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

27

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 SO₂ power plant stack emissions to identify the isotopic signature of this source.

35

Net throughfall fluxes of sulphur (26.1 kgS/ha/yr) and nitrogen (16.3 36 37 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 38 analysis we confirmed that the S net throughfall fluxes were originated 39 from dry deposition of the power plant emissions. Two potential sulphur 40 atmospheric contributing end-members were identified: (1) natural 41 background rainwater (δ^{34} Sso₄= 7‰, 40 µeq/L SO₄²⁻ concentration) and (2) 42 SO₂ stack emissions (δ^{34} Sso₄= -1.1‰, 1188 µeq/L SO₄²⁻ concentration). By 43 applying a two end-member mixing model, we found that during periods 44 45 of low power plant activity, 3-55% of the throughfall sulphate concentrations could be attributed to the power plant emissions. For high 46 47 intensity working periods, this contribution arose to 12-97%. The 48 contribution of the power plant to bulk deposition was much lower (up to 49 8%).

50

51 Thus, increased understanding of the relation between emission 52 sources and atmospheric deposition will improve the ability of land 53 managers to protect sensitive ecosystems from atmospheric pollution.

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

56

57 **1. Introduction**

58

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).

64

The forest canopy constitutes an important sink for airborne material 65 due to its large surface area (Lovett, 1994). Exposed leaves provide a 66 surface for the deposition of particles and for gas absorption through the 67 stomata. In particular, SO₂ can be absorbed, oxidized inside plant tissues, 68 and the resulting sulphate can be removed in a process similar to leaching 69 (Lindberg, 1992). Sulphur dioxide, apart from contributing to acidification, 70 can yield biochemical and physiological effects on vegetation, such as the 71 degradation of chlorophyll in leaves, damage to biological membranes and 72 73 chloroplasts and reduced photosynthesis (Legge and Krupa, 2002).

74

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).

83 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 84 sued against the plant administration because of the strongly negative 85 impact of the plant emissions on forests upwind from the stack. Since then, 86 the plant emissions have been subjected to a closer control: SO₂ emissions 87 have been reduced by 50% and emitted particle material has been cut down 88 by 70%. This has been achieved by means of the installation of 89 electrostatic filters and using coal of lower S content (a mix of 60% of 90 lignite of the zone, with S content of 3.1%, and 40% of coal from South 91 Africa, with S content of 0.44%). However, despite these abatement 92 93 strategies, the surroundings of the power plant are still affected by a major SO2 impact, as can be seen from the Catalan Government Air 94 Quality monitoring program: the average SO₂ concentration in 4 95 stations around the Cercs plant (St. Corneli, St. Jordi, Vallcebre and 96 97 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 98 99 2002-03; Anon. 2004).

100

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.

104

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_2S 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
112 how it was formed and it may vary between a few tenths percent to 5-10%
113 of S.

114

In the last decades sulphur isotopes have been widely used as a tool 115 distinguishing sources of sulphur in atmospheric gases and 116 for precipitation, and for gaining a better understanding of the fate of sulphur 117 118 in the environment (Krouse and Grinenko, 1991; McArdle and Liss, 1995; Alewell et al., 2000). If the sulphur isotopic compositions of natural and 119 anthropogenic sources are different and reduction-oxidation does not 120 occur, these signatures can be used to trace the origin of sulphate. 121 Moreover, isotopic signatures can tell us about mixing processes and so, 122 123 the proportional contribution of the different sources (Adorni-Braccesi, A. et al., 1998; Soler et al., 2002; Otero and Soler, 2002). In particular, this 124 125 methodology has been successfully used to identify the sources of natural and anthropogenic sulphur around coal-fired power plants (Newman and 126 Forrest, 1991; Querol et al. 2000, Novák et al., 1995, 2000). 127

128

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.**

134

135 *1.1 The study area*

136

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 140 evaporites) (Domingo et al., 1988). The climate is humid Mediterranean 141 with a mean annual precipitation of 925 mm. Mean annual temperature is 142 7.3°C with a maximum daily temperature of 35°C in July and a minimum 143 daily temperature of -10°C in January. The area is mostly forested and the 144 main human activity is in the sylvo-agricultural sector. Agriculture has 145 sharply declined since the second half of the twentieth century and forest is 146 occupying the abandoned fields (Gallart et al., 1998). The power plant is 147 the main industrial activity of the zone and is supported by a residual coal 148 mining industry at the region. The stack is 122m high and 6 m wide. 149

150

151 ------Figure 1------

152

The Scots pine plot is at 1500 m.a.s.l in Vallcebre township, in the 153 Llobregat river basin near its sources in the Pre-Pyrenean region. The 154 200m² plot is located in the Cal Parisa catchment (42° 12'N, 1° 48'E), 6.2 155 km to the NW of the Cercs power plant. Predominant wind direction in the 156 157 area is from the S-SW, following the Llobregat river course (Fig. 1). Therefore, the study plot, albeit susceptible of contamination due to its 158 proximity to the power plant, does not fully lie under the main direction of 159 the plume. The forest consisted of Scots pine with sparse underlying 160 vegetation of Corylus avellana, Amelanchier ovalis, Juniperus communis, 161 Buxus sempervirens, and Sorbus aria. The Scots pine density was 2359 162 trees ha⁻¹, mean DBH (diameter breast height) was 18 cm, mean tree height 163 was 10.4 m, mean canopy area was 9.8 m^2 and mean canopy depth was 5.0164 165 m. Mean tree age was 39 years (Oliveras and Llorens, 2001).

166

167 2. Methodology

171 Rainwater samples were collected with 3 replicate continuously open collectors placed 1.5m above the ground, collecting, therefore, bulk 172 deposition. The collectors consisted of a polyethylene funnel of 19 cm 173 diameter connected **through a** tygon tubing to a 10L polyethylene bottle. 174 The bottles stood inside a box to avoid light induced alteration of the 175 collected water. A nylon sieve was placed in the funnel outlet to exclude 176 insects and large debris from the sample. Plastic-grid extensions were 177 attached to the funnel borders to oust birds. The bulk collector site was 178 about 200 m apart from the pine stand. 179

180

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.

188

SO₂ 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 H₂O₂ 3% solution kept at pH 4-5 with 0.01 M HClO₄

to oxidize SO_2 to SO_4^{2-} . A Teflon pre-weighted filter was deployed at the 195 **probe inlet** to collect the emitted particles. 196

197

For isotopic analysis, in order to prevent sulphate reduction 198 processes during sample collection, 10 mL of a solution with excess of 199 $BaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ was added in the field to one of the 3 bulk deposition 200 collectors and five of the 10 throughfall collectors, in n episodes. In the 201 rest of samples, BaCl₂·2H₂O was added in the laboratory. A Student t 202 test of paired samples comparing the δ^{34} S ratio in samples precipitated 203 in the filed and in the laboratory indicated non significant differences 204 205 between methods (Table 1).

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209 2.2 Analyses

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The day of collection, samples were taken to the CREAF laboratory. 211 212 The pH, conductivity and alkalinity were determined in unfiltered samples. pH was measured with a combined Ross electrode for low ionic strength 213 solutions in an ORION EA 960 meter. Alkalinity was measured by a 214 conductometric method (Golterman et al., 1978) and, when negative, by 215 Gran titration. Before major elements analysis, bulk deposition and 216 throughfall samples were filtered with a Millipore[®] filter of 0.45 µm pore 217 size. Major anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻ and SO₄⁻²⁻) were analysed by ionic 218 chromatography and NH₄⁺ by continuous flow injection analysis at 219 CREAF. Na⁺ and K⁺ were analysed by flame emission and Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} 220

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

223

The analytical quality of the data was checked with: (1) the 224 cation/anion balance, and (2) the conductivity balance (comparing the 225 measured conductivity with a calculated one from the concentration of all 226 measured ions and their specific conductivity). Only 5% of bulk deposition 227 228 and 11% of throughfall samples were outside an accepted 20% margin of error for the ionic balance. For the conductivity balance, the outliers were 229 230 11% of bulk deposition and 6% of throughfall samples for the same tolerance range. For the calculation of annual means, the ionic 231 concentrations have been weighted by precipitation volume. The 232 accuracy of the analysis was assessed by routinely participating in the 233 234 European intercalibration program Aquacon-Medbas for acid rain analysis (Mosello et al., 90, Marchettto et al., 1996) with results within 235 236 10% of the expected value.

237

238 Isotopic analyses

239

Bulk deposition and throughfall samples, with sulphate precipitated as $BaSO_4$ during field sampling **or at the laboratory** (**Table XX**), were filtered with Millipore[®] filter of 3 µm pore size. Since the $BaSO_4$ 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_4 precipitate** were analyzed as blanks.

248 The sulphate-rich solutions obtained from the SO_2 emissions sampling were treated in order to precipitate the sulphate as BaSO₄ for δ^{34} S 249 250 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 251 acidified with 2 mL of HCl 6M and reacted with excess of $BaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ 6% 252 at 90°C. Once BaSO₄ was precipitated, the solutions were filtered with 253 Millipore® filter of 3 µm pore size and the collected BaSO₄ was cleaned 254 with MilliQ grade water in order to remove all the chlorides. The sulphur 255 isotope analyses were prepared at the "Mineralogia Aplicada i Medi 256 Ambient" laboratory and performed using on-line elemental analyser (EA)-257 continuous flow-isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) at the Serveis 258 Científico-Tècnics (Universitat de Barcelona). The EA-IRMS consists of a 259 Carlo Erba 1108 elemental analyser coupled by a continuous flow interface 260 to the Finnigan Matt Delta C IRMS. The EA oxidizes all the sample 261 262 compounds under a stream of helium and oxygen by flash combustion in a 263 single oxidation-reduction quartz tube filled with oxidizing (tungsten 264 trioxide) and reducing (elemental copper) agents at 1030 °C. Water is removed using anhydrous magnesium perchlorate and the gases enter a 265 chromatographic column (poropak QS) for separation of SO₂, which is 266 isotopically analyzed by IRMS (Giesemann et al., 1994). The isotope ratios 267 were calculated using the NBS-127, IAEA-S1, IAEA-S2, IAEA-S3 and 268 internal laboratory standards. Notation is expressed in terms of δ^{34} S per mil 269 270 relative to the Vienna Canyon Diablo Troilite (VCDT) standard.

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- 273

274 *3.1 Throughfall fluxes*

3. Results and discussion

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277 The forest canopy modifies the chemistry of rainfall by absorbing or releasing nutrients. To describe the net effect of the canopy, the term Net 278 279 Throughfall (defined as Net Throughfall = Throughfall – Bulk Deposition) is generally employed (Parker, 1983). Thus, negative net throughfall fluxes 280 281 indicate retention at the canopy, while positive values indicate nutrient enrichment as precipitation crosses the forest canopy. This enrichment can 282 be produced either by: (1) leaching of intracellular solutes from leaves or 283 284 epiphytic vegetation, or (2) washing of dry deposition from the canopy (Parker, 1983). 285

286

At Vallcebre, the net throughfall fluxes for all elements (except for 287 288 alkalinity) were positive (Table 2). When compared to net throughfall 289 fluxes from other forests in Catalonia, Vallcebre fluxes were higher than 290 those reported for other sites. Because Montseny and Prades study sites 291 are in evergreen oak (Quercus ilex L) forests, we also include throughfall data from a coniferous forest (Pinus nigra and Pinus pinaster) in southern 292 293 Spain (Filabres, Almeria) to compare the Scots pine throughfall with that 294 of other coniferous tree species. In either case, Vallcebre showed much 295 higher positive N fluxes (16.3 kg N/ha/yr). In some of the other sites, N 296 fluxes were negative indicating uptake at the canopy (Table 2). This retention is probably due to the limiting role of nitrogen in Mediterranean 297 forests (Serrasolsas et al., 1999). We attribute the high net NO₃-N and 298 NH₄-N fluxes at Vallcebre to the deposition of the NO_x from power plant 299 300 emissions and to the NH₃ emissions from the local cattle grazing activity 301 respectively, but more research is needed to confirm this topic. For 302 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 303 surface experiments suggested that sulphate in throughfall was mostly due 304 to dry deposition (Rodrigo and Àvila, 2002). Similar conclusions have 305

306 been reported in the literature, both for broad-leaved or coniferous trees (Johnson and Lindberg, 1992; Lindberg et al., 1986; Mayer and Ulrich, 307 308 1977). In North America, a study of sulphur circulation in pine trees injected with ³⁵S showed that leaching only accounted for 3% of the 309 sulphate flux in net throughfall (Garten, 1990), the main contribution being 310 dry deposition. Furthermore, dry deposited SO_2 can penetrate rapidly 311 through stomata, be oxidized inside the leaves and the resulting sulphate be 312 313 released during rain events by means of a mechanism similar to leaching (Lindberg, 1992). 314

315

316 -----Table 2-----

317

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.

324

It has to be noticed that, despite these high anionic throughfall 325 fluxes, at Vallcebre the net throughfall was only moderately acidic (Table 326 2). This was due to the simultaneous high deposition of base cations (Ca 327 and Mg) from Saharan dust, resuspension of the calcareous soils of the 328 surroundings, and to ammonia deposition. In terms of concentrations (in 329 meq/L), the throughfall anionic sum (SO₄ = 0.28 plus NO₃ = 0.10) was 330 331 nearly compensated by the sum of Ca (0.23) and NH₄ (0.12). Therefore, the high input fluxes of SO₄ and NO₃ at this forest did not cause soil 332 333 acidification, and tree damage was not observed. However, more work is needed to determine the effect of the pollution climate around Cercs
on the assimilation of S by the pine forests.

336

337 *3.2 Sulphur isotopes*

338

At Vallcebre, the bulk deposition and throughfall δ^{34} S values depended on: (1) the isotopic signal of the Cercs power plant emissions, (2) the isotopic signal of the rest of the potential sources, mostly background rainwater, and (3) the isotopic fractionation due to chemical reactions during S atmospheric transport.

344

345 *Power plant SO*₂ *emissions*

346

The $\delta^{34}S_{SO2}$ value of the gas emitted was -2.75 ± 0.05 ‰. Determining this value is important because of the wide range of the carbon $\delta^{34}S$ signatures: -30 to +30 ‰ (Newman et al., 1991).

350

351 -----Table 2-----

352

353 Bulk deposition and throughfall dissolved sulphate

354

The mean δ^{34} S values in bulk deposition and throughfall (+3.3 and 355 +0.2‰ respectively, Table 2) were within the range given for precipitation 356 in nature (between -2.5 and +19.4 %; Herut et al., 1995). The range of 357 bulk deposition δ^{34} S values at Vallcebre was similar to ranges registered at 358 remote non-perturbed sites (Mast et al., 2001). However, its δ^{34} S volume-359 weighted mean value was closer to values for polluted sites: e.g. in the 360 surroundings of the Andorra power plant, δ^{34} S values in precipitation 361 varied between +1.2 and +3.0 ‰ (Querol et al., 2000). Panettiere et al. 362

363 (2000) reported a δ^{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 δ^{34} S mean value of +2.5 ‰ (range +0.5 366 to +5.5 ‰).

367

 δ^{34} S values in bulk deposition at Vallcebre were higher than in 368 throughfall (Table 2), similarly as in polluted sites elsewhere (Groscheová 369 et al., 1998; Novák et al., 1995, 2000). At sites without significant sources 370 of S pollution in the surroundings, little δ^{34} S differences between 371 precipitation and throughfall have been found (Heaton et al., 1997; Van 372 Stempvoort, et al 1991, Zhang et al., 1998). The decrease of δ^{34} S in 373 throughfall relative to bulk deposition is consistent with the hypothesis of 374 375 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 376 377 deposition (+3.3 %).

378

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.

383

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 δ^{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.

398

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.

405

406 Furthermore, the natural sources of S that could be invoked have very different δ^{34} S signatures: biogenic S emissions from DMS are 407 characterized in continental zones by a δ^{34} S value around +10 ‰ (Mitchell 408 et al., 1998). The δ^{34} S value of sulphate derived from marine aerosols is 409 +20 ‰ (Newman et al., 1991). As for the crustal component, in the study 410 zone, Garumnian facies limestones have a low S content, represented by 411 pyrite and organic sulphur related to coal with δ^{34} S values lower than -10 412 ‰ (Querol et al., 2000). There are also some outcrops of Keuper facies 413 Triassic gypsum-rich materials that are characterized by values of $\delta^{34}S$ 414 415 between +10 ‰ and +14 ‰.

- 416
- 417 -----Figure 2-----
- 418

419	From the natural processes that can produce isotopic fractionation,
420	only the SO ₂ -SO ₄ ²⁻ oxidation took place during either atmospheric
421	transport or within canopy leaves. Taking into account that processes as
422	dilution or canopy interaction do not affect sulphur isotopic composition
423	(Alewell and Gehre, 1999; Heaton et al., 1997) and that the power plant
424	was the main sulphur source, the $\delta^{34}S$ difference between throughfall and
425	power plant emissions should approach sulphur isotopic fractionation due
426	to oxidation. This difference Δ^{34} Sso ₄ ²⁻ so ₂ = +3‰ (α = 1.003) agrees with
427	the isotopic fractionation reported by various authors (Table 3).
428	
429	Table 3
430	
431	In Fig. 3, we present the variation in δ^{34} S vs sulphate concentration
432	of the precipitation and throughfall samples. In this diagram, bulk
432 433	of the precipitation and throughfall samples. In this diagram, bulk deposition samples show high isotopic variability with little changes in
432 433 434	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
432 433 434 435	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-
432 433 434 435 436	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 end-
 432 433 434 435 436 437 	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 end- member sources. The large isotopic shift could be explained as a mixing
432 433 434 435 436 437 438	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 end-member sources. The large isotopic shift could be explained as a mixing between a regional background sulphur source and the local SO ₂ emissions
 432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 	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 end- member 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
 432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 440 	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 end- member 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
 432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 440 441 	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 end-member 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

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:

449

450
$$\delta^{34} Sso_{4 \text{ (mixing)}} = \delta^{34} Sso_{4 \text{ (CPP)}} \cdot [SO_{4}^{2-}]_{(CPP)} + \delta^{34} Sso_{4 \text{ (RB)}} \cdot [SO_{4}^{2-}]_{(RB)}$$
 (1)

451

452 where δ^{34} Sso_{4 (CPP)} and δ^{34} Sso_{4 (RB)} are the sulphur isotopic compositions of 453 the CPP SO₂ emissions and the regional background, respectively, and 454 [SO₄²⁻] _(CPP) and [SO₄²⁻] _(RB) are the sulphate concentrations associated to 455 them. The mixing model calculation requires a starting value for every 456 parameter and a sensitivity analysis depending on parameter variations.

457

Bulk deposition data from a site located 70 km to the SE of CPP was 458 taken as the regional background values, i.e. $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(BB)} = 40.0 \ \mu eq/L$ and 459 δ^{34} Sso_{4 (RB)} = +7.2‰ (Otero and Soler, 2002). Since sulphur isotopic 460 composition and concentration measured in the CPP stack refer to SO₂, 461 δ^{34} Sso₄ (CPP) and [SO₄²⁻] (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. $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)}$ is defined as 464 the part of the emitted SO₂ concentration that reaches the studied site in the 465 form of sulphate: 466

467

468
$$[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)} = [SO_4^{2-}]_{stack} \cdot \omega \cdot E \cdot [P + (1-P) \cdot B \cdot C]$$
(2)

469 where:

470 - $[SO_4^{2-}]_{stack}$ is the sulphate concentration corresponding to $[SO_2]$ measured 471 in the stack (Table 4). 472 - ω 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, $\omega = 0.23$.

- 475 *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 SO₂- SO₄²⁻ oxidation rate, according to the travel time in the 478 atmosphere and hours of sunshine. The distance between the CPP and the 479 studied area is around 6 km, the mean wind speed is 6 km h⁻¹ and SO₂-480 SO₄²⁻ oxidation rate is between 1 and 6% h⁻¹, depending on the exposure 481 time (Querol et al., 2000), thus we have considered that SO₂ is transformed 482 into SO₄²⁻ at a rate of P = 0.04.
- 483 *B* is the non-oxidized SO_2 fraction (1-P = 0.96) that can reach the studied 484 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
$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{\sqrt{200m^2}}{6000m} = 0.0023.$$

487 - *C* is the fraction of deposited SO_2 onto canopy that is oxidized inside 488 stomata. According to Lindberg (1992), C = 0.6.

489

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

491

The δ^{34} Sso_{4 (CPP)} value was estimated from the δ^{34} Sso₂ value measured in the stack, plus the isotopic fractionation shift due to SO₂ oxidation in the stack and during atmospheric transport. Taking the measured isotopic compositions δ^{34} Sso_{2 (CPP) (g)} = -2.8‰, δ^{34} Sso_{4 (CPP) (particle)} = -2.0‰ and δ^{34} Sso_{4 (TR)} = +0.2‰ (Table 4), the isotopic differences can be calculated:

498
$$(\Delta^{34}Sso_4-so_2)_{stack} = \delta^{34}Sso_{4 (CPP) (particle)} - \delta^{34}Sso_{2 (CPP) (g)} = +0.8\%$$

499
$$(\Delta^{34}Sso_4-so_2)_{\text{atmosphere}} = \delta^{34}Sso_{4 (TR)} - \delta^{34}Sso_{2 (CPP)(g)} = +3.0\%$$

500
$$(\Delta^{34}$$
Sso₄-so₂)_{stack + atmosphere} = $\frac{[(+0.8\%) + (+3.0\%)]}{2} = +1.9\%$

501 so that

502

503
$$\delta^{34}$$
SSO₄ (CPP) (g) = δ^{34} SSO₂ (CPP) (g) + (Δ^{34} SSO₄-SO₂) _{stack + atmosphere} = -0.9‰

504

505 Weighted by both gas and particulate material sulphur contribution, 506 the total sulphur isotopic signature of sulphate from the CPP is:

507

508
$$\delta^{34}$$
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‰

510

511 The starting values of the mixing model thus obtained are summarized in512 Table 5.

513

514 -----Table 5-----

515

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 intensity working periods, and from 12 to 97% for high intensity workingperiods.

524

525 -----Figure 3-----

526

527 Different mixing curves between the two end-members have been 528 calculated and plotted in order to analyze the sensitivity of the parameters 529 of equation (2). The mixing model response to parameter variations was as 530 follows:

531 - $[SO_4^{2-}]_{stack}$ and ω values were well enclosed, because both come from 532 empirical measurements, but any variation of these parameters changed the 533 mixing model, due to the linear dependence of the $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)}$ on them 534 (equation 2). With a wind fraction of 0.5, the CPP sulphate contribution 535 was reduced to the half (Fig. 4a).

- the mixing model was also very sensitive to the P parameter variations because SO_4^{2-} availability is directly affected by the SO_2 oxidation rate. For instance, P values lower than 4% gave aberrant results, producing CPP contributions higher than 100%. Inversely, P values next to 6% notably reduced the percentages of the CPP contributions on throughfall samples (Fig. 4b, 4c).

542 - the atmosphere washout enrichment factor (E) can produce important 543 changes of the mixing model: if E>1500, which means higher 544 contamination levels, then the CPP influence decreases; on the other hand, 545 if E<1500 (while [SO₄] _{stack} and ω take the empirical values), then P must 546 be higher than 4% in order to obtain reasonable estimations of the mixing 547 model (Fig. 4d). 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.

553 - C variations were not reflected on the mixing model as this parameter is554 minimized by the B parameter.

555

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

557

558 Conclusions

559

This study shows the usefulness of combining elemental and 560 isotopic geochemistry to trace the origin of sulphur in a rural forested area 561 562 near a coal-fired power plant. The net throughfall fluxes for N and S were 563 very high, although they did not cause net throughfall acidification because of the neutralizing effect of base cations and ammonia deposition. Sulphur 564 and nitrogen net fluxes were attributed to dry deposition. The role of the 565 power plant in this deposition was evaluated with the analysis of δ^{34} S of 566 precipitaton and throughfall. This analysis identified two main sources of 567 dissolved sulphate: the power plant SO₂ emissions (δ^{34} S = -2.8‰) and a 568 regional background sulphur source (δ^{34} S around +6-7‰). 569

570

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 575 intensity working periods. The mixing model was very sensitive to 576 parameters directly related to the amount of sulphate such as $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)}$ 577 and ω (SE-E wind fraction), whose values were well determined. E 578 (scavenging ratio) and P (SO_2 - SO_4^{2-} oxidation rate) parameter values 579 showed some uncertainty and the mixing model was very sensitive to their 580 variations. Thus, semiquantifying the contribution of the SO₂ emissions is 581 mainly subjected to the characterization of atmospheric conditions. Finally, 582 the mixing model was hardly dependent on B (non-oxidized SO₂ fraction 583 that can reach the studied area and be dry deposited onto the canopy) and C 584 (fraction of deposited SO_2 onto canopy that is oxidized inside stomata) 585 parameter variations. 586

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Tables

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

	mean δ^{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

827	Table 2. Bulk deposition at Vallcebre and net throughfall (Net throughfall
828	= Throughfall – Bulk Deposition) at various rural forested sites in eastern
829	and north-eastern Spain. Units in kg ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹ , except for alkalinity (meq
830	m ⁻² year ⁻¹) and rainfall (mm year ⁻¹). Period of study at Vallcebre: from 22
831	March 2000 to 24 August 2001, at Montseny from 6 June 1995 to 25 June
832	1996, and at Prades, from November 1991 to November 1992. Filabres,
833	from April 1988 to September 1989. Main tree species: Vallcebre, Pinus
834	sylvestris, Prades and Montseny, Quercus ilex, and Filabres, Pinus nigra
835	and Pinus pinaster.

	Rainfall	Alk.	H+	Na+	K+	Ca ²⁺	Mg^{2+}	NH_4^+-N	NO ₃ ⁻ -N	SO ₄ ²⁻ -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	270*	52 0	0.00	0.1	140	2 1	16	16	16	1.1	5.0
Montseny LC ¹	219*	32.8	-0.99	0.1	14.8	5.1	1.0	-1.0	-1.0	1.1	3.0
Net Throughfall	227*	75.0	0.11	17	25.2	76	1.0	1.2	0.2	2.0	75
Montseny RP ¹	557*	75.0	-0.11	1.7	23.2	7.0	1.9	1.2	0.5	5.8	1.5
Net Throughfall	551*	20.6	0.05	1 0	127	0.5	1 0	0.4	1 /	5.0	26
Prades ²	551*	29.0	-0.03	1.8	15.7	9.5	1.8	0.4	1.4	5.0	2.0
Net Throughfall Filabres ³	-	49.8	-	4.8	11.5	19.5	3.2	-0.5	0.2	3.5	15.7

¹Rodrigo et al. (2003), ²Escarré et al. (1999), ³Domingo (1991). * Net rainfall= Rainfall-throughfall (mm)

839

Table 3. δ^{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 ³⁴ S (‰)	range
SO ₂ emissions	-2.75	-2.8 to -2.7
SO_4^{2-} 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_2 to SO_4^{2-} oxidation reported by various

- authors.

Author	Δ^{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. $[SO_2]$ emission values (mg/Nm³) (both gas and particle phases) measured in the stack, the corresponding SO_4^{2-} concentrations (µeq/L) and the SO_4^{2-} concentrations calculated by equation 2.

859

	[SO ₂]	[SO ₄ ²⁻] _{stack}	[SO ₄ ²⁻] _(CPP)
	mg/Nm ³	µeq/L	µeq/L
Gas	2645.3	82.6	1177.5
Particle	-	13.7	10.8*

860 *The $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)}$ associated to the particle phase has been calculated by means of: 861 $[SO_4^{2-}]_{(CPP)} = [SO_4^{2-}]_{stack} \cdot \omega \cdot E \cdot B$, because the oxidation of SO₂ particles mainly 862 occurs inside the stack.

Table 6. Starting values of the mixing model. [SO₄] (CPP) and $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ (CPP)

are the weighted mean of gas and particle contributions.

End member	[SO4 ²⁻]	$\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$
	µeq/L	%0
Regional Background (RB)	40.0	+7.2
Cercs Power Plant (CPP)	1188.3	-1.1

Figure captions

870

Fig. 1 Location of the study area and the sampling site, 6.2 km to the NWof the Cercs power plant.

873

Fig. 2. δ^{34} S in Vallcebre pine forest throughfall *vs* the intensity of the Cercs power plant activity, computed as working hours per day.

876

Fig 3. δ^{34} S in Vallcebre bulk deposition and throughfall *vs*. the Cl/SO4 ratio (in equivalents).

879

Fig. 3. δ^{34} Sso4 *vs* [SO₄] diagram of bulk deposition and throughfall, with the mixing model curve between the regional background (δ^{34} Sso4 = +7.2‰, [SO₄] = 40.0 µeq/L) and the Cercs power plant (CPP) SO₂ emissions (δ^{34} Sso4 = -1.1‰, [SO₄] = 1188.3 µeq/L). [SO₄] _(CPP) has been calculated considering ω = 0.23, E = 1500, P = 0.04, B = 0.0023 and C = 0.6 in equation 2. Percentages indicate the SO₄ contribution from the CPP according to this mixing model.

887

Fig. 4. δ^{34} Sso4 *vs* [SO₄] diagrams of bulk deposition and throughfall, with the mixing model calculated as in Fig. 3 but changing some parameter values in equation 2: (a) $\omega = 0.5$, (b) P = 0.01, (c) P = 0.06 and (d) E = 1000, P = 0.06. Percentages indicate the SO₄ contribution from the CPP according to the mixing model.

893

894

- **Fig. 2**



Fig. 3



