# The Surface Cyclic AMP Receptors, cAR1, cAR2, and cAR3, Promote Ca<sup>2+</sup> Influx in *Dictyostelium discoideum* by a $G_{\alpha}$ 2-Independent Mechanism

Jacqueline L. Milne and Peter N. Devreotes

Department of Biological Chemistry, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland 21205

Submitted October 12, 1992; Accepted January 21, 1993

Activation of surface folate receptors or cyclic AMP (cAMP) receptor (cAR) 1 in *Dictyostelium* triggers within 5–10 s an influx of extracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> that continues for 20 s. To further characterize the receptor-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry, we analyzed <sup>45</sup>Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake in amoebas overexpressing cAR2 or cAR3, cARs present during multicellular development. Both receptors induced a cAMP-dependent Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake that had comparable kinetics, ion selectivity, and inhibitor profiles as folate- and cAR1-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake. Analysis of mutants indicated that receptor-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry does not require G protein  $\alpha$  subunits  $G_{\alpha}1$ ,  $G_{\alpha}2$ ,  $G_{\alpha}3$ ,  $G_{\alpha}4$ ,  $G_{\alpha}7$ , or  $G_{\alpha}8$ . Overexpression of cAR1 or cAR3 in  $g_{\alpha}2^-$  cells did not restore certain  $G_{\alpha}2$ -dependent events, such as aggregation, or cAMP-mediated activation of adenylate and guanylate cyclases, but these strains displayed a cAMP-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx with kinetics comparable to wild-type aggregation-competent cells. These results suggest that a plasma membrane-associated Ca<sup>2+</sup>-influx system may be activated by at least four distinct chemoreceptors during *Dictyostelium* development and that the response may be independent of G proteins.

#### INTRODUCTION

The cellular slime mold Dictyostelium discoideum is amenable for biochemical and genetic studies on the role of transmembrane signaling pathways in growth and development. Growing amoebas of this organism live as single cells and respond chemotactically to folate, a compound secreted by the bacterial food source (Pan et al., 1972). After nutrient exhaustion, cells develop the ability to periodically synthesize and secrete cyclic AMP (cAMP).1 These oscillations of extracellular cAMP are relayed to more distal cells, and the resulting chemical waves cause amoebas to move toward the aggregation center. Approximately 30 cAMP oscillations are required to give rise to a multicellular aggregate of  $\sim 10^5$ cells, which then undergoes a program of events involving differentiation and morphogenesis, resulting in the formation of a fruiting body (reviewed in Devreotes, 1982).

The folate- and cAMP-mediated chemosensory pathways of Dictyostelium appear to be analogous to the transmembrane signaling pathways of higher eukaryotic cells. A cAMP stimulus elicits a fast increase in inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (Europe-Finner and Newell, 1987; Van Haastert et al., 1989) and a slower increase in intracellular cAMP (Wurster et al., 1977), resulting from activation of phospholipase C (Europe-Finner et al., 1989) and adenylate cyclase activities (Roos and Gerisch, 1976), respectively. Folate and cAMP also trigger several common events, including a transient elevation of intracellular cyclic GMP (cGMP) (Mato et al., 1977b) and an influx of extracellular Ca2+ (Wick et al., 1978; Bumann et al., 1984; Milne and Coukell, 1991). Biochemical evidence suggests that both chemoreceptors couple to effector enzymes through intermediary guanine nucleotide-binding proteins (G proteins) (Janssens and Van Haastert, 1987; Van Haastert and Devreotes, 1993). The major class of cAMP binding sites of aggregating cells has been cloned. This cAMP receptor (cAR) 1 possesses seven transmembrane-spanning domains, a topology comparable with that of mammalian G protein-coupled receptors such as rhodopsin (Klein et al.,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Abbreviations used: cAMP, cyclic AMP; cAR, cAMP receptor; CCCP, carbonylcyanide m-chlorophenylhydrazone; Fgd A, Frigid A; cGMP, cyclic GMP.

1988). More recently, genes encoding three related cAMP receptors, which are homologous to cAR1 and expressed during multicellular development (cAR2, cAR3, and cAR4), have been isolated (Saxe et al., 1991, 1992; Johnson et al., 1992a; Louis, Ginsburg, and Kimmel, personal communication). Eight distinct G protein  $\alpha$  subunits (Pupillo et al., 1989; Hadwiger et al., 1991; Wu and Devreotes, 1991; Pupillo and Devreotes, unpublished data) and a single G protein  $\beta$  subunit (Pupillo et al., 1988), which display considerable homology with their respective mammalian counterparts, also have been cloned. Taken together, these findings strongly implicate the importance of G protein-mediated signaling pathways during Dictyostelium development.

The clearest example of receptor/G protein/effector coupling in Dictyostelium derives from analysis of mutants of the complementation group Frigid A (Fgd A) (Coukell et al., 1983), which are defective in the G protein α subunit Ga2 (Firtel et al., 1989). Vegetative Fgd A cells exhibit normal folate-induced signaling events and respond chemotactically to folate (Kesbeke et al., 1990). Developing amoebas express cAMP binding sites (Kesbeke et al., 1988) but fail to undergo chemotaxis (Coukell et al., 1983) or to synthesize cAMP, cGMP (Kesbeke et al., 1988), or inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (Snaar-Jagalska et al., 1988) in response to exogenous cAMP. These findings have led to the proposal that cAR1 activates certain effectors through G<sub>α</sub>2. On the other hand, when Fgd A mutants were repeatedly stimulated with cAMP, they eventually exhibited low but reproducible levels of cAMP-stimulated Ca2+ entry (Milne and Coukell, 1991), suggesting that certain cARmediated events do not require Ga2. In this study, we test whether cAR1 triggers separate Ga2-dependent and G<sub>α</sub>2-independent signaling pathways by characterizing cAMP-activated Ca2+ influx in ga2- (Fgd A) cells overexpressing cAMP receptors. In addition, we have assessed whether other G protein α subunits, or cARs other than cAR1, regulate Ca2+ influx in this organism. Our results suggest that cAR1, cAR2, cAR3, and the folate receptor promote Ca2+ entry through a pathway that is independent of each of the examined G protein a subunits.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Materials

Materials used and their sources were as follows: cGMP [1251] scintillation proximity assay system (Amersham, Arlington Heights, IL); 65CaCl<sub>2</sub> (8.0–9.9 mCi/mg) and [1251]Protein A (8.7 μCi/μg) (ICN Biomedicals, Irvine, CA); [3H]cAMP, ammonium salt (31.4 Ci/mmol)(New England Nuclear, Boston, MA); CoCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O, CdCl<sub>2</sub>, folate, and Ponceau S concentrate (Sigma Chemical, St. Louis, MO); nitrocellulose, pore size 0.45 μm (Schleicher & Schuell, Keene, NH). Other materials were of analytical grade and purchased from the suppliers indicated in Milne and Coukell (1991).

#### Strains and Culture Conditions

The following Dictyostelium strains were used in this study: AX3 (Williams et al., 1974) and AX3 transformed with plasmid pBS18B6 con-

taining the cAR1 gene or transformed with a control vector lacking receptor sequence (Klein et al., 1988); Δ208 cells, a cAR1" mutant (Sun and Devreotes, 1991); Δ208 cells transformed with expression constructs containing cAR1, cAR2, or cAR3 (cAR1/Δ208, cAR2/Δ208, and cAR3/Δ208 cells, respectively) (Johnson et al., 1991, 1992b). Henceforth, Δ208 cells and Δ208 cells overexpressing cAR1, cAR2, or cAR3 will be called cAR1", cAR1/cAR1", cAR2/cAR1", and cAR3/ cAR1-, respectively. Null mutants of different G protein α subunits were also used: MP2, HPS400-derived ga2 cells (provided by M. Pupillo, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI); MP3, HPS400-derived g<sub>a</sub>3- cells (Pupillo and Devreotes, unpublished data); JH142, JH8derived ga4 (Hadwiger and Firtel, 1992), JH177, ga4 cells expressing wild-type levels of Go4, and control kAX3 (provided by J. Hadwiger and R. A. Firtel, University of California, San Diego, CA); LW1, JH10derived ga7- cells and LW2, a random integrant control; LW3, JH10derived g.8- cells and LW4, a random integrant control (Wu and Devreotes, unpublished data); JM1 and JM3, MP2 cells overexpressing cAR1 and cAR3, respectively (see below)

AX3 transformants, cAR1/cAR1<sup>-</sup>, cAR2/cAR1<sup>-</sup>, cAR3/cAR1<sup>-</sup>, JM1, and JM3 were grown axenically to a density of 2.5–5 × 10<sup>6</sup> cells/ml in liquid HL5 medium (Watts and Ashworth, 1970) supplemented with 30 μg dihydrostreptomycin/ml and 20 μg Geneticin/ml. Axenic JH177 cultures contained 5 μg Geneticin/ml. AX3, cAR1<sup>-</sup>, MP2, MP3, LW1, LW2, LW3, and LW4 were cultured under similar conditions in the absence of Geneticin. kAX3 and JH142 were grown in association with Klebsiella aerogenes on SM agar plates (Sussman, 1987). Certain strains (JH177, MP3, LW1, LW2, LW3, and LW4) were also grown on plates with bacteria in experiments to measure folate-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup>

Aggregation-competent amoebas of strains AX3, kAX3, MP3, JH142, LW1, LW2, LW3, and LW4 were obtained by treating the cells for 6–7 h with pulses of exogenous cAMP (Devreotes et al., 1987). JM1 and JM3 cells were starved (22°C) on nonnutrient agar plates as described (Devreotes et al., 1987).

### Transformation Procedure

To construct JM1 and JM3 cells, vegetative MP2 amoebas were transformed with pBS18B6 (Klein et al., 1988) or pB18cAR3 (Johnson et al., 1992b) using the procedure of Dynes and Firtel (1989), except that the cells were resuspended in 1 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>/NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 250 mM sucrose (pH 6.1), and electroporated using a Bio-Rad (Richmond, CA) Gene Pulser set at 1.2 kV, 200  $\Omega$ , and 3  $\mu$ F (0.2-cm electrode gap cuvette). Amoebas resistant to 20  $\mu$ g Geneticin/ml were selected as described (Dynes and Firtel, 1989).

#### Western Blot Analysis

To prepare whole cell extracts for immunoblotting of the cARs, cells  $(1\times10^6)$  washed once in 10 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (pH 6.1) were resuspended in sample buffer (Laemmli, 1970) and placed on ice. For immunoblot analysis of G<sub>o</sub>2, membranes from cells  $(5\times10^6)$  were prepared as described (Klein et al., 1987), resuspended in sample buffer, and boiled for 5 min. The protein samples were separated on 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gels, transferred electrophoretically to nitrocellulose, visualized using Ponceau S stain to ensure that each lane contained equivalent amounts of protein, and immunoblotted as described (Klein et al., 1987) using cAR1-specific (Klein et al., 1987), cAR3-specific (Johnson et al., 1992a), or G<sub>o</sub>2-specific (Gundersen and Devreotes, 1990) antiserum and a [ $^{125}$ I]Protein A detection system.

# Ca2+ Influx Assay

Unless indicated otherwise, amoebas (5  $\times$  10<sup>6</sup>) of the desired developmental stage were assayed for chemoattractant-induced <sup>45</sup>Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake as described by Milne and Coukell (1991), except that the assay medium contained 10  $\mu$ M Ca<sup>2+</sup>, and folate- and cAMP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake into cells was measured using a 100- $\mu$ M stimulus. Receptor-

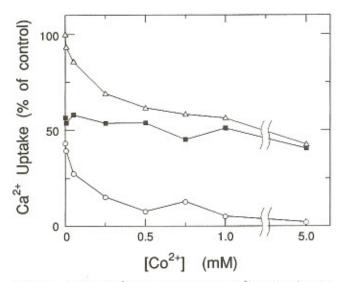


Figure 1. Effect of Co²+ concentration on the Ca²+ uptake of resting (○) and cAMP-treated (△) cAR3/cAR1− cells. Growth stage amoebas were assayed for 30 s for Ca²+ uptake as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS, except that the assay medium was supplemented with increasing concentrations of Co²+. (■) cAMP-stimulated Ca²+ uptake. Data from a single experiment are shown, which was repeated once with similar results.

induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry at each timepoint is equal to the amount of Ca<sup>2+</sup> taken up by stimulated cells minus the amount of Ca<sup>2+</sup> taken up by resting cells.

Preliminary results indicated that inclusion of CoCl<sub>2</sub> in the Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake medium increased the sensitivity of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake assay. Experiments were performed to determine the effect of CoCl<sub>2</sub> concentration on the Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake of resting and cAMP-stimulated cAR3/cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells. As shown in Figure 1, Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake into nonstimulated cells was inhibited ~5-fold by 0.5 mM CoCl<sub>2</sub> and ~14-fold by 5 mM CoCl<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, the amount of cAMP-stimulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake remained relatively constant at concentrations of CoCl<sub>2</sub> < 1 mM and then declined slightly. Occasionally, 1 mM (but not 0.5 mM) CoCl<sub>2</sub> inhibited stimulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry. Therefore, unless indicated otherwise, Ca<sup>2+</sup>-uptake assays were performed in the presence of 0.5 mM CoCl<sub>2</sub>. This ion concentration influenced neither the kinetics of cAMP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake nor the sensitivity of this response to stimulus in JM1, JM3, cAR2/cAR1<sup>-</sup>, or cAR3/cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells.

#### Additional Assays

[ $^3$ H]cAMP binding to cells was performed in duplicate using the ammonium sulfate assay of Van Haastert and Kien (1983), except that the final concentration of cAMP in the assay medium was 1  $\mu$ M.

cAMP-induced accumulation of cGMP (1 µM stimulus) was measured in duplicate using the procedure of Kesbeke et al. (1986) and a cGMP [1251] scintillation proximity assay system according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Protein was measured as described by Lowry et al. (1951) using bovine serum albumin as standard.

#### RESULTS

# A Ca<sup>2+</sup>-Influx Pathway can be Activated by Three Distinct Surface cAMP Receptors

When treated with cAMP, AX3 amoebas overexpressing cAR1 in the growth phase initially took up Ca<sup>2+</sup> at the same rate as nonstimulated cells. After a delay of  $\sim 10$  s, stimulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> accumulation rose sharply and continued for 20 s (Figure 2A). This time course is comparable with the cAMP-induced response of wild-type aggregation-competent amoebas (Milne and Coukell, 1991). In contrast, cells transformed with a control plasmid failed to show cAMP-triggered Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry.

Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake was next examined in a cAR1<sup>-</sup> cell line, which lacks significant surface cAMP binding sites (Sun and Devreotes, 1991), and in cAR1<sup>-</sup> derived cell lines,

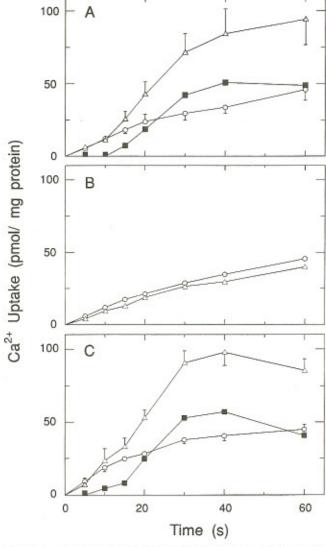


Figure 2. Time course of  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake into (A) cAR1-overexpressing AX3 amoebas, (B) cAR1 $^-$  cells, and (C) cAR1/cAR1 $^-$  cells. Growth stage amoebas were assayed for  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake under standard conditions as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Values are shown for  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake into resting (O) and cAMP-stimulated cells ( $\Delta$ ) and for cAMP-induced  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake ( $\blacksquare$ ). Results shown represent the means of data from (A) three, (B) two, and (C) three separate experiments. In A and C, bars represent SE.

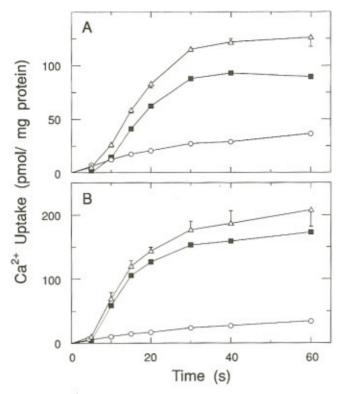


Figure 3. Time course of cAMP-induced  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake into (A) cAR2/cAR1 $^-$  and (B) cAR3/cAR1 $^-$  cells. Growth stage cells were assayed for  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS in the absence (O) or presence ( $\triangle$ ) of cAMP. ( $\blacksquare$ ) cAMP-stimulated  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake. Values are the means  $\pm$  SE from (A) five or (B) six separate experiments. (O) Error bars are within the symbol.

which overexpress cAR1, cAR2, or cAR3 (Johnson et al., 1991, 1992b). Growth-phase cAR1- cells treated with 100 µM cAMP did not accumulate more Ca2+ than nonstimulated cells (Figure 2B). Reintroduction of cAR1 into cAR1 cells (cAR1/cAR1 cells) restored both surface cAMP binding sites (42 ± 7-fold more sites than cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells, mean ± SE, n = 9) and cAMP-induced Ca2+ uptake (Figure 2C). The time course and magnitude of stimulated Ca2+ entry into cAR1/cAR1- cells was similar to that of cAR1-overexpressing AX3 cells. cAR1 cells expressing cAR2 (cAR2/cAR1- cells) or cAR3 (cAR3/cAR1 cells) exhibited high levels of surface cAMP binding sites (140 ± 17- and 91 ± 7-fold more sites than cAR1 $^-$  cells, respectively, mean  $\pm$  SE, n = 8). Both strains showed a pronounced cAMP-stimulated Ca2+ uptake that had kinetics very similar to the cAR1induced Ca2+ response (compare Figure 3 with Figure 2C) and the folate-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> response (Milne and Coukell, 1991).

Properties of cAR2- and cAR3-Mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> Influx The magnitude of receptor-activated Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx into cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells expressing cAR1, cAR2, or cAR3 was de-

pendent on the concentration of cAMP. As illustrated in Figure 4, the Ca2+ responses of cAR1/cAR1- and cAR3/cAR1 amoebas exhibited similar requirements for cAMP stimulus. Ten to 30 nM cAMP failed to elicit detectable influx, whereas 3-10 µM induced maximal levels of stimulated uptake. In both instances, the concentration of cAMP required for half-maximal Ca2+ uptake (EC50) was ~250 nM. In contrast, much higher levels of cAMP (3 µM) were needed to induce stimulated Ca2+ uptake in cAR2/cAR1- cells. Half-maximal and maximal Ca2+ uptake occurred at 20 and 300 μM cAMP, respectively. These dose-response curves reflect the relative affinities of the cARs for cAMP. cAR1 and cAR3 possess similar K<sub>d</sub>'s of ~290 and 490 nM, which are lower than that of cAR2 ( $K_d > 5 \mu M$ ) (Johnson et al., 1992b). Stimulated uptake in cAR1/cAR1 cells was 31  $\pm$  6 pmol Ca<sup>2+</sup>/mg protein (mean  $\pm$  SE, n = 5), in cAR2/ cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells was 90 ± 19 pmol Ca<sup>2+</sup>/mg protein (mean  $\pm$  SE, n = 3), and in cAR3/cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells was 204  $\pm$  28 pmol  $Ca^{2+}/mg$  protein (mean  $\pm$  SE, n = 4).

To explore whether maximum levels of cAMP-stimulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake reflected cAR expression levels or whether the cARs differed in their ability to promote Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx, levels of cAMP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake and of surface cAMP binding sites were measured in various cAR-expressing cell lines. As shown in Table 1, transformants overexpressing cAR1 (cAR1/cAR1<sup>-</sup> and JM1 cells) accumulated between 5 and 9 Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions per binding site. Similar results were obtained with cAR2/cAR1<sup>-</sup>

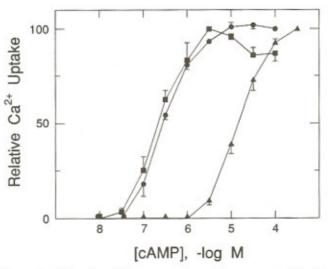


Figure 4. Effect of cAMP concentration on the magnitude of  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake into cAR1/cAR1 $^-$ ( $\blacksquare$ ), cAR2/cAR1 $^-$ ( $\triangle$ ), and cAR3/cAR1 $^-$ ( $\bigcirc$ ) cells. Growth stage amoebas were assayed for cAMP-dependent  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS, except that uptake was followed for 30 s.  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake values for each strain are expressed relative to the maximum uptake value measured in the presence of 3 ( $\blacksquare$ ), 100 ( $\bigcirc$ ), and 300 ( $\triangle$ )  $\mu$ M cAMP. Each point is the mean  $\pm$  SE of results obtained in five ( $\blacksquare$ ), four ( $\bigcirc$ ), and three ( $\triangle$ ) independent experiments.

Table 1. Correlation between surface cAMP binding and Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx in cell lines overexpressing cAR1, cAR2, or cAR3

Strain cAR1/cAR1	Ca <sup>2+</sup> uptake*		cAMP binding <sup>b</sup>	Ca <sup>2+</sup> uptake/ cAMP binding	n
	37 ±	6	$4 \pm 1$	9.3	9
JM1	54 ±	4	$11 \pm 2$	4.9	6
cAR2/cAR1-	88 ±	7	$14 \pm 2$	6.3	9
cAR3/cAR1-	154 ±	9	$8 \pm 2$	19.2	9
JM3	58 ±	11	$6 \pm 1$	9.7	5

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$  cAMP-stimulated Ca $^{2+}$  uptake was measured for 30 s as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Values are expressed as pmol Ca $^{2+}$  accumulated/mg protein and are the average  $\pm$  SE of the indicated number of experiments.

cells and cell lines overexpressing cAR3 (cAR3/cAR1<sup>-</sup> and JM3 cells).

The similarity between the time course of folate-, cAR1-, cAR2-, and cAR3-mediated Ca2+ entry (Figures 2 and 3) (Milne and Coukell, 1991) suggested that cAR2 and cAR3 may activate the same plasma membrane Ca2+-transport system that has been shown to mediate folate- and cAR1-stimulated Ca2+ entry (Milne and Coukell, 1991). To test this idea, cAMP-stimulated Ca2+ uptake into cAR2/cAR1 and cAR3/cAR1 cells was measured in an assay medium supplemented with compounds known to inhibit by ~50% the folate-induced Ca2+ uptake of vegetative amoebas and the cAMP-induced uptake of aggregating cells (Figure 5). The cAMP-mediated Ca2+ response of growth stage cAR2/cAR1 and cAR3/cAR1 cells was inhibited by ~50% by 10 µM Ruthenium Red or 2 µM carbonylcyanide m-chlorophenylhydrazone (CCCP). To determine the ion specificity of the cAR2- and cAR3-triggered Ca2+ uptake pathway, competition experiments were performed in the presence of 10  $\mu$ M Ca<sup>2+</sup> and 500  $\mu$ M of various test cations. Stimulated Ca2+ entry into cAR2/ cAR1 and cAR3/cAR1 cells was not influenced appreciably by Co2+, was inhibited moderately by Cd2+, and was blocked effectively by La3+ and Gd3+ (Figure 5). Additional experiments revealed that the cAR2- and cAR3-mediated responses were inhibited by 50% (IC<sub>50</sub>) by  $\sim 200-250 \mu M La^{3+}$  or  $Gd^{3+}$ . This ion selectivity matches that previously reported for the folate- and cAMP-induced Ca2+-uptake systems (Milne and Coukell, 1991). Taken together, these results suggest that the folate receptor, cAR1, cAR2, and cAR3, may couple to a single transporter to regulate Ca2+ influx across the plasma membrane.

# cAMP-Stimulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> Entry is Regulated Through a G<sub>a</sub>2-Independent Pathway

Recent evidence suggests that folate- and cAMP-mediated signal transduction pathways in Dictyostelium

involve G proteins (Janssens and Van Haastert, 1987; Van Haastert and Devreotes, 1993). The activation of Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx by a family of cAMP receptors that resemble known G protein-linked receptors (Klein et al., 1988; Saxe et al., 1991, 1992; Johnson et al., 1992a) suggests that Ca2+ entry also may require G protein(s). Previous experiments suggested that the G protein subunit Ga1 regulated neither folate- nor cAMP-induced Ca2+ uptake (Milne and Coukell, 1991). To investigate the possible involvement of other G protein subunits in this process, chemoattractant-stimulated Ca2+ entry was measured in several G protein null mutants and compared with the Ca2+ uptake of appropriate control strains. When  $g_{\alpha}3^{-}$ ,  $g_{\alpha}4^{-}$ ,  $g_{\alpha}7^{-}$ , or  $g_{\alpha}8^{-}$  cells were treated with folate (vegetative amoebas) or cAMP (aggregationcompetent amoebas), the kinetics of receptor-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake were similar to those of the control cells.

The G protein subunit  $G_{\alpha}2$  is the likely candidate transducer of cAR1-mediated  $Ca^{2+}$  entry because it is preferentially expressed during aggregation (Pupillo *et al.*, 1989) and is critical for several other cAMP-induced responses, including production of cAMP, cGMP, and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (Kesbeke *et al.*, 1988; Snaar-Jagalska *et al.*, 1988). Unexpectedly, it was found that when Fgd A mutants HC85 or JH104 (which are defective in the gene encoding for  $G_{\alpha}2$ ) (Firtel *et al.*, 1989) were pulsed extensively with cAMP, they exhibited low but reproducible levels of both surface cAMP binding sites and cAMP-stimulated  $Ca^{2+}$  entry (Milne and Coukell, 1991).

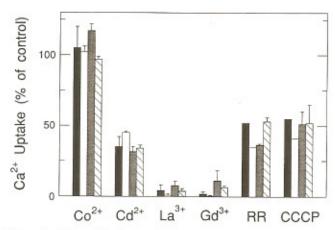
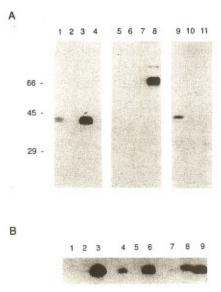


Figure 5. Effect of Ruthenium Red (RR), CCCP, and different cations on receptor-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake. cAMP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake into cAR2/cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells (stippled bars) and cAR3/cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells (striped bars) was measured for 30 s as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS, except that the assay medium contained no Co<sup>2+</sup> and was supplemented 500  $\mu$ M test cation, 10  $\mu$ M RR, or 2  $\mu$ M CCCP. Results are expressed relative to control samples not receiving test compounds and represent the average of four (stippled bars) or three (striped bars) experiments. Bars represent SE. Data depicting the effect of these compounds on folate-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake of vegetative cells (closed bars) and cAMP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake of aggregating cells (open bars) were taken from Milne and Coukell (1991).

b Surface cAMP binding was measured as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Values are expressed as pmol cAMP binding sites/ mg protein and represent the means ± SE of the indicated number of experiments.

To investigate further whether  $G_{\alpha}2$  is a component of the  $Ca^{2+}$ -entry system activated by cAR1 or by cAR3 (which is also expressed during aggregation),  $g_{\alpha}2^{-}$  cells overexpressing cAR1 or cAR3 were constructed by transformation of  $g_{\alpha}2^{-}$  cells with vectors containing cAR1 or cAR3 cDNA under the control of a constitutively active promoter. Stable transformant clones were isolated and screened for receptor expression by immunoblotting with polyclonal cAR1-or cAR3-specific antiserum. Clones exhibiting high levels of cAR1 (JM1 cells) or cAR3 (JM3 cells) were selected for further study.

The expression of cAR1 and cAR3 in JM1 and JM3 cells is illustrated in Figure 6A. Whole cell extracts of growth stage JM1 cells contained a 40-kDa band recognized by cAR1-specific antiserum (lane 3) (Klein et al., 1985). This band, indicative of cAR1 (Klein et al., 1985), was also present in pulsed AX3 cells (lane 1) but not in growth stage  $g_{\alpha}2^{-}$  or JM3 cells (lanes 2 and 4). AX3 and JM1 cells also contained a 43-kDa band (Milne and Devreotes, unpublished observation), which likely is the phosphorylated form of cAR1 (Klein et al., 1987). Analysis of the same samples using a cAR3-specific antiserum (lanes 5–8) indicated that JM3 cells (but not



**Figure 6.** Immunoblot analysis of various *Dictyostelium* strains. (A) Extracts of 6-h pulsed AX3 cells (lanes 1, 5, and 9) and growth stage  $g_{\alpha}2^{-}$  (lanes 2 and 6), JM1 (lanes 3, 7, and 10), and JM3 (lanes 4, 8, and 11) cells were prepared, fractionated, and immunoblotted using antibodies to cAR1 (lanes 1–4), cAR3 (lanes 5–8), and  $G_{\alpha}2$  (lanes 9–11) as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Numbers at the margin of the figure indicate the migration position of molecular weight standards expressed in kDa. (B) Developmental expression of cAR1 in AX3 (lanes 1, 4, and 7),  $g_{\alpha}2^{-}$  (lanes 2, 5, and 8), and JM1 (lanes 3, 6, and 9) cells. Amoebas treated with exogenous cAMP pulses were harvested at 0 h (lanes 1–3), 5.5 h (lanes 4–6), or 11 h (lanes 7–9), and cell lysates were prepared and analyzed by immunoblotting with cAR1-specific antiserum as described in A.

JM1,  $g_{\alpha}2^-$ , or 6-h pulsed AX3 cells) contained a 65-kDa band indicative of cAR3 (Johnson *et al.*, 1992a). Additional experiments using a  $G_{\alpha}2$ -specific polyclonal antiserum showed that membrane preparations of JM1 and JM3 cells did not contain detectable levels of  $G_{\alpha}2$  (lanes 10 and 11), whereas this 40-kDa protein was evident in pulsed AX3 amoebas (lane 9). [³H]cAMP binding studies indicated that vegetative JM1 and JM3 amoebas possessed high levels of surface cAMP binding sites. The former expressed (4.8  $\pm$  0.7, mean  $\pm$  SE, n = 9)  $\times$  10<sup>5</sup> sites/cell, levels that are  $\sim$ 25-fold higher than those of  $g_{\alpha}2^-$  cells. JM3 cells expressed (3.2  $\pm$  0.5, mean  $\pm$  SE, n = 5)  $\times$  10<sup>5</sup> sites/cell,  $\sim$ 20-fold more than the control cells.

The regulation of cAR1 in suspensions of developing AX3, JM1, and  $g_{\alpha}2^{-}$  cells is shown in Figure 6B. In AX3 cells, cAR1 expression reached a maximum at 5.5 h of starvation and declined at 11 h (lanes 1, 4, and 7), consistent with the findings of Klein *et al.* (1987). Growth stage JM1 cells expressed very high levels of cAR1, which declined slightly as the cells entered development and then remained constant (lanes 3, 6, and 9). In contrast, little or no detectable cAR1 was evident in  $g_{\alpha}2^{-}$  cells until between 5.5 and 11 h of starvation (lanes 2, 5, and 8).

Evidence suggests that cAMP-mediated regulation of certain effector enzymes is defective in ga2 cells starved for ~5−6 h (Kesbeke et al., 1988; Kumagai et al., 1991). However, because early developing ga2 amoebas express only low levels of cAR1 (Kesbeke et al., 1988) (Figure 6B), we sought to substantiate the role of G<sub>α</sub>2 in these signal transduction events. Accordingly, JM1 and JM3 cells were used to demonstrate a stringent requirement for G<sub>a</sub>2. For example, overexpression of cAR1 or cAR3 in ga2 cells did not restore normal cellular development on phosphate-buffered agar. Both strains remained aggregation deficient even after prolonged incubation. JM1 cells did not exhibit cAR1-mediated activation of adenylate cyclase (Pupillo et al., 1992). In addition, cGMP production was compared in growth stage JM1 cells and in aggregation stage AX3 cells. Although both strains showed high levels of cAMP binding sites, only AX3 cells displayed cAMP-stimulated cGMP production (30 pmol/mg protein 10 s after cAR activation, mean of values from 2 experiments).

Both JM1 and JM3 cells did show a cAR1-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry during growth phase (Figure 7,A and B) or after 5 h of starvation (Milne and Devreotes, unpublished observation), which possessed kinetics comparable with the cAMP-induced response of aggregation-competent wild-type cells (Milne and Coukell, 1991). The magnitude of stimulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake in both strains was similar to the cAMP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake of other cAR1- or cAR3-overexpressing cells (Table 1). In contrast, growth stage g<sub>a</sub>2<sup>-</sup> cells did not exhibit cAMP-stimulated Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry (Figure 7C).

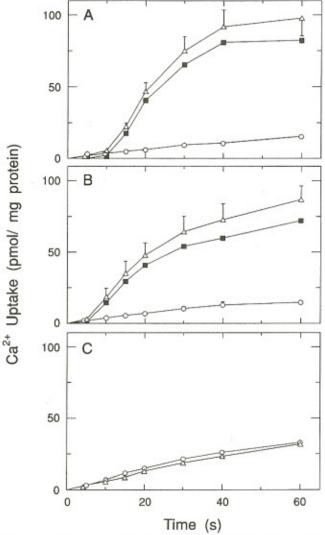


Figure 7. Time course of  $Ca^{2+}$  entry into (A) JM1 (B) JM3 and (C)  $g_a 2^-$  cells. Growth stage cells were assayed for  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake in the absence (O) or presence ( $\triangle$ ) of cAMP as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. ( $\blacksquare$ ) cAMP-stimulated  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake. Results represent the means of data from (A) four, (B) five, and (C) two separate experiments. In A and B, bars represent SE. (O) Error bars are within the symbol.

#### DISCUSSION

We have used a sensitive Ca<sup>2+</sup>-influx assay to investigate chemoreceptor-mediated signal transduction in *Dictyostelium*. Recent evidence indicates that folate (in growth stage cells) and cAMP (in aggregation stage cells) activate a similar Ca<sup>2+</sup>-entry pathway (Milne and Coukell, 1991). Our characterization of cAR1<sup>-</sup> cells overexpressing cAR1, cAR2, or cAR3 suggests that cARs normally present during multicellular development can promote Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx. Moreover, our findings suggest that cAR2 and cAR3 activate the same Ca<sup>2+</sup>-transport system as

that regulated by folate receptors during growth phase and cAR1 during aggregation. For example, the kinetics of Ca2+ influx mediated by each receptor appeared to be remarkably similar (Figures 2 and 3) (Milne and Coukell, 1991). Each Ca2+-influx system was inhibited ~50% by 10 µM Ruthenium Red and 2 µM CCCP (Figure 5), compounds that may act by depolarizing the plasma membrane and reducing the driving force for Ca2+ entry (Milne and Coukell, 1991). Because membrane depolarization is known to activate voltage-gated channels of mammalian cells (Tsien et al., 1987), these findings, together with the observations that these compounds do not alter the time course of folate- or cAR1-mediated Ca2+ entry (Milne and Coukell, 1991), suggest that each of the cARs and the folate receptor stimulate Ca2+ entry through a voltage-independent mechanism. This idea is supported by the findings that cAR1- and folate-induced Ca2+ uptake is not inhibited by high concentrations of the classical Ca2+-channel blockers diltiazem, nifedipine, nicardipine, methoxyverapamil, or verapamil (Milne and Coukell, 1991). Finally, ion competition experiments revealed that each receptor activated a Ca2+-entry system that was highly selective for the transport of Ca2+ over other di- and trivalent cations (Figure 5). Importantly, the cation blockade profile of the Ca2+-influx pathway is different from that of Dictyostelium Ca2+-adenosine triphosphatase pumps, which are inhibited effectively by low micromolar concentrations of La3+ and Cd2+ (Milne and Coukell, 1989).

The cAMP concentration dependence of cAR1-, cAR2-, and cAR3-stimulated Ca2+ influx suggests that these responses are directly proportional to the fraction of occupied receptors. The dose-response profiles of cAMP-stimulated Ca2+ entry into growth stage cAR1/ cAR1 and cAR3/cAR1 cells were similar with EC50's of ~200-250 nM (Figure 4). Under physiological cAMP binding conditions, the majority of surface binding sites on cAR1- and cAR3-overexpressing strains have comparable affinities with  $K_d$ 's of  $\sim 230$  and 490 nM, respectively (Johnson et al., 1992b). In contrast, the cAR2-overexpressing cells required much higher concentrations of cAMP for stimulated Ca2+ entry (EC50 = 20 μM) (Figure 4), consistent with the observation that these cells exhibit little detectable surface binding even at 5 µM [3H]cAMP (Johnson et al., 1992b). Although the threshold stimulus required to induce Ca2+ entry varied among the cARs, they promoted ion influx with similar effectiveness (5-20 Ca2+ ions/receptor) in the presence of saturating levels of cAMP (Table 1).

Analogous to higher eukaryotic systems, receptormediated changes in the amount and distribution of cellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> in *Dictyostelium* likely play a critical role in chemotaxis, cell differentiation, and morphogenesis (see references in Milne and Coukell, 1988; Coukell and Cameron, 1988; Van Duijn and Van Haastert, 1992). In this study, cAR1-, cAR2-, and cAR3-activated Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake was characterized in growth stage cells. However, it is probable that these receptors regulate Ca2+ fluxes when expressed in their normal physiological context. In aggregating cells, a cAMP stimulus leads to an influx of extracellular Ca2+ (Wick et al., 1978; Bumann et al., 1984; Milne and Coukell, 1991). cAR1, the major cAMP receptor present during aggregation, likely regulates Ca2+ influx during this developmental stage. However, cAR1 levels decline after 6-8 h of starvation (Klein et al., 1987), whereas cAMP-induced Ca2+ uptake remains constant until ≥14 h of development (Milne and Coukell, 1991). Ca2+ influx also occurs in intact slugs (Kuhtreiber and Jaffe, 1990), which accumulate higher levels of Ca2+ in prestalk cells than in prespore cells (Maeda and Maeda, 1973). These Ca2+ fluxes may be regulated by cAR3 and cAR2, which are maximally expressed in mound stage and slug stage cells, respectively (Johnson et al., 1992a; Saxe et al., 1992). It remains to be determined whether the Ca2+-influx system is activated by cAR4, which is also present during multicellular development (Louis, Ginsburg, and Kimmel, personal communication).

The regulation of Ca2+ influx in Dictyostelium by a family of cARs that resemble known G protein receptors (Klein et al., 1988; Saxe et al., 1991, 1992; Johnson et al., 1992a) suggests that this response may involve G proteins. The best characterized cAR, cAR1, appears to act through the G protein α subunit G<sub>α</sub>2 to regulate cAMP-induced synthesis of cAMP, cGMP (Kesbeke et al., 1988), and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (Snaar-Jagalska et al., 1988). Surprisingly, cAMP was found to induce a small Ca2+ influx in repeatedly stimulated ga2cells (Milne and Coukell, 1991). However, the role of Go2 in cAMP-mediated Ca2+ entry could not be evaluated in this initial study because the stimulated Ca2+ uptake was small and ga2 cells express low levels of cAR1. Analysis of growth stage JM1 cells, which express considerably higher levels of cAR1 than stimulated g<sub>a</sub>2<sup>-</sup> cells (Figure 6B), revealed that the time course and magnitude of stimulated Ca2+ influx in this strain was comparable with the Ca2+ response of wild-type aggregation-competent amoebas (compare Figure 7 with Figure 1 in Milne and Coukell, 1991). This finding indicates that G<sub>a</sub>2 is not required for cAR1-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry. In contrast, overexpression of cAR1 in JM1 cells failed to restore several G<sub>α</sub>2-dependent responses, including cAMP-induced stimulation of adenylate cyclase (Pupillo et al., 1992) and guanylate cyclase and cell aggregation.

Together, these results show that cAR1 activates certain effectors through Ga2 but it triggers Ca2+ influx through a Ga2-independent mechanism. It seems likely that different affinity states of cAR1 mediate Ga2dependent and -independent signal transduction. [3H]cAMP binding studies with cAR1-overexpressing cells show that ~25% of the surface cAMP binding sites possess an affinity of 30 nM, whereas the remainder possess an affinity of 230 nM (Johnson et al., 1992b).

The high-affinity state of cAR1 appears to regulate both adenylate and guanylate cyclase activities, which are responsive to low nanomolar cAMP (Mato et al., 1977a; Theibert et al., 1986). In contrast, the low affinity form of cAR1 may be necessary for the Ca2+ response, which is elicited by much higher stimulus concentrations in both wild-type aggregating cells (Milne and Coukell, 1991) and in growth stage cAR1/cAR1 cells (Figure 4). Our results with IM3 cells indicate that cAR3 can also activate normal Ca2+ influx through a Ga2-independent pathway. The cAMP dose dependency of cAR3-induced Ca2+ entry (Figure 4) suggests that the low affinity form of cAR3 (Johnson et al., 1992b) also

activates this response.

The functional domains of the cARs required for cAMP binding and for the binding and activation of G proteins remain to be defined. These receptors share considerable homology in the transmembrane-spanning regions, which may constitute the cAMP binding site, based on analogy to the β-adrenergic receptor and rhodopsin (Johnson et al., 1992a). Evidence from mammalian systems indicates that the ability of seven transmembrane domain receptors to interact with G proteins depends on the second and third cytoplasmic loops and a postulated fourth loop that arises by the insertion into the membrane of palmitate linked to cysteine residue(s) of the C-terminal domain (reviewed in Hargrave, 1991). Short stretches (~9-20) of amino acids in the C-terminal and N-terminal regions of the third intracellular loop appear to be important in determining the specificity of receptor/G-protein interactions (Kobilka et al., 1988; Lechleiter et al., 1990; Okamoto et al., 1991). Little is known about how G proteins couple to the Dictyostelium cARs, although the second and third cytoplasmic loops share extensive amino acid identity (Johnson et al., 1992a). This similarity suggests that a single G protein or a family of related G proteins may be involved in signal transduction through these receptors. However, it cannot be excluded that the few divergent amino acids in these regions may switch the specificity of G protein/receptor coupling.

It is unclear which G protein(s), if any, regulates the Ca2+-influx system. Characterization of null mutants of various G protein  $\alpha$  subunits indicates that folate- and cAMP-triggered Ca2+ entry does not require Ga1 (Milne and Coukell, 1991),  $G_{\alpha}2$ ,  $G_{\alpha}3$ ,  $G_{\alpha}4$ ,  $G_{\alpha}7$ , or  $G_{\alpha}8$ . Moreover, although the role of Ga5 and Ga6 in receptoractivated Ca2+ entry is not yet established, the expression profiles of these a subunits during development (Hadwiger et al., 1991; Wu and Devreotes, 1991) imply that neither may fulfill this function. It is possible that functionally redundant G proteins expressed at distinct times during development couple to the four chemoreceptors. However, we do not favor this idea because the eight  $\alpha$  subunits do not appear to group into distinct subclasses (Wu et al., 1992). In addition, although ga2cells express Ga1 and Ga3 (Pupillo and Devreotes, personal communication), and likely  $G_{\alpha}6$  and  $G_{\alpha}8$  (Wu and Devreotes, 1991), these G-protein subunits do not compensate for the absence of  $G_{\alpha}2$  and permit activation of  $G_{\alpha}2$ -dependent effector enzymes.

Certain mammalian  $G_{\beta\gamma}$  complexes have been shown to regulate downstream effectors, including ion channels (Jelsema and Axelrod, 1987; Logothetis *et al.*, 1987; Tang and Gilman, 1991; Katz *et al.*, 1992). *Dictyostelium* amoebas possess a single  $G_{\beta}$  subunit that is highly homologous to those of mammalian cells (Pupillo *et al.*, 1988). We are currently determining whether receptormediated  $Ca^{2+}$  entry requires G proteins using recently constructed  $g_{\beta}$  null cells (Lilly, Wu, Welker, and Devreotes, personal communication). If the cAR1-mediated  $Ca^{2+}$  response persists in these cells, then it would strongly reinforce our hypothesis that these seven transmembrane domain receptors can transduce certain signals independently of G proteins.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Drs. Richard Firtel, Jeffery Hadwiger, Maureen Pupillo, and Lijun Wu for providing strains used in this study; Dr. Ronald Johnson for providing the  $\Delta 208$ -derived cell lines, the cAR expression constructs, and cAR3-specific antiserum; and Dr. Robert Gundersen and Michael Caterina for providing  $G_{\rm e}2$ - and cAR1-specific antiserum. We also thank Dr. Barrie Coukell for critically reading the manuscript and Dr. Dale Hereld for assistance with the artwork. J.L.M. was a recipient of a Fellowship from the Medical Research Council of Canada. This work was supported by grant GM28007 to P.N.D.

# REFERENCES

Bumann, J., Wurster, B., and Malchow, D. (1984). Attractant-induced changes and oscillations of the extracellular Ca<sup>++</sup> concentration in suspensions of differentiating *Dictyostelium* cells. J. Cell Biol. 98, 173–178.

Coukell, M.B., and Cameron, A.M. (1988). Effects of suboptimal levels of extracellular calcium on the regulation of the cyclic AMP phosphodiesterase-inhibitor system and membrane differentiation in Dictyostelium discoideum. J. Cell Sci. 90, 691–700.

Coukell, M.B., Lappano, S., and Cameron, A.M. (1983). Isolation and characterization of cAMP unresponsive (frigid) aggregation-deficient mutants of *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Dev. Genet. 3, 283–297.

Devreotes, P.N. (1982). Chemotaxis. In: The Development of Dictyostelium discoideum, ed. W.F. Loomis, New York: Academic Press, 117– 168.

Devreotes, P., Fontana, D., Klein, P., Sherring, J., and Theibert, A. (1987). Transmembrane signalling in *Dictyostelium*. Methods Cell Biol. 28, 299–331.

Dynes, J.L., and Firtel, R.A. (1989). Molecular complementation of a genetic marker in *Dictyostelium* using a genomic DNA library. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86, 7966–7970.

Europe-Finner, G.N., Gammon, B., Wood, C.A., and Newell, P.C. (1989). Inositol tris- and polyphosphate formation during chemotaxis of *Dictyostelium*. J. Cell Sci. 93, 585–592.

Europe-Finner, G.N., and Newell, P.C. (1987). Cyclic AMP stimulates accumulation of inositol trisphosphate in *Dictyostelium*. J. Cell Sci. 87, 221–229. Firtel, R.A., Van Haastert, P.J.M., Kimmel, A.R., and Devreotes, P.N. (1989). G protein linked signal transduction pathways in development: Dictyostelium as an experimental system. Cell 58, 235–239.

Gundersen, R.E., and Devreotes, P.N. (1990). In vivo receptor-mediated phosphorylation of a G protein in Dictyostelium. Science 248, 591–593.

Hadwiger, J.A., and Firtel, R.A. (1992). Analysis of G<sub>a</sub>4, a G-protein subunit required for multicellular development in *Dictyostelium*. Genes & Dev. 6, 38–49.

Hadwiger, J.A., Wilkie, T.M., Strathmann, M., and Firtel, R.A. (1991). Identification of  $Dictyostelium\ G_{\alpha}$  genes expressed during multicellular development. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88, 8213–8217.

Hargrave, P.A. (1991). Seven-helix receptors. Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol. 1, 575–581.

Janssens, P.M.W., and Van Haastert, P.J.M. (1987). Molecular basis of transmembrane signal transduction in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Microbiol. Rev. 51, 396–418.

Jelsema, C.L., and Axelrod, J. (1987). Stimulation of phospholipase  $A_2$  activity in bovine rod outer segments by the  $\beta\gamma$  subunits of transducin and its inhibition by the  $\alpha$  subunit. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 84, 3623–3627.

Johnson, R.L., Saxe, C.L., Gollop, R., Kimmel, A.R., and Devreotes, P.N. (1992a). Identification and targeted gene disruption of cAR3, a cAMP receptor subtype expressed during multicellular stages of Dictyostelium development. Genes & Dev. 7, 273–282.

Johnson, R.L., Van Haastert, P.J.M., Kimmel, A.R., Saxe, C.L., Jastorff, B., and Devreotes, P.N. (1992b). The cyclic nucleotide specificity of three cAMP receptors in *Dictyostelium*. J. Biol. Chem. 267, 4600–4607.

Johnson, R.L., Vaughan, R.A., Caterina, M.J., Van Haastert, P.J.M., and Devreotes, P.N. (1991). Overexpression of the cAMP receptor 1 in growing *Dictyostelium* cells. Biochemistry 30, 6982–6986.

Katz, A., Wu, D., and Simon, M.I. (1992). Subunits  $\beta\gamma$  of heterotrimeric G protein activate  $\beta2$  isoform of phospholipase C. Nature 360, 686–689.

Kesbeke, F., Snaar-Jagalska, B.E., and Van Haastert, P.J.M. (1988). Signal transduction in *Dictyostelium fgd A* mutants with a defective interaction between surface cAMP receptors and a GTP-binding regulatory protein. J. Cell Biol. 107, 521–528.

Kesbeke, F., Van Haastert, P.J.M., De Wit, R.J.W., and Snaar-Jagalska, B.E. (1990). Chemotaxis to cyclic AMP and folic acid is mediated by different G proteins in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. J. Cell Sci. 96, 669– 673.

Kesbeke, F., Van Haastert, P.J.M., and Schaap, P. (1986). Cyclic AMP relay and cyclic AMP-induced cyclic GMP accumulation during development of *Dictyostelium discoideum*. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 34, 85– 89.

Klein, P.S., Sun, T.J., Saxe, C.L., Kimmel, A.R., Johnson, R.L., and Devreotes, P.N. (1988). A chemoattractant receptor controls development in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Science 241, 1467–1472.

Klein, P., Theibert, A., Fontana, D., and Devreotes, P.N. (1985). Identification and cyclic AMP-induced modification of the cyclic AMP receptor in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. J. Biol. Chem. 260, 1757–1764.

Klein, P., Vaughan, R., Borleis, J., and Devreotes, P. (1987). The surface cyclic AMP receptor in *Dictyostelium*. Levels of ligand-induced phosphorylation, solubilization, identification of primary transcript, and developmental regulation of expression. J. Biol. Chem. 262, 358–364.

Kobilka, B.K., Kobilka, T.S., Daniel, K., Regan, J.W., Caron, M.G., and Lefkowitz, R.J. (1988). Chimeric  $\alpha_2$ -, $\beta_2$ -adrenergic receptors: delineation of domains involved in effector coupling and ligand binding specificity. Science 240, 1310–1316.

Kumagai, A., Hadwiger, J.A., Pupillo, M., and Firtel, R.A. (1991).
Molecular genetic analysis of two G<sub>a</sub> protein subunits in *Dictyostelium*.
J. Biol. Chem. 266, 1220–1228.

Kuhtreiber, W.M., and Jaffe, L.F. (1990). Detection of extracellular calcium gradients with a calcium-specific vibrating electrode. J. Cell Biol. 110, 1565–1573.

Laemmli, U.K. (1970). Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4. Nature 227, 680-685.

Lechleiter, J., Hellmiss, R., Duerson, K., Ennulat, D., David, N., Clapham, D., and Peralta, E. (1990). Distinct sequence elements control the specificity of G protein activation by muscarinic acetylcholine receptor subtypes. EMBO J. 9, 4381–4390.

Logothetis, D.E., Kurachi, Y., Galper, J., Neer, E.J., and Clapham, D.E. (1987). The  $\beta\gamma$  subunits of GTP-binding proteins activate the muscarinic K\* channel in heart. Nature 325, 321–326.

Lowry, O.H., Rosebrough, N.J., Farr, A.L., and Randall, R.J. (1951).Protein measurement with the Folin phenol reagent. J. Biol. Chem. 193, 265–275.

Maeda, Y., and Maeda, M. (1973). The calcium content of the cellular slime mold *Dictyostelium discoideum*, during development and differentiation. Exp. Cell Res. 82, 125–130.

Mato, J.M., Krens, F.A., Van Haastert, P.J.M., and Konijn, T.M. (1977a).
3':5'-Cyclic AMP-dependent 3':5'-cyclic GMP accumulation in Dictyostelium discoideum. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74, 2348–2351.

Mato, J.M., Van Haastert, P.J.M., Krens, F.A., Rhijnsburger, E.H., Dobbe, F.C.P.M., and Konijn, T.M. (1977b). Cyclic AMP and folic acid mediated cyclic GMP accumulation in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. FEBS Lett. 79, 331–336.

Milne, J.L., and Coukell, M.B. (1988). Isolation and characterization of a plasma membrane calcium pump from *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Biochem. J. 249, 223–230.

Milne, J.L., and Coukell, M.B. (1989). Identification of a high-affinity Ca<sup>2+</sup> pump associated with endocytotic vesicles in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Exp. Cell Res. 185, 21–32.

Milne, J.L., and Coukell, M.B. (1991). A Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport system associated with the plasma membrane of *Dictyostelium discoideum* is activated by different chemoattractant receptors. J. Cell Biol. 112, 103–110.

Okamoto, T., Murayama, Y., Hayashi, Y., Inagaki, M., Ogata, E., and Nishimoto, I. (1991). Identification of a G<sub>s</sub> activator region of the  $\beta$ 2-adrenergic receptor that is autoregulated via protein kinase A-dependent phosphorylation. Cell 67, 723–730.

Pan, P., Hall, E.M., and Bonner, J.T. (1972). Folic acid as second chemotactic substance in cellular slime moulds. Nature New Biol. 237, 181–182.

Pupillo, M., Insall, R., Pitt, G.S., and Devreotes, P.N. (1992). Multiple cAMP receptors are linked to adenylyl cyclase in *Dictyostelium*. Mol. Biol. Cell 3, 1229–1234.

Pupillo, M., Klein, P., Vaughan, R., Pitt, G., Lilly, P., Sun, T., Devreotes, P., Kumagai, A., and Firtel, R. (1988). cAMP receptor and G-protein interactions control development in *Dictyostelium*. Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 53, 657–665.

Pupillo, M., Kumagai, A., Pitt, G.S., Firtel, R.A., and Devreotes, P.N. (1989). Multiple  $\alpha$  subunits of guanine nucleotide-binding proteins in *Dictyostelium*. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86, 4892–4896.

Roos, W., and Gerisch, G. (1976). Receptor-mediated adenylate cyclase activation in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. FEBS Lett. 68, 170–172.

Saxe, C.L., Ginsburg, G.T., Louis, J.M., Johnson, R., Devreotes, P.N., and Kimmel, A.R. (1992). cAR2, a prestalk cAMP receptor required for normal tip formation and late development of *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Genes & Dev. 7, 262–272.

Saxe, C.L., Johnson, R., Devreotes, P.N., and Kimmel, A.R. (1991). Multiple genes for cell surface cAMP receptors in *Dictyosielium discoideum*. Dev. Genet. 12, 6–13.

Snaar-Jagalska, B.E., Kesbeke, F., and Van Haastert, P.J.M. (1988).
G-proteins in the signal-transduction pathways of *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Dev. Genet. 9, 215–226.

Sun, T.J., and Devreotes, P.N. (1991). Gene targeting of the aggregation stage cAMP receptor cAR1 in *Dictyostelium*. Genes & Dev. 5, 572–582.

Sussman, M. (1987). Cultivation and synchronous morphogenesis of Dictyostelium under controlled experimental conditions. Methods Cell Biol. 28, 9–29.

Tang, W.-J., and Gilman, A.G. (1991). Type-specific regulation of adenylyl cyclase by G protein  $\beta\gamma$  subunits. Science 254, 1500–1503.

Theibert, A., Palmisano, M., Jastorff, B., and Devreotes, P. (1986).
The specificity of the cAMP receptor mediating activation of adenylate cyclase in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Dev. Biol. 114, 529–533.

Tsien, R.W., Hess, P., McCleskey, E.W., and Rosenberg, R.L. (1987). Calcium channels: mechanisms of selectivity, permeation and block. Annu. Rev. Biophys. Biophys. Chem. 16, 265–290.

Van Duijn, B., and Van Haastert, P.J.M. (1992). Independent control of locomotion and orientation during *Dictyostelium discoideum* chemotaxis. J. Cell Sci. 102, 763–768.

Van Haastert, P.J.M., and Devreotes, P.N. (1993). Biochemistry and genetics of sensory transduction in *Dictyostelium*. In: Sensory Transduction in Genetically Tractable Organisms, ed. J. Kurjan, Orlando, FL: Academic Press (in press).

Van Haastert, P.J.M., De Vries, M.J., Penning, L.C., Roovers, E., Van Der Kaay, J., Erneux, C., and Van Lookeren Campagne, M.M. (1989). Chemoattractant and guanosine 5'-[γ-thio]triphosphate induce the accumulation of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate in *Dictyostelium* cells that are labelled with [<sup>3</sup>H]inositol by electroporation. Biochem. J. 258, 577–586.

Van Haastert, P.J.M., and Kien, E. (1983). Binding of cAMP derivatives to *Dictyostelium discoideum* cells. Activation mechanism of the cell surface cAMP receptor. J. Biol. Chem. 258, 9636–9642.

Watts, D.J., and Ashworth, J.M. (1970). Growth of myxamoebae of the cellular slime mould *Dictyostelium discoideum* in axenic culture. Biochem. J. 119, 171–174.

Wick, U., Malchow, D., and Gerisch, G. (1978). Cyclic-AMP stimulated calcium influx into aggregating cells of *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Cell Biol. Int. Rep. 2, 71–79.

Williams, K.L., Kessin, R.H., and Newell, P.C. (1974). Genetics of growth in axenic medium of the cellular slime mould *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Nature 247, 142–143.

Wu, L., and Devreotes, P.N. (1991). Dictyostelium transiently expresses eight distinct G-protein  $\alpha$ -subunits during its developmental program. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 179, 1141–1147.

Wu, L., Gaskins, C., Gundersen, R., Hadwiger, J.A., Johnson, R.L., Pitt, G.S., Firtel, R.A., and Devreotes, P.N. (1992). Signal transduction by G-proteins in *Dictyostelium discoideum*. In: Handbook of Experimental Pharmacology, GTPases in Biology I and II, ed. B. Dickey and L. Birnbaumer, New York: Springer-Verlag (*in press*).

Wurster, B., Schubiger, K., Wick, U., and Gerisch, G. 1977. Cyclic GMP in Dictyostelium discoideum. Oscillations and pulses in response to folic acid and cyclic AMP signals. FEBS Lett. 76, 141–144.