

1 **The *in situ* bacterial production of fluorescent organic matter; an investigation at a**
2 **species level.**

3 Authors

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10

11 Abstract

12 Aquatic dissolved organic matter (DOM) plays an essential role in biogeochemical cycling
13 and transport of organic matter throughout the hydrological continuum. To characterise
14 microbially-derived organic matter (OM) from common environmental microorganisms
15 (*Escherichia coli*, *Bacillus subtilis* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*), excitation-emission matrix
16 (EEM) fluorescence spectroscopy was employed. This work shows that bacterial organisms
17 can produce fluorescent organic matter (FOM) *in situ* and, furthermore, that the production of
18 FOM differs at a bacterial species level. This production can be attributed to structural
19 biological compounds, specific functional proteins (e.g. pyoverdine production by *P.*
20 *aeruginosa*), and/or metabolic by-products. Bacterial growth curve data demonstrates that
21 the production of FOM is fundamentally related to microbial metabolism. For example, the
22 majority of Peak T fluorescence (> 75%) is shown to be intracellular in origin, as a result of
23 the building of proteins for growth and metabolism. This underpins the use of Peak T as a
24 measure of microbial activity, as opposed to bacterial enumeration as has been previously

25 suggested. This study shows that different bacterial species produce a range of FOM that
26 has historically been attributed to high molecular weight allochthonous material or the
27 degradation of terrestrial FOM. We provide definitive evidence that, in fact, it can be
28 produced by microbes within a model system (autochthonous), providing new insights into
29 the possible origin of allochthonous and autochthonous organic material present in aquatic
30 systems.

31

32 Highlights

- 33 • Peak T fluorescence is a proxy for microbial activity rather than enumeration.
- 34 • Peak T is mainly intracellular material but does exist as extracellular FDOM.
- 35 • FOM associated with high molecular weight compounds can be autochthonous in origin.
- 36 • A range of FOM peaks are derived from both allochthonous and autochthonous sources.
- 37 • Extracellular microbial FDOM is a key source of organic matter in aquatic systems.

38

39 Keywords

40 Dissolved organic matter; *In situ* microbial processing; Excitation-Emission Matrix
41 fluorescence spectroscopy; Fluorescent organic matter; Autochthonous; Allochthonous

42

43 Abbreviations

44 OM – organic matter; DOM – dissolved organic matter; EEM – excitation-emission matrix;
45 FOM – fluorescent organic matter; FDOM – fluorescent dissolved organic matter; QSU –
46 quinine sulphate units; PARAFAC – parallel factor analysis; OD – optical density; *E. coli* –
47 *Escherichia coli*; *B. subtilis* – *Bacillus subtilis*; *P. aeruginosa* – *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

48 1 Introduction

49 Dissolved organic matter (DOM) in aquatic systems plays an essential role in global
50 biogeochemical cycling (Bieroza and Heathwaite, 2016; Hudson et al., 2007). It is generally
51 accepted that the majority of DOM found in freshwaters is allochthonous, with a proportion of
52 the DOM considered to be produced *in situ*, i.e. autochthonous material (Coble et al., 2014).
53 Fluorescence excitation-emission matrix (EEM) spectroscopy has been increasingly
54 employed in recent research to characterise aquatic fluorescent organic matter (FOM) and
55 fluorescent dissolved organic matter (FDOM) (Baker, 2005; Bridgeman et al., 2015). The use
56 of this technique has advanced our understanding of FDOM, its classification, transformation
57 and potential origin (Hudson et al., 2007; Stedmon and Bro, 2008).

58 Aquatic FDOM has been characterised as consisting of humic-like material considered to be
59 of allochthonous origin of terrestrial input (Coble et al., 2014). The compounds associated
60 with terrestrially derived FDOM are known to be stable higher molecular weight aromatic
61 compounds, generally considered non-labile (Cooper et al., 2016). However, recent work
62 concerning the marine environment has suggested that humic-like FDOM could be a
63 consequence of bacterial metabolism (Guillemette and del Giorgio, 2012; Kramer and
64 Herndl, 2004; Romera-Castillo et al., 2011; Shimotori et al., 2012). Recent findings by
65 Kallenbach et al. (2016) have shown the production of extracellular humic material by
66 bacteria within soil organic matter. There is no direct evidence that the production of humic-
67 like FDOM in freshwaters is the result of bacterial processing. However, Elliott et al. (2006)
68 attributed the presence of this FOM in laboratory samples to stress as opposed to a function
69 that may inherently occur within aquatic systems. What is clear from the literature is that a
70 more detailed understanding of microbial/OM interactions in freshwater systems is needed.

71 Autochthonous and allochthonous FDOM can be associated with protein-like fluorescence
72 ($\lambda_{\text{ex}}/\lambda_{\text{em}}$ 230-280/330-360 nm) specifically referred to as Peak T, $\lambda_{\text{ex}}/\lambda_{\text{em}}$ 275/340 nm,
73 (tryptophan-like) and Peak A_T, $\lambda_{\text{ex}}/\lambda_{\text{em}}$ 230/305 nm, (tyrosine-like) (Coble et al., 2014). This

74 protein-like FDOM is attributed and assumed to be of microbial origin (Cammack et al.,
75 2004; Coble et al., 2014; Hambly et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2004). Recent literature suggests
76 that Peak T fluorescence may act as a surrogate for microbial and bacterial activity (Baker et
77 al., 2015; Cumberland et al., 2012), as first highlighted by Hudson et al. (2008). Recent
78 surface freshwater research has also attempted to use Peak T fluorescence to determine
79 enumeration of specific species. For example, Baker et al. (2015) observed a log correlation
80 $R = 0.74$ across a 7-log range in *Escherichia coli* enumeration for sewage impacted rivers.
81 Using Peak T fluorescence to infer microbial enumeration, and activity, has been further
82 suggested for groundwater systems, where there is little background fluorescence
83 interference (Sorensen et al., 2016, 2015). Sorensen et al. (2015) investigated low levels of
84 microbial contamination in drinking water supplies, reporting linear correlations, $R^2 = 0.57$
85 from < 2 to $700 \text{ cfu } 100 \text{ ml}^{-1}$. Although relationships have been demonstrated for protein-like
86 fluorescence and the presence of bacteria in freshwater systems, the research reported thus
87 far does not take into account the implication and impact of microbial activity at an individual
88 species level.

89 The study aim was to further our understanding of the role aquatic microbes play in the
90 production of both protein-like and humic-like FOM in freshwaters. For this, we focus on the
91 development of FOM in a model system using a simplified microbial community, thus
92 removing the background complexities observed in environmental samples. Using this
93 approach, we also determine the intracellular and extracellular fluorescence signatures of
94 common freshwater bacterial species.

95 2 Methods

96 2.1 Bacterial species

97 Three bacterial species were cultured for analysis; *Escherichia coli* (ATCC 10536) was used
98 as its presence in freshwaters can indicate sewage contamination (Sigee, 2004); *Bacillus*
99 *subtilis* (ATCC 6633) was used as it is a ubiquitous soil bacterium (Graumann, 2007) that
100 may be transferred into freshwater systems; and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (NCIMB 8295)
101 as it is ubiquitous in freshwater systems (Elliott et al., 2006; Sigee, 2004).

102

103 2.2 Media

104 A non-fluorescent minimal media was developed to promote growth within our model system
105 whilst excluding the presence of proteinaceous material. The basal medium consisted of a
106 final concentration of 0.2% v/v glucose solution, as the sole carbon source, and a solution
107 containing a source of phosphate, nitrogen, sodium and magnesium. The basal medium was
108 adopted from the ATCC® medium 778 Davis and Mingioli minimal medium (Davis and
109 Mingioli, 1950), but without the addition of amino acids and agar. All elements of the basal
110 medium were filter sterilised using a Minisart® 0.2 µm cellulose filter (Sartorius Stedim
111 Biotech, Germany). CaCl₂ (final concentration 0.035% v/v) and a trace element solution
112 (final concentration 0.1% v/v), obtained from Kragelund and Nybroe (1994), were added to
113 the sterile basal medium prior to inoculation. These chemicals were sterilised by autoclaving
114 at 121°C for 15 minutes.

115

116 2.3 Fluorescence measurements

117 Fluorescence excitation-emission matrices (EEMs) were collected using an Aqualog ®
118 (Horiba Ltd., Japan). Samples were not filtered prior to fluorescence spectroscopic analysis

119 (except for bacterial supernatant samples, section 2.6). The scan parameters employed
120 were; excitation wavelengths from 200 to 500 nm via 1 nm steps, and emission wavelengths
121 of 247.88 to 829.85 nm in 1.16 nm steps using an integration time of 500 milliseconds. A
122 micro quartz cuvette (1400 μ L) with a 10 mm path-length was used throughout. Spectra
123 were blank subtracted, corrected for inner filter effects (for both excitation and emission
124 wavelengths) and first and second order Rayleigh Scattering masked (± 10 nm at $\lambda_{ex}=\lambda_{em}$ and
125 $2\lambda_{ex}=\lambda_{em}$) (Coble et al., 2014; McKnight et al., 2001). Fluorescence data is reported in
126 quinine sulphate units (QSU), determined from normalising data to the fluorescence from 1
127 μ g L⁻¹ quinine sulphate at $\lambda_{ex} = 347.5$ nm and $\lambda_{em} = 450$ nm (Kramer and Herndl, 2004;
128 Mostofa et al., 2013; Shimotori et al., 2012, 2009). Instrument validation was undertaken
129 daily with a quinine sulphate standard (Starna Cells, USA), with CV being < 3% (n = 5) in all
130 events.

131

132 2.4 Fluorescence data analysis

133 A custom script, written in PythonTM (Python Software Foundation), was used to convert the
134 data into QSU and create the EEM maps. The script crops the data window to λ_{ex} 240-490
135 nm, λ_{em} 250-550 nm to allow for the analysis of the UV spectra, the area of interest within
136 FDOM work. Data $\lambda_{ex} < 240$ nm was discounted due to the data quality produced by the
137 Aqualog[®] caused by the signal to noise ratio. The custom script was then used to undertake
138 peak picking for specific fluorescence peaks. Some of the peak picked data was normalised
139 to the maxima to provide a clear visual representation of the fluorescence development over
140 time. The EEM data was also investigated by employing parallel factor (PARAFAC) analysis
141 (Stedmon and Bro, 2008) in Solo (Eigenvector Research Inc., WA, USA) software, in
142 conjunction with the MATLAB[®] PLS-Toolbox (Mathworks, USA).

143

144 2.5 Bacterial growth curves

145 Growth curves (n = 9 i.e. nine independent replicates) of each bacterial species were
146 undertaken by inoculating 150 mL of the sterile medium (section 2.2) from a fresh overnight
147 plate culture (< 24 hours) and incubating the samples at 37°C, shaking at 150 rpm. Aliquots
148 were collected every 30 minutes for fluorescence measurements (section 2.3) and optical
149 density (OD) measurements at 600 nm (WPA Spectrawave S1200, Biochrom, UK); OD,
150 attenuation determined by absorbance and scattering, is routinely used to represent the
151 relative increase in cell numbers within a sample when monitoring bacterial growth (Hall et
152 al., 2014). OD data was also normalised to the maxima.

153

154 2.6 Bacterial culture analysis

155 Media was inoculated, from a fresh overnight plate culture (< 24 hours), with each of the
156 bacterial species and incubated overnight at 37°C, shaking at 150 rpm throughout.
157 Overnight cultures were centrifuged at 5000 x g for 5 minutes (Allegra X-30R, Beckman
158 Coulter™, USA) to form a bacterial pellet. The supernatant was pipetted off and filtered
159 using a Minisart® 0.2 µm cellulose filter (Sartorius Stedim Biotech, Germany) to guarantee
160 all cells were removed. The pellet was resuspended and washed 3 times in 5 mL of ¼
161 strength Ringer solution (Oxoid Ltd., UK) to ensure that any supernatant or media was no
162 longer present. To physically lyse the cells, a 1 mL aliquot of the resuspended cells was
163 sonicated (Ultrasonic Processor XL 2020, Misonix Inc., US) in three 10 second pulses at a
164 fixed frequency of 20 KHz, not exceeding 40% amplitude, and kept over ice throughout
165 (Doron, 2009). Physical lysis was undertaken to ensure no extra chemicals were added to
166 the cells that may alter the fluorescence properties of the sample (nine independent
167 replicates). An endospore suspension for *B. subtilis* was prepared as described by Lawrence
168 and Palombo (2009). To check for the presence of endospores and the removal of

169 vegetative cells, an endospore stain was conducted using the Schaeffer-Fulton method
170 (Schaeffer and Fulton, 1933).

171 3 Results and Discussion

172 Filtering of samples was not performed prior to spectroscopic analysis to maintain sample
173 integrity (Baker et al., 2007), since the focus of this study is on *in situ* bacterial production of
174 FOM in a model system. Each individual bacterial species exhibited unique fluorescing
175 signatures. Some FOM, specifically Peak T, was dominant in all samples exhibiting high
176 fluorescence intensities. This limited the application of PARAFAC analysis, whereby no
177 robust model, CORCONDIA >90% (Bro and Kiers, 2003), that adequately explained the
178 dataset could be identified. Subsequently, peak picking (Asmala et al., 2016), an established
179 method for spectral analysis, was applied to peaks identified within the EEMs.

180

181 3.1 Bacterial growth curves

182 3.1.1 *Escherichia coli*

183 The *E. coli* growth curve is shown in Figure 1, whereby Peak T is the dominant fluorescence
184 peak and is present at time zero, upon initial addition of the *E. coli* cells (Dartnell et al., 2013;
185 Sohn et al., 2009). During the growth curve, the intensity of Peak T increases in line with the
186 optical density (OD) of the sample (Figure 1). During the exponential stage (growth phase
187 after acclimatisation; Hogg, 2005) there is a log increase in the intensity of Peak T
188 fluorescence. This, alongside the increase in OD, leads to a significant strong correlation
189 between Peak T and OD, $R^2 = 0.9821$ ($p < 0.001$). This suggests that Peak T fluorescence
190 intensity can be attributed to an increase in *E. coli* population size, in accordance with
191 previous studies (Baker et al., 2015; Cumberland et al., 2012; Dartnell et al., 2013; Deepa
192 and Ganesh, 2017; Sohn et al., 2009). However, as tryptophan is an essential amino acid,
193 necessary for protein formation during growth and other metabolic pathways, it will be
194 produced as a result of cell multiplication and metabolic processing (Coble et al., 2014;
195 Hogg, 2005). As such, Peak T fluorescence can also be attributed to *E. coli* cell activity.

196 Figure 1 shows that Peak C also develops during the exponential phase of the growth curve,
197 exhibiting a lag in relation to the OD. The intensity of Peak C continues to increase even
198 during stationary phase, in which cell deaths are equal to newly formed cells (Elliott et al.,
199 2006; Hogg, 2005). Nevertheless a positive correlation between OD and Peak C
200 fluorescence intensity is identified, $R^2 = 0.8624$ ($p < 0.001$), supporting the association of
201 Peak C with bacterial numbers. However, the observed lag in conjunction with the continued
202 increase in fluorescence intensity during the stationary phase strongly supports the idea that
203 metabolic activity, and not bacterial numbers *per se*, may be the main driver for the creation
204 and production of Peak C fluorophores. Notably, the observed maximum fluorescence
205 intensity of Peak C is a factor of 10 lower than Peak T (Figure 1a). It can, therefore, be
206 suggested that Peak C may be derived as a metabolic by-product or a secondary metabolite
207 produced mainly during the stationary phase (Figure 1b). Peak X (Table 1) is only present
208 within the stationary phase, albeit at comparatively low fluorescence intensities (~ 30 QSU).
209 The microbial production of Peaks C and X demonstrates the ability of *E. coli* to rapidly
210 produce (within eight hours), *in situ*, FOM associated with allochthonous high molecular
211 weight FOM.

212

213 3.1.2 *Bacillus subtilis*

214 Figure 2 highlights Peak T as the dominant fluorescence peak within the *B. subtilis* growth
215 curve. Peak T intensity increases by an order of magnitude throughout the growth curve, in
216 line with the increased OD (Figure 2), demonstrating a strong significant correlation, $R^2 =$
217 0.9879 ($p < 0.005$). However, as Peak T fluorescence intensity increases during what
218 appears to be early stationary phase (Figure 2), it could be suggested that these
219 fluorophores are produced by metabolically active cells. This emphasises the use of Peak T
220 as an indicator of microbial activity rather than being attributed to cell enumeration, despite
221 the significant correlation identified. The production of Peak T within the stationary phase

222 (Figure 2) could also be related to *B. subtilis* sporulation, demonstrated by the high intensity
223 Peak T fluorescence obtained bacterial endospores analysed alone (Figure 3). This
224 suggests that some of the fluorophores attributable to Peak T fluorescence are related to
225 structural proteins since endospores are not metabolically active, although this is species
226 specific.

227 Within the *B. subtilis* growth curve, Peak C demonstrates a sudden rise, at 360 minutes,
228 prior to OD and Peak T development (Figure 2), with a strong positive correlation between
229 Peak C fluorescence intensity and the OD being identified, $R^2 = 0.9465$ ($p < 0.005$). This
230 further challenges our current understanding of Peak C being attributed to terrestrial
231 allochthonous material (Coble et al., 2014). Smith et al. (2004) suggested that the Peak C
232 fluorescence, identified in the presence of *Bacillus sp.*, may be related to the fluorescence of
233 endospores. However, Figure 3 demonstrates the endospore suspension obtained from *B.*
234 *subtilis* within our study as having high Peak T, and low Peak C, fluorescence intensity.

235 Florescence Peaks M and A_M are produced and observed at very low intensities within the
236 early stationary phase of the growth curve. A possible explanation of this observation is the
237 result of the biodegradation of OM responsible for Peak C fluorescence, a process that has
238 been noted in the literature (Coble et al., 2014). Alternatively, this could indicate that Peaks
239 M and A_M can be produced directly, *in situ*, by bacteria, as has been suggested to occur
240 within marine environments (Coble, 1996; Shimotori et al., 2009).

241

242 3.1.3 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

243 Peak T is ubiquitous within the *P. aeruginosa* growth curve (Figure 4), increasing by an order
244 of magnitude within the exponential phase. A relatively weaker correlation, $R^2 = 0.7601$ ($p <$
245 0.005), is identified between Peak T and the OD, likely to be caused by the upregulation of
246 Peak T independent of cell number which can be seen at 330 minutes, in the late

247 exponential, early stationary phase (Figure 4). Prior to this, the Peak T fluorescence
248 development tracks the OD ($R^2 = 0.9674$, $p < 0.05$). One possible explanation for this
249 sudden increase in Peak T fluorescence intensity is the production of exotoxin A; exotoxin A
250 is an iron-scavenging enzyme that is produced by *P. aeruginosa* upon entry into stationary
251 phase (Lory, 1986; Somerville et al., 1999). Previous studies have shown how Exotoxin A
252 can be used to determine protein activity, by assessing tryptophan (Peak T) fluorescence
253 quenching upon binding of NAD⁺ to the enzyme active site (Beattie and Merrill, 1999, 1996;
254 Beattie et al., 1996). Therefore, the observed subsequent sudden decline in Peak T
255 fluorescence intensity at 450 minutes may be as a result of this quenching phenomena
256 (Figure 4).

257 *P. aeruginosa* has the most complex EEM spectra of the species analysed within this study
258 (Dartnell et al., 2013; Elliott et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2004), with Peaks T, C and A_C all
259 immediately identified upon inoculation and during the lag phase (a period of acclimatisation;
260 Hogg, 2005). The occurrence of Peaks C and A_C at inoculation suggests it is likely that this
261 FDOM is intracellular and produced within the cells during the initial overnight incubation;
262 likely to be structural or functional proteins produced via microbial metabolic pathways, or
263 potentially intracellular metabolic by-products. These peaks increase log-fold throughout the
264 growth curve, with both Peaks C and A_C being correlated with, despite a lag in relation to, the
265 OD; $R^2 = 0.7024$ ($p < 0.005$) and $R^2 = 0.7146$ ($p < 0.005$) respectively. The data indicates
266 upregulation of these peaks during late exponential phase and stationary phase, suggesting
267 that these peaks are a result of metabolic activity.

268 Peak C+ develops rapidly and to a high intensity during the stationary phase of *P.*
269 *aeruginosa* growth (Figure 4) and this fluorescent peak is associated with the siderophore
270 pyoverdine (Dartnell et al., 2013; Wasserman, 1965). Pyoverdine is an extracellular iron-
271 scavenging metabolite produced by *P. aeruginosa* and is associated with microbial virulence
272 (da Silva and de Almeida, 2006). The fluorescence intensity of this high molecular weight
273 OM within the *P. aeruginosa* growth curve, suggests that this Peak C+ fluorescence could

274 be derived from the building and exporting of pyoverdine. Peak C+ has been seen in
275 freshwater environments and is currently attributed to terrestrial allochthonous OM.
276 However, our work proves that microbial compounds produced *in situ* (akin to autochthonous
277 material) may contribute to this Peak C+ fluorescence. As such, Peak C+ may act as a
278 biomarker for an active *P. aeruginosa* community, although further investigation within
279 natural environmental systems is required.

280

281 3.2 Overnight culturing of bacterial species

282 From the microbial growth curve data it has been shown that all the fluorescence peaks
283 identified (Table 1) are microbially produced *in situ*, with variations in peak occurrence
284 between bacterial species. To further investigate the microbial source and origin of the OM,
285 overnight cultures of each species were analysed to determine the presence of FDOM in the
286 supernatant, OM within resuspended cells and lysed cells (see section 2.6). This provides a
287 preliminary understanding of where the observed fluorescence is located post FOM
288 production.

289 Peak T fluorescence is the only ubiquitous fluorescence peak common to all bacterial
290 species cultured overnight (Table 2). This shows that the intensity of Peak T alone cannot be
291 used to determine bacterial enumeration, especially in systems with complex microbial
292 communities, but supports its use as a measure of microbial activity. The highest intensity
293 for Peak T fluorescence is seen within the resuspended and lysed cells, suggesting that the
294 majority of this material is intracellular, either as structural or functional biological molecules.
295 This explains the presence of Peak T upon inoculation and the increase in intensity with cell
296 multiplication (section 3.1). However, the presence of Peak T in the supernatant also
297 indicates that some of this fluorescence signal is derived from extracellular FDOM, although
298 the amount is species specific, varying from 5-25%. This material is possibly associated with

299 metabolic by-products or extracellular proteins (many of which may be functional) that have
300 been exported from the cells.

301 Peak C fluorescence was observed in both the supernatant and cell lysis fractions for *E. coli*
302 and *B. subtilis* (shown in Table 2). Within the supernatant fraction, this can be attributed to
303 either (1) material exported out of the cell (either functional proteins or metabolic by-
304 products) or (2) cellular debris as a result of cell lysis during growth (prior to sampling).
305 However, Peak C fluorescence may also be derived from compounds that fluoresce when
306 not bound within a cell where the fluorescence signal is quenched or inhibited. Peak C is
307 present in all elements of the *P. aeruginosa* culture, indicating that for this species this FOM
308 is likely to be a functional protein that can be exported to become extracellular DOM.
309 Collectively, this data indicates that the fluorophores that give rise to Peak C fluorescence
310 may be derived from either cell lysis (Elliott et al., 2006) or attributed to microbial metabolic
311 by-products or extracellular proteins (Guillemette and del Giorgio, 2012; Shimotori et al.,
312 2009).

313 Peak A_C is also seen in all fractions of the *P. aeruginosa* culture and in the *E. coli*
314 supernatant. This suggests that this FOM may be a function of a particular biological
315 molecule(s) common to both *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli*. Peak C⁺ was also observed in the *E.*
316 *coli* supernatant, but at far lower levels compared to *P. aeruginosa*. The high fluorescence
317 intensity of Peak C⁺ in all elements of the *P. aeruginosa* culture, and the association of this
318 peak with pyoverdine (section 3.1), demonstrates the possible intracellular production and
319 extracellular output of this FOM. Peak M is also observed within all fractions of the *P.*
320 *aeruginosa* culture, but is only present in the *B. subtilis* supernatant. This suggests it may
321 have a similar species specific function like Peak A_C, or be derived via the biodegradation of
322 Peak C (Coble, 1996; Coble et al., 2014). As the fluorophores attributed to these peaks (T,
323 C, A_C, C⁺ and M) can be exported from cells and are identified in cells, lysed cell material
324 and supernatant, they are unlikely to represent cellular structural material. Whilst Peak M is
325 identified in relation to both *B. subtilis* and *P. aeruginosa*, Peak A_M is only observed in the

326 supernatant of *P. aeruginosa*, although these peaks have been seen to occur
327 simultaneously in the environment (Coble et al., 2014). Therefore, Peak A_M could be
328 attributed to either species specific proteins or bacterial metabolic by-products. From this,
329 Peaks M and A_M must be considered separately as they are likely derived from different
330 fluorophores.

331 Although noted in previous life science research (Smith et al., 2004), Peak X (Table 1) has
332 not yet been reported or characterised in aquatic FDOM. However, it is identified at low
333 fluorescence intensities in the supernatant for all species analysed within this study (Table
334 2). Based on our current understanding of fluorophore structures (Lakowicz, 2006), it is likely
335 that this peak is derived from high molecular weight compounds (characterised as humic and
336 fulvic acids), that would usually be attributed to terrestrial allochthonous material in the
337 environment. Nevertheless, as it is only seen in the supernatant it is likely to be secreted
338 from the cells and not related to cellular structure.

339

340 3.3 Future work

341 The protein-like fluorescence region has been the focus for research investigating
342 microbially-derived, autochthonous dissolved organic matter. The data from this study
343 furthers our current understanding of bacteria-OM interactions and highlights the importance
344 of metabolic activity and bacterial population growth for driving the dynamics of microbially
345 produced FOM and FDOM, albeit within a model system. Furthermore the bacterially derived
346 FOM, exhibits the same fluorescent features as DOM observed in natural systems which has
347 previously been attributed as being allochthonous in origin. This work raises questions
348 regarding the extent to which bacterially produced FOM occurs in freshwater systems and
349 the role that any production plays in the biogeochemical cycling throughout the hydrological
350 continuum. Finally, further work should also explore the metabolic pathways responsible for

351 the microbial production and transformation of FOM and FDOM, including optical regions
352 that are limited by the instrumentation used in this study (e.g. λ_{ex} 200-240 nm).

353 4 Conclusions

- 354 • Peak T fluorescence correlates strongly with an increasing bacterial population, but is
355 dependent on microbial metabolic activity. As such, we suggest Peak T as a proxy
356 for microbial activity rather than enumeration.
- 357 • This work provides direct evidence that Peak T fluorescence is ubiquitous within the
358 bacterial cells analysed within this study. It is mainly identified as intracellular
359 material but also exists as extracellular FDOM.
- 360 • Peak C is produced *in situ* during the exponential stage of bacterial growth curves,
361 likely to be produced via microbial metabolic pathways during microbial growth, or
362 derived from metabolic by-products.
- 363 • FOM peaks can be partially attributed to microbial metabolic processing, through the
364 production of biological molecules, some of which is exported from the cell. These
365 FOM peaks include regions that are currently associated with allochthonous high
366 molecular weight compounds, categorised as humic and fulvic acids.
- 367 • FOM production varies between bacterial species, with this work providing definitive
368 evidence that freshwater FOM can be produced by microbes *in situ*. It can therefore
369 be of autochthonous origin, altering and enhancing our understanding regarding the
370 complexity of environmental OM origin.
- 371 • Extracellular organic matter contributes to FDOM and, as such, is available as an
372 organic matter source for microorganisms, playing an essential role in nutrient
373 exchange and global carbon cycling.

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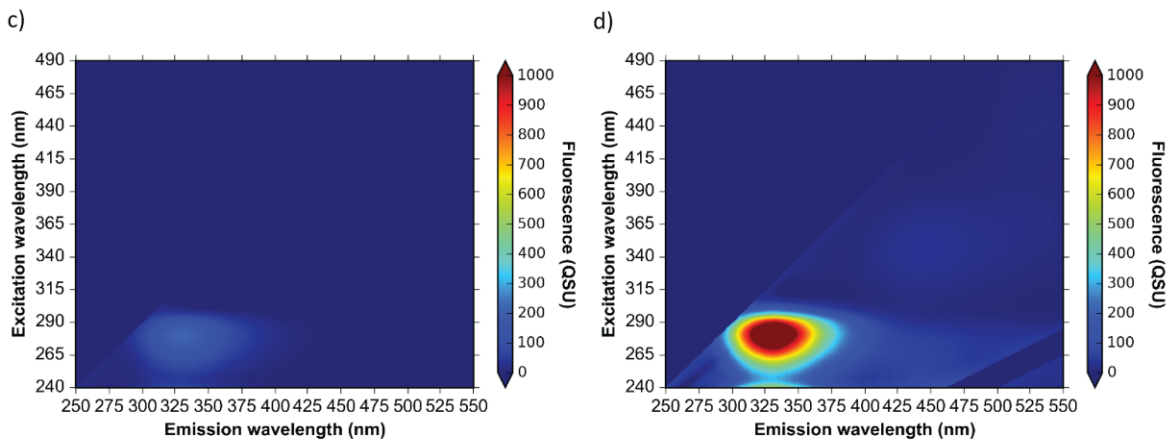
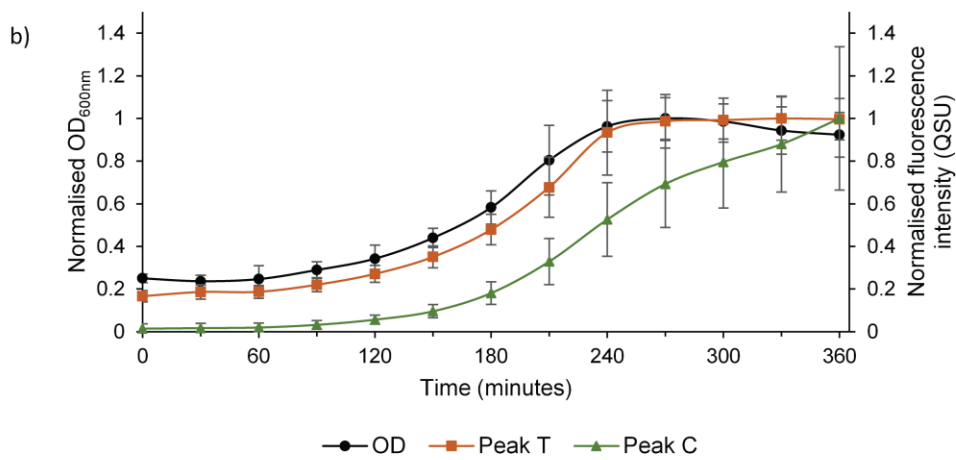
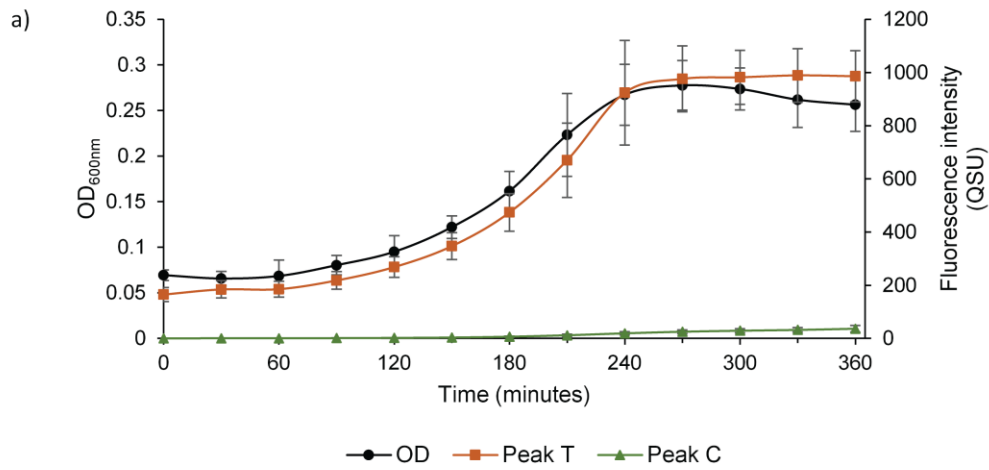


Figure 1: Fluorescence and optical density (OD_{600nm}) data for *Escherichia coli* growth curve, showing: a) optical density and fluorescence (QSU, 1 QSU = $1 \mu g^{-1}$ quinine sulphate) ± 1 standard deviation (n = 9); b) optical density and fluorescence data normalised to the maximum value ± 1 standard deviation (n = 9); c) excitation-emission matrix at time zero; and d) excitation-emission matrix at 360 minutes.

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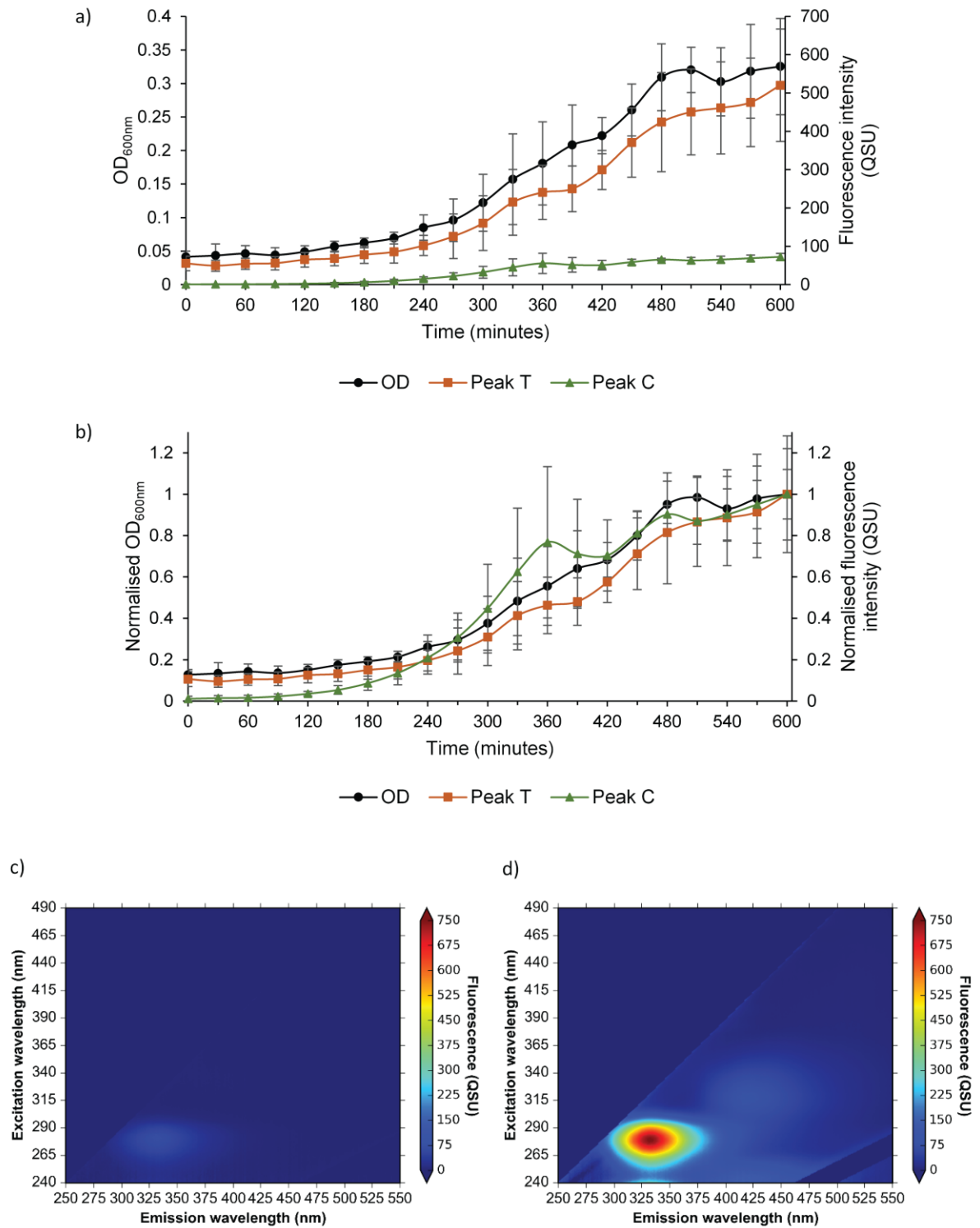


Figure 2: Fluorescence and optical density (OD_{600nm}) data for *Bacillus subtilis* growth curve, showing:

a) optical density and fluorescence (QSU, 1 QSU = 1 μg⁻¹ quinine sulphate) ± 1 standard deviation (n = 9);

b) optical density and fluorescence data normalised to the maximum value ± 1 standard deviation (n = 9);

c) excitation-emission matrix at time zero; and d) excitation-emission matrix at 360 minutes.

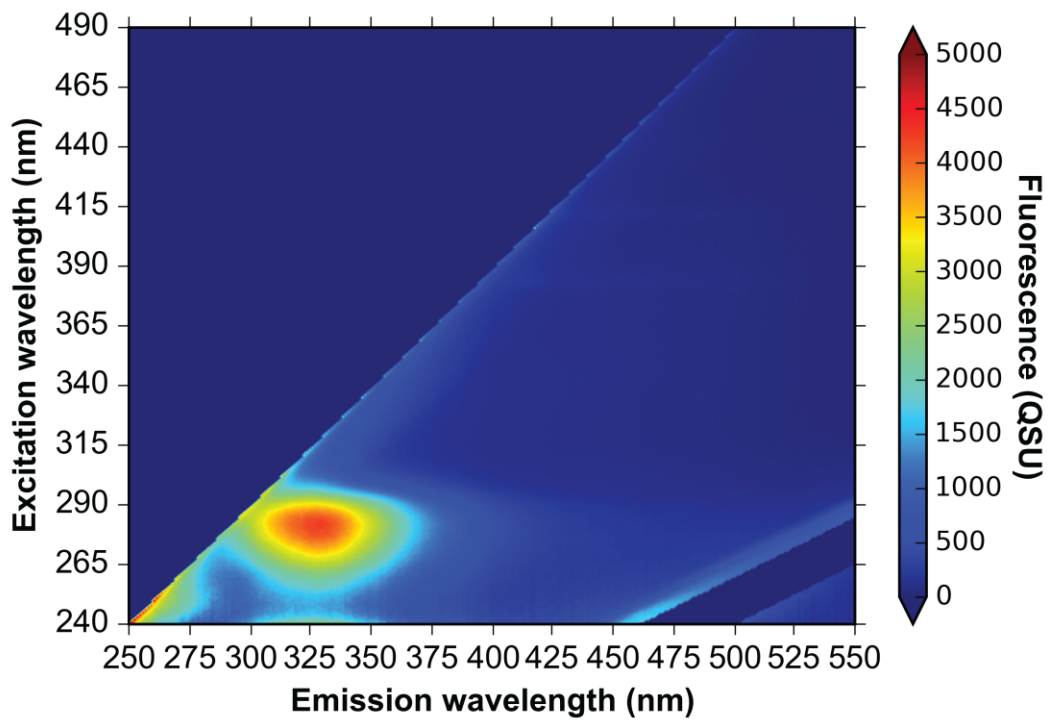


Figure 3: Fluorescence excitation-emission matrix of *Bacillus subtilis* endospores

517 (QSU, 1 QSU = 1 μg^{-1} quinine sulphate).

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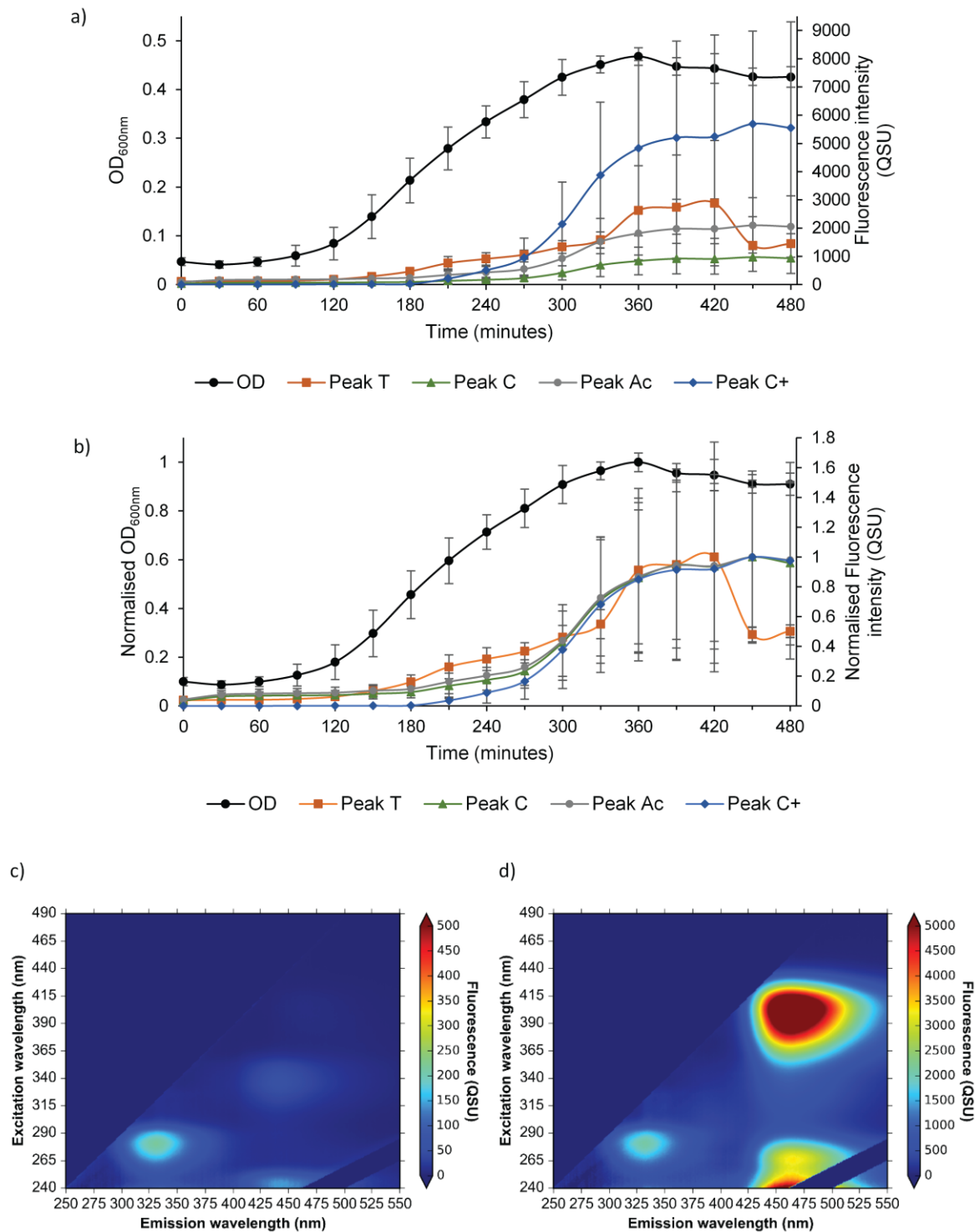


Figure 4: Fluorescence and optical density (OD_{600nm}) data for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* growth curve, showing: a) optical density and fluorescence (QSU, 1 QSU = $1 \mu g^{-1}$ quinine sulphate) ± 1 standard deviation ($n = 9$); b) optical density and fluorescence data normalised to the maximum value ± 1 standard deviation ($n = 9$); c) excitation-emission matrix at time zero; and d) excitation-emission matrix at 360 minutes.