Ultrastructure and distribution of kleptoplasts in benthic foraminifera from shallow-water (photic) habitats

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Abstract

Assimilation, sequestration and maintenance of foreign chloroplasts inside an organism is termed "chloroplast sequestration" or "kleptoplasty". This phenomenon is known in certain benthic foraminifera, in which such kleptoplasts can be found both intact and functional, but with different retention times depending on foraminiferal species. In the present study, seven species of benthic foraminifera (*Haynesina germanica*, *Elphidium williamsoni*, *E. selseyense*, *E. oceanense*, *E.* aff. *E. crispum*, *Planoglabratella opercularis* and *Ammonia* sp.) were collected from shallow-water benthic habitats and examined with transmission electron microscope (TEM) for cellular ultrastructure to ascertain attributes of kleptoplasts. Results indicate that all these foraminiferal taxa actively obtain kleptoplasts but organized them differently within their endoplasm. In some species, the kleptoplasts were evenly distributed throughout the endoplasm (e.g., *H. germanica*, *E. oceanense*, *Ammonia* sp.), whereas other species consistently had plastids distributed close to the external cell membrane (e.g., *Elphidium williamsoni*, *E. selseyense*, *P. opercularis*). Chloroplast degradation also seemed to differ between species, as many degraded plastids were found in *Ammonia* sp. and *E. oceanense* compared to other investigated species. Digestion ability, along with different feeding and sequestration strategies may explain the differences in retention time between taxa. Additionally, the organization of the sequestered plastids within the endoplasm may also suggest behavioral strategies to expose and/or protect the sequestered plastids to/from light and/or to favor gas and/or nutrient exchange with their surrounding habitats.

Key words

Kleptoplasty; protist; chloroplast; TEM; transmission electron microscope

1. Introduction

Some benthic foraminiferal species have the ability to steal and sequester chloroplasts (which then become "kleptoplasts") from their microalgal food sources. These foraminiferal species mainly ingest diatoms (Knight and Mantoura, 1985; Bernhard and Bowser 1999, Goldstein et al., 2004; Pillet et al., 2011; Tsuchiya et al., 2015; Jauffrais et al., 2017) but have different strategies for feeding and sequestration (Lopez, 1979; Grzymski et al., 2002; Austin et al., 2005; Jauffrais et al., 2016b). In some foraminiferal species, the kleptoplasts are degraded within hours, possibly as a result of a digestive process, while in other species they are kept and/or remain functional for weeks to months (Lopez, 1979; Lee et al., 1988; Cedhagen, 1991; Correia and Lee, 2000, 2002a, b; Grzymski et al., 2002; Tsuchiya et al., 2015; Jauffrais et al., 2016b). A kleptoplast is thus a chloroplast, functional or not, that was "stolen", integrated and sometimes used by a host organism (Clark et al., 1990). Benthic foraminiferal kleptoplasty is observed in species from different environments: shallow to deep-sea, oxic to anoxic and photic to aphotic habitats (Lopez, 1979; Alexander and Banner, 1984; Lee et al., 1988; Bernhard and Alve, 1996; Bernhard and Bowser, 1999; Bernhard et al., 2000; Correia and Lee, 2000). The photosynthetic function of kleptoplasts has been demonstrated in some shallow-water benthic foraminifera (e.g., *Elphidium williamsoni* and *Haynesina germanica* in Cesbron et al., 2017; Jauffrais et al., 2016; Lopez, 1979). Nevertheless, it remains unknown why certain deep-sea foraminifera sequester chloroplasts as light is absent in their habitat (Bernhard and Bowser, 1999; Grzymski et al., 2002).

In photic shallow-water habitats (e.g., estuaries, bays, lagoons and other intertidal or shallow-water subtidal areas), kleptoplastic benthic foraminiferal species, such as *Haynesina germanica, Elphidium williamsoni*, the "*excavatum*" species complex (e.g., *E. oceanense*, *E. selseyense*, see Darling et al. (2016)), or *Ammonia* spp., are often the dominant mudflat foraminiferal taxa (Debenay et al., 2000; Debenay et al., 2006; Morvan et al., 2006; Bouchet et al., 2009; Pascal et al., 2009; Thibault de Chanvalon et al., 2015; Cesbron et al., 2016). Their vertical distribution is characterized by a clear maximum density in the upper oxygenated millimeters of the sediment (Alve and Murray, 2001; Bouchet et al., 2009; Thibault de Chanvalon et al., 2015; Cesbron et al., 2016), where light can also penetrate (Kuhl et al., 1994; Cartaxana et al., 2011). However, in some kleptoplastic species (e.g., the

morphospecies *A. tepida* and *E. excavatum*) kleptoplasts lack photosynthetic activity (Lopez, 1979; Jauffrais et al., 2016), and in many other kleptoplastic species, the photosynthetic activity has not yet been assessed and/or quantified.

The observed differences in the maintenance of the kleptoplasts suggest there must be substantial differences between kleptoplastic shallow-water foraminiferal species. It is, therefore, necessary to understand the sequestration mechanism in kleptoplastic foraminifera that have similar food sources and environments, but may have different chloroplast-retention times. In this study, we used transmission electron microscope (TEM) to document the ultrastructure and cellular organization of different kleptoplastic foraminifera from shallow-water photic habitats to assess chloroplast organization and degradation processes. In parallel, individuals from the same populations as the ultrastructurally examined specimens have been genetically characterized with DNA barcoding to ascertain their taxonomic identity to ease future comparisons.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Specimen collection and field sample fixations

We examined seven species of living shallow-water benthic foraminifera: *Haynesina germanica* (Fig. 1 and 2), *Elphidium williamsoni* (Fig. 3), *Elphidium oceanense* (Fig. 4), *Elphidium selseyense* (Fig. 5), *Elphidium* aff. *E. crispum* (Fig. 6), *Planoglabratella opercularis* (Fig. 7 and 8) and *Ammonia* sp. phylotype T6 (Fig. 9 and 10).

Haynesina germanica (4 specimens ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM), *E. oceanense* (3 specimens ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM) and *Ammonia* sp. (3 specimens ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM) were collected from the Bourgneuf Bay tidal mudflat (Bay of Biscay, south of the Loire estuary, France), a 11 AM from surface sediments (~0-0.5 cm depth, temperature of the sediment 11°C, salinity 31) in March 2016 at low tide during a cloudy day. The foraminifera-bearing sediments were fixed in the field immediately after sampling, with a fixative solution containing 4% glutaraldehyde and 2% paraformaldehyde in artificial seawater (Red Sea® salt in MilliQ® water at salinity 35). The samples were then kept at room temperature (18-20°C) for 24 h and subsequently placed at 4°C until further processing.

Haynesina germanica (3 specimens ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM) and *E. selseyense* (1 specimen ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM) were isolated in February 2016 from two Wadden Sea tidal mudflats during low tide (Texel Island, the Netherlands): Mokbaai (sediment temperature = 4°C, salinity = 27, at 7:30AM on a sunny day) and Cocksdorp (sediment temperature = 4°C, salinity = 23, at 8AM on a sunny day). Sediment cores were sliced at 1-cm intervals down to 10-cm depth. The top 1-cm of each sediment core was sieved over a 125-µm screen and foraminifera containing healthy looking cytoplasm were picked within 30 h of sampling from the >125-µm fraction under illuminated binocular microscope. The vitality of all isolated foraminifera was further assessed based on movements as outlined in Koho et al. (2011). Immediately after vitality checks, living specimens were transferred to a fixative solution containing 2% glutaraldehyde and 4% paraformaldehyde in filtered seawater and stored at 4°C. After 24 h, the specimens were transferred into a solution containing 4% paraformaldehyde in filtered seawater and stored at 4°C, where they remained until further processing.

Elphidium williamsoni (5 specimens ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM) were collected from surface sediments (0-0.5 cm depth) in May 2016 from a small tidal mudflat at low tide 2 PM, on a sunny day in Fiskebäckskil near Kristineberg Marine Research Station (Gullmar Fjord, Sweden). The sediments with foraminifera were fixed and preserved immediately in the field as noted for *H. germanica* from the Bourgneuf Bay tidal mudflat.

Elphidium aff. *E. crispum* (12 specimens ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM) and *P. opercularis* (12 specimens ultrathin sectioned and observed by TEM) were isolated from coralline algae (*Corallina pilulifera*, Rhodophyta) collected from rocky shores of Yugawara (Kanagawa Prefecture, Japan) in May 2012 at 1 m depth. The vitality of all isolated foraminifera was assessed based on pseudopodial extension using an inverted microscope with a phase-contrast apparatus. Living specimens were picked with a fine (soft) needle, fixed for 2 h in 2.5% seawater-buffered glutaraldehyde and then transferred in filtered (0.2 µm) seawater and kept at 4°C until processing.

2.2. Species identifications

Specimens were taxonomically identified based solely on the morphology of the test as revealed with a scanning electron microscope (SEM) or based on both morphology (SEM micrographs) and molecular (DNA barcoding; DNA sequences) tools.

For the Bay of Bourgneuf and the Gullmar Fjord, foraminifera from the same sampling of specimens used for the TEM studies were selected for DNA barcoding (Table 1). Live foraminifera were picked from the sediment, dried on micropaleontological slides, imaged with an environmental SEM (EVO LS10, ZEISS) and individually extracted for DNA in Deoxycholate (DOC) buffer (e.g., Pawlowski, 2000; Schweizer et al., 2011). For the DNA amplification, a fragment situated at the 3' end of the small subunit (SSU) rDNA was selected because this region is the barcode for foraminifera (Pawlowski and Holzmann, 2014). The primer pairs were s14F3 and J2 for the primary polymerase chain reactions (PCR) and s14F1 and N6 for the secondary (nested) PCR (Pawlowski, 2000; Darling et al., 2016). Positive PCR gave a fragment of about 500 nucleotides (nt) that was purified and sequenced directly as described in Schweizer et al. (2011).

New DNA sequences were deposited in GenBank (accession numbers KY347797-KY347800).

For the Dutch and Japanese specimens, available DNA sequences (Schweizer et al., 2008; Schweizer et al., 2011; Tsuchiya et al., 2000; Pawlowski and Holzmann, unpublished data) were gathered from GenBank (Table 1).

The sequences retrieved from the studied species (Table 1) were then compared to published sequences (Hayward et al., 2004; Darling et al., 2016) within an alignment obtained with SeaView (Gouy et al., 2010) to identify them molecularly.

2.3. Ultrastructural observations by TEM

Chemically preserved specimens were rinsed in filtered seawater and then either decalcified in 0.1 or 0.5 M ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) prepared in distilled water (pH 7.4) and post-fixed with 2% osmium tetroxide (OsO_4) solution prepared in filtered seawater for about 1-2 h, or the reverse (both processes worked). Foraminifera were then dehydrated with successive ethanol baths and embedded in resin, either Epon (Epon 812 resin, TAAB) or LR White® (Sigma-Aldrich). Ultra-thin sections (60-70 nm) were prepared with an ultra-microtome (Reichert Ultracut S, Leica) after staining

with uranyl acetate, or with 1% aqueous uranyl acetate and 0.5% lead citrate, and then coated with carbon using a JEE-400 high vacuum evaporator (JEOL Ltd). The ultrathin sections were finally examined with either a JEM-1400 (JEOL Ltd), JEM-1210 (JEOL Ltd) or TECNAI G2 20 (FEI Company) TEM at an acceleration voltage of 80-100kV.

3. Results and discussion

This contribution presents the ultrastructure and cellular distribution of kleptoplasts, highlighting differences in chloroplast organization and degradation processes in foraminifera from shallow-water habitats (synopsis in Table 2). The description and organization of other organelles in benthic foraminifera are described in detail elsewhere (see, LeKieffre et al., this issue).

3.1. Haynesina germanica (Fig. 1 and 2)

Haynesina germanica is relatively easy to recognize morphologically and there is good congruence between morphological and molecular identification (Darling et al., 2016, phylotype S16); consistently, we found good agreement between the molecular and morphological identification of the specimens collected from the Bourgneuf Bay tidal mudflat (France). Direct molecular identification was not performed on specimens collected from Texel (Mokbaai, NL). However, specimens from a nearby site (Wadden Sea, Den Oever, NL) that were sequenced and identified as phylotype S16 (Schweizer et al., 2011, Table 1) bore similar morphology to Mokbaai specimens.

In all four specimens studied with TEM, the kleptoplasts were evenly distributed in each chamber and large vacuoles were also densely and evenly distributed (Fig. 1B, C and Fig. 2B). The chloroplasts showed fine structural details and were relatively well preserved in the foraminiferal endoplasm with thylakoids, girdle lamella surrounding each kleptoplast and pyrenoids (Fig. 1E, F, and Fig. 2C, E). The pyrenoids were also well preserved, often transected by a lamella and surrounded by another lamella (Fig. 1E, F and Fig. 2C, E). Ideally in *H. germanica*, five membranes are visible around the chloroplast; the four inner membranes are most likely those of the diatom and the fifth and outermost membrane is that of the foraminifer (Goldstein et al., 2004). In the present study, an electron-lucent space was often observed between the chloroplast membranes and the host membrane (Fig. 1 D, E and

F, and Fig. 2E). This electron-lucent space may be an artefact caused by the chemical fixation and embedding procedures.

3.2. Elphidium williamsoni (Fig. 3)

The morphospecies *Elphidium williamsoni* has been formally linked to phylotype S1 (Darling et al., 2016) with DNA sequencing of topotypic specimens (Roberts et al., 2016). A specimen from the Gullmar Fjord sample was also sequenced and found to belong to phylotype S1 (Table 1), confirming the morphological determination.

Kleptoplasts were abundant and situated just below the cell periphery (Fig. 3B, C) or close to it (Fig. 3D). Kleptoplasts were also well preserved with pyrenoid, lamella and thylakoids (Fig. 3E, F). A degraded kleptoplast at the foraminiferal cell periphery had inter-thylakoid spaces (Fig. 3C (c*)). As observed in *H. germanica*, the kleptoplasts were surrounded by host membrane, with electron-lucent spaces between the chloroplasts and the endoplasm of the host (Fig. 3B to F) that may be an artefact caused by the chemical fixation and embedding procedures.

3.3. Elphidium "excavatum" species complex (Fig. 4 and 5)

Elphidium oceanense and *E. selseyense* belong to the "*excavatum*" species complex as defined by Darling et al. (2016). The morphospecies *Elphidium excavatum* was thought to include a large number of ecophenotypes due to its high morphological diversity. However, recent molecular phylogenetics studies have shown that this morphospecies is actually a species complex (Schweizer et al., 2011; Pillet et al., 2013; Darling et al., 2016). These species are pseudocryptic, meaning that a careful morphological examination of specimens traditionally determined as *E. excavatum* allows classification to one species of the complex (Darling et al., 2016). Presently, four different phylotypes have been identified and linked to previously described morphological forms that were then given species status: S3=*E. oceanense*, S4=*E. clavatum*, S5=*E. selseyense*, S13=*E. lidoense* (Darling et al., 2016).

3.3.1. *Elphidium oceanense* (Fig. 4)

Specimens collected from the Bourgneuf Bay tidal mudflat, France, were morphologically and molecularly identified as phylotype S3 in Darling et al. (2016). This phylotype is the most common member of the "*excavatum*" species complex in the Bourgneuf Bay tidal mudflat (Schweizer et al., unpublished results and Table 1).

In *E. oceanense*, kleptoplasts and vacuoles were evenly and densely distributed in the endoplasm (Fig. 4C, D). The kleptoplasts were in large vacuoles containing numerous plastids and fine materials (Fig. 4D - F). The plastids often appeared in a degraded state with small circular electron-lucent disruptions of thylakoids and pyrenoids (Fig. 4E, F). Kleptoplast pyrenoids, lamella and thylakoids remained clearly distinguishable (Fig. 4E, F).

3.3.2. *Elphidium selseyense* (Fig. 5)

The specimens from Cocksdorp (Wadden Sea) were identified morphologically as *E. selseyense*. This species, which is linked to the phylotype S5 (Darling et al., 2016), was isolated in 1999 from the same location (Schweizer et al., 2011; Table 1). *Elphidium selseyense* is known as a widespread and opportunistic species with ecology similar to the other species described above (Murray, 1991; Horton and Edwards, 2006; Darling et al., 2016).

Specimens of *E. selseyense* had many kleptoplasts situated immediately below the host-cell periphery (Fig. 5B, C and D) with relatively fewer chloroplasts internally in the endoplasm (Fig. 5B). Kleptoplasts exhibited a girdle lamella, a simple pyrenoid, thylakoids and also osmiophilic globules (Bedoshvili et al., 2009), which could be lipoprotein particles such as plastoglobules as suggested previously by Leutenegger (1977) and Schmaljohann and Röttger (1978).

Despite being phylogenetically closely related (Darling et al. 2016), *E. oceanense* and *E. selseyense* clearly have different chloroplast sequestration strategies. First, the plastids were distributed throughout cytoplasm in *E. oceanense* compared to *E. selseyense*, where the plastids occurred peripherally. Second, the kleptoplasts were relatively degraded in *E. oceanense* and relatively intact in *E. selseyense*. Third, multiple plastids occurred in one vacuole of *E. oceanense* whereas, typically, a single plastid was seen in one vacuole of *E. selseyense*. These differences suggest that, in *E. oceanense*, the kleptoplasts were not functional, whereas, in *E. selseyense* they may still be functional,

possibly producing oxygen and assimilating inorganic carbon and nitrogen. Although these two *Elphidium* taxa are within the same species complex as defined by Darling et al. (2016), differences in chloroplast maintenance and distribution reveal that the species differ not only genetically and morphologically, but also physiologically. Such observations emphasize the need to clearly identify individuals within this species complex. These differences within the same species complex also hamper direct comparison with previous studies on *E. excavatum* structures (Lopez, 1979; Correia and Lee, 2000, 2002a, b) where no morphological (SEM images) and/or molecular (sequence) data are available.

3.4. Elphidium aff. *E. crispum* (Fig. 6)

Specimens of *E.* aff. *E. crispum* were isolated from intertidal rocky shores of Yugawara (Kanagawa Prefecture, Japan) where they are commonly encountered living on coralline algae (Kitazato, 1994). No published sequence data is yet available for this species, but the preliminary analysis of the sequences differs from the European *E. crispum* (phylotype S11, Darling et al., 2016 and Tsuchiya, unpubl. data), therefore explaining the use of open nomenclature here.

Kleptoplasts were evenly and densely distributed in the endoplasm (Fig. 6B, C, F). Some organelles such as mitochondria, Golgi apparatus, and peroxisomes were found near the kleptoplasts (Fig. 6D). The kleptoplasts appear singly in vacuoles and have a girdle lamella, thylakoids, and pyrenoid divided in two by a lamella and the presence of osmiophilic globules (Fig. 6E and G). Kleptoplasts were noted in different states of degradation (Fig. 6H).

3.5. Planoglabratella opercularis (Fig. 7 and 8)

Planoglabratella opercularis is also commonly encountered in the intertidal zone of rocky shores around the Japanese Islands where it lives on thalli of coralline algae (Kitazato, 1988; Tsuchiya et al., 2014). Specimens collected near the TEM-sample collection site have been sequenced previously for the large subunit (LSU) and SSU rDNA (Tsuchiya et al., 2000 see Table 1) and Internal transcribed spacer (ITS) rDNA sequences (Tsuchiya et al., 2003; Tsuchiya et al., 2014, see Table 1). Moreover, SSU rDNA sequences of *P. opercularis* from China have now been deposited in GenBank

(LN714815-LN714825; Holzmann and Pawlowski, 2017). The LSU rDNA sequence of a deposited Chinese specimen is identical to LSU sequences of the Japanese *P. opercularis* (Table 1).

Because *P. opercularis* is trochospiral with an attached mobile mode of life and directly exposed to sunlight, chloroplast distribution and sequestration are discussed in the context of spiral, umbilical and lateral perspectives, respectively (Fig. 7A-C). Kleptoplasts were situated at the proximity of the foraminifer's spiral surface, close to the pores and pores plates, where they formed a continuous layer of chloroplasts (Fig. 7B and Fig.8A, B). Also, some of the plastids were distributed in the endoplasm but at a lower density (Fig. 7B, 8E). Surrounding organelles such as mitochondria and Golgi apparatus were also found close to the kleptoplasts (Fig. 7F). The kleptoplasts were well preserved with thylakoids and a pyrenoid (Fig. 7C, D, F). Such peripheral distributions suggest active strategies of *P. opercularis* to maximise light acquisition by the kleptoplast, to favor gas (e.g., O_2, CO_2) and/or dissolved nutrient (e.g., nitrogen) exchanges with their surrounding habitats.

3.6. Ammonia sp. (phylotype T6, Fig. 9 and 10)

Ammonia isolated in Bourgneuf Bay tidal mudflat (France) were first identified as the morphospecies *A. tepida* (Jauffrais et al., 2016a). This morphospecies, however, is polyphyletic, with morphologically identical specimens belonging to distantly related species genetically (Hayward et al., 2004). Specimens from the same sample as the TEM-studied ones were sequenced (Schweizer et al., unpublished results and Table 1) and identified as *Ammonia* sp. (phylotype T6, Hayward et al., 2004).

Kleptoplasts were evenly distributed through chambers, along with diatom frustules and large vacuoles (Fig. 9B). An entire section of a diatom was noted in the endoplasm of one host (Fig. 9D). In this case, the degradation of the diatom had begun because the diatom cell had shrunken within the frustule, however, the detailed intracellular organization of the diatom remained clearly visible. Two chloroplasts with a simple pyrenoid were observable; they were linked by a bridge of cytoplasm where a nucleus and small vacuoles were also visible. A thin layer of cytoplasm then extended to the ends of the cell surrounding two large vacuoles and mitochondria.

Kleptoplasts of *Ammonia* sp. appeared in different states of degradation (Fig. 10). In well-preserved kleptoplasts, the pyrenoid was separated by a lamella composed of a thylakoid and surrounded by an

electron-lucent lamella (Fig. 10A). The thylakoids and girdle lamella were also visible (Fig. 10A and B). In degraded kleptoplasts, the structure of the thylakoids and pyrenoid was disrupted and the lamellae were degraded. These degraded kleptoplasts had inter-thylakoid spaces (Fig. 10C and D). Their degradation state and the fact that *Ammonia* sp. kleptoplasts are known to quickly become non-functional (Jauffrais et al., 2016b) suggest that this species merely feeds on diatoms and does not sequester chloroplasts to perform photosynthesis.

3.7. General discussion

Our findings indicate that all seven foraminiferal taxa studied actively sequester chloroplasts but sequestration strategies differed between species.

Firstly, the structure of the pyrenoid (one transecting lamella surrounded by one membrane), the presence of a girdle lamella and, thylakoids, and the absence of starch accumulation, together other evidence (ultrastructural, pigment and molecular analyses of the sequestered plastids, Goldstein et al., 2004; Knight and Mantoura, 1985; Pillet et al., 2011, Jauffrais et al. 2016), suggest that the kleptoplasts in all seven species belonged to diatoms. Similar ultrastructural, pigment and molecular analyses confirm a similar source for deep-water kleptoplastic benthic foraminifera (Bernhard and Bowser 1999; Grzymski et al., 2001). Secondly, kleptoplast distributions within the endoplasm differed. In some species, the kleptoplasts were evenly distributed (e.g., *H. germanica*, *E. oceanense* and *Ammonia* sp.), whereas in other species the plastids were located close to the cell periphery (e.g., *E. williamsoni*, *E. selseyense*, *P. opercularis*) and pore-plate complexes (e.g., *P. opercularis*). The differences in the organization of plastids within the endoplasm suggest different behavioral strategies, which expose and/or protect the sequestered plastids to/from light, and can favor gas (e.g., O_2, CO_2) and dissolved nutrient (e.g., ammonium, nitrate) exchange with their surrounding habitats. Peripheral chloroplast distributions might be considered as an active strategy of the foraminifer (e.g., *E. williamsoni*, *E. selseyense*, *P. opercularis*) to maximize light acquisition by kleptoplasts. In contrast, an internal distribution of kleptoplasts (e.g., *H. germanica*, *E. oceanense* and *Ammonia* sp.) could be considered either as an absence of strategy, as a strategy to protect the kleptoplasts from an excess of light and/or as an alternative strategy to maximize light exposure by continuously moving kleptoplasts

in the endoplasm of the cell to modulate light exposure. These results emphasize that studies on kleptoplast ultrastructure of benthic foraminifera must be interpreted with care, as results on their distribution might be influenced by the foraminiferal light exposure in the field and/or during experimental studies. Contrary to the present study were the ambient light intensity before fixation is unknown. We thus recommend for future ultrastructural studies to include control, or measure of light intensity. In any case, the clear difference in the chloroplast organization between two phylogenetically closely related species, *E. oceanense* and *E. selseyense* (Darling et al., 2016), lends a novel (physiological) attribute distinguishing the two species beyond genetics and morphology.

Thirdly, chloroplast degradation timescale and the processes involved seem to be species specific as many degraded plastids were found in *E. oceanense* and *Ammonia* sp. compared to other species. Furthermore, the presence of numerous degraded chloroplasts in the endoplasm of *Ammonia* sp. and *E. oceanense* is consistent with the absence of photosynthetic activity in both of these species (Lopez, 1979; Jauffrais et al., 2016b).

Finally, ingestion and sequestration strategies also differed among taxa. Diatom frustules were only found in *Ammonia* sp. while other species had isolated plastids lacking frustules. Another distinguishing characteristic could be the number of sequestered plastids (single to multiple) surrounded by a single host membrane. Such variations may be related to differences in chloroplast maintenance between foraminiferal species.

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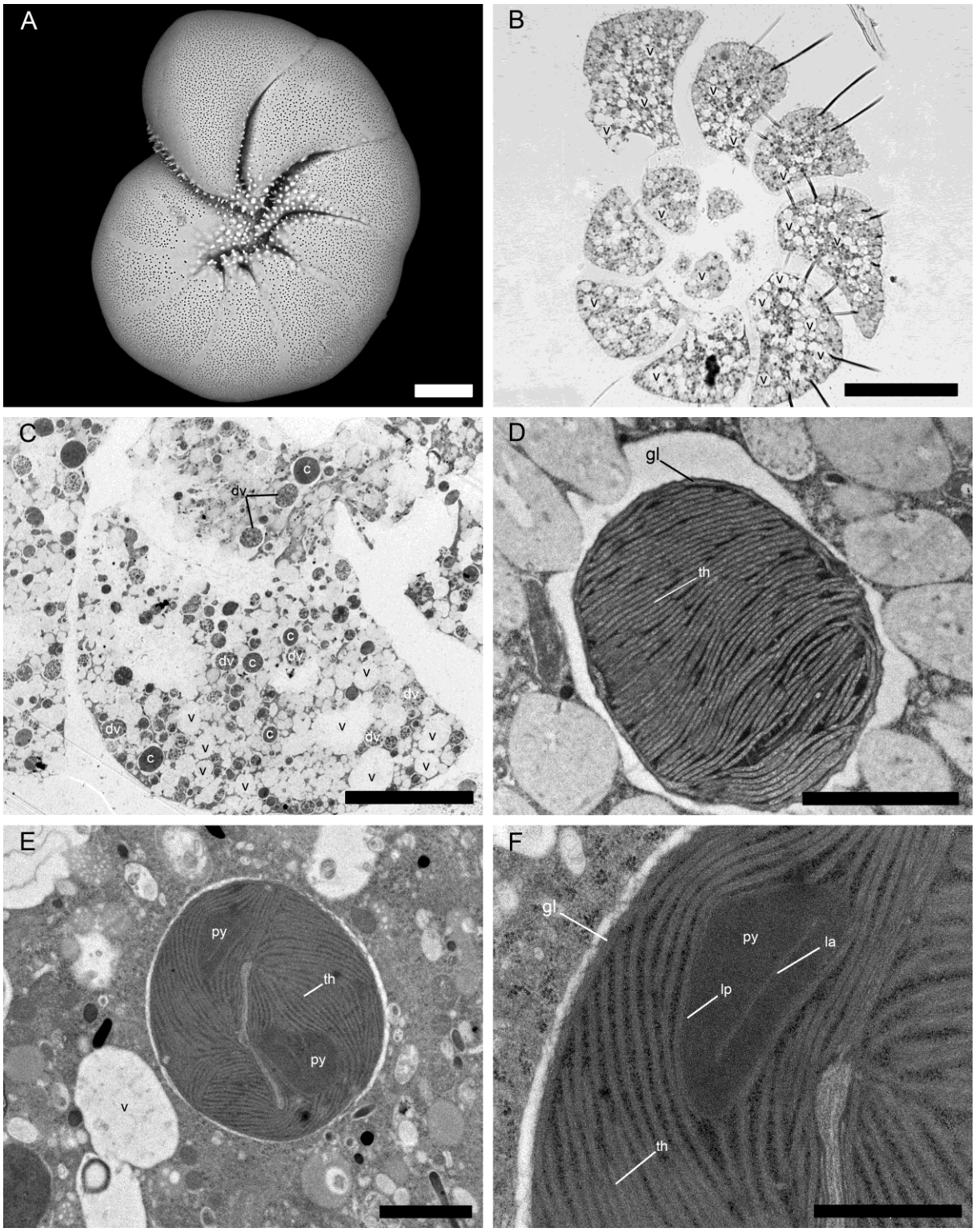
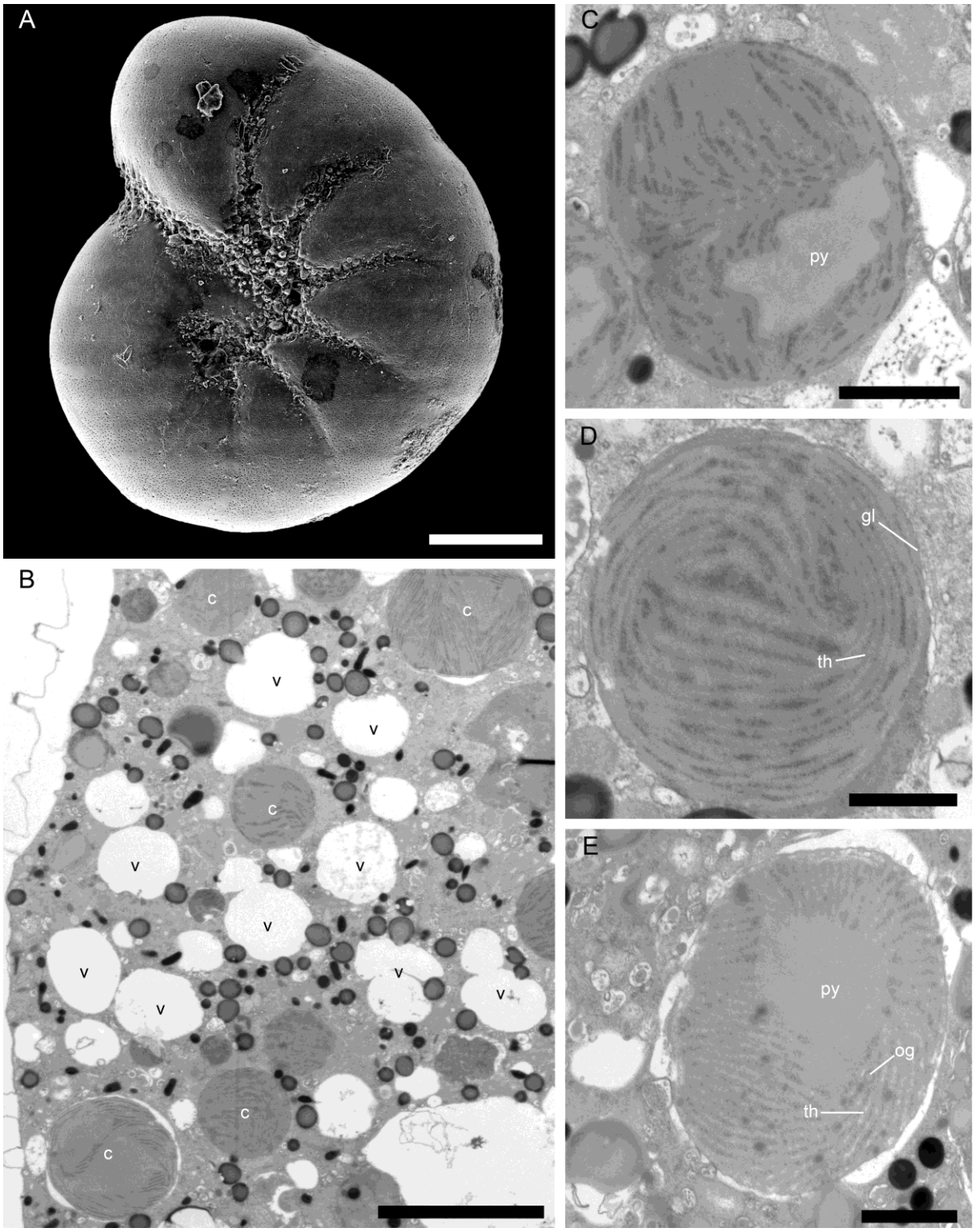


Figure 1



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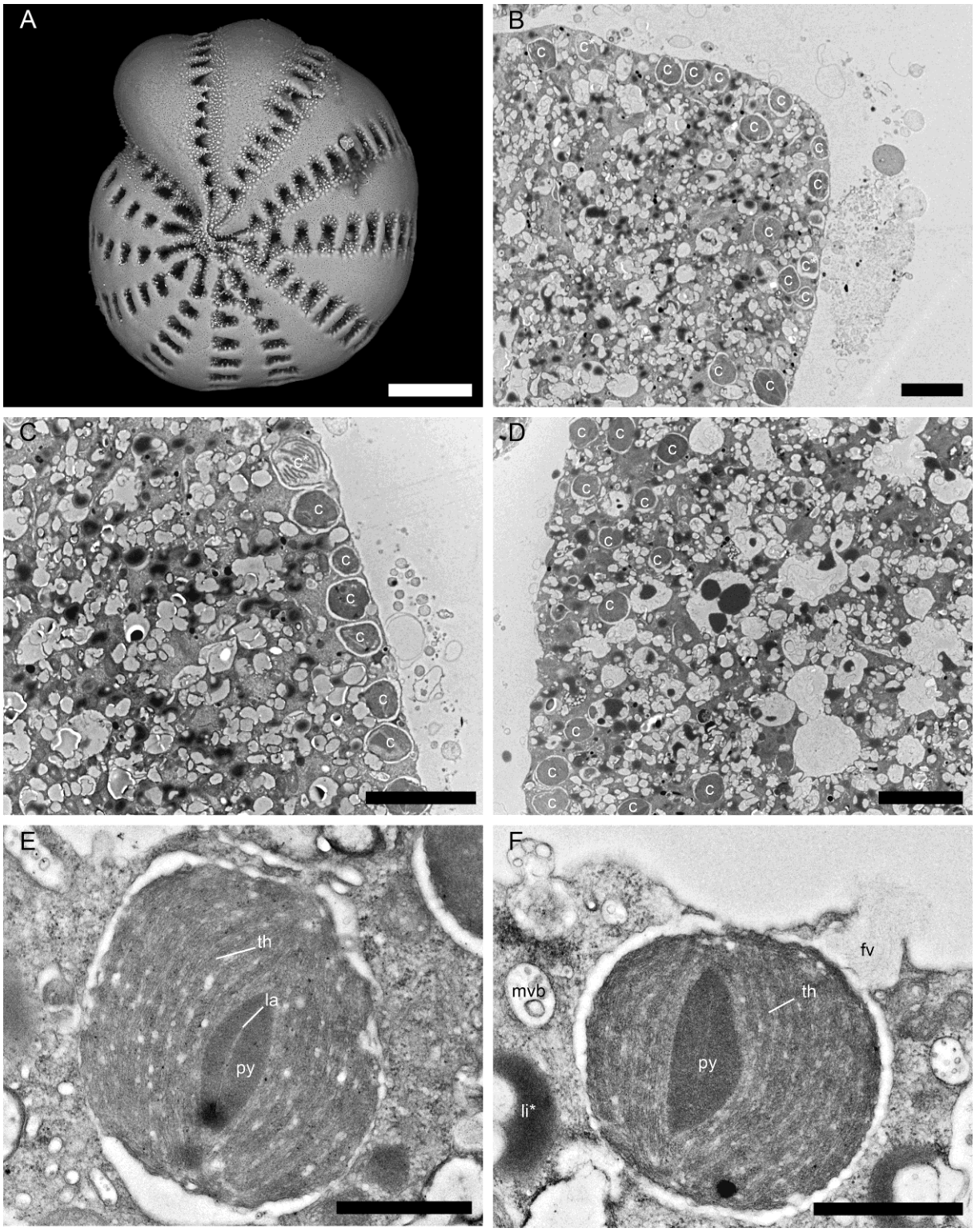

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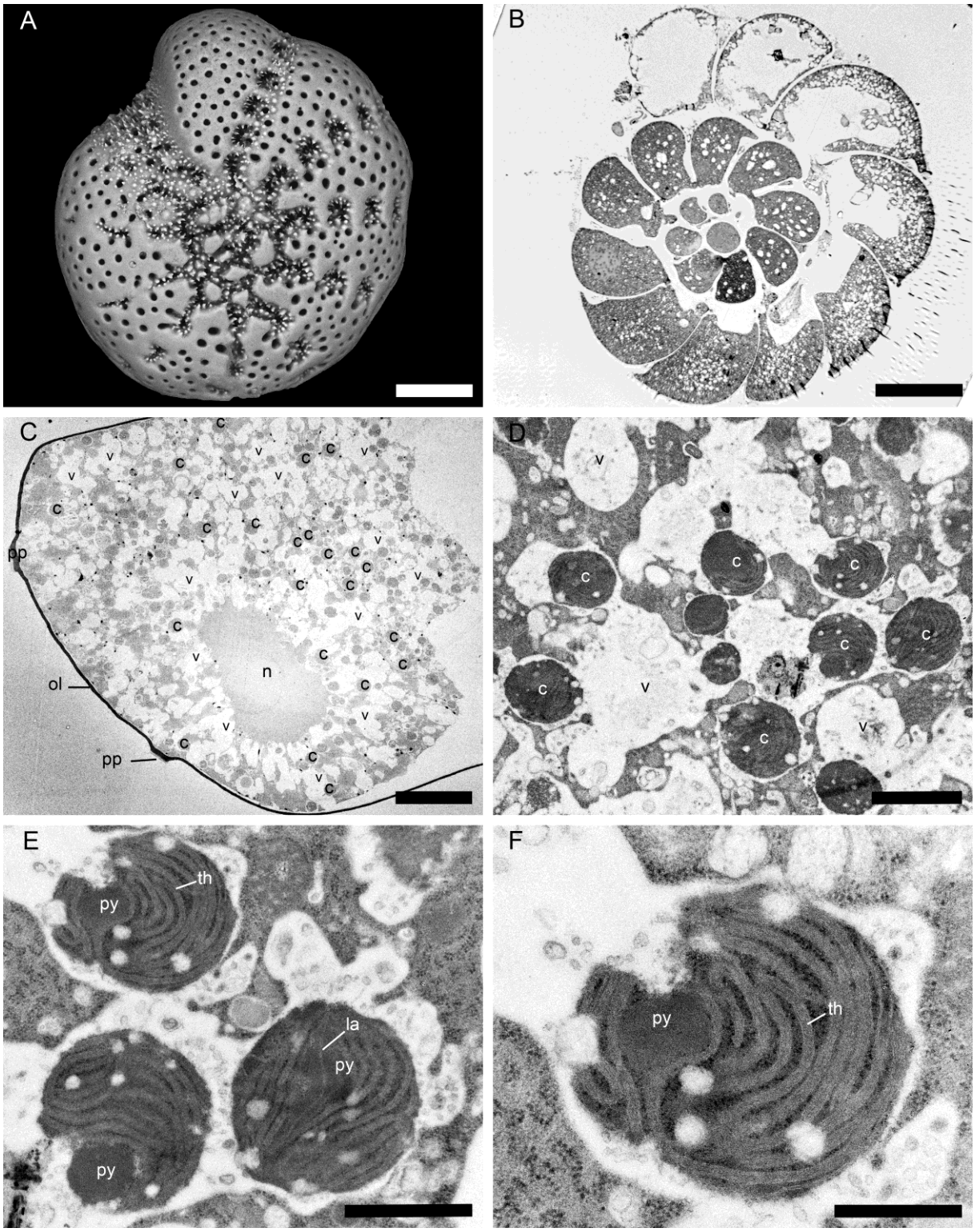

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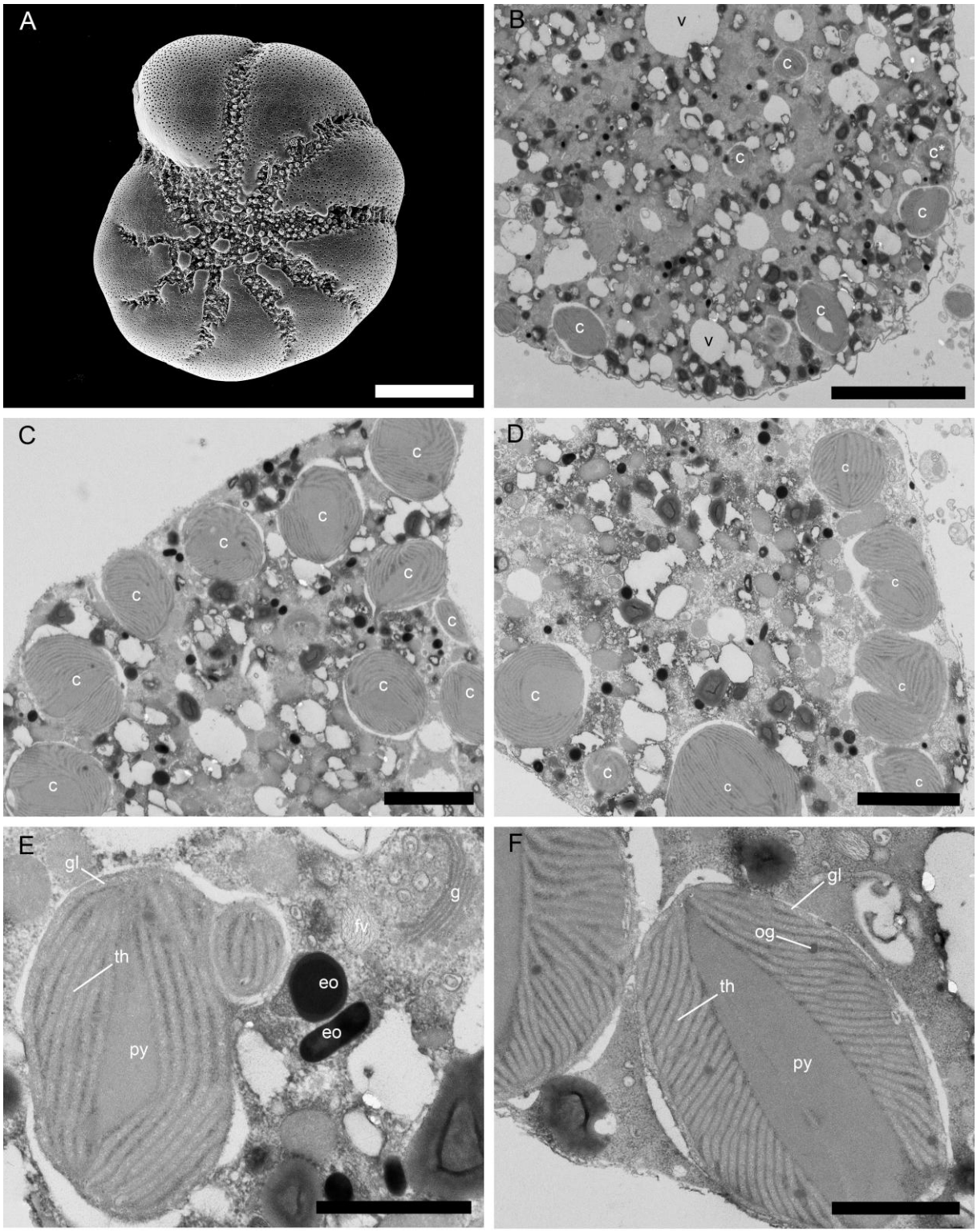

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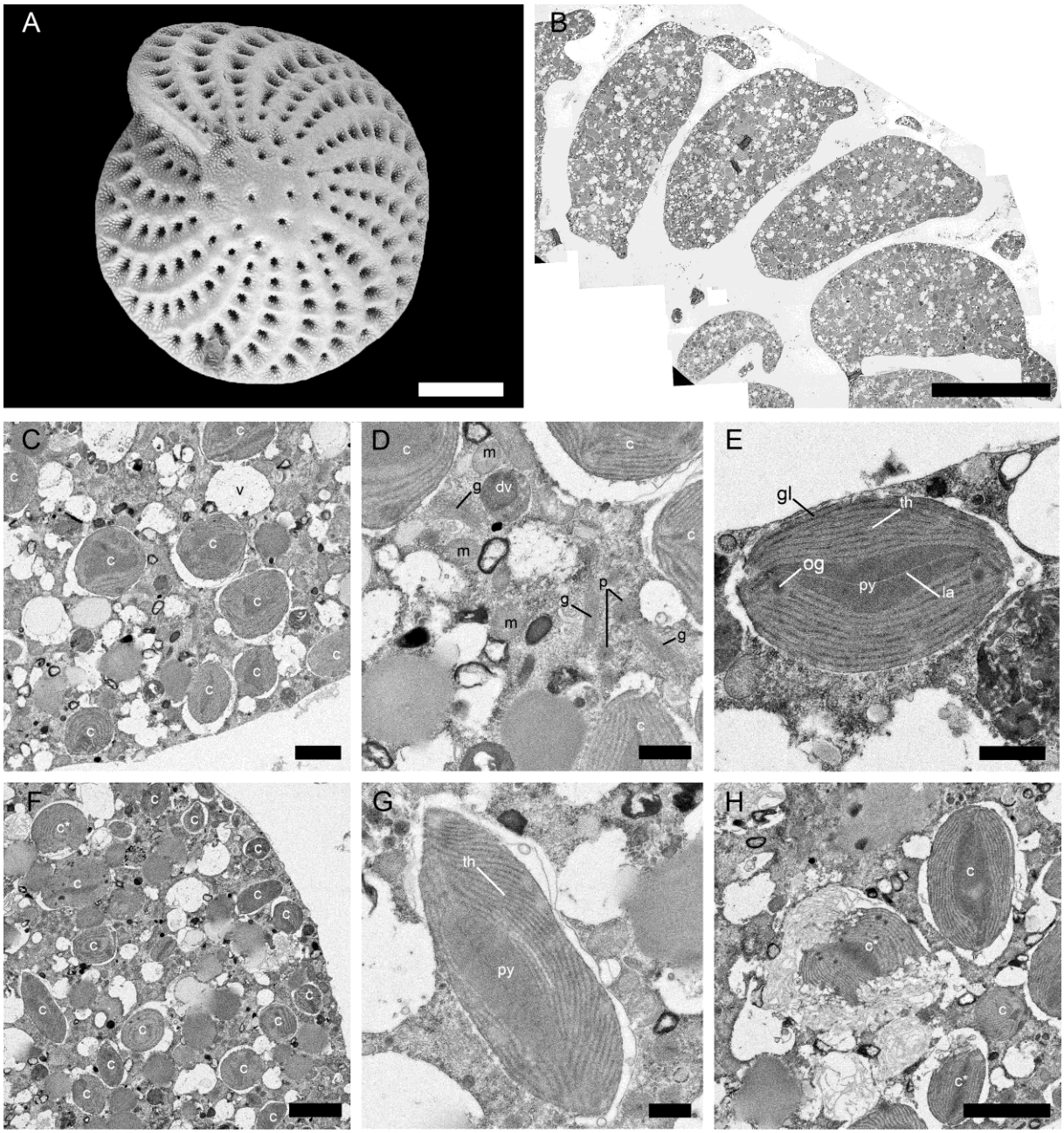

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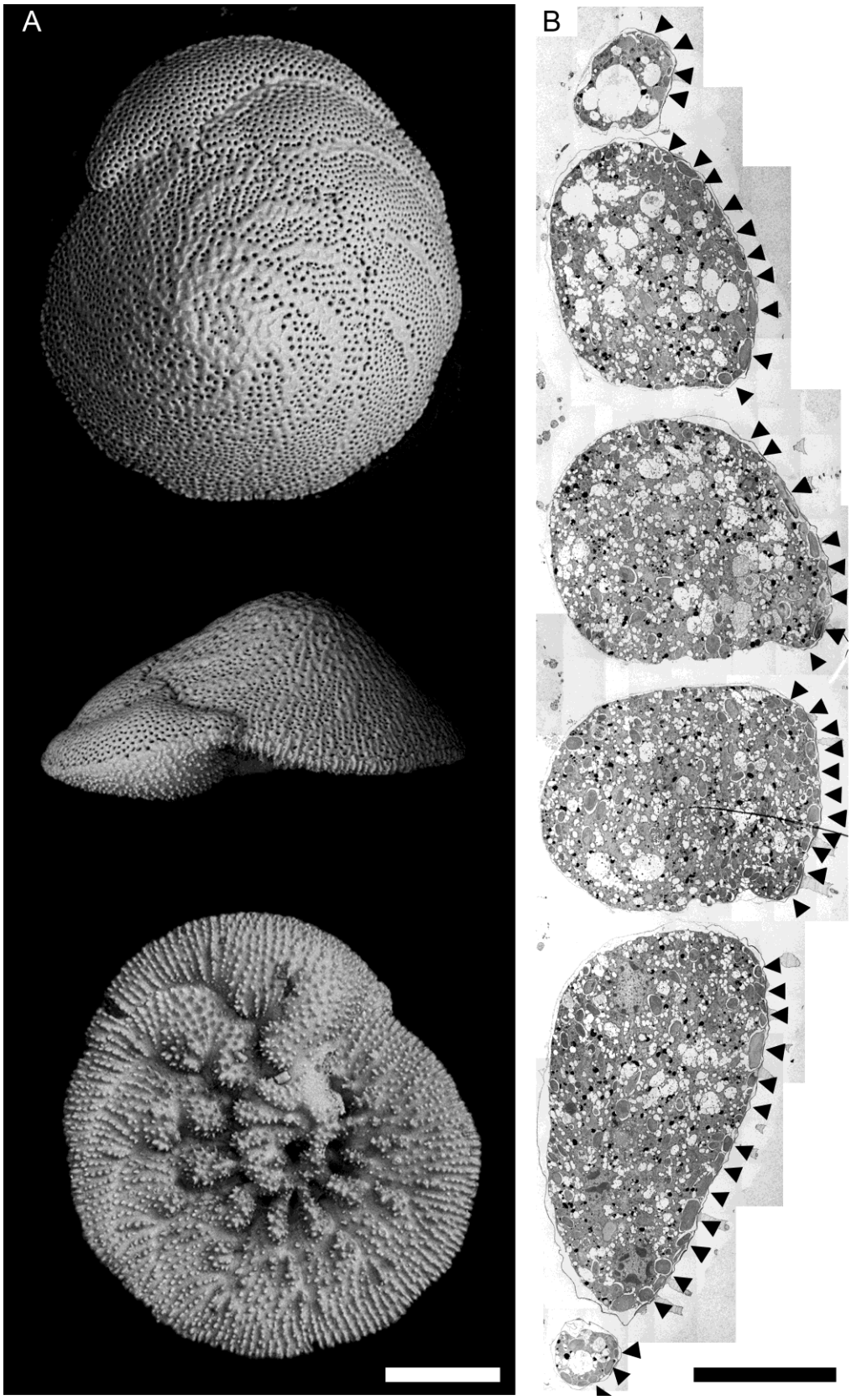

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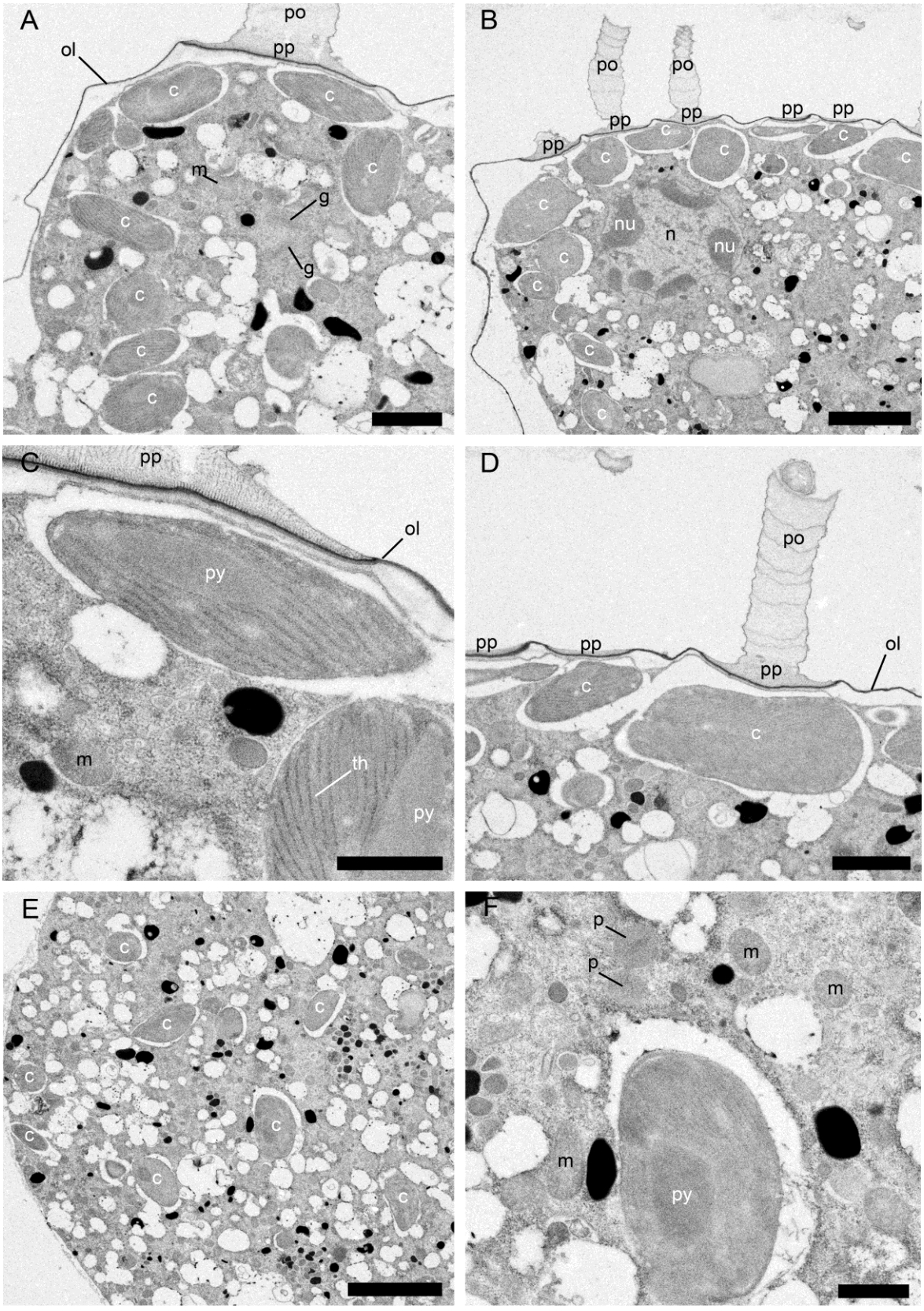

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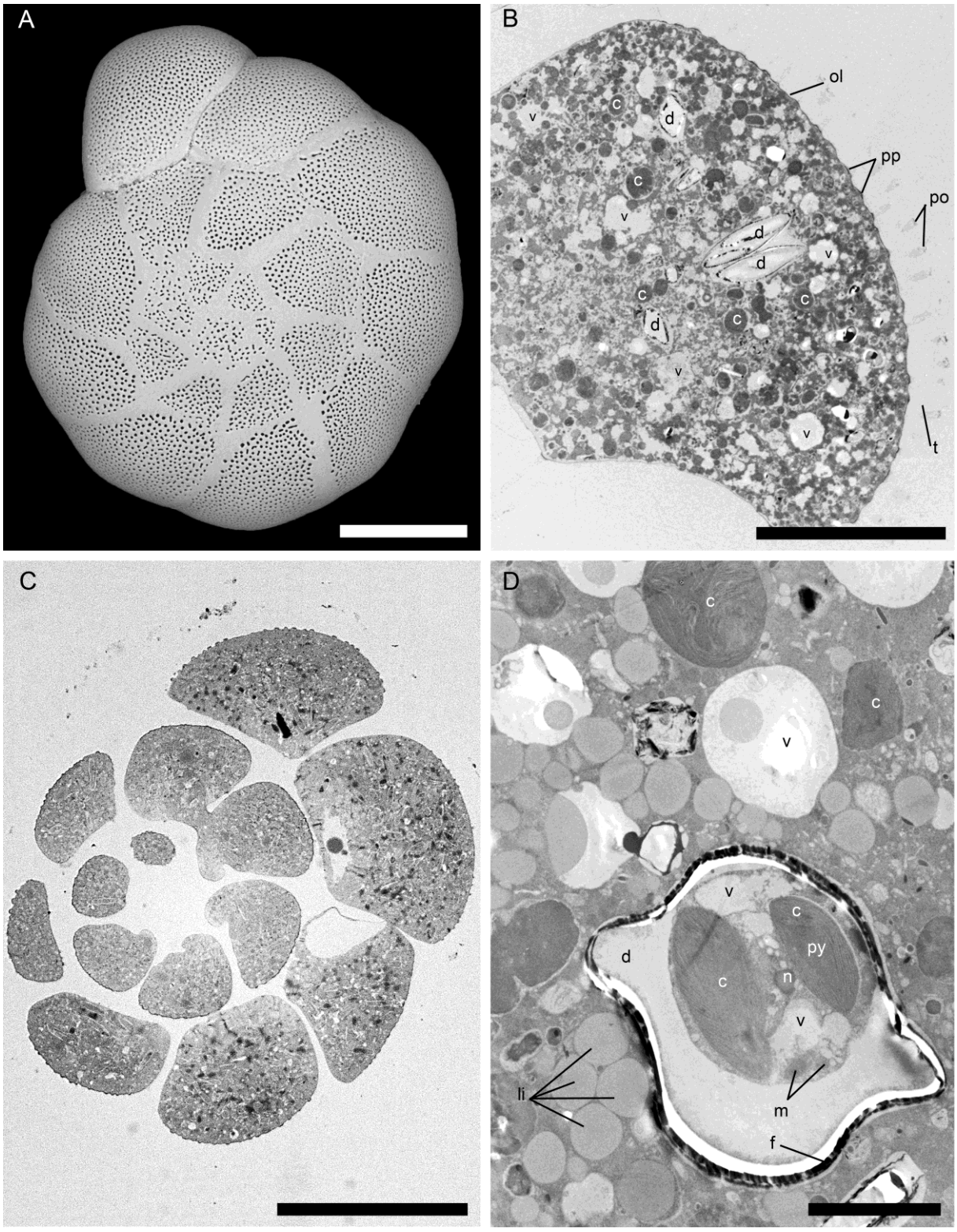

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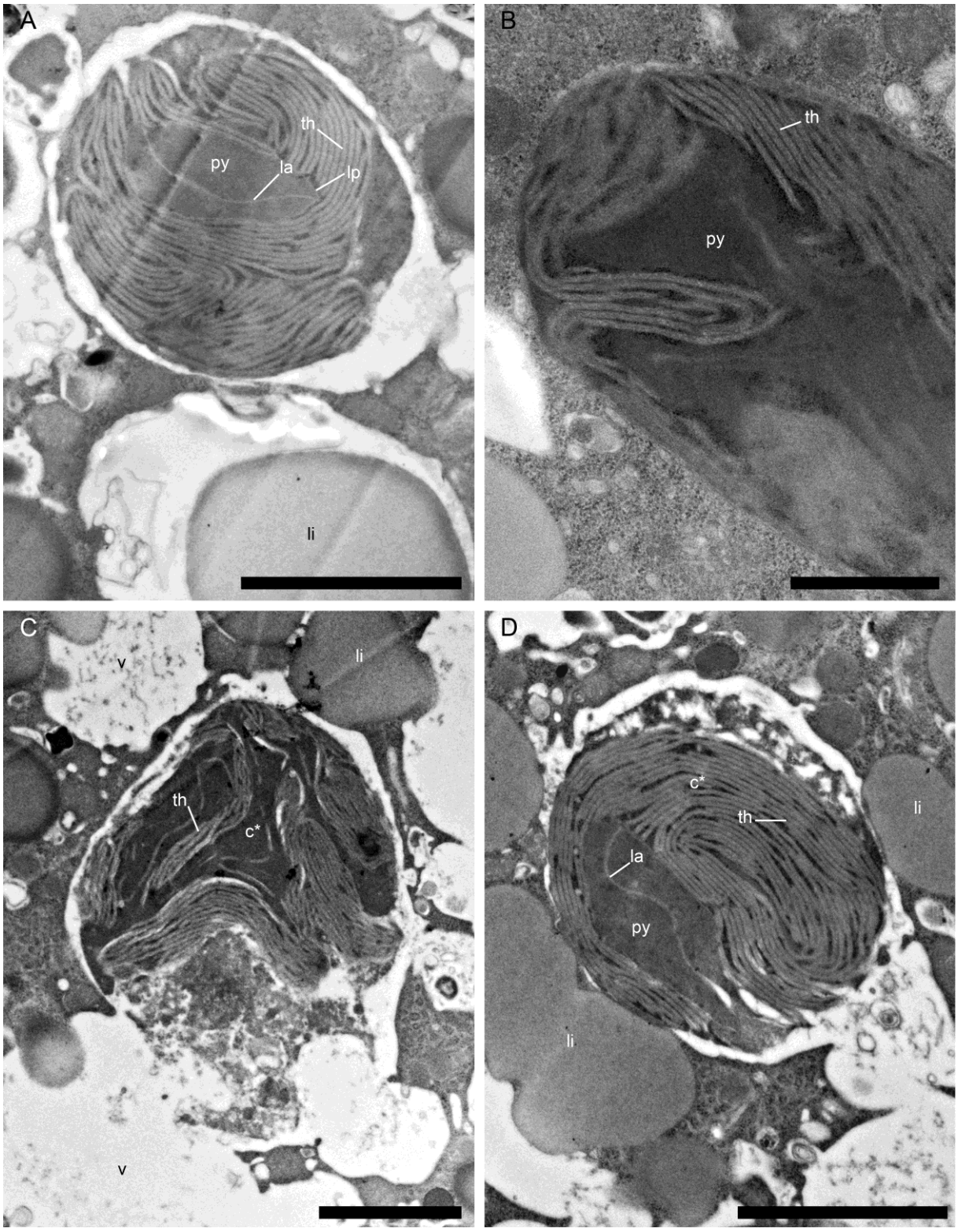

Figure 10

Figure 1. *Haynesina germanica* (phylotype S16) isolated from Bourgneuf Bay (France). **A.** SEM. **B.** Light micrograph of semi-thin section showing vacuoles (v). **C-F**. TEM micrographs. **C.** Overview of a chamber showing kleptoplasts (c) and digestive vacuoles (dv) evenly and densely distributed in the endoplasm. **D and E.** Kleptoplast with thylakoid (th), girdle lamella (gl); pyrenoids (py). **F.** Higher magnification view of a kleptoplast with the girdle lamella (gl) surrounding the kleptoplast, thylakoids (th), a pyrenoid (py) with a lamella (la) inside and a lamella surrounding the pyrenoid (lp). **Scale bars:** A, B = 50 µm, C = 20 µm, D = 2 µm, E = 1µm and F = 0.5 µm.

Figure 2. *Haynesina germanica* (phylotype S16) isolated from Wadden Sea (Texel, Netherlands). **A.** Scanning electron micrograph. **B-E.** TEM micrographs. **B.** Overview of a chamber showing kleptoplasts (c) and vacuoles (v) evenly and densely distributed in the endoplasm. **C - E.** Kleptoplasts with pyrenoid (py), thylakoids (th) and osmiophilic globules (possibly plastoglobules). **Scale bars:** A= 100 µm, B = 5µm, C and D = 0.5 µm and E = 1µm.

Figure 3. *Elphidium williamsoni* (phylotype S1) isolated from Gullmar fjord (Sweden). **A.** Scanning electron micrograph. **B-F.** TEM micrographs. **B, C and D**. Overviews of different chambers showing intact (c) and degraded (c*) kleptoplasts situated immediately below the host periphery (B and C) or close to it (D). **E and F**. Kleptoplasts with pyrenoid (py), lamella (la) and thylakoids (th). In F, note the fibrillar vacuole (fv), the multivesicular bodies (mvb) and the degraded lipid droplet (li*) near the kleptoplast. **Scale bars:** A = 100 µm, B- D = 5 µm, and E, F = 1µm.

Figure 4. *Elphidium oceanense* (phylotype S3) isolated from Bourgneuf Bay (France). **A.** Scanning electron micrograph. **B.** Light micrograph of semi-thin section. **C-F.** TEM micrographs. **C.** Overview of a chamber showing kleptoplasts (c) and vacuoles (v) evenly and densely distributed in the endoplasm. Also noted are the nucleus (n), pore plates (pp) and organic lining (ol). **D.** Kleptoplasts (c) often in degradation or perforated in large vacuoles (v). **E and F.** Higher magnification views showing

Kleptooplasts, often in degraded state, with pyrenoid (py), lamella (la) and thylakoids (th). **Scale bars:** A, B = 50 µm, C = 10 µm, D = 2 µm, E = 1 µm and F = 0.5 µm.

Figure 5. *Elphidium selseyense* (phylotype S5) isolated from Wadden Sea (Texel, Netherlands). **A.** Scanning electron micrograph. **B-F.** TEM micrographs. **B, C and D**. Overview of different chambers showing vacuoles (v) and kleptoplasts (c) situated immediately below the host periphery (B-D) with some internally (B). **E and F**. Kleptoplasts with a girdle lamella (gl), a pyrenoid (py), thylakoids (th) and osmiophilic globules (og, possibly plastoglobules). In E, note the Golgi apparatus (g) and electron opaque bodies (eo) near the kleptoplast. **Scale bars:** A = 100 µm, B, C = 5 µm, D = 2 µm, and E, F = 1 µm.

Figure 6. *Elphidium* aff. *E. crispum* isolated from Yugawara (Kanagawa Prefecture, Japan). **A.** Scanning electron micrograph. **B-H.** TEM micrographs. **B.** Overviews showing four different chambers. **C and D**. Kleptoplasts (c) evenly and densely distributed in the endoplasm of the cell and organization of surrounding vacuoles (v) and organelles. **D**. Mitochondria (m), digestive vacuole (dv), Golgi apparatus (g), peroxisome (p). **E.** Kleptoplast with a girdle lamella (gl), thylakoids (th), pyrenoid (py) divided in two by a lamella (la) and osmiophilic globules (og, possibly plastoglobules). **F.** Kleptoplasts (c) in the endoplasm. **G and H.** Intact (c) and degraded (c*) kleptoplasts. **Scale bars:** A = 100µm, B = 50 µm, C = 4 µm, D, E, G = 1 µm, F = 5 µm, and H = 2 µm.

Figure 7. *Planoglabratella opercularis* isolated from Yugawara (Kanagawa Prefecture, Japan). **A.** Scanning electron micrographs of dorsal (upper), lateral (middle) and ventral (lower) views. **B.** Transmission electron micrograph montage showing chambers and organization of kleptoplastids at the cell periphery. **Scale bars:** A = 100 µm and B = 25 µm.

Figure 8. Transmission electron micrographs of *P. opercularis.* **A-B**. Organization of the kleptoplasts (c) situated immediately below the host periphery close to the pore plates (pp) as well as in the endoplasm but at a lower density. Note the surrounding organelles: mitochondria (m), Golgi apparatus (g), nucleus (n) and nucleolus (nu), and also the pores (po), pore plates (pp), the organic lining (ol) and osmiophilic globules (og, possibly plastoglobules). **C and D.** Details of peripheral kleptoplasts showing thylakoids (th) and pyrenoids (py) and also the foraminiferal pores (po), pore plates (pp), and the organic lining (ol). **E and F.** Kleptoplasts (E) in the endoplasm with surrounding organelles (F): mitochondria (m), peroxisome (p). **Scale bars:** A, D = 2 µm, B = 5 µm, C, E, F = 1 µm.

Figure 9. *Ammonia sp.* (phylotype T6) from Bourgneuf Bay (France). **A.** Scanning electron micrograph. **B.** Transmission electron micrograph overview of a chamber of *Ammonia aomoriensis* showing kleptoplasts (c), empty diatom frustules (d), vacuoles (v), pores (po), pore plates (pp), organic lining (ol) and former location of the test (t). **C.** Light micrograph of semi-thin section. **D.** Transmission electron micrograph of a diatom in the endoplasm of the foraminifer, showing diatom organelles: kleptoplast (c), nucleus (n), vacuoles (v), mitochondria (m) and frustules (f). **Scale bars:** A, C = 100 µm, B = 50 µm, and D = 5 µm.

Figure 10. Transmission electron micrographs of *Ammonia sp.* (phylotype T6). **A and B.** Organization of kleptoplasts (c) showing pyrenoids (py), lamella (la) and lamella surrounding the pyrenoid (lp), and thylakoids (th). **C and D.** Kleptoplasts in degradation (c*). Note the lipids (li) in the foraminifer. **Scale bars:** A, C, D = 2 µm, B = 1 µm.

Table 1. Available DNA sequences for specimens from the same population or the same location as TEM studied specimens. The phylotype names refer to the systems described by Hayward et al. (2004) for *Ammonia* and Darling et al. (2016) for *Elphidium* and *Haynesina*.

Morphospecies	Gene	Phylotype	DNA isolate	Location	Accession number (GenBank)	Reference
Haynesina germanica	SSU	S16	H17-16	Bourgneuf (FR)	KY347799	present study
Haynesina germanica	SSU	S16	6008	Den Oever (NL)	EF534074	Schweizer et al., 2008
Haynesina germanica	SSU	S16	F323	Den Oever (NL)	GQ853557	Schweizer et al., 2011
Elphidium williamsoni	SSU	S1	GF191	Gullmar Fjord (SE)	KY347798	present study
Elphidium oceanense	SSU	S3	Bn130	Bourgneuf (FR)	KY347797	present study
Elphidium selseyense	SSU	S5	1244	Mokbaai (NL)	GQ853558-59	Schweizer et al., 2011
Planoglabratella opercularis	SSU	N/A	N/A	Omaezaki (JP)	Z69614	Pawlowski et al.. 1997
Planoglabratella opercularis	ITS	A1	GO17	Ooura Cove, Shimoda (JP)	AF498333	Tsuchiya et al. 2003, 2014
Planoglabratella opercularis	LSU	N/A	GO17	Ooura Cove, Shimoda (JP)	AF194044	Tsuchiya et al., 2000
Ammonia aomoriensis	SSU	T6	H17-34	Bourgneuf (FR)	KY347800	present study

Table 2. Synopsis of the ecology, sequestered plastid abundance, plastid distribution and other specifics for seven species of benthic foraminifera from shallow-water photic habitats.

Foraminiferal species	Ecology	Relative plastid abundance*	Plastid length (maximum dimension)	Plastid distribution	Other specifics
Haynesina germanica (S16)	Tolerant to variations in temperature and salinity, often encountered in Lusitanean and Boreal waters, in shallow intertidal to subtidal habitats (Alve and Murray, 1999; Darling et al., 2016)	Abundant	2-5 µm	Evenly distributed in the endoplasm	Presence of both healthy and degraded sequestered plastids Single plastids surrounded by host membrane
Elphidium williamsoni (S1)	Tolerant to variations in temperature and salinity, commonly encountered in shallow intertidal to subtidal habitats of Lusitanian and Boreal waters (Alve and Murray, 1999; Darling et al., 2016)	Abundant	2-3 µm	Mainly distributed at the periphery of the endoplasm and also globally distributed but at lower density	Single plastids surrounded by host membrane
Elphidium oceanense (S3)	Tolerant to large variations in temperature and salinity, only marginally encountered in shallow intertidal to subtidal Lusitanian and Boreal waters in sediment with high organic content (Alve and Murray, 1999; Darling et al., 2016)	Abundant	1-2 µm	Evenly distributed in the endoplasm	Plastids often appeared degraded with small circular electron-lucent disruption of thylakoids and pyrenoids Numerous sequestered plastids per vacuole
Elphidium selseyense (S5)	Widespread and opportunistic species, tolerant to variations of temperature and salinity in shallow intertidal to subtidal Lusitanean and Boreal waters (Darling et al., 2016; Horton and Edwards, 2006; Murray, 1991)	Abundant	2-3 µm	Mainly distributed at the periphery of the endoplasm and globally but at lower density	Single plastids surrounded by host membrane
Elphidium aff. *E. crispum*	Commonly encountered in the intertidal zone of rocky shores around the Japanese Islands, living on coralline algae (Kitazato, 1994)	Abundant	4-8 µm	Evenly distributed in the endoplasm	Single plastids surrounded by host membrane
Planoglabratella opercularis	Commonly encountered in the intertidal zone of rocky shores around the Japanese Islands where it lives on thalli of coralline algae (Tsuchiya et al., 2014). It has an attached and mobile form, and graze on epiphytic diatoms (Kitazato 1988)	Abundant	3-5 µm	Situated immediately below the dorsal foraminiferal periphery, close to pores and pores plates, forming a continuous layer of chloroplasts and also globally in the endoplasm but at lower density	One to three plastids surrounded by host membrane

Ammonia aomoriensis (T6)	Typical intertidal species in Europe and East Asia, tolerant to variations of temperature and salinity, found in tidal flats, marshes and brackish lakes (Hayward et al., 2004)	Rare	2-3 µm	Evenly distributed in the endoplasm	Diatom frustules with or without their cellular content Occurrence of both healthy and degraded plastids

* The results of this column are based on visual observations and literature data (Lopez et al., 1979; Correira and Lee, 2002; Goldstein et al., 2004; Cesbron et al. 2017)

Highlights

- Seven species of benthic foraminifera were examined with the TEM
- The distribution of sequestered chloroplasts was species specific
- Some were evenly distributed throughout the endoplasm
- Others were distributed close to the external cell membrane
- Organization of the kleptoplasts suggests behavioral strategies