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# The aerotaxis of *Dictyostelium discoideum* is independent of mitochondria, nitric oxide and oxidative stress

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23 Abstract

24 Spatial and temporal variations of oxygen environments affect the behaviors of various cells and are 25 involved in physiological and pathological events. Our previous studies with Dictyostelium 26 discoideum as a model of cell motility have demonstrated that aerotaxis toward an oxygen-rich region occurs below 2% O<sub>2</sub>. However, while the aerotaxis of *Dictyostelium* seems to be an effective 27 strategy to search for what is essential for survival, the mechanism underlying this phenomenon is 28 29 still largely unclear. One hypothesis is that an oxygen concentration gradient generates a secondary 30 oxidative stress gradient that would direct cell migration towards higher oxygen concentration. Such 31 mechanism was inferred but not fully demonstrated to explain the aerotaxis of human tumor cells. Here, we investigated the role on aerotaxis of flavohemoglobins, proteins that can both act as 32

potential oxygen sensors and modulators of nitric oxide and oxidative stress. The migratory behaviors of *Dictyostelium* cells were observed under both self-generated and imposed oxygen gradients. Furthermore, their changes by chemicals generating or preventing oxidative stress were tested. The trajectories of the cells were then analyzed through time-lapse phase-contrast microscopic images. The results indicate that both oxidative and nitrosative stresses are not involved in the aerotaxis of *Dictyostelium* but cause cytotoxic effects that are enhanced upon hypoxia.

#### 39 1 Introduction

40 Oxygen is vital for many living organisms (Hsia et al, 2013). The oxygen concentration inside 41 multicellular organisms is lower than that in the atmosphere due to oxygen consumption by cells, and changes spatially and temporally (Vaupel et al, 1991). The variations of oxygen environment affect 42 43 various cell behaviors physiologically and pathologically (Eltzschig & Carmeliet, 2011; Semenza, 44 2000). Aerotaxis, the motion of cells toward optimal oxygen levels, is well known in bacteria (Taylor 45 et al, 1999), but the characteristics and mechanisms of aerotaxis in eukaryotic cells are poorly 46 elucidated. Although intracellular protein hypoxia-inducible factors (HIF) generally express their 47 functions by transcriptionally activating genes in the nuclei (Semenza, 2007), they do not seem to 48 induce a rapid directional motility change. Recently, an in vitro study reported a clear oxygen-49 directed migration of both epithelial and breast tumor cells under a self-generated hypoxic 50 environment caused by cellular oxygen consumption in a confined environment (Deygas et al, 2018; 51 Mikaelian et al, 2022). Such oxygen-directed migration was also observed even after the knockout of 52 HIF in the cells, suggesting a HIF-independent aerotaxis. An oxidative gradient seems to overlap the 53 oxygen gradient and is required to direct aerotactic motility through activation of the epithelial 54 growth factor receptor (EGFR). The cysteine 797 located near the ATP binding site of EGFR was 55 shown to be a target of redox regulation (Truong et al, 2016) and might be the target of the hypoxia 56 induced oxidation that potentiate its tyrosine kinase activity. Most of the dioxygen is metabolized in 57 mitochondria to produce ATP as part of respiration processes (Spinelli & Haigis, 2018). 58 Mitochondria generate a burst of oxidant molecules, both reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive 59 nitrogen species (RNS) during hypoxia (Castello et al, 2006; Doorly & Graciet, 2021; Poyton et al, 60 2009), and inactivation of mitochondrial respiration prevents aerotaxis (Mikaelian et al, 2022). It was 61 thus hypothesized that in hypoxic condition an oxygen gradient will cause cells to generate a 62 secondary redox gradient that would modulate EGFR activity to direct cell migration toward higher 63 oxygen concentrations (Mikaelian et al, 2022).

64 Dictyostelium discoideum vegetative amoeba also shows collective migration toward an oxygen-rich region. In a confined spot assay, Dictyostelium cells exhibited long-lasting and highly 65 66 stable migration towards oxygen-rich regions (i.e., aerotaxis) guided by a self-generated oxygen 67 gradient, forming a stable ring of cells to escape from the hypoxic region (Biondo et al, 2021; 68 Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021). Moreover, the aerotaxis of Dictyostelium was successfully confirmed 69 under controlled oxygen gradient generated by microfluidic devices with gas channels for supply of 70 gas mixture of nitrogen and oxygen (Hirose et al, 2022). Under hypoxic conditions, below 2% O<sub>2</sub>, 71 which corresponds to 25  $\mu$ M O<sub>2</sub> in the culture medium, the migration of *Dictyostelium* cells was 72 enhanced (aerokinesis), and the oxygen gradient guided the cells toward the oxygen-rich region 73 (aerotaxis). A catalase-deficient strain of Dictyostelium demonstrated an aerotactic ring formation 74 quicker than the wild type, suggesting that hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$  could play a role in the 75 aerotaxis of Dictyostelium (Biondo et al, 2021). How cells sense an oxygen gradient and integrate it 76 to direct motility is not clear as this phenomenon is little studied contrary to response to hypoxia. It is 77 possible that aerotaxis uses some of the hypoxia sensing mechanisms. In eukaryotes, oxygen is 78 mainly used to generate energy through oxidative phosphorylation occurring in mitochondria.

79 Hypoxia can thus be detected indirectly through the lack of energy and increase in free radicals (ROS and RNS) resulting from impaired mitochondrial functions (Castello et al, 2006; Hernansanz-Agustín 80 et al, 2017). A more direct way to detect hypoxia involves oxygen-dependent enzymes that will 81 82 regulate downstream responses. The only well-documented oxygen sensing system in Dictyostelium is PhyA, a member of the oxygen-dependent prolyl-hydroxylase domain (PHD) proteins also found 83 84 in mammals and plants (West et al, 2007; Zhang et al, 2012). PhyA is a prolyl hydroxylase that acts 85 as an oxygen sensor to control the terminal phase of *Dictyostelium* multicellular development that 86 results into the differentiation of spore and stalk cells. Since PhyA present a low affinity of O<sub>2</sub>, its activity is restricted under 21% O<sub>2</sub>. In presence of normal level of oxygen, PhyA hydroxylates a 87 88 proline on Skp1, an adaptor subunit of the Skp1–Cul1–F-box (SCF) class of E3 ubiquitin triggering 89 its glycosylation. The modified Skp1 will in turn associate with its targets to trigger their 90 polyubiquitination and degradation by the proteosome (West & Blader, 2015). PhyA activity is 91 reduced under 10% O<sub>2</sub>, resulting into the accumulation of unmodified Skp1, preventing terminal 92 differentiation from proceeding. PhyA is expressed during Dictyostelium multicellular development 93 and control the culmination phase, such that it happens in a place with normal oxygen level such as 94 the soil surface rather than underground (West et al, 2007).

95 Other candidates include flavohemoglobins, oxygen-dependent enzymes that neutralize nitric 96 oxide (NO), a source of RNS that also acts as a signaling molecule regulating the hypoxic response in 97 many organisms (Castello et al, 2006). Flavohemoglobins are found in many bacteria, fungi and 98 protists where it oxidizes NO into nitrate (Cánovas et al, 2016) to maintain NO homeostasis. While 99 NO is produced at low level as part of nitrogen metabolism, high level can occur during hypoxia due 100 to dysfunction of mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase (Castello et al, 2006; Gupta et al, 2005; 101 Planchet et al, 2005; Tischner et al, 2004) but can also results from fermentation of nitrite in acidic 102 pH or be released by plants or animals as part of antibacterial defense. The oxidation of NO by 103 flavohemoglobin is very efficient in saturation oxygen concentration but the reaction can also occur 104 in hypoxic condition when oxygen is in micromolar range (Poole et al, 1996). In anaerobic condition, 105 flavohemoglobins appear able to detoxify NO at a slow rate through an alternate reaction (Kim et al, 106 1999). As such, flavohemoglobins were shown to protect organisms from NO toxic effects both in 107 high and low oxygen conditions (Forrester & Foster, 2012). Dictyostelium genome encodes two 108 flavohemoglobins genes, *fhbA* and *fhbB*, that were successfully inactivated (Iijima et al, 2000). 109 Dictyostelium flavohemoglobin proteins share well conserved amino-acid sequences and structure 110 with the characterized bacterial and fungal homologs shown to act as NO dioxygenases (Dröge et al, 111 2014). While the enzymatic activity of FhbA and FhbB has not been tested, the double null mutant 112 *fhbA<sup>B</sup>* displays poor viability when challenged with NO generating chemicals, consistent with their 113 expected NO dioxygenases functions (Iijima et al, 2000). The intracellular localization of 114 Dictyostelium flavohemoglobins has been not investigated but in organisms that also possess two 115 flavohemoglobin genes, such as filamentous fungi, one isomer is at least partly located in the 116 mitochondrial matrix despite lacking a classical targeting sequence while the other isomer is mostly 117 cytoplasmic (Forrester & Foster, 2012). In yeast, the YHB1 flavohemoglobin is distributed between 118 the cytosol and mitochondrial matrix in normoxia but relocates fully to mitochondria in anaerobic 119 condition (Cassanova et al, 2005). Dictyostelium cells generates NO at the onset of multicellular 120 development to regulate the initiation of cAMP pulses (Tao et al, 1997). This NO generation 121 coincides with the strong downregulation of *fhbA* and *fhbB* expression observed by RNA-seq 122 (Rosengarten et al, 2015). *fhbA* and *fhbB* are re-expressed at low level when aggregates are formed. 123 cAMP is secreted by Dictyostelium to act as a chemoattractant that directs cell motility during the 124 aggregation phase (Pal et al, 2019). It is thus possible that flavohemoglobins act as oxygen sensor 125 that would regulate NO level produced during hypoxia. NO could then act as a secondary signal to 126 direct cellular motility upward oxygen gradients.

127 In this context, available mutants in genes encoding for potential oxygen sensors or signaling intermediates were tested for their ability to form aerotactic rings of cells when a micro-128 129 colony (spot of cells) was covered with a glass coverslip. Out of the mutants tested, including 130 members of the PhyA-Skp1 pathway, only one displayed an abnormal phenotype during the spot 131 assay. A null mutant of the flavohemoglobin gene *fhbB* presented a poorly defined ring that expanded at a slower rate than wild-type controls. Therefore, we investigated the role of flavohemoglobins and 132 133 the effects of oxidative stress on aerotaxis. The migratory behaviors of wild type and mutant 134 Dictyostelium cells were observed both with the spot assay and with microfluidic devices generating an oxygen gradient. Chemicals were used to inhibit mitochondria functions, source of free radical or 135 136 anti-oxidant. The trajectories of the cells were then analyzed with time-lapse phase-contrast 137 microscopic images to draw the aerokinetic and aerotactic features of Dictyostelium cells under these 138 pharmacogenetic treatments. Thanks to complementary cell respiration and proliferation experiments, 139 micro-colony experiments were modeled with a Go-or-Grow mean field model previously introduced 140 (Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021) in order to confirm the existence of a true aerotactic response in all 141 analyzed experiments. This complementary experimental and theoretical approach indicates that 142 neither flavohemoglobins nor oxidative stress are involved in the aerotaxis of *Dictvostelium* contrary 143 to expectations. Instead, our data indicates that hypoxia increases the toxic effects of oxidative stress 144 on cell motility, leading indirectly to an impaired aerotactic motility. Surprisingly, we observed that 145 for Dictyostelium, mitochondrial respiration is dispensable both for generation of an oxygen gradient 146 and for aerotactic response.

#### 147 **2** Methods

#### 148 **2.1** Cells and strains

The wild types AX2 and AX3, and the flavohemoglobin null mutants *fhbA*<sup>-</sup>, *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> and *fhbA*<sup>-</sup>B<sup>-</sup> strains of *Dictyostelium* cells were provided by the National BioResource Project (NBRP Nenkin, Japan) and cultured axenically with HL5 medium (HLF2; Formedium, UK) containing 100 mM glucose and 1/1000 penicillin-streptomycin (P/S) (15140-122; Gibco, USA) on cell culture dishes at 22°C or under agitation. PhyA- strain is a kind gift from C. West (University of Georgia, USA).

#### 154 **2.2** Chemicals and reagents

155 Sodium nitroprusside dihydrate (SNP) (71778; Sigma-Aldrich, USA), which releases NO, was added at  $10 - 100 \,\mu\text{M}$  to the culture medium to investigate the effect of RNS on the aerotaxis. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 156 (18084-00; Kanto Chemical, Japan) was added at  $100 - 500 \,\mu\text{M}$  to investigate the effect of ROS on 157 the aerotaxis. Ethidium bromide (EtBr) (E1510, Sigma-Aldrich), which inhibits mitochondria DNA 158 159 replication, was added to the culture medium 24 h before experiments at 30 µg/ml for pretreatment of 160 the cells. Oligomycin (O4876, Sigma-Aldrich) was used at 10 µg/ml, and antimycin A (A8674, 161 Sigma-Aldrich) was used at 37.5 µM. Tiron (4,5 dihydroxy-1,3-benzene-disulphonic acid; D7389, Sigma-Aldrich) was used at 10 mM. 162

#### 163 2.3 Microfluidic Devices

A double-layer microfluidic device with oxygen-controllability was used (Fig. S1) (Hirose et al, 2022). The device was  $30 \times 30$  mm square, and the thickness was 4 mm. Inside the device, two gas channels in a 1-mm interval were located at 0.5 mm from the bottom surface, perpendicularly crossing above three parallel media channels on the bottom (Fig. S1A). The width and height were 2 mm and 0.15 mm for all channels, respectively. The device mainly consisted of polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS, Sylgard 184 Silicone Elastomer Kit, The Dow Chemical Company, 170 USA) and contained a polycarbonate film to prevent gas infusion from the atmosphere. The x and y-171 axes were defined to be parallel and perpendicular to the media channels, respectively, and the z-axis 172 was in the vertical direction. The origin was set at the center of the device. The oxygen concentration 173 in the device was controlled by gas exchange between the channels, supplying gas mixtures at 174 predefined oxygen concentrations to the gas channels. The oxygen concentration in the device was 175 computed by three-dimensional numerical simulation using commercial multiphysics software 176 (COMSOL Multiphysics ver. 5.5, COMSOL AB, Sweden) and verified using an oxygen-sensing film 177 which emitted phosphorescence quenched by oxygen (Hirose et al, 2021). The computational and 178 experimental results showed almost the same tendency especially for the minimum value of oxygen 179 concentration, showing an oxygen concentration gradient from 0.4% to 21% O<sub>2</sub> was generated along each media channel in the x-direction when the gas mixtures containing 0% and 21% O<sub>2</sub> were 180 181 supplied to the left and right gas channels, respectively (gray solid line in Figs. S1B-F). At the most 182 hypoxic location at x = -1.6 mm, the slope of the oxygen concentration gradient inverted.

Dictyostelium cells were harvested from the culture dishes and introduced into the media 183 channels in the microfluidic device at  $2 \times 10^6$  cells/ml (400 cells/mm<sup>2</sup>) with the HL5 culture medium. 184 After incubation for 20 min to adhere Dictyostelium cells to the bottom surface of the media 185 186 channels, the HL5 culture medium was replaced by fresh one. Here, depending on the experimental 187 conditions, reagents were added to the HL5 culture medium. For accurate comparisons, each device 188 was set to have channels for control condition and each of another two conditions at the same time. 189 The device was placed in a stage incubator (TP-CHSQ-C, Tokai Hit, Japan) mounted on an inverted 190 microscope (IX83, Olympus, Japan), and controlled at 22°C. Just after gas mixtures of oxygen and 191 nitrogen were supplied at 30 ml/min to the left and right gas channels, time-lapse imaging was 192 started.

193 A second type of microfluidic device, with a Y-shape channel was used to generate a 194 chemical gradient of soluble molecules (Fig. 3A). The device was placed in the same stage incubator mounted on the microscope, and controlled at  $22^{\circ}$ C. The x and y-axes were defined to be 195 196 perpendicular and parallel to the merged channel, respectively. The origin was set at the junction of 197 the channels from the two inlets. Dictyostelium cells were first allowed to adhere on the 198 microchannel in HL5 culture medium for 20 min. HL5 culture media without and with a 199 pharmacological substance at a concentration  $C_0$  (SNP at 100  $\mu$ M or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 500  $\mu$ M) were injected 200 from the left and right inlets, respectively, at 1 ml/h, and time-lapse imaging was then started. The 201 average velocity was  $U_0 = 0.37$  mm/s in the merged channel inducing a wall-shear stress around 202 4.4 mPa low enough not to affect cell migration and adhesion on the bottom glass (Rupprecht et al, 203 2012). The profile of chemical concentration C(x, y) at a given position (x, y) was calculated by the 204 following equation:

$$C(x,y) = \frac{C_0}{2} \left[ 1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x}{2}\sqrt{\frac{U_0}{Dy}}\right) \right],\tag{1}$$

where *D* is the diffusion coefficient of the chemical substance in water. For the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> gradient we used  $D = 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$  mm<sup>2</sup>/s (van Stroe-Biezen et al, 1993). Addition of 100 µM SNP leads to rapid increase of NO in the media to reach a prolonged plateau after 25 min (Bradley & Steinert, 2015). As the experimental set-up require 30 min, we expect a constant level of NO for the duration of the assay, hence for the SNP gradient experiment. We used the diffusion constant of NO,  $D = 2.2 \times 10^{-3}$  $^{3}$  mm<sup>2</sup>/s (Zacharia & Deen, 2005), to compute the relative NO concentration profile. Cells were imaged and tracked between 1 h and 2 h after starting the media flow.

#### 212 2.4 Imaging and analyzing cell migration in microfluidic devices

213 Phase-contrast microscopic images of the central part of each media channel including the 214 region of interest (ROI) displayed in Figs. S1A and were taken by the microscope with a 4× objective 215 lens (UPLFLN4XPH, Olympus) every 30 s for 2 h. The positions of Dictyostelium cells were 216 detected at each time step by analyzing the images using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health, USA) with its built-in plugin, Find Maxima. Then, the individual cells were tracked using MATLAB 217 218 (MathWorks, USA) by minimizing the total of squared displacements with a published tracking code 219 (Blair & Dufresne). All trajectory data were analyzed using in-house MATLAB programs. The migration distance in 1 min between the time steps  $t_i$  and  $t_{i+1}$  was defined as  $dl_i$ , which was decomposed into the x and y-directional displacements  $dl_{x,i}$  and  $dl_{y,i}$ , respectively  $(dl_i^2 = dl_{x,i}^2 + dl_{y,i}^2)$ , 220 221 where the *x*-direction is defined as the gradient direction for both devices. The average speed  $v = \overline{dl_i}$ 222 and the average x-directional velocity  $v_x = \overline{dl_{x,i}}$  were averaged from all 1-min cell displacements in 223  $\Delta x = 200 \,\mu\text{m}$  wide slabs as a function of x-position. The aerotactic index was defined as 224  $AI = \overline{dl_{r_1}/dl_1}$  referring to a chemotactic index normally used as a metric for chemotaxis (Amselem 225 et al, 2012). The maximal  $AI_{max}$  was measured in each individual experiment as the maximum value 226 of AI on the positive side (x > -1.6 mm) since the oxygen gradient was better controlled than on the 227 negative side. A chemotaxis index  $CI = \overline{dl_{x,l}/dl_l}$  was computed to analyze the data by experiments 228 229 with the Y-shaped microfluidic devices.

#### 230 2.5 Spot assay and ring speed kymographs

231 The confined spot assay offers a quick and robust way to test whether cells can generate 232 oxygen gradients and move aerotactically (Biondo et al, 2021; Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021; Deygas et 233 al, 2018). A drop of either 2, 3 or 5 µL of a cell suspension containing 2000, 3000 or 5000 cells 234 respectively was carefully deposited on a dish. The drop was incubated for 30 min in humid 235 atmosphere at 22°C before adding 2 ml of HL5 culture medium. An 18 mm or 22 mm diameter round 236 glass coverslip cleaned with ethanol then thoroughly rinsed in HL5 was gently deposited on top of it. 237 Image acquisition was performed using a lens-free imaging device (Cytonote 6W, Iprasense, France) or the aforementioned inverted microscope. Images were taken every 5 to 15 min for 24 h. The 238 239 software Horus (Iprasense, France) was used to process and reconstruct the Cytonote images, and a 240 homemade ImageJ macro based on the polar transformer plug-in was used to construct kymographs 241 from the original images by polar transformation and z-stacking of frames. The ring speed was 242 determined by calculating the slope of the front density band associated with ring propagation on 243 these kymographs between 16 h and 24 h. To improve signal to noise ratio in kymographs, images 244 were filtered from their background by using the Find-Edges function of ImageJ before applying the 245 polar transformation.

#### 246 **2.6** Oxygen consumption and proliferation experiments

For consumption measurements of *fhb* null mutant and for those of the respiratory inhibitors 247 248 oligomycin and antimycin A (Fig. S6C), about  $10^6$  total cells suspended in HL5 culture medium were 249 placed in a respirometer (Oxygraphs 2k high-resolution respirometers, Oroboros Instruments, 250 Austria) to determine oxygen concentration changes over time. After the measurement of the basal 251 respiration, oligomycin (10 µg/ml) or antimycin A (37.5 µM) were added successively. Oxygen 252 consumption were calculated using the change of oxygen level over time and normalized per cell. For consumption measurements of EtBr treated cells or in presence of SNP or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S6D), a 6-mL 253 254 glass vial was filled with  $2 \times 10^7$  cells suspended in HL5, and closed it with a cap through which an optical oxygen probe was plunged. The cap was carefully sealed around the probe to avoid external 255

oxygen entering the bottle. We measured the change of oxygen level over time with this probe
coupled to its oxymeter (OXROB3 robust probe and Firesting oxymeter, Pyroscience, Aachen,
Germany).

For proliferation experiments, cells were plated at about  $10^4$  cells/cm<sup>2</sup> in 6-well plates, and imaged and counted with the lens-free imaging device or the inverted microscope every 30 min for 24 h.

#### 262 2.7 RT-qPCR

Four plates containing  $2.3 \times 10^6$  AX3 cells in 1.5 ml HL5 culture medium were prepared with 263 either no chemicals, 100  $\mu$ M SNP or 100  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The two plates containing SNP or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and a 264 265 plate without chemical were placed at 22°C and 21% O<sub>2</sub>. The last plate containing cells in HL5 266 culture medium was incubated at 22°C and 0.4% O<sub>2</sub>. After 3 h, total RNA was extracted (RNeasy Plus Mini Kit, 74134, Qiagen, Germany), quantified and adjusted at 1 µg to synthesise cDNA (First 267 268 Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit for RT-PCR, 11483188001, Roche, Switzerland). Then a qPCR was 269 performed (DyNAmo Flash SYBR Green qPCR Kit, F415L, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) using 270 following primers: *rnlA-*F (5'-GCACCTCGATGTCGGCTTAA-3'), rnlA-R (5'the 271 CACCCCAACCCTTGGAAACT-3'), cxgE-F (5'-ATGTCCCACGCATTACCAG-3'), cxgE-R (5'-272 CATAGGCAGCGTAAAAATCTTCTC-3'), cxgS-F (5'-AAGTTGTTAAATCTCAACTC-3'), cxgS-R (5'-TTTATCAACGCCATATTTAA-3'), fhbA-F (5'-GAACTCACATCAGACATTAC-3'), fhbA-273 274 R (5'-CTACATAGTCACCAGCTGGA-3'), fhbB-F (5'-GATGGTAAAGAGATAGCTAC-3'), and fhbB-R (5'-CTGATAAACTGTAATGTCTGAC-3'). The experiments were performed in duplicate 275 for each gene. The relative gene expression was determined using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  method (Livak & 276 277 Schmittgen, 2001) using *rnlA* as a housekeeping gene.

#### 278 2.8 Statistical test

For each measurement type, experiments were repeated three to six times. Significant differences between three or more conditions were evaluated by one-way ANOVA or two-way ANOVA followed by a post-Tukey test for multiple comparisons. In each test, statistical significance and the tendency toward significance were inferred at \*p < 0.05 and  $\dagger p < 0.1$ , respectively.

#### 283 2.9 Mean-field 'Go-or-Grow' model

The simulations were performed using a numerical mean-field 'Go-or-Grow' model coded in the Python language, which we recently introduced to explain ring propagation in confined spot experiments (Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021). The mean field model used for the aerotactic dispersion consisted of coupled reaction-diffusion equations for both oxygen and cell concentrations respectively:

289

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = D_{0_2} \Delta C - b_0(C) \rho \tag{2}$$

290

291 
$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = D_{\text{cells}}(C) \,\Delta \rho + r_o(C)\rho - \overrightarrow{\nabla}. \vec{J}_{\text{aero}}$$
(3)

where *C* is the oxygen concentration, *t* is the time,  $D_{O_2}$  is the oxygen diffusion constant,  $b_0$  is the cell oxygen consumption,  $\rho$  is the cell density,  $D_{cells}$  is the cellular diffusion constant,  $r_0$  is the cell proliferation rate, and  $\vec{J}_{aero}$  is the advection term. From our recent observations that the aerotactic displacements are more correlated to the relative oxygen gradient  $\left(\frac{\vec{v}c}{c}\right)$  than to the absolute gradient  $\vec{\nabla}C$  (Hirose et al, 2022)), we propose a slight modification to the advection term in the shape of  $\vec{J}_{aero} = \rho \vec{v}_{aero}$ , with:

298 
$$\vec{v}_{aero} = \chi l \left(\frac{\vec{v}C}{c}\right) \frac{1}{1+e^{(C-C_0)/s}}$$
(4)

299  $\gamma$  is a proportionality constant called aerotactic bias (unique for each experimental condition, see below),  $l = 10 \,\mu\text{m}$  is the approximate cell size, and the latter two terms comprise the response 300 301 function to oxygen relative gradient. We choose an initial cell distribution and a boundary condition 302 for oxygen  $C(L = 9 \text{ mm}) = 21\% \text{ O}_2$  mimicking the experimental situation. Mesh sizes of  $\Delta x = 10 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ 303 and  $\Delta t = 0.05$  min were used. To avoid negative O<sub>2</sub> values a threshold  $C_1 = 0.5\%$  O<sub>2</sub> was chosen below which cells consume oxygen relative to the local ambient oxygen concentrations. We also used 304 305 a proliferation threshold below which cells stop dividing  $C_2 = 0.2\%$  O<sub>2</sub> as recently measured (Carrère 306 et al, 2023). This is also a slight modification to our initial Go-or-Grow model for which  $C_0 = C_2$ 307 (Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021).

308 The aerotactic bias, the oxygen threshold, and the steepness factor in Eq. (4) were respectively updated to  $\chi_0 = 30 \ \mu m/min$ ,  $C_0 = 0.4\%$  O<sub>2</sub> and s = 0.1% O<sub>2</sub> upon further analysis of density 309 accumulation of cells and maximum aerotactic displacement along the gradient perceived in the 310 311 microfluidic device experiments with the AX2 in HL5 control condition (Ghazi et al., in preparation). 312 For other conditions,  $C_0$  and s were kept constant as we never observed any shift in the range of oxygen concentrations triggering an aerotactic response, but  $\chi$  was set proportional to the measured 313 aerotactic x-directional velocity  $v_x$  (Fig. S1C and Supplementary Table S1), as  $\chi = \chi_0 \frac{v_x}{v_{x0}}$  where  $v_{x0}$  is 314 the aerotactic speed of the control condition reported in Fig. 2E or 2H. The cellular diffusion constant 315 316  $D_{\text{cells}}$  plays a minor role on the ring propagation speed or ring formation time (Ghazi et al., in preparation). It was not systematically measured but we used a scaling relation motivated by former 317 studies (Golé et al, 2011),  $\sqrt{\frac{D_{cells}}{D_0}} = \frac{v}{v_0}$  where  $D_0 = 30 \ \mu m^2/min$  (Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021) and 318 319  $v_0 = 5 \,\mu$ m/min (Fig. S3D) are the diffusion constant and average speed of the AX2 control condition 320 in the ring region. All parameter values, cell oxygen consumption  $b_0$ , aerotactic x-directional velocity  $v_x$ , absolute displacement speed v, cell proliferation rate  $r_0$ , were taken directly from experimental 321 observations discussed in this article and summarized in Supplementary Table S1. Oxygen diffusion 322 323 constant in HL5 medium at 22°C was taken from the one in pure water at 20°C:  $D_{0_2} = 2,000 \,\mu m^2/s$ (Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021). On one hand, salt and sugar present in HL5 decrease  $D_{0_2}$  by about 324 325 100  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>/s, but on the other hand, temperature increases  $D_{0_2}$  by about 50  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>/s/°C (Goldstick et al, 326 1976; Jamnongwong et al, 2010).

327

#### 328 3 Results

#### 329 **3.1** Abnormal motility of flavohemoglobin B null mutant upon hypoxia

Micro-colonies of various strains were confined with a glass coverslip and observed by videomicroscopy. The behavior of the PhyA null mutant or of the one of the wild type AX3 cells were similar to the one previously described with AX2 cells (Figs. 1A-D and S2). After less than an hour, the oxygen depletion at the center of the colony induced an increase of aerokinetic motility and the formation of an expanding ring of aerotactic cells. This resulted in a sharp density profile, the ring being two to three times of higher density than the interior of the colony. All of *fhb* null mutants presented a much slower and rougher ring of cells (Figs. 1E-P) than the AX3 strain, the slowing down of the ring being especially more marked and significant for the *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> and *fhbA*<sup>-</sup>B<sup>-</sup> (Fig. S3C). Furthermore, small aggregates of cells were frequently observed inside the mutant colonies while they were very rare for the wild type.

340 In order to test solely the aerotaxis of *fhb* null mutants in imposed oxygen gradients, and not 341 the intermingled response to self-generated gradients with oxygen consumption and cell proliferation, 342 we used a double-layer microfluidic device generating a 0.4% to 21% O<sub>2</sub> gradient (Fig. S1A). In such 343 a device, at the most hypoxic location where the slope of the oxygen concentration gradient was 344 inverted, the directionality of the cell migration was changed from the -x direction for x < -1.6 mm to 345 +x direction for x > -1.6 mm, implying migration toward higher oxygen levels (Fig. S1B with the 346 already reported AX2 strain (Hirose et al, 2022)). The existence of such an inversion even when the 347 signal-to-noise in cell displacement is low is a signature of an aerotactic response. Cells migrated 348 also in the y-direction but the average of the y-directional displacements were almost zero regardless 349 of the position (Fig. S1B). The AX2 strain migrated faster in the hypoxic region than in the normoxic 350 region (positive aerokinesis, Fig. S1C).

351 The parental AX3 strain presented a higher non-directional motility than the mutants in all 352 oxygen concentrations (Fig. 2A) and displayed a strong aerotactic bias when the oxygen level was 353 under 1.5% O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2B), resulting in a maximal aerotactic index AI<sub>max</sub> of 0.13 (Fig. 2C). The average 354 speed of all *fhb* null mutants was significantly reduced (Fig. 2A), but all exhibited an aerotactic 355 displacement. Even if for the *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> and *fhbA*<sup>-</sup>*B*<sup>-</sup> strains, it was just measurable (see inset of Fig. 2B). 356 As a result, the  $AI_{\text{max}}$  was slightly reduced in *fhbA*<sup>-</sup> strain comparatively to wild type, but reduced by 357 more than half for the  $fhbB^{-}$  and  $fhbA^{-}B^{-}$  strains, indicating a strong reduction in the ability of the 358 cells to properly sense or respond to oxygen gradients in these mutants. We performed a comparative 359 random motility assay in plastic dishes at 21% and 0.4% O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S4). The AX3 strain exhibited a 360 higher motility in the hypoxic condition confirming the results of Fig. 2A and the flavohemoglobin 361 mutants motility was normal in normoxia but slightly reduced by hypoxia (Fig. S4).

362 In many organisms, flavohemoglobins expression is induced by NO, while induction upon 363 hypoxia is uncommon (reviewed in Forrester and Foster, 2012). Therefore, the level of expression of 364 *fhbA* and *fhbB* genes in wild type cells were tested by RT-qPCR in response to hypoxia and SNP, a 365 chemical source of NO or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as a generic source of ROS (Table 1). Both flavohemoglobins 366 expression were strongly induced after 3 h in 0.4% O<sub>2</sub>. Strong induction was also observed for cxgS, 367 an optional subunit of cytochrome c oxidase induced by hypoxia, used here as positive control 368 (Bisson et al, 1997). As expected, cxgE, the alternate optional subunit of cytochrome c oxidase 369 expressed only during growth in normoxia was sharply down-regulated at 0.4% O<sub>2</sub> (Bisson et al, 370 1997). On the other hand, treatment with SNP, a classical source of NO, did not induce *fhbB* 371 expression and rather slightly repressed *fhbA*. As mitochondria also release ROS, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> effect was 372 tested but didn't affect the flavohemoglobins expression. Thus, low oxygen concentration appears to 373 be key to induce the expression of flavohemoglobin genes, reinforcing the possibility that the 374 proteins are important in this condition required for aerotaxis to appear.

375

#### 376 **3.2** Oxidative stress does not affect aerotaxis

377 Micro-colonies of wild type AX2 cells were confined in HL5 supplemented with either 378 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as a source of ROS or with SNP as a source of RNS by generating NO in the media. Neither 379 product prevented the formation of the expanding ring of cells even though the ring speed was 380 reduced with SNP or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Figs. S3A and S5). It was not possible to use much higher concentrations of these chemicals as they prevented cell adhesions or killed the cells at 1 mM. As an alternate way 381 to change the potential effect of ROS, we used Tiron, a free radical scavenger that had previously 382 383 been used to prevent oxidative stress in Dictyostelium (Bloomfield & Pears, 2003). Addition of 384 10 mM Tiron to confined wild type cell had no visible effect on ring formation appearance or 385 migration speed (Fig. S5).

386 To detect eventual fine effect of free radical, SNP and  $H_2O_2$  were applied to wild type cells 387 placed in the microfluidic device previously described. However, lower concentration had to be used 388 as they impair cell adhesion to the glass bottom of the device. The 100 µM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> did not affect 389 migration speed or response to oxygen gradient of the cells (Figs. 2D-F). On the other hand, the 390 100  $\mu$ M SNP reduced only slightly the cell speed at 21% O<sub>2</sub> (3.5  $\mu$ m/min versus 4.5  $\mu$ m/min) but dramatically at 0.4% O<sub>2</sub> (1.5 µm/min versus 5 µm/min) (Fig. S3D). Despite this strong speed 391 392 reduction, the SNP-treated cells still responded to oxygen gradients and the maximum aerotactic 393 index remained similar to that of untreated cells (Fig. 2F).

394 To further exclude a role of ROS and RNS in controlling aerotaxis, wild type cells were 395 placed in a Y-shaped microfluidic device generating a chemical gradient of soluble molecules: either 396 SNP or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Higher levels of NO (Fig. 3B) or of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 3D) induce a lower motility of 397 Dictyostelium cells (negative chemokinesis) but cells did not show specific chemotaxis towards or 398 away from either product, up to 100 µM for SNP and 500 µM for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as exemplified by the chemotactic index (Figs. 3C and E). These experiments unambiguously indicate that cells do not 399 400 respond to direct ROS or RNS gradients. As ROS/RNS are not implicated in the observed aerotactic 401 responses, we investigate whether mitochondria are involved in any other way.

#### 402 **3.3 Mitochondrial role during aerotaxis**

403 As mitochondria are major oxygen sinks and are potentially involved in direct or indirect 404 oxygen sensing for aerotaxis, three different mitochondrial inhibitors were used on confined wild 405 type cells. Treatment with 10 µg/ml of the mitochondria replication inhibitor EtBr for 5 days was 406 shown to inhibit mitochondrial respiration in Dictyostelium cells by 75% and to prevent cell division 407 (Kobilinsky & Beattie, 1977). For our experiments, a pretreatment of 24 h with 30 µg/ml EtBr was 408 used as it results into a strong reduction of cell growth (Chida et al, 2004). This resulted into a 409 reduction of total respiration by 35% comparatively to their untreated control (Figs. S6D). The 410 confined colony of EtBr-treated cells formed an expanding ring (Figs. 4E-H) but with a decreasing 411 migration speed with respect to the non-treated AX2 cells tested (Fig. S3B) and a slight delay of ring 412 formation time (compared Figs. 4D and 4H). Although it was not measured, cell growth was 413 expected to be strongly reduced since the media contained EtBr during the confinement assays. The 414 EtBr-treated cells were also tested for their aerotactic response in an oxygen gradient (Figs. 2D-F). 415 There was no reduction of the aerotactic response and the aerotactic index was similar to untreated 416 cells. Interestingly, on the normoxic side, the addition of EtBr markedly reduced the migration speed 417 of the cells but with no significant reduction on the hypoxic side (Fig. 2D).

Oligomycin and antimycin are fast acting inhibitors of mitochondrial respiration that reduce
 considerably oxygen consumption: by nearly 60% with oligomycin, and 85% with antimycin as
 measured in this study (Fig. S6C). As expected, these drugs also reduce considerably cell division

421 (Fig. S6B). Despite this strong inhibition, an expanding ring of cells was formed in the confined spot 422 assay, but with a 5 h (oligomycin) to 6 h delay (antimycin) as shown with the kymographs of 423 Figs. 4D, 4L and 4P. In addition, the ring expansion speed was slower than for the untreated AX2 424 cell colony (control) especially for the antimycin treatment (Figs. 4M-P and S3B). In the microfluidic 425 assay, oligomycin treated cells (red curves in Figs. 2G-H) responded as did the EtBr-treated cells 426 (green curves in Figs. 2D-E) with a similar aerotactic displacement along the direction of the gradient 427 but a slightly reduced migration speed on the normoxic side. On the other hand, both migration speed 428 and aerotactic response were reduced by the antimycin treatment (blue curves in Figs. 2G-H). Such 429 general reduction of motility is not unexpected as antimycin prevents the cytochrome c oxidase to 430 generate ATP which is required for motility (Wilson et al, 1992).

431

3.4

#### Modeling of the ring formation and speed of expansion in the different condition tested

432 To interpret experiments, we used the numerical mean-field version of the Go-or-Grow model 433 (Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021). Briefly, the rapid oxygen consumption by cells in the confined area and 434 the very selective aerotactic cell response are the two key ingredients for ring formation and 435 propagation. Ring formation may occur even in the absence of proliferation (Biondo et al, 2021; 436 Cochet-Escartin et al, 2021). However, proliferation is necessary to sustain a stable long-lived ring 437 (Rieu et al, 2022). The ring speed depends mostly on the aerotactic speed and slightly on the 438 proliferation rate. Here, we simulated the experiments with various O<sub>2</sub> diffusion constants values 439 taken from literature and found that the changes in the ring speed between the various extreme 440 literature values were negligible (Fig. S7 and its caption). The ring speed also did not depend on 441 initial cell density, only the formation time depended on it: the denser, the quicker the ring formation 442 and the more it appeared in the peripheral position of the initial spot (Fig. S8). After adjusting the 443 aerotactic response from microfluidic experiments, and the initial cell density profile and other 444 parameters from experiments, the model predicted a ring formation within an hour for AX2 and AX3 445 cell spots (Figs. 5C and 5A) in agreement with experiments (Figs. 4D and 1D). The simulated ring 446 propagated at constant speeds of ~1.1 and 1.2 µm/min for AX2 and AX3, respectively. These values 447 were in good agreement with the range of measured ring speeds (Figs. S3A-C), given the 448 experimental variability.

449 All other cell lines tested in this study presented an aerotactic response (i.e.,  $v_x > 0$ ) in the 450 region of 0 - 2% O<sub>2</sub> (Figs. 2B, 2E, and 2H). Simulated rings of *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> mutant (Fig. 5B) were 50% 451 slower and much wider than those of the parent cell line AX3 (Fig. 5A) as the x-directional velocity  $v_x$  was only 37% of their parent one. But, the rings appeared as quickly as their parent did as the 452 453 cellular oxygen consumption or proliferation was not impaired. The rings of AX2 treated with 454 100 µM SNP (Fig. 5D) were 21% slower than those of non-treated cell line (Fig. 5C) as the x-455 directional velocity  $v_x$  was also reduced by 21% with respect to their parent. They were also wider 456 but not significantly delayed as the oxygen consumption of this condition was only slightly decreased with respect to the control. These findings were in very good agreement with experimental 457 458 observations (Figs. 1D, 1L, S5D, and S5H).

Oligomycin and antimycin treatments corresponded to a very different set of parameters. The aerotactic directional migration speed  $v_x$  of oligomycin-treated cells was similar to the non-treated AX2 (Fig. 2H) but they did not proliferate at all (Fig. S6B). As a result, once initiated the ring expanded poorly (Fig. 5E) and even stopped after a while. The ultra-low oxygen consumption of antimycin-treated cells made the ring appear at very late simulation times (about 7 h in Fig. 5F) comparable to experimental observations (Fig. 4P).

- 465 One can conclude from these simulations that:
- 466 (i) Rings formed only in presence of aerotaxis.
- 467 (ii) Ring speed mostly correlated with the aerotactic strength (*x*-directional velocity proportional to aerotactic bias).
- 469 (iii) Ring formation time did not correlate with the aerotactic strength but with the overall oxygen consumption by the cells in the confined area.

#### 471 **4 Discussion**

472 Dictyostelium motility towards extracellular cAMP has been described extensively and served as a model for chemotaxis in other organisms (Pal et al, 2019). cAMP acts through G protein-coupled 473 474 receptors (GPCR) to regulate actin polymerization and cell motility. Spatial gradients of cAMP 475 between the front and the back of the cells are detected and amplified intracellularly through second 476 messengers to direct motility. Dictyostelium uses similar signaling mechanisms to respond to a wide variety of signals such as temperature (Poff & Skokut, 1977), light (Fisher, 1997; Marée et al, 1999), 477 478 electric current (Sato et al, 2007; Zhao et al, 2002), and chemical substances such as folate (Pan et al, 479 2016). In all these characterized situations, cells perceive differences of the signal levels on the 480 plasma membrane, usually using a receptor, and integrate them to become polarized and direct their motility (Devreotes & Horwitz, 2015). In the present case, the initial signal is oxygen, a molecule 481 482 normally present in high amount in the environment and constantly used for basic metabolism. There is no known cell surface receptor for oxygen and its hydrophobic properties allow its free diffusion 483 484 through membranes before being metabolized. Inactivation of the G-beta protein required for 485 transducing most GPCR signal does not prevent aerotaxis (Biondo et al, 2021).

486 To identify the signaling mechanism, we tested mutants in gene-coding potential oxygensensing proteins using a confined spot assay to observe an aerotactic ring, and then further dissected 487 this phenomenon to model and distinguish what aspect of the cell properties was affected by the 488 489 mutation. The same strategy was then used when challenging cells with various chemicals. Among 490 tested mutants, the  $fhbB^{-}$  and  $fhbA^{-}B^{-}$  strains were the one presenting a somewhat altered ring formation with the micro-colony confining test. However, the fact that a ring was formed and 491 492 expanded, even if irregular and at lower speed, indicates that the cells still present some aerotaxis, 493 which was confirmed when imposing an oxygen gradient. The strong reduction but not complete 494 abolition of the aerotactic index ( $AI_{max}$ , Fig. 2C) could indicate a direct role for flavohemoglobins in 495 sensing oxygen gradients, but can also be an undirect effect that mask the cell aerotaxis. Our further 496 assays with imposed oxygen or chemical gradients and simulation argue for an undirect role of 497 flavohemoglobins and NO. Dictyostelium cells did not move towards or away from NO generated by 498 SNP in the microfluidic RNS gradient experiment (Fig. 3), excluding a role for NO to act as 499 secondary gradient to orient cell motility. If NO was used as a signal to orient cell or even to fine 500 tune aerotaxis, swamping the cells with 500 µM SNP should reduce their aerotaxis, which was not 501 the case. Instead, SNP impairs general motility by reducing the average cell speed, this effect being 502 more pronounced in hypoxic conditions (Fig. S3D). As SNP reduces more cell motility in hypoxic 503 condition and flavohemoglobins expression is induced at low oxygen (Table 1), it suggests that those 504 enzymes main function is to protect cells from toxic effects of NO generated upon hypoxia. The 505 weak aerotactic response of the  $fhbB^{-}$  cells cannot be fully explained by the motility reduction caused by acute exposure to NO in hypoxic condition. It seems that the strains present other defects, maybe 506 507 due to adaptation to chronic exposure to self-generated NO. In most microorganisms, low level NO is 508 produced as part of nitrogen metabolism, and flavohemoglobins regulate NO homeostasis (Cánovas 509 et al, 2016). It is thus likely that inactivation of *fhbB* results into elevated levels of NO even during 510 normal growth that would cause the mutants' phenotypes. The observation that *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> cells were bigger than the wild type without being polynucleated and more sensitive to toxicity when exposed to 511 high glucose concentration suggests a broad metabolic unbalance (Iijima et al, 2000). Differences 512 513 between short-term and long-term exposure to NO have been observed when incubating 514 Dictysotelium with SNP over prolonged period (Taminato et al, 2002). Wild type cells' growth is little affected during the first 20 h but protein kinase A (PKA) becomes transiently activated after 515 516 12 h of SNP treatment through the yakA pathway as part of a stress response that then leads to reduced cell growth. The protein kinase, yakA, regulates cell division, actin filament polymerization, 517 transition from growth to development and the arrest of growth in response to stresses, including 518 519 exposure to NO (Mantzouranis et al, 2010). The *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> cells might thus present a low-level activation of the yakA pathway in response to a constant stress due to elevated exposure to RNS, leading to 520 abnormal cell size and motility. Thus, the  $fhbB^{-}$  mutant appears to be affected in aspects unrelated to 521 522 the rapid adaptation to hypoxia that characterize aerotaxis. As such, the data obtained with SNP 523 treatment appear more significant than the one with the  $fhbB^{-}$  strain and lead to the conclusion that 524 aerotaxis is not directly controlled by NO signaling.

525 Based on our experimental data with various strains and conditions, we used a model allowing 526 us to explain many outcomes of ring formation and propagation in our confined spot assay. Cells first need to generate an oxygen gradient through respiration. Changes in cell number or respiration 527 528 capability will mostly affect the timing to generate a sufficiently steep gradient for cells to detect. But 529 eventually, aerotactic motility occurs and a ring is formed as shown with the various mitochondrial 530 inhibitors that reduced but not fully abolished oxygen consumption. Surprisingly, the inhibition of 531 mitochondrial respiration did not block aerotactic ring formation in Dictyostelium contrary to 532 epithelial or breast tumor cells (Devgas et al, 2018; Mikaelian et al, 2022). The inhibition of mitochondrial respiration by oligomycin or antimycin in human cell lines likely prevents the 533 534 formation of the steep oxygen gradient needed to direct the outward cell motility (Mikaelian et al, 535 2022). Like many protists, *Dictyostelium* possesses an alternate oxidase that consumes oxygen and is not blocked by cyanides (Kimura et al, 2010), explaining how the cells retain a significant respiration 536 537 capability even in presence of antimycin or oligomycin. With Dictyostelium, our results allow to 538 distinguish the role of mitochondria as a sink for oxygen to generate a gradient from its putative 539 functions as oxygen sensor. As mitochondria are not necessary for aerotaxis, it excludes their direct 540 role as oxygen sensors for Dictyostelium. Mikaelian et al. have also shown that mitochondria are 541 dispensable for oxygen sensing in human cancer cells by showing that cells with impaired 542 mitochondria will follow the gradient generated by normal one. Since the main ATP biosynthesis 543 pathway is dispensable, a control of aerotaxis through a secondary signal based on energy depletion, 544 such as ADP/ATP ratio is also unlikely. Antimycin not only blocks ATP synthesis but also induces 545 ROS production in Dictyostelium's mitochondria (Downs et al, 2021), yet aerotaxis remained 546 normal. Aerotaxis was also unaffected upon treatment with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or Tiron, a ROS scavenger. Taken 547 together, these data also exclude a role for ROS as secondary signal for aerotaxis in Dictyostelium. Controversially, Biondo et al. suggested that *Dictyostelium* cells utilized intracellular H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as an 548 549 activator or an enhancer of aerotactic migration (Biondo et al, 2021), similar to mammalian cells 550 (Deygas et al, 2018). They performed a confined spot assay with a catalase-deficient strain and 551 reported that its aerotactic ring formation was much quicker than the wild type. However, our 552 experiments and modeling of aerotactic ring shows that the timing of its formation is absolutely not 553 dependent upon the strength of aerotaxis, but is determined by the number of cells in the micro-554 colony and their oxygen consumption. The presented data illustrate well these concepts: the 555 mitochondrial inhibitors that reduce oxygen consumption without influencing aerotaxis do delay the timing of the ring formation, while the  $fhbB^{-}$  mutant with reduced aerotaxis but normal respiration 556 form a ring at the same time than the wild type. In mammalian cells, there are clear evidence that 557

aerotactic motility requires the modification of the receptor tyrosine kinase EGFR by oxidative stress (Deygas et al, 2018; Mikaelian et al, 2022). As the *Dictyostelium* genome is devoid of any receptor tyrosine kinase (Eichinger et al, 2005), it is not surprising that this specific mechanism is not conserved. As some of the strains tested in Mikaelian et al. do not express EGFR, alternate oxygen sensors might also exist in human. While the reported results didn't allow to identify the molecular mechanism behind *Dictyostelium* aerotaxis, we were able to exclude the most expected contributors: mitochondria or secondary signals linked to ROS and RNS.

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#### 566 5 Data Availability Statement

567 The data presented in this study are available upon reasonable request to the corresponding authors.

#### 5686Author Contributions

Conceptualization, S.H., J.-P.R., C.A. and K.F.; methodology, S.H., J.-P.R. Y.V. and K.F.; software,
S.H. N.G and J.-P.R.; validation, S.H.; formal analysis, S.H., J.-P.R; investigation, S.H., J.H. and

571 D.R; resources, S.H., J.-P.R. and K.F.; data curation, S.H.; writing-original draft preparation, S.H.

572 and K.F.; writing-review and editing, S.H., J.-P.R., O.C.-E., C.A. and K.F.; visualization, S.H.;

573 supervision, C.A., J.-P.R. and K.F.; project administration, K.F.; funding acquisition, S.H., J.-P.R.

and K.F. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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**Figure 1**: *fhb* KO cells migrate toward oxygen in the confined spot assay. Snapshots right after (A,E,I,M), 6 h after (B,F,J,N) and 12 h after (C,G,K,O) covering the colony with a glass coverslip non permeable to O<sub>2</sub>: cells quickly consume available O<sub>2</sub> and move outwardly with a characteristic ring front. (D, H, L, P) Kymographs of mean image intensity (horizontal axis: radial distance from spot center; vertical axis: time). (A-D) AX3 parent cell line, (E-H) *fhbA*-, (I-L) *fhbB*-, (M-P) *fhbA*-B-.

747 Bars: 500 μm and 250 μm for snapshots and kymographs (horizontal axis) respectively.

748 Figure 2: Effect of various treatments on the aerotactic response of *Dictyostelium* to an imposed 0.4% to 21% external oxygen gradient (left to right) generated by supplying pure nitrogen and air to 749 750 the gas channels of a double-layer microfluidic device. (A,D,G) Average speed (*i.e.*, absolute value 751 of the displacement per minute) vs. the position x along the gradient direction. (B,E,F) x-directional 752 velocity (*i.e.*, displacement along gradient direction per minute) vs. the position x along the gradient direction. The computed profile of oxygen concentration c is overlapped (gray solid line) on these 753 754 profiles showing the oxygen gradient from 0.4% O<sub>2</sub> to 21% O<sub>2</sub> (right axis). (C,F,I) Maximal (positive) value  $AI_{max}$  of the average aerotactic index. The values and error bars on profiles and on 755 AI<sub>max</sub> are means and standard deviations over independent experiments. Significant differences were 756 757 assessed by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons. 758 \*p < 0.05. The various experimental conditions are the following. (A-C) Response of *fhb* null 759 mutants and associated AX3 parent cell line (N = 3 for *fhbA*<sup>-</sup> and *fhbA*<sup>-</sup>  $B^-$ , N = 6 for *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> and AX3).

760 (D-F) Effect of SNP,  $H_2O_2$  and EtBr on the AX2 control strain (N = 3 for SNP,  $H_2O_2$  and EtBr 761 treated cells, N = 9 for the control AX2). (G-I) Effect of oligomycin or antimycin treatment on the 762 migration of the control AX2 cells (N = 3 for all conditions).

763 Figure 3: Gradients of SNP or  $H_2O_2$  do not induce chemotaxis but reduce the migration speed. (A) 764 Schematic of the Y-shaped microchannel device. (B-C) HL5 culture medium without and with (B) SNP at 100 µM or (C) H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 500 µM were injected from the left and right inlets, respectively, at 765 1 ml/h (i.e., the average velocity at 0.37 mm/s in the merged channel). The average absolute values of 766 767 the x-directional displacements in 1 min (left), and the average chemotactic index,  $CI = \overline{dl_{x,l}/dl_{l}}$ , (right) under the chemical gradient are plotted as a function of the transverse direction x. The error 768 769 bars show standard deviation of independent experiments (N = 3). The calculated profile of chemical 770 concentration C is overlapped (red dashed line).

**Figure 4**: AX2 cells migrate toward oxygen in the confined spot assay even when their mitochondrial activity is impaired. Snapshots (A,E,I,M) right after, (B,F) 6 h after, (C,G,J,N) 12 h after and (K,O) 24 h after covering the colony with a glass coverslip non-permeable to  $O_2$ . (D, H, L, P) Kymographs of mean image intensity (horizontal axis: radial distance from spot center; vertical axis: time). (A-D) AX2 parent cell line (Control), (E-H) EtBr treated AX2, (I-L) oligomycin treated cells, (M-P) antimycin treated cells. Bars: 1 mm and 500 µm for snapshots and kymographs (horizontal axis), respectively.

778 Figure 5: Simulated kymographs of cell density for the various experimental conditions presented in 779 this study: (A) AX3 control with 2000 cells initially plated; (B) *fhbB*<sup>-</sup> cell line with 2000 initial cells; 780 (C) AX2 control cell line with 5000 initial cells; (D) AX2 cells treated with 100 µM SNP 781 (2000 initial cells); (E) AX2 cells treated with oligomycin (5000 initial cells); (F) AX2 cells treated 782 with antimycin (5000 initial cells). The line in (B) is the slope of the ring-band of (A). The lines in 783 (E,F) are the slope of the ring-band of (C). The line in (D) comes from the corresponding control 784 AX2 at low initial density not shown. See Supplementary Table S1 for the experimental parameters 785 used.

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**Table 1**: Changes in expression level of a series of genes in response to oxidative stress or hypoxia. Wild type cells in petri dishes were incubated for 3 h with 100  $\mu$ M SNP as source of NO, 100  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or in a hypoxia chamber with 100% nitrogen, resulting in a final concentration of 0.4% O<sub>2</sub>. RNA was extracted and gene expression quantified by RT-qPCR using untreated cells as standard.

SNP	Нурохіа
1.09	0.10
0.64	3.14
0.44	6.02
	SNP 1.09 0.64 0.44

#### Conditions

fhbB	1.13	0.93	4.07
<b>,</b>			