SPECIAL TOPIC: Elemental cycling by microorganisms in the hydrosphere • **REVIEW**•

October 2019 Vol.62 No.10: 1296–1319 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11427-018-9524-y

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

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Received December 3, 2018; accepted March 16, 2019; published online June 20, 2019

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

marine microorganism, dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP), dimethyl sulfide (DMS), DMSP biosynthesis, DMSP cleavage

Citation: Zhang, X.H., Liu, J., Liu, J., Yang, G., Xue, C.X., Curson, A.R.J., and Todd, J.D. (2019). Biogenic production of DMSP and its degradation to DMS their roles in the global sulfur cycle. Sci China Life Sci 62, 1296–1319. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11427-018-9524-y

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 approxi-

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DMS emissions not only balance the global sulfur budget, but also may impact Earth's climate through its oxidation products in the atmosphere (Figure 1). When DMS diffuses into the atmosphere, it can be rapidly oxidised by OH (during the day) and NO₃ (at night) radicals to form various sulfurcontaining products, such as sulfur dioxide (SO₂), methanesulfonic acid (MSA) and non-sea-salt sulfate (nss-SO₄²⁻) (Andreae et al., 1985; Boucher and Pham, 2002). Sulfate produced by this process not only increases the natural



mately 13-37 Tg annually (Ksionzek et al., 2016).

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acidity of atmospheric deposition, but also contributes to cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) in remote marine environments (Quinn and Bates, 2011; Charlson et al., 1987). Changes in CCN concentration affect the cloud droplet number and concentration, which influences cloud albedo and potentially affects global temperature (Charlson et al., 1987). However, the contradictory view has also been proposed that a DMS biological control over CCN probably does not exist and the bioregulation of DMS on climate has been exaggerated (Quinn and Bates, 2011).

The main precursor of DMS is dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP), an organic sulfur compound that is produced in prodigious amounts (2.0 petagrams sulfur annually, worldwide) by many marine organisms, thought mainly to be including marine phytoplankton (Figure 1; Keller et al., 1989; Stefels et al., 2007; Ksionzek et al., 2016). Upon the release of intracellular DMSP into the environment, it can be taken up by a wide range of microorganisms (Malmstrom et al., 2004; Vila et al., 2004; Raina et al., 2017) and catabolised as a source of carbon, reduced sulfur and/or energy (Reisch et al., 2013; Raina et al., 2009; Tripp et al., 2008). DMSP is cleaved to produce DMS and the co-products acrylate or 3hydroxypropionate (3-HP) by intracellular algal or bacterial DMSP-lyase enzymes (Figure 1; Curson et al., 2011a; Johnston et al., 2016). It is thought that only a minor fraction of dissolved DMSP, varying between 2% and 21%, is enzymatically cleaved to liberate DMS (Kiene and Linn, 2000). The majority of DMSP is likely demethylated by bacterial activity, and does not lead to the formation of DMS, but instead can lead to the generation of the trace gas methanethiol (MeSH; 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). 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 accumulate it under different environmental conditions (Otte et al., 2004). Its specific function may vary in different organisms, perhaps based on where DMSP is localised in the cell (Trossat et al., 1996, 1998). For example, DMSP detected in the chloroplasts of

the angiosperm *Wollastonia* was considered to contribute significantly to chloroplast osmoregulation and may protect photosynthetic processes from stress (Trossat et al., 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 nitrogen limitation (Stefels, 2000).

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.

Distribution of DMSP and DMS in the marine environment

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

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 nmol L^{-1} , while DMSPp and DMSPd were up to 282.4 and 199 nmol L^{-1} , 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-called "hotspots", coincide with the high primary productivity ocean areas. In the East China



Figure 1 (Color online) 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.

continental sea, the average DMS, DMSPd and DMSPp concentrations in summer are observed at 5.3, 5.2 and 27.1 nmol L^{-1} , respectively (Zhang et al., 2014). High concentrations of DMSP are also reported in the Gulf of Maine (Matrai and Keller, 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 the coastal upwelling areas because of the vertical supply of nutrients, and this was accompanied by high DMS and DMSP concentrations, with concentrations of DMSPt up to 1.78 μ mol L⁻¹ and DMS up to 270 nmol L⁻¹ (Speeckaert et al., 2018). High concentrations of DMS and DMSPp are also reported in waters off the western coast of Ireland, up to 42 nmol L^{-1} and 50–635 nmol L^{-1} respectively (Locarnini et al., 1998). The tropical oceans show moderate and relatively constant DMS concentrations throughout the year (Bates and Quinn, 1997).

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.

Seasonal cycle pattern

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

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

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	References		Simo et al., 1997	Speeckaert et al., 2018	Archer et al., 2001	Belviso et al., 1993	Belviso et al., 1993	Mara et al., 2015	Mara et al., 2015	Matrai and Ver- net, 1997	Sciare et al., 1999	Curran et al., 1998	Belviso et al., 2008	Viswanadham et al., 2016	Rao et al., 2015	Yang et al., 2015	Zhai et al., 2018	Damm et al., 2016
	$DMSPt (nmol L^{-1})$		N.D.	N.D1779.3	58.4-137.4	N.D.	~32.3	16.4–30.0	15.4–31.4	10.0-63.0	N.D.	nd-173.0	N.D.	N.D.	0.8-61.6	9.0-45.2	1.0-7.9	0.5-750.0
	$DMSP_{p}$ (nmol L^{-1})		N.D.	N.D1740.0	4.4–16.4	31.9–39.0	24.8–30.2	N.D.	N.D.	6.0-27.0	N.D.	nd-102.0	5.0-20.0	N.D.	N.D.	7.6-42.3	0.1-6.9	N.D.
	$DMSPd$ (nmol L^{-1})		0.1–18.3	N.D39.3	54.0-121.0	(þd)	2.8-6.8	11.6–19.4	8.4–20.2	4.0-36.0	N.D.	nd-71.0	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	0.9–12.9	0.1–3.3	N.D.
	DMS (nmol L ⁻¹)		0-19.3	0-269.7	3.7-10.1	9.24-14.3 (DMS+DMSI	4.19–5.01	N.D.	N.D.	2.8–25.3	0.9–35.8	nd22.0	0.2–0.8	0.1–38.3	1.2–28.2	0.8–6.7	0.2-4.3	N.D.
	Sampling depth (m)		0-200	3	5-11	15	15	0-20	0-20	20-200	8	0-4441	0-150	0-5	N.D.	16-77	1020–5112	0.14–1.5
srature ^{a)}	*(C)) T		N.D.	6.9–19.8	11.2–12.3	N.D.	N.D.	15.8–25.2	14.6–24.5	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	33	N.D.	26.8–29.9	10.49–15.77	29.25-30.66	-223.6
t in the lite	Station numbers		54	6	8	N.D.	N.D.	11	10	4	N.D.	N.D.	18	25	71	40	19	18
vical sea areas reported	Sampling time		1 Jun.–2 Aug.,1993 26–28 Apr. & 15–21 Jul., 1994	JanDec., 2016	18–28 Jun., 1999	Apr., 1990	16–22 May, 1990	Sep., 2003	Jul., 2004	13–29 May, 1993	3-20 Dec., 1997	25 Sep., 1991–8 Dec., 1995	19 Jan.–13 Feb., 2005	28 Jul.–18 Aug., 2011 & 2–15 Jan., 2012	23 Jul10 Aug., 2010	21 Nov1 Dec., 2011	20 May–17 Jul., 2014	27 Sep31 Oct., 2012
DMSP in typ	Latitude	s	43°50'N- 38°00'N	51°48'N- 51°18'N	58°52'N- 58°15'N	42°20'N	43°24'N	40°51'N- 39°41'N	40°51'N- 39°41'N	76°32'N- 72°45'N	24°00'S- 49°00'S	70°00'S- 40°00'S	49°00'S- 53°50'S	23°00'N- 09°00'N	20°20'N- 15°30'N	39°29'N- 17°43'N	17°00'N- 14°00'N	64°00'S- 66°00'S
1 of DMS and	Longitude	th point record.	0°00′E– 06°20′E	02°30′E– 03°10′E	02°30′E– 03°33′E	03°40′E	07°52'E	24°51'E– 25°52'E	24°03′E– 25°52′E	30°21′E– 32°56′E	50°00′E– 77°00′E	60°00′E– 160°00′E	71°00'E– 79°00'E	72°00′E– 88°00′E	81°00′E– 87°40′E	112°00'E– 124°06'E	113°50'E– 119°08'E	115°00'E- 125°00'E
Table 1 Distribution	Sea areas	Sampling stations wit	Western Mediterra- nean	Belgian Coastal Zone	The northern North Sea	The Gulf of Lion (the Mediterranean Sea)	The Central Ligur- ian Sea (the Medi- terranean Sea)	North Aegean Sea (Greece)		Barents Sea (Russia)	Western Indian Ocean	The Southern Ocean (Australasian sec- tor)	The Southern Ocean (Indian sector)	Indian Estuaries (India)	Coastal Bay of Bengal (Northeastern part of the Indian Ocean)	Bohai Sea and Northern Yellow Sea (China)	South China Sea (China)	Antarctic Sea Ice

(To be continued on the next page)

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	References	Yang et al., 2012	Yang et al., 2011	Zhang et al., 2010	Yang et al., 2006	Zhang et al., 2008	Zhang et al., 2014	Zhang et al., 2017	Tan et al., 2017	Uchida et al., 1992	Yang et al., 2005	Aranami et al., 2001	Rellinger et al., 2009	Kiene et al., 2007	Cui et al., 2015	Andreae et al., 1988	Cui et al., 2015	Cui et al., 2015	ed on the next page)
	$DMSPt$ (nmol L^{-1})	5.5-73.7	14.0–45.0 (summer) 6.5–18.0 (winter)	13.5-59.1	N.D.	7.2–74.9	7.6-234.9	7.4-91.0	5.9-195.0	N.D.	19.7–300.7	N.D.	0.5-78.0	1.0-118.0	7.0-9.5	N.D.	21.6–25.2	N.D.	(To be continue
	DMSPp (nmol L ⁻¹)	N.D.	N.D.	7.2–31.5	4.89-40.1	4.3–36.1	6.2–207.7	5.6-83.8	N.D.	N.D.	3.8-202.6	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	6.0-8.8	N.D.	14.8–20.2	N.D.	
	DMSPd (nmol L ⁻¹)	N.D.	N.D.	6.3–27.6	2.13-13.3	2.9–38.8	1.4–27.2	1.7–7.2	N.D.	N.D.	2.1-48.6	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	0.5-1.0	N.D.	2.1-6.8	N.D.	
	DMS (mol L ⁻¹)	1.2–12.6	1.8-12.2 (summer) 1.0-3.5 (winter)	2.6-7.7	0.99–5.10	1.7–12.8	0.6-41.2	1.0–9.6	2.2–27.5	0.64–289.7	N.D.	1.3-13.2	0.1–23.0	0.6–30.0	3.2-5.3	0.6–2.8	2.4–5.8	3.2-6.3	
	Sampling depth (m)	15946	1.6–2.7 (summer) 15–1770 (winter)	0.2	19–75	20-88.5	20.7-1377	31-1014	SW	N.D.	SM & SW	10-100	390–740	4	5	N.D.	S	5	
	T (°C)*	10–26	17.9–29.6 (summer) 6.3–24.0 (winter)	N.D.	2.81–9.50	4.5-13.74	17.85–28.62	19.7–25.9	19.67–24.86	N.D.	1.11-16.16	N.D.	-2.1-1.6	2-0	25.35-26.82	20	23.86–26.73	24.04-25.82	
	Station numbers	64	35 (summer), 53 (winter)	14	21	43	60	22	32	5	28	21	8	>55	8	N.D.	5	7	
	Sampling time	26 Apr.–21 May, 2009	28 Jun15 Jul., 2006 22 Jan13 Feb., 2007	19–21 May., 2006	Mar., 2005	Apr., 2006	5–26 Jul., 2011	19 Oct2 Nov., 2015	7-14 Jun., 2014	May, 1986–Apr., 1987	23 Oct., 2000–9 Mar., 2001	14 Jul5 Sep., 1997	31 Dec., 2004–21 Jan., 2005 & 10–30 Nov., 2005	31 Oct16 Nov., 2003 & 20-28 Dec., 2004 & 28 Oct8 Nov.,2005	12–28 Dec., 2011 & 16–18 Feb., 2012	14–18 May, 1985	7-10 Feb., 2012	6-24 Jan., 2012	
	Latitude	38°48'N- 25°41'N	34°59.924'N- 25°11.064'N	36.12°N– 35.80°N	39°00'N- 33°00'N-	39°10'N- 32°30'N	36°54'N- 27°30'N	31°83'N- 26°20'N	33°20'N- 27°50'N	35°27'N	42°60'N- 42°00'N	57°40'N- 42°00'N	74°50'S- 78°00'S	49°00'S- 76°50'S	23°06'N- 08°25'N	48°40'N- 44°50'N	0°30'N- 0°00'S	14°45'S- 22°31'S	
	Longitude	119°50'E- 128°59'E	119°57.840' E-127° 16.291'E	120.18°E– 120.91°E	121°00′E– 124°00′E	121°14′E– 124°00′E	121°22′E– 127°19′E	121°40′E– 127°20′E	122°00′E– 124°30′E	135°20′E	140°50'E- 141°00'E	148°00'E- 140°00W	167°00′E– 179°10W	170°00′E– 180°00′E	177°48′E– 146°31′W	126°10'W- 124°10'W	124°39'W- 115°00'W	120°00'W- 84°52'W	
(Continued)	Sea areas	Yellow Sea and East China Sea	Yellow Sea and East China Sea	Jiaozhou Bay (China)	Yellow Sea (China)	Yellow Sea (China)	East Yellow Sea and South China Sea (China)	East China Sea (China)	Chang Jiang River Estuary (China)	Maizuru Bay (Japan)	Funka Bay (Japan)	The Subarctic North Pacific	Ross Sea (the bay of Southern Ocean in Antarctica)	The Southern Ocean (Near south of New Zealand)	North Pacific Ocean	Northeast Pacific Ocean	Equatorial Pacific Ocean	South Pacific Ocean	

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	References	Tortell et al., 2012	Jarníková et al., 2018	Motard-Côté et al., 2016	Motard-Côté et al., 2012	Iverson et al., 1989	Iverson et al., 1989	Tang et al., 2000	Stefels et al., 2018	Matrai and Keller, 1993	Dacey et al., 1998	Scarratt et al., 2007 & Yang et al., 2009	Cantin et al., 1996	Bürgermeister et al., 1990	Yang et al., 2009	Turner et al., 1995	Belviso et al., 1993		
	DMSPt (nmol L ⁻¹)	N.D.	10.6–38.2	8.6-29.0	5.5-71.7	6.0-57.0	1.0-68.0	1.0-52.0	94.0-643.0	1.3–368.0	0-47.0	10.1-203.0	7.8–140.1	0-23.0	N.D.	N.D.	2.0-40.4	1.9-45.5	14.8-18.2
	DMSPp (nmol L ⁻¹)	N.D.	N.D.	5.9–27.3	5.0-70.0	4.0-42.0	1.0-64.0	1.0-49.0	82.0-368.0	0-260.0	0-27.0	7.3–119.8	6.1–117.0	N.D.	7.3–119.8	2.0-69.0	0-37.0	0-39.0	12.5-37.5
	DMSPd (nmol L ⁻¹)	N.D.	N.D.	0.8–2.9	0-2.1	2.0-22.5	0-18.0	0-3.0	12.0-275.0	0-175.0	0-20.0	1.9–54.3	1.7–23.1	N.D.	1.87–54.3	1.0-28.0	2.0-14.4	1.0–9.3	0-2.3
	DMS (nmol L ⁻¹)	1–350	~1.0–18.0	0.8-4.7	0.5-4.8	1.8–14.0	1.0–18.0	0-3.0	N.D.	0.8-8.3	0-12.0	0.2–7.7	0—8.8	0.1-10.0	0.2–7.6	0.2–27.0	0.5–2.2	0.6–2.5	2.3-7.6
	Sampling depth (m)	9–160	2.1-41.4	1.4–30.6	2-4	ю	ŝ	0	5-129	0-100	0-140	6.3-7.4	0-100	10	1	С	0-150	0-100	0-100
	T (°C)*	-1.8-1.9	-2-8	27.3–29.2	-1.3-3.8	N.D.	N.D.	2–25	-1-0.5	N.D.	N.D.	2.8–27.4	13–19	N.D.	4.08-26.14	-1.4-0.9	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
	Station numbers	51	6	12	14	12	>60	ę	11	٢	1	8	79	28	8	>123	ю	2	ŝ
	Sampling time	11 Jan.–16 Feb., 2009	10 Jul.–20 Aug., 2015.	12-21 Sep., 2011	7-27 Sep., 2008	Sep., 1986	Sep., 1986	Dec., 1998–Jan., 2000	1-7 Jan., 2015	Jul., 1990	Jan., 1992–Dec., 1993	10 Sep2Oct., 1999	4-11 Aug., 1993	MarApr., 1987	8–22 July, 2003	24 Oct29 Dec., 1992	21-22 Sep., 1991 & 14 Oct., 1991	16-17 Sep., 1991	6-7 Oct., 1991
	Latitude	70°20'S- 74°57'S	74.75°N– 56.12°N	30°00'N- 26°00'N	77°30'N– 70°50'N	30°00'N- 29°56'N	39°00'N- 33°00'N	41°20'N- 41°18'N	66°50'S- 68°30'S	43°10'N- 41°00'N	32°10'N	61°22'N- 38°00'N	49°00'N- 47°00'N	40°00'S- 50°00'N	59°14.7'N- 36°49.5'N	52°00'S- 71°00'S	21°00'N	18°30'N	18°30'N
	Longitude	118°00'W- 101°40'W	100.69°W- 53.37°W	92°00'W- 89°00'W	90°00'W- 64°50'W	84°28'W- 84°15'W	77°20'W– 75°00'W	72°06'W– 72°04'W	71°20'W– 68°10'W	69°30'W- 68°20'W	64°30'W	62°17'W- 41°00'W	60°00'W- 64°00'W	M,00°00 -W'00°00	57°41.2'W- 45°00'W	54°00'W- 87°00'W	31°00′W	21°00′W	21°00′W
(Continued)	Sea areas	Amundsen Sea	Canadian Subarctic and Arctic Marine	Northern Gulf of Mexico (American)	Northern Baffin Bay (Lancaster Sound), Canadian	Ochlockonee Bay (America)	Chesapeake Bay (including the Poto- mac River) (USA)	Long Island Sound estuary (America)	Marguerite Bay (West Antarctic Pe- ninsula)	Gulf of Maine (Canada)	Sargasso Sea (North Atlantic Ocean)	Northwest Atlantic	Gulf of Saint Lawr- ence (Canada)	Atlantic Ocean	Western North Atlantic	Antarctic Ocean	The tropical North- eastern Atlantic Ocean		

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Sea areas	Longitude	Latitude	Sampling time	Station numbers	$T (^{\circ}C)^{*}$	Sampling depth (m)	DMS (nmol L ⁻¹)	$DMSPd$ (nmol L^{-1})	DMSPp (nmol L^{-1})	$DMSPt$ (nmol L^{-1})	References
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 sector)	M.00°90	60°00'S- 47°00'S	29 Sep.–26 Nov., 1992	13	N.D.	20	N.D.	3.0-66.0	3.0-61.0	6.0-127.0	Meyerdierks et al., 1997
Sampling stations wit	th depth-profile	e									
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′E– 119°08′E	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′E– 128°37′E	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	
						002-009	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- -N'00°66	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	
a) * Surface (0–1 1	m) seawater te	mperature. V	/alues are from calculat	tion. N.D.	no data: nd. noi	ndetectable: SV	V. surface water: SM. s	surface microlaver.			

the minimum in the early morning.

Effect of environmental factors on DMSP and DMS distribution

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

The DMS and DMSP temporal cycle pattern is usually associated with the biomass of phytoplankton, particularly the high DMSP-producing taxa, e.g., dinoflagellates and prymnesiophytes (Keller et al., 1989). Higher phytoplankton biomass and biological activities are found during the warmer and more illuminated seasons, which leads to more DMSP and more of its bio-degradation product, DMS. Townsend and Keller (1996) found that concentrations of DMSPp were related more to the presence of specific phytoplankton species rather than to overall phytoplankton biomass. The study of Scarratt et al. (2002) in the northwest Atlantic also showed statistically significant correlations between the abundance of dinoflagellates and prymnesiophytes and the concentrations of DMS(P). In the region with the highest DMS(P) concentrations, the phytoplankton assemblage was dominated by Chrysochromulina spp. (prymnesiophyte) and Gyrodinium flagellare (dinoflagellate) whose abundance showed a marked correlation with total DMSPp as well as the 2 to 11 µm size fraction of DMSP. In addition, Archer et al. (2009) discovered a taxonomic succession of high DMSP-producing phytoplankton is apparent in the seasonal pattern of DMSPt concentrations. Peridinin and DMSPt concentrations showed similar seasonal trends, which illustrates the substantial contribution by the dinoflagellate taxa to DMSP production. However, in low-latitude temperate and northern subtropical areas, DMS exhibits high levels in the summer, when phytoplankton biomass is low, and this has been coined the "DMS summer paradox" (Simó and Pedrós-Alió, 1999). The possible reason(s) might be both or either: (1) taxonomic succession from minor to major DMSP-producing phytoplankton as previously proposed (Simó and Pedrós-Alió, 1999); (2) blooming of DMSP-producing bacterial taxa which were found in our recent discovery (Curson et al., 2017).

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.

Biosynthesis of DMSP by marine eukaryotes

DMSP was first identified in 1948 in the red alga Polvsiphonia (Challenger and Simpson, 1948). The main DMSP producers are widely recognised to be marine phytoplankton, and strains in the classes of Dinophyceae (dinoflagellates) and Prymnesiophyceae (haptophytes) were recorded with high intracellular DMSP concentrations of up to $10^2 - 10^3 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ (Keller et al., 1989; Stefels, 2000). As well as these very high producers, DMSP biosynthesis has also been documented in other marine algae, e.g. diatoms (Lyon et al., 2011; Kettles et al., 2014), the green alga Ulva intestinalis (Gage et al., 1997), and some higher plants like sugarcane (Paquet et al., 1994) and the coastal angiosperms Spartina alterniflora (Kocsis et al., 1998) and Wollastonia biflora (Hanson et al., 1994). The green tide (Ulva bloom), which occurs annually in the summer in the Yellow Sea and East China Sea (Figure 2), always brings with it a tangy 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 animalia with two corals species Acropora millepora and Acropora tenuis shown to produce DMSP (Raina et al., 2013). The occurrence of DMSP in corals was previously attributed to the DMSP-producing coral symbiont Symbiodinium, but investigations of algal-free juvenile corals clearly demonstrated a heat stress-dependent DMSP production by the marine invertebrates themselves (Raina et al., 2013). Orthologues of the eukaryotic DSYB DMSP biosynthesis gene present in the genome of the coral Acropora



Figure 2 (Color online) Green tide outbreak in the beach of Qingdao, China in July 2018.

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 through four different pathways, two methylation pathways in angiosperms (Hanson and Gage, 1996; Kocsis et al., 1998), a transamination pathway in diatoms, dinoflagellates, haptophytes, green algae and corals (Gage et al., 1997; Summers et al., 1998; Raina et al., 2013; Curson et al., 2018) and a decarboxylation pathway in one dinoflagellate (Uchida et al., 1996). Each of the proposed pathways for DMSP biosynthesis begins with methionine, although subsequent steps vary (Figure 3). Since the biosynthesis reactions and enzymes evolved are quite diverse, these different DMSP biosynthetic pathways must have evolved independently. However, it is unknown whether some taxonomically distinct organisms such as green algae, diatoms, dinoflagellates, haptophytes and corals use the same transamination pathway due to a 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 others not, and can vary by three orders of magnitude within phytoplankton groups. The highest intracellular concentrations are typically reported in dinoflagellates and haptophytes and lower concentrations in diatoms (Table 2; Keller et al., 1989).

Although it has long been known that eukaryotic algae can produce DMSP, the lack of genomic sequences and molecular tools for studying marine eukaryotes meant that the functional genes have only recently been identified. Todd and colleagues, based on work in bacteria (see below), identified the DSYB gene, encoding a SAM-dependent methyltransferase, in many marine algae, including dinoflagellates, diatoms and coccolithophores, as well as in some corals. DSYB mediates the key step of the transamination transforming 4-methylthio-2-hydroxybutyrate pathway, 4-dimethylsulfonio-2-hydroxybutyrate (MTHB) to (DMSHB; Table 2; Curson et al., 2018). Takabe and 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 significant homology with ratified DSYBs (Kageyama et al., 2018). DMSP synthesis genes involved in steps other than Smethylation have not been identified in any organisms so far.

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 (Table 2; Curson et al., 2017). These bacteria synthesise DMSP through the transamination pathway, the same pathway used by many marine algae and some corals. Through screening an *L. aggregata* LZB033 genomic library for candidate DMSP biosynthesis genes, one gene *dsyB*, encoding a functional MTHB methyltransferase, was identified as the key gene in bacterial DMSP biosynthesis. The transfer

Taxonomic position (phylum/ class/family)	Species or strain	Biosynthesis pathway	Key enzyme & peptide type In	tracellular DMSP concentration (mmol L^{-1})	DMSP production*	References
Algae and corals (eukaryote)						
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophy- ceae/Chrysochromulinaceae	Chrysochromulina tobin CCMP291	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	0.611±0.08	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
	Chrysochromulina sp. PCC307	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	0.196±0.0394	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophy- ceae/Prymnesiaceae	Prymnesium parvum CCAP946/6	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	54.3±5.97	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
	Prymnesium parvum CCAP941/6	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	20.6±3.05	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
	Prymnesium parvum CCAP946/1A	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	53.8±4.58	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
	Prymnesium parvum CCAP946/1D	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	35.5±1.50	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
	Prymnesium parvum CCAP946/1B	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	48.4±6.29	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
	Prymnesium patelliferum CCAP946/4	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	25.3 ± 2.39	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophy- ceae/Hymenomonadaceae	Hymenomonas carterae	Unknown	Unknown	120	N.T.	Vairavamurthy et al., 1985
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophy- ceae/Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis sp.	Unknown	Unknown	71–169	N.T.	Stefels and van Boekel, 1993
Haptophyta/Chrysophyceae/ Chromulinaceae	Ochromonas sp.	Unknown	Unknown	529	N.T.	Keller et al., 1989
Haptophyta/Coccolithophy- ceae/Noelaerhabdaceae	Emiliania huxleyi BT6	Unknown	Unknown	166	N.T.	Keller et al., 1989
Bacillariophyta/Bacillariophy- ceae/Bacillariaceae	Fragilariopsis cylindrus CCMP1102	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	6.71±0.92	N.T.	Lyon et al., 2011; Curson et al., 2018
Bacillariophyta/Coscinodisco- phyceae/Thalassiosiraceae	Thalassiosira pseudonana	Transamination	TpMMT; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	$\sim 20-30$	~1 μ mol g ⁻¹ fresh mass	Kageyama et al., 2018; Ket- tles et al., 2014
Bacillariophyta/Coscinodisco- phyceae/Melosiraceae	Melosira numuloides	Unknown	Unknown	264	N.T.	Keller et al., 1989
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/Sym- biodiniaceae	Symbiodinium microadriati- cum CCMP2467	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	282±35.0	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/ Crypthecodiniaceae	<i>Crypthecodinium cohnii</i> ATCC e32001	Decarboxylation	Unknown; L-Met decarboxy- lase	Т.N	10^2 – 10^3 µg L ⁻¹ culture	Uchida et al., 1993 & 1996; Kitaguchi et al., 2008
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/Gym-nodiniaceae	Gymnodinium nelsonii	Unknown	Unknown	280	N.T.	Dacey and Wakeham, 1986
Dinophyta/Dinophyceae/Pro- rocentraceae	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
					(To 1	be continued on the next page)

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Table 2Major representative DMSP-producing biological $taxa^{a)}$

(Continued)						
Taxonomic position (phylum/ class/family)	Species or strain	Biosynthesis pathway	Key enzyme & peptide type I	ntracellular DMSP concentration (mmol L^{-1})	DMSP production [*]	References
Chlorophyta/Ulvophyceae/Ul- vaceae	Ulva lactuca	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	23–128 mmol g^{-1} fresh mass	Greene, 1962; Reed, 1983; Van Alstyne and Puglisi, 2007
	Ulva intestinalis	Transamination	Unknown; D-MTHB S- Methyltransferase	N.T.	7–34 mmol g ⁻¹ fresh mass	Gage et al., 1997; Reed, 1983; Van Alstyne et al., 2001; Summers et al., 1998
	Ulva pertusa	Transamination	Unknown; MTHB S-methyl- transferase	N.T.	~12–37 $\mu mol~g^{-1}$ fresh mass	Ito et al., 2011
Rhodophyta/Florideophyceae/ Hypneaceae	Hypnea spinella	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	0.02–0.2 mmol g ⁻¹ fresh mass	Bischoff et al., 1994
Rhodophyta/Florideophyceae/ Rhodomelaceae	Polysiphonia fastigiata & Polysiphonia nigrescens	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	N.T.	Challenger and Simpson, 1948
	Polysiphonia hendryi	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	8–30 mmol g ⁻¹ fresh mass	Van Alstyne et al., 2001
	Polysiphonia lanosa	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	$45-97 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$ fresh mass	Reed, 1983
	Rhodomela confervoides	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	$4-8 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$ fresh mass	Reed, 1983
	Chondria coerulescens	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	N.T.	Chillemi et al., 1990
Streptophyta/Liliopsida/Poa- ceae	Spartina alterniflora	Methylation	Unknown; L-Met methyltrans- ferase	N.T.	29.0 $\mu mol~g^{-1}$ fresh mass	Kocsis et al., 1998
	Saccharum spp. (sugarcane)	Unknown	Unknown	N.T.	6 μ mol g ⁻¹ fresh mass	Paquet et al., 1994
Streptophyta/-/Asteraceae	Wollastonia biflora	Methylation	Unknown; L-Met methyltrans- ferase	N.T.	~12–30 $\mu mol~g^{-1}$ fresh mass	Hanson et al., 1994; James et al., 1995
Cnidaria/Anthozoa/Acropori- dae	Acropora cervicornis	Transamination	DSYB; MTHB methyltrans- ferase	N.T.	N.T.	Curson et al., 2018
	Acropora millepora	Transamination	Unknown	N.T.	\sim 2.5–5.2 nmol mm ⁻²	Raina et al., 2013
	Acropora tenuis	Transamination	Unknown	N.T.	$\sim 3.1-6.0$ nmol mm ⁻²	Raina et al., 2013
Bacteria (prokaryote)						
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo- bacteria/Rhodobacteraceae	Pseduooceanicola batsensis HTCC2597	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	6.3	$40.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ pmol } \mu g^{-1} \text{ protein}$	Curson et al., 2017
	Pelagibaca bermudensis HTCC2601	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	40.6	$259 \pm 52.7 \text{ pmol } \mu g^{-1} \text{ protein}$	Curson et al., 2017
	Sediminimonas qiaohouensis DSM21189	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	19.1	$122 \pm 4.6 \text{ pmol } \mu g^{-1} \text{ protein}$	Curson et al., 2017
	Sagittula stellata E-37	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	1.7	11.1 \pm 0.3 pmol µg ⁻¹ protein	Curson et al., 2017
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo- bacteria/Stappia_f	Labrenzia aggregata LZB033	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	9.6	$99.8\pm1.2\ pmol\ \mu g^{-1}\ protein$	Curson et al., 2017
	Labrenzia aggregata IAM 12614	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	5.1	32.9 ± 2.7 pmol µg ⁻¹ protein	Curson et al., 2017
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo- bacteria/Rhodobiaceae	Amorphus coralli DSM19760	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	1.3	$8.2\pm0.2\ \text{pmol}\ \mu\text{g}^{-1}\ \text{protein}$	Curson et al., 2017
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo- bacteria/Rhodospirillaceae	Thalassobaculum salexigens DSM19539	Transamination	DsyB; MTHB methyltransfer- ase	0.8	$4.8\pm1.6~pmol~\mu g^{-1}~protein$	Curson et al., 2017
a) *, Values that were taken	from the literature with variou	is incubation conditions ar	nd culturing media. N.T., not teste	d.		

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Figure 3 (Color online) 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.

of the *dsvB* gene alone was sufficient to confer the ability to synthesise DMSP to the non-DMSP producing bacterium Rhizobium leguminosarum. This indicates that enzymes catalyzing the production of MTHB and the decarboxylation of DMSHB (Figure 3) are not specific to DMSP production. The DsyB protein is a SAM-dependent methyltransferase and is encoded by the genomes of ~100 marine Alphaproteobacteria (E-value $\leq 5 \times 10^{-69}$). DsyB has relatively low similarity to the eukaryotic DSYB (*E*-values $\leq 1 \times 10^{-30}$), but this low level of similarity was still sufficient to allow the subsequent identification of the eukaryotic DSYB gene described above. Environmental conditions known to affect DMSP production in marine phytoplankton, like increased salinity, nitrogen availability, and low temperatures, were also shown to upregulate the expression of the bacterial dsyB gene, as well as the production of DMSP in L. aggregata LZB033 (Curson et al., 2017). The acquisition of dsyB by some bacteria, and consequently the ability to synthesise DMSP, may confer a competitive advantage in the marine environment, where bacteria must contend with, for example, salinity and low nitrogen availability.

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

DMSP cleavage and DMS production

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 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 heterotrophic microorganisms, predominantly bacteria (Zubkov et al., 2001). The corresponding enzymes that catalyse DMSP



Figure 4 (Color online) 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 cells acquired from Marine Broth culture. Scale bar, 1 µm. D, Transmission electron microscopy of transections and a longitudinal section of LZB033 cells processed by ultramicrotomy. Scale bar, 500 nm.

cleavage are called DMSP lyases. They exist in both eukaryotes and bacteria. There is high biodiversity in the bacterial DMSP lyases, which belong to three distinct protein superfamilies, while the only known eukaryotic DMSP lyase Alma1 bears no resemblance to any of the bacterial 'Ddd' DMSP lyases (Table 3).

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 freeliving bacterioplankton or attached bacteria (Kiene et al., 2000).

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

Currently, seven bacterial DMSP cleavage genes dddD, -L, -P, -Q, -W, -Y and -K 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 found in various bacterial taxa. dddD is present in some *Gammaproteobacteria*, especially in *Oceanospirillales* and *Pseudomonadales*, and also in some other *Proteobacteria*, like *Rhizobiales* and *Rhodobacterales* (both *Al*-

•						
Taxonomic position (phylum/ class/family)	Strain	Degradation enzyme	DMSP breakdown product	Polypeptide class	Crystallization, co-factor and key amino acid residue	References
Bacteria (prokaryote)						
	Roseobacter sp. MED193	DddW	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	ou	Todd et al., 2012a
		DddW	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	оп	Todd et al., 2012a Brummett et al., 2015
		DddQ	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	ou	Todd et al., 2011
	Ruegeria pomeroyi DSS-3	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase fa- mily (COG0006)	ои	Curson et al., 2011a
		DmdA	MMPA plus X-CH ₃ (in which X is tetrahydrofolate)	Glycine cleavage system T family (COG0404)	ои	Reisch et al., 2008
	Ruegeria lacuscaerulensis ITI_1157	DddQ	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	yes, Zn^{2+} , Tyr131 or Fe ³⁺ , Tyr120	Li et al., 2014 Curson et al., 2011b; Brum- mett and Dey, 2016
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo- bacteria/Rhodobacteraceae	Roseobacter denitrificans	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase fa- mily (COG0006)	yes, Fe ³⁺	Hehemann et al., 2014
	Ruegeria lacuscaerulensis	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase fa- mily (COG0006)	yes, Zn ²⁺ ,	Wang et al., 2015
	Docomanine miliihine	DddQ	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Kirkwood et al., 2010
	voseovarius nuomnusens	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase fa- mily (COG0006)	ои	Todd et al., 2009
	Sagittula stellata E-37	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase family (COG1804)	ои	Curson et al., 2011a
	Dinoroseobacter shibae DFL 12	DddL	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	ои	Curson et al., 2011a
	Sulfitobacter sp. EE-36	DddL	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Curson et al., 2011a
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo- bacteria/Alcaligenaceae	Alcaligenes faecalis M3A	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	ои	Curson et al., 2011b
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo- bacteria/Rhizobiaceae	Rhizobium NGR234	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase family (COG1804)	ои	Todd et al., 2007
Proteobacteria/Alphaproteo-	Pelagibacter ubique	DmdA	MMPA plus X-CH ₃ (in which X is tetrahydrofolate)	Glycine cleavage system T family (COG0404)	yes, THF used as methyl acceptor	Reisch et al., 2008
Dacteria/FelagiDacteraceae	5	DddK	DMS and 3HP	cupin superfamily	yes, Fe ²⁺ Zn ²⁺ , Tyr64	Schnicker et al., 2017
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo- bacteria/Oceanospirillaceae	Marinomonas MWYL1	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase family (COG1804)	ои	Todd et al., 2007
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo- bacteria/Moraxellaceae	Acinetobacter bereziniae	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	yes, Zn ²⁺ , Tyr271	Li et al., 2017
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo- bacteria/Shewanellaceae	Shewanella putrefaciens CN-32	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	ои	Curson et al., 2011b; Lei et al., 2018
				ľ		

Table 3Major representative DMSP-degrading biological $taxa^{a)}$

(To be continued on the next page)

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(Continued)							13
Taxonomic position (phylum/ class/family)	Strain	Degradation enzyme	DMSP breakdown product	Polypeptide class	Crystallization, co-factor and key amino acid residue	References	10
Proteobacteria/Gammaproteo- bacteria/Halomonadaceae	Halomonas HTNK1	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase family	и	Todd et al., 2010	
Proteobacteria/Betaproteobac- teria/Burkholderiaceae	Burkholderia cepacia AMMD	DddD	DMS and 3HP	Class III CoA transferase family (COG1804)	оп	Todd et al., 2007	
Proteobacteria/Epsilonproteo- bacteria/Campylobacteraceae	Arcobacter nitrofigilis DSM7299	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	ио	Curson et al., 2011b	
Proteobacteria/Deltaproteo- bacteria/Desulfovibrionaceae	Desulfovibrio acrylicus sp.	DddY	DMS and acrylate	cupin superfamily	no	Van der Maarel and Hansen, 1996; Curson et al., 2011b	
Actinobacteria/Actinobacteria/ Nocardiaceae	Rhodococcus sp. DY1, DY5, DY6, DY7 & DY8	Unknown	DMS and acrylate/3HP	N.A.	N.A.	Yoch et al., 2001	Z
Firmicutes/Clostridia/Clostri- diaceae	Clostridium sp.	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Wagner and Stadtman, 1962	hang, X
Algae & fungi (eukaryote)							K., et
Ascomycota/Eurotiomycetes /Trichocomaceae	Aspergillus oryzae RIB40	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase family (COG0006)	no	Todd et al., 2009	al. <i>S</i>
Ascomycota/Sordariomycetes	Fusarium graminearum cc19	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase family (COG0006)	и	Todd et al., 2009	ci Chine
Nectriaceae	Fusarium culmorum Fu42	DddP	DMS and acrylate	M24B metallopeptidase family (COG0006)	ои	Todd et al., 2009	a Life S
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophy-	Emiliania huxleyi HL373	Alma1	DMS and acrylate	aspartate racemase superfamily	и	Alcolombri et al., 2015	ci O
ceae/INOelaemabdaceae	E. huxleyi BT6	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Yoch, 2002	ctobe
Haptophyta/Prymnesiophy- ceae/Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis sp.	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Stefels et al., 1995	r (2019
Alveolata/Dinophyceae/Sym-	Symbiodinium microadriati- cum;	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Yost and Mitchelmore, 2009) Vol.6
biodiniaceae	Symbiodinium sp.	Almal	DMS and acrylate	aspartate racemase superfamily	ou	Alcolombri et al., 2015	2 No.
Alveolata/Dinophyceae/Thor- acosphaeraceae	<i>Scrippsiella</i> spp.	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Niki et al., 1997	10
Alveolata/Dinophyceae/Het- erocapsa	Heterocapsa triquetra NIES-7	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Niki et al., 2000	
Chlorophyta/Ulvophyceae/Ul- vaceae	Ulva lactuca	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Diaz et al., 1994	
Rhodophyta/Florideophyceae/	Polysiphonia paniculata	Unknown	DMS	N.A.	N.A.	Nishiguchi and Goff, 1995	
Rhodomelaceae	Polysiphonia lanosa	Unknown	DMS and acrylate	N.A.	N.A.	Anderson and Cantoni, 1956	

a) N.A., not applicable; MMPA, methylmercaptopropionate.

phaproteobacteria) and Burkholderiales (Betaproteobacteria). dddL, -P, -Q, and -W are mainly found in the Rhodobacteraceae family of Alphaproteobacteria, with dddP also present in some eukaryotic fungi (Todd et al., 2009; Kirkwood et al., 2010). dddY was identified in the betaproteobacterium Alcaligenes faecalis strain M3A and is found in other Proteobacteria, i.e. Gammaproteobacteria, Deltaproteobacteria and Epsilonproteobacteria (Curson et al., 2011b; Li et al., 2017). dddK was identified in Pelagibacter ubique HTCC1062, which belongs to the most abundant marine bacterial group—the SAR11 clade (Sun et al., 2016). Among these bacterial ddd genes, dddP and dddQ are the two most abundant ones in marine metagenomes (Curson et al., 2018).

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 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 metal works best for each enzyme. For example, based on its crystal structure, DddQ from *Ruegeria* lacuscaerulensis ITI_1157 is bound to Zn(II), whereas the addition of exogenous Co(II) and Mn(II) can effectively enhance its activity (Li et al., 2014), while Brummett and Dev (2016) proposed that the addition of Zn(II) can inhibit its activity and that Fe(III) is the appropriate co-factor. DddQ is clearly promiscuous in which metal co-factor it requires for activity. Based on biochemical studies, DddW from R. pomerovi DSS-3 showed the highest enzyme activities with Fe(II) or Mn(II) as cofactors (Brummett et al., 2015); DddK from *Pelagibacter* can be activated by the presence of Fe(II) and Ni(II) (Schnicker et al., 2017). DddY from the gammaproteobacterium Acinetobacter bereziniae contains a catalytic domain with Zn(II) as cofactor (Li et al., 2017). Protein sequences of DddL show conserved active site residues with the other cupin DMSP lyases for metal cofactor binding, but enzymatic or structural biological studies on DddL have not been reported. DddP belongs to the M24B metallopeptidase family (Todd et al., 2009), and, like the cupin lyases, catalyses the cleavage of DMSP to DMS and acrylate. A study on the catalytic mechanism of DddP from R. lacuscaerulensis ITI 1157 revealed that mature DddP protein is a stable dimer and undergoes an Fe ion shift during the process of DMSP cleavage (Wang et al., 2015). DddD belongs to the class III CoA-transferase family (Todd et al., 2007), and is the only characterised Ddd that cleaves DMSP by hydrolysis and produces DMS and 3-HP or 3-HP-CoA (Todd et al., 2007; Alcolombri et al., 2014). Although, all the above Ddd enzymes can act on DMSP, liberating DMS, only DddD, DddY and DddL have high specific DMSP lyase activities (Kcat/Km; 318 $M^{-1} s^{-1}$ for DddD; $10^{5-6} M^{-1} s^{-1}$ for DddY and $1.66 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for DddL), whilst the other Ddd lyases have much lower specific DMSP lyase activities (Alcolombri et al., 2014; Brummett et al., 2015; Lei et al., 2018). It should be noted though that much of the enzyme work is carried out with proteins overexpressed and purified from *Escherichia coli* and not from the natural host. 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 the cleavage process, can then enter in central carbon catabolism (Todd et al., 2010, 2012b; Curson et al., 2011a, 2014; Reisch et al., 2011b, 2013; Asao and Alber, 2013).

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.

Cleavage of DMSP by phytoplankton

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

Functions of DMSP and DMS

Ecological roles

Marine microorganisms encounter and import DMSP in their natural habitat. They incorporate its sulfur into amino acids and utilise its three-carbon moiety for energy, which underlines the role of DMSP as one of the most important sulfur and carbon sources for many marine bacteria. Some bacteria, like SAR11, seem to be adapted to the use of reduced sulfur compounds such as DMSP, which represents the main ecologically relevant sulfur source that these bacteria are able to utilise, and genes for prominent alternative pathways for sulfur metabolism, such as sulfate reduction, have 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-} , $S_2O_3^{2-}$, $S_4O_6^{2-}$ and DMSO, display longer residence time in the atmosphere than anthropogenically-derived SO₂, and thus their contribution to the global sulfur burden is also greater (Lovelock et al., 1972; Chin and Jacob, 1996).

In the air, these DMS oxidation products act as condensation nuclei, causing water molecules to coalesce and form clouds. When returned to land via precipitation, this helps to bring marine sulfur to the continents, completing the global sulfur cycle since SO_4^{2-} is transported from land via rivers to the oceans. The return of sulfur from the ocean to the land requires atmospheric sulfur volatiles, and DMS is the paramount compound among them. DMS-derived SO_4^{2-} in the atmosphere acts in CCN formation, as described above, and the resulting increased cloud cover may influence local and 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, in which the cooling effect due to increased DMS emission leads to a slower biomass 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 biomass production to complete the feedback loop (Charlson et al., 1987). However, this model has been challenged recently (Quinn and Bates, 2011).

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.

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 present at physiologically relevant levels sufficient to be considered a major osmolyte, helping cells to overcome the adverse environment of hyperosmosis. For example, when exposed in high salt condi-DMSP the intracellular concentration in tions. Hymenomonas carterae cells can be as high as 300 mmol L⁻ (Vairavamurthy et al., 1985; Kirst, 1990). In many DMSPproducers, DMSP is likely not the major osmolyte, with some nitrogen-containing osmolytes such as glycine betaine, choline and carnitine adopting this function (Dickschat et al., 2015). DMSP was investigated for its cryoprotective activity on the model enzymes lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) and malate dehydrogenase (MDH), which were extracted from the polar alga Aerosiphonia arela (Chlorophyta; Karsten et al., 1996). Both of the activities and stabilities of LDH and MDH under freezing conditions rose with the addition of DMSP. DMSP produced by E. huxleyi, and its degradation products acrylate and acrylovl-CoA, have certain toxic effects on many organisms, and are thought to act as predator deterrents, thus increasing the chance of E. huxleyi survival (Wolfe and Steinke, 1996; Wolfe et al., 1997). DMSP and its breakdown products, e.g., DMS, acrylate, DMSO and acrylate, can scavenge hydroxyl radicals and other reactive oxygen species, and thus they may serve as highly effective antioxidants (Sunda et al., 2002; Lesser, 2006; Husband et al., 2012; Curson et al., 2018). DMSP biosynthesis is suggested to provide sinks for the excess energy, carbon and reducing equivalents derived from active photosynthesis, saving nitrogen for cell growth and accelerating sulfate uptake from the environment (Gage et al., 1997; Stefels, 2000; Bullock et al., 2017).

DMSP can also be a signal molecule, attracting specific groups of bacteria and structuring the microbial communities that are integrally associated with corals and other organisms, underpinning their health (Raina et al., 2013). Similarly, it can attract several phytoplankton and bacterivore and herbivore microzooplankton (Seymour et al., 2010). Apart from these microorganisms, DMSP can provide underwater

Table 4
 Functions of DMSP and DMS^{a)}

Compounds	Functional types	Specific functions	Related organisms	References
DMSP	Physiological func- tions	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		
		Saving nitrogen for cell growth and accelerating sul- fate uptake from the environ- ment	photosynthetic marine algae and higher plants e.g. <i>Enteromorpha intestinalis</i> (Ulvophyceae)	Gage et al., 1997; Stefels, 2000; Bullock et al., 2017
	Biological functions	Resolving the damage of thermal stress and signal mo- lecule attracting certain bene- ficial 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	<i>Emiliania huxleyi</i> (Haptophyceae); <i>Sulfitobacter</i> (Alphaproteobacteria); <i>Pseudoalteromonas piscicida</i> (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 in- ducer, related to decomposi- tion 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 and van Boekel, 1993; Hill et al., 1998
		Biogeochemical cycle of sul- fur and carbon in the ocean	N.A.	Curson et al., 2011a
DMS	Biological function	Chemoattractant	Diomedea exulans and Pachyptila desolata (Aves); fish over coral reefs; calanoid and Temora longicornis (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 organo- sulfur from the ocean into the atmosphere	N.A.	Lovelock et al., 1972; Chin and Jacob, 1996; Kettle and Andreae, 2000
		Ease the stratification of sea- water and form a positive feedback loop	N.A.	Lovelock, 2006

a) N.A., not applicable.

foraging cues for some reef fish (DeBose et al., 2008). As a chemical signaling molecule, DMSP may induce bacterial quorum sensing, e.g., participating in the degradation of particulate organic matter (POC) (Seyedsayamdost et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2016). As a mediator of bacterial virulence, DMSP may regulate the demise of *E. huxleyi* blooms (Barak-Gavish et al., 2018).

DMS

DMS is the cue for chemosensory attraction for marine invertebrates and bacteria 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 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 the phytoplankton (Wolfe and Steinke, 1996; Wolfe et al., 1997). The resulting 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).

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

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

Since the discovery of DMSP biosynthesis in marine het-

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

Many marine bacteria (e.g., *L. aggregata* and *Pseudoo-ceanicola batsensis*) and algae (e.g., *E. huxleyi* and *Phaeo-cystis* sp.) not only make DMSP but also cleave this 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 physiological relevance? How are these contradictory processes being precisely regulated in one organism? The functions of DMSP and DMS in marine organisms still need to be verified at a molecular genetic level. These unanswered questions could be 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 cycle.

Compliance and ethics *The author(s) declare that they have no conflict of interest.*

Acknowledgements This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (91751202 and 41730530), the National Key Research and Development Program of China (2016YFA0601303 and 2018YFC0310701), and the Marine S&T Fund of Shandong Province for Pilot National Laboratory for Marine Science and Technology (Qingdao) (2018SDKJ0406-4). Natural Environmental Research Council grants (NE/ N002385, NE/P012671 and NE/S001352) fund ARJC and JDT.

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