

The nitroplast and its relatives support a universal model of features predicting gene retention in endosymbiont and organelle genomes

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Abstract

Endosymbiotic relationships have shaped eukaryotic life. As endosymbionts coevolve with their host, towards full integration as organelles, their genomes tend to shrink, with genes being completely lost or transferred to the host nucleus. Modern endosymbionts and organelles show diverse patterns of gene retention, and why some genes and not others are retained in these genomes is not fully understood. Recent bioinformatic study has explored hypothesized influences on these evolutionary processes, finding that hydrophobicity and amino acid chemistry predict patterns of gene retention, both in organelles across eukaryotes and in less mature endosymbiotic relationships. The exciting new discovery and elucidation of more endosymbiotic relationships affords an independent set of instances to test this theory. Here we compare the properties of retained genes in the recently reported nitroplast, two related cyanobacterial endosymbionts which form “spheroid bodies” in their host cells, and a range of other endosymbionts, with free-living relatives. We find that in each case, the symbiont’s genome encodes proteins with higher hydrophobicity and lower ammonium pK_a than their free-living relative, supporting the data-derived model predicting the retention propensity of genes across endosymbiont and organelle genomes.

Introduction

Eukaryotic life has numerous independent examples of endosymbiotic relationships. These include integrated organelles like the mitochondrion and plastid acquired billions of years ago (Smith & Keeling, 2015), through acquisition of a cyanobacterium around 100 million years ago to form the chromatophore in *Paulinella* algae (Gabr et al., 2020), to more recent acquisitions of bacterial endosymbionts in insects (Husnik & Keeling, 2019). Other examples include the nitrogen-fixing endosymbiont in *Azolla* water ferns (Peters & Meeks, 1989; Ran et al., 2010), a cyanobacterial symbiont of diatoms (Flores et al., 2022), a denitrifying endosymbiont in a ciliate host (Graf et al., 2021), “spheroid body” compartments in diatoms (Nakayama et al., 2011), and a nitrogen-fixing symbiont accompanying a picoeukaryotic alga (Thompson et al., 2012) which has since been characterized as an integrated organelle dubbed the “nitroplast” (Coale et al., 2024). In each of these cases, the proto-endosymbiont originally possessed a full genome. As endosymbiotic relationships proceed and endosymbionts become more and more integrated organelles in the host cell, the endosymbiont genome tends to become reduced, with genes completely lost or transferred to the host nucleus (Giannakis et al., 2022; McCutcheon & Moran, 2012; Moran et al., 2009). In some cases this process has been complete, leaving mitochondrion-related organelles with no mitochondrial DNA (Hjort et al., 2010; Makiuchi & Nozaki, 2014). In other cases, a subset of genes is retained in the organelle or endosymbiont.

The retained subset of genes in organelles and endosymbionts varies dramatically across eukaryotes, and the features favouring gene retention are not completely understood (Butenko et al., 2024; García-Pascual et al., 2022; Giannakis et al., 2023, 2024; McCutcheon & Moran, 2012; Smith & Keeling, 2015). Hypotheses have often focused on mitochondria and plastids, and have included roles for hydrophobicity (making it harder for nuclear-encoded genes to be

53 imported to the organelle (Björkholm et al., 2015; von Heijne, 1986)); favouring local individual
54 control of organelles (colocalization for redox regulation or CoRR (Allen, 2015)); the economics
55 of maintaining and expressing genes from different compartments (Kelly, 2021), and others
56 (quantitatively compared in (Giannakis et al., 2022)).

57
58 Recent data-driven work has shown that models containing the same features (including
59 hydrophobicity and acid dissociation constants) predict retention profiles in mitochondria and
60 plastids across eukaryotes (Giannakis et al., 2022; Grub et al., 2022). Strikingly, when trained on
61 mitochondria, this model predicts plastid retention patterns (and vice versa), suggesting that
62 similar principles may shape gene retention in the two cases. Specifically, genes encoding
63 products with high hydrophobicity and low ammonium pK_a were more likely to be retained,
64 along with a role for the centrality of a protein subunit in its complex (related to CoRR).
65 Hydrophobicity and pK_a values were also shown to differ systematically between other
66 endosymbionts and their free-living relatives, in a set of relationships in insects, algae, and
67 protists (Husnik & Keeling, 2019) (Fig. 1A).

68
69 The ongoing elucidation of examples along the spectrum from endosymbiont to mature
70 organelle, including the nitroplast (Coale et al., 2024) and its cyanobacterial relatives
71 (Nakayama & Inagaki, 2017) allow an independent test of this “universal” model. In this note, we
72 ask whether these other relationships, reflecting a spectrum of maturity of endosymbiosis,
73 support this picture.

74 **Methods**

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76
77 Following the pipeline from (Giannakis et al., 2022), we obtained coding sequence records for
78 the collection of genomes in endosymbionts, organelles, and free-living relatives in Table 1. This
79 set was originally chosen from a comprehensive review (Husnik & Keeling, 2019); we included
80 *Wolbachia* as a famous, though not obligate, endosymbiont example. Close free-living relatives
81 were identified from phylogenetic analysis in the references cited therein and confirmed with
82 NCBI Common Taxonomy Tree (Federhen, 2012). For the Rickettsiales examples, most close
83 relatives were also endosymbionts (often parasites), so we took statistics from a sister clade
84 *Ca. Pelagibacter ubique*, the ubiquitous marine bacterium (Rappé et al., 2002). We also
85 included mitochondria and chloroplasts from different species for comparison, compared to
86 modern-day Rickettsia and cyanobacterial examples (Keeling, 2010; Roger et al., 2017). We
87 computed statistics for the protein corresponding to each gene in each record, specifically
88 taking the mean hydrophobicity and mean carboxyl and ammonium pK_a values across amino
89 acid residues in each sequence, using lookup tables from
90 [https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/NO/en/technical-documents/technical-article/protein-](https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/NO/en/technical-documents/technical-article/protein-biology/protein-structural-analysis/amino-acid-reference-chart)
91 [biology/protein-structural-analysis/amino-acid-reference-chart](https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/NO/en/technical-documents/technical-article/protein-biology/protein-structural-analysis/amino-acid-reference-chart) . Analysis was performed in
92 Biopython (Cock et al., 2009) and R (R Core Team & Team, 2022) with libraries *ggplot2*
93 (Wickham, 2016) and *ggpubr* (Kassambara, 2020) for visualization. Code for the analysis and
94 visualization is freely available at [https://github.com/StochasticBiology/endosymbiont-gene-](https://github.com/StochasticBiology/endosymbiont-gene-loss)
95 [loss](https://github.com/StochasticBiology/endosymbiont-gene-loss).

96 **Results**

97
98
99 Genes retained in the nitroplast, spheroid body endosymbionts, and *Richelia* symbiont showed
100 substantial increased hydrophobicity compared to their free-living relatives (Fig. 1B). The
101 spheroid bodies and *Richelia* showed a hydrophobicity increase on a similar scale to that seen
102 in the *Paulinella* chromatophore (Fig. 1A). The increase was slightly greater in the nitroplast, on
103 a similar scale to the nitrogen-fixing *Nostoc azollae* symbiont in the *Azolla* water fern.

Endosymbiont / organelle	Free-living/non-organelle relative	Notes and references
Mitochondrion (<i>Reclinomonas americana</i> and <i>Plasmodium falciparum</i>) (NC_001823.1 and NC_037526.1)	<i>Rickettsia typhi</i> (CP003398.1)	Bacterial-derived organelle found across almost all eukaryotes (Roger et al., 2017; Smith & Keeling, 2015)
Plastid (<i>Chondrus crispus</i> and <i>Hydnora visseri</i>) (NC_020795.1 and NC_029358.1)	<i>Synechococcus</i> PCC 7002 (CP000951)	Bacterial-derived organelle found across photosynthetic (and other) eukaryotes (Keeling, 2010; Smith & Keeling, 2015)
<i>Paulinella</i> chromatophore (CP000815.1)	<i>Synechococcus</i> PCC 7002 (CP000951)	Cyanobacterium-derived organelle in an alga (Lhee et al., 2019)
Nitroplast (UCYN-A, <i>Ca. Atelocyanobacterium thalassa</i>) (CP001842.1)	<i>Crocospaera watsonii</i> (GCF_000235665.1)	Nitrogen-fixing organelle in algae (Coale et al., 2024; Thompson et al., 2012)
<i>Epithemia turgida</i> spheroid body (AP012549)	<i>Rippkaea orientalis</i> (GCF_000021805.1)	Cyanobacterium-derived compartment in diatom (Nakayama & Inagaki, 2017); closely related to <i>Rhopalodia gibberula</i> spheroid body and related to nitroplast (Qiu et al., 2021)
<i>Rhopalodia gibberula</i> spheroid body (AP018341.1)	<i>Cyanothece</i> sp. PCC 8801 (CP001287.1)	Cyanobacterium-derived compartment in diatom (Nakayama & Inagaki, 2017); closely related to <i>Epithemia turgida</i> spheroid body and related to nitroplast (Qiu et al., 2021). <i>Rippkaea</i> is a free-living relative; comparison with another free-living relative <i>Cyanothece</i> is included to link with (Giannakis et al., 2022).
<i>Ca. Azoamicus ciliaticola</i> (NZ_LR794158.1)	<i>Legionella clemsonensis</i> (NZ_CP016397)	Denitrifying endosymbiont in an anaerobic ciliate (Graf et al., 2021); most relatives, including <i>Legionella</i> , are largely intracellular
<i>Nostoc azollae</i> (CP002059.1)	<i>Raphidiopsis brookii</i> (ACYB01000001.1)	Nitrogen-fixing cyanobacterium in a water fern (Ran et al., 2010)
<i>Richelia intracellularis</i> (GCA_000350105.1)	<i>Richelia sinica</i> (GCF_019056575.1)	Cyanobacterial symbiont in diatom (Flores et al., 2022)
<i>Nasuia deltocephalinicola</i> (CP013211.1)	<i>Herbaspirillum seropedicae</i> (CP002039.1)	Bacterial endosymbiont of insects (Bennett & Moran, 2013)
<i>Ca. Sulcia muelleri</i> (CP001981.1)	<i>Porphyromonas gingivalis</i> (AE015924.1)	Bacterial endosymbiont of insects (McCutcheon & Moran, 2007); “free-living” relative does invade cells but can survive independently in oral cavity.
<i>Ca. Tremblaya phenacola</i> (CP003982.1)	<i>Sodalis praecaptivus</i> (CP006569.1)	Bacterial endosymbiont of insects (Enomoto et al., 2017)
<i>Ca. Hodgkinia cicadicola</i> (CP008699)	<i>Rhizobium etli</i> (CP007641.1)	α -proteobacterial symbiont of cicadas (McCutcheon et al., 2009)
<i>Ca. Pinguicoccus supinus</i> (CP039370.1)	<i>Coraliomargarita akajimensis</i> (CP001998.1)	Bacterial endosymbiont in ciliate (Serra et al., 2020); partner is not closest sequence found, but is closest annotated sequence in putative phylogeny
<i>Ca. Fokinia solitaria</i> (CP025989.1)	<i>Ca. Pelagibacter ubique</i> (CP000084.1)	Rickettsiales endosymbiont (<i>Ca. Midichloriaceae</i> family) in ciliate (Floriano et al., 2018); like <i>Wolbachia</i> , all closest relatives are intracellular Rickettsiales – relative taken from a sister group.
<i>Wigglesworthia glossinidia</i> (GCF_000247565.1)	<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> (GCF_019048385.1)	Gammaproteobacterial endosymbiont of tsetse fly (Akman et al., 2002)
<i>Buchnera aphidicola</i> (GCF_003099975.1)	<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> (GCF_019048385.1)	Gammaproteobacterial endosymbiont of aphids (van Ham et al., 2003)
<i>Wolbachia pipentis</i> (GCF_014107475.1)	<i>Ca. Pelagibacter ubique</i> (CP000084.1)	Rickettsiales endosymbiont, can exist as insect endosymbiont or independently (Werren et al., 2008); like <i>Fokinia</i> , all closest relatives are intracellular Rickettsiales – relative taken from a sister group.

104 Table 1. Pairs of endosymbionts and free-living relative, and organelles and non-organelle
105 relatives, used for comparison in this study, with NCBI accessions and references supporting
106 the choice of relative. The species chosen for mitochondria and plastids correspond to very high
107 (*R. americana*, *C. crispus*) and very low (*P. falciparum*, *H. visseri*) organelle DNA gene counts.

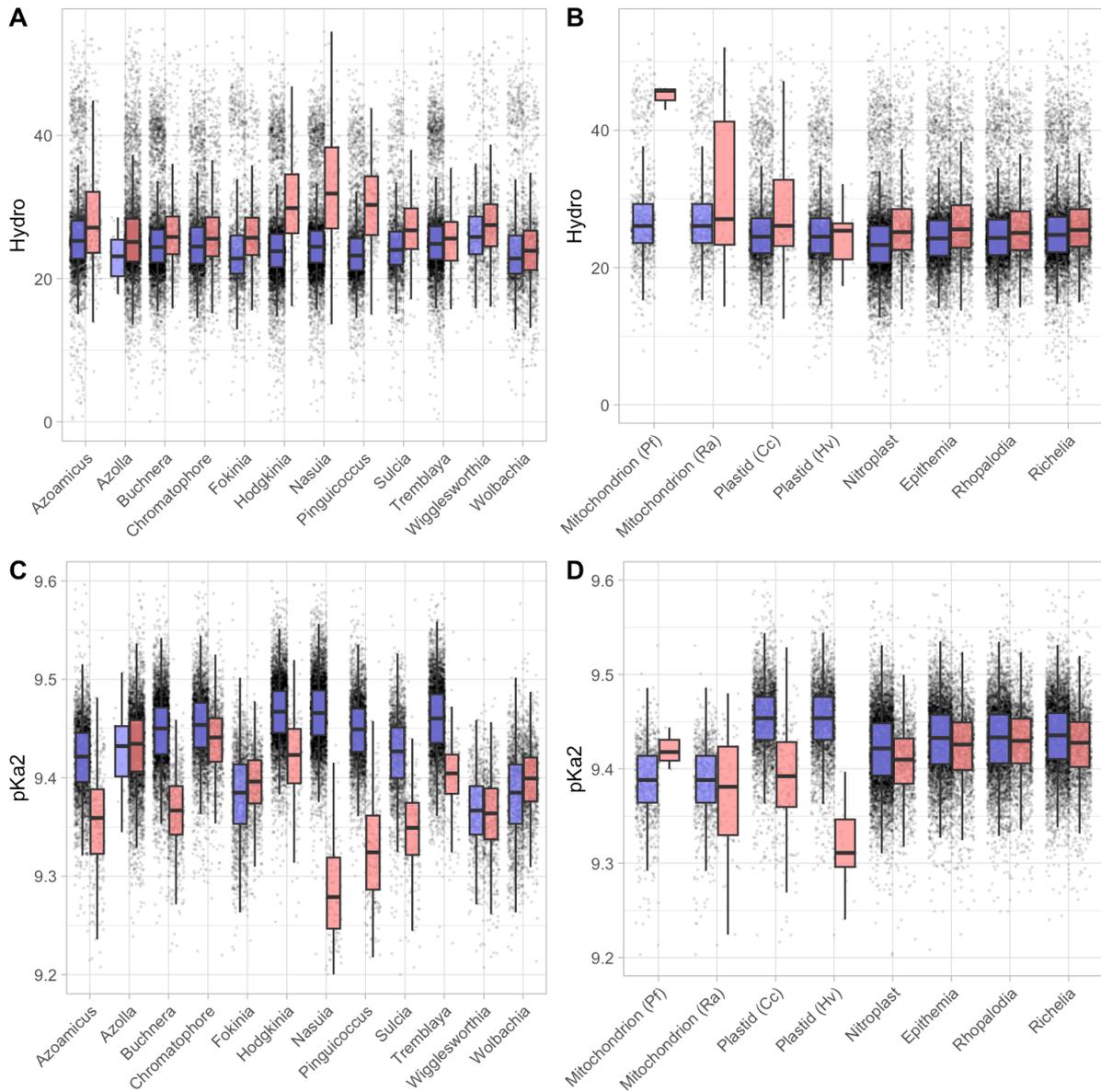


Figure 1. Differences between endosymbiont and free-living gene profiles consistently agree with model predictions. (A-B) Hydrophobicity and (C-D) ammonium pK_a distributions in genes retained in endosymbionts and organelles (red) and free-living close relatives (blue). Individual genes are shown as jittered points; boxplots give a summary distribution. Pf, *Plasmodium falciparum*; Ra, *Reclinomonas americana*; Cc, *Chondrus crispus*; Hv, *Hydnora visseri*.

Ammonium pK_a values were found to predict gene retention patterns in mitochondria and chloroplasts, but were not explicitly examined previously in other endosymbionts in (Giannakis et al., 2022). Fig. 1C shows the trends across the relationships explored in that study. With three exceptions (*Azolla*, *Fokinia* and *Wolbachia*, the latter two of which are in the same order), ammonium pK_a values are lower (sometimes dramatically so) in endosymbionts than in free-living relatives, matching the behaviour expected from the universal model. Plastids also show this behaviour; the *Plasmodium* mitochondrion we consider instead has a higher average ammonium pK_a . This is not inconsistent with the universal model picture: the very high

127 difference in hydrophobicity in the *Plasmodium* mitochondria overcomes the pK_a term in the
128 predictive model, so that the three genes are predicted to have a high retention index. In the set
129 of newly-considered relationships in this study (nitroplasts, spheroid bodies, and *Richelia*),
130 each endosymbiont also showed lower ammonium pK_a values than its free-living relative (Fig.
131 1D), again on a similar scale to the chromatophore, with this effect stronger for the nitroplast
132 than for the spheroid bodies.

133

134 The gene-by-gene correlation across our dataset of hydrophobicity and ammonium pK_a value is
135 weak ($r^2 = 0.022$), suggesting that Fig. 1A-B and 1C-D are not just reporting the same effect twice
136 over; the behaviour in hydrophobicity is largely independent of the behaviour in pK_a . This reflects
137 the fact that in the original model selection process for organelle gene retention, the two
138 features were selected together, suggesting that they provide independent information about
139 gene retention propensity.

140

141 Significance testing for the individual comparisons in Fig. 1 is not directly meaningful, as the full
142 sets of genes from each organisms are being reported – there is no sampling noise to account
143 for, so statements about mean differences are not subject to meaningful uncertainty. The more
144 interesting hypothesis test relates to the observation of partnership comparisons, against the
145 null hypothesis that hydrophobicity and pK_a do not differ between symbionts and relatives. If our
146 symbiont-relative pairs are treated as independent, the probability of these eight new
147 observations (four partnerships, for hydrophobicity and pK_a) all agreeing with the theory under
148 the null hypothesis is $1/2^8 \approx 0.004$. If the two spheroid body partnerships are regarded as
149 reflecting the same case, the probability becomes $1/2^6 \approx 0.016$.

150

151 Discussion

152

153 From the study of mitochondria alone, a model involving hydrophobicity and amino acid
154 biochemistry was found to predict gene retention patterns (Giannakis et al., 2022; Johnston &
155 Williams, 2016). The same model with the same parameters (positive effect for hydrophobicity,
156 negative effect for ammonium pK_a) also predicts plastid gene retention (Giannakis et al., 2022;
157 Grub et al., 2022). We have found here that the same influences separate genes retained in
158 endosymbionts across a range of maturities, from recent insect acquisitions to the more
159 integrated and established chromatophore and nitroplast.

160

161 Why these features? Hydrophobicity was originally argued to challenge protein import to the
162 organelle from the remote encoding of the nucleus (von Heijne, 1986), and has since been
163 suggested to influence mistargeting of protein products (Björkholm et al., 2015). In many of the
164 relationships we consider, it is far from clear whether symbiont genes have been transferred to
165 the nucleus, so whether hydrophobicity acts as a barrier to transfer is less well-posed. However,
166 it can likely still act as a barrier to *loss*. All our cases do seem to involve reduction of the
167 symbiont genome, likely due in part to redundancy, where host-encoded proteins can be used
168 by the symbiont. For this to be the case, host-encoded proteins still require import to the
169 endosymbiont, so the argument that hard-to-import machinery is more likely to be retained can
170 still be used.

171

172 We previously and very speculatively suggested that links to pK_a could relate to the necessity of
173 assembling proteins in a cellular compartment where pH may be different (Giannakis et al.,
174 2022). pK_a reports how easily protons are lost from amino acids under different pH conditions,
175 and hence necessarily influences the dynamics of peptide formation in translation (Watts &
176 Forster, 2010). This influence leads to differences in peptide formation dynamics in different pH
177 environments (Johansson et al., 2011). The differences in compartmental properties – including

178 pH – as endosymbiotic relationships evolve could conceivably therefore mean that the inside-
179 compartment ease of assembling proteins is greater for those with particular pK_a profiles.
180 However, further and more detailed investigation is needed to explore this hypothesis.

181
182 Of course, the consideration of two features alone cannot describe all the possible
183 mechanisms and influences shaping endosymbiont genomes across relationships. The
184 performance of models considering these features for mitochondrial and plastid gene retention
185 is reasonable (Spearman's ρ around 0.5-0.6 for mtDNA and ptDNA genes outside the training
186 sets (Giannakis et al., 2022)), but the effect sizes are smaller in these less mature
187 endosymbiotic cases and the predictive power of such models will be more limited. This note
188 intends only to highlight that these exciting emerging cases provide further independent support
189 for these features having some possible (not complete) influence over endosymbiont genome
190 evolution, not that the question is resolved!

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192
193
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