



Multidecadal trends in CO₂ evasion and aquatic metabolism in a large temperate river

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Abstract. Rivers play a critical role in the global carbon cycle. However, the environmental and hydro-climatic factors that control the sign and magnitude of river CO₂ fluxes across seasons and multi-decadal periods are less constrained. The origin of excess river CO₂—delivered by soils, wetlands and groundwater or produced by aquatic respiration of organic matter—remains an important unknown in linking terrestrial and aquatic carbon budgets. To address these knowledge gaps, we report on a 32-year high-frequency dataset (1990–2021) from the Loire River, a large, temperate river that underwent a shift from a eutrophic, phytoplankton-dominated regime to an oligotrophic, macrophyte-dominated regime in ca. 2005. We estimated daily river-atmosphere CO₂ flux (FCO₂) and river net ecosystem productivity (NEP) from hourly pH, alkalinity, dissolved oxygen, water temperature and solar radiation. We demonstrate that: i) annual FCO₂ varied an order of magnitude among years (range = 200–2600 g C m² yr⁻¹); ii) the mean annual contribution of aquatic metabolism to total FCO₂ was 40%, but this also varied according to year and trophic regime, ranging from negative to 100% contribution; iii) the river occasionally acted as a CO₂ sink (FCO₂ < 0) during summer, especially during the eutrophic period of 1990–2000, but this flux was negligible (-0.6% of the FCO₂ budget); and iv) FCO₂ exhibited hysteresis with discharge, with FCO₂ levels ranging from 1.5 to 2 times higher in autumn compared to spring at equivalent discharge rates, and the degree of which was depended on trophic regime. This study makes



31 clear that river FCO_2 —and the source of this CO_2 —is dynamic within and across years and that global
32 changes affecting the river trophic regime control the balance between internal and external CO_2
33 production.

34 **Keywords:** internal contribution, autotrophic, heterotrophic, long-term trend, metabolic shift, Loire
35 River

36 1. Introduction

37 Streams and rivers contribute 60% (1.8 Pg C yr^{-1}) of CO_2 evasion from all inland waters (Raymond et
38 al., 2013). Most CO_2 flux (FCO_2) emitted comes from “external” sources, delivered to streams via
39 groundwater inputs and via temporary hydrologic connectivity with riparian wetlands (Abril & Borges,
40 2019; Hotchkiss et al., 2015). Additional, geochemical weathering and photochemical processes are also
41 considered external sources to river FCO_2 (Hotchkiss et al., 2015). While geochemical weathering
42 primarily affects river alkalinity and indirectly influences CO_2 dynamics through changes in water
43 chemistry (Jones et al., 2003), photochemical processes make a relatively minor contribution to CO_2
44 production when compared to biological processes (Amaral et al., 2013; Koehler et al., 2014). The
45 remainder of FCO_2 from rivers originates from in-stream respiration of organic matter (Cole et al.,
46 2001), termed the “internal” source of CO_2 . While the balance between internal versus external CO_2
47 sources is spatially predictable (Hotchkiss et al., 2015), its temporal variation is less clear. Most analyses
48 on the origin of stream FCO_2 occur over one season (e.g., Bernal et al., 2022; Rocher-Ros et al., 2020)
49 or rely on discrete samplings (e.g., Hotchkiss et al., 2015). Recent work by Young et al. (2025)
50 highlighted this complexity by documenting strong seasonal variability driven by hydrological events,
51 temperature fluctuations, and biological productivity in a temperate river. Their four-year study
52 emphasized the need for longer-term datasets to capture interannual variability, particularly in the
53 context of ongoing climate and ecological changes. The seasonal hydrology plays an important role in
54 determining the magnitude and timing of CO_2 emissions from rivers, as changes in flow rates affect the
55 transport of nutrient, organic carbon from surrounding land as input for stream metabolism and the
56 exchange of CO_2 between the river and the atmosphere (Cole et al., 2007; Hotchkiss et al., 2015). There
57 is thus a lack of understanding of the temporal variability of FCO_2 and its sources, which are increasingly
58 crucial under a changing climate that increases water temperature and modifies river flow (Floury et al.,



59 2012; Van Vliet et al., 2013). This knowledge gap is most prominent in large rivers, leading to significant
60 uncertainty in global FCO₂ assessment from inland waters (Battin et al., 2023; Hotchkiss et al., 2015).

61 The relative contribution of internal CO₂ sources can be quantified as the ratio between net ecosystem
62 productivity (NEP) and FCO₂. NEP is the balance between gross primary production (GPP) and
63 ecosystem respiration (ER) (NEP = GPP – ER). When NEP is negative (GPP < ER), the river is in a
64 “heterotrophic” state, and CO₂ is added to the water column by net organic matter respiration. Assuming
65 the river is a CO₂ source (FCO₂ > 0) and in a heterotrophic state, the –NEP/FCO₂ ratio yields the ratio
66 of internal source contribution to total emissions, and by difference, the ratio of external CO₂ source
67 contribution (=1+ NEP/FCO₂). This ratio can be evaluated in response to environmental drivers such as
68 hydrology (Hotchkiss et al., 2015), light (Rocher-Ros et al., 2021), water temperature (Lynch et al.,
69 2010; Wallin et al., 2020), and organic matter source (Bernal et al., 2022; Reed et al., 2021). However,
70 rivers are not always CO₂ sources and can seasonally function as CO₂ sinks when high rates of GPP
71 deplete CO₂, leading to CO₂ undersaturation (Aho et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2017). In this “autotrophic”
72 state (GPP > ER), positive NEP yields local organic matter increases. This period is most common in
73 larger rivers but is typically missed by FCO₂ sampling campaigns, furthering the need for high-
74 frequency, long-term studies of coupled stream metabolism and CO₂ measurements.

75 Autotrophic periods were common in large rivers throughout the 1980s and 1990s, characterized by
76 high nutrient concentrations and high chlorophyll-*a* (i.e., an eutrophic regime) (Dodds & Smith, 2016).
77 The Loire River (France) was classified as the most eutrophic in Europe at that time (Minaudo et al.,
78 2015; Moatar & Meybeck, 2005). Despite potential autotrophic activity, the CO₂ dynamics during these
79 periods remains poorly documented due to the lack of comprehensive CO₂ data, leaving a gap in our
80 understanding of whether the river predominantly acted as a CO₂ source or sink.

81 From 1990 to 2005, the Loire River underwent ecological shifts from planktonic autotrophic
82 communities dominated by phytoplankton to benthic communities dominated by rooted macrophytes
83 (Minaudo et al., 2015), which is termed “re-oligotrophication” (Ibáñez et al., 2022). The ecosystem
84 transition was accompanied by a delayed shift in the river metabolic regime in 2012–2014, associated
85 with reductions in GPP and NEP in the growing season (Diamond et al., 2022). As a result,



86 approximately 10% of NEP was decreased (Diamond et al., 2022), which could potentially lead to an
87 increase in FCO₂ due to decreased CO₂ consumption by stream metabolism. As re-oligotrophication may
88 become increasingly common in developed countries, its effects on FCO₂ and CO₂ source variation
89 remain unknown.

90 In this study, we used a 32-year daily dataset of coupled stream metabolism (NEP) and FCO₂ to assess
91 the temporal internal/external CO₂ source contributions in the Loire River. We hypothesized that the
92 FCO₂ and its internal source contribution would increase following the re-oligotrophication ecosystem
93 shift. Specifically, we predicted that these increases would manifest coincidentally with the shifts in
94 phytoplankton to macrophyte-dominated in 2005 and stream metabolism regime in 2012. Finally,
95 because GPP under macrophytes is less flow-dependent than under phytoplankton (Diamond et al.,
96 2022), we predicted that discharge would become a weaker control on FCO₂ in the macrophyte-
97 dominated state, but this changing control would vary seasonally.

98 **2. Methods**

99 **2.1. Study site**

100 The study site (47.6°N, 2.6°E) is located in the middle Loire River, France, 564 km from the source,
101 with a mean discharge of 300 m³ s⁻¹ (Supplementary Figure S1). Its 36,000 km² catchment is home to
102 over two million residents. The land cover consists of forests (42%), pasture (35%), and agriculture
103 (21%) (Moatar & Meybeck, 2005). The Loire River and its tributaries, upstream Dampierre drains
104 volcanic, granitic area and sedimentary basins characterized by extensive limestone and marl formations
105 (Figure S1). After the confluence with Allier River (100 km upstream of the study site), the carbonate-
106 rich catchment and its interaction with the Loire River significantly contribute to river alkalinity
107 primarily through the dissolution of carbonate minerals (Binet et al., 2022). Soil types within the Loire
108 catchment are heterogeneous and their nature is closely linked to the underlying lithology. In addition,
109 the catchment includes significant areas of alluvial deposits, which feature more fertile and productive
110 soils for extensive agriculture in the region (Moatar et al., 2022; Moatar & Meybeck, 2005). This river
111 is an 8th-order river with an anabranching fluvial pattern resulting from a gentle slope (0.4 m km⁻¹).
112 During summer, the study site is shallow (1 m) and wide (330 m). The anabranching fluvial pattern leads



113 to a broad range of lateral hydrologic connectivity between the main channel and secondary channels
114 colonized by semi-terrestrial vegetation (Janssen et al., 2023). These vegetated side channels may
115 behave like floodplains by acting as seasonal sources of organic carbon (Abril & Borges, 2019).

116 **2.2. Data acquisition and processing**

117 Hourly data of pH, temperature, electrical conductivity (EC) at 25°C, and dissolved oxygen (DO) from
118 1990–2021 were extracted from the monitoring program conducted by Électricité de France (EDF)
119 upstream and downstream of the nuclear power plant Dampierre (47.6°N, 2.6°E). Total alkalinity (TA)
120 in the upstream station was measured at varying intervals, ranging from every three days to weekly, by
121 EDF and Naiades (www.naiades.eaufrance.fr). We reconstructed the daily TA based on the linear
122 relationship between EC and TA (Supplementary Figure S2). This study used the upstream data to
123 calculate daily FCO₂ and NEP, while the downstream data was used to support the data cleaning
124 procedure (Supplementary section S1).

125 We obtained daily global radiation data (W m⁻²) from a nearby meteorological station
126 (donneespubliques.meteofrance.fr). Mean daily discharge (m³ s⁻¹) and river depth (m) were obtained
127 from www.hydro.eaufrance.fr.

128 **2.3. NEP and FCO₂ estimation**

129 *2.3.1. Metabolism estimation*

130 We estimated daily GPP, ER (mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹), and the gas exchange rate coefficient (K₆₀₀, d⁻¹) by using
131 the inverse modelling approach that yields the best fit between modeled and observed DO. To avoid the
132 unrealistic estimates, the K₆₀₀ is constrained by daily river discharge and river depth with the
133 formulations proposed by Raymond et al, 2012, while the hourly DO, solar radiation and daily water
134 temperature data are required to further reduce equifinality of GPP, ER and K₆₀₀. These estimates are
135 supported by the *streamMetabolizer*, a R package (Appling et al., 2018). The model setup for the Loire
136 River was described by Diamond et al. (2021). About 12% of samples (n=1391) were discarded due to
137 physically impossible results in metabolism estimation (i.e., negative values). Missing mean daily GPP
138 and ER were then replaced by their daily 75th estimated percentile values provided by



139 *streamMetabolizer*, as detailed in Supplementary section S3. We imputed the remaining 1.7% of missing
140 data using the rolling 7-day average. The covariance between estimated ER and K600 was low ($R^2 =$
141 0.09), demonstrating reduced influence of equifinality problem (Appling et al., 2018).

142 2.3.2. pCO_2 and FCO_2 estimation

143 Daily concentrations of partial pressure of CO_2 (pCO_2 , μatm) were estimated by pyCO2SYS, a Python
144 package for the CO2SYS model (Humphreys et al., 2022), using mean daily pH, water temperature, and
145 TA. Carbonate dissociation constants K_1 and K_2 were chosen based on freshwater estimates (Millero,
146 1979). CO2SYS freshwater pCO_2 estimates are valid for water with $TA > 1000 \mu mol L^{-1}$, and results
147 have been previously validated for the Loire River (2–9% bias) (Abril et al., 2015). The daily TA data
148 in this study were estimated from daily EC with an average error of $190 \mu mol L^{-1}$, leading to an
149 uncertainty in pCO_2 estimation. PyCO2SYS can estimate pCO_2 uncertainty by propagating the TA
150 uncertainty (Humphreys et al., 2022). Uncertainty of estimated TA leads to $\pm 11\%$ uncertainty in pCO_2
151 estimation, however there is no significant difference in the river CO_2 state compared over 32 years
152 (Supplementary section S4).

153 The FCO_2 ($mmol C m^{-2} d^{-1}$) between the water and the atmosphere was calculated using Fick's law,
154 using the CO_2 transfer velocity (k_{CO_2} , $m d^{-1}$) and the air-water CO_2 gradient ($mmol m^{-3}$) (Eq. 1). We
155 obtained k_{CO_2} (Eq. 2) using Schmidt number (Sc) at given water temperature (Eq. 3) scaling from the
156 gas transfer velocity k_{600} ($m d^{-1}$) (Raymond et al., 2012). The k_{600} was calculated by multiplying with
157 river depth with K_{600} , an output of *streamMetabolizer*. We compared k_{600} with seven fitted equations
158 proposed by Raymond et al., (2012) for streams and small rivers and found that they are within the same
159 order of magnitude (Supplementary Figure S5). The k_{600} estimates from the StreamMetabolizer model
160 were selected for FCO_2 calculations to ensure consistency with the NEP calculations.

$$FCO_2 = k_{CO_2} \times (CO_{2\text{ water}} - CO_{2\text{ air}}) \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

$$k_{CO_2} = depth \times K_{600} / (600 / Sc_{CO_2})^{-0.5} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$



$$S_{\text{CO}_2} = 1911.1 - (118.1 \times T) + (3.45 \times T^2) - (0.0413 \times T^3) \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

161 $\text{CO}_{2,\text{water}}$ is aqueous CO_2 (mmol m^{-3}) estimated by pyCO2SYS, and $\text{CO}_{2,\text{air}}$ is CO_2 in equilibrium with
162 the atmosphere using global monthly atmospheric CO_2 from 1990–2021 from National Oceanic and
163 Atmospheric Administration Global Monitoring Laboratory (<https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg>). We used
164 Henry’s law to convert $p\text{CO}_2$ in μatm into CO_2 in mmol m^{-3} using temperature-dependent solubility
165 constants.

166 2.3.3. *Categorizing NEP-FCO₂ states by autotrophic/heterotrophic and source/sink states*

167 We categorized the river into four trophic-flux states (or “trophlux” states) based on daily NEP and
168 FCO₂. If NEP is positive ($\text{GPP} > \text{ER}$), the river is autotrophic, while if NEP is negative ($\text{GPP} < \text{ER}$), the
169 river is heterotrophic. Likewise, if FCO₂ is positive, the river is a CO_2 source, while if FCO₂ is negative,
170 the river is a CO_2 sink, relative to the atmosphere. The river could thus be in four possible trophlux
171 states: 1) autotrophic-sink, 2) autotrophic-source, 3) heterotrophic-sink, and 4) heterotrophic-source.
172 The autotrophic-sink and heterotrophic-source states imply that NEP and FCO₂ vectors are moving CO_2
173 in the same direction, into water column biomass or out of the water column, respectively (Bogard &
174 Del Giorgio, 2016). The remaining two states imply opposite directions between NEP and FCO₂. The
175 autotrophic-source state implies that although there is a net conversion of CO_2 into biomass, there is a
176 surplus of water column CO_2 relative to autotrophic needs, leading to continued positive FCO₂. The
177 heterotrophic-sink state implies that despite the net conversion of biomass into water column CO_2 , there
178 is still a CO_2 undersaturation relative to the atmosphere, likely due to prior autotrophic uptake. We
179 expect the heterotrophic-sink state to be a temporary occurrence, reflecting temporal lags within the
180 carbonate system buffering capacity during the short transition between autotrophic and heterotrophic
181 states. Conventionally, the aquatic metabolism contribution to river CO_2 emissions (i.e., the internal CO_2
182 source) is calculated as $-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_2$ in the heterotrophic-source state (Bernal et al., 2022; Hotchkiss et
183 al., 2015; Kirk & Cohen, 2023).



184 **2.4. Change points and long-term trend analysis**

185 To test our hypothesis that FCO₂ would vary as a function of ecosystem state and metabolism shifts in
186 the Loire River, we compared change points in FCO₂ with previously estimated change points in
187 ecosystem state (ca. 2005) and metabolic regime (ca. 2012) (Diamond et al., 2022; Minaudo et al., 2015).
188 We used the *ruptures* Python package (Truong et al., 2020) with a five-year window interval to ensure
189 that identified changes were sustained beyond year-to-year variation. The change point detection was
190 also applied to the daily NEP and related variables (pH, alkalinity, pCO₂, k₆₀₀, GPP, and ER). We also
191 conducted change point detection on seasonal decomposed time series of daily FCO₂ and NEP using the
192 *statsmodels* Python package (Seabold & Perktold, 2010) to better identify changes in seasonal—as
193 opposed to long-term—variations. We further estimated long-term trends of FCO₂ and NEP as functions
194 of hydroclimatic conditions (discharge, water temperature) in each trophlux state by using the Mann-
195 Kendall test (*pyMannKendall* Python package) (Hussain & Mahmud, 2019).

196 **2.5. Seasonal hysteresis of NEP and FCO₂ in response to discharge changes**

197 To test the influence of discharge on CO₂ emissions, we evaluated the hysteresis of mean daily FCO₂
198 and NEP against mean daily discharge across the periods delineated by the change point analysis. We
199 predicted that for the same discharge, FCO₂ would exhibit a range of magnitudes depending on the
200 season but that this range would decrease systematically as a function of decreasing phytoplankton
201 coverage in the Loire River. We evaluated the hysteresis loops by the direction of hysteresis (clockwise
202 or counterclockwise) and the magnitude (i.e., difference of FCO₂ at the same discharge but in the rising
203 and falling flow stage). We additionally calculated hysteresis magnitude for –NEP, external source
204 contribution (FCO₂ + NEP), and –NEP/FCO₂ at the mean discharge (300 m³ s⁻¹, Table 2) during the
205 rising (autumn) and falling stage (spring).

206 **3. Results**

207 **3.1. Daily, seasonal, inter-annual FCO₂ emissions and NEP contribution for 32 years**

208 FCO₂ and NEP exhibited strong daily, seasonal, and inter-annual variations (Figure 1). The pronounced
209 seasonal variability resulted in the successive transition of different states of FCO₂ and NEP



(autotrophic/heterotrophic of NEP, sink/source of FCO_2) but with a recurring seasonal pattern each year
(Figure 1c).

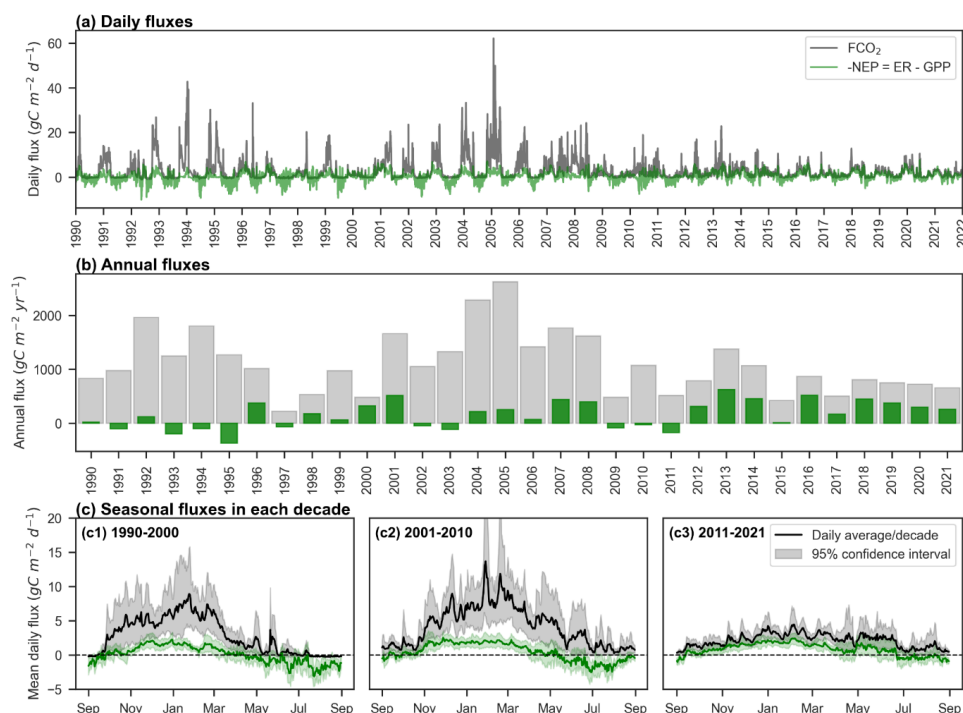


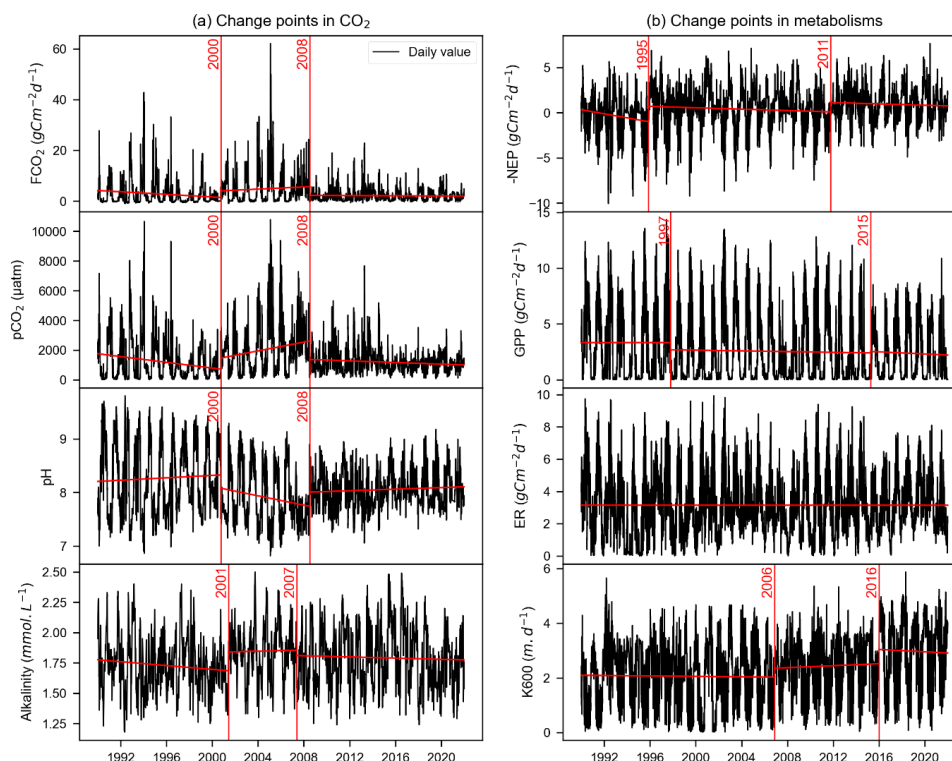
Figure 1. Evolution of FCO_2 and $-\text{NEP}$ during 1990-2021. (a) Daily values ($\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$), (b) Cumulative annual fluxes (calendar year, $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$), (c) Seasonal fluxes during hydrological year in each decade 1990-2000, 2001-2010, 2011-2021. In Figure 1c, the solid line and shaded area are the average and the 95% confidence interval of the daily fluxes each decade, calculated by 10 daily fluxes in the same day-year.

The daily average FCO_2 was $3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, with high peaks reaching $20 - 60 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ during high flow in winter ($1000 - 2000 \text{ m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) and low peaks with negative FCO_2 of $-0.8 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ during the low flow in summer ($<150 \text{ m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) (Figure 1). The daily NEP was $-0.45 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, with average peaks from $-4.0 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in winter to $3.6 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in summer (Figure 1a).

Cumulative annual FCO_2 ranged from 221 to $2633 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$ and NEP from $-383 - 584 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$. Notably, there were 10 years from 1990–2011 when the Loire River was net autotrophic (Figure 1b, green bars). Even during these years, the Loire River was a source of CO_2 to the atmosphere (Figure 1b, grey bars). The contribution of external CO_2 sources ($\text{FCO}_2 + \text{NEP}$) ranged from $800 - 2400 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$



226 in 1990–2010. However, the contribution of external CO₂ sources has significantly decreased to ca. 400
227 g C m⁻² y⁻¹ since 2011 (Figure 1b).



228

229 *Figure 2. Change point detection in the daily time series of (a) FCO₂, pCO₂, pH, alkalinity and (b) -NEP, K600, GPP, ER*
230 *during 1990-2021. The vertical red lines indicate the year of the change point.*

231 The change point analysis on daily time series detected that the FCO₂ experienced two change points in
232 2000 and 2008 (Figure 2a), while the change points of -NEP were detected in 1995 and 2011 (Figure
233 2b). While change points in -NEP described a gradual increase, change points in FCO₂ indicated more
234 abrupt fluctuations, with abnormal decrease in 2000 and 2008. The daily time series of pCO₂, pH, and
235 alkalinity had similar change points to FCO₂. The change points of -NEP were mainly dependent on
236 GPP, while no significant change in ER time series (Figure 2b). In addition, the seasonal decomposition
237 analysis detected the same change point in 2008 for the seasonal amplitude in both FCO₂ and NEP,
238 indicating a significant decrease in the seasonal variations (Supplementary Figure S6).



239 The periods of change in both FCO₂ and NEP spanned roughly three decades: (i) 1990–2000, (ii) 2001–
240 2010, and (iii) 2011–2021. These time frames were selected based on changepoint analysis, which
241 identified shifts in FCO₂ around 2000 and 2008, in NEP around 1995 and 2011, and GPP around 1997
242 and 2015 (Figure 2). Despite some discrepancies in the exact timing of these changepoints between
243 FCO₂ and NEP, grouping the data by decades allowed for a coherent comparison of long-term trends in
244 ecosystem behavior. These periods corresponded to distinct phases in river metabolism and CO₂
245 emissions: (i) high primary productivity (cumulative annual GPP= $1113 \pm 225 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, ER= $1136 \pm$
246 $241 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) and low CO₂ emission (FCO₂ = $1031 \pm 531 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) ; (ii) reduced primary
247 productivity (GPP= $973 \pm 292 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, ER= $1136 \pm 128 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) and high CO₂ emission (FCO₂
248 = $1534 \pm 620 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$), and (iii) low primary productivity (GPP= $867 \pm 212 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, ER= $1167 \pm$
249 $163 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) and low CO₂ emission (FCO₂ = $773 \pm 272 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$).

250 **3.2. Occurrence and contribution of trophlux states to CO₂ emissions**

251 At the seasonal time scale, the Loire River varied among trophlux states, with the heterotrophic-source
252 state predominating. The source state occurred the least (64% of time) in the first decade delineated by
253 change points (1990–2000) and occurred the most (92% of time) in the most recent decade (2011–2021).
254 Likewise, the heterotrophic state occurred at a minimum of 54% and a maximum of 67% of time during
255 those decades, respectively. The joint occurrence of the heterotrophic-source state thus ranged from 47%
256 to 66% of time (Table 1), coinciding with low water temperature and high discharge. This state
257 contributed more than 90% of total annual CO₂ emissions. Within this state, internal sources contributed
258 an average of 28–57% of total annual CO₂ emissions, implying external CO₂ source contributions of
259 72–43% in the Loire River.

260 The remaining three trophlux states contributed less than 10% to total FCO₂ despite their regular
261 occurrence (e.g., up to 50%) during the 1990-2000 decade. There were often 1–3 months of CO₂ sink
262 state due to high GPP in the summer growing season, coinciding with the highest water temperatures
263 and the lowest discharge (Table 1). The autotrophic-sink reduced annual FCO₂ by 3% during 1990–
264 2000 and by 0.3% in 2011–2021. In spring and autumn, the Loire River was regularly in an autotrophic
265 state (17% to 28% of time) but remained a CO₂ source, presumably attributed to external CO₂ sources.



266 This autotrophic/source state contributed 8.2–9.2% to annual FCO₂ across years. The heterotrophic-sink
267 state occurred rarely (1–7% of time) and had a small influence on the annual FCO₂ budget (0.1–0.8%).
268 This state typically occurred as relatively short events of 1–14 days from June to August during the
269 transition from autotrophic-sink state or heterotrophic-source state.

270 **Table 1.** Summary of the occurrence, fluxes, and related hydroclimatic conditions of each trophlux
271 state in three decades 1990-2021. The values within the table are depicted as the mean annual value ±
272 standard deviation, calculated for each decade (N=10 or 11).

273

Variable	Period	CO ₂ source		CO ₂ sink		All states
		Heterotrophic	Autotrophic	Heterotrophic	Autotrophic	
Occurrence (% of days)	1990-2000	47.3 ± 9.4	16.7 ± 9.2	7.3 ± 5.4	28.7 ± 7.0	100
	2001-2010	61.2 ± 12.7	25.3 ± 11.2	1.7 ± 1.1	15.5 ± 9.0	100
	2011-2021	65.8 ± 11.3	26.2 ± 8.6	1.1 ± 1.5	7.3 ± 5.7	100
FCO ₂ budget (% of annual flux by each state)	1990-2000	94.6 ± 13.8	9.2 ± 11.4	-0.8 ± 1.4	-3.0 ± 4.2	100
	2001-2010	92.4 ± 11.3	8.2 ± 11.2	-0.1 ± 0.0	-0.6 ± 0.5	100
	2011-2021	91.8 ± 5.6	8.7 ± 5.8	-0.1 ± 0.2	-0.4 ± 0.3	100
-NEP (gC m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	1990-2000	277 ± 158	-54 ± 46	25.5 ± 28.0	-225 ± 97	23 ± 222
	2001-2010	376 ± 127	-111 ± 83	3.8 ± 3.0	-131 ± 100	162 ± 234
	2011-2021	417 ± 173	-82 ± 48	2.0 ± 2.4	-36 ± 35	300 ± 232
FCO ₂ (gC m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	1990-2000	954 ± 514	102 ± 148	-4.4 ± 4.5	-21 ± 12	1031 ± 531
	2001-2010	1453 ± 666	88 ± 104	-0.6 ± 0.8	-7.8 ± 5.4	1534 ± 620
	2011-2021	717 ± 274	59 ± 28	-0.9 ± 1.8	-2.6 ± 2.1	773 ± 272
External CO ₂ (gC m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	1990-2000	677 ± 477	157 ± 92	-29 ± 32	204 ± 93	1008 ± 551
	2001-2010	1077 ± 595	199 ± 172	-4 ± 1	123 ± 95	1372 ± 528
	2011-2021	299 ± 140	140 ± 55	-2 ± 3	34 ± 31	472 ± 129
-NEP/FCO ₂ (%)	1990-2000	37 ± 27	-123 ± 122*	-697 ± 546	1535 ± 1413**	5 ± 29
	2001-2010	28 ± 9	-195 ± 137*	-925 ± 786 ^{NS}	1983 ± 828**	7 ± 15
	2011-2021	57 ± 10	-150 ± 59*	-9204 ^{NS}	1480 ± 740**	34 ± 27
Temperature (°C)	1990-2000	8 ± 4	12 ± 4	18 ± 3	20 ± 3	13 ± 6
	2001-2010	10 ± 5	18 ± 5	18 ± 7	21 ± 3	13 ± 7
	2011-2021	11 ± 5	18 ± 5	10 ± 9	21 ± 3	14 ± 6
Discharge (m ³ s ⁻¹)	1990-2000	454 ± 326	276 ± 225	115 ± 60	111 ± 56	301 ± 290
	2001-2010	436 ± 323	160 ± 110	137 ± 69	115 ± 59	323 ± 296
	2011-2021	362 ± 278	120 ± 87	205 ± 136	80 ± 63	277 ± 259
* During the autotrophic/source state, the positive NEP reduces the outgassing of external CO ₂ , leading to a negative percentage ratio.						
** The positive percentage ratio larger than 100% occurs during the autotrophic/sink state, where positive NEP involves the consumption of both external CO ₂ and the CO ₂ supplied from the atmosphere through the gas exchange at the air-water interface.						
^{NS} Not significant -NEP/CO ₂ ratio calculation is due to the rare heterotrophic-sink occurrence.						
The external CO ₂ (gC m ⁻² y ⁻¹) = FCO ₂ + NEP						

274



275 **3.3. The inter-annual trend of FCO₂ depending on trophlux states**

276 The occurrence of heterotrophic-source and autotrophic-sink and their contribution to FCO₂ gradually
277 changed from 1990–2021 (Figure 3). The occurrence of heterotrophic-source state increased from 140
278 days in 1990 to 250 days in 2021 (Figure 3a). However, the annual flux of –NEP within this state
279 remained relatively stable (Figure 3b), while FCO₂ decreased with an average rate of 0.16 g C m² d^{–1} per
280 year, resulting in a 62% reduction of FCO₂ in the heterotrophic-source state over the 32 years (Figure
281 3d). The annual decline in FCO₂ was uncorrelated ($R^2 = 0.09$) with the increase in annual water
282 temperature (+5.7 °C/32 years), but it was positively correlated ($R^2 = 0.36$) with the decrease in annual
283 discharge (–13%/32 years) (Table S2). Since the annual –NEP remained stable and FCO₂ decreased, the
284 ratio of –NEP/FCO₂ thus increased from 20–40% in the 1990s to 60–75% in recent years, +1.25% per
285 year (Figure 3f). There were some abnormal increases of –NEP/FCO₂ observed in 1995–2000, with the
286 ratio reaching 100% in 1997 and 90% in 1996, 2000. These peaks were associated with a significant
287 drop in FCO₂ (Figure 3d) and, thus, in external CO₂ sources (Figure 3b).

288 The autotrophic-sink state occurrence decreased from 140 days in 1990–2000 to 30 days in recent years
289 (Figure 3a), following a reduction in +NEP from about 2 to 1.5 gC m^{–2} d^{–1} (–25%/32 years),
290 corresponding to –0.015 g C m² d^{–1} per year (Figure 3b). In this state, annual discharge and temperature
291 did not show significant changes ($p > 0.05$) (Figure 3c, e). The decrease in +NEP was not correlated
292 with annual discharge ($R^2 = 0.03$) and annual temperature ($R^2 = 0.00$) (Table S2).

293

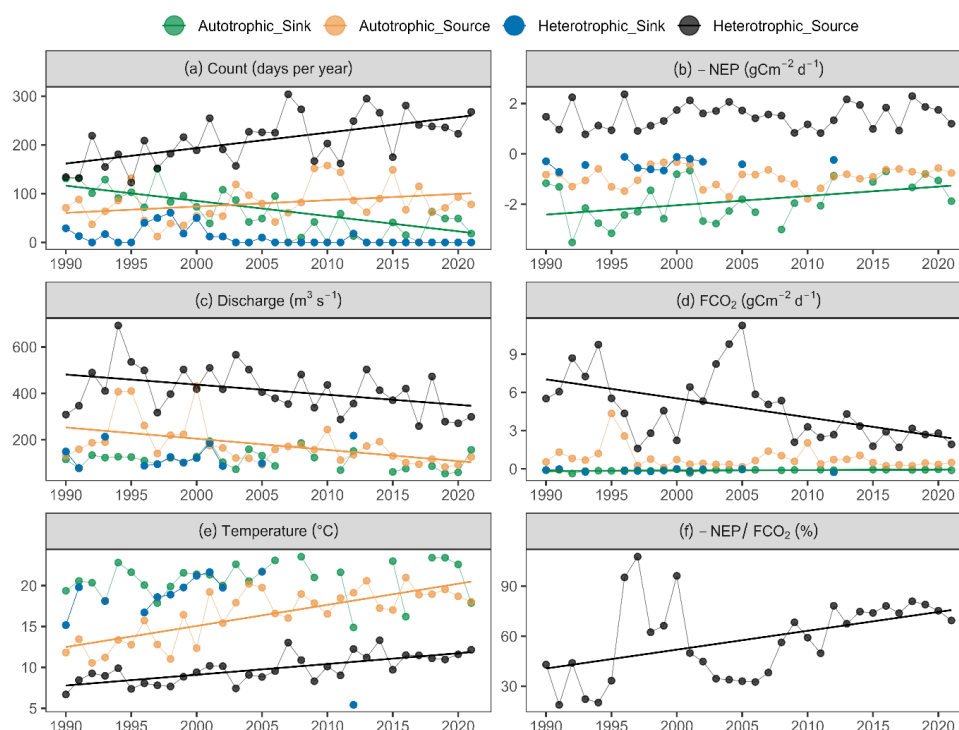


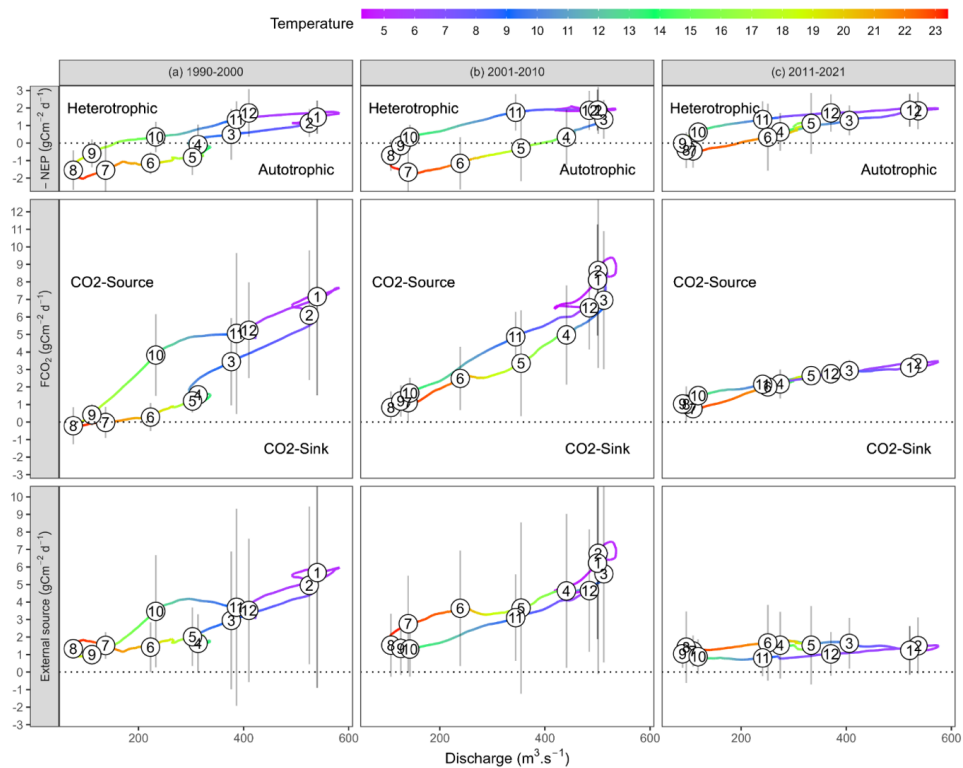
Figure 3. Long-term trends over 32 years of CO_2 fluxes, aquatic metabolism contribution, and hydroclimatic conditions on each trophic state: a) occurrence per year, b) annual aquatic metabolism flux ($-\text{NEP}$), c) annual discharge, d) annual FCO_2 , e) annual water temperature, f) $-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_2$. The points depicted on the graph were the annual averages. The regression lines were the Theil-Sen slopes with significant trends ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$).

3.4. Seasonal hysteresis of NEP and FCO_2 in relation to discharge

FCO_2 and NEP exhibited a similar clockwise hysteresis pattern in response to seasonal variations of discharge, i.e., higher fluxes in the rising discharge stage compared to the falling stage (Figure 4). Typically, hysteresis cycles started with FCO_2 minima and NEP maxima in July and August (mean discharge $< 150 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, mean temperature 23°C), with opposite peaks in January and February (mean discharge $> 500 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, mean temperature 5°C) (Figure 4a). As river discharge gradually increased from summer to winter, the river transitioned from an autotrophic to a heterotrophic state and from CO_2 sink to source. Subsequently, but along a different trajectory, the river shifted back to an autotrophic state during the spring-summer falling discharge stage ($150\text{--}300 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$). During this time, however, the river continued to act as a CO_2 source, lasting two to three months (April–June) before returning to the FCO_2



309 minimum again in summer. The contribution of external sources largely mirrored these patterns (Figure
310 4.)



311
312 *Figure 4. Hysteresis loops of $-NEP$, FCO_2 , and external sources ($FCO_2 + NEP$) during the hydrological cycle in each decade*
313 *1990-2000, 2001-2010, and 2011-2021. The color lines are the daily average fluxes in each decade. The circle shape with*
314 *numbers is the monthly average and standard deviation fluxes in each decade.*
315 The discharge trajectories of $-NEP$, FCO_2 , and external sources varied across the three decades
316 delineated by the change point analysis. In three decades, all hysteresis loops exhibited positive
317 relationships with discharge, except the external CO_2 sources in 2011–2021. FCO_2 hysteresis magnitude
318 at $300\text{ m}^3\text{ s}^{-1}$ (autumn–spring) decreased from $3.2\text{ g C m}^{-2}\text{ d}^{-1}$ in 1990–2000 to $-0.09\text{ g C m}^{-2}\text{ d}^{-1}$ in 2011–
319 2021. The lack of FCO_2 -discharge hysteresis 2011–2021 indicates a more predictable and linear
320 relationship in recent years. Likewise, the magnitude of $-NEP$ hysteresis at $300\text{ m}^3\text{ s}^{-1}$ was weakest in
321 recent years ($0.68\text{ g C m}^{-2}\text{ d}^{-1}$), but unlike FCO_2 , it exhibited a peak ($2.12\text{ g C m}^{-2}\text{ d}^{-1}$) in 2001–2010
322 (Table 2).



323 The internal source contribution of FCO_2 ($-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_2$) at $300 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ between spring and autumn had
324 contrasting ratios, with a positive CO_2 contribution in autumn (14 – 34%) but a negative contribution in
325 spring (-26%, i.e., CO_2 consumption) in 1990-2000 and 2001-2010 (Table 2). In 2011-2021, internal
326 source contributions of FCO_2 in autumn and spring were both positive, 64% and 34%, respectively.

327 Table 2. The mean \pm standard deviation fluxes of daily $-\text{NEP}$, FCO_2 , external CO_2 , and $-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_2$
328 in spring and autumn at the mean river discharge $300 \pm 30 \text{ (m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}\text{)}$.

Flux*		1990–2000	2001–2010	2011–2021
River metabolism ($\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	$-\text{NEP}_{300}$ spring	-0.28 ± 0.41	-0.69 ± 0.11	0.83 ± 0.18
	$-\text{NEP}_{300}$ autumn	0.66 ± 0.15	1.43 ± 0.13	1.5 ± 0.06
	$-\text{NEP}_{300}$ hysteresis	0.94 ± 0.43	2.12 ± 0.17	0.68 ± 0.18
Total CO_2 fluxes ($\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	$\text{FCO}_{2\ 300}$ spring	1.55 ± 0.44	2.65 ± 0.15	2.42 ± 0.12
	$\text{FCO}_{2\ 300}$ autumn	4.77 ± 0.14	4.15 ± 0.25	2.34 ± 0.08
	$\text{FCO}_{2\ 300}$ hysteresis	3.22 ± 0.47	1.5 ± 0.29	-0.09 ± 0.14
External CO_2 flux ($\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	$(\text{FCO}_{2\ 300} + \text{NEP}_{300})$ spring	1.83 ± 0.2	3.34 ± 0.05	1.59 ± 0.14
	$(\text{FCO}_{2\ 300} + \text{NEP}_{300})$ autumn	4.12 ± 0.05	2.72 ± 0.12	0.83 ± 0.05
	$(\text{FCO}_{2\ 300} + \text{NEP}_{300})$ hysteresis	$2.29 \pm 0.2^*$	$-0.62 \pm 0.13^{**}$	-0.76 ± 0.15
$-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_2$ (%)	$-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_{2\ 300}$ spring	$-26 \pm 33\%$	$-26 \pm 5\%$	$34 \pm 6\%$
	$-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_{2\ 300}$ autumn	$14 \pm 3\%$	$34 \pm 1\%$	$64 \pm 1\%$
	$-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_{2\ 300}$ hysteresis	$40 \pm 34\%$	$61 \pm 5\%$	$30 \pm 6\%$

* The hysteresis flux is equal to the difference of flux in autumn and spring, i.e., $2.29 = 4.12 - 1.83$, where the 300 subscript refers to the fact that these measurements are averages from mean discharge at $300 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$.

** Negative hysteresis flux indicates lower flux in autumn (rising waters stage), i.e., $-0.62 = 2.72 - 3.34$.

329 4. Discussion

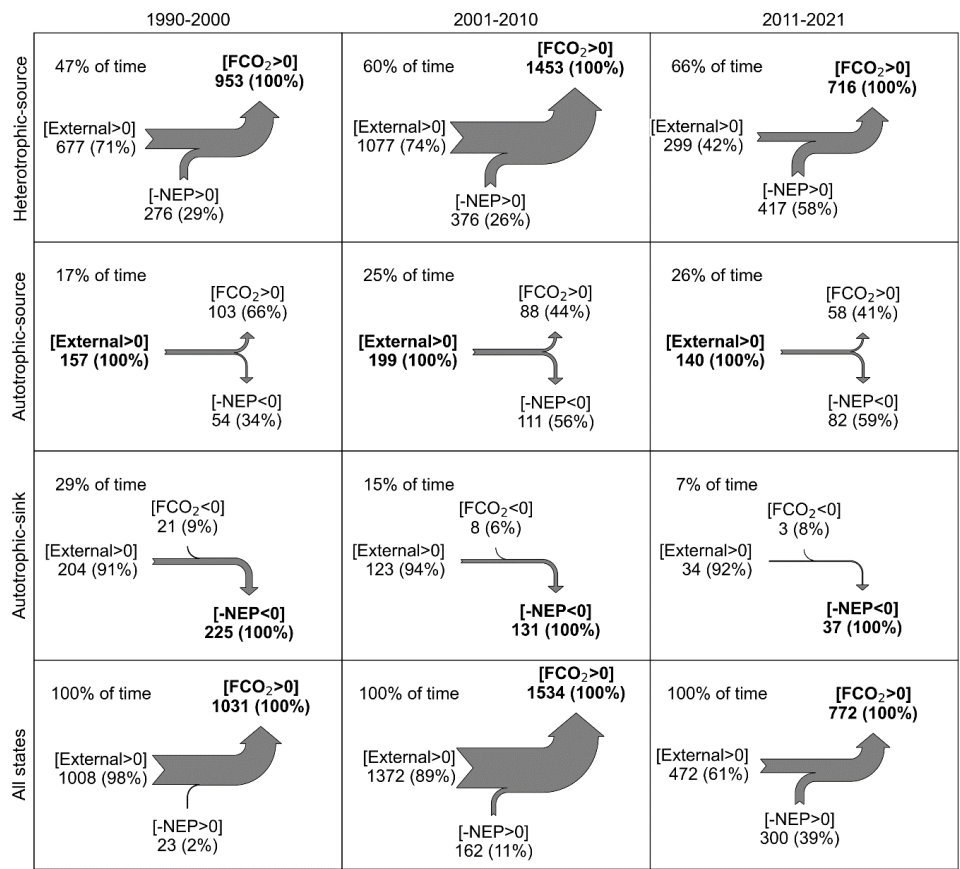
330 Our data analysis reveals important long-term changes in carbon fluxes of the Loire River. Re-
331 oligotrophication led to an increase in the internal source contribution of FCO_2 , supporting our
332 hypothesis but for reasons that ran counter to our predictions. Indeed, under oligotrophic conditions and
333 macrophyte dominance, $-\text{NEP}/\text{FCO}_2$ increased by fourfold overall under the heterotrophic-source state,
334 with $-\text{NEP}$ contributing up to 75% of FCO_2 at the monitoring station during the last decade (Figure 3).
335 However, this change was largely due to decreases in total FCO_2 rather than an increase in the magnitude
336 of $-\text{NEP}$. Instead, decreases in FCO_2 appeared to be due to an approximate halving of external CO_2
337 sources (Figure 5). Still, the timing of FCO_2 shifts, as detected by our change point analysis (ca. 2000
338 and 2010), broadly corresponded to our predictions based on previous studies (i.e., 2005 for trophic state



339 change and 2012 for metabolism change), suggesting similar drivers of external and internal CO₂.
340 Finally, we observed clear support for our prediction of weaker discharge controls on FCO₂ and –
341 NEP/FCO₂ based on hysteresis analysis. However, this appeared to be most strongly due to a weakened
342 discharge-external CO₂ source link rather than a weakened discharge-internal CO₂ source link.

343 **4.1. Trophlux states and their contribution to CO₂ emissions**

344 Large river systems function predominately as a source of CO₂ to the atmosphere (Battin et al., 2023;
345 Butman & Raymond, 2011; Cole et al., 2007; Raymond et al., 2013; Abril and Borges 2019), and CO₂
346 sink states are rarely observed, even in large eutrophic rivers (Raymond et al., 1997). However, our
347 unique dataset revealed the commonality of CO₂ sink behavior in the Loire River and further highlighted
348 the seasonal transitions among all four possible trophlux states and how these transitions varied annually
349 and across decades (Figure 1, Figure 4). This finding challenges the conventional understanding of large
350 rivers as persistent CO₂ sources and demonstrates how ecosystem metabolism can fundamentally alter
351 carbon cycling patterns. The frequency of CO₂ sink conditions in the Loire River reveals an important
352 but often overlooked aspect of river carbon budgets that may be significant for other large temperate
353 systems undergoing similar environmental changes. We found that, regardless of the trophic or
354 metabolic regime, the heterotrophic/source state was the most prevalent (47–66% of time), while the
355 autotrophic-source state occurred for approximately a quarter of the year (17–26% of time). By contrast,
356 the occurrence of the autotrophic-sink state depended strongly on the trophic and metabolic regime (7–
357 29% of the time), with its decreasing decadal occurrence mirrored by the increasing decadal occurrence
358 of the heterotrophic-source state (Figure 5). This shift in trophlux state dominance reflects the
359 ecosystem's response to re-oligotrophication, where reduced nutrient availability has altered the balance
360 between autotrophy and heterotrophy (Diamond et al., 2022). The declining prevalence of autotrophic-
361 sink conditions indicates that the river's capacity to sequester atmospheric CO₂ has diminished with the
362 transition from phytoplankton to macrophyte dominance. This demonstrates how long-term changes in
363 trophic status can fundamentally alter carbon dynamics beyond simple changes in productivity rates.



364

365 *Figure 5. Annual CO₂ budget in three main trophic states in 1990–2000, 2001–2010, and 2011–2021. All flux values are*
366 *expressed in units of gC m⁻² y⁻¹. The notation [FCO₂>0] denotes CO₂ emissions from rivers to the atmosphere, whereas [FCO₂*
367 *<0] signifies CO₂ ingassing. The percentages in parentheses represent the proportion of each flux component, with the*
368 *percentage calculated relative to the maximum flux component (shown in black bold).*

369 **4.2. Changes in CO₂ sources in relation to hydrology and re-oligotrophication**

370 This work adds an important data point to our understanding of the contribution of internal and external
371 sources to FCO₂ in large rivers. Despite this decades-old research question (Cole et al., 2001), the
372 capacity to rigorously quantify the relative strength of these two fluxes is relatively recent (Bernal et al.,
373 2022; Hotchkiss et al., 2015; Kirk & Cohen, 2023), and data in mid-sized and large rivers are still
374 limited. Utilizing a dataset comprising 5 rivers with mean discharge >100 m³ s⁻¹, Hotchkiss et al. (2015)
375 estimated an NEP of -0.51 to -1.01 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ and -NEP/FCO₂ of 25% to 54%. Our results in the Loire



376 generally align with this range but further reveal that within a single river during a specific season (such
377 as autumn or winter), the entire spectrum of these values can be observed.

378 While discharge is known to exert an influence on CO₂ dynamics, we showed that the temporal evolution
379 of discharge is equally important to its magnitude. Depending on the season, our results caution that
380 measurements at the same discharge may yield contrasting estimates of the internal source contribution
381 (Table 2, Figure 4). This difference was mainly explained by the difference in NEP magnitude and not
382 by differences in FCO₂. For example, at the same mean discharge, NEP in autumn during the rising
383 stage was more negative, and the river was more heterotrophic than in spring during the falling stage.
384 This difference was only partly explained by differences in daily temperature between the two seasons
385 ($R^2=0.29$, Supplementary Figure S7). First autumn floods are known to mobilize labile organic matter
386 in temperate rivers, whose drying river beds in summer accumulate plant litter from riparian vegetation
387 (Coyne et al., 2005; Etcheber et al., 2007). In the Middle Loire, the emergence of large, fertile
388 riverbanks during the summer dry season may lead to organic matter deposition that is easily
389 remobilized in autumn. Indeed, Minaudo et al. (2015) observed that the heterotrophy in Middle Loire in
390 autumn was strongly stimulated by a larger availability of biodegradable organic matter compared to
391 spring. Such a seasonal hydrology-driven variability in river heterotrophy and associated CO₂ dynamics
392 was also recently observed by Young et al. (2025) in the Upper Clark Fork River, USA. They reported
393 pronounced seasonal variation in FCO₂ primarily linked to snowmelt-driven hydrological events
394 mobilizing terrestrial carbon sources, reinforcing our observations that river CO₂ dynamics are strongly
395 shaped by seasonal hydrological connectivity and terrestrial organic matter inputs.

396 Notably, Figure 4 reveals decadal changes in the magnitude of these hysteresis patterns. The FCO₂
397 hysteresis magnitude at 300 m³ s⁻¹ decreased dramatically from 3.2 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ in 1990–2000 to -0.09
398 gC m⁻² d⁻¹ in 2011–2021, indicating a weakening discharge-FCO₂ relationship in recent years. Similarly,
399 external source hysteresis (bottom row, Figure 4) has flattened considerably in 2011–2021, suggesting
400 diminished influence of terrestrial carbon inputs on seasonal CO₂ dynamics. As these insights would
401 have been invisible without a high-frequency long-term dataset (Figure 1), we, therefore, encourage
402 future efforts to capture seasonality and varying discharges in the measurement campaigns.



403 During the 1990–2000 decade, the Loire River had an annual CO₂ sink for almost half the years due to
404 high rates of GPP. The occurrence of this state has gradually declined over the three decades (Table 1).
405 In 1990–2000, the biogeochemical dynamics of the Loire River during the summer months coincided
406 with long water residence times, shallow waters, low discharge, high water temperature, and high
407 eutrophication (>200 µg chlorophyll-a L⁻¹) (Moatar et al., 1999, 2001). These conditions were similar
408 to eutrophic lakes, which regularly act as CO₂ sinks (Bogard & Del Giorgio, 2016; He et al., 2022). In
409 addition, large river autotrophs benefit from increased light penetration due to their greater width and
410 from being less affected by external CO₂ sources (Hotchkiss et al., 2015). Our data show that in the
411 Loire, the long-term shift from phytoplankton to macrophyte-dominance in 2005 has resulted in a
412 decrease in NEP and greater heterotrophy. Diamond et al. (2021) showed that the changes in stream
413 metabolism in Loire River in 2010–2012 were related to the shift of other state variables in 2005
414 (turbidity, nutrient concentrations, *Corbicula fluminea* densities, and chlorophyll-a), suggesting a
415 decade lag for metabolism shift. Moreover, the increase in annual water temperature and decrease in
416 annual river discharge have no direct relationship with these metabolic shifts (Figure S8), suggesting
417 that their manifestation on the magnitude of NEP is insignificant.

418 **4.3. Long-term changes in external CO₂ source**

419 Contrary to our expectations, we observed a decreasing trend of FCO₂ attributable to an over 50%
420 reduction in external CO₂ sources in the Loire River. At first glance, this may appear to be due to overall
421 reductions in discharge and the magnitude of lateral CO₂ transport from groundwater and wetlands to
422 the river (Abril & Borges, 2019). However, this linkage is more consistent with the seasonal variation
423 (Figure S7) rather than the inter-annual variation (Figure S8). In addition, while the discharge can
424 explain ca. 37-48% of the decay in FCO₂ (Figures S7 and S8), it only explains ca. 4-6% of the variation
425 in external CO₂ source magnitude. Similarly, in a forested sandy watershed, Deirmendjian et al. (2018)
426 reported that the export of CO₂ flux from groundwater to the stream was independent of stream discharge
427 and relatively constant seasonally. This can be explained by the fact that higher discharge periods in
428 these systems are associated with low dissolved CO₂ groundwater concentrations and vice-versa. Still,



429 to explain the $>500 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ reduction in external CO_2 between 2001-2010 and 2011-2021, it seems
430 clear that some reduction in groundwater CO_2 is occurring.

431 In regions with carbonate bedrock, weathering of carbonate minerals can significantly contribute to the
432 CO_2 flux through the production of alkalinity (Vihermaa et al., 2014). Although this weathering reaction
433 does not directly release CO_2 , it provides bicarbonate ions (HCO_3^-), which can equilibrate with CO_2 and
434 subsequently degas under certain conditions, influencing the CO_2 flux observed in groundwater and
435 rivers. Additionally, the transfer of CO_2 to groundwater depends on the spatiotemporal connections
436 between zones of maximal soil respiration and their intersection with the water table (Tsypin &
437 Macpherson, 2012). If the water table remains disconnected from the topsoil where respiration is
438 strongest, the transfer of soil CO_2 to groundwater becomes limited. Trend analysis of the groundwater
439 table in France over the past 30 years shows low-frequency variations of multi-annual (~ 7 years) and
440 decadal (~ 17 years) (Baulon et al., 2022). The groundwater table trend may explain the decay of annual
441 external FCO_2 in the Loire River (Figure S9), although the spatiotemporal distribution of surface water
442 and groundwater connections should be more deeply investigated to reach this conclusion. Still, we can
443 observe that peaks in groundwater level tend to lead to peaks in external CO_2 by approximately 3 years
444 (Figure S9). In addition, a study at a site located 20 km downstream from our study area in the Val
445 d'Orléans fluviokarst aquifer reported that dissolved inorganic carbon flux from groundwater has
446 decreased by about 20% along with the decrease of groundwater level between 2000 and 2020 (Binet et
447 al., 2022). In addition, Binet et al., 2022 assessed that there was no significant change in the carbonate
448 weathering rate at this aquifer, which is similar to the relatively stable alkalinity at the Loire River
449 (Figure 2). These observations suggest a need for future efforts to focus on surface water-groundwater
450 connections as they relate to river hydrology and carbon supply.

451 **5. Conclusions**

452 In the middle Loire River, three main trophlux states alternately occur in the hydrological year cycle,
453 predominated by the heterotrophic-source state. The heterotrophic-source state contributes more than
454 90% of annual CO_2 emissions, with an average of 40% from internal contribution ($-\text{NEP}$). Besides, in
455 the 1990s, the autotrophic-sink state was still common; however, this state has gradually disappeared in



456 recent years with the decline of phytoplankton, replaced by the dominance of macrophytes. Our analysis
457 of seasonal hysteresis of NEP and CO₂ fluxes in relation to discharge indicates stronger heterotrophy in
458 autumn during rising waters than in spring during the falling waters, and this is a part explained by river
459 temperature but more likely due to the remobilization of organic matter in floodplains and secondary
460 channels during the first floods.

461 We report a strong long-term decrease in CO₂ fluxes (-62% over the 32 years) but also an increase in
462 the contribution of heterotrophy (-NEP) to this CO₂ outgassing flux. Although we can call for more DIC
463 data acquisition in groundwaters, we must confess that the current dataset is far from sufficient to
464 understand the transfer of carbon at the groundwater-river interface (Deirmendjian & Abril, 2018;
465 Duvert et al., 2018) and therefore, future works are needed. We also suggest that new exploration of
466 these types of datasets on large rivers and their extrapolation on river networks may help to understand
467 better and predict the influence of global change on the balance between internal and external CO₂
468 production in the context of the global carbon budget.

469 **Data availability**

470 The hourly temperature, conductivity, dissolved oxygen, and pH data used in this study are owned by
471 Électricité de France (EDF). Due to EDF's data-sharing policy, these data are not publicly available but
472 can be accessed upon reasonable request by contacting EDF directly. Other publicly available datasets
473 used include discharge (<https://www.hydro.eaufrance.fr>), water quality (www.naiades.eaufrance.fr).

474 **Author Contribution**

475 ANT led the manuscript effort. ANT, JSD, GA, and FM came up with the research question and
476 designed the study approach. ANT and JSD conducted the data curation and preparation, and ANT
477 conducted the statistical analyses. ANT wrote the paper with contributions from all authors.

478 **Competing interests**

479 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
480 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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483 long-term datasets in the Middle Loire River.

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