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2 **Advancing Isotope-Enabled Model for Comprehensive Understanding of Atmospheric**  
3 **Sulfur Isotope Effects: Revealing the Overlooked Isotopic Fractionation During**  
4 **Combustion and Gas Desulfurization**

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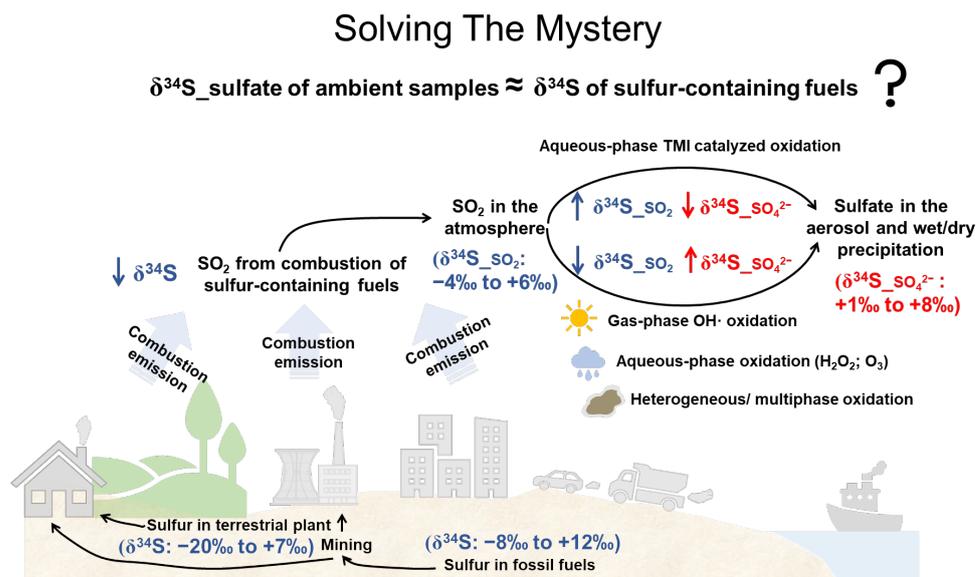


19 **Abstract**

20 The isotopic composition of atmospheric species provides fundamental insights into their  
 21 sources, sinks, and chemical processes. However, conventional end-member mixing box models  
 22 fail to accurately represent the progressive isotopic evolution within complex systems, where  
 23 mixing and reactions occur simultaneously. This limitation hinders a comprehensive  
 24 understanding of the isotope effect and its atmospheric applications. To address this, we have  
 25 designed an isotopic chemistry module and incorporated it into the three-dimensional chemical  
 26 transport model, utilizing an iterative time-splitting method to mitigate the bias introduced by  
 27 the Rayleigh equation. The model incorporates four isotopologues ( $^{32}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{34}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{32}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  
 28  $^{34}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) as prognostic tracers for  $\text{SO}_2$  and sulfate aerosol, simulating isotope effects during  
 29 various gas-phase, heterogeneous/multiphase and aqueous-phase reactions. Validation against  
 30 compiled observation data demonstrates the model's ability to reproduce the sulfur isotope  
 31 effect ( $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2} = 3.43 \pm 1.11\text{‰}$ ) and spatiotemporal variations of  $\delta^{34}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  across Eastern  
 32 China. Further, our study underscores the importance of considering isotopic fractionation  
 33 during combustion and chemical processes for accurate source apportionment using the  
 34 isotope mixing model. The isotope-enabled model presents an innovative approach for  
 35 effectively constraining the sulfur budget.

36

37 **Graphical Abstract**



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40



## 41 1 Introduction

42 Sulfate and sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) have complex interactions with the environment and  
43 Earth's climate system, involving aerosol and cloud formation, climate cooling, and the global  
44 sulfur budget (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). The primary sources of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions are from the  
45 combustion of sulfur-containing fuels (coal and oil, etc.) at power plants, industrial facilities,  
46 and residential heating (Crippa et al., 2023). The atmospheric oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> to sulfate has  
47 been extensively investigated through gas-phase reactions with OH radicals and  
48 heterogeneous/multiphase oxidation involving H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and transition metal ion catalysis  
49 (TMI-catalysis).

50 Recent investigations into sulfate isotopic composition have emerged as promising  
51 proxies for gaining fundamental insight into the sulfate's sources, sinks, and concentration-  
52 independent information on atmospheric oxidation processes. However, there remains a  
53 significant discrepancy among studies that use the end-member mixing model. Han et  
54 al.(2016a) emphasized the dominance of biological sulfur emissions in summer and coal  
55 combustion in winter. Lin et al.(2022) illustrated how isotopic fractionation significantly  
56 reshapes the sulfur isotopic composition in sulfate, leading to distinctive results of source  
57 apportionment. While Feng et al.(2023) highlighted the impact of sulfur isotopic fractionation  
58 during combustion on source apportionment, identifying traffic emissions (49%) and coal  
59 combustion (46%–65%) as major contributors to sulfate during heavy pollution in the North  
60 China Plain. Discrepancies also arise in identifying the dominant SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation pathway. Fan et  
61 al.(2020) highlighted SO<sub>2</sub> oxidized by NO<sub>2</sub> and TMI-catalyzed O<sub>2</sub> as a key contributor to high  
62 sulfate loading using  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$ . While Han et al.(2022) revealed enhanced SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by  
63 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, supported by  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  and  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  analyses. Several limitations may explain these  
64 divergences. (1) Studies rely on the Rayleigh distillation equation, which is only suitable for  
65 closed systems with reservoir-limited conditions, leading to an increasing apparent isotope  
66 effect as the reservoir is progressively consumed (Guan and Liu, 2023). (2) Laboratory studies  
67 have indicated that the combustion process, atmospheric chemistry and mixing can reshape the  
68 sulfur isotopic composition from the sources of sulfur-containing fuels to SO<sub>2</sub> and sulfate.

69 Therefore, our goal is to reconcile the ongoing debate among previous research findings  
70 related to sulfur isotope tracing and establish a comprehensive understanding of the  
71 atmospheric isotope effect. To achieve this, developing an isotope-enabled model that  
72 integrates isotopic chemistry and the isotopic fingerprints of emission sources is crucial. Recent  
73 applications have incorporated isotope effects into chemical transport models (CTMs) to  
74 simulate  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  of atmospheric NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> using CMAQ (Fang and Michalski, 2022) and  
75 mercury isotopic fractionation using GEOS-Chem (Song et al., 2022). These methodologies  
76 involve using isotopologues as prognostic tracers and scaling the rate constants of different  
77 isotopologues with their corresponding isotope fractionation factor. However, these models  
78 primarily focus on "gas-phase" or one-step unidirectional kinetic reactions. Considering the  
79 complexity of sulfur chemistry, which involves heterogeneous and multiphase reactions with  
80 several processes, including mass transfer, dissociation equilibrium, and chemical reaction. It is  
81 extremely difficult and challenging to determine the reaction intermediates and their isotopic  
82 fractionation factor for each step. In addition, the isotope effects obtained from laboratory  
83 studies for complex reactions represent apparent or overall isotope effects. Consequently, the



84 incorporation of isotopic chemistry into CTMs faces new challenges, especially with  
85 heterogeneous/multiphase reactions.

86 In this study, we develop a newly isotope-enabled model to simulate the isotopic  
87 compositions of sulfur-bearing species, considering both physical mixing and isotopic  
88 fractionation due to chemical reactions, and enabling the explicit simulation of progressive  
89 depletion/enrichment in the reservoir and their impact on sulfate production. The study aims to  
90 present a comprehensive description of the isotope-enabled model, evaluate its skill in  
91 reproducing the spatial-temporal variations in sulfur isotope composition, and enhance a  
92 comprehensive understanding of the atmospheric sulfur isotope effects.

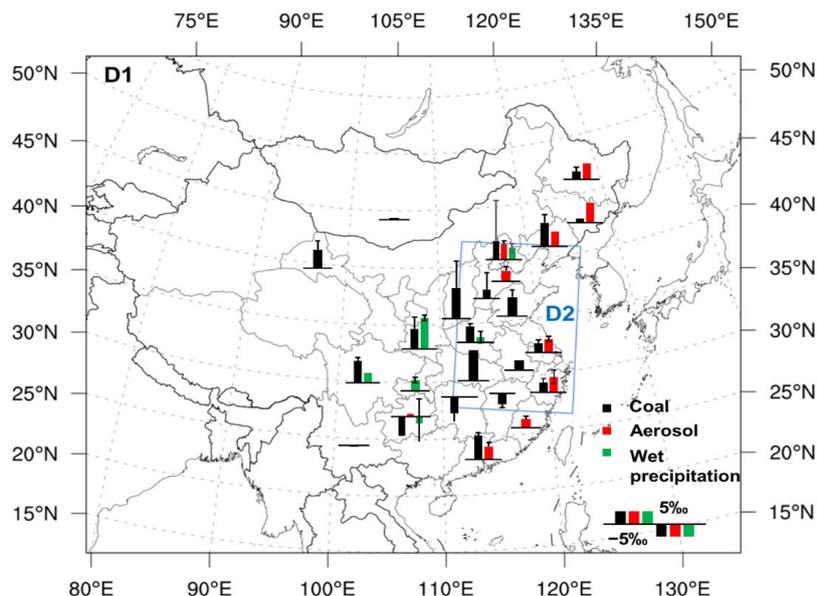
93

## 94 **2 Methodology**

### 95 **2.1 Model framework**

96 We incorporate the isotopic chemistry module into the Eulerian atmospheric chemistry  
97 transport models NAQPMS. The NAQPMS is a Nested Air Quality Prediction Model System  
98 developed by the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP), Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS)  
99 (Wei et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2001), including physical processes (advection,  
100 diffusion, and dry/wet deposition), chemistry module (gas and aqueous chemistry, aerosol  
101 chemistry and thermodynamics, and mercury chemistry) (Chen et al., 2015), and online  
102 emission of dimethyl sulfide, sea salt, and dust. The Advanced Particle Microphysics module  
103 (APM) and 1.5-D Volatility Basis Set (VBS) aerosol schemes are also coupled to simulate the  
104 aerosol microphysical processes and organic aerosol formation, respectively (Chen et al., 2019;  
105 Yang et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2014).

106 The simulation is performed with a two-way nested configuration. The external domain  
107 D1 covers the mainland of China at a horizontal resolution of 45 km, while the innermost  
108 domain D2 is centered over eastern China with a finer resolution of 15 km, as illustrated in  
109 Figure 1. The model runs on 20 atmospheric vertical layers, utilizing terrain-following hybrid  
110 sigma coordinates from the surface to an altitude of 20 km. The sulfur chemistry from SO<sub>2</sub> to  
111 S(VI) involves gas, heterogeneous and aqueous-phase oxidation. The gas-phase chemistry  
112 incorporates the Carbon Bond Mechanism Z (CBM-Z) (Zaveri and Peters, 1999). For aqueous  
113 chemistry, the Regional Acid Deposition Model (RADM2) is applied, resolving cloud-phase sulfur  
114 oxidation through dissoluble S(IV) with O<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, peroxy acetic acid (CH<sub>3</sub>OOH), and transition  
115 metal-catalyzed O<sub>2</sub> (Stockwell et al., 1997). The oxidation of S(IV) species by dissolved NO<sub>2</sub> is  
116 also incorporated into the sulfur aqueous chemistry, referring to the kinetic parameters  
117 proposed by Cheng et al. (2016). Heterogeneous reactions of SO<sub>2</sub> on various surfaces, including  
118 dust, sea salt, soot and deliquesced aerosols, have also incorporated using the reactive uptake  
119 coefficients parameterization (Li et al., 2018). The gas-particle partitioning of inorganic aerosols  
120 and aerosol water content are simulated using the improved ISORROPIA II (Fountoukis and  
121 Nenes, 2007; Song et al., 2018). The simulation began in March 2014. The initial 3 months serve  
122 as a spin-up time. For additional details on the model and its detailed configuration, refer to  
123 Text S1 and Table S2.



124  
 125 **Figure 1.** Simulation domains with nested modeling. D1 and D2 represent the parent and child  
 126 domains, respectively. Overlaid bar graphs with error bars illustrate compiled sulfur isotopic  
 127 composition (δ<sup>34</sup>S) data from coal, aerosols, and precipitation across different regions in China.  
 128 Additional details on the observed data can be found in Table S1.

129 **2.2 Isotope notation and isotopic fractionation**

130 The sulfur element is widely present throughout all natural environments and possesses  
 131 four stable isotopes, namely <sup>32</sup>S, <sup>33</sup>S, <sup>34</sup>S, and <sup>36</sup>S, with relative abundances of 95.02%, 0.75%,  
 132 4.21%, and 0.02%, respectively (De Laeter et al., 2003). In general, the sulfur isotopic  
 133 composition is denoted as δ<sup>x</sup>S value in per mil (‰), where <sup>x</sup>S represents one of the less  
 134 abundant isotopes, e.g., <sup>33</sup>S, <sup>34</sup>S, or <sup>36</sup>S). This notation is defined as the difference between the  
 135 isotopic ratio of a given sample and the reference standard V-CDT (Vienna Canyon Diablo  
 136 Troilite):

137 
$$\delta^x S_{Sample} (\text{‰}) = \left( \frac{R(^xS/^{32}S)_{Sample}}{R(^xS/^{32}S)_{V-CDT}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

138 Where R represents the isotopic ratio, as defined as the atomic abundance ratio of any  
 139 minor to a major abundant isotope, expressed as  $R(^xS/^{32}S) = \frac{N(^xS)}{N(^{32}S)}$ . V-CDT is the international  
 140 sulfur isotope standard, with isotopic ratios of  $R(^{34}S/^{32}S)_{V-CDT} = 0.044163$  and  $R(^{33}S/^{32}S)_{V-CDT} =$   
 141  $0.007877$  (Ding et al., 2001).

142 Isotope effect are observable in physical or chemical processes, especially during  
 143 equilibrium (or thermodynamic) and kinetic processes, leading to changed isotope distribution  
 144 between two substances or different phases of the same substance with distinct isotope ratios.  
 145 Isotopic fractionation is often a result of the isotope effect. The isotopic fractionation factor



146  $\alpha^{hX_{P/S}}$  is defined as the ratio of isotopic ratio of the instantaneously formed product  
 147  $R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{Pi}$  and substrate  $R(^{hX}/^{lX})_S$  (Mariotti et al., 1981),

$$148 \quad \alpha^{hX_{P/S}} = R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{Pi} / R(^{hX}/^{lX})_S \quad (2)$$

149 For thermodynamic (equilibrium) or unidirectional kinetic process with a single-step  
 150 reaction following a first-order rate law, the  $\alpha^{hX_{P/S}}$  can be interpreted as the ratio of rate  
 151 constant  $k$  or equilibrium constant  $K$ :

$$152 \quad \alpha^{hX_{P/S}} = {}^h k / {}^l k = {}^h K / {}^l K \quad (3)$$

153 An isotope enrichment factor,  $\epsilon$  (in per mil ‰), can be defined as:

$$154 \quad \epsilon = (\alpha - 1) * 1000 \quad (4)$$

155 The  $\alpha$  determines how much faster or slower the reaction with the minor/heavy  
 156 isotopologues proceeds relative to the reaction with the major/light isotopologues.

157 Generally, isotopic fractionation determined in laboratory experiments represents  
 158 overall isotope effects, resulting from physical, equilibrium, and kinetic fractionation. The  
 159 isotopic composition between reservoir and product, as a function of reactant extent and  
 160 fractionation factor, is described by the Rayleigh fractionation equations. Taking the example of  
 161 the isotopic effect of gas- and aqueous-phase oxidation of  $SO_2$ , the Rayleigh equations describe  
 162 the process as:

$$163 \quad R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{S_t} / R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{S_0} = f_{rem}^{(\alpha^{hX_{P/S}} - 1)} \quad (5)$$

164 where  $f_{rem}$  is the fraction of residual reactant  $SO_2$ ,  $R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{S_0}$  and  $R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{S_t}$  are  
 165 the isotope ratio  $^{34}S/^{32}S$  of initial and remaining reactant at  $t_0$  and  $t$  moment, respectively. The  
 166 instantaneous isotope ratio of the product ( $R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{P_t}$ ) at  $t$  moment is given by:

$$167 \quad R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{P_t} / R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{S_0} = \alpha f_{rem}^{(\alpha^{hX_{P/S}} - 1)} \quad (6)$$

168 The average isotope ratio of accumulated product ( $\overline{R(^{hX}/^{lX})_p}$ ) during the reaction  
 169 can be derived from the isotope mass balance:

$$170 \quad \overline{R(^{hX}/^{lX})_p} / R(^{hX}/^{lX})_{S_0} = \frac{1 - f_{rem}^{(\alpha^{hX_{P/S}} - 1)}}{1 - f_{rem}} \quad (7)$$

### 171 2.3 Developing Isotope-Tagged Emission Inventories

172 The multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC, [http://](http://meicmodel.org.cn/?p=1579&lang=en)  
 173 <http://meicmodel.org.cn/?p=1579&lang=en>) provides a comprehensive  $SO_2$  emission inventory,  
 174 including anthropogenic emissions from power plants, industry, residential, and transportation,  
 175 respectively. Primary combustion sulfate, which forms as the oxidation product in the chimney  
 176 and plumes (Sun et al., 2023; Ding et al., 2021), is assumed to be 5%wt of anthropogenic  $SO_2$   
 177 (Berglen et al., 2004). Anthropogenic sulfur-containing sources exhibit a highly variable and  
 178 overlapping isotopic composition, ranging from  $-30\text{‰}$  to  $30\text{‰}$  (Hoefs and Harmon, 2022). We  
 179 adopt a constant signature of  $\delta^{34}S = 0\text{‰}$  V-CDT for  $SO_2$  emission sources. Consequently, direct



180 comparisons between simulated and observed  $\delta^{34}\text{SO}_2$  and  $\delta^{34}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  values are not available.  
181 However, the sulfur isotope difference between  $\text{SO}_2$  and sulfate ( $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2} = \delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}} -$   
182  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$ ), approximating the value of apparent isotopic fractionation multiplied by 1000‰,  
183 referred to isotope effect, can be applied to validate the isotope-enabled CTMs. The tracer  
184 mass of  $^{32}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{34}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{32}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $^{34}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  isotopologues can be determined from the  $\text{SO}_2$  mass in the  
185 emission inventory based on the Equation (1), with the initial values of  $R(^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S})_{V\text{-CDT}}$  at  
186 0.044163.

$$187 \quad {}^{34}\text{S} = {}^{32}\text{S} \times \left( \left( \frac{\delta^{34}\text{S}}{1000} + 1 \right) \times R(^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S})_{V\text{-CDT}} \right) \quad (8)$$

## 188 2.4 Coupled methodology of isotopic chemistry module

### 189 2.4.1 The development of isotopic chemistry module

190 To dynamically simulate the spatiotemporal distribution of isotopic composition ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ ) in  
191 particle  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and its gaseous precursor  $\text{SO}_2$ , we have implemented the tagging technology and  
192 isotopic chemistry module into the atmospheric chemistry transport model. The four  
193 isotopologues ( $^{32}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{34}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{32}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $^{34}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) are treated as independent prognostic tracers of  
194  $\text{SO}_2$  and sulfate aerosol throughout their entire atmospheric life cycle, including emission,  
195 transport, chemical production/loss, and deposition processes.

196 Generally, the previous isotope-enabled models incorporating isotope chemistry  
197 typically only consider kinetic isotope fractionation, deriving different rate coefficients for  
198 individual isotopologues from isotopic fractionation factors ( $\alpha$ ) with Equation (4) (Fang and  
199 Michalski, 2022; Gromov et al., 2010). This assumption is suitable for single-step, steady-state  
200 reactions, such as gas-phase chemical reactions. However, most processes in natural systems  
201 involve reaction sequences; each reaction within the sequence exhibits its intrinsic isotope  
202 fractionation, and not all isotope fractionation of these individual reactions is measurable. For  
203 example, the cloud and aqueous-phase chemical module involves gas-to-particle equilibrium,  
204 dissolution, diffusion, and chemical reactions. Thus, the isotope effect observed in the complex  
205 system with multiple intermediates represents an overall isotope effect. If the reaction  
206 sequences have a given end product, the conventional approach for deriving the isotope effect  
207 requires the repeated determination of  $R_{s,0}$ ,  $R_p$ , and  $f$  in a closed system. The isotope  
208 fractionation factor is then calculated using the Rayleigh equations with the isotope ratio or “ $\delta$ ”  
209 value, as

$$210 \quad R_p = R_{s,0} \times \frac{1-f^{\alpha_{p/s}}}{1-f} \quad (9)$$

$$211 \quad \delta_p \approx \delta_{s,0} - \varepsilon \times \frac{f \times \ln(f)}{1-f} \quad (10)$$

212 When a substrate is consumed through multiple competing pathways simultaneously,  
213 the Rayleigh equation relates the change in the isotopic ratio of substrate to the extent of  
214 substrate consumption, employing the apparent overall isotopic fractionation factor ( $\alpha_A$ ) (Van  
215 Breukelen, 2007). The factor of  $\alpha_A$  is expressed as a function of various instantaneous isotopic  
216 fractionation factors ( $\alpha_{\text{ins}}$ ) associated with individual pathways, given by the following equation:



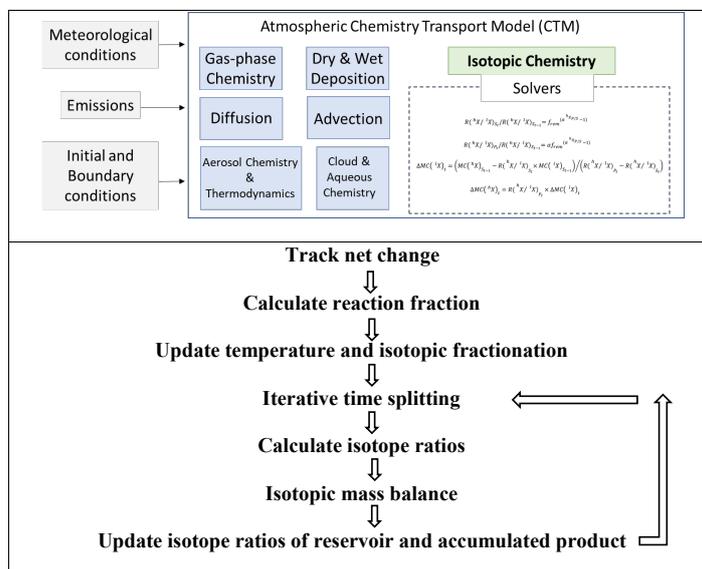
217  $\alpha_A = F_1 \times \alpha_{ins\_1} + F_2 \times \alpha_{ins\_2} + \dots + F_n \times \alpha_{ins\_n}$

218 Where  $F_i$  is the ratio of contribution from  $i$ -th process to the overall product.

219 Therefore, the  $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$  ratio of the residual  $\text{SO}_2$  within the grid cell can be determined  
 220 using the following equation:

221  $R(^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S})_t = R(^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S})_{t_0} \times f_{rem} \times \exp(\alpha_A - 1) = R(^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S})_{t_0} \times f_{rem} \times \exp[(\sum F_i \times \alpha_{ins\_i}) - 1]$

222 To directly apply the measured isotopic fractionation from laboratory studies, we have  
 223 developed an independent isotopic chemistry module utilizing the Rayleigh equation to solve  
 224 the isotopologues change between reactants and products. This module tracks the net change  
 225 in  $\text{SO}_2$  and sulfate based on output from gas-phase, heterogeneous, and cloud&aqueous-phase  
 226 chemistry modules separately, and then the relative contribution of specific oxidation pathways  
 227 is calculated and recorded. It updates the temperature-dependent isotopic fractionation factor  
 228 in the specific grid cell and calculates the net isotopologue change using Rayleigh equations and  
 229 isotopic mass balance. The algorithm framework is depicted in Figure 2 and described in Text  
 230 S2.



231 **Figure 2.** The algorithm framework to calculate the net isotopologue change at every time step.  
 232

233 Based on the assumptions outlined in Text S1, the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  is primarily influenced by  
 234 fractionation during different chemical reactions. Relevant sulfur isotopic fractionation data  
 235 have been sourced from laboratory studies conducted by Harris et al. (Harris et al., 2012b;  
 236 Harris et al., 2012c; Harris et al., 2012a; Harris et al., 2013), including the gas-phase oxidation by  
 237 OH radicals, aqueous-phase oxidation by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ , and iron catalysis, heterogeneous oxidation  
 238 of  $\text{SO}_2$  on sea salt aerosol and mineral dust (see Table 1). The sulfur isotopic fractionation  
 239 during  $\text{SO}_2$  oxidation by  $\text{NO}_2$  in the aqueous phase, as determined by Yang et al. (2018), is  
 240 excluded from this study. This exclusion is attributed to their methodology, which yielded an  
 241 apparent isotopic fractionation factor calculated by dividing the isotopic ratio of accumulated



242 production by the initial isotope ratio of reactant. This calculation assumed that  $R_{pi}$  was  
 243 approximated by  $R_p$  with  $f$  being approximately 1. However, an error in the calculation with this  
 244 approximation is estimated to fall between 0.5‰ and 3‰, with  $f$  ranging from 0.9 to 0.95  
 245 (Toyoda et al., 2005). This approach contrasts with the conventional definition of the isotope  
 246 fractionation factor, which typically represents the isotope ratio in the instantaneously formed  
 247 product in an infinitely short time divided by that of the reactant (Equation (2)) (Harris et al.,  
 248 2013; Hoefs, 2015; Mariotti et al., 1981). For reference in our discussion, the apparent isotopic  
 249 fractionation factor  $\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{NO}_2}$  ( $T$  at  $3^\circ\text{C}$ ) = 0.998 is adopted in the simulation.

250 **Table 1.** The sulfur isotopic fractionation factor determined by the lab experiment and its  
 251 temperature dependency for a specific oxidation pathway.

Oxidation pathway	Reaction Type	Symbol	Model isotope fractionation factor $\alpha$ (at $0^\circ\text{C}$ )	T dependence ( $^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ )	Reference
S(IV)+OH $\cdot$	Gas-phase	$\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{OH}}$	1.0106	-0.004	(Harris et al., 2012c)
S(IV)+H $_2$ O $_2$	Aqueous-phase	$\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}$	1.0165	-0.085	(Harris et al., 2012c)
S(IV)+O $_3$	Aqueous-phase	$\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{O}_3}$	1.0167	-0.085	(Harris et al., 2012c)
S(IV)+O $_2$ (TMI catalyzed)	Aqueous-phase	$\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{TMI}}$	0.9949	-0.237	(Harris et al., 2013)
S(IV)+O $_2$ (TMI catalyzed)	on mineral dust	$\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{TMI\_surface}}$	1.0096 ( $T=19^\circ\text{C}$ )	-	(Harris et al., 2012b)
S(IV)+O $_3$	On the seasalt	$\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{seasalt}}$	1.0124 ( $T=19^\circ\text{C}$ )	-	(Harris et al., 2012a)
S(IV)+NO $_2$	Aqueous-phase	$\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{NO}_2}$ *	0.998 ( $T=3^\circ\text{C}$ )	-	(Yang et al., 2018)

252 We consider the temperature dependence of the isotopic fractionation factor by utilizing the  
 253 real-time temperature of the grid cell, thus avoiding a significant effect on the seasonal  
 254 simulation of isotopic composition.

255 \* the apparent isotopic fractionation factor at  $3^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{NO}_2}$  ( $T$  at  $3^\circ\text{C}$ ) =  $0.998 \pm 0.00041$ , was  
 256 determined by Yang et al. (2018). In their laboratory experiment, SO $_2$  was oxidized by NO $_2$  in a  
 257 reaction chamber containing liquid water. The isotopic composition  $^{34}\text{S}$  in the initial SO $_2$  and  
 258 accumulated sulfate product after 2 hours of reaction time was collected and measured.  
 259 However, the residual fraction of SO $_2$  wasn't measured, and the apparent isotopic fractionation



260 factor was calculated by dividing the isotopic ratio of accumulated production by the ratio of  
261 reactant. As the reaction progresses, the isotopic composition of the accumulated product  
262 changes. Once the reactants are completely consumed, the isotopic composition of the  
263 accumulated product is equal to the initial reactants (See Figure 3). Therefore, according to the  
264 isotope mass balance, the apparent isotopic fractionation factor is highly dependent on the  
265 residual fraction during the reaction process, and cannot be equal to the exact isotopic  
266 fractionation factor, which is represented by the isotope ratio in the instantaneously formed  
267 product divided by the ratio in the reactant. Although the detected apparent isotopic  
268 fractionation factor can indicate the direction of isotopic fractionation (enrichment or depletion  
269 in the product relative to the reactant), it cannot be directly used in the model to calculate the  
270 isotope effect of S(IV)+NO<sub>2</sub> pathway.

#### 271 2.4.2 Improving isotopic chemistry simulation with the iterative time-splitting method

272 In Chemical Transport Models (CTMs), numerical integration is crucial for solving the  
273 kinetic equations associated with chemical mechanisms. In the gas-phase mechanism module,  
274 the CBMZ mechanism is coupled with LSODES numerical solver (the sparse version of the  
275 Livermore ODE solver) to numerically solve ordinary differential equations representing the  
276 chemical transformations and provide changes in species concentrations over time. When the  
277 cloud and aqueous chemistry module is called, the distribution between gas and aqueous  
278 phases is determined by instantaneous Henry's law equilibrium. At each time step, the  
279 bisection method is employed to estimate pH and the distribution of ionic species, assuming  
280 electroneutrality and thermodynamic equilibrium. The forward Euler solver is used for the  
281 numerical integration of aqueous-phase sulfur oxidation reactions, with time stepping based on  
282 the reaction rates and precursor/oxidant concentrations for sulfate production alone. At the  
283 end of each incremental oxidation step, the chemical equilibrium will be reestablished.

284 The atmosphere continuum involves simultaneous mixing and fractionation processes.  
285 However, the Rayleigh equation has limitations as it assumes that a system that only  
286 experiences the loss of reactant without fresh mixture. When the Rayleigh equation is  
287 employed in the isotopic chemistry module, the isotope composition of the product and  
288 remaining reactant highly depends on the residual fraction of reactants  $f_{rem}$ , which is influenced  
289 by the time discretization and reaction rate constants.

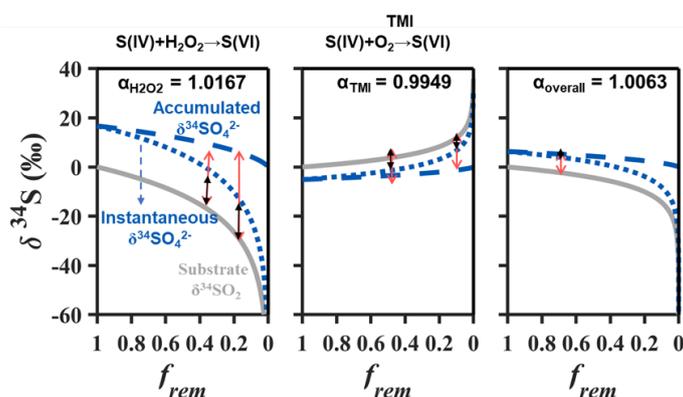
290 In our simulation, we use a default time step of 30 minutes. Therefore, we introduce an  
291 iterative time-splitting method to effectively solve the problem arising from the effect of time  
292 discretization and reaction extent on the results calculated by Rayleigh equations. We also  
293 derive an equation with a precise integration method describing the isotopic evolution of the  
294 reservoir in an open system with fresh mixture and removed product simultaneously (Text S3).  
295 Our goal is to determine the optimal sub-timesteps that effectively reduce the impact of time  
296 step and minimize discrepancies in the simulated evolution of isotope composition of the  
297 reservoir between the Rayleigh equation and the integration method. Further details of the  
298 comparison are presented in Section 3.1.



299 **3 Results**

300 **3.1 Improving isotopic chemistry simulation and sensitivity tests**

301 In previous studies, the initial isotopic composition of reactant ( $\delta_{s,0}$ ) was calculated  
 302 based on the isotopic composition of the product ( $\delta_p$ ) and the residual fraction of reactants  $f_{rem}$   
 303 using the Rayleigh equation (eq. 9-10), assuming no addition or mixing. This resulted in isotopic  
 304 "reservoir effects" as the reaction progressed. The isotopic fractionation factor  $\alpha > 1/\alpha < 1$   
 305 preferentially enriches/depletes heavy isotopes in the product and depletes/enriches heavy  
 306 isotopes in the residual reservoir. Investigating the atmospheric oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  via various  
 307 competing S(IV) pathways, including oxidation by gas-phase OH radicals, aqueous-phase  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  
 308  $\text{O}_3$ , and TMI-catalysis, and heterogeneous reaction, their respective contribution to sulfate  
 309 formation were 42.6%, 2.2%, 1.3%, 27.2%, and 26.7%, as derived from simulation results using  
 310 GEOS-Chem model (Shao et al., 2019). The calculated overall/net sulfur fractionation factor  
 311  $\alpha^{34}\text{S}_{\text{S(IV)}}$  is 1.0063 at 0°C. Therefore, the sulfate product favors the heavier isotopologues  $^{34}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$   
 312 over  $^{32}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , leading to an increase in  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  as the reaction progresses. This relationship  
 313 depends on the fractionation factor and the reaction extent. As shown in Figure 3, setting the  
 314 initial  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of  $\text{SO}_2$  at 0‰, when  $f_{rem}$  becomes 70% and 20%, the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of the remaining  $\text{SO}_2$  rapidly  
 315 drops to approximately -2.2‰ and -10‰. Simultaneously, the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of the accumulated sulfate  
 316 product reaches close to 5.2‰ and 2.5‰, respectively. This implies that the sulfur isotope  
 317 difference between  $\text{SO}_2$  and sulfate ( $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2}$ ) is 7.4‰ and 12.5‰, respectively. Due to  
 318 the reservoir effect, tremendously large apparent isotope fractionations will always be  
 319 produced if the reservoir is close to being depleted ( $f_{rem} \approx 0$ ). This phenomenon challenges the  
 320 applicability of the Rayleigh equation applied to scenarios involving simultaneous mixing and  
 321 reaction.



322  
 323 **Figure 3.**  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values of residual reactant, instantaneous  $\delta$  product, and the average isotopic  
 324 composition of accumulated produce plotted as a function of a fraction of remaining reactant in  
 325 the closed system based on a Rayleigh equation. Investigating the sulfur isotopic fractionation  
 326 during (a) aqueous-phase TMI-catalysis, (b) aqueous-phase  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  oxidation and (c) various  
 327 competing S(IV) oxidation pathways, including oxidation by gas-phase OH radicals, aqueous-  
 328 phase oxidation involving  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ , TMI-catalysis, and heterogeneous reaction, their respective  
 329 contribution to sulfate formation were 42.6%, 2.2%, 1.3%, 27.2%, and 26.7%, as derived from



330 simulation results using GEOS-Chem model (Shao et al., 2019). The initial isotopic composition  
331  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values of the reactant is set to be 0‰. The fractionation factor for  $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$  during aqueous  
332 oxidation by (a)  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , (b) TMI-catalyzed and (c) the overall competing S(IV) oxidation pathways  
333 are 1.0167, 0.9949, and 1.0063 at 0°C, respectively. The solid black line represents the variation  
334 of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values of residual reactant, and the blue dotted line and dashed line represent the  
335 variation of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values of instantaneous product and accumulated product, respectively.

336

337 Based on the integration method describing the isotopic evolution of the reservoir in an  
338 open system with simultaneous mixing and reaction (see Text S3). Figure S1 illustrates that as  
339 the  $\beta$  value (the ratio of the instantaneous amount added to the removal) increases, the  $\delta$  value  
340 of the reservoir progressively gets higher, with the external sources consistently contributing  
341 with a constant isotopic composition ( $\delta_s$ ) of 10‰. This emphasizes the importance of  
342 considering the mixing process when calculating the isotope effect. The overall apparent  
343 isotope fractionations are indeed the result of combined effects of the Rayleigh-like distillation  
344 process and the diffusion-driven isotope distributions (Guan and Liu, 2023). The combined  
345 processes with the mixing of fresh material and isotopic fractionation can lead to a smaller  
346 variation in  $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2}$  than estimated by Rayleigh equation. It indicated that the optimal  
347 sub-timesteps that effectively reduce the impact of time step and minimize discrepancies in the  
348 simulated evolution of isotopic composition of the reservoir between the Rayleigh equation  
349 and the integration method.

350 To mitigate the significant bias in simulated isotopic composition introduced by the  
351 Rayleigh equation in the isotopic chemistry module, we implement an iterative time-splitting  
352 method. Firstly, the comparison between this iterative method and integration method in the  
353 open system helps determine the optimal sub-timesteps, effectively minimizing the biases in  
354 isotopic calculation when employing the Rayleigh equation. Figure S2 illustrates that the largest  
355 differences are observed for small reaction fraction and large fraction of fresh mixture relative  
356 to the initial substrate. A larger difference is expected when the differences between the  
357 isotopic composition of substrate and mixture increase and the isotope effect becomes  
358 stronger. For 50 sub-timesteps, good agreements are found in the calculated isotopic value of  
359 the reservoir between the iterative time-splitting method and the integrating method,  
360 assuming 0.3‰ is approximate to the average analytical precision of isotope. This indicates that  
361 the combination of the Rayleigh equation with the iterative method is capable of effectively  
362 simulating the progressive isotopic evolution of reservoirs with simultaneous mixing and  
363 isotopic fractionation.

364 We also conduct sensitivity tests to check the performance of the simulated isotopic  
365 composition of product with the optimized sub-timesteps. We choose 0.3‰ as the tolerance of  
366 this iterative time-splitting method. Figure S3 illustrates the deviation of  $\delta$ -values for 1, 10, 50,  
367 and 100 sub-steps relative to the reference simulation with 1000 sub-steps. Notably, the largest  
368 deviation occurs for a large fraction of reaction  $f$  and mixture, attributed to greater depletion in  
369 the reservoirs ( $\alpha > 1$ ) and influence of mixing process. For 50 sub-steps, the maximum deviation  
370 is less than 0.1‰. This comparison confirms that the sub-timestep limiting reaction fraction  $f$  to



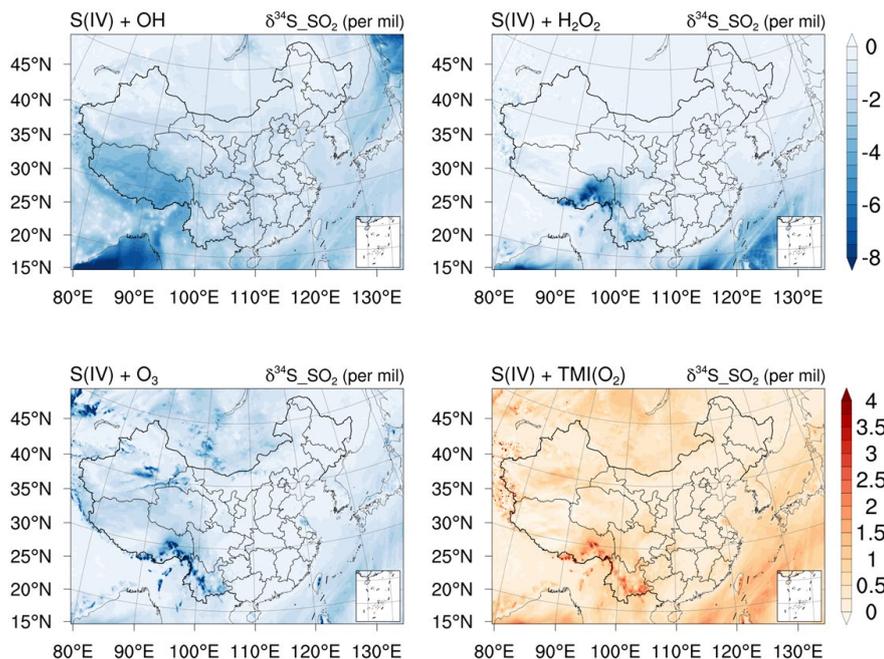
371 approximately 2% is acceptable for reducing simulation bias, thus the value is adopted to  
372 improve simulation.

## 373 3.2 Model evaluation

### 374 3.2.1 Reproduction of sulfur isotope effect

375 As shown in Table 1, the sulfur isotopes exhibit distinctive fractionation during chemical  
376 reactions, including gas-phase, aqueous-phase, and heterogeneous reactions. It provides  
377 valuable information for investigating the relative importance of the different oxidation  
378 pathways converting SO<sub>2</sub> to sulfate. Gas-phase and aqueous-phase oxidation by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>  
379 produces sulfate that is enriched in <sup>34</sup>S (+15.1‰ to +19.9‰, depending on pH and  
380 temperature) relative to the initial SO<sub>2</sub> reservoir, while the SO<sub>2</sub> reservoir becomes depleted in  
381 <sup>34</sup>S. In contrast, TMI-catalyzed oxidation produces sulfate depleted in <sup>34</sup>S (−9.5 ± 3.1‰) relative  
382 to initial SO<sub>2</sub> (Harris et al., 2012a; Harris et al., 2012c; Harris et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2012b).

383 Figure 4 and 5 shows the simulated spatial-temporal distribution of daily  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  and  
384  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  near ground level for individual sulfur oxidation pathways through controlled  
385 experiments. We focus on the simulation results for the isotope effect resulting from individual  
386 sulfur oxidation pathways. The  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of all emission sources is assumed to be 0‰. The model  
387 predicts a daily-mean range of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  with 8‰, 2‰~16‰, 0‰~6‰, and −8‰~0‰ via gas-  
388 phase oxidation by OH radical, and cloud-phase oxidation by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, TMI-catalyzed O<sub>2</sub> over  
389 Eastern China, respectively. Correspondingly, a depleted <sup>34</sup>S in SO<sub>2</sub>, and the daily-mean range of  
390  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2} = -5\text{‰} \sim 1\text{‰}$ ,  $-5\text{‰} \sim 0\text{‰}$ ,  $-3\text{‰} \sim -1\text{‰}$ , and  $0.5\text{‰} \sim 3\text{‰}$ , respectively. A distinct spatial  
391 distribution of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  is observed, with homogeneity for gas-phase oxidation (~8‰) and  
392 heterogeneous spatial distribution for aqueous-phase oxidations. The simulated spatial-  
393 temporal distribution of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  depends on the relative importance of different oxidation  
394 pathways and the ratio of mixed SO<sub>2</sub> to formed sulfate within an infinitesimal time interval  $\Delta t$  at  
395 each grid cell. Unlike gas-phase reactions, cloud and aqueous phase chemistry highly depend on  
396 the geographical distribution of cloud coverage and liquid water content. While the spatial-  
397 temporal distribution of simulated  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  is more sensitive to the mixing rate of SO<sub>2</sub>, the  
398 Eastern China region with high SO<sub>2</sub> emission intensity effectively offsets the reservoir effect,  
399 showing slight regional differences.



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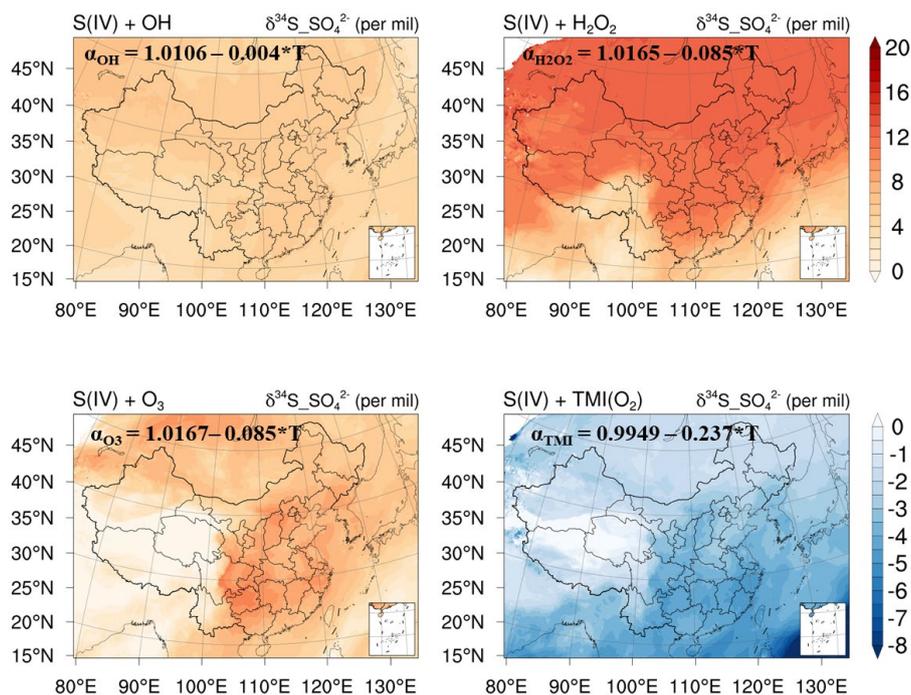
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**Figure 4.** The simulated spatial-temporal distribution of daily  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  near ground level for individual sulfur oxidation pathways through controlled experiments. (a) gas-phase oxidation by OH radical, (b) cloud-phase oxidation by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, (c) cloud-phase oxidation by O<sub>3</sub>, and (d) cloud-phase oxidation by TMI-catalyzed O<sub>2</sub>. The simulation runs through December 2015. The sulfur isotopic composition of all emission sources is assumed to be 0‰. This approach minimizes the impact of source fingerprint, providing a better representation of the isotope effect resulting from isotopic fractionation and dynamic mixing processes.

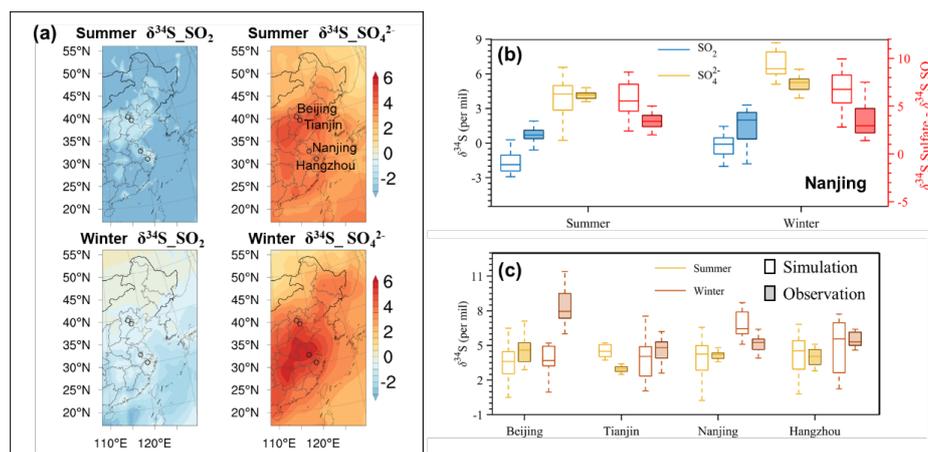


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**Figure 5.** Same as Figure 4 except for daily  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  near the ground level.

410 Although  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  has been reported in previous studies, the large range and variation  
 411 of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  in sulfur-containing sources (coal, crude oil, biomass, etc.) hinder direct validation of the  
 412 model with observations. To allow direct comparison and reduce uncertainties, we focus on  
 413  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  data in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  collected simultaneously at the same site. While the available  
 414 observed data is limited, only observational daily data from Nanjing city (118.5°E, 32.1°N)  
 415 during the summer (July 6th to August 30th, 2014) and winter (January 1st to January 23rd,  
 416 2015) are chosen to validate the modeled sulfur isotope effects ( $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}/\text{SO}_2$ ) near the  
 417 surface (below 1 km) (Chen et al., 2017). As shown in Figure 6(b), observed and simulated sulfur  
 418 isotopic composition ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$ ,  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$ ) as well as  $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}/\text{SO}_2$  in Nanjing city are  
 419 compared. The mean simulated and observed  $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}/\text{SO}_2$  are  $5.50\text{‰} \pm 1.66\text{‰}$  and  
 420  $3.27\text{‰} \pm 0.76\text{‰}$  in summer ( $n=25$ ,  $R=0.76$ ,  $\text{NMB}=54.8\%$ ),  $6.54\text{‰} \pm 1.91\text{‰}$  and  $3.39\text{‰} \pm 1.68\text{‰}$  in  
 421 winter ( $n=16$ ,  $R=0.70$ ,  $\text{NMB}=35.3\%$ ), respectively. The isotope-enabled model can quantitatively  
 422 reproduce the isotopic effect during  $\text{SO}_2$  oxidation processes, presenting enriched  $^{34}\text{S}$  in sulfate  
 423 and depleted  $^{34}\text{S}$  in  $\text{SO}_2$ . Overall, the model also performs well with the seasonal variation of  
 424 isotope effect and reflects the advantage of the real-time feedback between mixing and  
 425 reservoir effect due to the isotopic fractionation. The model provides a reliable framework of  
 426 atmospheric sulfur chemistry for simulating its isotopic composition.

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**Figure 6. (a)** The seasonal and spatial simulation of sulfur isotopic composition ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$ ,  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$ ) over Eastern China during summer (June to August) and winter (December to February). **(b)** The model validation by comparing observed and simulated sulfur isotopic composition ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$ ,  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$ ) as well as the sulfur isotope effect in Nanjing city during the summer and winter of 2014. **(c)** The comparison between seasonal variations in observed and simulated  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  across Eastern China's cities.

The simulated results are comparable with the observations, although the model underestimates  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  due to the overestimation of  $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2}$ . The model's overestimation of  $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2}$  during both summer and winter seasons could be attributed to the underestimation of aqueous-phase TMI-catalyzed oxidation pathway, the only pathway recently found to deplete  $^{34}\text{S}$  in sulfate relative to  $\text{SO}_2$ , resulting from isotopic fractionation  $\alpha < 1$ . Sulfur oxidation by TMI-catalyzed  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ , both involving electron transfer reaction between  $\text{S(IV)}$  and catalyst or oxidant to initiate radical chain oxidation mechanisms, would exhibit similar isotopic fractionation. Previous studies have indicated that the aqueous-phase TMI-catalyzed oxidation pathway is underestimated in the current atmospheric chemical transport models, contributing 9%~18% to sulfate production globally (Alexander et al., 2009; Itahashi et al., 2022). The heterogeneous reactions via TMI-catalyzed oxidation on deliquesced aerosol particles can contribute 14%–92% to sulfate production during the heavy pollution period in Northern China (Shao et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021). Currently, laboratory studies also show that enhanced multiphase oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  by  $\text{NO}_2$  in deliquesced aerosol particles (Wang et al., 2016; Liu and Abbatt, 2021), and the relative importance of  $\text{NO}_2$  oxidation was also estimated by WRF-chem model coupled with the aerosol water chemistry module (Tao et al., 2020). The accurate investigation of isotopic fractionation factors for the  $\text{NO}_2$  oxidation pathway is currently lacking. It is important to note that our developed isotope-enabled model does not currently incorporate the multiphase chemistry of  $\text{SO}_2$  in aerosol liquid water. Instead, we employ the obtained sulfur isotope fractionation during heterogeneous oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  on mineral dust ( $\alpha > 1$ ) (Harris et al., 2012b) to represent the overall isotope effect of all heterogeneous reactions at the interface of deliquesced aerosol particles. This also introduces



458 some biases into the simulated results. Therefore, additional laboratory research is needed to  
459 determine these specific isotopic fractionations during heterogeneous/multiphase chemistry.

### 460 3.2.2 Significant spatial-temporal variation of $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$

461 Our isotope-enabled model performs relatively well for the sulfur isotope effect.  
462 Therefore, we are confident in comparing the simulated and observed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ .  
463 Figure 6(c) presents the model's comparison with a compilation of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  observations  
464 across Eastern China, including Beijing (Han et al., 2017; Wei et al., 2018a; Han et al., 2016b),  
465 Tianjin (Han et al., 2022; Ding et al., 2022), Nanjing (Chen et al., 2017), and Hangzhou city (Lin et  
466 al., 2022). The simulated daily mean  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  in Nanjing and Hangzhou don't significantly  
467 differ from the observed values. Specifically, for Nanjing, the simulated and observed  
468  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  were  $3.88\text{‰}\pm 1.63\text{‰}$  and  $4.01\text{‰}\pm 0.39\text{‰}$  in summer ( $n=25$ ,  $R= 0.74$ ,  $\text{NMB}= -4.4\%$ ),  
469 and  $6.47\text{‰}\pm 1.09\text{‰}$  and  $4.80\text{‰}\pm 0.84\text{‰}$  in winter ( $n=16$ ,  $R= 0.76$ ,  $\text{NMB}= 34.8\%$ ), respectively.  
470 For Hangzhou, the simulated and observed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  were  $3.91\text{‰}\pm 1.77\text{‰}$  and  $3.50\text{‰}\pm 1.25\text{‰}$   
471 in summer ( $n=8$ ,  $R= 0.88$ ,  $\text{NMB}= 10.4\%$ ), and  $4.63\text{‰}\pm 2.37\text{‰}$  and  $4.95\text{‰}\pm 0.62\text{‰}$  in winter ( $n=8$ ,  
472  $R= 0.84$ ,  $\text{NMB}= -10.5\%$ ), respectively. Regarding Tianjin, the simulated and observed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$   
473 were  $3.88\text{‰}\pm 1.73\text{‰}$  and  $4.20\text{‰}\pm 1.26\text{‰}$  in winter ( $n=34$ ,  $R= 0.83$ ,  $\text{NMB}= -11.0\%$ ), the model  
474 ( $4.40\text{‰}\pm 1.62\text{‰}$ ) slightly overestimates observed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  ( $2.75\text{‰}\pm 0.45\text{‰}$ ) in summer ( $n=12$ ,  
475  $R= 0.87$ ,  $\text{NMB}= 57.4\%$ ). This difference remains within the acceptable  $2\text{‰}$  range for the sulfur  
476 isotope effect, considering a  $\pm 10\%$  uncertainty in the relative significance of enriched or  
477 depleted sulfur oxidation pathways. However, the model ( $3.99\text{‰}\pm 1.86\text{‰}$ ) underestimates the  
478 observed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  ( $7.94\text{‰}\pm 1.41\text{‰}$ ) about 50% in Beijing winter ( $n=16$ ,  $R= 0.79$ ,  $\text{NMB}=$   
479  $-50.5\%$ ). Overall, the model fails to capture the observed seasonal pattern with winter  
480 maximum and summer minimum for  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  in northern China.

481 This discrepancy may indicate the presence of emission sources with enriched  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$   
482 during winter. As shown in Figure 1 and Table S1, the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values for coal samples collected in  
483 northern China regions, including Beijing city, Hebei and Henan provinces, were  $7.4\pm 16.1\text{‰}$ ,  
484  $3.5\pm 6.6\text{‰}$  and  $6.4\pm 1.0\text{‰}$ , respectively. The increased residential heating in northern China  
485 aggravates pollution conditions, contributing about 46% of the monthly averaged  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
486 concentration (Zhang et al., 2017). Consequently, the distinct seasonal shift in energy type  
487 (coal, biomass, clean energy, etc.) and activity (cooking, heating, etc.) can substantially  
488 influence the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  signature in aerosol samples (Wei et al., 2018b). The wide range of  
489  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values of sulfur-containing fuels, combined seasonal shift in energy usage, complicates  
490 direct comparisons between modeled and observed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$ . Further details on the  
491 influences of isotope fractionation during combustion processes on the large uncertainties in  
492 modeled  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  are discussed in Section 4.

## 493 4 Discussion

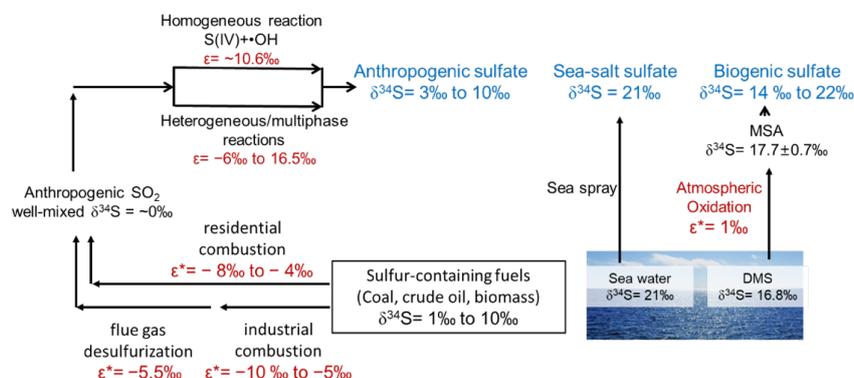
494 Assuming a fixed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  of  $0\text{‰}$  for all anthropogenic emissions of  $\text{SO}_2$ , Figure 6  
495 demonstrates the model's capability to reproduce observed  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  and  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$ . This good  
496 agreement reveals  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$  for well-mixed anthropogenic emissions is expected to be  
497 approximately  $0\text{‰}$ . However, compiled data on the anthropogenic  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  values of  $\text{SO}_2$  emission  
498 sources in Eastern China, including coal, crude oil, and biomass, range from  $1\text{‰}$  to  $10\text{‰}$  (Hong



499 et al., 1993; Guo et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2017). This discrepancy sparked our curiosity and  
 500 motivated further investigation.

501 As shown in Figure 7, both residential and industrial combustion experiments revealed  
 502 that the sulfate in ash particles enriched  $^{34}\text{S}$ , while emitted  $\text{SO}_2$  depleted in  $^{34}\text{S}$  ( $-10\text{‰} \sim -5\text{‰}$ )  
 503 relative to the sulfur-containing fuels (Hong et al., 1993; Chen et al., 2017). Flue gas  
 504 desulfurization also introduces isotopic fractionation, with the outlet emitted  $\text{SO}_2$  showing a  
 505 depletion in  $^{34}\text{S}$  relative to the inlet  $\text{SO}_2$  (calculate apparent sulfur isotope enrichment factors  
 506  $\epsilon^* = -5.5\text{‰}$ ) (Derda et al., 2007). This likely contributes to the abrupt change in the lighter  
 507  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}}$  observed over continuous long-term aerosol observation (shifting from  $5\text{‰} \sim 10\text{‰}$   
 508 before 1999 to  $0\text{‰} \sim 5\text{‰}$  at Tsuruoka, Japan) (Oduro et al., 2012) and wet precipitation records  
 509 (dropping from  $6.6\text{‰}$  in 2010 to  $-0.1\text{‰}$  in 2017 at Jiaozuo city, China) (Zheng et al., 2024). This  
 510 phenomenon coincidentally corresponds to the widespread adoption of flue gas desulfurization  
 511 technology in coal-fired industries after 2000 (Liu, 2019).

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515 **Figure 7.** Schematic diagram of different processes and associated isotope enrichment factors  
 516 for transformations of major sulfur-containing species to biogenic, anthropogenic, and sea-salt  
 517 sulfate in the atmosphere. The sulfur isotopic compositions ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ ) of anthropogenic sources  
 518 (coal, crude oil, and biomass, etc.) in Eastern China are compiled from Hong et al. (1993), Guo et al.  
 519 et al. (2016) and Chen et al. (2017). The  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of sea-salt sulfate, DMS, MSA, biogenic sulfate, and  
 520 the apparent enrichment factor during atmospheric oxidation of DMS to MSA are referenced  
 521 from Oduro et al. (2012). The isotope enrichment factor ( $\epsilon$ ) for oxidation pathways of sulfur are  
 522 listed in Table 1. Apparent enrichment factors ( $\epsilon^*$ ) during residential combustion are  
 523 investigated by Hong et al. (1993) and Chen et al. (2017).  $\epsilon^*$  during industrial combustion and  
 524 flue gas desulfurization are reported by Hong et al. (1993) and Derda et al. (2007), respectively.

525 Because the combustion experiments are not comparable to the carefully controlled  
 526 environment of laboratory studies, it can't obtain the accurate sulfur isotopic fractionation,  
 527 thus, we employ the sulfur isotope difference between initial  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of sulfur-containing fuels and  
 528  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of outlet-emitted  $\text{SO}_2$  to interpret  $\epsilon^*$  during combustion and flue gas desulfurization  
 529 processes.

530



531 Additionally, the sulfur oxidation pathway produces enriched sulfate with  
532  $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2}$  at 6‰ ~ 8‰. Thus, the isotopic fractionation during combustion/flue gas  
533 desulfurization and chemical processes somewhat offsets each other, leading to only a slight  
534 difference of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  between sulfur-containing fuels and airborne sulfate aerosol ( $\delta^{34}\text{S} = 1‰ \sim$   
535 8‰). This emphasizes a complex isotope effect of sulfur chemistry during combustion and gas  
536 desulfurization. Failure to distinguish between  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{fuels}}$  and their emitted  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_2}$   
537 (characteristically depleted in  $^{34}\text{S}$ ) may lead to significant discrepancies in source apportionment  
538 using the isotopic tracing method.

## 539 **5 Conclusions and future atmospheric implications**

540 Understanding how isotopes of atmospheric chemicals behave is crucial for identifying  
541 their sources and the chemical processes they undergo. We developed an isotope-enabled  
542 chemical transport model to overcome limitations of conventional mixing models, simulating  
543 four sulfur isotopologues ( $^{32}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{34}\text{SO}_2$ ,  $^{32}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $^{34}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) with an iterative time-splitting method  
544 to minimize Rayleigh equation bias. The framework successfully quantifies pathway-specific  
545 fractionation: gas-phase (OH) and aqueous-phase ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{O}_3$ ) oxidation enriches sulfate in  $^{34}\text{S}$   
546 (+15.1‰ to +19.9‰), while TMI-catalyzed reactions deplete  $^{34}\text{S}$  ( $-9.5 \pm 3.1‰$ ). Critically, it  
547 reproduces the observed mean sulfur isotope effect ( $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SO}_2} = 3.43 \pm 1.11‰$ ) across  
548 Eastern China and reveals distinct spatiotemporal patterns—winter maxima in northern cities  
549 (Beijing:  $7.94 \pm 1.41‰$ ) linked to high- $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  coal combustion, contrasting with summer minima  
550 driven by aqueous oxidation dominance. However, it is worth noting that overestimation of  
551  $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S}$  may be due to underrepresented TMI catalysis and simplified heterogeneous chemistry  
552 (using mineral dust  $\alpha > 1$ ). Previous studies have shown that  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions were depleted in  $^{34}\text{S}$   
553 ( $-10‰$  to  $-5‰$ ) relative to fuels ( $\delta^{34}\text{S} = 1‰$ – $10‰$ ) due to isotopic fractionation during  
554 combustion/flue gas desulfurization ( $\epsilon^* \approx -5.5‰$ ). The good agreement of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  between  
555 simulation and observation helps us to make a fundamental finding that this isotopic depletion  
556 counterbalances oxidation enrichment ( $\Delta\delta^{34}\text{S} = +6$  –  $+8‰$ ) during the  $\text{SO}_2 \rightarrow \text{SO}_4^{2-}$  reactions,  
557 explaining an approximate value between  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of sulfur-containing fuels and ambient samples.  
558 Ignoring this effect may cause source apportionment errors

559 Our study also guides future sampling, proposing simultaneous measurement of the  
560 isotopic composition of gaseous precursors and aerosols. This approach aims to enhance better  
561 interpretation of isotopic effects during chemical processes and achieve more accurate source  
562 identification. In addition, conducting direct comparisons between simulations and field  
563 observations remains challenging, primarily due to the limited availability and large  
564 uncertainties in the isotopic composition adopted in the emission inventory. Future  
565 investigations into the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  of sulfur-containing emission sources and measurements of isotopic  
566 fractionation during combustion, gas desulfurization, and multiphase chemical reactions help  
567 improve the simulation. The isotope-enabled models illustrate the dynamic evolution of  
568 isotopes in reactant reservoirs and indicate that the reservoir effect in open systems is found to  
569 be less pronounced than initially estimated by the Rayleigh equation. The model can serve as a  
570 valuable tool for a comprehensive understanding of the sulfur isotope effect and further reduce  
571 the uncertainties in sulfur chemistry and budgets by providing additional isotopic constraints.

572



573 **Code and data availability**

574 The compiled observation data and model output in our work are available via Wei et al.  
575 (2024). The developed isotopic chemistry module is available on Zenodo as Wei, et al. (2025).

576

577 **Supplement**

578 Supporting descriptions of CTM and model configuration, the algorithm framework of  
579 the isotopic chemistry module, the derivation of the stable isotopic composition of the  
580 reservoir in open systems, additional data, figures, and tables are given in the Supporting  
581 Information.

582

583 **Author contributions**

584 L.W., Z.W. and P.F. designed research; L.W., X.C., J.L. and W.Y. developed the isotope-  
585 enabled model; L.W., X.C., Z.W., Y.C., D.L., H.D. and X.P. made a discussion on the algorithm;  
586 L.W. and X.C. performed the modeling experiments; L.W. analyzed the data and wrote the  
587 paper. All authors have approved the final version of the manuscript.

588

589 **Competing interests**

590 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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