# Biogenic production of DMSP and its degradation to DMS – their roles in the global sulfur cycle

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# 18 ABSTRACT

Dimethyl sulfide (DMS) is the most abundant form of volatile sulfur in Earth's 19 and is the oceans. mainly produced by enzymatic clevage 20 of dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP). DMS and DMSP play important roles in driving 21 the global sulfur cycle and may affect climate. DMSP is proposed to serve as an 22 osmolyte, a grazing deterrent, a signaling molecule, an antioxidant, a cryoprotectant 23 and/or as a sink for excess sulfur. It was long believed that only marine eukaryotes such 24 as phytoplankton produce DMSP. However, we recently discovered that marine 25 heterotrophic bacteria can also produce DMSP, making them a potentially important 26 27 source of DMSP. At present, one prokaryotic and two eukaryotic DMSP synthesis enzymes have been identified. Marine heterotrophic bacteria are likely the major 28 degraders of DMSP, using two known pathways: demethylation and cleavage. Many 29 phytoplankton and some fungi can also cleave DMSP. So far seven different prokaryotic 30 and one eukaryotic DMSP lyases have been identified. This review describes the global 31 32 distribution pattern of DMSP and DMS, the known genes for biosynthesis and cleavage of DMSP, and the physiological and ecological functions of these important 33 organosulfur molecules, which will improve understanding of the mechanisms of 34 DMSP and DMS production and their roles in the environment. 35

Key words: marine microorganism; dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP); dimethyl
 sulfide (DMS); DMSP biosynthesis; DMSP cleavage

#### **39 INTRODUCTION**

The biogenic trace gas dimethyl sulfide (DMS) is the dominant natural source of volatile organic sulfur compounds emitted into the atmosphere from the marine environment (Charlson et al., 1987; Andreae, 1990; Simó, 2001; Stefels et al., 2007). The amount of sulfur (in the form of DMS) transferred from ocean to atmosphere is approximately 13–37 Tg annually (Ksionzek et al., 2016).

DMS emissions not only balance the global sulfur budget, but may also impact 45 Earth's climate through its oxidation products in the atmosphere (Figure 1). When DMS 46 diffuses into the atmosphere, it can be rapidly oxidised by OH (during the day) and NO<sub>3</sub> 47 (at night) radicals to form various sulfur-containing products, such as sulfur dioxide 48  $(SO_2)$ , methanesulfonic acid (MSA) and non-sea-salt sulfate (nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) (Andreae et 49 al., 1985; Boucher and Pham, 2002). Sulfate produced by this process not only increases 50 the natural acidity of atmospheric deposition, but also contributes to cloud condensation 51 nuclei (CCN) in remote marine environments (Quinn and Bates 2011; Charlson et al. 52 1987). Changes in CCN concentration affect the cloud droplet number and 53 54 concentration, which influences cloud albedo and potentially affects global temperature (Charlson et al., 1987). However, the contradictory view has also been proposed that a 55 DMS biological control over CCN probably does not exist and the bioregulation of 56 DMS on climate has been exaggerated (Quinn and Bates, 2011). 57

The main precursor of DMS is dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP), an organic 58 sulfur compound that is produced in prodigious amounts (2.0 petagrams sulfur annually, 59 worldwide) by many marine organisms, thought mainly to be including marine 60 phytoplankton (Figure 1; Keller et al., 1989; Stefels et al., 2007; Ksionzek et al. 2016). 61 Upon the release of intracellular DMSP into the environment, it can be taken up by a 62 wide range of microorganisms (Malmstrom et al., 2004; Vila et al., 2004; Raina et al., 63 2017) and catabolised as a source of carbon, reduced sulfur and/or energy (Reisch et 64 65 al., 2013; Raina et al., 2009; Tripp et al., 2008). DMSP is cleaved to produce DMS and the co-products acrylate or 3-hydroxypropionate (3-HP) by intracellular algal or 66 bacterial DMSP-lyase enzymes (Figure 1; Curson et al., 2011; Johnston et al., 2016). It 67 is thought that only a minor fraction of dissolved DMSP, varying between 2% and 21%, 68 is enzymatically cleaved to liberate DMS (Kiene and Linn, 2000). The majority of 69 DMSP is likely demethylated by bacterial activity, and does not lead to the formation 70 of DMS, but instead can lead to the generation of the trace gas methanethiol (MeSH; 71 72 Kiene and Linn, 2000; Yoch, 2002; Howard et al., 2006).

In all known DMSP synthesis pathways, DMSP is synthesised from the amino acid
L-methionine (Met), and is likely more abundant in marine than terrestrial
environments because of the high concentration of sulfate in seawater (Stefels, 2000).

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The marine organisms that make DMSP include single-celled phytoplankton (such as dinoflagellates, diatoms and coccolithophores) (Keller et al., 1989; Curson et al., 2018; Kageyama et al., 2018), some red and green algae (Challenger and Simpson, 1948; Greene, 1962), a few angiosperms (Otte et al., 2004), as well as some corals (Raina et al., 2013). More recently, it has been found that marine heterotrophic bacteria can also make DMSP, making them a potentially important source of marine DMSP (Curson et al., 2017).

DMSP is proposed to serve numerous physiological functions in organisms that 83 accumulate it under different environmental conditions (Otte et al., 2004). Its specific 84 function may vary in different organisms, perhaps based on where DMSP is localised 85 in the cell (Trossat et al., 1996, 1998). For example, DMSP detected in the chloroplasts 86 of the angiosperm Wollastonia was considered to contribute significantly to chloroplast 87 osmoregulation and may protect photosynthetic processes from stress (Trossat et al., 88 89 1998). Furthermore, DMSP also acts as a carbon, sulfur and/or energy store and its synthesis may prevent the depletion of important nitrogen precursors during periods of 90 nitrogen limitation (Stefels et al., 2000). 91

In this Review, we focus on the distribution pattern of DMSP and DMS in the marine environment, the relative contributions of marine phytoplankton and bacteria to the production of DMSP and its degradation to DMS, the physiological function of DMSP and DMS and their roles in the global sulfur cycle.

## 96 DISTRIBUTION OF DMSP AND DMS IN THE MARINE ENVIRONMENT

97 DMSP is ubiquitous in the euphotic layers of the marine system, with a wide variation in concentrations ranging from low nanomolar to several micromolar 98 concentrations (Table 1). DMS is produced mainly from the cleavage of DMSP, but can 99 also be produced from DMSP-independent sources (Carrión et al., 2015, 2017). To a 100 certain extent, the distributions of DMSP and DMS show similar variation patterns in 101 102 the surface ocean. Here we summarise many of the surveys of global DMSP and DMS distribution in last 30 years from 1988 to 2018 (Table 1). The concentration of total 103 DMSP (DMSPt) was always less than 1.78 µM in seawater. The majority of DMSP is 104 found within microorganisms, termed 'particulate DMSP' (DMSPp;  $\leq 1.74 \mu$ M), whilst 105 the available DMSP, 'dissolved DMSP' (DMSPd), concentrations are lower at  $\leq 275$ 106 107 nM.

#### **108** Spatial characteristics

On a global scale, in polar and subpolar regions, higher DMS and DMSP concentrations are always observed (Table 1). In Arctic Ocean (e.g., Northeast Atlantic and Norwegian and Greenland Seas) surface seawater, DMS concentrations were observed up to 93.8 nM, while DMSPp and DMSPd were up to 282.4 nM and 199 nM, respectively, likely due to the phytoplankton blooms arising during seasonal sea ice melting (Malin et al., 1993; Li et al., 2015). Relatively high DMS and DMSP concentrations also occurred in the Ross Sea (Rellinger et al., 2009), the West Antarctic Penisula (Stefels et al., 2018) and Canadian subarctic and arctic marine water (Jarníková et al., 2018) as shown in Table 1.

In high-latitude and temperate regions, high DMS and DMSP concentrations, so-118 called "hotspots", coincide with the high primary productivity ocean areas. In the East 119 China continental sea, the average DMS, DMSPd and DMSPp concentrations in 120 summer are observed at 5.3 nM, 5.2 nM and 27.1 nM, respectively (Zhang et al., 2014). 121 High concentrations of DMSP are also reported in the Gulf of Maine (Matrai et al., 122 123 1993) and Gulf of Saint Lawrence (Cantin et al., 1996). In addition, a study of the Belgian coastal zone showed relatively high phytoplankton biomass levels occurred in 124 the coastal upwelling areas because of the vertical supply of nutrients, and this was 125 126 accompanied by high DMS and DMSP concentrations, with concentrations of DMSPt up to 1.78 µM and DMS up to 270 nM (Speeckaert et al., 2018). High concentrations 127 of DMS and DMSPp are also reported in waters off the western coast of Ireland, up to 128 42 nM and 50 - 635 nM respectively (Locarnini et al., 1998). The tropical oceans show 129 moderate and relatively constant DMS concentrations throughout the year (Bates and 130 Quinn, 1997). 131

The vertical distribution of DMS and DMSP in seawater generally exhibit decreasing trends from the surface waters to the deeper waters (Table 1). Maximum DMS and DMSP concentrations are usually found in surface seawater or in seawater < 100 m below the surface, but are reduced in the marine euphotic zone. Since phytoplankton are widely recognised as the major producers of DMSP in the marine environment, it is not surprising that vertical distribution patterns of DMSP and DMS resemble those of phytoplankton.

#### 139 Seasonal cycle pattern

In both hemispheres, DMSP and DMS concentrations exhibit similar seasonal 140 cycle patterns in relation to changes in temperature and light. That is, the DMS and 141 DMSP concentrations rise in spring and usually peak in late summer, and then decrease 142 through autumn and winter. These temporal distribution variations are particularly 143 apparent in middle-high latitude ocean regions, such as the North Pacific Ocean where 144 the average DMS concentration reaches the maximum (> 5 nM) in the summer and 145 drops to the minimum (< 1 nM) in the winter (Aranami and Tsunogai, 2004). In the 146 Yellow-East China Sea, the concentration of DMSP was lowest (6.5-18.0 nM) during 147 winter, and highest in summer (7.6-234.9 nM), and slightly higher in autumn (7.4-91.0 148 nM) than in spring (5.5-73.7 nM) (Yang et al., 2006, 2011, 2012; Zhang et al., 2014, 149 2017). Moving towards the equator, this seasonal cycle pattern gets less pronounced 150

and even disappears, consistent with the associated reduction in seasonality meaning decreasing variation in temperature or day length. In the tropical oceans around the equator, the average concentrations of DMS and DMSP are reasonably constant throughout the year.

Diurnal cycles of DMS and DMSP concentrations are also present. Song et al. (2014) reported DMSP concentrations in off-shore areas were higher in the daytime than at night, and the DMS concentration peaked in the afternoon and reached the minimum in the early morning.

#### 159 Effect of environmental factors on DMSP and DMS distribution

The distribution of DMSP and DMS in seawater is affected by various physical, 160 chemical and biological factors. In the Norwegian Sea and the Greenland Sea, 161 chlorophyll a concentration (indicator of phytoplankton biomass) was shown to be the 162 most significant impact factor in DMSP production, followed by seawater temperature 163 and salinity (Li et al., 2015). In marginal seas, anthropogenic factors, such as 164 atmospheric pollution, may play important roles in the production of DMSP and DMS 165 (Yang et al., 2015). In addition, nitrogen availability is well known as a major 166 influencing factor in increasing intracellular levels of DMSP in marine phytoplankton 167 (Keller et al., 1996; Sunda et al., 2007; Curson et al 2018). Nutrients like silicate could 168 169 indirectly affect DMSP production through a significant effect on the growth of larger nanoplankton (Zhai et al., 2018). Solar radiation is also well known as an important 170 driver of DMS dynamics in the ocean (Vallina and Simó, 2007). Biologically, as the 171 driving force on DMSP degradation, the biomass and composition of bacteria in the 172 marine environment have vital influence on DMS production. It is possible that all these 173 174 factors, such as nutrient levels and solar radiation, may affect phytoplankton biomass, which are the direct factors affecting DMSP and DMS concentrations. 175

The DMS and DMSP temporal cycle pattern is usually associated with the biomass 176 of phytoplankton, particularly the high DMSP-producing taxa, e.g., dinoflagellates and 177 prymnesiophytes (Keller, 1989). Higher phytoplankton biomass and biological 178 activities are found during the warmer and more illuminated seasons, which leads to 179 more DMSP and more of its bio-degradation product, DMS. Townsend and Keller 180 (1996) found that concentrations of DMSPp were related more to the presence of 181 182 specific phytoplankton species rather than to overall phytoplankton biomass. The study of Scarratt et al (2002) in the northwest Atlantic also showed statistically significant 183 correlations between the abundance of dinoflagellates and prymnesiophytes and the 184 concentrations of DMS(P). In the region with the highest DMS(P) concentrations, the 185 phytoplankton assemblage was dominated by *Chrysochromulina* spp. (prymnesiophyte) 186 and Gyrodinium flagellare (dinoflagellate) whose abundance showed a marked 187 correlation with total DMSPp as well as the 2 to 11 µm size fraction of DMSP. In 188

addition, Archer et al. (2009) discovered a taxonomic succession of high DMSP-189 producing phytoplankton is apparent in the seasonal pattern of DMSPt concentrations. 190 Peridinin and DMSPt concentrations showed similar seasonal trends, which illustrates 191 the substantial contribution by the dinoflagellate taxa to DMSP production. However, 192 in low-latitude temperate and northern subtropical areas, DMS exhibits high levels in 193 the summer, when phytoplankton biomass is low, and this has been coined the "DMS 194 summer paradox" (Simó and Pedrós-Alió, 1999). The possible reason(s) might be both 195 or either: 1) taxonomic succession from minor to major DMSP-producing 196 phytoplankton as previously proposed (Simó and Pedrós-Alió, 1999); 2) blooming of 197 DMSP-producing bacterial taxa which were found in our recently discovery (Curson et 198 199 al., 2017).

## 200 BIOSYNTHESIS OF DMSP

Biosynthesis of DMSP has been identified in some plants, macroalgae, phytoplankton, corals (Reed, 1983; Keller et al., 1989; Paquet et al., 1994; Hanson et al., 1994; Kocsis et al., 1998; Otte et al., 2004; Raina et al., 2013; Ausma et al., 2017), and most recently also discovered in many marine bacteria (Table 2; Curson et al., 2017). Thus, DMSP is present in all marine ecosystems and can be utilised not only by the producing organisms, but also by other species that live in the same habitats with the producers.

## 208 Biosynthesis of DMSP by marine eukaryotes

DMSP was first identified in 1948 in the red alga Polysiphonia (Challenger & 209 Simpson, 1948). The main DMSP producers are widely recognised to be marine 210 phytoplankton, and strains in the classes of Dinophyceae (dinoflagellates) and 211 Prymnesiophyceae (haptophytes) were recorded with high intracellular DMSP 212 concentrations of up to 10<sup>2</sup>-10<sup>3</sup> mM (Keller, 1989; Stefels, 2000). As well as these very 213 high producers, DMSP biosynthesis has also been documented in other marine algae, 214 e.g. diatoms (Lyon et al., 2011; Kettles et al., 2014), the green alga Ulva intestinalis 215 (Gage et al., 1997), and some higher plants like sugarcane (Paquet et al., 1994) and the 216 coastal angiosperms Spartina alterniflora (Kocsis et al., 1998) and Wollastonia biflora 217 (Hanson et al., 1994). The green tide (Ulva bloom), which occurs annually in the 218 summer in the Yellow Sea and East China Sea (Figure 2), always brings with it a tangy 219 220 odour (DMS is one of the compounds contributing to the complex smell) during the algal decay process. Recently, DMSP biosynthesis was also reported in the kingdom of 221 animalia with two corals species Acropora millepora and Acropora tenuis shown to 222 produce DMSP (Raina et al., 2013). The occurrence of DMSP in corals was previously 223 attributed to the DMSP-producing coral symbiont Symbiodinium, but investigations of 224 225 algal-free juvenile corals clearly demonstrated a heat stress-dependent DMSP production by the marine invertebrates themselves (Raina et al., 2013). Orthologues of 226

the eukaryotic *DSYB* DMSP biosynthesis gene present in the genome of the coral
 *Acropora cervicornis* were shown to encode a functional SAM-dependent
 methyltransferase, catalyzing the key enzymatic step in DMSP biosynthesis via the
 transamination pathway (Curson et al., 2018).

At present, it is known that DMSP synthesis in marine eukaryotes can occur 231 232 through four different pathways, two methylation pathways in angiosperms (Hanson and Gage, 1996; Kocsis et al., 1998), a transamination pathway in diatoms, 233 dinoflagellates, haptophytes, green algae and corals (Gage et al., 1997; Summers et al., 234 1998; Raina et al., 2013; Curson et al., 2018) and a decarboxylation pathway in one 235 dinoflagellate (Uchida et al., 1996). Each of the proposed pathways for DMSP 236 biosynthesis begins with methionine, although subsequent steps vary (Figure 3). Since 237 the biosynthesis reactions and enzymes evolved are quite diverse, these different DMSP 238 biosynthetic pathways must have evolved independently. However, it is unknown 239 240 whether some taxonomically distinct organisms such as green algae, diatoms, dinoflagellates, haptophytes and corals use the same transamination pathway due to a 241 242 horizontal gene transfer event or due to their evolving independently. DMSP production has been found to be species-specific, with some members of a genus producing it and 243 others not, and can vary by three orders of magnitude within phytoplankton groups. The 244 highest intracellular concentrations are typically reported in dinoflagellates and 245 haptophytes and lower concentrations in diatoms (Table 2; Keller, 1989). 246

Although it has long been known that eukaryotic algae can produce DMSP, the lack 247 of genomic sequences and molecular tools for studying marine eukaryotes meant that 248 the functional genes have only recently been identified. Todd and colleagues, based on 249 250 work in bacteria (see below), identified the DSYB gene, encoding a SAM-dependent methyltransferase, in many marine algae, including dinoflagellates, diatoms and 251 coccolithophores, as well as in some corals. DSYB mediates the key step of the 252 transamination pathway, transforming 4-methylthio-2-hydroxybutyrate (MTHB) to 4-253 dimethylsulfonio-2-hydroxybutyrate (DMSHB; Table 2; Curson 2018). Takabe and 254 255 colleagues have recently found the isozyme of DSYB in the diatom Thalassiosira pseudonana, named TpMMT (Table 2), encoded by the TpMT2 gene, which showed no 256 significant homology with ratified DSYBs (Kageyama et al., 2018). DMSP synthesis 257 genes involved in steps other than S-methylation have not been identified in any 258 organisms so far. 259

## 260 Biosynthesis of DMSP by marine bacteria

Recently, DMSP biosynthesis was detected in *Labrenzia aggregata* LZB033
(Figure 4) and then also in several other marine *Alphaproteobacteria*, including *Oceanicola batsensis* HTCC2597, *Pelagibaca bermudensis* HTCC2601, *Sediminimonas qiaohouensis* DSM21189, *Amorphus coralli* DSM18348, *Sagittula*

stellata E-37, L. aggregata IAM12614, and Thalassobaculum salexigens DSM19539 265 (Table 2; Curson et al., 2017). These bacteria synthesise DMSP through the 266 transamination pathway, the same pathway used by many marine algae and some corals. 267 Through screening an L. aggregata LZB033 genomic library for candidate DMSP 268 biosynthesis genes, one gene dsyB, encoding a functional MTHB methyltransferase, 269 was identified as the key gene in bacterial DMSP biosynthesis. The transfer of the dsyB 270 gene alone was sufficient to confer the ability to synthesise DMSP to the non-DMSP 271 producing bacterium Rhizobium leguminosarum. This indicates that enzymes 272 catalyzing the production of MTHB and the decarboxylation of DMSHB (see Fig 3) 273 are not specific to DMSP production. The DsyB protein is a SAM-dependent 274 methyltransferase and is encoded by the genomes of ~100 marine Alphaproteobacteria 275 (E-value  $< 5 \times 10^{-69}$ ). DsyB has relatively low similarity to the eukaryotic DSYB (E-276 values  $\leq 1 \times 10^{-30}$ ), but this low level of similarity was still sufficient to allow the 277 subsequent identification of the eukaryotic DSYB gene described above. Environmental 278 conditions known to affect DMSP production in marine phytoplankton, like increased 279 salinity, nitrogen availability, and low temperatures, were also shown to upregulate the 280 expression of the bacterial dsyB gene, as well as the production of DMSP in L. 281 aggregata LZB033 (Curson et al., 2017). The acquisition of dsyB by some bacteria, and 282 consequently the ability to synthesise DMSP, may confer a competitive advantage in 283 the marine environment, where bacteria must contend with, for example, salinity and 284 285 low nitrogen availability.

Phylogenetic analysis of eukaryotic DSYBs and alphaproteobacterial DsyBs 286 showed that DSYB and DsyB sequences formed two distinct sister branches, but not 287 all major algal groups have DSYB in their genomes (Curson et al., 2018). According to 288 these facts, the authors concluded that eukaryotic DSYBs originated from bacterial 289 DsyBs early in their evolution and they were obtained either: 1) through endosymbiosis 290 of the mitochondrial ancestor, which led to alphaproteobacterial genes making up a 291 significant proportion in eukaryotic genomes (Ku et al., 2015), and then DSYB has 292 293 been lost by some of the eukaryotes; or 2) more recently by multiple horizontal gene transfer (HGT) events (Curson et al., 2018). 294

#### 295 DMSP CLEAVAGE AND DMS PRODUCTION

296 After biosynthesis, some of the produced DMSP can be cleaved to DMS and acrylate (or 3-HP) by the DMSP-producer themselves (Alcolombri et al., 2015; Curson 297 298 et al., 2017). However, the vast majority of the DMSP is catabolised after it is released into the water column in the form of dissolved DMSP (DMSPd), and ultilised by other 299 heterotrophic microorganisms, predominantly bacteria (Zubkov et al., 2001). The 300 corresponding enzymes that catalyse DMSP cleavage are called DMSP lyases. They 301 exist in both eukaryotes and bacteria. There is high biodiversity in the bacterial DMSP 302 lyases, which belong to three distinct protein superfamilies, while the only known 303

eukaryotic DMSP lyase Alma1 bears no resemblance to any of the bacterial 'Ddd'DMSP lyases (Table 3).

## 306 Cleavage of DMSP by heterotrophic bacteria

Although many marine phytoplankton degrade some of the DMSP that they produce (Stefels 2000), most of the microbial DMSP catabolism is thought to occur following its release into the dissolved organic matter pool caused by viral lysis, zooplankton grazing or senescence of the algal cells. Here, it is available for assimilation and degradation by free-living bacterioplankton or attached bacteria (Kiene et al., 2000).

Marine bacteria catabolise DMSP via two competing pathways, the demethylation 313 pathway (accounting for the majority of DMSP degradation; Kiene et al 2000) and the 314 cleavage pathway. The demethylation pathway can yield the reactive gas methanethiol 315 (MeSH). The key enzyme DmdA, which belongs to the glycine cleavage T-protein 316 (GcvT) superfamily, catalyses the first step in the DMSP demethylation pathway 317 (Howard et al., 2006; Reisch et al., 2008), and genes for the subsequent steps of the 318 DMSP demethylation pathway have also been fully elucidated by the Moran laboratory 319 (Reisch et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2013; Moran et al., 2012). DMSP demethylation is a major 320 biological control on DMS formation because it directly competes with the cleavage 321 pathway. The cleavage pathway produces the climatically relevant volatile DMS via 322 DMSP lysis or hydrolysis (González et al., 1999), which will be described in detail here. 323

Currently, seven bacterial DMSP cleavage genes dddD, -L, -P, -Q, -W, -Y and -K 324 325 have been identified, and the enzymes they encode mediate the cleavage of DMSP to DMS (Curson et al., 2011a; Johnston et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2016). These genes are 326 found in various bacterial taxa. dddD is present in some Gammaproteobacteria, 327 especially in Oceanospirillales and Pseudomonadales, and also in some other 328 Proteobacteria, like Rhizobiales and Rhodobacterales (both Alphaproteobacteria) and 329 330 Burkholderiales (Betaproteobacteria). dddL, -P, -Q, and -W are mainly found in the Rhodobacteraceae family of Alphaproteobacteria, with dddP also present in some 331 eukaryotic fungi (Todd et al., 2009; Kirkwood et al., 2010). dddY was identified in the 332 betaproteobacterium Alcaligenes faecalis strain M3A and is found in other 333 334 Proteobacteria, i.e. Gammaproteobacteria, Deltaproteobacteria and Epsilonproteobacteria (Curson et al., 2011b; Li et al., 2017). dddK was identified in 335 Pelagibacter ubique HTCC1062, which belongs to the most abundant marine bacterial 336 group — the SAR11 clade (Sun et al., 2016). Among these bacterial ddd genes, dddP 337 and *dddQ* are the two most abundant ones in marine metagenomes (Curson et al., 2018). 338

Interestingly, the protein products of these *ddd* genes differ both in size and amino acid sequence and belong to distinct polypeptide families. DddL/Q/W/K/Y belong to the cupin superfamily (Table 3; Lei et al., 2018), and all catalyse DMSP lysis into DMS 342 and acrylate. Biochemical and crystal structural studies revealed that DddQ, DddW, DddK and DddY all need metal cofactors, but that there is variability between which 343 metal works best for each enzyme. For example, based on its crystal structure, DddQ 344 from Ruegeria lacuscaerulensis ITI 1157 is bound to Zn (II), whereas the addition of 345 exogenous Co (II) and Mn (II) can effectively enhance its activity (Li et al., 2014), 346 while Brummet et al. (2016) proposed that the addition of Zn (II) can inhibit its activity 347 and that Fe (III) is the appropriate co-factor. DddQ is clearly promiscuous in which 348 metal co-factor it requires for activity. Based on biochemical studies, DddW from R. 349 pomerovi DSS-3 showed the highest enzyme activities with Fe (II) or Mn (II) as 350 cofactors (Brummet et al., 2015); DddK from Pelagibacter can be activated by the 351 352 presence of Fe (II) and Ni (II) (Schnicker et al., 2017). DddY from the gammaproteobacterium Acinetobacter bereziniae contains a catalytic domain with Zn 353 (II) as cofactor (Li et al., 2017). Protein sequences of DddL show conserved active site 354 residues with the other cupin DMSP lyases for metal cofactor binding, but enzymatic 355 or structural biological studies on DddL have not been reported. DddP belongs to the 356 M24B metallopeptidase family (Todd et al., 2009), and, like the cupin lyases, catalyses 357 the cleavage of DMSP to DMS and acrylate. A study on the catalytic mechanism of 358 DddP from R. lacuscaerulensis ITI 1157 revealed that mature DddP protein is a stable 359 dimer and undergoes an Fe ion shift during the process of DMSP cleavage (Wang et al., 360 2015). DddD belongs to the class III CoA-transferase family (Todd et al., 2007), and is 361 the only characterised Ddd that cleaves DMSP by hydrolysis and produces DMS and 362 3-HP or 3-HP-CoA (Todd et al., 2007; Alcolombri et al., 2014). Although, all the above 363 Ddd enzymes can act on DMSP, liberating DMS, only DddD, DddY and DddL have 364 high specific DMSP lyase activities (*K*cat/*K*m; 318  $M^{-1}$  s<sup>-1</sup> for DddD; 10<sup>5-6</sup>  $M^{-1}$  s<sup>-1</sup> for 365 DddY and  $1.66 \times 10^6 \,\mathrm{M^{-1} s^{-1}}$  for DddL), whilst the other Ddd lyases have much lower 366 specific DMSP lyase activities (Alcolombri et al., 2014; Brummett et al., 2015; Lei et 367 al., 2018). It should be noted though that much of the enzyme work is carried out with 368 proteins overexpressed and purified from Escherichia coli and not from the natural host. 369 370 What effects this has on the activity of the enzymes and their metal content is not always determined. The three-carbon moiety of DMSP, transformed to acrylate or 3-HP during 371 the cleavage process, can then enter in central carbon catabolism (Todd et al., 2010, 372 2012b; Curson et al., 2011, 2014; Reisch et al., 2011b, 2013; Asao and Alber, 2013). 373

Within the *Tara* Oceans metatranscriptome data sets apportioned to marine bacteria, *dddP*, *dddK*, *dddQ*, *dddD* and *dddL* transcripts were always detected, and were far more abundant than *dddY* and *dddW*, which was not detected (Curson et al., 2018). These results indicate that most of these bacterial DMSP cleavage genes are expressed in nature.

#### 379 Cleavage of DMSP by phytoplankton

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It has been known for many years that marine phytoplankton can cleave DMSP

into DMS and acrylate (Table 3; Yoch, 2002), but a eukaryotic DMSP lyase gene, 381 Alma1, was only identified recently by Alcolombri et al. (2015), in the haptophyte 382 Emiliania huxleyi. Its product Alma1, which belongs to the aspartate racemase 383 superfamily, generates DMS and acrylate from DMSP like the majority of the bacterial 384 Ddd lyases (Table 3; Alcolombri et al., 2015). Based on protein sequence similarity, 385 orthologues of Alma1 (and its paralogues) are present in a wide range of eukaryotes, 386 including haptophytes, dinoflagellates and corals, highlighting a wide taxonomic 387 distribution for this protein (Alcolombri et al., 2015). Alma1-like proteins of lesser 388 sequence similarity are also present in some bacteria. Only Alma1 enzymes from E. 389 huxleyi and Symbiodinium have been shown to have high DMSP lyase activity. Other 390 homologues with lesser protein sequence similarity to the Alma1 from E. huxleyi, from 391 the haptophyte Phaeocystis antarctica and the coral A. millepora, have extremely low 392 DMSP lyase activities (<0.03 % of the activity of the Symbiodinium Almal homologue 393 and not much above the negative control) (Alcolombri et al., 2015). Thus, functional 394 predictions based solely on sequence similarity are still very difficult and this makes 395 predictions of their environmental importance very difficult without more functional 396 ratification. Many other eukaryotes, like species in Chlorophyta, Rhodophyta and 397 Alveolata, are also known to cleave DMSP into DMS and acrylate (Cantoni and 398 Anderson, 1956; Stefels et al. 1993, 1995; Nishiguchi and Goff, 1995; Steinke et al., 399 2002; Yoch, 2002; Yost and Mitchelmore, 2009; Franklin et al., 2010; Niki et al., 2000), 400 401 but the genes involved have not yet been identified, and further effort will be needed to uncover these. 402

## 403 FUNCTIONS OF DMSP AND DMS

#### 404 Ecological roles

Marine microorganisms encounter and import DMSP in their natural habitat. They 405 incorporate its sulfur into amino acids and utilise its three-carbon moiety for energy, 406 which underlines the role of DMSP as one of the most important sulfur and carbon 407 sources for many marine bacteria. Some bacteria, like SAR11, seem to be adapted to 408 the use of reduced sulfur compounds such as DMSP, which represents the main 409 ecologically relevant sulfur source that these bacteria are able to utilise, and genes for 410 prominent alternative pathways for sulfur metabolism, such as sulfate reduction, have 411 412 been lost (Tripp et al., 2008).

The process in which DMSP is degraded to DMS is also of great global significance as mentioned above. DMS is volatile and has low solubility, and is thus emitted in large amounts ( $\sim 3 \times 10^7$  tonnes per annum) from the oceans into the atmosphere. This represents the largest natural source of atmospheric sulfur and the major route for the transfer of sulfur from the oceans to the air, and contributes substantially to the global sulfur flux. DMS oxidation products, e.g.,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $S_2O_3^{2-}$ , 419  $S_4O_6^{2-}$  and DMSO, display longer residence time in the atmosphere than 420 anthropogenically-derived SO<sub>2</sub>, and thus their contribution to the global sulfur burden 421 is also greater (Lovelock et al., 1972; Chin and Jacob, 1996).

In the air, these DMS oxidation products act as condensation nuclei, causing water 422 molecules to coalesce and form clouds. When returned to land via precipitation, this 423 helps to bring marine sulfur to the continents, completing the global sulfur cycle since 424 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> is transported from land via rivers to the oceans. The return of sulfur from the 425 ocean to the land requires atmospheric sulfur volatiles, and DMS is the paramount 426 compound among them. DMS-derived  $SO_4^{2-}$  in the atmosphere acts in CCN formation, 427 as described above, and the resulting increased cloud cover may influence local and 428 429 possibly even global albedo, with a cooling effect on the climate (Figure 1 and Table 4; Kettle and Andreae, 2000; Simó, 2001). A negative feedback model has been suggested, 430 in which the cooling effect due to increased DMS emission leads to a slower biomass 431 432 production and thus a decreased production of DMSP and then its catabolite, DMS. This would then cause a consequent decrease in the cooling effect and increase in 433 434 biomass production to complete the feedback loop (Charlson et al., 1987). However, this model has been challenged recently (Quinn and Bates, 2011). 435

## 436 Physiological and biological functions

Besides the great importance of DMSP and DMS in biogeochemical cycles and their potential effects on climate, these organosulfur molecules also have miscellaneous suggested physiological and biological functions in various marine species (Table 4). However there is little evidence at a molecular genetic level to verify these putative functions in any organism despite many of the proposed roles for these compounds being strongly suggested to be beneficial to phytoplankton and bacteria for survival in the marine environment.

#### 444 **DMSP**

In phytoplankton and green algae, DMSP is proposed to have roles as an
osmoprotectant, a cryoprotectant, a grazing deterrent, an antioxidant, a sink for excess
sulfur, as well as other biological functions (Table 4).

For the organisms with high intracellular DMSP concentrations, this metabolite is 448 present at physiologically relevant levels sufficient to be considered a major osmolyte, 449 helping cells to overcome the adverse environment of hyperosmosis. For example, 450 when exposed in high salt conditions, the intracellular DMSP concentration in 451 Hymenomonas carterae cells can be as high as 300 mM (Vairavamurthy et al., 1985; 452 Kirst, 1990). In many DMSP-producers, DMSP is likely not the major osmolyte, with 453 e.g. some nitrogen-containing osmolytes like glycine betaine, choline and carnitine 454 adopting this function (Dickschat et al., 2015). DMSP was investigated for its 455

cryoprotective activity on the model enzymes lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) and malate 456 dehydrogenase (MDH), which were extracted from the polar alga Aerosiphonia arela 457 (Chlorophyta; Karsten et al., 1996). Both of the activities and stabilities of LDH and 458 MDH under freezing conditions were risen with the addition of DMSP. DMSP produced 459 by E. huxleyi, and its degradation products acrylate and acryloyl-CoA, have certain 460 toxic effects on many organisms, and are thought to act as predator deterrents, thus 461 increasing the chance of E. huxlevi survival (Wolfe and Steinke, 1996; Wolfe et al., 462 1997). DMSP and its breakdown products, e.g., DMS, acrylate, DMSO and acrylate 463 can scavenge hydroxyl radicals and other reactive oxygen species, and thus they may 464 serve as highly effective antioxidants (Sunda et al., 2002; Lesser 2006; Husband et al., 465 2012; Curson et al., 2018). DMSP biosynthesis is suggested to provide sinks for the 466 excess energy, carbon and reducing equivalents derived from active photosynthesis, 467 saving nitrogen for cell growth and accelerating sulfate uptake from the environment 468 (Gage et al., 1997; Stefels, 2000; Bullock et al., 2017). 469

DMSP can also be a signal molecule, attracting specific groups of bacteria and 470 471 structuring the microbial communities that are integrally associated with corals and other organisms, underpinning their health (Raina et al., 2013). Similarly, it can attract 472 several phytoplankton and bacterivore and herbivore microzooplankton (Seymour et al., 473 474 2010). Apart from these microorganisms, DMSP can provide underwater foraging cues for some reef fish (DeBose et al., 2008). As a chemical signaling molecule, DMSP may 475 induce bacterial quorum sensing, e.g., participating in the degradation of particulate 476 organic matter (POC) (Seyedsayamdost et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2016). As a 477 mediator of bacterial virulence, DMSP may regulate the demise of E. huxlevi blooms 478 479 (Barak-Gavish et al., 2018).

#### 480 DMS

DMS is the cue for chemosensory attraction for marine invertebrates and bacteria 481 482 that feed on DMSP-producing phytoplankton (Table 4; Zimmer-Faust et al., 1996; Steinke et al., 2006). In addition, as mentioned above, the grazing zooplankton cause 483 484 the degradation of algal DMSP to DMS and acrylate, which act as feeding deterrents towards the protozoan herbivores, thus representing a chemical defense mechanism of 485 the phytoplankton (Wolfe and Steinke, 1996; Wolfe et al., 1997). The resulting 486 487 increased emission of DMS into the atmosphere upon grazing is in turn also recognised by seabirds that feed on the grazing zooplankton (Nevitt and Bonadonna, 2005). 488

#### 489 CONCLUSION AND PROSPECT

In summary, DMS and DMSP play important roles in driving global sulfur cycling and may affect climate. It is now clear that both prokaryotes (e.g., bacteria) and eukaryotes (e.g., algae) can synthesise and degrade DMSP. However, their relative contributions to environmental DMSP production and cleavage have not been clearly

quantified, and the ways in which they are affected by and impinge on environmental 494 parameters has not been elucidated either. Since it has long been thought that DMSP 495 can only be produced by marine photosynthetic organisms, studies on the distribution 496 and concentration of DMSP and DMS were mainly limited to the marine euphotic 497 layers, while in the deeper ocean and sediments, they have been largely ignored. 498 According to the limited data available (Curran et al., 1998; Li et al., 2015; Zhai et al., 499 2018), absolute concentrations of DMSP and DMS in the deeper ocean are relatively 500 low, but on a global scale, DMSP and DMS in deep oceans should be investigated 501 further due to the immense water volume and bacterial biomass in this biosphere. 502

Considering heterotrophic bacteria are chemoheterotrophic 503 and that phytoplankton are photoautotrophic, we propose the hypothesis that phytoplankton are 504 only the major contributor to DMSP production at euphotic depths, while in deeper 505 oceans where limited or even no sunlight penetrate, the relative contribution of 506 507 heterotrophic bacteria to DMSP production may become dominant.

Since the discovery of DMSP biosynthesis in marine heterotrophic bacteria and 508 the identification of the key gene dsyB in this process, many other heterotrophic bacteria 509 have also been found to produce DMSP. However, among some of the genomes of these 510 newly discovered DMSP-producing bacteria and the transcriptomes of many 511 eukaryotes, no homologue of DsyB/DSYB/TpMMT was detected. This indicates that 512 different isozymes or even DMSP biosynthesis pathways exist in these strains to be 513 further explored. As for DMSP degradation, no homologues of the known Alma1 and 514 ddd DMSP lyase genes were detected in the transcriptomes of the DMSP-cleaving 515 eukaryote Ulva and the genomes of Ddd<sup>+</sup> prokaryotic Actinobacteria, so novel DMSP 516 517 cleavage gene(s) still exist to be discovered.

Many marine bacteria (e.g., L. aggregata and Pseudooceanicola batsensis) and 518 algae (e.g., E. huxleyi and Phaeocystis sp.) not only make DMSP but also cleave this 519 520 compound (Stefels and Dijkhuizen, 1996; Alcolombri et al., 2015; Curson et al., 2017). What are the endogenous and/or external incentives for this ability? What is its 521 physiological relevance? How are these contradictory processes being precisely 522 regulated in one organism? The functions of DMSP and DMS in marine organisms still 523 need to be verified at a molecular genetic level. These unanswered questions could be 524 525 the focus for our future in-depth studies on the molecular mechanisms of DMSP biosynthesis and degradation, and their relevant functions in driving the global sulfur 526 527 cycle.

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Sea areas	Longitude	Latitude	Sampling time	Station numbers	T (°C)*	Sampling depth (m)	DMS (nM)	DMSPd (nM)	DMSPp (nM)	DMSPt (nM)	Reference
SAMPLING STATIONS	WITH POIN	T RECORD	S								
Western Mediterranean	0°00'E– 06°20'E	43°50'N– 38°00'N	1 Jun.–2 Aug.,1993	54	N.D.	0–200	0–19.3	0.1–18.3	N.D.	N.D.	Simo et al., 1997
			26–28 Apr. & 15– 21 Jul., 1994								
Belgian Coastal Zone	02°30'E– 03°10'E	51°48'N– 51°18'N	JanDec., 2016	9	6.9–19.8	3	0–269.7	N.D39.3	N.D.– 1740.0	N.D.– 1779.3§	Speeckaert et al., 2018
The northern North Sea	02°30'Е– 03°33'Е	58°52'N– 58°15'N	18–28 Jun., 1999	8	11.2–12.3	5–11	3.7–10.1	54.0– 121.0	4.4–16.4	58.4–137.4§	Archer et al., 2001
The Gulf of Lion (the Mediterranean Sea)	03°40'E	42°20'N	Apr., 1990	N.D.	N.D.	15	9.24– (DMS+I	-	31.9–39.0	N.D.	Belviso et al., 1993
The Central Ligurian Sea (the Mediterranean Sea)	07°52'E	43°24'N	16–22 May, 1990	N.D.	N.D.	15	4.19–5.01	2.8-6.8	24.8-30.2	~32.3§	Belviso et al., 1993
North Aegean Sea (Greece)	24°51'E– 25°52'E	40°51'N– 39°41'N	Sep., 2003	11	15.8–25.2	0–20	N.D.	11.6–19.4	N.D.	16.4–30.0	Mara et al., 2015
	24°03'Е– 25°52'Е	40°51'N– 39°41'N	Jul., 2004	10	14.6–24.5	0–20	N.D.	8.4–20.2	N.D.	15.4–31.4	Mara et al., 2015
Barents Sea (Russia)	30°21'Е– 32°56'Е	76°32'N– 72°45'N	13–29 May, 1993	4	N.D.	20–200	2.8–25.3	4.0–36.0	6.0–27.0	10.0–63.0§	Matrai et al., 1997
Western Indian Ocean	50°00'Е– 77°00'Е	24°00'S– 49°00'S	3–20 Dec., 1997	N.D.	N.D.	8	0.9–35.8	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Sciare et al., 1999
The Southern Ocean (Australasian sector)	60°00'Е– 160°00'Е	70°00'S– 40°00'S	25 Sep., 1991–8 Dec., 1995	N.D.	N.D.	0-4441	nd-22.0	nd-71.0	nd-102.0	nd-173.0§	Curran et al., 1998
The Southern Ocean (Indian sector)	71°00'E– 79°00'E	49°00'S– 53°50'S	19 Jan.–13 Feb., 2005	18	3	0–150	0.2–0.8	N.D.	5.0-20.0	N.D.	Belviso et al., 2008
Indian Estuaries (India)	72°00'E– 88°00'E	23°00'N- 09°00'N	28 Jul.–18 Aug., 2011 & 2–15 Jan., 2012	25	N.D.	0-5	0.1–38.3	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Viswanadham et al., 201

 Table 1 The distribution of DMS and DMSP in typical sea areas reported in the literature

Coastal Bay of Bengal	81°00'Е-	20°20'N-	23 Jul10 Aug.,	71	26.8-29.9	N.D.	1.2-28.2	N.D.	N.D.	0.8-61.6	Rao et al., 2015
(Northeastern part of the Indian Ocean)	87°40'E	15°30'N	2010								
Bohai Sea and Northern Yellow Sea (China)	112°00'Е– 124°06'Е	39°29'N – 17°43'N	21 Nov.–1 Dec., 2011	40	10.49– 15.77	16–77	0.8–6.7	0.9–12.9	7.6–42.3	9.0–45.2§	Yang et al., 2015
South China Sea (China)	113°50'E– 119°08'E	17°00'N– 14°00'N	20 May–17 Jul., 2014	19	29.25– 30.66	1020–5112	0.2–4.3	0.1–3.3	0.1–6.9	1.0–7.9	Zhai et al., 2018
Antarctic Sea Ice	115°00'Е– 125°00'Е	64°00'S– 66°00'S	27 Sep.–31 Oct., 2012	18	-22– -3.6	0.14–1.5	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	0.5–750.0	Damm et al., 2016
Yellow Sea and East China Sea	119°50'Е– 128°59'Е	38°48'N– 25°41'N	26 Apr.–21 May, 2009	64	10–26	15–946	1.2–12.6	N.D.	N.D.	5.5-73.7	Yang et al., 2012
Yellow Sea and East China Sea	119°57.840' E– 127°16.29 1'E	34°59.924 'N– 25°11.064 'N	28 Jun.–15 Jul., 2006 22 Jan.–13 Feb., 2007	35 (summer), 53 (winter)	17.9–29.6 (summer) 6.3–24.0 (winter)	1.6–2.7 (summer) 15–1770 (winter)	1.8–12.2 (summer) 1.0–3.5 (winter)	N.D.	N.D.	14.0-45.0 (summer) 6.5-18.0 (winter)	Yang et al., 2011
Jiaozhou Bay (China)	120.18°E– 120.91°E	36.12°N– 35.80°N	19–21 May., 2006	14	N.D.	0.2	2.6–7.7	6.3–27.6	7.2–31.5	13.5-59.1§	Zhang et al. 2010
Yellow Sea (China)	121°00'Е– 124°00'Е	39°00'N– 33°00'N	Mar., 2005	21	2.81-9.50	19–75	0.99–5.10	2.13–13.3	4.89–40.1	N.D.	Yang et al., 2006
Yellow Sea (China)	121°14'E– 124°00'E	39°10'N– 32°30'N	Apr., 2006	43	4.5–13.74	20-88.5	1.7–12.8	2.9–38.8	4.3–36.1	7.2–74.9§	Zhang et al., 2008
East Yellow Sea and South China Sea (China)	121°22'Е– 127°19'Е	36°54'N– 27°30'N	5–26 Jul., 2011	60	17.85– 28.62	20.7–1377	0.6–41.2	1.4–27.2	6.2–207.7	7.6-234.9	Zhang et al., 2014
East China Sea (China)	121°40'E– 127°20'E	31°83'N– 26°20'N	19 Oct.–2 Nov., 2015	22	19.7–25.9	31–1014	1.0–9.6	1.7–7.2	5.6-83.8	7.4–91.0§	Zhang et al., 2017
Chang Jiang River Estuary (China)	122°00'Е– 124°30'Е	33°20'N– 27°50'N	7–14 Jun., 2014	32	19.67– 24.86	SW	2.2–27.5	N.D.	N.D.	5.9–195.0	Tan et al., 2017
Maizuru Bay (Japan)	135°20'E	35°27'N	May, 1986–Apr., 1987	5	N.D.	N.D.	0.64–289.7	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Uchida et al., 1992
Funka Bay (Japan)	140°50'E– 141°00'E	42°60'N– 42°00'N	23 Oct., 2000–9 Mar., 2001	28	1.11–16.16	SM & SW	N.D.	2.1-48.6	3.8–202.6	19.7–300.7§	Yang et al., 2005

The Subarctic North Pacific	148°00'E– 140°00W	57°40'N– 42°00'N	14 Jul.–5 Sep., 1997	21	N.D.	10-100	1.3–13.2	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Aranami et al., 2001
Ross Sea (the bay of Southern Ocean in Antarctica)	167°00'E– 179°10W□	74°50'S– 78°00'S	31 Dec., 2004–21 Jan., 2005 & 10–30 Nov., 2005	8	-2.1–1.6	390–740	0.1–23.0	N.D.	N.D.	0.5–78.0	Rellinger et al., 2009
The Southern Ocean (Near south of New Zealand)	170°00'E– 180°00'E	49°00'S– 76°50'S	31 Oct16 Nov., 2003 & 20-28 Dec., 2004 & 28 Oct8 Nov.,2005	>55	0–7	4	0.6–30.0	N.D.	N.D.	1.0–118.0	Kiene et al., 2007
North Pacific Ocean	177°48'E– 146°31'W	23°06'N– 08°25'N	12–28 Dec., 2011 & 16–18 Feb., 2012	8	25.35– 26.82	5	3.2–5.3	0.5–1.0	6.0-8.8	7.0–9.5	Cui et al., 2015
Northeast Pacific Ocean	126°10'W– 124°10'W	48°40'N– 44°50'N	14–18 May, 1985	N.D.	20	N.D.	0.6–2.8	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Andreae et al., 1988
Equatorial Pacific Ocean	124°39'W– 115°00'W	0°30'N– 0°00'S	7–10 Feb., 2012	5	23.86– 26.73	5	2.4–5.8	2.1-6.8	14.8–20.2	21.6–25.2	Cui et al., 2015
South Pacific Ocean	120°00'W– 84°52'W	14°45'S– 22°31'S	6–24 Jan., 2012	7	24.04– 25.82	5	3.2-6.3	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Cui et al., 2015
Amundsen Sea	118°00'W– 101°40'W	70°20'S– 74°57'S	11 Jan.–16 Feb., 2009	51	-1.8–1.9	9–160	<1-350	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Tortell et al., 2012
Canadian Subarctic and Arctic Marine	100.69°W– 53.37°W	74.75°N– 56.12°N	10 Jul.–20 Aug., 2015.		-2-8	2.1-41.4	~1.0–18.0	N.D.	N.D.	10.6–38.2	Jarníková et al., 2018
Northern Gulf of Mexico (American)	92°00'W– 89°00'W	30°00'N– 26°00'N	12–21 Sep., 2011	12	27.3–29.2	1.4–30.6	0.8–4.7	0.8–2.9	5.9–27.3	8.6–29.0	Motard-Côté et al., 2016
Northern Baffin Bay (Lancaster Sound), Canadian	90°00'W– 64°50'W	77°30'N– 70°50'N	7–27 Sep., 2008	14	-1.3–3.8	2-4	0.5–4.8	0–2.1	5.0-70.0	5.5-71.7§	Motard-Côté et al., 2012
Ochlockonee Bay (America)	84°28'W– 84°15'W	30°00'N– 29°56'N	Sep., 1986	12	N.D.	3	1.8–14.0	2.0-22.5	4.0-42.0	6.0–57.0 §	Iverson et al., 1989
Chesapeake Bay (including the Potomac River) (USA)	77°20'W– 75°00'W	39°00'N– 33°00'N	Sep., 1986	>60	N.D.	3	1.0-18.0	0-18.0	1.0-64.0	1.0-68.0	Iverson et al., 1989
Long Island Sound estuary (America)	72°06'W–	41°20'N–	Dec., 1998–Jan., 2000	3	2–25	0	0-3.0	0–3.0	1.0-49.0	1.0–52.0	Tang et al., 2000

		4404007									
	72°04'W	41°18'N									
Marguerite Bay (West Antarctic Peninsula)	71°20'W– 68°10'W	66°50'S– 68°30'S	1–7 Jan., 2015	11	-1-0.5	5–129	N.D.	12.0– 275.0§	82.0– 368.0	94.0–643.0	Stefels et al., 2018
Gulf of Maine (Canada)	69°30'W– 68°20'W	43°10'N– 41°00'N	Jul., 1990	7	N.D.	0–100	0.8-8.3	0–175.0	0–260.0	1.3-368.0	Matrai et al., 1993
Sargasso Sea (North Atlantic Ocean)	64°30'W	32°10'N	Jan., 1992–Dec., 1993	1	N.D.	0–140	0-12.0	0–20.0	0–27.0	0–47.0§	Dacey et al., 1998
Northwest Atlantic	62°17'W– 41°00'W	61°22'N– 38°00'N	10 Sep.–2Oct., 1999	8	2.8–27.4	6.3–7.4	0.2–7.7	1.9–54.3	7.3–119.8	10.1–203.0	Scarratt et al., 2007 of Yang et al., 2009
Gulf of Saint Lawrence (Canada)	60°00'W– 64°00'W	49°00'N– 47°00'N	4-11 Aug., 1993	79	13–19	0–100	0-8.8	1.7–23.1	6.1–117.0	7.8–140.1§	Cantin et al., 1996
Atlantic Ocean	60°00'W– 00°00'W	40°00'S– 50°00'N	Mar.–Apr., 1987	28	N.D.	10	0.1–10.0	N.D.	N.D.	0–23.0	Burgermeister et al., 1990
Western North Atlantic	57°41.2'W– 45°00'W	59°14.7'N _ 36°49.5'N	8–22 July, 2003	8	4.08-26.14	1	0.2–7.6	1.87–54.3	7.3–119.8	N.D.	Yang et al., 2009
Antarctic Ocean	54°00'W– 87°00'W	52°00'S– 71°00'S	24 Oct.–29 Dec., 1992	>123	-1.4-0.9	3	0.2–27.0	1.0-28.0	2.0-69.0	N.D.	Turner et al., 1995
The tropical Northeastern Atlantic Ocean	31°00'W	21°00'N	21–22 Sep., 1991 & 14 Oct., 1991	3	N.D.	0-150	0.5–2.2	2.0–14.4§	0-37.0	2.0-40.4§	Belviso et al., 1993
	21°00'W	18°30'N	16–17 Sep., 1991	2	N.D.	0-100	0.6–2.5	1.0–9.3§	0-39.0	1.9–45.5§	
	21°00'W	18°30'N	6-7 Oct., 1991	3	N.D.	0-100	2.3-7.6	0-2.3§	12.5-37.5	14.8–18.2§	
Northeast Atlantic (between UK and Iceland)	21°00'W– 0°00'W	65°00'N– 54°00'N	Jun.–Jul., 1987	158	N.D.	3	1.1–93.8	<1.3– 199.0	10.8– 280.0	12.1-479.0§	Malin et al., 1993
The Western Coast of Ireland	15°00'W– 10°00'W	55°00'N– 51°00'N	26 Jun.–2 Jul., 1996	>350	N.D.	3–200	<0.2-42.0	20.0-80.0	50.0– 635.0	N.D.	Locarnini et al., 1998
Mediterranean Sea	10°00'W– 22°00'E	38°00'N– 30°50'N	11–20 Sep., 1999	>61	N.D.	3–5	0.4–90.0	N.D.	N.D.	20.0-300.0	Belviso et al., 2003
Norwegian and Greenland Seas	08°00'W– 10°00'E	75°00'N– 66°00'N	JulSep., 2012	17	5.74–11.64	0-4000	0.8–22.4	0.4-43.3	0.1–282.4	N.D.	Li et al., 2015
Southern Ocean (Atlantic	06°00'W	60°00'S–	29 Sep26 Nov.,	13	N.D.	20	N.D.	3.0-66.0	3.0-61.0	6.0–127.0§	Deyerdierks et al., 1997

sector)		47°00'S	1992								
SAMPLING STATIONS	WITH DEPT	TH-PROFIL	Е								
The Southern Ocean (Australasia sector)	60°00'E– 160°00'E	70°00'S– 40°00'S	25 Sep.,1991–8 Dec.,1995	N.D.	N.D.	0–1000	0.7–3.2	N.D.	N.D.	0.7–2.4	Curran et al., 1998
						3000-4000	1.1-4.0	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	
						4000-4441	0.3-4.5	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	
South China Sea	113°50'Е– 119°08'Е	17°00'N– 14°00'N	20 May–17 Jul., 2014	19	29.25- 30.64	1020-3000	0.3–3.5	0.1–3.3	1.1–5.9	1.2–9.2§	Zhai et al., 2018
						3000-4000	0.2-1.5	0.2-0.8	1.0-3.2	1.20-4.0§	
						4000-5112	0.2–4.3	0.1-1.5	0.1–6.9	0.3-8.4§	
East China Sea and Yellow Sea	119°58'Е– 128°37'Е	35°00'N– 25°11'N	22 Jan.–13 Feb. 2007	53	6.3-24	15–100	1.3–3.5 (2.0)	N.D.	N.D.	7.1–18.0 (12.1)	Yang et al., 2011
						100–200	1.1–2.6 (1.8)	N.D.	N.D.	6.52–14.28 (10.8)	
						400-500	1.2	N.D.	N.D.	9.0	
						500-600	1.2	N.D.	N.D.	6.7	
						600–700	1.0	N.D.	N.D.	6.9	
						700-800	1.4	N.D.	N.D.	9.0	
						800–900	1.2–1.4 (1.3)	N.D.	N.D.	7.3–8.7 (8.0)	
						1000-1500	1.3	N.D.	N.D.	7.6	
						1500-2000	1.2	N.D.	N.D.	7.4	
Norwegian and Greenland Seas	05°00'W– 10°00'E	75°00'N– 66°00'N	JulSep, 2012	17	0.0–7.5	0–1000	0.5–10.0	0.5–20.0	5–130.0§	5.0-150.0	Li et al., 2015
						1000-2000	0.5-3.0	0-8.0	0-12.0§	0-20.0	
						2000-3000	0.5-5.0	0-15.0	0–5.0§	0-20.0	
						3000-4000	0-3.0	0-2.0	0-10.0§	0-10.0	

\* Surface (0–1 m) seawater temperature. § values from calculation. N.D., no data. nd, nondetectable. SW, surface water; SM, surface microlayer.

Taxonomic position	Species or Strain	Biosynthesis	Key Enzyme &	Intracellular DMSP	DMSP	Reference	
(phylum/class/family)		Pathway	Peptide type	Concentration (mM)*	Production*		
ALGAE AND CORALS (EUI	KARYOTE)						
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophyce	Chrysochromulina tobin	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$0.611\pm0.08$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
ae/Chrysochromulinaceae	CCMP291		methyltransferase				
	Chrysochromulina sp.	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$0.196 \pm 0.0394$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
	PCC307		methyltransferase				
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophyce	Prymnesium parvum	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$54.3\pm5.97$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
ae/Prymnesiaceae	CCAP946/6		methyltransferase				
	Prymnesium parvum	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$20.6\pm3.05$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
	CCAP941/6		methyltransferase				
	Prymnesium parvum	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$53.8\pm4.58$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
	CCAP946/1A		methyltransferase				
	Prymnesium parvum	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$35.5\pm1.50$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
	CCAP946/1D		methyltransferase				
	Prymnesium parvum	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$48.4\pm 6.29$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
	CCAP946/1B		methyltransferase				
	Prymnesium patelliferum	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB	$25.3\pm2.39$	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018	
	CCAP946/4		methyltransferase				
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophyce	Hymenomonas carterae	Unknown	Unknown	120	N.T.	Vairavamurthey et al.,	
ae/Hymenomonadaceae						1985	
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophyce	Phaeocystis sp.	Unknown	Unknown	71–169	N.T.	Stefels and van Boekel	
ae/Phaeocystaceae						1993	
Haptophyta/Chrysophyceae/	Ochromonas sp.	Unknown	Unknown	529	N.T.	Keller et al., 1989	
Chromulinaceae							

Table 2 Major representative DMSP-producing biological taxa

Haptophyta/Coccolithophyce ae/Noelaerhabdaceae	Emiliania huxleyi BT6	Unknown	Unknown	166	N.T.	Keller et al., 1989
Bacillariophyta/Bacillarioph yceae/Bacillariaceae	Fragilariopsis cylindrus CCMP1102	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltransferase	$6.71\pm0.92$	N.T.	Lyon et al., 2011; Curson et al., 2018
Bacillariophyta/Coscinodisc ophyceae/Thalassiosiraceae	Thalassiosira pseudonana	Transamination	TpMMT; MTHB methyltransferase	~20–30	∼1 µmol/g fresh mass	Kageyama et al., 2018; Kettles et al., 2014
Bacillariophyta/Coscinodisc ophyceae/Melosiraceae	Melosira numuloides	Unknown	Unknown	264	N.T.	Keller et al., 1989
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/Sy mbiodiniaceae	Symbiodinium microadriaticum CCMP2467	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltransferase	282 ± 35.0	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/Cry pthecodiniaceae	<i>Crypthecodinium cohnii</i> ATCC e32001	Decarboxylation	Unknown; L-Met decarboxylase	N.T.	$10^2 - 10^3 \ \mu g/L$ culture	Uchida et al., 1993 & 1996; Kitaguchi et al., 2008
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/Gy mnodiniaceae	Gymnodinium nelsonii	Unknown	Unknown	280	N.T.	Dacey and Wakeham, 1986
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/Pror ocentraceae	Prorocentrum sp. IIB2b1	Unknown	Unknown	1,082	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
Chlorophyta/Chlorophyceae/ Volvocaceae	Platymonas subcordiformis	Unknown	Unknown	170	N.T.	Dickson and Kirst, 1986
Chlorophyta/Ulvophyceae/U lvaceae	Ulva lactuca	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	23–128 mmol/g fresh mass	Greene, 1962; Reed, 1983; Van Alstyne et al., 2007
	Ulva intestinalis	Transamination	Unknown; D- MTHB <i>S</i> - Methyltransferase	N.T.	7–34 mmol/g fresh mass	Gage et al., 1997; Reed, 1983; Van Alstyne et al., 2001; Summers et al., 1998

	Ulva pertusa	Transamination	Unknown; MTHB S-	N.T.	~12–37 µmol/g fresh	Ito et al., 2011
			methyltransferase		mass	
Rhodophyta/Florideophycea	Hypnea spinella	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	0.02–0.2	Bischoff et al., 1994
e/Hypneaceae					mmol/g fresh	
					mass	
Rhodophyta/Florideophycea e/Rhodomelaceae	Polysiphonia fastigiata & Polysiphonia nigrescens	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	N.T.	Challenger and Simpson, 1948
c/ Miodomenaceae	Polysiphonia hendryi	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	8–30 mmol/g	Van Alstyne et al., 2001
		0			fresh mass	·
	Polysiphonia lanosa	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	45–97	Reed, 1983
					mmol/g fresh	
					mass	
	Rhodomela confervoides	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	4–8 mmol/g	Reed, 1983
					fresh mass	
	Chondria coerulescens	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	N.T.	Chillemi et al., 1990
Streptophyta/Liliopsida/Poac	Spartina alterniflora	Methylation	Unknown; L-Met	N.T.	29.0 µmol/g	Kocsis et al., 1998
eae			methyltransferase		fresh mass	
	Saccharum spp. (sugarcane)	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	6 μmol/g	Paquet et al., 1994
					fresh mass	
Streptophyta/-/Asteraceae	Wollastonia biflora	Methylation	Unknown; L-Met	N.T.	~12–30	Hanson et al., 1994;
			methyltransferase		µmol/g fresh	James et al., 1995
					mass	
Cnidaria/Anthozoa/Acropori dae	Acropora cervicornis	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltransferase	N.T.	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018

	Acropora millepora	Transamination	Unknown	N.T.	~2.5–5.2 nmol/mm <sup>2</sup>	Raina et al., 2013
	Acropora tenuis	Transamination	Unknown	N.T.	$\sim 3.1-6.0$ nmol/mm <sup>2</sup>	Raina et al., 2013
BACTERIA (PROKARYOTE	E)					
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob acteria/Rhodobacteraceae	Pseduooceanicola batsensis HTCC2597	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransferase	6.3	$40.5 \pm 0.2$ pmol/µg protein	Curson et al, 2017
	Pelagibaca bermudensis HTCC2601	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransferase	40.6	259 ± 52.7 pmol/μg protein	Curson et al, 2017
	Sediminimonas qiaohouensis DSM21189	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransferase	19.1	$122 \pm 4.6$ pmol/µg protein	Curson et al, 2017
	Sagittula stellata E-37	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransferase	1.7	$11.1 \pm 0.3$ pmol/µg protein	Curson et al, 2017
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob acteria/Stappia_f	Labrenzia aggregata LZB033	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransferase	9.6	99.8 ± 1.2 pmol/µg protein	Curson et al, 2017
	<i>Labrenzia aggregata</i> IAM 12614	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransferase	5.1	32.9 ± 2.7 pmol/µg protein	Curson et al, 2017
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob acteria/Rhodobiaceae	Amorphus coralli DSM19760	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransferase	1.3	8.2 ± 0.2 pmol/μg protein	Curson et al, 2017

Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob	Thalassobaculum salexigens	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB	0.8	$4.8\pm1.6$	Curson et al, 2017
acteria/Rhodospirillaceae	DSM19539		methyltransferase		pmol/µg	
					protein	

\*Values that were taken from the literature with various incubation conditions and culturing media. # Per liter of cell volume. N.T., not tested.

Table 3 Ma	jor representative	e DMSP-c	legrading	biological	taxa

Taxonomic position (phylum/class/family)	Strain	Degradati on enzyme	DMSP breakdown product	Polypeptide class	Crystallization, co- factor and key amino acid residue	Reference
BACTERIA (PROKARY	OTE)					
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob	Roseobacter sp. MED193	DddW	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Todd et al., 2012a
acteria/Rhodobacteraceae	Ruegeria pomeroyi DSS-3	DddW	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Todd et al., 2012a Brummett et al., 2015
		DddQ	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Todd et al., 2011
		DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase family (COG0006)	no	Curson et al., 2011a
		DmdA	MMPA plus X-CH <sub>3</sub> (in which X is tetrahydrofolate)	Glycine cleavage system T family (COG0404)	no	Reisch et al., 2008
	Ruegeria lacuscaerulensis ITI_1157	DddQ	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	yes, Zn <sup>2+</sup> , Tyr131 or Fe <sup>3+</sup> , Tyr120	Li et al., 2014 Curson et al., 2011b Brummett et al., 2016
	Roseobacter denitrificans	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase family (COG0006)	yes, Fe <sup>3+</sup>	Hehemann et al., 2014
	Ruegeria lacuscaerulensis	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase family (COG0006)	yes, Zn <sup>2+</sup> ,	Wang et al., 2015
	Roseovarius nubinhibens	DddQ	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Kirkwood et al., 2010
	ISM	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase family (COG0006)	no	Todd et al., 2009
	Sagittula stellata E-37	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase family (COG1804)	no	Curson et al., 2011a
	Dinoroseobacter shibae DFL 12	DddL	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Curson et al., 2011a
	Sulfitobacter sp. EE-36	DddL	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Curson et al., 2011a
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob acteria/Alcaligenaceae	Alcaligenes faecalis M3A	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Curson et al., 2011b
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob acteria/Rhizobiaceae	Rhizobium NGR234	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase family (COG1804)	no	Todd et al., 2007

Proteobacteria/Alphaproteob	Pelagibacter ubique	DmdA	MMPA plus	Glycine cleavage system	yes, THF used as	Reisch et al., 2008
acteria/Pelagibacteraceae			$X-CH_3$ (in which X	T family (COG0404)	methyl acceptor	
		DIW	is tetrahydrofolate)			
		DddK	DMS and 3HP	cupin superfamily	yes, Fe <sup>2+</sup> Zn <sup>2+</sup> , Tyr64	Schnicker et al., 2017
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo	Marinomonas MWYL1	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase	no	Todd et al., 2007
bacteria/Oceanospirillaceae		D 1 117		family (COG1804)	Z 2+ m 0.71	1 1. 2017
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo	Acinetobacter bereziniae	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	yes, Zn <sup>2+</sup> , Tyr271	Li et al., 2017
bacteria/Moraxellaceae		51111		·		
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo	Shewanella putrefaciens	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Curson et al., 2011b; Lei
bacteria/Shewanellaceae	CN-32					et al., 2018
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo	Halomonas HTNK1	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase	no	Todd et al., 2010
bacteria/Halomonadaceae				family		
Proteobacteria/Betaproteoba	Burkholderia cepacia	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase	no	Todd et al., 2007
cteria/Burkholderiaceae	AMMD			family (COG1804)		
Proteobacteria/Epsilonproteo	Arcobacter nitrofigilis	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Curson et al., 2011b
bacteria/Campylobacteraceae	DSM7299					
Proteobacteria/Deltaproteoba	Desulfovibrio acrylicus sp.	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Van der Maarel and
cteria/Desulfovibrionaceae						Hansen, 1996; Curson et
						al., 2011b
Actinobacteria/Actinobacteri	Rhodococcus sp. DY1,	Unknown	DMS and	N.A.	N.A.	Yoch et al., 2001
a/Nocardiaceae	DY5, DY6, DY7 & DY8		acrylate/3HP			
Firmicutes/Clostridia/Clostri	Clostridium sp.	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Wagner and Stadtman,
diaceae						1962
ALGAE & FUNGI (EUKA	ARYOTE)					
Ascomycota/Eurotiomycetes	Aspergillus oryzae RIB40	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase	no	Todd et al., 2009
/Trichocomaceae	1 0 2		2	family (COG0006)		<i>,</i>
Ascomycota/Sordariomycete	Fusarium graminearum	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase	no	Todd et al., 2009
s /Nectriaceae	cc19		5	family (COG0006)		,
				5		
	<i>Fusarium culmorum</i> Fu42	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase	no	Todd et al., 2009
			<i>j</i>	family (COG0006)		,
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophyce	Emiliania huxleyi HL373	Alma1	DMS and acrylate	aspartate racemase	no	Alcolombri et al., 2015
ae/Noelaerhabdaceae				superfamily		, -0.0
				1		

	E. huxleyi BT6	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.		N.A.	Yoch, 2002
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophyce ae/Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis sp.	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.		N.A.	Stefels et al., 1995
Alveolata/Dinophyceae/Sym biodiniaceae	Symbiodinium microadriaticum;	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.		N.A.	Yost and Mitchelmore, 2009
	Symbiodinium sp.	Alma1	DMS and acrylate	aspartate superfamily	racemase	no	Alcolombri et al., 2015
Alveolata/Dinophyceae/Thor acosphaeraceae	Scrippsiella spp.	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.		N.A.	Niki et al., 1997
Alveolata/Dinophyceae/Hete rocapsa	<i>Heterocapsa triquetra</i> NIES-7	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.		N.A.	Niki et al., 2000
Chlorophyta/Ulvophyceae/U lvaceae	Ulva lactuca	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.		N.A.	Diaz et al. 1994
Rhodophyta/Florideophycea e/Rhodomelaceae	Polysiphonia paniculata	Unknown	DMS	N.A.		N.A.	Nishiguchi and Goff, 2010
	Polysiphonia lanosa	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.		N.A.	Anderson and Cantoni, 1956

N.A. not applicable; MMPA, methylmercaptopropionate.

Compounds	Functional types	Specific functions	Related organisms	References
DMSP	Physiological functions	Osmoprotectant	Poterioochromonas malhamensis (Synurophyceae); Dunaliella spp. (Chlorophyceae); Polysiphonia lanosa (Florideophyceae); Blidingia minima (Ulvophyceae); Ulva lactuca (Ulvophyceae); some Rhodophyceae; some Phaeophyceae	Kirst, 1990; Vairavamurthy et al., 1985
		Cryoprotectant	Acrosiphonia arcta (Ulvophyceae); Microcoleus chthonoplastes (Cyanobacteria); Enteromorpha bulbosa (Ulvophyceae); Ulothrix subflaecida (Klebsormidiophyceae)	Karsten et al., 1996
		Antioxidant	Phaeocystis sp. (Haptophyceae); Emiliania huxleyi (Haptophyceae); Prymnesium parvum (Haptophyceae); Thalassiosira pseudonana (diatom); Skeletonema costatum (diatom); Pfiesteria piscicida (Dinophyceae)	Sunda et al., 2002; Lesser, 2006; Husband et al., 2012; Curson et al., 2018
		Sink of excess sulfur, carbon and reduced equivalent	photosynthetic marine algae and higher plants e.g. <i>Enteromorpha intestinalis</i> (Ulvophyceae)	Gage et al., 1997; Stefels 2000; Bullock et al., 2017

# Table 4 Functions of DMSP and DMS

	Saving nitrogen for cell growth and accelerating sulfate uptake from the environment		
Biological functions	Resolving the damage of thermal stress and signal molecule attracting certain beneficial bacteria for coral	Acropora millepora and Acropora tenuis (coral);	Raina et al., 2013
	Predator deterrent	Emiliania huxleyi (Haptophyceae)	Wolfe and Steinke, 1996
	Mediator of bacterial virulence associated with regulation of <i>E. huxleyi</i> blooms	Emiliania huxleyi (Haptophyceae); Sulfitobacter (Alphaproteobacteria); Pseudoalteromonas piscicida (Gammaproteobacteria)	Barak-Gavish et al., 2018
	Chemoattractant	Silicibacter sp.(Alphaproteobacteria); reef fishes	Miller et al., 2004; Seymour et al., 2010; DeBose et al., 2008
	Bacterial quorum sensing inducer, related to decomposition of particulate organic matter (POC)	Ruegeria pomeroyi DSS-3 (Alphaproteobacteria)	Seyedsayamdost et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2016
 Ecological functions	The main precursor of DMS	N.A.	Stefels et al., 1993; Hill et al., 1998

		Biogeochemical cycle of sulfur and carbon in the ocean	N.A.	Curson et al., 2011a
DMS	Biological function	Chemoattractant	<i>Diomedea exulans</i> and <i>Pachyptila desolata</i> (Aves); fish over coral reefs; calanoid and <i>Temora longicornis</i> (copepod); Flagellates and ciliates;	Steinke et al., 2006; DeBose and Nevitt, 2008; Nevitt, 2008
		Antioxidant	Emiliania huxleyi (Haptophyceae) Phaeocystis sp. (Haptophyceae) Skeletonema costatum (Coscinodiscophyceae)	Sunda et al., 2002; Lesser, 2006
	Ecological functions	Climate-cooling gas, which is the precursor of sulfuric cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), increasing cloud formation and then the albedo of the earth	N.A.	Charlson et al., 1987; Ayers and Gras, 1991; Andreae and Crutzen, 1997
		The greatest flux of organosulfur from the ocean into the atmosphere	N.A.	Lovelock et al., 1972; Chin and Jacob 1996; Kettle and Andreae, 2000
		Ease the stratification of seawater and form a positive feedback loop	N.A.	Lovelock, 2006

N.A. not applicable.

## **Figure legends**

Figure 1 The fate of dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) and dimethylsulfide (DMS). 3HP, 3-hydroxypropionate; CCN, cloud condensation nuclei; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; MeSH, methanethiol; MMPA, methylmercaptopropionate; TCA, tricarboxylic acid; X, tetrahydrofolate.

Figure 2 Green tide outbreak in the beach of Qingdao, China in July 2018.

**Figure 3** Predicted pathways for DMSP biosynthesis in higher plants, coral, phytoplankton and bacteria (modified from Curson et al., 2017). *Wollastonia* (a), *Spartina* and bacteria (*Streptomyces*) (b); macroalgae (*Ulva, Enteromorpha*), diatoms (*Thalassiosira, Melosira*), prymnesiophyte (*Emiliania*), prasinophyte (*Tetraselmis*), coral (*Acropora*) and bacterium (*Labrenzia*) (c) and dinoflagellate (*Crypthecodinium*) (d). Abbreviations: Met, methionine; AdoMet, S-adenosylmethionine; AdoHcy, S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine; DMSP-ald., DMSP-aldehyde; MMPA, methylmercaptopropionate.

**Figure 4** Morphology of the model DMSP and DMS-producing bacterial strain *Labrenzia aggregata* LZB033. (A) Plate streaking of LZB033. (B) Fluorescence microscopy of LZB033 cells stained with DAPI. (C) Transmission electron microscopy of one LZB033 cell acquired from Marine Broth culture, scale bar = 1  $\mu$ m. (D) Transmission electron microscopy of transections and a longitudinal section of LZB033 cells processed by ultramicrotomy, scale bar = 500 nm.