The Cell Density Factor CMF Regulates the Chemoattractant Receptor cAR1 in Dictyostelium

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Abstract. Starving Dictyostelium cells aggregate by chemotaxis to cAMP when a secreted protein called conditioned medium factor (CMF) reaches a threshold concentration. Cells expressing CMF antisense mRNA fail to aggregate and do not transduce signals from the cAMP receptor. Signal transduction and aggregation are restored by adding recombinant CMF. We show here that two other cAMP-induced events, the formation of a slow dissociating form of the cAMP receptor and the loss of ligand binding, which is the first step of ligand-induced receptor sequestration, also require CMF. Vegetative cells have very few CMF and cAMP receptors, while starved cells possess ~40,000 receptors for CMF and cAMP. Transformants overexpressing the cAMP receptor gene cAR1 show a 10-fold increase of [3H]cAMP binding and a similar increase of [125I]CMF binding; disruption of the cAR1 gene abolishes both cAMP and CMF binding. In wild-type cells, downregulation of cAR1 with high levels of cAMP also downregulates CMF binding, and CMF similarly downregulates cAMP and CMF binding. This suggests that the cAMP binding and CMF binding are closely linked. Binding of ~200 molecules of CMF to starved cells affects the affinity of the majority of the cAR1 cAMP receptors within 2 min, indicating that an amplifying mechanism allows one activated CMF receptor to regulate many cARs. In cells lacking the G-protein β subunit, cAMP induces a loss of cAMP binding, but not CMF binding, while CMF induces a reduction of CMF binding without affecting cAMP binding, suggesting that the linkage of the cell density-sensing CMF receptor and the chemoattractant cAMP receptor is through a G-protein.

Many multicellular organisms secrete molecules used to sense the size or cell-type composition of specific organs or the whole organism (Fuqua et al., 1994; Magnuson et al., 1994; Clarke and Gomer, 1995). Such molecules could be centrally involved in growth regulation, wound healing, and tissue regeneration, whereas disruption of a mass-sensing mechanism could lead to uncontrolled growth. In vertebrate embryos, transplantation of a single cell to an ectopic site can cause the cell to change its fate to match that site. When a group of cells is transplanted, however, they retain their original cell type. These and other observations suggest the widespread existence of signals that allow a cell to sense the local or total density of cells of its type (Gurdon et al., 1993; Gomer, 1994; Zhang et al., 1994).

Cell density-sensing factors have been identified in Dictyostelium. This organism normally exists as an individual amoeba that consumes bacteria living on soil. Upon starvation, cells aggregate using relayed pulses of cAMP as the chemoattractant. The aggregated cells develop into a fruiting body. During Dictyostelium development, the expression of some genes is dependent on the cell density. A protein called prestarvation factor accumulates during growth in proportion to the density of cells. Prestarvation factor sensing is inhibited by the presence of bacteria, and thus, a high level of detected prestarvation factor indicates that starvation is imminent (Rathi et al., 1991). During early starvation, a protein called conditioned medium factor (CMF) is secreted. When Dictyostelium cells are starved at low cell densities, cAMP can not induce developmental gene expression, which is restored by addition of purified CMF (Mehdy and Firtel, 1985; Gomer and Firtel, 1987; Gomer et al., 1991; Yuen et al., 1991). Starved cells only respond to cAMP when CMF reaches a threshold concentration. Cells starve asynchronously, and thus, this mechanism allows cells to simultaneously start cAMP-mediated cell aggregation after a high density of cells has starved.

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1. Abbreviations used in this paper: CMF, conditioned medium factor; IP3, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; PB, phosphate buffer.

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The chemotactant cAMP is detected by highly specific surface receptors that interact with multimeric G-proteins (Van Haastert, 1984). Four genes have been identified encoding cAMP receptors (cAR1–cAR4). The deduced amino acid sequences predict proteins that span the membrane seven times (Klein et al., 1988; Saxe et al., 1993; Johnson et al., 1993; Louis et al., 1994). Binding of cAMP to cAR1 is required for the activation of several second messenger pathways, including the G-protein-independent stimulation of calcium uptake, and the G-protein-dependent stimulation of adenyl cyclase (Milne and Coukell, 1991; Milne and Devreotes, 1993; Kesbeke et al., 1988; Kumagai et al., 1989; Sun et al., 1990; Papillo et al., 1992). Stimulation of phospholipase C is probably G-protein dependent, but it does not require the presence of the major cAMP receptor cAR1 (Bominaja and Van Haastert, 1994).

We have investigated how the cell density-sensing factor CMF interacts with cAMP signal transduction and reported previously that cAMP does not activate multiple second messenger pathways in cells with reduced levels of CMF (Yuen et al., 1995). These results suggested that CMF is required for an early step in the signal transduction cascade. In the present study, we investigated the relationship between binding of CMF and cAMP to surface receptors and show that (a) cAMP cannot activate cAR1 in the absence of CMF; (b) increasing or decreasing cAR1 levels increase or decrease both cAMP and CMF binding; (c) CMF and cAMP interact through an intermediate that allows the binding of each CMF molecule to affect hundreds of cAMP receptors; and (d) the interaction between the cAMP receptor and the CMF receptor requires the presence of a G-protein. The results suggest that signaling through the cell surface cAMP receptor requires the binding of two ligands to cells. Binding of CMF to its receptor does not induce responses, but it is permissive for cAMP to induce receptor-mediated second messenger responses, leading to directed cell movement and developmental gene expression.

Materials and Methods

Materials

[2,8-3H]cAMP (1.85 TBq/mmol) was obtained from Amersham Corp. (Arlington Heights, IL). Recombinant CMF and [32P]CMF were prepared and assayed for protein concentration and CMF activity as described in Jain and Gomer (1994).

Cells and Culture Conditions

The following cell lines were used: AX3 wild-type cells; K3 CMF antisense cells, obtained and recloned as described by Jain and Gomer (1994); and LW6 cells with a disruption of the G8 gene. AX3 cells expressing cAR1 in the vegetative stage from an actin promotor, and d280 and 1H1 cAR1-null cells (all kindly provided by Peter Devreotes, John Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD). Cells were grown in axenic medium supplemented with 10 μg/ml G418 (all strains except AX3). Cells were harvested in the late logarithmic phase with 10 mM phosphate buffer (PB) (KH2PO4, Na2HPO4, pH 6.5), washed twice, and starved in PB at a density of 106 cells per ml. To obtain CMF-depleted AX3 cells, starvation was at 10 μl of binding mixture (400 nM [3H]cAMP and 200 μM DTT), yielding a final concentration of 20 nM [3H]cAMP and 10 μM DTT in PB; the incubation was for 45 s at 0°C. The binding assay in ammonium sulfate contained 190 μl of the cell suspensions, 10 μl of the same binding mixture, 1 ml 90% saturated ammonium sulphate, and 50 μg BSA, yielding final concentrations of 3.33 nM [3H]cAMP, 1.67 nM DTT, and 75% saturated ammonium sulphate in PB; the incubation was for 5 min at 0°C. The binding reactions for both assays were terminated by centrifugation at 14,000 g for 30 s and 5 min, respectively: the supernatant was aspirated, and the radioactivity in the cell pellet was determined. Nonspecific binding was measured in the presence of 0.1 nM cAMP and was subtracted from all data; nonspecific binding was 22 ± 4 and 10 ± 1% of total binding of [3H]cAMP to aggregation-competent AX3 cells for the assay in phosphate buffer and ammonium sulphate, respectively.

CMF-binding Assay

Cells were resuspended to 2 × 107 cells per ml in PB with 200 ng/ml BSA. The binding incubations contained 190 μl of the cell suspension in a total volume of 200 μl containing 2 nM [3H]CMF (1.4 TBq/mmol = 30,000 cpm per assay); the binding reactions were terminated after 20 min by centrifugation of the cells through silicon oil or sucrose as described (Van Haastert et al., 1986; Jain and Gomer, 1994). The cell-associated radioactivity in the pellet was determined. Nonspecific binding was measured in the presence of 40 nM cCMF and was 61 ± 8% of total binding.

To examine binding of [3H]cAMP to CMF, 0.5 ml of PBMB (20 mM KH2PO4, 10 μM CaCl2, 1 mM MgCl2, 10 μg/ml BSA, pH 6.1) or 0.5 ml PBMB plus 1.5 × 10−8 M rCMF were dialyzed at 4°C in Spectrapor 12-kD cutoff membranes (Spectrum Medical Industries, Inc., Houston, TX) against 150 ml of PBMB containing 5 μCi of [3H]cAMP. After 20 h, the radioactivity in the dialysis bags was determined. Binding of [3H]cAMP to CMF was also determined by incubating 0.2 μCi [3H]cAMP in the absence or presence of 12 μg rCMF in 100 μl of PBMB with 2 mM KCl for 1 h at either 21°C or 4°C. Subsequently, the mixtures were spun through ultrafree MC 30-kD cutoff spin filters (Millipore Corp., Bedford, MA), and the retained radioactivity was determined.

Results

Cells were starved in the presence of very low concentrations of cAMP by either using a strain that expresses antisense CMF mRNA or by starving wild-type cells at low cell density, which prevents the accumulation of CMF above a threshold concentration. Previously, we have demonstrated that these CMF-depleted cells do not aggregate and are not chemotactic to cAMP; these cellular responses were restored upon addition of recombinant purified CMF (Yuen et al., 1995). cAMP induces several second messenger pathways, including the G-protein-dependent stimulation of calcium uptake; cAMP, cGMP, and IP3 accumulations. In CMF-depleted cells, cAMP no longer induced Ca2+ uptake or the accumulations of cAMP and cGMP, whereas the accumulation of IP3 was similar to that in wild-type cells. This phenotype of CMF-depleted cells is similar to that of cells with a disrupted cAR1 gene (Sun et al., 1990), and different from cells with a disrupted gene encoding the G-protein subunit Go2 (Kesbeke et al., 1988; Kumagai et al., 1989) or GoB (Lilly et al., 1993; Wu et al., 1995), which both show a normal Ca2+ uptake. Addition of CMF to CMF-depleted cells for as little as 10 s was sufficient to restore all the cAMP-induced second messenger responses (Yuen et al., 1995), indicating that the signal-transducing machinery was present but could not be activated by cAMP in CMF-depleted cells. The above observations suggest that in the cAMP signal transduction pathway, CMF may interact with the cAR1 cAMP receptor or with a protein that interacts with cAR1. The effect of CMF on the interaction between cAMP and its receptor was thus investigated in more detail.
The Receptors for CMF and cAMP Are Closely Linked

To investigate whether the ability of CMF to modulate the effects of cAMP is due to CMF binding to cAMP, we performed equilibrium dialysis and direct binding assays. Repeated assays under a variety of conditions (see Materials and Methods) invariably indicated that there was no detectable binding of cAMP to CMF with a \( K_d < 3 \times 10^{-5} \) M (data not shown). This then suggested that CMF binds to something on the cell surface that, in turn, modulates cAMP binding to cAR1.

We previously found that CMF binds to specific receptors on starved cells (Jain and Gomer, 1994). To examine the interaction between the cAMP receptor and the CMF receptor, we used high concentrations of the two ligands to downregulate their receptors. High levels of cAMP will downregulate cAR1 (Klein and Juliani, 1977), and we find that such treatment also downregulated CMF binding (Table I). Similarly, treatment of cells with CMF caused a downregulation of its binding, as well as a downregulation of cAMP binding. The ability of either ligand to downregulate both receptors suggests that cAR1 and the CMF receptor are coupled.

Vegetative Dictyostelium cells contain low but detectable amounts of cAMP and CMF receptors. Starvation induces the accumulation of both cAMP receptors and CMF receptors, and after 5 h, there are \( \sim 40,000 \) cAR1 and CMF receptors (Klein et al., 1988; Jain and Gomer, 1994). In postvegetative cells starved for 30 min, cAMP binding was 10\%, and CMF binding was 29\%, compared with the respective binding to 5-h starved cells (Table II). Transformants expressing cAR1 from an actin promoter showed \( \sim 10\)-fold increased levels of both cAMP binding and CMF binding in postvegetative cells. Furthermore, starved cells with a disrupted cAR1 gene showed a strong reduction in both cAMP binding and CMF binding. Finally, as described above, when wild-type cells starved at high cell density for 5 h were exposed to 1 mM cAMP for 1 h to induce downregulation of cAR1, cAMP binding and CMF binding were both reduced. These experiments reveal that the expressions of cAR1 and the CMF receptor are tightly coregulated.

Alteration of the cAMP Receptor Requires CMF

Binding experiments have revealed the existence of different kinetic forms of the cAMP receptor (Van Haastert, 1984). These forms show different affinities and/or dissociation kinetics. At least part of this heterogeneity of cAMP binding is due to the interaction of cAR1 with other proteins. A brief exposure of cells to cAMP (up to 1 min) leads to a reduction of the affinity and dissociation rate of the cAMP receptor complex. These changes are induced in membranes from wild-type cells by GTP\( \gamma \)S, but are absent in mutants lacking the G-protein subunits Gα2 or Gβ, suggesting that the changes of cAMP binding to cells are attributed to the activation of a G-protein (Van Haastert et al., 1986; Kesbeke et al., 1988; Wu et al., 1995). Longer incubation of cells with cAMP (up to 15 min) results in the loss of cAMP binding to cells, while the receptor protein is still present on the cell surface (Klein et al., 1977; Van Haastert et al., 1992). All these cAMP-induced alterations of cAMP binding are easily detectable in phosphate buffer. However, when cAMP binding is measured in nearly saturated ammonium sulphate, all of this variation disappears, probably because ammonium sulphate disrupts protein–protein interactions (Van Haastert, 1985; Khachatryan et al., 1987).

To examine the requirement of CMF for modulation of the cAMP receptor, we measured the different receptor forms in CMF-depleted cells. In saturated ammonium sulphate, no differences of cAMP binding to control cells and CMF-depleted cells are detected (Fig. 1). In phosphate buffer, however, binding of cAMP to CMF-depleted cells was significantly increased compared with control cells.

### Table I. The Binding of [\(^{3}H\)]cAMP and [\(^{32}P\)]CMF to Cells Pretreated with cAMP or CMF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pretreatment</th>
<th>[(^{3}H)]cAMP binding</th>
<th>[(^{32}P)]CMF binding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1 mM cAMP</td>
<td>42 ± 10</td>
<td>24 ± 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1 ng/ml CMF</td>
<td>67 ± 20</td>
<td>33 ± 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 ng/ml CMF</td>
<td>70 ± 16</td>
<td>38 ± 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300 ng/ml CMF</td>
<td>69 ± 16</td>
<td>30 ± 16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AX4 cells were starved for 6 h in shaking culture at a density of \( 10^{7} \) cells per ml. The indicated amounts of cAMP or CMF were then added to the cultures, and control cells were treated with buffer. After 40 min (60 min for the pretreatment with cAMP), the cells were harvested and extensively washed. Binding of [\(^{3}H\)]cAMP in the presence of nearly saturated ammonium sulphate and binding of [\(^{32}P\)]CMF were determined in parallel as described in Materials and Methods. Data shown are the means and SD of three independent experiments, and are expressed as percentage of the binding of [\(^{3}H\)]cAMP or [\(^{32}P\)]CMF to cells pretreated with buffer.

### Table II. [\(^{3}H\)]cAMP and [\(^{32}P\)]CMF Binding to Cells Expressing Different Levels of cAR1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cells</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>[(^{3}H)]cAMP binding</th>
<th>[(^{32}P)]CMF binding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AX3</td>
<td>Agg</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AX3</td>
<td>Post-Veg</td>
<td>10 ± 5</td>
<td>29 ± 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cAR1( ^{\text{null}} )</td>
<td>Post-Veg</td>
<td>164 ± 28</td>
<td>209 ± 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AX3</td>
<td>Agg</td>
<td>9 ± 13</td>
<td>18 ± 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AX3</td>
<td>Agg/DR</td>
<td>13 ± 7</td>
<td>7 ± 11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cells at the indicated stage of development were assayed in parallel for the binding of [\(^{3}H\)]CMF and [\(^{3}H\)]cAMP; 100\% binding is defined as the binding of [\(^{3}H\)]CMF or [\(^{3}H\)]cAMP to aggregation-competent wild-type AX3 cells. Data shown are the means and SD of four independent experiments.

### Table III. cAMP Binding and CMF Binding to Gβ-Null Cells Pretreated with cAMP or CMF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cell</th>
<th>Pretreatment</th>
<th>cAMP binding</th>
<th>CMF binding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AX4</td>
<td>PB</td>
<td>100 (def)</td>
<td>100 (def)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cAMP</td>
<td>29 ± 5</td>
<td>38 ± 13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMF</td>
<td>70 ± 16</td>
<td>38 ± 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gβ</td>
<td>PB</td>
<td>100 (def)</td>
<td>100 (def)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cAMP</td>
<td>45 ± 10</td>
<td>145 ± 44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMF</td>
<td>98 ± 3</td>
<td>44 ± 27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AX4 cells and transformants with a deletion of the G-protein β subunit were treated as described in Table I with PB, 0.1 mM cAMP, or 1 ng/ml CMF. The data shown are the means and standard errors of the mean of four (pretreated with cAMP) or five (pretreated with CMF) independent experiments. The binding of [\(^{3}H\)]cAMP or [\(^{32}P\)]CMF to cells treated with PB is defined (def) as 100\% for each cell line.
Addition of CMF induced a time- and dose-dependent decrease of cAMP binding (Fig. 1, A and B). In this experiment, wild-type cells were starved at low cell density. Cells without added CMF showed a slow decrease of cAMP binding with a half-maximal effect at 5.7 min. During the binding experiment, these cells are expected to secrete CMF at a rate of 12 molecules per cell per min, resulting in a CMF concentration of 0.4 ng/ml at 5.7 min (Yuen and Gomer, 1994). The dose response measured at 3 min after CMF addition (Fig. 1 B) revealed a half-maximal effect at ~0.2 ng/ml of added CMF; taking into account that during 3 min 0.24 ng/ml CMF is secreted, this observation implies that a half-maximal reduction of cAMP binding to cAR1 is induced by ~0.4 ng/ml CMF. This is the CMF concentration that causes half-maximal cell differentiation (Jain et al., 1992). Since CMF does not affect cAMP binding in ammonium sulfate, these results suggest that CMF does not alter the amount of cAR1 protein, but that it affects its physical or functional state. This raises the question of whether cAMP can activate cAR1 in the absence of CMF.

An initial response of cAR1 to cAMP is the conversion of some of the receptors from a high affinity form A^H to a low affinity form A^L; other receptors convert from a fast dissociating form B^F to a slowly dissociating form B^SS. These changes of the kinetic properties of the receptor have been related to the activation of a G-protein (Van Haastert et al., 1986). A delayed response is a loss of cAMP-binding activity due to sequestration, the first step in the process of downregulation (Van Haastert et al., 1992). The formation of the low affinity receptor form A^L by cAMP was detected in Scatchard analysis of equilibrium cAMP binding to cAR1 (Fig. 2). The data indicate that the number and K_d of the high affinity sites on control and CMF-depleted cells were essentially identical. The
number of the low affinity sites was also similar, but their $K_d$ increased from $163 \pm 12$ to $363 \pm 85$ nM in the presence of CMF, indicating that CMF is required for the formation of the low affinity state $A^l$ of cAR1. Incubation of cells with 2 nM cAMP for 1 min induces the formation of the $B^S$ state; this response is undetectable in cells lacking the G-protein Go2 (Kesbeke et al., 1988). The fraction of cAR1 receptors converted to the $B^S$ form was $10 \pm 0.9\%$ in control cells and $2.6 \pm 1.3\%$ in CMF-depleted cells (Fig. 3). Preincubation of Dictyostelium cells with 0.1 mM cAMP for 15 min induced sequestration of $82.4 \pm 7.8\%$ of all receptors in control cells (Fig. 4); this response is still present in cells lacking the G-protein $\alpha_2$ or $\beta$ subunits (Kesbeke et al., 1988; Wu et al., 1995). However, in CMF-depleted cells, cAMP-mediated sequestration of cAR1 was only $21 \pm 17\%$ (Fig. 4). Thus, CMF is required to allow cAMP to induce changes of the cAR1 protein itself.

**The Interaction between CMF and cAMP Receptors**

To examine the nature of the linkage between the CMF receptor and the cAMP receptor, sequestration was examined in cells with a defective G-protein. Whereas downregulation of wild-type cells with cAMP or CMF induced a reduction of both cAMP binding and CMF binding, this was not observed in cells with a deletion of the G-protein $\beta$ subunit. Pretreatment of these cells with cAMP reduced cAMP binding, but it did not affect CMF binding. Conversely, pretreatment with CMF reduced CMF binding but not cAMP binding. Thus, in the absence of G-protein activation, a ligand induces a loss of its own binding, but it has no effect on the binding of the other ligand. The simplest interpretation is that cAMP and CMF bind to separate but closely linked receptors; communication between these receptors requires the activation of a G-protein.

**Discussion**

We have previously shown that CMF is required for cell aggregation. Cells without CMF do not show cAMP-mediated chemotaxis or the activation of several second messengers. cAMP binds to a G-protein-coupled seven-transmembrane receptor. CMF is required for both G-protein–dependent (chemotaxis, cAMP response, and cGMP response) and G-protein–independent (Ca$^{2+}$ uptake) responses (Yuen et al., 1995). All these responses are mediated by the major cAMP receptor cAR1. CMF is not required for cAMP binding to cAR1, indicating that CMF acts downstream of the binding of cAMP to cAR1. Interestingly, the cAMP-induced increase of IP$_3$, which is G-protein dependent but cAR1 independent, still occurs in cells...
without CMF (Bominaar and Van Haastert, 1994; Yuen et al., 1995). Thus, the signal transduction phenotype of CMF-depleted cells somewhat resembles that of cAR1-null cells. In this study, we find that CMF is required not only for the stimulation of second messenger responses, but also for cAMP-mediated alterations of the cAR1 protein itself. In control cells, cAMP induces the alteration of the affinity and dissociation rates of cAR1, which are mediated in membranes by GTP$\gamma$S and are absent in cells with a deletion of the G-protein subunits Ga2 or Gb (Kesbeke et al., 1988; Kumagai et al., 1989; Wu et al., 1995). These combined data suggest that in cells without CMF, cAMP binding to the receptor cAR1 does not lead to the interaction and activation of the G-protein. In control cells, cAMP also induces the loss of ligand binding, which is probably the first step in a process of receptor sequestration and downregulation. Loss of ligand binding does not require the activation of a G-protein, as it is unaltered in cells lacking Ga2 or Gb. In cells without CMF, CAMP does not induce loss of ligand binding. Since both G-protein-dependent and G-protein-independent alterations of cAR1, as well as responses, require CMF, it appears that CMF primarily regulates the activation of the cAR1 protein itself and indirectly regulates the activation of the G-protein by the activated cAR1.

We tested the hypothesis that CMF may directly bind to cAR1 and observed a close correlation between CAMP and CMF binding to cells with a 20-fold difference of cAR1 expression; this large variation in cAR1 levels was obtained by overexpression of cAR1 during growth, inactivation of the cAR1 gene by homologous recombination, or downregulation of cAR1 by prolonged exposure of wild-type cells to CAMP. Furthermore, we observed that CMF also can induce downregulation of both CMF and cAMP binding. This close correlation between CAMP and CMF binding may suggest that the cAMP receptor cAR1 and the CMF receptor are the same protein. Nevertheless, we investigated the possibility that CMF binds to another receptor protein, and that the expression of the CMF receptor is under the tight control of the expression of cAR1, both in transformants that overexpress cAR1, in cAR1-null cells, and in wild-type cells where cAR1 is downregulated by excess CAMP. We observed that CMF at a concentration of 1 ng/ml (12.5 pm) is sufficient to downregulate half of the CAMP receptors; taking a dissociation constant of 2.1 nM for the 39,000 CAMP receptors (Jain and Gomer, 1994), and assuming binding equilibrium, this would imply that 200 occupied CMF receptors can downregulate 20,000 CAMP receptors. Secondly, in cells with a disruption of the Gb subunit, CAMP induces a reduction of CAMP-binding activity but no reduction of CMF-binding activity; and vice versa, CMF induces a reduction of CAMP-binding activity but has no effect on CAMP-binding activity. These observations strongly suggest that the CAMP receptor and the CMF receptor are two different proteins that are coupled via a G-protein.

In the absence of CMF, CAMP still binds to cAR1, but no cAR1-mediated responses are induced by CAMP. CMF alone has no effect on the levels of second messengers in Dictyostelium. Thus, CMF is an essential coactivator of the CAMP receptor. This implies that during Dictyostelium development, the CAMP sensory transduction machinery including cAR1, G-proteins, and effector enzymes are expressed, but cells must wait for CMF to accumulate above a threshold level to allow CAMP to become active as a chemoattractant. This provides the mechanism by which groups of cells communicate their density and collective state of starvation. CMF functions as a cell density-sensing factor by permitting cAR1 to be sensitive to CAMP. The dual control of a G-protein–coupled receptor by activating and permissive signals could be a general mechanism for cell density sensing.

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