

Long-term stability of dithionite in alkaline anaerobic aqueous solution

Katherine Telfeyan^{*}, Artas A. Migdisov, Sachin Pandey, Velimir V. Vesselinov, and Paul W. Reimus

Earth and Environmental Sciences Division, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM 87545, United States

^{*}Corresponding author: Phone: +1 505 665 3880; e-mail: ktelfeyan@lanl.gov

Abstract

Closed-system experiments were conducted to investigate the decomposition of sodium dithionite in aqueous solutions under varying pH and starting concentrations to simulate the deployment of dithionite as an in-situ redox barrier. Co-determination of dithionite and its degradation products was conducted using UV-Vis spectrometry, iodometric titration, and ion chromatography. In unbuffered solutions, dithionite reacted rapidly, whereas in near-neutral solutions (pH ~7), it persisted for ~ 50 days and in alkaline solution (pH ~9.5) for >100 days. These are the longest lifetimes reported to date, which we attribute to not only excluding oxygen but also preventing outgassing of H₂S. Thoroughly constraining the reaction products has led to the following hypothesized reaction:



which represents relatively rapid degradation at near-neutral pH values. At the more alkaline pH, and over longer time scales, the reaction is best represented by:



the following kinetic rate law was developed for the pH range studied:

$$\frac{dC_i}{dt} = S_i 10^{-4.81} \{\text{H}^+\}^{0.24} \{\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}\},$$

where $\frac{dC_i}{dt}$ is the rate of change of the i^{th} chemical component in the simplified equation (mole L⁻¹ s⁻¹) and S_i is the stoichiometric coefficient of the i^{th} chemical. The kinetic rate law was used to calculate a pseudo first order half-life of 10.7 days for near-neutral pH and 33.6 days for alkaline pH. This work implies that if hydrogen sulfide is contained within the system, such as in the case of a confined aquifer below the water table, dithionite decomposes more slowly in alkaline aqueous solution than previously thought, and thus it may be more cost-effectively distributed in aquifers than has been previously assumed.

Keywords: dithionite; sulfur redox chemistry; hydrolysis reaction; in-situ redox manipulation

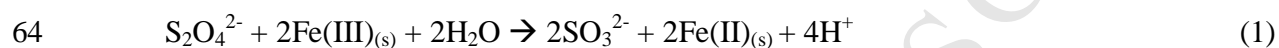
35

36 **I. Introduction**

37 Sulfur is among the most important elements controlling redox equilibria in natural
38 aqueous systems, including high temperature sub-magmatic fluids, geothermal waters, acid-
39 sulfate pools, as well as low temperature systems such as wetlands and geochemical systems
40 artificially created in subsurface aquifers during remediation of contaminated horizons (Luther
41 and Church, 1988; Migdisov and Bychkov, 1998; Fruchter et al., 2000; Burton et al., 2011;
42 Kassalainen and Stefánsson, 2011a,b; Couture et al., 2016). Complexity of the response of sulfur
43 equilibria to changing redox conditions and, thus, its ability to fine-tune redox conditions of
44 geochemical systems, is due to a large number of oxidation states and intermediate species that
45 this element can form in aqueous solutions. The transfer of 8 electrons during oxidation of
46 sulfide to sulfate produces species such as, SO_3^{2-} , $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$, S_8^0 , polysulfides, and polythionates,
47 with the relative proportions depending upon the oxidation state and pH of the system
48 (Kassalainen and Stefánsson, 2011a,b). Quantitative understanding of their relationships is
49 therefore crucial for constraining geochemical controls of these systems and predicting
50 geochemical behavior of redox-sensitive elements. Considerable work has focused on
51 characterizing the S speciation in environments such as hydrothermal waters (Xu et al., 1998;
52 Kassalainen and Stefánsson, 2011a,b), and crater lakes (Casas et al., 2016; Takano, 1987;
53 Takano and Watanuki, 1990; Takano et al., 1994a,b). Changes in sulfur species distribution have
54 also been used as a tool for monitoring volcanic activity and fault geometry (Casas et al., 2016;
55 Takano, 1987; Takano and Watanuki, 1990; Takano et al., 1994a,b). Many of these intermediate
56 redox species, however, are metastable, and thus their distribution depends largely on kinetics,

57 making accurate quantitative determination difficult (Kassalainen and Stefánsson, 2011a,b;
58 Williamson and Rimstidt, 1992).

59 From the point of view of environmental geochemistry, a particularly important
60 intermediate, sodium dithionite, has proven invaluable in environmental remediation for in-situ
61 redox treatment of contaminated groundwater as a strong reducing agent (Istok et al., 1999;
62 Amonette et al., 1994). Dithionite reduces structural ferric iron in iron-bearing minerals
63 according to



65 forming a permeable treatment zone, capable of reducing and immobilizing certain redox-
66 sensitive elements (Istok et al., 1999). Dithionite has been successfully used to treat plumes of
67 Cr(VI) (Istok et al., 1999; Fruchter et al., 2000; Amonette et al., 1994; Ludwig et al., 2007),
68 perchloroethylene (Nzengung et al., 2001), trichloroethylene (Szecsody et al., 2004), and
69 explosive contaminants (Boparai et al., 2008). Additionally, dithionite has been shown to extend
70 the lifetime of nanoscale zero-valent iron also used in contaminant removal (Xie and Cwiertny,
71 2010). Yet, dithionite is unstable, and the concentration of dithionite itself and its degradation
72 products changes with time and is highly dependent on the aquifer conditions (Holman and
73 Bennett, 1994). Geochemical modelling of the systems on which this remediant has been applied
74 and evaluation of the longevity of its effects therefore require quantitative knowledge of its
75 degradation rate, stoichiometry of its decomposition, and variability of these properties with
76 changing aquifer conditions.

77 Unfortunately, the data currently available in the literature on the lifetime of dithionite
78 and its decomposition products are highly scattered (Table 1). One of the factors influencing
79 determined decomposition rates of dithionite and, thus, partially explaining scattering of the data,

80 is the pH at which experiments were performed. It has been consistently shown since the initial
81 work in the early 1900s that decomposition of dithionite greatly accelerates when pH decreases.
82 The greater decomposition under acidic conditions is attributed to a greater decomposition rate
83 of the protonated species HS_2O_4^- or $\text{H}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_4$ relative to the unprotonated $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$, which is
84 predominant in alkaline solutions (Lister and Garvie, 1959). Therefore, dithionite in unbuffered
85 or acidic solution is impractical as a treatment option, and all previous deployments have added a
86 basic buffer to extend its lifetime. For example, during deployment of dithionite to treat a Cr(VI)
87 plume, Istok et al. (1999) buffered the dithionite solution with a $\text{CO}_3^{2-}/\text{HCO}_3^-$ solution to pH ~11.
88 Dithionite decomposition is slower in anaerobic, alkaline solutions and reportedly follows
89 pseudo-first order decay (Ammonette et al., 1994; Lister and Garvie, 1959) or half-order decay
90 in excess alkali (Kilroy, 1980). However, even in alkaline solution, the data on dithionite
91 decomposition is inconsistent (Table 1). Previously reported experimental rate constants vary
92 from $4.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (88.5°C) (Lister and Garvie, 1959), $0.015 \text{ M}^{0.5} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (82°C) (Kilroy, 1980),
93 and $4.8\text{-}8.5 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (varying dithionite concentrations; Amonette et al., 1994). At pH 13,
94 Münchow and Steudel (1994) observed no noticeable loss of dithionite from anaerobic solution
95 for the duration of their study (4 days), but Amonette et al. (1994) measured dithionite after ~ 2
96 weeks. One explanation for such discrepancies is the extent of containment of the experimental
97 solutions. Indeed, if the suggestion of the formation of H_2S as the decomposition product of
98 dithionite is correct (Wayman and Lem, 1970), poor containment of the system should inevitably
99 lead to losses of this component from the solution and acceleration of the decomposition of
100 dithionite. These losses can potentially occur as degassing of the solution due to formation of
101 H_2S gas (even in inert gas-filled compartments, such as gloveboxes), or, if solutions are not
102 protected from the atmosphere, due to oxidation of H_2S by atmospheric oxygen. It should be

103 noted that the majority of the experimental studies referred to above prevented oxygen intrusion
 104 but did not take any special precaution to address the outgassing of H₂S, and therefore they may
 105 have underestimated the dithionite lifetimes. Moreover, the vast majority of the studies available
 106 in the literature on the decomposition of dithionite have been performed for durations not
 107 exceeding 2 weeks, primarily due to quick decomposition of dithionite. However, if this quick
 108 decomposition is caused by the effects discussed above (e.g., poor containment of the solutions),
 109 these data can be misleading for modeling dithionite behavior in anoxic aquifers in which
 110 confined conditions with respect to gas exchange often exist and in which the lifetime of
 111 dithionite can potentially be significantly longer. Even in oxic aquifers, anoxic conditions will
 112 eventually prevail in the immediate vicinity of an injection well because the injected dithionite
 113 will consume all available oxidants near the well. If dithionite is continuously injected under
 114 these conditions, the distance that it can ultimately be pushed into an aquifer will be dictated by
 115 its anaerobic decomposition rate in the presence of aqueous phase reaction products. The goal of
 116 our study is therefore to investigate the stability of dithionite in well-contained systems and, if it
 117 is found that containment increases the life time of dithionite, to expand the time range up to
 118 months. This study also offers a working model that incorporates the important effect of pH on
 119 dithionite degradation rates in anoxic systems. Although other research to support field
 120 deployments has noted the effect of pH on dithionite lifetime, they have not incorporated this
 121 effect into a rate law to accurately predict dithionite degradation through time.

122

123 Table 1. Summary of previous studies' experimental conditions and results.

Reference	Experimental Conditions	Results
Lister and Garvie (1959)	T=88°C; N ₂ atmosphere; [S ₂ O ₄ ²⁻]= 0.034-0.142 M; Buffer: 0.05-0.2 M NaOH	k=4.5·10 ⁻⁴ min ⁻¹
Rinker et al.	T=60-80°C;	R _{induction} =k _c [S ₂ O ₄ ²⁻] ^{3/2} ·[H ⁺] ^{1/2}

(1965)	$[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 0.0055-0.0115$ M; pH=4-7 (KH_2PO_4 and NaOH)	$k_c = 1.3 \cdot 10^8 \cdot e^{-12000/RT}$ L mol ⁻¹ sec ⁻¹
Spencer (1967)	T=15-35°C $[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 0.015-0.2$ M in solution of HSO_3^- , SO_3^{2-} , NaCl (pH 5.2)	First-order decay Decomposition products: trithionate, thiosulfate
Burlamacchi et al. (1969)	T=60-90°C $[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 0.067, 0.125, 0.25$ M; pH=6 (phosphate buffer)	$-d[S_2O_4^{2-}]/dt = k' [S_2O_4^{2-}][HSO_3^-]$ $k' = 0.57-7.8 \cdot 10^3$ L mole ⁻¹ s ⁻¹
Lem and Wayman (1970)	T=23°C; Ar atmosphere; $[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 1, 2, 5, 10 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M; pH range: 3.5, 4, 4.5, 5 (Buffers: acetate, sodium hydrogen phosphate-citric acid)	$-dC/dt = k_1[H^+]C + k_2[H^+]C(C^0 - C)$ $k_1 = 1.67 \cdot 10^{-1}$ L mol ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ $k_2 = 5.83 \cdot 10^3$ L ² mole ⁻² s ⁻¹
Kilroy (1980)	T=82°C; Ar atmosphere; $[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 0.02-0.08$ M; Buffer: NaOH	$k = 0.014-0.018$ (mol/L) ^{-0.5} min ⁻¹
Holman and Bennett (1994)	T=42-88.5°C; N ₂ purged Excess Bisulfite pH: mildly acidic	$d[S_2O_4^{2-}]/dt = -k_1[S_2O_4^{2-}][HSO_3^-] - k_2[S_2O_4^{2-}]^{0.5}[HSO_3^-][S_3O_6^{2-}]$ $k_1 = (3.1 \pm 0.3 \cdot 10^2$ M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ · T · exp(-(54.3 ± 5)/RT) $k_2 = (1.67 \pm 0.2 \cdot 10^7$ M ^{-3/2} s ⁻¹ · T · exp(-(78.4 ± 7)/RT)
Münchow and Steudel (1994)	T=20°C; $[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 0.0214$ M; pH: 5.7, 13	Reaction products: thiosulfate, sulfite Dithionite in alkaline solution persists (Experiments not exceeding 2 hours)
Amonette et al. (1994)	T=30°C; Ar (95%), H ₂ (4%); $[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 0.002, 0.013, 0.06$ M; CaCO ₃ buffer	0.06 M: $t_{1/2} = 135$ h; $k_{app} = 8.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ min ⁻¹ 0.002 M: $t_{1/2} = 243$ h; $k_{app} = 4.8 \cdot 10^{-5}$ min ⁻¹
de Carvalho and Schwedt (2001)	$[S_2O_4^{2-}] = 0.0065$ M Background solutions of formaldehyde, NaOH, HMTA in glycerol and water, diammonium hydrogen phosphate/ammonium hydroxide, Triton X-100	Major reaction products: sulfite thiosulfate Minor reaction products: sulfide, elemental S

124

125

126

II. Materials and Methods

127

II.A. Sample Preparation

128

Experiments involved determination of the concentrations of dithionite and its decomposition

129

products in solutions contained in sealed 10 ml glass ampoules. Considering that the typical pH

130

observed in the solutions of treated aquifers ranges from 7 to 10, experiments were performed in

131

three types of solutions: 1) 0.1 M sodium bicarbonate (Certified ACS, Fisher scientific; pH =

132

7.8-8.3), hereafter referred to as the HCO_3^- buffered solutions, 2) 1 wt%

133 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, disodium salt dehydrate, 0.6 wt% potassium carbonate, 0.5 wt%
134 potassium hydroxide, and 0.4 wt% potassium borate (pH = 9.8 – 10; Fisher Scientific pH 10
135 buffer solution), hereafter referred to as the EDTA/OH⁻ buffered solutions, and 3) in pH-
136 unbuffered deionized water. Dithionite solutions were prepared by dissolving Na₂S₂O₄
137 (Laboratory Grade, Fisher Scientific) in the above solutions. Experiments were performed at
138 room temperature (25°C) with solutions having three initial concentrations of dithionite, 0.1 M,
139 0.05 M, 0.025 M, which were chosen to encompass the range of concentrations used in previous
140 field injections (Istok et al., 1999; Fruchter et al., 2000). Prior to addition of dithionite salt, all
141 solutions were degassed under vacuum and thereafter intensively purged with Ar gas to remove
142 any traces of oxygen. Solutions were transferred via syringe into Ar-purged glass ampoules. The
143 ampoules were immediately flame sealed to prevent oxygen intrusion into the solutions and
144 potential losses of H₂S out of them. A cloudy appearance was observed in the unbuffered 0.05 M
145 and 0.025 M solutions, which disappeared in less than one day. All glass ampoules used in the
146 study were filled the same day (total of 108 ampoules) and left undisturbed until sampled.
147 Sampling of the solutions was performed after 1, 3, 7, 10, 14, 29, 45, 55, 66, 78, 86, and 105
148 days from the beginning of the experiment. Each sampling involved opening of 9 ampoules (0.1
149 M, 0.05 M, 0.025 M / HCO₃⁻ buffered solutions, EDTA/OH⁻ buffered solutions, unbuffered) and
150 determination of S species and pH. Sampling was performed immediately after opening the
151 ampoule, and analyses for all analytes were conducted as quickly as possible (approximately 5
152 min.).

153 *II.B. Sample Analyses*

154 For each sampling event, solutions were analyzed for concentrations of dithionite,
155 sulfide, sulfite, thiosulfate, and sulfate. We also determined pH and, to control the mass balance

156 of sulfur, total concentration of sulfur species able to interact with iodine (dithionite, sulfide,
157 sulfite, thiosulfate, and polythionates, except $S_2O_6^{2-}$).

158 *II.B.i. UV-Vis analysis: $S_2O_4^{2-}$, SO_3^{2-}*

159 When a vial was broken for sampling, an aliquot was immediately taken for UV-vis
160 analysis (dithionite, sulfite, and thiosulfate) on a Shimadzu UV-2600 spectrophotometer. UV-vis
161 spectra of experimental solutions were recorded in a flow-through cuvette under strictly oxygen-
162 free conditions for the wavelengths ranging from 190 to 400 nm with an increment of 1 nm. A
163 glass vial, containing 50 mL distilled water and 1 mL of 0.1 M HCO_3^- , which was continuously
164 purged with Ar, was connected with tygon tubing to the cuvette. Continuous circulation of the
165 solution between the vial and the cuvette was forced by peristaltic pump.

166 Dithionite concentrations were measured at a wavelength of 350 nm (Ammonette et al.,
167 1994). Sulfite was determined at a wavelength of 200 nm. Although the $S_2O_3^{2-}$ and SO_3^{2-} UV-vis
168 spectra overlap, both deconvolution of the UV-vis spectra and titration with formaldehyde
169 described below indicated negligible thiosulfate formation. Owing to the near-immediate partial
170 degradation of dithionite, calibrating the UV-vis spectral signal of dithionite-bearing solutions is
171 essential, yet non-trivial. Known amounts of dithionite salt were added to glass vials pre-purged
172 with Ar gas and sealed with rubber stoppers. The buffer solutions were then added by syringe
173 through the rubber stoppers. Upon complete dissolution of the salt, an aliquot was extracted by
174 syringe and UV-vis spectra were recorded. Another aliquot was taken for iodometric titration to
175 determine dissolved sulfur species as described below. The latter indicated that ~50% of the
176 dithionite underwent immediate decomposition

177 *II.B.ii. Iodimetric Titration*

178 Another aliquot of sample was taken for iodometric titration, which determines total
179 reduced sulfur species (Danehy and Zubritsky, 1974; Szekeres, 1974; Migdisov and Bychkov,
180 1998). This technique was used to determine a mass balance as it measures the concentration of
181 all S species except oxidized S (i.e., SO_4^{2-}), elemental S, and $\text{S}_2\text{O}_6^{2-}$. In some selected samples,
182 $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ was also determined through iodometric titration with formaldehyde (Danehy and
183 Zubritsky, 1974; Szekeres, 1974), but these analyses determined that thiosulfate formation was
184 negligible.

185 The concentrations of dissolved sulfide sulfur (H_2S , HS^-) in the solutions were
186 determined by precipitation with Cd acetate and iodometric back titration. The technique
187 involves precipitation of sulfide sulfur in the form of insoluble CdS (by adding an aliquot of Cd
188 acetate), separation of the precipitate from the solution by centrifuging or filtration, and the
189 aforementioned iodometric back titration of the solid precipitate in an aliquot having an excess of
190 HCl and iodine by sodium thiosulfate (Szekeres, 1974).

191 *II.B.iii Ion Chromatography (SO_4^{2-})*

192 Oxidized S (i.e., SO_4^{2-} analysis) was determined on a Dionex ICS-2100 Ion
193 Chromatography System. The aliquots which were not analyzed immediately after sampling,
194 were immediately frozen to stop decomposition of dithionite and preclude continuous
195 accumulation of decomposition products.

196 Any S in excess of the independently determined $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$, SO_3^{2-} , HS^- , SO_4^{2-} and $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ can
197 be attributed to zero valent sulfur, some of the polythionate species, and/or elemental sulfur
198 involved in polysulfane chains.

199 *II.C. Kinetics of dithionite decomposition*

200 A numerical model was formulated to quantify the kinetics of dithionite degradation in the
201 HCO_3^- and EDTA/ OH^- buffered experiments. The unbuffered experiments were not modeled
202 because degradation was so rapid that it was considered impractical to consider using dithionite
203 without buffering. No attempt was made to model the very rapid initial degradation of
204 dithionite. To allow for quantitative comparison of the HCO_3^- and EDTA/ OH^- buffered
205 experiments, a kinetic model was developed based upon the experimentally deduced
206 stoichiometry (Equation (4) in Section IVA) for both sets of experiments. The kinetic rate
207 expression assumed first order dependence on dithionite concentration and a fractional order
208 dependence on proton activity:

$$209 \quad \frac{dC_i}{dt} = S_i k \{H^+\}^\alpha \{S_2O_4^{2-}\}, \quad (2)$$

210 where C_i is the concentration at each time step and S_i is the stoichiometric coefficient of the i^{th}
211 chemical component in Equation (4), t is time (s), k is the kinetic rate constant, α is a fractional
212 exponent, and $\{S_2O_4^{2-}\}$ and $\{H^+\}$ are the respective dithionite and proton activities at each time
213 step. The inclusion of a fractional order dependence on proton activity reflects an autocatalytic
214 process in which there is no additional generation or consumption of protons beyond that
215 described in Equation (4). Na^+ is also included in the model, along with HCO_3^- as a
216 representative buffer. It was assumed that $S_2O_4^{2-}$, H_2O , SO_3^{2-} , HS^- , SO_4^{2-} , H^+ , Na^+ , and HCO_3^-
217 could be modeled as total components (Benjamin, 2014) in order to include equilibrium reactions
218 with secondary species dictated by the laws of mass action. This approach allows for a more
219 accurate calculation of proton activity. The model includes the secondary species and
220 corresponding mass action laws shown in Table 2, which are taken from the EQ3/6 database
221 (Wolery, 1992). As mentioned in Section I, sulfur possesses many oxidation states and
222 intermediate species that can form in aqueous solutions. Rather than include all potential

223 secondary species, we focus on well-established secondary species that form in the presence of
224 the reaction products in Equation 3 and whose equilibrium constants are readily available in the
225 EQ3/6 thermodynamic database. Activity coefficients were calculated in each time step using the
226 Debye-Hückel equation.

227 Equation (4) was coupled to Equation (2) in PFLOTRAN (Lichtner et al., 2017a,b) using
228 its “reaction-sandbox” interface (Hammond, 2015). A model calibration procedure was used to
229 simultaneously match the observed $S_2O_4^{2-}$ concentrations and pH trends at all three starting
230 dithionite concentrations in both the HCO_3^- and $EDTA/OH^-$ buffered experiments. The
231 adjustable parameters were k and α . Additionally, because the reactions that occurred during the
232 early re-equilibration phase were very complex and too rapid to be quantified from the limited
233 number of samples that could be obtained from the sealed sacrificial reactors, the early dithionite
234 concentrations and pH values were treated as adjustable parameters that effectively match the
235 early observations very well. The model does not account for the early rapid degradation of
236 dithionite, which clearly gives rise to additional species in solution that alter buffering capacity.
237 The primary consideration was to accurately match the observed pH trends so that the pH
238 dependence of the dithionite degradation rate could be properly described via the fitted α
239 parameter. Finally, an additional parameter needed to match the observed pH trends was the
240 effective buffering capacity of the solutions, which was incorporated into the model as an
241 equivalent concentration of initial bicarbonate ($[HCO_3^-]_{eff}$) for each set of experiments.
242 Although the inclusion of an adjustable effective buffering capacity is a gross simplification of
243 potentially complex equilibrium reactions involving H^+ , it is consistent with treating the initial
244 dithionite concentrations and pH as adjustable parameters, as these are all measures taken to
245 compensate for a lack of information available to explicitly account for early reaction processes,

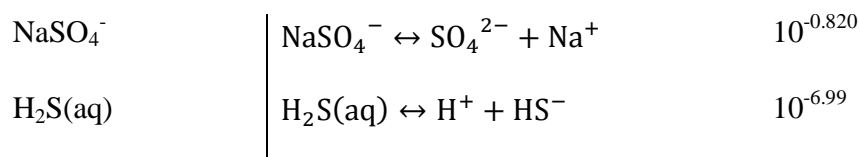
246 and in the case of the EDTA/OH⁻ buffered experiments, also the inability to explicitly account
 247 for the complexity of the added buffer. For the purposes of this study, the use of an adjustable
 248 buffering capacity allowed for more accurate prediction of pH trends, which is required for the
 249 parameterization of a pH dependent kinetic rate law. Calibration was achieved using the open-
 250 source code MADS (Vesselinov and Harp, 2012). The model parameters were calibrated using
 251 inverse analysis (utilizing Levenberg-Marquardt optimization) to reproduce the experimental
 252 observations as defined in the MADS problem setup. For a more detailed description of the
 253 PFLOTRAN-MADS calibration procedure, please refer to Appendix B.

254

255 Table 2. Secondary species with corresponding mass action laws and equilibrium constants (K)
 256 used in the numerical model.

257

Secondary species	Mass action law	K
OH ⁻	OH ⁻ + H ⁺ ↔ H ₂ O	10 ^{14.0}
CO ₃ ²⁻	CO ₃ ²⁻ + H ⁺ ↔ HCO ₃ ⁻	10 ^{10.3}
CO ₂ (aq)	CO ₂ (aq) + H ₂ O ↔ H ⁺ + HCO ₃ ⁻	10 ^{-6.34}
HSO ₃ ⁻	HSO ₃ ⁻ ↔ H ⁺ + SO ₃ ²⁻	10 ^{-7.21}
H ₂ SO ₃ (aq)	H ₂ SO ₃ (aq) ↔ 2H ⁺ + SO ₃ ²⁻	10 ^{-9.21}
HSO ₄ ⁻	HSO ₄ ⁻ ↔ H ⁺ + SO ₄ ²⁻	10 ^{-1.98}
H ₂ SO ₄ (aq)	H ₂ SO ₄ (aq) ↔ 2H ⁺ + SO ₄ ²⁻	10 ^{1.02}
NaCO ₃ ⁻	NaCO ₃ ⁻ + H ⁺ ↔ HCO ₃ ⁻ + Na ⁺	10 ^{9.81}
NaHCO ₃ (aq)	NaHCO ₃ (aq) ↔ HCO ₃ ⁻ + Na ⁺	10 ^{-0.154}
NaOH(aq)	NaOH(aq) + H ⁺ ↔ H ₂ O + Na ⁺	10 ^{14.8}

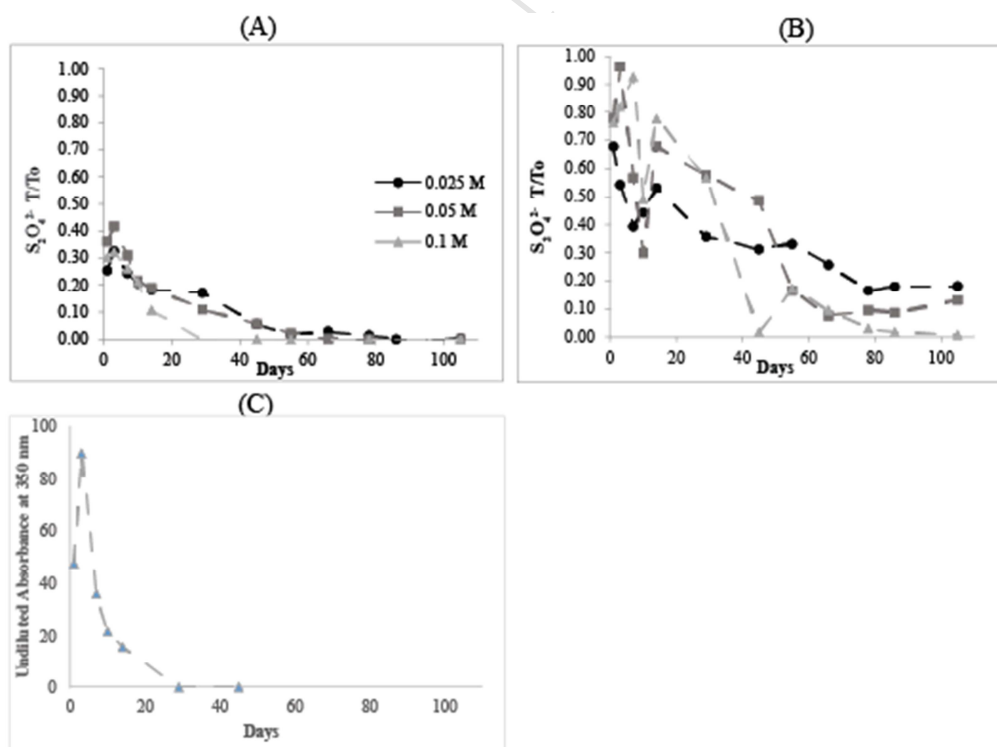


258

259 **III. Results**260 *III.A. Dithionite concentrations through time*

261 Concentrations of dithionite, its hydrolysis products, and pH of the solutions determined
 262 during the experiments are reported figures 1-3. Figure 1 shows the decomposition of dithionite
 263 through time. The first measurement was taken 1 day after solutions were prepared. At this stage,
 264 determined concentrations of dithionite represented only a fraction of dithionite initially placed
 265 in the solution. This fraction systematically decreases with decreasing pH. For example, for
 266 HCO₃⁻ buffered solutions (pH=7.5 to 7.1), recovery of dithionite after 1 day was 26 to 30% of
 267 the initial concentrations (Fig. 1a). Conversely, in the EDTA/OH⁻ buffered solutions having
 268 pH=9.1-9.7, this value ranged from 68 to 78% (Fig. 1b). It is likely that during the first days
 269 after solution preparation dithionite undergoes complex re-equilibration with its hydrolysis
 270 products: the first 3 samples taken demonstrated a relative increase of dithionite concentrations
 271 with respect to concentrations determined during day 1. The induction period and subsequent
 272 rapid autocatalytic reactions during the first few minutes of S₂O₄²⁻ addition to aqueous solution
 273 have been the subject of intense study, but the current methods did not permit sampling at such
 274 frequent time intervals (Rinker et al., 1965; Burlamacchi et al., 1969; Wayman and Lem, 1970).
 275 The current study suggests that dithionite continues a rapid equilibration process over the time
 276 scale of a day or so, after which the dithionite undergoes a slow irreversible degradation until all
 277 the dithionite disappears (30+ days). Once the dithionite is gone, the reaction products
 278 presumably continue to interact with each other until a final geochemical and redox equilibrium

279 is reached. The unbuffered solutions experienced rapid loss of dithionite. Although the 0.1 M
280 solution persisted for 2-3 weeks, the 0.05 M and 0.025 M solutions had no measureable
281 dithionite after the first day (Fig. 1c). Because of the rapid loss of dithionite in the unbuffered
282 solutions, it would be impractical to consider an unbuffered dithionite deployment, so the
283 remainder of this paper focuses on the behavior of dithionite in the buffered solutions. For the
284 solutions buffered in HCO_3^- , dithionite disappeared after 29 days in the 0.1 M solution, whereas
285 the disappearance was 55 and 78 days in the 0.05 M and 0.025 M solutions, respectively (Fig.
286 1a). Similarly, the solutions buffered with EDTA/OH^- experienced more rapid loss for the 0.1 M
287 solution than the 0.05 and 0.025 M solutions. However, dithionite persisted much longer in all of
288 the EDTA/OH^- buffered solutions as compared to the HCO_3^- buffered solutions, lasting until 105
289 days in the 0.1 M solution, and remaining present until the end of the experiment (105 days; Fig.
290 1b) in the 0.05 and 0.025 M solutions.



291

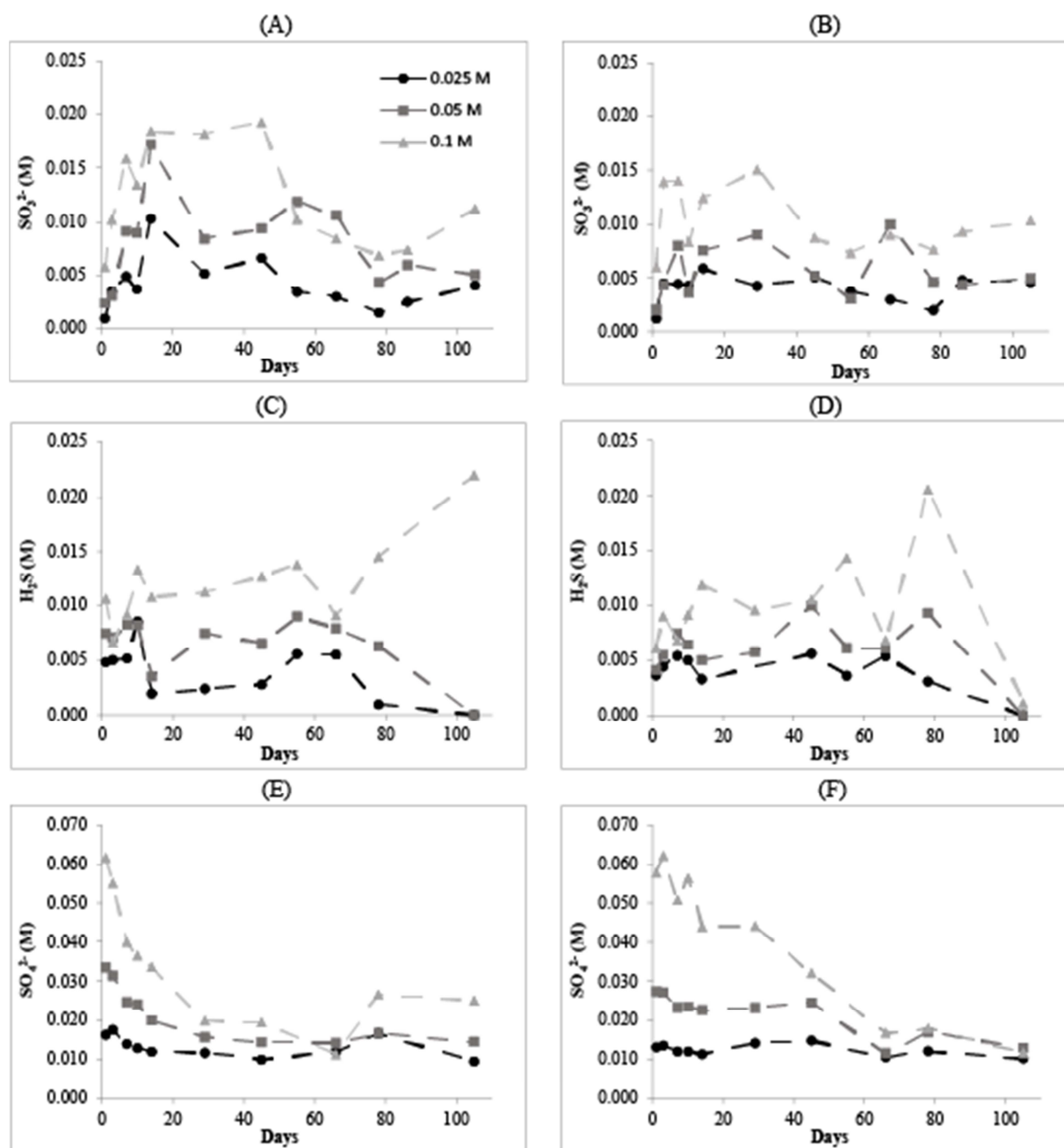
292 Figure 1: Dithionite decomposition through time in (A) HCO_3^- , (B) EDTA/ OH^- , and (C)
293 unbuffered solutions. A and B show the fraction of dithionite remaining relative to starting
294 concentrations. Absorbances are reported for the unbuffered solutions (C) as no calibration was
295 possible owing to the rapid degradation. Data are also reported in Appendix A.1.

296 *III.B. Degradation Products of Dithionite through time*

297 The hydrolysis products determined in the experiments demonstrate distinctively different
298 behavior. Sulfite (SO_3^{2-}) and sulfide (HS^-) are found in nearly equimolar concentrations in
299 effectively all sampled solutions (Fig. 2a-d; Appendix A.2, A.3). Both of these species do not
300 show a definitive variation with time. The large temporal variability of the concentrations of
301 SO_3^{2-} may be due, in part, to experimental errors. In order to prevent saturating the UV-detector,
302 a very small amount of sample (0.05 mL) was diluted substantially (1210 times). The accuracy
303 of the syringe is 0.01 mL, and thus the error with the SO_3^{2-} measurements may be as high as
304 20%. However, it is apparent that in all samples, the SO_3^{2-} concentrations experience an initial
305 increase similar to that of $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$. Sulfite in the HCO_3^- buffered samples then appears to plateau
306 before dropping off at around 50-60 days (Fig. 2a). Sulfite in the EDTA/ OH^- buffered samples,
307 however, decreases around 30 days but then increase by the end of the experiment (Fig. 2b).
308 Sulfite accounts for between 2 and 12% of the total S in EDTA/ OH^- buffered solutions and
309 between 3 and 20% in HCO_3^- buffered solutions

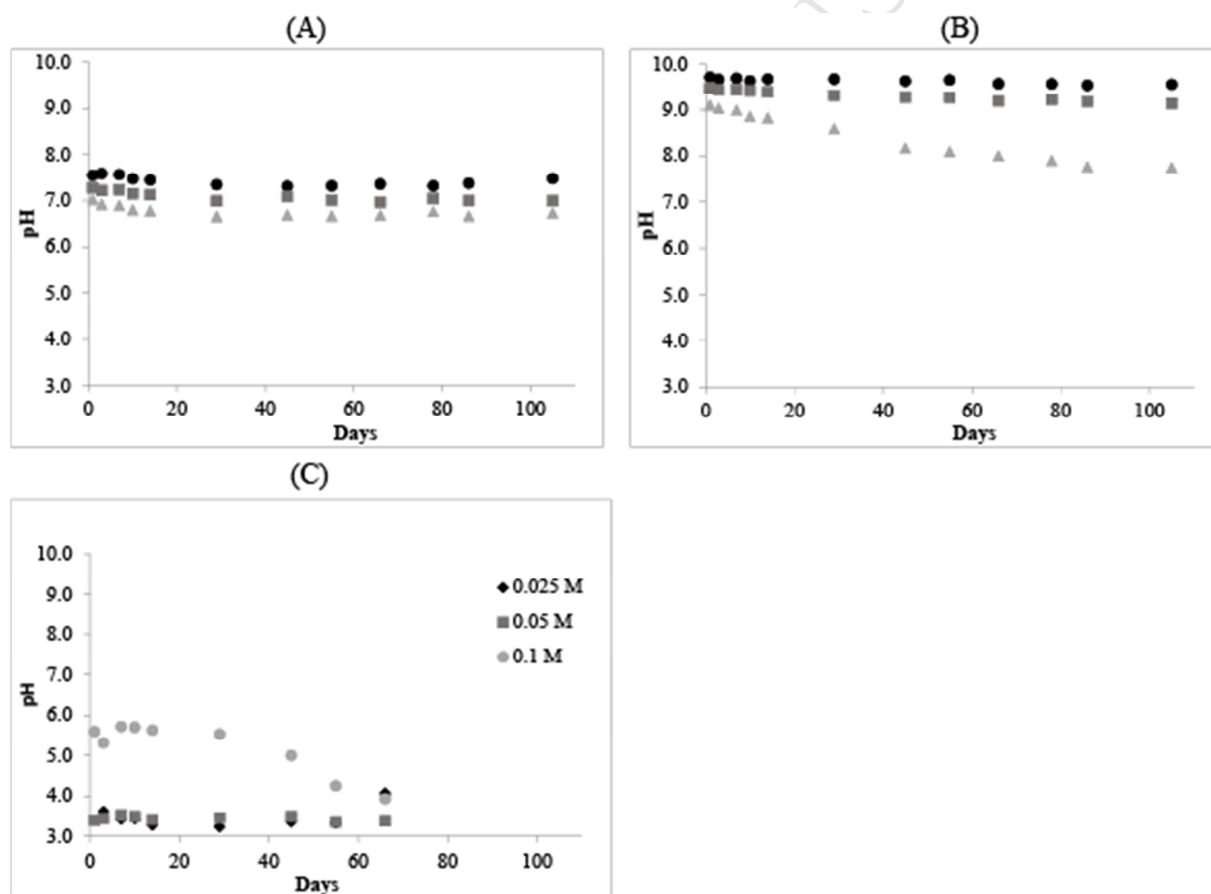
310 In HCO_3^- buffered solutions, the concentration of SO_4^{2-} decreases with time (Fig. 2e). In
311 the first 2 samples, SO_4^{2-} accounts for about 33% of total S, but by the completion of the
312 experiment accounts for between 5 and 20%. A similar pattern is seen with the 0.1 M sample in
313 EDTA/ OH^- buffered solution, in which the percentage of SO_4^{2-} accounting for total S drops from

314 33% to 5%. However, the 0.05 and 0.025 M solutions have relatively steady SO_4^{2-}
 315 concentrations through time (Fig. 2f).



316
 317 Figure 2: Concentrations of (A, B) SO_3^{2-} , (C, D) H_2S , and (E, F) SO_4^{2-} through time in (A, C, E)
 318 HCO_3^- buffered and (B, D, F) EDTA/ OH^- buffered solutions. Concentrations are also reported in
 319 Appendix A.2, A.3.

320 In all samples, the pH decreases through time, and the decrease is more pronounced with
 321 increasing concentrations for the HCO_3^- buffered and EDTA/OH^- solutions, whereas the pH of
 322 the 0.1 M unbuffered solution is higher than either the 0.05 M or 0.025 M unbuffered solutions
 323 (Fig. 3). More specifically, in the HCO_3^- buffered solutions, the pH drops from 7.5 to 7.3 in the
 324 0.025 M solution, from 7.3 to 7.0 in the 0.05 M solution, and from 7.0 to 6.8 in the 0.1 M
 325 solution (Fig. 3a). Similarly, in the EDTA/OH^- buffered solution, the pH drops from 9.7 to 9.6 in
 326 the 0.025 M solution, from 9.5 to 9.2 M in the 0.05 M solution and from 9.1 to 7.9 in the 0.1 M
 327 solution (Fig. 3b).

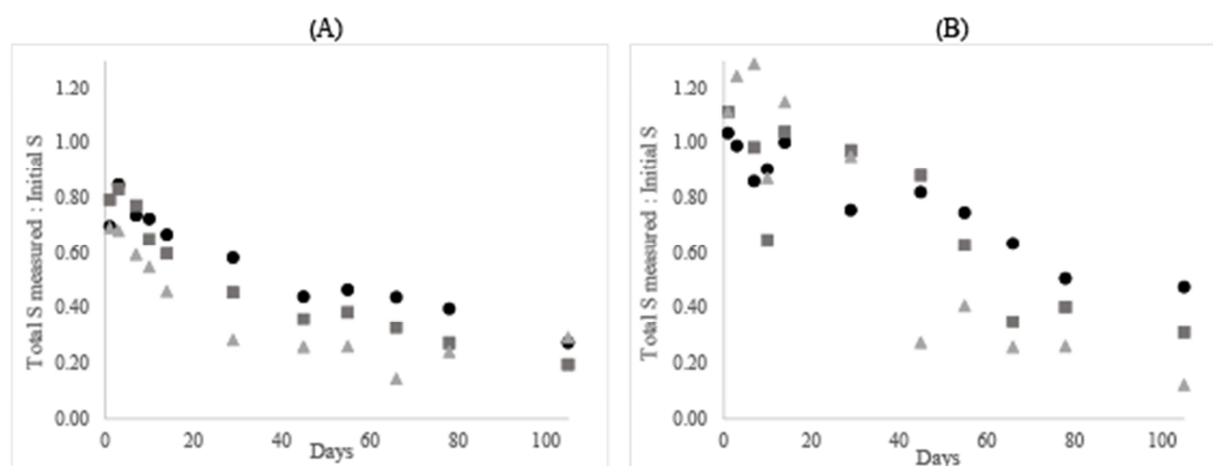


328
 329 Figure 3: pH through time in (A) HCO_3^- buffered, (B) EDTA/OH^- buffered, and (C) unbuffered
 330 solutions. pH values are also reported in Appendix A.2, A.3.

331 **IV. Discussion**

332 *IV. A. Hydrolysis of dithionite*

333 Faster degradation of dithionite at lower pH is consistent with previous studies (Lister and
334 Garvie, 1959; Kilroy, 1980; Ammonette et al., 1994). However, accounting for all previously
335 reported major degradation products (i.e., SO_3^{2-} , $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$) (Lister and Garvie, 1959; Münchow and
336 Steudel, 1994; de Carvalho and Schwedt, 2001, 2005) in these experiments demonstrates that a
337 substantial proportion of sulfur cannot be accounted for in near-neutral solutions (pH=7.5 to 7.1).
338 The sum of the S species determined in these experiments was only 68 to 78% of the initial total
339 sulfur concentrations right at the first day of the experiments and demonstrated continuous
340 decrease with time (Fig. 4a). At alkaline conditions (pH = 9.0 - 9.7), measured sulfur species
341 accounted for almost 100% of initial total sulfur concentrations during the first 30 days of the
342 experiment (Fig. 4b). Based on the analytical techniques used, the experiments were unable to
343 account for all S species, in particular, zero-valent sulfur, some of the polythionate species,
344 and/or elemental sulfur involved in polysulfane chains. The initial unbuffered solutions became
345 milky white, suggesting the formation of colloidal S at low pH (~4), and other experiments have
346 also suggested the formation of elemental S during the decomposition of dithionite (Rinker et al.,
347 1965; Wayman and Lem, 1970; de Carvalho and Schwedt, 2001). de Carvalho and Schwedt
348 (2001) note the disappearance of elemental sulfur within 24 hours, which is consistent with our
349 observations of the unbuffered solutions.



350

351

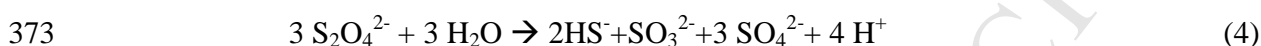
352 Figure 4: Ratio of measured S relative to the starting concentration in (A) HCO₃⁻ buffered and
 353 (B) EDTA/OH⁻ buffered solutions.

354 In addition to elemental S, which appeared to be important only at very low pH
 355 (unbuffered solutions), dithionite decomposition may produce polythionates. The decomposition
 356 of polythionates produces sulfate, elemental sulfur, and hydrogen ions and is thus consistent with
 357 the analytically measured products (Meyer and Ospina, 1982; Takano, 1987; Takano et al.,
 358 1994a; Druschel et al., 2003a,b). Therefore, we hypothesize that in these solutions formation of
 359 polythionate S₄O₆²⁻ has occurred, and that the hydrolysis reaction of dithionite can be expressed
 360 as follows:



362 This reaction progresses to a lesser extent as pH increases, consistent with polythionates having
 363 greater stability at low pH and undergoing decomposition at higher pH (Meyer and Ospina,
 364 1982; Druschel et al., 2003a,b). Reaction 2 therefore is a proxy for the more rapid process of
 365 dithionite degradation observed at near-neutral pH (HCO₃⁻ buffered solutions). The
 366 stoichiometry of reaction 2 accounts for the initial production of protons and polythionates (i.e.,

367 unaccounted for sulfur species) observed in HCO_3^- buffered experiments at each dithionite
 368 concentration. Because we were not able to directly measure the various polythionates and
 369 elemental sulfur, it is possible that the $\text{S}_4\text{O}_6^{2-}$ term represents the summation of other
 370 unaccounted for S species. Nevertheless, at higher pH values (EDTA/ OH^- buffered solutions)
 371 and on longer time scales, this term becomes less important and the reaction is better represented
 372 as:



375 *IV. B. Kinetics of dithionite decomposition*

376

377 Equation (5) shows the parameterized kinetic rate law:

$$378 \quad \frac{dC_i}{dt} = S_i 10^{-4.81} \{\text{H}^+\}^{0.24} \{\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}\}, \quad (5)$$

379 where $\frac{dC_i}{dt}$ has units of $\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$. Results of model calibration are shown in Figures 5 and 6, and
 380 additional calibrated model parameters for the two sets of experiments are shown in Table 3
 381 (note that although the initial pH and initial $[\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}]$ in each experiment were technically
 382 “calibrated”, the model effectively just matched these parameters to their observed values after
 383 the initial rapid equilibration period). In general, the kinetic rate model with equilibrium
 384 speciation was capable of fitting the $[\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}]$ and pH data simultaneously for all initial $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$
 385 concentrations in both the HCO_3^- buffered and EDTA/ OH^- buffered experiments. $[\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{eff}}$ for
 386 the HCO_3^- buffered solutions (0.329 M) was found to be higher than the 0.1 M HCO_3^- used,
 387 which is most likely due to the early rapid generation of reaction products that have buffering
 388 capacity (e.g. $\text{H}_2\text{S}_4\text{O}_6(\text{aq})$, HS_4O_6^-) not considered in the model. The high calibrated value of

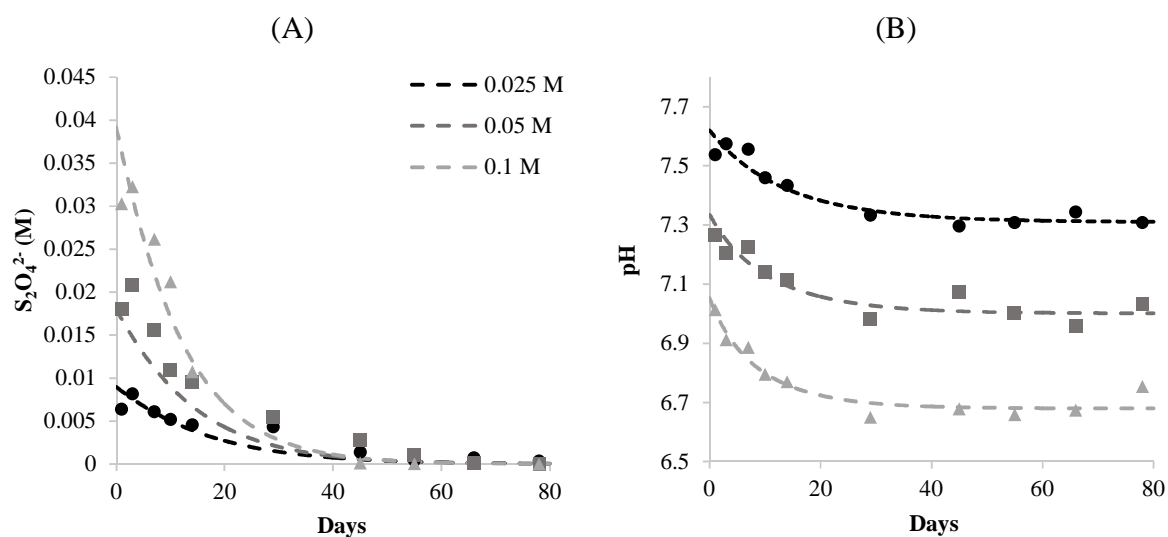
389 $[\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{eff}}$ for the EDTA/ OH^- buffered experiments (0.570 M) was likely due to the complex
 390 buffers used in stock buffer solution.

391

392 Table 3. Additional calibrated parameters used in the numerical model.

393

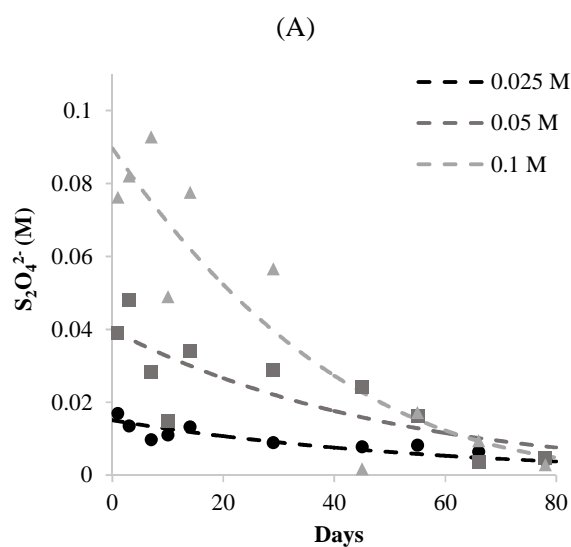
Parameter	Units	pH 8.3	pH 10
pH_i , 0.1 M $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$	-	7.15	9.14
pH_i , 0.05 M $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$	-	7.43	9.55
pH_i , 0.025 M $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$	-	7.71	9.81
$[\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}]_i$, 0.1 M $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$	M	0.0391	0.0897
$[\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}]_i$, 0.05 M $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$	M	0.0180	0.0397
$[\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}]_i$, 0.025 M $\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$	M	0.00897	0.0151
$[\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{eff}}$	M	0.329	0.570



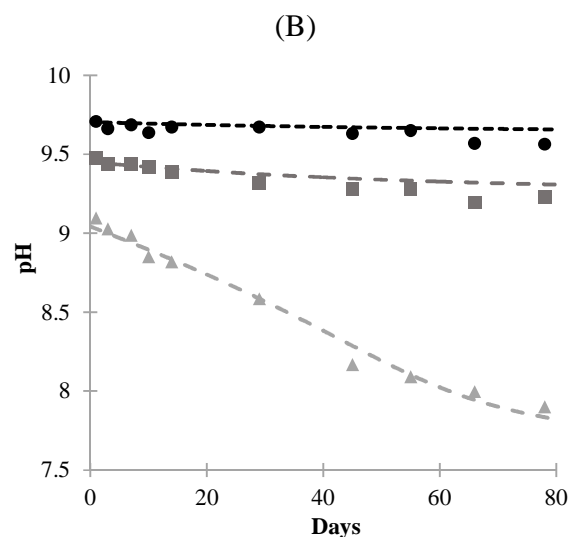
394

395 Figure 5. Simulation of experiments conducted in the HCO_3^- buffered solution. Panel (A) shows
396 the dithionite concentration, and Panel (B) shows pH. The figure compares calibrated model
397 curves (dashed lines) and experimental data (points) for the different concentrations of dithionite
398 used in these experiments.

399



400



401

402 Figure 6. Simulation of experiments conducted in the EDTA/OH^- buffered solution. Panel (A)
403 shows the dithionite concentration, and Panel (B) shows pH. The figure compares calibrated

404 model curves (dashed lines) and experimental data (points) for the different concentrations of
405 dithionite used in these experiments. The fitted model parameters, k and α of equation (4), are
406 identical for the model curves of Figures 5 and 6.

407 Equation (5) was used to estimate half-lives of each experiment by treating
408 $10^{-4.81\{H^+\}_i^{0.24}}$ as a pseudo first order rate constant, where $\{H^+\}_i$ is the initial proton activity
409 calculated using the calibrated value of pH_i , and normalizing by the stoichiometric coefficient of
410 $S_2O_4^{2-}$ in Equation (4). The estimated half-lives for the HCO_3^- buffered experiments were 9.06,
411 10.6, and 12.4 days for the 0.1, 0.05, and 0.025 M dithionite concentrations, respectively,
412 resulting in a mean half-life of 10.7 days. The estimated half-lives for the EDTA/ OH^- buffered
413 experiments were 27.2, 34.2, and 39.5 days for 0.1 M, 0.05 M, and 0.025 M dithionite
414 concentrations respectively, resulting in a mean half-life of 33.6 days. The mean values represent
415 single best estimates that consider all initial starting concentrations for a given pH while also
416 assuming that the half-life varies with pH but not dithionite concentration (pseudo first-
417 order). The longer half-life reported at the higher pH in the present study relative to the half-lives
418 reported by Amonette et al. (1994) at a similar pH is most likely the result of preventing any
419 gases from either entering or leaving the glass-sealed ampoules in the current study. It is well
420 known that oxygen reacts rapidly with dithionite (Rinker et al., 1960; Creutz and Sutin, 1974),
421 and care was taken in both studies to minimize or eliminate oxygen, but the present study also
422 prevented the egress of gasses from the reaction vessels. Amonette et al. (1994) do not mention
423 any measures taken to prevent H_2S egress (which can occur through many types of vessel caps or
424 stoppers), and we hypothesize that keeping the H_2S in our reaction vessels slowed the
425 degradation of dithionite because it maintained a higher concentration of the degradation
426 product(s) HS^-/S^{2-} in solution.

427 Although the rate law (equation 5) can effectively predict the post-rapid-hydrolysis
428 degradation rate as a function of pH, several lines of evidence suggest that assuming reaction (4)
429 accounts for all dithionite degradation and using only the limited assemblage of species and
430 reactions in Table 2 greatly oversimplifies the system. The fact that the pH trends in the
431 experiments can only be matched if the initial effective pH buffering of the system (the first ~ 3
432 days) is treated as an adjustable parameter is one such line of evidence. Also, as $S_2O_4^{2-}$
433 concentrations decrease with time, the concentrations of reaction (4) products SO_4^{2-} , SO_3^{2-} and
434 HS^- measured in the experiments either decreased or stayed relatively constant. This is contrary
435 to simulation results. These species are reaction products in reaction (3), so the model predicted
436 that their concentration would increase proportionally to the amount of dithionite that is
437 degraded. Instead, it is the concentration(s) of the unaccounted for reduced S species, which are
438 not considered in the model, that consistently increase with time. These observations suggest
439 that (1) there are unaccounted-for reaction products that are involved in hydrolysis and acid-base
440 reactions that are not considered by the model, and (2) the sulfur chemistry evolves in a complex
441 manner as a result of interactions between reduced and oxidized sulfur reaction products that are
442 not thermodynamically compatible.

443 *IV. C. Implications for Environmental Remediation*

444 As a strong reducing agent, dithionite has the potential to be a useful chemical for
445 environmental remediation of oxidic contaminants, such as Cr(VI). However, its high reactivity
446 makes it challenging to deploy in the field, and even if oxygen is eliminated from solution before
447 addition, dithionite degradation still occurs at a significant rate. The results of this study suggest
448 that in order to develop a complete mechanistic model of dithionite degradation, simultaneous
449 determination of every S species on the time scale of minutes would be required. However, we

450 reasoned that the early-time degradation behavior of dithionite, other than the fraction of
451 dithionite remaining, is not of practical importance because this rapid degradation will occur
452 almost immediately upon dissolving dithionite. Thus, we focused on the development of a semi-
453 mechanistic, semi-empirical rate law describing anoxic aqueous decomposition of dithionite as a
454 function of pH *after* the initial rapid degradation/equilibration process. Although we did not
455 address dithionite decomposition in the presence of oxygen or aquifer sediments, knowledge of
456 anaerobic decomposition rates should prove valuable for such follow-on studies because anoxic
457 decomposition will always be superimposed on oxic decomposition. From a practical
458 standpoint, the anoxic conditions of this study are relevant for estimating how far into an aquifer
459 dithionite can be “pushed” from an injection well. Assuming dithionite reacts rapidly with any
460 dissolved oxygen and oxidized sediments that are present in the aquifer (e.g., ferric and
461 manganese oxides), these oxic reactants will eventually be consumed in the vicinity of an
462 injection well, and if dithionite is continuously injected, the distance that it can ultimately be
463 pushed into an aquifer will be dictated by its anaerobic decomposition rate in the presence of
464 aqueous phase reaction products.

465 It was determined that ~70% of dithionite hydrolyzes almost immediately in a HCO_3^-
466 buffered anoxic system and about 20% hydrolyzes immediately in an anoxic solution buffered to
467 pH ~9.5. However, in both cases, the decomposition of the remaining dithionite is much slower,
468 with dithionite concentrations remaining measurable for over 50 and 100 days, respectively. This
469 observation has important implications for field deployments, namely that loss of dithionite due
470 to anoxic decomposition occurs more slowly than previously thought. The half-lives reported
471 here are 2 times longer than those reported by Ammonette et al. (1994) for comparable pHs and
472 dithionite concentrations, which we attribute to keeping volatile reaction products, such as H_2S

473 gas, from escaping from the reactors. Such volatile reaction products should also remain in
474 solution in confined aquifers, particularly when an overpressure is imposed to inject a dithionite
475 solution at a reasonable rate. This implies that in an ideal system of radial flow near an injection
476 well (penetration distance into aquifer proportional to square root of time), dithionite can be
477 effectively injected $\sqrt{2}$ times further into an aquifer than previously thought for a given injection
478 flow rate. Consequently, the spacing of injection wells for establishing an in-situ barrier can be
479 increased, which can translate to significant cost savings, particularly in deep, contaminated
480 aquifers, such as those in Los Alamos.

481

482 **Acknowledgements**

483 The authors would like to acknowledge David Chu for ion chromatography analysis of sulfate.
484 This work was funded by the U.S. Department of Energy Office of Environmental Management
485 and Environmental Programs (ADEP) at Los Alamos National Laboratory.

486

487 **References**

- 488 Amonette, J. E.; Szecsody, J. E.; Schaef, H. T.; Templeton, J. C.; Gorby, Y. A.; Fruchter, J. S.,
489 1994. Abiotic reduction of aquifer materials by dithionite: a promising in-situ
490 remediation technology. (No. PNL-SA_24505; CONF-941124022). Pacific Northwest
491 Lab., Richland, WA (United States).
- 492 Benjamin, M. M., 2014 Water chemistry; Waveland Press: Illinois.
- 493 Boparai, H. K.; Comfort, S. D.; Shea, P. J.; Szecsody, J. E., 2008 Remediating explosive-
494 contaminated groundwater by in situ redox manipulation (ISRM) of aquifer sediments.
495 *Chemosphere*. 71 (5), 933-941.
- 496 Burlamacchi, L., Guarini, G., Tiezzi, E., 1969. Mechanism of decomposition of sodium
497 dithionite in aqueous solution. *Trans. of the Faraday Soc.* 65, 496-502.
- 498 Burton, E. D.; Bush, R. T.; Johnston, S. G.; Sullivan, L. A.; Keene, A. F., 2011. Sulfur
499 biogeochemical cycling and novel Fe-S mineralization pathways in a tidally re-flooded
500 wetland. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*. 75 (12), 3434-3451.
- 501 Casas, A. S.; Armienta, M. A.; Ramos, S., 2016 Sulfur speciation with high performance liquid
502 chromatography as a tool for El Chichón volcano, crater lake monitoring. *J. South Am.*
503 *Earth Sci.* 72, 241-249.

- 504 Couture, R. M.; Fischer, R.; Van Cappellen, P.; Gobeil, C., 2016. Non-steady state diagenesis of
505 organic and inorganic sulfur in lake sediments. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta.* 194, 15-33.
- 506 Creutz, C.; Sutin, N., 1974. Kinetics of the reactions of sodium dithionite with dioxygen and
507 hydrogen peroxide. *Inorg. Chem.* 13 (8), 2041–2043.
- 508 Danehy, J. P.; Zubritsky, C. W., 1974. Iodometric method for the determination of dithionite,
509 bisulfite, and thiosulfate in the presence of each other and its use in following the
510 decomposition of aqueous solutions of sodium dithionite. *Anal. chem.* 46 (3), 391-395.
- 511 de Carvalho, L. M.; Schwedt, G., 2001. Polarographic determination of dithionite and its
512 decomposition products: kinetic aspects, stabilizers, and analytical application. *Anal.*
513 *Chim. Acta.* 436 (2) 293-300.
- 514 de Carvalho, L. M.; Schwedt, G., 2005. Sulfur speciation by capillary zone electrophoresis
515 Determination of dithionite and its decomposition products sulfite, sulfate and thiosulfate
516 in commercial bleaching agents. *J. Chromatogr. A.* 1099 (1), 185-190.
- 517 Druschel, G. K.; Hamers, R. J.; Banfield, J. F., 2003a. Kinetics and mechanism of polythionate
518 oxidation to sulfate at low pH by O₂ and Fe³⁺. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta.* 67 (23),
519 4457-4469.
- 520 Druschel, G. K.; Hamers, R. J.; Luther, G. W.; Banfield, J. F., 2003b. Kinetics and mechanism of
521 trithionate and tetrathionate oxidation at low pH by hydroxyl radicals. *Aquat. Geochem.*
522 9 (2), 145-164.
- 523 Fruchter, J. S.; Cole, C. R.; Williams, M. D.; Vermeul, V. R.; Amonette, J. E.; Szecsody, J. E.;
524 Istok, J. D.; Humphrey, M. D., 1999. Creation of a subsurface permeable treatment zone
525 for aqueous chromate contamination using in situ redox manipulation. *Groundwater*
526 *Monit. Rem.* 20 (2), 66-77.
- 527 Hammond, G. E., 2015. PFLOTRAN: Recent Developments Facilitating Massively-Parallel
528 Reactive Biogeochemical Transport, in: AGU Fall Meeting, American Geophysical
529 Union Fall Meeting, 2015.
- 530 Holman, D. A.; Bennett, D. W., 1994. A multicomponent kinetics study of the anaerobic
531 decomposition of aqueous sodium dithionite. *J. Phys. Chem.* 98 (50), 13300-13307.
- 532 Istok, J. D.; Amonette, J. E.; Cole, C. R.; Fruchter, J. S.; Humphrey, M. D.; Szecsody, J. E.; Teel,
533 S. S.; Vermeul, V. R.; Williams, M. D.; Yabusaki, S. B., 1999. In situ redox manipulation
534 by dithionite injection: intermediate-scale laboratory experiments. *Ground water.* 37 (6),
535 884-889.
- 536 Kaasalainen, H.; Stefánsson, A., 2011a. Sulfur speciation in natural hydrothermal waters,
537 Iceland. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta.* 75 (10), 2777-2791.
- 538 Kaasalainen, H. Stefánsson, A., 2011b Chemical analysis of sulfur species in geothermal waters.
539 *Talanta* 85 (4), 1897-1903.
- 540 Kilroy, W. P., 1980. Anaerobic decomposition of sodium dithionite in alkaline solution. *J. Inorg.*
541 *Nucl. Chem.* 42 (7), 1071-1073.
- 542 Lem, W. J., Wayman, M., 1970. Decomposition of aqueous dithionite. Part I. Kinetics of
543 decomposition of aqueous sodium dithionite. *Canadian Journal of Chemistry*, 48(5): 776-
544 781.
- 545 Lichtner, P. C.; Hammond, G. E.; Lu, C.; Karra, S.; Bisht, G.; Andre, B.; Mills, R. T.; Kumar,
546 J.; Frederick, J. M., 2017a. PFLOTRAN User Manual;
547 <http://www.documentation.pflotran.org>.
- 548 Lichtner, P. C.; Hammond, G. E.; Lu, C.; Karra, S.; Bisht, G.; Andre, B.; Mills, R. T.; Kumar, J.;
549 Frederick, J. M., 2017b. PFLOTRAN Webpage; <http://www.pflotran.org>.

- 550 Lister, M. W.; Garvie, R. C., 1959. Sodium dithionite, decomposition in aqueous solution and in
551 the solid state. *Can J. Chem.* 37 (9), 1567-1574.
- 552 Ludwig, R. D.; Su, C.; Lee, T. R.; Wilkin, R. T.; Acree, S. D.; Ross, R. R.; Keeley, A., 2007. In
553 situ chemical reduction of Cr(VI) in groundwater using a combination of ferrous sulfate
554 and sodium dithionite: A field investigation. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 41 (15), 5299-5305.
- 555 Luther, G. W.; Church, T. M., 1998. Seasonal cycling of sulfur and iron in porewaters of a
556 Delaware salt marsh. *Marine Chemistry* 23 (3-4), 295-309.
- 557 Meyer, B.; Ospina, M., 1982. Raman spectrometric study of the thermal decomposition of
558 aqueous tri- and tetrathionate. *Phosphorus Sulfur Relat. Elem.* 14 (1), 23-36.
- 559 Migdisov, A. A.; Bychkov, A. Y., 1998. The behavior of metals and sulphur during the
560 formation of hydrothermal mercury—antimony—arsenic mineralization, Uzon caldera,
561 Kamchatka, Russia. *J. Volcanol. Geotherm. Res.* 4, 153-171.
- 562 Münchow, V.; Steudel, R., 1994. The decomposition of aqueous dithionite and its reactions with
563 polythionates SnO_6^{2-} ($n=3-5$) studied by ion-pair chromatography. *Z. Anorg. Allg.*
564 *Chem.* 620 (1), 121-126.
- 565 Nzungu, V. A., Castillo, R. M., Gates, W. P., Mills, G. L., 2001. Abiotic transformation of
566 perchloroethylene in homogeneous dithionite solution and in suspensions of dithionite-
567 treated clay minerals. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 35 (11), 2244-2251.
- 568 Rinker, R. G.; Gordon, T. P.; Mason, D. M.; Sakaida, R. R.; Corcoran, W. H., 1960. Kinetics and
569 mechanism of the air oxidation of the dithionite ion ($\text{S}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$) in aqueous solution. *J. Phys.*
570 *Chem.* 64 (5), 573-581.
- 571 Rinker, R. G.; Lynn, S.; Mason, D. M.; Corcoran, W. H., 1965. Kinetics and mechanism of
572 thermal decomposition of sodium dithionite in aqueous solution. *Ind. Eng. Chem.*
573 *Fundam.* 4 (3), 282-288.
- 574 Spencer, M. S., 1967. Chemistry of sodium dithionite. Part 1.—Kinetics of decomposition in
575 aqueous bisulphite solutions. *Transactions of the Faraday Society*, 63: 2510-2515.
- 576 Szecsody, J. E., Fruchter, J. S., Williams, m. D., Vermeul, V. R., Sklarew, D., 2004. In situ
577 chemical reduction of aquifer sediments: enhancement of reactive iron phases and TCE
578 dechlorination. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 38 (17), 4656-4663.
- 579 Szekeres, L., 1974. Analytical chemistry of the sulfur acids. *Talanta.* 21 (1), 1-44.
- 580 Takano, B., 1987. Correlation of volcanic activity with sulfur oxyanion speciation in a crater
581 lake. *Science.* 235, 1633-1636.
- 582 Takano, B.; Watanuki, K., 1990. Monitoring of volcanic eruptions at Yugama crater lake by
583 aqueous sulfur oxyanions. *J. Volcanol. Geotherm. Res.* 40 (1), 71-87.
- 584 Takano, B.; Ohsawa, S.; Glover, R. B., 1994a. Surveillance of Ruapehu Crater Lake, New
585 Zealand, by aqueous polythionates. *J. Volcanol. Geotherm. Res.* 60 (1), 29-57.
- 586 Takano, B.; Saitoh, H.; Takano, E., 1994b. Geochemical implications of subaqueous molten
587 sulfur at Yugama crater lake, Kusatsu-Shirane volcano, Japan. *Geochem. J.* 28 (3), 199-
588 216.
- 589 Vesselinov, V.; Harp, D., 2012. June. Model analysis and decision support (MADS) for comple
590 physics models. In XIX International conference on water resources-CMWR.
- 591 Wayman, M.; Lem, W. J., 1970. Decomposition of aqueous dithionite. Part II. A reaction
592 mechanism for the decomposition of aqueous sodium dithionite. *Can J. Chem.* 48 (5),
593 782-787.
- 594 Williamson, M. A.; Rimstidt, J. D., 1992. Correlation between structure and thermodynamic
595 properties of aqueous sulfur species. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta.* 56 (11), 3867-3880.

- 596 Wolery, T.J., 1992. EQ3/6: A software package for geochemical modeling of aqueous systems:
597 package overview and installation guide (version 7.0) (pp. 1-65). Livermore, CA:
598 Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory.
- 599 Xie, Y.; Cwiertny, D. M., 2010. Use of dithionite to extend the reactive lifetime of nanoscale
600 zero-valent iron treatment systems. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 44 (22), 8649-8655.
- 601 Xu, Y.; Schoonen, M. A. A.; Nordstrom, D. K.; Cunningham, K. M.; Ball, J. W., 1998. Sulfur
602 geochemistry of hydrothermal waters in Yellowstone National Park: I. The origin of
603 thiosulfate in hot spring waters. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta.* 62 (23), 3729-3743.

Highlights: Long-term stability of dithionite in alkaline anaerobic aqueous solution

1. Sodium dithionite concentrations in alkaline aqueous solutions were measured by UV-vis spectrometry for up to 105 days.
2. Analysis of degradation products revealed that sulfite, hydrogen sulfide, sulfate, and polythionates are present.
3. The closed system created in this study ensured no loss of hydrogen sulfide, which slowed the loss of dithionite.
4. The kinetic rate law developed yields a half-life of 10.7 days at near-neutral pH and 33.6 days at alkaline pH.