1	Uptake of dimethylsulphoniopropionate (DMSP) by the diatom Thalassiosira weissflogii: A model to
2	investigate the cellular function of DMSP
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16	Keywords: Dimethylsulphoniopropionate; Thalassiosira weissflogii; uptake; salinity; osmoregulation

# 18 Abstract

19 One of the most abundant organic sulphur molecules in the ocean, dimethylsulphoniopropionate (DMSP) has been 20 implicated in numerous biochemical functions and ecological interactions, from osmotic and oxidative stress 21 regulation within the cell, to the chemical attraction of bacteria, mammals and birds in the environment. 22 Notwithstanding these varied and important discoveries, the primary role of DMSP in the cell remains elusive. In 23 this study, we take a new approach to investigating the role of DMSP in cell physiology. Rather than utilising a 24 known DMSP-producer, we instead exploit the propensity for the non-DMSP producing diatom Thalassiosira 25 weissflogii to take up DMSP from its environment. We characterise the uptake and retention of the molecule under 26 growth conditions and salinity stress with the aim to elucidate its utility as a model system for investigating the 27 cellular function of DMSP. T. weissflogii showed concentration-dependent uptake of DMSP and complete 28 retention within the cell for at least 6 h. Saturation of intracellular DMSP occurred at >87 mM, equivalent to some 29 of the most prolific DMSP-producing species. Salinity shifts resulted in a reduction in DMSP uptake rate, but 30 only at extremely low (17) or very high (45) salinities. These data demonstrate the potential for using T. weissflogii 31 in physiological studies, providing a true (DMSP-free) control, as well as a DMSP-enriched version of the same 32 strain. In this way, orthogonal experiments may be conducted with the aim to uncover the physiological purpose 33 of DMSP in phytoplankton and potentially add key pieces to the enigmatic DMSP puzzle.

### 34 Introduction

35 Dimethylsulphoniopropionate (DMSP), is an abundant and ubiquitous organic sulphur compound in marine 36 ecosystems, with more than a billion tonnes produced by marine phytoplankton annually (Johnston et al. 2016). 37 Many marine phytoplankton produce and retain high amounts of DMSP, with cellular concentrations sometimes 38 exceeding 400 mM (Stefels 2000). Once released into the surrounding environment, predominantly through cell 39 lysis or grazing, DMSP is rapidly scavenged by other marine organisms, the most studied being heterotrophic 40 bacteria (Kiene and Linn 2000; Moran et al. 2012). This lower level trophic interaction forms the engine of the 41 marine sulphur cycle, whereby the bacteria selectively transform the DMSP into amino acids and proteins for 42 growth or cleave it into dimethylsulphide (DMS), a volatile molecule that is readily fluxed into the atmosphere 43 where it can nucleate to form cloud condensation nuclei, with the potential to influence climate (Charlson et al. 44 1987). Ecologically, both DMSP and DMS have been implicated in many marine trophic interactions, via their 45 roles as a chemoattractant (Miller et al. 2004; Seymour et al. 2010), foraging cue (Nevitt and Bonadonna 2005; 46 Savoca and Nevitt 2014; Lee et al. 2016) or through conversion of DMSP into a chemical deterrent (acrylate) 47 against grazers (Wolfe et al. 1997).

48 Controls on DMSP production by marine phytoplankton have been linked to environmental drivers such 49 as high light, temperature and UVB radiation (Stefels 2000), suggesting the molecule may play a role in cellular 50 stress response (Sunda et al. 2002). Yet, its most commonly attributed role is osmoregulation (Malin and Kirst 51 1997; Stefels 2000; Welsh 2000), through its function as a compatible osmolyte. There is, however, considerable 52 variability in DMSP regulation with respect to stressor (UV, temperature, salinity) and across species (see Stefels 53 2000). This variability underscores the intricate role of DMSP in phytoplankton physiology, but makes identifying 54 the intended role(s) of this molecule in the cell inherently challenging. As such, despite its prevalence and 55 purported importance in the chemical landscape of the ocean, the key functional role of DMSP remains unclear.

To date, research into understanding the functional role of DMSP in the cell has been focused overwhelmingly on DMSP-producing microalgae, where altered conditions cause a change in concentration or rate of production within the culture of interest. However, it has long been known that there are also phytoplankton species that take up and accumulate dissolved DMSP (Kiene et al. 1998), matching the removal rate of heterotrophic bacteria (Vila-Costa et al. 2006). Since then, to our knowledge, only three studies have corroborated the uptake of DMSP by non-DMSP producing microalgal species (Spielmeyer et al. 2011; Ruiz-Gonzalez et al. 2012; Lavoie et al. 2018), including the diatom *Thalassiosira weissflogii* (Spielmeyer et al. 2011). In this earlier 63 study, Spielmeyer and colleagues used isotopically labelled DMSP to probe the uptake and metabolism of DMSP 64 in phytoplankton of high, low and no DMSP content. They found that the diatom T. weissflogii rapidly takes up 65 and accumulate DMSP from the environment, with intracellular concentrations reaching levels similar to that of 66 the prolific DMSP producer Emiliania huxleyi, but found no evidence for short- or long-term metabolism of 67 DMSP (Spielmeyer et al. 2011). Here we propose that the propensity of T. weissflogii to take up and retain DMSP 68 provides an optimal opportunity to investigate the physiological role of DMSP in the cell; providing the ability to 69 test both DMSP-free and DMSP-enriched cultures of the same strain of organism. In this way, direct physiological 70 comparisons can be made between stress responses in the presence and absence of DMSP. Whether these cells 71 take up DMSP and/or utilise it for the same reasons as those that produce it remains a caveat to this model, 72 however, DMSP uptake is an energy expending process, and it is thus unlikely that organisms would invest energy 73 for no measurable gain or physiological advantage. In this study, we characterise DMSP uptake and utilisation in 74 the centric diatom Thalassiosira weissflogii, with the aim to determine its utility as a model organism for 75 investigating the role of DMSP in algal physiology.

76

## 77 Materials and Methods

Batch cultures of the centric diatom *Thalassiosira weissflogii* (CSIRO strain CS-871; synonym CCMP-1336) were grown in sterilised seawater amended with F/2 nutrients (Guillard and Ryther 1962) and maintained at 20°C. Light (cool white) was supplied at ~55 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Hydra 52HD, Aquatic Illumination), programmed on a 12:12 h light:dark cycle. Cultures (200 mL) were grown in quadruplicate for 4-5 generations prior to experiments and all measurements were made on cells during exponential growth ( $\mu = 0.49 \pm 0.06 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ). Under culturing conditions no detectable levels of DMSP were found, verifying that this strain of *T. weissflogii* is not a DMSP producer.

Prior to experimentation, cultures were washed twice in sterile media (15 mL) via centrifugation (1800 rcf for 5 min), before being re-suspended into fresh sterile F/2 media, to minimise the influence of bacteria. Flow cytometry measurements showed that this procedure reduced non-attached bacterial counts by > 99% (data not shown), and fluorescence staining (SYBR green) of cultures, revealed minimal occurrence of attached bacteria. Both *T. weissflogii* and the bacterial consortia within the cultures were sampled for DMSP lyase activity, where a 5 mL aliquot of culture was filtered onto a 5  $\mu$ m polycarbonate filter (MicroAnalytix, Taren Point, Australia) to collect the microalgal cells, after which the filtrate was re-filtered onto a 0.22  $\mu$ m filter (MicroAnalytix, Taren

92 Point, Australia) for the bacterial component. Filters were flash frozen in liquid N<sub>2</sub> and stored at -80°C until 93 analysis. Lyase activity was determined according to the methods of Harada et al. (2004). To ensure cells were 94 not compromised after washing or during experimentation when stress was applied, photophysiological condition 95 of the cells was assessed via variable chlorophyll a fluorescence using a pulse amplitude modulated fluorometer 96 (Water PAM, Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany). Briefly, following 10 min dark-adaptation, minimum 97 fluorescence ( $F_0$ ) was recorded before application of a saturating pulse of light (Duration = 0.8 s; Intensity =10), 98 where maximum fluorescence ( $F_M$ ) was determined and the maximum quantum yield of PSII calculated as  $F_V/F_M$ 99 =  $(F_M - F_0)/F_M$ . Cultures were only used in experiments if the post-washing  $F_V/F_M$  values were  $\ge 0.700$ . All uptake 100 experiments were conducted under growth (temperature and light) conditions.

101 To characterise DMSP uptake in T. weissflogii, DMSP [500 nM] (from freshly prepared 10 mM stock of 102 DMSP-HCl, Tokyo chemical industry co. ltd., Toshima, Kita-ku, Tokyo, Japan) was added to washed cultures (n 103 = 4) and the cultures subsampled over time (0-6h) for both dissolved (DMSPd) and particulate (intracellular, 104 DMSPp) DMSP. In a separate study, we investigated the retention of DMSP using washed cells that were pre-105 loaded with DMSP [500 nM] for 4 h under growth conditions. Following DMSP loading, cultures (n = 4) were 106 washed to remove any remaining DMSPd from the medium and re-suspended in DMSP-free medium. Samples 107 were taken immediately to measure the initial DMSPp and then again after 6 h to verify retention of DMSP. 108 Additional uptake experiments were conducted as described above on culture filtrate containing just the bacterial 109 fraction (< 5µm) to ensure that any responses observed could be solely attributed to T. weissflogii.

110 Tests for DMSP- [50, 100, 250, 500,1000 nM] and salinity- (17, 25, 35,45 psu at 500 nM DMSP) 111 dependent responses were conducted via a series of rapid kinetic assays. Cultures (n = 3) of T. weissflogii were 112 washed and then resuspended in 20 mL of fresh medium to a known cell density and placed under growth light. 113 Each culture was subsequently adjusted to final DMSP concentration or salinity and cultures subsampled for 114 DMSPp at set time points (0, 5, 10, 15, 20 min). The DMSP saturation point in T. weissflogii was determined by 115 amending washed cultures (n = 3, ~10<sup>4</sup> cells mL<sup>-1</sup>) with a range of DMSP concentrations [250-5000 nM] and 116 incubating them for 4.5 h under growth conditions before subsampling for DMSPp. To test whether DMSP-rich 117 T. weissflogii rid themselves of DMSP under lowered salinity, cells pre-loaded with DMSP (500 nM, 2h) were 118 washed and re-suspended in DMSP-free media. After sampling for DMSPd and DMSPp (0 and 20 min) salinity 119 of the medium was decreased to 25 using milliQ F/2 media and cells subsampled over time (20, 40, 60 min).

120 Sampling for DMSPd and DMSPp was done by gently filtering culture (2 mL) through 25 mm GF/F 121 filters using a low vacuum (< 5 mm Hg) hand pump to avoid cell rupture. Filtrate (1 mL) was transferred to a vial 122 containing 1 mL of milliQ water and the filter containing algal cells was washed three times with F/2 media before 123 being placed in a vial with 2 mL of milliQ water. A pellet of NaOH was added to each vial, immediately prior to 124 being stoppered and crimp capped. All samples were left in the dark for 24 h for equilibration to occur before 125 analysis. DMSPd and DMSPp were quantified as total DMS after conversion with NaOH and measured using a 126 gas chromatograph (GC-2010, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) coupled with a flame photometric detector (FPD). 127 Samples (liquid and headspace) were purged with He (70 mL min<sup>-1</sup> for 4 min) while cryo-trapped in liquid N<sub>2</sub> and subsequently eluted onto a capillary column (DB-1, Agilent; injector: 120°C, column: 110°C, FPD: 150°C, 128 129 column flow: 2.1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>). Samples with high concentrations of DMSPp (saturation experiment) were analysed 130 via direct injection of 500 µL of headspace (column flow: 3.66 mL min<sup>-1</sup>). All DMSPp data were normalised to 131 cell density.

For the enumeration of *T. weissflogii* and bacteria cells, subsamples were fixed with glutaraldahyde (1%) and counted on a Cytoflex S flow cytometer (Beckman Coulter Inc, Indianapolis, USA), using chlorophyll *a* fluorescence (laser/collection: 488/690 nm) and forward scatter for *T. weissflogii* and SYBR Green nucleic acid stain (1:10,000 dilution) for bacterial counts (laser/collection: 488/530 nm). Cell volume was estimated based on microscopy measurements of the length and width of 20 cells and calculated assuming a cylinder-shaped cell as per Hillebrand et al. (1999).

138 To test for a significant change in photophysiology or retention of DMSP over time, data were analysed 139 for statistical differences between treatments using ANOVA (IBM, SPSS, Statistics v24; IBM Corporation, New 140 York), with differences considered significant at P < 0.05. Prior to analysis, test for normal distribution and Levene's test for homogeneity of variance were applied to the data. All uptake experiments comparing 141 142 concentrations or salinities were analysed using PERMANOVA, with a resemblance matrix based on Euclidean 143 distance. All P values obtained were based on Monte Carlo method. Analyses were carried out using Primer v6 144 statistical package (Primer-E, Plymouth, US; Clarke and Gorley, 2006) with the PERMANOVA+ add on (Anderson et al, 2008). Following the test for main effects, pair wise comparisons were conducted for each 145 146 concentration or time point and significance denoted by superscript letters. For the concentration dependent uptake 147 experiment, Michaelis-Menten parameters were estimated from the raw data using the nls (nonlinear least squares) 148function in R and the model  $v \sim Vm * S/(K+S)$ . Starting parameters were: K = Vmax/2 and Vm = Vmax, where149Vmax is the highest rate of uptake measured in any of the samples.

150

### 151 Results and discussion

152 Thalassiosira weissflogii has been shown previously to take up DMSP (Spielmeyer et al. 2011), however, this is 153 the first study to characterise the uptake kinetics at varying concentrations and under different salinities. Uptake 154 of DMSP by T. weissflogii (at 500 nM initial DMSPd concentration) resulted in intracellular accumulation of up 155 to  $17.7 \pm 1.9$  fmol cell<sup>-1</sup> within 4 h with a reciprocal decline in dissolved DMSP, where cells removed more than 156 97% of initial DMSPd (Figure 1a). Once taken up, T. weissflogii retained the DMSP, with no loss from the cells for at least 6 h (Figure 1b; ANOVA  $F_{1,6} = 0.081$ , P = 0.786). These data demonstrate that this species preferentially 157 158 uses cellular energy to ensure intake of this molecule to maintain high concentrations of DMSP within the cell. 159 Combined, the stoichiometric match between dissolved and particulate DMSP confirm uptake by the diatom cells 160 as the dominant removal factor, as no uptake of DMSP by the culture-associated bacterial community and no lyase 161 activity were detected in T. weissflogii or its associated bacteria (data not shown).

162 Rapid uptake kinetics revealed a concentration-dependent response (Figure 2a), resembling Michaelis-163 Menten kinetics ( $V_{Max} = 27.1$  fmol cell<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>,  $K_M = 632$  nM) for concentrations between 50 and 1000 nM over 20 164 min (Figure 2b). The high  $K_M$  value relative to common oceanic DMSP concentrations (<10 nM) suggest that 165 uptake of DMSP by T. weissflogii would mainly occur during bloom scenarios, where DMSP concentrations can 166 increase >10-fold (Stefels et al. 2007). Longer incubations (4.5h) showed a linear relationship between initial 167 DMSP concentration and final intracellular DMSP, until stabilising and saturating at ~87 mM (Figure 2c). The 168 maximum accumulation of intracellular DMSP by T. weissflogii falls within the range of many major DMSP 169 producing taxa, such as dinoflagellates, which range from 32 - 218 mM (Keller et al. 1989), or the prymnesiophyte 170 Phaeocystis sp. of 71-161 mM (Stefels and Van Boekel 1993). In the present study, saturated cells reached an 171 intracellular DMSP concentration of approximately 200 fmol cell<sup>-1</sup>, which is two orders of magnitude higher than 172 previously observed (Spielmeyer et al. 2011). The higher intracellular DMSP in our study can be explained by the 173 lower cell densities and higher initial DMSP concentrations used, resulting in up to 100 times more DMSP 174 available per cell.

176 Intracellular concentrations in DMSP-producers are known to vary depending on environmental 177 condition and growth phase (Stefels 2000). However, in this study, the cells, which were maintained at non-178 stressful growth conditions, took up as much DMSP as was available, only saturating once intracellular 179 concentrations reached >80 mM. This accumulation of DMSP in the absence of cellular stress would suggest a 180 benefit to the cell in maintaining a large amount of DMSP that would at least equate to or offset the cost expended 181 on taking it up. The fact that cells showed no change (ANOVA  $F_{1.6} = 0.097$ , P = 0.766) to their photophysiological 182 state with addition of DMSP ( $0.737 \pm 0.003$  at initial time point and  $0.736 \pm 0.006$  after 6 h) would indicate that 183 this benefit is not perhaps to the photosystem or at least not under homeostatic growth conditions. The high DMSP 184 uptake rate, intracellular saturation and retention support the idea that non-DMSP producing species like T. 185 weissflogii may form a considerable sink for DMSP in the marine environment, particularly during bloom 186 scenarios, invariably reducing DMSP available to other organisms and influencing the turnover of DMSP in ocean 187 systems. These results clearly demonstrate that the potential influence of non-DMSP producing algae may be 188 significantly more than recently suggested (Lavoie et al. 2018) and also offers up a new line of study for 189 understanding the role of DMSP in cell physiology.

190 Salinity assays showed no change in the DMSP uptake rate at 25 compared with 35 psu, but did show a 191 ~50% drop in uptake rate at very low (17) and high (45) salinities (Figure 3a; PERMANOVA Pseudo  $F_{3.8} = 8.932$ , 192 P (mc) = 0.005). While no change in  $F_V/F_M$  was observed from 35 to 25 psu, corroborating no shift in uptake 193 kinetics at these salinities, a minor, yet significant decline in  $F_V/F_M$  (ANOVA  $F_{1,4}$  = 19.75, P = 0.011) at the lowest 194 (17) salinity from  $0.706 \pm 0.007$  to  $0.680 \pm 0.008$ , was detected. Given the proposed osmoregulatory role of DMSP 195 in cell physiology (Malin and Kirst 1997; Stefels 2000; Welsh 2000), the ~50% reduction in uptake rate with 196  $\sim$ 50% reduction in salinity was anticipated and is consistent with osmoregulatory theory, while the decline in 197  $F_V/F_M$  implies a change in cell physiology that may suggest cellular compromise. Contrary to our expectation, 198 lower uptake rates were also measured at higher salinity (45), where a ~29% increase in salinity resulted in a 199 halving of the uptake rate (Figure 3b), which does not corroborate the theory of osmoregulatory driven uptake. 200 While the fluorescence data did not indicate any changes to cell photophysiology, this reduction may be explained 201 by cellular changes that reduce ATP available for uptake. Indeed, previous work measured a significant negative 202 effect on growth and cell volume in T. weissflogii at salinities above 40 (Garcia et al. 2012). When salinity was 203 only reduced ~25%, no change was detected, suggesting a tolerance to shifts in salinity in this species. This result 204 was corroborated by our test for salinity-based regulation of DMSP, where preloaded DMSP-enriched T. 205 weissflogii did not rid themselves of intracellular DMSP when salinity was lowered by ~25% over time (Figure 3c), with no measureable change in DMSPp or DMSPd during the 60 min of observation (PERMANOVA Pseudo F<sub>4,12</sub> = 0.766, P (mc) = 0.545). Taken together, these data suggest that cellular processes were not obstructed or affected by moderate changes in salinity, a finding congruent with a previous study that found *T. weissflogii* to possess a relatively broad salinity tolerance range (25-50) with maximal growth rates at 25 psu (Garcia et al. 2012).

211 As one of the most abundant and important organic molecules in the ocean, the regulation and production 212 of DMSP has been studied extensively both at sea and in culture, resulting in many proposed physiological and 213 ecological functions for this one signature molecule. Yet, to date, no one functional role for this molecule is in 214 agreement across all studies and species. Using a non-DMSP producing diatom, T. weissflogii, we saw rapid 215 uptake and accumulation of DMSP that was retained by the cell. We found T. weissflogii exhibited concentration-216 dependent uptake kinetics up to 1000 nM – much higher than is likely to occur in a natural environment—and that 217 intracellular concentrations saturated at around 87 mM. These data indicate that species not able to produce 218 DMSP, but instead take up available DMSP from the surrounding water, may constitute a major sink for DMSPd 219 in oceanic systems when DMSP concentrations are elevated, thus contributing to DMSP removal from the marine 220 environment. Further study into the utilisation of this molecule by non-producers, such as T. weissfloggii, may 221 help to uncover a primary role for DMSP in cell physiology and in doing so, reveal how the production and export 222 of DMSP into the water column, may make available the physiological or ecological advantage DMSP proffers 223 to non-producing members of the marine microbial community.

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290 Figure captions

concentrations of DMSP in pre-loaded and washed cells at 0 and 6 hours. Data represent means  $\pm$  SE (n = 4) Fig. 2 Uptake kinetics and saturation of DMSP in T. weissflogii a) DMSP incorporation at five concentrations over 20 min b) uptake rate vs extracellular concentration fitted with Michaelis-Menten kinetics model c) intracellular concentrations of DMSP after 4.5 h at six different extracellular concentrations. Data represent means  $\pm$  SE (n = 3-4). Letters denote statistical difference determined by PERMANOVA at  $\alpha < 0.05$ , b) Pseudo F<sub>4,10</sub> = 37.09, P(mc) = 0.001; c) Pseudo F<sub>4,10</sub> = 228.31, P(mc) = 0.001. Fig. 3 Uptake kinetics and retention of DMSP in T. weissflogii exposed to different salinities a) DMSP incorporation at four salinities over 20 min b) DMSP uptake rate vs salinity c) intracellular DMSP concentrations of pre-loaded cells before (0, 20 min) and after lowering of salinity from 35 to 25 psu (dashed line). Data represent mean  $\pm$  SE (n = 3-4). Letters denote statistical difference determined by PERMANOVA at  $\alpha < 0.05$ , b) Pseudo  $F_{3,8} = 8.932$ , P (mc) = 0.005; c) Pseudo  $F_{4,12} = 0.766$ , P (mc) = 0.545. 

Fig. 1 Uptake and retention of DMSP by T. weissflogii a) drawdown and uptake of DMSP over 6 h, b) intracellular

321 Figures:







