



1 <u>Short Communication: Aging of basalt volcanic systems and decreasing CO₂ consumption</u>

2 **by weathering**

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9 Abstract

Basalt weathering is one of many relevant processes balancing the global carbon cycle via landocean alkalinity fluxes. The CO₂ consumption by weathering can be calculated using alkalinity and is often scaled with runoff and/or temperature. Here it is tested if information on the surface age distribution of a volcanic system is a useful proxy for changes in alkalinity production with time.

A linear relationship between temperature normalized alkalinity fluxes and the Holocene area fraction of a volcanic field was identified, using information from 33 basalt volcanic fields, with an $r^2=0.91$. This relationship is interpreted as an aging function and suggests that fluxes from Holocene areas are ~10 times higher than those from old inactive volcanic fields. However, the cause for the decrease with time is probably a combination of effects, including a decrease in alkalinity production from surface near material in the critical zone as well as a decline in hydrothermal activity and magmatic CO₂ contribution.

A comparison with global models suggests, that global alkalinity fluxes considering Holocene active basalt areas are ~70% higher than the average from these models imply. The contribution of Holocene areas to the global basalt alkalinity fluxes is however only ~6%, because identified, mapped Holocene basalt areas cover only ~1% of the existing basalt areas. The large trap basalt proportion on the global basalt areas today reduces the relevance of the aging effect. However, the aging effect might be a relevant process during periods of globally, intensive volcanic activity, which remains to be tested.

29 <u>1. Introduction</u>

30 Basalt areas, despite its limited areal coverage, contribute significantly to the CO₂ sequestration

by silicate rock weathering (Dessert et al., 2003; Gaillardet et al., 1999; Hartmann et al., 2009).

32 The sensitivity of basalt weathering to climate change (Coogan and Dosso, 2015; Dessert et al.,

2001; Dessert et al., 2003; Li et al., 2016) supports a negative weathering feedback in the carbon





34 cycle that maintains the habitability of the Earth's surface over geological time scales (Berner,

1983; Li and Elderfield, 2013; Walker et al., 1981). Changes in volcanic weathering fluxes due

to emplacement of large volcanic provinces or shifts in the geographic distribution of volcanic

37 fields associated with continental drift may have contributed to climate change in the past

38 (Goddéris et al., 2003; Kent and Muttoni, 2013; Schaller et al., 2012).

The role of basalt weathering in the carbon cycle and its feedback strength in the climate system 39 depends, besides the release of geogenic nutrients, on the amount of associated CO₂ consumption 40 and related alkalinity fluxes. The factors that module these fluxes are a subject to uncertainty. 41 Previous studies suggest that basalt weathering contributes 25-35% to the global silicate CO₂ 42 consumption by weathering (Dessert et al., 2003; Gaillardet et al., 1999; Hartmann et al., 2009). 43 However, their estimations do not consider the potential aging of a weathering system. Young 44 volcanic areas can show much higher weathering rates compared to older ones, as was shown for 45 the Lesser Antilles, where a rapid decay of weathering rates within the first 0.5 Ma was observed 46 47 (Rad et al., 2013). Such an aging effect of volcanic areas is difficult to parameterize for global basalt weathering fluxes, due to a lack of global compilations. 48

49 A practical approach to resolve this issue is to distinguish old and inactive volcanic fields (IVF) and active volcanic fields (AVF) (Li et al., 2016) and compare weathering fluxes with factors 50 driving the weathering process, like land surface temperature or hydrological parameters. By 51 52 compiling data from 37 basaltic fields globally, Li et al. (2016) showed that spatially explicit alkalinity fluxes (or CO₂ consumption rates) associated with basalt weathering correlate strongly 53 54 with land surface temperature for IVFs, but not for AVFs. They suggested that previously 55 observed correlations between weathering rates and runoff in global datasets originates partly from the coincidence of high weathering rates and high runoff of AVFs rather than a direct 56 primary runoff control on the weathering rate. Many studied AVFs are located near the oceans 57 58 and have an elevated topography, a combination, which can cause elevated runoff due to an orographic effect (Gaillardet et al., 2011). However, the here suggested aging effect on 59 weathering rates from a volcanic system has not been evaluated. 60

The age distribution of the surface area of a whole volcanic system might be used as a first order 61 proxy to study the variability of weathering fluxes of AVFs. However, the exact surface age of 62 63 volcanic areas is rarely mapped in detail, but Holocene areas are often reported in geological 64 maps. Here, basalt alkalinity fluxes are related to the calculated Holocene areal proportion of volcanic fields at the catchment scale. For this, the concept of weathering reactivity is 65 introduced, which is the relative alkalinity flux of AVFs to the alkalinity flux estimated for IVFs 66 67 by the function identified in Li et al. (2016). This reactivity R is compared with the relative age distribution of surface areas, using the fraction of the Holocene area on the total studied area. 68 From this comparison a function for the decay of alkalinity fluxes with increasing proportion of 69 70 older land surface area is derived and discussed.





72 **<u>2. Methods</u>**

73 The volcanic fields used to establish the relationship between weathering reactivity and Holocene coverage are predominantly described as basalt areas (Li et al., 2016). Based on the 74 availability of detailed geological maps 33 volcanic provinces were selected, with 19 IVFs and 75 76 14 AVFs. A detailed description is given in the supplementary information. The 14 AVFs are geographically widespread and diverse (Fig.1a). If the absolute age distribution of the volcanic 77 rocks is available, the Holocene areas were mapped using the age range from 11.7 ka to present, 78 according to the International Commission on Stratigraphy version 2017/02 (Cohen et al., 2013). 79 If possible, coordinates of water sample locations were used to constrain catchment boundary to 80 calculate the Holocene fraction for monitored areas. In some cases already existing alkalinity 81 82 flux calculations were taken from Li et al. (2016). Detailed information on mapping and calculations for each system can be found in the supplementary information (SI). 83

The weathering reactivity (R) of each volcanic field is calculated by normalizing the observed alkalinity flux of the AVF ($F_{observed}$, in 10⁶ mol km⁻² a⁻¹) to that of the expected flux if the AVF would be an IVF ($F_{expected}$) applying the previously identified weathering function for IVFs (Li et al., 2016):

84
$$\mathbf{R} = F_{observed}/F_{expected}$$
 (eq. 1)

- 85 where the expected alkalinity flux $F_{expected}$ for IVFs is given by (Fig. 1b):
- 86 $F_{expected} (10^6 \text{ mol km}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}) = 0.2007 \text{ x e}^{(0.0692 \text{ x T} (^\circ\text{C}))}$ (eq. 2)





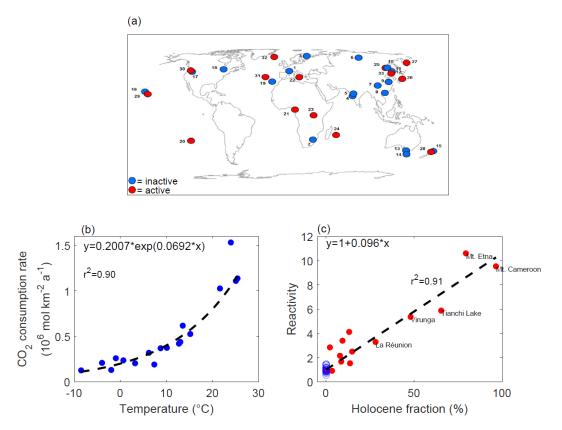


Figure 1. (a) The global map shows the locations of the Active Volcanic Fields (in red) and the Inactive Volcanic Fields (in blue) used in this study (1.Massif Central, 2.South Africa, 3.Karelia, 4.Coastal Deccan, 5.Interior Deccan, 6.Siberia Traps, 7.E'Mei, 8.Lei-Qiong, 9.Nanjing, 10.Xiaoxinganling, 11.Tumen River, 12.Mudan River, 13.SE Australia, 14.Tasmania, 15.North Island, NZ, 16.Kauai, Hawaii, 17.Columbia Plateau, 18.NE America, 19.Madeira Island, 20.Easter Island, 21.Mt.Cameroon, 22.Mt.Etna, 23.Virunga, 24.La Réunion, 25.Wudalianchi Lake, 26.Japan, 27.Kamchatka, 28.Taranaki, 29.Big Island, Hawaii, 30.High Cascades, 31.Sao Miguel, 32.Iceland, 33.Tianchi Lake). (b) The exponential relationship between alkalinity flux rates and the land surface temperature for IVFs (Li et al., 2016). (c) The relationship between the Holocene area fraction of a volcanic field and the weathering reactivity R (r²=0.91).

IVFs range around a reactivity R=1 having a Holocene fraction of zero (Fig 1c). The reactivity R
(eq. 1) of an AVF can be estimated by the Holocene area fraction as implied by the good linear
correlation identified in Fig. 1c. The virtual reactivity for Holocene areas can be estimated
rearranging eq. 1 and setting the area fraction to 100% :





Global alkalinity fluxes from basalt areas are calculated using for older areas than of Holocene age equation 2 and for mapped Holocene areas equation 3. The model equations are calibrated for areas with a runoff > 74 mm a^{-1} to avoid too high alkalinity fluxes from drier areas with high temperature (*e.g.*, the Sahara Desert), assuming that neglecting fluxes from areas with lower

- 96 runoff are not biasing the comparison (Tab. S1, supplementary information). In this case an
- 97 overestimation is avoided.

Results are compared with four previous global empirical alkalinity flux models (Bluth and 98 Kump, 1994; Dessert et al., 2003; Goll et al., 2014; Suchet and Probst, 1995). Alkalinity fluxes 99 were translated into CO₂ consumption for allowing comparison with previous literature. For all 100 models the same data input was used: a newly compiled global basalt map (mostly derived by the 101 102 basalt lithological layer from the GLiM, but enhanced by mapped Holocene areas (SI; Hartmann and Moosdorf, 2012), additional regional geological maps reporting on basalt areas and the maps 103 104 of the volcanic fields used in this study, for detailed information see supplementary information), 105 temperature (Hijmans et al., 2005) and runoff (Fekete et al., 2002).

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107 3. Results and Discussion

108 Studied IVFs are characterized by a Holocene volcanic surface area of 0% with weathering 109 reactivity R ranging between 0.6 and 1.5 (Fig. 1c). In contrast, AVFs show a large range of 110 Holocene coverage, from 0.2% (High Cascades) to 96.6% (Mount Cameroon), and weathering 111 reactivity between 0.9 (Easter Island, High Cascades) and 10.6 (Mount Etna). The weathering 112 reactivity correlates strongly with the percentage of Holocene area ($r^2 = 0.91$; Fig. 1c), 113 suggesting Holocene surface area distribution to be a good predictor for the enhanced alkalinity 114 fluxes from a volcanic system:

115
$$F_{alkalinity} = (1 + 0.096 \times \text{H}) \times 0.2007 \times \text{e}^{(0.0692 \times \text{T})} [10^6 \text{ mol km}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}]$$
 (eq. 4)

where H is the Holocene fraction of a volcanic system in % and T is land surface temperature in
°C.

The Holocene fraction is not interpreted as the physical cause for elevated alkalinity fluxes. Instead, magmatic CO₂ contribution, geothermal-hydrothermal activity and the input of new volcanic material to the surface (properties and "freshness" of the surface area for reaction) are contributing to enhanced alkalinity fluxes.

The magmatic CO₂ contributions to alkalinity fluxes in young volcanic systems may be large in general, but data are scarce to evaluate the global relevance for AVFs. For the Lesser Antilles a magmatic contribution of 23 to 40% to the CO₂ consumed by weathering was identified (Rivé et al., 2013). High ¹³C-DIC values suggest that magmatic CO₂ contributes significantly to the alkalinity fluxes from the Virunga system (Balagizi et al., 2015). The magmatic CO₂ contribution





derived from volcanic calcite dissolution on Iceland was estimated to be about 10% of the alkalinity fluxes for the studied area (Jacobson et al., 2015). In case of the Etna 7% of the CO_2 emitted due to volcanic activity may be captured by weathering (Aiuppa et al., 2000). These examples suggest that significant amounts of magmatic carbon may be transferred to the ocean

131 directly via intra-volcanic weathering from AVFs.

The calculated global basalt weathering alkalinity fluxes based on previous global models (Bluth 132 and Kump, 1994; Dessert et al., 2003; Goll et al., 2014; Suchet and Probst, 1995) give alkalinity 133 fluxes ranging between 0.7 to 1.6 $\times 10^{12}$ mol a⁻¹. These values are different to previously 134 published results based on the same models because a different geological map and climate data 135 are used in this study. The new calculation based on the temperature dependence of weathering 136 rate and the age dependence of weathering reactivity (eq. 4) results in higher global alkalinity 137 fluxes of 2×10^{12} mol a⁻¹ and 3.4×10^{12} mol a⁻¹ for regions with > 74mm a⁻¹ runoff, and for all 138 areas, respectively. The latter higher estimate is mainly due to the modeled contribution from dry 139 and hot regions and shows that it is relevant to apply the runoff cut off. 140

Using the new approach, considering the aging of a volcanic system, reveals that alkalinity
fluxes from Holocene areas contribute only 6% to the global basalt weathering alkalinity flux.
This is because identified mapped Holocene volcanic areas cover only ~1% of all basalt areas.

The Holocene area is probably underestimated due to information gaps in the reported age information of the global map. The strong dependence of weathering reactivity on relative age of the surface of a considered volcanic system suggests that it is relevant to know the global spatial age distribution of volcanic areas in more detail. Therefore, a new global review of the age distribution of basalt areas would be needed, which is beyond the scope of this study.

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Table 1: Summary of CO_2 consumption rates for global basaltic areas applying different models and the new parameterization. For simplicity it was assumed that alkalinity fluxes equal CO_2 consumption.

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		$\begin{array}{c} Global\ CO_2\\ consumption\ rate\ (10^9\\ mol/a)\ for\ limited\ area\\ in\ comparison\ (only\\ areas\ with > 74mm/a\\ runoff) \end{array}$	Global CO_2 consumption rate (10 ⁹ mol/a)
Dessert et al. 2003	runoff, temperature	1567	1573
Amiotte-Suchet & Probst, 1995	runoff	838	843
Bluth & Kump, 1994	runoff	739	754
Goll et al., 2014	runoff, temperature	1471	1477
Newequation	temperature	1992	3431

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The applied time stamp of the Holocene boundary suggests that the aging of the "weathering motor" of a basaltic volcanic area, including internal weathering, with declining volcanic activity is rather rapid. This implies that peaks in global volcanic activity have probably a short but intensive effect on the CO_2 consumption. A pronounced effect on the global carbon cycle by shifting the global reactivity of volcanic areas may only be relevant for geological periods with significantly elevated production of new volcanic areas, accompanied by geothermalhydrothermal activity and capture of magmatic CO_2 before its escape to the atmosphere.

Results may have relevance for the carbon cycle and climate studies considering the displacement of large igneous provinces like the CAMP (Schaller et al., 2012) or the Deccan traps (Caldeira, 1990) with production of large basaltic areas within a short time. However, the biological contribution to CO_2 drawdown, via fertilization effects, *e.g.* P- or Si-release due to weathering and elevated CO_2 in the atmosphere must also be taken into account.

164 Looking deeper into Earth's history: variations in the solid Earth CO_2 degassing rate or changes 165 in environmental conditions affecting the weathering intensity (Hartmann et al., 2017; Teitler et 166 al., 2014) may have caused different reactivity patterns in dependence of surface age, if 167 compared to the ones identified for the recent conditions.

In conclusion, a simple approach to detect an aging effect, using surface age as a proxy for several combined processes, was chosen due to availability of data. Nevertheless, the combined effect on elevated weathering reactivity due to magmatic CO₂ contribution, hydrothermal activity, production of fresh surface area for reaction, and hydrological factors of young volcanic systems remains to be disentangled, for single volcanic systems, as well as for the emplacement of larger, trap-style basalt areas.

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