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1	The stable carbon and hydrogen isotopic composition of microbial fatty acids
2	traces microbial metabolism in soils and peats
3	
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21 ABSTRACT

The compound-specific stable carbon (δ^{13} C) and hydrogen (δ^{2} H) isotopic 22 compositions of microbial fatty acids have been widely used to trace microbial 23 metabolism across a range of mesophilic environments. However, few studies have 24 combined the δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H values of microbial fatty acids. So far none have determined 25 the δ^2 H of microbial phospholipid fatty acids (PLFAs) in soils or peats, even though 26 these stable isotope combinations could provide new insights into soil microbial 27 metabolism. Here, we measured the δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H values of microbial PLFAs in top 28 29 soils from peatlands, meadows, and woodlands in the Dajiuhu basin, central China. We observed a significant (p < 0.05) positive correlation between the δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H of 30 microbial PLFAs across the three habitats studied here, indicating that central metabolic 31 32 pathways affect both carbon and hydrogen isotopic compositions of microbial PLFAs. Moreover, our stable isotope data consistently indicate a relatively conservative 33 metabolic state, which is dominated by expected heterotrophic metabolism. The 34 exception to these observations is PLFAs associated with methanotrophs, as these 35 appear to have decoupled carbon and hydrogen isotopes, providing an additional tool 36 for tracing methanotrophic signals. Our results suggest that the carbon and hydrogen 37 dual isotopic composition of microbial PLFAs can not only provide cross-validation for 38 microbial metabolism in natural environments, but as a combined tool can also provide 39 new insights into the perturbation of soil microbial community metabolism. 40

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42 Keywords: δ^{13} C; δ^{2} H; isotopic composition; fatty acids; soil microbial metabolism

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43 1. INTRODUCTION

Microorganisms are critical drivers of Earth's carbon, nitrogen, sulfur, and other 44 45 elemental cycles. Identifying and understanding microbial metabolic activity is critical to assessing microbial function and its feedback to the environment (Bardgett et al., 46 2008; Jansson and Hofmockel, 2020). Microbial membrane lipids and their compound-47 specific isotopic compositions provide an effective tool for in situ identification of 48 microbial communities and metabolic activities (Vestal and White, 1989; Boschker and 49 Middelburg, 2002; Pancost and Sinninghe Damsté, 2003; Lengger et al., 2019; Blewett 50 51 et al., 2022). The isotopic signals of microbial lipids preserved in sediments can also be used to reconstruct past biogeochemical processes (Hayes et al., 1990; Pancost et al., 52 2007; van Winden et al., 2012; Elvert et al., 2016; Talbot et al., 2016; Naafs et al., 2019; 53 54 Blewett et al., 2022).

Among the wide range of microbial lipids, fatty acids are fundamental components 55 of the cell membrane phospholipid bilayer. They are biosynthesized by bacteria and 56 57 eukaryotes and are the biosynthetic precursors for other *n*-alkyl lipids (Ohlrogge and Browse, 1995; Schirmer et al., 2010; Sachse et al., 2012). Cell membrane phospholipid-58 derived fatty acids (PLFAs) are representative of the living microbial community, as 59 phospholipids degrade rapidly (hours to days) after cell death (White et al., 1979; 60 Kindler et al., 2009; Dippold and Kuzyakov, 2016; Zhang et al., 2019). The diversity in 61 the structure of PLFAs is empirically linked to broad groups of soil microbiota such as 62 Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria (e.g., Zelles, 1999; Hill et al., 2000; 63 Frostegård et al., 2011). On this basis, the stable carbon and hydrogen isotopic 64

compositions of microbial PLFAs have been used to track substrate utilization and
metabolic activities across microbial communities (e.g., Zhang et al., 2004; Evershed
et al., 2007; Brady et al., 2010; Watzinger, 2015; Heinzelmann et al., 2018).

The stable carbon isotopic composition (δ^{13} C) of PLFAs has been studied and 68 applied particularly extensively. The δ^{13} C values of microbial fatty acids are 69 predominantly controlled by the δ^{13} C of the substrate and kinetic isotope effects (KIEs) 70 during microbial carbon assimilation and fatty acid biosynthesis (Monson and Hayes, 71 1982; Hayes, 1993, 2001; Pancost and Sinninghe Damsté, 2003). Laboratory incubation 72 73 experiments have found that heterotrophic microbes are characterized by a smaller carbon isotopic fractionation (ECFA/substrate) between their fatty acids and substrate 74 (Monson and Hayes, 1982; Blair et al., 1985; Abraham et al., 1998; Cowie et al., 2009) 75 76 compared to autotrophs and methanotrophs that produce more ¹³C-depleted lipids (Summons et al., 1994; Sakata et al., 1997; Jahnke et al., 1999, 2001; van der Meer et 77 al., 1998, 2001; Zhang et al., 2003; Londry et al., 2004, 2008; Schouten et al., 2004). 78 As a result, the isotopic fractionation signature of fatty acids has been investigated in 79 many natural environments, including soils and marsh sediments (Boschker et al., 1999; 80 Cifuentes and Salata, 2001; Burke et al., 2003; Pelz et al., 2005; Stemmer et al., 2007; 81 Watzinger et al., 2008, 2014), hot spring (Zhang et al., 2004; Pancost et al., 2006; 82 Naraoka et al., 2010), underground aquifers (Fang et al., 2006; Mills et al., 2010; 83 Simkus et al., 2016), rocks (Petsch et al., 2003; Seifert et al., 2013; Ziolkowski et al., 84 2013; Brady et al., 2018), lake sediments (Brady et al., 2010, 2014; Chen et al., 2019), 85

86	and marine sediments (Cifuentes and Salata, 2001; Zhang et al., 2002, 2005), and they
87	have provided a wealth of information on microbial carbon metabolism in these settings.
88	Compared to carbon isotopes, the hydrogen isotopic composition ($\delta^2 H$) of microbial
89	fatty acids is relatively poorly studied. Unlike carbon, the stable hydrogen isotopic
90	composition of microbial fatty acids is mainly controlled by the $\delta^2 H$ of the source water
91	and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) metabolism rather than
92	that of the substrate (Saito et al., 1980; Sessions et al., 1999, 2002; Valentine et al., 2004;
93	Campbell et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2009; Valentine, 2009; Wijker et al., 2019). For
94	instance, fatty acids produced by heterotrophic bacteria are only modestly depleted or
95	even enriched in ² H relative to source water, with hydrogen isotope fractionation
96	($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) between fatty acids and source water ranging from -150 ‰ to +400 ‰
97	(Zhang et al., 2009; Dirghangi and Pagani, 2013; Fang et al., 2014; Heinzelmann et al.,
98	2015a, 2015b; Wijker et al., 2019). In contrast, fatty acids produced by photo- and
99	chemoautotrophs are more depleted in $^2\mathrm{H},$ with $\epsilon\mathrm{H}_{FA/water}$ ranging from -220 ‰ to -160 ‰
100	and -400 ‰ to -250 ‰, respectively (Sessions et al., 1999; Valentine et al., 2004;
101	Campbell et al., 2009, 2017; Zhang et al., 2009; Heinzelmann et al., 2015a, 2015b;
102	Leavitt et al., 2016, 2017; Osburn et al., 2016). This difference suggests that the δ^2 H of
103	microbial fatty acids could be used to trace microbial metabolic activities in natural
104	environments, such as ocean, lake, and hot spring sediments (Sessions et al., 1999;
105	Jones et al., 2008; Li et al., 2009; Naraoka et al., 2010; Osburn et al., 2011; Dawson et
106	al., 2015; Heinzelmann et al., 2016, 2018; Ladd et al., 2017, 2018; Zhao et al., 2020a;

107 Chen et al., 2021). However, to our knowledge, the δ^2 H of microbial PLFAs has not 108 been reported from soils and peats.

109 Even though a few studies have adopted a dual carbon and hydrogen compoundspecific isotope approach (Huang et al., 2005; Naraoka et al., 2010; Feakins et al., 2018; 110 He et al., 2022; McFarlin et al., 2023), paired data for δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H of microbial lipids 111 are very scarce. Theoretically, both the δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H of microbial lipids are impacted 112 by microbial metabolism, the former through the substrate and the latter through the 113 role of NADPH in lipid biosynthesis, but these are based on laboratory cultures with 114 controllable substrates that are rarely representative of the natural environment. 115 Whether δ^2 H of microbial lipids can be used to track the core metabolism of microbial 116 communities in natural environments needs to be further verified (Osburn et al., 2011; 117 118 Dawson et al., 2015; Ladd et al., 2017; Heinzelmann et al., 2018). More importantly, the relationship between microbial lipid $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{2}H$ is unclear, especially in the 119 natural environment. Whether their combination can provide complementary or 120 contrasting metabolic information has not yet been tested, inhibiting the emergence of 121 new tools for understanding (past) key microbial metabolic processes. 122

In this study, we investigated the δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H values of microbial PLFAs in natural soil samples, including a peatland, meadow, and woodland. These data have been combined with measurements of environmental parameters such as soil total organic carbon content (TOC), δ^{13} C of bulk soil organic carbon (δ^{13} C_{bulk}), soil water δ^{2} H (δ^{2} H_{water}), soil water content (SWC), soil pH, and nutrients. Our objectives are to explore (1) the characteristics of δ^{13} C_{PLFA} and δ^{2} H_{PLFA} and their offsets with δ^{13} C_{bulk}

 $(\epsilon C_{FA/bulk})$ and $\delta^2 H_{water}$ ($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) in natural peats and soils, (2) the relationship between 129 $\delta^{13}C_{PLFA}$ ($\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$) and $\delta^{2}H_{PLFA}$ ($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) and constrain whether they reflect similar, 130 131 complementary, or contrasting metabolic information, and (3) the impacts of lipid biosynthetic pathway and environmental parameters on the isotopic offset of microbial 132 PLFAs across these contrasting environments. 133

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2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Study site and sampling 136

Samples were collected from the Dajiuhu basin (31°25'~31°32' N, 109°58'~110°08' 137 E), a closed subalpine basin with an average altitude of 1730 m above sea level (Huang 138 et al., 2018). This basin has diverse habitats, including natural peatlands, meadows, 139 140 broadleaf deciduous woodlands, rivers, and (artificial) shallow lakes (Fig. 1). Due to its importance to biodiversity, this area has been a national park and was adopted into the 141 list of Wetland of International Importance (Ramsar List) and the World Wildlife Fund 142 Global 200. 143

Subtropical humid monsoon climate predominates in this region, with a mean annual 144 rainfall of 1560 mm and a mean annual temperature of 7.2 °C (Huang and Meyers, 145 2019). The dominant vegetation in the peatlands includes Sphagnum palustre, Carex 146 argyi, Sanguisorba officinalis, and Euphorbia esula (Luo et al., 2015). In meadows, 147 Carex argyi and Juncus effusus are the dominant species under wetter conditions, while 148 Anaphalis sinica, Fragaria orientalis, and Scirpus karuizawensis become abundant 149 under drier conditions (Luo et al., 2015). In woodlands, Quercus aliena var. 150

151 *acuteserrata* and *Malus hupehensi* become important (Li et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2020).

During a field campaign in June 2018, two transects across different habitats were

set following a previous investigation into the vegetation (Luo et al., 2015). A total of

22 topsoil samples (0-5 cm) were collected across these transects, including samples

from peatland, meadow, and deciduous woodland habitats (Fig. 1). The samples were

quickly transported to the laboratory and preserved in a freezer before further treatment.

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158 2.2. Soil environmental and bulk geochemical analysis

Soil temperature was measured during the field campaign with a HQ40d portable meter (Hach, U.S.A.). Soil water content (SWC) was calculated by comparing the weight of fresh samples versus that after freeze-drying. Soil pH was measured on a mixture of soil and water (1:5, v:v). The freeze-dried and ground soil sample was immersed in deionized water for 30 min. The solution was centrifuged (4000 rpm/min) for 3 min. The supernatant was collected to measure the pH value using a HQ40d portable meter (Hach, U.S.A.).

The concentration of NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N was analyzed using a San⁺⁺ continuous flow analyzer (Sakalar Analytical B.V.). A fresh soil sample of ca. 3 g was added to a centrifuge tube, then 30 mL KCl (1 mol/L) was added. The solution was mixed using a shaker for 1 h, and then centrifuged (2500 rpm/min) for 10 min. Then 2 mL supernatant was mixed with 8 mL KCl (1 mol/L) and run on the continuous flow analyzer. Soil TOC, C/N, and δ^{13} C_{bulk} were analyzed using a Flash EA2000 elemental analyzer

172 coupled to a Finnigan MAT253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Freeze-dried samples

173	were ground and sieved through a 200-mesh sieve, then HCl was added to remove
174	carbonate. The sample was freeze-dried again, then ca. 40-60 mg dried sample was
175	packed into tin cups and analyzed. A replicate sample was measured for every six
176	samples to monitor combustion efficiency. Reproducibility was better than 0.2 ‰. Two
177	standards of GBW04407 ($\delta^{13}C = -22.4 \%$) and GBW04408 ($\delta^{13}C = -36.9 \%$) were used
178	to calibrate the $\delta^{13}C$ data (more details about the two standards can be found here
179	https://www.ncrm.org.cn/English/CRM/pdf/GBW04407_20160301_09391399_87300
180	3.pdf). Blank correction is performed by burning tin cups without samples. We
181	controlled the injection volume to ensure that the peak amplitude (range 1-6 V) of the
182	sample was similar to that of the standards. $\delta^{13}C$ results are reported in the δ notation
183	(‰) relative to the Vienna Peedee Belemnite (VPDB) standard.

184 Soil water was extracted using a LI-2100 cryogenic vacuum extraction system (LICA

185 United Technology Limited, China). The δ^2 H of soil water was analyzed using an IWA-

186 35-EP liquid water isotope analyzer (Los Gatos Research, U.S.A.). Reproducibility was

187 better than 1 ‰. δ^2 H results are reported in the δ notation (‰) relative to the Vienna

188 Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) standard.

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190 2.3. Lipid extraction

Freeze-dried soil samples were ground and sieved through a 60-mesh sieve. Fresh plant material was removed to minimize the influence of plant-derived PLFAs. A modified Bligh and Dyer method was applied to extract phospholipids (Bligh and Dyer, 1959; White et al., 1979). Briefly, 5 g of ground soil was immersed in a mixture of

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dichloromethane (DCM), methanol, and phosphate buffer (1:2:0.8, v:v) and 195 ultrasonically extracted for 15 min. The solution was then centrifuged (4000 rpm/min) 196 197 for 4 min, and the supernatant was transferred into a separatory funnel. Additional DCM and ultrapure water were added into the separatory funnel to modify the solvent ratio to 198 1:1:0.9 (DCM: methanol: phosphate buffer). The mixture was shaken vigorously and 199 left overnight, and the prior homogenous mixture gradually changed to a lower organic 200 phase and an upper aqueous phase. The organic phase was collected and concentrated 201 to obtain the total lipid extract (TLE). The TLE was then separated into neutral lipid, 202 203 glycolipid, and phospholipid fractions using silica gel column chromatography with eluents of DCM+2% acetic acid (Dickson et al., 2009), acetone, and methanol, 204 respectively. 205

206 The phospholipid fraction was derivatized to yield phospholipid fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) using mild alkaline methanolysis (Dowling et al., 1986). An internal 207 standard (n-C₁₉ fatty acid) was added for quantification before the transesterification, 208 209 for which methanolic potassium hydroxide solution (0.2 mol/L) was added to the phospholipid fraction. The mixture was capped and heated at 37 °C for 15 min. After 210 211 cooling to room temperature, acetic acid was added to neutralize the solution. Then nhexane and double distilled water were added and mixed vigorously to allow separation. 212 The upper phase (hexane) containing the FAMEs was transferred by pipette. *n*-Hexane 213 was added three times, and the upper phases were combined and dried under a gentle 214 215 nitrogen stream.

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217 2.4. GC-MS analysis

FAMEs were analyzed using a HP 6890 gas chromatograph equipped with a HP 5973 218 mass selective detector (GC-MS) and a DB-5 MS capillary column (30 m \times 0.25 mm 219 internal diameter, 0.25 µm film thickness). The GC oven temperature was programmed 220 221 as follows: the initial temperature was set at 50 °C (1 min hold), increased to 210 °C at 2 °C/min, and then increased to 310 °C at 4 °C/min (15 min hold). Compounds were 222 identified by comparison with published mass spectra (Jensen and Gross, 1987), 223 retention times of a FAMEs standard mixture (Supelco, 47885-U and 47080-U), and 224 MIDI identification software (MIDI Inc., Newark, Delaware, U.S.A.). The position of 225 double bonds of monounsaturated fatty acids was determined by dimethyl disulfide 226 derivatization following the method from Nichols et al. (1986). 227

228

229 2.5. GC-C-IRMS analysis

Compound-specific δ^{13} C analysis of the FAMEs was conducted using a Finnigan 230 Trace GC coupled with a Finnigan Delta XP isotope ratio mass spectrometer equipped 231 with a DB-5MS column (60×0.25 mm internal diameter, film thickness 0.25 µm). The 232 GC oven temperature was programmed from 50 °C (1 min hold) to 210 °C (2 min hold) 233 at 10 °C/min, then increased to 300 °C (2 min hold) at 4 °C/min, and finally increased 234 to 310 °C (25.5 min hold) at 10 °C/min. The temperature of the oxidation oven was set 235 at 950 °C. Squalane ($\delta^{13}C = -19.8$ ‰) was used as an internal standard. Instrument 236 reliability and stability were evaluated for every two samples (four analyses) using a 237 mixture of FAMEs (*n*-C₁₄, *n*-C₁₆, *n*-C₁₈, and *n*-C₂₀) with known δ^{13} C values (from 238

Indiana University). Results are reported in the δ notation (‰) relative to the VPDB standard. Reproducibility of the δ^{13} C values was better than 0.5 ‰, based on duplicate analyses. We controlled the injection volume by the dilution of samples to ensure that the peak amplitude (0.5 ~ 4 V) of the FAME analytes was similar to that of the standards. We also discarded isotope data for any compounds with peak amplitude below 0.5 V. To correct for the addition of a methyl carbon during transesterification, we used the following mass balance equation:

246
$$\delta^{13}C_{PLFA} = [(n+1) \times \delta^{13}C_{FAME} - \delta^{13}C_{methanol}]/n$$

where *n* is the carbon number of fatty acids, $\delta^{13}C_{FAME}$ is the measured $\delta^{13}C$ value of fatty acid methyl esters, and $\delta^{13}C_{methanol}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value of the methanol used for the transesterification, which is calculated by derivatizing phthalic acid with known $\delta^{13}C$ (provided by Dr Arndt Schimmelmann, Indiana University).

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252 2.6. GC-TC-IRMS analysis

Compound-specific δ^2 H analysis of FAMEs was conducted using a Finnigan Trace 253 GC coupled with a Delta V Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer equipped with 254 a DB-5MS column (60×0.25 mm internal diameter, film thickness 1.0 μ m). The GC 255 oven program was identical to that of the carbon isotopic analysis. The high-256 temperature conversion oven had a temperature of 1400 °C. Squalane ($\delta^2 H = -167 \%$) 257 was used as an internal standard. Instrument reliability and stability were checked using 258 a mixture of FAMEs (*n*-C₁₄, *n*-C₁₆, *n*-C₁₈, and *n*-C₂₀) with known δ^2 H values (from 259 Indiana University). Results are reported in the δ notation (‰) relative to the VSMOW 260

standard. Reproducibility of the δ^2 H values was better than 5 ‰ based on duplicate 261 analyses. The H₃⁺ factor was measured daily with peak heights varying from 1 to 7 V, 262 which had an average of 3.54 ppm/mV (range from 3.46 to 3.68) during the 263 measurement period. We controlled the injection volume by the dilution of samples to 264 ensure that the peak amplitude $(1 \sim 4 \text{ V})$ of the FAME analytes was similar to that of 265 the standards. We also discarded isotope data for any compounds with peak amplitude 266 below 1V. To correct for the addition of hydrogen during the transesterification, the 267 following mass balance equation was used: 268

269
$$\delta^{2} H_{PLFA} = [(2n+2) \times \delta^{2} H_{FAME} - 3 \times \delta^{2} H_{methanol}]/(2n-1)$$

270 Where *n* is the carbon number of fatty acids, $\delta^2 H_{FAME}$ is the measured $\delta^2 H$ value of fatty 271 acid methyl esters, and $\delta^2 H_{methanol}$ is the $\delta^2 H$ value of the methanol used for the 272 transesterification, which is calculated by derivatizing phthalic acid with known $\delta^2 H$ as 273 described by Session (2006).

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275 2.7. Isotopic offset calculation and statistical analyses

The carbon and hydrogen isotopic offset of PLFAs relative to bulk organic carbon and source water were calculated as follows:

278
$$\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{PLFA} + 1}{\delta^{13}C_{bulk} + 1} - 1$$

279
$$\epsilon H_{FA/water} = \frac{\delta^2 H_{PLFA} + 1}{\delta^2 H_{water} + 1} - 1$$

The results were multiplied by the factor of 1,000 and reported as per mil (‰) (Coplen et al., 2011; Sachse et al., 2012). Another commonly used term, the fractionation factor α , can be related to the ε by:

 $\epsilon = \alpha - 1$

The factor lambda (Λ) is defined by the slope of the linear regression for carbon and hydrogen dual isotope discrimination (Elsner et al., 2007; Feisthauer et al., 2011):

286
$$\Lambda = \frac{\alpha_{\rm H}^{-1} - 1}{\alpha_{\rm C}^{-1} - 1}$$

The Λ term was originally defined as a specific reaction in which the isotopic effects of carbon and hydrogen are both due to the same enzymatic process. In our samples, the fractionation values represent the average of different microorganisms and different enzymatic reaction processes in the natural environments. Therefore, we refer to the mathematically identical 'correlation slope' instead of Λ in the following text.

To test whether there are significant differences in environmental parameters and microbial composition in the three habitats, variance analysis (ANOVA) and cluster analysis were performed using the IBM SPSS Statistics 25.0 software. Correlation analysis was performed using the R 4.1.2 software with the "corrplot" package (Wei and Simko, 2021). The results were expressed using Pearson correlation coefficients (r) and significance p values.

298

299 **3. RESULTS**

300 3.1. Soil environmental parameters and bulk geochemistry

The soil environmental and bulk geochemical parameters differ across the three 301 habitats. The soil water content of the peatland was avg. 86 %, significantly higher than 302 that of meadow and woodland (avg. 42 % and 48 %) (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.001) 303 (Table 1). The pH from all habitats was acidic, with peatlands having a lower pH (avg. 304 305 4.0) compared to meadows and woodlands (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05) (Table 1). The nitrate content (NO₃⁻-N) of the meadow (avg. 0.65) was significantly higher than that 306 of the peatland and woodland (avg. 0.11 and 0.08, respectively) (one-way ANOVA, p 307 = 0.01), whereas the ammonium content (NH₄⁺-N) was similar among the three habitats 308 (one-way ANOVA, p = 0.68) (Table 1). The soil temperature was similar across the 309 three habitats (one-way ANOVA, p = 0.2) (Table 1). 310

The peatland samples had significantly higher TOC contents (avg. 19.5 %) than the 311 312 meadow and woodland samples (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.001) (Table 1), which were not statistically different (avg. 6.1 and 9.1 %, respectively). The soil C/N ratio in the 313 woodland (avg. 25.2) was higher than that in the peatland and meadow (avg. 17.2 and 314 17.2, respectively) (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05) (Table 1). The $\delta^2 H_{water}$ values were 315 significantly (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.01) different among the three habitats, with the 316 meadow (avg. -49.2 ‰) and woodland (avg. -52.9 ‰) having lower values compared 317 to the peatland (avg. -39.9 ‰) (Table 1). The $\delta^{13}C_{\text{bulk}}$ values were similar across the 318 three habitats, with an average value of ca. -28 ‰ ($1\sigma = 0.7$) (Table 1). 319

320

321 3.2. Abundance and composition of PLFAs

322	Our previous work has reported the molecular distribution of PLFAs in these soil
323	samples (Zhao et al., 2020b). Briefly, 22 types of PLFAs with carbon numbers from C_{14}
324	to C19 were identified. The average total PLFA concentration of surface peat (avg. 270
325	$\mu g/g$) was an order of magnitude higher than that of the meadow and woodland samples
326	(avg. 26 μ g/g and 33 μ g/g, respectively). Overall, 16:0 is dominant (avg. 17.6 %),
327	followed by 18:1007c (avg. 12.7 %), i15:0 16:1007c, 10Me16:0, 18:1009c, and cy19:0
328	occupying more than 5 %. When grouped according to molecular structure,
329	monounsaturated PLFAs are dominant (33.8 %), followed by straight-chain saturated
330	PLFAs (26.1 %), terminally branched PLFAs (20.7 %), cyclopropyl PLFAs (10.4 %),
331	and 10-methyl branched PLFAs (9%). Polyunsaturated PLFAs account for only a small
332	percentage (1.3 %) of the total PLFAs.

333 PLFA classification is based on previous studies on the composition and changes of soil microbial communities (e.g., Frostegård and Bååth, 1996; Bossio and Scow, 1998; 334 Hill et al., 2000; Zelles, 1999; Jaatinen et al., 2007); however, caution is needed as some 335 PLFAs have multiple microbial origins (Frostegård et al., 2011). For example, 18:109c 336 is considered to be a fungal marker when its abundance has a significant positive 337 correlation with 18:2\u00fc6,9c; otherwise, it is assigned as a bacterial marker (Frostegård 338 et al., 2011). In our samples, the abundance of $18:2\omega 6.9c$ is low, accounting for only 339 1.3 % of the total PLFAs, and no significant correlation was found between the 340 fractional abundance of 18:1 ω 9c and 18:2 ω 6,9c (r² = 0.03, p = 0.48), suggesting a major 341 bacterial origin of 18:1009c. Moreover, although we removed fresh plant material to 342 minimize the influence of plant-derived PLFAs, the input of plant material cannot be 343

completely removed from soil samples, for example as fine roots. Nonetheless, plants have a large amount of polyunsaturated PLFAs, such as $18:2\omega6,9c$ and $18:3\omega3,6,9c$ (Zelles, 1997), and these are rare in our samples, e.g., $18:3\omega3,6,9$ was not detected. This suggests that input from plant-derived PLFAs is negligible. Kaiser et al. (2010) also showed that the contribution of roots to soil PLFAs can be negligible.

Assuming specific PLFAs can be assigned to certain bacterial or fungal groups, the microbial community structure of surface peat was different from that of the meadow and woodland (Fig. 2). Compared with the meadow and woodland, there were more G– and fewer G+ bacteria in the peatland. However, the variability between different samples within the peatland was significant (Fig. 2), and cluster analysis is not entirely diagnostic, which groups some of the peatland PLFA-producing microbial communities with those found in the meadow and woodland samples (Fig. 2).

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357 3.3. Carbon isotopic composition of PLFAs

The δ^{13} C values of 15 different types of PLFAs were determined (Fig. 3a). The concentrations of the other PLFAs were insufficient to obtain reliable isotopic measurements. Across all samples, the individual δ^{13} C values ranged from -20.6 to -40.4 ‰, with average values for each fatty acid between -24 and -34 ‰ (Fig. 3a). The meadow and woodland sites shared similar δ^{13} C values (-20 ‰ ~ -31 ‰), most of which were higher than δ^{13} C bulk (Fig. 3a). In contrast, PLFAs from peatlands were significantly more depleted (-26 ‰ ~ -40 ‰) (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.001), especially those PLFAs

365	derived from G– bacteria (Fig. 3a). For example, the average δ^{13} C value of the 16:1 ω 7c,
366	18:1 ω 7c, and cy19:0 fatty acids was below -32 ‰, with minima that reached -40 ‰.
367	The offset between the $\delta^{13}C$ of PLFAs and bulk organic carbon ($\epsilon C_{FA/bulk})$ ranged
368	from +8.8 to -12.3 ‰. In the meadow and woodland samples, average $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values
369	were all > 0 ‰ except for cy19:0 (Fig. 3b). For peatlands, the average $\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values
370	were significantly lower (one-way ANOVA, $p < 0.001$), being close to 0 ‰ for most
371	PLFAs (Fig. 3b), less than -3 ‰ on average for the 16:1ω7c, 18:1ω7c, and cy19:0 (Fig.
372	3b), and reaching -12 ‰ for some individual PLFAs.
373	
374	3.4. Hydrogen isotopic composition and offset of PLFAs
375	The δ^2 H values of the individual PLFAs ranged from -87 to -234 ‰ across all

samples. The average δ^2 H values were similar across the three habitats (Fig. 4a), except 376 for i17:0, a17:0, and 10Me18:0. Most δ^2 H values varied between -140 and -200 ‰ (Fig. 377 4a); however, the average δ^2 H values of a15:0, 18:1 ω 7c, cy19:0, and 10Me18:0 were 378 more depleted, with minima as low as -230 ‰ (Fig. 4a). 379 The offset between δ^2 H of PLFAs and water (ϵ H_{FA/water}) in all samples ranged from -380 52 to -206 ‰, with average values for each lipid ranging between -90 and -180 ‰ (Fig. 381 4b). The EHFA/water values of most PLFAs were similar across all habitats (Fig. 4b), and 382 most ϵ H_{FA/water} values were > -160‰ (Fig. 4b), except for a15:0, a17:0, 18:1 ω 7c, cy19:0, 383

- and 10Me18:0. The ϵ H_{FA/water} values of these fatty acids were as low as -200 ‰ (Fig.
- 385 **4b**).
- 386

387 3.5. Relationship between carbon and hydrogen isotopes of PLFAs

Statistical analysis of all samples shows that there is a significant correlation between 388 δ^{13} C (ϵ CFA/bulk) and δ^{2} H (ϵ HFA/water) of individual PLFA (Fig. 5). For example, the δ^{13} C 389 (ECFA/bulk) values of straight-chain saturated PLFAs (16:0 and 18:0), terminal branched 390 PLFAs (i15:0, a15:0, i16:0, i17:0, a17:0), and monounsaturated 16:1ω7c, are 391 significantly (p < 0.05) positively correlated with their $\delta^2 H$ ($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) values (Fig. 5) 392 and Figs. 6a, 6b, 6c). There is no significant (one-way ANOVA, p > 0.05) difference in 393 the slope of linear regression between these PLFAs. However, for other PLFAs, such as 394 18:1 ω 7c and 18:1 ω 9c, their δ^{13} C (ϵ C_{FA/bulk}) is not correlated with δ^{2} H (ϵ H_{FA/water}) (Fig. 395 5 and Fig. 6c). 396

³⁹⁷Dividing all samples by habitat, there is a relatively weak but significant (p < 0.05) ³⁹⁸positive correlation between $\delta^{13}C_{PLFA}$ and $\delta^{2}H_{PLFA}$ values in all three habitats (Fig. 6d). ³⁹⁹The $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ and $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ also have significant (p < 0.01) positive correlations in ⁴⁰⁰peatland and meadow samples (Fig. 6e). There is no significant correlation (p > 0.05) ⁴⁰¹between $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ and $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ in woodland.

Based on parallel data of $\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ and $\varepsilon H_{FA/water}$, we further calculated the correlation slope of the linear regression for carbon and hydrogen dual isotope discrimination across our three habitats. The correlation slopes in peatland, meadow, and woodland are 5.9 (±1.3), 6.4 (±2.2), and 6.2 (±3.2), respectively (Fig. 6f), not statistically different (one-way ANOVA, p > 0.05).

407

408 3.6. Correlation between PLFAs isotope and environmental parameters

409	The $\delta^{13}C_{PLFA}$ and $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values have significant (p < 0.05) negative correlations
410	with soil water content and TOC (Fig. 5). There is weak but significant ($p < 0.05$)
411	positive correlations between soil pH, NO3 ⁻ -N, NH4 ⁺ -N and $\delta^{13}C_{PLFA}$ ($\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$) of
412	several PLFAs (Fig. 5). No correlation is found between $\delta^{13}C_{PLFA}$ ($\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$) values and
413	C/N ratios (Fig. 5). Soil temperature is correlated to $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values of two PLFAs
414	(10Me18:0 and cy17:0) (Fig. 5).
415	However, only a few PLFAs have $\delta^2 H$ ($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) values that significantly correlate
416	with environmental parameters. For example, soil water content and TOC are positively
417	correlated with $\delta^2 H$ ($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) values of iso- and anteiso-PLFAs, and negatively

418 correlated with δ^2 H (ϵ H_{FA/water}) values of 10Me18:0 (Fig. 5).

419

420 **4. DISCUSSION**

421 4.1. Hydrogen isotope composition of soil water

Our $\delta^2 H_{water}$ values represent a single measurement of soil water during the field 422 campaign in mid to late June 2018 (Table 1). While sampling, there was neither extreme 423 rainfall nor drying in the Dajiuhu basin (Supplementary Material Fig. S1). The average 424 daily precipitation during the sampling week was 3.6 mm/day, slightly lower than the 425 daily precipitation (4.3 mm/day) calculated from the mean annual precipitation of the 426 Dajiuhu basin (1560 mm). However, the δ^2 H of soil water can vary seasonally, and it is 427 necessary to evaluate whether our $\delta^2 H_{water}$ can represent the $\delta^2 H$ of source water used 428 for soil microbial growth and PLFA biosynthesis. Recently, stable hydrogen isotope 429 probing of microbial PLFAs revealed slow microbial growth rates in soil, with 430

431 generation times varying from 4 to 402 days at the compound-specific level (Caro et 432 al., 2023). Therefore, soil microbes may integrate the $\delta^2 H_{water}$ signal across the whole 433 growth season, and the long-term average $\delta^2 H_{water}$ in the growing season is likely more 434 representative of the $\delta^2 H$ of source water used in microbial lipid biosynthesis.

To assess the long-term average of $\delta^2 H_{water}$ in the growing season (April to October) 435 in the Dajiuhu basin, we compared our previous monitoring data and conducted 436 simulations based on the soil evaporation model and meteoric water δ^2 H values (Fig. 437 7). Our three-year monitoring from 2015 to 2017 (Huang et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2018; 438 Huang and Meyers, 2019) showed that the average $\delta^2 H_{water}$ value of the topmost 0-10 439 cm during the growing season in the Dajiuhu peatland was -45.8 % (1 σ = 12 %), 440 slightly lower than the average $\delta^2 H_{water}$ value we measured in June 2018 (-44.7 ‰, 1 σ 441 = 8.4 ‰) (Fig. 7a and 7b). 442

However, this three-year monitoring only represents the average $\delta^2 H_{water}$ value during the growing season in peatlands without meadows/woodlands. Therefore, we further simulated the $\delta^2 H_{water}$ during the growing season in the whole Dajiuhu basin based on the $\delta^2 H$ of precipitation and soil evaporation model (Smith and Freeman, 2006) as follows:

448
$$\delta^2 H_{ESP} = \delta^2 H_{\text{precip}} + \frac{(1-h) \times (\varepsilon^* + 12.5)}{h + [(1-h) \times (P/E)]}$$

where $\delta^2 H_{ESP}$ is the hydrogen isotope composition of the evaporated soil-water pool; *h* is the relative humidity (82.3%, Zhang et al., 2022a); *P* is the flux of water via precipitation (1241.9 mm, Zhang et al., 2020); *E* is the evaporation flux (419.3 mm, Pan et al., 2013); ε^* is the equilibrium enrichment factor between liquid and vapor,

which can be calculated from α^* and its equation with temperature (Horita and 453 Wesolowski, 1994). Temperature data were obtained from our previous monitoring 454 during the growing season in the Dajiuhu basin (13.4 °C, Zhang et al., 2020). $\delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$ 455 is the hydrogen isotope compositions of precipitation (Fig. 7d), which was obtained 456 from the measured values from April to October at Wuhan and Chongqing stations in 457 the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) (IAEA/WMO, 2023), as well 458 as calculated monthly values using the Online Isotopes in Precipitation Calculator 459 (OIPC) (Bowen et al., 2005; Bowen, 2023) by inputting coordinates and elevation of 460 461 the Dajiuhu basin.

462 Then, the δ^2 H of bulk soil water was calculated by mixing the evaporated soil-water 463 pool (δ^2 H_{ESP}) with precipitation as follows:

464
$$\delta^2 H_{\text{soil water}} = f_e \times \delta^2 H_{\text{ESP}} + (1 - f_e) \times \delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$$

where f_e is the proportion of the bulk soil water that comes from the evaporated soilwater pool, which is set at 34 % according to the ratio of evaporation and precipitation fluxes.

The simulation results show that the average $\delta^2 H$ value of bulk soil water in the Dajiuhu basin during the growing season is -45.6 ‰, ~ 1 ‰ lower than the average $\delta^2 H_{water}$ value we used (Fig. 7a and 7c), albeit with a larger standard deviation (1 σ = 23.7 ‰) (Fig. 7c). With such a broad range, it is plausible that some of the variations in the $\delta^2 H$ values of microbial fatty acids are caused by seasonal and yearly fluctuations in the $\delta^2 H$ of precipitation/soil water, particularly for microorganisms that grow quickly in the soil. Peat water is more ²H-enriched compared to meadow/woodland (Table 1),

which could be due to the higher rate of evaporation in peatlands. Nonetheless, there is 475 no significant difference in the measured and simulated δ^2 H values of soil water (one-476 way ANOVA, p = 0.94) (Fig. 7a, 7b, and 7c). Moreover, we recalculated the $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ 477 using the simulated long-term average $\delta^2 H_{water}$ value (Supplementary Material Fig. S2). 478 The recalculated results are not significantly (one-way ANOVA, p = 0.72) different 479 from the $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ calculated using the measured $\delta^2 H_{water}$ in this study (Fig. 4b). These 480 results suggest that the soil water collected in this study is not significantly ²H-depleted 481 nor enriched relative to the long-term average during the growing season. 482

483

4.2. Relationship between carbon and hydrogen isotopes of PLFAs and its implications 484 There are significant (p < 0.05) positive correlations between PLFA carbon and 485 486 hydrogen isotope (Fig. 5 and Fig. 6). Although the correlation is not strong when all PLFAs are plotted together ($r^2 < 0.35$; Fig. 6d and 6e), the correlation between $\delta^{13}C$ 487 $(\epsilon C_{FA/bulk})$ and $\delta^2 H$ ($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) can be higher for individual PLFA (Fig. 5; e.g., a15:0, r²) 488 = 0.5), and there is no significant (one-way ANOVA, p > 0.05) difference in the linear 489 regression slope between different PLFAs (Fig. 6a and 6b), which is striking given the 490 diversity of organisms producing these compounds. A recent study conducted by Allan 491 et al. (2023) found a positive correlation between carbon and hydrogen isotopes of 492 microalgae-derived 16:0 fatty acid in marine surface, with the regression slope similar 493 to the 16:0 PLFA in our peat and soil samples (Fig. 6g and 6h). Further research is 494 necessary to determine whether this correlation is widely present in natural habitats. 495 Nonetheless, this correlation and similar regression slope suggest some common 496

controls over the stable carbon and hydrogen isotopic composition of microbial fatty 497 acids, likely metabolism (e.g., Wijker et al., 2019). Although both ECFA/bulk and EHFA/water 498 499 are associated with microbial metabolic pathways, EHFA/water could be affected by different factors compared to ECFA/bulk. For example, microbial growth rate, NADPH 500 501 metabolic flux, and cellular residence time of NADPH are strong controls on EHFA/water, but these need not also impact $\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk}$, causing $\varepsilon H_{FA/water}$ to be more variable (with 502 EHFA/water values in cultures that can range from -400 to +400 ‰. e.g., Valentine et al., 503 2004; Campbell et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2009; Heinzelmann et al., 2015a, 2015b; 504 Osburn et al., 2016; Leavitt et al., 2017; Wijker et al., 2019). However, our results 505 suggest that EHFA/water is still significantly correlated with ECFA/bulk in natural peats and 506 soils, further supporting the dominant impact the central metabolic pathways have on 507 508 both the stable carbon and hydrogen isotopic fractionation of microbial fatty acids. More specifically, there may be two root reasons for the correlation between the 509 carbon and hydrogen isotopes of microbial PLFAs that we report. Firstly, it could reflect 510 the fact that both systems reflect a balance between heterotrophy and autotrophy. 511 Heterotroph PLFAs are enriched in ²H relative to those from autotrophs due to the larger 512 Elipid/water fractionation of the latter (e.g., Zhang et al., 2009; Campbell et al., 2017). 513 Coincidentally, heterotroph PLFAs can be enriched in ¹³C relative to autotroph PLFAs, 514 if the latter organisms are consuming ¹³C-depleted respired soil carbon with an 515 associated fractionation (e.g., Billings and Ziegler, 2008). Because the isotope signal of 516 fatty acids in natural environments is a mixture of various metabolisms, the correlation 517

between carbon and hydrogen in fatty acids is not strong ($r^2 \le 0.5$; Fig. 6). Secondly,

this covariation could be related to the metabolic flux. Instead of the mixing of a largely 519 heterotrophic bacterial population with a small but significant autotrophic one, the 520 521 relationship could reflect the coupling of carbon and hydrogen isotope metabolism. For example, when metabolically related acetyl-CoA and NADPH have high production 522 and metabolic fluxes, both carbon and hydrogen isotope fractionation may remain small 523 (Monson and Hayes, 1982; Wijker et al., 2019) (Supplementary Material Text S1). Thus, 524 changes in metabolic fluxes could affect carbon and hydrogen isotope fractionation 525 consistently across diverse bacterial groups. 526

The correlation between the carbon and hydrogen isotope of PLFAs is not strong (r^2 527 ≤ 0.5) (Figs. 6), but this is also due to the small range of these values. Most of the data 528 is concentrated within a narrow range. For example, the ECFA/bulk values are mostly 529 530 clustered between -5 and +5 ‰ (Figs. 3b and 6e). The ɛHFA/water has a range of ca. 150 ‰ (Figs. 4b and 6e). For individual PLFAs, the EHFA/water variation is generally less than 531 100 ‰ (Fig. 4b), in contrast to the wide range of culture experiments and field results 532 533 from lacustrine, marine, and hot spring environments (e.g., Li et al., 2009; Naraoka et al., 2010; Osburn et al., 2011; Wijker et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2021). Compared to 534 lacustrine and marine sediments and particulate organic matter (avg. -170 ‰ and 180 ‰, 535 respectively), peats and soils have significantly (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.01) higher 536 EHFA/water values (avg. -132 ‰) (Fig. 6i), indicating greater heterotroph activities. The 537 narrow range we observe indicates that soil metabolic processes are relatively constant 538 in natural systems. It also indicates the conservatism of soil microbial metabolism, 539 which is dominated by heterotrophs as expected. Thus, the perturbation of these $\delta^{13}C$ 540

 $(\epsilon C_{FA/bulk})$ and $\delta^2 H$ ($\epsilon H_{FA/water}$) values may indicate disruption of the soil microbial 541 community. For example, a change in $\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ and $\varepsilon H_{FA/water}$ values from a relatively 542 543 narrow range to more variability (i.e., much higher/lower & CFA/bulk and & HFA/water values) may indicate a breakdown in the conservative metabolic state of soil microbes caused 544 by disturbances such as drainage and subsequent soil degradation (e.g., Fenner et al., 545 2005; Jaatinen et al., 2007; Andersen et al., 2013). If so, a dual isotopic approach could 546 be used to reflect soil health and degradation. Moreover, when using the dual isotopic 547 signal of sedimentary microbial lipids to reflect the ancient microbial metabolic 548 549 dynamics, caution needs to be exercised regarding isotope exchange during degradation and the mixing of multiple (microbial) sources after deposition (Sessions et al., 2004; 550 Sessions, 2016; Häggi et al., 2021). 551

552 The soil microbial metabolism is dominated by heterotrophy across our three habitats. In peatland, meadow, and woodland, most $\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values are > -2% (Fig. 3b), 553 indicating that the carbon isotopic discrimination during microbial assimilation is 554 555 relatively small. Such small (negligible) fractionation is generally associated with heterotrophs, which directly utilize organic carbon and produce lipids that are only 556 slightly depleted relative to the substrate (Blair et al., 1985; Hayes, 1993, 2001; 557 Abraham et al., 1998; Pancost and Sinninghe Damsté, 2003; Cowie et al., 2009). 558 Moreover, we observed many positive $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values (Fig. 3b), suggesting that 559 microorganisms in our soil habitats preferentially utilize substrates with higher $\delta^{13}C$ 560 values compared to $\delta^{13}C_{\text{bulk}}$. These substrates could be carbohydrates, which typically 561 have higher δ^{13} C values compared to other organic substrates (van Dongen et al., 2001; 562

Hobbie and Werner, 2004; Badeck et al., 2005). For example, van Dongen et al. (2002) found that the δ^{13} C values of monosaccharides were ca. 2~10 ‰ more enriched (higher) compared to δ^{13} C_{bulk} in a peat bog. Our results are consistent with the heterotrophic ecology indicated by the δ^{13} C values of bacteria-derived C₃₁ hopane in peatlands (Inglis et al., 2019), suggesting that a wide range of hopane- and PLFAs-producing bacteria and eucaryotic microbes in peatlands are preferentially using carbohydrates for their anabolism.

570 The ε H_{FA/water} values further support the dominance of heterotrophy across the three habitats. Most ε H_{FA/water} values are > -160 ‰ (Fig. 4b), falling in the lower part of the 571 range of heterotrophic bacterial $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ (-160 % ~ +400%) found in laboratory 572 cultures (e.g., Sessions et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2009; Dirghangi and Pagani, 2013; 573 574 Fang et al., 2014; Heinzelmann et al., 2015a, b; Wijker et al., 2019). This indicates that the hydrogen isotope fractionation of microbial fatty acids can reflect microbial 575 metabolism information that is consistent with that based on stable carbon isotopes, 576 577 perhaps providing mechanistic insight into the significant correlation between ECFA/bulk 578 and EHFA/water.

But we can potentially go further. Laboratory culture experiments have found that heterotrophic microorganisms growing on TCA-cycle precursors and intermediates (acetate, citrate, and succinate) produce fatty acids with ϵ H_{FA/water} > 0 and up to +400 ‰ (Zhang et al., 2009; Heinzelmann et al., 2015b; Osburn et al., 2016; Wijker et al., 2019). In contrast, heterotrophs growing on sugars and using Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas (EMP), pentose phosphate (PP), and Entner-Doudoroff (ED) pathways typically have

lower EHFA/water values (-150 to 0 %) compared to those using TCA cycle substrates 585 (Zhang et al., 2009; Wijker et al., 2019). The positive $\varepsilon H_{FA/water}$ values (²H-enriched 586 fatty acids) were suggested to be caused by NADP⁺ reduction and dehydrogenase 587 reactions in the TCA cycle, which can lead to strong ²H enrichment of NADPH (ref. to 588 Zhang et al., 2009). Thus, EHFA/water values of fatty acids derived from normal TCA-589 cycle substrates can be as high as +400 ‰. We did not find any fatty acids with a 590 ϵ H_{FA/water} value > 0 or < -220 ‰ (Fig. 4b). Therefore, our hydrogen isotope data suggest 591 that the metabolic pathway of heterotrophs in our soils is dominated by carbohydrate – 592 likely cellulose-derived – rather than solely TCA-cycle substrates, consistent with their 593 positive $\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values. 594

The above inference is based on laboratory cultures of heterotrophic bacteria. 595 596 However, an alternative heterotrophic source for soil PLFAs is fungi, for which there are no data on their lipid hydrogen isotope fractionation. The classic PLFA marker for 597 soil fungi is polyunsaturated 18:2\omega6,9c (Frostegård and Bååth, 1996; Frostegård et al., 598 2011). However, in our samples, the abundance of $18:2\omega 6.9c$ is low, accounting for 599 only 1.3 % of the total PLFAs. Quantitative PCR investigations have also found that 600 fungi gene abundance in peatlands is minor, only about 1.4 % of total prokaryotes (Lin 601 et al., 2012). The low fungal abundance could be related to the long-term waterlogged 602 conditions of the Dajiuhu basin, as many fungi are obligate aerobes (Clark et al., 2020). 603 Despite the low abundance, considering the possibility of different fractionations 604 between fungi and bacteria is important (Supplementary Material Text S2). 605

The correlation slope is consistent across different habitats and individual PLFA (Fig. 606 6). The linear regression slope of dual isotopic fractionation has been used to describe 607 608 the aerobic and anaerobic microbial degradation of aromatic hydrocarbons (Elsner et al., 2007; Fischer et al., 2008; Vogt et al., 2008; Dorer et al., 2014; Musat et al., 2016). 609 Our results show that the slope for PLFAs in the peatland, meadow, and woodland soils 610 is similar, with values around 6.0 (Fig. 6f). There is also no significant difference 611 between the slopes of different individual PLFA (one-way ANOVA, p > 0.05), this again 612 points towards conservative microbial metabolism in natural peat and soil systems. Our 613 614 slopes appear to be lower than those derived from aerobic methanotrophy (in both laboratory culture and the natural environment), which ranges from 7.3 to 10.5 615 (Feisthauer et al., 2011; Kawagucci et al., 2021). Despite the relatively large error in 616 617 our slope (Fig. 6f), these values do not differ significantly. To further assess whether the dual isotope-derived correlation slope can be used as a potential indicator of 618 different microbial metabolisms, additional paired data is required. 619

620

4.3. Characteristics of carbon and hydrogen isotope fractionation of methanotrophy

Even though our dual carbon and hydrogen isotopic approach suggests heterotrophy dominates the microbial metabolism in our soils, there are still key differences between the three habitats. Compared with meadows and woodlands, the δ^{13} C and ϵ CFA/bulk values of PLFAs in peatlands are 2 ~ 10 ‰ lower (Fig. 3), especially the two monounsaturated fatty acids, 16:1 ω 7c and 18:1 ω 7c, which have the largest ϵ CFA/bulk differences (avg. 5 ‰) between peatland and meadow/woodland (Fig. 3b). These are

the dominant fatty acids found in methanotrophic strains isolated from peatlands and 628 Sphagnum mosses (Dedysh et al., 2002, 2004; Bodelier et al., 2009; Dedysh, 2009; Kip 629 et al., 2011). In addition, stable isotope labeling (13 CH₄) experiments show that 16:1 ω 7c, 630 $18:1\omega7c$, and $18:1\omega9c$ are primary methanotrophic fatty acids in peatlands (Chen et al., 631 2008; van Winden et al., 2010). High-throughput sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene has 632 revealed the existence of methanotrophs (mainly type II) in peat samples from our study 633 site (Xiang et al., 2023), and our preceding investigation also implies that the ¹³C-634 depletion of these monounsaturated PLFAs is associated with decreased methane 635 636 emission fluxes (Zhang et al., 2022b). Therefore, the larger carbon isotopic offset (lower $\varepsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values) of 16:1 ω 7c and 18:1 ω 7c we observe in the peatland samples (Fig. 3b) 637 is likely due to these compounds being partly derived from methanotrophs, reflecting 638 both a more ¹³C-depleted substrate as well as a larger carbon isotopic fractionation than 639 occurs during heterotrophy (Summons et al., 1994; Jahnke et al., 1999; Cifuentes and 640 Salata, 2001; Mills et al., 2010; Simkus et al., 2016). 641

However, the hydrogen isotopic offset (ϵ H_{FA/water}) of the same PLFAs does not differ significantly (one-way ANOVA, p > 0.05) from those of putative heterotrophic microbes in meadow/woodland environments. This suggests that the putative methanotrophic PLFAs may not necessarily have large hydrogen isotope fractionations. Interestingly, culture experiments show that methane-oxidizing bacteria have ϵ H_{FA/water} values between +37 and -161 ‰ (Sessions et al., 1999, 2002). This value falls within the heterotrophic ϵ H_{FA/water} range (-160 to +400 ‰) (e.g., Zhang et al., 2009; Heinzelmann et al., 2015a; Wijker et al., 2019). Thus, εH_{FA/water} seems unable to clearly
distinguish methanotrophy from heterotrophy (Sessions et al., 2002).

651 Therefore, methanotroph fatty acids have larger carbon isotope fractionations (low ECFA/bulk values) but limited hydrogen isotope fractionation (relatively high EHFA/water 652 653 values) in laboratory and natural environments. We refer to this as the decoupling between their ECFA/bulk and EHFA/water, as they differ from other PLFAs that have coupled 654 high (low) ECFA/bulk and high (low) EHFA/water values. The lack of a strong relationship 655 between the δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H values for 18:1 ω 7c and 18:1 ω 9c confirms this decoupling 656 657 (Fig. 6c). Since the study site is mainly inhabited by type II methanotrophs (mainly producing C_{18} monounsaturated PLFAs), the partial methanotrophic origin of $16:1\omega7c$ 658 need to be treated with caution. Thus, the significant correlation between $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{2}H$ 659 660 of 16:1007c may be related to its primarily heterotrophic origin. Several other PLFAs that exhibit a decoupling of their ECFA/bulk and EHFA/water, such as 10Me16:0 and cy19:0 661 (Fig. 5b and Fig. 6c), could also have either partial methanotrophic origins or unique 662 biosynthetic pathways. However, these PLFAs have fewer diagnostic origins, making 663 the interpretation of their decoupling more challenging. Below, we explore the possible 664 reasons for the decoupling of carbon and hydrogen isotopes in certain PLFAs. 665

For methanotrophic origins, although methanotrophs use methane as a carbon source, the hydrogen for methanotrophic lipid biosynthesis does not come directly from methane. Instead, it comes from growth water as well as water derived from methane oxidation (Sessions et al., 2002). This water can contribute to the NADPH pool through isotopic exchange, where it serves as a hydrogen source during lipid biosynthesis

671	(Zhang et al., 2009). Therefore, the ϵ H _{FA/water} of methanotrophic PLFAs could be
672	determined by the NADPH metabolism during methanotrophy. This occurs mainly in
673	two pathways: the ribulose monophosphate pathway (RuMP) and the serine pathway
674	(e.g., Hanson and Hanson, 1996; Bodelier et al., 2009). Importantly, in the RuMP,
675	NADPH metabolism is related to the ED and EMP pathways via pyruvate formation,
676	and in the serine pathway, it is related to the ethylmalonyl-CoA (EMC) pathway for
677	glyoxylate production (Chistoserdova et al., 2009; Kalyuzhnaya et al., 2013). The ED,
678	EMP, and EMC pathways are also used by aerobic heterotrophic bacteria in glucose
679	catabolism (Alber et al., 2010; Wijker et al., 2019). Therefore, methanotrophs may
680	undergo similar NADPH metabolism as heterotrophs and have relatively high $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$
681	values (+37 to -161 ‰, Sessions et al., 1999, 2002). In contrast to hydrogen, the carbon
682	of methanotrophic lipids comes from ¹³ C-depleted methane, and the carbon isotope
683	fractionation mainly occurs during the catalytic reaction of methane monooxygenase.
684	This combination results in the decoupled high $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ and low $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ values of
685	methanotrophic lipids.

Our results verify the expected methanotrophy-related carbon but not hydrogen depletion in natural soils, providing specific insight into the combination of PLFA δ^2 H and δ^{13} C values. In particular, the decoupling of δ^2 H and δ^{13} C provides a dual isotopic approach for more robust identification of methanotrophy. For example, if a low $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ (δ^{13} C) value cannot distinguish methanotrophy and autotrophy, a relatively high $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ (δ^2 H) value provides evidence for the former and a low value for the latter. The pairing of carbon and hydrogen isotopes in methanotrophic lipids needs to

further studied in different natural environments, as different sources of hydrogen can 693 be used in the biosynthesis of these lipids. For example, in lake and pond water columns 694 with high methane oxidation efficiency, the hydrogen used for the biosynthesis of 695 methanotroph-associated lipids can mainly come from the ²H-depleted products of 696 methane oxidation, resulting in significantly low $\delta^2 H$ values of moss-derived C₂₁ and 697 C_{23} *n*-alkanes (McFarlin et al., 2023). Thus, it is essential to consider the source of 698 hydrogen isotopes used for methanotrophic lipid biosynthesis when connecting lipid 699 isotopic signals with methanotrophy. 700

701

4.4. Impacts of lipid biosynthesis pathway and environmental parameters

The relationship between the carbon and hydrogen isotopic composition of PLFAs is 703 704 also embedded in their lipid biosynthetic pathways. For example, a positive correlation between *EClipid/bulk* and *EHlipid/water* has been found in fatty acids and *n*-alkanes from 705 terrestrial and aquatic plants (Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Chikaraishi et al., 2004). 706 707 In contrast, phytol and sterols in terrestrial and aquatic plants have a negative correlation between EClipid/bulk and EHlipid/water (Chikaraishi et al., 2004). Phytol and sterol 708 are isoprenoid lipids synthesized through 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate (DOXP)/2-709 methylerythroyl-4-phosphate (MEP) and mevalonic acid (MVA) pathways, while fatty 710 acids are derived from acetogenic pathways (Lichtenthaler, 1999; Schmidt et al., 2003; 711 Chikaraishi et al., 2004; Zhang and Sachs, 2007; Sachse et al., 2012). 712 Moreover, our results show that the a15:0 and a17:0 lipids have an average EHFA/water 713 value < -160 ‰, with some values as low as -200 ‰ (Fig. 4b). Previous culture 714

715	experiments found that such anteiso fatty acids from sulfate-reducing bacteria are more
716	depleted in ² H and that these lipids have lower $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ values than their straight-chain
717	saturated counterparts (Leavitt et al., 2016, 2017). This depletion could be related to the
718	biosynthetic pathway of anteiso fatty acids. Unlike straight-chain fatty acids, which use
719	acetyl-CoA as the primer, anteiso fatty acids use 2-methylbutyryl-CoA from isoleucine
720	as the primer for carbon chain extension (Kaneda, 1991). Thus, the precursor isoleucine
721	with low $\delta^2 H$ values appears to lead to the ² H-depletion in anteiso fatty acids (Leavitt
722	et al., 2016). Indeed, our results show that the δ^2 H value of a15:0 is significantly (one-
723	way ANOVA, $p < 0.01$) lower than the other PLFAs (Fig. 6b). Our work is the first
724	observation of this biosynthetic profile in nature, and it could be a useful tool for
725	assessing the fidelity of PLFA δ^2 H distributions in future studies.

726 Our results also illustrate the potential controls that soil environmental parameters have on the carbon and hydrogen isotopic composition of PLFAs. Soil water content 727 (SWC) and the total organic carbon content (TOC) are positively correlated with each 728 other, and both are negatively correlated with $\delta^{13}C$ ($\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$) (Fig. 5). This correlation 729 is nearly entirely dictated by the inclusion of a peatland site that is water-saturated, 730 anaerobic, and organic-rich (Table 1; Reddy et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022b). The 731 negative relationship with the putative methanotroph-derived PLFA ECFA/bulk is 732 expected, given the control of SWC on methanogenesis (e.g., Praeg et al., 2014). 733 However, almost all PLFAs have lower carbon isotopic compositions in the peatland 734 (Fig. 3). This could reflect the distribution of methane-derived carbon through the wider 735 bacterial community, which can be achieved through direct predation, and absorption 736

of metabolites and necromass of methanotrophs by heterotrophs (Deines et al., 2007; 737 Maxfield et al., 2012). Consistent with that, a simple mass balance, assuming that 738 methanotroph PLFA δ^{13} C values are ~ -64 ‰ and non-methanotroph PLFAs are -739 26.5 ‰, yields a 6.6 % methanotroph contribution to the total PLFA pool for the 740 peatland and a negligible contribution for the woodland and meadow (Supplementary 741 Material Text S3). Alternatively, or additionally, the ¹³C depletion of all PLFAs in 742 peatlands may be more consistent with all changes in microbial fractionation 743 (Supplementary Material Text S4). Moreover, the concentration of NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-744 N may also alter the isotope signals of PLFAs by impacting the metabolic activity of 745 nitrogen-cycling microorganisms (Supplementary Material Text S4). 746 The relationship between EHFA/water and SWC is limited to several iso- and anteiso-747 748 branched PLFAs (Fig. 5). Previous studies found that under anaerobic conditions, microorganisms exhibit greater hydrogen isotope fractionation between their lipids and 749 source water (e.g., Valentine et al., 2004; Campbell et al., 2009; Li et al., 2009; Zhang 750 et al., 2009; Dawson et al., 2015; Heinzelmann et al., 2015b); however, these larger 751 fractionations are generally associated with photoautotrophy and chemoautotrophy. 752 Similar EHFA/water values of microbial fatty acids between anaerobic and aerobic 753 conditions were reported in several culture experiments (e.g., Leavitt et al., 2016; 754 Osburn et al., 2016). Thus, the control of redox condition on microbial lipid hydrogen 755 isotope fractionation seems more complex than that of stable carbon isotopes. 756

757

758 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

35
This study investigated the stable carbon and hydrogen isotopic composition of microbial PLFAs in natural soil environments. Together with measurements of environmental and bulk geochemical parameters such as soil water content, total organic carbon content, nutrients, $\delta^{13}C_{bulk}$, and $\delta^{2}H_{water}$, etc., we explored the nature and possible controls on $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ and $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ of PLFAs in peatlands, meadows, and woodlands. We used this data to evaluate the relationship between carbon and hydrogen isotopes of PLFAs and discuss the implications. The main findings are as follows:

(1) The carbon and hydrogen isotope composition and offset of PLFAs show a significant positive correlation, supporting the dominant control of central metabolic pathways on both carbon and hydrogen isotopic fractionation of microbial fatty acids. The narrow range of $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ and $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ values and the consistency of dual-isotopicderived correlation slope across all three habitats reflect the conservative and consistent nature of soil microbial metabolism, which is dominated by carbohydrate-consuming heterotrophy with just a bit of methanotrophy.

(2) The monounsaturated PLFAs, related to methanotrophs, in peatlands have lower $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ but not $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ values, revealing that methanotrophic-derived carbon isotope depletion that need not also impact their hydrogen isotopic composition in natural environments. This decoupling of $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13} C$ provides a dual-isotope method to identify methanotrophy. Our work is also the first observation of biosynthetic pathways affecting the $\delta^2 H$ distribution of anteiso fatty acids in natural soils.

We demonstrate the potential consistency of dual isotopic methods in reflectingmicrobial metabolic activity in natural soil environments. The dual isotopic

fractionation pattern can not only provide more information and act as a cross-check on 781 microbial metabolism, but also build a framework for evaluating soil microbial 782 community metabolic perturbations. In the future, the diagnostic dual isotope 783 fractionation patterns of microbial lipids may become a powerful tool for exploring 784 significant shifts in microbial activity in various modern environments and the 785 geological record. We hope future studies will further constrain the carbon and 786 hydrogen isotope fractionation in laboratory cultures and natural environments to 787 characterize these relationships in different metabolic pathways, leading to new 788 789 approaches for reconstructing past variations in microbial metabolic activity.

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804 Data Availability

Data are available through Mendeley Data at http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/pwhtt9jtdn.1.

807 Appendix A. Supplementary Material

This Supplementary Material includes Supplementary Figures S1-S2, Supplementary Texts S1-S4, and related references. Fig. S1, air temperature and precipitation in the Dajiuhu basin; Fig. S2, recalculated ϵ H_{FA/water} using the simulated long-term average δ^2 H of soil water; Text S1, the root reason for the correlation between the carbon and hydrogen isotopes of microbial PLFAs; Text S2, fungal hydrogen isotope fractionation; Text S3, quantitative estimation of methane-derived carbon; Text S4, impacts of environmental parameters.

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1326 Figure Captions

Fig. 1. (a) Map for the location of the Dajiuhu Basin. (b) Geomorphological maps and
distribution of sampling sites in the Dajiuhu Basin. The photographs on the right show
the three main habitats within the basin. The base map in (a) was downloaded from
https://ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/global/relief/ETOPO1/image.

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Fig. 2. Cluster analysis of the PLFA fractional abundance and microbial communitystructure across the three habitats. The numbers on the left represent sample locations

1334 (as shown in Fig. 1). Data were obtained from the previous study (Zhao et al., 2020b).

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Fig. 3. (a) The δ^{13} C values of microbial PLFAs in the three habitats. The horizontal dashed line and gray shade represent the average δ^{13} C_{bulk} value with 1 σ of 0.7 across all samples. (b) The offset between δ^{13} C of PLFAs and bulk organic carbon (ε C_{FA/bulk}). The horizontal dashed line represents ε C_{FA/bulk} = 0 ‰. All error bars reflect one standard deviation ($\pm 1\sigma$) between multiple samples in different habitats.

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Fig. 5. Correlation heat map showing the correlation efficiencies between the (a) δ^{13} C and δ^{2} C, (b) ϵ C_{FA/bulk} and ϵ H_{FA/water}, and environmental parameters. SWC = soil water content. ST = soil temperature. One and two white asterisks represent significant correlations at the 0.05 and 0.01 levels, respectively, while the cross represents no significant correlation (p > 0.05).

Fig. 6. Correlations between carbon and hydrogen isotope composition of fatty acids. 1354 (a) δ^{13} C versus δ^{2} H of PLFAs 16:0 and 18:0. (b) δ^{13} C versus δ^{2} H of PLFAs i15:0, a15:0, 1355 and i16:0. (c) δ^{13} C versus δ^{2} H of PLFAs 16:1 ω 7c, 18:1 ω 7c, and 18:1 ω 9c. (d) δ^{13} C 1356 versus δ^2 H of all PLFAs in the three habitats. (e) $\epsilon C_{FA/bulk}$ versus $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ of all PLFAs 1357 in the three habitats. (f) αc^{-1} -1 versus αH^{-1} -1 of all PLFAs in the three habitats, from 1358 1359 which the linear regression slope can be derived (in the equations). The error of the slope is shown in parentheses. (g) δ^{13} C versus δ^{2} H of 16:0 fatty acid from peats/soils 1360 (this study) and marine surface sediments (Allan et al., 2023). (h) ECFA/bulk versus 1361 1362 EHFA/water of 16:0 fatty acid from peats/soils (this study) and marine surface sediments (Allan et al., 2023). (i) Comparison of EHFA/water of short-chain fatty acids (C14-C19) in 1363 peats/soils (this study) and lake and marine environments. Lake and marine data cited 1364 from Sessions et al. (1999), Jones et al. (2008), Li et al. (2009), Heinzelmann et al. 1365 (2016), Ladd et al. (2017), Heinzelmann et al. (2018), Ladd et al. (2018), Chen et al. 1366 (2021), Häggi et al. (2021), and Allan et al. (2023). Note that some marine samples only 1367 have $\delta^2 H$ values and were calculated to $\epsilon H_{FA/water}$ by assuming a seawater $\delta^2 H$ value of 1368 ~ 0 ‰. 1369

Fig. 7. (a) δ^2 H of soil water in the Dajiuhu basin collected in June 2018 (n = 22, this 1371 study). (b) δ^2 H of soil water in the peatland of the Dajiuhu basin during the growing 1372 season (April to October) from 2015 to 2017 (n = 164). Data cited from Huang et al. 1373 (2018), Zhao et al. (2018), and Huang and Meyers. (c) δ^2 H of soil water in the growing 1374 season simulated based on soil evaporation model (Smith and Freeman, 2006) and 1375 meteoric water δ^2 H values. (d) δ^2 H of meteoric water during the growing season. The 1376 data were obtained from measured values from April to October at Wuhan and 1377 Chongqing stations in the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) 1378 (IAEA/WMO, 2023), as well as calculated monthly values using the Online Isotopes in 1379 Precipitation Calculator (OIPC) (Bowen et al., 2005; Bowen, 2023) by inputting 1380 coordinates and elevation of the Dajiuhu basin. The white square represents the average 1381 value in each box-whisker plot. 1382

Table 1. Environmental and bulk geochemical results of topsoil samples from three habitats. We used the average value of these parameters from

all samples, with \pm indicating one standard deviation ($\pm 1\sigma$). ST = soil temperature; SWC = soil water content. Significant differences in results

1386	Habit	ST (°C)	SWC** (%)	pH*	NH4 ⁺ -N (mg/L)	NO3 ⁻ -N [*] (mg/L)	TOC ^{**} (%)	C/N*	δ ¹³ C _{bulk} (‰)	δ ² H _{water} ** (‰)
-	peatland	17.2±3.0	86±9	4.0±0.2	2.9±1.1	0.11±0.08	19.5±3.7	17.2±2.5	-28.4±0.7	-39.9±5.4
	meadow	19.3 ± 1.4	42±12	4.6±0.1	$2.9{\pm}0.8$	0.65 ± 0.60	6.1±2.1	17.2 ± 5.9	-28.0 ± 0.7	-49.2±9.2
	woodland	$18.0{\pm}0.0$	48±3	4.8±1.3	3.5 ± 1.8	0.08 ± 0.08	9.1±0.9	25.2±8.5	-27.8 ± 0.7	-52.9 ± 2.7

1385 across habitats are indicated by * (p < 0.05) and ** (p < 0.01).












