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RESEARCH ARTICLE

An Ectosymbiosis-Based Mechanism of Eukaryogenesis

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ABSTRACT

The mechanisms proposed for eukaryogenesis are divisible into mitochondria-early and mitochondria-late ones, where the mitochondriate-eukaryotes were evolutionary precursors or products of the amitochondriate-eukaryotes respectively. Analysis of prokaryote-to-eukaryote gene transfers in eukaryogenesis showed two tranches of high-intensity transfers from prokaryotes to eukaryotes mediated by the endosymbioses that gave rise to mitochondria and chloroplasts, and hundreds of medium-intensity transfers which included the transfer of hydrogenase and pyruvate: ferredoxin oxidoreductase genes from the *Thermoanaerobacter-Hungateiclostridium-Sporanaerobacter* group of bacteria to the amitochondriate eukaryotes. Since 94.5% of these medium-intensity transfers generated more than 100 inter-proteome similarity hits between each donor-recipient pair, they were not readily explicable by horizontal gene transfers or endosymbioses, pointing instead to the participation of a huge number of ectosymbiotic transfers. The euryarchaeon *Aciduliprofundum boonei* and the gammaproteobacterium *Escherichia coli* were among the foremost contributors of archaeal and bacterial genes to the eukaryotic DNA-apparati respectively, and the ratios of the genes in different eukaryotes indicated that *Microsporidia* have retained more of the genomic imprint of *Aciduliprofundum* than all other eukaryotes. These findings supported an ectosymbiosis-based mechanism of eukaryogenesis with *Aciduliprofundum* as the Archaeal Parent of Eukarya, and *Microsporidia* as the eukaryotes phylogenetically closest to the Last Eukaryotic Common Ancestor.

Keywords: *Aciduliprofundum*, archaeal parent, ectosymbiosis, endosymbiosis, eukaryogenesis, valyl-tRNA synthetase

INTRODUCTION

For over a century, endosymbiosis has been regarded as a core participant in eukaryogenesis¹. The reason is effectiveness: unlike horizontal gene transfer (HGT) which can bring a small number of exogenous prokaryotic genes into the eukaryotic lineages per transfer, or gradual autogenous development of a postulated phagotrophic Archezoan similar to *Mastigamoeba*², a single endosymbiotic event can introduce a novel organelle into the host cell. There are more than twenty different endosymbiotic models, including the usage of an Archaeal Parent as host^{3,4}; a hydrogen-dependent archaeon as host to a hydrogen-producing bacterial symbiont⁵; a progressive integration of a methanogenic archaeon and a delta-proteobacterium⁶; or a chimeric fusion of bacterium and archaeon with a single nucleus and a single kinetosome⁷.

Different lines of evidence have favored an Archaeal Parent for the Eukarya domain: *Aciduliprofundum boonei* (or Abo; see three-letter abbreviations in Table 1) furnished a well-endowed candidate Archaeal Parent with top inter-proteome similarity bitscores among archaea toward *Giardia* and *Trichomonas*⁸; the Asgard and TACK archaeons provided essential genes for eukaryotic signature proteins⁹ to the eukaryotes^{10,11}; a large excess of archaea-derived over bacteria-derived ribosomal proteins was found in *Giardia*, *Trichomonas*, yeast, and humans⁸; and archaeal genes were more important than bacterial genes for the eukaryotes¹². However, the question of whether the mitochondriate to eukaryotes (MTEs) emerged early prior to the amitochondriate eukaryotes (AMIs), or late following the AMIs has to be resolved. Although

studies on SSU rRNA, elongation factor EF-1alpha and other proteins favored older ages of AMIs relative to MTEs¹³⁻¹⁶, the discoveries of mitochondrial genes in the AMIs have gained momentum for the *degeneration theory* that AMIs arose from the degeneration of MTEs, thereby favoring older ages of MTEs in comparison with AMIs¹⁷⁻²³. Recently, compromises between these views have also been introduced to the effect that, if observations were not completely compatible with a Last Eukaryotic Common Ancestor (LECA) with upfront mitochondria, the formation of some Pre-endosymbiont²⁴ or First Eukaryotic Common Ancestor (FECA)¹⁰ might render possible a less abrupt initiation of eukaryogenesis.

Notably, even upfront mitochondria may not meet more than a limited fraction of the exogenous prokaryotic protein-coding genes required by the developing eukaryote lineages as suggested by the large varieties of such genes in the MTEs^{25,26} or AMIs⁸, for most mitochondrial and chloroplast DNA sections observed in the cell nucleus were gene fragments often less than 150 bp, and their transfer to the nucleus could be a complex process involving RNA intermediates or the acquisition of targeting signals²⁷. Since exogenous prokaryotic protein-coding genes could be important to the development of LECA, the present study was directed to an examination of their biological sources and avenues of entry into the eukaryotes, in order to determine how the extremely narrow scope of major gene-donor endosymbionts consisting of only proteobacteria and cyanobacteria might be overcome by the evolving eukaryotes.

Table 1. Species names and their three-letter abbreviations. See Supplementary Table 1 for descriptions of species.

| ABBR. | SPECIES NAME | ABBR. | SPECIES NAME |
|---------|---------------------------------------|-------|-----------------------------------|
| ARCHAEA | | Bpr | <i>Bathycoccus prasinos</i> |
| Abo | <i>Aciduliprofundum boonei</i> | Bs1 | <i>Blastocystis sp. subtype 1</i> |
| Acf | <i>Aciduliprofundum sp. MAR08-339</i> | Bs4 | <i>Blastocystis sp. subtype 4</i> |
| Afu | <i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> | Cel | <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> |
| Aia | <i>Acidilobus sp. 7A</i> | Cme | <i>Cyanidioschyzon merolae</i> |
| Alt | <i>C.Altiarchaeales archaeon</i> | Cne | <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> |
| Ape | <i>Aeropyrum pernix</i> | Cpa | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> |
| Bat | <i>C.Bathyarchaeota archaeon</i> | Ddi | <i>Dictyostelium discoideum</i> |
| Csu | <i>C.Caldiarchaeum subterraneum</i> | Dme | <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> |

| | | | |
|-----------------|---|-----|-------------------------------------|
| Csy | <i>Cenarchaeum symbiosum</i> | Dpu | <i>Dictyostelium purpureum</i> |
| Fac | <i>Ferroplasma acidiphilum</i> | Dre | <i>Danio rerio</i> |
| Ffo | <i>Fervidicoccus fontis</i> | Eae | <i>Edhazardia aedis</i> |
| Hal | <i>Halobacterium salinarum</i> | Ebi | <i>Enterocytozoon bieneusi</i> |
| Hei | <i>C.Heimdallarchaeota archaeon</i> | Ecu | <i>Encephalitozoon cuniculi</i> |
| Hgi | <i>Haloferax gibbonsii</i> | Ein | <i>Entamoeba invadens</i> |
| Hla | <i>Halobiforma laciisali</i> | Enh | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> |
| Kcr | <i>C.Korarchaeum cryptofilum</i> | Esi | <i>Ectocarpus siliculosus</i> |
| Lok | <i>Lokiarchaeum sp. GC14_75</i> | Gin | <i>Giardia intestinalis</i> |
| Mac | <i>Methanosarcina acetivorans</i> | Gla | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> |
| Mar | <i>C. Marsarchaeota G2 archaeon</i> | Gth | <i>Guillardia theta</i> |
| Mbo | <i>Methanoregula boonei</i> | Hsa | <i>Homo sapiens</i> |
| Mco | <i>Methanocella conradii</i> | Imu | <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> |
| Mes | <i>C.Methanosuratus sp.</i> | Lbi | <i>Laccaria bicolor</i> |
| Min | <i>C.Methanomassiliicoccus intestinalis</i> | Mbr | <i>Monosiga brevicollis</i> |
| Mja | <i>Methanocaldococcus jannaschii</i> | Mci | <i>Mucor circinelloides</i> |
| Mka | <i>Methanopyrus kandleri</i> | Mon | <i>Monocercomonoides sp. PA203</i> |
| Mnt | <i>Methanonatronarchaeum thermophilum</i> | Mpa | <i>Marchantia paleacea</i> |
| Mph | <i>Methanophagales archaeon</i> | Nbo | <i>Nosema bombycis</i> |
| Mte | <i>C.Methanoplasma termitum</i> | Ngr | <i>Naegleria gruberi</i> |
| Nca | <i>C.Nitrosocaldus cavascurensis</i> | Oco | <i>Ordospora colligata</i> |
| Nga | <i>C.Nitrososphaera gargensis</i> | Per | <i>Perkinsela sp. CCAP 1560/4</i> |
| Odi | <i>C.Odinarchaeota archaeon</i> | Pfa | <i>Plasmodium falciparum</i> |
| Pae | <i>Pyrobaculum aerophilum</i> | Pte | <i>Paramecium tetraurelia</i> |
| Pfu | <i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i> | Ram | <i>Reclinomonas americana</i> |
| Psy | <i>Prometheoarchaeum syntrophicum</i> | Sap | <i>Saprolegnia parasitica</i> |
| Sso | <i>Saccharolobus solfataricus</i> | Sce | <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> |
| Tac | <i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> | Slo | <i>Spraguea lophii</i> |
| Tho | <i>C.Thorarchaeota archaeon</i> | Spo | <i>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</i> |
| Tvo | <i>Thermoplasma volcanium</i> | Spu | <i>Spizellomyces punctatus</i> |
| Woa | <i>C.Woearchaeota archaeon</i> | Sra | <i>Strongyloides ratti</i> |
| | | Ssa | <i>Spiroplasma salmonicida</i> |
| | | Tbr | <i>Trypanosoma brucei</i> |
| | | Tgo | <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> |
| | | Tps | <i>Thalassiosira pseudonana</i> |
| | | Trh | <i>Trachipleistophora hominis</i> |
| | | Trv | <i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i> |
| | | Tth | <i>Tetrahymena thermophila</i> |
| | | Ttr | <i>Thecamonas trahens</i> |
| | | Vcu | <i>Vavraia culicis</i> |
| EUKARYA | | | |
| Aal | <i>Anncaliia algerae</i> | Kol | <i>Kosmotoga olearia</i> |
| Acc | <i>Acanthamoeba castellanii</i> | Mau | <i>Mahella australiensis</i> |
| Ago | <i>Andalucia godoyi</i> | Mca | <i>Macrocooccus caseolyticus</i> |
| Asu | <i>Acytostelium subglobosum</i> | Mtu | <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i> |
| Bbo | <i>Babesia bovis</i> | Pde | <i>Paracoccus denitrificans</i> |
| Bde | <i>Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis</i> | Pel | <i>Pelobacter sp. SFB93</i> |
| Bho | <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> | Pmo | <i>Petrotoga mobilis</i> |
| BACTERIA | | | |
| Aae | <i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> | Rpr | <i>Rickettsia prowazekii</i> |
| Aba | <i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> | Rru | <i>Rhodospirillum rubrum</i> |
| Atu | <i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> | Rso | <i>Ralstonia solanacearum</i> |
| Azo | <i>Azospirillum sp. M2T2B2</i> | Spn | <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> |
| Bap | <i>Buchnera aphidicola</i> | | |
| Bja | <i>Bradyrhizobium japonicum</i> | | |
| Blo | <i>Bifidobacterium longum</i> | | |
| Bsu | <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> | | |
| Cex | <i>Caldisericum exile</i> | | |
| Cje | <i>Campylobacter jejuni</i> | | |
| Cpo | <i>Cloacibacillus porcorum</i> | | |

| | | | |
|-----|---|-----|---|
| Cur | <i>Curvibacter sp.</i> | Ssp | <i>Sporanaerobacter sp. NJN-17</i> |
| Cvo | <i>Chelativorans sp. BNC1</i> | Syn | <i>Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803</i> |
| Dra | <i>Deinococcus radiodurans</i> | Tht | <i>Thermobaculum terrenum</i> |
| Dth | <i>Dictyoglomus thermophilum</i> | Tis | <i>Tistrella mobilis</i> |
| Eco | <i>Escherichia coli</i> | Tma | <i>Thermotoga maritima</i> |
| Hth | <i>Hungateiclostridium thermocellum</i> | Tte | <i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> |
| Kae | <i>Klebsiella aerogenes</i> | Xca | <i>Xanthomonas campestris</i> |

Analysis of the genes transferred from prokaryotes to eukaryotes yielded a heatmap that displayed not only the large endosymbiotic transfers associated with the formation of mitochondria and chloroplast but also a host of medium-intensity transfers from a wide spectrum of prokaryotic species that were in all likelihood mediated by ectosymbiosis. These ectosymbiotically transferred genes vastly enriched the variety of proteins in the eukaryote proteomes, and furnished an answer to the long-standing question regarding the origins of the hydrogenase and pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (PFO) genes in the amitochondriate eukaryotes by tracing them to the *Thermoanaerobacter-Hungateiclostridium-Sporanaerobacter* group of bacteria. They also enabled multiple genera of prokaryotes to contribute genes to the DNA apparatus of different eukaryotes; and these contributions indicated a particularly strong presence of *Aciduliprofundum* genes in the DNA apparatus of *Microsporidia* and other AMIs, which supported an Archaeal Parent role for *Aboliprofundum*, the proximity of *Microsporidia* to the Last Eukaryotic Common Ancestor (LECA), and an ectosymbiosis-based mechanism of eukaryogenesis.

METHODS

Source of sequences

VARS sequences from different species were retrieved from NCBI GenBank release (<ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/>)²⁸.

Mitochondrial DNA-encoded protein sequences were retrieved from the RefSeq mitochondrial reference genomes in the NCBI Protein Database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein/>)²⁹.

Estimation of inter-proteome or inter-protein similarity bitscores

Inter-proteome and inter-protein similarity bitscores were performed as described⁸. The proteomes of various species were employed to

construct a local BLAST database using makeblastdb³⁰, and query proteomes or proteins were searched against the local database using BLASTP with a BLOSUM62 matrix and thresholds set to e-value $<1 \times 10^{-5}$, $>25\%$ percent identity and $>50\%$ query coverage. Only when the query and subject sequences that were the best match of each other, viz. when query sequence *n* from species 1 exhibited the highest bitscore toward subject sequence *m* among all proteins of species 2 and vice versa, were the data included in the estimation of similarity.

RESULTS

Heatmap of prokaryote-to-eukaryote gene transfers

To survey the gene transfers from prokaryotes to eukaryotes in the course of eukaryogenesis, a heatmap of the similarity bitscores between different prokaryote (on the x-axis) and eukaryote (on the y-axis) protein-coding genes was constructed. It showed numerous plausible transfers of genes from prokaryotes to eukaryotes at various x-y junctions. The large transfers from proteobacteria to the MTEs, and from Syn (representing cyanobacteria) to the algae Cme, Esi, Gth, Tps, and Bpr would correspond to the genes originating from the mitochondria- and chloroplast-yielding bacterial endosymbionts respectively. The transfer of Syn genes mainly to the algae with limited spillover to other eukaryotes attested to the high specificity of the similarity bitscores in identifying cognate pairs of gene donors and recipients. There were a wide variety of medium-intensity transfers from archaea and bacteria into both the AMI and MTE eukaryotes (Figure 1). These medium-intensity transfers were unlikely to be the outcome of HGTs, because 94.5% of them consisted of more than one hundred similarity hits each (Supplementary Table S2), whereas HGTs usually bring about transfers of single or a small number of genes. Instead, that they consisted largely of

ectosymbiotic gene transfers was suggested by the parallel usage of endosymbiosis in legume-*Rhizobium* interactions, and ectosymbiosis as in the binding of *Nostoc* to specialized leaf cavities on *Anthoceros* host in nitrogen fixation³¹; the critical role of ectosymbiosis in determining benthic biodiversity in the Arctic deep sea³²; protist-spirochete interactions in the termite gut³³; the exchanges of genes between DPANN and *Thermoplasma*³⁴; and the repeatedly evolved host-specific ectosymbiosis between amphipods and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria in a cave ecosystem³⁵. As well, the results in the heatmap were in accord with the findings of a wide variety of archaeal and bacterial genes in the genome of yeast²⁵ and *Gla* and *Trv*⁸, as well as the apparent lack of any Pre-endosymbiont, FECA, or endosymbionts aside from the proteobacteria and cyanobacteria that led to the formation of mitochondria and chloroplast respectively²⁶. Since the total number of prokaryotes that could contribute genes to the

eukaryotes through ectosymbiosis would exceed by far the species included in the heatmap, they ensured an ample supply of exogenous prokaryotic genes to meet the logistic demand of eukaryotic development on an unprecedented scale.

Notably, the display by some archaea of an *accelerated gene adoption* (AGA) phenotype that enriched their genomes with more bacteria-derived genes than other archaeons indicated that highly AGA-active archaeons could recruit exogenous genes efficiently through non-HGT or hyper-HGT mechanisms, except for genes belonging to a subset of bacteria exemplified by *Rpr*, *Bap*, *Cje*, and *Blo* which resisted recruitment via AGA⁸. Surprisingly, on the heatmap in Figure 1, few *Rpr*, *Bap*, *Cje* and *Blo* genes were transferred to the AMI or MTE archaeons, suggesting that the Archaeal Parent excelled, like *Abo* or *Tvo*, in AGA-activity, making it a superb recruiter of ectosymbiosis-transferred genes in the course of eukaryogenesis.

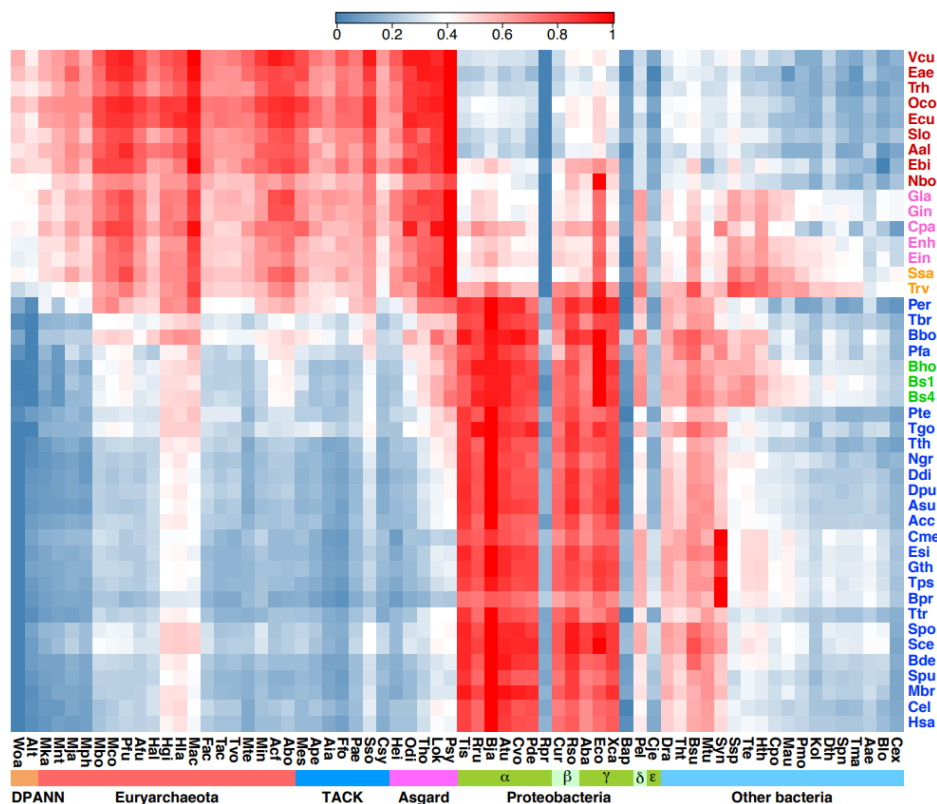


Figure 1. Heatmap of inter-proteome similarity bitscores between eukaryotes and prokaryotes. For each eukaryotic proteome, its similar bitscore toward a prokaryotic proteome is represented by the square at the intersection between a eukaryotic row and a prokaryotic column, and scaled linearly from 0 to 1.0 for each row according to the thermal scale, with zero marking the minimum and 1.0 the maximum bitscores. On the y-axis, AMIs with mitochondria are placed at the top followed by AMIs with hydrogenosomes and MTEs. Different MTEs are ordered on the y-axis broadly by

biological groups and according to the Abo/Eco ratios for the different groups (Figure 7). The aggregate similarity bitscores for individual prokaryote-eukaryote pairs are shown in Supplementary Table 2.

Identification of Archaeal Parent

Since it was probable that the earliest eukaryotes inherited some elements of the information system of the Archaeal Parent, the eukaryotic DNA-replication apparatus would be an attractive site to look for its footprint. Accordingly, the similarity bitscores exhibited by a range of prokaryotes toward the DNA-apparatus genes, viz. Cluster of Ortholog Groups³⁶ for replication, recombination and repair (COG-RRR), and for replication and repair (COG-L), of a variety of eukaryotes were estimated (Figure 2). The results demonstrated that:

- a) A sizable number of archaeons and bacteria exhibited top similarity bitscores toward constituents of the DNA apparatus in different eukaryotes, in keeping with the indication by the heatmap that both archaea and bacteria donated protein-coding genes to the eukaryotes through ectosymbiosis.
- b) Abo exhibited the largest number of top bitscores along with Eco toward the Microsporidia Eae and Vcu, the *Giardias* Gla and Gin, the *Trichomonas* Trv, and a number of top bitscores toward *Fungi* and *C. elegans* but less so toward the algae.
- c) *B. subtilis* exhibited prominent bitscores toward the algae.
- d) The Asgard and TACK archaeons exhibited relatively few top bitscores, except for *Methanosuratus* (Mes) which shared the largest number of top bitscores with Abo toward Eae. Interestingly, while Abo was co-prominent with Mes in top bitscores toward microsporidian Eae, it was co-prominent with *Pyrococcus* (Pfu) in top bitscores toward *Giardia*, suggesting that the phylogenetic branching of AMIs between the Microsporidia and Excavata groups was accompanied by divergent contents of prokaryotic proteins.

These results were indicative of the foremost contributions made by Abo to the DNA-apparatus proteins of eukaryotes, especially the AMIs, in support of Abo as the leading candidate Archaeal Parent. In contrast, because Eco and Bsu genes were continually recruited into both AMIs and MTEs in the course of eukaryogenesis, their genes were more eminent than Abo genes among the non-fungal and non-animal MTEs.



Figure 2. Similarity bitscores of COG groups in the eukaryotic DNA apparatus. Eukaryote panels are divided into Microsporidia (labeled red), Excavata (orange), mixed MTEs (blue), Fungi (purple) and Algae (green). Similarity bitscores displayed by different prokaryotes (x-axis) toward various COG groups (y-axis) are color-coded according to the thermal scale. Within each row, a purple rectangle inside a blue box marks the top bitscore of the row.

Mitochondrial DNA-encoded and mitochondria-like organelle proteins

While there was convincing evidence on the alphaproteobacterial origin of mitochondria³⁷, the large influxes of multiple proteobacterial proteins into the MTEs in the heatmap were consistent with chimerism among mitochondrial proteins³⁸⁻⁴⁰. Numerous species of mtDNA-encoded proteins showed top or high similarity bitscores toward the alphaproteobacterium *Tistrella* (Tis) (Figure 3 top panel), in agreement with the proximity between Tis DNA and mtDNA on the phylogenetic tree for alphaproteobacteria⁴¹. However, proteins from other alphaproteobacteria such as *Orientia*, *Pelagibacter* and *Paracaedibacter* also displayed top bitscores toward some species of mitochondria. For human mtDNA-encoded proteins HM1-11, Tis likewise shared top bitscores with *Rickettsia* and *Ehrlichia* (Figure 3 lower panel). Since *Rickettsia* and *Ehrlichia* are infectious agents of humans, their acquisitions of top bitscores for HM3 and HM2 respectively might have occurred during the infection process. In any case, the entry of the genomic sequences from multiple alphaproteobacteria into the same species of mitochondria was reminiscent of the competition between distinct strains of *Nostoc* ectosymbionts for binding to the leaf cavities of their *Anthoceros* host in nitrogen fixation³¹, suggesting that different alphaproteobacterial DNAs could gain access to the mtDNA through ectosymbiosis, where they would be inserted possibly via non-homologous

recombination at double-stranded breaks in the alphaproteobacterial DNA already positioned as the resident mtDNA, as in the insertion of mtDNA fragments into nuclear DNA²⁷.

The origins of the hydrogenase and PFO genes required for the activities of the mitochondria and hydrogenosomes of AMIs remained to be determined. Hydrogenosome resembled *Clostridium* metabolically⁴²; and the PFOs from *Trichomonas*, *Giardia*, *Spironucleus*, and *Entamoeba* shared a single bacterial origin, even though the data were insufficient to identify that origin⁴³. Since the heatmap showed medium-intensity ectosymbiotic gene transfers from the Clostridial/Firmicute species Tte, Hth and Ssp to *Microsporidia*, Gla, Gin, Enh, Ein, Ssa, Trv as well as MTEs like Bbo and Bho, the hydrogenase and PFO gene sequences from Tte were employed as specific probes for these genes, and the positive responses from AMIs and MTEs with mitochondria or hydrogenosomes (Figure 4, lines 9-10) suggest that their hydrogenase and PFO genes originated from bacteria related to the Tte-Hth-Ssp group; the AMI species with positive responses to the dehydrogenase or PFO probes were devoid of the subunits of the electron-transport proteins succinate dehydrogenase and fumarate reductase. In contrast, a variety of MTEs responded positively to the probes from Pde for these enzymes (lines 11-12) in line with their possession of an electron-transport chain⁴⁴.

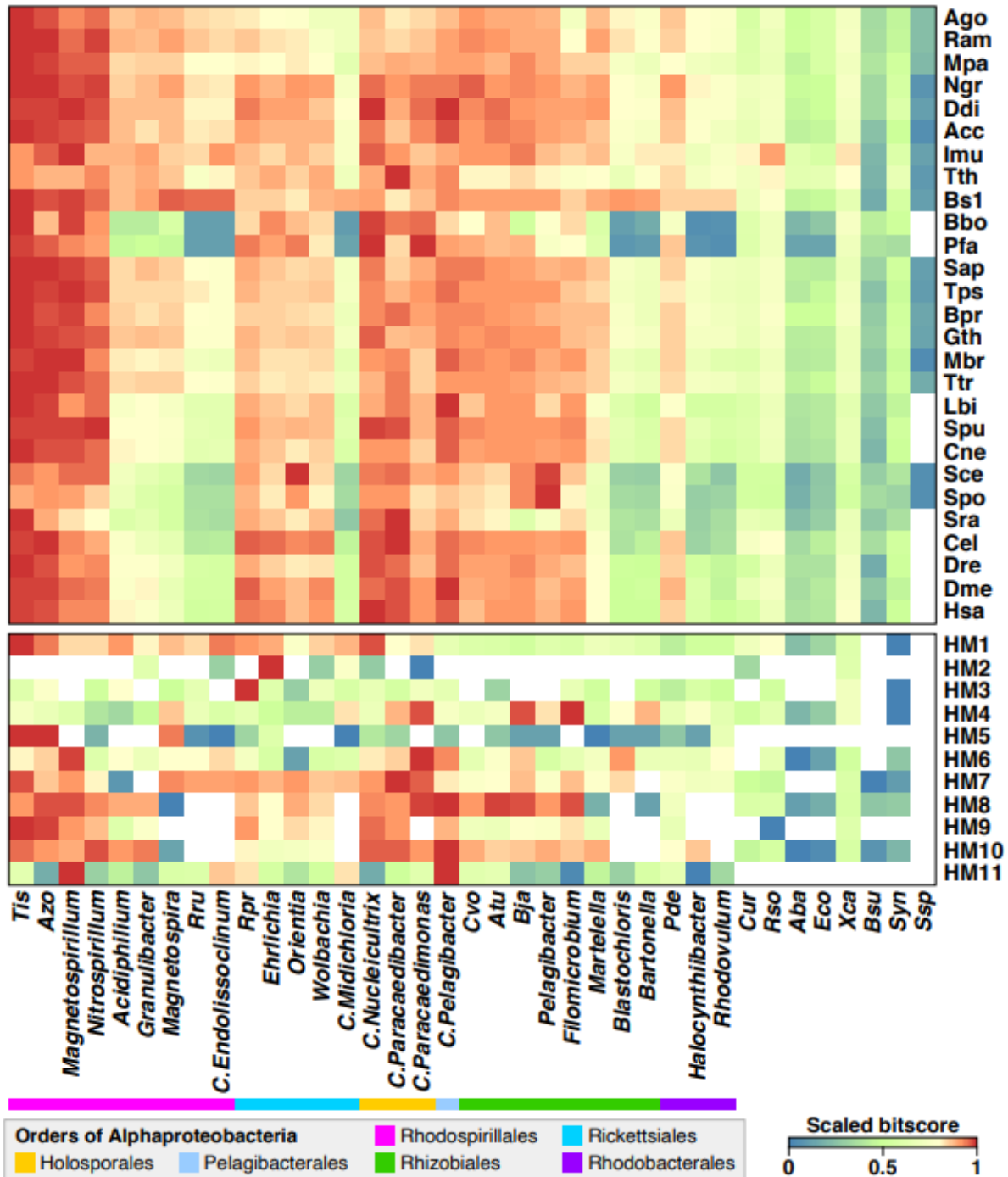


Figure 3. Similarity bitscores of mitochondrial constituents. (Upper panel) Bitscores between mtDNA-encoded proteins of different eukaryotes and various bacterial proteomes. (Lower panel) Bitscores between human mtDNA-encoded proteins (HM1-11, viz. NADH dehydrogenase subunits 1-4, 4L and 5, cytochrome b, cytochrome oxidase subunits I-III, and ATP synthase F0 subunit-6 respectively) and various bacterial proteomes.

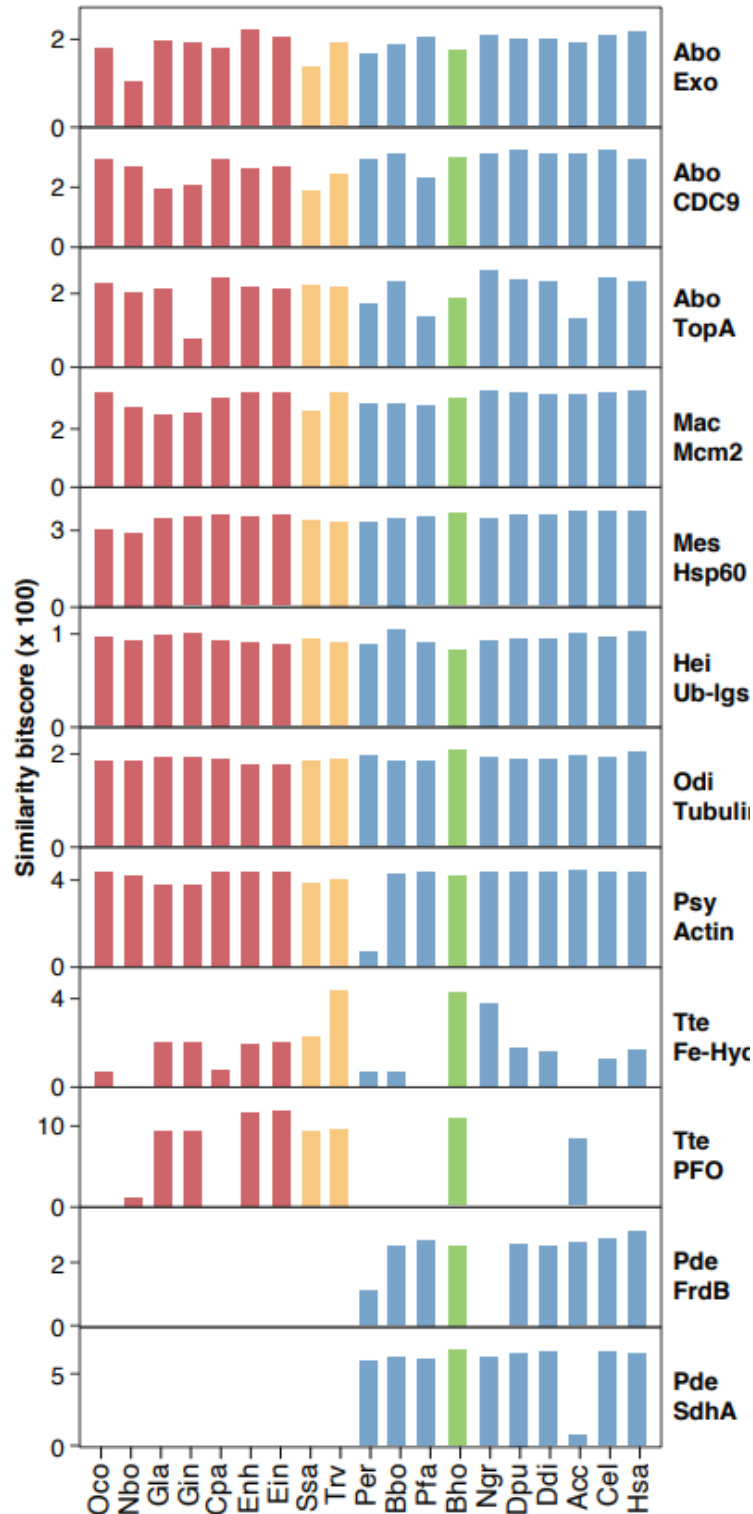


Figure 4. Similarity bitscores between prokaryotic probes and different eukaryotes. The bitscores pertained to twelve different probes (Exo, 5'-3' exonuclease; CDC9, ATP-dependent DNA ligase; TopA, DNA topoisomerase IA; Mcm2, DNA replicative helicase MCM subunit 2; Ub-Igs, ubiquitin-protein ligase; Fe-Hyd, iron only hydrogenase; FrdB Fe-S protein subunit, and SdhA flavoprotein subunit, of succinate dehydrogenase/fumarate reductase). Lines 1-8 show fairly uniform responses from eukaryotes to some non-electron transport protein probes, while lines 9-12 show the varied responses from distinct groups of eukaryotes to electron-transport protein probes.

Degeneration theory

Diplomonads, parabasalids and *Microsporidia*, all AMIs devoid of mitochondria, were postulated to be primitive eukaryotes that evolved prior to the advent of alphaproteobacteria-derived mitochondria based on the sequences of SSU rRNAs and protein markers such as elongation factor EF-1alpha¹³⁻¹⁶. However, this postulate was beset by possible long branch artefacts of rapidly evolving SSU rRNA, and an insert in EF-1alpha sequences, thereby favoring the degeneration theory that the AMIs were formed from degenerating *Fungi*^{45,46}. For instance, the discovery of mitochondrial-like chaperonin 60 (cpn 60) genes in *Trv*, *Gla* and *Microsporidia* was regarded as evidence for the derivation of the cpn60 genes of AMIs from mitochondria⁴⁷. However, the AMI and MTE cpn 60 genes were separated into distinct divisions on the cpn 60 phylogenetic tree without clear indication of a mitochondrial origin of the cpn 60 gene in AMIs. The application of the degeneration theory to cpn 60 was accordingly burdened with unresolved directional ambiguity, for genes could migrate not only from mitochondria to nucleus but also from nucleus to mitochondria⁴⁸.

In another application of the degeneration theory, the VARS sequences of *Trv*, *Gla*, a variety of MTEs and the bacteria *Eco* and *H. influenzae*

were found to display a 37-aa insert just downstream from the KMSK motif, which was explained in terms of the derivation of *Trv* and *Gla* from degenerating MTEs⁴⁹. However, the absence of this insert from all the archaea analyzed ruled against its bequeathal to the eukaryotes by an Archaeal Parent (Supplementary Figure 1); and the presence of an IKDENG insert in the VARS from *Eco* but not *Xanthomonas (Xca)* (Figure 5) pointed to an *Xca*-like origin of eukaryotic VARS. This was supported by the conservation of amino acid residues (marked by red asterisks) between *Xca* and eukaryotic VARS in the vicinity of the KMSK motif. When a maximum parsimony phylogenetic tree rooted by *Xca* was built for the eukaryotic VARS sequences, it allocated the microsporidian VARS sequences to a distinct division on the tree, and *Trv* VARS to a particularly low-branching position near the root (Figure 6). These tree features were consistent with the ectosymbiotic transfer of the 37-aa insert from *Xca* to *Trv*, which in turn passed it to the microsporidian and non-microsporidian divisions of the tree. Within the non-microsporidian division, the two *Giardia* species were lower branching than the MTEs that included the *Fungi*. Therefore the application of the degeneration theory to VARS led to the erroneous conclusion that the VARS of AMIs arose from degenerating *Fungi*.



Figure 5. Alignment of VARS sequences bearing a 37-aa insert downstream from the KMSK motif. Amino acid residues that were totally conserved between all the aligned bacterial, microsporidial, and other eukaryotic VARS sequences are marked by red asterisks below the Hsa sequence. The amino acids in the aligned sequences shown are numbered according to the VARS sequence of Xca (see Supplementary Figure 1), starting from residue 699 and ending with residue 765. The KMSK motif is located at residues 748 – 751.

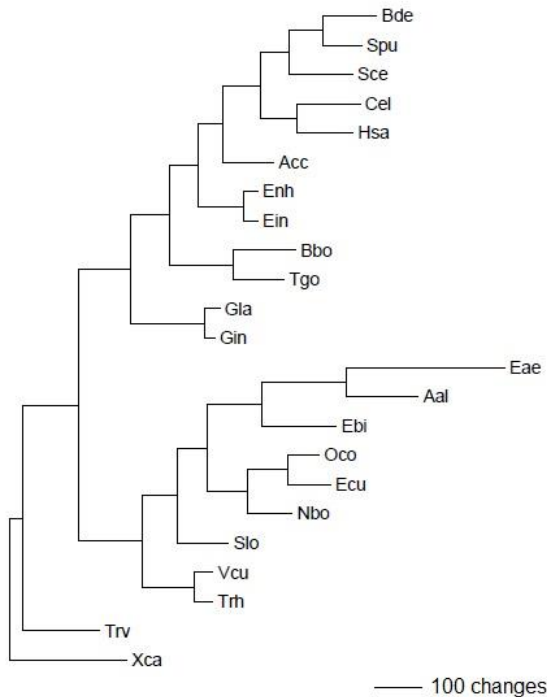


Figure 6. Phylogenetic tree of eukaryotic VARS sequences. The tree was rooted by the VARS of *Xanthomonas campestris*.

Ectosymbiosis-based mechanism of eukaryogenesis

The heatmap in Figure 1 showed widespread influx of prokaryotic genes into the eukaryotes, which would include the genes bequeathed to the eukaryotes by Abo as Archaeal Parent, and genes derived from archaea and bacteria through ecto- and endo-symbioses. Among the ectosymbiosis-derived genes, the Eco genes were outstanding for their continual adoption by both AMIs and MTEs, as indicated by the prominence of Eco genes in the DNA apparatus of a variety of eukaryotes (Figure 2). Accordingly, the ratio between the Abo-derived and Eco-derived genes in a eukaryote genome would provide a measure of how far the eukaryote had evolved from Abo based on the relative abundance of inherited and ectosymbiotically-

transferred genes. As shown in Figure 7, *Microsporidia* displayed the highest Abo/Eco ratios and therefore the closest phylogenetic relationship with Abo among the eukaryotes; the exceptionally low ratio displayed by Nbo among the *Microsporidia* stemmed from a particularly evident Eco-to-Nbo gene transfer on the heatmap. They exceeded the Gla and Gin ratios which in turn exceeded the Ssa and Trv ratios. The MTE ratios were all smaller than the Trv ratio, pointing to the remote relationship between Abo and the MTEs. These findings suggest that the decreasing Abo/Eco ratio could be employed to mark the order of emergence of different categories of eukaryotes, as outlined in the multistage eukaryogenesis mechanism in Figure 8.

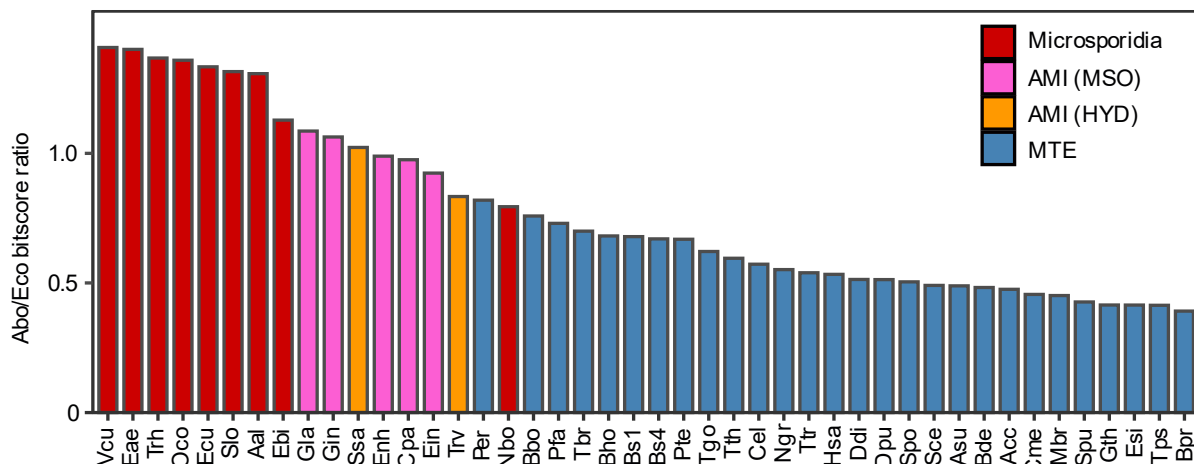


Figure 7. Ratios of eukaryotic similarity bitscores toward Abo relative to Eco. The eukaryotes (x-axis) are arranged in descending order of their Abo/Eco ratios. Columns of color-coded eukaryotes include *Microsporidia*; AMIs bearing mitosome (MSO); AMIs bearing hydrogenosome (HYD); and MTEs. See Supplementary Table 3 for the numerical ratios.

In this mechanism, Abo launched eukaryogenesis at Stage 0. At Stages 1 and 2, genes were recruited from archaeal and bacterial ectosymbionts, the ether-lipid membranes of Abo were gradually replaced by ester lipids, and Abo underwent maturation as Archaeal Parent under the stimulus of mainly archaeal ectosymbionts. At Stage 2, the continual influx of exogenous genes brought about the formation of cell nucleus, marking the birth of LECA. Stages 3 and 4 witnessed the accelerated uptake and adoption of bacterial genes giving rise to the mitosome and hydrogenosome, and continual expansion of host

cell volume as in the case of *Thaumarchaeota* to giant cell size through association with a gammaproteobacterial ectosymbiont⁵⁰. The expanded cell volume enabled the capture and accommodation of proteobacterial ectosymbionts through processes such as phagocytosis⁵¹ or enwrapment with cytoplasmic membranes⁵², turning them into endosymbionts and subsequently mitochondria at Stages 5 and 6, and finally mitochondria with different lineages of alphaproteobacteria mtDNA at Stage 7. Because the formation of cell nucleus preceded the capture

of endosymbionts, this mechanism represented an ectosymbiosis-based mechanism of eukaryogenesis.

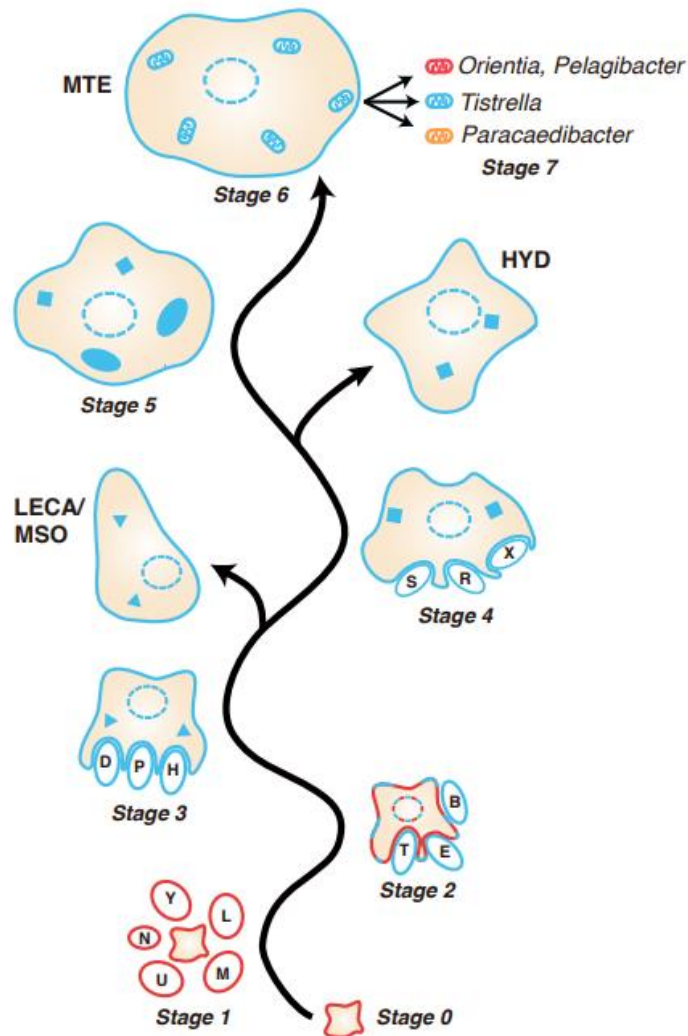


Figure 8. Ectosymbiotic mechanism of eukaryogenesis. Stages 0-7 are developmental stages of the Archaeal Parent lineage. Archaeal membranes are colored red, and bacterial membranes colored blue. Ellipses enclosed by dashed line represent cell nucleus; solid triangles mitosomes, solid squares hydrogenosomes, solid ellipses endosymbionts, and ellipses with cristae mitochondria. The letters Y, L, M, U, N, T, E, B, D, P, H, S, R and X stand for *Prometheoarchaeum*, *Lokiarchaeum*, *Methanosuratus*, *Pyrococcus*, DPANN, *Thermoanaerobacter*, *E. coli*, *B. subtilis*, *Paracoccus*, *Pelobacter*, *Hungateiclostridium*, *Tistrella*, *Ralstonia* and *Xanthomonas* respectively, representing just a small fraction of the archaea and bacteria taking part in eukaryogenesis as ectosymbiotic gene donors to the eukaryotes.

DISCUSSION

Eukaryotes are known to contain a series of ESPs that are fundamental to all eukaryotes, and the Asgard archaeons were major sources of the ESPs in Gla, amounting to 39% of total ESPs with Tho, Odi, and Lok as the foremost contributors⁸, even though the Asgard might not have bridged the gap between prokaryotes and eukaryotes⁵³.

However, because there was no coalescence of the diverse Asgard ESP contributions through a single Asgard donor, Abo became the Archaeal Parent based on several criteria. First, the similarity bitscores displayed by Abo toward *Giardia* and *Trichomonas* exceeded those displayed by the Euryarchaeota archaeons *Ferroplasma*, *Halobiforma*, *Methanosarcina*, *Methanocella*,

Methanonatronarchaeum, *Methanoplasma*, and *Thermoplasma*, the TACK archaeons *Bathyarchaeota*, *Cenarchaeum*, *Korarchaeum*, *Marsarchaeota*, *Nitrososphaera*, and *Saccharolobus*, and the Asgard archaeons, *Heimdallarchaeota*, *Lokiarchaeum*, *Odinarchaeota*, *Prometheoarchaeum* and *Thorarchaeota* despite the small genome size (1.4 Mb) of Abo⁸. Secondly, most proteins involved in DNA precursor synthesis or DNA replication exhibited puzzling phylogenetic patterns that might be repeated 'inventions'⁵⁴. The results in Figure 2 suggest that at least some of these repeated 'inventions' were changes in the prokaryotic source of the proteins, as illustrated by the prominence of *B. subtilis* proteins in the algae but not in the AMLs. Yet in the midst of these puzzling patterns, the Abo proteins were dominant in the DNA apparatus of *Microsporidia*, *Giardia* and *Trichomonas*, with an unsurpassed number of top similar bitscores in each of the Eae, Vcu, Gla, Gin, and Trv DNA-apparati in accord with unusual proximity between Abo and the AMLs.

Thirdly, Abo was 83% similar in 16S rRNA to its closest relative *Thermoplasma volcanium* (Tvo)⁵⁵, and both of these archaeons were devoid of a firm cell wall, for which reason *Thermoplasma* was the first proposed candidate Archaeal Parent for eukaryotes³. Both of them were also outstanding in the strength of their AGA phenotype, which would expedite the capture of bacterial genes⁸. However, Abo was a far more active gene contributor to the AMLs than Tvo in accord with the Archaeal Parenthood of Abo (Figure 1). Fourthly, the usefulness of the Abo/Eco ratio as a measure of the evolutionary distance traversed by any eukaryote from the Archaeal Parent also substantiated the status of Abo as the starting point of eukaryogenesis.

The highest Abo/Eco ratios exhibited by *Microsporidia* among the eukaryotes constituted key evidence for a *Microsporidia*-proximal LECA. In addition, within the non-*Microsporidian* division of the VARS tree, the *Giardia* species Gla and Gin, bearing smaller Abo/Eco ratios than *Microsporidia*, were lower branching than the MTEs in keeping with a core *Microsporidia-Giardia-Fungi-Animalia* evolutionary sequence that was also supported by

the presence of four or more top bitscores for Abo-derived proteins in the *Microsporidia*, *Giardia*, *Trichomonas*, *Fungi* and *C. elegans*. Such a sequence indicates that there was probably no major parallel eukaryogenic lineage besides the Abo-initiated lineages. Notably, two independent multi-protein based fungal phylogenies also showed that *Microsporidia* were primitive *Fungi* rather than the end products from the degeneration of other *Fungi*^{56,57}.

Between different *Microsporidia*, there were such divergence, genome reduction and high evolutionary rates that the utility of their sequence-based phylogenies has been questioned⁵⁸. However, *Microsporidia* developed hexokinases bearing secretion signal sequences, and an elaborate extrusion device consisting of a coiled polar tube with an anchoring disc for their spores; and there are 150 genera and more than 1,200 species of *Microsporidia* capable of infecting virtually all animal phyla accompanied by rapid proliferation within the varied hosts⁵⁹. They can even direct host biology to the formation of cyst-like xenoma that provided high concentrations of energy and nutrients to support massive growth of the microsporidian parasites⁶⁰. Such vitality suggests that the divergence and rapid evolution of *Microsporidia* could be due to their adaptations to widely different hosts more than intrinsic genomic instability. This possibility was supported strongly by conserved aspects of microsporidian molecular biology, in the relative uniformity of their elevated Abo/Eco ratios, the thoroughly conserved amino acid residues of their VARS in the vicinity of the KMSK motif together with other eukaryotes including humans as marked by red asterisks in the sequence alignment (Figure 5), and the coherent clustering of all the *Microsporidia* species within a separate division on the VARS tree (Figure 6).

In the ectosymbiosis-based mechanism (Figure 8), the proteome of Abo at Stage 0 contained 1,500 proteins, while a mitosome-containing eukaryote at Stage 3 exemplified by *Giardia* contained 5,000 proteins. This rate of proteome expansion would likely exceed the capability of HGT, but not ectosymbiosis especially when Abo the Archaeal Parent was endowed with top-ranked

AGA activity. Thus the evolutionary events mediated by ectosymbiosis in the present study could include the recruitment of distinct groups of archaeal and bacterial genes into the DNA apparatus of different kinds of eukaryotes (Figure 2); the appearance of multiple species of alphaproteobacterial gene segments within the same mtDNAs (Figure 3); influx of the genes for hydrogenase and PFO into the AMIs (Figure 4); and the entry of a VARS with a 37-aa insert from Xca into the eukaryotes (Figure 5). These diverse ectosymbioses were in accord with the historical utilization of distinct groups of bacterial genes by different higher taxa of archaea⁶¹, suggesting that ectosymbiosis might have long been employed by archaea to enhance their biodiversity with bacterial genes.

In this mechanism, Stages 1-7 of eukaryogenesis followed the curve of Abo/Eco decreases, with *Microsporidia* emerging first, then the other AMIs and finally the MTEs, which was opposite to the supposition made by the degeneration theory that the MTEs emerged first on the basis of two unjustified assumptions. First, the detection of a given protein in both the AMIs and the MTEs was interpreted by the theory as evidence for the evolutionary derivation of the AMI from the MTE. Such an interpretation would be valid if protein-coding genes were unidirectionally transferable from mitochondria to nucleus but not vice versa. However, there were not only mitochondria-to-nucleus transfers, but also nucleus-to-mitochondria transfers among living organisms. For instance, the present-day *Arabidopsis* mitochondrial tRNA repertoire includes 12 'native' tRNAs, and six plastid-derived tRNAs (now mitochondria-encoded)⁴⁸. Secondly, the theory assumes that the hydrogenosomes in AMIs evolved from the mitochondria of the MTE precursors of the AMIs²¹, which was inconsistent with the non-utilization of hydrogenases by present-day mitochondria, suggesting that the AMI hydrogenosomes must have acquired the hydrogenase genes from some other genome³⁷. This expectation was fulfilled in the present study by the finding that the AMIs obtained their hydrogenase genes from bacteria related to *Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis* via ectosymbiosis (Figure 4 line 9).

CONCLUSION

The three-domain structure of life proposed by Woese et al⁶² represents the core of biology. To understand the functional significance of the separation of the three domains, elucidation of their origins becomes essential. In this regard, the identification by Xue et al⁶³ of a LUCA proximal to *Methanopyrus kandleri* (Mka), a resident of deep-sea hydrothermal vents based on analysis of alloacceptors tRNAs, has been confirmed by the top VARS-IARS bitscore of Mka among 5,000 species of organisms⁸; the hydrothermal vent-like habitat of LUCA⁶⁴; the oldest age of the *Methanopyrus* lineage among archaea dating back to 2.8 Gya⁶⁵; and the invention of the wobble rules of translation by Mka in using uniformly the GNN and UNN anticodon duo to decode the four codons in all family tetracodon boxes, and employment of tRNAs(Ser) from adjacent sequence space to read the non-contiguous UCN and AGY codons of Ser⁶⁶. These findings verified the prediction that such vents represented the birthplace of life on Earth^{67,68}, which has turned the search for possible hydrothermal vents on Mars and other planets into a priority of exobiological exploration, and focused the search for an origin of eukaryotes within the Archaea.

Recently, evidence based on the use of dark fermentation by both *Thermococci* and primitive *Clostridia* for the production of hydrogen, and the sister-clade relationship between them in the minor-Thermococcal division of the VARS tree has led to the proposal by Wong et al of a *Thermococci*-to-*Clostridia* evolutionary pathway for the emergence of Bacteria from Archaea⁶⁹. As suggested by Nierhaus⁷⁰, this emergence was propelled by bacterial innovations such as the use of ester-lipids instead of ether-lipids, initiation of translation by N-formylMet, and most importantly the acquisition of elongation factor 4 (EF4/LepA). EF4/LepA, highly conserved in bacteria but absent from archaea, catalyzed ribosomal back-translocation and remobilization of stalled ribosomes, thereby enhancing protein synthesis five-fold under conditions of high intracellular magnesium ion or low temperature⁷¹. Therefore it would increase the survival rates of bacterial derivatives of archaea compared to the archaea themselves in crossing the

ice-cold seawater surrounding their original deep sea hydrothermal-vent habitats to spread to diverse niches in the mesothermal zone.

While the origin of Archaea shaped an interface between the biological and inorganic worlds, and the origin of Bacteria from Archaea consisted of a vertical transmission of genes accompanied by extensive mutations, genome reductions and possible influx of exogenous genes, present evidence suggests that Eukarya depended on a completely different kind of origin that deployed a continual stream of ectosymbioses and a small number of endosymbioses. On account of the small size of the Abo genome, MTEs with upfront mitochondria generated by engulfment of proteobacterial endosymbionts were extremely difficult to achieve owing to spatial constraint. As a result, the development of Abo as Archaeal Parent had to rely for a prolonged period on prokaryotic genes recruited through ectosymbiosis. This enforced reliance presented a remarkable opportunity for the eukaryotes. Instead of extracting the genes from a handful of endosymbionts and becoming just highly capable archaeons, Abo and its offspring were free to pick and choose any number or variety of ectosymbiotically transmitted genes for adoption from a vast pool of prokaryotic genes equal to the accumulated innovations from eons of archaeal and bacterial evolution. Consequently, they kept enriching themselves with all varieties of genes until they were large enough in cell size to capture endosymbionts like alphaproteobacteria and cyanobacteria, and transform them into powerhouse organelles to drive their unending expansion. Without the immense advantages of ectosymbiosis, one can only ponder how many more billions of

years it would take the Eukarya to attain such accomplishments as language and use of tools.

Data availability

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this article and its supplementary information files. The following are available online. Supplementary Table 1: Descriptions of species analyzed. Supplementary Table 2: Inter-proteome similarity bitscores between eukaryotes and prokaryotes. Supplementary Table 3: Ratios between *Aciduliprofundum*- and *Escherichia coli*-derived protein-coding genes in different eukaryotes. Supplementary Figure 1: Organisms with or without a 37-aa insert in valyl-tRNA synthetase downstream of the KMSK motif.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, T.F.W. and H.X.; data analysis, C.K.C. and X.L.; writing, T.F.W., C.K.C., X.L. and H.X.. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; or in the writing of the manuscript.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplementary Tables 1, 2, and 3 are [available here](#)

Supplementary Figure 1. Species or organisms with or without a 37-aa insert in Valyl-tRNA synthetase downstream of the KMSK motif. All sequences are numbered according to the *Xanthomonas campestris* sequence which begins with residue 741 and ends with residue 816 in the alignment below. Notably, the algae *Cme* and *Bpr* among the eukaryote were devoid of the insert.

| ARCHAEA | | |
|----------------|--|--------------------------|
| Abo | ILAPDGRPMHTSWG NV ---VDPLEIID | EYGADALRFFAA |
| Afu | VFGEDGRKMSKSLGNV---IVPEEVVE | KYGVDALRQWAA |
| Hei | VVDSKGEKLSKSKGTD---VQPEKMIE | KYGGDAVRFYGA |
| Mac | VLGPDGHKMSKSLGNV---ISPEEVT | QYSADAFRQWGA |
| Mbo | VLGEDGFKMSKSRGNV---IVPEDLVG | RYGADALRQWAA |
| Mco | GLDPHGKAMHKS SGNI ---VEPLPIVD | KYSADALRWAA |
| Mja | VFGEDGHKMSKSRGNV---VEPDEIIA | KYGADALRLWAS |
| Odi | VLDEHGRAMHKS SLGNI ---VWVEPLLK | KYGADALRLF GC |
| Pfu | VAGPDGRKMSKSYGNV---VSPEEVIP | KYGADALRLWTA |
| Psy | IRDAK Q QKISKSMENIEDYDPLKIIIE | NVGADSLRYALI |
| Sso | VLGPDGTRMSKSKGNV---VSPLDRVN | DFGADAI RMALL |
| Tho | VVDENGETMSKSKGNS---PPMPFVE | KYGADAMRMFGI |
| Tvo | VFDMYGEKMSKSKGNI---VDIYAITD | KYGADALRFWAS |
| BACTERIA | | |
| Aba | VRDGGQKMSKSKGNV---LDPLDLIDGIDLES LVAKRTTGLMNP DKAAKIEKSTRKEFPEGINAYGTD AVRFTFC | |
| Atu | VRDKNQKMSKSKGNV---IDPLELID | EYGADALRFTLA |
| Bja | VRDEK GAKMSKSKGNV ---IDPLNLID | EYGADALRFTLA |
| Cje | VKDEQGRKMSKSLGNV---IDPNESIK | EYSADILRFTLA |
| Mtu | IRDESGRKMSKSKGNV---IDPLDWVE | MFGADALRFTLA |
| Pde | VRDEK GAKMSKSKGNV ---IDPLTLID | EYGADALRFTLT |
| Pel | VRDASGQKMSKSKGNV---IDPLTVID | EYGTDAFRFTLA |
| Rru | VRDEK GQKMSKSKGNV ---IDPLDMTD | QYGTDALRFTLI |
| Rso | VRDSEGGKMSKSE GN T---LDPVDLIDGIAL EPLL VKRTTGLRRPKDAPNVEK TRKEFPD GIPAFGADALRFTFA | |
| Ssp | VRDSQGRKMSKSLGNG---IDPLDVID | KYGADALRFTLV |
| Syn | VRDENGKMSK SANNG ---IDPLLLIN | KYGTDALRYT LI |
| Tis | VRDEK GQKMSKSKGNV ---IDPIDLID | KYGADAVRFTLL |
| Tte | VRDALGRKMSKSLGNG---IDPLEVIE | KYGADTLRFTLV |
| Eco | IRDDEGQKMSKSKGNV---IDPLDMVDGISLPELLEKRTGNMMQ PLADKIRKRTEKQFPNGIE PHGTDALRFTLA | |
| Xca | IRDAQGQKMSKSKGNV---LDPLDIIDG ISIEDLVAKRTSGLM QPRMAEKIEKATRKEFPDGI AH GADALRFTIA | |
| MICROSPORIDIAN | | |
| Vcu | VRDANGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLYVIEGIELDE LAKSVT ---STNLEPREVKTALEGQK KDFPMGIP RCGSDALRFT | |
| Eae | IRDAHGKMSKSLGNVIDPLFIINGIKLSEM NNILKESH NGYISNQELLRALDSQK KDFPRG VANCGADALRFA | |
| Trh | VRDANGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLYVIEGVQLDE LAKSIT ---ATNLDPKEIKAALEGQ RKDFPMGIP RCGSDALRFT | |
| Oco | VRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPIFVIDGCSL NELIATMK ---SGNLDEKEVKVAEALR KDFP NGIPRCGADALRFT | |
| Ecu | VRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPIFVIDGCSL EKL ISTMR---SGNLDEREVKRAEAVLRQ DFP NGISRCGADALRFA | |
| Slo | VRDTHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPIFVIEG ISL KGLNESI----MTNLDKDEIKKAI EGQK KEYPNGIPQCGADALRFA | |
| Aal | IRDSMGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLFIINGCEL KEL ND SI ----SSTLSKKERDISLTY QK TFPNGIKKCGADALRFC | |

Ebi VRDAHGKMSKSLGNVIDPIFVIDGASQEELISKI----SINVSNEEKKRAIASIKLDYPNGIPKCGADALRFA
 Nbo VRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLFVIDGSSLENLIEVMK----SGNLALSEIKLAEKNLRKDFASGIAKCGADALRFT

OTHER EUKARYOTES

Gla VRDAHGAKMSKSLGNVVDPIDVIKGITLQEMGDKVR----ATNLPPKEIERALELQSKDFPIGIPCEGTDALRFA
 Gin VRDAHGAKMSKSLGNVVDPIDVIKGITLQEMGDKVR----ATNLPPKEIERALELQSKDFPIGIPCEGTDALRFA
 Cpa VRDSQGRKMSKSLGNVIDPIEIEIEGIFDDLNKKLD---QGNLPLQEIKKSKENNLKDFPDGIPCEGADALRIG
 Enh VRDAQGRKMSKSLGNIIDPIDVIEGISELKLNDKLY---TYNLPEKECVIAAEGQKKDFPNGIIECGTDAMRFA
 Ein IRDAQGRKMSKSLGNVIDPIDVIEGISELGLNEKLY---IYNLSEKEIAIATKGGQMNFPHGIEECGTDAMRFA
 Ssa VRDSKGEKMSKSLGNVIDPLDCIFGISLKDHLARLR---EGNLSENEIKLAEKLKQAEFPAGIAQCGTDALRMA
 Trv VRDAQGRKMSKSLGNVIDPRHVINGIELEDLVAEIE---NSTFDDKEKKIAIDGRKADFPNGIPQCGTDAMRLA
 Tbr VRDKNGEKMSKSLGNVIDPLFIISGVSLALHDTVR---SGNLDEKEVSRALKLQRETFPNGIPECGSDALRFG
 Bbo VRDARGEKMSKSLGNVLDPLEVIEGATLDSLIDKIN---NSSLPQGEIKKAIVLKQKQFPQGIACGTDALRLG
 Pfa IRDSRGEKMSKSLGNVVDPLDIIDGISELNLKHEKLY---EGNLPEKEIKRAIELQKKEFPKGIPCEGTDALRFG
 Bho IRDKYGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLEIINGCDLESMLEKIR---HGNDPAEVERASQGRQDFPEGIPMCGTDALRFG
 Pte IRDKDGKMSKSLGNVIDPLEIIDGTSLENLKSIIY---EGNLKDEVERAIKQKEEFPNGIPECGGDALRFG
 Tgo VRDAHGQKMSKSLGNVIDPLEVISGISELQDLQAKLH---KGNLPEKEIKRAEEVLKKEFPKGIACGCDALRLG
 Tth IRDSQGEKMSKSLGNVIDPLEIIDGCNLQTLIQKIQ---EGNLDKKEMNRAVQLKSKEYPEGFPECGSDALRYG
 Ngr VRDKQGRKMSKSLGNVIDPIDMIKGTTFEDLKRGIE---KNTNITKQEMKKALQGVQQFPNGIPQCGTDALRFT
 Ddi VRDSHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPNDVIKGISLDELIAKLY---EGNLDSKEIEKATSGVKSDFPGTGIAECGTDAMRFA
 Dpu IRDSQGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLNIVINGITLTKELKDNVL---SSNLTDKEKSIAKGLDKEFPQGIQCGTDSLRLS
 Asu VRDSHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLEVISGITLDQLVENLK---KGNLDPVELDRATLGLKQDYPEGITECGTDAMRFA
 Acc VRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVVDPIDVTEGIRLTDMHQKLR---EGNLEASEVEKAIKGGQKDFPNGISECGTDAMRFA
 Cme VRDANGRKMSKTLGNVTDPLEVI-----SKYGTDALRFT
 Esi VRDKFGRKMSKTLGNVIDPLEVIYGCDDLTLHKKLE---VGNLPAKEMQKAKEGQKMDFPKGIPCEGADALRFG
 Tps VRDKDGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLEVINGCTLETLLLEKLE---GGNLPPKEVARAKDQEAADFPEGIPECGSDALRFG
 Bpr VRDEQGRKMSKSLGNVVDPLGVI-----GDVGCALRFT
 Ttr VRDKSGRKMSKSLGNVLDPADLIQGASLDKLLAALE---GGNLPAGERARASSDLKAAFPDGFPAFGTDALRYA
 Spo VRDSEGRKMSKSLGNVIDPMDIINGVTLENMCKALL---EGNLPISEVHKSSKQMEKAFPNGIPAQGIDIFRYG
 Sce VRDAQGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLDVIITGIKLDDLHAKLL---QGNLDPREVEKAKIGQKESYPNGIPQCGTDAMRFA
 Bde IRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPIDVIEGVTLLQLQERLE---KGNLDPRELVARDGQKDFPNGIPECGTDALRFG
 Spu VRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPMDVINGISLPLLHCRLE---EGNLDAIREIKKAQEGQKRDFPNGIPQCGTDAMRFA
 Mbr IRDKEGRKMSKSLGNVVDPMVVRNGITLEDLHERLL---EGNLDPALERAKEGQKRQFPDGIKCEGVDALRFA
 Cel IRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLDVIRGISLNDLQAQLL---GGNLDEKEIAVAKEGQARDYPDGIPCEGVDALRFA
 Has VRDAHGRKMSKSLGNVIDPLDVIYGISLQGLHNQLL---NSNLDPSEVEKAKEGQKADFPAGIPECGTDALRFG