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# Thermal alteration of biomarkers in the presence of elemental sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals during hydrous and anhydrous pyrolysis



Liangliang Wu<sup>a,\*</sup>, Xinyan Fang<sup>a,b</sup>, Shuhuan Ji<sup>a</sup>, Ansong Geng<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> State Key Laboratory of Organic Geochemistry, Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wushan, Guangzhou 510640, PR China <sup>b</sup> University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Yuquan Road, Beijing 100049, PR China

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#### ABSTRACT

Although elemental sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals are not the main constituents of sedimentary rock, they are still important for the formation and destruction of biomarkers. In this study, a bitumen of Sichuan Basin mudstone with abundant biomarkers was separately pyrolyzed (under both hydrous and anhydrous conditions) with elemental sulfur ( $S^0$ ) and sulfur-bearing minerals (including pyrite, ferrous sulfate, and ferric sulfate) at various temperatures (300, 330 and 350 °C). The results show that the effects of different forms of sulfur on the evolution of biomarkers vary. Pyrite (FeS<sub>2</sub>) had only a slight influence on the characteristics of the biomarkers during anhydrous and hydrous pyrolysis. On the other hand, the presence of  $S^0$ , ferrous sulfate (FeSO<sub>4</sub>) and ferric sulfate (Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>) promoted the thermal cracking of the biomarkers and changed the biomarker distributions under anhydrous conditions. The extent of biomarker thermal alterations decreased in the following order:  $S^0 > Fe_2(SO_4)_3 > FeSO_4 > FeS_2$ . Additionally, the presence of water seemed to promote the effects of the sulfur additive on the changes in biomarker compositions, but this did not change their raking in terms of influence. The elemental sulfur alteration of the biomarkers increased with pyrolysis temperature (simulated maturity) and the abundance of elemental sulfur in the sample. The results obtained offer new insights into how biomarkers evolve when elemental sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals are present.

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## 1. Introduction

Sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals widely occur in marine source rocks (Acholla and Orr, 1993; Jensen et al., 1998; Chen et al., 2000; Zopfi et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2011; Berthonneau et al., 2016; Cai et al., 2017; Rosenberg et al., 2017) due to the abundance of  $SO_4^{2-}$  in seawater. FeS<sub>2</sub> (pyrite) is considered to be the most abundant reduced sulfur species and serves as a longterm sink for sulfur in most continental margin sediments (Goldhaber and Kaplan, 1975; Berner, 1989; Riedinger et al., 2017). Jensen et al. (1998) reported that the relative abundance of mineral sulfur (mainly pyrite) normalized to TOC for 43 source rocks (43 samples with sulfur-bearing minerals among 56 samples) was within the range 0.1-146% with an average value of 20.8%. Kelemen et al. (2007) reported that sulfate was the dominant form of sulfur in 18 kerogens (representing several major petroleum source facies). Sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals (such as pyrite, sphalerite, and galena) have also been widely reported in

some deep, hot carbonate reservoir rocks (e.g., Krouse et al., 1988; Sassen, 1988; Cai et al., 2003, 2004; Zou et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2011).

Although sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals are minor constituents of most sediments, they may still significantly influence the thermal evolution of organic matter (OM) in sediments and petroleum reservoirs. Reactions occurring between S<sup>0</sup> (elemental sulfur) and OM may lead to sulfur incorporation (Kowalewski et al., 2010), the formation of unsaturated organic compounds (e.g., aromatics) from alicyclic saturated hydrocarbons (Toland et al., 1958; Abbott et al., 1985; White et al., 1988), and the degradation of biomarkers (Abbott et al., 1985; Comet et al., 1986). Lu et al. (2012) reported that the pyrolysis of pure  $n-C_{24}$  with S<sup>0</sup> produce alkenes and H<sub>2</sub>S because S radicals have a high affinity for H abstraction. Aqueous sulfates mainly influence petroleum reservoirs through thermochemical sulfate reduction (TSR), which has been widely studied by previous researchers (e.g., Orr, 1974; Machel et al., 1995; Worden et al., 1995; Meshoulam et al., 2016). The TSR process involves oxidation of hydrocarbons in reservoirs by inorganic aqueous sulfate, with CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S products typically generated (Orr, 1974; Machel et al., 1995; Worden et al.,





Corganic Geochemistry 1995). Sulfides from assimilatory  $SO_4^{2-}$  reduction can also be incorporated into OM (i.e.,  $S_{org}$ : organic sulfur) though sulfurization processes (Francois, 1987). Pyrite is also considered to have a catalytic effect on the pyrolysis behavior of coal (e.g., Lambert Jr., 1982; Thomas et al., 1982; Bakr et al., 1991; Metecan et al., 1999) and oil shale (Garg and Givens, 1982; Chen et al., 2000).

The influence and reaction mechanisms of sulfur and sulfurbearing minerals on the generation and evolution of OM is generally well understood. Most reactions between S-species (sulfur-containing species) and OM can be attributed to freeradical mechanisms (Lewan, 1998). S<sup>0</sup> likely enables free radicals to promote the thermal cracking of C–C bonds to occur at a faster rate and at a lower stage of thermal maturity (Abbott et al., 1985; Lewan, 1998). Recently, an experiment conducted by Said-Ahmad et al. (2013) showed that water can also promote the oxidation of OM when elemental sulfur is present. The pyrolysis behavior of oil shale has also been related to pyrite decomposition (Gai et al., 2014). The S<sup>0</sup> that is released from pyrite can hasten the degradation of OM. However, radical mechanisms are not likely to be dominant in the initial stages of thermochemical sulfate reduction (TSR), which involves the reduction of sulfate to sulfide coupled with the oxidation of hydrocarbons (Worden et al., 1995). Recently, a revised two-stage reaction scheme was proposed to explain the mechanisms of TSR (Amrani et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2008, 2012; Meshoulam et al., 2016). This model suggests that the first stage involves a slow process of HSO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction and the second stage involves H<sub>2</sub>S-catalyzed reactions (carbonium ion mechanisms). The H<sub>2</sub>S reacts with hydrocarbons to form labile organic compounds (which may be separately released through the cracking of bitumen) that in turn catalyze the TSR (Amrani et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2008).

The roles of sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals in the generation and evolution of sedimentary organic matter (OM) have been of interest to organic geochemists for decades. However, most previous studies have focused on the pyrolysis behaviors of fossil fuels or single organic compounds in the presence of S-species. Few studies have looked at their effects on specific biomarkers in crude oils and/or sedimentary organic matter that persist due to their stable structures. Biomarkers are widely used in oil studies to help evaluate thermal maturity assessments, organofacies studies, and oil-oil/oil-source rock correlations (Peters et al., 2005 and References therein) and the degrees of oil source mixings (e.g., van Aarssen et al., 1999; Jiang and Li, 2002; Zhan et al., 2016). Understanding the interacting effects of organic matter inputs, mineral composition, and thermal maturity on the evolution of biomarkers is important to most geochemical evaluations (Tissot and Welte, 1984; Price, 1993; Koopmans et al., 1998; Peters et al., 2005; Pan et al., 2010). However, few studies have reported the influence of S-species on biomarkers (Abbott et al., 1985; Comet et al., 1986). Currently, we still know little about the extent to which elemental sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals in source rocks affect the evolution of biomarkers.

The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of S-species commonly found in natural source rocks (including elemental sulfur, pyrite, ferrous sulfate, and ferric sulfate) on the thermal evolution of biomarkers. Bitumen, rather than kerogen extracted from the Dalong Formation source rock, was used because it can be isolated from co-occurring S-species. Elemental sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals are difficult to remove from the kerogen fraction. In this study, the hydrous and anhydrous pyrolysis of bitumen combined with different forms of sulfur, including elemental sulfur and three sulfur-bearing minerals (pyrite, ferrous sulfate, and ferric sulfate) was conducted and biomarkers quantitatively analysed to examine the effects of S-species on their evolution.

#### 2. Samples and methods

#### 2.1. Samples

The bitumen sample investigated in this study was extracted from the Permian Dalong Formation mudstone (GY-8) in the Sichuan Basin, China (Lat.  $32^{\circ}$  19' 11" N, Long.  $105^{\circ}$  27' 18" E). The basic geochemical characteristics of sample GY-8 have already been presented by Wu et al. (2012, 2013) and Wu and Geng (2016). The investigated sample is classified as an early mature Type II kerogen with total organic carbon (TOC) levels of 8.76% and a % Ro (vitrinite reflectance) value of 0.58. The distributions of biomarkers found in the original bitumen of GY-8 are shown in Fig. 1, with assignments listed in Table 1. First, GY-8 mudstone was powdered into 80–100 mesh. Then, the source rock powder was extracted by a mixture of DCM (dichloromethane) and methanol (93:7, v/v), with excess copper turnings added to the Soxhlet apparatus to remove the extracted elemental sulfur. Thus, all elemental sulfur that existed in the extracted bitumen was removed.

# 2.2. Pyrolysis experiments

In this study, all pyrolysis experiments were conducted using glass tubes, and both hydrous and anhydrous pyrolysis conditions were used. First, the pure bitumen or bitumen (roughly 50 mg) combined with finely ground additives, were placed into the glass tubes (20 mm o.d., 1 mm wall thickness, 100 mm length and ca. 25 mL volume). Pure water (de-ionized water:bitumen, 1:2, w/w) was also added to the glass tubes for the hydrous pyrolysis experiments. The tubes were sealed under vacuum conditions for pyrolysis experiments. The additives used were elemental sulfur (S<sup>0</sup>) or one of three sulfur-bearing minerals: ferrous disulfide (FeS<sub>2</sub>), ferrous sulfate (FeSO<sub>4</sub>), and ferric sulfate (Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>). Elemental sulfur  $(S^0 > 99.5\%)$ , pyrite (FeS<sub>2</sub> > 99.8%), ferrous sulfate heptahydrate (FeSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O > 99.0%) and ferric sulfate hydrate (Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O, Fe: 21–23%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. The FeSO<sub>4</sub> and  $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$  were obtained by heating  $FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$  and  $Fe_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot xH_2$ -O in a vacuum oven at 200 °C for 4 h. The S<sup>0</sup> and FeS<sub>2</sub> were used without further purification. Then, three series of pyrolysis experiments were conducted at temperatures of 300 °C, 330 °C, and 350 °C. The calculated vitrinite reflectance from the Easy %Ro method (Sweeney and Burnham, 1990) for the bitumen that was heated to 300 °C, 330 °C, and 350 °C for 72 h were 0.70%, 0.87%, and 1.07%, respectively. A relative abundance of 20% for the different additives was used at 300 °C and 330 °C, while a relative abundance of S<sup>0</sup> in the range from 20% to 100% was used for the experiments at 350 °C. The vessels were heated to the desired temperature within 2 h, and were then held isothermally for 72 h. The conditions for each pyrolysis experiment are shown in Table 2. Meanwhile, pyrolysis of bitumen alone (without sulfur-bearing compounds) was also conducted and to compare to the pyrolysis of bitumen with different additives.

After pyrolysis, the tubes were cracked and the pyrolysates (pyrolysis products) were recovered by repeated sonication with a mixture of DCM and methanol (93:7, v/v). Gaseous products were not directly measured. However, the absolute amount of low molecular weight compounds (LMW, carbon number < 14, including gaseous products) was calculated by mass balance. Asphaltenes were precipitated from the products by adding 50-fold (volume ratio for *n*-hexane/bitumen) cold *n*-hexane and were then removed by centrifugation. The maltene fractions were then fractionated by silica/alumina (3:1, v/v) column chromatography into saturated, aromatic and polar fractions by elution with *n*-hexane, DCM/*n*-hexane (3:1, v/v) and DCM/methanol (2:1, v/v), respectively. Internal standards, D<sub>4</sub>C<sub>27</sub> 5 $\alpha$ -cholane and C<sub>12</sub>D<sub>8</sub>S dibenzothiophene,



Fig. 1. The characteristics of biomarkers in the original bitumen of GY-8. The peak assignments are listed in Table 1.

were injected into saturated and aromatic hydrocarbon fractions, respectively, to determine the absolute biomarker concentration.

#### 2.3. GC-MS analysis

The saturated biomarkers were analyzed using a Thermo Scientific Trace GC Ultra gas chromatograph coupled to a Thermo Scientific Trace DSQ II mass spectrometer. A DB-1 fused silica capillary column (60 m  $\times$  0.32 mm i.d.  $\times$  0.25  $\mu m$  film thickness) was used. The GC oven was set at 70 °C for 2 min and was then programmed to 290 °C at 4 °C/min, with a final hold time of 30 min. The aromatic hydrocarbon fraction was analyzed by the same GC-MS with the same GC column, and the temperature program was held isothermally at 70  $^\circ C$  for 2 min, programmed to 140  $^\circ C$  at 6 °C/min, and then to 290 °C at 3 °C/min with a final hold time of 25 min. Helium was used as a carrier gas with a constant flow rate of 1.5 mL/min. The ion source temperature was set to 250 °C, and the temperature of the injector was set to 290 °C. The ion source was operated in the electron impact (EI) mode with an electron energy level of 70 eV. The GC-MS analyses were carried out in selected ion monitoring mode (SIM). The selected ions that were monitored included m/z 191 (terpanes) and m/z 217 (steranes).

The tricyclic terpane biomarkers investigated in this study included  $C_{21}$ – $C_{29}$ , with  $C_{26}$ ,  $C_{28}$ , and  $C_{29}$  compounds having two-isomer pairs. A  $C_{24}$  tetracyclic terpane peak was also evaluated.

The hopane biomarkers that were used included  $C_{29}$  17 $\beta$ norhopane,  $C_{30}$  17 $\beta$ (H)-hopane, homohopanes (H31 to H35 pairs),  $C_{30}$  moretane,  $C_{27}$  17 $\alpha$ (H)-22,29,30-trisnorhopane (Tm),  $C_{27}$ 18 $\alpha$ (H)-22,29,30-trisnorneohopane (Ts) and gammacerane. The sterane biomarkers consisted of  $C_{21}$ ,  $C_{22}$ ,  $C_{27}$  dia and  $C_{27}$ - $C_{29}$  steranes with four stereoisomers (5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\alpha$ ,17 $\alpha$ (H)-20S; 5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\beta$ ,17 $\beta$ (H) -20R; 5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\alpha$ ,17 $\alpha$ (H)-20S; 5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\alpha$ ,17 $\alpha$ (H)-20R). The triaromatic steroidal hydrocarbons included  $C_{20}$ ,  $C_{21}$  and  $C_{26}$ - $C_{28}$  homologues. The relative standard deviation (RSD) for most biomarker quantitative analysis was <10%, based on 5 duplicate experiments (Tables 3 and 5).

# 3. Results and discussion

# 3.1. The influence of different types of sulfur on bulk compositions (SARA fractions)

Fig. 2 compares the relative abundances of low molecular weight hydrocarbons (LMW, including gas and  $C_6-C_{14}$ ), saturates, aromatics, resin and asphaltene fractions for all pyrolysis experiments. It is clear that the distribution of the SARA fractions for pyrolysates with different additives vary under the same pyrolysis conditions. Generally speaking, thermal alteration cracks the high molecular weight hydrocarbons (HMW) into LMW hydrocarbons. The yields of LMW pyrolysates obtained with the additives are

Table 1	
Biomarker	identifications.

Abbreviations	Biomarker names	Abbreviations	Biomarker names
Terpanes		C27αββR+29dβαS	$C_{27}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\beta$ ,17 $\beta$ ,20R-cholestane+ $C_{29}$ -13 $\beta$ ,17 $\alpha$ ,20S-diastigmastane
C21	C <sub>21</sub> -tricyclic terpane	C27αββS	$C_{27}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\beta$ ,17 $\beta$ ,20S-cholestane
C22	C <sub>22</sub> -tricyclic terpane	C27aaaR	$C_{27}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\alpha$ ,17 $\alpha$ ,20R-cholestane
C23	C <sub>23</sub> -tricyclic terpane	C28aaaS	$C_{28}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\alpha$ ,17 $\alpha$ ,20S-ergostane
C24	C <sub>24</sub> -tricyclic terpane	C28αββR	$C_{28}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\beta$ ,17 $\beta$ ,20R-ergostane
C25	C <sub>25</sub> -tricyclic terpane	C28αββS	$C_{28}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\beta$ ,17 $\beta$ ,20S-ergostane
C24t	C <sub>24</sub> -tetracylic terpane	C28aaaR	$C_{28}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\alpha$ ,17 $\alpha$ ,20R-ergostane
C26R	C <sub>26</sub> -R tricyclic terpane	C29αααS	C <sub>29</sub> -5α,14α,17α,20S-stigmastane
C26S	C <sub>26</sub> -S tricyclic terpane	C29αββR	$C_{29}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\beta$ ,17 $\beta$ ,20R-stigmastane
C28R	C <sub>28</sub> -R tricyclic terpane	C29αββS	C <sub>29</sub> -5α,14β,17β,20S-stigmastane
C28S	C <sub>28</sub> -S tricyclic terpane	C29aaaR	$C_{29}$ -5 $\alpha$ ,14 $\alpha$ ,17 $\alpha$ ,20R-stigmastane
C29R	C <sub>29</sub> -R tricyclic terpane	Phenanthrenes	
C29S	C <sub>29</sub> -S tricyclic terpane	PHEN	Phenanthrene
Hopanes		3-MP	3-Methylphenanthrene
Ts	C <sub>27</sub> -18α-22,29,30-trisnorneohopane	2-MP	2-Methylphenanthrene
Tm	C <sub>27</sub> -17α-22,29,30-trisnorhopane	9-MP	9-Methylphenanthrene
H29	C <sub>29</sub> -17α(H),21β(H)-hopane	1-MP	1-Methylphenanthrene
H30	C <sub>30</sub> -17α(H),21β(H)-hopane	Dibenzothiophenes	
Mor		DBT	Dibenzothiophene
H31S	C <sub>31</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22S-hopane	4-MDBT	4-Methyldibenzothiophene
H31R	C <sub>31</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22R-hopane	2,3-MDBT	3,2-Methyldibenzothiophene
Gam	Gammacerane	1-MDBT	1-Methyldibenzothiophene
H32S	C <sub>32</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22S-hopane	Triaromatic Steranes	
H32R	C <sub>32</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22R-hopane	1TA20	C <sub>20</sub> -Triaromatic Sterane
H33S	C <sub>33</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22S-hopane	2TA21	C <sub>21</sub> -Triaromatic Sterane
H33R	C <sub>33</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22R-hopane	3TA26	C <sub>26</sub> -Triaromatic Sterane (20S)
H34S	C <sub>34</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22S-hopane	4TA26 + 27	$C_{26}$ -Triaromatic Sterane (20R)+ $C_{27}$ -Triaromatic Sterane (20S)
H34R	C <sub>34</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22R-hopane	5TA28	C <sub>28</sub> -Triaromatic Sterane (20S)
H35S	C <sub>35</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22S-hopane	6TA27	C <sub>27</sub> -Triaromatic Sterane (20R)
H35R	C <sub>35</sub> -17α(H),21β(H),22R-hopane	7TA28	C <sub>28</sub> -Triaromatic Sterane (20R)
Steranes		Others	
S21	5α,14β,17β(H)-pregnane (diginane)	nC17	C <sub>17</sub> n-alkane
S22	$5\alpha$ ,14 $\beta$ ,17 $\beta$ (H)-homopregnane (20-methyldiginane)	Pr	Pristane
C27dβαS	$C_{27}$ -13 $\beta$ ,17 $\alpha$ ,20S-diacholestane	nC18	C <sub>18</sub> <i>n</i> -alkane
C27dβαR	C <sub>27</sub> -13β,17α,20R-diacholestane	Ph	Phytane
C27αααS	C27-5α,14α,17α,20S-cholestane		

Table 2	2
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conditions used in the pyrorysis experiment.	Conditions	used in	n the	pyrolysis	experiments
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No.	Temp (°C)	Weight	of additive	weight of bitu	men (%)	
		FeS <sub>2</sub>	FeSO <sub>4</sub>	$Fe_2(SO_4)_3$	S	H <sub>2</sub> O
1	300	0	0	0	0	0
2	300	20	0	0	0	0
3	300	0	20	0	0	0
4	300	0	0	20	0	0
5	300	0	0	0	20	0
6	330	0	0	0	0	0
7	330	20	0	0	0	0
8	330	0	20	0	0	0
9	330	0	0	20	0	0
10	330	0	0	0	20	0
11	350	0	0	0	20	0
12	350	0	0	0	50	0
13	350	0	0	0	100	0
14	350	0	0	0	0	0
15	300	0	0	0	0	50
16	300	20	0	0	0	50
17	300	0	20	0	0	50
18	300	0	0	20	0	50
19	300	0	0	0	20	50
20	330	0	0	0	0	50
21	330	20	0	0	0	50
22	330	0	20	0	0	50
23	330	0	0	20	0	50
24	330	0	0	0	20	50

different from that obtained with bitumen alone under the same pyrolysis conditions. This demonstrates that the presence of different forms of sulfur indeed had a catalytic effect on the thermal alteration of the hydrocarbons. Taking anhydrous pyrolysis at 330 °C as an example, the pyrolysis of bitumen alone only

generated a small amount LMW hydrocarbon (9%) while the pyrolysis of bitumen with FeS<sub>2</sub>, FeSO<sub>4</sub>, Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and S<sup>0</sup> converted approximately 15%, 24%, 40% and 63% of the bitumen into LMW hydrocarbons, respectively (Table 3, Fig. 2B). These results indicate that the effects of different forms of sulfur on the thermal degradation of bitumen followed the order: S<sup>0</sup> > Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> > FeSO<sub>4</sub> > FeS<sub>2</sub>. The presence of water seemed to slightly promote the effects of different forms of sulfur on the evolution of biomarkers at 330 °C, but this did not change their ranking.

In natural settings, the onset temperature required to initiate TSR ranges from 100 °C to 140 °C, while it generally exceeds 200 °C under most laboratory conditions (Toland, 1960; Kiyosu and Krouse, 1993; Cross et al., 2004; Xia et al., 2014). In this study, the  $\geq$ 300 °C pyrolysis temperatures were sufficient to initiate TSR reactions. The TSR oxidizes hydrocarbons in reservoirs by inorganic aqueous sulfate, with CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S as the primary products (Orr, 1974; Machel et al., 1995; Worden et al., 1995). Although the yields of H<sub>2</sub>S derived from each experiment were not specially measured, high yields of LMW hydrocarbons (including H<sub>2</sub>S gas evident from its familiar odour) generated from the hydrous and anhydrous experiments involving Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and FeSO<sub>4</sub> (relative to the experiment involving bitumen alone) demonstrated that TSR occurred.

The presence of ferrous and ferric sulfate also affects bitumen even during anhydrous pyrolysis at 300 °C and 330 °C. This result is consistent with the report by Heydari and Moore (1989), who claimed that solid anhydrite is reduced during TSR in natural conditions. In observing the replacement of solid sulfate with calcite (Heydari and Moore, 1989), they found that the degradation of OM by anhydrous sulfate likely occurs due to the thermochemical

Table	3
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The relative abundance of SARA fractions and LMW fraction.

Temp (°C)	Run No.	Conditions	Relative abu	indance (%)			
			LMW	Saturated	Aromatic	Resin	Asphaltene
Anhydrous pyroly	vsis						
300	1	-	0.6	9.7	13.4	13.3	63.1
300	2	FeS <sub>2</sub>	0.2	10.6	12.6	10.8	65.8
300	3	FeSO <sub>4</sub>	12.9	9.2	12.4	8.8	56.8
300	4	$Fe_2(SO_4)_3$	40.8	9.6	8.6	5.6	35.4
300	5	S (20%)	57.1	7.9	8.1	4.7	22.2
330	6	-	9.1	12.9	11.7	8.5	57.8
330	7	FeS <sub>2</sub>	14.7	10.3	12.1	8.7	54.2
330	8	FeSO <sub>4</sub>	23.9	11.4	11.2	6.7	47.5
330	9	$Fe_2(SO_4)_3$	39.6	9.8	6.5	5.5	38.6
330	10	S (20%)	62.6	6.4	4.5	3.4	23.0
350	11	-	24.7	14.9	12.5	7.6	40.3
350	12	S (20%)	63.9	8.9	5.2	3.1	18.9
350	13	S (50%)	94.8	2.8	0.8	1.2	0.4
350	14	S (100%)	97.1	1.8	0.4	0.4	0.4
Hydrous pyrolysis	5						
300	15	-	5.5	12.1	21.8	11.6	49.0
300	16	FeS <sub>2</sub>	1.2	12.3	24.8	10.7	50.9
300	17	FeSO <sub>4</sub>	11.1	10.6	22.1	9.6	46.6
300	18	$Fe_2(SO_4)_3$	29.3	5.4	10.6	11.0	43.7
300	19	S (20%)	56.0	3.1	4.1	4.7	32.2
330	20	-	18	3.0	15.8	25.6	37.6
330	21	FeS <sub>2</sub>	20.9	3.9	16.0	22.7	37.5
330	22	FeSO <sub>4</sub>	24.7	3.7	13.0	10.2	48.4
330	23	$Fe_2(SO_4)_3$	72.1	1.2	6.1	4.7	15.9
330	24	S (20%)	64.6	6.5	6.5	4.4	18.1

Note: LMW (including gas and  $C_{6-14}$ ) = total bitumen – asphaltene – maltene.

breakdown of solid sulfate as shown by reaction Eq. (1) (Siebert, 1985). The formed S<sup>0</sup> can subsequently alter OM. Meanwhile, trace amounts of water generated from the bitumen or found in sulfate minerals might contribute to partial anhydrous pyrolysis.

$$CaSO_4 + 3H_2S + CO_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3 + 4S^0 + 3H_2O$$

$$\tag{1}$$

Sulfur radical mechanisms can be used to explain reactions involving S<sup>0</sup> (Abbott et al., 1985; Lewan, 1998). The minimum reaction temperature required for the cleavage of the cyclo-S<sub>8</sub> allotrope (the most prevalent form of S<sup>0</sup> found in nature) is approximately 175 °C (Goldstein and Aizenshtat, 1994). Above this temperature, sulfur in cyclic S<sub>8</sub> opens to form a highly reactive polysulfide diradical, which is the active species involved in hydrogen abstraction from organic compounds (Abbott et al., 1985; Goldstein and Aizenshtat, 1994). Water also contributes to the reaction of sulfur with OM (Said-Ahmad et al., 2013). The hydrolysis of sulfur is favorable at temperatures exceeding 150 °C (Goldstein and Aizenshtat, 1994), which is lower than the temperature required for sulfur cleavage under anhydrous conditions.

Through the formation of S<sup>0</sup>, pyrite can affect the pyrolysis behavior of OM (Bakr et al., 1991; Gai et al., 2014). The formed S<sup>0</sup> subsequently destroys OM through the processes described above. Thus, the main factor that controls the degradation of OM by pyrite is its decomposition. The activation temperature required for the decomposition of pyrite under anhydrous conditions is approximately 500-530 °C (Chen et al., 2000; Gai et al., 2014). Hydrogen donors in coal were shown to reduce the decomposition temperature of pyrite by approximately 100 °C (Chen et al., 2000). Moreover, pyrite presents different levels of thermal stability in the presence or absence of water. The decomposition of pyrite under hydrous conditions occurs between 440 °C and 560 °C (Levy and White, 1988). Hydrous pyrolysis of pyrite at 350 °C for 72 h by Ding and Liu (2017) detected no H<sub>2</sub>S. As temperatures used in this study (300-330 °C) were lower than the minimal decomposition temperature of pyrite, the effects of pyrite on the thermal alteration of the bitumen were minor (Fig. 2).

# 3.2. The influence of different forms of sulfur on biomarker concentrations

The absolute concentrations of individual biomarkers were measured to investigate the evolution of biomarkers with the addition of different additives at various conditions (temperature; the presence of water). A relative abundance variation ratio (RAVR) was developed by Chen et al. (2016) to reflect the changes in biomarker concentrations observed at different temperatures. We used a modified RAVR to reflect the effects of different additives on individual biomarker concentrations. When the absolute abundance of an individual biomarker used in the experiment of bitumen with a certain additive was *a*, that for the experiment on bitumen alone at the same temperature was *b*, and the RAVR for this additive was calculated as  $(a-b)/b \times 100\%$ . The positive RAVR values for a certain additive show that corresponding additive will prohibit the degradation of biomarkers or promote the generation of biomarkers, while negative RAVR values for a certain additive indicate that such an additive promotes the degradation of biomarkers. Pyrolysis experiments (330 °C for four weeks) conducted by Mango (1990) reported the decomposition ratios of cholestane and octadecane were 17% and 2.3% respectively, indicating that the pyrolysis behaviors for different biomarkers can vary considerably. Thus, terpane, sterane, and triaromatic steroid hydrocarbons are separately discussed.

#### 3.2.1. Terpanes

Several classes of terpanes in petroleum originate from bacterial (prokaryotic) membrane lipids (Ourisson et al., 1982). Tricyclic terpanes and pentacyclic triterpanes (hopanes) are the two most commonly used classes of terpanes.

Similar concentrations of individual tricyclic terpane were detected from all 300 °C anhydrous pyrolysis experiments (Table 4), and their RAVR values with S-additives were all <-25% (Fig. 3A). The additives had a stronger effect on hopanes (Fig. 3E), consistent with the higher thermal stabilities of tricyclic and

# Table 4

Absolute concentrations (µg/g) of each saturate biomarker from the pyrolysates of bitumen with various additives at different temperature	es.
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														-										
Biomarkers	300 °C									330 °C					350 °C									
	Anhyo	irous					Hydro	us			Anhydrous						Hyd	rous			Anhyo	frous		
	N	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	N	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	N	S20	S50	S100
Terpanes																								
C21	24.8	20.9	27.1	27.1	24.1	32.3	12.5	32.7	28.7 ± 1.2	14.0	$25.8 \pm 0.4$	8.9	26.7	25.5 ± 1.5	21.8	28.9 ± 1.9	-	28.7	13.2 ± 1.1	-	23.6	6.1	-	-
C22	7.1	5.4	9.6	7.8	6.5	41.9	17.2	42.0	$40.4 \pm 2.1$	22.1	7.1 ± 0.2	2.0	6.7	7.3 ± 0.3	5.5	36.8 ± 2.7	-	38.3	19.1 ± 2.9	-	6.8	1.7	-	-
C23	32.8	25.7	33.5	32.7	30.3	59.5	23.7	50.7	$49.6 \pm 0.8$	31.5	29.8 ± 2.6	9.4	29.5	$26.6 \pm 1.4$	24.1	46.3 ± 3.2	-	48.6	19.9 ± 3.7	-	28.7	5.8	-	-
C24	22.8	16.4	22.6	22.4	20.8	39.8	12.4	38.8	33.7 ± 1.3	19.9	$21.2 \pm 1.6$	5.8	18.5	$16.8 \pm 1.6$	15.5	29.8 ± 2.0	-	31.2	18.1 ± 1.1	-	19.4	3.4	-	-
C25	20.6	13.9	19.4	18.4	17.3	31.0	8.8	32.7	26.2 ± 1.7	13.7	$15.4 \pm 0.6$	4.9	14.9	$11.6 \pm 0.7$	11.7	24.3 ± 1.4	-	23.6	10.3 ± 1.8	-	14.7	2.8	-	-
C24t	20.2	19.6	19.8	20.1	17.5	21.9	8.4	20.9	$20.2 \pm 0.9$	11.5	15.5 ± 0.7	9.4	15.0	$12.4 \pm 1.1$	13.4	23.6 ± 1.8	-	25.3	13.4 ± 1.1	-	16.0	6.0	-	-
C26R	7.8	4.6	6.2	6.8	6.1	19.5	4.8	17.8	$6.4 \pm 0.2$	5.4	$5.8 \pm 0.3$	1.4	4.8	$3.8 \pm 0.4$	4.3	$10.3 \pm 0.8$	-	11.7	$4.0 \pm 0.9$	-	5.7	0.7	-	-
C26S	6.8	4.8	5.6	5.6	6.3	17.8	4.6	16.4	5.7 ± 0.1	5.1	$5.4 \pm 0.4$	1.4	5.2	3.8 ± 0.5	4.7	10.1 ± 0.3	-	11.3	$4.0 \pm 0.7$	-	5.7	0.7	-	-
C28R	5.5	4.3	4.5	5.6	5.8	9.8	2.4	6.9	5.1 ± 0.2	1.5	3.8 ± 0.2	1.7	4.4	3.7 ± 0.1	3.8	6.8 ± 0.3	-	5.4	$3.2 \pm 0.2$	-	4.2	0.9	-	-
C28S	5.4	3.4	4.1	5.9	5.6	5.7	2.7	7.6	$4.4 \pm 0.4$	1.3	$4.9 \pm 0.1$	1.5	4.2	3.8 ± 0.3	4.0	$6.8 \pm 0.4$	-	6.0	$3.2 \pm 0.2$	-	4.0	1.1	-	-
C29R	7.3	6.3	7.1	6.5	6.1	5.7	1.3	6.3	4.6 ± 0.3	1.5	$4.7 \pm 0.2$	1.6	6.6	$4.2 \pm 0.4$	5.9	7.9 ± 0.5	-	6.2	$2.0 \pm 0.1$	-	6.7	0.6	-	-
C29S	5.8	4.1	6.1	4.8	4.9	7.5	1.3	6.9	5.7 ± 0.1	3.5	$4.6 \pm 0.2$	1.9	4.9	$3.9 \pm 0.2$	3.6	8.2 ± 0.1	-	6.7	1.8 ± 0.2	-	4.7	0.6	-	-
Total	167.1	129.3	165.6	163.7	151.4	292.4	100.3	278.9	230.7	130.9	143.4	50.0	141.4	123.4	118.3	239.8	0.0	243.0	112.2	0.0	140.1	30.3	-	-
Hopanes																								
Ts	18.7	13.2	14.7	15.0	12.7	30.8	11.6	32.7	27.6 ± 1.3	8.4	11.8 ± 0.3	5.5	10.9	$6.9 \pm 0.8$	10.3	21.9 ± 1.9	-	23.5	9.7 ± 1.4	-	11.0	2.8	-	-
Tm	84.6	53.6	78.3	68.7	59.6	130.3	25.7	132.2	116.9 ± 4.5	30.4	49.8 ± 4.1	16.7	53.9	39.3 ± 3.4	39.3	118.9 ± 3.7	-	125.2	$40.3 \pm 4.0$	-	42.8	6.4	-	-
H29	137.2	82.9	134.0	107.6	102.3	217.4	34.3	213.9	189.8 ± 11.8	41.3	87.2 ± 5.1	23.6	88.9	58.9 ± 3.1	57.9	179.3 ± 16.9	-	194.5	62.7 ± 12.9	-	76.7	6.9	-	-
H30	152.2	85.8	146.1	124.6	114.1	223.2	32.6	228.5	$207.5 \pm 5.2$	39.9	82.7 ± 2.6	21.5	83.3	57.0 ± 6.7	53.1	189.6 ± 8.1	-	199.8	61.1 ± 9.7	-	60.6	5.2	-	-
Mor	12.3	8.5	9.9	11.4	6.8	12.9	3.9	14.0	$10.8 \pm 0.5$	5.6	$6.5 \pm 0.5$	2.2	6.5	$4.2 \pm 0.2$	3.8	13.1 ± 0.9	-	17.8	5.2 ± 1.3	-	6.2	-	-	-
H31S	74.9	40.4	71.0	58.0	49.8	115.0	12.7	119.0	106.1 ± 3.1	13.2	38.1 ± 2.7	9.5	39.9	28.5 ± 1.5	24.6	86.5 ± 4.6	-	63.4	34.8 ± 2.3	-	29.8	-	-	-
H31R	52.7	33.9	52.8	42.4	38.9	70.7	8.6	77.3	66.8 ± 4.0	8.6	33.1 ± 1.3	9.1	31.7	20.5 ± 1.9	22.1	54.9 ± 4.3	-	39.4	19.1 ± 2.4	-	19.2	-	-	-
Gam	3.8	4.1	4.8	3.5	4.2	19.1	3.8	13.6	$10.4 \pm 0.6$	3.2	$2.6 \pm 0.2$	0.9	2.5	$3.2 \pm 0.1$	1.7	$11.8 \pm 0.7$	-	23.8	4.9 ± 1.4	-	2.4	-	-	-
H32S	37.9	22.6	40.5	33.3	26.5	59.1	5.4	63.0	53.5 ± 6.3	8.0	23.1 ± 0.9	5.4	23.5	$16.6 \pm 1.4$	12.7	$48.4 \pm 1.1$	-	38.1	20.3 ± 1.2	-	15.6	-	-	-
H32R	28.3	18.0	27.4	22.6	18.9	46.1	4.5	42.1	$40.7 \pm 2.5$	2.4	15.1 ± 1.1	3.0	16.1	11.7 ± 1.3	8.2	35.1 ± 2.0	-	29.0	$14.2 \pm 0.9$	-	10.7	-	-	-
H33S	25.0	13.9	22.3	17.2	14.7	41.9	0.0	35.0	32.7 ± 3.2	3.2	11.5 ± 1.3	2.7	12.2	7.7 ± 0.9	5.8	27.4 ± 1.1	-	29.4	8.5 ± 2.6	-	8.7	-	-	-
H33R	13.8	10.0	12.3	11.9	10.7	25.6	0.0	29.5	14.8 ± 1.7	2.4	$7.6 \pm 0.8$	2.3	8.7	5.3 ± 0.5	5.1	18.9 ± 1.8	-	23.8	5.1 ± 0.5	-	6.2	-	-	-
H34S	11.5	8.7	12.6	10.3	10.0	22.6	0.0	21.1	25.2 ± 0.9	0.0	$7.4 \pm 0.4$	1.5	7.2	$4.4 \pm 0.3$	3.8	12.9 ± 1.4	-	14.5	$4.9 \pm 0.7$	-	5.3	-	-	-
H34R	9.8	6.5	9.5	6.9	6.6	21.5	0.0	13.7	18.5 ± 1.8	0.0	$6.1 \pm 0.2$	0.9	7.0	$2.7 \pm 0.2$	3.4	10.7 ± 1.1	-	11.1	$2.3 \pm 0.2$	-	3.6	-	-	-
H35S	10.2	4.7	10.0	8.6	8.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	$6.2 \pm 0.8$	1.2	5.4	-	2.5	0.0	-	0.0	0.0	-	-	-	-	-
H35R	5.9	4.7	5.6	7.2	4.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	$4.1 \pm 0.2$	1.1	3.6	-	1.8	0.0	-	0.0	0.0	-	-	-	-	-
Total	678.8	411.6	665.7	549.3	488.7	1036.2	143.0	1035.7	921.3	179.5	392.9	107.0	401.6	266.9	256.5	829.4	-	906.3	293.1	-	334.5	21.2	-	-
Steranes																								
S21	11.2	9.8	14.1	13.7	12.0	35.3	10.5	31.1	29.9 ± 2.9	16.3	11.7 ± 0.6	4.7	14.4	16.1 ± 1.5	10.4	36.7 ± 1.7	-	30.5	12.2 ± 1.7	-	15.3	4.9	1.1	0.0
S22	7.1	4.9	9.1	8.4	6.9	20.9	5.6	20.2	18.1 ± 1.1	9.1	$6.3 \pm 0.6$	1.9	8.0	7.1 ± 1.1	5.1	17.5 ± 1.3	-	17.5	7.5 ± 1	-	6.9	1.5	0.5	0.0
C27dβαS	0.8	0.5	1.0	1.1	0.8	7.8	3.3	7.2	6.3 ± 0.5	2.9	$0.9 \pm 0.2$	0.4	1.1	$1.1 \pm 0.2$	0.6	3.8 ± 0.1	-	4.7	1.9 ± 0.3	-	1.2	0.5	0.1	0.0
C27dβαR	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	4.4	1.3	3.6	$4.2 \pm 0.1$	1.8	$0.6 \pm 0.1$	0.2	0.6	$0.8 \pm 0.1$	0.4	$2.6 \pm 0.1$	-	3.8	0.7 ± 0.1	-	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.0
C27αααS	5.0	3.1	5.1	4.7	3.9	13.5	2.2	11.3	$10.6 \pm 0.8$	3.0	$4.1 \pm 0.1$	1.1	4.3	$3.6 \pm 0.2$	2.8	$10.4 \pm 0.4$	-	10.8	4.1 ± 0.3	-	4.3	0.4	0.2	0.1
C27αββR+29dβαS	5.6	3.1	5.9	5.3	4.3	16.9	2.6	15.0	13.7 ± 0.5	4.1	$4.4 \pm 0.3$	1.3	4.7	$4.3 \pm 0.3$	2.9	13.1 ± 0.2	-	13.7	$4.4 \pm 0.5$	-	4.4	0.5	0.2	0.1
C27αββS	5.0	2.8	4.9	4.8	3.9	14.1	2.0	12.4	$10.8 \pm 0.7$	3.3	$3.7 \pm 0.2$	1.1	4.3	$4.0 \pm 0.1$	2.5	$10.2 \pm 0.7$	-	10.2	3.7 ± 0.1	-	4.1	0.4	0.2	0.0
C27αααR	5.3	2.6	5.0	4.5	3.8	15.5	2.6	12.8	$11.6 \pm 0.6$	3.1	3.8 ± 0.1	0.9	4.2	3.9 ± 0.1	2.3	10.8 ± 1.1	-	10.7	$3.9 \pm 0.6$	-	3.8	0.4	0.2	0.2
C28αααS	2.8	1.5	2.7	2.7	1.9	7.0	1.2	6.4	$4.8 \pm 0.3$	1.4	$1.7 \pm 0.2$	0.6	2.1	$2.0 \pm 0.1$	1.3	$5.2 \pm 0.2$	-	5.2	1.9 ± 0.1	-	1.9	0.2	0.1	0.1
C28αββR	2.9	1.5	2.8	2.6	1.7	4.6	0.8	5.0	4.1 ± 0.1	1.0	$1.6 \pm 0.3$	0.8	2.1	$2.0 \pm 0.2$	1.3	3.6 ± 0.2	-	3.5	1.1 ± 0.1	-	1.9	0.3	0.1	0.0
C28αββS	3.0	1.8	3.0	2.3	1.7	5.7	1.3	7.1	$5.8 \pm 0.2$	1.7	$1.2 \pm 0.2$	0.6	1.8	$1.6 \pm 0.1$	1.1	5.7 ± 0.1	-	6.2	2.1 ± 0.2	-	1.6	0.2	0.1	0.0
C28aaaR	2.4	1.0	2.5	1.9	1.5	5.8	0.9	6.3	$5.3 \pm 0.1$	1.0	$1.4 \pm 0.1$	0.3	1.6	1.3 ± 0.1	0.9	4.3 ± 0.2	-	4.1	$1.0 \pm 0.3$	-	1.3	0.1	0.1	0.1
C29aaaS	4.1	2.2	4.6	3.9	2.9	7.4	1.1	7.2	$7.2 \pm 0.3$	1.4	$2.6 \pm 0.1$	0.7	3.1	$2.4 \pm 0.2$	1.6	$6.4 \pm 0.4$	-	5.8	$2.4 \pm 0.2$	-	2.5	0.2	0.1	0.1
C29αββR	4.6	2.6	5.0	4.1	3.5	12.3	1.4	12.3	$10.4 \pm 0.4$	3.0	$3.2 \pm 0.2$	0.8	3.3	$3.0 \pm 0.2$	2.1	$11.2 \pm 0.4$	-	9.7	$3.0 \pm 0.2$	-	2.9	0.3	0.1	0.1
C29αββS	5.0	2.5	5.3	4.2	3.1	9.4	0.9	9.8	8.1 ± 0.3	2.1	$2.9 \pm 0.3$	0.7	3.5	$3.1 \pm 0.1$	1.7	$7.6 \pm 0.4$	-	7.5	$2.0 \pm 0.3$	-	2.6	0.3	0.1	0.1
C29aaaR	4.3	1.8	4.1	3.2	3.1	9.2	0.9	9.2	7.6 ± 0.5	1.2	$2.6 \pm 0.1$	0.5	3.0	$2.4 \pm 0.2$	1.5	8.3 ± 0.3	_	7.2	$2.3 \pm 0.1$	_	2.0	0.2	0.1	0.1

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Table 4 (continued)

Biomarkers	300 °C										330 °C											350 °C				
	Anhy	drous					Hydro	us			Anhydrous						Hyd	lydrous				Anhydrous				
	N	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	N	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	N	S20	S50	S100		
Total	69.6	42.3	73.4	67.9	55.4	189.7	38.6	176.9	150.4	56.5	52.7	16.7	61.9	58.7	38.5	157.4	-	151.0	54.2	-	57.4	10.7	3.6	1.0		
Others																										
n-C17	254.1	252.0	240.4	254.1	262.7	286.1	282.0	274.1	275.8 ± 11.3	292.7	224.3 ± 2.9	204.2	222.0	208.1 ± 11.8	226.3	279.3 ± 8.2	-	292.3	191.4 ± 10.9	-	178.9	151.5	120.8	-		
Pr	79.1	81.7	84.2	69.6	93.7	91.2	91.4	99.6	83.2 ± 4.1	105.3	69.1 ± 2.8	59.0	72.7	59.2 ± 2.9	67.4	87.1 ± 6.7	-	92.8	56.2 ± 4.2	-	45.3	37.3	31.5	-		
n-C18	162.5	163.2	151.9	151.9	171.5	182.5	173.9	167.9	153.5 ± 7.8	192.5	$135.4 \pm 6.6$	126.7	126.5	147.4 ± 5.2	138.6	166.5 ± 6.9	-	176.5	133.2 ± 7.2	-	113.3	114.3	88.2	-		
Ph	86.9	96.1	100.6	86.8	97.2	106.9	113.2	117.2	92.6 ± 4.2	107.8	71.5 ± 2.6	63.8	73.6	76.1 ± 3.1	69.0	86.1 ± 1.2	-	91.4	67.8 ± 1.1	-	46.3	42.6	21.6	-		

Note: "-" = undetected, N = Neat kerogen, S20 = 20% sulfur, S50 = 50% sulfur, S100 = 100% sulfur, Fe1 = FeS<sub>2</sub>, Fe2 = FeSO<sub>4</sub>, Fe3 = Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>.

#### Table 5

Molecular parameters for pyrolysates of bitumen at various experimental conditions.

Biomarker parameters	300 °C										330 °C										350 °C				
	Anhyo	irous				Hydro	us			Anhydrous									ous		Anhydrous				
	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	Ν	S20	S50	S100	
C27/(C27 + C28 + C29)	0.44	0.48	0.45	0.47	0.45	0.51	0.59	0.45	0.47	0.58	0.48	0.50	0.48	0.50	0.49	0.48	-	0.49	0.55	-	0.53	0.50	0.46	0.49	
C28/(C27 + C28 + C29)	0.20	0.19	0.18	0.20	0.18	0.19	0.21	0.22	0.21	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.18	0.17	0.19	0.18	-	0.19	0.16	-	0.19	0.21	0.22	0.22	
C29/(C27 + C28 + C29)	0.36	0.33	0.37	0.33	0.37	0.30	0.20	0.32	0.32	0.23	0.33	0.31	0.34	0.33	0.32	0.34	-	0.33	0.30	-	0.28	0.29	0.32	0.29	
(S21 + S22)/C <sub>27</sub> -C <sub>29</sub> regs	0.37	0.55	0.48	0.50	0.54	0.42	0.72	0.41	0.44	0.82	0.54	0.68	0.59	0.73	0.70	0.53	-	0.47	0.56	-	0.67	1.78	0.93	0.10	
S21/S22	1.54	1.63	1.70	1.53	1.59	1.69	1.86	1.54	1.66	1.80	1.80	2.52	1.80	1.98	1.79	2.04	-	1.74	1.83	-	3.36	2.21	2.08	1.12	
C27 d $\beta\alpha R/C27\alpha\alpha\alpha R$	0.09	0.15	0.10	0.13	0.13	0.28	0.49	0.28	0.36	0.57	0.14	0.24	0.14	0.21	0.17	0.22	-	0.35	0.18	-	0.13	0.76	0.35	0.11	
C29-αββ/(αββ+ααα)	0.53	0.56	0.53	0.54	0.52	0.57	0.54	0.57	0.55	0.66	0.55	0.55	0.53	0.55	0.55	0.56	-	0.57	0.52	-	0.55	0.58	0.53	0.45	
C29-20S/(20S + 20R)	0.50	0.52	0.52	0.53	0.47	0.44	0.46	0.44	0.46	0.46	0.49	0.51	0.51	0.50	0.49	0.42	-	0.44	0.47	-	0.51	0.48	0.48	0.49	
C23/(C23 + C24t)	0.59	0.61	0.60	0.59	0.59	0.60	0.66	0.57	0.59	0.61	0.60	0.62	0.61	0.60	0.61	0.61	-	0.61	0.55	-	0.59	0.63	-	-	
Ts/(Ts + Tm)	0.18	0.20	0.16	0.18	0.18	0.19	0.31	0.20	0.19	0.22	0.18	0.25	0.17	0.15	0.21	0.16	-	0.16	0.20	-	0.20	0.29	-	-	
C23/H30	0.23	0.31	0.24	0.28	0.30	0.27	0.73	0.22	0.24	0.79	0.34	0.44	0.35	0.44	0.45	0.25	-	0.24	0.33	-	0.54	1.10	-	-	
H29/H30	0.92	0.99	0.87	0.90	0.97	0.97	1.05	0.94	0.95	1.03	1.08	1.10	1.07	0.97	1.09	0.99	-	0.97	1.07	-	1.27	1.31	-	-	
H31-22S/(22S + 22R)	0.59	0.54	0.57	0.58	0.56	0.62	0.60	0.61	0.61	0.60	0.54	0.51	0.56	0.57	0.53	0.61	-	0.62	0.63	-	0.61	-	-	-	
Gam/H30	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.13	0.21	0.08	0.07	0.21	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.10	-	0.27	0.95	-	0.04	-	-	-	
Pr/n-C17	0.32	0.36	0.29	0.35	0.27	0.51	0.59	0.45	0.47	0.58	0.36	0.30	0.31	0.33	0.28	0.48	-	0.49	0.55	-	0.25	0.31	0.25	-	
Ph/n-C18	0.56	0.57	0.54	0.66	0.57	0.19	0.21	0.22	0.21	0.19	0.55	0.50	0.53	0.58	0.52	0.18	-	0.19	0.16	-	0.37	0.52	0.41	-	
Pr/Ph	0.89	0.96	0.68	0.84	0.80	0.30	0.20	0.32	0.32	0.23	0.95	0.98	0.91	0.99	0.78	0.34	-	0.33	0.30	-	0.88	0.96	0.98	-	

Note: "-" = undetectable;  $S21-22/C_{27}-C_{29}$  regs: (diginane + 20-methyldiginane)/ $C_{27}-C_{29}$  regular steranes (12 peaks).



Fig. 2. The relative abundances of low molecular weight hydrocarbons (LMW, including gas and C<sub>6-14</sub>), saturates, aromatics, resin and asphaltene fractions for pyrolysates of bitumen with various additives at different pyrolysis temperatures and conditions.

tetracyclic terpanes than those of the hopanes (Seifert and Moldowan, 1979; Trendel et al., 1982), apart from FeS<sub>2</sub> which had a negligible effect. Both FeSO<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> promoted the thermal cracking of the hopanes (Fig. 3E). The addition of S<sup>0</sup> led to the most significant decline in the hopane concentrations. With 300 °C hydrous pyrolysis, the RAVR values of tricyclic terpanes and hopanes for FeS<sub>2</sub> and FeSO<sub>4</sub> was <-25%, whereas for S<sup>0</sup> and Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> it was <-75% (Fig. 3B and 3F).

Anhydrous 330 °C pyrolysis results were similar to those of the 300 °C pyrolysis, with tricyclic terpanes RAVR values <-25% on addition of the sulfur-bearing minerals (Fig. 3C). At the higher temperature, the effects of different additives, especially for S<sup>0</sup>, on the hopane concentrations were enhanced (RAVR values to -75%). Under hydrous 330 °C condition, tricyclic terpanes (Fig. 3D) and hopanes (Fig. 3H) were only detected from the FeS<sub>2</sub>, FeSO<sub>4</sub> and neat kerogen experiments. Meanwhile, the absolute RAVR values of tricyclic terpanes and hopanes for FeS<sub>2</sub> (<25%) were much lower than those for FeSO<sub>4</sub> (approximately 75%).

#### 3.2.2. Steranes

The precursors for steranes in the geological samples are sterols in eukaryotic organisms (Mackenzie et al., 1982a; de Leeuw et al., 1989). During anhydrous pyrolysis at 300 °C and 330 °C, FeS<sub>2</sub> had minimal impact on sterane concentration (compared to bitumen alone), while FeSO<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> slightly impacted, and S<sup>0</sup> significantly impacted sterane production (Fig. 4A and C). With hydrous pyrolysis at 300 °C, FeS<sub>2</sub> and FeSO<sub>4</sub> had minor impact compared to bitumen alone (RAVR close to 0), while Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and S<sup>0</sup> significantly reduced the concentrations of steranes (RAVR approximately –75%). After hydrous pyrolysis at 330 °C no steranes were detected in the experiments with Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and S<sup>0</sup> (Table 4), whilst they were reduced with FeS<sub>2</sub> (RAVR < –25%), and more so with FeSO<sub>4</sub> (RAVR < –75%) (Fig. 4D).

### 3.2.3. Triaromatic steroid hydrocarbons

Triaromatic steroid hydrocarbons (TAS) are considered to be the aromatization products of monoaromatic steroids at the early stages of hydrocarbon generation (Mackenzie et al., 1982a, 1982b; Abbott et al., 1984). The S-additives had a similar effect on the TAS concentration of anhydrous pyrolysis at both 300 °C and 330 °C. FeS<sub>2</sub> similarly had little impact on the concentrations of TAS compared to bitumen alone, with absolute RAVR values close to 0 (Fig. 5 and Table 6). Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> caused a slight reduction in the concentrations of TAS and S<sup>0</sup> caused a much larger reduction (Fig. 5A). Unusually, the presence of FeSO<sub>4</sub> increased the absolute concentrations of TAS (RAVR > 25%). This was likely due to additional release of the biomarkers from aromatic, polar and asphaltene fractions at low stages of maturity (e.g., Bowden et al., 2006). It is also possible that FeSO<sub>4</sub> catalyzed the aromatization of regular or other steroids in the original bitumen. With hydrous pyrolysis at 300 °C, the different forms of sulfur had a similar effect on the concentrations of TAS compared to those observed under anhydrous conditions (Fig. 5B). At 330 °C, no TAS were detected in the experiments using  $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$  (Fig. 5D).

#### 3.2.4. Rankings and mechanisms

Generally speaking, biomarker concentrations decrease with increasing maturity as a result of thermal degradation (e.g., Mackenzie et al., 1985; Abbott et al., 1990; Bishop and Abbott, 1993; Farrimond et al., 1998). The above results show that various sulfur forms can promotes the thermal alteration of biomarkers, although their effects on the evolution of biomarker concentrations can differ. The extent to which different forms of sulfur promoted thermal alteration of biomarkers was in the following order:  $S^0 > Fe_2(SO_4)_3 > FeSO_4 > FeS_2$  (Figs. 3–5). This order is consistent with the effect of S-additives on bulk bitumen stability (Fig. 2). It is also consistent with the work by Lu et al (2012) who reported that hydrocarbons (pure *n*-C<sub>24</sub>) reacted with S<sup>0</sup> (250 °C) at much lower temperatures than metal sulfates (430 °C for MgSO<sub>4</sub>).

Bitumen is a very complex mixture of different sized hydrocarbons including many biomarkers. Previously observed effect of sulfur on OM may similarly relate to biomarkers. The free-radical mechanism suggests that the concentration of S radicals rather than bond strengths control the reaction rates of petroleum



Fig. 3. The variations of RAVRs of terpane biomarkers in pyrolysates (under both the anhydrous and hydrous conditions) with various additives at 300 °C and 330 °C.

generation and evolution (Lewan, 1998). Specifically, the greater the concentration of initiating sulfur radicals formed in a reaction system of sedimentary organic matter, the higher the rate of organic matter thermal cracking. Under hydrous pyrolysis conditions, the generation temperature for sulfur radicals was above 150 °C for cyclo-S<sub>8</sub> allotropes (Goldstein and Aizenshtat, 1994); approximately 200 °C for the initiation of TSR by aqueous sulfate (Toland, 1960; Kiyosu and Krouse, 1993; Cross et al., 2004; Xia et al., 2014), and above 440 °C for the decomposition of pyrite (Levy and White, 1988). Under anhydrous conditions, cyclo-S<sub>8</sub> produced S-radical only above 175 °C (Goldstein and Aizenshtat, 1994), while pyrite decomposed to form the sulfur radical at temperatures >500 °C (Chen et al., 2000; Gai et al., 2014). The decomposition temperature of  $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$  and  $FeSO_4$  in a nitrogen atmosphere ranged from 550 °C to 625 °C (> the temperature used here), with decomposition products being Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and FeO respectively (Siriwardane et al., 1999). However, our present experiments at 300 °C indicate ferrous and ferric sulfates have a catalytic effect on the pyrolysis of bitumen (Fig. 2), and possibly because the reducing gas (such as H<sub>2</sub>S, H<sub>2</sub>, CO, and CH<sub>4</sub>) generated from the cracking of bitumen reduces the decomposition temperature of sulfate (Goldstein and Aizenshtat, 1994). Additionally, a small amount of water might also be present, and might also be thermally released from the polar fraction of bitumen. Thus, the anhydrous pyrolysis experiments with ferrous and ferric sulfate could include trace amounts of water. Therefore, the ease of generation of S-radicals from the S-additives was in the order  $S^0 > Fe(II)/Fe$  (III) sulfates > pyrite.

Furthermore,  $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$  had a slightly stronger effect on the hydrocarbon reactant than  $FeSO_4$  (Fig. 2), likely because of stronger Fe(III) reduction. Surdam and Crossey (1985) suggested that Fe(III) released during the transformation of smectite to illite may oxidize organic matter to produce organic acids. Seewald (2001; 2003) also noted that Fe(III) in sediments can oxidize hydrocarbons in subsurface environments. This may explain why  $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$  has a stronger reduction effect on biomarkers than  $FeSO_4$ .

#### 3.3. The influence of different forms of sulfur on biomarker parameters

#### 3.3.1. Source-related biomarker parameters

The sterane ternary diagram for  $C_{27}-C_{29}$  20R  $\alpha\alpha\alpha$ -steranes is commonly used to correlate the source of oils and source rocks (Seifert et al., 1984; Seifert and Moldowan, 1986; Peters et al., 1989, 2005). Fig. 6 shows the distributions of  $C_{27}-C_{29}$  20R  $\alpha\alpha\alpha$ steranes for the various S-additives at different pyrolysis temperatures and conditions. For the anhydrous experiments, bitumen alone and FeS<sub>2</sub> gave very similar distributions of  $C_{27}-C_{29}$  20R  $\alpha\alpha\alpha$ -steranes. The other additives produced only slight changes in the distributions (Fig. 6A).

However, with hydrous pyrolysis  $Fe_2(SO_4)_3$  and  $S^0$  significantly changed the distribution of the  $C_{27}-C_{29}$  20R  $\alpha\alpha\alpha$ -steranes at 300 °C and had removed all steranes at 330 °C (Table 5,



Fig. 4. The variations of RAVRs of sterane biomarkers in pyrolysates (under both the anhydrous and hydrous conditions) with various additives at 300 °C and 330 °C.

Fig. 4D). The steranes were also significate changed with FeSO<sub>4</sub> (compared to bitumen alone) at 330  $^{\circ}$ C (Fig. 6B). This indicates water enhances the influence that additives have on the thermal stability of steranes.

The ratio of diginane to 20-methyldiginane (S21/S22) is also widely used to correlate crude oils with potential source rocks (Huang et al., 1994; Fang et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2012). With anhydrous and hydrous pyrolysis at 300 °C, values of S21/S22 in the pyrolysates with sulfur-bearing minerals were quite stable (1.53–1.80; Table 5) and similar to the bitumen alone value (1.54). S<sup>0</sup> significantly changed the value of S21/S22 from 330 °C anhydrous pyrolysis and reduced the diginane to below detection limits with 330 °C hydrous pyrolysis (Fig. 7). Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> similarly reduced diginane concentrations in the 330 °C hydrous pyrolysis.

Source-related biomarker parameters based on terpanes include the ratio of  $C_{29}$  17 $\alpha$ (H),21 $\beta$ (H)-hopane to  $C_{30}$  17 $\alpha$ (H),21 $\beta$ (H)-hopane (H29/H30), the ratio of  $C_{23}$  tricyclic terpane to  $C_{23}$  tri-

cyclic terpane and C<sub>24</sub> tetracyclic terpanes (C23/(C23 + C24t)), the ratio of gammacerane/C<sub>30</sub> 17 $\alpha$ (H),21 $\beta$ (H)-hopane (Gam/H30), and the ratio of tricyclic terpanes/17 $\alpha$ -hopane (C23/H30) (Peters et al., 2005). These source-related biomarker parameters are based on the ratios of adjacent homologues or on compounds with similar structures and levels of thermal stability. The ratios of C23/(C23 + C24t), Gam/H30, and H29/H30 were not significantly changed by S-additives at 300 °C anhydrous or hydrous pyrolysis (Table 5 and Fig. 7). However, Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and S<sup>0</sup> added to 300 °C hydrous pyrolysis led to significantly higher C23/H30 values, and C23/H30 showed further variation between the different experiments (Fig. 7). The C23/H30 ratio is based on two biomarkers with quite different levels of thermal stability (Seifert and Moldowan, 1979; Peters et al., 2005), and thus is sensitive to differences in cracking reactions.

The distribution of TAS has also proved useful in determining the oil-to-source correlation between severely biodegraded oils



**Fig. 5.** The variations of RAVRs of triaromatic sterane biomarkers in pyrolysates (under both the anhydrous and hydrous conditions) with various additives at  $300 \,^{\circ}$ C and  $330 \,^{\circ}$ C.

and source rocks of similar thermal maturity (Peters et al., 2005). From Fig. 8, it is clear that the presence of elemental sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals had negligible impact on the distribution of TAS under these pyrolysis conditions. This means that although the presence of elemental sulfur and sulfur-bearing minerals have significant effects on the absolute concentration of TAS (Fig. 5), they do not significantly change their relative distributions.

#### 3.3.2. Maturity-related biomarker parameters

Most of the maturity-related biomarker parameters are based on hydrocarbon isomerization (rearrangement) or thermal cracking (including aromatization) reactions (Peters et al., 2005). Based on the isomerization of  $17\alpha$ -hopanes at C-22, the 22S/(22S + 22R)homohopane isomerization ratio for  $C_{31}$ - $C_{35}$  hopanes is commonly used to access the thermal maturity of crude oil and source rocks (Peters et al., 2005). The C29 sterane isomer ratios of C29-BB/(BB+  $\alpha \alpha$ ) and C29-20S/(20S + 20R) (the isomerization of regular steranes at C-20) also serve as useful maturity-related biomarker parameters. The rearrangement occurs only when the cleavage and renewed formation of bonds produces an inverted configuration relative to the starting asymmetric centre. Intramolecular rearrangements of hydrogen or alkyl groups can also form and are important for the formation of biomarkers such as diasteranes (rearranged steranes) and Ts (the rearranged product of Tm). The ratios of diasteranes/sterane and Ts/Tm are also commonly used for maturity assessments (McKirdy et al., 1983; Rullkötter et al., 1985). Here, the ratio of  $C_{27}$  cholestane to  $C_{27}$  diacholestane  $(C_{27}-\beta \alpha R/C_{27}-\alpha \alpha R)$  for all pyrolysis experiments was calculated and compared as diasteranes/sterane ratio. Previous researchers have shown that diginane and 20-methyldiginane may originate from the thermal cracking of C<sub>27</sub>-C<sub>29</sub> regular steroids (Huang et al., 1994; Abbott et al., 1995). A recent work by Wang et al. (2015) further suggests that diginane, 20-methyldiginane and higher C23-C26 20-n-alkylpregnanes are the cracking products of steroids that are bound to kerogen. This means that the ratio of (diginane to 20-methyldiginane)/ $C_{27}$ - $C_{29}$  regular steranes

#### Table 6

Absolute concentrations ( $\mu g/g$ ) of aromatic biomarker from the pyrolysates of bitumen with various additives at different temperatures (anhydrous conditions)

	、 、								1	· · · · ·						
Biomarkers	300 °C					330 °C					350 °C					
	N	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	N	S20	Fe1	Fe2	Fe3	N	S20	S50	S100		
Phenanthrene	s															
MP	164.7	199.1	184.0	171.7 ± 8.2	146.1	141.9 ± 8.1	124.5	126.2	159.4 ± 4.7	130.6	192.0	168.4	30.6	1.0		
3-MP	68.9	70.3	62.8	60.1 ± 2.7	55.1	57.3 ± 3.3	44.0	51.4	52.7 ± 2.2	47.2	72.2	67.7	6.0	0.2		
2-MP	57.3	59.9	61.1	53.9 ± 2.5	47.5	54.6 ± 3.5	40.4	45.4	55.4 ± 3.2	42.6	75.3	61.8	7.6	0.3		
9-MP	139.1	148.6	155.2	146.3 ± 6.2	112.4	120.8 ± 7.9	89.8	113.1	120.7 ± 4.9	105.2	144.9	129.3	16.6	0.4		
1-MP	84.6	100.0	89.3	81.3 ± 4.2	73.2	$84.6 \pm 4.4$	57.7	69.3	86.7 ± 2.2	69.1	111.8	97.7	11.3	0.3		
Total	514.7	577.9	552.4	513.3	434.3	471.5	356.4	405.3	481.1	394.7	596.3	524.9	72.1	2.2		
Dibenzothioph	ienes															
DBT	377.3	383.0	302.8	321.3 ± 14.7	273.4	239.8 ± 9.20	235.1	247.1	281.2 ± 18.7	231.3	343.8	315.8	50.7	-		
4-MDBT	249.0	280.3	248.0	245.4 ± 17.9	208.3	215.9 ± 8.4	173.2	179.3	212.6 ± 7.3	179.7	276.1	239.9	45.4	-		
2,3-MDBT	200.4	209.2	208.8	178.9 ± 20.7	172.2	161.3 ± 6.5	136.5	140.0	148.3 ± 11.9	134.8	208.9	200.2	24.6	-		
1-MDBT	124.5	152.1	129.5	120.5 ± 3.9	108.5	100.2 ± 3.1	91.6	90.1	105.6 ± 6.5	86.1	138.3	129.3	25.5	-		
Total	951.2	1024.6	889.2	866.1	762.4	727.2	636.4	656.5	780.4	631.9	967.1	885.2	146.2	0.0		
Triaromatic Si	teranes															
1TA20	4.2	4.7	5.4	$6.4 \pm 0.2$	4.5	$3.0 \pm 0.2$	1.6	3.4	$3.4 \pm 0.1$	3.0	-	-	-	-		
2TA21	3.3	3.3	4.7	$4.7 \pm 0.3$	3.2	$1.9 \pm 0.1$	0.6	2.0	$1.9 \pm 0.1$	1.2	-	-	-	-		
3TA26	0.6	0.6	0.7	$1.0 \pm 0.2$	0.7	$0.2 \pm 0.1$	0.0	0.3	$0.2 \pm 0.1$	0.1	-	-	-	-		
4TA26 + 27	1.7	1.3	2.3	$2.2 \pm 0.4$	1.4	$0.4 \pm 0.1$	0.1	0.6	$0.4 \pm 0.1$	0.2	-	-	-	-		
5TA28	1.5	0.9	2.0	2.3 ± 0.3	1.3	$0.4 \pm 0.1$	0.0	0.5	$0.4 \pm 0.1$	0.1	-	-	-	-		
6TA27	0.9	0.5	1.3	$1.5 \pm 0.1$	0.6	$0.2 \pm 0.1$	-	0.2	$0.2 \pm 0.1$	0.0	-	-	-	-		
7TA28	1.3	0.7	1.7	$1.9 \pm 0.2$	0.8	$0.2 \pm 0.1$	-	0.3	$0.2 \pm 0.1$	0.1	-	-	-	-		
Total	13.6	12.0	18.2	20.0	12.4	$6.3 \pm 0.4$	2.3	7.3	$6.6 \pm 0.3$	4.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		



Fig. 6. Sterane ternary diagram of  $C_{27}$ - $C_{29}$  20R  $\alpha\alpha\alpha$ -steranes in the pyrolysates (under both the anhydrous and hydrous conditions) with various additives at various temperatures.



Fig. 7. Comparison of source-related biomarker parameters based on saturated hydrocarbons in the thermal altered bitumens plus various additives at different temperatures (under both the anhydrous and hydrous conditions).



Fig. 8. The distribution of triaromatic steroid biomarkers in thermally altered bitumens plus different additives at various temperatures (under both anhydrous and hydrous conditions).

(12 peaks) ((S21 + S22)/ $C_{27}$ - $C_{29}$  regs) may reflect the cracking of regular steranes.

Fig. 9 compares the maturity-related biomarker parameters of several sterane and hopane hydrocarbons obtained with the different S-additives and at different pyrolysis temperatures and H<sub>2</sub>O. The S-additives had little effect on the isomerization ratios (C29- $\beta\beta/(\beta\beta+\alpha\alpha)$ , C29-20S/(20S + 20R), and H31-22S/(22S + 22R)) (Fig. 9), but, the presence of water did lead to consistently changed values. For example, the ratio of C29-20S/(20S + 20R) ranged from 0.47 to 0.53 for all of the anhydrous experiments conducted at 300 °C but reduced to 0.44 to 0.46 for the hydrous experiments conducted at 300 °C (Table 5 and Fig. 9).

The ratios of  $(S21 + S22)/C_{27}-C_{29}$  regs,  $C27d\beta\alpha R/C27\alpha\alpha\alpha R$ , and Ts/Tm did show some variance with the different S-additives (Fig. 9). These three ratios presented very similar trends of evolution.  $(S21 + S22)/C_{27}-C_{29}$  regs, from anhydrous 300 °C pyrolysis was 0.37, but it increased to 0.48 to 0.55 with addition of the sulfur-bearing minerals (Table 5 and Fig. 9). At 330 °C, the Sadditives had a greater effect. Anhydrous 330 °C values of (S21 + S22)/C<sub>27</sub>-C<sub>29</sub>regs for bitumen alone was 0.54, which sharply increased to 0.59 to 0.73 when sulfur-bearing minerals were present. A similar trend was observed with hydrous pyrolysis, which at 300 °C gave  $(S21 + S22)/C_{27}-C_{29}$  regs values which ranged from 0.42 to 0.82 (compared to 0.37 to 0.55 for anhydrous conditions). Meanwhile, all maturity-related biomarker parameters could not be calculated from our hydrous pyrolysis experiments of Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and S<sup>0</sup> at 330 °C. The general degradation of these products with hydrous 330 °C pyrolysis prevented the calculation of many of the biomarker ratios shown in Fig. 9.

In summary, at anhydrous and hydrous pyrolysis temperatures of 300 °C (Easy Ro: 0.70%), pyrite, the form of sulfur commonly found in source rocks, had almost no effect on the evolution of thermally sensitive biomarkers. On the other hand, the presence of  $SO_4^{2-}$  (FeSO<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>) and S<sup>0</sup> changed the source-related and maturity-related biomarker concentration and their distributions. The extent of the biomarker degradation was sensitive to the S-additives and the presence or not of H<sub>2</sub>O. Under anhydrous conditions, elemental sulfur and metal sulfate had little effect at low thermal maturity stages (Easy Ro < 0.87%, pyrolysis temperature = 300 °C). When the Easy Ro reached 0.87% (330 °C pyrolysis), elemental sulfur and metal sulfate had a significant effect on relative biomarker abundance, yet some biomarker parameters still proved useful for oil-source correlations (e.g., C23/(C23 + C24t), H29/H30, Gam/H30 and TAS biomarkers). With water being present, elemental sulfur and metal sulfate had a significant effect on the evolution of these biomarkers even at the beginning of oil generative window (Easy Ro = 0.7%) and continued to influence their distributions to quite high maturities.

#### 3.4. Geological significance

The applications of biomarkers to organic geochemistry are based on the principle that certain characteristics of biomarkers in migrated oil (reservoir stratum) do not differ significantly from remaining bitumen in the potential source rock and most sourcerelated biomarker parameters are very stable in oil generative windows. This study further shows that the biomarker characteristics of source rocks may be altered by co-occurring sulfur and metal sulfates in oil generative windows. Although pyrite was only found to have a minor influence on the thermal evolution of the biomarkers, elemental sulfur and metal sulfate both significantly altered the bio-



Fig. 9. Comparison of maturity-related biomarker parameters based on the saturated hydrocarbons in the thermally altered bitumens plus various additives at different temperatures (under both anhydrous and hydrous conditions).

marker concentrations and distributions obtained during pyrolysis at 300–350 °C (in the oil generative window). The presence of elemental sulfur in kerogen has previously been shown to significantly alter the thermally generated biomarkers from kerogen (Abbott et al., 1985; Comet et al., 1986, Wu and Geng, 2016). This emphasizes the importance of conducting oil-source rock correlations on oil samples and source rocks of similar thermal maturity and free of mineral influences. However, in many cases, available source rock candidates are of either higher or lower maturity than the oil sample. Hydrous pyrolysis (Lewan, 1985; Lewan et al., 1986) has been used to artificially increase the maturity of immature rocks (e.g., Peters et al., 1990; Moldowan et al., 1992).

Our current data has showed the catalytic effects of different forms of sulfur on the thermal evolution of biomarkers can be quite significant during hydrous (and anhydrous) pyrolysis at 300-350 °C which is equivalent to the oil generative window. This effect can increase with the relative abundance (compared to TOC) of sulfur-bearing minerals or elemental sulfur. Geological conditions of sulfur-bearing minerals can vary over a wide range and thus their impact on the hydrocarbon biomarker composition of sedimentary OM will also vary widely. Clay minerals and carbonate can also catalyze the physiochemical reaction of biomarkers in sediments during the diagenesis and catagenesis stages (e.g., Tannenbaum and Kaplan, 1985; Huizinga et al., 1987a, 1987b; Lu et al., 1989; Jovančićević et al., 1992; Koopmans et al., 1998; Pan et al., 2009). Therefore, the pyrolysis of bulk source rock powders is considered to be more representative than the pyrolysis of kerogen, as it will include the influence of the mineral compositions (both clay minerals and sulfur-bearing minerals).

Many pyrolysis studies have investigated the kinetics of thermal evolution of organic matter (e.g., Lewan et al., 1986; Lu et al., 1989; Lewan, 1997; Liao et al., 2012; Wu and Geng, 2016), but few of these studies have considered the effect of clay minerals or sulfur-bearing minerals which may cohabit with sedimentary rocks. Most kerogen extractions isolate it from clay minerals and carbonates of the source rocks, so that subsequent kerogen analyses are free of mineral interference. However, sulfur and sulfurbearing minerals may still exist in kerogen matrices obtained by normal acid treatment. Their removal may require more robust treatment such as heavy liquid separation (Nabbefeld et al., 2010; Holman et al., 2014), or chemical degradation with chromous chloride (Acholla and Orr, 1993), or sodium borohydride (Saxby, 1970).

#### 4. Conclusions

The different effect of common sulfur-bearing compounds on the evolution of biomarkers in source rocks (bitumen) was measured by hydrous and anhydrous pyrolysis. The extent of the thermal alteration of biomarkers was ranked in the following order: S<sup>0</sup> > Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> > FeSO<sub>4</sub> > FeS<sub>2</sub>. FeS<sub>2</sub> had minimal effect on biomarker concentrations and distributions while SO<sup>2-</sup><sub>4</sub> (FeSO<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>) and S<sup>0</sup> significantly reduced their concentrations, and changed their distributions generated during the oil maturity window. The product alterations are due to shifts in the radical mechanisms and TSR reactions.

Our results also show that the presence of water can significantly promote the alteration effects of the different sulfur forms. Under hydrous conditions (as in most common natural sedimentary environments), most source-related biomarker parameters varied with the presence of  $SO_4^{2-}$  (FeSO<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>) or S<sup>0</sup> even at the beginning of oil generative window (Easy Ro = 0.7%). Thus, reliable oil-source rock correlations should be conducted on samples of similar thermal maturity. If only an immature source rock candidate is available, the oil-source correlation based on the results from hydrous pyrolysis of source rock powders will be more reliable than the pyrolysis of kerogen. However, a kinetic investigation of kerogen free of S (i.e. with prior removal of elemental and mineral S) can facilitate the explanation of results.

This study focused on the effects of sulfur types on the thermal evolution of biomarkers in source rocks. Further study of the influence of different forms of sulfur on the thermal evolution of biomarkers in petroleum reservoirs will help to provide further knowledge of the role sulfur has on the geological fate of OM. The effect of gypsum, the dominant sulfur-bearing mineral associated with petroleum reservoirs will be of great relevance. The effect of sulfur-bearing minerals transported with migrated hydrocarbons from source rocks to reservoirs should also be considered.

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