

1 **Evaluation of bacterial glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraether and <sup>2</sup>H-**  
2 **<sup>18</sup>O biomarker proxies along a Central European topsoil transect**

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20 **Keywords**

21 Leaf wax *n*-alkanes, hemicellulose sugars, pH, temperature, CBT, MBT', precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  
22  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , relative humidity

23 **Abstract**

24 Molecular fossils, like bacterial branched glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs), and  
25 the stable isotopic composition of biomarkers, such as  $\delta^2\text{H}$  of leaf wax-derived *n*-alkanes ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ ) or  
26  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of hemicellulose-derived sugars ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ ) are increasingly used for the  
27 reconstruction of past climate and environmental conditions. Plant-derived  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$  and  
28  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  values record the isotopic composition of plant source water ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  
29  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ ), which usually reflects mean annual precipitation ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{precipitation}}$  and  
30  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precipitation}}$ ), modulated by evapotranspirative leaf water enrichment and biosynthetic  
31 fractionation. Accuracy and precision of respective proxies should be ideally evaluated at a  
32 regional scale. For this study, we analysed topsoils below coniferous and deciduous forests, as  
33 well as grassland soils along a Central European transect in order to investigate the variability  
34 and robustness of various proxies, and to identify effects related to vegetation. Soil pH-values  
35 derived from brGDGTs correlate reasonably well with measured soil pH-values, but  
36 systematically overestimate them ( $\Delta\text{pH} = 0.6 \pm 0.6$ ). The branched vs. isoprenoid tetraether  
37 index (BIT) can give some indication whether the pH reconstruction is reliable. Temperatures  
38 derived from brGDGTs overestimate mean annual air temperatures slightly ( $\Delta T_{\text{MA}} = 0.5^\circ\text{C}$   
39  $\pm 2.4$ ). Apparent isotopic fractionation ( $\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$  and  $\epsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}}$ ) is lower for  
40 grassland sites than for forest sites due to “signal damping”, i.e. grass biomarkers do not record  
41 the full evapotranspirative leaf water enrichment. Coupling  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$  with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  allows to  
42 reconstruct the stable isotopic composition of the source water more accurately than without  
43 the coupled approach ( $\Delta\delta^2\text{H} = \sim -21\text{‰} \pm 22$  and  $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O} = \sim -2.9\text{‰} \pm 2.8$ ). Similarly, relative  
44 humidity during daytime and vegetation period ( $\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}}$ ) can be reconstructed using the coupled  
45 isotope approach ( $\Delta\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}} = \sim -17 \pm 12$ ). Especially for coniferous sites, reconstructed  $\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}}$   
46 values as well as source water isotope composition underestimate the measured values. This  
47 can be likely explained by understory grass vegetation at the coniferous sites contributing  
48 significantly to the *n*-alkane pool but only marginally to the sugar pool in the topsoil. The large  
49 uncertainty likely reflect the fact that biosynthetic fractionation is not constant, as well as  
50 microclimate variability. Overall, GDGTs and the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  approach have  
51 great potential for more quantitative paleoclimate reconstructions.

## 52 **1 Introduction**

53 Information about the variability and consequences of past climate changes is a prerequisite for  
54 precise predictions regarding the present climate change. Molecular fossils, so called  
55 biomarkers, have great potential to enhance our understanding about variations of past climate  
56 and environmental changes. Lipid biomarkers in particular are increasingly used for  
57 paleoclimate and environmental reconstructions (e.g. Brincat et al., 2000; Eglinton and  
58 Eglinton, 2008; Rach et al., 2014; Romero-Viana et al., 2012; Schreuder et al., 2016). However  
59 strengths and limitations of respective proxies need to be known (Dang et al., 2016). For this,  
60 calibrations using modern reference samples are essential.

61 One famous and widely applied lipid biomarker group are terrestrial branched glycerol dialkyl  
62 glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs). They are synthesized in the cell membranes of anaerobe  
63 heterotrophic soil bacteria (Oppermann et al., 2010; Weijers et al., 2010) have great potential  
64 for the reconstruction of past environmental conditions (e.g. Coffinet et al., 2017; Schreuder et  
65 al., 2016; Zech et al., 2012), although some uncertainties exist. Calibration studies suggest that  
66 the relative abundance of the individual brGDGTs varies with mean annual air temperature  
67 ( $T_{MA}$ ) and soil pH (Peterse et al., 2012; Weijers et al., 2007), at least across large, global climate  
68 gradients or along pronounced altitudinal gradients (Wang et al., 2017). However, in arid  
69 regions the production of brGDGT is limited, while isoprenoidal GDGTs (iGDGTs) produced  
70 by archaea provide the dominant part of the overall soil GDGT pool (Anderson et al., 2014;  
71 Dang et al., 2016; Dirghangi et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Xie et al., 2012). The ratio of  
72 brGDGTs vs. isoprenoid GDGTs (BIT) can be used as indication whether a reconstruction of  
73  $T_{MA}$  and pH will be reliable. Moreover, Mueller-Niggemann et al. (2016) revealed an influence  
74 of the vegetation cover on the brGDGT producing soil microbes. From field experiments, it is  
75 known that vegetation type and mulching practice strongly effect soil temperature and moisture  
76 (Awe et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2014). Thus, multiple factors can be expected to influence soil  
77 microbial communities and GDGT production. So far, little is known about the variability of  
78 GDGT proxies on a regional scale, and a calibration study with small climate gradient but with  
79 different vegetation types might be useful.

80 Concerning paleohydrology proxies, compound specific stable hydrogen isotopes of leaf wax  
81 biomarkers, such as long chain *n*-alkanes ( $\delta^2H_{n\text{-alkanes}}$ ) record the isotopic signal of precipitation  
82 and therefore past climate and environmental conditions (Sachse et al., 2004, 2006). However,  
83 various influencing factors are known e.g. the moisture source to leaf waxes (Pedenchouk and  
84 Zhou, 2018 and Sachse et al., 2012 for review). Next is the evapotranspiration of leaf water  
85 (Feakins and Sessions, 2010; Kahmen et al., 2013; Zech et al., 2015), which is strongly driven  
86 by relative air humidity (RH; e.g. Cernusak et al., 2016 for review). In addition, a strong  
87 precipitation signal is known to be incorporated into long chain leaf waxes (Hou et al., 2008;  
88 Rao et al., 2009; Sachse et al., 2004). In paleoclimate studies, it is often not feasible to  
89 disentangle between the evapotranspirative enrichment from the precipitation signal. Zech et  
90 al. (2013) proposed to couple  $\delta^2H_{n\text{-alkane}}$  results with oxygen stable isotopes of hemicellulose-  
91 derived sugars ( $\delta^{18}O_{\text{sugar}}$ ). Assuming constant biosynthetic fractionation factors ( $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$ ) for the  
92 different compound classes (*n*-alkanes and hemicellulose sugars), the coupling enables the  
93 reconstruction of the isotopic composition of leaf water, RH and  $\delta^2H$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  of plant source  
94 water ( $\approx \delta^2H$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  of precipitation; Tuthorn et al., 2015). So far, a detailed evaluation of

95 this approach on the European scale, as well as related effects concerning vegetation changes  
96 is missing.

97 We analysed topsoil samples under coniferous, deciduous and grassland vegetation along a  
98 Central European transect in order to estimate the variability of the biomarker proxies. More  
99 specifically, we aim to test whether:

100 (i) the vegetation type has an influence on the brGDGT proxies, the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$  and the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$   
101 stable isotopic composition, as well as on reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ ,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  and RH.

102 (ii) the published brGDGT proxies used for reconstructing mean annual temperature and soil  
103 pH are sensitive enough to reflect the medium changes in temperature and soil pH along our  
104 transect.

105 (iii) the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  approach enables a  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of precipitation and RH  
106 reconstruction along the transect.

107

## 108 **2 Material and methods**

### 109 **2.1 Geographical setting and sampling**

110 In November 2012, we collected 29 topsoil samples (0-5 cm depth) from 16 locations along a  
111 transect from Southern Germany to Southern Sweden (Fig. 1A). We distinguished between sites  
112 with coniferous forest (con,  $n = 9$ ), deciduous forest (dec,  $n = 14$ ) and grassland (grass,  $n = 6$ )  
113 vegetation cover (for more details see Schäfer et al. (2016) and Tab. S1).

114

### 115 **2.2 Database of instrumental climate variables and isotope composition of precipitation**

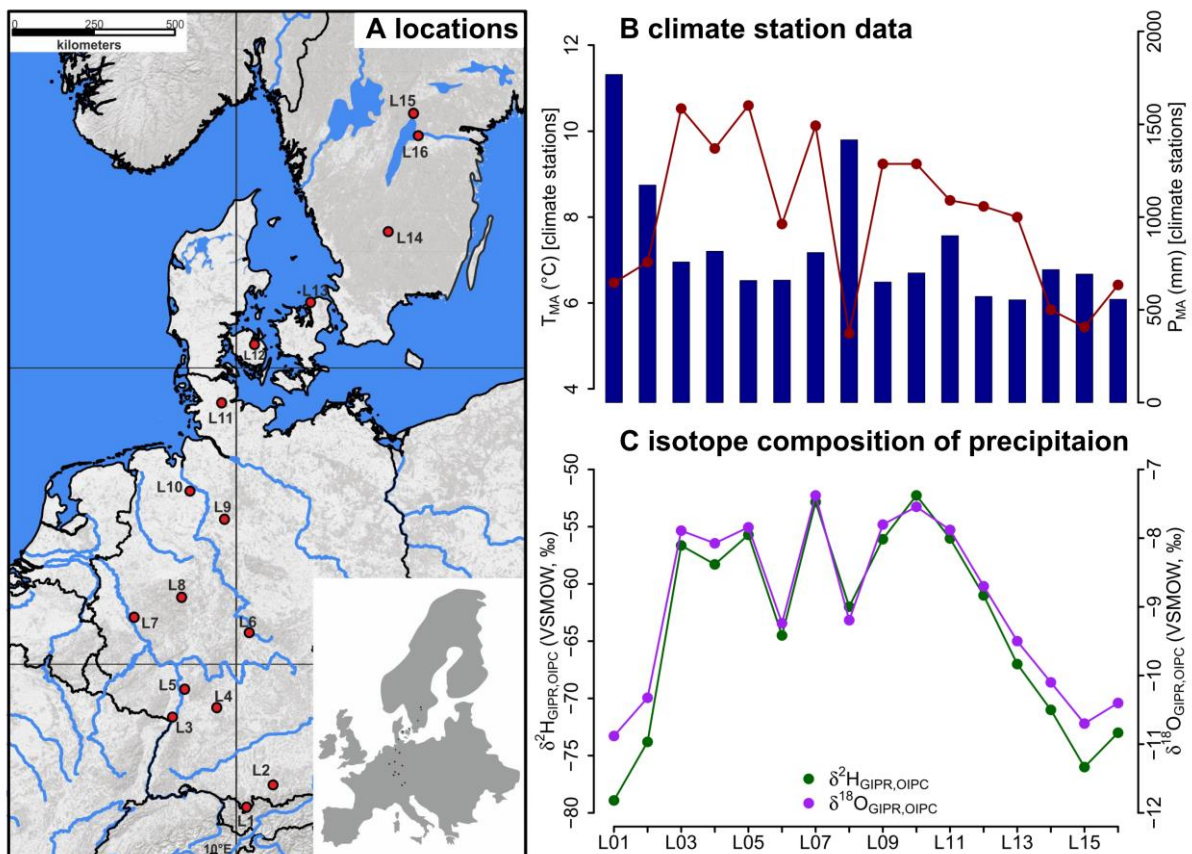
116 Climate data was derived from close-by weather observation stations operating by the regional  
117 institutions (Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD) for Germany, Danmarks Meteorologiske Institut  
118 (DMI) for Denmark and the Sveriges Meteorologiska och Hydrologiska Institute (SMHI) for  
119 Sweden). The DWD provides hourly data for each station (DWD Climate Data Center, 2018b),  
120 enabling not only the calculation of  $T_{\text{MA}}$ , but also of the mean annual relative air humidity  
121 ( $\text{RH}_{\text{MA}}$ ), mean temperature and relative air humidity during the vegetation period ( $T$  and  
122  $\text{RH}_{\text{MV}}$ ), and of daytime temperature and relative humidity averages over the vegetation period  
123 ( $T$  and  $\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}}$ ). In addition, annual precipitation observations were used to derive the mean  
124 annual precipitation amount ( $P_{\text{MA}}$ ; DWD Climate Data Center, 2018b). From the DMI, the  
125 respective climate variables were derived from published technical reports (Cappelen, 2002;  
126 Frich et al., 1997; Laursen et al., 1999). The SMHI provides open data from which we derived  
127 the climate variables for the Swedish sites (Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute,  
128 2018). For more details about the climate database used for calculations and comparisons, the  
129 reader is referred to Tab. S2.

130 For comprising German precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}/\delta^{18}\text{O}$  along the transect, we realized a regionalisation  
131 (called  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR}}$ ) using online available data from 34 German GNIP stations, 4  
132 Austrian ANIP stations and the Groningen GNIP station (van Geldern et al., 2014;  
133 IAEA/WMO, 2018; Stumpp et al., 2014; Umweltbundesamt GmbH, 2018), following the  
134 approach of Schlotter (2007). However, instead of the multivariate regression procedure applied

135 by Schlotter (2007), we used a random forest approach (Hothorn et al., 2006; Strobl et al., 2007,  
 136 2008) to describe the relationship of squared latitude, latitude, longitude and altitude vs. long  
 137 term weighted means of precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , and realized the prediction for each site  
 138 (see supplementary method description for more information). For the Danish and Swedish  
 139 sites, such a procedure was not possible. Hence, the annual precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values  
 140 were derived from the Online Isotopes in Precipitation Calculator (OIPC, version 3.1), therefore  
 141 called  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{OIPC}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{OIPC}}$  (Bowen, 2018; Bowen and Revenaugh, 2003; IAEA/WMO, 2015).  
 142 The finally used  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  data are given in Tab. S1.

143 The  $T_{\text{MA}}$  along the transect ranges from 5.3 to 10.6°C, and  $P_{\text{MA}}$  ranges from 554 to 1769 mm  
 144 (Fig. 1B). Precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}/\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shows moderate changes along the transect,  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$   
 145 varies between -52 and -79‰, and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  ranges from -7.4 to -10.9‰ (Fig. 1C).

146 Correlations between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  and  $P_{\text{MA}}$ , altitude of the locations,  $T_{\text{MA}}$  are given in the  
 147 supplementary material (Fig. S1 to S3), along with a  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  vs.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  scatter plot  
 148 (Fig. S4).



149 **Fig. 1.** (A) Sample locations (red dots, map source: US National Park Service), (B) variations  
 150 of mean annual air temperature ( $T_{\text{MA}}$ , red dots and line) and mean annual precipitation ( $P_{\text{MA}}$ ,  
 151 blue bars) derived from close-by climate station data, and (C) hydrogen and oxygen stable  
 152 isotope composition of precipitation ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ , respectively) as derived for  
 153 the sampled transect locations (see section 2.2 GIPR  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  generation procedure). The  
 154 reader is referred to section 2.2 (and Tab. S1 and S2) for database and reference information of  
 155 data plotted in (B) and (C).  
 156

157

## 158 2.3 Soil extractions and analysis

### 159 2.3.1 GDGTs and pH

160 A detailed description of sample preparation for lipid analysis can be found in Schäfer et al.  
161 (2016). Briefly, 1–6 g freeze-dried and grounded soil sample was microwave extracted with 15  
162 ml dichloromethane (DCM)/methanol (MeOH) 9:1 (*v:v*) at 100°C for 1 h. Extracts were  
163 separated over aminopropyl silica gel (Supelco, 45 µm) pipette columns. The nonpolar fraction  
164 (including *n*-alkanes) was eluted with hexane and further purified over AgNO<sub>3</sub> coated silica  
165 pipette columns (Supelco, 60-200 mesh) and zeolite (Geokleen Ltd.). The GDGT-containing  
166 fraction was eluted with DCM:MeOH 1:1 (*v:v*), re-dissolved in hexane/isopropanol (IPA) 99:1  
167 (*v:v*) and transferred over 0.45 µm PTFE filters into 300 µl inserts. For quantification, a known  
168 amount of a C<sub>46</sub> diol standard was added after transfer. The samples were analysed at ETH  
169 Zurich using an Agilent 1260 Infinity series HPLC–atmospheric chemical pressure ionization  
170 mass spectrometer (HPLC–APCI-MS) equipped with a Grace Prevail Cyano column (150 mm  
171 × 2.1 mm; 3 µm). The GDGTs were eluted isocratically with 90% A and 10% B for 5 min and  
172 then with a linear gradient to 18% B for 34 min at 0.2 ml min<sup>-1</sup>, where A=hexane and  
173 B=hexane/isopropanol (9:1, *v:v*). Injection volume was 10 µl and single ion monitoring of  
174 [M+H]<sup>+</sup> was used to detect GDGTs.

175 The pH of the samples was measured in the laboratory of the Soil Biogeochemistry group,  
176 Institute of Agronomy and Nutritional Sciences, Martin-Luther-University Halle-Wittenberg,  
177 using a pH meter in a 1:3 soil:water (*w/v*) mixture.

178

### 179 2.3.2 δ<sup>2</sup>H<sub>*n*-alkane</sub>

180 The hydrogen isotopic composition of the highest concentrated *n*-alkanes (*n*-C<sub>25</sub>, *n*-C<sub>27</sub>, *n*-C<sub>29</sub>,  
181 *n*-C<sub>31</sub>, and *n*-C<sub>33</sub>) was determined using a TRACE GC Ultra Gas Chromatography connected to  
182 a Delta V Plus Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer via a <sup>2</sup>H pyrolysis reactor kept at 1420 °C (GC-  
183 <sup>2</sup>H-Py-IRMS; Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany) at ETH Zurich (Christoph et al., 2019).  
184 For more details about *n*-alkane quantification the reader is referred to Schäfer et al. (2016).  
185 The compound-specific <sup>2</sup>H/<sup>1</sup>H ratios were calibrated against an external standard with C<sub>15</sub> – C<sub>35</sub>  
186 homologues. External standard mixtures (A4 mix from A. Schimmelmann, University of  
187 Indiana) were run between the samples for multipoint linear normalization. The H<sup>+</sup><sub>3</sub> factor was  
188 determined on each measurement day and was constant throughout the periods of the sample  
189 batches. Samples were analysed in duplicates, and results typically agreed within 4% (average  
190 difference = 1.4%). All δ<sup>2</sup>H values are expressed relative to the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean  
191 Water (V-SMOW).

192

### 193 2.3.3 δ<sup>18</sup>O<sub>sugar</sub>

194 Hemicellulose sugars were extracted and purified using a slightly modified standard procedure  
195 (Amelung et al., 1996; Guggenberger et al., 1994; Zech and Glaser, 2009). Briefly, myoinositol  
196 was added to the samples prior to extraction as first internal standard. The sugars were released  
197 hydrolytically using 4M trifluoroacetic acid for 4 h at 105°C, cleaned over glass fiber filters and  
198 further purified using XAD and Dowex columns. Before derivatization with methylboronic acid  
199 (Knapp, 1979), the samples were frozen, freeze-dried, and 3-O-methylglucose in dry pyridine

200 was added as second internal standard. Compound-specific hemicellulose sugar  $^{18}\text{O}$   
 201 measurements were performed in the laboratory of the Soil Biogeochemistry group, Institute of  
 202 Agronomy and Nutritional Sciences, Martin-Luther-University Halle-Wittenberg, using GC-  
 203  $^{18}\text{O}$ -Py-IRMS (all devices from Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). Standard  
 204 deviations of the triplicate measurements were 1.4‰ (over 29 investigated samples) for  
 205 arabinose and xylose, respectively. We focus on these two hemicellulose-derived neutral sugars  
 206 arabinose and xylose as they strongly predominate over fucose in terrestrial plants, soils and  
 207 sediments (Hepp et al., 2016 and references therein). Rhamnose concentrations were too low to  
 208 obtain reliable  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  results. All  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values are expressed relative to the Vienna Standard Mean  
 209 Ocean Water (V-SMOW).

210

## 211 2.4 Theory and Calculations

### 212 2.4.1 Calculations used for the GDGT-based reconstructions

213 The branched and isoprenoid tetraether (BIT) index is calculated according to Hopmans et al.  
 214 (2004), for structures see Fig. S5:

$$215 \quad \text{BIT} = \frac{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIIa}}{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIIa} + \text{crenarchaeol}} \quad (1)$$

216 The cyclopentane moiety number of brGDGTs correlates negatively with soil pH (Weijers et  
 217 al., 2007), which led to the development of the cyclization of branched tetraethers (CBT) ratio.  
 218 CBT and the CBT based pH ( $\text{pH}_{\text{CBT}}$ ) were calculated according to Peterse et al. (2012):

$$219 \quad \text{CBT} = -\log \frac{\text{Ib} + \text{IIb}}{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa}} \quad (2)$$

$$220 \quad \text{pH}_{\text{CBT}} = 7.9 - 1.97 \times \text{CBT} \quad (3)$$

221 The number of methyl groups in brGDGTs correlates negatively with  $T_{\text{MA}}$  and soil pH (Peterse  
 222 et al., 2012; Weijers et al., 2007). Thus, the ratio of the methylation of branched tetraethers  
 223 (MBT) ratio and the CBT ratio can be used to reconstruct  $T_{\text{MA}}$ . We use the equation given by  
 224 Peterse et al. (2012):

$$225 \quad \text{MBT}' = \frac{\text{Ia} + \text{Ib} + \text{Ic}}{\text{Ia} + \text{Ib} + \text{Ic} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIb} + \text{IIc} + \text{IIIa}} \quad (4)$$

$$226 \quad T_{\text{MA}} = 0.81 - 5.67 \times \text{CBT} + 31.0 \times \text{MBT}' \quad (5)$$

227

### 228 2.4.2 Calculations and concepts used for the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}$ - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ approach

229 The apparent fractionation is calculated according to Cernusak et al. (2016):

$$230 \quad \varepsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}} = \left( \frac{\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}} - \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}}{1 + \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}/1000} \right), \quad (6)$$

$$231 \quad \varepsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}} = \left( \frac{\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}} - \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}}{1 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}/1000} \right). \quad (7)$$

232 The isotopic composition of leaf water ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}}$ ) can be calculated using  $\varepsilon_{\text{bio}}$   
 233 for  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$  (-160‰, Sachse et al., 2012; Sessions et al., 1999) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  (+27‰, Cernusak  
 234 et al., 2003; Schmidt et al., 2001):

$$235 \quad \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}} = \left( \frac{1000 + \delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}}{1000 + \varepsilon_{\text{bio}}(n\text{-alkane})} \right) \times 10^3 - 1000, \quad (8)$$

$$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}} = \left( \frac{1000 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}}{1000 + \epsilon_{\text{bio}}(\text{sugar})} \right) \times 10^3 - 1000. \quad (9)$$

Zech et al. (2013) introduced the conceptual model for the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  approach in detail. Briefly, the coupled approach is based on the following assumptions (illustrated in Fig. 8): (i) The isotopic composition of precipitation, which is set to be equal to the plant source water, typically plots along the global meteoric water line (GMWL;  $\delta^2\text{H} = 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O} + 10$ ) in a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  vs.  $\delta^2\text{H}$  space (Craig, 1961); (ii) Source water uptake by plants does not lead to any fractionation (e.g. Dawson et al., 2002), and significant evaporation of soil water can be excluded; (iii) Evapotranspiration leads to enrichment of the remaining leaf water along the local evaporation line (LEL; Allison et al., 1985; Bariac et al., 1994; Walker and Brunel, 1990), compared to the source water taken up by the plant; (iv) The biosynthetic fractionation is assumed to be constant. In addition, isotopic equilibrium between plant source water (~ weighted mean annual precipitation) and the local atmospheric water vapour is assumed. Further assumption concerns the isotope steady-state in the evaporating leaf water reservoir. The coupled approach allows for reconstructing the isotopic composition of plant source water ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ ) from the reconstructed leaf water, by calculating the intercepts of the LELs with the GMWL (Zech et al., 2013). The slope of the LEL ( $S_{\text{LEL}}$ ) can be assessed by the following equation (Gat, 1971):

$$S_{\text{LEL}} = \frac{\epsilon_2^* + C_k^2}{\epsilon_{18}^* + C_k^{18}}, \quad (10)$$

where  $\epsilon^*$  are equilibrium isotope fractionation factors and  $C_k$  are kinetic fractionation factors. The latter equals to 25.1‰ and 28.5‰, for  $C_k^2$  and  $C_k^{18}$ , respectively (Merlivat, 1978). The equilibrium fractionation factors can be derived from empirical equations (Horita and Wesolowski, 1994) by using  $T_{\text{MDV}}$  values. For two Danish sites  $T_{\text{MDV}}$  are not available, instead  $T_{\text{MV}}$  is used here (section 2.2 and Tab. S2).

In a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-}\delta^2\text{H}$  diagram, the distance of the leaf water from the GMWL define the deuterium-excess of leaf water ( $d_{\text{leaf-water}} = \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}} - 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}}$ , according Dansgaard, (1964); Fig. 8). To convert  $d_{\text{leaf-water}}$  into mean RH during daytime and vegetation period ( $\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}}$ ), a simplified Craig-Gordon model can be applied (Zech et al., 2013):

$$\text{RH} = 1 - \frac{\Delta d}{\epsilon_2^* - 8 \times \epsilon_{18}^* + C_k^2 - 8 \times C_k^{18}}, \quad (11)$$

where  $\Delta d$  is the difference in  $d_{\text{leaf-water}}$  and the deuterium-excess of source water ( $d_{\text{source-water}}$ ).

265

## 2.5 Statistics

In the statistical analysis we checked sample distributions for normality (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965) and for equal variance (Levene, 1960). If normality and equal variances are given, we perform an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). If that is not the case, we conduct the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis Test. ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis are used to find significant differences ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) between the vegetation types (deciduous, conifer and grass).

In order to describe the relation along a 1:1 line, the coefficient of correlation ( $R^2$ ) was calculated as  $R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum(\text{modeled} - \text{measured})^2}{\sum(\text{measured} - \text{measured mean})^2}$ . The small  $r^2$  is taken as coefficient of correlation of a linear regression between a dependent (y) and



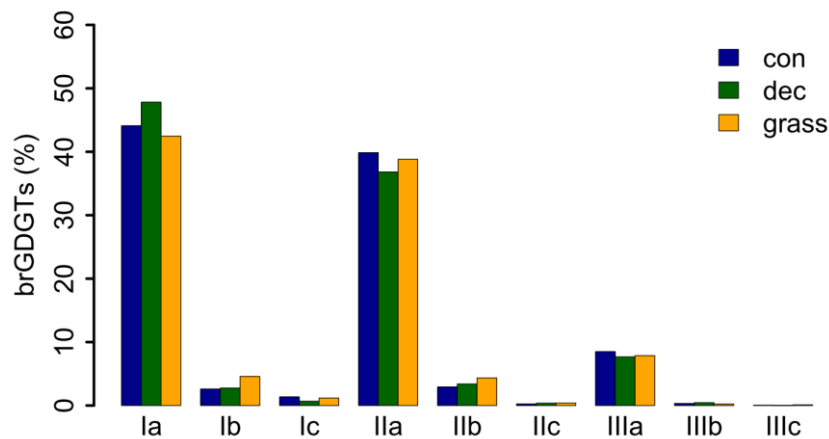
275 explanatory variable(s). The root mean square error (RMSE) of the relationships was calculated  
276 as  $RMSE = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum(\text{modeled} - \text{measured})^2\right)}$ . All data plotting and statistical analysis was  
277 realized in R (version 3.2.2; R Core Team, 2015).

278

## 279 **3 Results and Discussion**

### 280 **3.1 GDGT concentrations**

281 GDGT Ia has the highest concentration under all vegetation types, followed by GDGT IIa and  
282 GDGT IIIa (Fig. 2). GDGT Ib, IIb and Ic occur in minor, GDGT IIc and IIIb only in trace  
283 amounts. GDGT IIIc was below the detection limit in most of the samples (Tab. S3). Although  
284 other studies document an influence of the vegetation cover on soil temperature and soil water  
285 content, which control the microbial community composition in soils (Awe et al., 2015; Liu et  
286 al., 2014; Mueller-Niggemann et al., 2016), we find no statistically different pattern of the  
287 individual brGDGTs.



288

289 **Fig. 2.** Mean concentrations of individual brGDGTs as percentage of all brGDGTs for the three  
290 investigated types. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest  
291 sites (n=14); grass = grassland sites (n=6).

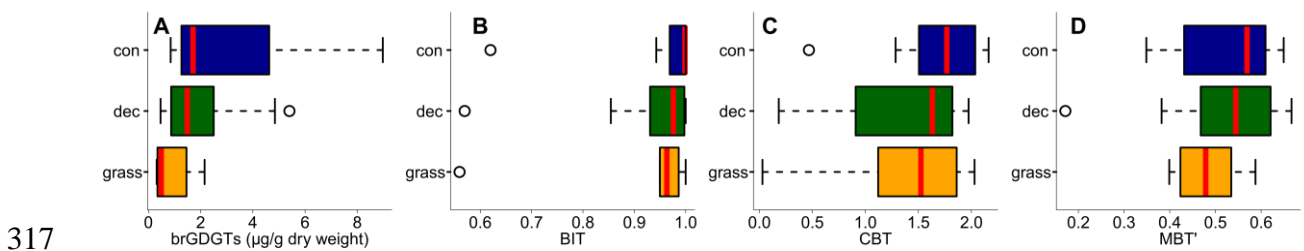
292 Total concentrations of brGDGTs range from 0.32 to 9.17  $\mu\text{g/g}$  dry weight and tend to be  
293 highest for the coniferous samples and lowest for the grasses (Fig. 3A, Tab. S3). Bulk brGDGT  
294 concentrations lie within the range of other studies examining soils of mid latitude regions  
295 (Huguet et al., 2010b, 2010a; Weijers et al., 2011). Similar concentrations in coniferous and  
296 deciduous samples imply that brGDGT production does not strongly vary in soils below  
297 different forest types. The grass samples show lower brGDGT concentrations compared to the  
298 forest samples, but this is probably mainly due to ploughing of the grass sites in former times  
299 and hence admixing of mineral subsoil material. The differences in brGDGT concentrations are  
300 not significant (p-value = 0.06).

301

### 302 **3.2 BIT index**

303 Most of the samples have a BIT index higher than 0.9 (Fig 3B and Tab. S3). The BIT-values  
304 are typical for soils in humid and temperate climate regions (Weijers et al., 2006). However,

305 outliers exist. The most likely source of iGDGTs in soils are Thaumarchaeota, i.e. aerobic  
 306 ammonia oxidizing archaea producing Crenarchaeol and its regioisomer (Schouten et al., 2013  
 307 and references therein), precipitation amounts drop below 700-800 mm (Dang et al., 2016;  
 308 Dirghangi et al., 2013). The  $P_{MA}$  data of our sampling sites mostly show precipitation > 550  
 309 mm (Fig. 1B), but one has to be aware that this data is based on the climate station nearest to  
 310 the respective sampling locations and microclimate effects, such as sunlight exposure, canopy  
 311 cover or exposition might have a pronounced influence on the brGDGT vs. iGDGT distribution.  
 312 Mueller-Niggemann et al. (2016) found higher BIT indices in upland soils compared to paddy  
 313 soils and stated that the management type also influences BIT values in soils. Along our  
 314 transect, grass sites tend to have slightly lower BIT-values than forest sites, probably due to the  
 315 absence of a litter layer and hence, no isolation mechanism preventing evaporation of soil water.  
 316 Differences between vegetation types are not significant (p-value = 0.32).



317  
 318 **Fig. 3.** (A) Total concentrations of brGDGTs in  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  dry weight, as well as (B) BIT, (C) CBT  
 319 and (D) MBT'. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites  
 320 (n=14); grass = grassland sites (n=6). Box plots show median (red line), interquartile range  
 321 (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower  
 322 quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper quartile, dots mark outliers.

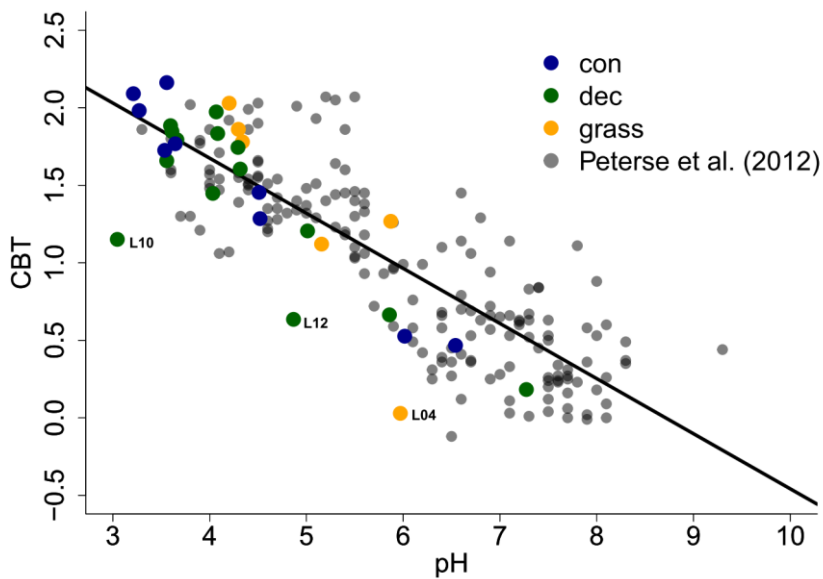
323

### 324 3.3 CBT-derived pH

325 The CBT ratio shows a pronounced variation independent of vegetation type with values  
 326 between 0.03 and 2.16 (Fig 3C). The coniferous samples tend to be highest, but the differences  
 327 between vegetation types are not significant (p-value = 0.48). The CBT index can be related to  
 328 pH in acidic and/or humid soils (e.g. Dirghangi et al., 2013; Mueller-Niggemann et al., 2016;  
 329 Peterse et al., 2012; Weijers et al., 2007) but might be an indicator of soil water content and  
 330 hence, precipitation in more arid and alkaline soils (e.g. Dang et al., 2016). There is a  
 331 pronounced correlation between CBT and soil pH (Fig. 4), which is in good agreement with  
 332 other studies from mid latitude regions where precipitation is relatively high (Anderson et al.,  
 333 2014 and references therein). Moreover, the CBT to pH relationship in terms of slope and  
 334 intersect in our dataset ( $\text{CBT} = -0.47 \times \text{pH} + 3.5$ ,  $r^2 = 0.7$ , p-value < 0.0001, n = 29) is well  
 335 comparable to the correlation described for the global calibration dataset of Peterse et al. (2012)  
 336 ( $\text{CBT} = -0.36 \times \text{pH} + 3.1$ ,  $r^2 = 0.7$ , p-value < 0.0001, n = 176).

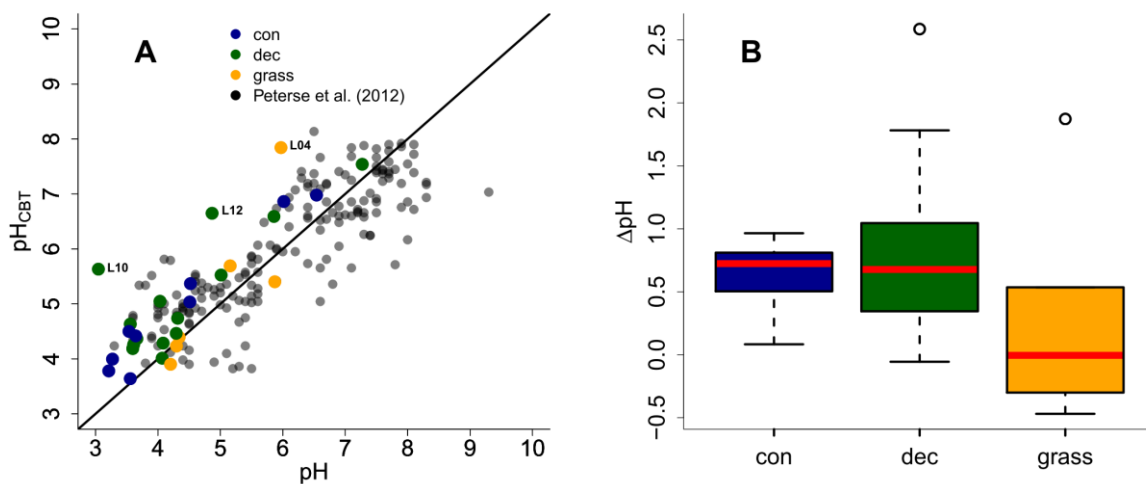
337 However, there are some outliers in the CBT-pH correlation, which need a further examination  
 338 (see locations grass L04, dec L10 and dec L12 as marked in Figs. 4 and 5). The outliers show  
 339 lower BIT indices (< 0.85, Tab. S3). Even though the data from the nearest climate station  
 340 suggest no abnormal  $P_{MA}$ . Local effects such as differences in the amount of sunlight exposure,  
 341 nutrient availability for brGDGT producing organisms or, most likely soil water content might  
 342 influence the brGDGT production at these locations (Anderson et al., 2014; Dang et al., 2016).

343 A lower BIT index as well as a lower CBT occur when soil water content decreases (Dang et  
 344 al., 2016; Sun et al., 2016) or when aeration is high and less anoxic microhabitats for GDGT  
 345 producing microbes exist (e.g. Dirghangi et al., 2013).



346  
 347 **Fig. 4.** CBT to pH relationship in our dataset in comparison to the global calibration dataset  
 348 from Peterse et al. (2012) ( $CBT = -0.36 \times pH + 3.1$ ,  $r^2 = 0.7$ ,  $p$ -value  $< 0.0001$ ,  $n = 176$ , black  
 349 line). Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites ( $n=9$ ); dec = deciduous forest sites ( $n=14$ );  
 350 grass = grassland sites ( $n=6$ ).

351  
 352 As the CBT and pH are similarly correlated in our dataset and the global dataset of Peterse et  
 353 al. (2012), the CBT-derived pH correlated well with the actual pH (Fig. 5A;  $R^2 = 0.3$ ).  
 354 Expressed as  $\Delta pH$  (CBT-derived pH - measured pH), there is a tendency that the GDGTs result  
 355 in an overestimation of the real pH for the forest sites (Fig. B). Yet a Kruskal-Wallis test shows  
 356 no statistically significant difference between the vegetation types, with a  $p$ -value of 0.13. The  
 357 overall  $\Delta pH$  of  $0.6 \pm 0.6$  shows that the reconstruction of soil pH using brGDGTs works well  
 358 along this transect.



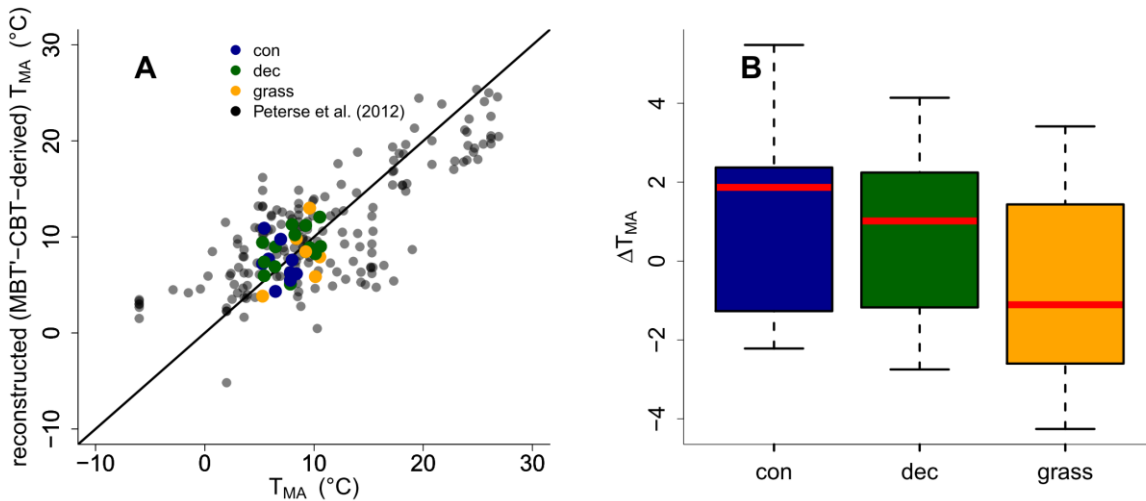
359

360 **Fig. 5.** (A) Correlation between measured pH and reconstructed soil pH ( $\text{pH}_{\text{CBT}}$ ) from our  
 361 transect data in comparison to the global calibration dataset from Peterse et al. (2012) ( $R^2 = 0.7$ ,  
 362  $\text{RMSE} = 0.75$ ,  $n = 176$ ). Black line indicates the 1:1 relationship. (B) Boxplots of  $\Delta\text{pH}$  (refers  
 363 to  $\text{pH}_{\text{CBT}} - \text{pH}$ ). Box plots show median (red line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%)  
 364 and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower quartile, and highest  
 365 whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper quartile, dots mark outliers. Abbreviations: con =  
 366 coniferous forest sites ( $n=9$ ); dec = deciduous forest sites ( $n=14$ ); grass = grassland sites ( $n=6$ ).

367

### 368 **3.4 MBT'-CBT-derived $T_{\text{MA}}$ reconstructions**

369 The MBT' shows high variability with values ranging from 0.17 to 0.67 no statistical  
 370 differences between vegetation types ( $p\text{-value} = 0.54$ ; Fig. 3D, Tab. S3). When comparing  
 371 reconstructed (MBT'-CBT-derived)  $T_{\text{MA}}$  with climate station  $T_{\text{MA}}$ , the data plot close to the 1:1  
 372 line, and fit well into the global dataset of Peterse et al. (2012) (Fig. 6A). The  $\Delta T_{\text{MA}}$  reveal an  
 373 overall offset of  $0.5^\circ\text{C} \pm 2.4$  and there is no statistically difference between vegetation types  
 374 (Fig. 6B). The standard deviation in  $\Delta T_{\text{MA}}$  of  $\pm 2.4$  is well in line with the RMSE of 5.0 for the  
 375 global calibration dataset (Peterse et al., 2012).



376 **Fig. 6.** (A) Correlation between climate station  $T_{\text{MA}}$  and reconstructed (MBT'-CBT-derived)  
 377  $T_{\text{MA}}$ . For comparison, the global calibration dataset from Peterse et al. (2012) is shown. The  
 378 black line indicates the 1:1 relationship. (B) Boxplots of  $\Delta T_{\text{MA}}$  (refers to reconstructed  $T_{\text{MA}}$ -  
 379  $T_{\text{MA}}$  from climate stations) in the different vegetation types from our transect study. Box plots  
 380 show median (red line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles,  
 381 lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of  
 382 upper quartile, dots mark outliers. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites ( $n=9$ ); dec =  
 383 deciduous forest sites ( $n=14$ ); grass = grassland sites ( $n=6$ ).

385

### 386 **3.5 Potential impact of the used liquid chromatography method on pH and $T_{\text{MA}}$** 387 **reconstructions**

388 The GDGT data presented in this study are not acquired on the up-to-date method (e.g. compare  
 389 De Jonge et al., 2014 vs. Zech et al., 2012c). De Jonge et al. (2014) presented a new liquid  
 390 chromatography method which enables the separation for the brGDGTs with  $m/z$  1036, 1034

391 and 1032, 1050, 1048 and 1046 into 6-methyl and 5-methyl stereoisomers. The old method did  
392 not allow such a separation (Zech et al., 2012c), thus in the calibration often the sum of 6 and  
393 5-methylated brGDGTs was used (see and compare De Jonge et al., 2014 vs. Peterse et al., 2012).  
394 This introduces scatter to the MBT'-CBT-based  $T_{MA}$  reconstructions and can cause a correlation  
395 between pH and MBT' (for more details see De Jonge et al., 2014). De Jonge et al. (2014)  
396 moreover show that the 6-methyl brGDGTs are ubiquitous abundant in soils from all over the  
397 world, based on reanalysing the dataset of Peterse et al. (2012). However, they also compare  
398 reconstructed  $T_{MA}$  values based MBT'-CBT calibration (Peterse et al., 2012) and their new  
399 developed  $T_{MA}$  calibration and state that they plot around a 1:1 line. They furthermore state,  
400 that especially for arid areas larger deviations can be expected. Finally, they conclude that the  
401 use of the new developed calibrations will improve the  $T_{MA}$  and pH reconstructions for areas  
402 with arid climate conditions. Because our study transect spans from southern Germany to  
403 southern Sweden, representing temperate and humid climate conditions, we argue that the usage  
404 of the older liquid chromatography method do not introduce a systematic error in our  $T_{MA}$  and  
405 pH reconstructions. Still, a higher variability/scatter could be associated with the calibration of  
406 Peterse et al. (2012) and therefore also present in our  $T_{MA}$  and pH reconstructions.

407

### 408 **3.6 Apparent fractionation of $\delta^2H$ and $\delta^{18}O$ in the different vegetation types**

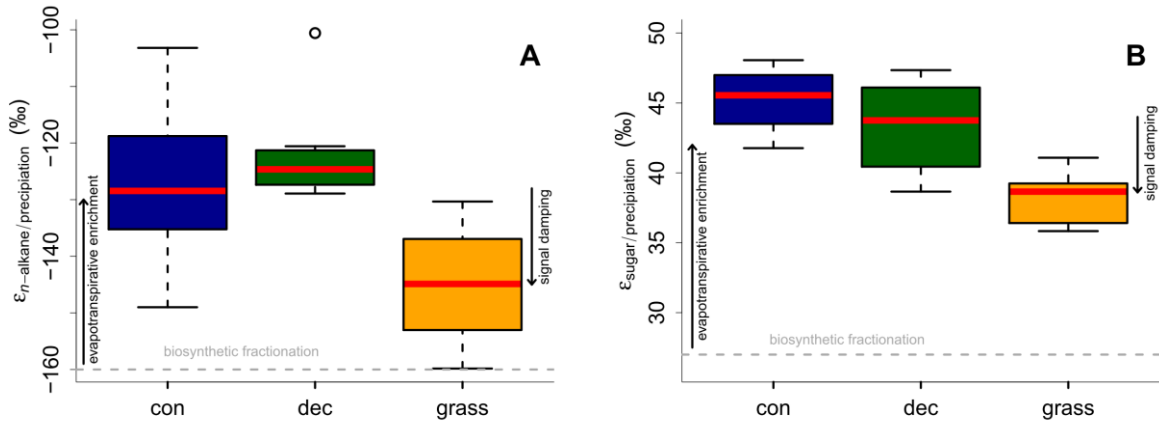
409 The  $\delta^2H$  values could be obtained for *n*-alkanes  $C_{27}$ ,  $C_{29}$  and  $C_{31}$  in all samples and additionally  
410 at two locations for *n*- $C_{25}$  and *n*- $C_{33}$  at six other locations. The  $\delta^2H_{n\text{-alkane}}$  values, calculated as  
411 mean of *n*- $C_{25}$  to *n*- $C_{31}$   $\delta^2H$ , ranges from -156 to -216‰. Pooled standard deviations show an  
412 overall average of 3.6‰. The  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{sugar}}$  values, calculated as the area weighted means for  
413 arabinose and xylose, ranges from 27.7 to 39.4‰. The average weighted mean standard  
414 deviation is 1.4‰. The compound-specific isotope data is summarized along with the  
415 calculations in Tab. S4.

416 Apparent fractionation ( $\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$ ) is on the order of -120 to -150‰, i.e. a bit less than  
417 the biosynthetic fraction of -160‰. This implies that evapotranspirative enrichment is ~ 10 to  
418 40‰ (Fig. 7A).  $\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$  is lower for grass sites compared to the forest sites. Differences  
419 are significant between deciduous and grass sites (p-value = 0.005). This finding supports the  
420 results of other studies (Kahmen et al., 2013; Liu and Yang, 2008; McInerney et al., 2011), and  
421 can be named "signal damping". Grasses do not only incorporate the evaporatively-enriched  
422 leaf water only but also unenriched xylem water in the growth and differentiation zone of  
423 grasses (Gamarra et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017).

424 The grass-derived hemicellulose sugar biomarkers do not fully record the evapotranspirative  
425 enrichment of the leaf water, either, as indicated by lower apparent fractionation ( $\epsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}}$ )  
426 in Fig. 7B. The differences are significant between forest and grass sites (p-value < 0.005). This  
427 is in agreement with a study on cellulose extracted from grass blades (Helliker and Ehleringer,  
428 2002), and again, the "signal damping" can be explained with incorporation of enriched leaf  
429 water and non-enriched stem water.

430 Based on the comparison of evapotranspirative enrichment between forest and grass sites, the  
431 "signal damping" can be quantified to be ~ 31% for the hemicellulose sugars, and ~ 49% for  
432 the *n*-alkanes. This is in agreement with other studies that reported a loss of 22% of the leaf

433 water enrichment for hemicellulose sugars (Helliker and Ehleringer, 2002) and 39 to 62% loss  
 434 of the leaf water enrichment for *n*-alkanes (Gamarra et al., 2016).

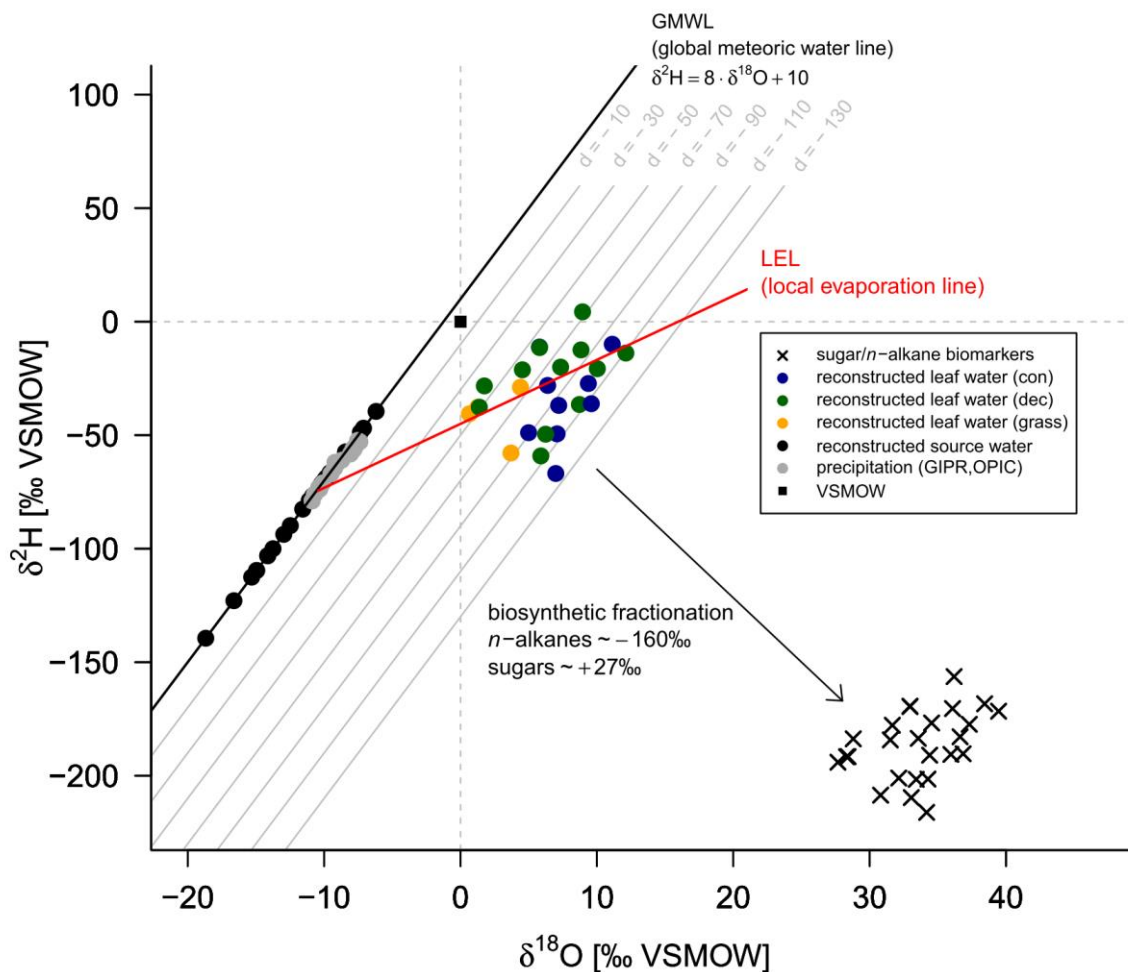


435  
 436 **Fig. 7.** Apparent fractionation (A)  $\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$  and (B)  $\epsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}}$ . Biosynthetic  
 437 fractionation factors according to section 2.4.2. Box plots show median (red line), interquartile  
 438 range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR  
 439 of lower quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper quartile, dots mark outliers.  
 440 Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11 and 14  
 441 for *n*-alkanes and sugars, respectively); grass = grassland sites (n=4 and 6 for *n*-alkanes and  
 442 sugars, respectively). The figure conceptually illustrates the effect of biosynthetic fractionation  
 443 and evapotranspirative enrichment as well as “signal damping”.

444

### 445 3.7 $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ reconstructions

446 The  $\delta^2\text{H}$  versus  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  diagram shown in Fig. 8 graphically illustrates the reconstruction of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}}$   
 447 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}}$  (colored dots) from  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  (crosses), as well as the  
 448 reconstruction of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  (black dots). For reconstructing  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$   
 449 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ , LELs with an average slope of  $2.8 \pm 0.1$  (Eq. 10) can be generated through  
 450 every leaf water point and the intercepts of these LELs with the GMWL.



451  
 452 **Fig. 8.**  $\delta^2\text{H}$  vs.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  diagram illustrating the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  approach: measured  
 453  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  values, reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}}$  (according Eqs. 8 and  
 454 9) and reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  in comparison to GIPR and OIPC-based  
 455  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{precipitation}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precipitation}}$ . Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec =  
 456 deciduous forest sites (n=11); grass = grassland sites (n=4).

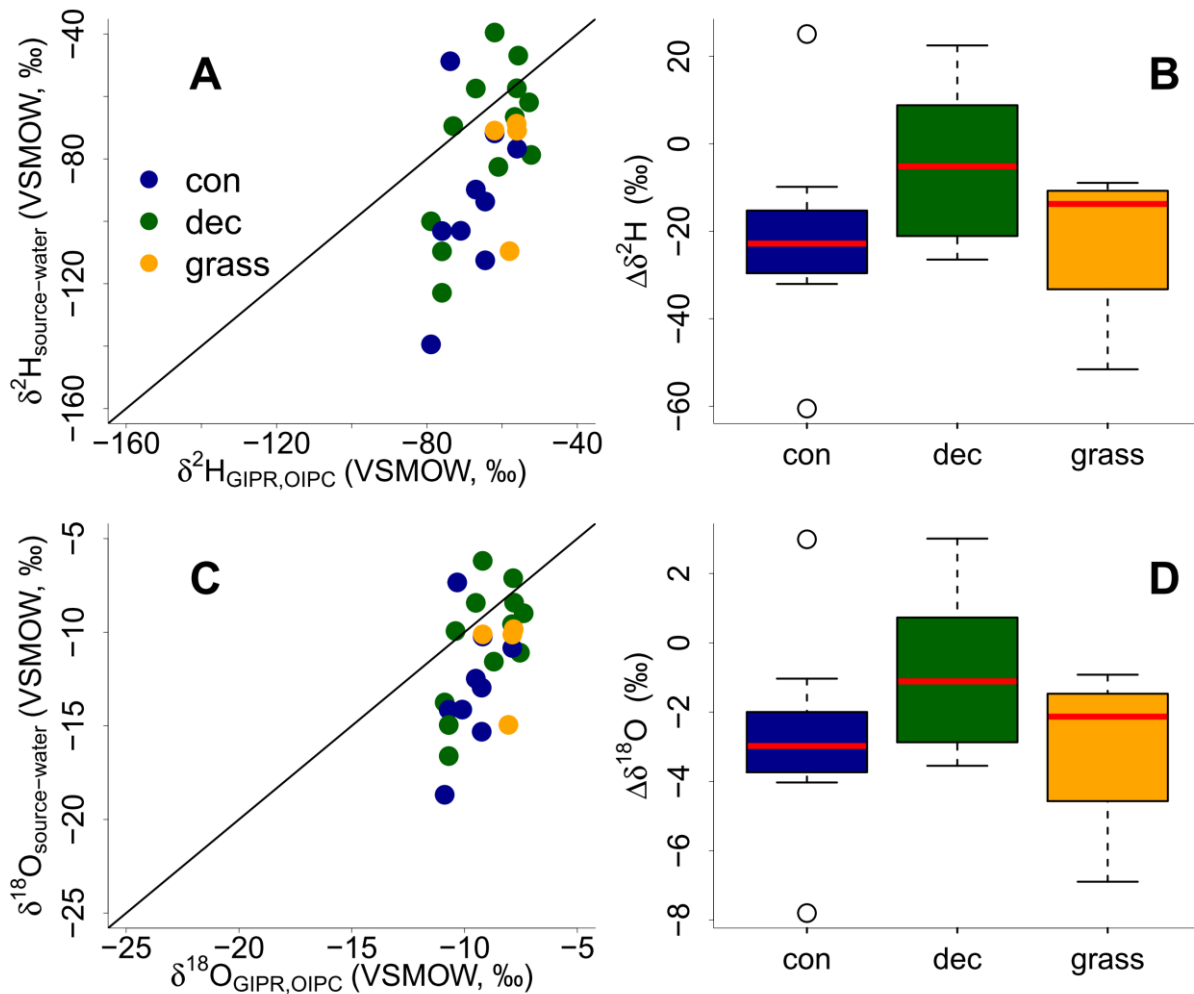
457  
 458 The reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  results can be compared with the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$   
 459 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  data (Fig. 9). This comparison reveals that the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$   
 460 approach yields more accurate  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  compared to single  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$   
 461 approaches. However, the range of the reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  values is  
 462 clearly larger than in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  values.  $\delta^2\text{H}$  is systematically underestimated  
 463 by  $\sim 21\text{‰} \pm 22$  (Fig. 9B) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  by  $\sim 2.9\text{‰} \pm 2.8$  (Fig. 9D). The type of vegetation seems to  
 464 be not particularly relevant (p-value = 0.18 for  $\Delta\delta^2\text{H}$  and p-value = 0.34 for  $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ).  
 465 Nevertheless, the systematic offsets tend to be lowest for the deciduous sites ( $\Delta\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is  
 466 closer to zero with  $\sim 5\text{‰} \pm 15$  and  $\sim 1.1\text{‰} \pm 2.1$ ), followed by grass sites ( $\sim 14\text{‰} \pm 20$  and  $\sim$   
 467  $2.1\text{‰} \pm 2.6$ ). In comparison, the coniferous sites show the largest offsets ( $\sim 23\text{‰} \pm 26$  for  $\Delta\delta^2\text{H}$   
 468  $\sim 3.0\text{‰} \pm 3.3$  for  $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ). Differences are, however, not statistically significant. The systematic  
 469 offset and the large variability might have more specific reasons, and we suggest that this is  
 470 related to the type of vegetation. Deciduous trees produce lots of leaf waxes and sugars (e.g.  
 471 Prietzel et al., 2013; Zech et al., 2012a), and all biomarkers reflect and record the

472 evapotranspirative enrichment of the leaf water (e.g. Kahmen et al., 2013; Tuthorn et al., 2014).  
473 However, coniferous trees produce quite low amounts of *n*-alkanes (Diefendorf and Freimuth,  
474 2016; Zech et al., 2012a), while sugar concentrations are as high as in other vascular plants (e.g.  
475 Hepp et al., 2016; Prietzel et al., 2013). For the coniferous soil samples this means that the *n*-  
476 alkanes stem most likely from the understory whereas the sugars originate from grasses and  
477 coniferous needles. When the understory is dominated by grass species then the *n*-alkane  
478 biomarkers do not record the full leaf water enrichment signal, whereas the sugars from the  
479 needles do. The reconstructed leaf water for the coniferous sites is therefore too negative  
480 concerning  $\delta^2\text{H}$ , and reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  values thus also become too  
481 negative (Fig. 8). Concerning the grass sites the following explanation can be found. Correcting  
482 for “signal damping” makes the reconstructed leaf water points more positive and shifts them  
483 in Fig. 8 up and right. As the “signal damping” is stronger for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  than for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  the corrected  
484 leaf water points would now be above the uncorrected ones. The corrected leaf water points lead  
485 to more positive reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  values for the grass sites.  
486 However, Gao et al. (2014) and Liu et al. (2016) showed that the  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$  of monocotyledon plants  
487 could be larger than those of dicotyledonous ones. This would therefore cause a more negative  
488 apparent fractionation factor for grasses compared to trees. We observe that the apparent  
489 fractionation is indeed more negative for the grass sites compared to the forest sites. The effects  
490 of “signal damping” vs. variable  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$  along with vegetation types are indistinguishable here. As  
491 an outlook for a future study, we therefore strongly recommend a comparison between the here  
492 measured  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$  values with modelled ones using a new available model approach from  
493 Konecny et al. (2019), which could provide insights if such vegetation effects on  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$  of  $^2\text{H}$  in  
494 *n*-alkanes are describable.

495

496 Vegetation type specific rooting depths could partly cause the overall high variability in  
497 reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ . Deep rooting species most likely use the water  
498 from deeper soil horizons and/or shallow ground water, which is equal to the (weighted) mean  
499 annual precipitation (e.g. Herrmann et al., 1987). Shallow rooting plants take up water from  
500 upper soil horizons, which is influenced by seasonal variations in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{precipitation}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precipitation}}$   
501 and by soil water enrichment (Dubbart et al., 2013). Thus, the overall assumption that the source  
502 water of the plants reflects the local (weighted) mean precipitation might be not fully valid for  
503 all sites. Moreover, a partly contribution of root-derived rather than leaf-derived sugar  
504 biomarkers in our topsoil samples is very likely. This does, by contrast, not apply for *n*-alkanes,  
505 which are hardly produced in roots (Zech et al., 2012b and the discussion therein).





506  
 507 **Fig. 9.** Correlation of reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  vs. precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$   
 508 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$  (A and C). Black lines indicate 1:1 relationship. Differences between  
 509 reconstructed source water and precipitation ( $\Delta\delta^2\text{H}, \delta^{18}\text{O} = \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}, \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}} -$   
 510  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}, \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ ) for the three different vegetation types (B and D). Box plots show  
 511 median (red line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest  
 512 whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper  
 513 quartile. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11);  
 514 grass = grassland sites (n=4).

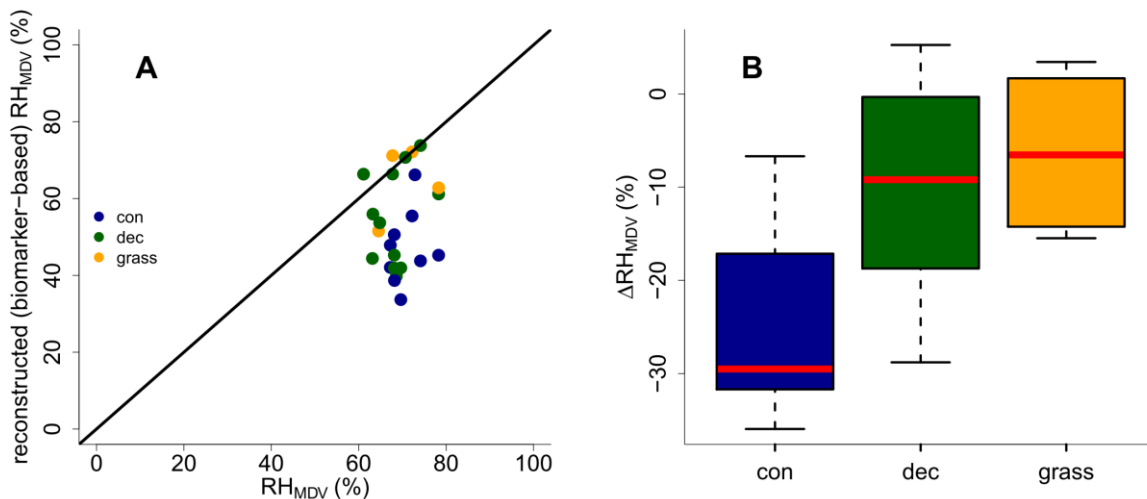
515 Moreover, the high variability within the vegetation types could be caused by variability in  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$   
 516 of  $^2\text{H}$  in *n*-alkanes, as well as  $^{18}\text{O}$  in sugars. There is an ongoing discussion about the correct  
 517  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$  for  $^{18}\text{O}$  in hemicellulose sugars (Sternberg, 2014 vs. Zech et al., 2014), and  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$  is probably  
 518 not constant over all vegetation types. This translates into errors concerning leaf water  
 519 reconstruction and thus for reconstructing  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  values (Eq. 9 and Fig.  
 520 8). Likewise, the  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$  values reported in the literature for  $^2\text{H}$  of *n*-alkanes can be off from -160‰  
 521 by tens of permille (Feakins and Sessions, 2010; Tipple et al., 2015; Feakins et al., 2016;  
 522 Freimuth et al., 2017). The degree to which hydrogen originates from NADPH rather than leaf  
 523 water is important, because NADPH is more negative (Schmidt et al., 2003). The wide range  
 524 in biosynthetic  $^2\text{H}$  fractionation factors, which can be even larger, is therefore also related to  
 525 the carbon and energy metabolism state of plants (Cormier et al., 2018).

526 **3.8 RH reconstruction**

527 Reconstructed  $RH_{MDV}$  ranges from 34 to 74%, while  $RH_{MDV}$  from climate station data range  
 528 from 61 to 78% (Fig. 10A). Biomarker-based values thus systematically underestimate the  
 529 station data ( $\Delta RH_{MDV} = -17\% \pm 12$ ). Yet the offsets are much less for deciduous tree and grass  
 530 sites ( $\Delta RH_{MDV} = -10\% \pm 12$  and  $-7\% \pm 9$ , respectively; Fig. 10B). The offsets for the coniferous  
 531 sites are  $-30\% \pm 11$ , and significantly larger than for the deciduous and grass sites ( $p$ -values <  
 532 0.05).

533 Too low reconstructed  $RH_{MDV}$  values for the coniferous sites make sense in view of the  
 534 previously discussed option that soils contain  $n$ -alkanes from the understory (which is  
 535 dominated by grass species), while sugars stem from needles and grasses. As explained earlier  
 536 already, the “signal damping” leads to too negative reconstructed  $\delta^2H_{leaf-water}$  (whereas  $\delta^{18}O$  is  
 537 affected less by the “signal damping”), and too negative  $\delta^2H_{leaf-water}$  translates into  
 538 overestimated  $d$ -excess and underestimated RH values. In Fig. 8, a correction for this require  
 539 moving the coniferous leaf water data points upwards towards more positive  $\delta^2H$  values, thus  
 540 the distance between the leaf water and the source water is reduced. It should be noted that also  
 541 here variable  $\epsilon_{bio}$  along with vegetation types could not be distinguished from “signal damping”  
 542 effects.

543 The underestimation of RH for the deciduous and grass sites could be partly associated with the  
 544 use of the GMWL as baseline for the coupled  $\delta^2H_{n-alkane}-\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$  approach. The deuterium-  
 545 excess of the LMWLs is generally lower than the +10‰ of the GMWL, while the slopes of the  
 546 LMWLs are well comparable to the GMWL (Stumpff et al., 2014). In addition, if soil water  
 547 evaporation occurred before water uptake by the plants, this would lead to an underestimation  
 548 of biomarker-based  $RH_{MDV}$  values. It can be furthermore assumed that plant metabolism is  
 549 highest during times with direct sunshine and high irradiation, i.e. during noon at sunny days.  
 550 The relevant RH could therefore be lower than the climate station-derived  $RH_{MDV}$ . Indeed,  
 551 already climate station  $RH_{MDV}$  is considerable lower than  $RH_{MA}$  and  $RH_{MV}$  (Tab. S1).



552 **Fig. 10.** (A) Comparison of reconstructed (biomarker-based)  $RH_{MDV}$  values and climate station  
 553  $RH_{MDV}$  data. The black line indicates the 1:1 relationship. (B) Differences between  
 554 reconstructed and climate station  $RH_{MDV}$  values ( $\Delta RH_{MDV} = \text{reconstructed} - \text{climate station}$   
 555  $RH_{MDV}$ ) for the three different vegetation types along the transect. Abbreviations: con =  
 556 coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11); grass = grassland sites (n=4).  
 557

558 The uncertainty of reconstructed  $RH_{MDV}$  values are large for all three investigated vegetation  
559 types, and again these uncertainties are probably also related to  $\epsilon_{bio}$ , which is most likely not  
560 constant as assumed for our calculations. Moreover, microclimate variability is underestimated  
561 in our approach. As mentioned in sections 2.4.2 and 3.7, in the coupled approach not only the  
562 source water of the plants is equated with (weighted) mean annual precipitation, but also an  
563 isotopic equilibrium between the source water and the (local) atmospheric water vapour is  
564 assumed. However, in areas with distinct seasonality this might be not fully valid. To account  
565 for this lack of equilibrium between precipitation and local atmospheric water vapour, apparent  
566  $\epsilon$  values can be calculated with data from Jacob and Sonntag, (1991). As shown by Hepp et al.  
567 (2018) those values can be used to achieve alternative RH reconstructions based on the coupled  
568  $\delta^2H_{n-alkane}-\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$  approach. Such calculated  $RH_{MDV}$  values are on average 1.5% more  
569 negative than the original values. However, this difference in RH is far below the analytical  
570 uncertainties of the compound-specific biomarker isotope analysis.

571 Finally, the integration time of the investigated topsoils has to be discussed. Unfortunately, no  
572  $^{14}C$  dates are available for the soil samples. However, most likely the organic matter has been  
573 built up over a longer timescale than the available climate data, which is used for comparison.  
574 In combination with vegetation changes/management changes throughout that period, this  
575 could surely lead to a less tight relationship of the reconstructions compared to the climate  
576 station data. Root input of arabinose and xylose seems to be of minor relevance in our topsoil  
577 samples. Otherwise, the reconstructed  $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$  values would be too negative resulting in  
578  $RH_{MDV}$  overestimations, which is not observed.

579

## 580 **4 Conclusions**

581 We were able to show that

- 582 (i) the vegetation type does not significantly influence the brGDGT concentrations and  
583 proxies, yet the coniferous sites tend to have higher brGDGT concentrations, BIT  
584 indices and CBT-MBT' ratios, while grass sites tend to be lowest.
- 585 (ii) CBT faithfully records soil pH with a median  $\Delta pH$  of  $0.6 \pm 0.6$ . The CBT  
586 overestimates the real pH particularly at the forest sites.
- 587 (iii) CBT-MBT'-derived  $T_{MA}$  reflect the climate station-derived  $T_{MA}$  values with a  
588 median  $\Delta T_{MA}$  of  $0.5^\circ C \pm 2.4$ , but again slightly too high reconstruction for the forest  
589 sites were observed.
- 590 (iv) differences in the apparent fractionation between the investigated vegetation types  
591 could caused by “signal damping” or variable  $\epsilon_{bio}$  along with vegetation types, which  
592 are indistinguishable here.
- 593 (v) the reconstructed  $\delta^2H_{source-water}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{source-water}$  reflects the  $\delta^2H_{GIPR,OIPC}$  and  
594  $\delta^{18}O_{GIPR,OIPC}$  with a systematic offset for  $\delta^2H$  of  $\sim -21\text{‰} \pm 22$  and for  $\delta^{18}O$  of  $\sim -2.9\text{‰}$   
595  $\pm 2.8$  (based on overall medians of  $\Delta \delta^2H$ ,  $\delta^{18}O$ ). This is caused by too negative  
596 reconstructions for coniferous and grass sites. For coniferous sites, this can be  
597 explained with *n*-alkanes originating from understory grasses. As for the grass sites,  
598 the “signal damping” or variable  $\epsilon_{bio}$  along with vegetation types more effect  $\delta^2H$

599 than  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ . This leads to too negative reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}}$  values and thus to too  
600 negative  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$  reconstructions.  
601 (vi) reconstructed (biomarker-based)  $\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}}$  values tend to underestimate climate  
602 station-derived  $\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}}$  values ( $\Delta\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}} = \sim -17\% \pm 12$ ). For coniferous sites the  
603 underestimations are strongest, which can be explained with understory grasses  
604 being the main source of *n*-alkanes for the investigated soils under coniferous  
605 forests.

606 Overall, our study highlights the great potential of GDGTs and the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$   
607 approach for more quantitative paleoclimate reconstructions. Taking into account effects of  
608 different vegetation types improves correlations and reconstructions. This holds particularly  
609 true for the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  approach, which is affected by “signal damping” of the  
610 grass vegetation or variable  $\epsilon_{\text{bio}}$  along with vegetation types. Assuming constant biosynthetic  
611 fractionation is likely a considerable source of uncertainty and should be in focus in future field  
612 and/or modelling studies. Climate chamber experiments would be very useful to further  
613 evaluate and refine the coupled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$  approach, because uncertainties related to  
614 microclimate variability can be reduced. Field experiments like ours suffer from the fact that  
615 biomarker pools in the sampled topsoils may have been affected by past vegetation and climate  
616 changes.

617

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626

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