

# **Sulfur Isotope Anomalies (**∆ **33 S) in Urban Air Pollution Linked to Mineral-Dust-Associated Sulfate**

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#### **ABSTRACT**

 Sulfate aerosols exert a net cooling effect on the earth-atmosphere system, yet their radiative forcing remains associated with largest of uncertainties in the assessment of climate change. One of the contributing factors is the poor understanding of the sulfate formation pathways, which are 20 thought to be following mostly the mass-dependent fractionation model (i.e.,  $\Delta^{33}S \sim 0$ ). However, 21 globally, urban sulfate aerosols exhibit significant non-zero  $\Delta^{33}$ S compositions (from -0.6‰ to +0.6‰), resulting in sulfur mass-independent fractionation (S-MIF) processes. The origin(s) of 23 these S-MIF anomalies remain(s) unclear. Here, we conducted dual-isotope ( $\Delta^{33}$ S,  $\delta^{34}$ S) probing of sulfate aerosols from summertime megacity Delhi in South Asia. A shift towards concomitantly 25 high  $\Delta^{33}$ S (from +0.2‰ to +0.5‰) and low  $\delta^{34}$ S (from +5‰ to +1‰) values was observed with the influx of mineral dust. The Fe-to-Al tracershowed significant correlations with sulfate loadings 27 ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ =0.84) and  $\Delta^{33}$ S signatures ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ =0.77). As such, we postulate that the SO<sub>2</sub> photo-oxidation on 28 mineral dust generates S-MIF anomaly  $\sim +0.35\pm0.10\%$ , thereby also explaining the previously 29 observed  $\Delta^{33}$ S values worldwide. Together, the findings help deconvolute S-isotope dynamics in urban regions wherein, contrary to prevailing paradigm, non-anthropogenic factor (i.e., mineral dust) is found to influence the aerosol sulfate-induced pollution affecting air quality/human health.

#### **SYNOPSIS**

 Sulfate-related pollution in urban regions—affecting air quality/human health—could be linked to non-anthropogenic factor i.e., mineral dust.

#### 35 **INTRODUCTION**

36 Sulfur (S) is one of the essential elements for life. The sulfur biogeochemical cycle 37 contributes to controlling the redox state of Earth's surface and links the atmosphere, biosphere, hydrosphere, and the lithosphere<sup>1</sup>. Yet, the sulfur cycle is massively disrupted by human activities<sup>1-</sup> 38 39 <sup>3</sup>. The majority of natural and anthropogenic S is released directly as  $SO_2$  (gas) or oxidized into 40 SO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere<sup>2</sup>. On a global scale,  $\sim$ 50% of SO<sub>2</sub> (natural and anthropogenically emitted) 41 is oxidized to sulfate while the rest is lost to dry and wet scavenging<sup>3</sup>. The pathway taken by  $SO_2$ 42 to form sulfate has major implications for both the radiative effects and the environment— in gas-43 phase reactions occurring predominantly with hydroxyl radicals (OH), the end-product sulfuric 44 acid (g) leads to new particle formations eventually altering the cloud albedo and lifetime<sup>4</sup>. In the 45 heterogenous phase reactions occurring primarily in cloud droplets via several oxidants, the major 46 ones being  $O_2$ +TMI (Transition Metal Ion),  $H_2O_2$ ,  $O_3$  and NO<sub>2</sub>, the end-product sulfate particles 47 contribute towards modifying the aerosol size distribution and cloud condensation nuclei activity<sup>5</sup>. 48 On a global scale, the sulfate aerosols contribute to a negative effective radiative forcing (ERF) of 49  $-0.90$  ( $-0.24$  to  $-1.56$ ) W m<sup>-2</sup> (IPCC, 2021). As such, the net cooling effect of sulfate aerosols 50 partially counteracts the warming effects of greenhouse gases (e.g.,  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$ )<sup>3,6</sup>. However, the 51 magnitude and expected future changes in sulfate aerosol radiative forcing remains one of the 52 largest uncertainties associated with assessments of climate change<sup>6</sup>.

53 To this end, S-isotope geochemistry can be used towards addressing these uncertainties as 54 it provides powerful information for deconvolution of both emission sources and atmospheric 55 processes<sup>7-9</sup>. Sulfur has four stable isotopes,  ${}^{32}S$ ,  ${}^{33}S$ ,  ${}^{34}S$  and  ${}^{36}S$  whose natural abundances are 56 approximately 95%, 0.75%, 4.2% and 0.015%, respectively<sup>10,11</sup>. The S-stable isotopes undergo 57 fractionation during kinetic and equilibrium reactions which causes the reactant  $(SO<sub>2</sub>)$  and the 58 product (sulfate) to have distinct isotope compositions<sup>12,13</sup>. In general, the isotope ratios of any two 59 isotopes can be scaled to each other based on the mass i.e., "mass dependent fractionation (MDF)" 60 model<sup>9</sup>. More specifically, the fractionation factors determined for MDF processes follow a 61 relation <sup>3y</sup><sub>a</sub>=(<sup>34</sup>a)<sup>3y*b*</sup> wherein <sup>3y</sup><sub>a</sub> could be <sup>33</sup><sub>a</sub> or <sup>36</sup><sub>a</sub> and <sup>3y</sup><sub>*b*</sub> is <sup>35</sup>*b* or <sup>36</sup>*b* and the 3y*b* is the relative 62 fractionation of <sup>3y</sup>S/<sup>32</sup>S and <sup>34</sup>S/<sup>32</sup>S<sup>13</sup>. The <sup>33</sup>b and <sup>36</sup>b values were experimentally determined to be  $63$  0.515 and 1.889<sup>14</sup>. Any deviation from this relationship implies the occurrence of "Mass" 64 Independent Fractionation (MIF)<sup>"15</sup>. The S-MIF is expressed as  $\Delta^{33}S = (\delta^{33}S + 1) - (\delta^{34}S + 1)^{0.515}$ 65 and  $\Delta^{36}S = (\delta^{36}S + 1) - (\delta^{34}S + 1)^{1.889}$ . Considerable debate exists in the interpretation of S-MIF 66 signals observed in atmospheric aerosols from urban locations<sup>e.g.,16-18</sup>.

67 The origin of S-MIF in nature has been primarily attributed to photochemical reactions in 68 the presence of UV radiation  $-SO_2$  absorption at 190-220 nm i.e., photolysis, and  $SO_2$  absorption 69 at 250-330 nm i.e., photo-oxidation<sup>15</sup>. These mechanisms have been suggested to account for the 70 S-MIF observed in the Archean sediments as well as in modern aerosols<sup>15,17</sup>. However, to date the 71 reported S-MIF values ranging from -0.6‰ to +0.6‰ evidenced in urban aerosols from polluted 72 regions (e.g., Beijing, Montreal; Supporting Information (SI) Figure S1) have not been fully 73 explicable with the S-isotope variations in emission sources (e.g., biomass or fossil fuel 74 combustion with  $\Delta^{33}S$  upto  $\sim \pm 0.2\%$ ) or atmospheric oxidation processes (e.g., homogenous and 75 heterogenous reactions displaying  $\Delta^{33}S \sim 0\%$ <sup>16-18</sup>. While a stratospheric origin of sulfate aerosols 76 has been conceived to perpetuate  $\Delta^{33}S$  in urban aerosols<sup>17</sup>, this is not the case for all locations and 77 cannot fully resolve the signals reported worldwide<sup>16</sup>. Taken together, this invokes the necessity 78 for additional oxidation pathways or reactions to be identified for the conversion of  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  to sulfate 79 affecting the  $\Delta^{33}$ S in atmospheric aerosols<sup>16</sup>. As such, it could be a contributing factor for the 80 uncertainties associated with the radiative forcing of sulfate aerosols on a global scale, and

81 especially in one of the most polluted regions of the world with rising  $SO_2$  levels i.e., S Asia<sup>19</sup>. We 82 therefore conducted dual-isotope fingerprinting  $(\Delta^{33}S, \delta^{34}S)$  of ambient sulfate aerosols in summertime megacity Delhi in S Asia. Combining chemical, isotopic, and meteorological information enabled resolving the origin of S-MIF anomalies in one of the most polluted regions in the world.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

88 **Sampling.** Aerosol PM<sub>10</sub> samples (n=44) were collected using an Envirotech Air Pollution 89 Monitoring 550 aerosol sampler, operated at 1 m<sup>3</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup> with a sampling duration of 24 hours (sample collection started at 6 am and continued till 6 am of the next day; see SI Table S1). Sample collection was made between April-May 2021 atop a five-storey residential building in the Anand Vihar area of Delhi. The area is surrounded by parks and greenery. The sampling period covers 93 the summer season. Delhi has a semi-arid climate and summer temperatures are on average  $45\pm3$ 94  $^{\circ}$   $^{\circ}$ C<sup>20</sup>. Aerosol samples were collected on pre-combusted (450  $^{\circ}$ C for 6 h) PALLFLEX tissue quartz 95 filters (25 cm $\times$ 20 cm). Filter blanks were collected approximately three times per month. Samples 96 were stored in a freezer at  $-20$  °C prior to analysis.

 **Chemical and Isotope Measurements.** The concentration of water-soluble ions and metals, as well as the S-isotope compositions were measured using an ion chromatography Metrohm IC (Professional 850) and QQQ-ICP-MS, and a MC-ICP-MS instrument respectively. Measurements were carried out at the University of Tours (for water-soluble ions) and Centre de Recherches Pétrographiques et Géochimiques, CRPG (for S-isotopes) in France, and the Université du Québec à Montréal, UQAM (for metals) in Canada, respectively. Further details on the procedure, 103 measurements, analytical uncertainties, quality control and reproducibility are provided in SI Note 104 S1.

105

#### 106 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

107 **Summertime aerosol characteristics and multi-S-isotope compositions in S Asia.** The 108 megacity Delhi—located in the heart of the Indo-Gangetic Plain—suffers from acute air pollution 109 crisis<sup>20</sup>. High average PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations were found during the study period,  $90\pm30 \text{ }\mu\text{g/m}^3$  in 110 the months of April and  $200\pm80$   $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> in May 2021 (SI Table SI). This is attributable in general 111 to features such as several types of anthropogenic activities, collocated emission sources, location 112 and topography, population density, and socio-economic development<sup>20-22</sup>. Furthermore, long-113 range transport of dust from the adjoining Thar Desert and Arabian regions is also known to 114 contribute towards episodic dust storms and high PM levels during summer<sup>20</sup>.

115 The water-soluble inorganic ions (e.g.,  $SO_4^2$ , K<sup>+</sup>) together contributing as much as 50% to 116 the PM10 concentrations serve as tracers for combustion sources and secondary formation 117 processes<sup>20-23</sup>. Concentrations of one such component, aerosol sulfate, ranged from 1 to 23 μg/m<sup>3</sup> 118 (Figure 1a) implying a fractional contribution of upto 20% in the  $PM_{10}$  aerosols. The multi-S 119 isotope compositions from Delhi ranged from 0.5‰ to 5‰ for  $\delta^{34}S$ , from 0.2‰ to 0.5‰ for  $\Delta^{33}S$ 120 during summer of 2021 (SI Table S2). In contrast to the observations of low  $\Delta^{33}S$  (< 0.1‰) in the 121 city of Montreal and high  $\Delta^{33}S$  (~0.5‰) in its corresponding sub-rural background<sup>16</sup>, here we find 122 such higher values in the city. This however is in accordance with the finding from Beijing (i.e., E 123 Asia) where a gradient shifting from ~0‰ to positive  $\Delta^{33}$ S values (~0.5‰) has been reported 124 during the summer<sup>16,17,23</sup>. For  $\delta^{34}S$ , the values are in general lower than those reported for Montreal 125 and Beijing during summer<sup>16, 23</sup>, with values lower than 1‰ also being encountered in Delhi during 126 the latter part of the summer. A shift towards concomitantly high  $\Delta^{33}S$  and low  $\delta^{34}S$  values was 127 observed with proceeding of the summer season (Figure 1a) and could be driven by change in the 128 sources and/or atmospheric processes.

**Evaluation of plausible factors contributing to the sulfate**  $\Delta^{33}$ **S dynamics. The measurements 129** 130 of multiple S-isotope composition reported here constitute the first for S Asia. The span of the  $131 \quad \Delta^{33}$ S values in the present study is such that it cannot be explained by the model proposed by Harris 132 et al. (2013). Their model, relying upon the seasonal isotope variations induced by three major 133 oxidation pathways (OH, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>+TMI), accounts for a maximum  $\Delta^{33}$ S-value of 0.05‰ during 134 summer<sup>18</sup>. This implies that the additional  $\Delta^{33}S$  dynamics observed in summertime Delhi could 135 either be linked to changes in origin and/or possibly other chemical reactions.

136 The anthropogenic emission sources could modulate the  $\Delta^{33}$ S values<sup>17,23,24</sup>. In particular, biomass burning and/or biofuel combustion have been shown to affect the urban  $\Delta^{33}$ S signatures<sup>23</sup>. 138 However, for the summer samples, a poor correlation was found between  $\Delta^{33}S$  and K<sup>+</sup> (a tracer for 139 biomass burning) (SI Figure S2). Coal combustion was found to be a large source of aerosol sulfate 140 in Delhi based on source-apportionment using  $\delta^{34}S$  (see SI Note S2), however, lab-based studies 141 have shown both SO<sub>2</sub> and sulfate formed from coal combustion do not carry any  $\Delta^{33}S^{17}$ . Iron 142 extraction from Archean banded-iron formation (BIF) is another source of atmospheric S that 143 produces non-zero  $\Delta^{33}S^{16}$ . However, no such activities exist in and around the city<sup>20,21</sup>. Taken 144 together this suggests that anthropogenic activities do not cause the observed  $\Delta^{33}S$  isotope 145 anomalies.

146 Stratospheric intrusions have been implicated for the  $\Delta^{33}$ S observed in urban aerosols<sup>17</sup>. 147 However, HYSPLIT model-based back trajectories do not show air masses arriving from the upper 148 troposphere (> 10-15 km) to the sampling location (SI Figure S3). This is consistent with the study 149 of Lin et al. (2016) who also estimated a very low (< 1%) input of stratospheric SO<sub>4</sub> in their study<sup>25</sup>. 150 Even with such an input only upto  $+0.1\%$  of the  $\Delta^{33}S$  anomaly may be explained, but not the entire 151 range witnessed here. Furthermore, such intrusions are more common during the monsoon season 152 than during the summer season in the Indian sub-continent<sup>26</sup>, which is further corroborated by the 153 low cloud optical thickness and high cloud top pressure measurements during the summer of 2021 154 at Delhi (SI Figure S4). We therefore turn our attention to the possibility of chemical reactions/ 155 mechanisms in order to explain the origin of the  $\Delta^{33}S$  values observed in our sulfate aerosols.

156 **Linking chemical and dual S-isotope signals to deconvolute sulfate formation.** Recently, the 157 role of mineral dust in the formation of secondary aerosol sulfate has been called into contention  $16$ . 158 The mechanisms behind the formation of secondary aerosol sulfate mediated by mineral dust 159 remain elusive<sup>16,27</sup>. For instance, they may include oxidation of  $SO_2$  by the superoxide radical 160 anion formed on semi-conducting metal oxides like  $A1_2O_3$ ,  $Fe_2O_3$  and  $TiO_2$  by UV radiation, 161 oxidation by  $NO<sub>2</sub><sup>16</sup>$ . Interestingly, our chemical analyses indicate significant contributions of 162 mineral dust in the PM10 aerosols in Delhi as samples present Fe/Al ratios (i.e., the conventional 163 reference for upper continental crust)<sup>28,29</sup> from as low as 0.2 during April to as high as 1.4 during 164 May (all  $> 0.05$ ; Figure 1a), similar to the ones characterizing desert dusts (from 0.48 to 1.74)<sup>29</sup>. 165 We elected to discuss the Fe/Al ratio which is more representative of mineral dust than the  $Ca^{2+}/Al$ 166 ratio, mainly a tracer for carbonate mineral<sup>28,29</sup>.

 Higher Fe/Al ratios were observed with the progression of the summer season concomitant with the influx of mineral dust from the Thar desert in western India, as evidenced by air mass analysis and satellite data (SI Figures S3, S5). We find strong correlations between the Fe/Al ratios 170 and the sulfate loadings ( $R^2=0.84$ ) and  $\Delta^{33}$ S values ( $R^2=0.77$ ) respectively, highlighting a potential

171 link between the sulfate formation, S-isotope variations and mechanisms involving mineral dust. 172 In fact, the higher  $\Delta^{33}$ S anomalies (> 0.2‰) observed in the month of May were concomitant with 173 5-times higher loadings of mineral dust relative to those of April 2021. Taken together, this implies 174 that the low  $\Delta^{33}$ S values (< 0.2‰) are indeed not greatly affected by mineral dust contribution and 175 can be explained as arising from a combination of different sources/origins and other homogenous 176 and heterogenous oxidation pathways (upto  $\sim +0.20\%$ ) or even stratospheric intrusions<sup>17,18,23</sup>. But 177 the higher  $\Delta^{33}$ S values (as well as sulfate concentrations) observed in Delhi during summer of 2021 178 were strongly modulated by the presence of mineral dust.

179 Weak winds combined with a shallow boundary layer can lead to the contribution of high 180 fine mode resuspended road dust (whose composition remains unknown). This has been observed 181 in E Asia during the haze episodes<sup>30</sup>. However, such meteorological conditions are more 182 favourable for wintertime S Asia than summer<sup>20,22</sup>. The terrigenous sulfate source fraction ( $f_{\text{ter-S}}$ ) 183 is useful for accounting the contribution of local resuspended dust (from within the city). Here, 184 based on ratio of  $SO_4^2$ -to-Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations in regional soil to the same in sampled aerosol, we 185 accounted for the *f*ter-S in summertime Delhi samples (Figure 1c; see also Note S2). We find that 186 the  $f_{\text{ter-S}}$  decreased from 20 $\pm$ 5% on average in April to  $\leq$ 5 $\pm$ 2% during May of 2021. This decrease 187 in *fter-s* is concomitant with the increase in the Fe-to-Al ratio. This implies that influx of mineral 188 dust from nearby desert region in W India modulated the formation of aerosol sulfate and thereby 189 the observed high  $\Delta^{33}$ S values (as desert dust carries no S-MIF)<sup>16</sup> as the summer progressed. This 190 also points to the fact that the  $\delta^{34}S$  signature of mineral dust from the Thar desert might be slightly 191 Iower than that from deserts in China, Morocco, Tunisia and Jordan, with  $\delta^{34}S$  ranges between 5 192 and  $13\%$ <sup>16</sup>.

193 **Implications of mineral dust on sulfate-induced urban air pollution.** Overall, the present 194 findings suggest that  $\Delta^{33}S$  is a reliable tracer for better constraining the formation of sulfate 195 aerosols in the presence of mineral dust. Comparing with previous observations from a sub-rural 196 background site in Montreal (referred to as station 98 in Au Yang et al., 2019), we find overlapping 197 characterisites in both  $\Delta^{33}S$  and  $\delta^{34}S$  (Figure 2). Here, we conjecture that the high  $\Delta^{33}S$  values 198 recorded at station 98 are indeed explicable by the SO<sup>2</sup> photo-oxidation on mineral dust pathway 199 in line with the hypothesis by Au Yang et al. . Furthermore, with an estimated  $\Delta^{33}$ S fingerprint of  $+0.35\pm0.10\%$  for this pathway, we are able to also explain the  $\Delta^{33}$ S values previously observed in 201 other urban locations such as in E Asia (Figure 2) hinting at a plausible global significance of this 202 pathway. The implications of the findings here are twofold (i) even a small contribution from 203 mineral dust-mediated SO<sub>2</sub> photo-oxidation may have a large effect on the observed  $\Delta^{33}$ S signals 204 in aerosols, (ii) regions with low SO<sub>2</sub> production but high input of mineral dust e.g., remote oceanic  $r_{\text{regions}}^{22}$ , can still act as emission regions of sulfate aerosols, thereby affecting the aerosol 206 radiative forcing. It remains to be seen if this pathway sustains during vertical transport of  $SO<sub>2</sub>$ 207 where competing mechanisms such as aqueous phase oxidation and/or stratospheric intrusions 208 become more relevant<sup>31</sup>.

209 For South Asia, the rising  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  levels present a threat to several of the sustainable 210 development goals for the region such as access to clean air and freshwater $32,33$ . For accurate 211 predictions of future scenarios of the influence of  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  on the region it is imperative to account for 212 all sources and formation pathways of sulfate. We therefore consider that the findings here would 213 aid in that direction and contribute towards reducing the model-observation discrepancies in 214 modeling global and regional sulfate aerosol dynamics wherein the sensitivity of the simulations 215 remains highly dependent on the accounted oxidation pathways<sup>34</sup>.

**FIGURES** 



**Figure 1.** (A) Temporal changes in the sulfate concentrations,  $\Delta^{33}S$ ,  $\delta^{34}S$  and Fe/Al ratios, 220 (B) Correlation of the  $\Delta^{33}S$  signals, sulfate loadings with the influx of mineral dust (see also, SI 221 Table S1-S2, SI Figures S3-S5), (C) Calculated terrestrial sulfate fraction in the PM<sub>10</sub> samples (see

- also SI Note S2). Samples with red circles (Day 95, 113) refer to the ones collected only during
- the nighttime (6 pm to 6 am). As such, these were restricted to 12 h collections.



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**Figure 2.** Relation between  $\Delta^{33}S$  and  $\delta^{34}S$  for sulfate in Delhi PM<sub>10</sub> during sampling and their 227 comparison with aerosols collected from Beijing<sup>23</sup> and Xianghe in E Asia<sup>35</sup> and sub-rural 228 background site in Montreal, Canada<sup>16</sup>. ARA represents the Archean Reference Array based on 229 the data from Neoarchean and Paleoarchean rocks in Australia and Africa<sup>36</sup>. FVA represents the 230 felsic volcanic array<sup>37</sup>. The gray field represents experiment data from  $SO_2$  photolysis in the 231 . 190–220 nm region (Xenon arc lamp)<sup>15</sup>.

#### **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

 **Supporting Information.** Notes S1-S2 include discussions on the chemical and isotope measurements, source apportionment calculations. Figures S1-S5 include air mass analysis, satellite data-derived maps, correlations. Tables S1-S2 list the sampling details and concentrations of water-soluble ions, metals, and multiple S-isotope compositions.

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#### **Author Contributions**

- S.D. designed research and was supported by D.W., Z.C and G.P.; S.D., B.S., and G.P performed
- the chemical and isotopic measurements, respectively; All co-authors analyzed data; S.D., wrote
- the paper with input from all co-authors.

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- The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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## SO<sub>2</sub> Photo-oxidation on mineral dust surface generates S-MIF



Sulfur Mass-Dependent Fractionation : S-MDF Sulfur Mass-Independent Fractionation : S-MIF