

1 **Quantification of glycine betaine, choline and trimethylamine *N*-oxide in seawater**
2 **particulates: minimisation of seawater associated ion suppression.**

3 Rachael Beale¹ and Ruth Airs^{2*}

4 Plymouth Marine Laboratory, Plymouth, Devon, PL1 3DH, England.

5 Tel: (+44) 1752 633100

6 ¹ rbea@pml.ac.uk

7 ² ruai@pml.ac.uk

8 * Corresponding author

9

10 **Abstract:**

11 A liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC/MS, electrospray ionisation) method has been
12 developed for the quantification of nitrogenous osmolytes (N-osmolytes) in the particulate
13 fraction of natural water samples. Full method validation demonstrates the validity of the
14 method for measuring glycine betaine (GBT), choline and trimethylamine *N*-oxide (TMAO) in
15 particulates from seawater. Limits of detection were calculated as 3.5, 1.2 and 5.9 pg injected
16 onto column (equivalent to 1.5, 0.6 and 3.9 nanomoles per litre) for GBT, choline and TMAO
17 respectively. Precision of the method was typically 3% for both GBT and choline and 6% for
18 TMAO. Collection of the particulate fraction of natural samples was achieved via in-line
19 filtration. Resulting chromatography and method sensitivity was assessed and compared for the
20 use of both glass fibre and polycarbonate filters during sample collection. Ion suppression was
21 shown to be a significant cause of reduced instrument response to N-osmolytes and was
22 associated with the presence of seawater in the sample matrix.

23

24 **Keywords:**

25 Glycine Betaine

26 Choline

27 Trimethylamine *N*-oxide

28 Nitrogenous osmolytes
29 Seawater particulate analysis
30 Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry
31
32

33 **1. Introduction:**

34 Glycine betaine (GBT), trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO) and choline are nitrogen-containing
35 osmolytes (N-osmolytes) that are widely used by organisms in the marine environment to
36 maintain favourable osmotic tension and positive turgor [1, 2]. However, other roles for N-
37 osmolytes are beginning to be elucidated. For example, TMAO and GBT interact with
38 photosystem I [3]. Increased recovery rates of photosystem II (PSII) have been observed in a
39 cyanobacterium engineered to accumulate glycine betaine in the cytoplasm [4]. TMAO also
40 stabilizes the folded state of proteins [5]. Furthermore, GBT has been shown to act as a
41 chemoattractant in the marine microbial food web [6].

42 Knowledge of the distribution of nitrogenous osmolytes among marine phytoplankton is limited
43 to two studies [7, 8] and discrepancies exist between them. For example, Keller et al. [7] did not
44 detect GBT in *Prorocentrum minimum*, but Spielmeyer et al. [8] found *Prorocentrum minimum* to
45 contain the highest levels of GBT of the cultures studied. This could be due to different strains
46 used for the two studies, different culture conditions, or methodological differences. Culture
47 conditions have since been found to affect nitrogenous osmolyte concentrations; the production
48 of GBT by two diatoms and a strain of *E. huxleyi* increased under both elevated temperature and
49 carbon dioxide (CO₂) [9]. Once released from phytoplankton cells, for example by viral lysis,
50 nitrogenous osmolytes become part of the dissolved organic nitrogen pool and are therefore an
51 attractive substrate for marine bacteria [10]. The capacity for choline catabolism is widespread
52 in marine heterotrophs of the marine Roseobacter clade (MRC, [11]), and model organisms of
53 the MRC can grow on choline and GBT as a sole carbon source [11] resulting in remineralisation
54 of osmolyte nitrogen to ammonia. Similarly, MRC have been shown to use TMAO as an energy

55 source which also resulted in ammonia production [12], and the capacity for TMAO binding in
56 MRC is thought to be widespread [13]. Members of the Pelagibacterales bacteria (SAR11 clade)
57 also have the capacity to degrade TMAO [14]. Marine or estuarine methanogens can also grow
58 on nitrogenous osmolytes [15, 16, 17] indicating a link between quaternary amines and
59 biological methane production in marine environments. Furthermore, marine metagenomic
60 data-mining indicates the presence of genes encoding the production of trimethylamine from
61 quaternary amines in the open ocean [18], providing a possible route and marine biogenic
62 source of atmospheric amines [19], recently discovered to be important for new particle
63 formation [20, 21].

64 Despite their potential importance in the marine nitrogen cycle, particularly as a substrate for
65 bacteria, and as potential precursors of climate-active compounds, little is known about the
66 standing concentrations of GBT, choline and TMAO in seawater. Choline and GBT can be
67 measured using HPLC with UV detection [22], but the method has limited sensitivity for
68 application to natural samples. LC/MS gives much improved sensitivity for GBT and choline
69 [23], and is a promising approach for all three analytes. Ion chromatography has been used to
70 measure TMAO [24] in aerosol, but the sensitivity of this method is not suitable for application
71 to seawater. TMAO has been measured previously in seawater samples off the Antarctic
72 Peninsula following enzymatic conversion to trimethylamine [25] where it was found to be
73 highest in surface waters, reaching 77 nM [26]. A chromatography method for choline, TMAO
74 and glycine betaine extracted from tissues of marine fish using ion exchange chromatography
75 has been reported previously [27], but is complex due to the use of sequential columns, and has
76 been used to fractionate extracts for subsequent radioactive tracer determination, rather than
77 being directly applied to quantitative analysis in seawater. A range of osmolytes from different
78 matrices have been determined using an LC/MS approach, including mammalian serum [28, 29,
79 30] and coral tissues [31], but limits of detection in animal tissues and fluids are not sensitive
80 enough for the expected concentrations in seawater [23]. Here, we present an LC/MS for the
81 simultaneous determination of Choline, GBT and TMAO in seawater particulates.

82

83 **2. Materials and methods:**

84 *2.1 Chemicals:*

85 All glassware was acid-rinsed before use with 10% hydrochloric acid (purchased from Sigma
86 Aldrich) followed by MilliQ water. Betaine hydrochloride and choline dihydrogen citrate were
87 purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Trimethylamine N-Oxide.2H₂O was obtained from Fluka.
88 Deuterated GBT (d₁₁-GBT), used as an internal standard (ISTD), was sourced from Cambridge
89 Isotope Laboratories Inc.. Methanol (LC/MS grade), chloroform (HPLC grade), Acetonitrile
90 (HPLC grade), formic acid (LC/MS additive) and ammonium acetate (LC/MS grade) were
91 purchased from Fisher Scientific.

92 *2.2 Preparation of standards*

93 Stock standard solutions of d₁₁-GBT (ISTD) GBT, choline and TMAO were prepared in glass
94 volumetric flasks by weighing aliquots of the solid reference materials and diluting in
95 methanol:chloroform:water (12:5:1). Typical stock standard concentration was 0.5 millimoles
96 per litre (mM). When not in use, standards were kept in the fridge (<4°C). When required, stock
97 solutions were allowed to warm to room temperature before serial dilution was performed to
98 generate working standards over the required concentration range.

99 *2.3 Sample collection & extraction:*

100 Seawater samples were routinely collected from Station L4, 10km from the Plymouth coast in
101 the Western English Channel (<http://www.westernchannelobservatory.org.uk/>). Surface
102 seawater (typically 2-5m depth) was collected aboard the *RV Plymouth Quest* in Niskin bottles
103 attached to a rosette sampler. Seawater was transferred to a 10 L Nalgene sample bottle via
104 Tygon tubing and transported back to the laboratory. Both the Nalgene sample bottle and Tygon
105 tubing were pre-rinsed with seawater prior to use. The Tygon tubing was stored in 10%
106 hydrochloric acid (HCl) when not in use, and rinsed thoroughly with MilliQ water before

107 sampling. Transfer time back to Plymouth Marine Laboratory after sampling was typically 2
108 hours.

109 Approximately 4L of the surface seawater sample was transferred to an acid-rinsed glass beaker
110 through a nylon mesh (pore size 200 μm to remove zooplankton), and stirred gently to
111 homogenise cell distribution via a magnetic stirring plate. Aliquots of seawater (typically 5-100
112 mL) were removed via a plastic syringe and filtered through an in-line polycarbonate filter
113 (Nucleopore; 47mm, 0.2 μm). Before use, filters were soaked in 100% methanol (LC/MS grade)
114 for 2 hours, after which, they were rinsed in clean methanol and allowed to dry at room
115 temperature. After filtration, the residual seawater left on the filter was minimised by blotting
116 the underside on laboratory absorbent paper. The filter was then immersed immediately in 1.5
117 mL of methanol:chloroform:water (12:5:1) in a 50 mL Sarsdedt[®] tube. Internal standard (10 μl)
118 was added to yield a final concentration of 10 picograms per microliter ($\text{pg } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$) d₁₁-GBT.
119 Samples were briefly vortexed and left to soak for 1 hour. Samples were then re-vortexed and
120 the solvent transferred to an Eppendorf tube for clarification by centrifugation (4 min at
121 13,000rpm). Finally, the supernatant was transferred via Pasteur pipette to an autosampler vial
122 for LC/MS analysis.

123 *2.4 LC/MS conditions & optimisation:*

124 The LC/MS system comprised an Agilent 1200 High Pressure Liquid Chromatograph (HPLC)
125 incorporating a degasser (G1379B), binary pump (G1367B), temperature-controlled
126 autosampler (G1367B), and thermostatted column compartment (G1316A). The HPLC was
127 coupled to an Agilent 6330 ion trap mass spectrometer via an Electrospray ionisation (ESI)
128 source operated in positive ion mode.

129 For separation of the analytes a Discovery HS F5 column (150 x 2.1mm, 3 μm particles) was used
130 in combination with a guard column (HS F5 Supelguard) both supplied by Sigma Aldrich. The
131 column temperature was maintained at 60 °C during analysis.

132 Mobile phase composition comprised (A) 0.15% formic acid in water containing a final
133 concentration of 10mM ammonium acetate and (B) 100% methanol (LC/MS grade) in the ratio
134 80:20 (A:B), run isocratically at a flow rate of 0.35mL min⁻¹ for 6 minutes, with a 20µl injection
135 volume. After use, the column was stored in 100 % acetonitrile and was routinely cleaned
136 according to the manufacturer's instructions.

137 The LC/MS settings were as follows: nebuliser gas 55psi; drying gas 12 L min⁻¹; vapouriser
138 temperature 350°C. Once protonated, GBT was detected at m/z 118, choline at m/z 104 and
139 TMAO at m/z 76. Notably under the conditions used, TMAO also formed a dimer, detected at
140 m/z 151). Deuterated GBT (d₁₁-GBT) used as an internal standard was detected at m/z 129
141 (Figure 1). For extracted ion chromatograms, a 0.5 amu mass window was applied around the
142 respective target ion.

143 For tuning the detector, a solution of all 4 analytes at a concentration of approximately 1 µM
144 was infused into the LC flow at 5 µL min⁻¹ via a syringe pump, just prior to the MS source. The
145 ion optics were tuned for each compound, and optimum settings were typically: capillary -2000
146 V; skimmer 15 V; capillary exit 79.2 V; octopole 1 DC 6.58 V; octopole 2 DC 0.63 V.

147 *2.5 Calibration:*

148 Instrument calibration was performed on the same day as sample analysis. Standards were
149 freshly prepared in 12:5:1 methanol:chloroform:water from stock solutions, which were found
150 to be stable at 4 °C for at least 4 weeks. Five mixed working standards were typically prepared
151 containing GBT (6, 9, 28, 60 and 600 nM), choline (3, 5, 14, 30, 300 nM) and TMAO (8, 14, 40, 80
152 and 800 nM). In addition, check standards containing approximately 150nM of each analyte
153 were injected after every 3 samples analysed to demonstrate continued system performance
154 throughout the analytical sequence. Deuterated GBT (d₁₁-GBT) was spiked into all standards
155 and samples as an internal standard (10pg µl⁻¹) and the calibration curves plotted as
156 concentration verses the peak area ratio (analyte:ISTD, Figure 2).

157 **3. Results and discussion**

158 *3.1 Assessment*

159 This method has been developed and optimised specifically for the co-analysis of GBT, choline
160 and TMAO in the particulate fraction of seawater samples. The efficiency, validity and the
161 suitability of the method to accurately quantify particulate N-osmolytes in natural samples has
162 been investigated, and particular attention has been paid to reducing ion suppression
163 associated with a seawater matrix.

164 To demonstrate the linearity of the LC/MS system over a wide concentration range, 12 mixed
165 standards containing GBT, choline and TMAO were prepared (0.005-1.3 μM for GBT, 0.003-0.3
166 μM for choline and 0.006-1.6 μM for TMAO). Duplicate injections of each standard were
167 performed, and the resultant plots of standard concentration versus peak area ratio (analyte
168 peak area/internal standard peak area) plotted with $R^2 > 0.99$ for all three compounds (Figure
169 2). Natural particulate N-osmolyte concentrations are not expected to exceed these calibrations.

170 The system showed no carryover between injections, even following high concentration
171 standards. We used an injection programme recommended by Agilent to minimise carryover
172 [32].

173 Precision of the method and hence its' consistency, was determined by calculating the intraday
174 and interday coefficients of variation (C.V. %) for GBT, choline and TMAO.

175 The intraday C.V. % was calculated from measurements of two standard solutions at different
176 concentrations, injected six times consecutively. Values of precision ranged between 2-3 % for
177 GBT, were 3 % for choline and 6 % for TMAO.

178 The interday variance was assessed by injecting a standard, prepared at the same
179 concentration, 20 times over the course of 1 month (5 separate days). We found the
180 reproducibility of this method over the month to be 6 % for both GBT and choline and 8 % for
181 TMAO.

182 The limit of detection (y_D) for the three analytes extracted by this method was calculated
183 according to

$$184 \quad y_D = \mu_b + K_D \sigma_b \quad \text{equation.1}$$

185 and defines the smallest signal response that can be reliably distinguished from the baseline
186 noise of the instrument [33]. Where μ_b is the population mean, K_D is 3 (relating to the fact that
187 sample signal must be 3 times the baseline noise to be classified as a 'positive' result), and σ_b
188 represents the population standard deviation.

189 Baseline peak widths for GBT, choline and TMAO were determined from three standards at
190 different analyte concentrations and subsequently averaged. Ten separate sections of baseline
191 noise were then integrated on 3 different standard injections spanning the widths previously
192 determined for each analyte. This resulted in 10 peak area responses for baseline noise which
193 were subsequently averaged to give the population mean (μ_b) and standard deviation (σ_b).
194 These values were used with equation1 to generate a limit of detection (y_D) which was then
195 converted to an analyte concentration using calibration curves. The limit of detection for GBT,
196 choline and TMAO using this method was 3.5, 1.2 and 5.9 pg/injection (1.5, 0.6 and 3.9nM)
197 respectively. This is an improvement on the sensitivity of GBT and choline detection reported in
198 Airs & Archer [23]. The TMAO LOD is similar to that reported in Gibb and Hatton [26](2nM).

199 To demonstrate a sample blank, a clean, pre-rinsed filter (no sea water) was extracted in the
200 same manner as sample filters. Internal standard was always present with the correct peak area
201 and no GBT, choline or TMAO was detected. This highlights that there is no contamination from
202 the extraction procedure and that both the extraction solvents and the LC/MS system are clean.
203 Results obtained from sample extractions with concentrations >LOD are therefore assumed to
204 be positive signals for N-osmolytes contained within the particulate fraction of natural samples.
205 To avoid unwanted or unknown analyte deterioration, which would adversely affect the peak
206 area ratio, standard stability was assessed. Stock solutions of the 4 analytes were prepared and

207 subsequently used to produce a working standard (a 100 times dilution of stocks) which was
208 made fresh on each test day. The stock solutions were analysed 17 times over the course of 50
209 days following initial production and the response of the analyte and internal standard used to
210 calculate the peak area ratio in each instance. For GBT a mean peak area ratio (standard
211 deviation) of 0.9(0.05) was observed; for choline 0.5(0.04) and 0.1(0.004) for TMAO. This
212 generated a coefficient of variation (C.V.) of 5%, 8% and 7% respectively, similar to our interday
213 precision data. Stock solutions were therefore freshly prepared on a monthly basis.

214

215 *3.2 Application to natural samples*

216 Surface sea water was collected from coastal Station L4, in order to test the methods
217 applicability for marine samples.

218 Previous work shows that the filtration technique employed to separate the particulate material
219 from bulk sea water can have a pronounced effect on the osmolyte concentration observed [23,
220 34]. Significant differences in concentrations derived from gravity versus vacuum filtration are
221 reported, especially for choline, likely due to cell breakage and subsequent loss of osmolyte to
222 the dissolved phase. Thus, vacuum filtration was not employed in the development of this
223 extraction procedure. Instead, an in-line filter, designed to minimise sample contact with
224 laboratory air was employed, thereby reducing cell damage via desiccation.

225 After sample filtration, filters were transferred directly into extraction solvent and were left to
226 soak for 1 hour for osmolyte extraction. A comparison with filters allowed to soak in extraction
227 solvent overnight (in the dark and at 4°C) was made in case 1 hour was not sufficient for this
228 process. The comparison tests were carried out using polycarbonate filters and 50mL aliquots
229 of L4 surface sea water.

230 For GBT, the results between same day and overnight extraction showed no significant
231 difference at the 95% confidence level ($n=3$) indicating that one hour in extraction solvent is

232 sufficient for GBT abstraction from particulate material and that storage overnight does not
233 affect the stability of GBT in solution. However, for choline, only 1 of triplicate samples showed
234 a positive result after overnight extraction, but all three were positive after 1 hour. Further
235 investigation by increasing the number of samples stored overnight ($n=15$) showed that choline
236 was not detected in 80% of the samples suggesting that choline was not stable in the extraction
237 matrix over a period of approximately 18 hours. For TMAO, the average concentration of
238 triplicate samples extracted overnight was the same as those extracted for 1 hour. However the
239 standard deviation for the data from the overnight extractions was higher at 6nM compared to
240 0.3nM for the 1 hour extracted samples, suggesting increased variability in the samples
241 extracted for longer. Tests showed that stock standard solutions of all three osmolytes were
242 stable when stored in the fridge for periods of up to 51 days (see above). Therefore, either
243 biological or chemical processes linked to the sample matrix may be altering the choline and
244 TMAO content during overnight extraction. The latter is more probable as the extraction solvent
245 is likely to prevent biological processes from remaining active following filtration. A possible
246 chemical reaction may be adduct formation with other available ions in the solution matrix
247 thereby altering the mass of the desired osmolyte so that they are no longer detected at m/z 76
248 (TMAO) and 104 (Choline).

249 Ion suppression is commonly observed during LC/MS analysis of components extracted from a
250 seawater matrix [34]. To explore the potential ion suppression of GBT, choline and TMAO with
251 this method, a series of 6 standards with different proportions of filtered sea water from 0-8 %
252 were analysed. The final concentration of each standard was kept identical. The signal response
253 for these standards with increasing amounts of sea water in their matrix showed a striking
254 effect on analyte response (Figure 3A). As the proportion of seawater in the standards
255 increased, a drop in signal response for all analytes and deterioration of peak shape was
256 observed (Figure 3A). Additionally, the signal response of d_{11} -GBT in these standards was
257 inversely related to the percentage of seawater in each matrix (Figure 3B; $P<0.001$, students t-
258 test, 95% confidence level). A similar significant relationship was observed with GBT ($P<0.001$).

259 Standards with a seawater content of $\geq 1.5\%$ showed significant reductions in sensitivity. At 3%
260 seawater, neither choline nor TMAO could be integrated due to complete deterioration of peak
261 shape. This is in contrast to the work of Spielmeyer et al. [35] who report improved
262 chromatography in saline matrices when using a hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography
263 (HILIC) column to measure DMSP in algal cultures.

264 To further investigate the effect of ion suppression, local seawater was sampled using four sets
265 of filters, chosen for their differing seawater retention: polycarbonate (47 and 25 mm) and glass
266 fibre filters (GF/F, 47 and 25 mm) filters. Before use, each filter type was assessed to determine
267 its seawater retention capacity. Briefly, filters were weighed, soaked in filtered seawater for 5
268 min, held in the air for 10 seconds, and re-weighed to calculate the volume of seawater retained.
269 Glass fibre filters held considerably more seawater than polycarbonate filters (Table 1).

270 Equal volumes of fresh seawater were passed through each filter type through an in-line
271 cartridge, before transferring the filter to extraction solvent and adding internal standard
272 solution. After extraction, the extracts were analysed by LC/MS. The response of ISTD was
273 affected drastically by the filter type, and hence the proportion of seawater contained in the
274 extract (Figure 4). Increasing the diameter of the GF/F filters from 25 to 47mm caused the
275 response of d_{11} -GBT to decrease by 90%. The same test with polycarbonate filters saw a drop of
276 only 13%. Direct comparison shows that the d_{11} -GBT response from using GF/F filters was
277 reduced by 54 and 95% compared to the response obtained using PC filters, for 25 and 47 mm
278 filters respectively.

279 To further demonstrate the ion suppression effect that was caused by the proportion of
280 seawater in sample extracts, 10 mL aliquots of fresh local seawater were filtered through 47
281 mm GF/F filters. Three filters were extracted in 5, 7, 10, 12 and 15mL extraction solvent. The
282 response of the ISTD observed was 3 times higher in the largest volume extract compared to the
283 smallest, despite being present at the same concentration. However, the response of the d_{11} -GBT
284 in the 15mL extraction solvent (which contained the smallest proportion of seawater) achieved

285 only 49% of the response from a standard solution containing the same concentration of
286 internal standard and no filter or sea water. Figure 5 shows the relationship between the
287 increasing volume of extraction solvent used (and hence the decreasing percentage of sea water
288 in the matrix) and the observed increase in response of internal standard due to reduced ion
289 suppression.

290 Residual seawater residing on the filter following sample filtration can be minimised by blotting
291 the underside on laboratory absorbent paper. However, even if the seawater retained by a
292 47mm GF/F filter was halved by blotting, 31mL extraction solvent would need to be added to
293 the filter in order to maintain 1.5% sea water and hence retain signal response (Figure 3A). This
294 value increases to 93mL extraction solvent to reduce the proportion to 0.5% sea water.
295 Increasing the extraction solvent volume by these amounts would significantly reduce the
296 sensitivity of the method or would require a lengthy evaporation step to be incorporated.

297 Although polycarbonate filters retain much less seawater than GF/Fs (Table 1), a disadvantage
298 is that they were found to provide another, direct source of contamination which also caused
299 ion suppression of the target analytes. During extended analytical sample runs (>10 sample
300 injections involving the use of PC filters) ions at m/z 177.0, 213.9 and 222.9 gradually began to
301 increase, of which the latter dominated (Figure 6). The polycarbonate filters were found to be
302 the source of these contaminating ions. The elution of m/z 222.9 (from 1.4-1.9 minutes)
303 spanned the retention time of both d_{11} -GBT and GBT (1.6mins; Figure 6) and dominated the
304 mass spectrum causing ion suppression of the target analytes. The mobile phase ((A) 0.15%
305 formic acid in water containing a final concentration of 10mM ammonium acetate and (B) 100%
306 methanol (LC/MS grade) in the ratio 80:20 (A:B)) was not suitable to elute the contaminating
307 components quickly. After the first injection of an extract that had been in contact with a PC
308 membrane, the components were found to elute (and therefore suppress the analyte signal)
309 after a consistent number of injections (24-26). Methanol (100%) was found to efficiently
310 remove these ions from the LC system. Therefore after a set of 6 sample injections a methanol

311 wash programme was employed to prevent these ions from interfering with subsequent
312 analyses. This comprised a 25 minute run starting and ending with normal mobile phase
313 conditions (0.15% formic acid in milliQ + 10mM ammonium acetate:methanol, 80:20) but
314 maintaining 100% methanol for 15 minutes in-between. During this period the MS source was
315 diverted to waste to minimise source contamination. Furthermore, polycarbonate filters
316 themselves were prewashed in 100% methanol for 2 hours prior to use (see Methods). After
317 this period they were rinsed in clean methanol and left to dry at room temperature. Figure 6
318 shows the reduction in the intensity of m/z 222.9 ion between extractions of unwashed and
319 washed polycarbonate filters. Use of the methanol wash programme and pre-washing the
320 polycarbonate membranes before use prevented suppression by the contaminating ions (Figure
321 6B).

322 The analytical method was mostly developed using seawater samples collected from Station L4.
323 On the days where adverse weather conditions prevented travel to L4, sea water was collected
324 by hand from Millbay Marina, close to Plymouth Marine Laboratory. An LC/MS chromatogram
325 generated from particulate extraction of both Marina and Station L4 seawater (50mL) shows
326 clear peaks for GBT, choline and TMAO at the expected retention times (Figure 7A and B and
327 Figure 1 respectively). Particulate N-osmolyte concentrations are likely to be subject to large
328 variability which may be dependent on location and/or season. Further work is required to
329 determine whether these compounds have a seasonal signal and if they do, which
330 environmental variables are likely to be driving particulate concentrations.

331

332 **4. Conclusions**

333 Accurate analytical determination of N-osmolytes is critical to understanding their contribution
334 to the marine nitrogen cycle and their role as potential precursors of climate-active compounds.
335 The sensitivity of this method at the low nanomolar range permits its use for studies into the
336 cycling of N-osmolytes in the marine environment. Low limits of detection for these compounds

337 means that subtle changes to concentrations can be measured. Furthermore, the wide linearity
338 range achieved enables easy adaption to low and high N-osmolyte concentrations, and
339 reduction of sample volume below 50 mL which may be important for fragile cells [36]. The
340 extraction procedure is simple, relatively fast and is convenient for consecutive sample
341 filtrations, thereby maximising the number of samples that can be processed daily. The lack of
342 derivatisation or chemical transformation steps in this analytical procedure reduces both
343 lengthy analysis times and possible analyte loss. Additionally, the stability in retention time and
344 reproducibility of the standards over time suggests that the column is robust and well-suited to
345 this application providing continued confidence in the sample data generated.

346 Ion suppression has been shown to be detrimental to both data quality and method sensitivity.
347 The presence of sea water in the extraction matrix was a direct cause of ion suppression that
348 significantly increased the detection limit of this method. For this reason polycarbonate filters
349 are recommended for use with seawater samples due to their decreased water retention which
350 maintains a low seawater to extraction solvent ratio. Polycarbonate filters should be washed in
351 methanol to prevent co-extraction of contaminating components.

352 The sensitivity of this technique holds promise for quantification of N-osmolytes extracted from
353 the dissolved phase of bulk seawater which is important for understanding turnover rates of
354 these compounds. The sensitivity of the technique may also permit determination of N-osmolyte
355 concentrations in natural populations of phytoplankton sorted by flow cytometry. Such
356 information would contribute to modelling studies designed to determine the main drivers of N-
357 osmolyte fluctuations in the marine environment enabling their inclusion into ecosystem
358 models such as ERSEM.

359

360 **Acknowledgements**

361 The authors wish to thank the boat crew of the Plymouth Quest and Ian Brown, Sarah Dashfield,
362 Jo Nunes and Carolyn Harris for sample collection.

363 This work was supported by the National Environment Research Council (NE/M003361/1).

364

365 **References**

366 [1] P.H. Yancey, Organic osmolytes as compatible, metabolic and counteracting cytoprotectants
367 in high osmolarity and other stresses, *J. Exp. Biol.* 208 (2005) 2819-2830.

368 [2] M.B. Burg, J.D. Ferraris, 2008, Intracellular organic osmolytes: function and regulation. *J. Biol.*
369 *Chem.* 283 (2008) 7309-7313.

370 [3] J.B. Nieder, M. Hussels, R. Bittl, M. Brecht, Effect of TMAO and betaine on the energy
371 landscape of photosystem I, *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta-Bioenergetics*, 1837 (2014) 849-856.

372 [4] P. Deshnum, Z. Gombos, Y. Nishiyama, N. Murata, The action in vivo of glycine betaine in
373 enhancement of tolerance of *Synechococcus* sp. Strain PCC7942 to low temperature, *J. Bacteriol.*,
374 179 (1997) 339-344.

375 [5] J.Q. Ma, I.M. Pazos, F. Gai, Microscopic insights into the protein-stabilizing effect of
376 trimethylamine N-oxide. *P. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.*, 111 (2014) 8476-8481.

377 [6] J.R. Seymour, R. Simó, T. Ahmed, R. Stocker, Chemoattraction to dimethylsulfoniopropionate
378 throughout the marine microbial food web. *Science* 329 (2010) 342-345.

379 [7] M.D. Keller, R.P. Kiene, P.A. Matrai, W.K. Bellows, Production of glycine betaine and
380 dimethylsulfoniopropionate in marine plankton. I. Batch cultures, *Mar. Biol.* 135 (1999) 237-
381 248.

382 [8] A. Spielmeyer, B. Gebser, G. Pohnert, Dimethylsulfide sources from microalgae: Improvement
383 and application of a derivatization-based method for the determination of

384 dimethylsulfoniopropionate and other zwitterionic osmolytes in phytoplankton, *Mar. Chem.*,
385 124 (2011) 48-56.

386 [9] A. Spielmeyer, G. Pohnert, Influence of temperature and elevated carbon dioxide on the
387 production of dimethylsulfoniopropionate and glycine betaine by marine phytoplankton, *Mar.*
388 *Environ. Res.*, 73 (2012) 62-69.

389 [10] R.P. Kiene, Uptake of choline and its conversion to glycine betaine by bacteria in estuarine
390 waters, *Appl. Environ. Microb.*, 64 1998 1045-1051.

391 [11] I. Lidbury, G. Kimberley, D.J. Scanlan, J.C. Murrell, Y. Chen, Comparative genomics and
392 mutagenesis of choline metabolism in the marine *Roseobacter* clade, *Environ. Microb.* 17
393 (2015a) 5048-5062.

394 [12] I. Lidbury, J.C. Murray, Y. Chen, Trimethylamine and trimethylamine N-oxide are
395 supplementary energy sources for a marine heterotrophic bacterium: implications for marine
396 carbon and nitrogen cycling, *ISME*, 9 (2015b) 760-769.

397 [13] C.Y. Li, X.L. Chen, X. Shao, T.D. Wei, P. Wang, B.B. Xie, Q.L. Qin, X.Y. Zhang, H.N. Su, X.Y. Song,
398 M. Shi, B.C. Zhou, Y.Z. Zhang, Mechanistic insight into Trimethylamine N-Oxide recognition by
399 the Marine Bacterium *Ruegeria pomeroyi* DSS-3, *J. Bacteriol.*, 197 (2015) 3378-3387.

400 [14] I. Lidbury, J.C. Murrell, Y. Chen, Trimethylamine N-oxide metabolism by abundant marine
401 heterotrophic bacteria, *P. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.*, 111 (2014)2710-2715.

402 [15] G.M. King, Metabolism of trimethylamine, choline and glycine betaine by sulfate-reducing
403 and methanogenic bacteria in marine sediments. *Appl. Environ. Microb.*, 48 (1984) 719-725.

404 [16] A.J. Watkins, E.G. Roussel, R.J. Parkes, H. Sass, Glycine betaine as a direct substrate for
405 methanogens (*Methanococoides spp.*), *Appl. Environ. Microb.*, 80 (2014)289-293.

406 [17] T. Ticak, D. Hariraju, M.B. Arcelay, B.A. Arivett, S.E. Fiester, D.J. Ferguson, Isolation and
407 characterization of a tetramethylammonium-degrading Methanococcoides strain and a novel
408 glycine betaine-utilizing Methanlobus strain, Arch.f Microb., 197 (2015) 197-209.

409 [18] E. Jameson, A.C. Doxey, R.L. Airs, K.J. Purdy, J.C. Murrell, Y. Chen, Metagenomic data-mining
410 of metagenomes reveals contrasting microbial populations responsible for trimethylamine
411 formation in human gut and marine ecosystems, 2016, *In review*.

412 [19] M.C. Facchini, S. Decesari, M. Rinaldi, C. Carbone, E. Finessi, M. Mircea, S. Fuzzi, F. Moretti, E.
413 Tagliavini, D. Ceburnis, C.D. O'Down, Important source of marine organic aerosol from biogenic
414 amines, Environ. Sci. Technol., 42 (2008) 9116-9121.

415 [20] J. Almeida, S. Schobesberger, A. Kürten, I.K. Ortega, O. Kupiainen-Määttä, A.P. Praplan, A.
416 Adamov, A. Amorim, F. Bianchi, M. Breitenlechner, A. David, J. Dommen, N.M. Donahue, A.
417 Downard, E.M. Dunne, J. Duplissy, S. Ehrhart, R.C. Flagan, A. Franchin, R. Gida, J. Hakala, A.
418 Hansel, M. Heinritzi, H. Henschel, T. Jokinen, H. Junninen, M. Kajos, J. Kangasluoma, H. Keskinen,
419 A. Kupc, T. Kurtén, A.N. Kvashin, A. Laaksonen, K. Lehtipalo, M. Leiminger, J. Leppä, V. Loukonen,
420 V. Makhmutov, S. Mathot, M. McGrath, T. Nieminen, T. Olenius, A. Onnela, T. Petäjä, F. Riccobono,
421 I. Riipinen, M. Rissanen, L. Rondo, T. Ruuskanen, F.D. Santos, N. Sarnela, S. Schallhart, R.
422 Schnitzhofer, J.H. Seinfeld, M. Simon, M. Sipilä, Y. Stozhkov, F. Stratmann, A. Tomé, J. Tröstl, G.
423 Tsagkogeorgas, P. Vaattovaara, A. Viisanen, A. Vrtala, P.E. Wagner, E. Weingartner, H. Wex, C.
424 Williamson, D. Wimmer, P. Ye, T. Yli-Juuti, K.S. Carslaw, M. Kulala, J. Curtius, U. Baltensperger,
425 D.R. Worsnop, H. Vehkamäki, J. Kirkby, Molecular understanding of sulphuric acid-amine
426 particle nucleation in the atmosphere, Nature 502 (2013) 359.

427 [21] F. Riccobono, S. Schobesberger, C.E. Scott, J. Dommen, I.K. Ortega, L. Rondo, J. Almeida, A.
428 Amorim, F. Bianchi, M. Breitenlechner, A. David, A. Downard, E.M. Dunne, J. Duplissy, S. Ehrhart,
429 R.C. Flagan, A. Franchin, A. Hansel, H. Junninen, M. Kajos, H. Keskinen, A. Kupc, A. Kürten, A.N.
430 Kvashin, A. Laaksonen, K. Letipalo, V. Makhmutov, S. Mathot, T. Nieminen, A. Onnela, T. Petäjä,

431 A.P. Praplan, F.D. Santos, S. Schallhart, J.H. Seinfeld, M. Sipilä, D.V. Spracklen, Y. Stozhkov, F.
432 Stratmann, A. Tomé, G. Tsagkogeorgas, P. Vaattovaara, Y. Viisanen, A. Vrtala, P.E. Wagner, E.
433 Weingartner, H. Wex, D. Wimmer, K.S. Carslaw, J. Curtius, N.M. Donahue, J. Kirkby, M. Kulmala,
434 D.R. Worsnop, U. Baltensperger, Oxidation products of biogenic emissions contribute to
435 nucleation of atmospheric particles, *Science* 344 (2014) 717.

436 [22] J. Gorham, Separation of plant betaines and their sulphur analogues by cation-exchange
437 high-performance liquid chromatography. *J. Chromatogr.*, 287 (1984) 345-351.

438 [23] R.L. Airs, S.D. Archer, Analysis of glycine betaine and choline in seawater particulates by
439 liquid chromatography/electrospray ionization / mass spectrometry. *Limnol. Oceanogr:*
440 *Methods*, 8 (2010) 499-506.

441 [24] M.E. Erupe, A. Liberman-Martin, P.J. Silva, Q.G.J. Malloy, N. Yonis, D.R. Cocker, K.L. Purvis-
442 Roberts, Determination of methylamines and trimethylamine-N-oxide in particulate matter by
443 nin-suppressed ion chromatography, *J. Chromatogr. A* 1217 (2010): 2070-2073.

444 [25] A.D. Hatton, S.W. Gibb, A technique for the determination of trimethylamine-N-oxide in
445 natural waters and biological media, *Anal. Chem.* 71 (1999) 4886-4891.

446 [26] S.W. Gibb, A.D. Hatton, The occurrence and distribution of trimethylamine-N-oxide in
447 Antarctic coastal waters, *Mar. Chem.* 91 (2004) 65-75.

448 [27] R. Charest, A. Dunn, Chromatographic separation of choline, trimethylamine,
449 trimethylamine oxide and betaine from tissues of marine fish, *Anal. Biochem.* 136 (1984) 421-
450 424.

451 [28] P.I. Holm, P.M. Ueland, G. Kvalheim, E.A. Lien, Determination of choline, betaine, and
452 dimethylglycine in plasma by a high-throughput method based on normal-phase
453 chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry, *Clin. Chem.* 49 (2003) 286-294.

454 [29] S.H. Kirsch, W. Herrmann, Y. Rabagny, R. Obeid, Quantification of acetylcholine, choline,
455 betaine and dimethylglycine in human plasma and urine using stable-isotope dilution ultra
456 performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry, *J. Chromatog. B.*, 878 (2010)
457 3338-3344.

458 [30] C.C. Lenky, C.J. McEntyre, M. Lever, Measurement of marine osmolytes in mammalian
459 serum by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry, *Anal. Biochem.* 420 (2012) 7-12.

460 [31] C. Li, R.W. Hill, A.D. Jones, Determination of betaine metabolites and
461 dimethylsuloniopropionate in coral tissues using liquid chromatography-time-of-flight mass
462 spectrometry and stable isotope-labelled internal standards, *J. Chromatog. B.*, 878 (2010) 1809-
463 1816.

464 [32] Agilent, Agilent 1200 Series High Performance Autosamplers and Micro Well Plate
465 Autosampler. Reference Manual, 2006

466 [33] J. Mocak, A.M. Bond, S. Mitchell, G. Scollary, A statistical overview of standard (IUPAC and
467 ACS) and new procedures for determining the limits of detection and quantification: Application
468 to voltammetric and stripping techniques, *Int. Union of Pure and Applied Chem.* 69 (1997) 297-
469 328.

470 [34] C. Cree, Distributions of glycine betaine and the methylamines in coastal waters: analytical
471 developments and a seasonal study, PhD Thesis, University of Plymouth, UK, 2014

472 [35] A. Spielmeier, G. pohnert, Direct quantification of dimethylsuloniopropionate (DMSP) with
473 hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry, *J. Chromatogr. B.* 878
474 (2010) 3238-3242.

475 [36] R.P Kiene, D. Slezak, Low dissolved DMSP concentrations in seawater revealed by small
476 volume gravity filtration and dialysis sampling, *Limnol. Oceanogr. Methods*, 4 (2006) 80-95.

477

478
479
480
481
482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494

Table 1: Seawater retention of glass fibre filters (GF/F) compared to polycarbonate (PC) filters

Filter material	Filter size (mm)	Mass of water retained (g)	Volume of water retained (mL)
GF/F	47	0.95	0.93
GF/F	25	0.22	0.22
Polycarbonate	47	0.11	0.11
Polycarbonate	25	0.015	0.015

$n=3$ for each filter type/size. Density of seawater used to calculate volume = 1.02 g cm^{-3} . Where GF/F represents glass microfiber filters of grade GF/F.

495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508
509
510
511
512
513

Table 2. N-osmolyte concentrations (nmol/L) in marina verses coastal seawater

	Millbay Marina nmol/L filtered sample (Sept' 2015)	Station L4 nmol/L filtered sample (Feb' 2016)
GBT	9.2 (± 0.2)	0.9
Choline	0.5	0.2
TMAO	6.9	Not Detected

Sample volume filtered in both cases was 50 mL. Method was as described in the text. Result in nmol/L is essentially the concentration of N-osmolytes extracted from cells contained within 1L sample.

514

515

516

517

518 **Figure Captions:**

519 Figure 1: Typical extracted ion chromatograms from the LC/MS analysis of a standard solution
520 containing (A) d₁₁-GBT as an internal standard (m/z 129), (B) GBT (m/z 118), (C) choline (m/z
521 104), (D) TMAO (m/z 76) and (E) TMAO dimer (m/z 151).

522 Figure 2: Linearity for (A) GBT over the range 0.007-1.3µM; (B) Choline over range 0.003-
523 0.25µM and (C) TMAO over 0.008-1.6µM. Standards all run in duplicate. Error bars denote ±1
524 standard deviation.

525 Figure 3: Effect of sea water on analyte response for (A) GBT standards of the same
526 concentration (0.07µM) but with increasing proportions of sea water in the matrix (0-8% sea
527 water) and (B) for d₁₁-GBT showing a significant negative relationship (P<0.001) between peak
528 area response and increasing percentage of sea water in the standard solution. Please refer to
529 text for LC/MS conditions.

530 Figure 4: Response of d₁₁-GBT internal standard (ISTD) in extracts of particulates from seawater
531 collected on glass fibre (GF/F) filters (25 and 47mm) and polycarbonate (PC) filters (25 and
532 47mm).

533 Figure 5: Relationship between increasing extraction volume (hence decreasing proportion sea
534 water in sample matrix) and increasing internal standard (ISTD) response. Tests were carried
535 out with 47mm GF/F filters, 10mL seawater filtered. Error bars denote 1 standard deviation.

536 Figure 6: Unwashed versus methanol washed polycarbonate, 47mm filters. (A) Extracted ion
537 chromatogram (EIC) showing typical response of m/z 223 which extracted from PC filters and
538 was observed at intensities as high as 1x10⁸, and (B) resultant full mass spectrum. (C) EIC of a

539 typical m/z 223 response following extraction of a methanol washed polycarbonate filter
540 (intensity was reduced to 1×10^6), and (D) resultant full mass spectrum.

541

542 Figure 7. Extracted ion chromatograms showing N-osmolytes in the particulate phase of marina
543 seawater (A) and seawater sampled from Station L4 (B). Internal standard d_{11} -GBT at m/z 129,
544 GBT at m/z 118, choline at m/z 104, TMAO at m/z 76 and TMAO dimer at m/z 151. Samples are
545 representative of particulate N-osmolytes from 50mL of surface marina and coastal seawater
546 collected on a 47mm, 0.2 μ m, pre-rinsed polycarbonate filter and extracted as per the method
547 detailed in main text. NB., no TMAO or TMAO dimer was detected in the sample collected at
548 Station L4 (B).