



1 Title page

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2 Modeling inorganic carbon dynamics in the Seine River

continuum in France

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16 Abstract

17 Inland waters have been recognized as an active component of the carbon cycle where 18 transformations and transports are associated with carbon dioxide (CO₂) outgassing. We 19 propose a modeling approach by formalizing an inorganic carbon module integrated into the 20 biogeochemical model, pyNuts-Riverstrahler, to estimate the carbon fate in the aquatic 21 continuum. Our approach was implemented on the human-impacted Seine River (France) 22 taking into account point sources (including the largest wastewater treatment plant in Europe, reaching a treatment capacity of $6\,10^6$ inhab eq), and diffuse constraints to the model. Both 23 sources were characterized by field measurements in groundwater and in wastewater 24 25 treatment plants, and by existing databases. In average, we calculated DIC concentrations from 25 to 92 mgC L⁻¹ depending of the aquifers while in WWTP effluents our measurements 26 of DIC averaged 70 mgC L^{-1} . 27

28 On the period studied (2010-2013), yearly averaged simulated CO₂ emissions from the 29 hydrosystem were estimated at 364 ± 99 Gg C yr⁻¹. Simulations of dissolved inorganic 30 carbon, total alkalinity, pH and CO₂ concentrations showed good agreement with 31 observations, and seasonal variability could be reproduced. Metabolism in the Seine 32 hydrographic network highlighted the importance of benthic activities in small head streams 33 while planktonic activities were mainly observed downstream in larger rivers. In contrast to 34 the 1990s, the net ecosystem productivity remained negative throughout all the years and at 35 every place within the river network, highlighting the heterotrophy of the basin. In parallel, 36 CO₂ supersaturation with respect to atmospheric concentrations of the basin was shown. 37 Outgassing was the most important in lower order streams while peaks were simulated 38 downstream of the major wastewater treatment effluent.





- 39 Keywords: CO2 outgassing; inorganic carbon modeling; instream metabolisms; waste-
- 40 and ground water inputs; carbon budget ; temperate Seine River
- 41

42 Graphical abstract:



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45 Highlights:

- 46 The module of inorganic carbon was successfully implemented in the PyNuts 47 Riverstrahler model.
- 48 CO₂ riverine concentrations are modulated by groundwater discharge and instream
 49 metabolism.
- 50 CO_2 emissions account for 31% of inorganic carbon exports, the rest being exported as
- 51 DIC.





52 **1. Introduction**

53 Rivers have been demonstrated to be active pipes for transport, transformation, storage and 54 outgassing of inorganic and organic carbon (Cole et al., 2007). Although there are large uncertainties on flux quantification from inland waters, carbon dioxide (CO₂) outgassing has 55 56 been estimated to be a significant efflux to the atmosphere, subjected to regional variabilities 57 (Cole et al., 2007; Battin et al., 2009a; Aufdenkampe et al., 2011; Lauerwald et al., 2015; 58 Regnier et al., 2013; Raymond et al., 2013a; Sawakuchi et al., 2017; Drake et al., 2017). 59 These variabilities are controlled by regional climate and watershed characteristics and are 60 related to terrestrial carbon exports under different forms, from organic to inorganic, and 61 dissolved to particulate. Organic carbon entering rivers can originate from terrestrial 62 ecosystems as plant detritus, soil leaching or soil erosion and groundwater supply, but it can 63 also be synthesized instream by photosynthesis or brought by dust particles (Prairie and Cole, 64 2009; Drake et al., 2017). Inorganic carbon sources originate from groundwater, soil leaching 65 and exchange by diffusion at the air-water interface, depending on partial pressure of CO_2 (pCO_2) at the water surface with respect to atmospheric pCO_2 (Cole et al., 2007; Drake et al., 66 2017; Marx et al., 2018). Additional carbon exchanges, e.g., incorporation into biomineralized 67 68 structures or resuspension, occur at the water-sediment interface and can be buried (Regnier 69 et al., 2013b). As a whole, oligo- and mesotrophic hydrosystems generally act as a source of 70 carbon while surface of eutrophic systems can be undersaturated with respect to atmospheric 71 pCO₂ (Prairie and Cole, 2009; Xu et al., 2019; Yang at al., 2019).

Direct measurements of pCO_2 along the drainage network are still too scarce to accurately support temporal and spatial analyses of CO_2 variability. While calculations from pH, temperature and alkalinity may help reconstruct spatiotemporal patterns of CO_2 dynamics (Marescaux et al., 2018b), only modeling tools can predict the fate of carbon in whole aquatic systems. Indeed, modeling approaches have made it possible to simulate and quantify carbon





77 fluxes between different reservoirs: atmosphere, biosphere, hydrosphere and lithosphere (e.g., 78 Bern-SAR, Joos et al., 1996; ACC2, Tanaka et al., 2007; TOTEM, Mackenzie et al., 2011; MAGICC6, Meehl et al., 2007). In addition to these box approaches, a number of more 79 80 comprehensive mechanistic models, describing biogeochemical processes involved in carbon 81 cycling and CO₂ evasion, have been set up for oceans (e.g., Doney et al., 2004; Aumont et al., 82 2015), coastal waters (e.g., Borges et al., 2006; Gypens et al., 2004, 2009, 2011) and estuaries 83 (e.g., Cai and Wang, 1998; Volta et al., 2014, Laruelle et al., 2019). In inland waters, the 84 NICE-BGC model (Nakayama, 2016) accurately represents CO₂ evasion at the global scale. However, to our knowledge, whereas several river models, including Riverstrahler (Billen et 85 al., 1994; Garnier et al., 2002) describe the carbon cycle through organic matter input and 86 87 degradation by aquatic microorganisms (e.g., PEGASE, Smitz et al., 1997; ProSe, Vilmin et al., 2018; QUAL2Kw, Pelletier et al., 2006; QUAL-NET, Minaudo et al., 2018, QUASAR, 88 89 Whitehead et al., 1997), none of them describes the inorganic carbon cycle including carbon 90 dioxide outgassing.

91 The biogeochemical riverine model, Riverstrahler (Billen et al., 1994; Garnier et al., 1995) is
92 a generic model of water quality and biogeochemical functioning of large river systems.

The Seine River (northwestern France) has long been studied using the Riverstrahler model. For example, the model has made it possible to quantify deliveries to the coastal zone and understand eutrophication phenomena (Billen and Garnier, 2000; Billen et al., 2001; Passy et al., 2016), nitrogen transformation and N₂O emissions (Garnier et al., 2007; Garnier et al., 2009; Vilain et al., 2012) as well as nitrate retention (Billen and Garnier, 2000; Billen et al., 2018), and organic carbon metabolism (Garnier and Billen, 2007; Vilmin et al., 2016).

It is only recently that we investigated pCO₂ and emphasized the factors controlling pCO₂
dynamics in the Seine River (Marescaux et al., 2018b).





101 The purpose of the present study is the implementation of a generic module of inorganic 102 carbon into the newly developed pyNuts modeling environment for the Riverstrahler model in 103 order to quantify the sources, transformations, sinks and gaseous emissions of inorganic 104 carbon. A further aim in newly implementing this CO₂ module was to quantify and discuss 105 autotrophy versus heterotrophy patterns in regard to CO2 concentrations and supersaturation 106 in the drainage network. In future works, a systematic coupling with an estuary model could 107 enable to accurately calculate carbon delivery fluxes to the ocean as already proposed for the 108 year 2010 by Laruelle et al. (2019).

109 **2. Material and methods**

110 **2.1. Description of the Seine basin**

111 Situated in northwestern France within 46.950 - 50.0167 north and 0.117 - 4.000 east, the Seine basin (~76,285 km²) has a temperate climate and a pluvio-oceanic hydrologic regime 112 113 (Figure 1). The mean altitude of the basin is 150 m above sea level (ASL) with 1% of the 114 basin reaching more than 550 m ASL in the Morvan (Guerrini et al., 1998). The annual water 115 flow at Poses (stream order 7, basin area 64,867 km²), the most downstream monitoring station free from tidal influence, averaged 490 m³ s⁻¹ in the 2010–2013 period (the HYDRO 116 117 database, http://www.hydro.eaufrance.fr, last accessed 2019/03/26). The major tributaries 118 include the Marne and upper Seine rivers upstream from Paris, and the Oise River 119 downstream from Paris (Figure 1a). Three main reservoirs, storing water during winter and 120 sustaining low flow during summer, are located upstream on the Marne River and the upstream Seine and its Aube tributary (Figure 1a). The total storage capacity of these 121 reservoirs is 800 10⁶ m³ (Garnier et al., 1999). 122





123 The maximum water discharge of these tributaries occurs during winter with the lowest 124 temperature and rate of evapotranspiration; the opposite behavior is observed during summer 125 (Guerrini et al., 1998).

Except for the crystalline rocks in the north and from the highland of the Morvan (south), the Seine basin is for the most part located in the lowland Parisian basin with sedimentary rocks (Mégnien, 1980; Pomerol and Feugueur, 1986; Guerrini et al., 1998). The largest aquifers are in carbonate rock (mainly limestone and chalk) or detrital (sand and sandstone) material separated by impermeable or less permeable layers.

The concept of Strahler stream order (SO) (Strahler, 1957) was adopted for describing the geomorphology of a drainage network in Riverstrahler model (Billen et al., 1994). The smaller perennial streams are order 1. Only confluences between two river stretches with the same SO produce an increase in Strahler ordination (SO+1) (Figure 1). The mean hydrophysical characteristics of the Seine River are aggregated by stream orders in Table 1.

136 The Seine basin is characterized by intensive agriculture (more than 50% of the basin, CLC -EEA, 2012). The Seine basin is densely populated (~ 230 inhabitants km^{-2}). The population is 137 138 mostly concentrated in the Paris conurbation (12.4 million inhabitants in 2015) (Figure 1) 139 (INSEE, 2015). Located 70 km downstream of Paris, the largest wastewater treatment plant in Europe (Seine Aval, SAV WWTP) can treat up to $6 \, 10^6$ inhab eq per day, releasing 15.4 m³ s⁻ 140 141 ¹ into the lower Seine River (Syndicat interdépartemental pour l'assainissement de 142 l'agglomération parisienne; French acronym SIAAP, http://www.siaap.fr/, last accessed 143 2019/03/04).

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Table 1 Mean characteristics of the Seine River watershed by Strahler stream order¹

SO	number streams	draining area	Cumulated length	Width	Depth	Slope	discharge	stream velocity
		km ²	km	т	М	$m m^{-1}$	$m^3 s^{-1}$	$m s^{-1}$
1	2643	30,097	10,688	2.42	0.14	0.00952	0.15	0.34
2	603	10,635	4488	5.12	0.29	0.00345	0.67	0.36
3	148	7798	2936	8.30	0.44	0.00224	2.04	0.46
4	47	6690	1792	22.15	0.79	0.00177	6.13	0.32
5	13	8627	1044	45.01	1.10	0.00103	24.89	0.45
6	4	7864	636	77.69	2.51	0.00100	82.22	0.42
7	1	4573	467	186.18	2.61	0.00101	416.20	0.81

¹ The hydrographic network and the slopes (S, m m⁻¹) were provided by the Agence de l'Eau Seine Normandie
(French acronym AESN, http://www.eau-seine-normandie.fr/, last accessed 2019/03/04); water discharges by
the national Banque Hydro database (http://www.hydro.eaufrance.fr/, last accessed 2019/03/04); mean width
(W, m) is assumed to follow the empirical relationship with the upstream watershed area (WSA, km²) (see Eq. 1;
Billen et al., 1994):

$$W = 0.8 WSA^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 Eq. 1

152 The mean depth (D, m) is related to the slope (S, m m^{-1}) and water flow (Q, $m^3 s^{-1}$) by the relationship derived

153 from Manning's formula (see Eq. (2), Billen et al., 1994):

$$D = [0.045Q(W(S^{1/2}))^{-1}]^{3/5}$$
 Eq. 2

154 The stream velocity $(m s^{-1})$ is calculated from the water discharge and the wetted area.







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Figure 1 Characteristics of the Seine basin: a) drainage network according to Strahler
stream orders (Strahler, 1952, 1957), monitoring stations (I: Poses, II: Poissy (Downstream
Paris), III: Paris, IV: Ferté-sous-Jouarre (Upstream Paris); b) the lithology according to
Albinet, (1967); c) land use according to the Corine Land Cover database, with six simplified
classes (EEA, 2012); d) wastewater treatment plants of the basin. Red dots are the WWTPs
sampled in 2018.





162 2.2. The pyNuts-Riverstrahler model and its 163 biogeochemical model, RIVE

164 The core of the biogeochemical calculation of the pyNuts-Riverstrahler model (described hereafter) is the RIVE model (e.g., Billen et al., 1994; Garnier et al., 1995; Garnier et al., 165 166 2002; Servais et al., 2007) (https://www.fire.upmc.fr/rive/), which simulates concentrations of 167 oxygen, nutrients (nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and silica (Si)), particulate suspended matter, 168 and dissolved and particulate organic carbon (three classes of biodegradability) in a 169 homogeneous water column. Biological compartments are represented by three taxonomic 170 classes of phytoplankton (diatoms, Chlorophyceae and Cyanobacteria), two types of 171 zooplankton (rotifers with a short generation time and microcrustaceans with a long 172 generation time), two types of heterotrophic bacteria (small autochthonous and large 173 allochthonous with a higher growth rate than the small ones), as well as two types of 174 nitrifying bacteria (ammonium-oxidizing bacteria and nitrite-oxidizing bacteria).

The model also describes benthic processes (erosion, organic matter degradation, denitrification, etc.) and exchanges with the water column with the explicit description of benthic organic matter, inorganic particulate P and benthic biogenic Si state variables. The benthic component does not explicitly represent all the anaerobic reduction chains, denitrification being the major anaerobic microbial process.

A detailed list of the state variables of the RIVE model is provided in S1. Most of the kinetic parameters involved in this description have been previously determined through field or laboratory experiments under controlled conditions and are fixed a priori (see detailed description of all kinetics and parameters values in Garnier et al., 2002). To date, there has been no explicit representation of inorganic carbon in the RIVE model (see this new input in S1).

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- PyNuts is a modeling environment that can calculate the constraints (diffuse and point sources) to the Riverstrahler model (Raimonet et al., 2018; Desmit et al., 2018). As Riverstrahler manages the calculation of the RIVE model according to a Lagrangian routing of water masses along the hydrographic network (Billen et al., 1994), PyNuts-Rivertrahler is a generic model of water quality and biogeochemical functioning of large drainage networks that simulates water quality within entire drainage networks.
- In PyNuts-Riverstrahler, modeling units can be described as a set of river axes with a spatial resolution of 1 km (axis-object), or they can be aggregated to form upstream basins that are idealized as a regular scheme of tributary confluences where each stream order is described by mean characteristics (stream order-object). Here, the Seine basin was divided into 80 modeling units, including eight axes (axis-object) and 72 upstream basins (stream orderobject) (S2).
- 198 Runoffs were calculated over the whole Seine basin using water discharge measurements at 199 48 gauged stations (source: Banque Hydro database, http://www.hydro.eaufrance.fr/, last 200 accessed 2019/08/29). Surface and base flow contributions were estimated applying the 201 BFLOW automatic hydrograph separation method (Arnold and Allen, 1999) over the recent 202 time series of water discharges (2010–2017). For the study period (2010–2013), the mean 203 base flow index (BFI = 0.71) of the Seine basin indicates the extent of the groundwater 204 contribution to river discharge, with spatial heterogeneity following the main lithological 205 structures (Figure 1b), but not significant differences when summarizing the BFI criteria by 206 Strahler order (not shown).

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208 2.2.1. Development of an inorganic carbon module

209 Introducing the carbonate system

210 This module represented in Figure 2 was developed based on the model described in Gypens et al. (2004) and adapted for freshwater environments (N. Gypens and A.V. Borges, personal 211 212 communication). It aims at computing the speciation of the carbonate system based on two 213 new state variables: dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and total alkalinity (TA), making it 214 possible to calculate carbon dioxide (CO_2) . The module uses three equations (see S3: Eqs. 1, 2, 3) that also calculate bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻), carbonate (CO₃²⁻) and hydronium (H₃O⁺). 215 216 Indeed, two variables of the carbonate system are sufficient to calculate all the other components (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). Here, DIC and TA were selected because the 217 biological processes involved in their spatiotemporal variability along the aquatic continuum 218 219 were already included in the RIVE model (Figure 2). We calculated pH as a function of total 220 alkalinity and dissolved inorganic carbon using the Culberson equation (Culberson, 1980) 221 (S3.4).







Figure 2 Schematic representation of the ecological RIVE (inspired from Billen et al. 1994,
Garnier & Billen, 1994), with grey lines indicating the main processes simulated in the water
column and at the interface with sediment (oxygen not shown), and implementation of the new
inorganic module, based on TA (maroon) and DIC (blue) lines

227 Aquatic processes affecting TA and DIC

228 The exchange of CO_2 between the water surface and the atmosphere increases or decreases 229 DIC, depending on the gas transfer velocity (k-value) and the CO₂ gradient concentrations at 230 the water surface-atmosphere interface (Table 2, Eq. 3 and S3.5). Dissolved or particulate 231 organic matter is mostly degraded by microbial activities (more or less quickly depending on 232 their biodegradability), resulting in CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ production (Servais et al., 1995), thus 233 inducing a change in DIC and TA concentrations in the water column (Table 2, Eq. 4, Figure 2). Photosynthesis and denitrification processes also affect DIC and TA (Table 2, Eqs. 5-7), 234 235 while instream nitrification only influences TA (Table 2, Eq. 8, Figure 2).





- 236 Table 2 Stoichiometry of the biogeochemical processes, influencing dissolved inorganic carbon and total
- 237 alkalinity in freshwaters taken into account in the new inorganic carbon module. TA and DIC expressed in

mol:mol of the main substrate (either C or N)

Process	Equation	DIC	ТА	Eq.
FCO ₂	$\mathcal{CO}_2(aq) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{CO}_2(g)$	±1	0	3
Aerobic degradation	$\begin{split} C_{106}H_{263}O_{11}N_{16}P + 106O_2 \\ & \rightarrow 92CO_2 + 14HCO_3^- + 16NH_4^+ + HPO_4^{2-} + 92H_2O \end{split}$	+1	+14/106	4
Photosynthesis (NO ₃ ⁻ uptake)	$106CO_2 + 16NO_3^- + H_2PO_4^- + 122H_2O + 17H^+$ $\rightarrow C_{106}H_{263}O_{11}N_{16}P + 138O_2$	-1	+17/106	5
Photosynthesis (NH4 ⁺ uptake)	$106CO_2 + 16NH_4^+ + H_2PO_4^- + 106H_2O$ $\rightarrow C_{106}H_{263}O_{11}N_{16}P + 106O_2 + 15H^+$	-1	-15/106	6
Denitrification	$5CH_2O + 4NO_3^- + 4H^+ \rightarrow 5CO_2 + 2N_2 + 7H_2O$	+1	+4/5	7
Nitrification	$NH_4^+ + 2O_2 \rightarrow 2H^+ + H_2O + NO_3^-$	0	-2	8

239 State equations and parameters of the inorganic carbon module

240 These processes affecting TA and DIC result in equations governing inorganic carbon

241 dynamics as:

$$TA = TA_{t-1} + dt. \frac{dTA}{dt} + TA_{inputs}$$
 Eq. 9

242 with:





$$\frac{dTA}{dt} = \left(\frac{14}{106} \frac{(respbact + respZoo + respBent)}{M(C)} + \left(\frac{4}{5}Denit - 2.nitr['AOB']\right). M(N)^{-1} + \left(\frac{17}{106} \frac{uptPhyNO_3^-}{uptPhyN}\right) = 1000$$

$$-\frac{15}{106} \frac{uptPhyNH_4^+}{uptPhyN}. phot . M(O_2)^{-1} = 1000$$

where TA_{t-1} is the value of total alkalinity (µmol L⁻¹) at the previous time step (t-1). 243 Respbact, RespZoo, respBent are respectively the heterotrophic planktonic respiration of 244 bacteria, zooplankton and benthic bacteria already included in RIVE (mgC $L^{-1} h^{-1}$). M(C) is 245 the molar mass of the carbon (12 g mol⁻¹). Denit and nitr ['AOB'] are respectively the 246 247 processes of denitrification and nitrification by ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) as implemented in the RIVE model (mgN $L^{-1} h^{-1}$); M(N) is the molar mass of the nitrogen (14 g 248 mol⁻¹). *phot* is the net photosynthesis (mgO₂ L^{-1} h^{-1}). *uptPhyN* is the nitrogen uptake by 249 phytoplankton (mgN $L^{-1} h^{-1}$) which is differentiated for nitrate (*uptPhyN03⁻*, mgC $L^{-1} h^{-1}$) 250 and ammonium (*uptPhyNH*4⁺, mgC L⁻¹ h⁻¹), and $M(O_2)$ is the molar mass of the dioxygen 251 (32 g mol^{-1}) . TA_{inputs} is TA (µmol L⁻¹) entering the water column by diffuse sources 252 (groundwater and subsurface discharges) and point sources (WWTPs). 253

$$DIC = DIC_{t-1} + dt. \ \frac{dDIC}{dt} + DIC_{inputs}$$
 Eq. 11

254 with:

$$\frac{dDIC}{dt} = (respbact + respZoo + respBent) + denit . M(C). M(N)^{-1}$$

$$+ phot. M(C). M(O_2)^{-1} + \frac{F_{CO_2}}{depth}$$
Eq. 12





- 255 where DIC_{t-1} is the value of dissolved inorganic carbon (mgC L⁻¹) at the previous time step
- 256 (t-1). F_{CO_2} is the CO₂ flux at the water-atmosphere interface in mgC m⁻² h⁻¹ described in
- 257 S3.5; depth is the water column depth (m).
- The different values of constants and parameters used in the inorganic carbon module are introduced in Table 2. The full inorganic carbon module is described in S3 (3.1 to 3.5).

260 **2.2.2.** Input constraints of the pyNuts-Riverstrahler model

261 Diffuse sources from soil and groundwater

262 Diffuse sources are taken into account by assigning a yearly mean concentration of carbon 263 and nutrients to subsurface and groundwater flow components, respectively. These concentrations are then combined with a 10-day time step description of surface and base 264 flows to simulate the seasonal contribution of diffuse emissions to the river system. For 265 nutrients, several applications of the Riverstrahler on the Seine River basin refined the 266 quantification of diffuse sources: e.g., Billen and Garnier (2000) and Billen et al. (2018) for 267 268 nitrogen; Aissa-Grouz et al. (2016) for phosphorus; Billen et al. (2007), Sferratore et al. (2008) and Thieu et al. (2009) for N, P and Si. In this study we revised our estimates for 269 270 diffuse organic carbon sources and propose TA and DIC values for the Seine basin. The 271 summary of all the model's carbon-related inputs are shown in Table 3.

Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) input concentrations were extracted from the AESN database (http://www.eau-seine-normandie.fr/, last accessed 2019/03/04) and averaged by land use for subsurface sources (mean, 3.13 mgC L⁻¹; sd, 4.56 mgC L⁻¹; 3225 data for 2010– 2013). For groundwater sources, concentrations were extracted from the ADES database (www.ades.eaufrance.fr, last accessed 2019/03/04) and averaged by MESO waterbodies (French acronym: Masse d'Eau SOuterraine, see S4; mean, 0.91 mgC L⁻¹; sd, 0.8 mgC L⁻¹;





16,000 data for 2010–2013). These concentrations were similarly separated into three pools of
different biodegradability levels, with 7.5% rapidly, 17.5% slowly biodegradable and 75%
refractory DOC for subsurface sources and 100% refractory DOC for groundwater flow
(Garnier, unpublished).

282 Total POC inputs were calculated based on estimated total suspended solid (TSS) fluxes, 283 associated with a soil organic carbon (SOC) content provided by the LUCAS Project (samples 284 from agricultural soil, Tóth et al., 2013), the BioSoil Project (samples from European forest 285 soil, Lacarce et al., 2009) and the Soil Transformations in European Catchments (SoilTrEC) 286 Project (samples from local soil data from five different critical zone observatories (CZOs) in 287 Europe, Menon et al., 2014) (Aksoy et al., 2016). TSS concentrations were calculated using 288 fluxes of TSS provided by WaTEM-SEDEM (Borrelli et al., 2018) and runoffs averaged over 289 the 1970-2000 period (SAFRAN-ISBA-MODCOU, SIM; Habets et al., 2008). The POC mean was 8.2 mgC L⁻¹; sd, 10.4 mgC L⁻¹ in subsurface runoff, and 0.8 mgC L⁻¹; sd, 1.0 mgC 290 L⁻¹ in groundwater discharge. The same ratio of DOC reactivity was applied for three classes 291 292 of POC degradability.

DIC and TA are brought by subsurface and groundwater discharges (Venkiteswaran et al., 2014). DIC is defined by the sum of bicarbonates (HCO_3^-), carbonates (CO_3^-) and CO_2 . 2014). Unlike HCO_3^- and CO_3^- measured in groundwater on a regular basis by French authorities 2016 (ADES, www.ades.eaufrance.fr, last accessed 2019/03/04), CO₂ concentrations were not 2017 measured in their survey. TA values are also provided in the ADES database.

To calculate DIC concentrations in groundwaters, we therefore used our own CO_2 measurements, equaling on average 15.92 mgC-CO₂ L⁻¹; sd, 7.12 mgC-CO₂ L⁻¹ (55 measurements in six piezometers in the Brie aquifer in 2016–2017) (see methodology in Marescaux et al., 2018a). DIC and TA were averaged for the 48 unconfined hydrogeological

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- 302 MESO units of the basin (see concentrations in S4) on the recent period (2010-2015),
- 303 including the simulation period. In Figure 3, a summary of TA and DIC inputs by MESO
- 304 units is shown by grouping MESO units according to lithology and geological ages.



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306 Figure 3 Boxplots of total alkalinity (μ mol L⁻¹) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC, mgC L⁻¹) 307 ¹) groundwater concentrations by grouping the MESO units. The lower, intermediate and 308 upper parts of the boxes represent, respectively, the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles and the 309 circles represent the outlier values (source: ADES). The color code is the same as the one in 310 S4 spatially representing the MESO units of the basin

Documenting TA and DIC diffuse sources based on MESO units ensures good representation of their spatial heterogeneity in the Seine River basin. Carbonate waters showed higher TA and DIC mean concentrations while crystalline waters had the lowest mean concentrations in TA and DIC (primary and anterior basements from Devonian, Figure 3). Aquifers from





- Tertiary and alluvium of Quaternary showed more heterogeneous distribution of their concentrations (Figure 3). TA and DIC by MESO units were then spatially averaged at the scale of each modeling unit of the pyNuts-Riverstrahler model (80 modeling units, subdivided according to Strahler ordination, S3), thus forming a semi-distributed estimate of groundwater concentrations.
- TA and DIC measurements in lower order streams cannot be considered as representative of subsurface concentrations because lower order streams are expected to strongly degas in a few hundred meters, as shown for N₂O in Garnier et al. (2009) and CO₂ in Öquist et al. (2009). We have considered similar concentrations and spatial distribution for subsurface components that those obtained for groundwater (from 25 to 92 mgC L⁻¹ DIC, and from 663 to 5580 µmol L⁻¹ TA, Figure 3).

326 **Point sources from WWTP effluents**

327 The pyNuts-Riverstrahler model integrates carbon and nutrient raw emissions from the local 328 population starting from the collection of household emissions into sewage networks until 329 their release after specific treatments in WWTPs. In the Seine River basin, most of these 330 releases are adequately treated before being discharged to the drainage network. DOC discharge from WWTPs was described according to treatment type, ranging from 2.9 to 9.4 331 gC inhab⁻¹ day⁻¹ while POC discharge ranged from 0.9 to 24 gC inhab⁻¹ day⁻¹ based on the 332 333 sample of water purification treatment observed in the Seine basin (Garnier et al., 2006; 334 Servais et al., 1999).

TA and DIC were measured at eight WWTPs selected to reflect various treatment capacities
(from 6 10³ inhab eq to 6 10⁶ inhab eq) and different treatment types (activated, sludge,
Biostyr® Biological Aerated Filter) in the Seine River basin. Sampling and analysis protocols
are provided in S5. This sampling did not allow us to highlight differences in per capita TA





and DIC emissions. Consequently, we used a fixed value of 3993 μ mol L⁻¹ for TA and 70 mgC L⁻¹ for DIC, which correspond to the weighted mean by WWTP capacity of our measurements and are in agreement with values from Alshboul et al. (2016) found in the literature.

343 **Point sources from reservoirs**

344 Nutrients and organic carbon cycling within the three reservoirs of the Seine River network were simulated using the same biogeochemical RIVE model adapted for stagnant aquatic 345 systems (Garnier et al., 1999). Despite the absence of an inorganic carbon module in the 346 347 modeling of reservoirs, we used mean measurements of TA and DIC in reservoirs as occasional inputs to the river network. The Der lake reservoir was sampled three times 348 349 (2016/05/24, 2016/09/12, 2017/03/16) and among others, TA and DIC were measured (see 350 Table 3). Recent sampling campaigns showed that TA and DIC are similar for the three 351 reservoirs (X. Yan, pers. comm.).

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Table 3 Summary of the carbon related inputs of the pyNuts-Riverstrahler model

Input variables	Flow	Database	averaged	values	source	
DOC	subsurface	AESN	land use	mean: 3.13 mgC L^{-1} ; sd: 4.56 mgC L^{-1} ;	http://www.eau-seine- normandie.fr/	
	groundwater	ADES	MESO units	mean: 0.91 mgC L ⁻¹ ; sd: 0.8 mgC L ⁻¹	www.ades.eaufrance.fr	
	subsurface	LUCAS, BioSoil and	based on estimated total suspended solids (TSS) fluxes, associated with a soil organic carbon (SOC) content	mean: 8.2 mgC L ⁻¹ , sd: 10.4 mgC L ⁻¹	(Aksoy et al., 2016)	
POC	groundwater	SoilTrEC Projects		mean: 0.8 mgC L ⁻¹ , sd: 1.0 mgC L ⁻¹		
DIC	subsurface	ADES	MESOita	from 25 to 92 mgC L ⁻¹	www.ades.eaufrance.fr	
DIC	groundwater	ADES	MESO units	from 25 to 92 mgC L ⁻¹		
ТА	subsurface	ADES	MESO units	from 663 to 5580 $\mu mol \; L^{\text{-1}}$	www.ades.eaufrance.fr	
IA	groundwater	ADES		from 663 to 5580 $\mu mol \; L^{\text{-1}}$		
DOC	Point sources	Measurements	According to WWTP	2.9 to 9.4 gC inhab ⁻¹ day ⁻¹	(Garnier et al. 2006;	
POC	Point sources	Measurements	treatment and capacity	0.9 to 24 gC inhab ⁻¹ day ⁻¹	Servais et al. 1999)	
DIC	Point sources	Measurements	weighted mean by WWTP capacity 70 mgC L ⁻¹ This s		This study	
ТА	Point sources	Measurements	weighted mean by WWTP capacity	3993 µmol L ⁻¹	This study	
DIC	Reservoirs	Measurements in the Der Lake	by year	mean: 23 mgC L^{-1} , sd: 4 mgC L^{-1}	This study	
TA	Reservoirs	Measurements in the Der Lake	by year	mean: 1890 µmol L ⁻¹ , sd: 350 µmol L ⁻¹	This study	

354 **2.2.3. Observational data**

We selected the 2010–2013 timeframe for setting up and validating the new inorganic module. This period includes the year 2011, which was particularly dry (mean annual water discharge at Poses, $366 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and 2013 wet (mean annual average water discharge at Poses, $717 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) while 2010 and 2012 showed intermediate hydrological conditions (mean annual average water discharges at Poses, $418 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and 458, $\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively) (data source: Banque Hydro).

pCO₂ values (ppmv) were calculated using CO2SYS software algorithms (version 25b06, Pierrot et al., 2006) based on existing data collected by the AESN. pH, total alkalinity and water temperature data sets were used for the 2010–2013 selected period (8693 records of





364 these three variables, i.e., around 1209 stations distributed throughout the Seine basin, measurements that were taken at fixed day time -9:00-15:00 UTC-) and could not represent 365 diurnal fluctuations). The carbonate dissociation constants (K1 and K2) applied were 366 calculated from Millero (1979) with zero salinity and depending on the water temperature. 367 Because pCO₂ calculations from pH and TA can lead to overestimation of pCO₂ (Abril et al., 368 369 2015), the pCO_2 calculated data were corrected by a relationship established for the Seine 370 River and based on pCO_2 field measurements (Marescaux et al., 2018b). To compute the 371 interannual average over the 2010-2013 time period, data were averaged monthly, then 372 annually at each measurement station and then spatially averaged (i.e., by Strahler orders). Four stations offering sufficient data for the 2010-2013 time period were selected for 373 374 appraising seasonal patterns. They are located along the main stem of the Marne-Lower Seine 375 River: Poses (the outlet), Poissy (downstream of the SAV WWTP), Paris and Ferté-sous-376 Jouarre (upstream of Paris) (Figure 1a).

All data were processed using R (R Core team, 2015) and QGIS (QGIS Development Team,
2016). Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to compare simulated and measured pCO₂ averages.

379 **2.2.4. Evaluation of the model**

Root Mean Square Errors normalized to the range of the observed data (NRMSE) were performed to evaluate the pyNuts-Riverstrahler model including the inorganic module, indicating the variability of the model results with respect to the observations, normalized to the variability of the observations. NRMSE were performed on inter-annual variations per decade for the 2010-2013 time period, combining observations and simulations at four main monitoring stations along the longitudinal profile of the Seine River: Poses, Poissy (Downstream Paris), Paris, Ferté-sous-Jouarre (Upstream Paris).





387 **3. Results**

388 3.1. Simulations of spatial and seasonal variations of 389 pCO₂.

390 **3.1.1.** CO₂ from lower order streams to larger sections of the Seine River

391 Simulations of CO₂ concentrations averaged for 2010–2013 by Strahler orders showed that pyNuts-Riverstrahler succeeds in reproducing the general trends of CO₂ observations (7565 392 393 data) (Figure 4). Although not significant, CO2 concentration means tend to decrease from lower order streams (SO1) (width < 100 m) to SO5, and to finally increase in the higher order 394 395 streams (width > 100 m) from SO6 to SO7, downstream of the Paris conurbation. Some 396 discrepancy appears for order 1, with simulations higher than observations while for orders 2-397 7 simulations were conversely lower than observations. The corresponding k-values calculated for the Seine ranged from 0.04 to 0.23 m h⁻¹ with higher values in the first streams 398 399 and lower values in larger rivers (not shown), with CO₂ outgassing positively related to k-400 value (S4.5 eq. 25).



401

Figure 4 Carbon dioxide concentrations in the Seine waters $(CO_2, mgC-CO_2 L^{-1})$ simulated by the pyNuts-Riverstrahler model (dark grey) and observed (light grey) as a function of the stream order averaged on the 2010–2013 period (whiskers indicating standard deviations)





405 **3.1.2.** Profiles of the main stem Marne – Lower Seine (at Poses)

406 On the same period (2010-2013), a focus on the main stem from the Marne River (SO6) until 407 the outlet of the Seine River (Poses, SO7) showed that longitudinal variations are clearly 408 represented by the model. Higher concentrations of CO_2 downstream of Paris, and a peak of 409 CO_2 concentrations immediately downstream of the SAV WWTP werefollowed by a 410 progressive decrease until the estuary (Figure 5). Note that the estuarine CO_2 concentrations 411 were specifically modeled in Laruelle et al. (2019), using these outputs of the Riverstrahler 412 simulations.



413

Figure 5 Observed (dots) and simulated (line) mean carbon dioxide concentrations (CO₂,
mgC L⁻¹) along the main stem of the Marne River (km -350 to 0) and the lower Seine River
(km 0-350) averaged over the 2010-2013 period. The simulation envelope (grey area)
represents standard deviations of CO₂ simulated. Whiskers are standard deviations between
observed CO₂ concentrations.

419 **3.1.3.** Seasonal variations

Upstream, within Paris, and downstream of Paris, simulations provided rather good levels of
CO₂, DIC, TA and pH (Figure 6). In addition to a satisfactory range of values, DIC and TA
simulations showed the observed seasonal patterns with a depletion of concentrations
24





- 423 occurring in summer/autumn related to low-flow support by the reservoirs. Indeed, reservoirs 424 showed lower TA and DIC concentrations than rivers (Table 3). In addition to the intra-/inter-425 stream order variabilities of CO_2 (Figure 4), CO_2 highly varied seasonally (Figure 6). 426 Although simulated CO_2 concentrations fitted rather well with the level of the observations 427 (NRMSE = 15%), the model tended to overestimate the winter values upstream and within 428 Paris (Figure 6, left).
- 429 For DIC, simulations upstream from Paris (Figure 6, right) seem lower than observations (but 430 summer data are missing); however, downstream at the other three stations selected, 431 simulations accurately represented the observations (Figure 6, NRMSE = 15%). Seasonal 432 variations of TA were satisfactorily reproduced by the simulations, although they were 433 slightly underestimated by the model at the stations upstream and downstream of Paris (Figure 6, NRMSE = 25%). Regarding pH, simulations were in a similar range as the 434 435 observations (range, 7.5–8.5), and lower summer pH values in the lower Seine were correctly 436 simulated by the model (Figure 6, NRMSE = 17%).







438 Figure 6 Ten-day simulated (lines) and observed (dots) water discharges over the 2010–2013 period (Q, m³ s⁻¹), 439 concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO2, $mgCL^{-1}$, and CO2 sat, $mgCL^{-1}$), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC, 440 $mgCL^{-1}$), total alkalinity (TA, $\mu mol L^{-1}$), pH (-), and phytoplankton ($mgCL^{-1}$). Simulation envelope corresponds 441 to standard deviations. For observed data, whiskers are standard deviations. Four monitoring stations of 442 interest along the main stem Marne-Poses are shown: Ferté-sous-Jouarre (upstream of Paris on the Marne 443 River), Paris (upstream at Charenton), downstream of the SAV WWTP, and at the outlet of the basin (Poses). 444 NRMSE were performed on inter-annual variations per decade for the 2010-2013 time period, combining 445 observations and simulations at four main monitoring stations.

Although the level of phytoplankton biomass was adequately simulated, the summer bloom observed at the outlet was not reproduced, whereas the early spring bloom observed in the





- 448 lower Seine was simulated with a time lag compared to the observations (Figure 6, bottom,
- 449 NRMSE = 19%).

450 **3.1.4.** Selection of a gas transfer velocity

4.



451

452 Figure 7 Influence of the gas transfer velocity formalisms along the main stem of the Seine River basin (Marne –
 453 Lower Seine River) impacted riverine CO₂ concentrations

454 The way of taking into account the gas transfer velocity in the modeling approach could explain these discrepancies in SO6 and SO7 (Figure 4). Different values of k were explored 455 (Figure 7). Indeed, the gas transfer velocity value reported by Alin et al. (2011) was used for 456 457 streams and rivers up to 100 m wide, as they recommended. Whereas these k-values provided 458 adequate simulations in the river up to 100 m wide, for river widths greater than 100 m, we 459 tested different k. In larger stream orders, we showed that calculations of k according to the equation 2 of Table 5 of Raymond et al. 2012, induced a too high outgassing while without 460 461 using any k value or using Ho et al. (2016), the opposite behavior with a much to low 462 outgassing of CO₂ was observed.

Therefore, for river widths greater than 100 m, a k_{600} equation based on O'Connor and Dobbins, (1958) and Ho et al. (2016), neglecting the term related to the wind, and providing the most accurate CO₂ concentrations, was selected (see S3 and 6 for more information's on the selection of *k* and the tests performed):





- 467 Although these results can be improved, organic and inorganic carbon and total alkalinity
- 468 budgets can be calculated at the scale of a whole drainage basin for the first time.

469 4.1. Alkalinity, inorganic and organic carbon budgets

470 We established an average inorganic and organic budget for the period studied (2010-2013) 471 (Table 4). The budget of inorganic and organic carbon (IC and OC) of the entire Seine River 472 basin (from headwater streams to the beginning of the estuary) shows the high contribution of external inputs (sum of point and diffuse sources accounted for 92% and 68% of IC and OC 473 474 inputs, respectively) and riverine exports (68% and 66% of IC and OC outputs, respectively). 475 These exports were at least one order of magnitude higher for the IC budget (Table 4). The 476 substantial contribution of the Seine aquifer water flow led the IC flux brought by 477 groundwater to dominate over those from the subsurface (respectively, 57.5% vs. 34% of total 478 IC inputs), while for OC, the subsurface contributions were higher than groundwater 479 contributions (54% vs. 14% of the total OC fluxes).

Interestingly, the relative contributions of point sources to OC inputs were higher than for IC(23% and 7% of the OC and IC inputs, respectively) (Table 4).

Heterotrophic respiration by microorganisms accounted for only 1.5% of the IC inputs. Similarly, IC losses by net primary production also accounted for a small proportion, i.e., 0.6% of the IC inputs. For the OC budget, despite a contribution of autochthonous inputs from instream biological metabolisms (NPP and nitrification, 9% of inputs, and heterotrophic respiration, 7%), which was relatively high compared to their proportion in IC fluxes (2.3%), allochthonous terrestrial inputs still dominated the OC budget (Table 4).

The Seine River, at the outlet, exported 68% of the IC entering or produced in the drainagenetwork, and 66% of OC brought to the river (including both particulate and dissolved forms)





490	(Table 5). Instream OC losses were related to heterotrophic respiration (7%) and to a net
491	transfer to the benthic sediment compartment, including sedimentation and erosion processes
492	(estimated at 28% of losses). In the IC budget, ventilation of CO_2 was a substantial physical
493	process (31% of the overall losses) (Table 4).
40.4	
494	Similar calculation was performed for total alkalinity (1A) budget. As for inorganic carbon,
495	the contribution of internal processes remained relatively low compared to the high levels of
496	TA in lateral inputs (diffuse sources: 93 %; point sources: 6 %) and flows exported to the
497	basin outlet (97 %). Indeed, instream production mostly relied on heterotrophic respiration (<
498	1%) while denitrification appeared negligible. Photosynthesis might also produce or consume
499	alkalinity whether NO $_3$ ⁻ or NH $_4$ ⁺ is the preferential N source of phytoplankton's uptake, but
500	it resulted in our budget in a net reduction TA (2%), while nitrification also contributed to less
501	than 1% of TA output.

502





- 503Table 4 Budget of the Seine hydrosystem for inorganic and organic carbon $(kgC km^2 yr^1)$ and Total alkalinity504 $(mol km^2 yr^1)$ as calculated by the pyNuts-Riverstrahler model averaged on the period 2010-2013. * TA input505related to NPP refer to the net difference between TA produced by photosynthesis on NO3 uptake and506photosynthesis on NH4 uptake (reducing alkalinity)**Net sediment loss is the difference between the erosion and
- 507

the sedimentation calculated by the model

2010-2013	Processes involved in inorg C budget	kgC km ⁻² yr ⁻¹	%
Input to river	Diffuse sources from subroot	5963	34.4
	Diffuse sources from groundwater	9968	57.5
	Urban point sources	1135	6.6
	Heterotrophic respiration	266	1.5
	Denitrification	0	0.0
Output from river	Delivery to the outlet	12483	68.4
	Ventilation	5619	30.8
	Nitrification	37	0.2
	NPP	105	0.6
2010-2013	Processes involved in TA budget	mol km ⁻² yr ⁻¹	%
	Diffuse sources from subroot	360983	34.9
input to river	Diffuse sources from groundwater	604145	58.4
	Urban point sources	66770	6.4
	Heterotrophic respiration	2972	0.3
	Denitrification	0	0.0
Output from river	Delivery to outlet	1004299	97.1
output noninite	Nitrification	6219	0.6
	NPP *	24352	2.4
2010-2013	Processes involved in org C budget	kgC km ⁻² yr ⁻¹	%
Input to river	Diffuse sources from subroot	870	53.9
	Diffuse sources from groundwater	227	14.1
	Urban point sources	375	23.2
	Nitrification	37	2.3
	NPP	105	6.5
Output from river	Delivery to the outlet	1086	65.7
	Heterotrophic respiration	110	6.7
	Net sedimentation **	456	27.6





508 4.2. Carbon aquatic processes

- 509 Whereas IC and OC budgets of the Seine hydrosystem were clearly dominated by external
- 510 terrestrial inputs and outputs through deliveries at the coast, an attempt was made here to
- analyze instream processes involved in the IC and OC cycles (Figure 8, Figure 9).
- Average spatial distribution of IC processes, as calculated by the model, was mapped for the 2010–2013 period (Figure 8). Benthic activities were the greatest in smaller streams. In contrast, net primary production and heterotrophic planktonic respiration, which both followed a similar spatial pattern, increased as Strahler order increased, reaching their highest values in the lower Seine River. All these biological processes involved in the IC cycle were therefore highly active in the main stem of the river, while on the other hand CO_2 outgassing mainly occurred in the basin's small headwater streams (Figure 9).



519

Figure 8. Instream processes involved in the inorganic carbon cycle simulated by pyNutsRiverstrahler and averaged on the 2010–2013 period for the whole Seine River network. a)
CO2 outgassing (blue–yellow, gC m⁻² day⁻¹); b) net primary production (blue–green, gC m⁻²)





523 day^{-1} ; c) heterotrophic planktonic (blue-violet); d) benthic respiration (blue-orange, gC m⁻² 524 day^{-1}) are represented in the hydrographic network.

- Regarding the OC processes, mostly linked to biological activity, they were analyzed in terms
 of ecosystem metabolism (Figure 9). The net ecosystem production (NEP, gC m⁻² day⁻¹) is
 defined as:
- 528 NEP = NPP Het. Respiration

529 where NPP is the net primary production (gC m⁻² day⁻¹) depending on the growth of 530 phytoplankton. NPP contributes to phytoplankton biomass building that constitutes a stock of 531 organic carbon, emitted in turn as CO_2 by respiration (Het. respiration, gC m⁻² day⁻¹).

532 Simulations showed that NEP would remain negative in the entire drainage network (Figure 533 9). However, NEP has to be analyzed with caution since the phytoplankton pattern was not adequately represented (see Figure 6). In SO1, this negative NEP was associated with almost 534 no NPP, and heterotrophic respiration was dominated by benthic activities (see Figure 8). In 535 536 SO5, NEP was less negative than in SO1 (Figure 9), heterotrophic respiration was lower than in SO1 while NPP was higher. In the lower Seine River (SO7), NPP increased as well as 537 538 heterotrophic respiration, which reached its highest value in this downstream stretch receiving 539 treated effluents from WWTPs. Therefore, the increase in NPP did not result in positive NEP. The entire drainage network was thus supersaturated in CO2 with respect to atmospheric 540 541 concentrations, and constituted a source of CO₂. This supersaturation was the highest in 542 smaller orders, lower in intermediate orders and increased again in the lower Seine River 543 (Figure 4, see also Figure 8).







544

Figure 9 Metabolism for small, intermediate and large stream orders (SO) (here respectively
represented by SO1, SO5, and SO7) of the Seine basin simulated by pyNuts-Riverstrahler and
averaged over the 2010–2013 period. Net primary production (NPP, gC m² day⁻¹),
heterotrophic respiration (Het. respiration, gC m² day⁻¹), net ecosystem production (NEP, gC
m² day⁻¹)

550 **4. Discussion**

551 4.1. Evaluation of the model

Simulated CO₂ concentrations tend to be higher than observed for SO1. These differences 552 553 may be related to the high variability of CO_2 in SO1, and the scarcity of measurements in spring. However, Öquist et al. (2009) estimated that up to 90% of daily soil DIC import into 554 555 streams was emitted to the atmosphere within 200 m. Since soil emissions were very difficult to capture, we considered that concentrations in groundwater (DIC and TA) closely reflect the 556 composition of diffuse sources, much like soil composition. This assumption probably 557 underestimates the DIC/TA ratio brought to the river in lower order streams. Differently from 558 559 SO1, simulated concentrations in SO2-7 are lower than the observed values (Figure 4).





560 Overall, the NRMSE indicating a percentage of variation was less than 20%, except for TA

561 (25%).

562 Regarding gas transfer velocity values, an equation for large rivers with no tidal influence 563 using wind speed could be more appropriate (Alin et al., 2011) and could decrease NRMSE. However, the Riverstrahler model does not consider wind as an input variable, which would 564 have required the model to have a much higher spatiotemporal resolution to reflect its 565 566 spatiotemporal heterogeneity in the Seine basin, with for example, the diurnal cycle affected 567 by phenomena such as breezes (Quintana-Seguí et al., 2008). Future work with direct k 568 measurements and/or a new representation of k-values in the model could help improve 569 outgassing simulations with pyNuts-Riverstrahler.

570 Regarding seasonal patterns, DIC and alkalinity amplitudes are suitably captured and the level 571 of the values was correct. DIC and TA observations showed a strong decrease from June/July to November (maximum amplitude decrease, 10 mgC L^{-1} and 1000 µmol L^{-1}), as illustrated 572 573 by the model. For the Seine River, the water flow decrease in summer was mainly related to 574 the decrease in runoff water, meaning that the groundwater contribution was comparatively 575 higher at this time. According to our measurements, these groundwaters were more 576 concentrated in TA, DIC and CO₂ than runoff water. However, water released by upstream reservoirs (supporting low flow in the downstream section of the Seine network) accounted 577 578 for a significant proportion of the river discharge during summer and was characterized by 579 lower TA, DIC and CO2 concentrations. Then the decrease observed was related to the 580 contribution of reservoirs. These results strongly encourage the implementation of an 581 inorganic carbon module in the modeling of reservoirs, already coupled with Riverstrahler for 582 nutrients and organic carbon (Garnier et al., 1999).





583 For phytoplankton, although the biomass level is consistent with the observations, the seasonal pattern was not satisfactory reproduced by the model. However, algal blooms has 584 been considerably reduced compared to those observed in the 1990s when chlorophyll a 585 reached 150 µgChla L⁻¹ (Garnier et al., 1995). The RIVE model phytoplankton parameters 586 587 were determined through laboratory experiments at that time when amplitude algal blooms 588 were much higher than presently, after improvement of treatments in WWTPs strongly 589 reducing river eutrophication (Romero et al. 2016). New laboratory experiments for possibly 590 taking into account additional phytoplankton groups or species in these new trophic 591 conditions and/or mixing stochastic and mechanistic modeling could be required to better represent phytoplankton temporal dynamics in the model. In addition, in future work, testing 592 593 different pH calculation formulations (e.g. using Follows et al., 2006) could improve our pH 594 simulations

595 **4.2. Export fluxes**

The new implementation of an inorganic carbon module in pyNuts-Riverstrahler allows 596 estimating CO₂ outgassing of the Seine River at 364 ± 100 GgC yr⁻¹. This is significantly 597 lower than in our previous estimate of 590 GgC yr⁻¹ using CO₂ measurements only 598 599 (Marescaux et al., 2018a). This difference is not fully compensated by the discrepancy of the 600 simulations performed (NRMSE 15%) but is also due to the fact that, in this previous study, 601 we used the same k-value for all stream orders based on Eq. 5 in Table 2 in Raymond et al. 602 (2012). The more accurate description of the k-value adopted here with different k-values for 603 small and high stream orders would be responsible for less outgassing than in our previous study. The outgassing by surface area of river of 1302 ± 352 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ is in the middle of the 604 range of the average estimates from other studies (ranging from 70 to 4008 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹; Li et 605 606 al., 2013 and references therein, e.g., Butman and Raymond, 2011). More precisely, a focus on temperate river outgassing estimates for the St. Lawrence River (Yang et al., 1996), 607





608 Ottawa River (Telmer and Veizer, 1999), Hudson River (Raymond et al., 1997) and Mississippi River (Dubois et al., 2010) shows lower rates (from 70 to 1284 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) than 609 in the Seine River. This high variability for these temperate rivers is highly dependent on 610 611 whether or not the first-order streams were considered in the outgassing. Similar to our study, 612 Butman and Raymond (2011) took into account lower order streams and rivers while lower 613 estimates correspond to studies investigating large rivers, excluding lower order streams. CO₂ 614 concentrations (see Figure 2). Indeed, outgassing are often greater in headwater streams than 615 in large rivers due to higher CO_2 concentrations and headwater streams have higher gas transfer velocities (Marx et al., 2017; Raymond et al., 2012a). The mapping of CO₂ 616 outgassing in the Seine basin clearly shows these spatial trends, with smaller streams 617 618 releasing more CO₂ than median and larger rivers (see Figure 8).

619 Regarding organic carbon, Meybeck (1993) estimated the DOC export to the ocean for temperate climate at 1.5 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹, a value that is higher than our OC estimate of 1.1 gC m⁻² 620 yr⁻¹ for the Seine River basin, before entering the estuarine section. This might be explained 621 622 by the low altitude of the Seine River, limiting erosion (Guerrini et al., 1998;) and by the change in the trophic state of rivers after the implementation of water directives in the late 623 624 1990s Rocher and Azimi, 2017; Romero et al., 2016). In addition, the CO₂/OC ratio of the 625 export to the estuary of the Seine hydrosystem is 5.2, which is higher than this ratio for the 626 Mississippi River (4.1; Dubois et al., 2010b; Li et al., 2013), for example, and may be related 627 to considerable outgassing from headwater streams taken into account in our study. Note, however, that the small Seine River basin exports only 70 ± 99 GgC yr⁻¹ compared to the 628 large Mississippi River with exports amounting to 2435 GgC yr⁻¹ OC (Dubois et al., 2010), 629 with its surface area more than 40 times greater than the Seine. Interestingly, the Seine River 630 export is estimated at three times less than the export calculated in 1979 (250 Gg C yr⁻¹, 631 632 Kempe, 1984). This difference must be related to improvements in water treatments in the





- basin, with DOC concentrations in the Seine River 2.8 times lower since the 1990s (Rocherand Azimi, 2017) and to a remarkable reduction in phytoplankton blooms (Aissa Grouz et al.,
- 635 2016).

We estimate DIC export of the Seine River at 820 ± 220 GgC yr⁻¹, a value higher than basins of the same size or even larger (e.g., Ottawa River, drainage are, 149,000 km², 520 GgC yr⁻¹, Telmer and Veizer, (1999); Li et al. (2013)). The high concentrations of HCO₃⁻ in the Seine basin already documented and related to the lithology of the Seine basin (limestone and gypsum beds from Cretaceous and Tertiary) (Kempe, 1982; 1984) may explain this high export to the river outlet. With both high CO₂ and DIC exports, the ratio of CO₂/DIC exports from the Seine River is the same as the overall ratio (0.5, Li et al., 2013).

643 4.3. Metabolism

644 Model simulations with the new inorganic carbon module can be used to analyze spatial 645 variations of CO_2 in regard to instream metabolism activities. The model highlights the 646 importance of benthic activities in headwater streams (Figure 8) that decreased downstream as 647 heterotrophic planktonic activities increased in larger rivers, a typical pattern described by the river continuum concept (RCC, Vannote et al., 1980) and quantified for the Seine River 648 649 (Billen et al., 1994; Garnier et al., 1995; Garnier and Billen, 2007). These results are also in 650 agreement with those by Hotchkiss et al. (2015), which suggested that the percentage of CO_2 emissions from metabolism increases with stream size while CO₂ emissions of lower order 651 652 streams were related to allochthonous terrestrial CO₂. Regarding headwater streams, Battin et al. (2009b) described benthic activities as the highest (as also observed in our study, Figure 8) 653 654 where microbial biomass is associated with streambeds characterized by exchanges with subsurface flow bringing nutrients and oxygen and increasing mineralization. 655





656 Mean NEP would remain negative in the entire basin resulting from heterotrophic conditions 657 producing CO₂ (Figure 8 and Figure 9). However, even though the level of phytoplankton 658 biomass was correctly simulated, the summer downstream bloom, which was not reproduced 659 by the model, could lead to some NPP underestimation. As expected, NPP in lower order streams was lower than in higher SOs due to shorter water residence times. Benthic 660 respiration of lower order streams was significant (Figure 9) and made NEP highly negative. 661 662 Also, small SOs were the most concentrated in CO_2 due to the groundwater contribution. Intermediate stream orders showed the smallest CO₂ or heterotrophic respirations with NEP 663 less than -0.1 gC m⁻² day⁻¹. This can be explained by an increase of NPP due to lower dilution 664 rate than the phytoplankton growth rate (Garnier et al., 1995), and to a reduced ratio of the 665 666 bottom sediment to water column volume, decreasing heterotrophic respiration. In higher stream orders both NPP and heterotrophic respiration were the highest, however leading to 667 negative NEP lower than SO1 (Figure 8 and Figure 9). Despite photosynthesis reduced CO_2 668 669 concentrations (Figure 6), the highest SOs were affected by wastewater effluents, resulting in 670 overall negative NEP.

671 On the recent 2010-2013 period studied herein, and in all SOs, the NPP never exceeded heterotrophic respiration (ratio NPP:Het.-Resp or P:R < 1) (Figure 9). Whereas in the past, 672 eutrophication of the Seine River led to a P:R ratio above 1 in large rivers, at least during 673 spring blooms, with P and R values increasing up to 2.5 gC m⁻² day⁻¹ (Garnier and Billen, 674 2007), the P:R ratio is now systematically below 1. These changes, linked to an overall 675 676 decrease in biological metabolism, are explained by the improvements of treatment in 677 WWTPs decreasing the organic carbon load discharged into rivers and associated pollution, 678 and hence decreasing the CO₂ concentration along the main stem of the Seine River 679 (Marescaux et al., 2018b). Improvement of treatments in wastewater reduced nutrient inputs 680 to the river, especially phosphates, today a limiting nutrient to algal development in SO5 and





- 681 6, reducing algal peaks from 150 μ gChla L⁻¹ in the 1990s to often less than 50 μ gChla l⁻¹
- presently (Romero et al., 2016; Aissa-Grouz et al., 2016).

683 **5.** Conclusion

The first simulations with the river biogeochemical pyNuts-Riverstrahler model including the processes involved in the inorganic carbon cycle, represent the CO_2 concentrations and outgassing along the Seine hydrosystem quite accurately.

The sensitivity of simulations to different gas transfer velocity values highlighted the need for additional measurements in the Seine River to choose the best model equation or to propose a new one. In addition, revisiting the phytoplankton description in the model could enable a better simulation of the temporal dynamics of phytoplankton. In the future, an explicit representation of the anaerobic reduction chain of the benthos could enable to specify the benthos impact on TA and DIC in a greater variety of ecosystems.

693 CO₂ concentrations appear to be controlled differently along the Seine hydrosystem. In small 694 orders, concentrations are mainly driven by groundwater discharges. In larger rivers, in 695 addition to the influence of groundwater and low-flow support by upstream reservoirs, 696 concentrations show patterns linked to hydrosystem metabolisms. Indeed, blooms tend to 697 decrease CO₂ concentrations, although the hydrosystem remains heterotrophic and 698 supersaturated with respect to the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. Heterotrophic respiration 699 increases CO₂ concentrations with peaks downstream of WWTP effluents enriched in organic 700 carbon.

Around 31% of the DIC inputs, widely dominated by soils, groundwater and/or WWTP effluents, are outgassed, while 68% are exported to the estuary. IC inputs and outputs are estimated at ten times the OC inputs and outputs.





704 Data availability

The datasets generated during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

707 Author contribution

All the authors contributed to the design of the study. J.G. and V.T. are cosupervisors of the PhD. A.M. participated as a PhD student in the field campaigns, lab chemical analyzes and implement the new inorganic carbon module. N.G. and M.S. provided technical and scientific support for the modelling. A.M. wrote the first draft of the manuscript, and all the co-authors helped to interpret the data and write the article.

714 Competing interests statement

715 The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interest.

716 Acknowledgements

717 The project leading to this application received funding from the European Union's Horizon 718 2020 research and innovation program under the Marie Sklodowska-Curie grant agreement 719 No. 643052. A PhD grant was attributed to Audrey Marescaux. Many thanks are due to 720 Sébastien Bosc, Anunciacion Martinez Serrano and Benjamin Mercier for their kind 721 participation in the fieldwork and for their assistance with chemical analyses in the lab. We thank Muriel Chagniot (Veolia Water, France), and the operators of the Veolia WWTPs for 722 723 their precious help in organizing the field campaigns. The SIAAP (Vincent Rocher) is also 724 sincerely acknowledged for their contribution to sampling the largest WWTP of the Paris





conurbation and the long-term view on treatments in the SIAAP WWTPs provided by their
recent book (Rocher and Azimi, 2017). Vincent Thieu (assistant professor at the University
Pierre and Marie Curie, Paris) and Josette Garnier (Research Director at the Centre National
de la Recherche Scientifique, France) are co-supervisors of the PhD. Nathalie Gypens is
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