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Sulphur isotopes as tracers of the influence of a coal-fired power plant in a Scots pine forest in Catalonia (north-eastern Spain)

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## **Abstract**

Stable sulphur isotopes and the major ionic composition were analyzed in precipitation and throughfall samples from a Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*, L.) forest near the Cercs coal-fired power plant (Catalonia, NE Spain). The study aimed at determining the sources of the sulphur deposition in this pine forest. Sulphur isotopes were also analyzed from the SO<sub>2</sub> power plant stack emissions to identify the isotopic signature of this source.

Net throughfall fluxes of sulphur (26.1 kgS/ha/yr) and nitrogen (16.3 kgN/ha/yr) were higher at this site than in other forests in Catalonia, by factors ranging 5-25 for S and 5-15 for N. By means of the S isotope analysis we confirmed that the S net throughfall fluxes were originated from dry deposition of the power plant emissions. Two potential sulphur atmospheric contributing end-members were identified: (1) natural background rainwater ( $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4</sub>= 7‰, 40 µeq/L SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration) and (2)  $SO_2$  stack emissions ( $\delta^{34}Sso_4 = -1.1\%$ , 1188  $\mu eq/L SO_4^{2-}$  concentration). By applying a two end-member mixing model, we found that during periods of low power plant activity, 3-55% of the throughfall sulphate concentrations could be attributed to the power plant emissions. For high intensity working periods, this contribution arose to 12-97%. The contribution of the power plant to bulk deposition was much lower (up to 8%).

Thus, increased understanding of the relation between emission sources and atmospheric deposition will improve the ability of land managers to protect sensitive ecosystems from atmospheric pollution.

Keywords: Sulphur isotopes, Sulphate, Throughfall, Power plant emissions

#### 1. Introduction

The deposition of atmospheric coal-derived sulphur has been found to cause environmental impacts in forested ecosystems around the globe, its main effects being the incorporation of sulphates into rainwater causing acid rain and the increase of S deposition to vegetation surfaces and soils (Novák et al., 1995).

The forest canopy constitutes an important sink for airborne material due to its large surface area (Lovett, 1994). Exposed leaves provide a surface for the deposition of particles and for gas absorption through the stomata. In particular, SO<sub>2</sub> can be absorbed, oxidized inside plant tissues, and the resulting sulphate can be removed in a process similar to leaching (Lindberg, 1992). Sulphur dioxide, apart from contributing to acidification, can yield biochemical and physiological effects on vegetation, such as the degradation of chlorophyll in leaves, damage to biological membranes and chloroplasts and reduced photosynthesis (Legge and Krupa, 2002).

Near the coal-fired power plant of Cercs (Berguedà, Catalonia) the impact of S emissions had previously been evaluated in various Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) stands at increasing distances from the emission point through the measurements of the S content in the pine needles. These studies concluded that S emissions from the power plant were responsible for tree deterioration and death in areas upwind from the power plant stack (Ferrés, 1986; Àvila, 1989).

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The Cercs power station (EnelViesgo, 160 MW) started to work in 1971. In 1985-1986 a trial, the first in Spain for environmental causes was sued against the plant administration because of the strongly negative impact of the plant emissions on forests upwind from the stack. Since then, the plant emissions have been subjected to a closer control: SO<sub>2</sub> emissions have been reduced by 50% and emitted particle material has been cut down by 70%. This has been achieved by means of the installation of electrostatic filters and using coal of lower S content (a mix of 60% of lignite of the zone, with S content of 3.1%, and 40% of coal from South Africa, with S content of 0.44%). However, despite these abatement strategies, the surroundings of the power plant are still affected by a major SO2 impact, as can be seen from the Catalan Government Air Quality monitoring program: the average SO<sub>2</sub> concentration in 4 stations around the Cercs plant (St. Corneli, St. Jordi, Vallcebre and La Nou de Berguedà) was 40,5 μg/m3, compared to 6,3 μg/m3 (n=33) in the rest of the monitoring stations around Catalonia (Data for 2002-03; Anon. 2004).

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Because of this SO2 rich climate in the area, a study was necessary to document the effects of the power plant SO2 emissions on the sulphur deposition and cycling in the surrounding forests.

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It is not easy to describe the mechanisms responsible for the sulphur impact to forests, since there are various sources of sulphur to the atmosphere. Natural sources include sea-salt-spray, biogenic emissions in the form of H<sub>2</sub>S or dimethylsulfide (DMS) and gypsipherous soil derived sulphate (Schlesinger, 1987). Anthropogenic sources are mainly due to the combustion of fossil gas and fuels in the form of oil or coal (Kellogg et al.,

111 1972). The amount of sulphur in any of the fuels depends on where and how it was formed and it may vary between a few tenths percent to 5-10% of S.

In the last decades sulphur isotopes have been widely used as a tool for distinguishing sources of sulphur in atmospheric gases and precipitation, and for gaining a better understanding of the fate of sulphur in the environment (Krouse and Grinenko, 1991; McArdle and Liss, 1995; Alewell et al., 2000). If the sulphur isotopic compositions of natural and anthropogenic sources are different and reduction-oxidation does not occur, these signatures can be used to trace the origin of sulphate. Moreover, isotopic signatures can tell us about mixing processes and so, the proportional contribution of the different sources (Adorni-Braccesi, A. et al., 1998; Soler et al., 2002; Otero and Soler, 2002). In particular, this methodology has been successfully used to identify the sources of natural and anthropogenic sulphur around coal-fired power plants (Newman and Forrest, 1991; Querol et al. 2000, Novák et al., 1995, 2000).

Here we use the ionic composition and the stable sulphur isotopic ratios of dissolved sulphate in bulk precipitation and throughfall collected at a Scots pine stand near the Cercs power plant in order to: (1) quantify the S dry deposition fluxes, and (2) identify its sources **and asses the contribution of the Cercs power plant to the forest inputs.** 

## 1.1 The study area

The study area is located in north-eastern Spain, in the Cadí massif, eastern Pyrenees, about 150 km north of Barcelona. This massif is enclosed within the Cadí thrust sheet and is composed of Cenozoic and

Mesozoic sedimentary materials (limestone, sandstone, mudstone and evaporites) (Domingo et al., 1988). The climate is humid Mediterranean with a mean annual precipitation of 925 mm. Mean annual temperature is 7.3°C with a maximum daily temperature of 35°C in July and a minimum daily temperature of –10°C in January. The area is mostly forested and the main human activity is in the sylvo-agricultural sector. Agriculture has sharply declined since the second half of the twentieth century and forest is occupying the abandoned fields (Gallart et al., 1998). The power plant is the main industrial activity of the zone and is supported by a residual coal mining industry at the region. **The stack is 122m high and 6 m wide.** 

------Figure 1-----

The Scots pine plot is at 1500 m.a.s.l in Vallcebre township, in the Llobregat river basin near its sources in the Pre-Pyrenean region. The 200m<sup>2</sup> plot is located in the Cal Parisa catchment (42° 12'N, 1° 48'E), 6.2 km to the NW of the Cercs power plant. Predominant wind direction in the area is from the S-SW, following the Llobregat river course (Fig. 1). Therefore, the study plot, albeit susceptible of contamination due to its proximity to the power plant, does not fully lie under the main direction of the plume. The forest consisted of Scots pine with sparse underlying vegetation of *Corylus avellana, Amelanchier ovalis, Juniperus communis, Buxus sempervirens*, and *Sorbus aria*. The Scots pine density was 2359 trees ha<sup>-1</sup>, mean DBH (diameter breast height) was 18 cm, mean tree height was 10.4 m, mean canopy area was 9.8 m<sup>2</sup> and mean canopy depth was 5.0 m. Mean tree age was 39 years (Oliveras and Llorens, 2001).

# 2. Methodology

## 2.1 Sampling

Rainwater samples were collected with 3 replicate continuously open collectors placed 1.5m above the ground, collecting, therefore, bulk deposition. The collectors consisted of a polyethylene funnel of 19 cm diameter connected **through a** tygon tubing to a 10L polyethylene bottle. The bottles stood inside a box to avoid light induced alteration of the collected water. A nylon sieve was placed in the funnel outlet to exclude insects and large debris from the sample. Plastic-grid extensions were attached to the funnel borders to oust birds. The bulk collector site was about 200 m apart from the pine stand.

Throughfall samples were collected with 10 throughfall collectors randomly placed inside the pine plot. The throughfall collectors consisted of a polyethylene funnel of 9 cm diameter directly attached to a 2L polyethylene bottle, both supported by a PVC tube at 1m above the ground. The collection schedule for bulk deposition and throughfall was weekly from 22 March 2000 to 31 January 2001 and monthly from 31 January 2001 to 24 August 2001.

 $SO_2$  emissions were sampled **on** the  $21^{st}$  June 2001 from the power plant stack, by means of an isocynetic probe. **This probe is specially devised so as to sample the gas flux at the same velocity as it flows from the stack.** Two replicate samples were obtained consisting each of a composite of 4 orthogonal samples at a height of 90 m in the chimney. The gas was bubbled in a  $H_2O_2$  3% solution kept at pH 4-5 with 0.01 M HClO<sub>4</sub>

to oxidize  $SO_2$  to  $SO_4^{2-}$ . A Teflon pre-weighted filter was deployed at the **probe inlet** to collect the emitted particles.

For isotopic analysis, in order to prevent sulphate reduction processes during sample collection, 10 mL of a solution with excess of  $BaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$  was added in the field **to** one of the 3 bulk deposition collectors and five of the 10 throughfall collectors, in **n** episodes. In the rest of samples,  $BaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$  was added in the laboratory. A Student t test of paired samples comparing the  $\delta^{34}S$  ratio in samples precipitated in the filed and in the laboratory indicated non significant differences between methods (Table 1).

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2.2 Analyses

The day of collection, samples were taken to the CREAF laboratory. The pH, conductivity and alkalinity were determined in unfiltered samples. pH was measured with a combined Ross electrode for low ionic strength solutions in an ORION EA 960 meter. Alkalinity was measured by a conductometric method (Golterman et al., 1978) and, when negative, by Gran titration. Before major elements analysis, bulk deposition and throughfall samples were filtered with a Millipore<sup>®</sup> filter of 0.45 μm pore size. Major anions (Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) were analysed by ionic chromatography and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> by continuous flow injection analysis at CREAF. Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> were analysed by flame emission and Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup>

by atomic absorption spectrometry at the Serveis Científico-Tècnics (Universitat de Barcelona).

The analytical quality of the data was checked with: (1) the cation/anion balance, and (2) the conductivity balance (comparing the measured conductivity with a calculated one from the concentration of all measured ions and their specific conductivity). Only 5% of bulk deposition and 11% of throughfall samples were outside an accepted 20% margin of error for the ionic balance. For the conductivity balance, the outliers were 11% of bulk deposition and 6% of throughfall samples for the same tolerance range. For the calculation of annual means, the ionic concentrations have been weighted by precipitation volume. The accuracy of the analysis was assessed by routinely participating in the European intercalibration program Aquacon-Medbas for acid rain analysis (Mosello et al., 90, Marchettto et al., 1996) with results within 10% of the expected value.

Isotopic analyses

Bulk deposition and throughfall samples, with sulphate precipitated as BaSO<sub>4</sub> during field sampling **or at the laboratory** (**Table XX**), were filtered with Millipore<sup>®</sup> filter of 3 µm pore size. Since the BaSO<sub>4</sub> could not be removed from the particulate material, the isotopic analyses were carried out with filter portions. Unused filters and filters with **throughfall particulate material collected from samples without the BaSO<sub>4</sub> precipitate** were analyzed as blanks.

The sulphate-rich solutions obtained from the SO<sub>2</sub> emissions sampling were treated in order to precipitate the sulphate as BaSO<sub>4</sub> for  $\delta^{34}$ S determinations. According to the method of Coleman and Moore (1978), 2 mL of  $H_2O_2$  were added to 100 mL of sample solution, then they were acidified with 2 mL of HCl 6M and reacted with excess of  $BaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$  6% at 90°C. Once BaSO<sub>4</sub> was precipitated, the solutions were filtered with Millipore® filter of 3 µm pore size and the collected BaSO<sub>4</sub> was cleaned with MilliQ grade water in order to remove all the chlorides. The sulphur isotope analyses were prepared at the "Mineralogia Aplicada i Medi Ambient" laboratory and performed using on-line elemental analyser (EA)continuous flow-isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) at the Serveis Científico-Tècnics (Universitat de Barcelona). The EA-IRMS consists of a Carlo Erba 1108 elemental analyser coupled by a continuous flow interface to the Finnigan Matt Delta C IRMS. The EA oxidizes all the sample compounds under a stream of helium and oxygen by flash combustion in a single oxidation-reduction quartz tube filled with oxidizing (tungsten trioxide) and reducing (elemental copper) agents at 1030 °C. Water is removed using anhydrous magnesium perchlorate and the gases enter a chromatographic column (poropak QS) for separation of SO<sub>2</sub>, which is isotopically analyzed by IRMS (Giesemann et al., 1994). The isotope ratios were calculated using the NBS-127, IAEA-S1, IAEA-S2, IAEA-S3 and internal laboratory standards. Notation is expressed in terms of  $\delta^{34}$ S per mil relative to the Vienna Canyon Diablo Troilite (VCDT) standard.

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#### 3. Results and discussion

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# 3.1 Throughfall fluxes

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The forest canopy modifies the chemistry of rainfall by absorbing or releasing nutrients. To describe the net effect of the canopy, the term Net Throughfall (defined as Net Throughfall = Throughfall – Bulk Deposition) is generally employed (Parker, 1983). Thus, negative net throughfall fluxes indicate retention at the canopy, while positive values indicate nutrient enrichment as precipitation crosses the forest canopy. This enrichment can be produced either by: (1) leaching of intracellular solutes from leaves or epiphytic vegetation, or (2) washing of dry deposition from the canopy (Parker, 1983).

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At Vallcebre, the net throughfall fluxes for all elements (except for alkalinity) were positive (Table 2). When compared to net throughfall fluxes from other forests in Catalonia, Vallcebre fluxes were higher than those reported for other sites. Because Montseny and Prades study sites are in evergreen oak (Quercus ilex L) forests, we also include throughfall data from a coniferous forest (Pinus nigra and Pinus pinaster) in southern Spain (Filabres, Almeria) to compare the Scots pine throughfall with that of other coniferous tree species. In either case, Vallcebre showed much higher positive N fluxes (16.3 kg N/ha/yr). In some of the other sites, N fluxes were negative indicating uptake at the canopy (Table 2). This **retention** is probably due to the limiting role of nitrogen in Mediterranean forests (Serrasolsas et al., 1999). We attribute the high net NO<sub>3</sub>-N and NH<sub>4</sub>-N fluxes at Vallcebre to the deposition of the NO<sub>x</sub> from power plant emissions and to the NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from the local cattle grazing activity respectively, but more research is needed to confirm this topic. For sulphate, net throughfall value at Vallcebre (26.1 kg/ha/yr) was also very high compared to that of the other sites (Table 2). At Montseny, surrogate surface experiments suggested that sulphate in throughfall was mostly due to dry deposition (Rodrigo and Àvila, 2002). Similar conclusions have been reported in the literature, both for broad-leaved or coniferous trees (Johnson and Lindberg, 1992; Lindberg et al., 1986; Mayer and Ulrich, 1977). In North America, a study of sulphur circulation in pine trees injected with <sup>35</sup>S showed that leaching only accounted for 3% of the sulphate flux in net throughfall (Garten, 1990), the main contribution being dry deposition. Furthermore, dry deposited SO<sub>2</sub> can penetrate rapidly through stomata, be oxidized inside the leaves and the resulting sulphate be released during rain events by means of a mechanism similar to leaching (Lindberg, 1992).

-----Table 2-----

Dry deposition is important at sites close to pollution sources and has been shown to decrease with distance to the source (Poikolainen and Lippo, 1995; Rodrigo et al., 2003). At Vallcebre, the power plant is probably responsible of the observed high dry deposition input of sulphate. To fully assess this assumption we investigated the sulphur isotopic signal in the stack emissions, bulk deposition and throughfall.

It has to be noticed that, despite these high anionic throughfall fluxes, at Vallcebre the net throughfall was only moderately acidic (Table 2). This was due to the simultaneous high deposition of base cations (Ca and Mg) from Saharan dust, resuspension of the calcareous soils of the surroundings, and to ammonia deposition. In terms of concentrations (in meq/L), the throughfall anionic sum ( $SO_4 = 0.28$  plus  $NO_3 = 0.10$ ) was nearly compensated by the sum of Ca (0.23) and  $NH_4$  (0.12). Therefore, the high input fluxes of  $SO_4$  and  $NO_3$  at this forest did not cause soil acidification, and tree damage was not observed. However, more work

334	is needed to determine the effect of the pollution climate around Cercs				
335	on the assimilation of S by the pine forests.				
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337	3.2 Sulphur isotopes				
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339	At Vallcebre, the bulk deposition and throughfall $\delta^{34}S$ values				
340	depended on: (1) the isotopic signal of the Cercs power plant emissions,				
341	(2) the isotopic signal of the rest of the potential sources, mostly				
342	background rainwater, and (3) the isotopic fractionation due to chemical				
343	reactions during S atmospheric transport.				
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345	Power plant SO <sub>2</sub> emissions				
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347	The $\delta^{34}S_{SO2}$ value of the gas emitted was $-2.75 \pm 0.05$ %.				
348	Determining this value is important because of the wide range of the				
349	carbon $\delta^{34}$ S signatures: -30 to +30 ‰ (Newman et al., 1991).				
350					
351	Table 2				
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353	Bulk deposition and throughfall dissolved sulphate				
354					
355	The mean $\delta^{34}S$ values in bulk deposition and throughfall (+3.3 and				
356	+0.2‰ respectively, Table 2) were within the range given for precipitation				
357	in nature (between -2.5 and +19.4 ‰; Herut et al., 1995). The range of				
358	bulk deposition $\delta^{34}S$ values at Vallcebre was similar to ranges registered at				
359	remote non-perturbed sites (Mast et al., 2001). However, its $\delta^{34}S$ volume-				
360	weighted mean value was closer to values for polluted sites: e.g. in the				
361	surroundings of the Andorra power plant, $\delta^{34}S$ values in precipitation				
362	varied between +1.2 and +3.0 % (Querol et al., 2000). Panettiere et al.				

363 (2000) reported a  $\delta^{34}$ S mean value of +3.2 ‰ (range +0.4 to +6.2 ‰) for 364 the polluted atmosphere in Bologna In heavily industrialized areas in 365 Japan, Nakai et al. (1991) found a  $\delta^{34}$ S mean value of +2.5 ‰ (range +0.5 366 to +5.5 ‰).

 $\delta^{34}$ S values in bulk deposition at Vallcebre were higher than in throughfall (Table 2), similarly as in polluted sites elsewhere (Groscheová et al., 1998; Novák et al., 1995, 2000). At sites without significant sources of S pollution in the surroundings, little  $\delta^{34}$ S differences between precipitation and throughfall have been found (Heaton et al., 1997; **Van Stempvoort, et al 1991,** Zhang et al., 1998). The decrease of  $\delta^{34}$ S in throughfall relative to bulk deposition is consistent with the hypothesis of washing dry deposited S from the power plant emissions impacted at the canopy, as the emissions signal (-2.8 ‰) was lower than that of bulk deposition (+3.3 ‰).

At Vallcebre, the decrease of S values tending towards those of the power plant emission and the fact that this trend was accelerated with the plant work intensity indicated that the plant SO2 emissions had a major role in the S throughfall inputs.

Natural sources (e.g. sea-salt sulphate, marine DMS, and crustal evaporites and gypsum) can also influence S ratios in the atmosphere, eventually affecting those of the precipitation and throughfall. Vallcebre is 82 km distant from the Mediterranean Sea and receives little marine influence as seen by the small Na input in bulk (2,2 kg/ha/yr) and dry deposition (represented by net throughfall, 1 kg/ha/yr). Further evidence of the little marine influence at Vallcebre

is given in Fig. 3 where the rainwater  $\delta^{34}S$  signal shows independence with respect to the Cl/SO4 ratio. By contrast, throughfall has a positive correlation with Cl/SO4 ratio (r= 0,60, p<0,001). The values to the left of the graph correspond to throughfall samples more influenced by the power plant while those at the right tend to the rainwater signal, representing a convergence towards wet deposition when dry deposition is small.

As for the contribution of biological S, even at sites near the sea, the phytoplankton derived DMS has been found to be a very small component of rainwater (McArdle and Liss, 1995, Wadleigh et al 1996). Terrestrial biological emissions at the Vallcebre are probably very low as its environment is formed by steep slopes on calcareous forested land providing little opportunity for microbial emissions.

Furthermore, the natural sources of S that could be invoked have very different  $\delta^{34}$ S signatures: biogenic S emissions from DMS are characterized in continental zones by a  $\delta^{34}$ S value around +10 % (Mitchell et al., 1998). The  $\delta^{34}$ S value of sulphate derived from marine aerosols is +20 % (Newman et al., 1991). **As for the crustal component**, in the study zone, Garumnian facies limestones have a low S content, represented by pyrite and organic sulphur related to coal with  $\delta^{34}$ S values lower than -10 % (Querol et al., 2000). There are also some outcrops of Keuper facies Triassic gypsum-rich materials that are characterized by values of  $\delta^{34}$ S between +10 % and +14 %.

417 -----Figure 2------

From the natural processes that can produce isotopic fractionation, only the  $SO_2$ - $SO_4^{2-}$  oxidation took place during either atmospheric transport or within canopy leaves. Taking into account that processes as dilution or canopy interaction do not affect sulphur isotopic composition (Alewell and Gehre, 1999; Heaton et al., 1997) and that the power plant was the main sulphur source, the  $\delta^{34}S$  difference between throughfall and power plant emissions should approach sulphur isotopic fractionation due to oxidation. This difference  $\Delta^{34}Sso_4^{2-}$ - $so_2 = +3\%$  ( $\alpha = 1.003$ ) agrees with the isotopic fractionation reported by various authors (Table 3).

-----Table 3-----

In Fig. 3, we present the variation in  $\delta^{34}S$  vs sulphate concentration of the precipitation and throughfall samples. In this diagram, bulk deposition samples show high isotopic variability with little changes in sulphate concentration, whereas throughfall samples show low isotopic variability with big changes in sulphate concentration. Data delineate an L-shaped distribution compatible with a mixing process between two endmember sources. The large isotopic shift could be explained as a mixing between a regional background sulphur source and the local  $SO_2$  emissions of the Cercs power plant. The background isotopic signature (bulk precipitation) around 6% approaches values reported by different authors for an external input of sulphate by long-range transport events (Otero and Soler, 2002; Querol et al., 2000).

3.3 Two end-member mixing model

A two end-member mixing model between the Cercs power plant (CPP) and the regional background (RB) is proposed based on the mass balance equation:

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$$\delta^{34} Sso_{4 \text{ (mixing)}} = \delta^{34} Sso_{4 \text{ (CPP)}} \cdot [SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)} + \delta^{34} Sso_{4 \text{ (RB)}} \cdot [SO_4^{2-}]_{(RB)}$$
 (1)

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where  $\delta^{34}Sso_{4 (CPP)}$  and  $\delta^{34}Sso_{4 (RB)}$  are the sulphur isotopic compositions of the CPP  $SO_2$  emissions and the regional background, respectively, and  $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)}$  and  $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(RB)}$  are the sulphate concentrations associated to them. The mixing model calculation requires a starting value for every parameter and a sensitivity analysis depending on parameter variations.

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Bulk deposition data from a site located 70 km to the SE of CPP was 458 taken as the regional background values, i.e.  $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(RB)} = 40.0 \mu eq/L$  and 459  $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4 (RB)</sub> = +7.2‰ (Otero and Soler, 2002). Since sulphur isotopic 460 composition and concentration measured in the CPP stack refer to SO<sub>2</sub>, 461  $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4</sub> (CPP) and [SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>] (CPP) were calculated from these empirical values 462 (Tables 2 and 4), and taking in account the parameters that can influence 463 sulphur transport from the CPP to the studied site. [SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>] (CPP) is defined as 464 the part of the emitted SO<sub>2</sub> concentration that reaches the studied site in the 465 form of sulphate: 466

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$$[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)} = [SO_4^{2-}]_{stack} \cdot \omega \cdot E \cdot [P + (1 - P) \cdot B \cdot C]$$
 (2)

469 where:

- [SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>-] <sub>stack</sub> is the sulphate concentration corresponding to [SO<sub>2</sub>] measured in the stack (Table 4).

- 472  $\omega$  is the southeast-easterly wind fraction that took place during the
- 473 studied period. According to data from the meteorological station of Sant
- 474 Jordi de Cercs,  $\omega = 0.23$ .
- E is the scavenging ratio during rain events. From Galloway et al. (1993),
- 476 this atmosphere washout factor in contaminated areas is E = 1500.
- 477 P is the SO<sub>2</sub>- SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>- oxidation rate, according to the travel time in the
- atmosphere and hours of sunshine. The distance between the CPP and the
- studied area is around 6 km, the mean wind speed is 6 km h<sup>-1</sup> and SO<sub>2</sub>-
- 480 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> oxidation rate is between 1 and 6% h<sup>-1</sup>, depending on the exposure
- 481 time (Querol et al., 2000), thus we have considered that SO<sub>2</sub> is transformed
- 482 into  $SO_4^{2-}$  at a rate of P = 0.04.
- B is the non-oxidized  $SO_2$  fraction (1-P = 0.96) that can reach the studied
- area and be dry deposited onto the canopy. A first approach is obtained by
- 485 the ratio of the linear dimension of the plot by the distance to the CPP, so

486 that B = 
$$\frac{\sqrt{200m^2}}{6000m}$$
 = 0.0023.

- 487 C is the fraction of deposited  $SO_2$  onto canopy that is oxidized inside
- stomata. According to Lindberg (1992), C = 0.6.

490 -----Table 4------

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- The  $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4</sub> (CPP) value was estimated from the  $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>2</sub> value
- 493 measured in the stack, plus the isotopic fractionation shift due to  $SO_2$
- 494 oxidation in the stack and during atmospheric transport. Taking the
- measured isotopic compositions  $\delta^{34}Sso_{2 (CPP) (g)} = -2.8\%$ ,  $\delta^{34}Sso_{4 (CPP) (particle)}$
- 496 = -2.0% and  $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4 (TR)</sub> = +0.2% (Table 4), the isotopic differences can be
- 497 calculated:

498 
$$(\Delta^{34}Sso_4-so_2)_{stack} = \delta^{34}Sso_4_{(CPP)\,(particle)} - \delta^{34}Sso_2_{(CPP)\,(g)} = +0.8\%$$

499 
$$(\Delta^{34}Sso_4-so_2)_{atmosphere} = \delta^{34}Sso_4_{(TR)} - \delta^{34}Sso_2_{(CPP)(g)} = +3.0\%$$

500 
$$(\Delta^{34}\text{Sso}_4\text{-so}_2)_{\text{stack + atmosphere}} = \frac{[(+0.8\%) + (+3.0\%)]}{2} = +1.9\%$$

so that

$$503 \qquad \delta^{34} Sso_{4~(CPP)~(g)} = \delta^{34} Sso_{2~(CPP)~(g)} + (\Delta^{34} Sso_{4} \cdot so_{2}) _{stack~+~atmosphere} = -0.9\%$$

- Weighted by both gas and particulate material sulphur contribution,
- the total sulphur isotopic signature of sulphate from the CPP is:

$$508 \quad \delta^{34} Sso_{4 (CPP)} = \left(\frac{82.6}{82.6 + 13.7}\right) \cdot \delta^{34} Sso_{4 (CPP) (g)} + \left(\frac{13.7}{82.6 + 13.7}\right) \cdot \delta^{34} Sso_{4 (CPP)}$$

$$509$$
 (particle) = -1.1%

- The starting values of the mixing model thus obtained are summarized in
- Table 5.

-----Table 5-----

The mixing model fits well with experimental data (Fig. 3), showing that throughfall samples are mainly controlled by CPP emissions, whereas bulk deposition samples are more influenced by the regional background. The sulphate contribution from the emissions of the power plant to the sulphur input in the studied site was up to 8% in bulk precipitation, whereas in throughfall samples it oscillated from 3 to 55% for low

522 intensity working periods, and from 12 to 97% for high intensity working periods. 523 524 -----Figure 3-----525 526 527 Different mixing curves between the two end-members have been calculated and plotted in order to analyze the sensitivity of the parameters 528 529 of equation (2). The mixing model response to parameter variations was as follows: 530 -  $[SO_4^{2-}]_{stack}$  and  $\omega$  values were well enclosed, because both come from 531 532 empirical measurements, but any variation of these parameters changed the mixing model, due to the linear dependence of the [SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>] (CPP) on them 533 (equation 2). With a wind fraction of 0.5, the CPP sulphate contribution 534 was reduced to the half (Fig. 4a). 535 - the mixing model was also very sensitive to the P parameter variations 536 because  $SO_4^{2-}$  availability is directly affected by the  $SO_2$  oxidation rate. For 537 instance, P values lower than 4% gave aberrant results, producing CPP 538 contributions higher than 100%. Inversely, P values next to 6% notably 539 540 reduced the percentages of the CPP contributions on throughfall samples (Fig. 4b, 4c). 541 542 - the atmosphere washout enrichment factor (E) can produce important changes of the mixing model: if E>1500, which means higher 543 contamination levels, then the CPP influence decreases; on the other hand, 544 if E<1500 (while [SO<sub>4</sub>] stack and ω take the empirical values), then P must 545 be higher than 4% in order to obtain reasonable estimations of the mixing 546 model (Fig. 4d). 547

- the mixing model was sensitive to B variations only considering distances lower than the distance between the CPP and the experimental plot, but this case makes nonsense. On the other hand, for distances higher than the distance between the CPP and the experimental plot, the mixing model hardly changed.

- C variations were not reflected on the mixing model as this parameter is minimized by the B parameter.

556 -----Figure 4------

#### **Conclusions**

This study shows the usefulness of combining elemental and isotopic geochemistry to trace the origin of sulphur in a rural forested area near a coal-fired power plant. The net throughfall fluxes for N and S were very high, although they did not cause net throughfall acidification because of the neutralizing effect of base cations and ammonia deposition. Sulphur and nitrogen net fluxes were attributed to dry deposition. The role of the power plant in this deposition was evaluated with the analysis of  $\delta^{34}$ S of precipitaton and throughfall. This analysis identified two main sources of dissolved sulphate: the power plant SO<sub>2</sub> emissions ( $\delta^{34}$ S = -2.8‰) and a regional background sulphur source ( $\delta^{34}$ S around +6-7‰).

According to the calculated mixing model, the sulphate contribution from the power plant emissions was more important in throughfall than in bulk deposition samples: only accounted for a maximum 8% in bulk precipitation, while for throughfall samples it oscillated from 3 to 55% for

low intensity power plant working periods, and from 12 to 97% for high intensity working periods. The mixing model was very sensitive to parameters directly related to the amount of sulphate such as  $[SO_4^{\ 2^-}]_{(CPP)}$  and  $\omega$  (SE-E wind fraction), whose values were well determined. E (scavenging ratio) and P  $(SO_2\text{-}SO_4^{\ 2^-})$  oxidation rate) parameter values showed some uncertainty and the mixing model was very sensitive to their variations. Thus, semiquantifying the contribution of the  $SO_2$  emissions is mainly subjected to the characterization of atmospheric conditions. Finally, the mixing model was hardly dependant on B (non-oxidized  $SO_2$  fraction that can reach the studied area and be dry deposited onto the canopy) and C (fraction of deposited  $SO_2$  onto canopy that is oxidized inside stomata) parameter variations.

# 588 Acknowledgements

600

This study was partially financed by the CICYT projects of the Spanish 589 CGL2005-08019-C04-01, CGL2005-07543/CLI, 590 government SGR2005-933. The contribution of the Direcció General de Qualitat 591 Ambiental del Departament de Medi Ambient de la Generalitat de 592 593 Catalunya is fully acknowledged. We would like to express our gratitude to Dr. Andrés Alastuey and Dr. Xavier Querol from Institut de Ciències de 594 la Terra Jaume Almera (CSIC) for their technical support and helpful 595 596 advices. Special thanks are due to Mercè Gonzàlez and Txema Mancheño for the power plant stack sampling and to technical personnel in CREAF 597 and Dpt. Cristal·lografia, Mineralogia i Dipòsits Minerals of the 598 Universitat de Barcelona for laboratory help. 599

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# **Tables**

Table 1. Comparison of the S precipitation methods.  $\delta^{34}$ S mean values (S.E) when precipitating with BaCl added in the field or at the CREAF laboratory

	mean $\delta^{34}$ S (‰)	S.E.	n.
Bulk deposition-Field	+3.67	+-0.87	4
Bulk deposition-Lab	+4.3	+-0.79	4
Throughfall-Field	+0.47	+-0.30	11
Throughfall-Lab	+0.66	+-0.28	11

Table 2. Bulk deposition at Vallcebre and net throughfall (Net throughfall = Throughfall – Bulk Deposition) at various rural forested sites in eastern and north-eastern Spain. Units in kg ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>, except for alkalinity (meq m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>) and rainfall (mm year<sup>-1</sup>). Period of study at Vallcebre: from 22 March 2000 to 24 August 2001, at Montseny from 6 June 1995 to 25 June 1996, and at Prades, from November 1991 to November 1992. Filabres, from April 1988 to September 1989. Main tree species: Vallcebre, Pinus sylvestris, Prades and Montseny, Quercus ilex, and Filabres, Pinus nigra and Pinus pinaster.

	Rainfall	Alk.	H+	Na+	K+	Ca <sup>2+</sup>	$Mg^{2+}$	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N	NO <sub>3</sub> -N	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> -S	Cl
Bulk deposition Vallcebre	975	35.3	0.01	2.2	1.8	12.8	0.8	3.6	3.0	7.3	3.5
Net Throughfall											
Vallcebre	222*	-7.2	0.09	1.4	21.8	21.7	3.6	8.7	7.6	26.1	7.3
Net Throughfall  Montseny LC <sup>1</sup>	279*	52.8	-0.99	0.1	14.8	3.1	1.6	-1.6	-1.6	1.1	5.0
Net Throughfall Montseny RP <sup>1</sup>	337*	75.0	-0.11	1.7	25.2	7.6	1.9	1.2	0.3	3.8	7.5
Net Throughfall Prades <sup>2</sup>	551*	29.6	-0.05	1.8	13.7	9.5	1.8	0.4	1.4	5.0	2.6
Net Throughfall Filabres <sup>3</sup>	-	49.8	-	4.8	11.5	19.5	3.2	-0.5	0.2	3.5	15.7

839 <sup>1</sup>Rodrigo et al. (2003), <sup>2</sup> Escarré et al. (1999), <sup>3</sup> Domingo (1991).

<sup>\*</sup> Net rainfall= Rainfall-throughfall (mm)

Table 3.  $\delta^{34}$ S mean values and ranges of the Cercs power plant (CPP) emissions, bulk deposition and throughfall (volume-weighted mean values for bulk deposition and throughfall).

	δ <sup>34</sup> S (‰)	range
SO <sub>2</sub> emissions	-2.75	-2.8 to -2.7
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> emissions (fly ash)	-1.95	-2.0 to -1.9
Bulk deposition	+3.3	+1.1 to +6.5
Throughfall	+0.2	-1.3  to  +3.8

Table 4. Isotopic difference of SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> oxidation reported by various authors. 

Author	$\Delta^{34} SSO_4^2 - SO_2$ (‰)		
Saltzman et al. (1983)	+3.0		
Newman et al. (1991)	+3.0		
Querol et al. (2000)	+2.6 - +2.8		
Novák et al. (2000)	+2.8		
Our work	+3.0		

Table 5. [SO<sub>2</sub>] emission values (mg/Nm<sup>3</sup>) (both gas and particle phases) measured in the stack, the corresponding  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentrations ( $\mu$ eq/L) and the  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentrations calculated by equation 2.

Particle

	$[SO_2]$	[SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ] <sub>stack</sub>	[SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2</sup> -] <sub>(CPP)</sub>
	mg/Nm <sup>3</sup>	μeq/L	μeq/L
Gas	2645.3	82.6	1177.5

\*The  $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)}$  associated to the particle phase has been calculated by means of:  $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)} = [SO_4^{2-}]_{stack} \cdot \omega \cdot E \cdot B$ , because the oxidation of  $SO_2$  particles mainly occurs inside the stack.

13.7

10.8\*

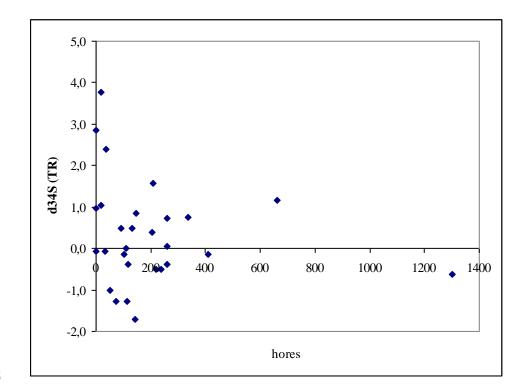
Table 6. Starting values of the mixing model. [SO<sub>4</sub>]  $_{(CPP)}$  and  $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$   $_{(CPP)}$  are the weighted mean of gas and particle contributions.

End member	[SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ]	$\delta^{34} S_{SO4}$
	μeq/L	<b>%</b> o
Regional Background (RB)	40.0	+7.2
Cercs Power Plant (CPP)	1188.3	-1.1

# 869 Figure captions 870 Fig. 1 Location of the study area and the sampling site, 6.2 km to the NW 871 of the Cercs power plant. 872 873 Fig. 2. $\delta^{34}$ S in Vallcebre pine forest throughfall vs the intensity of the 874 Cercs power plant activity, computed as working hours per day. 875 876 Fig 3. $\delta^{34}$ S in Vallcebre bulk deposition and throughfall vs. the Cl/SO4 877 ratio (in equivalents). 878 879 Fig. 3. $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4</sub> vs [SO<sub>4</sub>] diagram of bulk deposition and throughfall, with 880 the mixing model curve between the regional background ( $\delta^{34}$ Sso4 = 881 +7.2%, [SO<sub>4</sub>] = 40.0 µeg/L) and the Cercs power plant (CPP) SO<sub>2</sub> 882 emissions ( $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4</sub> = -1.1‰, [SO<sub>4</sub>] = 1188.3 µeg/L). [SO<sub>4</sub>] (CPP) has been 883 calculated considering $\omega = 0.23$ , E = 1500, P = 0.04, B = 0.0023 and C =884 0.6 in equation 2. Percentages indicate the SO<sub>4</sub> contribution from the CPP 885 according to this mixing model. 886 887 Fig. 4. $\delta^{34}$ Sso<sub>4</sub> vs [SO<sub>4</sub>] diagrams of bulk deposition and throughfall, with 888 the mixing model calculated as in Fig. 3 but changing some parameter 889 values in equation 2: (a) $\omega = 0.5$ , (b) P = 0.01, (c) P = 0.06 and (d) E =890 1000, P = 0.06. Percentages indicate the SO<sub>4</sub> contribution from the CPP 891 according to the mixing model. 892 893

894

Fig. 2



# **Fig. 3**

