



23 significant scale effect, which revealed the complexity in chemical weathering processes. DIC-
24 apportionment showed that CCW (Carbonate weathering by CO₂) was the dominant origin of DIC
25 (35%-87%) and that SCW (Carbonate weathering by H₂SO₄) (3%-15%) and CSW (Silicate
26 weathering by CO₂) (7%-59%) were non-negligible processes. The temporary CO₂ sink was 823.41
27 10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹. Compared with the “temporary” sink, the net sink of CO₂ for the Beijiang River
28 was approximately 23.18×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹ of CO₂ and was about 2.82% of the “temporary” CO₂
29 sink. Human activities (sulfur acid deposition and AMD) dramatically decreased the CO₂ net sink
30 and even make chemical weathering a CO₂ source to the atmosphere.

31 **Keywords:** Chemical weathering, DIC-apportionment, CO₂ temporary sink, CO₂ net sink

32 1 Introduction

33 About half of the global CO₂ sequestration due to chemical weathering occurs in warm and
34 high runoff regions (Ludwig et al., 1998), so called the hyperactive regions and hotspots (Meybeck
35 et al., 2006). Chemical weathering driven by weak carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) that originates from
36 atmosphere CO₂ or soil respiration under natural conditions is a fundamental geochemical process
37 regulating the atmosphere-land-ocean fluxes and earth’s climate (Guo et al., 2015). Carbonate and
38 silicate weathering define the two typical categories of chemical weathering. A profound case in
39 point is that from the view of the global carbon cycle, the CO₂ consumption due to carbonate
40 weathering is recognized the “temporary” sink because that the flux of CO₂ consumed by carbonate
41 dissolution on the continents is balanced by the flux of CO₂ released into the atmosphere from the
42 oceans by carbonate precipitation on the geological time scale (Cao et al., 2015; Garrels, 1983).
43 While the consumption of CO₂ during the chemical weathering of silicate rocks has been regard as



44 the net sink of CO₂ and regulates the global carbon cycle (Hartmann et al., 2009; Hartmann et al.,
45 2014b; Kempe and Degens, 1985; Lenton and Britton, 2006). Thus in carbonate-silicate mixing
46 catchment, it is essential to distinguish proportions of the two most important lithological groups,
47 i.e., carbonates and silicates, and evaluate the net CO₂ sink due to chemical weathering of silicate
48 (Hartmann et al., 2009).

49 In addition to the chemical weathering induced by H₂CO₃, sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) of
50 anthropogenic origins produced by sulfide oxidation such as acid deposition caused by fossil fuel
51 burning and acid mining discharge (AMD) also becomes an important chemical weathering agent
52 in the catchment scale. Many studies have shown the importance of sulfide oxidation and subsequent
53 dissolution of other minerals by the resulting sulfuric acid at catchment scale (Hercod et al., 1998;
54 Spence and Telmer, 2005). Because depending on the fate of sulfate in the oceans, sulfide oxidation
55 coupled with carbonate dissolution could facilitate a release of CO₂ to the atmosphere (Spence and
56 Telmer, 2005), the carbonate weathering by H₂SO₄ (sulfide oxidation) plays a very important role
57 in quantifying and validating the ultimate CO₂ consumption rate. Thus, under the influence of
58 human activities, the combination of silicate weathering by H₂CO₃ and carbonate weathering by
59 H₂SO₄ controlled the net sink of atmospheric CO₂.

60 Numerous studies on chemical weathering of larger rivers have been carried out to examine
61 hydrochemical characteristics, chemical erosion and CO₂ consumption rates, and long-term climatic
62 evolution of the Earth in various large rivers, such as the Changjiang River (Chen et al., 2002a; Ran
63 et al., 2010), the Huanghe River (Zhang et al., 1995), the Pearl River (Gao et al., 2009; Xu and Liu,
64 2010; Zhang et al., 2007a), the Huai River (Zhang et al., 2011), the rivers of the Qinghai-Tibet
65 Plateau (Jiang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2008), the Mekong River (Li et al., 2014), the



66 rivers of the Alpine region (Donnini et al., 2016), the Sorocaba River (Fernandes et al., 2016), the
67 rivers of Baltic Sea catchment (Sun et al., 2017), the Amazon River (Gibbs, 1972; Mortatti and
68 Probst, 2003; Stallard and Edmond, 1981; Stallard and Edmond, 1983; Stallard and Edmond, 1987),
69 the Lena River (Huh and Edmond, 1999) and the Orinoco River (Mora et al., 2010). For simplicity
70 of calculation procedure, most of the researches have ignore the sulfuric acid induced chemical
71 weathering and resulted in an overestimation of CO₂ sink. To overcome this shortcoming of
72 traditional mass-balance method, we applied a DIC source apportionment procedure to discriminate
73 the contribution of sulfuric acid induced chemical weathering to validate the temporary and net sink
74 of CO₂ in a typical hyperactive region with carbonate-silicate mixing lithology to give a further
75 understanding of basin scale chemical weathering estimation.

76 The Pearl River located in the subtropical area in South China includes three principal rivers:
77 the Xijiang, Beijiang, and Dongjiang Rivers. The warm and wet climatic conditions make the pearl
78 river a hyperactive region in China. The three river basins have distinct geological conditions. The
79 Xijiang River is characterized as the carbonate-dominated area and the Dongjiang River has silicate
80 as the main rock type. While the Beijiang River, which is the second largest tributary of the Pearl
81 River, is characterized as a typical carbonate-silicate mixing basin. In addition, as the serve acid
82 deposition (Larssen et al., 2006) and active mining area (Li et al., 2019), chemical weathering
83 induced by sulfuric acid make the temporary and net sink of atmospheric CO₂ to be reevaluated. So
84 that, in this study, the Beijiang River as the hyperactive region in Southeast China with a typical
85 subtropical monsoon climate and carbonate-silicate mixing geologic settings was selected as the
86 study area. Three main objectives are summarized as follows: (1) reveal spatial-temporal variations
87 of major element chemistry of the river water, (2) calculate the chemical weathering rate and unravel

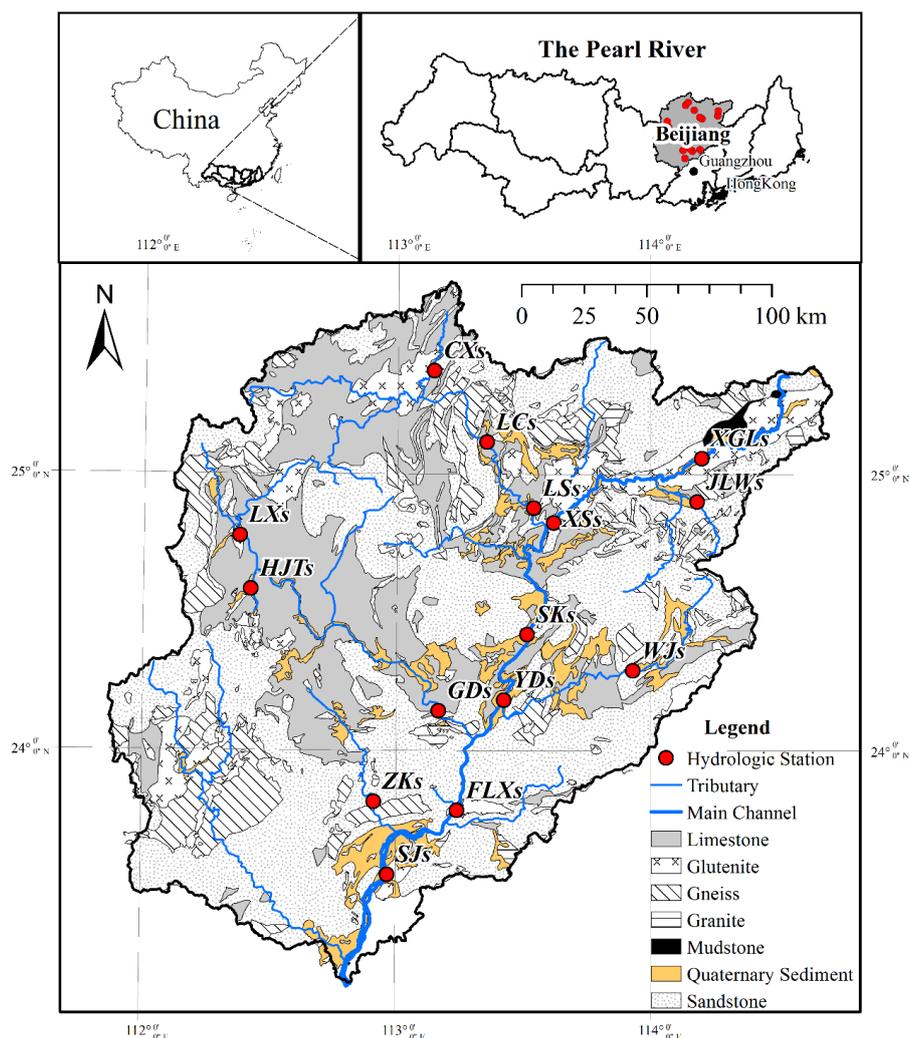


88 the controlling factors on chemical weathering processes, and (3) determinate the temporary sink of
89 CO₂ and evaluate the influence of sulfide oxidation on net sink of CO₂ by DIC apportionment
90 procedure.

91 2 Study area

92 The Beijiang River Basin, which is the second largest tributary of the Pearl River Basin, is
93 located in the southeast of China (Fig. 1). It covers a basin of 52 068 km² and has a total length of
94 573 km. The river basin is located in subtropical monsoon climate zone, with the mean annual
95 temperature across the drainage basin ranging from 14°C to 22°C, the mean annual precipitation
96 ranging from 1390 mm to 2475 mm. The average annual runoff is 51 billion m³, with 70%-80% of
97 the flux occurring from April to September. This can be attributed to the fact that more than 70% of
98 the annual precipitation (about 1800 mm year⁻¹) is concentrated in the wet season (April to
99 September).

100 Lithology in the river basin are composed of limestone, sandstone, gneiss and glutenite. In the
101 upper basin, carbonate rock (mainly of limestone) outcrops in the west and center, while sandstone
102 of Devonian era and mudstone of Paleogene era outcrop in the east of upper stream. In the middle
103 of basin, limestone and sandstone cover most of the area, and Cretaceous volcanic rocks are found
104 in the tributary (Lianjiang River), mainly granite. In the lower basin, Achaen metamorphic rocks
105 outcrop in the west, and are composed of gneiss and schist, sandstone covers rest of area of the
106 lower basin. Quaternary sediments scatter along the main stream of the river. The carbonate and
107 silicate rock outcrops in the Beijiang River Basin was 10737 km² (28%) and 24687 km² (65%),
108 respectively.



109

110

Fig. 1 Geology map and sampling point in the Beijiang River basin by ArcGis

111 3 Materials and methods

112 3.1 Sampling procedure and laboratory analysis

113 Water samples were collected monthly at 15 hydrologic stations from January to December in
114 2015 (Fig. 1). The river waters were sampled by a portable organic class water sampler along the
115 middle thread of channel in the first day of each month. In addition, to discriminate the contribution



116 of rain inputs, the daily rainwater was also sampled in five stations (SJs, FLXs, YDs, XsSs and XGLs)
117 along the main stream. The rainwater collector is consisted of a funnel with diameter of 20 cm and
118 a 5 L plastic bottle. A rubber ball is setup in the funnel to prevent evaporation. All the river and rain
119 water were filtered through 0.45 μm glass fiber filter and stored in 100 ml tubes and stored below
120 4°C until analysis.

121 Electric conductivity (EC), pH and temperature (T) were measured by a multi-parameter water
122 quality meter (HACH-HQ40Q), and alkalinity (HCO_3^-) was measured in filtered water samples by
123 titration in situ. The cations (Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+}) and anions (Cl^- , SO_4^{2-}) were analyzed by ion
124 chromatography (ThermoFisher ICS-900) with limit of detection (L.O.D) of 0.01 mg/L. The
125 dissolved SiO_2 was measured by molybdenum yellow method and was analyzed by ultraviolet
126 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-2600).

127 3.2 Calculation procedure

128 3.2.1 Chemical weathering rates

129 According to the principle of the mass balance, the mass balance equation for element X in the
130 dissolved load can be expressed as (Galy and France-Lanord, 1999):

$$131 [X]_{\text{riv}} = [X]_{\text{pre}} + [X]_{\text{eva}} + [X]_{\text{sil}} + [X]_{\text{car}} + [X]_{\text{anth}} \quad (1)$$

132 Where $[X]$ denotes the elements of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+ , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , HCO_3^- in $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$. The
133 subscripts riv, pre, eva, sil, car and anth denotes the river, precipitation source, evaporite source,
134 silicate source, carbonate source and anthropogenic source.

135 On the basis of the theory of rock chemical weathering and ignoring the anthropogenic origins
136 of major ions (except for SO_4^{2-}) due to relative low TDS of river water samples (Cao et al., 2016a;



137 Gaillardet et al., 1999b) ranged from 73.79 to 230.16 mg·L⁻¹, the major elements of river water can
138 be simplified as followed:

$$139 \quad [\text{Cl}^-]_{\text{riv}} = [\text{Cl}^-]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Cl}^-]_{\text{eva}} \quad (2)$$

$$140 \quad [\text{K}^+]_{\text{riv}} = [\text{K}^+]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{K}^+]_{\text{sil}} \quad (3)$$

$$141 \quad [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{riv}} = [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{eva}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{sil}} \quad (4)$$

$$142 \quad [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{riv}} = [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} \quad (5)$$

$$143 \quad [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{riv}} = [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} \quad (6)$$

$$144 \quad [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{sil}} = [\text{K}^+]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{sil}} + 2[\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + 2[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} \quad (7)$$

$$145 \quad [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{car}} = [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} - [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{sil}} \quad (8)$$

$$146 \quad [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{riv}} = [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{anth}} \quad (9)$$

147 Firstly, the measured ion concentrations of the rain water are rectified by evaporation
148 coefficient $\alpha=0.63=P/R$ (with P the precipitation and R the runoff) and calculated the contributions
149 of atmospheric precipitation. Secondly, due to low TDS, the anthropogenic contributions are
150 negligible. Thirdly, the molar ratios of $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ (0.4) and $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ (0.2) for silicate end-member
151 (Zhang et al., 2007b) are used to calculate the contribution of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} from silicate
152 weathering, and then, residual Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} were attributed to carbonate weathering. For monthly
153 data, the contributions of different sources can be calculated as followed:

$$154 \quad R_{\text{car}} = ([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{car}}) / S \times 100\% \quad (10)$$

$$155 \quad R_{\text{sil}} = ([\text{K}^+]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}}) / S \times 100\% \quad (11)$$

$$156 \quad R_{\text{eva}} = [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{eva}} / S \times 100\% \quad (12)$$

$$157 \quad R_{\text{pre}} = ([\text{K}^+]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{pre}}) / S \times 100\% \quad (13)$$

$$158 \quad S = [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} + [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{K}^+]_{\text{sil}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{eva}} +$$



$$159 \quad [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{pre}} + [\text{K}^+]_{\text{pre}} \quad (14)$$

160 Where R denotes the proportions of dissolved cations from different sources. S denotes the total
161 concentrations of cations for river water in $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$.

162 The total, carbonate and silicate chemical weathering rates (TWR, CWR and SWR) can be
163 estimated as followed:

$$164 \quad \text{CWR} = \sum_{i=1}^{n=12} \left[(24 \times [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} + 40 \times [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} + 61 \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{car}} \times 0.5) \times Q_i / (10^6 A) \right] \quad (15)$$

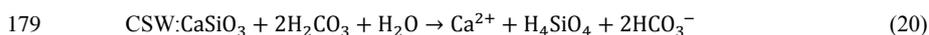
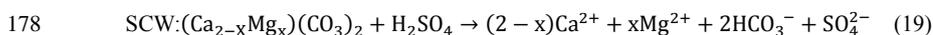
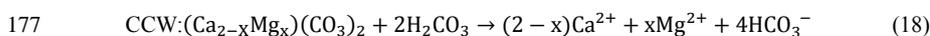
$$165 \quad \text{SWR} = \sum_{i=1}^{n=12} \left[(39 \times [\text{K}^+]_{\text{sil}} + 23 \times [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{sil}} + 24 \times [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + 40 \times [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{sil}} + 96 \times [\text{SiO}_2]_{\text{sil}}) \times \right. \\ 166 \quad \left. Q_i / (10^6 A) \right] \quad (16)$$

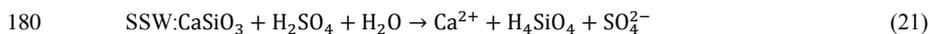
$$167 \quad \text{TWR} = \text{CWR} + \text{SWR} \quad (17)$$

168 Where TWR, CWR and SWR have the unit of $\text{t km}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$, Q_i denotes discharge in $\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{month}^{-1}$, and A
169 denotes the catchment area in km^2 .

170 3.2.2 DIC apportionments

171 The riverine DIC originates from several sources including carbonate minerals, respired soil
172 CO_2 and atmospheric CO_2 , and it could be affected by processes occurring along the water pathways
173 (Khadka et al., 2014; Li et al., 2008). Four dominant weathering processes, including (1) carbonate
174 weathering by carbonic acid (CCW), (2) carbonate weathering by sulfuric acid (SCW), (3) silicate
175 weathering by carbonic acid (CSW), (4) and silicate weathering by sulfuric acid (SSW), can be
176 described by the following reaction equations:





181 Where CaSiO_3 represents an arbitrary silicate.

182 According to the study of (Galy and France-Lanord, 1999) and (Spence and Telmer, 2005),
183 carbonate and silicate weathering by carbonic acid in the same ratio as carbonate and silicate
184 weathering by sulfuric acid, for monthly data the mass balance equations are followed:

$$185 \quad [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{riv}} - [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{pre}} = [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{SCW}} + [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{SSW}} \quad (22)$$

$$186 \quad [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{riv}} - [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{pre}} = \alpha_{\text{SCW}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \times 0.5 + \frac{\alpha_{\text{CSW}} \times \alpha_{\text{SCW}}}{\alpha_{\text{CCW}}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \quad (23)$$

187 Where the subscripts CCW, SCW, CSW and SSW denotes the four end-members defined by
188 carbonate weathering by carbonic acid, carbonate weathering by sulfuric acid, silicate weathering
189 by carbonic acid and silicate weathering by sulfuric acid, respectively. The parameter α denotes the
190 proportion of DIC derived from each end-member processes.

191 According to the above description, the ion balance equations are followed:

$$192 \quad [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} + [\text{Mg}^{2+}]_{\text{car}} = \alpha_{\text{CCW}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \times 0.5 + \alpha_{\text{SCW}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \quad (23)$$

$$193 \quad [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{SCW}} + [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{SSW}} = \alpha_{\text{SCW}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \times 0.5 + \frac{\alpha_{\text{CSW}} \times \alpha_{\text{SCW}}}{\alpha_{\text{CCW}}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \quad (24)$$

$$194 \quad \alpha_{\text{CCW}} + \alpha_{\text{SCW}} + \alpha_{\text{CSW}} = 1 \quad (25)$$

195 Combing the above equations, the proportions of HCO_3^- derived from three end-members
196 (CCW, SCW and CSW) can be calculated, and the DIC (equivalent to HCO_3^-) fluxes by different
197 chemical weathering processes are calculated by following equations.

$$198 \quad \text{DIC}_{\text{CCW}} = \alpha_{\text{CCW}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \quad (26)$$

$$199 \quad \text{DIC}_{\text{SCW}} = \alpha_{\text{SCW}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \quad (27)$$

$$200 \quad \text{DIC}_{\text{CSW}} = \alpha_{\text{CSW}} \times [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{riv}} \quad (28)$$



201 **3.2.3 CO₂ consumption rate and CO₂ net sink**

202 According to the equations (17)~ (20), only the processes of CCW and CSW can consume
203 the CO₂ from atmosphere or soil and only half of the HCO₃⁻ in the water due to carbonate weathering
204 by carbonic acid come from atmospheric CO₂. Thus, the CO₂ consumption rates (CCR) for CCW
205 and CSW can be calculated as followed (Zeng et al., 2016):

$$206 \quad CCR_{CCW} = \sum_{i=1}^{n=12} \{ [0.5 \times (Q/A) \times [HCO_3^-]_{CCW}] / 1000 \}_i \quad (29)$$

$$207 \quad CCR_{CSW} = \sum_{i=1}^{n=12} \{ [(Q/A) \times [HCO_3^-]_{CSW}] / 1000 \}_i \quad (30)$$

208 Where Q is discharge in m³·a⁻¹, [HCO₃⁻] is concentration of HCO₃⁻ in mmol·L⁻¹, A is catchment area
209 in km². So that the CCR has the unit of 10³ mol km⁻²·a⁻¹.

210 According to the classical view of the global carbon cycling (Berner and Kothavala, 2001),
211 the CCW is not a mechanism that can participate to the amount of CO₂ in the atmosphere because
212 all of the atmospheric fixed through CCW is returned to the atmosphere during carbonate
213 precipitation in the ocean. However, when sulfuric acid is involved as a proton donor in carbonate
214 weathering, half of the dissolved carbon re-release to the atmospheric during carbonate precipitation.
215 Thus, SCW leads to a net release of CO₂ in ocean-atmosphere system over timescale typical of
216 residence time of HCO₃⁻ in the ocean (10⁵ years). Meanwhile, in case of CSW, followed by
217 carbonate deposition, one of the two moles of CO₂ involved is transferred from the atmosphere to
218 the lithosphere in the form of carbonate rocks, while the other one returns to the atmosphere,
219 resulting a net sink of CO₂. Therefore, the net CO₂ consumption rate (CCR_{Net}) due to chemical
220 weathering can be concluded as followed:

$$221 \quad CCR_{Net} = \sum_{i=1}^{n=12} \{ [(0.5 \times [HCO_3^-]_{CSW} - 0.5 \times [HCO_3^-]_{SCW}) \times (Q/A)] / 1000 \}_i \quad (31)$$



222 3.3 Spatial and statistical analysis

223 The hypsometric integral value (HI) (PIKE and WILSON, 1971) was employed in this study
224 to evaluate the influence of terrain on the chemical weathering. HI is an important index to reveal
225 the relationship between morphology and development of landforms and can be used to establish
226 the quantitative relationship between the stage of geomorphological development and the material
227 migration in the basin (PIKE and WILSON, 1971; Singh et al., 2008; STRAHLER, 1952). The HI
228 value of each watershed is calculated by the elevation-relief ratio method and can be obtained by
229 the following equation (PIKE and WILSON, 1971):

$$230 \quad HI = \frac{\text{Mean.elevation} - \text{Min.elevation}}{\text{Max.elevation} - \text{Min.elevation}}$$

231 where HI is the hypsometric integral; Mean.elevation is the mean elevation of the watershed;
232 Min.elevation is the minimum elevation within the watershed; Max.elevation is the maximum
233 elevation within the watershed. According to the hypsometric integral value (HI), the
234 geomorphological development can be divided into three stages: inequilibrium or young stage ($HI >$
235 0.6), equilibrium or mature stage ($0.35 < HI \leq 0.6$), and monadnock or old age ($HI \leq 0.35$),
236 which can reflect the erodible degree and erosion trend of the geomorphology (Xiong et al., 2014).

237 The watershed of the study area was divided by using hydrological analysis module of ArcGIS.
238 The average slope and HI was conducted by spatial analysis module of ArcGIS. All statistical tests
239 were conducted using SPSS version 22.0. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed
240 for differences of monthly major ion concentrations and dissolved inorganic carbonate isotopes with
241 significance at $p < 0.05$. Principal component analysis (PCA) was employed to unravel the
242 underlying data set through the reduced new variables, analyzed the significant factors affecting the
243 characteristics of water chemistry.



244 **4 Results**

245 **4.1 Chemical composition in the Beijiang River Basin**

246 The major physical-chemical parameters of river water samples were presented in Table 1. For
247 all the monthly samples, the pH values ranged from 7.5 to 8.5 with an average of 8.05. Average
248 electrical conductivity was $213 \mu\text{s}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$, ranging from 81 to $330 \mu\text{s}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$. The TDS of river water
249 samples varied from 73.8 to $230.2 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, with an average of $157.3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, which was comparable
250 with the global average of $100 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (Gaillardet et al., 1999a). Compared with the major rivers in
251 China, the average TDS was significantly lower than the Changjiang (Chen et al., 2002b), the
252 Huanghe (He Jiangyi, 2017) the Zhujiang (Zhang et al., 2007b), the Huaihe (Zhang et al., 2011) and
253 the Liaohe (Ding et al., 2017). However, the average TDS was higher than the rivers draining
254 silicate-rock-dominated areas, e.g., Dojiang River ($59.9 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) in Southern China (Xie chenji,
255 2013), North Han River ($75.5 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) in South Korea, (Ryu et al., 2008), the Amazon ($41 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)
256 and the Orinoco ($82 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) draining the Andes (Dosseto et al., 2006; Edmond et al., 1996).

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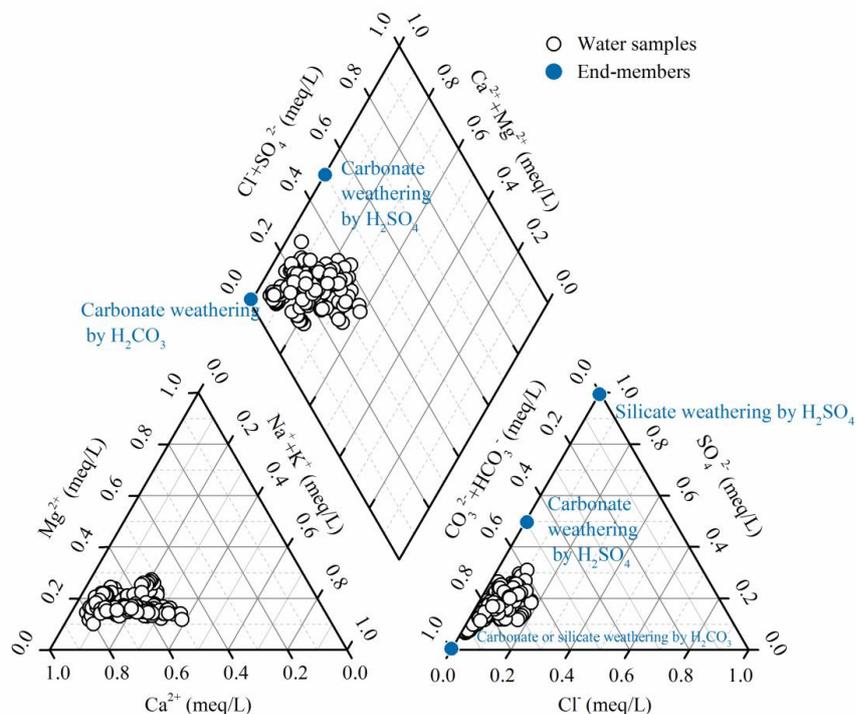


258 **Table 1** The major physical-chemical parameters of river water samples at 15 hydrological station in the Beijiang River (mean \pm SD). The total dissolved solid (TDS,
 259 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) expressed as the sum of major inorganic species concentration ($\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+ + \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{Cl}^- + \text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{NO}_3^- + \text{SiO}_2$)

Hydrological stations	pH	EC ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$)	TDS (mg/L)	Na^+ ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	K^+ ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	Ca^{2+} ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	Mg^{2+} ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	HCO_3^- ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	Cl^- ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	SO_4^{2-} ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	SiO_2 ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$)	HI
JLWs	7.9 \pm 0.15	95 \pm 39.98	81.1 \pm 25.6	111.4	51.9	223.5	103.9	701.9	28.3	44.5	225.2	0.3444
CXs	8.2 \pm 0.15	219 \pm 50.32	163.7 \pm 20.9	118.1	40.1	793.3	187.1	1593.6	60.5	199.4	106.3	0.2865
HJTs	8.1 \pm 0.19	203 \pm 34.39	151.8 \pm 21.9	100.2	29.9	686.7	203.9	1708.7	29.5	72.2	156.6	0.2991
ZKs	8.1 \pm 0.13	218 \pm 44.84	161.3 \pm 21.1	426.4	66.2	560.3	134.1	1276.9	134.7	161.4	151.9	0.2233
XGLs	7.8 \pm 0.15	168 \pm 15.83	117.9 \pm 8.9	315.4	112.4	422.4	101.0	992.2	213.9	112.6	178.9	0.1821
WJs	8.1 \pm 0.1	260 \pm 26.91	172.9 \pm 16.7	197.8	59.0	767.3	122.6	1467.1	99.1	162.8	183.4	0.2462
LXs	8.1 \pm 0.16	236 \pm 32.99	171.8 \pm 19.6	122.1	38.1	813.5	176.0	1829.4	51.5	89.2	145.7	0.2149
LCs	8.2 \pm 0.09	253 \pm 25.91	196.1 \pm 20.0	287.4	46.8	862.6	234.4	1845.7	115.7	232.4	130.7	0.2731
LSs	8.3 \pm 0.06	220 \pm 45.62	184.2 \pm 18.3	258.9	58.2	793.5	202.9	1740.6	109.0	191.9	121.4	0.2503
XSs	7.9 \pm 0.14	156 \pm 29.8	123.9 \pm 17.6	305.0	86.1	366.8	110.9	966.6	103.8	166.5	218.7	0.2365
GDS	8.1 \pm 0.05	232 \pm 10.67	169.4 \pm 8.3	112.6	40.5	781.6	172.1	1798.5	44.0	90.3	141.2	0.2415
SKs	8.1 \pm 0.19	238 \pm 21.6	161.1 \pm 17.4	345.3	73.6	641.0	162.5	1304.1	174.4	223.5	160.1	0.2061
Yds	7.8 \pm 0.2	241 \pm 54.39	165.9 \pm 34.0	296.4	59.3	674.8	160.9	1515.0	118.7	175.9	144.4	0.2055
FLXs	8 \pm 0.21	232 \pm 36.99	161.4 \pm 22.8	187.6	95.1	577.0	135.0	1262.4	111.9	159.6	169.5	0.2065
SJs	8.1 \pm 0.1	230 \pm 26.94	176.4 \pm 18.9	355.0	83.4	663.5	156.2	1367.7	182.4	190.5	180.5	0.2057



261 Major ion composition were shown in the anion and cation ternary diagrams (Fig. 2). Ca^{2+} was
262 the dominant cation with concentration ranging from 199 to 1107 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, accounting for
263 approximately 49% to 81%, with an average of 66% (in μEq) of the total cation composition in the
264 river water samples. HCO_3^- was the dominant anion, with concentration ranging from 640 to 2289
265 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$. On average, it comprised 77% (59%–92%) of total anions, followed by SO_4^{2-} (16%) and
266 Cl^- (6%). The major ionic composition indicated that the water chemistry of the Beijiang River
267 Basin was controlled by both carbonate and silicate weathering.



268

269 **Fig. 2 Piper diagram of river water samples in the Beijiang River**

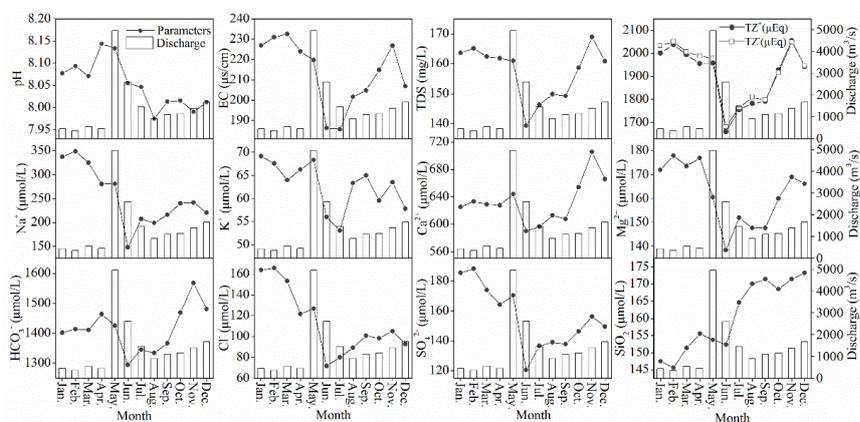
270 The principal component analysis (PCA) was used to study the factors controlling the chemical
271 compositions. The varimax rotation was used to reduced the number of variables to two principal
272 components (PCs), which together explain 76.88% of the total variance in the data. The first PC



273 (PC1) explained approximately 50.02% of the total variations, and was considered to represent
274 “carbonate weathering factor” because of the high contributions of EC, TDS, Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and HCO_3^-
275 concentrations. The second PC (PC2) explained 26.85% of the total variance and presented high
276 loadings for Na^+ and K^+ concentrations. Thus, the PC2 represented an “silicate weathering factor”,
277 which were considered to be two important sources of these ions in the Beijiang River Basin (Li et
278 al., 2019).

279 4.2 Seasonal and spatial variations

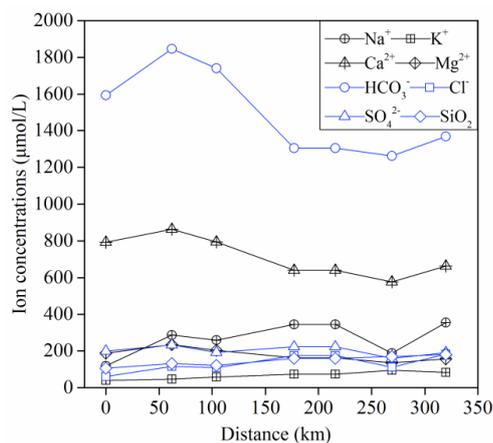
280 There were significantly seasonal variations in the major ion concentrations (Fig. 3). Two basic
281 patterns of temporal variations could be observed. The first one was related to the carbonate
282 weathering derived ions such as Ca^{2+} and HCO_3^- , which showed high values in Nov and low values
283 in Jun. The second one was for the silicate weathering derived ions such as Na^+ and K^+ , which
284 showed high values in Feb and low values in Jun. The minimums occurred in Jun for all the ions
285 showed a significant dilution effect during the high-flow periods.



286
287 **Fig. 3 Monthly variations of environmental parameters and major ion concentrations in the**
288 **Beijiang River Basin (SJs station). The columns denoted the monthly discharge**



289 It is clear that the Ca^{2+} and HCO_3^- concentrations had a decreasing trend from upstream to
290 downstream (Fig. 4), this characteristic agrees with the trends observed in the Changjiang River and
291 the Huai River, where the major elements or TDS concentrations of the main channel showed a
292 general decreasing trend, and the tributaries display the dilution effect to the main channel. For other
293 silicate weathering derived ions such as Na^+ , there was a slight increasing trend implying the
294 chemical inputs from the tributaries. These trends were in accordance with the lithology in the study
295 area. The carbonate is dominated in the upper stream basin, when river drainages this area, carbonate
296 weathering contributes to the elevation of Ca^{2+} and HCO_3^- . As the river entered into the down stream
297 dominated with silicate, the relative low ion concentrations due to silicate weathering contributed
298 to dilute the Ca^{2+} and introduce extra Na^+ in the river.



299
300 **Fig. 4 Spatial variations of major ion and SiO_2 concentrations in the Beijiang River Basin (From**
301 **upstream station CXs to the downstream station SJs)**

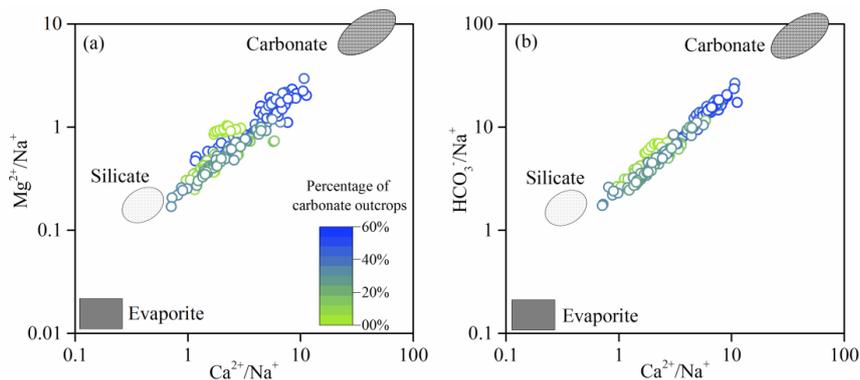


302 **5 Discussion**

303 **5.1 Chemical weathering rates and the controlling factors**

304 **5.1.1 Chemical weathering rates**

305 Atmospheric precipitation inputs, anthropogenic inputs and chemical weathering of rocks and
306 minerals as the major sources contributed to the hydrochemistry in the river basin. Previous studies
307 have shown that rock weathering contributions to major element composition of the river can be
308 interpreted in terms of mixing between three main end-members corresponding to the weathering
309 products of carbonates, silicates and evaporates (Cao et al., 2016b; Négrel et al., 1993; Ollivier et
310 al., 2010). The river water samples in the Beijiang River Basin were displayed on the plots of Na-
311 normalized molar ratios (Fig. 5). The best correlations were observed between $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ and
312 $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ ($R^2=0.86$, $n=180$) and $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ and $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{Na}^+$ ($R^2=0.96$, $n=180$). In these plots, the
313 contributions from carbonate weathering correspond to the trend toward high- Ca^{2+} end-member
314 close to the top right corner, while silicate weathering correspond to the trend toward to high- Na^+
315 end-member close to the low-left corner. It was clear that the samples with high ratio of carbonate
316 outcrop had the highest molar ratios of $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$, $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ and $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{Na}^+$, which made the
317 samples located toward to the carbonate weathering end-member. However, the samples with low
318 $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$, $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ and $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{Na}^+$ ratios showed the influence of silicate weathering. In addition,
319 major ion compositions of the Beijiang River was mainly contributed by the weathering of
320 carbonates and silicates, and showed little contribution of evaporate weathering.



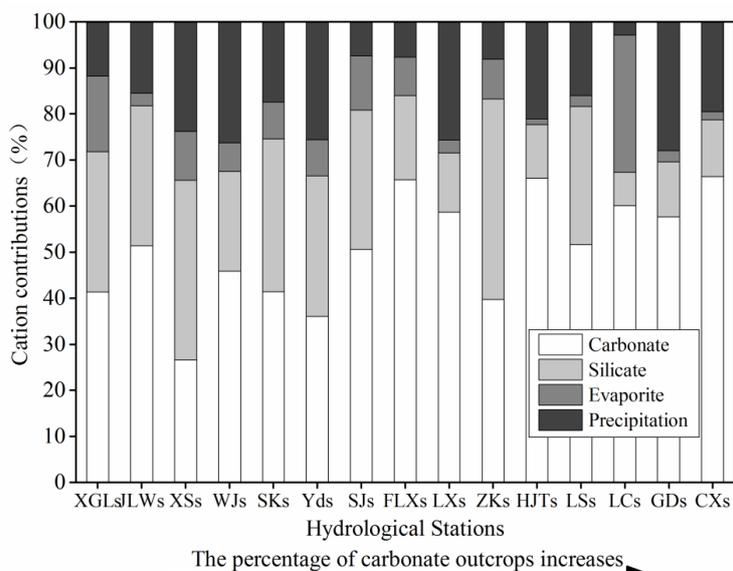
321

322 **Fig. 5** Mixing diagrams using Na-normalized molar ratios: (a) $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ vs. $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ (b) HCO_3^-

323 $/\text{Na}^+$ vs. $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+$ for the Beijiing River Basin. The color ramp showed the percentage of

324 **carbonate outcrops**

325 Based on the chemical balance method, the calculated contributions of different sources to the
326 total cationic loads were presented in Fig. 6. The results showed that carbonate weathering was the
327 most important mechanism controlling the local hydrochemistry, and contributed approximately
328 50.06% (10.96%~79.96%) of the total cationic loads. Silicate weathering and atmospheric
329 precipitation inputs accounted for 25.71% (5.55%~70.38%) and 17.92% (0~46.95%), respectively.
330 Evaporate weathering had the minimum contribution with an average of 6.31% (0~24.36%) to the
331 total cationic loads.



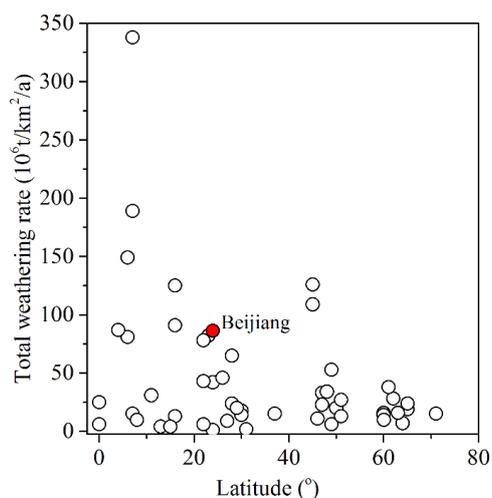
332

333 **Fig. 6 Calculate contributions (in %) from the different hydrological stations to the total cationic**
334 **load in the Beijiing River Basin. The cationic loads were the sum of Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}**

335 The chemical weathering rates were calculated and the results were listed in Table 2. The
336 average of carbonate and silicate weathering rate in the Beijiing River Basin were 61.15 and 25.31
337 $\text{t}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$, respectively. In addition, chemical weathering rates showed significantly seasonal
338 variations with the highest carbonate and silicate weathering rates in May (16.75 and 5.50 $\text{t}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$,
339 respectively) and the lowest carbonate and silicate weathering rates in February (0.95 and
340 0.39 $\text{t}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$, respectively). (Gaillardet et al., 1999a) reported the chemical weathering rate
341 of major river all over the world. The summarized dataset was showed in Fig. 7. It is found that the
342 hyperactive zone with high chemical weathering rate is generally located between the latitude 0-30°
343 and our study is belong to this area. Average CWR and SWR were about 61.15 and 25.31 $\text{t}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$,
344 respectively. The carbonate weathering contribute about 70% of the total chemical
345 weathering. The factors influence the balance between CWR and SWR would be further discussed



346 in the following parts.



347

348 **Fig. 7 Relationship between latitude and total weathering rate (TWR)**

349

350 **Table 2 The annual discharge, catchment area, carbonate and silicate outcrops proportions, and**

351 **calculated weathering rates of carbonate and silicate of 15 subcatchments in the Beijiang River**

ID	Annual discharge (10 ⁸ m ³ /a)	Catchment area (km ²)	Percentages of carbonate (%)	Percentages of silicate (%)	Carbonate weathering rate -CWR (t km ⁻² year ⁻¹)	Silicate weathering rate -SWR (t km ⁻² year ⁻¹)	Total weathering rate -TWR (t km ⁻² year ⁻¹)
JLWs	2.23	281.13	2.95	97.05	18.63	14.94	33.56
CXs	4.06	392.35	57.44	42.56	74.21	11.42	85.64
HJTs	11.54	503.02	41.99	58.83	169.12	29.73	198.85
ZKs	16.38	1655.22	34.60	61.81	35.03	24.14	59.17
XGLs	13.56	1863.02	0.38	93.07	25.75	13.96	39.72
WJs	19.11	1960.99	12.51	73.87	55.00	17.43	72.43
LXs	56.37	2458.06	34.32	64.07	178.71	29.39	208.10
LCs	58.74	5278.14	49.67	50.21	79.70	20.59	100.29
LSs	74.83	6994.69	44.59	52.44	69.28	14.94	84.22
XSs	62.11	7497.01	7.09	87.81	18.85	20.35	39.20
GDs	137.81	9028.38	49.93	44.93	111.73	19.19	130.92
SKs	49.51	17417.24	25.43	69.35	12.71	6.11	18.82
YDs	191.07	18234.64	25.63	68.05	52.37	19.59	71.95



FLXs	396.25	34232.34	29.68	63.49	68.38	17.53	85.91
SJs(Average)	450.90	38538.06	28.12	64.65	61.15	25.31	86.46

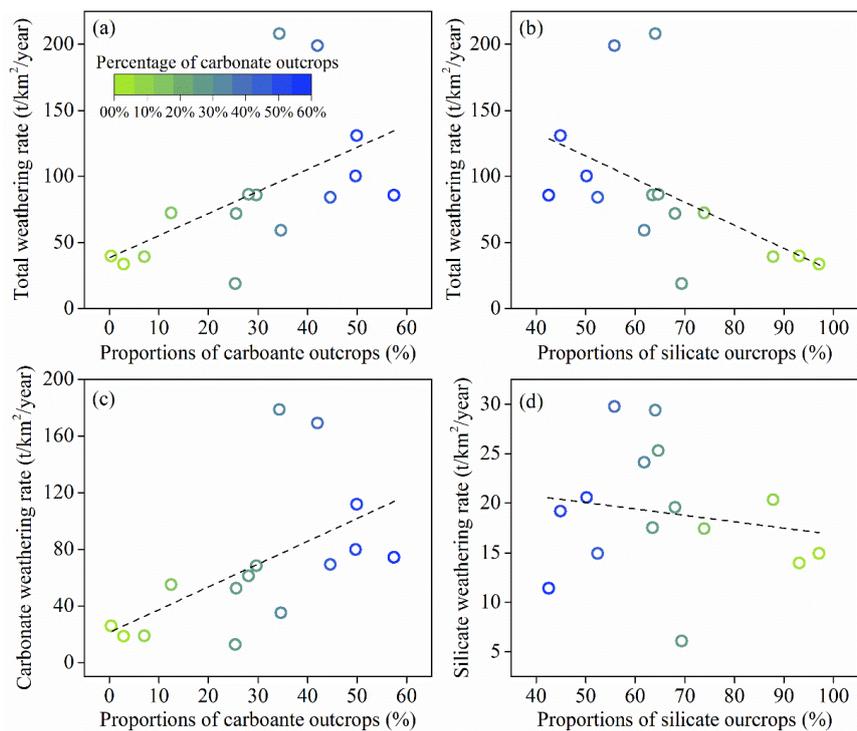
352

353 **5.1.2 Factors affecting chemical weathering**

354 Many factors control the chemical weathering rates within river basins, including terrain,
355 geotectonic properties, lithology, land cover, climatic conditions (temperature, precipitation, etc.),
356 and hydrological characteristics (Ding et al., 2017; Gislason et al., 2009; Hagedorn and Cartwright,
357 2009). For this study, the lithology, hydrological characteristics and geomorphology was selected
358 as the major factors to be discussed.

359 **5.1.2.1 Lithology**

360 Among all the factors controlling the chemical weathering rates, lithology is one of the most
361 important factors because different type of rocks have different weathering abilities (Viers et al.,
362 2014). The TWR had a significant positive correlation ($p < 0.01$) with the ratios of the proportion of
363 carbonate and a non significant positive correlation with that of silicate outcrops (Fig. 8a, b). Further
364 more, a significant correlation ($p < 0.01$) was found between the CWR and proportion of carbonate
365 outcrops (Fig. 8c), but the correlations between the SWR and the proportion of silicate outcrops
366 were low and not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$, Fig. 8d). The correlation analysis confirmed that
367 carbonate outcrops ratios was the sensitive factor controlling the chemical weathering rates and the
368 rapid kinetics of carbonate dissolution played an important role in weathering rates in the Beijiang
369 River Basin.



370

371 **Fig. 8 The relationships between weathering rates and the proportions of carbonate or silicate**

372

outcrops

373 5.1.2.2 Runoff

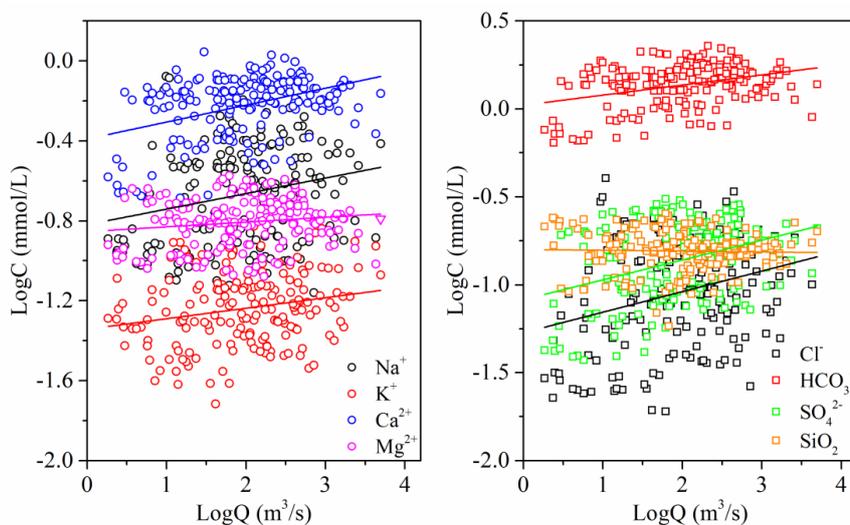
374 Chemical weathering is a combination of two processes, including dissolution of primary
375 minerals/glasses and precipitation of secondary minerals/biota growth (Eiriksdottir et al., 2011;
376 Hartmann et al., 2014a; Liu et al., 2013). The dissolution process is quite related to the precipitation
377 and runoff. In general, river water chemistry is usually diluted by river runoff (Q), and this dilution
378 effect is variable in different basins (Rao et al., 2019). The dilution effects of major element caused
379 by increasing water flow can be expressed by following log linear equation, the standard rating
380 relationship (Li et al., 2014; Walling, 1986; Zhang et al., 2007a):

381

$$C_i = aQ^b$$



382 where C_i is the concentration of element i (mmol/L), Q is the water discharge (m^3/s), a is the
383 regression constant and b is the regression exponent. The linear fitting result was showed by Fig. 9
384 and the parameters b for major elements obtained from the dataset were 0.08 (Na^+), 0.05 (K^+), 0.08
385 (Ca^{2+}), 0.02 (Mg^{2+}), 0.06 (HCO_3^-), 0.12 (Cl^-), 0.11 (SO_4^{2-}) and -0.005 (SiO_2), respectively. In many
386 cases, b ranges from -1 to 0 due to the chemical variables that are influenced in various ways and
387 various extents. However, in our study area, the values of b were positive and not comparable to the
388 observations in the major Asian River such as the Yangtze (Chen et al., 2002a), the Yellow (Chen et
389 al., 2005), the Pearl Rivers (Zhang et al., 2007a) and the Mekong River (Li et al., 2014). This
390 suggests additional and significant solute sources in the river basin that may contribute and
391 compensate considerably the effect of dilution by precipitation. The difference of slope for
392 individual dissolved components at different stations reflects the different sources and the solubility
393 of source materials.



394
395 **Fig. 9 The relationship between major ion concentrations and runoff (Q) in logarithmic scales**

396 Due to the compensation effect of chemical weathering, significant positive linear relationship



397 was detected between Q and TWR, CWR and SWR. So that, the linear regression analysis between
 398 Q and TWR, CWR and SWR were conducted to further reveal the effect of runoff on chemical
 399 weathering rate. The slope of the liner regression equations for all 15 hydrological station
 400 watersheds in the Beijiang River Basin were summarized in Table 3. The linear relations indicated
 401 that the increase of runoff could accelerate the chemical weathering rates, but the variations of K
 402 values revealed that the degrees of influences were different due to multiple factor influence, such
 403 as the influence of geomorphology.

404 **Table 3 The slope of the liner regression equation between runoff (Q) and total weathering rate**
 405 **(TWR), carbonate weathering rate (CWR) and silicate weathering rate (SWR)**

Hydrological stations	Total weathering rate = K_1Q		Carbonate weathering rate = K_2Q		Silicate weathering rate = K_3Q	
	K_1	R^2	K_2	R^2	K_3	R^2
JLWs	0.3912	0.9983	0.2091	0.9962	0.1821	0.9993
CXs	0.6492	0.9335	0.5631	0.9250	0.0860	0.9378
HJTs	0.5117	0.9689	0.4421	0.9613	0.0695	0.9939
ZKs	0.0953	0.9679	0.0525	0.7612	0.0429	0.8037
XGLs	0.0835	0.9781	0.0558	0.9741	0.0278	0.9817
WJs	0.1017	0.9985	0.0842	0.9965	0.0175	0.8835
LXs	0.0968	0.9816	0.0843	0.9778	0.0125	0.9914
LCs	0.0486	0.8983	0.0401	0.8672	0.0085	0.9739
LSs	0.0359	0.9654	0.0286	0.9570	0.0073	0.9423
XSs	0.0180	0.9806	0.0080	0.9681	0.0100	0.9571
GDs	0.0252	0.9969	0.0216	0.9974	0.0036	0.9900
SKs	0.0116	0.9802	0.0083	0.9822	0.0033	0.9547
Yds	0.0106	0.9963	0.0081	0.9936	0.0026	0.9240
FLXs	0.0050	0.9681	0.0039	0.9485	0.0010	0.9949
SJs	0.0053	0.9883	0.0037	0.9706	0.0016	0.9778

406

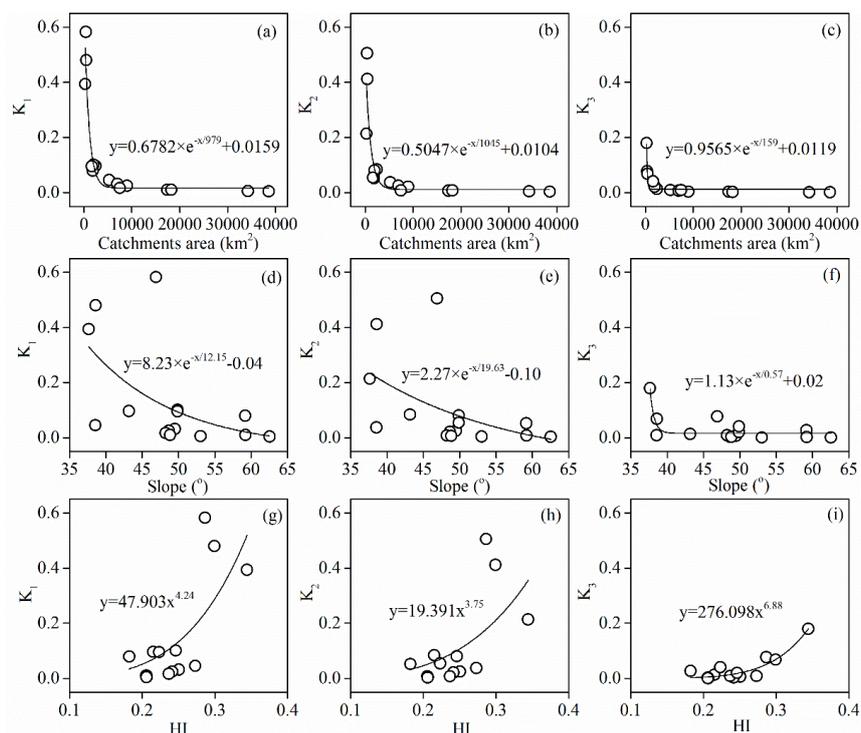


407 5.1.2.3 Geomorphology

408 The geomorphology factors including catchment area, average slope and HI, which could quite
409 influence the runoff generation process and physical and chemical weathering, were selected to give
410 a further explanation of the variation of K values. As showed in Fig. 10a, the K values were found
411 a non-linear relationship with the areas of subcatchment and could be fitted by exponential decay
412 model, which showed that the K values decreased dramatically with the initial increasing of area
413 and quickly become stable after reaching the threshold. The threshold value for K_1 , K_2 and K_3 was
414 about 5278 km². It indicated that the compensation effect was more significant in small catchment.

415 The average topographic slope of each subcatchment ranged from 37° to 63°. With the
416 increasing of average slope, the residence time of both surface water and groundwater decrease.
417 Kinetics of carbonate and silicate reactions were determined by the reaction time which could be
418 related by the residence time of water. In our study area, the K values showed non-linear negative
419 correlation with average slope (Fig. 10e, f, g). When the average slope increase, the resulted small
420 residence time (time of water-rock reactions) make the compensation effect also weak in the study
421 area.

422 Hypsometric analysis showed that the HI ranged from 0.18 to 0.34. According to the empirical
423 classification by HI ($HI > 0.6$, inequilibrium or young stage, $0.35 < HI \leq 0.6$, equilibrium or mature
424 stage, $HI \leq 0.35$, monadnock or old age), the geomorphological development in the Beijiang River
425 was recognized as the old age, which reflect the erodible degree and erosion trend of the
426 geomorphology was high. Furthermore, the non-linear positive correlations between HI and K
427 values (Fig. 10g, h, i) also addressed that geomorphology development have significant influence
428 on chemical weathering and relating CO₂ consumption processes.



429

430 **Fig. 10** The relationships between K values and catchments area (a, b, c), average slope (d, e, f)

431

and HI (g, h, i) for the Beijing River.

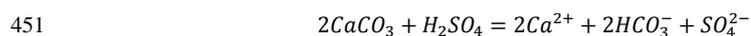
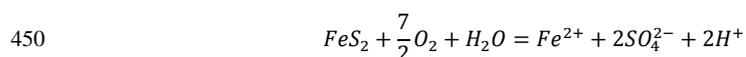
432 **5.2 Temporary and net sink of atmospheric CO₂**

433 **5.2.1 Sulfate origin and DIC apportionment**

434 The successful application of DIC apportionment calculation mentioned in section 3.22 is
435 based on the sources of sulfate (SO₄²⁻). Three sources of SO₄²⁻ should be discriminated including
436 atmospheric acid deposition (Larssen and Carmichael, 2000), acid mining discharge (AMD) (Li et al.,
437 2018; Li et al., 2019) and chemical weathering of evaporite such as the dissolution of gypsum
438 (Appelo and Postma, 2005). Acid rain events occurred frequently in South and East China after
439 1980 (Larssen et al., 2006). The pH isolines based on data from 86 monitoring stations (Larssen et
440 al., 2006) showed that in the Beijing River the rain pH was lower than 4.5 and our monitoring



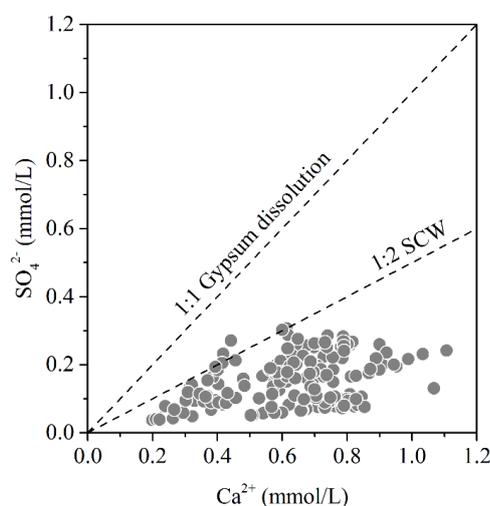
441 dataset also proved this result. Sulfur wet deposition estimated based on the observed bulk wet sulfur
442 deposition data and the RAINS-Asia model (Larssen and Carmichael, 2000) ranged from 2000-
443 5000 eq ha⁻¹ a⁻¹, which showed that the acid sulfur deposition was one of the most important sources
444 of river sulfate. In addition, considering the abundant ore resources in the Beijiang River, the second
445 possible source of SO₄²⁻ is sulfide oxidation due to mining. In our previous study, the SO₄²⁻ with
446 AMD origin mainly came from the tributary Wenjiang River (Wen et al., 2018). These two sources
447 could offer sufficient chemical weathering agent H₂SO₄ and actively involved in the chemical
448 weathering due to the following reaction mechanism (take carbonate for example) (Taylor et al.,
449 1984; van Everdingen and Krouse, 1985).



452 The third source came from dissolution of gypsum could not offer active H₂SO₄ to induce
453 carbonate and silicate dissolution. Two evidence were summarized to indicate the absence of
454 gypsum in the study area, (1) Lithology in the river basin are composed of limestone, sandstone,
455 gneiss and glutenite. HI showed that geomorphology development have entered into the “old” age,
456 the evaporite such halite and gypsum have been consumed by the dissolution. (2) The stoichiometric
457 relationship between Ca²⁺ and SO₄²⁻ (Fig. 11) showed that all of the samples in the study area located
458 below the 1:1 gypsum dissolution line, and due to the dissolution of carbonate, they also below the
459 1:2 carbonate weathering induced by sulfuric acid (SCW) line. These two points combined gave the
460 evidence to prove the absence of contribution of gypsum dissolution to river SO₄²⁻. So that, the DIC
461 apportionment could be calculated according to equation (18) to (21) and the result of three main
462 processes (CCW, CSW and SCW) contributing to the DIC origin in the Beijiang River water are



463 showed in Table 4. It was found that CCW was the dominant origin of DIC (35%~87%) and that
464 SCW (3%~15%) and CSW (7%~59%) were non-negligible weathering processes.



465

466

Fig. 11 Stoichiometric relationship between Ca^{2+} and SO_4^{2-}

467 5.2.2 Temporary and net CO_2 sink

468 According to the classical view of the global carbon cycling (Berner and Kothavala, 2001),
469 the CO_2 sink induced by chemical weathering varies for different time scales. Aa short-term
470 timescale, carbonic acid based carbonate and silicate weathering (CCW and CSW) and transport of
471 the HCO_3^- to oceans through rivers is an important “temporary” carbon sink (Khadka et al., 2014)
472 and can be calculated by the sum of CCR_{CCW} and CCR_{CSW} . Thus, it was significant to estimate the
473 CCR of CCW and CSW (Liu and Dreybrodt, 2015; Liu et al., 2011). However, at the geological
474 timescale ($>10^6$ years), when over the timescale typical of residence time of HCO_3^- in the ocean
475 (10^5 years), the CCW is not a mechanism that can participate in the net sink of CO_2 in the atmosphere
476 because all of the atmospheric CO_2 fixed through CCW is returned to the atmosphere during
477 carbonate precipitation in the ocean. Meanwhile, in case of CSW, followed by carbonate deposition,



478 one of the two moles of CO₂ involved is transferred from the atmosphere to the lithosphere in the
479 form of carbonate rocks, while the other one returns to the atmosphere. The CSW is recognized as
480 the net sink of atmosphere CO₂. In addition, when sulfuric acid is involved as a proton donor in
481 carbonate weathering, half of the carbon dissolved to the atmospheric during carbonate precipitation.
482 Thus, SCW leads to a net release of CO₂ in ocean-atmosphere system. So that, the net CO₂ sink
483 (expressed by CCR_{Net} in this study) is controlled by the DIC apportionment according to equation
484 (31).

485 The result of CCR_{Total}, CCR_{CCW}, CCR_{CSW} and CCR_{Net} were summarized in Table 4. The
486 CCR_{Total} was 823.41 10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹. Comparing with other Chinese rivers, such as the Songhua
487 River (189×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹) (Cao et al., 2015) and other rivers calculated by (Gaillardet et al.,
488 1999a) including the Heilong River (53×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), the Changjiang River (609×10³ mol km⁻²
489 a⁻¹), the Huanghe River (360×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), the Xijiang River (960×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), the
490 Jinshajiang River (420×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), the Langcangjiang River (980×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), the
491 Nuijiang River (1240×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), the Yalongjiang River (870×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), the Daduhe
492 River (1280×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹) and Minjiang River (660×10³ mol km⁻² a⁻¹), our study area showed
493 relative high CCR due to high chemical weathering rate. In addition, the CCR_{CCW} and CCR_{CSW} were
494 536.59 × 10³ (65%) and 286.82 × 10³ (35%) mol km⁻² a⁻¹, respectively. Compared with the
495 “temporary” sink, the net sink of CO₂ for the Beijiing River was approximately 23.18×10³ mol km⁻²
496 a⁻¹ of CO₂ sinking in the perspective of global carbon cycling. It was about 3% of the “temporary”
497 CO₂ sink. Human activities (sulfur acid deposition and AMD) dramatically decreased the CO₂ net
498 sink and even make chemical weathering a CO₂ source to the atmosphere.

499 **Table 4 Calculated CO₂ consumption rate and net sink of 15 nested subcatchments in the**



500

Beijiang River Basin

Hydrological stations	DIC apportionment (10 ⁹ mol/a)			“Temporary” Sink (CO ₂ consumption rate) (10 ³ mol km ⁻² a ⁻¹)			Net Sink (10 ³ mol km ⁻² a ⁻¹)
	CCW	SCW	CSW	CCR _{CCW}	CCR _{CSW}	CCR _{Total}	CCR _{Net}
JLWs	0.10	0.00	0.05	175.23	191.14	366.36	87.73
CXs	0.57	0.04	0.05	732.05	118.18	850.23	13.18
HJTs	1.57	0.06	0.34	1563.64	683.41	2247.05	286.14
ZKs	1.24	0.16	0.73	375.23	439.77	815.00	172.27
XGLs	0.85	0.14	0.37	227.05	195.91	422.95	61.59
WJs	1.76	0.17	0.87	449.32	443.18	892.50	177.50
LXs	7.30	0.40	2.61	1485.45	1060.45	2545.91	449.09
LCs	8.07	0.86	1.92	764.32	363.41	1127.95	99.77
LSs	10.13	0.42	2.48	724.55	354.32	1078.64	147.05
XSs	2.08	0.41	3.52	138.64	469.09	607.73	207.05
GDs	16.48	0.71	7.60	912.73	841.82	1754.55	381.36
SKs	4.00	0.72	1.74	114.77	100.23	215.00	29.55
YDs	14.11	1.75	13.10	386.82	718.64	1105.45	311.14
FLXs	40.38	7.74	4.46	589.77	130.45	720.23	-47.73
SJs	41.36	9.27	11.05	536.59	286.82	823.41	23.18

501

502 **6 Conclusions**

503 This study revealed the temporary and net sinks of atmospheric CO₂ due to chemical
 504 weathering in a subtropical hyperactive catchment with mixing carbonate and silicate lithology
 505 under the stress of chemical weathering induced by anthropogenic sulfuric acid agent. During the
 506 sampling period, the pH values ranged from 7.5 to 8.5 and TDS varied from 73.8 to 230.2 mg·L⁻¹.
 507 Ca²⁺ and HCO₃⁻ were the dominated cation and anion. Water chemical patterns and PCA showed
 508 that carbonate and silicate weathering were the most important processes controlling the local
 509 hydrochemistry. In average, carbonate and silicate weathering contributed approximately 50.06%



510 and 25.71% of the total cationic loads, respectively.

511 The average of carbonate and silicate weathering rate in the Beijiang River Basin were 61.15
512 and 25.31 $\text{t}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$, respectively. The high rate was comparable to other rivers located in the
513 hyperactive zone between the latitude 0-30°. The lithology, runoff and geomorphology had
514 significant influence on the chemical weathering rate. (1) Due to the difference between kinetics of
515 carbonate and silicate dissolution processes, the proportion of carbonate outcrops had significant
516 positive correlation with the chemical weathering rate and confirmed that carbonate outcrops ratios
517 was the sensitive factor controlling the chemical weathering rates and the rapid kinetics of carbonate
518 dissolution played an important role in weathering rates. (2) Runoff mainly controlled the season
519 variations and the dilution effect was weak in the study area. Due to the compensation effect of
520 chemical weathering, significant positive linear relationship was detected between Q and TWR,
521 CWR and SWR. (3) The geomorphology factors such as slope and HI had non-linear correlation on
522 chemical weathering rate and showed significant scale effect, which revealed the complexity in
523 chemical weathering processes.

524 DIC apportionment showed that CCW was the dominant origin of DIC (35%-87%) and that
525 SCW (3%-15%) and CSW (7%-59%) were non-negligible weathering processes. The $\text{CCR}_{\text{Total}}$ was
526 $823.41 \times 10^3 \text{ mol km}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$, relative high CCR due to high chemical weathering rate. In addition, the
527 CCR_{CCW} and CCR_{CSW} were 536.59×10^3 (65%) and 286.82×10^3 (35%) $\text{mol km}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$, respectively.
528 Compared with the “temporary” sink, the net sink of CO_2 for the Beijiang River was approximately
529 $23.18 \times 10^3 \text{ mol km}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$ of CO_2 sinking in the perspective of global carbon cycling. It was about
530 2.82% of the “temporary” CO_2 sink. Human activities induced sulfur acid deposition and AMD have
531 significantly alter the CO_2 sinks.



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