



Algal origin of sponge sterane biomarkers negates the oldest evidence for animals in the rock record

Ilya Bobrovskiy^{1,2}✉, Janet M. Hope², Benjamin J. Nettersheim^{3,4}, John K. Volkman⁵, Christian Hallmann^{3,4} and Jochen J. Brocks^{1,2}✉

The earliest fossils of animal-like organisms occur in Ediacaran rocks that are approximately 571 million years old. Yet 24-isopropylcholestanes and other C₃₀ fossil sterol molecules have been suggested to reflect an important ecological role of demosponges as the first abundant animals by the end of the Cryogenian period (>635 million years ago). Here, we demonstrate that C₃₀ 24-isopropylcholestane is not diagnostic for sponges and probably formed in Neoproterozoic sediments through the geological methylation of C₂₉ sterols of chlorophyte algae, the dominant eukaryotes at that time. These findings reconcile biomarker evidence with the geological record and revert the oldest evidence for animals back into the latest Ediacaran.

Animals rapidly diversified and became ecologically dominant at the beginning of the Cambrian period (541–485 million years ago (Ma)). Yet, the first animals must have arisen much earlier, in the Neoproterozoic era (1,000–541 Ma), although the exact timing remains contentious. The oldest uncontroversial animals in the fossil record are found in deposits from 558–552 Ma among the biota of the Ediacaran period^{1–3}, as confirmed by fossil lipid signatures recovered from *Dickinsonia* fossils⁴. With some confidence, animals can be traced back as far as the earliest Ediacaran biota communities at 571 Ma (ref. ⁵). However, most molecular clocks place the appearance of animals within the range of 900–635 Ma, during the Cryogenian or Tonian periods^{6–10}. There is therefore a gap of up to 340 million years between the oldest animal fossils and molecular clock estimates that may be due to either the scarcity of the fossil record¹¹ or because of a systematic offset in molecular clocks that are normally constrained by fossil occurrences¹².

The discrepancy between molecular clocks and the fossil record is seemingly reduced by molecular fossils (biomarkers). Biomarkers are remains of biological compounds that are stable over geological timescales. Whereas most biomarkers are representative of broad phylogenetic groups, selected compounds can be diagnostic for more specific biological sources^{13,14}. Sterols with 30 carbon atoms and unusual side chains, for example, are almost exclusively known from demosponges^{15,16}. The fossil products of such sterols, C₃₀ steranes, are particularly abundant in rocks from the Neoproterozoic and lower Palaeozoic eras and are commonly attributed to demosponge sources^{15–19}. Although sterol precursors of C₃₀ steranes with an *n*-propyl substitution at C-24 (24-npc, Fig. 1a) and—in trace amounts—isopropyl substitution (24-ipc, Fig. 1a) are also found in pelagophyte algae, their biosynthetic capability to produce these molecules possibly arose in the Palaeozoic

era (541–419 Ma), leaving sponges as the most plausible source organisms of C₃₀ steranes in older sedimentary rocks²⁰. C₃₀ sterols with a 26-methylstigmastane (26-mes, Fig. 1a) skeleton were likewise proposed as diagnostic sponge markers^{15,17}. All three C₃₀ steranes have been found in sediments dating to the beginning of the Ediacaran period (635–541 Ma), and even in one Cryogenian sample (>635 Ma), thus apparently extending the geological record of sponges ~100 million years beyond the oldest diagnostic body fossils (Fig. 1b)^{15,17,18}. The uniform distribution of C₃₀ steranes in Ediacaran sediments from diverse environments would indicate that demosponges were extraordinarily abundant and widespread across marine ecosystems^{15,17,18}.

However, several observations have challenged the assignment of these C₃₀ steranes to a demosponge origin^{21–24}. According to the fossil record, crown-group demosponges started to diversify only in the Cambrian²². C₃₀ sterols are usually only minor constituents in demosponges that otherwise produce many more unusual sterol structures¹⁵, which have never been identified in the rock record²¹. Furthermore, C₃₀ steranes are ubiquitously present in Ediacaran and lower Palaeozoic sedimentary rocks, including those that formed in anoxic basins^{25–27}, whereas sponges, although tolerant of low levels of oxygen, are unable to survive in completely anoxic waters²⁸.

An alternative interpretation was recently suggested for the origin of C₃₀ steranes in the rock record²¹. The authors converted sterols of unicellular Rhizaria into geological sterane equivalents by means of hydrogenation, and suggested that precursors to all three C₃₀ steranes are present in small amounts in these protists, in relative proportions that often match the deep-time biomarker record²¹. Rhizarians can be highly abundant in the upper ocean, potentially explaining the abundance of C₃₀ steranes in anoxic basins²¹. However, all Rhizaria screened until now have only contained traces of the C₃₀ sponge steranes 26-mes and 24-ipc at concentrations seemingly too low to account for the Proterozoic biomarker record¹⁹.

Rhizarians and other heterotrophic protists were probably common among Neoproterozoic and early Palaeozoic planktonic communities²⁹, but there is one group of eukaryotes that would have constituted an even more notable proportion of deposited marine biomass, regardless of local environmental conditions; namely, eukaryotic algae. Suggestions that C₃₀ steranes might be derived from algae have been voiced previously^{22,24,30}, but were hypothetical and not supported by sterol distributions in extant species³¹.

The dominant sterane in Ediacaran and lower Palaeozoic sediments is stigmastane with 29 carbon atoms, which can represent up to 90% of C₂₇–C₂₉ steranes^{32–34}. Excluding phaeophyceae algae,

¹Division of Geological and Planetary Sciences, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA, USA. ²Research School of Earth Sciences, Australian National University, Canberra, Australian Capital Territory, Australia. ³Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry, Jena, Germany. ⁴MARUM — Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, Bremen, Germany. ⁵CSIRO Oceans and Atmosphere, Hobart, Tasmania, Australia.

✉e-mail: ilyab@caltech.edu; jochen.brocks@anu.edu.au

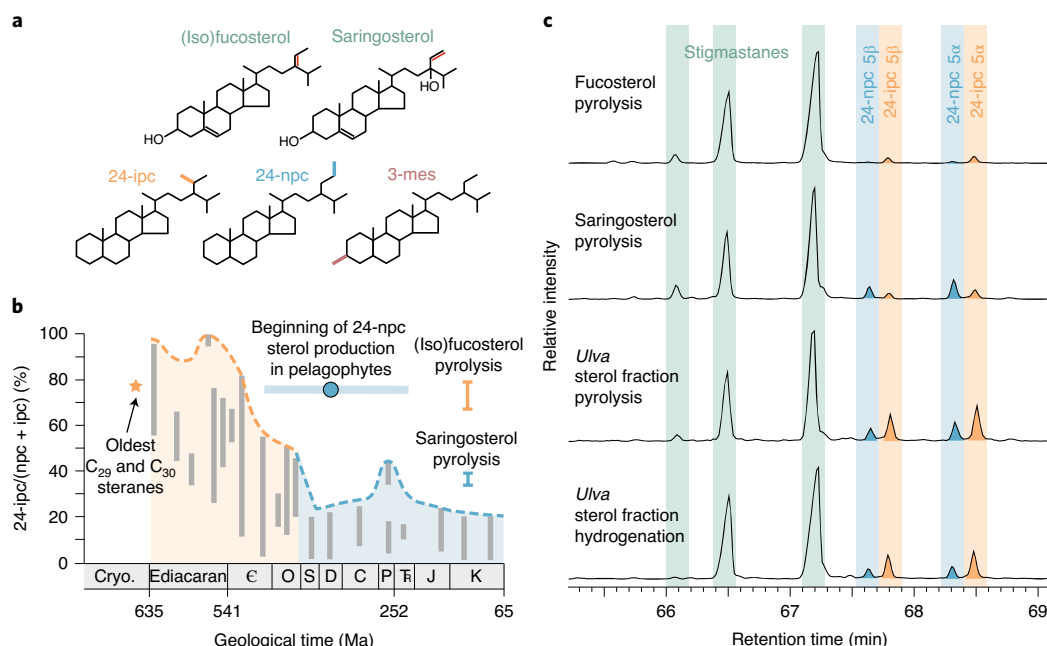


Fig. 1 | Distribution of C₃₀ steranes in the rock record and in the pyrolysis/hydrogenation products from algal sterols. a, Molecular structures of isofucosterol, fucosterol, saringosterol and C₃₀ steranes. **b**, Relative proportion of 24-ipc and 24-npc through time. A 24-ipc/(npc + ipc) ratio > 33% was suggested to indicate the presence of demosponges¹⁸. The orange star marks the only reported Cryogenian (Cryo.) sample that contains indigenous steranes¹⁸. The dashed line highlights the maximum reported 24-ipc/(ipc + npc) ratio through geological time, the colour indicates whether the maximum ratio is greater (orange) or smaller (blue) than 50%. The grey vertical lines show the range of reported 24-ipc/(ipc + npc) values^{4,15–18,25,47}. The blue horizontal line marks a 95% confidence interval for the potential beginning of 24-npc input from pelagophyte algae²⁰ (modified after refs. ^{21,47}). The orange and blue bars on the right show the ranges of 24-ipc/(npc + ipc) ratio values produced by pyrolysis of (iso)fucosterol and saringosterol. **c**, MRM chromatograms (*m/z* 414 → 217) showing C₃₀ steranes produced by pyrolysis or hydrogenation of (iso)fucosterol and saringosterol (Supplementary Table 3). The green lines highlight, from left to right, $\alpha\alpha\alpha$ 20S, $\beta\alpha\alpha$ 20R and $\alpha\alpha\alpha$ 20R stigmastanes (C₂₉ steranes), which are ghost peaks on this transition and only presented to show the relative elution time and isomer distributions of C₂₉ and C₃₀ steranes. Note that the relative peak height between C₂₉ and C₃₀ steranes is not proportional.

which evolved after the Ediacaran³⁵, the only plausible organisms with such an extreme C₂₉ predominance are green algae (Chlorophyta), some of which have a near-100% C₂₉ predominance among sterols (Supplementary Table 1)^{36,37}. Although sterols of green algae are well studied, C₃₀ sterols have never been observed among them. However, it is well established that processes in sediments can generate molecular alteration products, including the removal and addition of methyl groups^{38–40}. Based on the observation that C₂₉ sterols were so abundant, it is possible that C₃₀ steranes were generated within sediments through methylation of algal C₂₉ sterols.

In specific types of sterols, the presence of functional groups, such as double bonds, might provide a site for increased reactivity, potentially mediating methylation of the side chain during diagenesis. This process commonly occurs at ring A of sterols and results in the wide occurrence of 2- and 3-methyl steranes in oils and bitumens (Fig. 1a, 3-mes structure)^{38,39}. In principle, double bonds in the side chain of algal C₂₉ sterols might similarly facilitate methylation of the ethyl moiety of the side chain (Fig. 1a, red double bonds). Both microscopic and macroscopic green algae that have the strongest C₂₉ predominance (consistent with the strong C₂₉ predominance in Ediacaran–Cambrian rocks and oils) contain side-chain functionalized C₂₉ sterols, such as isofucosterol (Fig. 1a), as their primary sterol (up to 100%; Supplementary Tables 1,2). In theory, double bonds in the side chain of isofucosterol might facilitate alkylation at the 24-ethyl moiety, thus producing 24-ipc and/or 24-npc.

To test whether 24-ipc and 24-npc may form by side-chain alkylation of algal C₂₉ sterols, we subjected chlorophyte lipid extracts to pyrolysis, a method that is classically used to mimic transformations

of biological molecules within sediments^{40–43}. We pyrolysed algal extracts containing varying amounts of isofucosterol, its *trans*-isomer fucosterol, and their most common autooxidation product, saringosterol, which carries an additional hydroxyl group at the C-24 position alongside an unsaturation between C-28 and C-29 (Fig. 1a, Δ^{28}). Our experiments showed that 24-ipc and 24-npc (up to 1.6% of resulting steranes) can indeed form by abiogenic side-chain methylation of C₂₉ sterol precursors. Fucosterol and isofucosterol with a double bond at $\Delta^{24(28)}$ were predominantly methylated at C-28, generating 24-ipc, and saringosterol with a $\Delta^{28(29)}$ double bond largely yielded 24-npc (Fig. 1c and Supplementary Table 3). The pyrolysis of isolated isofucosterol and fucosterol thus created more 24-ipc than 24-npc (24-ipc/(24-ipc + 24-npc) = 70–77%), and saringosterol yielded 24-ipc/(24-ipc + 24-npc) = 34–39%. The results of our pyrolysis experiments thus cover the large range of C₃₀ sterane distributions observed in Ediacaran and early Palaeozoic deposits (Fig. 1b). As the fresh algal extracts did not contain any biological C₃₀ sterols, the C₃₀ steranes must have been generated during pyrolysis through methylation of the C₂₉ precursors. Likewise, we posit that C₃₀ steranes in Ediacaran to early Palaeozoic deposits largely represent diagenetic methylation products of algal C₂₉ sterols that possess functionalized side chains.

We also performed catalytic hydrogenation experiments on algal extracts containing isofucosterol and saringosterol. These experiments produced low amounts of C₃₀ steranes (0.005–0.17% of total steranes), with 24-ipc/24-npc ratios similar to those produced by pyrolysis (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 3), suggesting that the small amounts of C₃₀ steranes previously reported from either

pyrolysis or hydrogenation of algae⁴⁴, rhizarians²¹ and sponges^{15,18} may also derive from C₂₉ sterol precursors.

Our results show that 24-ipc and 24-npc can be generated from algal C₂₉ sterol in experiments that simulate diagenetic processes. Moreover, a previous study⁴⁵ demonstrated that the other two proposed sponge biomarkers, 26-methylcholestane and 26-methylstigmastane, also form during pyrolysis and that this could have occurred in Neoproterozoic sediments. The diagenetic methylation of algal sterols explains unusual characteristics of the Neoproterozoic sterane record, such as the parallel emergence and distribution of C₂₉ and C₃₀ steranes in Earth history¹⁸ (Fig. 1b) and the unchanging presence of alleged sponge indicators in diverse aquatic ecosystems, including anoxic basins^{15,18,25–27}.

The pyrolysis experiments further suggest that the predominance of 24-ipc among C₃₀ steranes, typical for the Ediacaran and early Palaeozoic, reflects specific unsaturation patterns of the dominant algal sterols, such as high proportions of isofucosterol. Together, the results of this study and of ref.⁴⁵ imply that sterols are readily methylated during diagenesis at positions carrying a double bond or other functional group, that the process is abiogenic, and that any interpretation of minor steranes in the rock record needs to consider both biogenic and diagenetic origins. As a consequence, the ‘sponge biomarkers’, although in some cases possibly of direct biogenic origin, are no longer diagnostic for early animals. The rock record thus becomes consistent with an early Cambrian diversification of crown-group demosponges as deduced from body fossils²². In the absence of diagnostic sponge markers, the oldest evidence for animals in the rock record comes from the Ediacaran biota fossils and their associated biomarker signatures^{1–5}, and the exact timing of the appearance of animals still remains to be uncovered.

Methods

Materials. All solvents used in the study were 99.9% grade (UltimAR; Mallinckrodt Chemicals). Glassware, glass fibre filters and aluminium foil used in the laboratory were cleaned by combustion at 300°C for 9 hours, and metal appliances were washed with methanol and dichloromethane (DCM) before use.

Both macroscopic and microscopic green algae include species with isofucosterol predominance, and we chose macroalgae for our experiments because of the convenience of their purification and extraction. Collected macroalgae were identified visually. Green macroalgae, *Ulva lactuca*, which were used for the pyrolysis and hydrogenation experiments, and *Chaetomorpha* sp., only used for screening of sterol composition, were collected on the south-east coast of Australia (Batemans Bay area, New South Wales), washed with deionized water to clean the algae from any epiphytes (Millipore Elix 3 UV), and dried at room temperature (20–25°C). *Sargassum fusiforme* and *Undaria pinnatifida*, the brown macroalgae used for the pyrolysis and hydrogenation experiments, were bought dried (Spiral Foods, Australia).

Extraction and purification of sterols. All algae were extracted by means of ultrasonic agitation in solvents (methanol:DCM, 3:2 for 15 min, twice; and DCM:*n*-hexane, 2:3 for 15 min). The extract was fractionated into non-polar and polar fractions using microcolumn chromatography over annealed (300°C, 12 hours) and dry-packed silica gel (Silica Gel 60, 230–600 mesh, EM Science). Non-polar molecules were eluted with 1.5 ml of *n*-hexane:DCM (1:1) and the polar fraction with 1 ml DCM:methanol (1:1). The polar fractions were saponified in 1 ml of 5% KOH methanol:water (4:1) solution at 50°C overnight, 1 ml of water was added and a neutral fraction was extracted by vortexing for 1 min with 1 ml of DCM:*n*-hexane (1:4, three times). The neutral fraction, which we refer to as the ‘sterol fraction’, consisted predominantly of sterols as well as some phytol, the only other notable compound present. Sterols were further converted to the trimethylsilyl (TMS) ether derivatives for gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS) analysis.

To separate isofucosterol and fucosterol from saringosterol in the sterol fractions of *S. fusiforme* and *U. pinnatifida*, a part of the TMS-derivatized neutral fraction was again fractionated into non-polar and polar fractions using silica gel microcolumn chromatography. As the hydroxyl group in the ring system was derivatized with TMS, isofucosterol and fucosterol eluted in the non-polar fraction. The additional hydroxyl group in the side chain of saringosterol, however, was not derivatized with TMS⁴⁴. Therefore, saringosterol eluted in the polar fraction, which was also slightly contaminated with a small proportion of isofucosterol and fucosterol (Supplementary Table 4). To revert the TMS-ether group back to the hydroxyl group in all fractions, samples were saponified once again as described above, and after 1 ml of water was added, the solutions were acidified with two drops of 36% hydrochloric acid before extraction with 1 ml of DCM:*n*-hexane (1:4, three times).

Pyrolysis and hydrogenation of sterols. For pyrolysis, total neutral fractions, as well as purified (iso)fucosterol and saringosterol fractions, were dried under a gentle stream of nitrogen, redissolved in DCM and transferred to glass pyrolysis tubes (6 mm external diameter). After the DCM evaporated, the tubes were flushed with nitrogen gas, evacuated using a vacuum line, and flame sealed. The sealed tubes were then heated to 310°C for 16 hours. After cooling, the tubes were opened and washed with DCM to collect the pyrolysate, which was fractionated into non-polar and polar fractions, as described above. The non-polar fraction was dissolved in *n*-hexane and hydrogenated in a 4 ml vial by bubbling a gentle stream of hydrogen gas for 20 min while stirring, with ~0.2 mg of platinum (IV) oxide on charcoal added as a catalyst. Then the hydrogen gas was turned off, the vials were closed and stirring was continued for 16 hours. The samples were separated from the catalyst by means of ultrasonic agitation in solvents (*n*-hexane (twice) and *n*-hexane:DCM (1:1, once)) followed each time by centrifugation. Samples were cleaned from any remaining catalyst by eluting with an excess of *n*-hexane over a small chromatographic column filled with activated silica gel.

Additionally, to separate the effects of pyrolysis from subsequent hydrogenation on the non-polar fractions of pyrolysates, we performed hydrogenation-control experiments: three samples of *U. lactuca* neutral fractions were directly hydrogenated (that is, without prior pyrolysis) following the same procedure as for the non-polar fractions of pyrolysates.

For hydrogenation-only experiments (without pyrolysis), the neutral fraction of *U. lactuca* was dissolved in *n*-hexane and hydrogenated in a 4 ml vial by bubbling a gentle stream of hydrogen gas for 5 hours while stirring, with ~2 mg of platinum (IV) oxide on charcoal added as a catalyst, and subsequently separated from the catalyst as described above. Hydrogenated samples were fractionated into non-polar and polar fractions as described above, and the non-polar fraction was used for analysis.

Gas chromatography–mass spectrometry. GC–MS analyses of biomarker extracts were carried out on an Agilent 6890 gas chromatograph coupled to a Micromass Autospec Premier double sector mass spectrometer (Waters Corporation) at the Australian National University. The gas chromatograph was equipped with a 60 m DB-5 MS capillary column (0.25 mm inner diameter, 0.25 µm film thickness, Agilent), and helium was used as the carrier gas at a constant flow of 1 ml min^{−1}. Samples were injected in splitless mode into a Gerstel PTV injector at 60°C (held for 0.1 min) and heated at 260°C min^{−1} to 300°C. For full-scan and metastable reaction monitoring (MRM) analyses, the GC oven was programmed from 60°C (held for 4 min) to 315°C at 4°C min^{−1}, with a total run time of 100 min. All samples were injected in *n*-hexane to avoid deterioration of chromatographic signals by FeCl₃ build-up in the MS ion source through the use of halogenated solvents⁴⁶. Molecules were identified based on their retention time and mass spectra (Extended Data Fig. 1) in comparison to laboratory standards. Relative proportions of steranes were quantified in MRM mode in M⁺ → 217 transitions. To ensure accurate integration, sterol TMS-ethers from algae were quantified in full-scan mode using the *m/z* 129 chromatographic trace. Peak areas are uncorrected for differences in GC–MS response.

Reporting Summary. Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

All data that support the paper are presented in the main text of the manuscript and in the Supplementary Information.

Received: 27 April 2020; Accepted: 23 September 2020;

Published online: 23 November 2020

References

1. Fedonkin, M. A., Simonetta, A. & Ivantsov, A. Y. New data on *Kimberella*, the Vendian mollusc-like organism (White Sea region, Russia): palaeoecological and evolutionary implications. *Geol. Soc. Spec. Publ.* **286**, 157–179 (2007).
2. Xiao, S. & Laflamme, M. On the eve of animal radiation: phylogeny, ecology and evolution of the Ediacara biota. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **24**, 31–40 (2009).
3. Budd, G. E. & Jensen, S. The origin of the animals and a ‘Savannah’ hypothesis for early bilaterian evolution. *Biol. Rev.* **92**, 446–473 (2017).
4. Bobrovskiy, I. et al. Ancient steroids establish the Ediacaran fossil *Dickinsonia* as one of the earliest animals. *Science* **361**, 1246–1249 (2018).
5. Dunn, F. S., Liu, A. G. & Donoghue, P. C. Ediacaran developmental biology. *Biol. Rev.* **93**, 914–932 (2018).
6. Parfrey, L. W., Lahr, D. J., Knoll, A. H. & Katz, L. A. Estimating the timing of early eukaryotic diversification with multigene molecular clocks. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **108**, 13624–13629 (2011).
7. Erwin, D. H. et al. The Cambrian conundrum: early divergence and later ecological success in the early history of animals. *Science* **334**, 1091–1097 (2011).
8. Dos Reis, M. et al. Uncertainty in the timing of origin of animals and the limits of precision in molecular timescales. *Curr. Biol.* **25**, 2939–2950 (2015).
9. Dohrmann, M. & Wörheide, G. Dating early animal evolution using phylogenomic data. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 3599 (2017).

10. Lozano-Fernandez, J., dos Reis, M., Donoghue, P. C. J. & Pisani, D. RelTime rates collapse to a strict clock when estimating the timeline of animal diversification. *Genome Biol. Evol.* **9**, 1320–1328 (2017).
11. Cunningham, J. A., Liu, A. G., Bengtson, S. & Donoghue, P. C. The origin of animals: can molecular clocks and the fossil record be reconciled? *Bioessays* **39**, 1600120 (2017).
12. Budd, G. E. & Mann, R. P. The dynamics of stem and crown groups. *Sci. Adv.* **6**, eaaz1626 (2020).
13. Brocks, J. J. & Pearson, A. Building the biomarker tree of life. *Rev. Mineral. Geochem.* **59**, 233–258 (2005).
14. Volkman, J. K. Sterols and other triterpenoids: source specificity and evolution of biosynthetic pathways. *Org. Geochem.* **36**, 139–159 (2005).
15. Zumberge, J. A. *A Lipid Biomarker Investigation Tracking the Evolution of the Neoproterozoic Marine Biosphere and the Rise of Eukaryotes*. PhD thesis, Univ. California Riverside (2019); <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/86p25344>
16. McCaffrey, M. A. et al. Paleoenvironmental implications of novel C₃₀ steranes in Precambrian to Cenozoic age petroleum and bitumen. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **58**, 529–532 (1994).
17. Zumberge, J. A. et al. Demosponge steroid biomarker 26-methylstigmastane provides evidence for Neoproterozoic animals. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **2**, 1709–1714 (2018).
18. Love, G. D. et al. Fossil steroids record the appearance of Demospongiae during the Cryogenian period. *Nature* **457**, 718–721 (2009).
19. Love, G. D. et al. Sources of C₃₀ steroid biomarkers in Neoproterozoic–Cambrian rocks and oils. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **4**, 34–36 (2020).
20. Gold, D. A. et al. Sterol and genomic analyses validate the sponge biomarker hypothesis. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **113**, 2684–2689 (2016).
21. Nettersheim, B. J. et al. Putative sponge biomarkers in unicellular Rhizaria question an early rise of animals. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **3**, 577–581 (2019).
22. Botting, J. P. & Muir, L. A. Early sponge evolution: a review and phylogenetic framework. *Palaeoworld* **27**, 1–29 (2018).
23. Botting, J. P. & Nettersheim, B. J. Searching for sponge origins. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **2**, 1685–1686 (2018).
24. Antcliffe, J. B. Questioning the evidence of organic compounds called sponge biomarkers. *Palaeontology* **56**, 917–925 (2013).
25. Grosjean, E. et al. Origin of petroleum in the Neoproterozoic–Cambrian South Oman salt basin. *Org. Geochem.* **40**, 87–110 (2009).
26. Stolper, D. et al. Paleoeology and paleoceanography of the Athel silicilyte, Ediacaran–Cambrian boundary, Sultanate of Oman. *Geobiology* **15**, 401–426 (2017).
27. Bhattacharya, S. & Dutta, S. Neoproterozoic–Early Cambrian biota and ancient niche: a synthesis from molecular markers and palynomorphs from Bikaner–Nagaur Basin, western India. *Precambrian Res.* **266**, 361–374 (2015).
28. Mills, D. B. et al. Oxygen requirements of the earliest animals. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **111**, 4168–4172 (2014).
29. van Maldegem, L. M. et al. Bisnorgammacerane traces predatory pressure and the persistent rise of algal ecosystems after Snowball Earth. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 476 (2019).
30. Hallmann, C. et al. Reply to: Sources of C₃₀ steroid biomarkers in Neoproterozoic–Cambrian rocks and oils. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **4**, 37–39 (2020).
31. Love, G. D. & Summons, R. E. The molecular record of Cryogenian sponges – a response to Antcliffe (2013). *Palaeontology* **58**, 1131–1136 (2015).
32. Brocks, J. J. et al. The rise of algae in Cryogenian oceans and the emergence of animals. *Nature* **548**, 578–581 (2017).
33. Hoshino, Y. et al. Cryogenian evolution of stigmastereoid biosynthesis. *Sci. Adv.* **3**, e1700887 (2017).
34. Bobrovskiy, I., Hope, J. M., Golubkova, E. & Brocks, J. J. Food sources for the Ediacara biota communities. *Nat. Commun.* **11**, 1261 (2020).
35. Silberfeld, T. et al. A multi-locus time-calibrated phylogeny of the brown algae (Heterokonta, Ochrophyta, Phaeophyceae): investigating the evolutionary nature of the “brown algal crown radiation”. *Mol. Phylogenet. Evol.* **56**, 659–674 (2010).
36. Knoll, A. H., Summons, R. E., Waldbauer, J. R. & Zumberge, J. E. in *Evolution of Primary Producers in the Sea* (eds Falkowski, P. & Knoll, A. H.) Ch. 8 (Elsevier Acad. Press, 2007).
37. Kodner, R. B., Pearson, A., Summons, R. E. & Knoll, A. H. Sterols in red and green algae: quantification, phylogeny, and relevance for the interpretation of geologic steranes. *Geobiology* **6**, 411–420 (2008).
38. Summons, R. E. & Capon, R. J. Identification and significance of 3 β -ethyl steranes in sediments and petroleum. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **55**, 2391–2395 (1991).
39. Dahl, J. et al. Extended 3 β -alkyl steranes and 3-alkyl triaromatic steroids in crude oils and rock extracts. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **59**, 3717–3729 (1995).
40. Kissin, Y. V. Catagenesis and composition of petroleum: origin of *n*-alkanes and isoalkanes in petroleum crudes. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **51**, 2445–2457 (1987).
41. Rushdi, A. I., Ritter, G., Grimalt, J. O. & Simoneit, B. R. T. Hydrous pyrolysis of cholesterol under various conditions. *Org. Geochem.* **34**, 799–812 (2003).
42. Koopmans, M. P. et al. Diagenetic and catagenetic products of isorenieratene: molecular indicators for photic zone anoxia. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **60**, 4467–4496 (1996).
43. Alexander, R., Berwick, L. & Pierce, K. Single carbon surface reactions of 1-octadecene and 2,3,6-trimethylphenol on activated carbon: implications for methane formation in sediments. *Org. Geochem.* **42**, 540–547 (2011).
44. Volkman, J. K., Barrett, S. M., Dunstan, G. A. & Jeffrey, S. Sterol biomarkers for microalgae from the green algal class Prasinophyceae. *Org. Geochem.* **21**, 1211–1218 (1994).
45. van Maldegem, L. M. et al. Geological alteration of Precambrian steroids mimics early animal signatures. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-020-01336-5> (2020).
46. Brocks, J. J. & Hope, J. M. Tailing of chromatographic peaks in GC-MS caused by interaction of halogenated solvents with the ion source. *J. Chromatogr. Sci.* **52**, 471–475 (2014).
47. Peters, K. E., Walters, C. C. & Moldowan, J. M. *The Biomarker Guide. Biomarkers and Isotopes in Petroleum Systems and Earth History* 2nd edn, Vol. 2 (Cambridge Univ. Press, 2005).

Acknowledgements

The study was funded by the Australian Research Council grants DP160100607 and DP170100556 (to J.J.B.). I.B. gratefully acknowledges the Texaco Postdoctoral Fellowship. The authors are grateful to L. M. van Maldegem, P. Adam and P. Schaeffer for their helpful feedback.

Author contributions

I.B. conceived the study, performed the analyses and wrote the first draft. J.M.H. and J.K.V. helped with compound identification. I.B. and B.J.N. interpreted the data. I.B., J.M.H., B.J.N., J.K.V., C.H. and J.J.B. prepared the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Extended data is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-020-01334-7>.

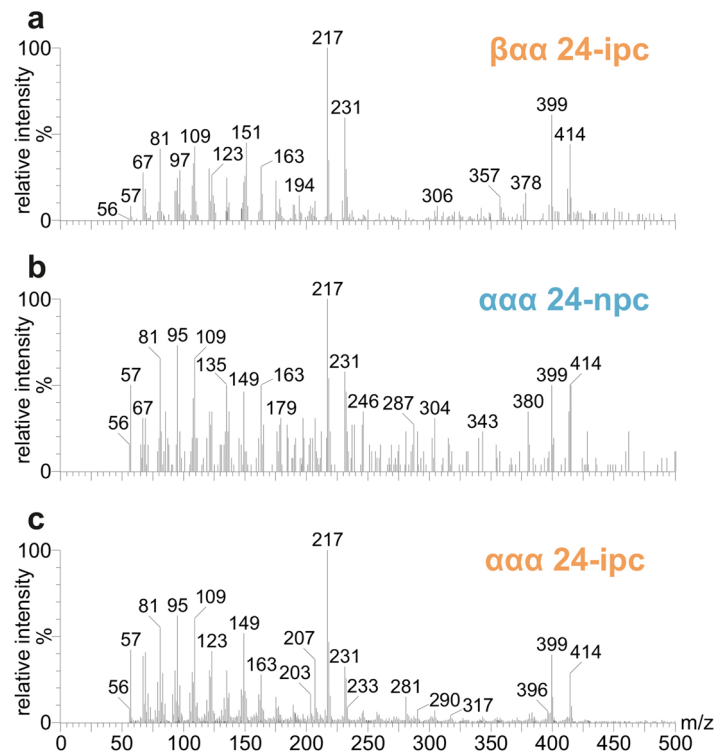
Supplementary information is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-020-01334-7>.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to I.B. or J.J.B.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Nature Limited 2020



Extended Data Fig. 1 | Mass spectra of steranes produced via pyrolysis of (iso)fucosterol and saringosterol. All mass spectra presented in this figure were obtained from one of the *S. fusiforme* pyrolysates; it was not possible to obtain a pure mass spectrum for $\beta\alpha\alpha$ 24-npc due to coelution with other compounds.

Reporting Summary

Nature Research wishes to improve the reproducibility of the work that we publish. This form provides structure for consistency and transparency in reporting. For further information on Nature Research policies, see [Authors & Referees](#) and the [Editorial Policy Checklist](#).

Statistics

For all statistical analyses, confirm that the following items are present in the figure legend, table legend, main text, or Methods section.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| n/a | Confirmed |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> The exact sample size (n) for each experimental group/condition, given as a discrete number and unit of measurement |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> A statement on whether measurements were taken from distinct samples or whether the same sample was measured repeatedly |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> The statistical test(s) used AND whether they are one- or two-sided
<i>Only common tests should be described solely by name; describe more complex techniques in the Methods section.</i> |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> A description of all covariates tested |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> A description of any assumptions or corrections, such as tests of normality and adjustment for multiple comparisons |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> A full description of the statistical parameters including central tendency (e.g. means) or other basic estimates (e.g. regression coefficient) AND variation (e.g. standard deviation) or associated estimates of uncertainty (e.g. confidence intervals) |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> For null hypothesis testing, the test statistic (e.g. F , t , r) with confidence intervals, effect sizes, degrees of freedom and P value noted
<i>Give P values as exact values whenever suitable.</i> |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> For Bayesian analysis, information on the choice of priors and Markov chain Monte Carlo settings |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> For hierarchical and complex designs, identification of the appropriate level for tests and full reporting of outcomes |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> Estimates of effect sizes (e.g. Cohen's d , Pearson's r), indicating how they were calculated |

Our web collection on [statistics for biologists](#) contains articles on many of the points above.

Software and code

Policy information about [availability of computer code](#)

Data collection

n/a

Data analysis

n/a

For manuscripts utilizing custom algorithms or software that are central to the research but not yet described in published literature, software must be made available to editors/reviewers. We strongly encourage code deposition in a community repository (e.g. GitHub). See the Nature Research [guidelines for submitting code & software](#) for further information.

Data

Policy information about [availability of data](#)

All manuscripts must include a [data availability statement](#). This statement should provide the following information, where applicable:

- Accession codes, unique identifiers, or web links for publicly available datasets
- A list of figures that have associated raw data
- A description of any restrictions on data availability

All data that supports the paper is presented in the main text of the manuscript and in the supplementary information. All raw biomarker data is deposited on servers of the Australian National University and accessible upon request. There are no formal restrictions on data availability.

Field-specific reporting

Please select the one below that is the best fit for your research. If you are not sure, read the appropriate sections before making your selection.

- ☐ Life sciences ☐ Behavioural & social sciences ☒ Ecological, evolutionary & environmental sciences

Ecological, evolutionary & environmental sciences study design

All studies must disclose on these points even when the disclosure is negative.

Study description	Pyrolysis of sterols in laboratory
Research sample	Sterols of Ulva lactuca, Chaetomorpha sp., Sargassum fusiforme, and Undaria pinnatifida
Sampling strategy	No sample-size calculation was performed
Data collection	Experiments were performed at the Australian National University
Timing and spatial scale	No time-dependent measurements were made
Data exclusions	No data were excluded
Reproducibility	All attempts to repeat the experiment were successful.
Randomization	Samples were not allocated into groups.
Blinding	No statistical analyses were performed.
Did the study involve field work?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No

Reporting for specific materials, systems and methods

We require information from authors about some types of materials, experimental systems and methods used in many studies. Here, indicate whether each material, system or method listed is relevant to your study. If you are not sure if a list item applies to your research, read the appropriate section before selecting a response.

Materials & experimental systems		Methods	
n/a	Involved in the study	n/a	Involved in the study
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Antibodies	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> ChIP-seq
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Eukaryotic cell lines	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Flow cytometry
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Palaeontology	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> MRI-based neuroimaging
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Animals and other organisms		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Human research participants		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Clinical data		