Global CO₂-consumption by chemical weathering: what is the contribution of 1 highly active weathering regions? 2

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10 Abstract

11 CO₂-consumption by chemical weathering of silicates and resulting silicate/carbonate weathering 12 ratios influences long-term climate changes. However, little is known of the spatial extension of highly 13 active weathering regions and their proportion of global CO₂-consumption. As those regions may be of 14 significant importance for global climate change, global CO₂-consumption is calculated here at high 15 resolution, to adequately represent them. In previous studies global CO₂-consumption is estimated 16 using two different approaches: i) a reverse approach based on hydrochemical fluxes from large rivers 17 and ii) a forward approach applying spatially explicit a function for CO₂-consumption. The first 18 approach results in an estimate without providing a spatial resolution for highly active regions and the 19 second approach applied six lithological classes while including three sediment classes (shale, sandstone and carbonate rock) based at a 1° or 2° grid resolution. It remained uncertain, if the applied 20 21 lithological classification schemes represent adequately CO₂-consumption from sediments on a global 22 scale. This is due to the large variability of sediment properties, their diagenetic history and the 23 contribution from carbonates apparent in silicate dominated lithological classes. To address these 24 issues, a CO₂-consumption model, trained at high resolution data, is applied here to a global vector 25 based lithological map with 15 lithological classes. The calibration data were obtained from areas 26 representing a wide range of weathering rates. Resulting global CO₂-consumption by chemical weathering is similar to earlier estimates (237 Mt C a⁻¹) but the proportion of silicate weathering is 27 28 63%, and thus larger than previous estimates (49 to 60%). The application of the enhanced lithological 29 classification scheme reveals that it is important to distinguish among the various types of sedimentary 30 rocks and their diagenetic history to evaluate the spatial distribution of rock weathering. Results 31 highlight the role of hotspots (> 10 times global average weathering rates) and hyperactive areas (5 to 32 10 times global average rates). Only 9 % of the global exorheic area is responsible for about 50 % of 33 CO₂-consumption by chemical weathering (or if hotspots and hyperactive areas are considered: 3.4% 34 of exorheic surface area corresponds to 28% of global CO₂-consumption). The contribution of endorheic areas to the global CO₂-consumption is with 3.7 Mt C a⁻¹ only minor. A significant impact on 35

the global CO₂-consumption rate can be expected if identified highly active areas are affected by changes in the overall spatial patterns of the hydrological cycle due to ongoing global climate change. Specifically if comparing the Last Glacial Maximum with present conditions it is probable that also the global carbon cycle has been affected by those changes. It is expected that results will contribute to improve global carbon and global circulation models.

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42 Keywords: chemical weathering, CO₂, silicate, carbonate, global model, lithology

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44 Introduction

45 Chemical weathering of silicate rocks is - on geological time scales - one of the most important 46 processes regulating the level of atmospheric CO₂ (Kempe, 1979; Grassl et al., 1984; Kempe and 47 Degens, 1985; Lenton and Britton, 2006). It is thus essential to distinguish proportions of the two most 48 important lithological groups, i.e., carbonates and silicates, and evaluate their global CO₂-consumption 49 due to chemical weathering. Consumption of atmospheric and biogenic soil CO₂ by weathering is estimated to 258 to 288 Mt C a⁻¹ at present days; results obtained using either two end-member 50 51 lithologies (granitoids and carbonates) (Gaillardet et al., 1999) or six lithological classes (Amiotte-52 Suchet et al., 2003). Accordingly, global silicate weathering proportions are 49 and 60%, respectively. 53 It is suggested that basalt weathering alone accounts for as much as 30 to 35 % of CO₂-consumption 54 by silicate weathering (Gaillardet et al., 1999; Dessert et al., 2003). This high proportion implies a high 55 significance of basalt weathering for the long-term global carbon cycle.

Chemical weathering releases preferentially Ca, Mg, Na and K that are - to a large proportion -56 57 balanced by bicarbonate (DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon) derived from atmospheric and/or soil CO₂ 58 (Figure 1). Because carbonate dissolution is not a geologic long-term sink (since carbonate 59 precipitation in the oceans returns the consumed CO₂ relatively rapid) accurate understanding of 60 silicate to carbonate weathering proportion and its spatial distribution is essential, when discussing CO₂ as a climate factor (Lenton and Britton, 2006). Climate models apply, in general, a silicate to 61 62 carbonate proportion for estimating the potential long-term sink of CO₂ due to chemical weathering 63 (c.f. Berner and Kothavala, 2001; Munhoven, 2002; Kohler et al., 2005; Lenton and Britton, 2006; 64 Lerman et al., 2007).

65 Global CO₂-consumption rates by chemical weathering are generally estimated by two different 66 approaches: (i) the reverse methodology and (ii) forward modeling.

The first approach uses river chemical data to recalculate rock weathering products (Garrels and Mackenzie, 1967; Meybeck, 1987; Gaillardet *et al.*, 1999) under the assumption that weathering products are characterized by specific geochemical end-members representing lithologies (e.g. carbonate and granitoids). This method does not allow for a spatial resolution of CO₂-consumption beyond the resolution of the catchment areas of applied river sampling locations. In addition, only for the applied river catchments data are available (in general major world rivers).

73 Method (ii) extracts functional relations between rock weathering rates of specific lithological classes 74 (derived from mono-lithological or multi-lithological catchments) and 'major controlling factors' (Bluth 75 and Kump, 1994; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003; Hartmann et al., 2009; Hartmann, 2009). Applying this 76 method it was shown that lithology and runoff are the dominating factors controlling CO₂-consumption 77 rates and the resulting bicarbonate fluvial export to coastal zones (Bluth and Kump, 1994; Amiotte-78 Suchet et al., 2003; Hartmann, 2009). Other factors like relief or land cover were estimated to be less 79 important, if the regional or global scale is the target for application of forward models (compare: 80 Drever and Zobrist, 1992; Drever, 1994; Gislason et al., 1996; Brady et al., 1999; Navarre-Sitchler and 81 Thyne, 2007; Hartmann, 2009). A temperature dependence in global models calibrated by measured 82 data was only implemented for basalt weathering, as sufficient data from various climatic provinces 83 exist (Dessert et al., 2003). This can be attributed to the observation that the combination of runoff and 84 lithology represents to a significant proportion other factors identified to be important on a plot or local 85 scale, thus diluting their effects. This holds specifically for relief and land cover in some regions 86 (Hartmann et al., 2009; Hartmann, 2009). In addition, basalts contain silicate minerals with higher 87 dissolution rates under comparable natural conditions if compared to other lithological classes. This 88 observation may be the cause why only for the mafic to intermediate volcanic lithological classes a 89 significant temperature dependence on CO₂-consumption has been identified using field data (c.f. 90 Hartmann, 2009; Gislason et al., 2009). As such, with the exception of temperature for basalt, other 91 factors than lithology and runoff were not implemented in global CO₂-consumption studies which are 92 based on training data from a homogeneous data base (Bluth and Kump, 1994; Gibbs et al., 1999; 93 Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003). Globally or regionally applied forward models distinguished five or six 94 lithological classes (sands/sandstone, shales, shield rocks or granites, carbonate rocks, acid volcanics, and basalts) (Bluth and Kump, 1994; Gibbs et al., 1999; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003). 95 96 However, it has not been analysed if these lithological classes do adequately represent the large 97 variety of geochemical or mineralogical properties (specifically for siliciclastic sediments) and their

98 diagenetic history (e.g., consolidated versus unconsolidated sediments) (Dürr et al., 2005). In addition, it has been suggested that about half of the global CO₂ sequestration due to chemical weathering 99 100 occurs in warm and high runoff regions (Ludwig et al., 1998), predominantly in so called hyperactive 101 regions (with weathering rates 5-10 times the world average) and hotspots (> 10 times the world 102 average) (Meybeck et al., 2006). Such regions were not included in previous forward model 103 calibrations; instead Central European (France) or predominantly North-American data were used 104 (Bluth and Kump, 1994; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003). Previous global studies used lithological maps 105 with a spatial resolution of 1 and 2° (Gibbs et al., 1999; Munhoven, 2002; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003). 106 Because variation of CO₂-consumption rates between lithological classes is high (for given runoff 107 conditions), it remains uncertain if highly active regions are spatially resolved appropriately by 1° to 2° grid data. A recent literature and map review improved the global lithological data base (Dürr et al., 108 109 2005). It was suggested that at least 15 lithological classes should be distinguished for global 110 chemical weathering studies due to differences in mineral composition, sedimentary properties and 111 diagenetic history of sediments (Table 1). The resulting high-resolution (if compared to previous 112 attempts) global lithological map recognizes these lithological characteristics. That map is used in this 113 study to apply a new CO₂-consumption model, based on the forward methodology (Bluth and Kump, 114 1994; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003) and trained with data of 382 Japanese catchments (Hartmann, 115 2009). Applied hydrochemical data were corrected for atmospheric deposition and represent river 116 catchments from warm to temperate climates, including regions with high runoff (>3000 mm a⁻¹); 117 details are provided in Hartmann (2009). The applied data set allows calibration of a model for regions that have high CO₂-consumption rates. The model is applied globally on a 1 km² grid lithological map 118 119 based on the vectorized map after Dürr et al. (2005). This high spatial resolution allows analysis of the 120 contribution of hotspots and hyperactive areas to the global CO₂ consumption by chemical weathering 121 as well as mobilized bicarbonate counterbalanced by cations derived from weathering processes or 122 atmospheric deposition. Contribution of carbonates from 'non carbonate' sedimentary rocks or vein 123 calcite in acid plutonics or metamorphics is attributed to in the model approach.

- 125 Data and methodology
- 126
- 127 Applied data

128 To achieve a new model recognizing the new lithological classification scheme, river chemical data 129 were taken from a data base of Japanese rivers (Harashima et al., 2006) based on the work of Kobayashi (1960) (c.f. Hartmann, 2009). Each sampling location covers a full seasonal cycle 130 131 (bimonthly or monthly). From this data set, 382 sampling locations, only insignificantly influenced by 132 anthropogenic or hydrothermal activity (compare: Hartmann, 2006; Hartmann et al., 2009), were 133 chosen. Bicarbonate fluxes were calculated by using mean concentrations and runoff (Fekete et al., 134 2002). Data were corrected for chloride normalized atmospheric deposition based on data from more 135 than 150 monitoring stations (Kunimatsu et al., 2008; c.f. Hartmann et al., 2009; Hartmann, 2009). Seasalt ratio correction was omitted, because of significant proportions of non-seasalt Ca, S and K 136 137 (Seto et al., 2004; Hartmann et al., 2008). Because weathering-derived major cation equivalents exceed alkalinity, HCO₃ (represented by alkalinity) has been chosen as the representative measure for 138 139 CO₂-consumption for each catchment.

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141 Bicarbonate flux model

Parameters for the herein presented model are calibrated using a newly developed high resolution lithological map of Japan that was derived from the detailed digital geological map of the Japanese Archipelago (Geological Survey of Japan, 2003; Hartmann et al., 2009; Hartmann, 2009) applying the lithological class definitions of the global lithological map, introduced by Dürr et al. (2005). As nearly all catchments include multiple lithological classes, a multi-lithological regression was applied for retrieving bicarbonate flux rates using a linear equation type (c.f. Hartmann et al., 2009):

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$$F(Alk) = L_1 b_1 q + L_2 b_2 q + ... + L_n b_n q$$

F(Alk) represents the bicarbonate flux due to weathering processes (t C km⁻² a⁻¹), L_x is the areal proportion of each lithological class x for each catchment, and q represents the average runoff in mm a^{-1} . b_L are parameters derived from regression analysis using the Levenberg-Marquardt estimation technique, implemented in the statistical software package Statistica 8.0 (Statsoft).

b_x-parameters for each lithological class and the model itself were significant on the p-level of 0.0001. Thus the model was identified as being stable. The model was evaluated reviewing residuals, which were found to be normally distributed. The sum of modelled bicarbonate fluxes from all applied catchments is within a range of 5% of all observed fluxes. This is a good value if compared to previous approaches (Amiotte-Suchet and Probst, 1993b; Bluth and Kump, 1994; Ludwig et al., 1998).

For calculation of carbonate contribution to bicarbonate fluxes from non-carbonate sedimentary rocks, a Ca/Na normalization technique has been applied (Hartmann, 2009). This procedure is necessary because the lithological classes siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (SS), mixed sedimentary rocks (SM), acidic plutonics (PA) and metamorphics (MT) can contain significant amounts of carbonates or secondary/trace calcite, contributing to the bicarbonate flux.

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164 Application to the global scale

165 CO_2 -consumption rates in t C km⁻² a⁻¹ are estimated, enhancing previous approaches (compare: Gibbs 166 et al., 1999; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003) by applying the estimated parameters b_L for bicarbonate 167 fluxes and a correction factor a_L for the carbonate contribution based on the linear bicarbonate model :

168 $F(CO_2$ -consumption)_L = b_L a_L q

169 with b_{L} being the calibration parameter for the lithological class L, q denotes annual runoff in mm a^{-1} , 170 and a_L corrects for the contribution of carbonates to bicarbonate fluxes for the lithological class L. The 171 parameter a_L addresses the proportion of silicate and carbonate weathering derived 172 alkalinity/bicarbonate. CO₂-consumption calculation recognizes that half of the bicarbonate fluxes from carbonate weathering represent lithogenic carbon (Figure 1). Derived equations were applied globally 173 174 and 'spatially explicit', using the new global lithological map (Dürr et al., 2005) transformed from vector 175 to raster mode with 1 km grid-size, combined with calibrated global runoff data (Fekete et al., 2002). 176 No model equations could be calculated for the lithological classes carbonate sedimentary rocks (SC), 177 basic plutonics (PB), complex lithology (CL), loess (LO) and Precambrian shields (PR), as their proportions to the total area of Japan are insignificant (with respect to the lithological map of Japan). 178

Due to the definition of named lithological classes (Dürr *et al.*, 2005) and based on regional studies on chemical weathering covering large and medium-sized basins in South America, North America, Asia and Europe (Meybeck, 1986; Bluth and Kump, 1994; Boeglin et al., 1997; Huh et al., 1998; Galy and France-Lanord, 1999; Mortatti and Probst, 2003; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003; Hren et al., 2007) the equations for these classes are substituted by flux equations from other lithological classes, providing a first estimate:

185 PR = PA (PA: acidic plutonics)

186 PB = VB (VB: basic volcanics)

187 CL = (SM+SS+MT)/3 (composition was chosen based on literature review (Dürr *et al.*, 2005);
 188 SM: mixed sedimentary rocks, SS: siliciclastic sedimentary rocks, MT: metamorphics)

LO = 0.2 SS + 0.2 SC (assuming an average 60 % SiO₂ content in loess)

190 191 SC = 0.019032 * q (global equation established in previous works (c.f. Amiotte-Suchet and Probst, 1993a; Ludwig et al., 1998; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003)

192 Carbonate rock weathering bicarbonate fluxes are assumed to be double as high as CO₂ consumed. 193 This was recognized in the application of the model for sedimentary classes using the correction factor 194 'a_L'. No CO₂-consumption is assigned to classes IG (glaciated areas), EP (evaporites) and DS (dune 195 sands with the assumed composition: pure SiO_2 rocks). The model suggests for the lithological class 196 alluvial deposits (AD) very high bicarbonate fluxes if compared to averages of other regions (Ganges-197 Brahmaputra, Amazon, Garonne, Congo, a.o.). The above named literature review revealed that 198 globally AD bicarbonate fluxes should be in the range of the lithological class SU for Japanese settings (Meybeck, 1986; Bluth and Kump, 1994; Boeglin et al., 1997; Huh et al., 1998; Galy and 199 200 France-Lanord, 1999; Mortatti and Probst, 2003; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003; Hren et al., 2007). In 201 comparison to larger basins in other regions are alluvial sediments in Japanese catchments relatively 202 unweathered (c.f. Imai et al., 2004). This observation is attributed to the transport history of minerals, 203 which underwent less weathering cycles in the steep, small Japanese catchments. Thus the equation 204 for SU was assigned globally to AD for not overestimating the global contribution of AD. Exorheic and 205 endorheic areas are distinguished using the data set provided by the group of Vörösmarty in New 206 Hamsphire (Dürr et al., 2005).

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208 Results and discussion of results

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The resulting high-resolution forward model yields a total CO_2 -consumption rate of 237 Mt C a⁻¹ for exorheic areas (Table 1), similar to previous studies (Table 2) (Gaillardet et al., 1999; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003). The contribution of endorheic areas amounts to only 3.7 Mt C a⁻¹ (Figure 2). The global exorheic average rate accounts to ~ 2 t C km⁻² a⁻¹. Differences between global average CO_2 consumption rates per lithological class (Table 1) can be explained by the applied equations in dependence from runoff (Figure 3) and the spatial correlation between lithological classes and runoff (Figure 4).

217 Carbonate sedimentary rocks (SC), e.g., are less abundant in areas with high runoff if compared to 218 other lithological classes like basic volcanics (VB) or complex lithology (CL) (Figure 4c). The observed 219 differences in the exposure to runoff affect the global estimate and thus the silicate to carbonate CO₂- consumption ratio (compare Figure 4 with Figure 5), because the carbonate CO_2 -consumption rates are at least a magnitude above those of the average silicate rates (Figure 3). Note, in addition to carbonate sedimentary rocks (SC) some lithological classes hold high CO_2 -consumption rates because of significant abundance of carbonates (e.g. SM, MT, or CL).

224 Among other sedimentary classes than SC does the global mean CO₂-consumption rates vary 225 significantly, specifically between consolidated (SS, SM and CL; CL is assumed to be composed by 226 2/3 of sediments) and unconsolidated sediments (SU, AD, LO) (Table 1). Unconsolidated sediments, 227 comprising mostly continental plains (Dürr et al., 2005), contribute ~ 15.5 % to CO₂-consumption, but have the lowest CO₂-consumption rates (0.6 to 1.3 t C km⁻² a⁻¹). Siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (SS) 228 are characterized by values (1.2 t C km⁻² a⁻¹) which are not significantly different from unconsolidated 229 sediments. However, the average rate for mixed sediments (SM) is about double of siliciclastic 230 231 sedimentary rocks, which is in accordance to the applied equations (Figure 3) and is attributed to the 232 assumed high contribution from carbonates. The highest average CO₂-consumption rate for 233 'sedimentary classes', apart from carbonate sedimentary rocks (SC), is calculated for the class "complex lithology" (3.1 t C km⁻² a⁻¹), which is typically located in mountain belts (Dürr et al., 2005) that 234 235 often have elevated runoff (c.f. Viviroli et al., 2007). This is confirmed in Figure 4.

Crystalline, non-sedimentary, lithological classes (without volcanics) are characterized on average by values slightly below the global mean (1.9 t C km⁻² a^{-1}), and volcanics, specifically due to basic and intermediate volcanics (VB), show values clearly above global mean (3.0 t C km⁻² a^{-1}).

Results show that differences in mineral composition and diagenesis state have a profound influence on the estimation of the spatial distribution of global CO_2 -uptake by chemical weathering (Table 1 & 2, Figure 2, 3 and 5), specifically if consolidated and unconsolidated sediments are distinguished. With respect to assumed changing global runoff patterns, differences in CO_2 -consumption rates between lithological classes (under comparable runoff conditions) are relevant for global CO_2 -consumption due to their distribution in different climates (Figure 3 & 4).

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246 CO₂-consumption from carbonate weathering

The contribution of carbonates to CO₂-consumption from silicate dominated classes SS, SM, MT and PA is 13%, 53%, 46% and 16%, respectively. These proportions were identified from the training data set representing catchments on the Japanese Archipelago, but may be different if further regional data would be recognized for model calibration. Applied on the global scale this model reveals that about 251 12.6% of the carbonate CO₂-consumption can be attributed to silicate dominated lithological classes. 252 Specifically carbonate contribution from silicate dominated sediments SS and SM is important (Table1 253 and Table 2, last column). This result underlines the importance of recognizing carbonates in 254 sediments other than SC as well as secondary/trace calcite in crystalline rocks. Previous regional and 255 global approaches aggregated sediments to shale or sandstone lithological classes without recognizing carbonate contribution (Bluth and Kump, 1994; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003). Results 256 (Table 2) suggest that the global contribution of carbonate sedimentary rocks (SC) has been 257 258 overestimated previously (40.1% of the CO₂-consumption compared to 24.4% in this study). This is 259 supported by applying the previously established global equation for carbonate sedimentary rock 260 weathering (Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003) to the new lithological map and the global runoff data. Thus globally calculated CO₂-consumption of weathering from the lithological class carbonate sedimentary 261 rock (SC) is 58 Mt C a⁻¹. That is 34% lower than has been calculated previously, applying the 262 263 lithological map and the GEM-CO2 model of Amiotte-Suchet et al., but the same runoff data as has 264 been applied here (Munhoven, 2002) (Table 2). The 17% difference in carbonate sedimentary rock 265 area (SC) in both applied lithological maps, 13.4% (Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003) to 11.2% (Dürr et al., 266 2005), does not counterbalance this result. It is concluded that differences in the spatial correlation 267 between lithology and runoff account for this observation, specifically since a new lithological map with 268 increased resolution has been applied.

269 The resulting silicate/carbonate ratio after Munhoven (2002) is nearly the same (60:40) as has been 270 calculated by Amiotte-Suchet et al. (2003), but the CO_2 -consumption rate decreased to 133.2 10⁶ t C a⁻¹ for silicates and 88.6 10⁶ t C a⁻¹ for carbonates. Latter value for global carbonate rock CO₂-271 consumption is nearly the same as has been calculated for the total carbonate CO2-consumption in 272 273 this study. Note, the contribution of non-carbonate rock (SC) lithological classes to carbonate CO2-274 consumption was not considered in the study of Amiotte-Suchet et al. (2003) and Munhoven (2002), 275 but the problem has been noticed. Recognizing carbonate weathering in other lithological classes than 276 SC the carbonate proportion of the total exorheic, global CO₂-consumption rate is 37% (Table 2). The 277 model applied in this study has been calibrated using the same runoff data as have been applied 278 globally. Other models had been calibrated by instantly measured discharge data and then the derived 279 model has been applied to different data sets.

The carbonate proportion on total weathering CO_2 -consumption (51.4%) in the referenced reverse model of Gaillardet et al. (1999) is also high if compared with results here (Table 2). This is probably

caused by the application of only two end-member compositions (i.e., granitoid and carbonate rocks) for distinction between silicate and carbonate weathering on the global scale (Gaillardet *et al.*, 1999; Dessert *et al.*, 2003). Note, results of the reverse methodology are sensitive to the chosen endmember chemical composition. Basalts, for example, are characterized by a different end-member composition than granitoids. Thus including basalt or other lithological classes as additional endmembers would result into a lower proportion of carbonate weathering to global CO₂-consumption using the reverse model approach (compare: Gaillardet et al., 1999; Dessert et al., 2003).

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290 The significance of basalt weathering

291 The contribution of basalt to global silicate weathering is estimated here to 16.5% (Table 1). However, 292 based on the established global basalt CO2-consumption model (Dessert et al., 2003), it was 293 suggested that the contribution of basalts to global CO₂-consumption by silicate weathering is 30% to 294 35 %. In this case the lower silicate CO_2 -consumption proportion on the global CO_2 -consumption after 295 Gaillardet et al. (1999) has been used for calculation. Note, the areal proportion of basalt is about 6% 296 of the total exorheic land area. For warm climates (>18°C), the global basalt weathering model of 297 Dessert et al. (2003) yields about double the CO₂-consumption rates as the model applied here. 298 However, that global basalt model was established in a study focusing on the lithology basalt solely, 299 applying regionally averaged flux values for distinguished provinces. For evaluation, this model has 300 been applied alternatively to the new geodata used in this study (lithology and runoff). In result, global CO₂-consumption increases by 19.6 Mt C a⁻¹ and silicate weathering proportion increases from 63.0% 301 302 to 65.6%, while the contribution of basalt weathering to global CO₂-consumption of silicates is found to 303 be 25.5% (Table 1, last column). However, results from the Lesser Antilles suggest that for some 304 areas the global basalt weathering equation overestimates CO₂-consumption in tropical climates if 305 thick soil layers are present (Rad et al., 2006). Note that basalt areas are over proportionally located in 306 high runoff areas (Figure 4).

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308 The contribution of highly active weathering regions

The graph describing the relationship between consumed CO_2 and land area reveals that 9.1% of the exorheic land area account for 50% of consumed CO_2 (Figure 6). The contribution of hotspots and hyperactive areas to the exorheic CO_2 -consumption is 28.2% while these regions represent only 3.4% of the exorheic land area. Changes in controlling factors (here runoff) can impact the global CO2313 consumption rate largely even if only a small areal proportion is affected. The graph describing areal-314 proportion versus bicarbonate fluxes (DIC: atmospheric plus lithogenic bicarbonate) resulting from 315 chemical weathering follows a similar shape as the CO_2 -consumption-graph (Figure 6), and the 316 additional lithogenic C from carbonates causes a steeper curve. It can be assumed that the general 317 shape of the graph changes not much in case temperature or other factors would be included in an 318 enhanced model because lithology and runoff are the dominant controlling factors (compare 319 'Introduction'-section). Because carbonate sedimentary rocks (SC) are located currently under 320 average in low runoff regions (Figure 4c) and carbonate CO₂-consumptions rates in dependence of 321 runoff are by far the highest, shifts in the spatial correlations between SC and runoff may have 322 significant impacts on the calculated global CO₂-consumption rate.

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324 Discussion addressing Earth System Models

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326 Weathering-derived bicarbonate fluxes to the coastal zone are an important part of the global C-cycle 327 and impact the evolution of climate on geological time scales. This has been shown by studies using 328 box-models (e.g., Berner, 2006; Arvidson et al., 2006). Results from this study indicate that previously 329 applied global CO₂-consumption models emphasizing a spatial resolution of typically 1° to 2° for 330 lithology (and recognizing only 5 or 6 lithological classes) may not resolve the contribution of identified 331 regions responsible for most of global CO₂-consumption. But especially in those regions variability of 332 hydrological parameters due to climate changes has a pronounced impact on the CO₂-consumption 333 rates. Note, until now no spatially explicit weathering model module was incorporated into a spatially 334 explicit Global Circulation Model (GCM). Typical GCMs, excluding box models, use spatially explicit 335 functions for matter transfer between applied reservoirs with a geodata resolution of 2° to 3.75°. 336 Results from this study suggest that to integrate high-resolution global weathering models into such 337 GCMs demands a calibration of weathering functions and applied lithology for upscaling effects to 338 address the small, highly active, areas being responsible for the majority of weathering derived fluxes.

Presented CO_2 -consumption models focus on the uptake of CO_2 by chemical weathering and subsequent transport of bicarbonate into the fluvial systems. It remains unknown if all bicarbonate fluxes reach the coastal zones as suggested by some studies reporting losses of inorganic carbon in lakes (e.g., Einsele et al., 2001). In case this process impacts the budgets significantly GCMs should address this process.

345 Relevance for glacial-interglacial cycle research

346 Glacial-interglacial changes of continental CO₂-consumption rates have already been studied by Ludwig et al. (1998), Jones et al. (2002) and Munhoven (2002). Besides a few estimates of glacial-to-347 348 interglacial variations of weathering related atmospheric CO₂-consumption and river bicarbonate 349 (HCO₃) fluxes obtained by inversion of marine signals (e.g., Munhoven and Francois, 1996), most 350 CO₂-consumption estimates were derived from empirical forward weathering models comparable to 351 this study in its design, like GKWM (Gibbs et al., 1999), as extended by Munhoven (2002) (used by 352 Jones et al., 2002; Tranter et al., 2002; Munhoven, 2002), and GEM-CO2 (Amiotte-Suchet and Probst, 353 1995) (used by Ludwig et al., 1998; Aumont et al., 2001; Munhoven, 2002).

354 However, fully coupled Earth System Models were not applied in these studies. Instead runoff data 355 derived from GCM's were applied to calculate differences in CO₂-consumption between present time 356 and the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM). Specifically, the identified relevance of hotspots and 357 hyperactive areas was not analyzed, emphasizing the possible significance of changes in the spatial 358 correlation between runoff and lithology for such regions. Results presented here indicate that the 359 carbonate contribution from sediments other than "carbonate sedimentary rocks" (SC) are important to 360 notice. Uncertainty may have been introduced in studies on glacial-interglacial variation of CO2-361 consumption, because of their disregard of carbonate contribution from non-carbonate rock lithological 362 classes.

363 Besides the applied lithological classes and their resolution, further dilution of results in previous 364 studies may be expected from the extrapolated lithology on shelf regions for the LGM. Until now, no 365 detailed lithological map for these regions exists for application in such studies. Another shortcoming 366 is that changes of the potentially important controlling factor temperature are not recognized (c.f. 367 Lerman et al., 2007). In this study, temperature could not be established as a dominant controlling 368 factor, probably due to the properties of the applied training catchments and because it was found that 369 temperature information is partly represented by the applied runoff data (see for further discussion: 370 Hartmann, 2009). However, considering the temperature differences between the LGM and today this 371 factor may be of importance. Also, possible effects of changes in land cover (note: runoff is impacted 372 by land cover) as well as differences in the distribution of loess (containing carbonates in general) 373 since the LGM are not considered until now.

374 Besides the land-ocean bicarbonate fluxes, weathering derived silica fluxes to the ocean are important 375 for the global carbon cycles (compare: Levitus et al., 1993; Ragueneau et al., 2002; Buesseler et al., 376 2007; Harashima, 2007; Street-Perrott and Barker, 2008). Because silica land-ocean fluxes are 377 assumed to be controlled predominantly by lithology and runoff (Bluth and Kump, 1994; Hartmann et 378 al., 2009), it can be hypothesized that for the LGM conditions dissolved silica fluxes to the coastal 379 zone have been different from present days, as well. This is implied by the runoff scenarios used for 380 LGM weathering studies (Munhoven, 2002). However, it remains currently unknown how such 381 differences may have impacted the coastal and oceanic biological pump and thus the global carbon 382 cycle and possibly atmospheric CO₂. In case the listed shortcomings are included in a new evaluation 383 of the potential influence of chemical weathering on the carbon cycle for the LGM conditions, different 384 results will probably be obtained.

385

386 Conclusions

387

388 For the first time, differences in sediment composition beyond the three classes carbonates, shales 389 and sandstones are recognized using a new high-resolution model for global CO₂-consumption by 390 chemical weathering. It is calibrated with data mainly from Japan and evaluated with regional 391 literature. However, future models should be calibrated region by region, incorporating local to regional 392 data on geochemical composition for distinguished lithological classes, as well as weathering and 393 diagenetic history, specifically for sediment classes (comparison of CO₂-consumption models for the 394 regions North America, France and Japan is provided in Hartmann, 2009). Contribution of 395 metamorphics and acidic plutonics to carbonate CO₂-consumption was not recognized in previous 396 studies focusing on the global scale while applying forward CO₂-consumption prediction models. 397 Recognition of carbonate contribution from metamorphics and acidic plutonics contributes only to a 398 small proportion of the global CO_2 -consumption budget according to the model presented here. 399 However this picture may change if significantly increased carbonate contribution is identified for other 400 regions than used for calibrating the here used model (c.f. Jacobson et al., 2003). For crystalline rocks 401 enhancements of weathering models might be expected by including information on age and 402 weathering history to lithological data bases (c.f. White and Brantley, 2003; Riebe et al., 2004). 403 Because CO₂-consumption is linked to the combination of runoff (and thus climate) and lithology, 404 future global dynamic carbon models need to recognize changes in the spatial correlation between

405 runoff and lithology. The contribution of only a small proportion of exorheic land (9%) to half of CO₂-406 consumption indicates that global chemical weathering is highly sensitive to changing controlling 407 factors (i.e. at least runoff, and temperature in case of basalt). Earth system models emphasizing a 408 spatial resolution of typically 2 to 3.75° may not resolve the contribution of identified small regions responsible for most of global CO₂-consumption and their variability due to changes in climate. 409 410 However, many of the highly active CO₂-consumption areas are spatially correlated. Thus, global 411 weathering modules integrated in to global circulation models should be calibrated for scaling effects 412 to produce a robust and representative CO₂-consumption estimation for the full range of applied 413 climate conditions.

414

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576 Table 1: Global estimates of CO₂-consumption for each of the 15 lithological classes^{a),b)c)}.

	CO₂-consun	nption, this st model not	udy (exorheic modified	land area),	Application of global basalt weathering equation of Dessert et al. (2003)	Silicate CO ₂ - consumption, model not modified	Silicate CO ₂ - consumption, application of global basalt weathering law of Dessert et al. (2003)	
lithology	global mean	global sum	relative flux of total	relative area of total	relative flux of total	relative flux of tota	relative flux of total	
	t C km ⁻² a ⁻¹	10 ⁶ t C a ⁻¹	%	%	%	%	%	
glaciated areas (excluding Antarctica) (IG)	-	-	-	(1.14)	-			
carbonate rocks (SC)	4.35	57.74	24.39	11.17	22.67			
sediments (SC exluded)	0.56	1 70	0.76	2 71	0.70	0.22	0.20	
Quaternary evaporites (EP)	-	-	-	(0.04)	-	0.22		
semi- to unconsolidated sediments (SU)	1.12	12.66	5.35	14.89	4.97	8.49	7.58	
alluvial deposits (AD)	1.25	22.19	9.38	16.61	8.72	14.89	13.29	
siliciclastic sedimentary rocks (SS)	1.24	24.50	10.35	9.53	9.62	14.30	12.76	
mixed sedimentary rocks (SM)	2.40	21.26	8.98	7.47	8.35	6.71	5.98	
complex lithology (CL)	3.09	18.43	7.79	5.02	7.24	7.10	6.34	
average/sum sediments (SC excluded)	1.47	100.84	42.61	56.24	39.60	51.71	46.15	
cristalline rocks								
basement rocks (Precambrian shields) (PR)	1.98	29.23	12.35	12.43	11.48	19.61	17.50	
metamorphics (MT)	1.74	8.97	3.79	4.33	3.52	3.25	2.90	
plutonics, acid (PA)	1.65	14.38	6.08	7.33	5.65	8.30	7.40	
plutonics, basic (PB)	3.81	0.98	0.41	0.22	0.38	0.66	0.58	
average/sum cristalline rocks (without volcanics)	1.85	53.55	22.63	24.30	21.03	31.81	28.39	
volcanics, acid (VA)	1.34	1.52	0.64	0.95	0.60	1.02	0.91	
volcanics, basic (VB)	3.21	23.03	9.73	6.04	16.10	15.45	5 24.55	
average/sum volcanics	2.95	24.55	10.37	7.00	16.70	16.47	25.46	
total average/sum	1.99	236.7	100	100	100	100	100	

a) Area weighted mean values of specific CO2-consumption, total CO2-consumption, relative proportion of total global CO2-consumption, and relative area proportion for each lithological class (without IG).

b) The fifth column presents relative proportions on global CO₂-consumption by chemical weathering if the global model equation for basalts is applied. Global and basalt weathering CO₂-consumption increases by 19.6 10⁶ t C a⁻¹ if compared to the unchanged model is applied. In result basalt weathering proportion of silicate weathering increases from 16.5 to 25.5% (last two columns).
 c) The total land area applied accounts for 135 10⁶ km², while exorheic alnd area holds 121 10⁶ km².

Table 2: Comparison of estimated global CO₂-consumption presented in previous studies (Gaillardet et al., 1999; Amiotte-Suchet et al., 2003) with results from this study^{a)b)}. The last column assumes that the calculated CO₂-consumption from acidic 587 plutonics and metamorphic rocks is entirely from silicate weathering c).

			Amiotte-Suchet et al.									
	Gaillardet e	t al. (1999)	(2003) ¹⁾²⁾		Munhoven (2002)		This study		This study		This study	
		GEM-CO2 model: runoff data		GEM-CO2 model, GRDC								
	reverse mode fixed end	erse model; large rivers; of Korzoun et al. (1977); fixed end-member lithological map Amiotte-		2002), lithological map Amiotte-Suchet & Probst				Basalt weathering law of Dessert et al. (2003)		No carbonate contribution from plutonic and		
	compositions Suchet & Probst (1995)		(1995)		Original set up		applied		metamorhic rocks assumed			
	10 ⁶ t C a ⁻¹	%	10 ⁶ t C a ⁻¹	%	10 ⁶ t C a ⁻¹	%	10 ⁶ t C a ⁻¹	%	10 ⁶ t C a ⁻¹	%	10 ⁶ t C a ⁻¹	%
silicates	140	48.6	154	59.9	133.2	60.3	149	63.0	167	65.6	155	65.6
carbonates	148	51.4	104	40.1	87.6	39.7	88	37.0	88	34.4	81	34.4
flux total	288		258		220.8		237		255		237	

a) Carbonate proportions on total CO2-consumption from lithological classes SS, SM, MT and PA are applied as explained in the text.

b) The difference in the work of Amiotte- Suchet et al. (2003) and Munhoven (2002) is the applied runoff data. The global runoff of Korzoun et al. (1977) is about 19% higher than the global runoff calculated by Fekete et al. (2002). However, the global CO₂-consumption after Amiotte-Suchet et al. is 17.3% and 8.8% higher than calculated by Munhoven (2002) and in this study with the orginal set up, respectively.

c) The last column shows that globally the carbonate CO2-consumption from lithological classes MT and PA are not highly important based on the results of the applied model (compare with column three).

- 598 Figure 1: Simplified, typical chemical weathering mineral reactions (educts → ions in dissolution → possible precipitation
- 599 reactions in the ocean). The oceanic Na concentration is affected by diverse processes like reverse weathering or evaporite
- 601 scales. Similar can be found for Mg-silicates.

Carbonate

 $\frac{\text{CaCO}_3 + \text{CO}_2 \textcircled{} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \Rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{HCO}_3 \Rightarrow \text{CaCO}_3 \textcircled{} + \text{CO}_2 \textcircled{} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}}{(\text{No net-sink of consumed atmospheric CO}_2)}$

Olivine

 $\frac{Mg_2SiO_4 + 4CO_2 \oplus + 4H_2O}{(Net-sink < 50\% \text{ of consumed atmospheric } CO_2 \text{ due to diverse other processes like alteration of oceanic crust, etc.)}$

Albite

 $\frac{2NaAISi_{3}O_{8} + 2CO_{2} \oplus + 11H_{2}O \Rightarrow Al_{2}Si_{2}O_{5}(OH)_{4} + 2Na^{+} + 2HCO_{3}^{-} + 4H_{4}SiO_{4} \Rightarrow 2Na^{+} + 2HCO_{3}^{-} + SiO_{2} \oplus (Net-sink of consumed atmospheric CO_{2} < 100\% due to other processes like reverse weathering or evaporite precipitation)$

Figure 2: Global distribution of CO₂-consumption by chemical weathering. Note the global average for exorheic areas is ~2 t C km⁻² a⁻¹.



Figure 3: CO₂-consumption in dependence of runoff for selected lithological classes. Abbreviations are
 explained in Table 1. The contribution of carbonates to CO₂-consumption from silicate dominated
 classes SS, SM, MT and PA is 13%, 53%, 46% and 16%, respectively.



Figure 4: Aerial proportion per runoff field for each lithological class. Runoff classes were calculated in steps with ranges of 500 mm a⁻¹. Abbreviations are
 explained in Table 1. For comparison runoff distribution and the abundance of water bodies (WB) is provided.

--AD

•∎•LO

·**∆**· SM

-o-ss

•••**▲**••• SU

2000 -

2500

-D-CL

-**∆**-SC

• • VB

2000 -

2500

-runoff

-runoff







- 617 Figure 5: Proportions of distinguished runoff classes (in 500 mm steps) on total CO₂-consumption, CO₂-consumption of
- 618 carbonate sedimentary rocks, of silicates per runoff class, total runoff and total exorheic land area,
- 619



Figure 6: Relative proportion of exorheic CO₂-consumption and bicarbonate (DIC) transport into the aquatic system due to chemical weathering compared to the relative exorheic land area. Hotspots (10 times world average) and hyperactive areas (> 5 times world average) are responsible for 8.6 and 19.6% of CO₂-consumption, while representing only 0.51 and 2.9% of the exhorheic land area, respectively.

