The cell of eukaryotic organisms (animals, plants, fungi) differs from that of prokaryotic organisms (Archaea and Bacteria) by the presence of several specialized organelles, such as: the nucleus (containing the genetic information of the cell), the mitochondria (site of cellular respiration), or the chloroplast (site of photosynthesis in plants). The existence and organization of mitochondrial and chloroplast DNA, as well as their biochemistry and some structural traits, have led to their being considered as ancient bacteria integrated into a host cell by an endosymbiosis process. One possible hypothesis would be that current eukaryotes would descend from an archaeal ancestor who acquired a proteobacteria, the present mitochondria. Once this step was established, some cells would have incorporated cyanobacteria that are the origin of the chloroplast. At the same time, they have acquired the ability to carry out photosynthesis, and thus an autotrophic metabolism, a particularity of plants. Throughout the process, gene transfer phenomena between symbionts, the taking over of the coding of some organelle proteins by the nucleus and the relocation of gene products into the organelles have closely integrated these prokaryotes within the host cell. The phenomenon of endosymbiosis is therefore very largely responsible for the biodiversity of eukaryotes that appeared during evolution. Thus, photosynthesis has developed in a wide variety of organisms: red and green algae, green plants through primary endosymbiosis, brown algae and many other organisms through secondary or tertiary endosymbiosis.

1. The eukaryotic cell is a chimera
Eukaryotes sont des organismes unicellulaires ou multicellulaires dont les cellules contiennent un noyau et des organelles (réticulum endoplasmique, appareil de Golgi, divers plastides, mitochondries, etc.) délimités par des membranes. Les eukaryotes sont, avec les bactéries et les archées, l'un des trois regroupements de l'ensemble des organismes vivants. Ils correspondent aux organismes multicellulaires (animaux, plantes, champignons) et à certains organismes unicellulaires (protozoaires, par exemple). Le principal特征 de la cellule eukaryote (Figure 1) est l'existence d'un noyau (chez les prokaryotes, le génome est rarement entouré d'une membrane) entouré de cytoplasme contenant de nombreux organelles, tels que les mitochondries. Les mitochondries produisent le dioxygène et jouent un rôle essentiel dans le cycle de Krebs : elles convertissent l'énergie des molécules organiques, obtenues à partir de la digestion (glucose), en énergie utilisable par la cellule (ATP) lors du cycle de Krebs. Cette réaction nécessite l'oxygène et libère du dioxygène, jouant un rôle essentiel dans le cycle du carbone. Les mitochondries sont issues d'un organisme prokaryote (α-proteobacteria) intégré dans les protocellules eukaryotes il y a 2 milliards d'années, où la respiration, présente dans toutes les cellules eukaryotes, est réalisée. Les chloroplastes sont des organelles du cytoplasme des cellules photosynthétiques eukaryotes (plantes, algues). Ils sont le site de la photosynthèse : ils utilisent l'énergie lumineuse pour fixer le dioxyde de carbone et synthétiser des matières organiques. Ils sont donc responsables de la photosynthèse (processus énergétique qui permet aux plantes, algues et certaines bactéries de synthétiser des matières organiques à partir du dioxyde de carbone et de l'énergie solaire). Les chloroplastes sont le résultat de l'endosymbiose d'un organisme photosynthétique prokaryote (type cyanobactérie) dans une cellule eukaryote il y a 1,5 milliard d'années. La photosynthèse est le point de départ de la formation du dioxygène dans l'atmosphère. Les chloroplastes sont fréquemment déplacés ou réorganisés par le cytosquelette qui en attaque l'intracellulabilité (Figure 1).

Le noyau eukaryote est délimité par une double membrane appelée l'enveloppe nucléaire (Figure 1). Il contient le génome nucléaire caractéristique de la cellule eukaryote, c'est-à-dire le matériel génétique de l'individu codé dans l'ADN (acides désoxyribonucléiques). Il est généralement ce génome qui est référé lorsqu'on parle du génome d'un eukaryote. Cependant, la cellule eukaryote contient également des gènes non nucléaires dans les organelles :
- le génome mitochondrial, dans le mitochondrial matrix (Figure 1);
- le génome chloroplastique, dans la stroma du chloroplaste (plantes ou algues).

Les trois gènes constitutifs de ces trois gènes sont organisés de la même manière. Dans le noyau, le génome est distribué sur de plusieurs molécules d'ADN, et organisé en chromosomes différenciés. L'ADN contient des séquences codantes (transcrites en ARN messager, mRNA, et traduites en protéines) et des séquences non-codantes (pas transcrites, ou transcrites en RNA, mais non traduites). La configuration en trois dimensions du noyau génétique a une importance fonctionnelle : la condensation de l'ADN sur et autour des protéines, les histones. Les histones jouent un rôle important dans l'emballage et le pliage de l'ADN, permettant de stocker une grande quantité d'informations génétiques. Les eukaryotes et les prokaryotes ne forment pas le même organisation : ils sont généralement circulaires, mais parfois linéaires (plante mitochondrie), généralement sans intron, et ne sont pas associés aux protéines histones. Les microorganismes (chaque celleu ne possède ni noyau, ni ADN, et ne répresentent jamais
compartmentalization (the only exception being thylakoids in cyanobacteria). Two of the three groups that make up living organisms are prokaryotes: Archaea and Bacteria. (end-tooltip) Single-celled prokaryotic microorganisms living in particular in extreme environments (anaerobic, high salinity, very hot...). Phylogenetic research by Carl Woese and George E. Fox (1977) differentiated between archaea and other prokaryotic organisms (bacteria). Currently, living organisms are considered to consist of three groups: Archaea, Bacteria and Eukaryota. (end-tooltip) do not have a nucleus and their DNA is circular (or -in some rare cases- linear) and organized like that of chloroplasts or mitochondria. In this way, DNA replication, transcription and translation directly take place into the cytoplasm. It should be noted, however, that Archaea are only superficially similar to Bacteria in their cellular aspect: their metabolism differs greatly, and the mechanisms and proteins involved in the replication, transcription and translation processes have similar characteristics to those of eukaryotes. Finally, prokaryotes -in general- do not have internal compartments and, if present, they are less complex (cyanobacteria are an example of an exception). Above all, compartments, when they exist, are not mobile in the cell: the cytoskeleton, which is beginning to be discovered, does not move the cellular components within it.

Table 1. Comparison of eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traits</th>
<th>Procaryotic type cells</th>
<th>Eukaryotic type cells</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Archaea</strong></td>
<td>Naked DNA, mostly circular</td>
<td>DNA associated to proteins (histones)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single chromosome</td>
<td>Several chromosomes, in the nucleus (double membrane)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Existence of plasmids</td>
<td>Split genes (with introns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introns in some genes</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bacteria</strong></td>
<td>Naked DNA, mostly circular</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single chromosome</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Existence of plasmids</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No introns (in general)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cytoplasm</strong></td>
<td>DNA associated to proteins (histones)</td>
<td>Mitosis &amp; meiosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Several chromosomes, in the nucleus (double membrane)</td>
<td>- Split genes (with introns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Split genes (with introns)</td>
<td>- 80S type, free or bound to endoplasmic reticulum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reproduction</strong></td>
<td>Binary fission</td>
<td>Binary fission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Binary fission</td>
<td>- Mitosis &amp; meiosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ribosomes</strong></td>
<td>- free &quot;70S&quot; ribosomes</td>
<td>- &quot;80S&quot; type, free or bound to endoplasmic reticulum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(protein synthesis</td>
<td>- with some eukaryotic properties</td>
<td>- &quot;80S&quot; type, free or bound to endoplasmic reticulum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>machinery)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Size</strong></td>
<td>~ 1-10, in some cases, up to 100 microns</td>
<td>~ 1-10, in some cases up to 100 microns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Membrane lipids</strong></td>
<td>Phospholipids with ether link &amp; Glycerol-1-P backbone</td>
<td>Phospholipids (&amp; Glycerol-1-P backbone)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some branched hydrocarbons</td>
<td>Some branched hydrocarbons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Compartmentation</strong></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Mostly no; sometimes yes (thylakoids in Cyanobacteria, periplasmic space in Gram bacteria...)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cytoskeleton</strong></td>
<td>Probable, but unknown</td>
<td>Yes, but no movements of cell components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Metabolism</strong></td>
<td>Various (phototrophs, lithotrophs &amp; organotrophs), with methanogenesis unique to Archaea</td>
<td>Chemosynthesis or photosynthesis, or heterotrophy (respiration and/or fermentation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 compares the properties of prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells (with their mitochondria and possibly their chloroplasts). It shows that mitochondria and chloroplasts have many characteristics in common with those of prokaryotic cells. Beyond the structure of DNA, eukaryotic cell organelles are formed from pre-existing organelles, dividing by fission to multiply, like a bacteria. Similarly, they have the same protein synthesis machinery (free 70S ribosomes) A huge complex composed of RNAs and ribosomal proteins that allows the translation of mRNAs into proteins. Common to all cells (prokaryotes and eukaryotes), the ribosome varies according to the organisms: 80S ribosome in eukaryotes and 70S ribosome in prokaryotes and cellular organelles (mitochondria, chloroplast). Membrane network of the eukaryotic cell cytoplasm, essential for cellular metabolism (lipid and protein synthesis, calcium storage). Associated with ribosomes, it is the place of synthesis of proteins secreted outside the cell and, on the other hand, proteins and lipids constituting the membranes of cellular organelles (Golgi apparatus, lysosomes, mitochondria, nucleus, ribosomes, vesicles...). Finally, bacteria also have the metabolism of mitochondria (i.e. respiration) and, in some peculiar cases, of chloroplasts (i.e. photosynthesis). On the other hand, the eukaryotic cell is distinguished by the existence of an active protein network, the cytoskeleton, a self-organized system capable of mobility, which positions and displaces the organelles in the cell. Such a protein network is static, or even absent, in prokaryotes, and poorly developed in mitochondria and chloroplasts.

The analysis of genome sequence by DNA sequencing techniques has provided information on the evolutionary history of living beings, including their relationship, also known as their phylogeny. Study of the links between related species. Allows to trace the main stages of the evolution of organisms from a common ancestor and to establish relationships of kinship between living beings. (see What is biodiversity? and Inheritance or convergence?). Molecular phylogenetic analysis carried out on the nuclear genome of maize, as well as on its mitochondrial or chloroplastic genomes, makes it possible to determine the phylogenetic position of this plant within the tree of life (Figure 2). The analysis shows that three lines (two of which belong to Bacteria) are associated within what is considered, as they are structurally and functionally intertwined, as a single organism - showing the triple origin of the species.

All these properties show that the eukaryotic cell is a chimera containing both characteristic components of the eukaryotic cell (the nucleus) and organelles with typically prokaryotic properties (chloroplasts, mitochondria).

The distinction between Procaryotes and Eukaryotes was proposed in 1925 by Edouard Chatton (who named these two cell types), although it was not recognized until the 1950s and 1960s. The chimeric nature of eukaryotic cells had been observed since the turn of the 19th to 20th centuries. If the botanist Andreas Schimper (born in France) had the idea in 1883 that photosynthetic organisms were the result of the combination of distinct organisms, it was the Russian biologist Constantin Mereschkowsky, who first provided solid arguments that some cells come from an intracellular union of two different types of cells (endosymbiosis). In his 1905 article, Mereschkowsky proposed three essential ideas: (a) chloroplasts resemble cyanobacteria that very early in the evolution of distinct organisms, it was the Russian biologist Constantin Mereschkowsky, who first provided solid arguments that some cells come from an intracellular union of two different types of cells (endosymbiosis). In his 1905 article, Mereschkowsky proposed three essential ideas: (a) chloroplasts resemble cyanobacteria. Besides the origin of mitochondria. It is to the credit of the French microbiologist Paul Portier who wrote in a text in 1918 that "all living beings, all animals (...), all plants (...) are constituted by the association, the interlocking of two different beings. Each living cell contains (...) formations that cytologists refer to as...
"mitochondria". For me, these organelles would be nothing more than symbiotic bacteria, what I call symbionts. "These observations received no more attention from scientists than that, and the theory fell into disgrace, especially because plastids and mitochondria were not successfully cultured, which in the 19th century was considered as evidence of a bacterial nature [5]. It took new methods of studying the cell using electron microscopy, biochemistry and molecular biology for the theory of the endosymbiotic origin of organelles in the eukaryotic cell to be brought back to life around 1970 by the American microbiologist Lynn Margulis.

2. How did the eukaryotic cell evolved?

Figure 3. Hypotheses for the origin of eukaryotes. (A) In this so-called "Three Domains" scheme, the two Eukaryotic and Archaea lines have the same origin, each line being as old as the other. (B) The "two-domain" hypothesis comes from recent phylogenetic analyses.

Several hypotheses have been put forward to explain the appearance of the eukaryotic cell about 1.5 billion years ago, almost a billion years after the first prokaryotic organisms appeared on Earth. This question can be addressed in very different ways, depending on whether one considers palaeontological evidence, energy aspects, the origin of the characteristics of the eukaryotic cell or the relationships of the different prokaryotic and eukaryotic lines with respect to each other [6]. Figure 3 shows hypothesis for the origin of eukaryotes and other lines (Archaea and Bacteria).

Some models assume that eukaryotes emerged from a single ancestral lineage via successive mutations during the evolutionary process. Other models postulate that eukaryotes have emerged from a symbiotic association of prokaryotic cells whose fusion would have resulted in the transition from prokaryotic to eukaryotic. These various hypotheses can be partly tested by experience, in particular through the analysis of the genomes of current organisms (prokaryotes or eukaryotes) [7,8].
The nature of the original host cell is a very controversial issue. The idea that it is an Archaea constitutes one of the possible scenarios for the appearance of the eukaryotic cell: according to this scenario, an Archaea host cell and a \( \alpha \)-proteobacteria have established a stable symbiotic relationship (Figure 4, [5]). Among the many possibilities for establishing such a relationship, the existence of trophic relationships between two anaerobic prokaryotes living together, and drawing their food from this association (syntrophy), suggests an origin for mitochondrial symbiosis. In this hypothesis [5], the host would be an Archaea needing hydrogen in its environment to live (so-called \( \text{H}_2 \)-dependent Archaea which produces methane as metabolic waste) and the symbiote an optional anaerobic organism (\( \alpha \)-proteobacteria) which could either breathe in the presence of \( \text{O}_2 \) or perform \( \text{H}_2 \)-producing fermentations under anaerobic conditions. The latter metabolism produces energy only in low concentrations of \( \text{H}_2 \) and benefits from the presence of \( \text{H}_2 \)-dependent archaea. Figure 4 shows how such a situation could have evolved into a eukaryotic cell [5, 9]. The strength of this hypothesis is that the partners need each other mutually, and that this scenario involves archaea and bacteria present in the current biosphere.

In this context, Bacteria and Archaea tend to interact closely in the same way as many current symbiotic associations. This can lead, in principle, to the situation described in Figure 4, in which the bacterial symbiote will be retained by the archeal host and eventually reside inside. In this case, the host does not feed on the symbiote, so integration is not due to a phenomenon of phagocytosis - although there is no doubt that phagocytosis has increased the frequency of integration of endosymbiotes in the evolution of eukaryotic cells [5].

The question of the origin of the eukaryotic cell is also linked to that of the nucleus, the emblematic structure of this cell. The establishment of a new membrane system, the nuclear membrane, in the host after mitochondria acquisition could be due to the aggregation of membrane vesicles composed of bacterial lipids. This separation between nucleus and cytoplasm could have responded to the need to separate, following gene transfer between host and symbiote, the splicing of RNA from DNA translation. It is then the selective pressure that would have led to the fixation of the compartmentalization between the newly formed nucleus and the cytoplasm [5] (Figure 4).

Thus, all eukaryotes currently known would descend from an archaean ancestor who acquired a proteobacterium during the Precambrian period, which became the mitochondria. This step is crucial: the integration of the mitochondria is therefore inseparable from the appearance of the eukaryotic cell as we know it today. The strong energy constraints exerted on the organization of prokaryotic cells were a major factor of innovation at the origin of the evolution of this cell. Only cells that had mitochondria had sufficient energy resources to reach the complexity of the eukaryotic cell, which is why there are no real intermediaries in the transition from prokaryotes to eukaryotes. It is often considered that it is only after this stage has been established that some of these cells have acquired the characteristics of the eukaryotic cell (nucleus, compartmentalization) and,
Eventually, integrated cyanobacteria. At the same time, they have acquired the ability to carry out photosynthesis, which is the origin of chloroplast, thus giving them an autotrophic metabolism.

Recently, some work has nuanced the age of mitochondrial symbiosis [10]. They are based on the age of acquisition of bacterial genes present in the eukaryotic nucleus (i.e., the date of their divergence from homologous genes currently found in free bacteria). They revealed that many genes, some of which contribute to the complexity of the eukaryotic cell, were most likely acquired before mitochondria. This does not imply that the cell into which the mitochondrion entered was as complex as it is now, but it may have already been capable of phagocytosis, for example. This feature (specific to eukaryotes because it depends on the mobility of the cytoskeleton) could have helped in the placement of the mitochondria. The development of eukaryotic complexity therefore remains speculative, but may have begun before mitochondria, even if it undoubtedly benefited from it afterwards.

3. The endosymbiotic origin of the chloroplast

During phagocytosis in white blood cells or many protozoa (Figure 5), ingested cells are often directly digested (as in the case of prey), but sometimes they are permanently lodged in the cells (endosymbiotes). In the endosymbiosis process, organelle therefore results from internalization by phagocytosis without digestion of a prokaryote within a eukaryote (Figure 5). This is the case for chloroplasts in terrestrial plants, but also for red and green algae that are close to them [11,12].

![Figure 5. Phagocytosis and primary endosymbiosis.](image)

During phagocytosis processes, the plasma membrane of the cell invades around the prey and isolates them into endocytosis vesicles where they are then digested as these vesicles fuse with others, the lysosomes, which contain enzymes. By analogy, it was generally considered that the outer membrane of the organelles came from this endocytosis membrane. Things are likely to be more complex (Figure 5). Indeed, the prokaryotes at the origin of chloroplasts or mitochondria are Gram- bacteria, characterized by the existence of a double membrane on the periphery of the bacteria. The outer membrane of chloroplasts, and in particular its outer surface immersed in the cell's cytosol, contains characteristic glycolipids found in cyanobacteria [9, 10, 13]. It is therefore possible that the endocytosis membrane may have disappeared during the integration of the prokaryote into the eukaryotic cell. This is currently observed in *Elysia chlorotica* (see Focus), a marine mollusc that grazes algae, digests part of their cells but not the chloroplasts which is integrated into the cytoplasm of some of its cells. These chloroplasts remain functional throughout the life of the mollusc, which benefits from photosynthesis.

**Primary and secondary endosymbioses**

During the evolution, several endosymbiosis events repeated themselves and led to the formation of particular organisms. In primary endosymbiosis, the eukaryotic cell integrates a living prokaryotic. Thus, the chloroplasts of green line plants (red and green algae, to which terrestrial plants are attached) are derived from primary endosymbioses involving cyanobacteria. In some eukaryotes, mitochondria have evolved as a result of adaptation to anaerobic environments, but have never disappeared: they have produced particular mitochondria (hydrogenosomes) that produce hydrogen, derived from a
mitochondria. It is found in some anaerobic ciliates, Trichomonas, and fungi.[end-tooltip] carrying out H₂-producing fermentation (for example in some Ciliates) [14], but also small organelles, only involved in biosynthesis for the host cell, the mitosomes(ind-text) Organelles present in some single-celled eukaryotic organisms, probably lacking DNA but with biosynthesis functions.[end-tooltip] [15].

![Diagram of endosymbiosis](image-url)

**Figure 6. Secondary chloroplastic endosymbiosis model in the cryptophyte Guillardia theta [see ref. 18]. Here, the nucleus of the internalised red algae (primary host) persists within the secondary host in the form of a vestigial nucleus (or nucleomorph), but with a very small genome (551 kb instead of the 350 Mb of the nucleus).**

Secondary endosymbioses are a reiteration of the process, when a eukaryote already containing an endosymbiont realizes a secondary endosymbiosis within another eukaryote (Figure 6). This is the origin of plastids with more than two membranes present in some groups: internalisation of a green algae in Euglenes; independent internalisation of a red algae in brown algae, etc. Tertiary endosymbiosis, less frequent, have also been described. These various symbioses constitute as many founding endosymbioses of evolutionary lines [16,17].

### 4. Integration of the prokaryote into the eukaryotic cell

All these lines have a common characteristic: a strong genetic regression of endosymbiotes. Compared to free proteobacteria such as Escherichia coli, mitochondria have lost 99% of their genes. In the extreme, hydrogenosomes and mitosomes simply no longer have a genome! Green line plastids show a 95% genetic regression compared to single-celled free cyanobacteria: the number of genes has increased from several thousand in cyanobacteria to about 100 to 200 in chloroplasts... or even none in the regressed plastids of the parasitic plant Rafflesia.

The cause of this regression is obviously the loss of genes necessary for free living, or even for certain metabolic functions. For example, as with all Gram{-ind-text} bacteria detected by a staining technique called Gram staining: they then appear pink under the microscope. The staining technique is based on the membrane and wall characteristics of the bacteria. However, this is not a phylogenetic classification factor: indeed, the'Gram +' and'Gram -' groups are both non-monophyletic. {end-tooltip}, a layer of peptidoglycan{end-text} composed of the wall of Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria. Consists of a carbohydrate part (= polysaccharide) and a peptide part. It maintains the shape of the cells and provides mechanical protection against osmotic pressure. {end-tooltip} is located between the two membranes of cyanobacteria, essential for maintaining the structure of bacteria in the natural environment, of low osmolarity{ind-text} Number of moles of "osmotically active" particles in solution in 1 litre of solution. Concept related to the osmotic pressure exerted by the particles in solution, and responsible for osmosis. Sucrose is a small osmotically active molecule while starch is a huge osmotically inactive glucose polymer. The accumulation of sucrose in a compartment leads to an increase in osmotic pressure in that compartment, which is not the case with starch.[end-tooltip]. Once integrated into the host cell, the prokaryote will find itself in a medium, the cytoplasm, whose osmolarity is very close to that of its inner medium. The peptidoglycan layer then becomes useless, and the genes responsible for the placement of the peptidoglycan layer are then lost in chloroplasts (except in glaucophytes{ind-text}) Unicellular plankton eukaryotes living in lakes, ponds or wetlands in temperate regions. They have flagella (2 of unequal length). They have chloroplasts (called cyanelles) that are blue-green in colour, due to the presence of phycocyanins and allophycocyanins in phycobilisomes. This is a group of reduced diversity. {end-tooltip}).

Although the organelle genome is regressing, the organelle protein repertoire (the proteome), when known, remains similar to
that of the free bacteria proteome: proteins operating with new functions have therefore compensated for the losses. Their coding has in fact been supported by the host’s nuclear genome: genes located in the nucleus are translated into proteins in the cytoplasm which are addressed to the organelle through a transit peptide.*Peptide sequence located at the NH$_2$-terminal end of the newly synthesized proteins in the cytoplasm and which allows them to be addressed to the specific organelle (mitochondria, etc.) where they function. We also speak of addressing peptide. This phenomenon of relocation of the gene product into the organelle is an absolutely essential phenomenon for the integration of the prokaryote into the host cell. The addressing machinery responsible for these transfers is a converging innovation in plastids and mitochondria. It is also an example of the new functions linked to intracellular life. These machines, which allow the import of proteins synthesized in the cytosol through the two limiting membranes of mitochondria and chloroplasts, contain a large number of proteins whose evolutionary origin is complex: proteins of both prokaryotic and eukaryotic origin, encoded in the organelle and nucleus, are found there. Together, they allow the recognition of the protein being addressed, its unfolding followed by import (the protein must be maintained in an unfolded state to cross the membranes), then the cleavage of the addressing peptide before its precise location in its functional compartment.¹⁹

What is the origin of the genes that encode in the nucleus for functions in organelles? There are actually two (Figure 7) [16]. Sometimes, original nuclear genes have replaced organelle genes: the corresponding gene product has acquired the ability to be addressed in the organelle. This activation may have in the past led to a redundancy situation whenever a gene already encoded the same function in the organelle. From this redundancy, the organelle gene could be lost without damage (Figure 7a) [16].

Other cases involve gene transfers from organelle to the nucleus, which takes place in two major steps (Figure 7b). First, a DNA fragment encoding the organelle protein is relocated and then integrated into the nuclear genome. The transferred sequence will only code if, through mutations, it adapts to the nuclear genetic code, and if it acquires regulatory sequences for transcription. It must also acquire the pre-sequence corresponding to the transit peptide, which will ensure proper addressing of the mature protein to the organelle and therefore its correct location. As above, this leads to genetic redundancy: one or the other of the copies can be lost without damage. The loss of functionality and/or the disappearance of the organelle copy then seals the transfer (Figure 7) [16].

The passage of DNA fragments from organelles to the nucleus is not uncommon: large blocks of organelle DNA are inserted into the genome of some plants. These can be activated: nearly 10% of *Arabidopsis thaliana*’s nuclear genes are thus derived from transfers from plastids, often followed by duplications [20]. It is not known how the DNA of the endosymbiote could have been integrated into the host genome, but it is assumed that this occurs during degradations of damaged or aged organelles accidentally releasing pieces of DNA into the host cytoplasm which are then randomly integrated into the host's nuclear DNA.

The cytoplasmic genomes of organelles are at the crossroads of various selective forces, some of which favour their regression (such as the need for co-expression of certain genes), others favour the persistence of certain genes in the organelle genome. This could be the case for selection for a small genomic size that accelerates the multiplication of organelles and allows better transmission to daughter cells: it selects in particular the transfer of genes to the nucleus. The latter thus accumulates genetic potentialities from different lines coexisting with him in the cell [16]. Thus, while endosymbiosis reduces the genomes of endosymbiotes, it nourishes the genome of the host nucleus, contributing to its genetic diversification, and pushing for closer espouses the endosymbiotic association. Endosymbiosis therefore mixes the evolutionary lines present, by nesting but also by genetic chimerization in the nucleus of the host cell.

Finally, vertical transmission of the endosymbiote through generations is essential for the endosymbiosis to persist. Plastids must
divide before the division of the host cell and must be half distributed in the two daughter cells. If their division is too rapid, they could take advantage of the host cell. On the contrary, a low division rate could lead to their disappearance. In this context, the establishment of coordination of cell division and symbiote division has been an essential element in the success of endosymbiosis. While most of the proteins involved in chloroplast division come from the cell division machinery present in cyanobacteria, some proteins are apparently of eukaryotic origin, and all are encoded in the nucleus: this is a way for the host to exercise control over chloroplast division.

5. Is symbiosis driving evolution?

![Figure 8. Endosymbiosis (primary, secondary and tertiary) in the history of plastid evolution. They are responsible for organisms as diverse as red and green algae, terrestrial plants such as apicomplexes (parasites responsible for malaria and toxoplasmosis) or dinoflagellates (components of marine plankton that are particularly important in primary ocean production). [Source: reproduced from Keeling et al [12]. Copyright 2016 by American Journal of Botany, Inc]

In conclusion, extremely diverse symbioses that led to the formation of the eukaryotic cell[1,9] are at the origin of the development of eukaryotic biodiversity during evolution. Endosymbioses found new evolutionary lines. An example of the extreme diversity of organisms derived from endosymbiosis that causes chloroplasts is shown in Figure 8. However, things are not fixed: evolution continues to repeat itself! Today, some unicellular algae, cryptophytes[1] Single-celled organisms, mostly photosynthetic. Their chloroplasts are limited by four membranes, indicating an endosymbiosis of a photosynthetic eukaryote. Cryptophytes occur in many environments, particularly aquatic ones (oceanic environments, fresh waters, wetland pore waters). Some species have become intestinal parasites of metazoans. Some are Dinophyte endosymbiotes[1] and heterocontes (Figure 8), whose four-membrane plastid derives from a secondary endosymbiosis, live in symbiosis in the cytoplasm of dinoflagellates that have lost their own plastids: there are three successive endosymbioses there!

More than a biological curiosity, symbiosis is certainly one of the most powerful motors of the evolution of the living world. It very quickly creates chimeric organisms that can generate new lines. It brings partners closer together and promotes massive gene transfers that also create chimeric genomes: the nuclear genome thus contains eukaryotic genes, but also genes of bacterial origin, derived from mitochondria, or even plastids, with which it borders. Such events may explain the major evolutionary leaps whose evolution seems to be punctuated, which have given rise to the great lines of life and shaped current biological diversity.

Thus, renewing the Darwinian vision of evolution by descent with modification, where one species is likely to give two, the endosymbiosis mechanisms remind us that sometimes two species, previously free and recognizable, merge into one. Man himself can be considered as an extremely integrated symbiotic community, formed by the eukaryotic cytoplasm and mitochondria, but also by the archaea and bacteria that populate, for instance, his gut microbiota...

References and notes


http://www.cell.com/current-biology/references/S0960-9822%2804%2900231-3

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