Lipid hydrogen isotope compositions primarily reflect growth water in the model
archaeon *Sulfolobus acidocaldarius*

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Abstract

The stable hydrogen isotope composition (δ^2H) of lipid biomarkers can track environmental
processes and remain stable over geologically relevant time scales, enabling studies of past
climate, hydrology, and ecology. Most research has focused on lipids from the domain Eukarya (e.g.,
plant waxes, long-chain alkanes), and the potential of prokaryotic lipid biomarkers from the domain
Archaea to offer unique insights into environments not captured by eukaryotic lipids remains
unclear. Here, we investigate the H-isotope composition of biphytanes in *Sulfolobus acidocaldarius*,
a model thermoacidophile and obligate heterotroph. We conducted a series of experiments that
varied temperature, pH, shaking rate, electron acceptor availability, or electron donor flux. From
these experiments, we quantified the lipid/water H-isotope fractionation ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) values for core
biphytane chains derived from tetraether lipids. The $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values are consistently negative (-230 to -
180 ‰) and are relatively invariant across all experiments despite a 20-fold change in doubling times
and 2-fold change in lipid cyclization. The magnitude and relative invariance of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values are
consistent with studies on other heterotrophic archaea and suggests archaeal lipids may be faithful
recorders of the δ^2H composition of growth water. Our study highlights the potential of archaeal lipid
$^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ as a hydrological proxy, offering new insights into environments where traditional proxies, such
as plant-derived lipids, are not available, including extreme environments and extraterrestrial
settings.

Importance

Reconstructing past climates is crucial for understanding Earth's environmental history and its
responses to changing conditions. This study examines *Sulfolobus acidocaldarius*, a
thermoacidophilic archaeon that thrives in extreme environments like hot springs. These
microorganisms incorporate hydrogen water in the growth environment into membrane lipids,
creating hydrogen isotope signatures that can reflect hydroclimate conditions. Our findings show
that these hydrogen isotope ratios remain consistent even under varying temperature, pH, oxygen
levels, and electron donor fluxes, indicating a stable fractionation between lipids and water. This
invariance suggests that *S. acidocaldarius* lipids could serve as a robust proxy for reconstructing
ancient water H-isotope values, especially in extreme environments where traditional proxies, such
as plant waxes, are absent. This research has broader implications for planetary-scale
reconstructions, including potential applications in studying past climates on other planets, such as
Mars, where similar microorganisms may have existed in hydrothermal conditions.

1. Introduction

The relative abundances of hydrogen isotopes (^{2}H/^{1}H) in water are set by physical, hydrological, and climatic factors (Gat 1996; Hayes 2001). Certain biomolecules incorporate these isotopes with a consistent offset (fractionation) relative to water, preserving a record of the isotopic composition (δ^2H values) of the water present during growth (Sessions et al. 1999). Some lipids can retain their original H-isotope composition for up to 10^8 years and lipid hydrogen isotope compositions have been used to study hydrologic and environmental change over millennia to millions of years, dating as far back as the Paleoproterozoic (Sessions et al. 2004; Dawson et al. 2004; Love and Zumberge 2021). Most studies of biomarker H-isotope composition focus on lipids from photoautotrophic organisms (e.g., plant wax *n*-alkanes) or chemoautotrophic and heterotrophic bacteria (e.g., fatty acids) (Sessions et al. 1999; Liu and An 2019; McFarlin et al. 2019; Ladd et al. 2021) and the H-isotope compositions recorded in lipids from the Archaea are comparatively poorly understood. A small, but growing, body of literature, however, has begun to address this gap (Kaneko et al. 2011; Dirghangi and Pagani 2013; Lengger et al. 2020; Wu et al. 2020; Leavitt et al. 2023; Rhim et al. 2024). Understanding the extent to which the δ^2H value of archaeal lipids records the δ^2H value of growth water requires a deeper examination of how environmental conditions impact this signal. A comprehensive investigation of the physicochemical factors affecting H-isotope fractionation between archaeal lipids and water ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) is essential for employing archaeal lipid δ^2H composition as a proxy for the δ^2H composition of environmental water over space and time.

The $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ value for a biomolecule integrates both the composition of source water and the net biosynthetic fractionations resulting from the specific pathways used during lipid biosynthesis. Reported $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values vary widely among domains of life. In phototrophic Eukaryotes (e.g., plants and algae), $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values of waxes (e.g., n-alkanes) are consistently negative, ranging from -150 to -50 ‰ (Sachs 2014; McFarlin et al. 2019). It is important to understand the causes of this variability when applying lipid δ^2H values to reconstruct water δ^2H values. Net biosynthetic fractionation is generally consistent across taxa, though genetic factors introduce some variance (Gao et al. 2014; Bender et al. 2016; Baan et al. 2023; Baan 2024; Ladd et al. 2024; Pilecky et al. 2024). Environmental factors such as temperature, salinity, light availability, and CO_2 concentration, also influence $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values, possibly via their impact on growth and biosynthesis rates (Sachs 2014; Sachs and Kawka 2015; Van Der Meer et al. 2015; Sachs et al. 2016; Maloney et al. 2016; Wolfshorndl et al. 2019; Torres-Romero et al. 2024). These effects are well-characterized in plants, and to a lesser extent in algae, and can be accounted for when the δ^2H values of plant waxes are used to reconstruct past hydroclimate (Sachse et al. 2012; Sessions 2016; McFarlin et al. 2019).

In contrast to the coherent magnitude and direction of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values observed from phototrophic eukaryotes, the $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ of bacterial fatty acids varies widely in both direction and magnitude (-400 ‰ to +300 ‰) (Sessions et al. 2002; Valentine 2009; Zhang et al. 2009a; Dawson et al. 2015; Leavitt 2016; Osburn et al. 2016; Leavitt et al. 2017; Wijker et al. 2019). Bacteria that use different central

energy metabolisms (e.g., chemoautotrophy, photoautotrophy, or heterotrophy) exhibit distinct
ranges of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values, which has been attributed to differences in metabolic pathways and the
substrate used for growth (e.g., simple sugars vs. tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle intermediates). A
recent study suggests that variations in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values from aerobic heterotrophic bacteria are
explained by energy fluxes through the intracellular hydride carriers $NADP^+$ and NADPH (Wijker et al.
2019). Given this metabolism-dependent heterogeneity, the δ^2H values of bacterial lipids in
sediment records may have more utility as proxies for the energetic state of past microbial
metabolisms (Zhang et al. 2009a; Osburn et al. 2016; Wijker et al. 2019).

Lipid-water ^2H-fractionation from the domain Archaea have been understudied to-date. From what
we do know, $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values have been reported for diether lipids (archaeol) in a mesophilic halophile
(Dirghangi and Pagani 2013) and a methanogen (Wu et al. 2020), tetraether-derived biphytanes in
three thermoacidophiles and one thermomesophile (Kaneko et al. 2011; Rhim et al. 2024), and one
aerobic marine chemoautotroph (Leavitt et al. 2023), and whole tetraethers or tetraether-derived
biphytanes in several environmental sediment samples (Kaneko et al. 2011; Lengger et al. 2020). The
observed $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values for these archaeal lipids are uniformly negative (i.e. -300 to -150 ‰) and similar
in magnitude to those reported for isoprenoid lipids produced by eukaryotic phototrophs (e.g. C_{15}
and C_{30} isoprenoids; Sessions et al. 1999; Sachs et al. 2016).

Our understanding of the factors controlling the H-isotope compositions of archaeal lipids are less
developed than for the Eukarya and Bacteria. Recent experiments demonstrate that $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ is nearly
constant over a range of growth rates in a marine autotroph (*Nitrosopumilus maritimus*; Leavitt et
al., 2023) and that the impacts of carbon metabolism and growth phase on $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ are minor
(*Archaeoglobus fulgidus*; Rhim et al., 2024). This relative invariance in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values is perhaps
surprising considering the taxonomic and metabolic diversity of the investigated Archaea. The
impact of environmental factors on this fractionation, however, has only been investigated within a
single archaeal strain (*Haloarcula marismortui*; Dirghangi and Pagani 2013). Further investigation of
the effects of multiple environmental factors on $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ in Archaea is crucial, particularly since many
archaea are adapted to extreme environments that can experience both rapid and large changes to
physicochemical conditions (Van de Vossenberg et al. 1998).

Isoprenoid glycerol dibiphytanyl glycerol tetraethers (iGDGTs) are archaeal lipids with particular
relevance to paleoenvironmental reconstructions (Schouten et al. 2013). These tetraethers are
structurally diagnostic, diagenetically robust, and routinely analyzed for paleoclimate
reconstruction based on the relative abundances of specific structural moieties (Schouten et al.
2002, 2013; Pearson and Ingalls 2013). Archaea can synthesize a unique series of iGDGTs that
contain from zero to eight cyclopentane rings (e.g., iGDGT-0 through iGDGT-8), though the most
highly ringed moieties (iGDGT-7 and -8) have only been recovered from hydrothermal spring
environments (De Rosa and Gambacorta 1988). Members of the Thaumarchaeota phyla can also
produce crenarchaeol, an iGDGT containing four cyclopentane rings and one cyclohexyl ring (De

Rosa and Gambacorta 1988). The distribution of these moieties in natural systems is related to
growth temperature and other environmental factors (Elling et al. 2014, 2017; Hurley et al. 2016;
Cobban et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2020) and forms the basis of the TEX_{86} paleo sea surface temperature
proxy (Schouten et al. 2002). At low pH and high temperatures, Archaea synthesize more highly-
ringed moieties as an adaptation to maintain membrane rigidity and reduce permeability. In
hydrothermal systems, the ring distributions of thermoacidophilic archaea record the interactions
between temperature, pH, energy availability, and other factors that influence growth rate (Zhou et
al. 2020; Quehenberger et al. 2020; Yang et al. 2023).

To better understand the signals recorded by archaeal lipid δ^2H composition in natural systems, it is
necessary to determine the extent to which environmental conditions influence $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values. In this
study, we determined the H-isotope fractionation between iGDGT-derived biphytanes and growth
water ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) for the thermoacidophilic and heterotrophic archaeon, *Sulfolobus acidocaldarius* (DSM
639). *S. acidocaldarius* evolved to grow optimally under multiple extreme conditions, namely low
pH's, high temperatures, and low oxygen partial pressure (Brock et al. 1972; Bischof et al. 2019). For
this work *S. acidocaldarius* was selected as a model organism because it thrives in extreme
environments devoid of traditional eukaryotic lipid proxies (e.g., plant waxes), and because it can
grow under a wide range of physicochemical conditions, with rapid doubling times and high biomass
yields (Quehenberger et al. 2017).

Here we cultivated *S. acidocaldarius* over a range of physicochemical conditions that included shifts
in temperature, pH, shaking rate, electron acceptor or electron donor flux. Changes in these
environmental conditions are known to impact the growth rate and degree of iGDGT cyclization
(Boyd et al., 2011; Jensen et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2019; Quehenberger et al., 2020; Cobban et al.,
2020), but their impact on lipid/water fractionation is unexplored. Understanding how these
environmental factors influence lipid/water fractionation is critical for interpreting archaeal lipid δ^2H
signatures in natural systems and refining their use as robust proxies for reconstructing past
hydroclimate conditions.

2. Methods

2.1 Culture strains and growth

Axenic cultures of *S. acidocaldarius* (DSM 639) were grown aerobically under different
environmental conditions (**Table 1**). Culture media was prepared following the Brock recipe in
Wagner et al. (2012) with the following modifications (see *Substrate* column in Table 1). For all
experiments, media contained 5.9 mmol L^{-1} (0.2% w/v) sucrose as the organic substrate. The
electron donor flux experiments were also supplemented with 4.0 mmol L^{-1} (0.1% w/v) NZ-amine in
addition to sucrose.

Growth was monitored photometrically at regular intervals throughout each experiment by
measuring the optical density (i.e., absorbance at 1 cm pathlength) of a culture aliquot at 600 nm
(OD_{600}) on a spectrophotometer. All experiments were inoculated to an initial OD_{600} between 0.004
and 0.008, using cells derived from an active pre-culture (grown on the same medium) in mid-
exponential phase. Specific growth rates (division day^{-1}; μ) were calculated using OD_{600}
measurements during the early to mid exponential phase after Cobban et al., (2020). Doubling time
(T_D) was calculated as:

Eq. (1) $$T_D \ (hours) \ = \ ln(2)/\mu$$

2.2 Experimental conditions experiments

We examined how temperature, pH, shaking rate, O_2 availability, and electron donor (sucrose) flux
influence H-isotope fractionation in *S. acidocaldarius* through a series of batch, fed-batch, and
chemostat experiments.

Batch experiments: Three sub-experiments were performed in which one environmental condition
(temperature, pH, or shaking rate) was systematically varied while holding the other two conditions
constant (previously described in Cobban et al., 2020). The reference conditions were 70 °C, pH 3,
and 200 RPM shaking rate. Shaking rate is considered a proxy for aeration rate, where faster speeds
increase oxygen availability in the media, though it also increases physical agitation.

Batch experiments were performed in temperature-controlled, shaking incubators (Innova-42,
Eppendorf) in 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 125 mL media covered with loose plastic caps to
reduce evaporation. Evaporation was further reduced by maintaining a 2L tray of water in the
incubator to humidify the atmosphere. All experiments were performed in quintuplicate. Biomass
samples were collected in mid-exponential phase by centrifuging (3214 x *g*; Eppendorf 5810 R, S-4-
104 rotor) 50 mL of culture for 15 minutes at 4 °C, the resulting cell pellets were stored at -80 °C until
lipid extraction.

Fed-batch bioreactor experiments: To more precisely determine the impact of oxygen availability,
we performed gas-fed batch experiments in bioreactors (previously described in Cobban et al.,
2020). Briefly, *S. acidocaldarius* was grown in 300 mL of medium in 1 L glass vessels. To modulate
availability (as flux) of the terminal electron acceptor O_2 was introduced to bioreactors at four
different partial pressures: 0.2, 0.5, 2.0 or 20 % (balance N_2). The O_2 dry mixing ratios 0.2, 0.5, and
2% were generated by mixing pure N_2 mixed with 2% O_2 at 9:1, 3:1, and 0:1 ratios, respectively, which
was controlled via my-Control PID controllers (Applikon, Delft, Netherlands). The 20% experiment
used a separate gas feedstock of Ultra ZeroGrade Air (AirGas). Culture conditions were maintained
at 70 °C, pH 3, stirred at 200 RPM (Rushton-type impeller), and at a total gas flux of 200 mL min^{-1}.
Each experiment was performed in triplicate via three bioreactors operated in parallel. Biomass

samples were collected by removing culture directly from the vessel, centrifuged at 4 °C, to pellet
biomass, and then stored at -80 °C until lipid extraction.

Chemostat experiments: To determine the impact of electron donor flux, we performed chemostat
experiments in which the dilution rate of the growth vessel was set to yield cell doubling times (T_D) of
7.0, 21.3, and 40.0 hours (previously described in Zhou et al. 2020). Briefly, *S. acidocaldarius* was
grown in 300 mL of medium maintained at 70 °C, pH 2.25, stirred at 200 RPM (Rushton-type
impeller), and aerated with a constant flux of 200 mL min^{-1} Zero Air (ultra-high purity, UHP, AirGas/
AirLiquide, Inc.). Three chemostats were operated in parallel under continuous culture conditions.
When steady state was achieved (assessed via regular OD_{600} measurements), biomass samples
were harvested by continually collecting the outflow of each bioreactor into a chilled vessel (0 to 4
°C) for between 1 and 4 days, followed by centrifugation at 4 °C and storage at -80 °C prior to lipid
processing. Multiple extracts representing 2 to 3 sampling events at identical growth rates were
combined before lipid extraction.

2.3 Lipid extraction and derivatization

Core lipid fractions (iGDGTs) were extracted from lyophilized cell pellets via acidic hydrolysis-
methanolysis (Elling et al. 2017; Zhou et al. 2020). iGDGTs were chemically derivatized to biphytanes
to permit the determination of the δ^2H value of component biphytanes as described in Kaneko et al.,
(2011) and Leavitt et al., (2023). In brief, ether bonds were cleaved via digestion in 57% hydroiodic
acid (HI) at 125 °C for 4 hours. The resulting alkyl iodides were hydrogenated (e.g., reduced to
biphytanes, BPs) in H_2/PtO_2. An isotope dilution occurs when H is added during hydrogenation, which
is corrected for during data processing and reduction (see Section 2.5).

2.4 Lipid identities & distributions

Isoprenoid BP chains were analyzed via GC-MS (Thermo ISQ LT with TRACE 1310) for compound
identification and via GC-flame ionization detector (GC-FID; Thermo TRACE 1310) for compound
quantification at the University of Colorado at Boulder Earth Systems Stable Isotope Lab (CUBES-
SIL, Boulder, CO) (**FIG 1**). Biphytane yields and recovery were calculated using GC peak areas and
co-injected n-alkane mixture as a quantification standard.

To describe the average amount of cyclopentyl rings in each BP distribution, we calculated a BP-Ring
Index based on the relative abundance of each BP moiety (**Eq. 2**). This metric is similar to the iGDGT-
based Ring Index (**Eq. 3**), which describes the average amount of cyclopentyl rings in a distribution
based on the relative abundance of each iGDGT moiety (Zhang et al. 2016; Zhou et al. 2020).

Eq. (2) $$RI_{BP} \ = \ \frac{BP-1 + (2 \cdot BP-2) + (3 \cdot BP-3)}{\sum_{o}^{3} BP}$$

Eq. (3) $$RI_{GDGT} \ = \ \frac{iGDGT-1 + (2 \cdot iGDGT-2) + (3 \cdot iGDGT-3) + \ldots + (8 \cdot iGDGT-8)}{\sum_{o}^{8} iGDGT}$$

2.5 δ^2H analysis of media waters, substrates, and biphytane lipids

2.5.1 Media waters

Water samples for hydrogen isotope (δ^2H) analysis were collected concurrently with harvesting
biomass for lipid analyses. Aliquots of filter-sterilized growth medium water was measured for δ^2H
at the Stable Isotope Laboratory at Dartmouth College via a dual inlet isotope ratio mass
spectrometer (IRMS; Thermo Delta Plus 304 XL) coupled to an H-Device (pyrolyzed to H_2 gas) for
water reduction by chromium powder at 850ºC (previously described in Kopec et al. (2018). The
δ^2H$_{Water}$ values were corrected using three laboratory standards spanning -161 to -7 ‰ vs. VSMOW,
which were run every 8-10 samples. Analytical precision was <0.5 ‰.

2.5.2 Substrates

The δ^2H composition of non-exchangeable C-bound H from substrates used in growth media was
analyzed in triplicate as trifluoroacetate derivatives via a Thermo Delta Plus XP coupled to a TC-EA
(Abrahim et al. 2020). The δ^2H composition of sucrose was -93.0 ± 1.2 ‰.

2.5.3 Biphytanes

For all experiments, we report $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values for biphytane (BP) hydrocarbons derived via ether cleavage
from acid extractable iGDGTs. The δ^2H composition of individual BPs was determined by gas
chromatography pyrolysis isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-P-IRMS) on a GC IsoLink II IRMS
System (Thermo Scientific) at the University of Colorado at Boulder Earth Systems Stable Isotope
Lab (CUBES-SIL, Boulder, CO). The system comprised a Trace 1310 GC fitted with a programmable
temperature vaporization (PTV) injector and either a 30 m ZB5HT column (i.d. = 0.25 mm, 0.25 μm,
Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA) or a 60 m DB1 column (i.d. = 0.25 mm, 0.25 μm, Agilent, Santa
Clara, CA, USA), ConFlo IV interface, and 253 Plus mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific).

2.5.4 Data reduction and notation

The δ^2H values of individual biphytanes (δ^2H$_{BP}$) were measured relative to H_2 reference gas (δ^2H$_{raw}$)
and calibrated to the international references scale (VSMOW) using a standard n-alkane mixture (A7,
containing C15 through C30 n-alkanes spanning -9 to -263 ‰ vs. VSMOW; A. Schimmelmann,

Indiana University). The A7 standard was combined with a C_{36} n-alkane (nC_{36}, -259.2 ‰ vs. VSMOW;
A. Schimmelmann, Indiana University) and measured throughout each analytical run at regular
intervals and at different concentrations. The BP hydrogen isotope calibration was performed as in
Leavitt et al., (2023) using the R packages *isoreader* (v 1.3.0) and *isoprocessor* (v 0.6.11) available at
github.com/isoverse (Kopf et al. 2021). In brief, δ^2H_{raw} values were corrected for offset, scale
compression and peak-size effects using an inverted multivariate linear regression which was
applied to all standards and samples to determine δ^2H_{cal} values. Further details of calibration and
data reduction are available in Leavitt et al., 2023. The total analytical uncertainty of the corrected
δ^2H_{BP} values was calculated using standard error propagation of the peak-size adjusted error
estimates and hydrogenation correction assuming all errors to be uncorrelated. The hydrogenation
correction ranged from 10.3 to 12.7 ‰ and increased analytical uncertainty by up to 1.9 ‰.

All $^2H/^1H$ ratios are reported in delta notation (δ^2H) in permil (‰) units relative to the international
seawater standard on the VSMOW-SLAP (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water, Standard Light
Antarctic Precipitation) scale.

Eq. (4)
$$\delta^2 H \ (‰) \ = \ \left(\frac{^2H/\ ^1H_{Sample}}{^2H/\ ^1H_{Standard}} - 1 \right)$$

272   All fractionation factors are reported in epsilon notation ($^2\varepsilon$) in permil (‰) units. The hydrogen
273   isotope fractionation between growth water and BP lipids ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) is calculated as:

274   **Eq. (5 a, b)**
$$^2\alpha_{L/W} \ = \ \frac{^2H/\ ^1H_{BP}}{^2H/\ ^1H_{Water}}$$

275
$$^2\varepsilon_{L/W} \ (‰) \ = \ (\ ^2\alpha_{L/W} - 1 \ )$$

Corrected δ^2H_{BP} values and resulting $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ fractionation factors from biological replicates (n ≥ 1) and
analytical replicates (n ≥ 3) were averaged for each experimental condition. All averages are
weighted means of individual measurements ($1/\sigma^2$ weights) to account for the amplitude-dependent
range in uncertainties. The reported error estimate of each average is the larger of the standard
deviation of all replicates or the propagated uncertainty from individual measurements. Abundance
weighted averages for δ^2H_{BP} and $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values include all BPs with relative abundance > 5%.

The ring difference ($\Delta\varepsilon$/ring), or changes in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ with increasing number of ring structures is
calculated for all pairwise combinations of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ after Leavitt et al., (2023) where X and Y refer to the
ring number of BP moieties and X > Y:

Eq. (6)
$$\frac{\Delta\varepsilon}{ring} (‰) \ = \ \frac{^2\varepsilon_{L/W}(X) -\ ^2\varepsilon_{L/W}(Y)}{(X-Y)}$$

Raw data archived on Zenodo (Harris 2025); code for all data manipulations and statistical analyses
is available on GitHub (https://github.com/carolynnharris/Saci_Enviro_d2H).

3. Results

We examined how temperature, pH, shaking rate, O_2 availability, and electron donor (sucrose) flux
influence H-isotope fractionation in *S. acidocaldarius* through a series of batch, fed-batch, and
chemostat experiments. Details of the growth responses and lipid iGDGT profile responses to these
conditions can be found in Cobban et al., (2020) and Zhou et al., (2019). In brief, each environmental
condition independently influences growth rate, the relative abundance of many subsets of iGDGT
core lipids, and the RI-GDGT (Cobban et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2020) (**Table 1, FIG 2A-E, S1**).

Here, we show that each environmental condition also influences the relative abundance of BP lipids
and the RI-BP (**Table 2**, **FIG. 2F-O**). Among all samples, the relative abundance of biphytanes
averaged 13%, 30%, 49%, 7% for BP-0, -1, -2, and -3, respectively; BP-3 was the least abundant and
was not measurable in some samples. RI-BP ranged from 1.01 to 2.04 and, as expected, was
positively correlated with RI-GDGT ($R^2 = 0.52$, $p = 0.001$, **FIG. S2**). Among all samples, the abundance
weighted mean δ^2H_{BP} values range from -276 to -225 ‰ and were consistently depleted in ^2H relative
to growth water, corresponding to $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values from -230 to -180 ‰ (**Table 2, FIG. 2P-T**).

Despite significant effects on growth rate and lipid cyclization, individual environmental parameters
had minimal impact on $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values, which spanned a range of 44, 31, 15, 21, and 25 ‰ in the
temperature, pH, shaking rate, O_2 availability, and electron donor flux experiments, respectively. We
observed a weak linear relationship between environmental conditions and $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ only in the electron
donor flux experiment, where larger doubling times are associated with slightly less negative $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$
values (smaller offset from water) ($R^2 = 0.89$, $p = 0.22$, slope = 0.72 ± 0.25 ‰/ hour) (**FIG. 2T**).

In the batch and fed-batch experiments, $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values for individual BPs showed no consistent pattern
with increasing number of cyclic moieties and the ring difference ($\Delta\varepsilon$/ring) varied widely in direction
and magnitude among all treatments (-39 to +24 ‰) (**Table 2**, **FIG. 3A-D, S3A-D**). The variability in
mean $\Delta\varepsilon$/ring was smaller, though still not of uniform direction, with values ranging from -5.4 to +10.2
‰ (**Table 2, FIG. S4A-D**). In contrast, $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values in the chemostat experiment generally increased
with the number of cyclic moieties, showing offsets of 3.7, 4.1, and 10.1 ‰ for BP-1, BP-2, and BP-3
relative to BP-0 (**Table 2, FIG. 3E, S3E**). Similarly, the mean ring difference ($\Delta\varepsilon$/ring) was uniformly
positive and showed little variation among doubling times, ranging from 4.9 to 9.2 ‰ (**Table 2, FIG.
S4E**). On average in continuous culture, each additional ring contributes a 7.4 ± 2.2 ‰ increase to
biphytane $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$.

Correlation matrices show the linear relationship between each environmental condition, growth
parameters (doubling time and maximum OD_{600}), mean lipid cyclization indices (RI-BP and RI-GDGT),
$\Delta\varepsilon$/ring and abundance weighted $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values for each environmental condition experiment (**FIG. 4**).
These plots further demonstrate that the minimal variation in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ observed within each experiment

is not related to variation in the experimentally manipulated environmental conditions or any other
measured parameter.

To explore the possibility that lipid/water fractionation is related to optimal growth, we relate
abundance weighted mean $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values to doubling time for each environmental condition (**FIG. 5A-**
E). To allow for comparisons among all environmental conditions, we also relate $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ to doubling
time for all experiments combined. In this pooled dataset, abundance weighted mean $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values
range from -230 to -180 ‰ (mean = -204 ± 12 ‰, based on 22 biological replicates; **Table 2**) and
showed no correlation to doubling time (**FIG. 5F**, R^2 = 0.0, *p* = 0.97), indicating a decoupling between
lipid/water fractionation and growth rate.

4. Discussion

4.1 Effect of environmental conditions on archaeal lipid $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values

The primary goal of this work was to investigate the impact of environmental conditions on
lipid/water fractionation in archaeal lipids, which relates to their potential as archives of
hydroclimate across space and time. The conditions tested in this study were chosen to encompass
the natural conditions of thermoacidophilic archaea, which are globally distributed in hot, acidic
features including fumaroles (steam saturated discharges) as geysers and pools in the terrestrial
environment, and hydrothermal vents in the marine environment (Lewis et al. 2021). Both realms
experience steep and rapidly changing gradients in temperature, pH, oxygen, and dissolved solute
concentrations, which can disturb ecological niches (Reysenbach and Cady 2001). As a result,
Archaea have adapted to or evolved strategies to mitigate these challenges (Auernik et al. 2008;
Lewis et al. 2021).

In *S. acidocaldarius*, our experimental manipulations of temperature, pH, shaking rate, electron
acceptor (O_2) availability, and electron donor (sucrose) flux elicited a 20-fold change in growth rate
and 2-fold change in mean biphytane cyclization (RI-BP), but $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values were largely invariant (-204
± 12 ‰, n = 22). This finding is consistent with previous studies that show archaeal lipids are
consistently ^{2}H-depleted relative to source water and display a narrow range of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values despite
considerable variation in taxonomy, metabolic mode, and growth conditions (Kaneko et al. 2011;
Dirghangi and Pagani 2013; Lengger et al. 2020; Wu et al. 2020; Leavitt et al. 2023; Rhim et al. 2024)
(**FIG 6**).

In heterotrophic archaea, lipid-bound H can originate from water or the organic substrate used for
growth, with intracellular hydride carriers, such as NADPH, mediating the incorporation of H from
both sources into lipids (Zhang et al. 2009a; Dirghangi and Pagani 2013; Wijker et al. 2019). In
heterotrophs, the NADPH incorporated into lipid products inherits some H from the available organic
substrate(s). While there are several potential mechanisms by which each environmental stressor
tested here could influence lipid/water fractionation in archaea, our data suggest these processes

either do not occur or are insufficient to cause a measurable effect. Temperature, pH, oxygen levels,
and nutrient availability are known to trigger physiological responses in archaea, including changes
in growth rates, membrane lipid composition, and enzyme activity (Siliakus et al. 2017; Bischof et al.
2019; Cobban et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2020). Enzyme kinetics, which are influenced by growth
temperature and oxidative stress (Jia et al. 2015), could affect lipid/water fractionation if the enzyme
catalyzing hydrogen transfer is associated with a significant isotope effect (Zhang et al. 2009a). High
temperatures and low pH reduce water exchange across archaeal membranes to prevent osmotic
stress (Siliakus et al. 2017), which could enrich the intracellular water in ^{2}H and potentially reduce
apparent lipid/water fractionation (Sachs and Schwab 2011). Additionally, changes in electron
donor availability can shift the pathway by which NADPH is reduced, which could influence the δ^2H
composition of NADPH, which ultimately supplies protons to lipid products (Thauer et al. 2008;
Spaans et al. 2015). For example, methanogenic archaea switch between the reductive acetyl-CoA
and F_{420}-dependent hydrogenase systems depending on if electron donors (H_2 or formate) are
abundant or limiting (Thauer et al. 2008). Despite these possible mechanisms, lipid/water
fractionation in *S. acidocaldarius* remains largely invariant in each experiment, indicating that these
processes either do not occur or are not significant enough to alter fractionation under the tested
conditions. An alternative hypothesis is that *S. acidocaldarius* maintains a constant internal
metabolic balance, particularly in NADPH production and utilization, regardless of external
conditions.

Physiological responses to stressors impact growth rate and examining $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values in response to
optimal vs. suboptimal growth may provide a more coherent explanation for the non-linear patterns
we observe across the environmental conditions tested. The $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values for *S. acidocaldarius*,
however, are not correlated to growth rate in any single environmental condition experiment or when
data for all conditions are pooled. This finding suggests that cells maintain stable internal metabolic
processes resulting in a consistent H-balance over a range of growth rates and is consistent with the
theory that a constant lipid/water fractionation is a feature of an imperturbable central energy
metabolism (Leavitt et al. 2023; Rhim et al. 2024). *S. acidocaldarius*, like most archaea, employs
energy-efficient metabolic strategies (Wakagi and Oshima 1987; Liu et al. 2021), possibly as an
adaptation to energy-limiting environments (Valentine 2007; Auernik et al. 2008). In tightly controlled
metabolic pathways, the balance between supply and use of NADPH reducing power appears to
remain constant, even under energy-stress conditions. Previous research suggests archaea may
exist in a permanent state of NADPH deficiency such that all NADPH is immediately used for
biosynthesis with little to no flux from NADPH back to NADH (Leavitt et al. 2023). This efficiency in
NADPH use may explain why changing growth rates do not impact kinetic isotope effects associated
with biosynthesis and hydride exchange. NADPH deficiency (deemed NADPH flux imbalance by
Wijker et al., 2019) is associated with energy limitation, and can provide a framework to relate
patterns in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values to the fluxes of H through dehydrogenase and transhydrogenase enzymes.
Indeed, NADPH flux imbalance may explain why all archaea (to-date) and autotrophic and obligately
anaerobic bacteria display negative $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values of similar magnitude (Zhang et al. 2009a; Osburn et

al. 2016; Wijker et al. 2019; Rhim et al. 2024). This similarity is striking given that fatty acids and
isoprenoid GDGTs are formed via different biosynthetic pathways and suggests that the ultimate
control on $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values may be related to free energy yields (Rhim et al. 2024).

Both the O_2 availability and sucrose flux experiments test the hypothesis that energy limitation –
either terminal electron acceptor or donor – can alter $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values in archaea. These experiments
produced the largest range in doubling times (2 to 50 hours and 7 to 44 hours in the O_2 availability
and electron donor experiments, respectively); yet $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values remained fairly consistent (-217 to -
196 ‰ and -276 to -244 ‰, respectively). *N. maritimus* is the only other archaeon in which the
relationship between electron donor (ammonium) flux and lipid/water fractionation was examined
(Leavitt et al. 2023) *N. maritimus* similarly exhibited no significant correlation between a three-fold
change in doubling time and $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values (R^2 = 0.22, *p* = 0.07, slope = 0.18 ± 0.09 ‰/ hour) (Leavitt et
al. 2023). The authors speculate this strain maintains a consistent H-balance over a range of electron
donor fluxes as an adaptation that allows cells to perform nitrification with energy-efficient CO_2
fixation in oligotrophic environments (Leavitt et al. 2023). These findings suggest that archaea with
diverse physiologies (e.g., heterotrophy vs. chemoautotrophy, extremophily vs. mesophily) maintain
a constant lipid-to-water fractionation that is minimally affected by free energy availability and may
reflect the fact that Archaea are adapted to chronic energy limitation (Valentine 2007; Auernik et al.
2008). This stability may reflect tightly regulated physiological processes, such as isoenzyme
switching and modulation of enzyme activities, which help maintain metabolic homeostasis under
both optimal and sub-optimal growth conditions (Bräsen et al. 2014). In contrast, in bacteria and
some planktonic eukaryotes faster growth is associated with larger lipid/water fractionation
(Schouten et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2009b; Sachs and Schwab 2011) and $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values for Bacteria are
influenced by electron donor flux (Zhang et al. 2009a; Osburn et al. 2016; Wijker et al. 2019).

The only other study in archaea to examine the relationship between environmental conditions and
lipid/water fractionation cultured the halophilic heterotrophic archaeon, *H. marismortui* (which
produces archaeol diethers), under varying temperatures and salinities when grown on complex rich
medium (Dirghangi and Pagani 2013). The resulting $^2\varepsilon_{Archaeol/W}$ values are relatively invariant (ranging
from -126 to -143 ‰; more enriched than our observations for *S. acidocaldarius*) and are decoupled
from growth rate (**FIG. S5;** R^2 = 0.07, *p* = 0.7, slope = 0.85 ± 1.84 ‰ / hour; Dirghangi and Pagani 2013),
providing more evidence that archaea maintain a stable internal H-balance across a range of growth
conditions.

The impact of growth phase on H-isotope dynamics has not been studied in depth. The batch and
fed-batch experiment techniques used here for *S. acidocaldarius* and in the *H. marismortui* study
integrate across growth stages, whereas the chemostat electron donor flux experiments for *S.*
acidocaldarius and *N. maritimus* achieve constant growth rates. A recent study grew *A. fulgidus* in
batch cultures and found that $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values were more depleted (larger offset from water) during
exponential phase relative to stationary phase (Rhim et al. 2024). This pattern was consistent

between heterotrophic and autotrophic experiments. The culture conditions in Rhim et al. resulted
in a threefold difference in growth rates (similar change to the *N. maritimus* study, but much smaller
range than the 20-fold change we report for *S. acidocaldarius* here) and a 50 ‰ change in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values
(-280 ‰ to -230 ‰). Rhim and coauthors conclude that both metabolic mode (heterotrophic vs.
autotrophic growth) and growth phase impact $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values, though the total variance among all
treatments was small and overlaps which ranges reported for other archaea (Rhim et al. 2024).

4.2 Effect of biphytane ring number on archaeal lipid $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values

Stoichiometric modeling predicts that BPs with more rings incorporate less of the highly-
fractionated hydrogen donated through GGR reduction, a process where the enzyme geranyl-geranyl
reductase (GGR) catalyzes the reduction of double bonds in isoprenoid chains, thereby affecting the
isotopic composition of the resulting lipids (Leavitt et al. 2023). Interestingly, in our *S. acidocaldarius*
work, this stepwise enrichment is only seen in the chemostat experiments, where each additional
ring contributes 7.4 ± 2.2 ‰ to biphytane $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values. In the batch and fed-batch experiments, there
is no consistent dependence of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values on the number of biphytane moieties. In particular, the
Δε/ring trends differ between the shaking rate and O_2 availability experiments, which likely reflects
the fact that shaking rate can also impart stress via physical agitation in addition to increasing
oxygenation of microbial media (Cobban et al. 2020).

iGDGT-derived BPs extracted from marine sediments also lack a clear stepwise enrichment with
increasing ring moieties (Kaneko et al. 2011), but this likely occurs because sediments integrate
lipids synthesized by different populations of archaea that are either growing on multiple substrates
or in different water masses (Kaneko et al. 2011). It is less clear why the pure *S. acidocaldarius* batch
and fed-batch cultures do not display a ring-specific pattern, though it perhaps relates to variations
in biosynthetic fractionations accompanying changes in lipid biosynthesis across the growth phases
(Elling et al. 2014). Considering all the available data, this enrichment pattern appears only minimally
affected by differences in growth rate and metabolism, as the magnitude of per-ring increase in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$
value is similar for *Sulfolobus* sp. (Kaneko et al. 2011), *S. acidocaldarius* (chemostat experiment in
this study), and *N. maritimus* (Leavitt et al. 2023), which collectively represent a 5-fold range of
growth rates, and a variety of metabolisms and carbon substrates (*Sulfolobus* sp. = yeast extract +
O_2; *S. acidocaldarius* = sucrose + O_2; *N. maritimus* = chemoautotroph on NH_4 + O_2). The magnitude
of this stepwise enrichment, however, is small and would likely have a minor impact (usually < 10
‰) on the abundance weighted mean $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ value even in cases where the BP Ring Index was
markedly different among samples.

4.3 Archaeal lipid $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ as a function of central metabolism

The *S. acidocaldarius* $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values we report are broadly similar to results from previous experimental
investigations of the *Sulfolobus* genus cultured heterotrophically. When grown at 75 °C and pH 2 on
yeast extract, a *Sulfolobus* strain displayed $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values from -213 to -161 ‰ for BP-0 to -4

(abundance weighted mean = -180 ‰ (Kaneko et al. 2011) vs. -204 ± 12 ‰ for *S. acidocaldarius*

here). In another study, *Sulfolobus solfataricus* grown at 76 °C and pH 3.5 on glutamate displayed

more enriched $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values, averaging -134 ‰ when intact iGDGT-1 and -2 were analyzed (Lengger et

al. 2020). The difference in $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values may in part be due to the structures analyzed. Lengger and

colleagues analyzed intact iGDGTs including the glycerols which may enrich the δ^2H_{iGDGT}

composition, though the different substrate may also play a role (Lengger et al. 2020). Glutamate, an

amino acid, is a more complex substrate than simple sugars (such as sucrose) and primarily enters

the *Sulfolobus* central metabolism through the TCA cycle (Quehenberger et al. 2019). Simple sugars

enter metabolism primarily through the Entner-Doudoroff pathway, which converts the sugar to

intermediates that feed into the TCA cycle (Quehenberger et al. 2019).

When *S. acidocaldarius* is grown heterotrophically on a simple sugar (glucose), the weighted mean

δ^2H composition of biphytane lipids is strongly correlated with δ^2H_{Water}, indicating a strong first-order

control (see *Supplementary Materials*, **FIG. S6**). A simple isotope mass balance model (**Eq. S1**)

suggests water contributes at least 56 ± 1% of the total H flux to lipids (**FIG. S7**). Further experimental

work and complementary isotope flux models are needed to determine the specific pathways (and

associated isotope effects) used during iGDGT synthesis in *S. acidocaldarius* (Harris et al. 2022).

Autotrophic archaea that produce iGDGTs, however, source their entire H budget to lipids from water

in the growth environment and show more negative $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values than those we observe for *S.*

acidocaldarius. In the marine chemoautotroph, *N. maritimus*, grown in continuous culture, BP/water

fractionation ranged from -272 to -260 ‰ (Leavitt et al. 2023). Similarly, BP/water fractionations for

a metabolically-flexible archaeon, *Archaeoglobus fulgidus*, ranged from -280 to -226 ‰ when

cultured with several unique carbon substrates and electron donor/acceptor pairs (Rhim et al.

2024). This difference may be driven by the distinct metabolic modes used (e.g., autotrophy vs.

heterotrophy) and/or by unique metabolic pathways that employ various intracellular hydride

carriers and reductants to bring H's to the lipid sites, which could generate different net biosynthetic

fractionations. Metabolic flux models suggest that in autotrophic archaea (e.g., *N. maritimus*), H-

isotope fractionation due to the electron transport chain and NADPH generation result in more

depleted lipids than for heterotrophic archaea, such as *Sulfolobus* species, because the source of

NADPH impacts $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values (Leavitt et al. 2023). In both heterotrophic and aerobic archaea, most

NADPH is generated by glucose dehydrogenase and potentially glyceraldehyde dehydrogenase from

the Entner-Doudoroff pathway (Nunn et al. 2010; Bräsen et al. 2014).

Overall, the range of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values in Archaeal lipids is narrower than the ranges observed in Bacteria

or Eukarya (**FIG. 6**). While the sample size for Bacteria and Eukarya are two-fold and four-fold larger

than for Archaea, respectively, Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances confirm that Archaeal

$^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values have smaller variance compared to Eukarya ($K^2_{(1)} = 16.4$, $p < 0.0001$) and Bacteria ($K^2_{(1)} =$

118.5, $p < 0.0001$) after accounting for sample size. Reported $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values for bacterial fatty acids

vary over 600 ‰ and include large negative and large positive values (Campbell et al. 2009; Zhang et

al. 2009a; Osburn et al. 2016; Wijker et al. 2019; Rhim et al. 2024). In Eukarya, $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values are
uniformly negative and span over 300 ‰, though certain lipid classes group together (Sessions et al.
1999; Zhang and Sachs 2007; Sachs et al. 2016). Lipids that are formed via the same biosynthetic
pathway (e.g., acetogenic or isoprenoid pathway) tend to occupy distinct ranges of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ (Rhim et al.
2024). Isoprenoid lipids produced via the MVA pathway in eukaryotes have similar $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values to
iGDGT-derived biphytanes in archaea (Rhim et al. 2024). This similarity suggests that the MVA
pathway used for isoprenoid lipid biosynthesis has a large net fractionation in both domains of life.

513   4.4 Applications and Conclusion

Our calibration of biphytane δ^2H composition as a proxy for the δ^2H of environmental water in *S.*
acidocaldarius has significant implications for paleohydroclimate and paleoecology
reconstructions. First, this calibration may enable hydroclimate factors like precipitation, elevation,
and seasonality to be reconstructed for environments that do not contain traditionally analyzed lipid
biomarkers (e.g., plant waxes) – this includes extreme environments that do not support plant growth
(e.g., terrestrial hydrothermal systems, salars, and hyperarid regions). Archaeal lipid δ^2H values will
be most powerful as a proxy in cases where a single-substrate source is a reasonable assumption.

Second, biphytane δ^2H composition could be applied to marine or lacustrine sedimentary archives
where multiple sources of organic matter are suspected, such as a mix of plant waxes representing
in situ marine/ aquatic production and allochthonous terrestrial production (e.g., aeolian
deposition). In this case, plant wax δ^2H values would reflect a mixture of growth waters (marine/lake
water and soil water). In contrast, iGDGTs are likely derived solely from archaea living in the overlying
water column with few potential terrestrial sources and thus the δ^2H composition of iGDGTs would
only reflect marine/lake water (Pearson and Ingalls 2013).

Here, we show that in the model thermoacidophile *S. acidocaldarius* grown on simple sugars, lipid-
water fractionation ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) is not dependent on any of the environmental conditions tested or on
growth rate. This finding suggests that *S. acidocaldarius* may have evolved stable metabolisms that
exist in a constant NADPH deficit, possibly reflecting adaptation to energy-limiting environments.
We conclude that *S. acidocaldarius* will likely demonstrate reliably invariant lipid/water fractionation
regardless of growth rate, nutrient status, or energy availability, and that lipid/water fractionation
may be more constant for certain archaeons than for phototrophic eukaryotes. For both domains,
however, there is more variability in lipid/water fraction relative to the spatial and temporal variability
in precipitation δ^2H values, and more research is needed to understand the sources of this variation
so that it can be accounted for in proxy applications.

This calibration underscores the potential for archaeal lipid δ^2H composition as a proxy for past
hydroclimates that could complement or be used independently of eukaryotic lipid δ^2H
composition. Future research should focus on exploring the effects of growth phase and metabolic

pathways on lipid/water fractionation in *S. acidocaldarius* and other archaeal species. Expanding
these investigations to include more diverse environmental conditions, such as varying carbon
substrates or mixed microbial communities, could further validate the consistency of $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values
and refine its utility as a hydrological proxy. Integrating isotope flux models with experimental data
such as those generated here, will allow us to better elucidate the specific biochemical pathways
responsible for the observed fractionation patterns in domain Archaea.

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Tables

Table 1. Summary of culture conditions and descriptive growth statistics for *S. acidocaldarius* grown over
varying environmental conditions. Data for batch and fed-batch environmental condition experiments were
initially reported in Cobban et al., (2020), data for chemostat experiment was initially reported in Zhou et al.,
(2019).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for biphytanyl (BP) lipids derived from iGDGTs for *S. acidocaldarius* grown under
varying environmental conditions. Mean and sd include biological replication (N ≥ 1) and technical replication
(e.g., multiple injections, n ≥ 3). *For batch experiments, RPM is shaking rate; for bioreactor experiments, RPM
is impellor speed.

Figures

Fig 1. (A) Representative chromatogram of intensity vs. retention time for four iGDGT-derived biphytane (BP)
moieties identified in *S. acidocaldarius* biomass that are named for the number of cyclopentane rings they
contain. Although a BP-3 peak was detected, in many cases it is present in too low quantities to perform
isotopic measurements **(B)** The identity and structure of BP-0 to BP-3.

Fig. 2. Results for *S. acidocaldarius* grown under varying environmental conditions. Top row (**A-E**): Doubling
time in response to each environmental condition. Second row (**F-J**): Relative abundance of biphytane (BP)
lipids derived from iGDGTs. BP-3 was the least abundant and was below the detection limit in some samples.
Bars represent the mean across replicates for each treatment level. Third row (**K-O**): Ring Index (RI-BP) of
biphytane lipids derived from iGDGTs. Bottom row (**P-T**) The abundance weighted mean H-isotope
fractionation ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) between growth water and biphytanes. For all rows, points represent the mean and
propagated error across biological and technical replicates for each treatment level. In many cases, error bars
are smaller than symbols. Only statistically significant regressions are shown ($p < 0.05$).

Fig. 3. (**A-E**) Ring difference ($\Delta\varepsilon$/ring, ‰) for individual biphytanes in each environmental condition experiment. BP-0 has a $\Delta\varepsilon$/ring of 0 by definition and is shown for reference. BP-3 was not recovered from every treatment. Note the axes are scaled differently for each plot. Points represent mean of biological and technical replicates for each treatment level. (**F**) Ring difference for biphytanes examined in other studies. Blue diamonds are *N. maritimus* from Leavitt et al., 2023; red squares are *Sulfolobus* sp. from Kaneko et al., 2011. Kaneko et al., also recovered BP-4 from *Sulfolobus* spp. (data not shown); the $\Delta\varepsilon$/ring for BP-4 is 11.7 ‰.

Fig. 4. Correlation matrices showing linear relationships among environmentally manipulated parameters, growth statistics (doubling time (T_D) and maximum OD_{600}), mean cyclization of lipids (RI-GDGT and RI-BP), ring difference, and abundance weighted mean $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ for (**A**) temperature, (**B**) pH, (**C**) aeration rate, (**D**) O_2 mixing ratio, and (**E**) electron donor flux. Notably, mean $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values do not show a strong linear correlation to any other measured parameter, indicating that environmental conditions, growth statistics, and mean cyclization do not significantly influence the degree of lipid/water fractionation in *S. acidocaldarius*. Circle color and size indicate the strength and direction (blue = correlated, red = anticorrelated) of the relationship. Significance levels: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.001$, *** $p < 0.0001$. Circles without a star indicate the relationship is not statistically significant.

Fig. 5. The abundance weighted H-isotope fractionation ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) between growth water and biphytanes (BPs) in response to doubling time (hours) in each individual environmental condition experiment (**A-E**) and pooled across all experiments (**F**). When data from all environmental control experiments is pooled, there is no relationship between doubling time (hours) and abundance weighted mean $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$. Points represent mean of biological and technical replicates for each treatment level. Error bars represent propagated error associated with BP abundance measurements, BP-δ^2H measurements, and weighted mean $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ calculations; bars are smaller than the symbols in many cases.

Fig. 6. Summary of lipid/water fractionation ($^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$) in culture studies across three domains of life: eukaryotic
phototrophs (green; n = 270), bacteria (blue; n = 140), and archaea (pink; n = 72). Tick marks indicate
individual $^2\varepsilon_{L/W}$ values; shaded curves indicate probability density functions. Archaea data includes
measurements of phytanes and biphytanes from *Sulfolobus* sp. (Kaneko et al., 2011), *M. barkeri* (Wu et al.,
2020), *N. maritimus* (Leavitt et al., 2022), *Acidianus* sp. DS80, *A. fulgidus*, and *Metallosphaera sedula* (Rhim
et al., 2024), and *S. acidocaldarius* (this study; black tick marks). Data for Eukarya and Bacteria is redrawn
from Rhim et al., (2024), Figure 6. Eukarya data includes measurements for acetogenic and isoprenoid lipids.
Bacteria data includes fatty acids synthesized by multiple metabolisms (e.g., aerobic and anaerobic
heterotrophy, aerobic and anaerobic chemoautotrophy, and photoautotrophy).