experiments (Figure 2) support the assumption $k_1 \gg k_2$,
because we observed a much smaller number of RF cells in the 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 select default values as $k_1 = 14.6$ and $k_2 = 6.3$ (see, SI
text).

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 the survival probability of the mutant, and $f(x_{wt}; x_{wt})$ is that of the wild-
type cell (Table S3). 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 amounts of nutrients.
Thus, for simplicity, amounts of nutrients directly contribute the solitary fitness. The equation
Eq. **3** simply describes the allocation between solitary and social life, and we also consider
another formulation that assumes explicit altruism (Figure S6) shown fundamentally the same
result as that from Eq. **3**.

The invasion fitness when the mutant interacts with the wild-type cell with $x_{wt} = 1$
(Figure 4*C*) showed a fitness valley under the intermediate nutrient-rich condition (e.g., $g = 1$),
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 (Figure 4*C*). Ecology-evolution-environment diagram [47]
in Figure 4*D* shows 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' [46, 47] x^* is in the 'bottom' of the valley (evolutionary repellor) (Figure
4*D,* 'Canonical allocation'), and neither an evolutionarily stable strategy (ESS) [48] nor
convergence stable [46, 49] under our assumed condition ($k_1 \gg k_2$) (for detail, see SI text and
Figure 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 (Figure 4*C,D*) was caused by a direct consequence of division of labor
that assigns each cell fate with a 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 (Figure 4*D*). In the reverse allocation system, an
evolutionary singular point x^* is the partially solitary state (Figure 4*D*, 'Reverse allocation') and
is ESS and convergence stable under our assumed condition ($k_1 \gg k_2$) (see SI text), indicating
that cells make more spores by the solitary reversion in exchange for small amounts of
robustness of a fruiting body. In the random allocation system, there is no singular point (Figure
4*D*, '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 a higher probability to be a spore than the wild-type cell within a chimera. An
evolutionary trait i is additional spore investment at the slug stage. The wild-type trait is $i = i_{wt}$
where $i_{wt} = 0$ is the default value, and the cheating mutant trait is $i = i' = i_{wt} + \theta$, (θ is a
sufficiently small positive value). We especially focused on the detailed developmental process
of the social amoeba: a slug migrates toward the light, probably to reach the soil surface, where
spore dispersal is more likely [24]. The migrating slug induces a series of cell fate transitions
closely resembling those associated with the canonical allocation: There is a sub-population of
prestalk cells left behind from a slug [50], which are compensated by trans-differentiation of
prespore to prestalk cells [51]. Cell fate transition over the migration time t is described as
differential equations (Eq. **S17**-**S19** in SI text). The invasion fitness of the cheating mutant
$W(i'; i_{wt})$ is the sum of spore and solitary probabilities (Eq. **S21**, Eq. **S22** in SI text). The
selection gradient (Eq. **S23** in SI text) was constant with respect to i, and we found the condition
that the cheating mutant evolves (red lines in Figure 5, Eq. **S24**-**S26** in SI text). The model shows
that evolution of the cheating mutant is suppressed under nutrient-rich conditions in the
canonical allocation, while in the reverse allocation the evolution is suppressed under starved
conditions but enforced under nutrient-rich conditions. In the random allocation, cheating
always evolves (Figure 5). Thus, if the social amoeba experiences only starved conditions, the
reverse allocation is suitable; however, under nutrient-rich conditions, the canonical allocation
will demonstrate the comprehensive defense capacity.
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Discussion
Maintenance of cooperation is inextricably linked to the choice of social members to be
dispersed from a society [52]. We show the choice of the leavers can canalize 'point of no
return' in the social evolution [12, 13]. Our results suggest that *Dictyostelium* 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 (Figure 1,2); thus, the system penalizes precocious solitary reversion (Figure
4). Unlike policing, which entails inescapable costs in general [2], the penalization occurs
naturally through fruiting body formation and the social amoeba seems not to pay explicit costs.
What evolutionary trajectory did organisms follow to cross 'point of no return' is one
of fundamental questions. In addition to the solitary reversion mutant, our model (Figure 5)
showed that the division of labor of *Dictyostelium* can effectively reduce the advantage of
cheating mutants, which is consistent with earlier experimental observations [53]. From these
results, it is tempting to speculate that the social amoeba could have first acquired the canonical
allocation 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, 54], the
presence of the fitness valley (Figure 4*C,D*) acts as a strong resistance to the social commitment
breaking down. Furthermore, for microbes with large clonal populations, the chance of crossing
the fitness valley through genetic drift is slim [55] without additional mechanisms [56]. On the
other hand, the fitness valley may work only at the early stage of invasion due to its frequency
dependency; The de-committed cells were penalized when they are in the minority (~15% of the
population) but not in the majority (70%~) (Figure 2*C*). 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 [54]. Future
experimental evolution studies should clarify the evolutionary process given their genetic
background and developmental processes.
How the social commitment of *Dictyostelium* is 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 (Figure 1*B*) can be explained
based on the mechanism of cell segregation [38] by differential adhesion of non-refed cells and
refed cells (Figure 1*E*). Later, the refed cells were positioned at the base of the mound (Figure
S3*A*), which then formed the lower cup (Figure 2*B*) and the basal disc (Figure 2*D*). The basal disc
and lower cup are well-known terminal states of prestalk cells [44, 57], 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' [57–60] – 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 (Figure 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 [61].
Cooperation is a fundamental force that leads to the emergence of collective-level
selection units [62, 63]. 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 [64]. In cellular cooperation, the presence of cells
ungrouped can compensate for the cost of aggregation [65], and facilitate coexistence of diverse
fruitification traits as a bet-hedging strategy to variable environmental conditions [66, 67].
However, such a solitary cell type may not be sufficient to maintain cooperation in

environments that act favorably for solitary growth (Figure 3*B*), for example, relatively long
nutrient-rich conditions interrupted by brief intervals of starvation. Under such conditions,
precocious reversion to a solitary state would be beneficial for individual cells. This notion is
supported not only by our growth assay (Figure 3*B*) but also by the fact that there exist cells that
are left behind from a slug that can grow quickly after nutrient recovery [68]. 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 because of their specific division of labor (Figure 4). Our study provides a simple
explanation for the emergence of collective behavior that is apparently counterintuitive in terms
of individual-level fitness.
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Materials and Methods
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 $\times$ 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 contains RF and NF cells 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. See also SI Methods.
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 S2). 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
Vegetative cells were starved at 2 $\times$ 10^6 cells/cm^2. *E. coli* suspension was applied either
directly to the slugs or after mechanical dissociation. After 30h incubation, the samples were
harvested and washed 2 times to remove the bacteria. Then, 3 $\times$ 10^6 cells were transferred
into 10 mL of the growth medium and shaken at 120 rpm. The cell number at different times
was measured using a hemocytometer.
Statistical analysis
P-values from multiple comparisons were adjusted using Holm's method. A generalized linear
model (GLM) and analysis of deviance for the fit were performed for the analysis listed in Table
S1.
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 Figures

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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 were shaken with *E. coli* for 3 or 5 h
(Refed: RF3, RF5), washed and mixed with non-refed cells (Non-refed: NF). RF cells harbored
prespore (pspA-GFP, green) and prestalk (ecmAO-RFP, magenta) markers. (*B*) Representative
images of mixed aggregates 1.5–2 h after plating (pspA: GFP-channel, ecmAO: RFP-channel,
Merged: bright-field and fluorescence images). 'NF+NF': a mixture of NF cells with and 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 refeeding. (*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. The number of single cells within a sample (left panel).

The 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.
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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 (arrowheads). 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 Figure 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) (arrowheads). (*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 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.

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Figure 3 Social commitment imposes growth costs under nutrient recovery. (*A*) The schematic
of the growth assay. Cells in the slug stage (s =18 h) are exposed to nutrient recovery. Cells
were released from the commitment by mechanical dissociation. Under the social commitment
('Refed & No-dissociation' and 'Continuous starvation'), cells ignore nutrients and develop into a
fruiting body. Thus, except for only rare non-aggregated cells, 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). Without social commitment ('Refed & Dissociation'), cells
quickly restart growing immediately after refeeding. After 30h incubation (d) for the fruiting
body maturation, amoeboid cells and spores were harvested and transferred into the growth
medium to estimate growth costs. (*B*) Growth 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, 'Continuous starvation' (black): cells from uninterrupted
slugs under continued starvation. In(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 was
significantly delayed compared to that of dissociated slugs (GLM, *P* < 0.003).
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Figure 4 Social commitment in *Dictyostelium* is an evolutionarily stable strategy. (*A*) An
intuitive explanation of cell fate transitions via the evolution of trait x. The trait x ($0 \leq x \leq 1$) is
assumed to decide 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 evolution of x, prespore
cells (dotted green line) will exhibit reduced cohesion similar to original prestalk and solitary
cells (solid magenta and black lines). Cells are assumed to play a cell-fate role as determined by
the reduced cohesion rather than the original cell fate, according to our experiments (Figure
1,2). (*B*) Evolution of x and its link to the cell fate role probability assuming division of labor that
assigns each cell fate with a degree of cohesion (canonical allocation: prespore > prestalk >

solitary cell) (Eq. **1**). (*C*) The invasion fitness of the solitary reversion mutant within the wild-

type population $W(x'; x_{wt})$, where the wild-type trait is $x_{wt} = 1$ under canonical allocation. 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 indicate the direction of selection. The red and blue colors

indicate invasion fitness of the mutant interacts with the wild-type cell with $x_{wt} = 1$.

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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: development time with slug migration. $t = 0$: The slug stage, $t = 1$: the maximum migration time. Red lines indicate the analytical predictions of whether the cheater invades the wild-type population. The cheater can invade under the conditions below the red line in the canonical allocation system, and above the line in the 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.

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