Extracellular adenosine deamination primes tip organizer development in *Dictyostelium*

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Abstract

Ammonia is a morphogen in *Dictyostelium* and is known to arise from the catabolism of proteins and RNA. However, we show that extracellular adenosine deamination catalyzed by adenosine deaminase related growth factor (ADGF), is a major source of ammonia and demonstrate a direct role of ammonia in tip organizer development. The tip formed during early development in *Dictyostelium* is functionally similar to the embryonic organizer of higher vertebrates. *adgf* mutants fail to establish an organizer and this could be reversed by exposing the mutants to volatile ammonia. Interestingly, bacteria physically separated from the *adgf* ⁻ mounds in a partitioned dish also rescues the mound arrest phenotype suggesting a cross kingdom interaction driving development. Both the substrate, adenosine and the product, ammonia regulate *adgf* expression, and *adgf* acts downstream of the histidine kinase *dhkD* in regulating tip formation. Thus, the consecutive transformation of extracellular cAMP to adenosine, and adenosine to ammonia are integral steps during *Dictyostelium* development. Remarkably, in higher vertebrates, *adgf* expression is elevated during gastrulation and thus adenosine deamination may be an evolutionarily conserved process driving organizer development.

Introduction

During early embryonic development, organizers play an important role in patterning and

directing the differentiation of surrounding cells into specific tissues and organs. The embryonic

organizer establishes the developmental polarity in vertebrates and similarly, the mound/slug tip

in *Dictyostelium* act as organizers (Rubin and Robertson, 1975) playing a pivotal role in guiding

collective cell migration and patterning. Despite numerous investigations on *Dictyostelium* tip

formation, the processes by which the tip establishes and maintains the primary developmental

axis remains elusive. Gaining insights into the mechanisms regulating tip organizer function will

offer a valuable understanding of the orchestrated cell movements and intricate processes

underlying development.

Study of the social amoeba *Dictyostelium discoideum* has helped us to better understand many

fundamental problems about development (Annesley and Fisher, 2009; Müller-Taubenberger et

al., 2013; Dunn et al., 2018; Martín-González et al., 2021; Huber et al., 2022). *Dictyostelium* has

demonstrated its value in a range of applications, including the investigation of human diseases

(Eichinger et al., 2005; Müller-Taubenberger et al., 2013; Storey et al., 2022). *Dictyostelium* are

free living, amoeboid, soil protists and alternate their life cycle between unicellular and multi-

cellular stages. The amoebae prey on bacteria and upon starvation, the cells aggregate gradually

forming a tipped multicellular mound. The mound further develops to form a slug which

undergoes differentiation and morphogenesis to form a fruiting body consisting of a dead stalk

supporting a ball of spores (Raper, 1940; Kessin, 2001).

Diffusible molecules such as cAMP, adenosine, ammonia, and a chlorinated hexaphenone

'differentiation-inducing factor' (DIF) regulate multicellular development in *Dictyostelium*

(Bloom and Kay, 1988; Williams, 1988; Gross, 1994; Mahadeo and Parent, 2006; Shu et al.,

2006). The gradient of these morphogens along the slug axis determines the cell fate, either as

prestalk (pst) or as prespore (psp) cells. cAMP regulates PKA activity, adenosine signaling, and

morphogenetic cell movements to control tip development in *Dictyostelium* (Mann and Firtel,

1993; Siegert and Weijer, 1995). Adenosine, a by-product of cAMP hydrolysis, acts as an

inhibitory morphogen suppressing additional tip formation (Schaap and Wang, 1986), however

the mechanism involved in tip formation is not completely understood.

Adenosine deaminase (ADA) or its isoforms regulate adenosine homeostasis by catalysing the

breakdown of adenosine to generate inosine and ammonia, and are conserved among bacteria,

invertebrates, vertebrates including mammals (Cristalli et al., 2001). Two isoforms of ADA are

known in humans including ADA1 and ADA2 and ADGF shares a structural similarity to ADA2.

ADA2 is associated with the activation of lymphocytes that play a role in the immune response

to infections (Marone et al., 1980). Absence of ADA2 activity results in the build-up of

deoxyadenosine and its phosphorylated metabolite, dATP that is toxic to lymphoid precursors

(Notarangelo, 2016). Consequently, complete ADA2 deficiency is characterized by lymphopenia

and severe combined immuno-deficiency disorder (SCID) (Gaspar, 2010). The loss-of-function

mutations in *adgf/ada2* in humans also manifest in a variety of vascular and inflammatory

symptoms, including early-onset of stroke and systemic vasculopathy (Zhou et al., 2014).

ada2 disruption in mice leads to liver dysfunction and perinatal mortality (Wakamiya et al., 1995)

and transgenic overexpression of ADA2 in mice results in aberrant heart and kidney

development (Riazi et al., 2005). Absence of *adgf/ada2* in frogs manifests in reduced body size

with altered polarity (Iijima et al., 2008). In *Drosophila*, six ADGFs have been identified and are

reported to promote cell proliferation by depleting extracellular adenosine (Zurovec et al., 2002).

Loss of function of *adgfA* in *Drosophila* promotes melanotic tumour formation and larval death

(Dolezal et al., 2005). In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, tRNA adenosine deaminase 3 (*tad3*) is necessary

for telomere length homeostasis (Bose et al., 2020). Adenosine deaminases are known to interact

with dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP), CD26 (cluster of differentiation 26) expressed on T-cells

and the adenosine receptor, A2AR (expressed on dendritic cells) to facilitate cell-cell signaling

(Moreno et al., 2018). Thus, *adgf* plays a pivotal role in the regulation of cell proliferation and

development in several organisms.

Four isoforms of ADA are annotated in the *Dictyostelium discoideum* genome (Eichinger et al.,

2005) including adenosine deaminase (*ada*; DDB_G0287371), adenosine deaminase acting on

tRNA-1 (DDB_G0278943), adenosine deaminase tRNA-specific (DDB_G0288099) and

adenosine deaminase-related growth factor (*adgf*; DDB_G0275179), and their role in growth and

development is not known. In this study, we examined the role of *adgf* during multicellular

development in *D. discoideum* and demonstrate that ammonia derived from adenosine

deamination is directly involved in tip organizer development.

Results

Differential regulation of *adgf* expression during growth and development

To verify the blasticidin *(bsr)* insertion in *adgf* $^-$, a diagnostic PCR was carried out and the

integration was validated (Figures 1A and 1B), and qRT-PCR analysis confirmed the absence of

adgf expression (Figure 1C). In vertebrates, adenosine deaminases are expressed in a tissue

specific manner to control growth and development. To know if *adgf* expression is differentially

regulated during development in *Dictyostelium*, qRT-PCR was performed using RNA obtained

from different stages of development. The time point of analysis includes 0 h, 8 h, 12 h, 16 h, 20

h and 24 h. *adgf* expression peaks at 16 h (Figure 1D) implying an important role for *adgf* later in

development. At this time point, the expression of the other three isoforms of ADA were not

significantly different from WT, suggesting that they do not compensate for the loss of *adgf*

(Figure 1E).

***Dictyostelium* ADGF shares a strong structural similarity with human ADA2**

The *D. discoideum adgf* gene is predicted to encode a protein of 543 long amino acids and

belongs to the metallo-transferase superfamily (Figure 2A), containing a ADA domain and an N-

terminal domain similar to human ADA2 (Figure 2B). Using the ADGF sequence from the

protein family database (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/), an analysis was carried out using the

online tools, SMART (Simple Modular Architecture Research Tool: http://smart.embl-

heidelberg.de), to know the presence of structurally similar domains. This study suggests that the

protein domains of *Dictyostelium* ADGF are conserved and show high degree of similarity with

human *ada2*.

D. discoideum ADGF (DdADGF) shares 37.47% identity with human ADA2. ADGF is present

in other social amoeba, sharing a sequence similarity of 59.5% with *Dictyostelium fasciculatum*,

61.2% with *Dictyostelium pupureum,* 53.6% with *Dictyostelium lacteum* and 62.1% with

Polysphondylium pallidum (www.uniprot.org). Multiple sequence alignment reveals the presence

of an N-terminal signal sequence characteristic of extracellular proteins (Figure 2C) and

conserved histidine and glutamine residues in the active site of both *D. discoideum* ADGF and

human ADA2 (Figure 2D).

The phylogenetic relation of ADGF to the classic ADA subfamily has been reported previously

(Maier et al., 2005). To determine the evolutionary relationship of *D. discoideum* ADGF with

that of other organisms, a phylogenetic analysis was carried out and the alignment was created

using MEGAX software (Kumar et al., 2018). The evolutionary history of ADGF was inferred

using a Maximum Likelihood approach with Bootstrap analysis (100 iterations) as described by

Felsenstein (1985). The resulting phylogenetic tree indicated that DdADGF is closely related to

the ADGF proteins of other Dictyostelid members, including D. purpureum, Heterostelium

pallidum, and Cavenderia fasciculata. *D. discoideum* ADGF forms a distinct clade, likely

representing a distant relative of its vertebrate homolog (Figure 2E). Additionally, the structure

of *D. discoideum* ADGF was predicted by homology modeling with AlphaFold

(https://alphafold.ebi.ac.uk/), using the crystal structure of human ADA2, CECR1 (Cat eye

syndrome critical region protein 1) as a template (PDB-3LGD) (Figures 2F-H). Alignment of

Dictyostelium ADGF with human ADA2 yielded an RMSD value of 1.003 Å, indicating strong

structural similarity (Eidhammer et al., 2000; Koehl, 2001).

adgf* controls aggregate size in *Dictyostelium

To understand the role of *adgf* during *D. discoideum* development, mutant lines with lesions in

the gene *adgf* were plated at a density of 5×10^5 cells/cm^2 on non-nutrient phosphate buffered agar

plates (pH 6.4) and monitored thereafter. In comparison to WT (37.6 ± 2.7 mm^2), the aggregates

of *adgf* $^-$ were larger in size (62.6 ± 5.4 mm^2; p value = 0.0003), and thus the number of

aggregates formed by the mutants were fewer (39.67 ± 3.703) than the WT (67.00 ± 2.543)

(Figure 3A). To determine the pathways that are affected impairing the tissue size in the mutant,

RNA expression of countin (*ctn*) and small aggregates (*smlA*) were examined and their levels

were found to be reduced significantly compared to controls (Figure 3B). Countin factor (CF)

regulates group size by reducing the expression of cell-cell adhesion proteins cadherin (*cadA*)

and contact site A (*csaA*) (Siu et al., 1985). The expression of *cadA, csaA* and cell-cell adhesion

were also quantified and the mutants displayed enhanced *cadA* and *csaA* expression and higher

cell-to-cell contacts than the WT (Figures 3C and 3D) suggesting that *adgf* regulates the overall

size of the aggregates.

cAMP chemotaxis significantly influences cell-cell adhesion (Konijn et al., 1967) and to know if

chemotaxis is impaired in the mutant, an under-agarose chemotaxis assay was carried out. The

chemotactic activity was not significantly different between the two cell types (Figure 3E),

implying that the increased mound size in the mutant may not be due to altered chemotactic

activity.

adgf mutants form large, tipless mounds

Subsequent to plating on KK2 agar plates, WT cells formed mounds by 8-9 h, and culminate to

form fruiting bodies by the end of 24 h. In contrast, the *adgf* ⁻ lines were blocked as rotating

mounds with no tips till 30 h (Figure 3F; Supplementary videos S1 and S2). The mound arrest

phenotype could be mimicked by adding the ADA specific inhibitor deoxycoformycin (DCF) to

WT cells (Figure 3G). After 36 h, a fraction of *adgf* ⁻ mounds (34.77 ± 4%) formed fruiting

bodies with bulkier spore sac and a stalk (Figures 3H and 3I). This late recovery from the mound

arrest may be due to the expression of other ADA isoforms after 36 h.

Reduced ADA activity leads to high adenosine levels in the adgf mutant

If the function of *adgf* is compromised, ADA enzyme activity is expected to be low. To verify

this, total ADA activity in WT and *adgf* ⁻ mounds was measured using a commercial kit. This

technique relies on the conversion of inosine (by ADA) to uric acid and was measured at

A293 nm. Although ADA activity was reduced significantly in the mutant (Figure 4A), it was

not completely abolished and possibly, other isoforms of ADA may have a basal activity at 16 h.

ADGF quenches extracellular adenosine and if this process is impaired as expected in *adgf⁻,* the

mutants will have increased extracellular adenosine. Using a commercial kit, total adenosine

levels were measured and the adenosine levels were elevated both at 12 h and 16 h in the mutant,

(Figure 4B) and this difference was highly significant at 16 h (377.6 ± 18.86 nM in the WT;

490.8 ± 7.241 nM in the mutant, p = 0.0002). *adgf* expression, at this time point was also high in

WT cells. The elevated adenosine levels at 16 h may be due to reduced ADA activity and

enhanced expression of genes such as 5' nucleotidase *(5'nt),* phosphodiesterases *(pdsA* and *regA)*

that are involved in adenosine formation. Hence, their expression levels were examined.

Although the expression of both *5'nt* and *regA* were enhanced at 8 h, *pdsA* levels remain

unaltered. Interestingly, the expression of all three genes trended lower at 12 h but were

significantly upregulated at 16 h (Figure 4C) suggesting an important role of these genes at a

specific time in development.

Addition of ADA or overexpression of *adgf* cDNA restored tip development in *adgf⁻*

adgf mutants carry significantly high levels of adenosine. By administering ADA enzyme on top

of the *adgf⁻* mounds (Figure 5A), excess adenosine can be quenched resulting in ammonia

formation, possibly rescuing the phenotype. Indeed, addition of 10 U ADA onto mutant mounds

restored tip development. Besides, overexpression of WT *adgf* cDNA (driven by actin15

promoter) rescues the developmental defects of the *adgf* mutants (Figures 5B and 5C),

confirming that the developmental block is the result of *adgf* gene disruption alone. However,

adgf cDNA overexpression in WT cells does not result in any observable defects (Figure 5D).

Taken together, these findings support an important function of *adgf* in tip development.

179   **WT or its conditioned media (CM) restored tip formation in *adgf⁻* mounds**

180   In order to determine whether *adgf* is necessary for tip formation in a cell-autonomous manner,

181   WT and the mutant cells were reconstituted in different proportions and plated. In a mix of 50%

182   WT: 50% mutant, WT cells were able to rescue the defects of *adgf⁻* cells but with 20% WT and

183   80% *adgf⁻*, the rescue was partial (31 ± 4 %) (Figure 5E) suggesting that the mound arrest

184   phenotype of the mutant is due to the absence of some secreted factor(s).

185   Further, when developed in the presence of WT CM, *adgf⁻* cells formed tipped mounds and

186   eventually fruiting bodies (Figure 5F). Conversely, in the presence of CM from *adgf⁻* cells, WT

187   developed as large mounds with no tips (Figure 5G) and the size was comparable to the mounds

188   formed by *adgf⁻*. These findings imply that the developmental phenotype of *adgf⁻* is not due to a

189   cell autonomous defect but due to faulty secreted factor signaling.

190   **Volatile ammonia rescued the mound arrest phenotype of *adgf⁻***

191   If ADGF function is compromised, ammonia levels are expected to be low. Hence, the

192   concentration of ammonia from WT and *adgf⁻* mounds were measured using a commercial kit.

193   At the mound stage, total ammonia levels were significantly reduced in *adgf⁻* lines (Figure 6A).

194   By mixing sodium hydroxide and ammonium chloride (Thadani et al., 1977), ammonia could be

195   generated, and in such conditions, tip formation was restored in *adgf⁻* mounds (Figure 6B).

196   **Physically separated WT restored tip development in the mutant**

197   WT mounds are expected to release lot of volatiles including ammonia, possibly rescuing the

198   mound arrest phenotype of the mutants nearby. To verify if this is correct, *adgf⁻* cells were

199   developed in one half of a compartmentalized Petri dish and WT cells on the other side.

200   Interestingly, the mound arrest of *adgf⁻* was completely rescued by 3.5 hours (Figure 6C) in the

presence of WT although they were physically separated from each other. This suggests that

volatiles, likely to be ammonia released from WT is sufficient enough to rescue the mutant

phenotype.

The CM from *adgf⁻* is expected to have high adenosine, possibly generating low or no ammonia.

Addition of ADA to the CM of the mutant in one compartment of the partitioned dish led to a

partial rescue (57 % ± 2) of *adgf⁻* kept on the other side of the dish after 3.5 h (Figure 6D)

implying that the ammonia generated in such conditions may not be enough for a full rescue.

Adenosine deamination alone drives the rescue of *adgf⁻*

To know if adenosine deamination is exclusively responsible for the rescue of the mutant, 10 ml

cold KK2 buffer mixed with different concentrations of adenosine (10 µM, 0.1 mM, 1 mM) was

added on one side of the compartmentalized dish and the other side of the dish had the mutant on

phosphate buffered agar arrested at the mound stage. After 3.5 h of the addition of ADA enzyme

(10 U) to the buffered solution containing adenosine, a full rescue was observed (Figure 6E),

strongly indicating that volatile ammonia generated from adenosine deamination alone is

rescuing the defect. Ammonia is known to be produced during protein/RNA catabolism in

Dictyostelium (White and Sussman, 1961; Hames and Ashworth, 1974; Schindler and Sussman,

1977; Walsh and Wright, 1978) but the total protein and RNA levels were not significantly

different between WT and *adgf* mutants (Figure S1 A-B) suggesting that ammonia released from

adenosine deamination plays a crucial role in tip formation.

Caffeine, not ammonia rescued the mound size of *adgf⁻*

Given that adenosine levels were elevated in the mutants, we attempted to rescue the large

mound size observed in the *adgf* mutants by treating them with the adenosine antagonist,

caffeine. Caffeine rescued this early developmental defect in a dose-dependent manner (Figure

6F). This suggests that *adgf* may be one of the regulators of group size in *Dictyostelium*. Since

the ammonia levels were lower in the mutant, we tested whether exposure to ammonia could

rescue the large aggregate size of the *adgf* mutant. Exposing the mutants to 0.01 M ammonia

soon after plating or six hours after plating, had no effect on the aggregate size of the mutants

(Figure 6G), suggesting that while some early effects may be mediated through adenosine

receptors, the later effects appear to be independent and likely influenced by ammonia.

Faulty expression of cAMP relay genes in *adgf*⁻

cAMP signaling is crucial for tip development and determining cell fate in *Dictyostelium*

(Schaap and Wang, 1986; Saxe et al., 1993; Firtel, 1996; Singer et al., 2019). Hence, the

expression of genes involved in cAMP relay were measured in WT and *adgf*⁻ cells by qRT-PCR.

Total cAMP levels and *acaA* gene expression were both low in the *adgf*⁻ lines (Figures 7A and

7B). Treating the cells with the pkA activator 8-Br-cAMP or cyclic-di-GMP, the activator of

adenyl cyclase (Wang and Schaap, 1985; Chen and Schaap, 2012), reversed the *adgf*⁻ mound

arrest phenotype (Figures 7C and D). Increasing the cyclic-di-GMP dose from 0.5 mM to 1 mM

resulted in the formation of multiple tips (Figure 7E). These observations further reinforce that

the mound arrest phenotype of the *adgf*⁻ lines is due to faulty cAMP signaling. Blocking the

phosphodiesterase (*pde4*) activity could also lead to higher cAMP levels transiently. When

treated with 3-Isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX), a known PDE4 inhibitor (Bader et al., 2007;

Siegert and Weijer, 1989), there was no effect on tip formation in *adgf*⁻ mounds (Figure 7F),

although caffeine restored tip formation (Figure 7G). Thus, in spite of impaired expression of

cAMP relay genes, the chemotaxis activity is not altered in the mutant.

Circular instead of spiral cAMP waves in *adgf⁻* mounds

Low *acaA* expression, reduced cAMP levels and enhanced cell-cell contacts in *adgf⁻* is likely to

impair cAMP wave propagation and to ascertain if this is true, the cAMP signal propagation in

WT and *adgf⁻* mounds were compared using dark field optics. In contrast to the WT, which

displayed a spiral wave propagating center, the *adgf* mutant exhibited a circular wave

propagating center throughout, suggesting that the cAMP relay is impaired (Figure 7H;

Supplementary videos S3 and S4).

Ammonia restores tip formation by regulating *acaA/pde4* expression

adgf expression peaks at 16 h and to find if *adgf* expression is regulated by the substrate or the

product, WT cells treated with different concentrations of adenosine (100 nM, 1 μM, 0.5 mM),

were plated on KK2 agar plates and harvested at 16 h for RNA isolation. Independently, WT

mounds on KK2 agar plates were exposed to different concentrations of volatile ammonia (0.1

mM, 1 mM, 10 mM) for 3 h and thereafter, the mRNA expression levels of *adgf*, *acaA* and *pde4*

were examined. All the rescue experiments involving ammonia is for 3.5 h time period. With 100

nM adenosine, the expression of both *adgf* and *acaA* decreased when compared to controls but at

higher adenosine concentrations (1 μM, 0.5 mM), the expression levels of these two genes were

comparable to controls (Figure 8A). Interestingly, *pde4* expression decreased gradually with

increasing adenosine concentrations (100 nM to 0.5 mM), but increased steadily with increasing

ammonia levels.

In mounds exposed to 0.1 mM ammonia, the expression of *adgf* decreased but exposure to 1 mM,

and 10 mM ammonia, respectively caused a 3 and 2.3-fold upregulation of *acaA* expression. This

observation suggests that ammonia may be rescuing the mound arrest phenotype by enhancing

acaA expression and thus cAMP levels. In similar conditions, a considerable increase in *pde4*

expression was observed (Figure 8B), which may be necessary for controlling cAMP production

in response to NH$_3$ treatment. In conclusion, the expression of *adgf* is influenced both by the

substrate adenosine as well as the product ammonia in a dose dependent manner.

adgf ⁻ cells sort to prestalk in a chimera with WT

To determine if *adgf* favours the differentiation of one cell type over the other, the expression of

prestalk (pst) and prespore (psp) markers were examined in the mutant by realtime PCR. While

the expression of pst markers, *ecmA* and *ecmB* were significantly upregulated, the psp-specific

pspA gene showed reduced expression in the mutant (Figure 8C), suggesting that WT *adgf*

favours psp expression.

To know the cell type preference of the *adgf* mutants in a chimera with WT, a fraction (20%) of

any one cell type was labelled with a cell tracker stain DIL and the development was tracked

thereafter. In the slugs that formed after reconstituting labelled WT or *adgf* ᴼᴱ cells with 80%

unlabelled *adgf* ⁻ cells, the fluorescence was largely confined in the psp region. Conversely,

when *adgf* ⁻ cells stained with DIL were reconstituted with unlabelled WT or *adgf* ᴼᴱ, the

fluorescence was restricted to the pst part of the slug. In the reconstituted slugs, consistently,

labelled WT or *adgf* ᴼᴱ cells occupy the psp, whereas the *adgf* ⁻ cells end up in the pst region

(Figures 9A, 9B and 9C). Thus, the distribution of cell types in the mound/slug is significantly

influenced by *adgf,* as the mutant cells sort out in a mixture with WT cells and differentiate to pst

cells.

Further, when stained with the prestalk marker, neutral red (Yamamoto and Takeuchi, 1983), the

staining was intense in the pst and ALCs of *adgf* ⁻ slugs, and such an intense coloration was not

apparent in WT especially in the ALCs (Figure S2A). To further investigate if reduced ADA

activity affects cell type specific marker expression or their pattern in slugs, pst (*ecmA*-GFP,

ecmO-GFP) or psp (*pspA*-RFP) lines were treated with the ADA inhibitor DCF. While there was

no change in pst/psp patterns in the mounds and slugs that formed after a long delay, the *ecmA*-

GFP was intense in the tip when compared to WT (Figures S2B). Similar to NR staining pattern

in adgf mutant slugs, a prominent expression of *ecmA*-GFP was observed in the ALC region also.

Visually, there was no change in *ecmO* or *psp* marker expression in DCF treated slugs (Figures

S2C and S2D) suggesting that impaired ADGF activity affects tip specific expression

significantly.

adgf acts downstream of the histidine kinase, *dhkD*

In an effort to identify the pathway by which *adgf* acts during tip development, we selected a

number of mutant lines with similar mound arrest phenotype such as cAMP receptor B (*carB* -),

LIM domain containing protein (*limB* -), mound mutants (*mndA* -) and histidine kinase (*dhkD* -)

(Saxe et al., 1993; Carrin et al., 1996; Chien et al. 2000; Singleton and Xiong, 2013) and treated

the mounds with ADA enzyme. Treatment with 10 U ADA or exposure to ammonia restored tip

formation in *dhkD* ⁻ mounds and not others tested (Figures S3A and S3C). An increase in ADA

concentration (20 U), resulted in the development of multiple tips in *dhkD*⁻ (Figures 9D, 9E and

9F). These findings imply that *adgf* acts downstream of *dhkD* in controlling tip development.

Similarly, we tested few mutants with multiple tips phenotype, such as tipped mutant (*tipA* -),

culinB (*culB* -), autophagy mutants (*atg7* -, *atg8*-, and *atg9*-) (Stege et al., 1999; Wang and Kuspa,

2002; Otto et al., 2003; Otto et al., 2004, Tung et al., 2010) by adding the ADA inhibitor, DCF (1

mM) to the cell suspension /agar plates and if rescued, those mutants are likely to be in the same

pathway controlling tip development. However, DCF treatment had no impact on mutants with

multiple tips (Figure S3B).

Impaired expression of other deaminases also results in aberrant tip formation

Several pathways control ammonia levels during development and knockouts in other deaminases (2-aminomuconate deaminase: DDB_G0275081, adenosine monophosphate deaminase: DDB_G0292266, dCTP deaminase: DDB_G0293580, threonine deaminase: DDB_G0277245, N-acetyl glucosamine deaminase: DDB_G0286195, glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase: DDB_G0278873) show a partial mound arrest phenotype (Figures S4A-F) although the expression of some of these candidates is stronger during development suggesting a prominent and unique role of adenosine deamination in tip development.

High adenosine levels and other related purines do not block tip development

ADA catalyses the conversion of adenosine/deoxy adenosine respectively to inosine/ deoxy inosine. As *adgf* mutants have high adenosine levels, we investigated if the mound arrest could be mimicked in WT by treating with adenosine. Surprisingly, addition of adenosine does not lead to mound arrest in WT (Figure S5A). It is possible that ADA/ADGF converted adenosine analogues to inosine analogues, which in some manner affected development. Hence, WT cells were treated with an adenosine analogue (2'-deoxyadenosine), or guanosine (10 µM each) and they do not cause a mound arrest phenotype either. Similarly, treating *adgf* $^-$ mounds with inosine does not restore tip formation (Figures S5B and S5C) suggesting that the blocked tip development is due to faulty adenosine deamination alone.

Cross kingdom rescue of the *adgf* $^-$ mound arrest phenotype

Just like WT *Dictyostelum* rescuing the mound arrest phenotype of the mutant, we examined if bacteria physically separated from the mutants would rescue the phenotype. To check this, *Klebsiella aerogenes* and *adgf* mutants were incubated adjacent to each other within a compartmentalized KK2 agar plate. After 12 h, tip formation was restored in the mutants while

in the same time frame, the mounds in controls failed to form tips. Possibly, *Klebsiella* on KK2

with no nutrients would die releasing ammonia restoring tip development in *Dictyostelium*

(Figure S6).

Discussion

***Dictyostelium* ADGF is likely to be secreted growth factor**

Multiple sequence alignments, experiments with conditioned media and cell type reconstitution

with WT suggests that ADGF is a secreted molecule. AMP deaminase, previously characterized

in the mollusk *Helix pomatia*, has been identified as a member of ADGF family (Tzertzinis et al.,

2023). It is important to note that ADGF is also known to act on 5′-adenosine monophosphate

(AMP) and deoxyadenosine. Studies on the characterization and expression of this growth factor

has shown that it is a secreted protein critical for embryonic and larval development in Pacific

abalone (Hanif et al., 2022), highlighting the broader role of ADGF in development across

species. The human ADA2 enzyme belongs to the novel family of ADGF and crystal structure of

ADA2 reveal the presence of a catalytic- and two unique ADA2-specific domains with novel

folds, responsible for protein dimerization and interaction with cell surface receptors.

Furthermore, the presence of a number of N-glycosylation sites, conserved disulfide bond, and a

signal peptide in ADA2 indicate that ADA2 is specifically adapted to function in the

extracellular environment (Zavialov et al., 2010).

Possible reasons for increased mound size in the *adgf* mutant

Enhanced cell adhesion influences cohesion and can impact the mound size (Roisin-Bouffay et

al., 2000). The cell-cell adhesion genes *cadA* and *csaA* (Coates and Harwood, 2001) were

upregulated in the mutant, leading to enhanced adhesion and larger mound size. While over-

secretion of *ctn* leads to stream breaking resulting in smaller aggregate formation (Brock and

Gomer, 1999), disruption of the *ctn* gene prevents this process, inducing large aggregate

formation. *ctn* in turn regulates *smlA* (Brock et al., 2003), impacting the overall aggregate size.

Thus, *adgf* mutants have reduced *ctn* and *smlA* expression manifesting large mound formation.

Indeed, cells treated with adenosine are known to form large aggregates (Schaap and Wang,

1986) and the first genetic evidence supporting the previous work is from *adgf* mutants, which

carry excess extracellular adenosine and form large aggregation streams.

Pathways generating ammonia in *Dictyostelium*

Proteolysis during starvation is believed to be the main source of volatile ammonia in

Dictyostelium (Hames and Ashworth, 1974; Schindler and Sussman, 1977; White and Sussman,

1961), while RNA degradation is also attributed to yield ammonia during starvation (Walsh and

Wright, 1978). During development, amino acids, total protein and RNA levels are reported to

reduce with a significant increase in ammonia levels, thus equivocating the source of volatile

ammonia (Hames and Ashworth, 1974). Furthermore, several deaminases or enzymatic reactions

in *Dictyostelium* may also potentially generate ammonia (Supplementary Table S1). The

annotated *D. discoideum* genome contains five evolutionarily conserved family of ammonium

transporter/methylammonium permease/rhesus protein (Amt/Mep/Rh) encoding genes

(Eichinger et al., 2005), *amtA, amtB, amtC, rhgA,* and *rhgB,* which help in regulating ammonia

levels during growth and development. *amtA* and *amtC* antagonistically control developmental

processes and are involved in ammonium sensing or transport (Follstaedt et al., 2003; Kirsten et

al., 2005; Singleton et al., 2006).

Role of ammonia during *Dictyostelium* development

During early development in *Dictyostelium,* ammonia is known to inhibit aggregation (Schindler

and Sussman, 1979; Williams et al., 1984), affect aggregate territory size (Thadani et al., 1977),

aggregate density (Feit, 1988), cell fate (Gross et al., 1988), culmination (Davies et al., 1993),

and fruiting body size (Lonski, 1976). Ammonia is essential for differentiation in submerged

clumps (Sternfeld and David, 1979) and favours prolonged slug migration called 'slugging' over

culmination and influences psp over pst differentiation (Newell et al., 1969). Ammonia plays a

crucial role in orienting cell masses and accelerating the movement of aggregating cells (Bonner

et al., 1986). Enzymatic removal of ammonia causes the quick transition from slug to fruiting

thus controlling the morphogenetic pathways (Schindler and Sussman, 1977). By suppressing

DIF biosynthesis (Neave et al., 1983), ammonia favors psp over pst development in

Dictyostelium (Davies et al., 1993; Riley and Barclay, 1990). Further, ammonia prevents the

developmental transition of slugs to fruiting bodies (Bradbury and Gross, 1989; Wang and

Schaap, 1989). It is interesting to note that ammonia induces tip development (as in *adgf*

mutants), but subsequently, tips move away from a source of ammonia. Migration of slugs/

fruiting bodies away from ammonia, reflects a process by which fruiting bodies position

themselves from other structures to increase the possibility of spore dispersal (Kosugi and

Inouye, 1989). Ammonia by enhancing the collective movement of cells is believed to exert

negative chemotaxis (Bonner et al., 1986). Ammonia is known to inhibit tip formation in slugger

mutants, but in strains such as NC4 (Gee et al., 1994), ammonia exerts no effect on tip formation

as in AX4 (data not shown). The highly acidic, autophagic vesicles in pst cells (Gross, 2009) are

believed to catalyze the breakdown of proteins and RNA, also generating ammonia.

ADGF and its substrate, adenosine could serve as a localized source of ammonia. Indeed, cells

carrying high ATP, its derivatives cAMP (Bargoda et al., 2009; Singer et al., 2019) and

adenosine (Schaap and Wang, 1986), end up in the tip (Hiraoka et al., 2022). Further, 5'-

nucleotidase promoter activity is high in pstAB cells (Ubeidat et al., 2002) that significantly

covers the tip region suggesting high adenosine levels in the tip. However, extracellular 5'-AMP

can be derived from multiple sources such as hydrolysis of cAMP, ATP and RNA (Carpousis et

al., 1999).

As a gas, ammonia can diffuse generating a gradient; high in the slug front compared to the

posterior. Our results (Fig. 6A) also show that the amount of ammonia released from adenosine

is in the same order of magnitude as that from other sources (Yoshino et al., 2007). In *adgf*

mutants, ammonia levels may not be sufficient enough to neutralize the acidic vesicles and hence,

NR staining is intense in the pst region and the ALCs (Bonner, 1952). Thus, excess acidification

if not neutralized may lead to mound arrest and if ammonia acts on the acidic vesicles, then,

collective migration of cells leading to tip formation may be favoured.

Ammonia is crucial in regulating differentiation, metabolism, and gene expression (Liu et al.,

2022, Stein et al., 2013). Ammonium has been shown to induce aberrant blastocyst

differentiation, disrupt normal metabolic processes, alter pH regulation, and subsequently affect

fetal development in mice (Lane and Gardner, 2003). Newt *Triturus* exposed to ammonia show

dorsalization of the ventral marginal zone highlighting the capacity of ammonia to alter

embryonic axis formation (Yamada, 1950). Furthermore, research on avian embryos has revealed

significant ammonia content in developing eggs, suggesting a potential role for ammonia in the

energy metabolism during ontogenesis (Needham, 1926).

Ammonia's effect on cAMP signaling in *Dictyostelium*

Ammonia is known to increase intracellular cAMP levels in *D. discoideum* (Riley and Barclay,

1990; Feit et al., 2001) but Schindler and Sussman, (1977) and Williams et al., (1984) reported

that high ammonia levels inhibit the synthesis and release of cAMP. However, some of these

experiments use ammonium carbonate (Schindler and Sussman, 1977), or ammonium chloride

(Williams et al., 1984), as a source of ammonia and the possibility of carbonate and chloride ions

interfering with development cannot be ruled out. In slugs, ammonia is shown to exert very little

effect on cAMP levels (Schaap et al., 1995). In *Dictyostelium mucoroides,* high ammonia levels

are known to block the production of extracellular cAMP. The effect of volatile ammonia on

aggregation seems to be species specific notably in *P. violaceum, P. pallidum, and D.*

mucoroides resulting in wider aggregation territories, while it was not observed in other species

such as *D. discoideum* and *D. purpureum* (Bonner and Hoffman, 1963).

Adenylate cyclase (AC) activity is regulated by various factors (Steer, 1975). At physiological

levels, ammonium ions increase AC activity in the rat brain by 40% (Yeung et al., 1989), but

lowered its activity in the liver by about 30% (Wiechetek et al., 1979). Ammonia has been

shown to increase the activity of AC-G in *Dictyostelium* sori (Cotter et al., 1999). High ammonia

levels by altering the pH, can affect the activity of numerous enzymes whose activity is pH

dependent and thus the activity of AC can be impacted by pH variations. *adgf* mutants with low

ammonia levels have reduced cAMP levels and a gradual increase in ammonia, cause a steady

but significant increase in *aca*A expression. In other systems (Rat brain), ammonia is known to

interact with manganese (Rivera-Mancía et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2020) and this divalent cation is

known to increase *aca*A expression in *Dictyostelium* (Loomis et al., 1979; Khachatrian et al.,

1987). Possibly, ammonia interacts with metal ions like manganese to form 'ammine complexes'

(Lipkowski and Galus, 1973), particularly in aqueous environments or under specific conditions

where the appropriate ligands are available and enhances cAMP levels thus rescuing the mound

defects of the mutant.

The decision between the formation of the tip (pst cells) and the ALCs are controlled by the tip's

production of ammonia, which prevents the migration of ALCs towards the tip (Sternfeld and

David, 1982; Feit et al., 1990). Consistent with this observation, our results show that *adgf*

mutant lines that have low ammonia levels exhibit enhanced *ecmA* and *ecmB* marker expression.

Mutants impaired in DIF-1 synthesis fail to develop pst-O cells in the slug and subsequently also

fail to form the basal disc in the fruiting body (Thompson and Kay, 2000). Similar to our

observations of cells with high adenosine occupying the tip of the slug, cells with high ATP (that

degrades to adenosine) levels, also end up in the centre of the tip (Hiraoka et al., 2022).

Tip organizer development in *Dictyostelium* depends on the differentiation and appropriate

sorting of pst and psp cells (Kay et al., 1978; Williams et al., 1989; Saxe et al., 1993; Williams,

2006), a process that relies on signaling of different morphogens including cAMP, adenosine,

DIF and ammonia (Bloom and Kay, Williams, 1988; 1988; Riley and Barclay, 1990; Gross et al.,

1994; 2006). These morphogens modify one another's effects, and determine the choice of the

differentiation pathway as well as the spatial arrangement of cells (Bloom and Kay, 1988). Thus,

the rescue of the *adgf* mutant upon exposure to ammonia is likely due to cAMP signaling and

cell-cell contact.

Possible reasons for reduced cAMP levels in the *adgf* mutant

The increased expression of PDE's (intra and extracellular) and reduced ACA expression could

well explain the lower cAMP levels in the mutant. ADA significantly regulates adenosine levels,

thus reducing the activation of adenosine-mediated receptors (Van Haastert, 1983). Two classes

of adenosine receptors including adenosine alpha- and beta-receptors are known to be expressed

in *Dictyostelium* (Theibert and Devreotes, 1984). When adenosine concentrations are high, beta-

receptors bound with adenosine inhibit the binding of cAMP to its receptors, thereby inhibiting

cAMP signaling (Newell, 1982; Van Haastert, 1983; Theibert and Devreotes, 1984). High

adenosine levels in the *adgf* mutant may also reduce cAMP levels via a similar mechanism.

adgf activity is likely to be different between pst and psp cells as reconstitution with different

cell types shows that cells with low adenosine and high ammonia levels end up in psp while cells

with excess adenosine and low ammonia attain pst cell fate. Cell death also results in

adenosine/ammonia formation and thus *adgf* activity is likely to be higher in pst than psp to

maintain low extracellular adenosine. The mound/slug tip is believed to carry high adenosine

levels restricting additional tip formation favouring lateral inhibition (Wang and Schaap, 1985)

and our results also show that $adgf^-$ cells with high adenosine goes to pst than the psp region.

Distorted cAMP waves in mutant

Collective cell movement within mounds is essential for cell sorting and the progression from

mounds to finger structures (Kellerman and McNally, 1999). In WT mounds, cAMP waves

propagate in a spiral pattern, while in mutants, waves propagate in a concentric circular pattern.

Initially, cAMP waves appear as concentric circles that, upon symmetry breaking, form spiral

waves (Siegert and Weijer, 1995). With successive wave propagation, the circular ring distorts,

and one end curls toward the pulsatile center, creating a spiral wave around the organizing center.

In *adgf* mutants, however, defective cAMP relay prevents this transition, likely due to lower

cAMP levels. A surge in phosphodiesterase inhibition is thought to regulate this shift from

concentric to spiral wave propagation (Palsson and Cox, 1996).

The mound/slug tip of *Dictyostelium* generates cAMP pulses (Traynor et al., 1992), and is

known to suppress additional tip formation (Farnsworth, 1973). Adenosine, that inhibits tip

formation represses *pde4* expression whereas ammonia, that promotes tip elongation, increases

pde4 expression. Thus, the restoration of cAMP signaling and spiral wave propagation possibly

leads to the rescue of the *adgf* ⁻ mound arrest phenotype. Surprisingly adenosine exerts little

effect on tip development in WT cells and studies of Inouye (1989) also reinforce our

observations, showing that adenosine does not significantly influence the conversion of pst to

psp cells in shaking culture conditions.

Adenosine deamination drives tip organizer development

A crucial evidence supporting that adenosine deamination is singularly responsible for the rescue

of mound arrest comes from experiments where partitioned dish with buffered solution

containing adenosine on one side and the mutants on the other half of the dish. Addition of ADA

enzyme (10 U) to the buffered solution with adenosine fully restored the tipped mound formation

in the other half of the dish. Although ammonia's role in *Dictyostelium* development is well

established, this report is the first to show a novel role of ammonia in tip development. If natural

variants of *Dictyostelium* with no tips exist in soil, there is a likelihood that they will form

fruiting bodies when WT Dictyostelids are nearby. It is important to note that development of an

organism in its natural habitat is strongly influenced by volatiles nearby (Schulz-Bohm et al.,

2017).

ADA in organizer development and gastrulation in vertebrates

ada/adgf expression is found to be significantly high during gastrulation stages (Figure S7) in

several vertebrates (Pijuan-Sala et al., 2019; Tyser et al., 2021) and the process of gastrulation in

higher organisms and collective cell movement within the *Dictyostelium* mound are remarkably

similar (Weijer, 2009), suggesting an overlooked role of ammonia in organizer development. It is

likely that ADA plays a conserved, fundamental role in regulating morphogenesis in

Dictyostelium and other organisms including vertebrates. The human homologue of *adgf*,

CECR1, is a potential gene for the genetic disorder, Cat-eye syndrome and thus, *Dictyostelium*

may also serve as a model to study this condition.

dhkD functions upstream of *adgf*

The histidine kinase *dhkD*, a member of the two-component family of histidine kinases, appears

to function upstream of *adgf*, adding to our understanding of the signaling cascade in

Dictyostelium. Histidine kinases play essential roles in regulating developmental transitions, with

dhkC, for example, initiating the late developmental program that ultimately leads to fruiting

body formation (Singleton et al., 1998). This function of *dhkC* is regulated in part by ammonia

levels, as low ammonia concentrations have been shown to inhibit the *dhkC* phospho-relay,

thereby influencing developmental outcomes (Kirsten et al., 2005). In *Dictyostelium*, several

histidine kinases, including *dhkA*, *dhkB*, *dhkC*, and *dokA*, coordinate cAMP signaling to

modulate the activity of PKA, a cAMP-dependent protein kinase that is essential for proper

development (Anjard and Loomis, 2003). These findings suggest the interdependencies within

the signaling network in regulating multicellular development in *Dictyostelium*.

Model of ADGF action

High extracellular cAMP at the slug front (Singer et al., 2019) is expected to generate high

adenosine, which however could arise from other sources and thus ammonia levels are expected

to be higher in the slug front compared to the back. Possibly, ammonia generated extracellularly

is quenched rapidly by the intracellular acidic compartments of pst cells, increasing its pH and

favouring collective cell movement driving mound/ slug tip development. It is important to note

that ammonia is known to promote psp than pst differentiation. Although ammonia is likely to be

formed from several sources in *Dictyostelium*, a critical threshold concentration of ammonia may

be necessary for tip development. The failure of even one pathway may result in a drop-in

ammonia levels, exerting an effect on development (Figure 10). Overexpression of *ecmA* and

downregulation of *pspA* (as measured by realtime PCR) in the mutant suggests that there is a

change in cell type differentiation as suggested by the sorting experiments. This could suggest

that the differentiation of the cells is blocked at an early prestalk cell fate. Thus, ammonia is

likely to be important for the maturation of tip cells.

Our study shows that *adgf* acts downstream of *dhkD* and *in silico* studies have shown that *dhkD*

interacts with *adgf* (Figure S8A). Therefore, it is likely that in the presence of ammonia, *dhkD*

activates the phosphorelay, in turn increasing intracellular cAMP levels, leading to tip formation.

Histidine kinase *dhkC* is known to phosphorylate *regA* in *Dictyostelium* (Thomason et al.,1999).

However, based on docking we found no direct interaction of *regA* with ADGF (data not shown).

Thus, the integration of cytokinin and histidine kinase signaling ensures coordinated

multicellular organization in *Dictyostelium* (Aoki et al., 2020). Previous work in other systems

have found ADA to be interacting with CD 26 (dpp IV) (Tanaka, 1993) and docking DdADGF

with AprA (dpp8) (Figure S8B) also support the observations. However, adding ADA inhibitor

to *aprA* mutant (dpp8), show no effect on the phenotype (data not shown).

Organisms from different kingdoms often interact in complex ways such as symbiosis, predation,

competition etc., which can have significant effects on ecosystem dynamics (Helgason et al.,

1998; Harrison, 2005). Such interactions are often mediated through volatiles affecting the

physiology of each other just like the bacterial volatiles affecting the development of

Dictyostelium. However, it needs to be ascertained if this particular volatile is ammonia.

Supplementary Results

Genes involved in autophagy and tipped mound formation do not show altered expression in the mutant

Autophagy helps maintain cellular homeostasis by promoting the breakdown of damaged proteins and organelles (Mizushima et al., 2008), and ammonia is recognised to be a diffusible regulator of autophagy in human cells (Eng et al., 2010). To investigate if autophagy is impaired in the mutant, the expression of autophagy markers *atg8* and *atg18* were examined and there was no discernible change in the expression levels when compared to WT (Figure S9A). The tipless to tipped mound transition as well as late developmental gene expression is regulated by *gbf*A, a G-box binding factor (GBF). However, in the *adgf* mutant the *gbf*A expression levels were comparable with no significant difference between the WT at 16 h (Figure S9B). Without the assay for autophagy as well as assay for GBF activity, these expression studies alone are not conclusive to rule out the role of these factors in tip formation.

ADA does not deaminate cytokinin: ADA is known to interact with 5'AMP (Hanif et al., 2022) and in *Dictyostelium*, 5'-AMP serves as a direct precursor of cytokinin, playing a significant role in cellular signaling and development (Taya et al., 1978). Although docking studies suggest that binding of ADGF with cytokinins (zeatin, dihydrozeatin, isopentenyl adenine) is moderate, (data not shown), we carried a functional assay by mixing cytokinin and ADA with KK2 buffer in one side of the Petridish and found no rescue of the mutant (Figure S10) in such conditions suggesting no functional activity between ADA and cytokinin.

Supplementary discussion

Plausible routes of caffeine action rescuing the mound arrest phenotype

The *adgf* mound arrest could be rescued by the addition of the adenosine antagonist, caffeine but

treatment with the *pde4* inhibitor, IBMX failed to rescue the mound arrest. Caffeine is known to

reduce adenosine levels in blood plasma (Conlay et al., 1988) and also increase ammonium

levels in urine samples of rabbits (Bernheim and Bernheim, 1945). Thus, the mound rescue upon

caffeine treatment may be a result of reduced adenosine and increased ammonia levels. With

respect to caffeine action on cAMP levels, the reports are contradictory. Caffeine has been

reported to increase adenylate cyclase expression thereby increasing cAMP levels (Hagmann,

1986) whereas Alvarez-Curto et al., (2007) found that caffeine reduced intracellular cAMP levels

in *Dictyostelium*. Although, caffeine is moderately potent in inhibiting PDE enzyme activity, the

in vivo concentrations are likely to be low to be associated with effective PDE inhibition (Burg

and Werner, 1975; Daly, 1993).

Material and Methods

Bioinformatic analyses of ADGF

The genomic sequence and the protein sequence of ADGF were obtained either from dictybase

(http://dictybase.org) or NCBI database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/). Within the

Dictyostelium ADGF, the ADA domain was identified by SMART and BLAST

(http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/) (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) (Altschul et al., 1990;

Letunic and Bork, 2018) analyses. A phylogenetic tree was generated by aligning multiple amino

acid sequences of ADGF from several taxa. Neighbour Joining approach and the MUSCLE

alignment tool of the MEGAX programme were used for constructing the tree (Saitou and Nei,

1987). The tertiary structure of ADGF was obtained using the online programme alphafold

(https://alphafold.ebi.ac.uk/) (Jumper et al., 2021), and PyMol was used for viewing the images.

The expression profiles of *ada* and *ada2* during mouse and human gastrula development were

retrieved from the marionilab.cruk.cam.ac.uk/MouseGastrulation2018/ and human-gastrula.net/

databases (Pijuan-Sala et al., 2019; Tyser et al., 2021), respectively. Protein-protein docking was

carried out using High Ambiguity Driven Protein-Protein Docking (HADOCK) version 2.4.

Culture and development of *Dictyostelium discoideum*

D. discoideum (WT-AX4) cells or the mutant *adgf* derived from AX4, (DBS0237637) were

cultured in modified maltose-HL5 medium (Formedium, UK) with 100,000 U/L penicillin and

0.1 g/L streptomycin. Three independent insertional mutants (GWDI_17_D_7, GWDI_47_C_1,

GWDI_132_H_3) in the *adgf* gene (insertion in exon 2 in all three mutants) were obtained from

the GWDI bank (https://remi-seq.org), in *Dictyostelium* stock centre, North Western University,

USA (Gruenheit et al., 2021). The mound defects were identical in all three and GWDI_47_C_1

alone was characterised further. The culture was raised as a monolayer in Petri plates or grown in

an Erlenmeyer flask in shaking conditions at 150 rpm and 22 °C, to a cell density of 2-4x10^6

cells/ml. The cells were also grown on SM/5 agar plates supplemented with *Klebsiella aerogenes*

at 22 °C (2 g/L glucose, 2 g/L protease peptone, 0.4 g/L yeast extract, 1 g/L $MgSO_4.H_2O$, 0.66

g/L K_2HPO_4, 2.225 g/L KH_2PO_4, 1% Bactoagar, pH 6.4). For developmental assays, freshly

starved cells were washed twice with ice cold KK2 buffer (2.25 g KH_2PO_4 and 0.67 g K_2HPO_4

per litre, pH 6.4), and plated on 1% non-nutrient KK2 agar plates at a density of 5x10^5 cells/cm^2

(Nassir et al., 2019). Thereafter, the plates were incubated in dark conditions at 22 °C for

development.

Dictyostelium genomic DNA isolation

WT and *adgf* ⁻ cells grown axenically were harvested, and the pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 8; 10 mM EDTA; 0.8% SDS). To this mixture, 200 µl of Nonidet P-40 (NP40), a non-ionic detergent, was added, vortexed and centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at room temperature (RT). The resultant pellet was gently vortexed, resuspended in 500 µl of lysis solution containing 200 µg/ml Proteinase K, and incubated at 65 °C for 30 min. 300 µl of phenol: chloroform was added to this suspension, centrifuged at 18,000 g for 10 min at RT, and the resultant aqueous phase was extracted carefully. An equal amount of chloroform was added and centrifuged at 18,000 g for 10 min at RT. Following this, 750 µl of pure ethanol was added to the suspension, which was then centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C. Genomic DNA was precipitated by adding twice the volume of absolute ethanol and 1/10th the volume of 3 M sodium acetate. After a 10 min centrifugation at 15,000 g, the pellet was cleaned using 70% ethanol and stored at 4 °C. Electrophoresis was conducted in TAE buffer at 50 V using a Medox power pack system (India), and the integrity of DNA was confirmed on a 1% agarose gel.

Validation of the *adgf* mutant

To validate the blasticidin (*bs*r) cassette insertion in the adgf mutant, WT and *adgf* ⁻ genomic DNA were isolated, and a diagnostic PCR was performed using the gene and *bsr* insert specific primers in accordance with the guidelines provided in the GWDI website. A qRT-PCR was carried out to confirm the absence of *adgf* expression in the mutant cells. The primers used for mutant validation are listed in Supplementary Table S2.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA was extracted from WT and *adgf* ⁻ cells using Trizol reagent (Favorgen, USA) at specified intervals (every four hours from 0 to 24 h). cDNA was synthesized from the total RNA

using a PrimeScript 1st Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara, Japan). Random primers from the

manufacturer were used to generate the cDNA from a template of 1 µg total RNA. qRT-PCR

was performed using SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Scientific, USA) and 1 µl of cDNA.

The expression levels of *adgf, acaA*, cAMP receptor A (*carA*), phosphodiesterases (*pdsA, regA*),

5' nucleotidase (*5′nt*), extracellular matrix A (*ecmA*), extracellular matrix B (*ecmB*), prespore A

(*pspA*), countin (*ctn*), and small aggregate (*smlA*) were quantified with a QuantStudio Flex 7

(Applied Biosystems, USA). The mitochondrial large RNA subunit (*rnlA*) served as an internal

control. qRT-PCR data analysis was conducted according to the method described by Schmittgen

and Livak (2008). The primer sequences used for qRT-PCR are provided in Supplementary

Table S4.

Generation of *adgf* over expression construct

The full-length 1.7 kb *adgf* sequence was PCR-amplified using ExTaq polymerase (Takara,

Japan) with WT genomic DNA as the template. The amplified product was then ligated into the

pDXA-GFP2 vector at the HindIII and KpnI restriction sites. Both *adgf* ⁻ and WT cells were

electroporated with this vector, and G418-resistant clones (10 µg/ml) were isolated for further

analysis. The expression of *adgf* was confirmed by semi-quantitative PCR. The corresponding

primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table S3.

Transformation of *Dictyostelium discoideum*

WT and *adgf* ⁻ cells grown axenically were harvested, washed twice with ice-cold EP buffer (10

mM KH_2PO_4, 10 mM K_2HPO_4, 50 mM sucrose, pH 6.2), and resuspended in 100 µl of EP++

solution (10 K_2HPO_4 mM, 10 mM KH_2PO_4, 50 mM sucrose, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 1 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1

mM ATP, 1 µM $CaCl_2$) containing 10 µg of plasmid vector (Nassir et al., 2019) in pre-cooled

cuvettes (BioRad, USA). The cells were electroporated using a BTX ECM830 electroporator

(Harvard Apparatus, USA) at 300 V with 2 ms pulses and five square wave pulses at 5-second

intervals. The cells were then transferred to a Petri dish with 10 ml of HL5 medium and

incubated at 22 °C. After 24 hours, G418 (10 µg/ml) was added to the medium, and resistant

colonies were selected for further analysis.

Preparation of conditioned media (CM)

WT and *adgf* $^-$ cells grown in HL5 medium were collected at the mid-log (ML) phase,

resuspended in KK2 buffer at a density of 1×10^7 cells/ml, and incubated at 22 °C with shaking

for 20 hours. The clarified supernatant obtained after centrifugation was used for the experiments.

Assay for ADA activity

The total ADA activity from *Dictyostelium* was determined as per the protocol of the

manufacturer (Abcam, USA; Cat No: ab204695). For sample preparation, 5×10^5 cells/cm^2 were

seeded onto KK2 agar plates and at the mound stage, ice cold ADA assay buffer was flooded,

then vigorously pipetted to disrupt the mound integrity. The cell homogenate was agitated on a

rotary shaker at 4 °C for 15 min and then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 10 min in a cold

microfuge tube. The supernatant was subjected to the ADA assay. This ADA test detects inosine,

generated from adenosine break down through a multi-step reaction. The intermediate formed

combines with the probe to produce uric acid, which is quantified at OD 293 nm. BCA

(Bicinchonic acid) assay kit (Thermoscientific, USA) was used for determining the protein

concentration. One unit of ADA activity is defined as the amount of enzyme that hydrolyses

adenosine to yield 1 µmol of inosine per min under the assay conditions.

Adenosine quantification

Total adenosine levels from *Dictyostelium* mounds were measured according to the protocol using the Adenosine Assay Kit (Abcam, USA; Cat No: ab211094). Cells grown in HL5 were collected, washed and plated on KK2 agar plates. The lysis buffer was added to the plates with mounds and mixed thoroughly. 50 μl of the lysate was mixed with 2 U of ADA and was subjected to incubation for 15 min at RT. Adenosine quantification involves the use of ADA and after a series of enzymatic reactions, an intermediate is formed which reacts with the adenosine probe generating a fluorescent product. Using a spectrofluorometer (Perkin Emer, USA; λEx = 544 nm/λEm = 590), the fluorescence intensity can be measured which is proportional to the concentration of adenosine (Perkin Emer, USA; λEx = 544 nm/λEm = 590). The adenosine levels were quantified using the adenosine standard curve.

Quantification of ammonia

Ammonia assay kit (Sigma-Aldrich, USA; Cat No: AA0100) was used for estimating the total ammonia levels. WT and *adgf* $^-$ cells developed on KK2 agar plates were sealed with parafilm and incubated at 22 °C. The mounds were collected using lysis solution, and the debris was removed by centrifugation at 10,000 g for 10 min. The supernatant was used for further analysis. For the ammonia assay, 1 ml of assay reagent was mixed thoroughly with either 100 μl of samples or standards, incubated for 5 min at RT, and the absorbance was measured at 340 nm. Then, 10 μl of L-glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) solution was added to each cuvette, and after a 5-min incubation at 25 °C, the absorbance was measured again at 340 nm using a spectrophotometer (Eppendorf, Germany). In the presence of GDH, ammonia combines with α-ketoglutaric acid and reduced NADPH to produce L-glutamate and oxidised NADP+. The

722   decrease in absorbance at 340 nm is proportional to the ammonia concentration. The ammonia

723   standard curve was used to calculate the ammonia levels.

Volatile ammonia generation

To generate ammonia, 1 ml of 1 N NaOH and 1 ml of NH_4Cl (concentrations used 0.1 mM, 1

mM, 10 mM) were mixed thoroughly (Thadani et al., 1977; Feit et al., 1990) and from this mix,

2 ml was aliquoted in the upper half of the Petri dish. The other half of the plate with the $adgf^-$

mounds on KK2 agar were inverted, sealed and incubated at 22 °C. To determine whether WT

mounds, physically separated from the mutants could rescue the mound arrest, WT ($1x10^6$

cells/cm^2) and $adgf^-$ ($5x10^5$ cells/cm^2) cells were developed on KK2 agar plates on either side of

compartmentalised and sealed Petri plates. $adgf^-$ cells developed on either side of the dish

served as controls.

Quantification of cAMP

Using the cAMP-XP test kit and following the manufacturer's instructions, total cAMP levels

were determined from both the WT and the mutant (Cell signaling, USA). WT and $adgf^-$

mounds were disrupted and collected in 1 ml ice cold KK2 buffer. After centrifuging the pellet,

100 μl of 1X lysis solution was added, and the mixture was allowed to rest on ice for 10 min.

Following that, 50 μl of lysate and 50 μl of HRP-conjugated cAMP solution were added to the

test plates, which were then shaken horizontally at RT. After a 3-hour incubation, the wells were

emptied and washed three times with 200 μl of 1X wash buffer. 100 μl of stop solution was

added to halt the reaction, and the absorbance was measured at 450 nm using a

spectrophotometer (Biorad, USA). The cAMP standard curve was used to determine the cAMP

levels.

Visualisation of cAMP waves using dark field optics

5×10^5 cells/cm^2 were developed on KK2 agar plates under moist, dark conditions to monitor the propagation of the cAMP wave. Using a Nikon DS-5MC camera mounted on a Nikon SMZ-1000 stereo zoom microscope, a time-lapse video of the aggregation was captured in real-time (Nikon, Japan). cAMP optical density waves were displayed by subtracting the image pairs (Siegert and Weijer, 1995) after processing the images with the NIS-Elements D program or ImageJ (NIH, USA).

Under agarose cAMP chemotaxis assay

The under-agarose cAMP chemotaxis assay (Woznica and Knecht, 2006; Singh and Insall, 2022) was carried out with cells obtained from WT and *adgf* $^-$ mounds. Briefly, the cells were starved in KK2 buffer at 1×10^7 cells/ml density. Three parallel troughs, each measuring 2 mm in width, were set up on a Petri dish containing 1% agarose. In the outer two troughs, 100 µl of WT and *adgf* $^-$ cell suspension was aliquoted respectively and 10 µM cAMP was added to the central trough. Cell migration toward cAMP was recorded every 30 s over a total duration of 20 min using the NIS-Elements D software and an inverted Nikon Eclipse TE2000 microscope (Nikon, Japan). 35 cells were tracked each time and subsequently analysed using ImageJ (NIH, USA).

Reconstitution of WT with mutant cells

WT and *adgf* $^-$ cells cultured in HL5 medium, were harvested at the ML phase by centrifugation, rinsed twice with ice-cold KK2 buffer. The cells mixed in different ratios (1:9, 2:8 and 1:1) were adjusted to a final density of 5×10^5 cells/cm^2, plated on 1% KK2 agar plates, and incubated at 22 °C for development.

Tracking cell fate after reconstitution

Dictyostelium cells harvested from fresh HL5 media were resuspended at a density of 1×10^6 cells/ml in KK2 buffer, followed by incubation at 22°C for 1.5 h in shaking conditions with 0.2 μM DIL, (1,1'-Dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'-Tetramethylindocarbocyanine Perchlorate, Invitrogen, USA) a cell tracker dye. DIL has been used extensively as a cell tracker in *C. elegans*, *Xenopus and mice* (Schultz and Gumienny, 2012; Xu et al., 2020; Erdogan et al., 2016). WT or *adgf* ⁻ cells labelled with DIL were reconstituted with the unlabelled cells in a ratio of 1:9, 2:8 and 1:1 and plated for development. In the ratios mentioned, the smaller fraction represents the stained cells. DIL is a lipophilic dye that selectively stains the plasma membranes of living cells, allowing visualization and analysis of cell morphology.

Neutral red staining of mounds and slugs

WT and *adgf* ⁻ cells harvested from HL5 cultures were resuspended at a density of 1×10^7 cells per ml in KK2 buffer and treated with 0.005% neutral red (NR) solution for 15 min at RT in shaking conditions (Bonner, 1952). The stained cells were washed twice with KK2 buffer, plated in buffered agar plates and thereafter, NR stained slugs were observed using an upright microscope.

Cell-cell adhesion assay

After 14 h of development on phosphate buffered agar plates, WT and *adgf* ⁻ mounds were disaggregated by repeated pipetting and vortexing using ice-cold KK2 buffer. Dissociated cells were resuspended in KK2 buffer and incubated at 150 rpm for 45 min. Single and non-adherent cells were counted using a Neubauer chamber (Lam et al., 1981).

Treatment of *Dictyostelium* cells with different compounds

A highly specific ADA inhibitor, DCF that inhibits both extra and intra-cellular ADAs (Cha et al., 1975) was mixed with the WT cell suspension and plated on 1% non- nutrient KK2 agar plates at a density of 5×10^5 cells/cm^2. Of the different DCF concentrations tested (10 nM, 50 nM, 100 nM and 1 µM), 100 nM showed complete tip inhibition.

For the enzymatic rescue assay, 10 U of bovine ADA dissolved in KK2 buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) was added onto mutant mounds. The concentrations of 8-Br-cAMP (2 mM), cAMP (0.1 mM, 0.5 mM), c-di-GMP (0.1 mM, 0.5 mM), adenosine (1 µM, 10 µM, 100 µM, 1 mM), caffeine (10 nM, 100 nM, 1 µM) and IBMX (3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine 0.5 mM) were based on previous publications (Chen et al., 2017; Chen and Schaap, 2012; Nassir et al., 2019; Siegert and Weijer, 1989) and these compounds were added independently either on top of the mounds or supplemented while plating. All the fine chemicals were from Sigma-Aldrich, USA except when mentioned.

Microscopy

Microscopy was performed using a Nikon SMZ-1000 stereo zoom microscope with epifluorescence optics, Nikon 80i Eclipse upright microscope, or a Nikon Eclipse TE2000 inverted microscope, connected with a digital sight DS-5MC camera (Nikon). Image processing was carried out using NIS-Elements D (Nikon) or Image J.

Statistical tools

Data analyses were carried out using Microsoft Excel (2016). Statistical significance was determined by paired or unpaired, one-tailed Student's t-test (GraphPad Prism, version 6).

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Author contributions

P.H. and R.B. conceptualized the work. P.H. performed all experiments. P.H. and R.B. analysed

the data and wrote the manuscript.

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Figure 1

Figure 1. Mutant validation

A) Blasticidin resistance cassette (*bsr*) insertion in the *adgf* gene. **B)** PCR analyses using P1 and P4 primers. 1.4 kb shift in the *adgf* mutant. PCR using P1 and P2 primers showed an amplicon from the mutant (M) and not from the wild type (WT). PCR using P3 and P4 primers showed an amplicon with adgf mutant while WT did not show any amplicon. **C)** Semi-quantitative RT-PCR of internal control, *rnlA* and *adgf* ⁻. *adgf* expression during development in *Dictyostelium*. **D)** Total RNA was isolated from *Dictyostelium* during vegetative growth and development using TRIzol method. To quantify *adgf* expression, qRT-PCR was carried out with *rnlA* as a control and the fold change was calculated accordingly. Time points are shown in hours (bottom). Error bars represent the mean and SEM (n = 3). **E)** RT-PCR analysis was performed to check the expression of the isoforms of ADA during 16 h in the mutant.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Bioinformatic analyses of ADGF

A) BLAST analysis of ADGF. ADGF belongs to the metallo dependent hydrolases superfamily. **B)** SMART analysis of different ADA domains within ADGF. ADGF protein has an adenosine deaminase-ADA domain and a N-terminal deaminase domain which is similar to the human ADA2. **Multiple sequence alignment of *Dictyostelium* ADGF with ADGF from other organisms. C)** The shaded region depicts the N-terminal signal sequence characteristic of extracellular proteins. **D)** The active site residue is highlighted in red. Active site residue is conserved between *D.discoideum* and human *ada2*. **E)** Phylogenetic analysis of ADGF across different organisms. Maximum likelihood method was used for constructing the tree using MEGAX (Molecular Evolutionary Genetic Analysis X). **Structural Comparison of human ADA2 and *Dictyostelium* ADGF.** Identical tertiary structures of human ADA2 and *Dictyostelium* ADGF. **F)** ADA2 (CECR1) *Homo sapiens* and **G)** ADGF *Dictyostelium discoideum* have many structural similarities. **H)** Alignment of *Dictyostelium* ADGF with Human ADA2 (CECR1).

Figure 3

Figure 3. Aggregates formed by *adgf⁻* mutants are larger in size

A) The graph shows the number of aggregates formed by WT and *adgf⁻* and their respective mound size. The values represent mean ± S.E; n=3. Significance level is indicated as *p< 0.05, **p< 0.01, ***p< 0.001, ****p< 0.0001. (Student's t-test). **B)** Expression levels of genes countin (*ctn*) and small aggregates (*smlA*) during aggregation in *adgf⁻* compared to WT. *rnlA* was used as the internal control in the realtime PCR. **C)** WT and *adgf⁻* cells were developed on KK2 agar, and after 16 h, the multicellular mounds/slugs were dissociated by vigorous vortexing in KK2 buffer. Individual cells were counted using a hemocytometer and resuspended in a phosphate buffer. Non-adherent single cells were counted 45 min after incubation. The percent cell-cell adhesion was plotted by normalizing the values to the non-adherent WT count to 100%. Error bars represent the mean ± SEM (n=3). Cell-cell adhesion, but not cAMP chemotaxis, is significantly impaired in *adgf⁻*. **D)** qRT-PCR analysis of cadherin (*cadA*) and contact site (*csA*) during aggregation. The fold-change in RNA transcript levels is relative to WT at the indicated time points. *rnlA* was used as the internal control (n=3). ns = not significant. **E)** Under agarose chemotaxis assay: The average cell speed in response to 10 μM cAMP was recorded. The graph represents the mean ± SEM (n=3). **Developmental phenotype of *adgf⁻*. F)** WT and *adgf⁻* cells were washed, plated on 1% KK2 agar plates at a density of 5×10^5 cells/cm², incubated in a dark, moist chamber and images were taken at different time intervals. **G)** WT cells treated with 100 nM of DCF mimicked the mound arrest phenotype of the mutant. The time points are indicated in hours at the top of the figure. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3). **H)** WT and *adgf⁻* cells after 36 h of development. Scale bar: 0.5 mm; (n=3). **I)** Fruiting bodies of WT and *adgf⁻*. Scale bar: 0.5 mm; (n=3).

Figure 4

Figure 4. Reduced ADA activity and high adenosine levels in *adgf⁻*

A) ADA activity in *Dictyostelium* cell extracts harvested at 16 h. The enzymatic assay for ADA was performed in *adgf⁻* with the corresponding WT control. Error bars represent the mean and SEM (n=3). Significance level is indicated as *p< 0.05, **p< 0.01. Adenosine quantification and expression profile of genes involved in adenosine formation. **B)** Quantification of adenosine levels. Level of significance is indicated as *p< 0.05, **p< 0.01, ***p< 0.001; (n=3). **C)** Expression profile of the genes, 5' nucleotidase (5'*nt*) and phosphodiesterases (*regA, pdsA*) involved in cAMP-to-adenosine conversion. The fold-change in RNA transcript levels is relative to WT at the indicated time points. *rnlA* was used as an internal control. Error bars represent the mean and SEM (n=3).

Figure 5

Figure 5. Overexpression of *adgf* rescued the mound arrest phenotype

A) *adgf* $^-$ mounds were treated with 5 U and 10 U ADA enzyme, plated for development and imaged at 16 h. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3). **B)** The full-length *adgf* gene was cloned in the vector pDXA-GFP2. The overexpression construct was verified by restriction digestion with HindIII and Kpn1 enzymes.**C)** Overexpression of *adgf* in the mutant rescued the mound arrest. **D)** Overexpression of *adgf* in the WT background. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3). The time points in hours are shown at the top. **WT cells reconstituted with *adgf* $^-$ rescued the *adgf* mutant phenotype. E)** Reconstitution of WT with *adgf* $^-$ in a 1:4 ratio showing a partial rescue and a full rescue of the *adgf* $^-$ mound arrest phenotype in a 1:1 ratio with WT. **F)** Development of *adgf* mutants in the presence of *adgf* $^-$ CM and WT CM on KK2 agar plates. WT CM rescued the mound arrest. **G)** Development of WT in the presence of WT CM and *adgf* $^-$ CM on KK2 agar plates. *adgf* $^-$ CM induced mound arrest in WT cells. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3).

Figure 6

A Ammonia levels

B *adgf*⁻   0.001M NH₃   0.01M NH₃

Compartmentalized Petri plate   **C** *adgf*⁻ with WT   **D** *adgf*⁻ / *adgf*⁻ CM treated with ADA   **E** *adgf*⁻ / 500 µM adenosine + 10U ADA

F *adgf*⁻   100 nM caffeine   1 µM caffeine

G *adgf*⁻   0.01M NH₃

Figure 6. Adenosine deamination reaction rescues the mound arrest of *adgf⁻*

A) Quantification of ammonia using the ammonia assay kit. WT and *adgf ⁻* mounds were harvested and lysed using a cell lysis buffer. Cell debris were removed by centrifugation, and the supernatant was used to quantify ammonia. **B)** Exposing *adgf ⁻* mounds to ammonia. Ammonia was generated by mixing 2 ml of NH_4Cl and 2 ml of 1N NaOH. The mixture was poured on top of the lid and the KK2 plates with the mounds were inverted and sealed thereafter. Images were taken 3.5 h post treatment. Dose dependent effect of ammonia on the rescue. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3). **C)** WT and *adgf ⁻* cells on either side of a compartmentalized Petri dish. **D)** *adgf ⁻* cells on one side of the plate in the presence of *adgf ⁻* CM treated with ADA enzyme in the other half of the dish. **E)** *adgf ⁻* cells on one side and KK2 buffer containing adenosine and ADA on the other half of the compartmentalized dish, rescued the mound defect. **Caffeine rescues the large mound size of *adgf* mutant**. **F)** *adgf⁻* cells were treated with different concentrations of caffeine (100 nM, 1 µM) while plating and images were taken 3.5 h post chemical treatment. Scale bar: 2 mm; n=3. **G)** Exposure to ammonia does not rescue the aggregate size of *adgf* mutant. *adgf ⁻* mounds were exposed to 0.01 M ammonia and images were taken 3.5 h post chemical treatment. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3).

Figure 7

Figure 7. Impaired cAMP signaling in *adgf*⁻

A) Total cAMP levels in WT and *adgf*⁻ mounds were quantified using cAMP-XP assay kit (Cell signaling, USA). Level of significance is indicated as *p< 0.05, **p< 0.01; (n=3). **B)** *acaA* expression was quantified using qRT-PCR. The error bars represent the mean ± SEM (n=3). **C)** *adgf*⁻ mounds. **D)** *adgf*⁻ mounds were treated with 2 mM pkA activator 8-Br-cAMP and imaged after 3.5 h. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3). **Treatment with cyclic di-GMP and caffeine rescues the mound arrest phenotype. E)** Addition of cyclic-di-GMP restored tip formation in *adgf*⁻ 4 h after the treatment. Scale bar: 1 mm; (n=3). **F)** PDE inhibitor (IBMX) treatment failed to rescue the *adgf*⁻ mound arrest. Scale bar 1 mm; (n=3). **G)** *adgf*⁻ mounds treated with caffeine formed tips 3.5 h post treatment. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3). **Altered cAMP wave pattern in *adgf*⁻. H)** Optical density wave images depicting cAMP wave generating centers in WT and *adgf*⁻. WT shows spiral wave pattern and *adgf*⁻ exhibits circular wave propagation.

Figure 8

Fig 8. Expression levels of *adgf*, *acaA* and *pde4* in response to adenosine and ammonia treatment

A) Expression levels of *adgf, acaA* and *pde4* in response to adenosine treatment (100 nM, 500 nM, 1 µM). **B)** Effect of different concentrations of ammonia (0.1 mM, 1 mM, 10 mM) on the expression levels of *adgf*, *acaA* and *pde4*. Levels of significance is indicated as *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, and ***$p<0.001$; (n=3). **Expression levels of prestalk, *ecmA*, *ecmB* and prespore, *pspA* cell type markers in *adgf* ⁻.** The expression profiles of **C)** prestalk (*ecmA*, *ecmB*) and prespore (*pspA*) specific markers in WT and *adgf*⁻ were quantified using qRT-PCR. Level of significance is indicated as *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$ and ****$p<0.0001$; (n=3). Three independent biological replicates were performed and the error bars represent the mean and SEM. The fold-change in RNA transcript levels is relative to WT at the indicated time points. *rnlA* was used as the internal control (n=3). ns = not significant

Figure 9

A

100% *adgf*⁻ DIL

20% *adgf*⁻ DIL –
80% AX4

B

100% AX4- DIL

20% AX4 DIL –
80% *adgf*⁻

C
30% AX4/*adgf*^OE
DIL – 70% *adgf*⁻

0.5 mm

D

8 h   16 h

F

20 U ADA

2 mm

E

5 U ADA   10 U ADA

Figure 9. Reconstitution of WT cells with *adgf⁻* following DIL staining

A-C) DIL labelled cells were reconstituted with unlabeled cells and plated for development. Images were captured during the migrating slug stage. The left panel shows bright field, and the right panel shows the corresponding fluorescence images. Scale bar: 0.5 mm; (n=3). ***adgf* acts downstream of histidine kinase *dhkD*. D)** *dhkD* ⁻mutants on KK2 agar plates. **E-F)** 5 U, 10 U or 20 U ADA was added on top of the mounds. Scale bar: 1 mm; (n=3). Images were taken 3.5 h post treatment. Addition of the ADA enzyme rescued the mound arrest phenotype in a dose dependent manner. Scale bar: 2 mm; (n=3).

Figure 10

Model of *adgf* function

Fig 10. Model illustrating the role of *adgf* in development

adgf supresses the expression of genes involved in cell adhesion, *cadA and csaA*. *adgf* regulates aggregate size and tip development by directly acting on adenosine, ammonia levels and cAMP signaling. Line ending in an arrow implies that the previous gene/factor either directly or indirectly raises the activity or levels of the second; line ending in a cross-bar indicates inhibition. Dotted lines indicate ADGF interacting with APRA, and the cytokinins zeatin, dihydro zeatin and isopentenyl adenine.