

Origin of cyanobacterial thylakoids via a non-vesicular glycolipid phase transition and their impact on the Great Oxygenation Event

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1 **Title** 2 Origin of Cyanobacteria thylakoids via a non-vesicular glycolipid phase transition and impact 3 on the Great Oxygenation Event 4 **Authors** Nolwenn Guéguen, Eric Maréchal* 5 6 **Affiliation** Laboratoire de Physiologie Cellulaire et Végétale; INRAE, CNRS, CEA, Université Grenoble 7 Alpes; IRIG; CEA Grenoble; 17 rue des Martyrs, 38000 Grenoble, France. 8 9 E-mail addresses 10 nolwenn.gueguen@cea.fr; eric.marechal@cea.fr 11 12 * Correspondence 13 Eric Maréchal 14 eric.marechal@cea.fr 15 16 **Submission date** July 29th, 2021 17 18 **Number of Figures** 19 4 20 21 Word count 22 6,810 23 24 **Running Title** 25 Origin of thylakoids in Cyanobacteria 26 27 **Special Issue** 28 Plant Lipids, to be published in association with the 9th Asian-Oceanian Symposium on Plant 29 Lipids (ASPL2021)

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Highlight and Abstract

- 32 The quest for thylakoid origin resists vesicular-based scenarios. An unexplored hypothesis is
- based on Hexagonal II-forming glycolipids, turned within nanoseconds and without any
- 34 external energy source into membrane multilayers.

35 Abstract

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- 36 Appearance of oxygenic photosynthesis in Cyanobacteria is a major event in the evolution of
- 37 Life. It had an irreversible impact on our planet, promoting the Great Oxygenation Event
- 38 (GOE), ~2.4 b.y.a. Ancient Cyanobacteria predating the GOE were *Gloeobacter*-type cells,
- 39 having no thylakoids. They hosted photosystems in their cytoplasmic membrane. The driver
- 40 of the GOE was proposed to be the transition from unicellular to filamentous Cyanobacteria.
- However, the appearance of thylakoids expanded the photosynthetic surface by multiple logs:
- 42 this multiplier effect would be more coherent with an impact on the atmosphere. Primitive
- 43 thylakoids self-organize as concentric parietal uninterrupted multilayers. The quest for their
- origin resists vesicular-based scenarios. This review reports studies supporting that *Hexagonal*
- 45 *II*-forming gluco- and galactolipids at the periphery of the cytosolic membrane could be
- 46 turned within nanoseconds and without any external source of energy into membrane
- 47 multilayers. Comparison of lipid biosynthetic pathways further shows that ancient
- 48 Cyanobacteria contained only one anionic *Lamellar*-forming lipid, phosphatidylglycerol.
- 49 Acquisition of sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerol biosynthesis correlates with thylakoid
- 50 emergence, possibly enabling a sufficient provision of anionic lipids to trigger an *Hexagonal*
- 51 *II*-to-*Lamellar* phase transition. With this non-vesicular lipid-phase transition, a framework is
- also available to reexamine the role of companion proteins in thylakoid biogenesis processes.

53 Keywords

- 54 Cyanobacteria; thylakoid; Gloeobacter; monoglucosyldiacylglycerol;
- 55 monogalactosyldiacylglycerol; Hexagonal II lipid; phosphatidylglycerol;
- sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerol; MGD; Great Oxygenation Event

57 Abbreviations

- 58 DGDG, digalactosyldiacylglycerol
- 59 MGDG, monogalactosyldiacylglycerol
- 60 MGlcDG, monoglucosyldiacylglycerol
- 61 SQDG, sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerol
- 62 PtdCho, phosphatidylcholine
- 63 PtdEtn, phosphatidylethanolamine
- 64 PtdGro, phosphatidylglycerol

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Main Text

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1 Introduction

- The appearance of oxygenic photosynthesis is a major event in the early evolution of Life and
- 69 had an irreversible impact on our planet. This bioenergetic and trophic innovation, coupling
- H₂O splitting upon exposure to sun light with the reduction of atmospheric CO₂, occurred in
- the Cyanobacteria ancestral lineage (Sanchez-Baracaldo and Cardona, 2020; Cardona, 2019,
- 72 2018; Cardona et al., 2019). It deeply modified ecosystems, positioning Cyanobacteria as
- prominent primary producers at the base of trophic networks, and allowed the development of
- a tremendous biodiversity of secondary and tertiary consumers. At geological scale, the
- production of O_2 as a byproduct of water splitting enabled the oxygenation of the atmosphere
- during the Great Oxygenation Event (GOE), 2.4-2.32 billion years ago (b.y.a.) (Bekker et al.,
- 77 2004; Lyons et al., 2014).
- Later, oxygenic photosynthesis was acquired by Eukaryota of the Archaeplastida phylum, by
- 79 integration of an intracellular organelle called the 'chloroplast', deriving from the engulfment
- of a close relative of the deep-branching *Gloeomargarita* cyanobacterium, combined with
- 81 components acquired by gene transfers from a variety of other sources (Ponce-Toledo et al.,
- 82 2019; Sato and Awai, 2017; Sato and Takano, 2017; Marechal, 2018). Following this unique
- 83 endosymbiotic event, the expansion of marine eukaryotic phytoplankton correlated with the
- 84 oxygenation of the oceans during the Neoproterozoic Oxygenation Event (NOE), 800-600
- 85 million years ago. This so-called 'rise of Algae' is thought to have created food webs with
- 86 even more efficient nutrient and energy transfers, driving ecosystems towards larger and more
- 87 complex organisms, including animals (Brocks et al., 2017).
- 88 Access to increasing genomic data and refine reconstructions of molecular phylogenies have
- 89 improved our understanding of the early evolution of photosynthetic reaction center proteins
- 90 (Sanchez-Baracaldo and Cardona, 2020; Cardona, 2019, 2018; Cardona et al., 2019).
- 91 Schematically, oxygenic photosynthesis requires two sets of dimeric reaction centers, one of
- 92 type II (in photosystem II, PSII) and one of type I (in PSI), all deriving from a unique origin
- 93 in an ancestral anoxygenic photosynthetic prokaryote. Whereas single PSII-like or PSI-like
- 94 reaction centers have evolved independently in various clades of anoxygenic phototrophic
- 95 Bacteria (Hohmann-Marriott and Blankenship, 2011), crown group Cyanobacteria inherited
- both an heterodimeric versions of PSII, where water-splitting occurs, and an heterodimeric
- 97 PSI (Sanchez-Baracaldo and Cardona, 2020). Recent estimates of the age of PSII and PSI
- 98 gene families coincide with geological evidence of oxygen traces throughout a division of
- 99 Precambrian time called the Archean eon (4-2.5 b.y.a.). This implies that oxygenic
- photosynthesis was established by 3.0 b.y.a., long before the GOE (Cardona, 2018; Cardona
- 101 et al., 2019). It is still unresolved whether a 'protocyanobacteria' acquired the two sets by
- gene duplication of anoxygenic photosystems (Martin *et al.*, 2018) or *via* gene transfers
- 103 (Raymond et al., 2002). Amongst plausible scenarios, a versatile protocyanobacteria
- 104 containing two reaction centers, i.e. an H₂S splitting PSI (photolithotrophy) with an
- expression controlled by fluctuating hydrogen sulfide concentrations, and a PSII
- 106 (photoorganotrophy), might have developed in shallow water at the vicinity of temporary
- 107 hydrothermal springs. This protocyanobacteria having a flexible metabolism adapted to
- alternating redox conditions, might have acquired oxygenic photosynthesis by mutations in
- the direction of a constitutive expression of both Types I and II reaction centers, and an
- extraction of electrons, firstly from manganese and secondarily from water. This hypothesis
- was termed the 'Redox switch hypothesis for the first Cyanobacteria' (Allen, 2016; Allen,
- 112 2014).

- Since oxygenic photosynthesis predated the GOE by about 0.5 to 1 b.y., what was the actual
- driver of this major atmospheric upheaval if not photosynthesis appearance per se? The extant
- diversity of Cyanobacteria evolved after the GOE (Sanchez-Baracaldo and Cardona, 2020).
- 116 Most ancient Cyanobacteria are likely to have populated low salinity habitats and dry
- environments (Blank and Sanchez-Baracaldo, 2010) as small unicellular forms close to
- present-day Gloeobacter (Sanchez-Baracaldo and Cardona, 2020; Mares et al., 2019; Raven
- and Sanchez-Baracaldo, 2021). The GOE was proposed to be the consequence of the ability
- of Cyanobacteria to form multicellular filaments, resembling extant *Pseudanabaena*,
- facilitating the formation of microbial mats, a feature supposed to increase their ecological
- dominance to such an extent that atmospheric O₂ underwent this dramatic increase (Sanchez-
- 123 Baracaldo and Cardona, 2020).
- An alternative hypothesis based on studies reviewed here is that such an important
- atmospheric change as the GOE requires an extraordinary multiplier effect that
- multicellularity, introducing no additive effect, is not sufficient to explain. The transition from
- 127 Gloeobacter-type to other Cyanobacteria, is marked by the emergence of internal membranes
- sacks, known as 'thylakoids', allowing a significant gain in the area of the 'solar panels'
- accommodating photosystems (Mares et al., 2019). This review highlights the role of lipid
- components in Cyanobacteria membranes, disregarded until now in the determinant processes
- at the origin of thylakoids.

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2 Emergence of thylakoids in early Cyanobacteria had a multiplier effect on the photosynthetic surface per cell.

- 134 Thylakoids are evidently not required for oxygenic photosynthesis since *Gloeobacter* hosts its
- photosystems in its cytoplasmic (or inner) membrane (Raven and Sanchez-Baracaldo, 2021).
- The evolution of thylakoids starts with the appearance of continuous linear sacks with several
- concentric, uninterrupted layers (Mares et al., 2019). Based on a spherical cell with a 1 µm
- diameter (volume = $0.53 \mu m^3$), a *Gloeobacter* membrane surface would be ~3.14 μm^2 . Taking
- into account that in *Gloeobacter*, photosynthetic proteins are concentrated in domains
- representing less than a third of the cytosolic membrane (Rexroth et al., 2011), the actual
- photosynthetic surface is in the 1 µm² range. By contrast, in a *Cyanobium*-like coccal cell of
- same size (Mares et al., 2019), with four concentric thylakoids lining the plasma membrane
- 143 (so-called parietal thylakoids), the photosynthetic surface would reach ~20 µm². Parietal
- thylakoid fascicules encountered in *Synechocystis*-like coccal or *Leptolyngbya*-like
- filamentous cyanobacteria (Mares et al., 2019) with four layers would reach about the same
- photosynthetic surface per cell. Cyanobacteria containing parallel or radial arrangement of
- thylakoids (Mares et al., 2019) can increase the photosynthetic surface even further. An
- 148 Arthrospira-like cell with 50 radial thylakoids or a Cyanothece-like cell with 50 parallel
- thylakoids can reach a photosynthetic surface in the range of 50-70 µm², based on the
- summed area of flattened cisternae, within the same volume. In the course of evolution,
- following chloroplast integration in Archaeplastida, thylakoids evolved in the direction of an
- increased surface and organization in functional domains with the development of stacks and
- grana, which do not form in Cyanobacteria. In the cells of eukaryotic microalgae, the volume
- of the plastid is commonly higher than 10 µm³ (Uwizeye et al., 2021) whereas in vascular
- plants, such as maize, the volume of mesophyll cell chloroplasts can reach volumes higher
- than 100 µm³ (Kutik et al., 2004). Based on a 10-100 µm³ chloroplast containing 50
- thylakoids, a gross calculation gives a photosynthetic surface of 10^{-3} - 10^{-2} mm² per
- chloroplast. Overall, a population of 1 million *Gloeobacter*-type cells harbors a global
- photosynthetic surface of about 1 mm², whereas 1 million of *Arthrospira* or *Cyanothece*-like

cells can easily exceed 50-70 mm². Because of this obvious multiplier effect, the appearance of thylakoids seems therefore the most plausible determinant in the GOE.

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One would naturally examine extant protein machinery(ies) involved in thylakoid biogenesis to trace back its origin and look for evidence supporting this hypothesis. The difficulty lies in the still unresolved process(es) governing the biogenesis of this membrane system, most notably because this question is mainly posed considering protein components only. We advocate here that spontaneous organization of lipids, following an appropriate biosynthetic sequence, would be sufficient to produce very large amounts of membrane surfaces in nanoto microseconds. This process does not require vesicles budding from the Cyanobacteria plasma membrane or the chloroplast inner envelope membrane. Actually, the traditional hypothesis for a 'vesicular-based' biogenesis of thylakoids finds little support in ultrastructural analyses of Cyanobacteria and chloroplasts, where the observation of inner membrane invaginations is extremely rare (Mares et al., 2019; Botte et al., 2011a; Boudiere et al., 2012; Bastien et al., 2016; Gupta et al., 2021). Some reports highlight the presence of vesicles in eukaryotic proplastids prior their conversion into chloroplasts (Mechela et al., 2019), but the lack of such vesicular compartment in Cyanobacteria disqualifies this mechanism at the origin of thylakoids in ancient clades. Likewise, the focus on Synechocystis 'thylakoid convergence zones' where thylakoids merge into high-curvature membranes in close contact with the plasma membrane, also observed in some chloroplasts (Gupta et al., 2021), do not account for the biogenesis of more primitive parietal thylakoids organized in concentric and uninterrupted layers (Mares et al., 2019). Here, we do not disregard the fact that protein components evolved in the direction of helping, organizing, guiding, orchestrating the process of thylakoid biogenesis, leading to the very sophisticated and efficient processes observed today, but we assume that no evidence support their determinant role in the early stages.

3 Thylakoids emerged from a mixture of lipids allowing a non-vesicular biogenesis of membranes

187 Membrane bilayers are made of polar lipids, harboring a 'polar head group' exposed to the surface, and hydrophobic 'tails' inside its core. How can a lipid bilayer form without any 188 189 source of vesicles, protruding or budding from a parent membrane, merging to produce large 190 surfaces? An answer developed here comes from the biophysical properties of polar lipids. 191 Depending on the equilibrium between polar head interactions and repulsive forces between 192 hydrophobic tails, each of the polar lipid can self-organize and form so called 'phases', either 193 with a positive curvature (e.g. micellar tubules, also known as 'hexagonal I', or HexI), or no 194 curvature ('lamellar', or Lm) or with a negative curvature ('inverted hexagonal', or HexII) 195 (Jouhet, 2013). These properties have attracted the attention for long, with a focus on lipids 196 promoting an $Lm \rightarrow HexII$ transition, since the disturbance introduced by inverted hexagonal 197 phase was considered essential for the promotion of highly bent and fused domains (Jouhet, 198 2013; Gawrisch et al., 1992; Toombes et al., 2002; Kuzmin et al., 2001). Little 199 thermodynamic studies are available to evaluate all possible phase transitions in the different 200 lipid mixtures found in nature. Our knowledge relies on model lipids such as 201 phosphatidylethanolamine (PtdEtn), which organization in Lm or HexII phases depends on its 202 chemical structure, i.e. the length and desaturation level of acyl chains; physical properties, 203 such as hydration or temperature; and the presence of other lipids (Gawrisch et al., 1992; 204 Toombes et al., 2002; Mannock et al., 2001; Harper et al., 2001).

It is essential to keep in mind that so-called "HexII lipids" are also found in membrane bilayers, either because in their pure state they can form both HexII or Lm phases depending

207 on temperature, hydration, etc., or because when mixed with Lm lipids, the lamellar phase is 208 the more stable organization. In past studies, $Lm \rightarrow HexII$ was the direction examined in the 209 search for plausible membrane fusion mechanisms. The enthalpy of dioleoyl-PtdEtn phase 210 transition (ΔH) measured by differential scanning calorimetry had a positive value (+0.3 $kcal.mol^{-1} = 1.255 \text{ kJ.mol}^{-1}$), meaning that energy external to the system had to be provided 211 (Gawrisch et al., 1992). It was further showed that neither the $Lm \to HexII$ nor the $HexII \to$ 212 213 Lm kinetics had any significant deviation from a power-law relationship: a relative change in 214 the Lm phase results in a proportional relative change in HexII and vice versa (Toombes et al., 2002; Garab, 2016). The $Lm \leftrightarrow HexII$ transition is therefore remarkable for the symmetry 215 216 between forward and reverse dynamics (Toombes et al., 2002). A corollary is that the HexII \rightarrow Lm transition for this pure lipid species may release some energy, and therefore occur 217 218 spontaneously. Same spontaneous $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ transition of dioleoyl-PtdEtn could occur by 219 changing the hydration level (Gawrisch et al., 1992). The $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ phase transition 220 provides a solution to the unresolved question of the emergence of early membrane systems, 221 especially with such extended surface as thylakoids.

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Let us first consider the lipid composition of Cyanobacteria in a simplified evolutionary context. A variety of chemical structures can produce impermeable membranes delineating cells (Jia et al., 2019). We have evidence of two distinct options for the structure of polar lipids in primordial membranes, based on their conservation in the three domains of life. These primordial lipids are all built on a three-carbon glycerol scaffold (numbered sn-1, sn-2, sn-3). On the one hand, Archaea are bounded by membranes made of isoprenoid hydrocarbon chains linked via ether bonds to an sn-2,3-glycerol phosphate backbone, and multiple derivatives with two polar heads, which can form lipid monolayers (Salvador-Castell et al., 2021; Imachi et al., 2020). On the other hand, Bacteria and Eukaryota are primarily bounded by membranes made of acyl-glycerolipids, deriving from a precursor containing fatty acids linked via ester bonds to an sn-1,2- glycerol phosphate backbone (Imachi et al., 2020). It is established that in Archaea, the presence of phytanyl chains, ether bonds and bipolar lipids confer a high stability to their membranes (Guler et al., 2009; Garcia-Arribas et al., 2015; Balleza et al., 2014). By contrast, in Bacteria and Eukarya, acyl-glycerolipids may confer a higher flexibility, especially via the controlled addition of double bonds to the acyl chains, tuning the lateral fluidity of membranes, but also with the balance between HexII and Lm lipids (Garab, 2016; de Kruijff, 1997). Increasing evidence support that Eukaryogenesis originated from the merger between an archaeal host and a bacterial endosymbiont related to modern α-proteobacteria (Imachi et al., 2020). This raises the puzzling question of the loss of Archaea-type lipids in Eukarva. An hypothesis is that the integrated α-proteobacteria gave rise to a proto-mitochondrion, producing ATP by specific protein machineries preferring Bacteria-type membranes, which were subsequently conserved (Sojo, 2019). In these initial membrane matrices, other lipidic structures and hydrophobic polypeptides were integrated, contributing to the multitude of functions harbored by cell membranes.

Acyl-glycerolipids with a polar head containing a phosphate group, such as the *HexII* lipid PtdEtn, or phosphatidylcholine (PtdCho), an *Lm* lipid, are conserved in the majority of Bacteria and Eukarya clades, with the notable exception of crown Cyanobacteria who only contain one phospholipid, phosphatidylglycerol (PtdGro) (Petroutsos *et al.*, 2014; Yuzawa *et al.*, 2012; Sato and Awai, 2016). PtdGro is anionic and its proportion is regulated in response to phosphate availability (Boudiere *et al.*, 2014; Frentzen, 2004). The conservation of PtdGro is consistent with its role in the assembly and functioning of photosynthesis components (Boudiere *et al.*, 2014), supported by the lethality of PtdGro-less mutants of Cyanobacteria (Kopecna *et al.*, 2015; Hagio *et al.*, 2000; Sakurai *et al.*, 2003a, b; Kobori *et al.*, 2018) and

plants (Babiychuk *et al.*, 2003; Xu *et al.*, 2002; Xu *et al.*, 2006). Such membrane composition

parsimonious in phospholipids supports the idea that early Cyanobacteria populated an

environment where phosphorous was limiting, at least to meet their basal metabolic demand.

258 The lipid composition of *Gloeobacter* membranes is simple, containing three lipid classes in 259 addition to PtdGro: monoglucosyldiacylglycerol (MGlcDG), monogalactosyldiacylglycerol 260 (MGDG) and digalactosyldiacylglycerol (DGDG) (Rexroth et al., 2011; Yuzawa et al., 2012; Sato and Awai, 2016; Sato, 2015). MGlcDG and MGDG are HexII lipids, whereas DGDG 261 262 and PtdGro are Lm lipids (Jouhet, 2013). It is interesting to note that the addition of HexII-263 forming MGlcDG could rescue a bacterial Escherichia coli mutant lacking HexII-forming 264 PtdEtn (Wikstrom et al., 2004), indicating that an HexII lipid could replace another HexII 265 lipid, thus filling a vital role governed by its biophysical properties. The plasma membrane of 266 Gloeobacter has only traces of MGlcDG (Sato and Awai, 2016; Sato, 2015). It was shown to 267 contain segregated bioenergetic domains, some with low-chlorophyll content being MGDG-268 rich (~70% MGDG, ~22% DGDG and ~8% PtdGro), whereas high-chlorophyll domains were 269 more balanced in their lipid composition (~55% MGDG, ~35% DGDG, ~10% PtdGro) 270 (Rexroth et al., 2011). These latter domains also contain photosynthetic components, i.e. PSII, 271 PSI and ATP-synthetase. It is very important to note that the relative MGDG/DGDG ratio 272 differs in the two membrane domains: this indicates that although DGDG is produced from 273 MGDG, some regulatory mechanisms uncouple its final proportion from the available amount 274 of substrate. This is consistent with the multitude of roles played by DGDG which need to be 275 finely controlled, including the stability of the photosynthetic machinery (Boudiere et al., 276 2014; Apdila and Awai, 2018; Sakurai et al., 2007; Awai et al., 2007). The MGDG-rich 277 domains at the plasma membrane appear therefore as ideal platforms to promote $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ 278 phase transition. Nevertheless, the HexII_(MGlcDG, MGDG) / Lm_(DGDG, PtdGro) balance is still 279 insufficient in *Gloeobacter* to promote the formation of thylakoids. In addition, because

PtdGro is essential for the stability of photosystems (Kopecna et al., 2015; Hagio et al., 2000;
Sakurai et al., 2003a, b; Kobori et al., 2018; Babiychuk et al., 2003; Xu et al., 2002; Xu et al.,

282 2006), a minimal quantity of this anionic lipid should be included in thylakoids, and the

production of exceeding amounts of PtdGro in the bulk of membrane lipids appears difficult

284 to maintain in a phosphate-limiting environment.

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How could thylakoids emerge from an $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ transition process? An absolute prerequisite is a topological segregation of domains producing lipids in *HexII* phase from those promoting *Lm* bilayers. MGDG-rich domains in *Gloeobacter* plasma membrane makes this condition plausible. The enzymes synthesizing MGlcDG and MGDG should be distant enough from those consuming them to produce the Lm forming DGDG. The galactolipid biosynthesis pathway in Gloeobacter was shown to be similar to that in all other Cyanobacteria. Firstly MGlcDG is produced by a monoglucosyldiacylglycerol synthase (MgdA) (Apdila and Awai, 2018; Awai et al., 2006), then the glucosyl polar head is epimerized by an unknown mechanism into a galactosyl residue, thus forming MGDG; eventually DGDG is formed by the action of a digalactosyldiacylglycerol synthase (DgdA) similar to that identified in other Cyanobacteria (Apdila and Awai, 2018; Sakurai et al., 2007; Awai et al., 2007). The activity converting MGlcDG into MGDG in Gloeobacter was measured (Sato, 2015), but the corresponding enzyme is still uncharacterized molecularly. It was tentatively called MgdX (Apdila and Awai, 2018). MGlcDG does not accumulate and this lipid is barely detected in *Gloeobacter*, in support of a physical proximity between MgdA and MgdX in vivo. With a few exceptions, major Cyanobacteria clades who have radiated from a Gloeobacter-like ancestor contain another epimerase, called MgdE shown to convert MGlcDG into MGDG (Awai et al., 2014). Since MGlcDG can accumulate, even in small but

- detectable amounts in MgdE-containing Cyanobacteria (Sato and Awai, 2016; Apdila and
- Awai, 2018), one can suppose that MgdE is topologically separated from MgdA. The
- 305 galactolipid pathway thus evolved in the direction of a topological separation of each step
- 306 synthesizing each of its components, MGlcDG, MGDG and DGDG. Based on membrane
- fractionation and enzymatic measurements, MgdA activity was detected in both thylakoid and
- plasma membranes of *Anacystis* (Omata and Murata, 1986) and *Synechocystis* (Selao et al.,
- 309 2014), whereas DgdA appears restricted to the plasma membrane (Selao et al., 2014). This
- 310 topological segregation of MGlcDG and MGDG synthesizing enzymes from DGDG
- 311 synthesizing ones may have enabled a transient accumulation of *HexII* lipids.
- 312 One could consider that the most important *HexII* lipid in this process would be the most
- 313 abundant one, *i.e.* MGDG, but Cyanobacteria genetic studies do not support this strict
- requirement. The knock-out of mgdA was lethal in Synechocystis (Apdila and Awai, 2018;
- 315 Awai et al., 2006), probably because this enzyme is the committing step for the formation of
- three lipid classes, *i.e.* MGlcDG, MGDG and DGDG. The knock-out of the second enzyme,
- 317 mgdE, led to the hyper-accumulation of MGlcDG in Synechocystis, reaching nearly 70% of
- 318 the total proportion of lipids, replacing all MGDG and DGDG which could not be produced.
- The Synechocystis mgdE mutant was viable and contained thylakoids (Awai et al.,
- 320 2006; Apdila and Awai, 2018). This indicated that MGDG was not strictly required for
- 321 thylakoid biogenesis, but that MGlcDG or MGDG, as *HexII* lipids, may be indistinctly usable.
- 322 Synechocystis mgdE mutation also indicated that thylakoid bilayers, if generated from
- 323 MGlcDG instead of MGDG, did not strictly require DGDG as a necessary *Lm* forming lipid.
- 324 Altogether, thylakoids might have emerged from a *Gloeobacter*-type Cyanobacteria, in which
- a specific biosynthetic platform allowed the accumulation of an *HexII* lipid, most likely
- 326 MGDG, although MGlcDG might have been appropriate as well, reminiscent of the
- 327 complementation of viable E. coli PtdEtn mutants by external supply of MGlcDG (Wikstrom
- 328 *et al.*, 2004).
- 329 A 'trigger' should then be added to this system, to promote the transition of an *HexII* phase
- into an *Lm* one. We discussed above that the model lipid PtdEtn could operate such transition
- by discrete changes of its chemical structure, in particular the level of its acyl chains'
- desaturation, by modulating temperature or hydration and that the enthalpy of $Lm \rightarrow HexII$
- transition was positive (Gawrisch et al., 1992). Having in mind the mechanism of membrane
- fusions, the modeling of the $Lm \rightarrow HexII$ transition showed that, given an initial multilamellar
- configuration and with appropriate provision of external energy (increasing temperature), a
- formation of so called 'stalks' (elongated structures) between bilayers could be observed in a
- nanosecond timescale. The stalks were not stable and they subsequently elongated in a
- cooperative manner, thus leading to the formation of an inverted *HexII* phase (Marrink and
- 339 Mark, 2004). Thylakoids may have simply emerged from the reverse process, from a
- 340 MGlcDG/MGDG HexII matrix converted within nano- to microseconds into piled multi-
- lamellar membranes. It was reported that a decrease of double bonds per molecule of MGDG
- was sufficient to promote the conversion from HexII structure to Lm phase (Gounaris and
- Barber, 1983). The study of MGDG mixed with other thylakoid lipids has also shown that the
- presence of various *Lm* lipids to MGDG triggered a spontaneous *HexII* to *Lm* transition upon
- increasing hydration (Deme et al., 2014). The trigger could therefore simply be an Lm lipid,
- such as any of this type present in Cyanobacteria membranes. One should now identify which
- of the *Lm* forming lipid would play this role at the beginning.
- 348 Another difference between *Gloeobacter*-type and subsequent Cyanobacteria is the absence of
- a fifth lipid class, *i.e.* the anionic sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerol (SQDG). The absence of the
- equipment to synthesize SQDG in Gloeobacter, i.e. the sqdB and sqdX genes, was interpreted

351 as an ancestral trait (Sato et al., 2016), although a secondary loss was also suggested (Sato 352 and Awai, 2016). Here, it may be interesting to remind one of the scenarios reported above for the origin of oxygenic photosynthesis, starting from a protocyanobacteria containing two 353 354 reaction centers, one being an H₂S splitting PSI controlled by fluctuating hydrogen sulfide 355 concentrations (redox switch hypothesis for the first Cyanobacteria) (Allen, 2016; Allen, 356 2014). It may be that, in addition to living in a phosphorus-limiting environment, the proto-357 cyanobacteria were exposed to reduced forms of sulfur such as hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), rather 358 than oxidized ones such as sulfate (H₂SO₄). The acquisition of the sulfolipid synthesis 359 pathway by horizontal gene transfer would then be a key event in the radiation of early 360 Cyanobacteria. In thylakoid-containing Cyanobacteria, mutants lacking SQDG are either 361 affected, such as in *Synechocystis*, or with no apparent phenotype under optimal growth 362 condition, such as in Synechococcus (Apdila and Awai, 2018), leading to the common idea that this lipid could be to some extent dispensable (Sato et al., 2016). It is now established in 363 364 Cyanobacteria, but also in chloroplasts of vascular plants that SQDG function is linked to that 365 of PtdGro, replacing temporarily this anionic phospholipid in case of phosphate shortage in the environment (Boudiere et al., 2014; Frentzen, 2004; Shimojima, 2011). The gain is clear: 366 Cyanobacteria with SQDG have acquired an anionic surrogate to replace PtdGro, and can 367 368 overcome stronger depletions of phosphorus in the environment. Thanks to SQDG, anionic membrane lipids are no more limiting. This gain is an advantage when competing with 369 370 SQDG-missing Cyanobacteria, and in any case, when competing with Bacteria with 371 phospholipid-rich membranes in a phosphorus-deprived context. This also allows the 372 availability of sufficient amounts of an anionic *Lm*-forming lipid for the expensive formation 373 of an additional membrane system. Together, SQDG and PtdGro, and to some extent DGDG, 374 can be used as lipid triggers, some kind of catalysts, for the nanosecond-scale HexII_(MGlcDG) 375 MGDG) $\rightarrow Lm_{(MGlcDG, MGDG, DGDG, PdtGro, SODG)}$ transition.

Was DGDG necessary at the origin of thylakoids? This could make sense since SQDG and PtdGro are anionic, and their use, although essential for photosystems, can thus introduce repulsive electrostatic forces between membrane bilayers, which may prevent the formation of tightly stacked membranes. Some arguments contradict this idea though, most importantly since the mgdE mutant of Synechocystis can still make thylakoids whereas it has lost all of its DGDG (Awai et al., 2006; Apdila and Awai, 2018). One should admit that Synechocystis thylakoids can organize as stacks in spite of the strong anionic charges harbored by the polar head groups of its *Lm* forming lipids. Protein components may contribute to this stable architecture in *Synechocystis*, but these proteins may have been missing in the original steps. Indeed, DGDG was shown to stabilize membrane stacks, including in lipid mixtures mimicking that of photosynthetic membranes (Deme et al., 2014; Kanduc et al., 2017). Thus, we cannot assess with certainty the potential role of DGDG at the origin, but this lipid would have been advantageous in the formation of stacked thylakoid primordia.

389 The hypothesis defended here relies on the fact that all the lipid actors but one, SQDG, were 390 present in Gloeobacter-type early Cyanobacteria. SQDG introduces a more flexible and 391 robust membrane lipid metabolism by the tuning of the SQDG/PtdGro balance in response to 392 phosphorus in the environment. HexII lipids, mostly MGDG, could be produced 393 concentrically toward the inside of the cell, followed by the transfer of Lm lipids, i.e. anionic 394 PtdGro and SQDG and neutral DGDG. These Lm lipids would then act as triggers of an HexII 395 \rightarrow Lm phase transition. This gives an explanation to the non-vesicular biogenesis of 396 thylakoids, and to the initial formation of concentric, uninterrupted layers (Mares et al.,

397 2019).

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Role of proteins 4

An $HexII \leftrightarrow Lm$ phase transition is of 'first-order', *i.e.* involving a latent heat or phase transition enthalpy, releasing or absorbing a fixed and typically large amount of energy, thus differing from a 'second order', or 'continuous phase transition'. The dynamics of the dramatic lipid rearrangements occurring during this transition, although very rapid, has limiting rate steps in topological transitions (Toombes *et al.*, 2002). Protein actors could have played a role at the origin of thylakoid formation, by acting in the dynamics of Lm lipids' transfers to an HexII matrix and the 'nucleation' of $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ transition.

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Gloeobacter contains a homolog of Vipp1, found in all other oxygenic photosynthetic organisms (Raven and Sanchez-Baracaldo, 2021). The Vipp1 protein has been functionally associated to thylakoid biogenesis in a multitude of biological models, by various genetic, structural or biochemical studies (Mechela et al., 2019), but the precise understanding of its role, at molecular level, still remains puzzling in spite of recent advances in the resolution of its structural organization (Gupta et al., 2021). Gloeobacter Vipp1 lacks a ~30 amino acid extension found in thylakoid-containing organisms (Raven and Sanchez-Baracaldo, 2021), and this protein plays a primitive function which is still elusive. In thylakoid-containing Synechocystis or in the chloroplast of the green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtti, vipp1 mutations lead to the formation of aberrant thylakoid convergence zones (Gupta et al., 2021; Nordhues et al., 2012). This has led to the idea that Vipp1 had gained a new role in the course of Evolution, acting at the level of highly bent regions of thylakoids (which are absent in Cyanobacteria containing concentric thylakoids with uninterrupted layers). Of interest here, Vipp1 has a strong affinity for lipids, particularly anionic lipids including but not restricted to PtdGro, in vitro and in vivo (Otters et al., 2013; Li et al., 1994; Kroll et al., 2001; McDonald et al., 2017; Heidrich et al., 2016). Structural studies suggest a possible role of Vipp1 in guiding some lipids from a donor membrane to thylakoid primordia (Gupta et al., 2021). If Vipp1 played this function for all thylakoid lipids, one should expect a detection of innumerable complexes connecting the inner membrane, Vipp1 and thylakoids, but these are instead very rarely observed (Gupta et al., 2021). Little evidence are therefore available to support that Vipp1 would act in the transfer of the bulk of thylakoid lipids, and in any case, a role in a massive vesicular-based process is not supported. Vipp1 may have acquired a new function in early Cyanobacteria, guiding some anionic lipids toward the light of the cell, thus 'helping' the nucleation of thylakoid bilayer formation. The Vipp1 ancestral protein in Gloeobacter might therefore have evolved in the direction of a guidance of thylakoid biogenesis based on its initial biophysical properties, interacting with other lipids or proteins.

In this paper, we did not elaborate any scenario for the evolution of Vipp1 or others proteins (Raven and Sanchez-Baracaldo, 2021). We simply suggest that proteins present in early Cyanobacteria, completed with others acquired later on, following gene transfers, might have been integrated based on their intrinsic biophysical properties. This is supported by studies showing that Cyanobacteria Vipp1 C-terminal domain associates with lipid bilayers and modulates membrane fusion and fluxes of lipids and proteins between membranes (Saur et al., 2017; Hennig et al., 2017; Hennig et al., 2015). Here, we did not address the question of the loading of thylakoids with all kinds of other components, proteins and cofactors, including the photosystems and ATP-synthetase, also requiring guiding machineries. This could maybe rely on HexII glycolipids, which are found in association with reaction centers from anoxygenic photosynthetic Bacteria to Cyanobacteria, all algae and plants (Mizoguchi et al., 2013). A photosynthetic reaction center from Blastochlorus viridis, a species containing HexII glycolipid, was thus shown to form a so-called 'lipidic sponge phase' crystal structure (Wohri et al., 2009). It is known for long that in energy-transducing membranes, HexII lipids are preferentially associated with that part of the bilayers in which the coupling factors are

447 embedded, i.e. MGDG in the outer layer of plant thylakoids, PtdEtn on the cytosolic face of

448 Rhodobacter sphaeroides chromatophores, and both PtdEtn and cardiolipin in the inner

449 monolayer of internal mitochondrial membrane (Rawyler et al., 1987). In this context, a

450 parsimonious hypothesis is that at the origin, photosynthetic components were loaded during

451 the $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ phase transition.

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5 The endosymbiotic origin of chloroplasts supports the conserved role of *HexII* lipids in the formation of their thylakoids

454 A vast array of evidence support an origin of the chloroplast in Archaeplastida cells

455 (Glaucophyta, Rhodophyta and Chlorophyta) following a unique primary endosymbiosis

456 event, by engulfment of a Cyanobacteria-like ancestor related to extant Gloeomargarita inside

an unknown eukaryotic host cell (Ponce-Toledo et al., 2019; Sato and Awai, 2017; Sato and

458 Takano, 2017; Marechal, 2018; Petroutsos et al., 2014). This view is however simplistic,

459 since numerous genes coding for chloroplast proteins find no ancestor in crown

460 Cyanobacteria, but rather in other clades not discussed here (Ball et al., 2013; Cenci et al.,

2017; Sato et al., 2020). It is extremely important to note that all Cyanobacteria lipids have 461

been conserved, except one, MGlcDG (Sato and Awai, 2017; Petroutsos et al., 2014; Sato and 462

463 Awai, 2016; Boudiere et al., 2014). The four lipids MGDG, DGDG, PtdGro and SQDG are

464 thus present in all prokaryotic and eukaryotic thylakoids. Only when photosynthesis was lost

465 secondarily, could plastids 'lose' their glycolipids (Botte and Marechal, 2014; Botte et al.,

466 2018; Botte et al., 2011b; Botte et al., 2013).

467 How could galactolipids be synthesized in chloroplasts, if the committing step of MGlcDG

synthesis is not present? Chloroplast MGDG is not synthesized by a Cyanobacteria pathway,

469 but in one-step by the action of a monogalactosyldiacylglycerol synthase, or MGD acquired

470 secondarily by horizontal gene transfer from a bacterium (Sato and Awai, 2017; Petroutsos et

471 al., 2014; Yuzawa et al., 2012). The production of DGDG is catalyzed by a Cyanobacteria-

472 type enzyme in Glaucophyta and one branch of Rhodophyta, but, again, by another type of

473 digalactosyldiacylglycerol synthase, called DGD, also acquired secondarily (Sato and Awai,

474 2017; Petroutsos et al., 2014). Some well-studied Archaeplastida models, like Arabidopsis

475 show clear topological separation between the MGD enzyme involved in thylakoid

476 biogenesis, called MGD1 in the inner envelope membrane, and the DGD acting at the outer

envelope membrane (Froelich et al., 2001; Boudiere et al., 2012; Petroutsos et al., 2014;

478 Awai et al., 2001), supporting that HexII lipids can transiently accumulate. In models where

479 such topological separation is not fully demonstrated, like *Chlamydomonas* chloroplasts, most

480 representations show MGD in the inner envelope separated from DGD in the outer envelope

membrane (Hurlock et al., 2014; Li-Beisson et al., 2015). In Chlamydomonas, other strategies 481

482 were also shown to ensure an accumulation of a MGDG pool, by the rapid desaturation of

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MGDG fatty acids, generating molecular species, which cannot be used by DGD enzymes

484 (Yang et al., 2015). Such 'locking' of specifically unsaturated MGDG species, more prone to

485 form HexII structures (Gounaris et al., 1983) is also observed in Arabidopsis and other

486 photosynthetic eukaryotes (Dolch and Marechal, 2015). Thus, all chloroplasts present in cells

487 of the immense biodiversity of photosynthetic Eukaryota conserved Cyanobacteria lipids,

488 without the corresponding Cyanobacteria genes, and the new biosynthesis pathway retained

489 initial important features, even improved, like mechanisms ensuring that HexII MGDG can

490 accumulate.

491 The molecular characterization of plant chloroplast MGD1 is remarkably coherent with the

492 hypothesis elaborated here. In biomimetic membranes, it was shown that Arabidopsis MGD1

493 had unique biophysical properties. MGD1 is soluble and its membrane binding is promoted 494 by the presence of its product, MGDG (Sarkis et al., 2014) supporting the existence of a 495 positive-feedback loop leading to a local over-accumulation of *HexII* lipids. MGD1 binding is 496 inhibited by DGDG, reinforcing this initial segregation of MGDG from DGDG detailed above 497 (Sarkis et al., 2014). The activity of MGD1 requires the presence of anionic lipids, including 498 PtdGro and phosphatidic acid (Makshakova et al., 2020; Dubots et al., 2010; Dubots et al., 499 2012), reminiscent of the activation Cyanobacteria MgdA enzyme by another anionic lipid, 500 SODG (Selao et al., 2014). This stresses the likely role of anionic lipids as triggers for 501 thylakoid biogenesis. When lowering MGD1 activity with a specific inhibitor, the proportion 502 of *HexII* MGDG decreases and some membrane invagination appear at the inner envelope 503 membrane (Botte et al., 2011a), not indicating a vesicular-based formation of thylakoids, but 504 rather an excess of Lm forming lipids. Similar results were obtained in a null MGD1 mutant of 505 Arabidopsis, germinating as small albinos only in the presence of sucrose, with seedlings 506 containing traces of galactolipids (Kobayashi et al., 2007). Invaginations of the inner 507 envelope, which were not seen in mature WT chloroplasts, were also observed in this mutant, 508 simply due to an excess of Lm lipids over HexII ones (Kobayashi et al., 2007). Although this 509 phenomenon was initially suggested as an evidence for formation of thylakoids from the 510 budding of inner envelope membrane, it fits with the non-vesicular model developed here, 511 reflecting an uncontrolled excess of Lm lipids in this membrane. Consistently, the growth of 512 the MGD1 mutant in low phosphate conditions, activating the expression of the MGDG 513 synthase isoforms MGD2 and MGD3, allowed a synthesis of HexII lipids in chloroplasts and 514 the formation of thylakoid structures (Kobayashi et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the level of 515 MGDG remained low under these conditions, and photosynthetic activity was still abolished, 516 (Kobayashi et al., 2013), indicating that the production of the right amount of MGDG at the 517 right place, by MGD1 located in the inner envelope membrane, could not be reached by the 518 action of MGD2 and MGD3 located at the outer envelope membrane.

519 A very recent work has shown that MGD enzymes could also play roles outside of the 520 chloroplast, in the cytosol. During the development of *Arabidopsis* pollen tube, it was thus shown that MGD2 accumulated in the cytosol, following the expression of mRNAs controlled 521 522 by a specific RNA-binding protein (Billey et al., 2021). This raises questions, since pollen 523 tubes do not contain chloroplasts. Nevertheless pollen tubes are known to accumulate 524 galactolipids (Botte et al., 2011a; Nakamura et al., 2009). In green tissues, Arabidopsis 525 MGD2 had been localized at the outer envelope membrane of the chloroplast, but some 526 cytosolic localization had also been observed based on the imaging of proteins fused with a 527 fluorescent reporter (Awai et al., 2001). It is therefore plausible that in addition to its role in 528 chloroplast architecture, the soluble eukaryotic MGD enzymes may have introduced a 529 powerful system for integrating lipid metabolism from different compartments. One 530 possibility is that MGD2 might be able to bind its diacylglycerol substrate from one cytosolic 531 membrane and cargo it to another one, including the chloroplast where MGDG synthesis 532 should occur or possibly other cell compartment.

Altogether, the chloroplast MGD biosynthesis system performs much better than the primitive MgdA/MgdE system of the *Gloeomargarita*-type cyanobacterium integrated following

737 mimory and asymptosis. It may be one of the massens for the substitution of the

primary endosymbiosis. It may be one of the reasons for the substitution of the

MgdA/MgdE/DgdA pathway by a MGD/DGD pathway early in the radiation of

Archaeplastida. An $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ phase transition is therefore the most likely scenario for the

non-vesicular biogenesis of thylakoids in chloroplasts as well (Bastien et al., 2016). Protein

actors, such as VIPP1, have become more and more important in the orchestration of

540 thylakoid biogenetic processes, possibly guiding anionic lipids, including chloroplastic lipids

such as PtdGro, but also extraplastidial lipids such as phosphoinositides (Gupta et al., 2021).

- The increase in size of chloroplasts compared to Cyanobacteria, the development of larger
- 543 photosynthetic surfaces per cell, some structural innovations like the appearance of pyrenoids
- or grana, the bioenergetic coupling of chloroplast within eukaryotic metabolism, etc, led to a
- supplementary multiplier effect, likely determinant for the 'rise of Algae' during the
- Neoproterozoic period, and the oxygenation of oceans known as the NOE.

6 Concluding remarks

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- The origin of internal membrane compartments is one of the most fascinating and difficult
- questions in the evolution of cells. Textbooks highlight that one of the differences between the
- three Domains of Life, Archae and Bacteria on the one hand, and Eukaryota on the other
- hand, lies in the level of subcellular compartmentalization, absent or poor in the former,
- prolific, sophisticated and dynamic in the latter. Such statement suggests that cell
- compartmentalization should be accomplished the way it is described in a model Eukaryota,
- *i.e.* either by vesicles budding from one parent membrane merging to form a novel
- compartment, and/or by various membrane protrusions, fusion mechanisms, etc. The
- biophysical rearrangements of membrane lipids during a fusion process were shown to have a
- positive enthalpy and require an external source of energy, usually provided by ATP or GTP.
- 558 Such reorganizations of membrane architecture are not spontaneous and involve dedicated
- protein machineries.
 - The formation of thylakoids in Cyanobacteria resists vesicular-based scenarios, firstly because of the lack of any ultrastructural observation of vesicles supposed to protrude from the plasma membrane toward the inside of the cell, but also because primitive thylakoids are concentric, and we do not see where thylakoid biogenesis could be initiated. Here, we reviewed studies converging into a simple hypothesis based on the stepwise production of *HexII* lipids, at the inner periphery of the cytosolic membrane of an early cyanobacterium, turned within nanoseconds and without any external source of energy into multilayered pro-thylakoids. Comparison of lipid biosynthetic pathways suggests that most ancient Cyanobacteria could not achieve thylakoid biogenesis due to the lack of anionic Lm lipids, only represented by a minor phospholipid with a proportion controlled by phosphorus level in the environment. The acquisition of the biosynthesis pathway producing a sulfolipid seemed critical for a regular provision of sufficient amounts of anionic lipids, allowing the $HexII \rightarrow Lm$ phase transition to occur thus forming parietal thylakoids. We designed this model before the very recent description of the spatio-temporal biogenesis process of thylakoid membranes in the rodshaped cyanobacterium Synechococcus elongatus PCC 7942 (Huokko et al., 2021). In this cyanobacterium, the plasma membrane and concentric thylakoid layers have no physical connections and newly synthesized thylakoid membrane fragments emerge between the plasma membrane and pre-existing thylakoids (Huokko et al., 2021). This is strikingly reminiscent of the model described in Figs. 2A and 4 and illustrates the power of the HexII-to-Lm phase transition not only at the origin of early thylakoids, but also in biogenetic processes observed today. With this non-vesicular lipid-phase transition, a framework is therefore also available to reexamine the role of companion proteins, such as Vipp1, which characterization in a hypothetic vesicular-based biogenetic process remains unsatisfying in both Cyanobacteria and chloroplasts. It is time to address these questions by considering lipids and proteins together, with additional challenging issues, such as the integration of membrane proteins and cofactors in the course of thylakoid biogenesis. Eventually, first-order phase transitions are not restricted to changes in lipid phases. They are also involved in RNA and protein structural changes between liquid phases (Hardenberg et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2021; Rhine et al., 2020), which might provide clues on extremely rapid, nearly instant processes, which cannot be comprehended yet with more classical biochemical, structural or cell biology approaches.

- Taking into consideration all these phase transitions might improve our understanding of
- 591 other steps in cell evolution.

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8 Author Contributions

- NG and EM contributed to the development of the hypothesis developed in this paper. NG
- and EM contributed to the writing of the article.

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