



## 21    **Abstract**

22

23    To effectively reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, it's vital to identify and quantify their sources.  
24    While the focus has been on CO<sub>2</sub> from fossil fuel combustion, especially coal, the  
25    CO<sub>2</sub> produced from coal's other elements, such as sulfur, through chemical reaction,  
26    remains an 'invisible' carbon source. Using river sulfate fluxes, we analyzed the  
27    invisible carbon flux due to coal burning in the Xijiang River Basin, a highly  
28    industrialized region in China. Dissolved sulfate concentration in the Xijiang River  
29    rose by over 300% from 1985 to 2011, largely due to coal combustion. In 2011, this  
30    resulted in 3.14 Mt of invisible carbon dioxide. We evaluated the impact of two flue  
31    gas desulfurization (FGD) methods on carbon emissions with a predictive model. By  
32    enhancing SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency through these methods, China could cut invisible  
33    carbon emissions by 27.8 Mt CO<sub>2</sub> annually, paving the way for a sustainable future.

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35    **Keywords: Climate Change, Carbon Emission, Coal Burning, Sulfur Dioxide**

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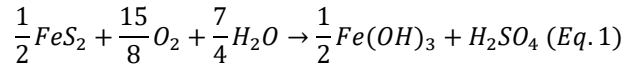
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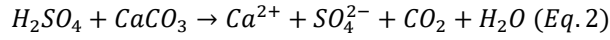
## Introduction

Climate change is a global issue that has garnered significant attention in recent years [Berrang-Ford *et al.*, 2019; Fuhrman *et al.*, 2023]. The increasing concentration of greenhouse gases (GHG), especially carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), in the atmosphere is one of the primary drivers of climate change [Andrews and Forster, 2008; Charney *et al.*, 1979]. According to the Paris Agreement (2015), governments across the globe are making efforts to avoid a 1.5°C increase before 2025 [Christoff, 2016; Fuhrman *et al.*, 2023; Rogelj *et al.*, 2018]. To achieve this objective, efforts are being made to mitigate further increases in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> by increasing carbon sinks and decreasing carbon emissions. Increasing carbon sinks typically include carbon capture, mineral carbon sequestration, and enhanced silicate mineral weathering [Beerling *et al.*, 2018; Fuhrman *et al.*, 2023; Hartmann and Kempe, 2008; Kealy, 2019; Zhu *et al.*, 2017]. Carbon emissions can be decreased by adopting renewable energy sources and improving energy efficiency [Guan *et al.*, 2018; Orsini and Marrone, 2019].

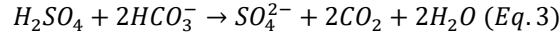
While green energy is increasingly replacing the traditional burning of fossil fuels to reduce carbon emissions, more still needs to be done to explore ways to reduce 'invisible' carbon sources associated with indirect CO<sub>2</sub>-production pathways. For example, the burning of coal is a complex process that not only oxidizes fossil carbon into CO<sub>2</sub> but also releases elements such as sulfur into the environment [Ding *et al.*, 2013; Kato and Akimoto, 1992; Zhao and Sun, 1986]. Sulfur, when involved in subsequent chemical reactions, such as the chemical weathering of carbonates, releases CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere (Eqs 1-3), which is widely recognized as a significant carbon source in the geological carbon cycle [Burke *et al.*, 2018; Calmels *et al.*, 2007; M Torres *et al.*, 2016; M Torres *et al.*, 2014; M A Torres *et al.*, 2015]. Therefore, this study focuses on the invisible carbon source from sulfur (or sulfide) oxidative weathering from the coal-burning process (Kato and Akimoto, 1992; Wu *et al.*, 2006; Zhao and Sun, 1986). Sulfide oxidative weathering can be described by the generalized equation [Calmels *et al.*, 2007; M Torres *et al.*, 2014], which results in the release of sulfuric acid:



68 The released sulfuric acid typically dissolves surrounding carbonate minerals:



69 Sulfuric acid can also react with bicarbonate in river water:



70 Both reactions lead to the release of CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere [*Calmels et al.*,  
71 2007; *M Torres et al.*, 2014].

72 Therefore, the burning of coal not only releases CO<sub>2</sub> directly but also results in  
73 the production of SO<sub>2</sub>, which can contribute to the formation of an "invisible" CO<sub>2</sub>  
74 source through Eqs. 2-3. This process is expected to result in a significantly higher  
75 CO<sub>2</sub> flux, especially given the massive amounts of sulfur released by coal combustion  
76 [*Dai et al.*, 2018; *Ding et al.*, 2013; *Kato and Akimoto*, 1992; *Lu et al.*, 2010; *D Wu et*  
77 *al.*, 2006; *Zhao and Sun*, 1986], which still accounts for more than half of China's  
78 energy consumption [*Tang et al.*, 2019]. In fact, there has been a noticeable increase  
79 in sulfate flux in coal-burning regions, with sulfate concentrations in the Yangtze  
80 River increasing from 147 μM in 1978 to 285 μM in 2006 and 483 μM in 2011  
81 [*Chetelat et al.*, 2008; *Xiaoqian Li et al.*, 2015; *Ming-hui et al.*, 1982]. Similarly, the  
82 sulfate concentration in the Mississippi River has increased from about 154 μM before  
83 industrialization to 611 μM in the 2010s [*Killingsworth and Bao*, 2015]. A large  
84 amount of CO<sub>2</sub> has been released into the atmosphere through Equations 1, 2, and 3.  
85 However, the flux of this anthropogenic-produced source of invisible CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
86 and its disturbance to the geological carbon cycle in catchments are still poorly  
87 understood.

88 To fill this knowledge gap, we examined the Xijiang River basin in China, a  
89 system that allowed us to evaluate the influence of invisible carbon from coal burning  
90 at continental scales. This region was chosen due to its rapid industrialization and  
91 significant coal consumption, making it an ideal place to conduct the study [*Xia Li*  
92 *and Yeh*, 2004; *H-b Wang et al.*, 2019a; *S Wang et al.*, 2019b]. We mainly focused on  
93 evaluating the changes in sulfate concentrations in the Xijiang River basin during the

94 period of rapid industrialization from the 1980s to 2010s to determine the contribution  
95 of coal combustion to the sulfate flux. Additionally, this work calculated the invisible  
96 carbon flux introduced by coal combustion based on riverine sulfate flux. Then we  
97 propose a plan to reduce this source of atmospheric carbon and assess its expected  
98 effectiveness in the Xijiang River basin and throughout China. Finally, we design a  
99 prediction model based on coal consumption rates to estimate the flux of  
100 anthropogenically-produced invisible carbon under different strategies in China from  
101 1990 to 2050 to inform policy. Overall, this study aims to contribute to the global  
102 effort to combat climate change by identifying invisible sources of carbon, evaluating  
103 their impact on the carbon cycle, and proposing effective mitigation strategies to  
104 reduce carbon emissions.

## 105 **Materials and Methods**

### 106 **Study Area**

107 This study focuses on the Xijiang River basin (Figure 1A, B), which was chosen  
108 for its high degree of human activity, industrialization, fossil fuel consumption, and  
109 significant occurrence of sulfuric acid rain [Aas *et al.*, 2007; Ding *et al.*, 2013]. The  
110 Xijiang River basin is located in southern China, extending from eastern Yunnan  
111 Province to southern Guangdong Province. The river, which originates from the  
112 eastern foot of the Maxiong Mountain in Yunnan, flows east through Guangdong,  
113 entering the Pearl River Delta east of Zhaoqing and exiting into the South China Sea  
114 west of Macau. The basin has a drainage area of  $3.53 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$ , an average annual  
115 temperature ranging from 14°C to 22°C, and mean annual precipitation ranging from  
116 1000 mm to 2200 mm, with precipitation concentrated from April to September. The  
117 basin's abundance of carbonate rocks, particularly limestone, is another crucial reason  
118 for its selection, allowing for the observation of sulfuric acid weathering of carbonate  
119 rocks. The basin has undergone extensive karst geomorphological processes at the  
120 surface and underground due to approximately 44% of its composition being  
121 carbonate rocks [Gao *et al.*, 2009; Wei *et al.*, 2013] (Figure 1).

122 The Xijiang River basin is one of China's most developed regions, with a

123 population of over 120 million. Coal accounts for 70% of China's energy budget  
124 [Tang *et al.*, 2019], and the basin's industrialization has accelerated since the 1980s  
125 with the implementation of China's reform and opening-up policy [P Wang *et al.*,  
126 2013a; X Wang *et al.*, 2013b], resulting in the increased combustion of fossil fuels and  
127 the release of substantial amounts of sulfur. The region is home to a variety of  
128 industries, including coal-fired power plants, which have significantly increased in  
129 number and size since the 2000s. This makes the Xijiang River basin an ideal case for  
130 our study.

### 131 **Data Collection and Preprocessing**

132 Water chemistry data of the Xijiang River between 1980s~2000s was selected  
133 from the United Nations Global Environmental Monitoring System (GEMS) Water  
134 Program (<http://www.gemstat.org/>), which has collated and recorded high-quality data  
135 sets of the most important rivers globally over the past few decades. These include pH,  
136 temperature, electric conductivity (EC), and major ions ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  
137 alkalinity,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ). The corresponding water temperature and discharge at the time  
138 of sampling were also recorded. Sampling areas are shown in Figure 1. Based on  
139 other previous works, we obtained the water chemistry data from 2000 to 2011 [Gao  
140 *et al.*, 2009; Han *et al.*, 2019; Sun *et al.*, 2010; B Wang *et al.*, 2012; Wei *et al.*, 2013;  
141 Xu and Liu, 2007; 2010]. The sampling areas of these works are also shown in Figure  
142 1B.

### 143 **Model Design**

144 This study developed a comprehensive invisible carbon prediction model (ICPM)  
145 based on coal combustion rates to estimate the flux of anthropogenically-produced  
146 invisible carbon sources under different strategies in China from 1990 to 2050 to  
147 estimate the invisible carbon emissions resulting from coal burning. The model takes  
148 into account several factors, such as the reaction of acid rain with carbonate rocks,  
149  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions from coal combustion, riverine sulfate flux, and potential  $\text{CO}_2$   
150 emissions (SI S1, 2, 3).

## 151   **Results**

### 152   **Sulfate Concentration Trends and Comparison**

153       The concentration of dissolved sulfate in the Xijiang River has been increasing  
154   steadily over the three decades from the 1980s to the 2010s (Figure 2). Specifically,  
155   the concentration of dissolved sulfate increased from 87  $\mu\text{M}$  in 1985 to 358  $\mu\text{M}$  in  
156   2011, representing a more than 300% increase in 26 years. The rate of increase has  
157   been particularly significant since the 2000s (Figure 2).

158       The sulfate concentration in the Xijiang River basin was compared to other major  
159   rivers around the world using data from the year 2011. The results reveal that the  
160   concentration of dissolved sulfate in the Xijiang River (358  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was significantly  
161   higher than the volume-weighted average sulfate concentration (108  $\mu\text{M}$ ) of rivers  
162   representing over 46% of the global water discharge [Burke *et al.*, 2018]. The Yamuna  
163   and Ganges rivers, similar to the Xijiang, have also experienced significant increases  
164   in sulfate concentrations, with concentrations of 360  $\mu\text{M}$  and 370  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively.  
165   These increases are likely due to intensive expansion of human and industrial  
166   activities in those basins [Burke *et al.*, 2018; Rahaman *et al.*, 2012].

167

## 168 Discussion

### 169 Coal Combustion & Sulfate Flux

170 The sulfate concentration in the Xijiang River has increased by over 300% from  
171 the 1980s to the 2010s (Figure 2), and due to its relatively high levels compared to  
172 other major rivers worldwide, further investigation of the possible impact of  
173 anthropogenic sulfate on the environment in this region is necessary. Firstly, it is  
174 essential to distinguish the sources of sulfate, which is crucial for subsequent  
175 evaluation and estimation of invisible carbon flux. Possible sources of sulfate in the  
176 Xijiang River include natural sulfide weathering, evaporate dissolution within the  
177 basin, as well as anthropogenic activities [Meybeck, 2003]. However, the sparsely  
178 distributed evaporates in the upstream basin and the limited sulfides in the basin are  
179 unlikely to cause such a significant change in sulfate concentration downstream,  
180 ruling out the possibility of natural sources [Jiang *et al.*, 2018; Xiaoqian Li *et al.*,  
181 2015] (Figure 1A). Rather anthropogenic activities, such as coal burning for industrial  
182 or power generation purposes, have been shown in previous studies to significantly  
183 contribute to the riverine sulfate flux in this area in recent years [Han and Liu, 2006;  
184 Han *et al.*, 2019; Han *et al.*, 2011; J Liu *et al.*, 2022a; Q Wu *et al.*, 2012]. Moreover,  
185 the growth trend of the sulfate concentration in the Xijiang River from 1985 to 2011  
186 corresponds to the trend of coal burning in China (Figure 3A), which also implies the  
187 contribution of coal burning to sulfate.

188 To investigate whether the rapid increase in sulfate in the Xijiang River between  
189 the 1980s and 2010s is indeed mainly due to coal combustion, a correlation analysis  
190 was conducted between the combustion of coal and sulfate concentration. Results  
191 from Figure 3B demonstrate a robust positive correlation between the combustion of  
192 coal in the Guangdong Province, mostly located in the study area, and dissolved  
193 sulfate in the Xijiang River from 1995 to 2012, which provides further evidence that  
194 the increase in sulfate concentration over the past three decades has come mainly  
195 from coal combustion[Kuang, 2015]. Besides, the intercept of the fitted regression  
196 equation indicates that the concentration of dissolved sulfate in the Xijiang River was



197 around 48.9  $\mu\text{M}$  in the absence of coal combustion, which is consistent with previous  
198 research that estimated the concentration of sulfate in the Xijiang River to be around  
199 56.25  $\mu\text{M}$  before the 1990s [S-R Zhang *et al.*, 2007].  
200

## 201 **Sulfur-Driven CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions**

202 The previous section has shown that coal burning has significantly contributed  
203 and elevated sulfate concentration in Xijiang River Basin. Notably, coal burning does  
204 not only impact the sulfate flux in the river basin; it also leads to invisible carbon  
205 emissions. Previous studies have shown that there is a large proportion of high-sulfur  
206 coal in the Xijiang River basin, where over 95% of sulfur is present in the forms of  
207 organic sulfur and pyrite, while the sulfate form of sulfur is only a small fraction [Dai  
208 *et al.*, 2018; Dai *et al.*, 2017; Jiang *et al.*, 2018]. During high-temperature combustion,  
209 organic sulfur and pyrite are released into the atmosphere as SO<sub>2</sub>, forming acid rain.  
210 This is supported by the recent occurrences of intense acid rain in the middle reaches  
211 of the Xijiang River [Aas *et al.*, 2007; Ding *et al.*, 2013; Hao *et al.*, 2001].

212 Before or after entering the river, the sulfur from coal combustion reacts with  
213 carbonates and/or bicarbonates in the form of sulfuric acid, releasing significant  
214 amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere (Eqs. 1-3), contributing to the "invisible carbon."  
215 This phenomenon is particularly apparent in carbonate-rich river basins like the  
216 Xijiang. We calculated the invisible CO<sub>2</sub> emission rate in the Xijiang River basin from  
217 1995-2011 based on sulfate concentrations (Detailed calculation is in SI S4).  
218 Specifically, the invisible CO<sub>2</sub> emission rates at Zhaoqing (Gaoyao) Station were  
219  $4.18 \times 10^4 \text{ mol km}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$  and  $20.2 \times 10^4 \text{ mol km}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$  in 1995 and 2011, respectively,  
220 which offset all of the silicate weathering carbon sink ( $5.49 \times 10^4 \text{ mol km}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$ ) in 2011  
221 (Figure 1B, 4A, Table S2) [Gaillardet *et al.*, 1999]. In other words, the invisible CO<sub>2</sub>  
222 flux to the atmosphere in the Xijiang River basin was 3.14 Mt in 2011 [Xu and Liu,  
223 2010], indicating a significant carbon source that was previously overlooked. This  
224 highlights the importance of considering not only direct emissions from fossil carbon  
225 burning but also indirect emissions from secondary processes that are triggered by  
226 human activities.

227       The increasing trend of invisible CO<sub>2</sub> rate from 1995-2011 (Figure 4A) shows  
228       that the impact of this process, triggered by coal burning, is becoming more and more  
229       significant. Importantly, this not only contributes to the overall sulfate flux in the  
230       basin but also release CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere, affecting the carbon cycle. This  
231       observation corroborates previous studies that note that carbonate dissolution can  
232       occur through sulfuric acid and carbonic acid [*M Torres et al.*, 2016] and the  
233       proportion of carbonate dissolution from sulfuric acid is increasing in recent years  
234       [*Han et al.*, 2019; *S-L Li et al.*, 2008; *Xu and Liu*, 2007]. The identified continuous  
235       rise in anthropogenic invisible CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, resulting from the dissolution of  
236       carbonate rocks and/or bicarbonates by sulfuric acid in the Xijiang River basin,  
237       highlights the need to adopt more comprehensive and integrated approaches to  
238       addressing carbon emissions and their impact on the environment.

239

#### 240   **Mitigation Strategies**

241       The important yet often overlooked source of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the Xijiang River  
242       has been linked to the presence of sulfuric acid. This source of carbon has shown a  
243       steady increase, with a recorded value of 3.14 million tons in 2011, equal to the  
244       carbon reduction achieved by more than 1000 fully-loaded 1.5 MW wind turbines  
245       operating for one year [*Chen et al.*, 2011; *Kealy*, 2019]. To address this issue, one  
246       potential solution is to implement flue gas desulfurization (FGD) (SI S1) [*Cordoba*,  
247       2015; *van Ewijk and McDowall*, 2020; *B Wu et al.*, 2020]. Sulfur in coal mainly exists  
248       in the form of organic sulfur and sulfides, with an average mass fraction of about 2%  
249       [*Chou*, 2012]. Preventing sulfur from entering the terrestrial environment and  
250       participating in subsequent chemical reactions could reduce the carbon emissions  
251       from sulfuric acid dissolution of carbonate rocks. This can be achieved through FGD  
252       [*Cordoba*, 2015].

253       It is important to note that many countries, including China, have implemented  
254       measures to reduce SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Under China's "Eleventh Five-Year Plan" since  
255       around 2006, specific measures were introduced to reduce nitrogen and sulfur oxide  
256       emissions, primarily aiming to protect the environment [*X Wang et al.*, 2013b; *Q*

257 *Zhang et al.*, 2012]. As evidenced by the case of the Xijiang River basin, these  
258 measures have successfully reduced the flux of anthropogenic sulfur to the  
259 atmosphere and consequently the anthropogenic invisible carbon source (Figure S2).

260 However, the reality is more complex. More than simply reducing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
261 is needed to fully address the problem, as CO<sub>2</sub> may also be produced during  
262 desulfurization, depending on the method used. Different flue gas desulfurization  
263 (FGD) methods have varying carbon emissions patterns [*Cordoba*, 2015]. For  
264 example, the limestone-gypsum method, also known as “wet limestone FGD,”  
265 releases a large amount of CO<sub>2</sub> (SI S1, Eq. S1) [*Cordoba*, 2015]. In contrast, spray-dry  
266 FGD systems do not have this issue (SI S1, Eq. S1) [*Cordoba*, 2015; *Zheng et al.*,  
267 2002].

268 Thus, while FGD methods can effectively reduce SO<sub>2</sub> emissions, their  
269 implementation may also lead to carbon emissions. Therefore, it is crucial to consider  
270 the carbon emissions generated by various FGD methods when selecting the  
271 appropriate technology. Here, the impact of two typical FGD methods (wet limestone  
272 FGD and spray-dry FGD) on carbon emissions was examined to show their effects on  
273 coal burning-invisible carbon emissions in 2030 and 2050 in China through our  
274 invisible carbon prediction model (ICPM) (SI S3).

275

## 276 **Model Application and Policy Implication**

277 Based on the invisible carbon prediction model (ICPM), we calculated the  
278 invisible carbon flux generated by different desulfurization methods and SO<sub>2</sub> removal  
279 efficiency during coal burning in China from 1990 to 2050 (SI S1, 2). China's coal  
280 consumption rate from 1990 to 2019 comes from the China Statistical Yearbook, and  
281 the projected consumption of coal from 2030 to 2050 is sourced from the  
282 International Energy Agency (IEA). Figure 4B shows the variation of carbon emission  
283 flux caused by different desulfurization methods and SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency.

284 Firstly, ‘Wet limestone desulfurization,’ where the flue gas produced by coal  
285 burning directly reacts with calcium carbonate, and the sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) in the

flue gas is absorbed by calcium carbonate, can effectively prevent SO<sub>2</sub> from entering the atmosphere (SI S1). However, when SO<sub>2</sub> reacts with calcium carbonate, it produces large amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> (as shown in Equation S1), which is also considered part of the invisible carbon emissions. Therefore, this FGD method does not reduce invisible carbon emissions. If this method is applied, China's maximum invisible carbon emission would equate to approximately 40 Mt in 2019 (Figure 4B).

The other desulfurization method we selected for model calculation is 'spray-dry FGD systems' (SI S1) [Cordoba, 2015; X Liu et al., 2022b; Zheng et al., 2002]. The invisible carbon emission introduced by coal burning under this desulfurization method is significantly lower than that of 'wet limestone FGD'. Moreover, with the increase of the SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency, the invisible carbon emission is significantly reduced (Figure 4B). If the SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency reaches 75%, China's invisible carbon emissions will decrease by 27.8 Mt of CO<sub>2</sub> in 2019, reducing to 4.9 Mt by the year 2050 (Figure 4B).

The estimated invisible carbon emissions under the two different desulfurization methods and SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency in China from 1990 to 2050 highlight the importance of selecting appropriate desulfurization methods. This demonstrates the potential benefits of implementing desulfurization methods, such as spray-dry FGD systems, that do not generate additional 'invisible' CO<sub>2</sub>, thereby contributing to global efforts to mitigate climate change. By adopting the most suitable desulfurization methods and increasing the SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency, China can significantly reduce its invisible carbon emissions during coal burning, moving towards a more sustainable future by addressing two of the Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations (namely 7 – Affordable and Clean Energy and 13 – Climate Action).

## Conclusion

This work has revealed the significant contribution of coal combustion to the sharp increase in riverine sulfate concentration over time in the Xijiang River basin,

315 as well as the invisible carbon emission originating from the reaction of sulfuric acid  
316 with carbonates and/or bicarbonates. An upward trend in the invisible carbon flux is  
317 evident from 1995-2011, underscoring the growing significance of this process. This  
318 rising trend in anthropogenic invisible CO<sub>2</sub> emissions has profound implications for  
319 our understanding of carbon emissions and their environmental impacts.

320 Moreover, the implementation of Flue Gas Desulfurization (FGD) technologies  
321 emerges as a potential solution to mitigate this issue. Our invisible carbon prediction  
322 model (ICPM) reveals that the choice of desulfurization method and the SO<sub>2</sub> removal  
323 efficiency significantly impact the carbon emission flux. For example, using a  
324 desulfurization method that does not produce additional CO<sub>2</sub>, such as spray dry FGD  
325 systems, and increasing the SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency could substantially reduce China's  
326 invisible carbon emissions by 2050.

327 In conclusion, the study of the Xijiang River basin has underscored the pressing  
328 need to address not only direct emissions from fossil fuel combustion but also indirect  
329 emissions arising from secondary processes triggered by human activities. The  
330 selection of appropriate desulfurization methods and optimization of SO<sub>2</sub> removal  
331 efficiency can help to reduce invisible carbon emissions, thereby contributing to the  
332 global effort to mitigate climate change. As we continue to refine our understanding  
333 of these complex processes, we are better equipped to design and implement  
334 strategies to reduce carbon emissions and foster a more sustainable future.

335

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337

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343

344 **Data Availability Statement**

345

346 Data used in this study can be accessed through this link:

347 <https://figshare.com/s/fef51a91d60cfda01a78>

348

## 349   **Reference**

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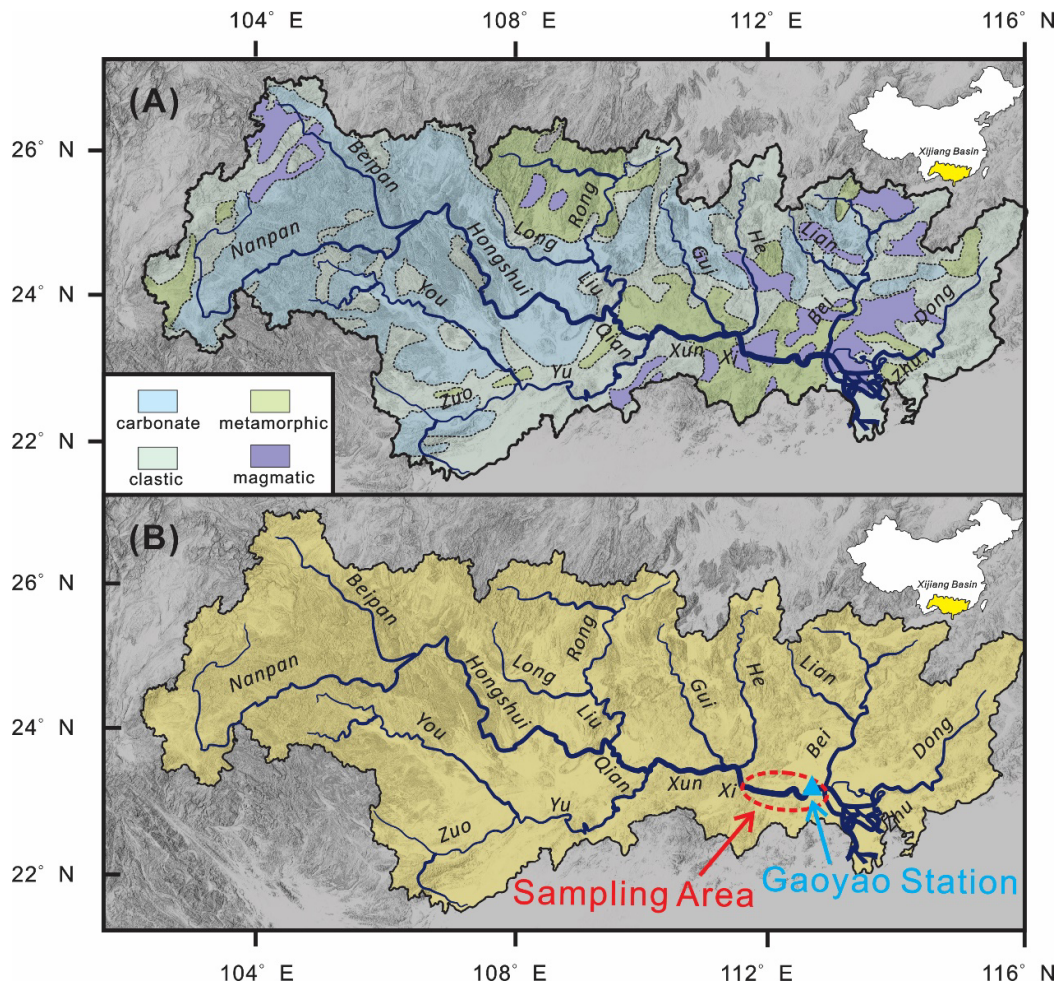
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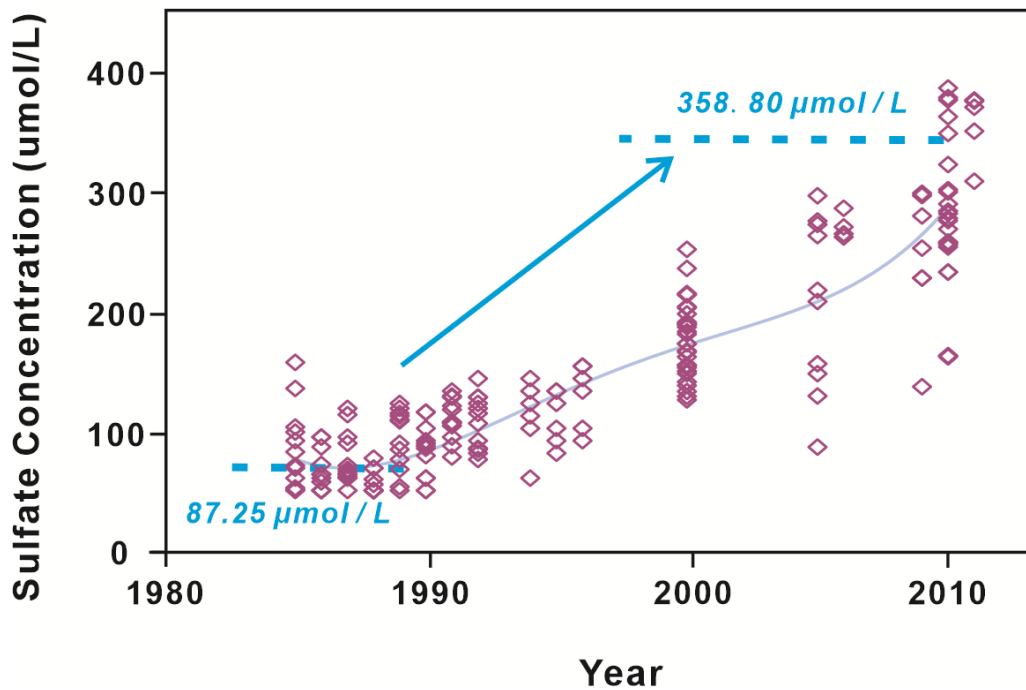
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**Figure 1. (A) Geological settings and (B) Sampling areas in Xijiang River Basin. The sampling positions of all data are located in the red ellipse area. The blue triangle represents the position of Gaoyao Station.**

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508

509 **Figure 2. Interannual variation of sulfate concentration in the**  
510 **Xijiang River basin from the 1980s to 2010s. The “purple diamonds”**  
511 **are sulfate concentrations of the lower reaches of the Xijiang River**  
512 **from the 1980s to the 2010s. The “blue dotted lines” are the average**  
513 **sulfate concentrations in 1985 and 2011, which are 87.25 uM and**  
514 **358.80 uM, respectively. The “blue arrows” represent the trend of**  
515 **change.**

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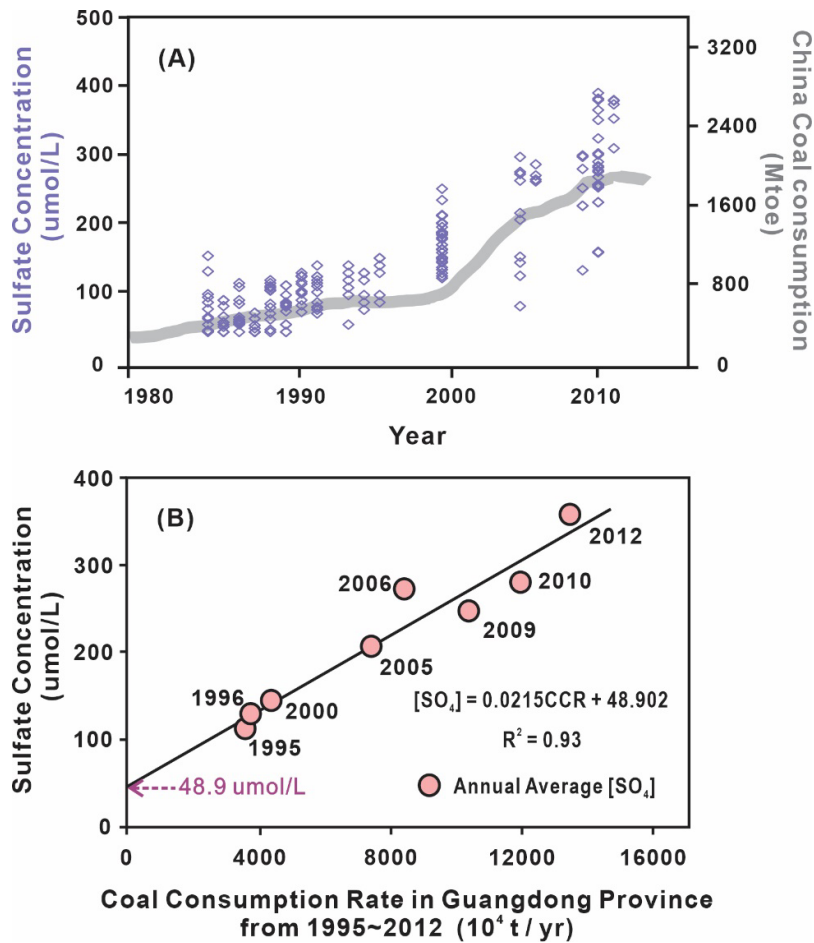
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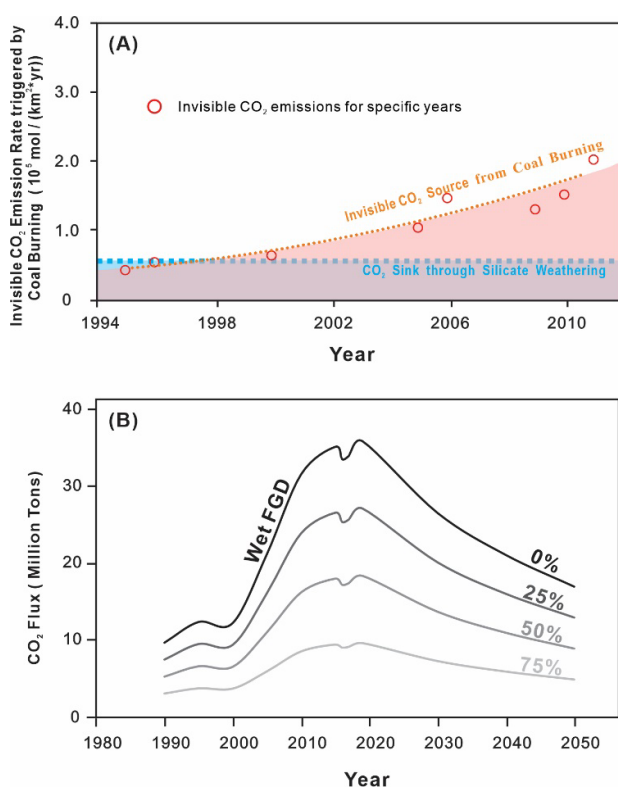
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524 **Figure 3. (A) Interannual variation of sulfate concentration in the**  
 525 **Xijiang River basin (purple diamonds) and interannual variation of**  
 526 **coal consumption in China (gray curve). Data for interannual**  
 527 **variation of coal consumption in China were collected from the**  
 528 **China Statistical Yearbook. (B) Positive correlation between coal**  
 529 **consumption Rate (CCR) in the Guangdong Province from 1995 to**  
 530 **2012 and dissolved sulfate in the Xijiang River. The purple dotted**  
 531 **arrow indicates the longitudinal intercept of the fitted linear equation,**  
 532 **representing the sulfate concentration in the lower reaches of the**  
 533 **Xijiang River without coal burning.**





534

535 **Figure 4. (A) Comparison of invisible carbon source induced by coal**  
 536 **burning with natural silicate chemical weathering carbon sink in the**  
 537 **Xijiang River basin. The blue area represents the silicate chemical**  
 538 **weathering carbon sink, and light orange area represents the**  
 539 **invisible carbon source caused by coal burning. (B) The annual flux**  
 540 **of invisible carbon emissions induced by coal burning in China from**  
 541 **1990 to 2050 with different desulfurization methods and SO<sub>2</sub> removal**  
 542 **efficiency. The top black line represents the invisible carbon**  
 543 **emissions after wet limestone FGD application. 0, 25%, 50%, and**  
 544 **75%, respectively, represent the invisible carbon emissions caused by**  
 545 **coal burning after the application of “non-carbon emission FGD”**  
 546 **with an SO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency of 0, 25%, 50%, and 75%.**