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1 Distributions of geohopanoids in peat: implications for the use of

2 hopanoid-based proxies in natural archives

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25 Abstract

Hopanoids are pentacyclic triterpenoids produced by a wide range of bacteria. Within 26 27 modern settings, hopenoids mostly occur in the biological 17β , 21β (H) configuration. 28 However, in some modern peatlands, the C₃₁ hopane is present as the 'thermally-29 mature' 17α , 21β (H) stereoisomer. This has traditionally been ascribed to 30 isomerisation at the C-17 position catalysed by the acidic environment. However, 31 recent work has argued that temperature and/or hydrology also exert a control upon hopane isomerisation. Such findings complicate the application of geohopanoids as 32 palaeoenvironmental proxies. However, due to the small number of peats that have 33 34 been studied, as well as the lack of peatland diversity sampled, the environmental controls regulating geohopanoid isomerisation remain poorly constrained. Here, we 35 36 undertake a global approach to investigate the occurrence, distribution and diagenesis of geohopanoids within peat, combining previously published and newly 37 generated data (n = 395) from peatlands with a wide temperature (-1 to 27° C) and 38 39 pH (3 to 8) range. Our results indicate that peats are characterised by a wide range 40 of geohopanoids. However, the C₃₁ hopane and C₃₂ hopanoic acid (and occasionally the C₃₂ hopanol) typically dominate. C₃₂ hopanoic acids occur as $\alpha\beta$ - and $\beta\beta$ -41 42 stereoisomers, with the ßß-isomer typically dominating. In contrast, C₃₁ hopanes occur predominantly as the $\alpha\beta$ -stereoisomer. These two observations collectively 43 44 suggest that isomerisation is not inherited from an original biological precursor (i.e. biohopanoids). Using geohopanoid $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices, we demonstrate that the 45 46 abundance of $\alpha\beta$ -hopanoids is strongly influenced by the acidic environment, and we 47 observe a significant positive correlation between C₃₁ hopane isomerisation and pH $(n = 94, r^2 = 0.64, p < 0.001)$. Crucially, there is no correlation between C₃₁ hopane 48 isomerisation and temperature. We therefore conclude that within peats, $\alpha\beta$ -49 50 hopanoids are acid-catalysed diagenetic products and their occurrence at shallow

51	depths indicates that this isomerisation is rapid. This shows that geohopanoid
52	$\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices can be used to reconstruct pH within modern and ancient peat-
53	forming environments. However, we only recommend using $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices to
54	interrogate large amplitude (> 1 pH unit) and longer-term (> 1 kyr) variation. Overall,
55	our findings demonstrate the potential of geohopanoids to provide unique new
56	insights into understanding depositional environments and interpreting terrestrial
57	organic matter sources in the geological record.
58	
59	Highlights:
60	Peats are characterised by a wide range of geohopanoids
61	C ₃₂ hopanoic acids and C ₃₁ hopanes usually dominate the geohopanoid
62	assemblage
63	Diagenesis and isomerisation of geohopanoids occurs rapidly
64	Hopane stereochemistry is strongly influenced by the acidic environment
65	Geohopanoids may be a useful proxy for assessing relative changes in pH
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67	Keywords: bacteria, hopanoids, peat, lignite, diagenesis, isomerisation
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77 **1** Introduction

Biohopanoids are pentacyclic triterpenoids produced by a wide range of bacteria 78 79 (Pearson et al., 2007; Rohmer et al., 1984) and appear to perform a regulating and 80 rigidifying function similar to sterols in eukaryotes (Kannenberg and Poralla, 1999; 81 Sáenz et al., 2015). These compounds can be subdivided into two groups: simple 82 hopanoids with a C₃₀ ring system (e.g. diploptene/diplopterol) and complex 83 hopanoids with an additional polyfunctionalised side chain (i.e. bacteriohopanepolyols (BHPs)). The latter can be unique markers for specific 84 bacteria (Talbot and Farrimond, 2007) or certain environmental conditions (Bradley 85 86 et al., 2010) and have been used to profile the bacterial community in terrestrial settings (Höfle et al., 2015; Talbot et al., 2016b). However, due to their 87 polyfunctionalised side chain, BHPs are typically only preserved over relatively 88 recent timescales (e.g. < 5 million years; Ma) (Handley et al., 2010; Schefuß et al., 89 90 2016; Talbot et al., 2014; Talbot et al., 2016b; Spencer-Jones et al., 2014; 2017) and 91 their occurrence in much older sediments (e.g. the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal 92 Maximum; 56 Ma) remains ambiguous (Talbot et al., 2016a). 93 Instead, reconstructions of the ancient bacterial community are more commonly 94 based upon the abundance (Pancost et al., 2003), distribution (Birgel et al., 2006) and/or stable carbon isotopic composition (Inglis et al., 2015; Pancost et al., 2007) of 95 their degradation products (i.e. geohopanoids). In sediments, with increasing 96 diagenesis, geohopanoids undergo stereochemical transformations and the 97 98 biologically-derived 17β , 21β (H)-hopanoid is transformed into the more thermally 99 stable 17β , 21α (H) and 17α , 21β (H)-stereoisomers (Mackenzie et al., 1980; Peters 100 and Moldowan, 1991). With increasing maturation, extended hopanoids ($>C_{30}$) also 101 undergo isomerisation at the C-22 position. Such changes have been widely used to 102 reconstruct the thermal history of sediments (Farrimond et al., 1998; Mackenzie et

al., 1980; Peters and Moldowan, 1991; Seifert and Moldowan, 1980), where decreasing $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices and increasing 22S/(22R+22S) values indicate increasing thermal maturity.

106 However, whilst geohopanoids in modern sediments typically occur in the 107 biological 17β , 21β (H) configuration, in some modern peatlands the 'thermally 108 mature' C₃₁ 17 α ,21 β (H)-homohopane (C₃₁ $\alpha\beta$ hopane, hereafter) dominates over the 109 biological 17β.21β(H) isomer (Dehmer, 1993; Pancost et al., 2003; Quirk et al., 1984; 110 Rohmer et al., 1984; Zhang et al., 2009). The predominance of the C₃₁ $\alpha\beta$ hopane in 111 recent peat deposits which have not undergone thermal maturation could result from 112 the direct input of $\alpha\beta$ hopanoids by indigenous bacteria (Rosa-Putra et al., 2001). Alternatively, it could derive from oxidation and decarboxylation reactions of BHPs 113 114 followed by isomerization at the C-17 position catalysed by the acidic environment (Pancost et al., 2003; Ries-Kautt and Albrecht, 1989). More recently, Huang et al. 115 116 (2015) have argued that temperature and hydrology exert a control upon the 117 formation of the C₃₁ $\alpha\beta$ hopane and it remains unclear why the C₃₁ $\alpha\beta$ hopane is so 118 abundant in some peatlands. Such findings also complicate the application of 119 geohopanoids as palaeoenvironmental proxies (see Pancost et al., 2003; McClymont 120 et al., 2008; Inglis et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2015).

121 However, due to the small number of peats that have been studied as well as 122 the lack of peatland diversity sampled, the environmental controls regulating geohopanoid distributions in peats remain poorly constrained. Here, we present the 123 124 first global study of the occurrence, distribution and diagenesis of geohopanoids 125 within peat using samples (n = 395) obtained from new and previously published 126 datasets spanning a wide temperature (-1 to 27°C) and pH (3 to 8) range. Based 127 upon this, we explore how the environment regulates hopanoid isomerisation in 128 modern peatlands by comparing hopanoic acid and hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ ratios to

both temperature and pH estimates. We then explore the utility of geohopanoids as

130 palaeoenvironmental indicators in natural archives.

131

132 **2. Methods**

- 133 2.1. Data compilation
- 134 Previously published C₃₁ hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices were obtained from the
- 135 Dajiuhu, Zoige, Hani, and Shiwangutian peatlands in China (Huang et al., 2015) (Fig.
- 136 1). These are surface samples collected from 0 to 2 cm depth (n = 63). For full
- 137 details on each site, see Huang et al. (2015). Previously published C₃₁ hopane
- 138 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices were also obtained from the Butterburn Flow (UK) peat
- 139 (McClymont et al., 2008). The samples were collected between 50 and 90cm depth
- 140 (n = 26). For full details on this site, see McClymont et al. (2008).
- 141 We also present unpublished C₃₁ hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices from Butterburn
- 142 Flow (n = 34; UK; Pancost et al., 2011), Bissendorfer Moor (n = 50; Germany;
- 143 Pancost et al., 2011), Ballyduff Bog (n = 50; Ireland; Pancost et al., 2011),
- Kontolanrahka Bog (n = 45; Finland; Pancost et al., 2011) and Hongyuan (n = 26;
- 145 Tibet; Zheng et al., 2014). For each site (excluding Butterburn Flow) samples were
- obtained between 0 and 100cm depth. At Butterburn Flow, samples were collected
- 147 between 0 and 50cm depth, and complement the dataset from McClymont et al.
- 148 (2008). The full experimental procedure for each site is described within the
- 149 supplementary information.

150

151 2.2. Sampling

To generate a global database of geohopanoid distributions, we analysed additional samples (n = 111) from 23 wetlands in 9 different countries (Peru, Indonesia, Brazil, USA, Argentina, Spain, Australia, Germany and Sweden; Fig. 1). Samples were
obtained from peat cores spanning the upper 100 cm. The samples cover a broad
range in mean annual temperature (MAAT) from -1 to 26°C. The peats are
characterized by a wide variety of vegetation, ranging from *Sphagnum*-dominated
ombrotrophic peats to *Cyperaceae*-dominated minerotrophic peats

159

160 2.3. Organic Geochemistry

161 2.3.1. Extraction and separation

Peats (n = 111) were extracted with an Ethos Ex microwave extraction system using 162 163 15 ml of dichloromethane (DCM) and methanol (MeOH) (9:1, v/v, respectively) at the 164 Organic Geochemistry Unit in Bristol. The microwave program consisted of a 10min ramp to 70°C (1000 W), 10 min hold at 70°C (1000 W), and 20 min cool down. 165 Samples were centrifuged at 1700 rounds per minute for 3-5 min, and the 166 supernatant was removed and collected. A further 10 ml of DCM:MeOH (9:1, v/v) 167 was added to the remaining peat material and centrifuged again, after which the 168 169 supernatant was removed and combined with the previously obtained supernatant. 170 This process was repeated 3-6 times, depending on the volume of sample, to ensure that all extractable lipids were retrieved. The TLE was initially separated over silica 171 172 into apolar and polar fractions using hexane:dichloromethane (9:1, v/v) and dichloromethane:methanol (1:2, v/v), respectively. Due to an abundance of aromatic 173 compounds within some apolar fractions, the apolar fractions were subsequently 174 fractionated over silica into saturated hydrocarbon and aliphatic fractions using 175 hexane (100%) and hexane: dichloromethane (3:1, v/v) respectively. Note that 176 177 slightly different methodologies were used by Zheng et al. (2014) and Pancost et al. (2011), as well as for published data from Huang et al. (2015) and McClymont et al. 178 179 (2008) (see Supplementary Information).

181 2.3.2. Methylation and silylation

For a subset of samples (35 out of 111), the polar fraction was methylated by adding 182 100µl of BF₃/MeOH and heating at 60°C for 30 minutes. The sample was cooled 183 down to room temperature before c. 1ml of DCM-extracted double distilled water was 184 185 added. This was followed by the addition of~ 2ml of DCM. The fatty acid methyl 186 esters were subsequently extracted from the bottom layer, added to a 7ml vial, and the process was repeated twice. The sample was dried, redissolved in DCM and 187 eluted through an anhydrous sodium sulphate column to extract any residual water. 188 189 The column was washed through with DCM three times and the sample dried under N₂ at 40°C. Prior to analysis, samples were silvlated by adding 25µl of N,O-190 bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) and 25µl of pyridine, and heated for one 191 192 hour at 70°C. Samples were then allowed to cool and dried down under N₂. Silylated 193 samples were analysed by GC-MS within 24 h.

194

195 2.3.3. GC-MS analysis

196 Samples were analysed using a Thermo Scientific ISQ Single Quadrupole gas 197 chromatography-mass spectrometer (GC-MS). Using helium as the carrier gas, 1µl 198 of sample (dissolved in ethyl acetate) was injected at 70°C using an on-column injector. The temperature program included four stages: 70°C hold for 1 min, 70-199 200 130°C at 20°C/min rate; 130-300°C at 4°C/min; and temperature hold for 20 min at 201 300°C. The electron ionisation source was set at 70 eV. Scanning occurred between 202 m/z ranges of 50 to 650 Daltons. The GC was fitted with a fused silica capillary 203 column (50 m x 0.32 mm i.d.) coated with a ZB1 stationary phase 204 (dimethylpolysiloxane equivalent, 0.12 µm film thickness). Geohopanoids (see Fig.

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A1) were identified based upon published spectra, characteristic mass fragments and retention times (e.g. Rohmer et al., 1984; Sessions et al., 2013; Uemura and Ishiwatari, 1995; Van Dorsselaer et al., 1974).

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209 2.3.4. GC-C-IRMS analysis

210 GC-MS analysis revealed the occurrence of two unknown C₃₀ hopenes (see section 211 3.1, 4.1 and supplementary information). To assess their potential origin, 15 hydrocarbon fractions from Bissendorfer Moor (Germany) were selected for 212 213 compound specific stable carbon isotope (δ^{13} C) analysis. These samples span the 214 upper 100 cm and capture both the oxic acrotelm and anoxic catotelm. Gas chromatography-combustion-isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-C-IRMS) was 215 216 performed using an Isoprime 100 GC-combustion-isotope ratio mass spectrometer system. Samples were measured in duplicate and δ^{13} C values were converted to 217 218 VPDB by bracketing with an in-house gas (CO₂) of known δ^{13} C value. Instrument 219 stability was monitored by regular analysis of an in-house standard. Injection volume 220 was 1µl onto to a Zebron-I nonpolar column (50 m × 0.32 mm i.d., 0.10 µm film 221 thickness). GC conditions were the same as described above for GC-MS analysis 222 (see section 2.3.3.)

223

224 2.4. Environmental parameters

For each site, mean annual air temperature (MAAT) was calculated using the simple bioclimatic model PeatStash, which computes MAAT globally with a 0.5 degree spatial resolution (Gallego-Sala and Prentice, 2013; Naafs et al., 2017). PeatStash is preferred over (short-term) data from local weather stations as the spatial and temporal coverage of weather stations varies greatly across the globe. Published pH data were used as reported (see Charman et al, 2007, Zheng et al., 2014 and Huang et al., 2015). For new sites, pH data were obtained from the literature or during
sampling (Naafs et al., 2017).

233

234 2.5. Statistical analysis

To assess the role of environmental change upon hopanoid isomerisation ratios, we 235 236 calculated Deming regressions using the R software package (http://www.Rproject.org/). Deming regressions differ from simple linear regressions as they take 237 238 into account the error on both the x- (e.g., proxy) and y-axis (e.g., environmental 239 variable) (Adcock, 1878). Here, we assume that the error associated with proxy measurements and environmental parameters is independent and normally 240 distributed. To calculate a Deming regression, we must define the standard deviation 241 242 (σ) for both the x- and y-axis. For MAAT, the standard deviation is defined as 1.5°C 243 (see Naafs et al., 2017). For pH, the standard deviation is defined as 0.5 pH units (see 244 Naafs et al., 2017). For the C₃₂ hopanoic acid and C₃₁ hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices, the standard deviation and ratio of variance must also be defined (see Supplementary 245 Information). Residuals were calculated for the full dataset using the following 246 247 equation:

248

249

$Residual_y = y_{observed} - y_{predicted}$

250

The root mean square error (RMSE) for *y*, was calculated using the followingequation:

253

254
$$RSME_{y} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{x=1}^{n} (y_{x,observed} - y_{x,predicted})^{2}}{n} \times \frac{n}{df}}$$

255 Where *df* stands for degrees of freedom, which in this case is n-1.

256

- 257 To assess the interdependence of temperature and pH upon hopane isomerisation
- ratios, we also constructed x-y plots of temperature and pH and plotted C₃₁
- 259 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ ratios as a third continuous variable (Fig. A2).
- 260

3. Results

262 3.1. Geohopanoid distributions

In our global dataset, most samples come from strongly acidic peats with pH < 5 (n =

264 278 samples from 22 settings); however, the data set includes peats from

265 moderately acidic (pH 5 to 7) and neutral-to-slightly alkaline (pH > 7) peatlands (78

samples from 13 settings and 22 samples from 4 settings, respectively). Within the

267 global dataset, the hydrocarbon fraction contained a range of C₂₇ to C₃₂ hopanes and

268 C₂₇ to C₃₀ hopenes (Fig. 2a). Hopanes and/or hopenes were detected in 378 out of

269 395 samples. The dominant hopanoid in the hydrocarbon fraction was typically the

270 (22R)-17 α ,21 β (H)-homohopane (C₃₁) (Fig. 2a). However, in some settings 17 β (H)-

trisnorhopane (C₂₇), hop-22(29)-ene (C₃₀; diploptene) or two C₃₀ hopenes with

272 unknown structures dominated the hydrocarbon fraction. The latter are characterised

by a molecular ion of m/z 410 with a base peak of m/z 191, major ions at m/z 69, 81,

95, 189 and minor ions at m/z 395 (Fig. A3). The hydrocarbon fraction was also

characterized by a range of minor compounds, including: 17,21-epoxyhopane,

276 17 α (H)- and 17 β (H)-trisnorhopane (C₂₇), 17 α ,21 β (H)- and 17 β ,21 β (H)-norhopane

277 (C₂₉), 17α , 21β (H)-, 17β , 21α (H)- and 17β , 21β (H)-hopane (C₃₀), (22S)- 17α , 21β (H)-,

278 (22R)-17 β ,21 α (H)- and -17 β ,21 β (H)-homohopane (C₃₁), 17 β ,21 β (H)-bishomohopane

279 (C₃₂), 22,29,30-Trisnorhop-17(21)-ene (C₂₇), Hop-17(21)-ene (C₃₀) and 2-methylhop-

280 17(21)-ene (C₃₁) (See Fig. 2a and Fig. A1).

Within the polar fractions, the dominant compound in most settings was 281 17β , 21β (H)-bishomohopanoic acid (C₃₂) (Fig. 2b). 17α , 21β (H)-bishomohopanoic 282 283 acid (C_{32}) was also relatively abundant. In addition to these major compounds, the 284 polar fraction was characterized by a range of other hopanoids, including: hopan-29ol (C₃₀; diplopterol), 17β , 21β (H)-homohopanoic acid (C₃₁), 17β , 21α (H)-285 286 bishomohopanoic acid (C_{32}), 17 β ,21 β (H)-bishomohopanol (C_{32}), 17 β ,21 α (H)-287 trishomohopanoic acid (C_{33}) and 17β , 21β (H)-trishomohopanoic acid (C_{33}) (Fig. 2b). 288 3.2. Geohopanoid isomerisation ratios 289 290 The degree of geohopanoid isomerisation was assessed using $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ and 22S/(22S+22R) indices (MacKenzie et al., 1980). The global average C₃₁ hopane 291 292 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ is relatively low with an average value of 0.23 (n = 378, σ = 0.26; Fig. A4). In contrast, C₃₂ hopanoic acid $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ values were relatively high with an 293 294 average value of 0.75 (n = 35, σ = 0.19; Fig. A5). In the majority of Sphagnum (Fig. 3) and non-Sphagnum dominated peatlands (Fig. 4), downcore C₃₁ hopane 295 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices remain stable or slightly decrease with depth. Within a sub-set of 296

stable throughout (average = 0.04, n = 106, σ = 0.06), we did not revisit older

our dataset, we also obtained C₃₁ 22S/(22S+22R) indices. As values were low and

studies.

300

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301 3.3. Geohopanoid δ^{13} C values

302 δ^{13} C values were determined for 15 samples within Bissendorfer Moor, Germany, 303 where two unknown C₃₀ hopenes comprise 30-40% of the hopane/hopene 304 assemblage. The earlier eluting C₃₀ hopene δ^{13} C value ranges from -24.9 to -29.9‰ 305 (average: -27.5‰), whereas that of the later eluting C₃₀ hopene is more depleted and 306 ranges from -26.5 to -34.7‰ (average: -29.7‰). Both values are ¹³C-depleted (ca. 3307 6‰ lower) compared to the C₃₁ $\alpha\beta$ hopane (average: -24.6 ±1.0‰) and C₃₁ $\beta\beta$

hopane (average: -23.2 ±1.7‰) for a given sample. For comparison, δ^{13} C values

309 from higher plant- (C_{29} to C_{33} *n*-alkanes) and eukaryote- (5 α -Cholestane) biomarkers

in these samples are -33.9 ± 0.3 ‰ and -25.7 ± 0.1 ‰, respectively.

311

4. Discussion

313 4.1. Geohopanoid distributions in modern peats

314 Previous studies indicate that peatlands contain a diverse range of geohopanoids

315 (Quirk et al., 1984; Pancost et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2015).

However, our global dataset indicates that geohopanoid distributions are typically

dominated by the C₃₂ $\beta\beta$ hopanoic acid (Fig. 2.b) and C₃₁ $\alpha\beta$ hopane (Fig. 2.a). This

is consistent with previous studies (e.g. Quirk et al., 1984; Ries-Kautt and Albrecht,

1989; Dehmer, 1993; Pancost et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2015; Chaves-Torres and

320 Pancost, 2016). Also in agreement with previous observations (e.g. Dehmer, 1993;

321 Pancost et al., 2003; Quirk et al., 1984), the $C_{31} \alpha\beta$ hopane dominates the hopane

322 distribution within acidic (pH < 6), ombrotrophic and *Sphagnum*-dominated peats. In

323 other settings, diploptene is the dominant compound. However, it is found across a

wide pH (ca. 3 to 8) and temperature range (-1 to 26°C), suggesting it is not

restricted in its occurrence (c.f. $C_{31} \alpha\beta$ hopane). This is consistent with the fact that

diploptene is synthesised by a wide variety of aerobic (Rohmer et al., 1984) and also

327 anaerobic bacteria (Härtner et al., 2005; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2004).

We also report the occurrence of two unknown C_{30} hopenes within six *Sphagnum*-dominated bogs (see Supplementary Information and Fig. A3). To explore the source of these compounds further, we determined the carbon isotopic composition of these compounds within Bissendorfer Moor (Germany). The C_{30} hopenes are ¹³C-depleted (ca. 3-6‰) relative to C_{31} hopanes at Bissendorfer Moor

and likely derive from bacterial sources consuming a diverse suite of carbon 333 substrates (see Pancost et al., 2003; Inglis et al., 2015). This includes ¹³C-enriched 334 335 carbohydrates but also more ¹³C-depleted organic matter or even methane-derived CO2. This is consistent with the BHP distribution in Bissendorfer Moor which is 336 337 dominated by bacteriohopanetetrol, bacteriohopanetetrol cyclitol ether and 35-338 aminobacteriohopane-32,33,34-triol (i.e. saturated tetrafunctionalised BHPs; Talbot 339 et al., 2016; van Winden et al., 2012a; van Winden et al., 2012b; Kim et al., 2011), suggesting a largely heterotrophic bacterial community with only some evidence for 340 341 aerobic methanotrophy (Talbot et al., 2016b).

342

343 4.2. Diagenesis of geohopanoids in peats

344 Our results indicate that peatlands are dominated by a range of geohopanoids including hopanoic acids, hopanols, hopanes and hopenes. These compounds can 345 346 be directly biosynthesised (i.e. diploptene) or derived from BHPs. Although we have not analysed BHPs here, based on previous work (Talbot et al., 2016b) it is likely 347 348 that they are also widespread. However, the diagenesis of bio- and geohopanoids 349 remains poorly constrained. Whilst most BHPs can be preserved to significant depth (>400 cm) within peatlands, there can be a significant decrease in the concentration 350 351 of unsaturated BHPs (e.g. unsaturated BHT-pentose) and "soil-marker BHPs" (e.g. adenosylhopane) below the upper surface layer of a Sphagnum-dominated bog. This 352 is likely related to diagenesis under highly acidic conditions (e.g. Talbot et al., 2016). 353 354 BHPs also undergo oxidative degradation to form a range of degradation products, including hopanoic acids and hopanols (Adam et al., 2016; Bisseret and 355 Rohmer, 1995; Farrimond et al., 2003; Innes et al., 1997; Quirk et al., 1984). Within 356

357 peat-forming environments, tetrafunctionalised BHPs are associated with the

358 presence of C₃₂ hopanoic acids (Innes et al., 1997; Ries-Kautt and Albrecht, 1989).

359 This suggests that diagenesis is analogous to periodic acid/sodium borohydride treatment (i.e. 1,2-diol cleavage), whereby oxidative cleavage of vicinal diols (1) 360 gives access to an intermediate C_{32} hopanoid aldehyde (9) before undergoing 361 362 oxidation to form the C₃₂ hopanoic acid (10) (Bisseret and Rohmer, 1995; Peiseler and Rohmer, 1991; Zundel and Rohmer, 1985). This model is also consistent with 363 364 the low abundance of penta- and hexafunctionalised BHPs and C₃₁ and C₃₀ hopanoic acids in peat (Talbot et al., 2016b; this paper). Here, we show for the first 365 time that the dominance of C₃₂ hopanoic acids in peat is global, suggesting that 366 tetrafunctionalised BHPs dominate within a range of diverse peat-forming 367 environments. It also suggests that similar diagenetic processes are occurring on a 368 global scale. 369

Previous studies proposed that decarboxylation of the C₃₂ hopanoic and/or 370 dehydration of the C_{32} hopanol then yields the C_{31} hopane (Barton et al., 1980): 371 372 Bennett and Abbott, 1999). Based upon the high abundance of C₃₂ hopanoic acids in 373 peat, we suggest that decarboxylation of the C₃₂ hopanoic acid (10-11) (rather than 374 dehydration of the C₃₂ hopanol) is the primary source of the C₃₁ hopane (16-17) in peat (Fig. 5). This is consistent with Huang et al (2015) who have shown a 375 376 statistically significant correlation (p < 0.01) between C₃₂ hopanoic acid and C₃₁ hopane concentrations within a Chinese peatland. 377

Crucially, we show that bio- and geohopanoid diagenesis occurs rapidly in peatlands and geohopanoids are detected within the upper 0-5 cm of many peats. Geohopanoid concentrations usually remain low within the upper oxic layer (< 20 cm; Fig. 6), although there are some exceptions (e.g. Kontolanrahka Bog, Finland). Geohopanoid concentrations are substantively higher at the oxic/anoxic boundary (ca. 20-40 cm in our peats; Fig. 6). As hopanoids are predominantly, although not exclusively, derived from aerobic bacteria, this increase is attributed to microbial decomposition and/or transformation of BHPs (Innes et al., 1998; Torres and
Pancost, 2016). Below the oxic/anoxic boundary, geohopanoid concentrations are
rather variable (Fig. 6), suggesting that additional diagenesis may occur at depth
(see also Chaves-Torres, 2015).

389 Our results also indicate that C₃₂ hopanoic acids and C₃₂ hopanols occur as 390 $\alpha\beta$ - and $\beta\beta$ -stereoisomers in peat, with the $\beta\beta$ -isomer typically dominating (Fig. 2b). 391 In contrast, the C_{31} hopping occurs predominantly as the $\alpha\beta$ -stereoisomer (Fig. 2a). An offset between hopanoic acid and hopane isomerisation ratios has been 392 observed in Mesozoic sediments (Schaeffer et al. 1993; Bennett and Abbott, 1999; 393 394 Farrimond et al. 2002), where isomerisation is suppressed for increasingly 395 functionalised compounds (e.g. hopanoic acids and hopanols). Indeed, this may 396 explain the lack of $\alpha\beta$ -BHPs in modern peats (Talbot et al., 2016b). We also show 397 that isomerisation occurs rapidly, and $\alpha\beta$ hopanes often dominate within the top 5 cm 398 of peatlands (Fig. 3-4). This suggests that $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ ratios in peat are likely set 399 during early diagenesis. However, there can be a subtle decrease in $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ 400 ratios with depth (Fig. 3-4), suggesting further isomerisation of geohopanoids may 401 occur below the acrotelm/catotelm boundary (see also 4.3)

402

403 4.3. Environmental controls on geohopanoid isomerization in peat

404 Our results indicate that C₃₂ hopanoic acids and C₃₁ hopanes occur in the αβ-405 configuration, with a particularly high abundance of the latter. However, it remains 406 unclear why αβ-isomers are so abundant in modern peat. Previous studies have 407 suggested αβ geohopanoids could derive from the direct input of 17α ,21β(H)-408 hopanoids by indigenous bacteria (e.g. Huang et al., 2015). Indeed, Rosa-Putra et 409 al. (2001) reported the presence of 17α ,21β(H)- and 17β ,21α(H)-biohopanoids 410 alongside the more common ββ isomer in some *Frankia* spp. (Actinobacteria; n.b. 411 the relative abundance of these compounds is unknown). Although Actinobacteria 412 are an important phyla within the peat microbiome (e.g. Dedysh et al., 2006), all 413 biohopanoids observed in modern peatlands occur as a single 17β,21β(H)- isomer 414 (Kim et al., 2011; Talbot et al., 2016b; van Winden et al., 2012). This is true even for early diagenetic intermediate hopanepolyols derived from the degradation of BHPs 415 416 including: tetrakishomohopane-32,33,34-triol and trishomohopane-32,33-diol (e.g. 417 Rodier et al., 1999; Watson and Farrimond, 2000). The fact that hopanes exhibit a 418 greater degree of isomerisation than functionalised bio- and geohopanoids, their 419 putative precursors, suggests that isomerisation is not inherited from original 420 biological sources. As such, we argue that biosynthesis of $\alpha\beta$ -hopanoids is unlikely 421 to directly account for the majority of $\alpha\beta$ geohopanoids in peat. Instead, the occurrence of the $C_{31} \alpha\beta$ hopping has been ascribed to acid-422 catalysed isomerisation (Ries-Kautt and Albrecht, 1989). To explore this further, we 423 424 compared hopanoic acid and hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices to pH within our global 425 dataset. For sites with only a single pH measurement, we report the average 426 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ value (Fig. 7). Both C₃₂ hopanoic acid and C₃₁ hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ ratios exhibit a linear positive correlation with pH. The correlation between the C₃₁ hopane 427 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ index and pH is statistically significant (r² = 0.64, p < 0.001; n = 94; Fig. 428 7a), indicating that pH exerts a first-order control upon hopane isomerisation in 429 430 peats. In contrast, the correlation between C_{32} hopanoic acid $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices and pH is not statistically significant ($r^2 = 0.13$; n = 20; p = 0.11 Fig. 7b) and ratios are 431 432 higher and less variable across the sample set. These features could arise from 433 sedimentary diagenetic constraints. For example, the weak ionic adsorption of 434 functionalised compounds to mineral surfaces could inhibit isomerisation (Farrimond 435 et al., 2002). Farrimond et al. (2002) have also shown that decarboxylation can 436 promote isomerisation through bond cleavage and may explain why the C₃₁ hopane

437 isomerisation ratio exhibits a stronger relationship with pH; thus, it might be the438 decarboxylation step that is crucial to the signal preserved in hopanes.

439 More recently, Huang et al. (2015) argued that temperature exerts a control upon hopane isometisation, with enhanced formation of $\alpha\beta$ -geohopanoids in warmer 440 441 settings. However, this conclusion was based upon a single site with a relatively 442 complex evolution history. To explore this further, we compared hopanoic acid and 443 hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices to MAAT within our global dataset. Here, we report the 444 average $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ value for a given site (Fig 8; see Supplementary Information). Our results reveal no correlation between C_{31} hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices and MAAT 445 $(r^2 = 0.01, p = 0.55; n = 35; Fig. 8b)$. X-Y plots of temperature and pH with C₃₁ 446 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ ratios as a third continuous variable support this observation (Fig. A3). 447 Our results also indicate no correlation between C_{32} hopanoic acid $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ 448 indices and temperature ($r^2 = 0.09$, p = 0.19, n = 20, Fig. 8a). We attribute this 449 450 discrepancy to the fact that Huang et al. (2015) utilise a downcore paleo-temperature 451 record, where temperature variations are inferred rather than directly measured. 452 Huang et al. (2015) also argue that hydrological conditions impact geohopanoid isomerisation, with enhanced formation of $\alpha\beta$ hopanoids under drier conditions. 453 454 However, hydrology and pH can be closely linked within peat-forming environments (e.g, Zhong et al., 2017) and extensive rainfall can result in dilution, decreased 455 456 acidity and a reduction in the formation of $\alpha\beta$ -hopanoids (e.g. Pancost et al., 2003). To characterise the impact of hydrology upon hopanoid distributions, future studies 457 458 should utilise a setting with minor variations in temperature and pH, but large 459 changes in moisture content (c.f. Dang et al. 2016). 460 There may also be other factors which influence hopanoid isomerisation ratios. 461 For example, Quirk et al. (1984) have argued that vegetation type promotes the

462 formation of $\alpha\beta$ hopane. This is based upon an increase in the relative abundance of

the C₃₁ $\alpha\beta$ hopane in a series of *Sphagnum* decay experiments (Quirk, 1978). While this is possible, it does not explain why $\alpha\beta$ -hopanoids are rapidly formed in non-*Sphagnum* settings and high acidity seems to be necessary. Likewise, Huang et al. (2015) have suggested that total organic carbon (TOC) content could be important, with enhanced production of $\alpha\beta$ -hopanoids in high TOC settings (e.g. Gong et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2015). However, this does not explain why $\beta\beta$ -hopanoids dominate in some high TOC settings. Again, high acidity seems to be required.

471 4.4. Geohopanoids as palaeoenvironmental proxies

472 Our results support the original hypothesis of Quirk et al. (1984), which suggests that

473 the formation of the $\alpha\beta$ hopanoids in peats is strongly dependent on pH. Crucially,

474 isomerisation appears to be fixed during early diagenesis, suggesting that

475 geohopanoid $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices could be a useful proxy for understanding pH over 476 a range of timescales. Here, we utilise the C₃₁ hopane $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ index to construct 477 a peat-specific hopane-based pH proxy:

478

479 pH = 5.22 * (
$$C_{31}$$
 hopane $\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$) + 3.11 (n=94, r² = 0.64, RMSE = 1.4)

480

481 The coefficient of correlation is stronger than obtained from other peat-specific pH 482 proxies (e.g. the cyclisation of branched glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs); $r^2 = 0.58$, Naafs et al., 2017); however, the RMSE is larger than 483 previously found for brGDGTs (see Naafs et al., 2017). Hopane-derived pH 484 485 estimates were also compared to *br*GDGT-derived pH estimates (CBT_{peat}; Naafs et 486 al., 2017) from the same sample set (Fig. A6). Although the correlation deviates from the 1:1 line - indicating that $C_{31} \beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ ratios give lower pH estimates compared 487 488 to those obtained using brGDGTs for a given sample - there is a statistically

489 significant correlation between CBT_{peat} and C₃₁ $\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ -based pH values (p < 490 0.01; r² = 0.43; Fig. A6).

491 To explore the utility of $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices in natural archives, we calculated 492 downcore pH profiles for each site in our global dataset. All sites exhibit relatively 493 constant pH values within the upper 100cm and are consistent with relatively stable 494 climate conditions over the last millennium (Crowley, 2000). The only exception is 495 Bissendorfer Moor (Germany), which exhibits a significant decrease in pH (ca. 4 pH units) within the upper 30cm. However, as the hydrology of this site has been 496 497 strongly affected by artificial drainage, the surface microbial community may have 498 been affected by human activity (see Talbot et al., 2016).

It is also possible to calculate pH estimates from previously published 499 500 datasets. For example, Pancost et al. (2003) observed a subtle increase in 501 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ ratios within the Bargerveen peat core during the Sub-Boreal/Sub-502 Atlantic transition (ca. 2800 years ago; Pancost et al., 2003). This was originally 503 attributed to decreasing acidity (due to enhanced precipitation) and is consistent with 504 our results which indicate a clear pH control on the degree of C₃₁ hopane isomerisation. Hopane-derived pH estimates are also relatively low (ca. 3.5) 505 506 throughout the peat core and consistent with the abundance of Sphagnum moss in 507 the peat (Pancost et al., 2003). However, the magnitude of pH change across the 508 Sub-Boreal/Sub-Atlantic transition is relatively minor (0.2 pH units) and within the error of this proxy. Therefore, we only recommend using $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices to 509 510 interrogate large amplitude and more long-term pH variation (see below). It is also 511 important to note that the composition of the bacterial community will likely vary 512 between environments (e.g. Dedysh et al., 2006; Bragina et al., 2012; Serkebaeva et 513 al., 2013; Lin et al. 2012). Such changes are likely to impact hopanoid distributions

and perhaps isomerisation ratios; however, this is hard to deconvolve and requiresfurther investigation.

516 The $C_{31} \beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ index could also be applied to immature coal deposits 517 (i.e. lignites) to understand environmental change during past greenhouse periods 518 and across hyperthermal events. To explore this, we assessed the geohopanoid 519 distribution within a thermally immature, early Paleogene (~56 Ma) lignite deposit 520 (Schöningen, Germany). Within this setting, the $C_{31} \alpha\beta$ isomer dominates the hopane 521 assemblage, suggesting an acidic (pH <6), ombrotrophic peatland (Fig. 9). This is 522 consistent with the occurrence of Sphagnum-type spores and biomarkers within this 523 lignite seam (Inglis et al., 2015; Inglis et al., 2017). Intriguingly, hopane-derived pH 524 values (ca. 4.9) are similar to the average value of 5.0 derived from branched 525 GDGTs (CBT_{peat}; Naafs et al., 2017). Both proxies also exhibit similar temporal 526 trends, although the magnitude of the variations exhibited by the former are larger 527 (Fig. 9).

528 We have previously suggested that low C₃₁ $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices could also be 529 a useful proxy to trace the input of acidic peat (or eroded lignite) to marine or fjord 530 sediments (Inglis et al., 2015; Smittenberg et al., 2004). While our results generally 531 support this hypothesis, some acidic peats exhibit relatively high $C_{31} \beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ 532 indices (e.g. Brazil), dictating caution in this approach – in particular, an absence of 533 substantive $\alpha\beta$ -hopane inputs should not be interpreted as evidence for an absence of peat inputs. As such, additional lines of evidence should be utilised to trace the 534 535 input of acidic peat into marine and/or lake sediments (e.g. Sphagnum biomarkers 536 and/or Sphagnum macrofossils (McClymont et al., 2011; Nichols and Huang, 2007; 537 Nott et al., 2000).

538 Finally, the $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ index could also provide insights into pH within other 539 environmental settings. For example, there is a significant correlation between C₃₂ hopanoic acid $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ ratios and pH in a suite of geothermal sinters (pH: from 2.5 to 9.0; r² = 0.85) (Pancost et al., 2006). However, interpretation of such ratios in older sinters will be more problematic as both temperature and pH, as well as extent of exposure to each of these, will have to be considered.

544

545 **5. Conclusions**

546 Using >350 samples spanning a wide temperature (-1 to 27°C) and pH (3 to 8) range, we have assessed the environmental controls regulating geohopanoid 547 distributions in peats. Our results indicate that peats are characterised by a range of 548 549 geohopanoids; however, C₃₂ hopanoic acids and C₃₁ hopanes typically dominate. C_{32} hopanoic acids and C_{31} hopanes both occur in the $\alpha\beta$ -configuration and can form 550 almost instantaneously in peatlands (i.e. within the upper 5 cm). This process 551 552 appears to be strongly regulated by the acidic environment. In particular, the C₃₁ 553 hopane isomerisation ratio exhibits a statistically significant correlation with pH. 554 Crucially, there is no correlation between C_{31} hopane isomerisation and temperature. 555 Therefore, our study supports the hypothesis that within peatlands, $\alpha\beta$ -hopanoids are acid-catalysed degradation products. This finding suggests that geohopanoid 556 557 $\beta\beta/(\alpha\beta+\beta\beta)$ indices could be used to reconstruct pH within modern and ancient peatforming environments. Furthermore, we envisage that geohopanoids can provide 558 559 important new insights into understanding depositional environments and interpreting terrestrial organic matter sources in the geological record. 560

561

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579

580 **7. Figure captions**

581

Figure 1: Map with the location of all peats used in this study. New and unpublished data shown in red. Previously published data is shown in orange (for interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

586

Figure 2: Partial *m*/z 191 gas chromatogram of a typical (a) hydrocarbon and (b)
polar fraction. Numbers accompanied with Greek letters signify the carbon number
and stereochemistry of hopanoids.

590

Figure 3: Downcore C₃₁ hopane ββ/αβ+ββ profiles for *Sphagnum*-dominated
peatlands. a) Germany (Bissendorfer Moor), b) Ireland (Ballyduff Bog), c) Finland
(Kontolanrahka Bog), d) UK (Butternburn Flow), e) Germany (Odersprung Bog), f)
Argentina (Tierra del Fuego)

595

Figure 4: Downcore C₃₁ hopane ββ/αβ+ββ profiles for non-*Sphagnum* peatlands. a)
Indonesia (Sebangau), b) Brazil (Pinhieros), c) Spain (Zalama),d) Tibet (Hongyuan),
e) Australia (Bomfield Swamp)

599

Figure 5: Proposed steps in the diagenesis of bio- and geohopanoids in peat. The structures in red were identified in modern peats. The structure in blue corresponds to a postulated intermediate. For interpretation of the references to hopanoids in this figure, the reader is referred to the supplementary information. (for interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

606

Figure 6: Geohopanoid abundance with depth. a) Ballyduff Bog (Ireland), b)
Butterburn Flow (Great Britain), c) Kontolanrahka Bog (Finland) and d) Bissendorfer
Moor (Germany). Anoxic catotelm denoted in dark grey. n.b. the polar fraction was
not methylated; as such, hopanoic acids were not GC-amenable under standard
conditions and only hopanols were analysed here.

612

Figure 7: Impact of pH upon geohopanoid isomerisation. a) C₃₁ hopane $\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ index vs pH, b) C₃₂ hopanoic acid $\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ index vs pH

615

616 Figure 8: Impact of temperature upon geohopanoid isomerisation. a) C₃₁ hopane

617 $\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ index vs MAAT, b) C₃₂ hopanoic acid $\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ index vs MAAT

618

619	Figure 9: pH and vegetation change within Seam 1, Schöningen during the latest
620	Paleocene and/or earliest Eocene. a) the C_{31} hopane $\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ index, b) C_{31} hopane
621	$\beta\beta/\alpha\beta+\beta\beta$ -derived pH estimates, c) CBT _{peat} -derived pH estimates (Naafs et al.,
622	2017), d) C ₂₃ /C ₃₁ <i>n</i> -alkane ratio (i.e. proxy for input of <i>Sphagnum</i> moss; Inglis et al.,
623	2015), e) the relative abundance (total palynomorphs) of Sphagnum-type spores
624	(Inglis et al., 2015). Zero depth marks the top of seam 1 and the base of the
625	overlying marine interbed 2 (for interpretation of the rFeferences to colour in this
626	figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).
627	
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Figure 4





Figure 6



Figure 7



Figure 8



