

Carbon dioxide fluxes increase from day to night across European streams

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82

83 Abstract

84 Globally, inland waters emit over 2 Pg of carbon (C) per year as carbon dioxide (CO₂), of which the
85 majority originates from streams and rivers. Despite the global significance of fluvial CO₂
86 emissions, little is known about their diel dynamics. We present the first large-scale assessment of
87 day- and night-time CO₂ fluxes at the water-air interface across European streams. Fluxes were
88 directly measured four times throughout one year using drifting chambers. Median CO₂ fluxes
89 amounted to 1.4 and 2.1 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹ at midday and midnight, respectively, with night fluxes
90 exceeding those during the day by 39%. Diel CO₂ flux variability was mainly attributed to changes
91 in the water partial pressure of CO₂ (*p*CO₂) but no consistent drivers could be identified across
92 sites. Our results highlight widespread day-night changes in fluvial CO₂ fluxes and that the time of
93 day greatly influences measured CO₂ fluxes across European streams.

94

95 Introduction

96 Inland waters are important sources of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) partially offsetting the
97 terrestrial carbon sink^{1,2}. Streams and rivers therein represent major CO₂ emitters³. Fluvial CO₂ fluxes
98 are primarily controlled by the gas exchange velocity at the water-air interface (*k*) and the gradient
99 between the water and atmospheric partial pressures of CO₂ (*p*CO₂)⁴. Both parameters are highly variable
100 in space and time^{5,6}, causing uncertainty in the magnitude of regional and global fluvial CO₂ emissions².

101 The high spatiotemporal variability of *k* and water *p*CO₂ can be attributed to a complex interplay of
102 underlying controls. While *k* in streams is mostly driven by water turbulence created by variations in flow
103 and stream morphology⁷, the water *p*CO₂ is influenced by the degree of hydrological connectivity
104 between the stream and the adjacent riparian soils⁸ as well as by in-stream processes (e.g., stream
105 metabolism). The supply of CO₂ from external sources, such as soil water or groundwater, into streams
106 varies with reach and season^{5,9}. Furthermore, seasonal and diel changes in stream *p*CO₂ are attributed to
107 stream metabolism driven by temperature and solar radiation¹⁰⁻¹³. Ecosystem respiration, a source of CO₂
108 in the stream, takes place throughout the whole day, and gross primary production, a sink of CO₂, occurs
109 only during daylight. Temperature and solar radiation also directly influence water *p*CO₂, the former by
110 changing the solubility of the gas and the latter due to photomineralization¹⁴. However, questions remain
111 regarding the magnitude and relative drivers of seasonal and diel fluctuations of CO₂ fluxes in streams.

112 Presently, most fluvial CO₂ emission values are derived from *k* estimates based on water velocity and
113 stream channel slope and on water *p*CO₂ values indirectly calculated from alkalinity, pH, and temperature
114³. This approach fails to capture the high spatiotemporal variability observed for *k* and *p*CO₂ and therefore
115 can provide imprecise estimates of CO₂ fluxes^{15,16}. Direct field observations provide the means to
116 improve estimates and understanding of the drivers behind spatiotemporal variability, and thus the
117 dynamics of CO₂ outgassing from running waters. However, besides some local studies that indirectly
118 infer CO₂ fluxes from *p*CO₂ concentrations and *k*^{11,12,17,18}, no direct measurements exist that compare day-
119 and night-time CO₂ fluxes from streams on a larger spatial scale.

120 The aim of this study was to assess the magnitude and drivers of stream CO₂ flux variations between day
121 and night across European streams. We hypothesized that CO₂ fluxes would differ between day and night
122 due to diel variations in terrestrial inorganic carbon inputs, *in situ* metabolism, and temperature. As higher
123 temperatures and solar radiation may drive differences in *p*CO₂, we expected a higher difference between
124 day- and night-time fluxes with warmer temperatures and at lower latitudes. Hence, we measured day and
125 night-time fluxes of CO₂ at four different periods throughout one year from 34 streams (Strahler stream

126 orders from 1 to 6) in 11 countries across Europe following a standardized procedure. CO₂ fluxes were
127 measured starting at midday (11am Greenwich Mean Time (GMT)) and midnight (11pm GMT) with
128 drifting flux chambers equipped with CO₂ sensors as described in Bastviken et al. (2015)¹⁹. In the
129 majority of the European streams, we found increased CO₂ fluxes at the water-air interface in the night
130 compared to the day with a median increase of 0.5 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹. Most of the observed CO₂ flux
131 variability was explained by changes in pCO₂ from day to night with more pronounced changes at lower
132 latitudes.

133 **Results and Discussion**

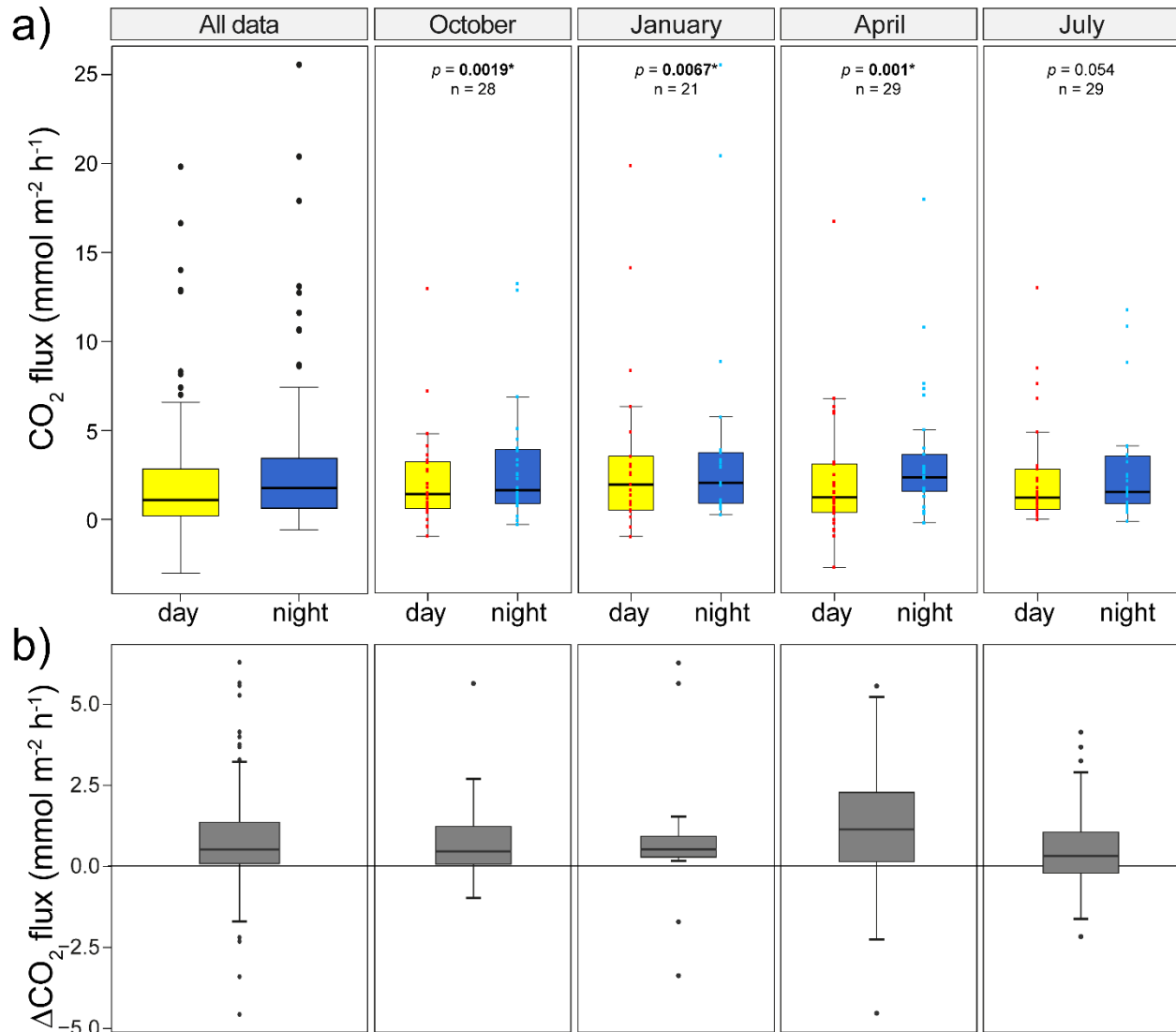
134 **Magnitude of CO₂ flux variation from day to night**

135 Midday CO₂ fluxes at the water-air interface ranged from -2.7 (uptake) to 19.9 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹ (emission)
136 (1.4 [0.5, 3.1]; median [interquartile range (IQR)]; n = 107) and midnight fluxes ranged from -0.3 to 25.6
137 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹ (2.1 [0.9, 3.7]; n = 107) (Fig. 1a). Our measured fluxes are comparable to other studies
138 conducted in temperate and boreal streams that used chambers^{20,21} or empirical models^{12,22,23}, although
139 they were in the lower range of the numbers modelled in a study in the USA²³ (Fig. S3). The lower
140 numbers might be due to the lack of tributary inflows, large woody debris and strong hydraulic jumps in
141 the selected stream sections (Supplementary Hand Out protocol).

142 To assess stream CO₂ flux variations between day and night, we computed the difference of night- minus
143 day-time fluxes for each stream and sampling period, where positive numbers indicate an increase from
144 day to night and vice versa (Fig. 1b). Differences in CO₂ fluxes amounted to 0.5 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹ [0.1, 1.4] (n
145 = 107) across all sites and sampling periods, which is equivalent to a relative increase of 39% [4%, 100%]
146 (n = 101; n reduced due to exclusion of relative comparisons to zero flux at day-time) (Fig. 2). Altogether,
147 these results point towards a high relevance of night-time CO₂ fluxes as reported earlier for single pre-
148 alpine streams¹², stream networks^{13,17} or rivers¹⁸. A rough annual extrapolation of fluxes from our study
149 sites (Supplementary Methods) shows that the inclusion of night-time fluxes increases annual estimates of
150 site-specific stream CO₂ emissions by 16% [6%; 25%] (Table S4). Hence, our measurements and the
151 simplified extrapolation of our data emphasize the need to collect and integrate night-time CO₂ flux data
152 into sampling protocols as well as regional upscaling efforts.

153 Looking into the individual comparisons, we found 83 increases in median CO₂ fluxes from day to night
154 with seven comparisons where the stream even switched from a sink to a source of CO₂ to the atmosphere
155 (Table S3). However, we also found four comparisons where median CO₂ fluxes at day and night were
156 the same and 20 decreases in the night (Table S3). These results and also other studies^{13,24,25} suggest that
157 the direction and strength of diel pCO₂ pattern can be largely variable across space and time.

158



159

160 **Figure 1.** Day-to-night changes of CO₂ fluxes at the water-air interface of the sampled European streams. Stream
 161 CO₂ fluxes (in mmol CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) at day- (yellow) and night-time (blue) (a) and the calculated changes from night
 162 minus day (ΔCO₂ flux) (b) for all data and separately for each sampling period. In the sampling periods comparisons
 163 in (a), CO₂ fluxes for individual stream sites are indicated by red (day) and light blue (night) dots. The boxplots
 164 visualize the median of all stream sites (line), the first and third quartiles (hinges), the 1.5 * inter-quartile ranges
 165 (whiskers), and the outliers outside the range of 1.5 * inter-quartile ranges (black dots). The differences in the CO₂
 166 fluxes in mmol CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹ from day to night are for October: 0.5 [0.1, 1.2]; January: 0.5 [0.3, 0.9]; April: 1.1 [0.1,
 167 2.3]; July: 0.3 [-0.2, 1.1] (median [IQR]). On top of (a) are p values retrieved from paired comparisons of median
 168 CO₂ fluxes tested by Wilcoxon signed rank tests and the sample size (n). Significant p values with p < 0.05 are in
 169 bold with an asterisk.

170

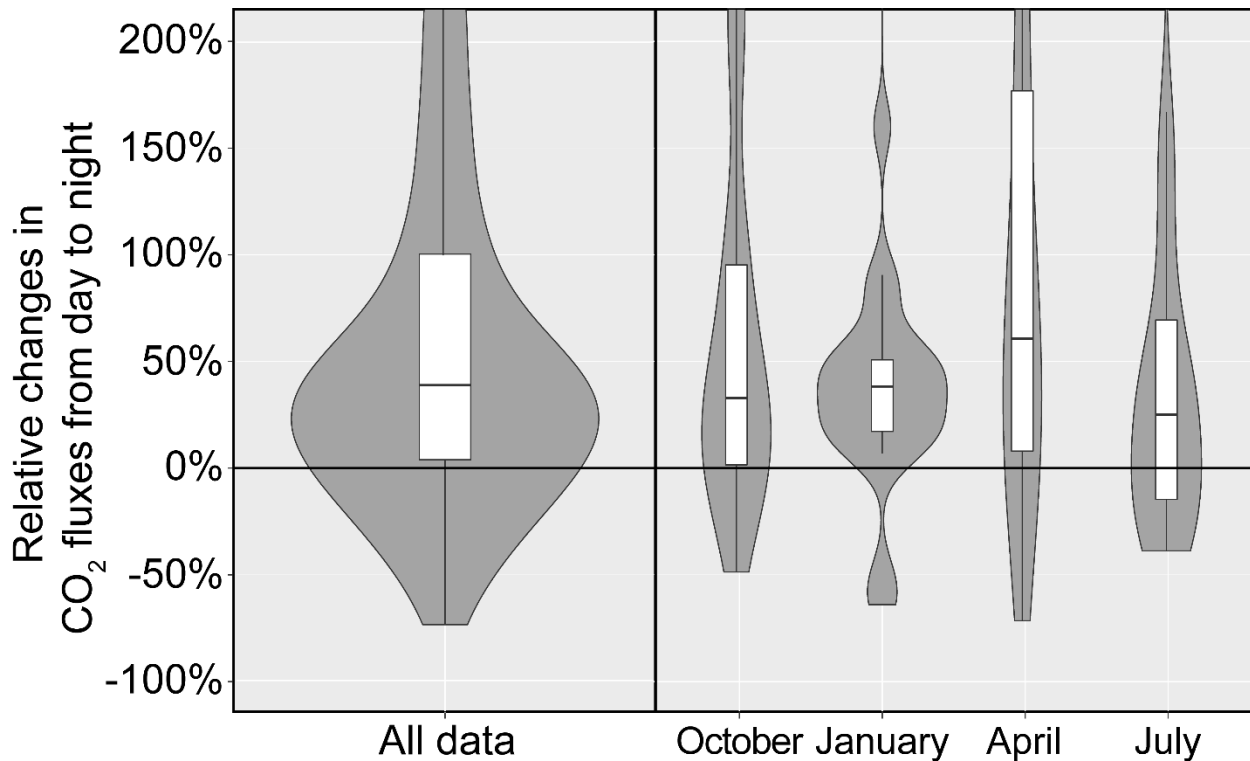
171 **Diel CO₂ flux differences vary as a function of latitude and water temperature**

172 The diel differences in CO₂ fluxes were significantly negatively related to latitude (Table 1A), with
 173 substantial diel variation more likely at lower latitudes. Likewise, the interaction with latitude and water
 174 temperature was significant (Table 1A), which might be explained by higher temperatures at lower

175 latitudes during the sampling periods and higher solar radiation boosting in-stream primary production²⁶.
176 This dataset is derived from only 34 streams distributed across different climate zones in Europe.
177 However, to our knowledge, it is currently the largest study of its kind, using flux chambers to measure
178 CO₂ fluxes, and compare those fluxes at day- and night-time on such a spatial scale.

179 We found no significant differences in the magnitude of diel differences in CO₂ fluxes related to water
180 temperature (Table 1A) using a linear mixed-effect model (LME). However, comparing the CO₂ fluxes at
181 midday to midnight at the different sampling periods, we detected significant diel changes in CO₂ fluxes
182 in October, January, and April (Fig. 1a). Contrary to our expectation that higher differences can be
183 expected at higher temperatures, we did not detect significant changes from day to night in July (Fig. 1a),
184 during which period the lowest changes in absolute numbers were recorded (0.3 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹; Fig. 1b).
185 The highest differences of CO₂ fluxes from day to night were measured during April (1.1 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹),
186 followed by January (0.5 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹) and October (0.5 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹). Lower day-night changes in July
187 could be explained by increased riparian shading reducing photosynthesis^{27,28}. For example, reduced in-
188 stream photosynthesis in summer compared to spring has been shown for a subalpine stream network²⁸ or
189 a temperate forested headwater stream²⁷. However, comparing the canopy cover of the streams and the
190 differences in CO₂ fluxes from day to night (Fig. S4h) revealed no clear pattern, whilst concurrent
191 decreases from midday to midnight in oxygen and pH in July indicate higher ecosystem respiration, thus
192 rejecting shade as a limiting factor (Fig. 3, Fig. S7c, f). A probable alternate explanation is that CO₂
193 production via photomineralization during the day counteracted a decrease via CO₂ fixation by
194 photosynthesis²⁹ and diminished diel *p*CO₂ and ultimately CO₂ flux changes. This highlights the complex
195 interplay between different light-dependent processes in streams influencing *p*CO₂ concentrations on a
196 diel scale.

197 The importance of year-round measurement is highlighted by the January data set containing the second
198 highest diel CO₂ flux changes. European ice-free streams may be perceived “dormant” during these
199 periods and representative CO₂ flux estimates are thus often missing³. Our January data showed a
200 magnitude of flux comparable to the rest of the year across the European streams as well as a high diel
201 variability in CO₂ fluxes (Fig. 1). This may be attributed in part to the latitudinal coverage of our study as
202 we included streams from the boreal to the Mediterranean. For example, the water temperatures of the
203 Spanish streams were still relatively high in winter with around 2.8 - 9.5°C during the day whereas
204 Swedish streams showed these temperatures in October and April. A study in the coterminous US looking
205 into stream *p*CO₂ variability also reports varying strengths of diel *p*CO₂ variability, dependent on the
206 investigated stream and time²⁴. Hence, diel *p*CO₂ and CO₂ flux variability can be large in streams of the
207 northern hemisphere, stressing the need to unravel the site-specific drivers of and mechanisms behind
208 these diel changes.



209

210 **Figure 2.** Relative changes in CO₂ fluxes from day to night (expressed as a %-change of the day-time values) for all
 211 data together and for each sampling period. A positive value indicates an increase in CO₂ fluxes during the night and
 212 vice versa. Outliers (> 1.5 * IQR) were excluded for illustration purposes as the large relative variation in these
 213 fluxes was due to minor absolute variation in fluxes close to zero. The median relative changes were positive
 214 throughout all sampling periods, ranging from 32% [0.6%, 95%] in October, 38% [16%, 50%] in January, 60% [7%,
 215 177%] in April, to 24% [-16%, 69%] in July (median [IQR]; n = 26, 21, 28, and 26, respectively).

216 **Diel CO₂ flux variability driven by changes in water pCO₂**

217 To understand the mechanisms behind the observed changes in CO₂ fluxes from day to night, we first
 218 selected the two primary controls of CO₂ fluxes at the water-air interface, i.e., the gas exchange velocity
 219 and water pCO₂ and explored the influence of these parameters on absolute CO₂ flux changes using an
 220 LME. The diel CO₂ flux variability in European streams could be mostly attributed to changes in water
 221 pCO₂ (Table 1B), whereas changes in the gas exchange velocity *k* appeared less important. In fact, we did
 222 not measure significant variations in *k* from day to night in our streams (Fig. 3; Supplementary Fig. S5h).

223 In a second step, we tested the influence of biogeochemical parameters that vary on a diel scale on water
 224 pCO₂ day-to-night differences (Table 1C). This LME identified a link between the day-to-night changes
 225 in water pCO₂ and water dissolved O₂, with pCO₂ generally increasing and O₂ decreasing from day to
 226 night (Fig. S5b, c). This potentially reflects a diel cycle of CO₂ controlled by aquatic primary production
 227 and respiration (in-stream metabolism). Hence, even though *in situ* metabolism may play a minor role on
 228 determining the baseline pCO₂ and flux in smaller streams (mostly controlled by terrestrial inputs²³), our
 229 results suggest that metabolism can be an important driver of the diel fluctuations in CO₂ fluxes. Indeed,
 230 increased water pCO₂ during the night has been attributed to a decrease in CO₂ fixation by primary
 231 producers^{13,18}, although a recent study suggests that the adjacent groundwater can also show measurable
 232 but less pronounced diel pCO₂ variations³⁰. Previous research suggests that *in situ* mineralization of CO₂
 233 should play a larger role in CO₂ dynamics in larger streams because they are less influenced by external

234 CO₂ sources²³. Nevertheless, we did not find any trend in CO₂ flux day-to-night differences with stream
235 width or discharge as a proxy for size (Fig. S4c, f) or with stream order (Fig. S6) although other studies
236 suggest change over a size gradient^{23,31}. Furthermore, the LME testing hydromorphological and
237 catchment variables on *p*CO₂ day-to-night differences (Table 1D) did not reveal significant relationships
238 with either of these drivers. This could either be due to the fact that we missed the best proxy that
239 determines day-to-night differences in *p*CO₂ in European streams or that there are no common drivers
240 among the investigated streams. A large diel variability of CO₂ patterns within one Swedish stream³² or
241 among US headwater streams²⁴ have been described, which complicates the identification of general
242 drivers. Hence, further research is needed to decipher the diel variability of the sources and dynamics of
243 *p*CO₂ in streams and to understand the environmental, hydromorphological, and catchment drivers before
244 their importance on a regional or global scale can be assessed.

245 In-stream metabolism with photosynthetic CO₂ fixation diminishing *p*CO₂ during the day may explain the
246 increase in CO₂ fluxes from day to night, but cannot explain why in some instances we measured a lower
247 CO₂ flux at night. Potential explanations for a lower night flux might include: i) higher atmospheric CO₂
248 concentrations due to the absence of terrestrial CO₂ fixation during night and therefore a lower water-
249 atmosphere *p*CO₂ gradient, ii) photomineralization of organic matter to CO₂ counteracting the CO₂
250 fixation by primary producers during day-time, and iii) lower turbulence due to a decrease in stream
251 discharge in the night. We found significant increases in atmospheric CO₂ close to the investigated
252 streams at night. However, this was usually accompanied by concomitant increases in water *p*CO₂ and
253 therefore did not translate into smaller CO₂ gradients between the water-air interface (Fig. 3;
254 Supplementary Fig. S4b, e, i). A production of CO₂ due to photomineralization of dissolved organic
255 carbon (DOC) could play a role in diel CO₂ dynamics in streams with high amounts of colored terrestrial
256 organic matter³³. In the highly-colored streams, diel CO₂ patterns can additionally be influenced by DOC
257 shading diminishing benthic primary production³⁴. In October, we measured DOC concentrations in a
258 subset of the investigated streams for another study³⁵ where an agricultural stream in Sweden and
259 peatland-dominated streams in Great Britain had high DOC concentrations (>10 mg L⁻¹) whereas the
260 median DOC was much lower with 2.6 mg L⁻¹³⁵. Due to the limited data, we could not test the effect of
261 DOC on *p*CO₂ changes and we can neither confirm nor exclude that photomineralization might play a role
262 for diel *p*CO₂ and consequently CO₂ flux variability in the studied streams. We did find, nonetheless, that
263 the majority of the streams where CO₂ fluxes were lower during the night also had a lower gas transfer
264 velocity (*k*₆₀₀), likely due to a slight decrease in stream discharge and therefore turbulence. Thus, while
265 there was a general tendency of increased *p*CO₂ from day to night (only four out of 20 decreases in CO₂
266 fluxes from day to night showed a concomitant decrease in water *p*CO₂), individual streams at single time
267 points seemed to experience diel fluctuations in discharge as described elsewhere³⁶. This can
268 simultaneously reduce the gas exchange velocity of the stream and therefore cause lower night-time CO₂
269 fluxes. In this study we only measured stream discharge during the day, and therefore the importance of
270 this mechanism remains to be confirmed.

271

272 **Table 1.** Results of the linear mixed-effect models (LME). The effects of latitude and water temperature during the
 273 day (A) and the effect of day-to-night differences of $p\text{CO}_2$ and the gas transfer velocity (Δ = night minus day values)
 274 (B) on the day-to-night difference of CO_2 fluxes were tested. Furthermore, the effect of day-to-night differences of
 275 physical and biogeochemical parameters (C) and the effect of catchment and hydromorphological related parameters
 276 (D) on the day-to-night differences of $p\text{CO}_2$ were evaluated. Stream ID was included as a random effect on the
 277 intercept. Significances of fixed effects were assessed with likelihood ratio tests with degrees of freedom = 1. The
 278 slope direction (sign) of the effect is indicated with – or + when significant. Significant p values <0.05 are in bold.

Response variable	Fixed effect	χ^2 (1)	p	sign
A) Testing spatial and temporal hypotheses				
CO_2 flux difference from day to night	latitude	7.4207	0.006	-
	water temperature (day)	0.0168	0.897	
	water temperature (day) * latitude	4.9594	0.026	+
B) Testing physical and biogeochemical drivers of CO_2 flux changes				
CO_2 flux difference from day to night	Δ water $p\text{CO}_2$	4.9497	0.026	+
	Δ gas transfer velocity k	0.5613	0.454	
C) Testing biogeochemical drivers of $p\text{CO}_2$ changes				
$p\text{CO}_2$ difference from day to night	Δ water O_2 concentration	7.9879	0.005	-
	Δ pH	0.0345	0.853	
	Δ conductivity	0.0293	0.864	
	Δ Tw-Ta* (proxy for heat flux)	1.6720	0.196	
	Δ water temperature	0.8731	0.350	
D) Testing catchment and hydromorphological drivers of $p\text{CO}_2$ changes				
$p\text{CO}_2$ difference from day to night	day length	1.7244	0.189	
	stream wetted width	0.3748	0.540	
	discharge	3.4458	0.063	
	% forest	0.0950	0.758	
	catchment area	2.3656	0.124	

279 * Heat flux calculated as water temperature (Tw) minus air temperature (Ta).

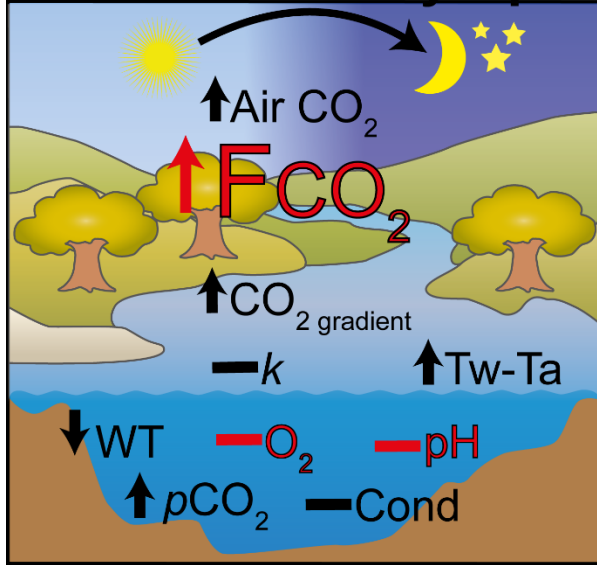
280 A) Marginal $R^2 = 0.12$, conditional $R^2 = 0.18$, sample size = 107.

281 B) Marginal $R^2 = 0.08$, conditional $R^2 = 0.10$, sample size = 77.

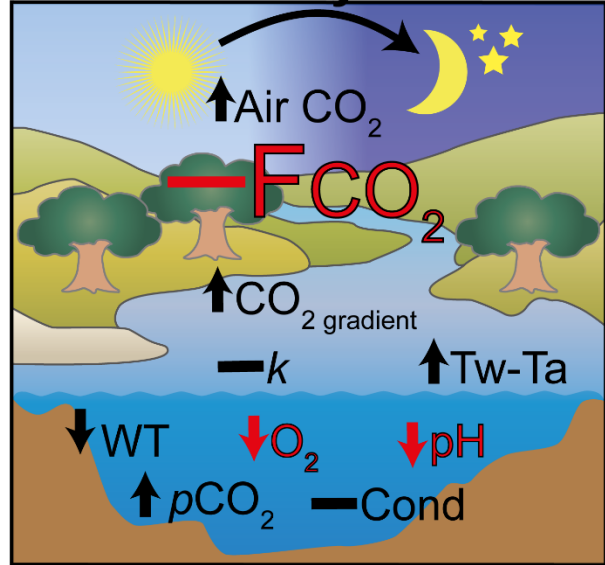
282 C) Marginal $R^2 = 0.13$, conditional $R^2 = 0.33$, sample size = 78.

283 D) Marginal $R^2 = 0.11$, conditional $R^2 = 0.13$, sample size = 68.

October/January/April



July



284

285 **Figure 3.** Diel changes in CO₂ fluxes (F_{CO₂}) and other physical and chemical parameters for October/January/April
286 and July, respectively. The physical and chemical parameters comprise atmospheric CO₂ (Air CO₂), the differences
287 of CO₂ concentrations in the water minus the air (CO₂ gradient), the water-air gas transfer velocity (*k*), the differences
288 of temperatures in the water minus the air (Tw-Ta), the water temperature (WT), the oxygen concentration in the
289 water (O₂), pH in the water, the partial pressure of CO₂ in the water (*p*CO₂), and conductivity (Cond). The arrows
290 indicate significant increases (↑) or significant decreases (↓) from day to night and the line indicates no significant
291 change (—) tested by a Wilcoxon signed rank test (see Supplementary Fig. S5 for more information). The
292 differences between the sampling periods October/January/April (left) and July (right) detected in this European
293 study are highlighted in red.

294

295 **Maximum CO₂ flux differences might be even higher - limitations of the study design**

296 For organizational reasons, the sampling scheme of this collaborative study was standardized to fixed
297 times of measurements for the day and the night. All teams across Europe started their measurements at
298 11:00 (midday) and 23:00 GMT (midnight) during each sampling period, which has consequences for the
299 magnitude of the observed diel variability of the CO₂ fluxes. Largest diel differences in stream *p*CO₂
300 concentrations have generally been detected at the end of the day compared to the end of the night^{12,18,37}.
301 In an agricultural Swedish stream, diel maximum and minimum CO₂ concentrations were reached at
302 04:00 and 16:00 (GMT), respectively, during spring and early summer periods (late April to early July)
303 where diel dynamics were most pronounced²⁵. In these scenarios, sampling midday and midnight, as
304 conducted in this study, would be close to those maxima and minima as they can be reached already
305 earlier during the day (see Fig. S7 in May). However, the maxima and minima of diel CO₂ dynamics in
306 streams can vary largely (see Fig. S7 in October, April, July). In another example of German streams³⁷,
307 the times of minima and maxima differ between streams and times, and the fixed time points chosen in
308 this study would miss the maximum differences that can be observed (see Fig. S8 in August). Hence, our
309 estimates could be conservative as we compared fixed time points at midday and midnight. In general,
310 CO₂ flux measurements in streams are highly sensitive towards the time of the day because diel minimum
311 and maximum of *p*CO₂ can vary largely from month to month but also from day to day. As we found that
312 the diel variability of *p*CO₂ was the major driver of diel CO₂ fluxes, we recommend future studies that

313 plan to measure CO₂ fluxes directly with the chamber method, to additionally monitor the diel variability
314 of pCO₂ with loggers at a high resolution. This approach will provide the opportunity to estimate if the
315 measurements are done during peak times or not.

316 While our results provide a first insight into the drivers of day-night differences in CO₂ fluxes, the high
317 uncertainty in the models as well as the sometimes opposing patterns - increases and decreases from day
318 to night in different streams and sampling periods - point towards different drivers varying on a temporal
319 and spatial scale. We recommend that future study designs incorporate high-frequency CO₂ data together
320 with biogeochemical variables from the stream (e.g., O₂) and the atmosphere (e.g., CO₂ or temperature)³⁸.
321 Additionally, we recommend including radioactive or stable carbon isotope signatures to track potential
322 sources of CO₂ and their changes in streams^{39,40} to better assess terrestrial-aquatic linkages. Linking
323 temporal patterns of fluvial CO₂ fluxes with its drivers across large spatial scales is a path towards a more
324 accurate understanding of their role in regional and global carbon cycles. Our results demonstrate that, in
325 many streams across Europe, night-time CO₂ fluxes exceed day-time, resulting in a potential
326 underestimation of global CO₂ emissions from inland waters if not considered. It is thus critical to
327 account for the diel variability of fluvial CO₂ fluxes for accurate daily and annual estimates of CO₂
328 emissions from inland waters.

329

330 **Methods**

331 **Sampling scheme**

332 The project included 16 teams distributed across 11 European countries. Every team sampled one to three
333 streams every three months (October 2016/January 2017/April 2017/July 2017) within a time frame of
334 two weeks throughout a whole year. These sampling periods roughly cover the seasons
335 autumn/winter/spring/summer although, due to the large latitudinal coverage of the sampling sites, the
336 seasons and their characteristics vary largely. In total, 34 stream sites (Fig. S1) were visited each
337 sampling period during the specified two weeks' time frame except for 11 streams in January that were
338 frozen during the sampling weeks (Table S3).

339 CO₂ fluxes were measured once every sampling period with drifting flux chambers equipped with CO₂
340 sensors. This method has proven to be a reliable and least biased direct measurement of CO₂ fluxes at the
341 water-air interface in streams^{19,41}. CO₂ concentrations in the chamber headspace were logged every 30
342 seconds over a period of 5 to 10 minutes during each run, and CO₂ fluxes were calculated based on the
343 rate of change over time in pCO₂ in the chamber headspace. At each stream, we measured CO₂ fluxes
344 with the flux chamber (five times), pCO₂ concentration in the atmosphere and water with the CO₂ sensors
345 in the flux chamber (details described in Supplementary Methods), pH, temperature, conductivity, and
346 oxygen in the water with a multiprobe (Table S2). These measurements were started at 11:00 and 23:00
347 (GMT) and lasted approximately two hours and are referred to as midday and midnight throughout this
348 article. Stream width, depth, canopy cover, and discharge were determined during the day (see
349 Supplementary Hand Out protocol for details). In addition, the following information were collected for
350 each stream once during the study: stream order, climate zone, catchment area until the endpoint of the
351 investigated stream site and the percentage of coverage of different land use classes in this catchment
352 area, and predominant geology (Table S1).

353 **Calculations of CO₂ fluxes and gas transfer velocity**

354 Flux rates were obtained from the linear slopes of the $p\text{CO}_2$ in the chamber headspace over time and a
 355 flux was accepted if the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the slope was at least 0.65⁴². An exception
 356 was made in cases where the slope was close to zero and the $p\text{CO}_2$ concentrations in the atmosphere and
 357 water (measured at the same time) were at equilibrium. These fluxes were set to zero. Final flux rates F
 358 ($\text{mmol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) were calculated according to Eq. (1)⁴³:

$$359 \quad F = S * 10^{-3} \frac{PV}{RTA} * 60 * 60, \quad (1)$$

360 where S is the slope (ppm s^{-1}), P is the $p\text{CO}_2$ concentration in the atmosphere (atm), V is the volume (mL)
 361 of the drifting chamber, R is the gas constant ($82.0562 \text{ mL atm K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$), T is the chamber air
 362 temperature (K), A is the bottom area of the chamber (m^2), and the last term is the conversion from
 363 seconds to hours. In this study, we followed the sign convention whereby positive values indicate a CO_2
 364 flux from the stream to the atmosphere (source) and negative values indicate a flux from the atmosphere
 365 to the stream (sink). The magnitudes of variations between day- and night-time measurements are
 366 additionally stated as percent increases, which were computed by dividing the difference between the
 367 values at night minus day by the value at day and expressing the result as a percent change from day to
 368 night.

369 We used F (Eq. 1) to calculate the gas transfer velocity (k in cm h^{-1}) by inverting the equation for Fick's
 370 law of gas diffusion, according to Eq. (2):

$$371 \quad k = \frac{F}{kH(\text{CO}_{2\text{water}} - \text{CO}_{2\text{air}})} * 100, \quad (2)$$

372 where kH is Henry's constant (in $\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{ atm}^{-1}$) adjusted for temperature⁴⁴.

373

374 For comparison of transfer velocities between sites and sampling periods and with the literature, k (Eq. 2)
 375 was standardized to k_{600} (Eq. 3):

$$376 \quad k_{600} = k \left(\frac{600}{Sc} \right)^{-0.5}, \quad (3)$$

377 where k is the transfer velocity at *in situ* temperature (T), Sc is the Schmidt number for *in situ* temperature
 378 T , the Schmidt number for 20°C in freshwater is 600, and representing a hydrodynamic rough water
 379 surface typical in streams the exponent of -0.5 was chosen⁴⁵.

380 Statistical analyses

381 All statistical analyses were performed with median values of three to five floating chamber runs per day
 382 and night, respectively, using the statistical programming language R⁴⁶ (version 3.5.1). Samplings that
 383 generated less than three values for either day or night due to an R^2 of the slope < 0.65 ⁴² were excluded
 384 from further analysis reducing the number from 136 to 107 day-night comparisons. For our statistical
 385 tests, the alpha level was set to $\alpha = 0.05$. Significant differences between day- and night-time
 386 measurements for each sampling period across all streams were tested with Wilcoxon signed rank tests⁴⁷
 387 where median day- and night-time values for each stream site were paired (Fig. 1a). The same tests were
 388 conducted for the other biogeochemical variables measured at midday and midnight (see Fig. 3; Fig. S5).

389 With a first linear mixed-effect model (LME) we tested the latitudinal and water temperature effect on
 390 CO_2 flux differences from day to night. A second LME was built to evaluate the two major drivers of CO_2
 391 flux differences from day to night: $p\text{CO}_2$ and gas exchange velocity (k). A third LME was subsequently

392 used to determine the biochemical factors potentially influencing the differences of night- minus day-time
393 $p\text{CO}_2$, which was identified as the only significant driver in the second LME. Finally, a fourth LMW was
394 built to evaluate the effect of catchment and hydromorphological parameters on the day-to-night
395 differences of $p\text{CO}_2$. For these tests, we used the “lmer” function of the R-package “lme4”⁴⁸ with
396 Maximum Likelihood estimation. Fixed effects for the LME with biogeochemical parameters for $p\text{CO}_2$
397 differences from day to night included absolute differences from day to night of oxygen concentration in
398 the water, pH, conductivity, temperature gradient of atmosphere and water, and water temperature. Fixed
399 effects for the LME with catchment and hydromorphological parameters included day length (i.e., sun
400 hours from sunrise to sunset), stream wetted width, discharge, % forest of the catchment, and catchment
401 area. These variables are mostly remotely available for streams. For the LMEs we included stream ID as a
402 random effect allowing different intercepts for each stream to account for pseudoreplication (one data
403 point per sampling period per stream) and z-scaled all fixed effects with the “scale” function before
404 running the models. Statistical significances of fixed effects were assessed with likelihood ratio tests
405 using the function “drop1”⁴⁹. The respective LMEs were followed by a model validation, checking the
406 residuals for normal distribution and homogeneity of variances⁵⁰. A separation of the dataset to check if
407 drivers between increases from day to night and decreases from day to night differ, did not reveal
408 acceptable models in terms of model validation (i.e., residuals were not normally distributed). Although
409 our dataset provided a large spatial coverage on day-night differences in CO_2 fluxes in European streams,
410 it did not have the statistical power to test for significant drivers separately for increases and decreases.

411

412

413 **Data Availability**

414 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in figshare at
415 <http://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12717188>.

416 **Code Availability**

417 This manuscript includes no code.

418

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564

565 **Author contributions**

566 K.A. and P.B. conceived the study design, coordinated the project and contributed equally to this work;
567 all authors collected and analyzed the field data and K.A. and P.B. gathered and performed the quality
568 check of all data; K.A., P.B. and J.P.C.-R. co-wrote the paper with the help of M.K., G.H.N., and N.C. All
569 authors commented on the manuscript.

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571 **Competing interest statement**

572 The authors declare no competing interests.

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Supplementary Methods and Results

Carbon dioxide fluxes increase from day to night across European streams

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Supplementary Tables

The supplementary contains a total of 4 additional tables. Supplementary Table 1 shows the descriptive parameters for each sampling site and Supplementary Table 2 lists the instruments for measuring temperature, conductivity, pH, oxygen, and discharge. Supplementary Table 3 shows median CO₂ fluxes for day and night together with the interquartile ranges for all stream sites and sampling periods and Supplementary Table 4 displays upscaled annual CO₂ fluxes from 14 European streams.

Supplementary Figures

The supplementary contains a total of 8 additional figures. Supplementary Figure 1 shows a map of the sampling sites in Europe with the labels given to each team participating in the EuroRun project and Supplementary Figure 2 gives impressions from the workshop in Sweden. Supplementary Figure 3 shows our measured CO₂ fluxes in comparison to the ones modelled in Hotchkiss et al. (2015). Supplementary Figure 4 displays the absolute changes of CO₂ fluxes from day to night related to different catchment and hydromorphological variables and Supplementary Figure 5 illustrates the changes of all measured and calculated biogeochemical parameters from day and night similar to Figure 1a in the manuscript. Supplementary Figure 6 shows the absolute changes of CO₂ fluxes from day to night separated by Strahler stream order and sampling period. Supplementary Figure 7 shows the diel CO₂ dynamics in the water of a Swedish agricultural stream from Wallin et al. (2020) and Supplementary Figure 8 diel CO₂ dynamics in the water of four selected streams from Bodmer et al. (2016).

Supplementary Methods

1) Organizational framework and study sites

This study was organized in the framework of the collaborative EuroRun project (described in Bodmer et al. (2019)¹), uniting 46 mostly early career researchers in 16 teams distributed across 11 European countries. A flux chamber and CO₂ sensor were provided to each team, the measurement procedure and the data analysis were demonstrated to one lead representative from each team during a workshop and a detailed written protocol was provided to each team describing each step of the sampling procedure (Supplementary Hand out protocol, Supplementary Fig. S2).

In total, 34 stream sites (Fig. S1) were visited every three months during a specified two weeks' time frame except for 11 streams in January that were frozen during the sampling weeks (Table S3). Each team selected one to three sites with different dominant land uses (i.e., forest and/or agriculture) and a wide range of hydrological and watershed characteristics (Table S1). The stream order of the selected streams ranged between 1 up to 6, the wetted stream width between 1.0 to 22.3 m, mean depth between 0.11 to 1.99 m, and discharge from 0.01 to 6.32 m³ s⁻¹. More details about the study sites, morphological, and biogeochemical parameters can be found in Table S1 and a table uploaded in figshare at <http://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12717188>.



Figure S1. Map of EuroRun sampling sites. Each dot represents one sampling site and the label indicates the team acronyms used for identifying study sites.

Table S1. Stream sampling sites included in this study and their descriptive parameters for the stream, catchment, and geology (na means not available).

Stream ID	Strahler stream order	Catchment area until endpoint of investigated stream reach (km ²)	Percentage of different land use within the catchment until endpoint of investigated stream reach				Predominant geology of the area	GPS coordinates (after WGS84)	Altitude (m above sea level)
			forest	agriculture	urban	others			
AUT1_1	3	11.1	83	17	0	0	Sedimentary rocks	47°52'8.71"N / 15°0'2.63"E	648
AUT1_2	4	50.4	84	3	0	14	Sedimentary rocks	47°48'2.78"N / 14°57'2.13"E	542
AUT2_1	1	3.4	33	6	1	60	Sedimentary rocks	47°22'57.2"N / 11°44'34.4"E	539
AUT2_2	4	40.5	26	6	0	68	Metamorphic rocks	46°56'30.7"N / 12°03'21.2"E	1560
AUT2_3	1	0.7	5	60	16	19	Metamorphic rocks	47°15'34.3"N / 11°17'15.7"E	590
BGR1_1	5	1084.6	66	23	3	8	Metamorphic rocks	42°33'29.41"N / 23°25'22.98"E	638
BGR1_2	5	397.5	55	42	3	0	Igneous rocks	42°24'56.4"N / 23°31'44.8"E	838
CZE1_1	3	161.4	33	65	2	0	Sedimentary rocks	49°39'31,67"N 17°24'35,67"E	300
CZE1_2	4	447.8	32	64	4	0	Sediments	49°38'30,52"N 17°14'40,33"E	235
DEU1_1	4	643.0	60	29	3	8	Sediments	53°00'11.4"N / 12°54'12.1"E	39
DEU1_2	2	na	na	na	na	na	Sediments	53°06'05.2"N / 13°06'07.9"E	56
DEU2_1	3	54.8	95	0	5	0	Sedimentary rocks	49°14'14.96"N / 7°54'8.20"E	217
DEU2_2	4	145.6	95	0	5	0	Sedimentary rocks	49°21'54.972"N / 8°2'7.98"E	174
ESP1_1	3	24.1	35	45	20	0	Sedimentary rocks	42°04'50.6"N / 2°18'31.4"E	604
ESP1_2	5	172.3	80	5	15	0	Sedimentary rocks	42°15'29.9"N / 2°09'52.2"E	875
ESP1_3	4	59.8	50	30	20	0	Sedimentary rocks	42°10'38.0"N / 2°44'14.5"E	136
ESP2_1	4	71.4	85	5	10	0	Sedimentary rocks	42°19'09.7"N / 2°46'52.6"E	168
ESP2_2	6	189.5	30	40	30	0	Sedimentary rocks	42°13'08.2"N / 2°33'45.8"E	228
ESP2_3	2	32.9	5	85	10	0	Sedimentary rocks	42°05'46.2"N / 2°48'58.4"E	93
FRA1_1	3	222.6	56	43	2	0	Igneous rocks	45°55'46.5"N / 4°32'57.66"E	261
FRA1_2	4	266.4	65	28	2	5	Sedimentary rocks	45°55'6.9"N / 5°23'40.14"E	261
GBR1_1	3	81.0	23	1	0	77	Metamorphic rocks	58°25'01.9"N / 3°52'47.9"W	74
GBR1_2	3	50.9	22	0	0	78	Metamorphic rocks	58°25'31.6"N / 3°56'13.7"W	104
GBR2_1	2	8.4	100	0	0	0	Sedimentary rocks	50°48'07.3"N / 1°39'50.2"W	54
GBR2_2	4	382.2	0	100	0	0	Sedimentary rocks	50°40'44.9"N / 2°10'52.0"W	9
IRL1_1	3	4.6	32	0	0	68	Metamorphic rocks	53°58' 55.6"N / 9°34' 05.3"W	25
IRL1_2	4	30.4	17	4	0	79	Metamorphic rocks	53°59'18.6"N / 9°34'29.0"W	33
ITA1_1	4	118.9	38	49	4	9	Sedimentary rocks	44°43'37.54"N / 7°25'45.14"E	263
ITA1_2	4	157.8	44	0	2	55	Metamorphic rocks	44°48'42.02"N / 7°11'22.70"E	575
PRT1_1	2	62.9	56	42	1	0	Metamorphic rocks	41°37'51.71"N / 8°33'50.97"W	130
PRT1_2	2	15.4	40	58	2	0	Igneous rocks	41°34'6.21"N / 8°36'4.71"W	27
SWE1_1	4	104.2	68	16	1	15	Metamorphic rocks	63°55'12.55"N / 20°11'49.10"E	67
SWE2_1	1	23.3	94	5	1	0	Igneous rocks	60°00'40.9"N / 17°50'56.6"E	13
SWE2_2	3	27.5	31	61	0	8	Metamorphic rocks	59°42'59.0"N / 17°08'43.0"E	19

Table S2. Multiparameter probes and flowmeters used during the samplings by each team.

Team ID	Physical and chemical measurement instrument	Discharge instrument
AUT1	Portable three channel multi meter 3430, WTW GmbH, Germany	OTT MF pro; OTT Hydromet, Germany
AUT2	Portable three channel multi meter 3430, WTW GmbH, Germany	OTT MF pro; OTT Hydromet, Germany
BGR1	Portable handheld meters series 330i, WTW GmbH, Germany	Model 2100, Swoffer instruments Inc, USA
CZE1	EC: DiST 3 EC tester, Hanna Instruments, USA; DO, T: HI 9147 Dissolved oxygen meter, Hanna Instruments, USA	Flo-mate model 2000, Marsh-McBirney Inc., USA
DEU1	AquaTROLL 400, In-situ, USA	OTTO, Germany
DEU2	Portable three channel multi meter 3430 IDS, WTW GmbH, Germany	OTT MF pro, OTT Hydromet, Germany
ESP1	EC, T, pH: Portable hand-held probes multiline 3310, WTW GmbH, Germany; DO: ProODO Handheld, YSI, USA	Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter FlowTracker, SonTek, USA or P670 flowmeter, DOSTMANN electronic, GmbH, Germany
ESP2	EC, T, pH: Portable hand-held probes multiline 3310, WTW GmbH, Germany; DO: ProODO Handheld, YSI, USA	Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter FlowTracker, SonTek, USA or P670 flowmeter, DOSTMANN electronic, GmbH, Germany
FRA1	EC: Hach d40, Hach, USA; pH, DO, T: Od14, Hach, USA	Flo-mate model 2000, Marsh-McBirney Inc., USA
GBR1	YSI 556 MPS - multi probe system (Model: Pro 2030), Environmental (Company), USA	Water level gauge and Manning`s equation ^{2,3}
GBR2	YSI 556 MPS - multi probe system (Model: Pro 2030), Environmental (Company), USA	Geopacks, UK
IRL1	Quanta – Hydrolab, Texas, USA	OTT Sensa Z300, Germany
ITA1	Quanta – Hydrolab, Texas, USA	Hydro-bios Kiel, Mod RHCM Idromar
PRT1	WTW Multi 340i, WTW GmbH, Germany	Geopacks “Flowmeter 1”, UK
SWE1	EC: Konduktometer CG 857 (Schott Geräte GmbH); DO: OxyGuard Handy Delta Portable DO meter; pH: Mettler Toledo 1120	Argonaut Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter, SonTek, USA
SWE2	EC, pH: HI991300, Hanna Instruments, USA; DO, T: YSI ProODO Handheld, YSI, USA	µP-TAD, Höntzsch Instruments, Waiblingen, Germany or bucket when flow too low to use flowmeter

EC: Electrical conductivity; DO: Dissolved oxygen; T: Temperature

2) Measurements of $p\text{CO}_2$ and geological information extraction

The partial pressure of CO_2 ($p\text{CO}_2$) in the water was determined in the majority of the teams through the chamber equilibration method, which measures surface water concentrations after equilibration of $p\text{CO}_2$ in the headspace of the chamber with the surface water⁴. The method is based on the assumption that after the chamber headspace has equilibrated with the water, the measured $p\text{CO}_2$ in the chamber headspace represents the surface water $p\text{CO}_2$. Alternatively, water $p\text{CO}_2$ was measured with an Infrared Gas Analyzer (IRGA) (teams ESP1/2, SWE2), a gas chromatograph (Shimadzu GC-14B equipped with autosampler AOC 5000, FID, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan; team DEU1) or a handheld nondispersive infrared CO_2 sensor (CARBOCAP GM70, Vaisala, Helsinki, Finland) with a sensor probe (CARBOCAP GMP220) enclosed in a semipermeable polytetrafluoroethylene membrane, following the methods established by Johnson et al. (2010)⁵ (team SWE1) and calibrated against reference gas mixtures as described in Klaus et al. (2019)⁶.

The samples for IRGA for the team SWE2 were prepared according to the headspace equilibrium method⁷. With a syringe, 30 mL of water was taken right below the surface followed by adding 30 mL of ambient air to create a headspace. Triplicates were taken at day- and night-time. Equilibrated gas samples were analyzed on a portable infrared gas analyzer (IRGA, EGM-4) within 5 min of sampling. The $p\text{CO}_2$ was calculated according to Weiss (1974)⁸ using the appropriate Henry's constant after correcting for temperature, atmospheric pressure, and the amount of ambient air CO_2 added. The teams ESP1/2 coupled the IRGA to a membrane contactor (MiniModule, Liqui-Cel, USA). The water was circulated via gravity through the contactor at 300 mL min^{-1} , and the equilibrated gas was continuously recirculated into the infrared gas analyzer for instantaneous $p\text{CO}_2$ measurements.

Geological information of the sites were obtained from the EuroGeoSurveys' European Geological Data Infrastructure web (EGDIS (EuroGeoSurveys' European Geological Data Infrastructure)⁹ available at: [http://www.europe-geology.eu/onshore-geology/geological-map/.](http://www.europe-geology.eu/onshore-geology/geological-map/)) using their geographical coordinates. For each site, we retrieved information on (i) surface lithology according to the Infrastructure for Spatial Information in the European Community (INSPIRE)¹⁰, and (ii) predominant petrology according to the International Geological Map of Europe and Adjacent Areas (IGME 5000)¹¹. Based on this information, we then defined the predominant geology of the area for each site by assigning them one of the four main rock types (igneous rocks, metamorphic rocks, sedimentary rocks and sediments).

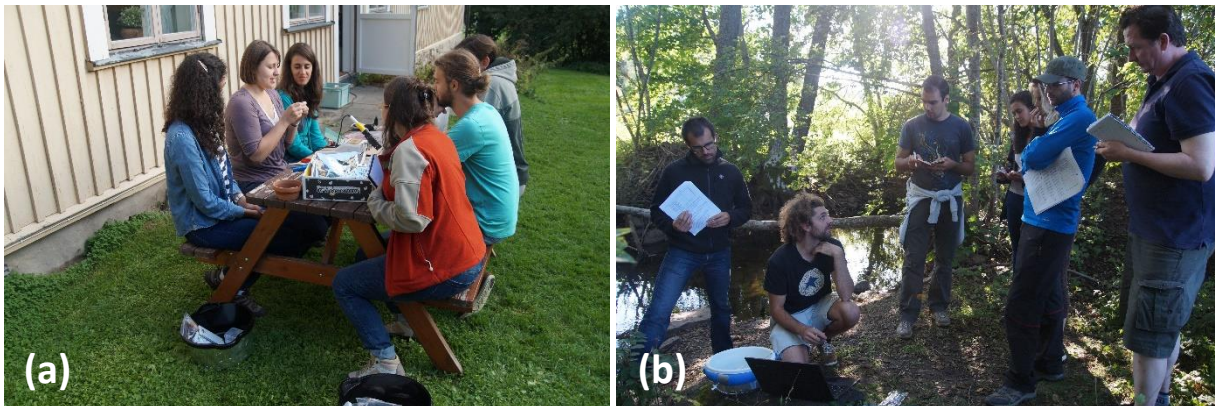


Figure S2. The workshop participants learn how to solder and repair the CO_2 sensor at Erken Laboratory from Uppsala University located at Lake Erken in Norrtälje, Sweden (a) and the measurement procedure at a stream nearby (b) in September 2016.

34 3) Temporal upscaling from hourly to annual areal CO₂ fluxes

35 To evaluate the impact of the differences between day- and night-time CO₂ fluxes in streams on an annual
36 scale, we upscaled our data in two ways. Firstly, the median values for the hourly CO₂ fluxes from day-
37 time in each sampling period were taken and multiplied by 24 hours and integrated over a 3-month period
38 around the sampling. Secondly, the median values for the hourly CO₂ fluxes from day-time were
39 multiplied by the hours of the day from sunrise to sunset and from night-time by the hours from sunset to
40 sunrise, respectively. The times of sunrise and sunset for each day and location were retrieved with the
41 package “suncalc” in R ¹². Finally, the differences in the annual areal CO₂ fluxes considering only day-
42 time fluxes to day- and night-time fluxes were calculated and expressed in % relative to day-time fluxes
43 to compare the extent of missing information when only measuring during day-time. Only stream sites
44 with data for all four seasons were taken into account which limits these calculations to 14 sites (Table
45 S4). This upscaling represents a preliminary evaluation on the underestimation of fluvial CO₂ fluxes when
46 nights are not considered. It is just based on four days throughout one year and one fixed time slot during
47 day-time and during night-time but should serve as a first orientation for future studies.

48

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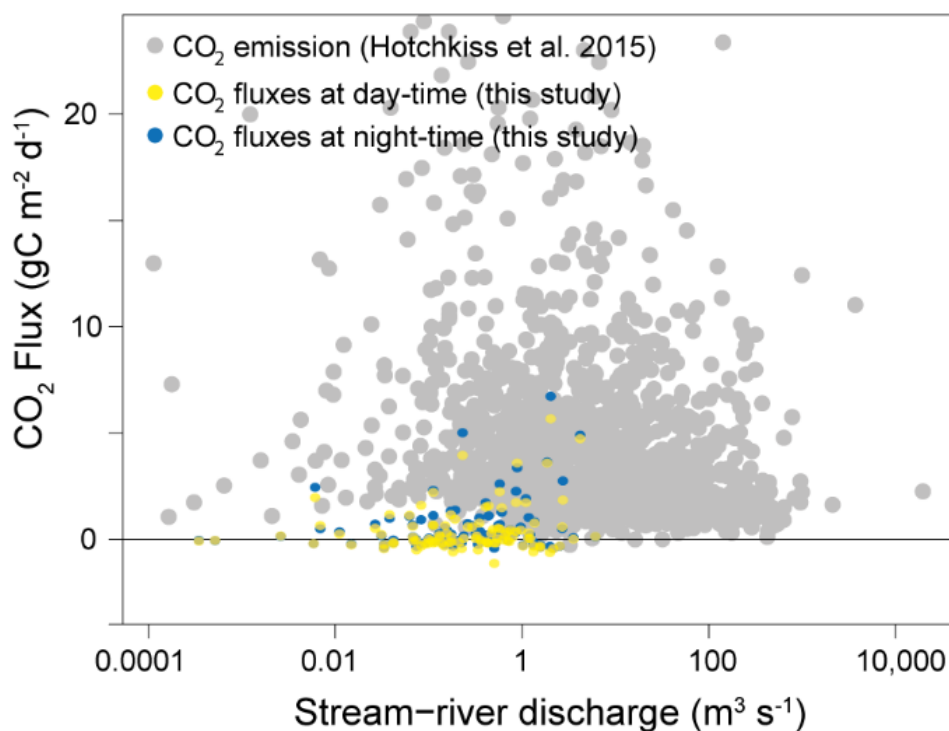
Supplementary Results

50 **Table S3.** Median CO₂ fluxes (in mmol m⁻² h⁻¹) and interquartile ranges [IQR] for all streams and sampling periods.
 51 Changes in CO₂ fluxes from day to night are highlighted with color (light red: median CO₂ flux increases from day
 52 to night; dark red: increases from negative or zero fluxes to positive CO₂ fluxes; blue: median CO₂ flux decreases
 53 from day to night; yellow: no change in median CO₂ fluxes). Sites with na indicate not enough replicates (sample
 54 size < 3) for either day or night available from the floating chamber runs and were, hence, excluded from all
 55 comparisons.

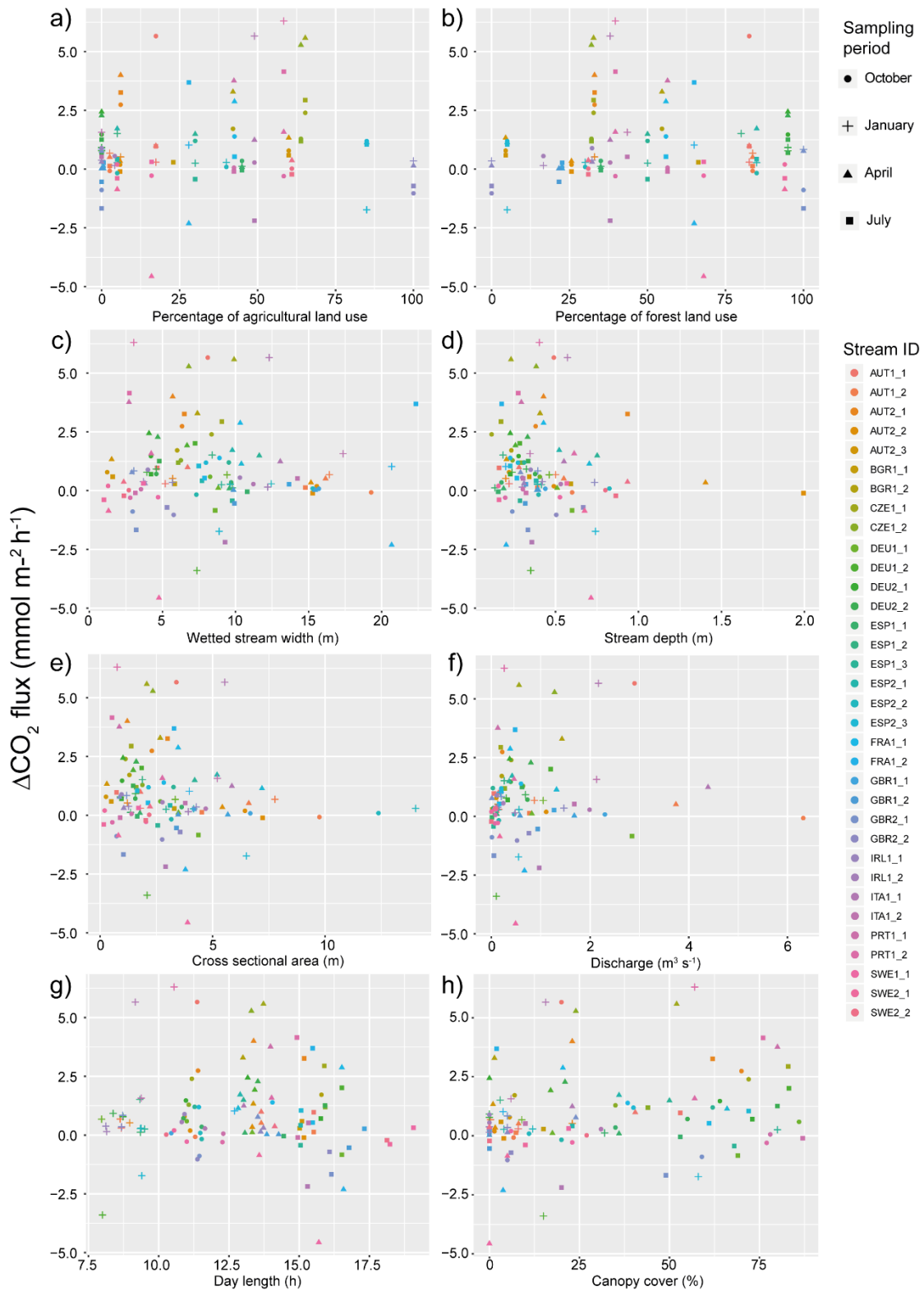
Country	Stream ID	October		January		April		July	
		Day	Night	Day	Night	Day	Night	Day	Night
Austria	AUT1_1	7.2 [5.9, 7.4]	12.9 [9.0, 13.3]	1.7 [1.5, 1.7]	2 [1.8, 2.1]	0.6 [0.6, 0.7]	1.6 [1.6, 1.7]	0.6 [0.5, 0.8]	1.6 [1.3, 1.7]
Austria	AUT1_2	1.5 [1.4, 1.6]	1.4 [1.1, 1.6]	1.4 [1.4, 1.4]	2.1 [1.9, 2.2]	1.1 [1.0, 1.2]	1.6 [1.5, 1.8]	0.8 [0.7, 1.0]	1 [0.9, 1.2]
Austria	AUT2_1	4.2 [3.5, 9.7]	6.9 [6.3, 7.4]	8.4 [6.1, 8.7]	8.9 [7.6, 9.2]	6.8 [6.7, 7.9]	10.8 [10.6, 13.5]	8.5 [7.8, 10.2]	11.8 [10.2, 12.1]
Austria	AUT2_2	0 [-0.3, 0]	0.2 [0, 0.3]	ice	ice	0 [0, 0]	0.3 [0.2, 0.3]	0 [0, 0]	-0.1 [-0.7, 0.5]
Austria	AUT2_3	0 [0, 0]	0.8 [0.7, 0.9]	ice	ice	-0.6 [-0.7, -0.6]	0.7 [0.7, 0.7]	0 [0, 0.3]	0.6 [0.6, 1.3]
Bulgaria	BGR1_1	na	na	ice	ice	na	na	0.2 [0.1, 0.3]	0.5 [0.4, 0.5]
Bulgaria	BGR1_2	-0.9 [-1, -0.8]	0.8 [0.3, 1]	ice	ice	-0.9 [-1.3, -0.9]	2.4 [2.3, 2.9]	na	na
Czech Republic	CZE1_1	1 [0.7, 1.2]	3.4 [3.2, 3.5]	ice	ice	-2.7 [-3.4, -2.4]	2.9 [2.8, 3]	0.6 [0.6, 0.6]	3.6 [3.4, 3.7]
Czech Republic	CZE1_2	2.7 [2.2, 3.6]	4 [3.2, 4.1]	ice	ice	2.1 [2, 2.2]	7.4 [6.7, 7.6]	1.2 [1.2, 1.4]	2.4 [2.3, 3.2]
Germany	DEU1_1	3.3 [3.2, 3.5]	3.9 [3, 4.8]	2.5 [2.1, 2.7]	3.2 [2.6, 3.8]	2.5 [2.5, 3]	2.6 [2.2, 2.7]	3 [2.5, 3.2]	2.2 [2, 2.4]
Germany	DEU1_2	na	na	6.4 [3, 8.4]	3 [1.9, 11]	3.1 [3, 3.3]	5 [4.1, 5.2]	6.8 [6, 6.9]	8.8 [7.3, 10.8]
Germany	DEU2_1	3.6 [3.5, 3.8]	5.1 [4.8, 5.6]	3 [2.9, 3]	3.8 [3.6, 3.8]	1.6 [1.6, 1.6]	4 [3.9, 4.1]	3 [2.7, 3]	3.7 [3.3, 3.7]
Germany	DEU2_2	1.8 [1.7, 1.9]	2.5 [2.4, 2.9]	1 [1, 1.1]	1.9 [1.8, 2]	0.7 [0.7, 0.8]	3 [3, 3.1]	2.8 [2.8, 2.8]	4.1 [4, 4.1]
Spain	ESP1_1	-0.4 [-0.5, 0.1]	-0.1 [-0.4, 0.3]	0.2 [0.1, 0.3]	0.3 [0.2, 0.4]	0.4 [0.4, 0.4]	0.5 [0.4, 0.6]	0.4 [0.3, 1.1]	0.4 [0.4, 0.5]
Spain	ESP1_2	na	na	-0.4 [-0.5, -0.4]	1.1 [1.0, 1.2]	na	na	na	na
Spain	ESP1_3	2.8 [2.5, 2.9]	4 [3.8, 4.1]	3.1 [2.5, 3.8]	3.4 [3.2, 3.4]	1.2 [1.1, 1.7]	2.7 [2.0, 6.7]	1.8 [1.4, 2.4]	1.4 [1.4, 2.1]
Spain	ESP2_1	1.4 [1.3, 1.4]	1.2 [1.2, 1.3]	0.8 [0.8, 1.0]	1.1 [1.0, 1.2]	0.6 [0.6, 0.8]	2.4 [1.5, 3.4]	1.1 [0.9, 1.3]	1.5 [1.2, 1.9]
Spain	ESP2_2	0.7 [0.6, 0.8]	0.8 [0.7, 0.8]	0.5 [0.3, 0.7]	0.8 [0.7, 0.8]	na	na	na	na
Spain	ESP2_3	0.6 [0.5, 0.7]	1.8 [1.7, 2.5]	2.6 [2.5, 3.1]	0.9 [0.8, 1.1]	1.2 [1.2, 1.4]	2.4 [1.6, 2.7]	1.5 [1.3, 2.1]	2.5 [2.2, 2.9]
France	FRA1_1	1.2 [0.9, 1.2]	2.6 [1.4, 3]	na	na	-0.6 [-0.6, -0.5]	2.3 [2.2, 2.5]	0.4 [0.3, 0.4]	0.9 [0.7, 0.9]
France	FRA1_2	na	na	2 [1.8, 2.1]	3 [2.4, 3.4]	6 [4.6, 6.2]	3.7 [3.1, 4]	0.5 [0.4, 0.5]	4.1 [2.8, 4.9]
Great Britain	GBR1_1	-0.4 [-0.4, -0.3]	-0.3 [-0.3, -0.2]	ice	ice	-0.2 [-0.3, -0.2]	-0.2 [-0.2, -0.2]	1.2 [0.9, 1.2]	1.4 [1.2, 1.5]
Great Britain	GBR1_2	na	na	ice	ice	0.5 [0.3, 0.4]	0.5 [0.4, 0.5]	2.3 [2.2, 2.4]	1.8 [1.6, 1.9]
Great Britain	GBR2_1	3.2 [3, 3.3]	2.3 [1.8, 2.4]	4.9 [4, 5.2]	5.8 [5.1, 5.9]	1.9 [1.6, 1.9]	2.7 [2.6, 2.9]	4.9 [4.7, 5.3]	3.2 [2.9, 3.3]

Great Britain	GBR2_2	2 [1.8, 2.1]	1 [0.9, 1.1]	3.6 [2.9, 3.6]	3.9 [3.7, 4.5]	1.5 [1.4, 1.5]	1.7 [1.4, 2.3]	2.2 [2.1, 2.5]	1.5 [1.1, 1.6]
Ireland	IRL1_1	0.4 [0.4, 0.7]	1.3 [1.3, 1.6]	0.5 [0.5, 0.6]	0.9 [0.8, 0.9]	0.4 [0.4, 0.5]	0.7 [0.6, 0.8]	na	na
Ireland	IRL1_2	0.6 [0.5, 0.7]	1.2 [1.0, 1.4]	0.5 [0.4, 0.5]	0.6 [0.4, 0.8]	na	na	na	na
Italy	ITA1_1	13 [10.4, 13]	13.3 [8.7, 13.8]	19.9 [19.4, 23.8]	25.6 [22, 28.2]	16.8 [13.6, 19.6]	18 [14.2, 18.1]	13 [12.5, 13.8]	10.9 [9, 10.9]
Italy	ITA1_2	na	na	-1 [-1.1, -0.9]	0.6 [0.6, 0.7]	na	na	0 [0, 0.3]	0.5 [0.3, 0.9]
Portugal	PRT1_1	0.8 [0.8, 2.2]	0.9 [0.8, 0.9]	na	na	3.2 [2.7, 5.3]	7 [5.9, 7.9]	0.9 [0.8, 1.5]	0.8 [0.8, 0.8]
Portugal	PRT1_2	4.8 [4.5, 5.1]	4.5 [4.2, 5.1]	14.2 [13.4, 17.6]	20.5 [19.3, 20.9]	6.1 [4.2, 6.7]	7.7 [6.8, 18.9]	7.6 [7.3, 7.7]	11.8 [9.6, 12.4]
Sweden	SWE1_1	3.3 [2.7, 3.4]	3.1 [3.0, 4.6]	ice	ice	6.3 [5.2, 7.5]	1.8 [1.8, 3.9]	1.4 [1.2, 1.8]	1.7 [1.7, 2.4]
Sweden	SWE2_1	0.8 [0.7, 0.8]	1 [0.8, 1.2]	ice	ice	3.2 [3.1, 3.3]	2.4 [1.7, 2.8]	1 [0.5, 1.0]	0.6 [0.4, 2.5]
Sweden	SWE2_2	1.5 [0.8, 1.6]	1.5 [1.2, 1.7]	ice	ice	0.9 [0.8, 1.0]	1.3 [1.2, 1.6]	1.6 [1.5, 1.6]	1.3 [1.2, 1.4]

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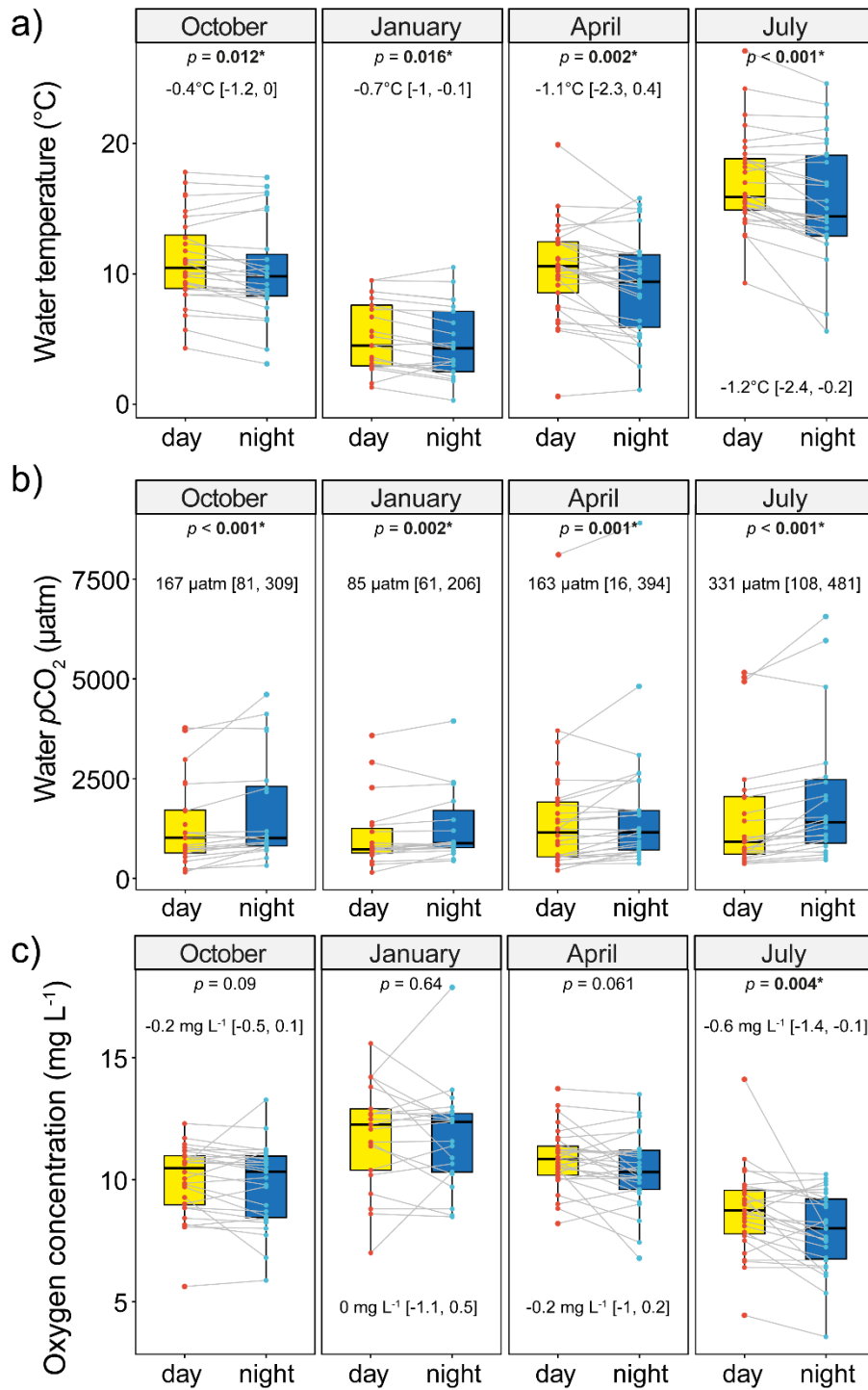


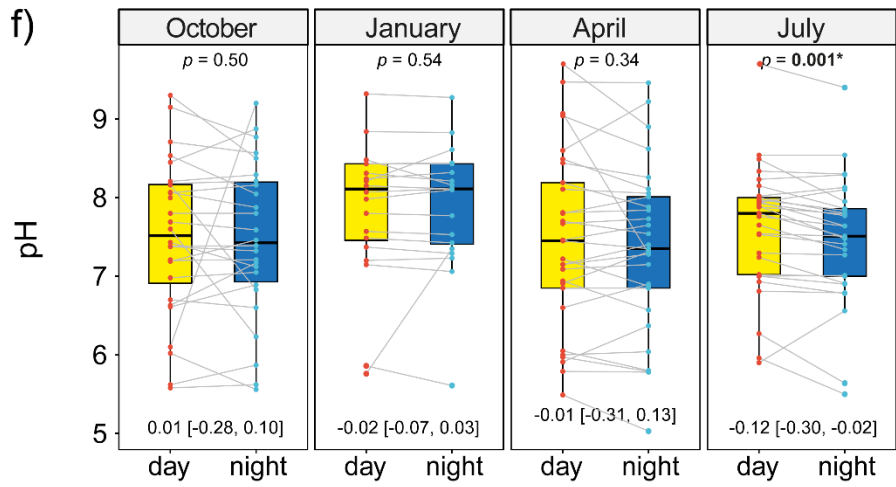
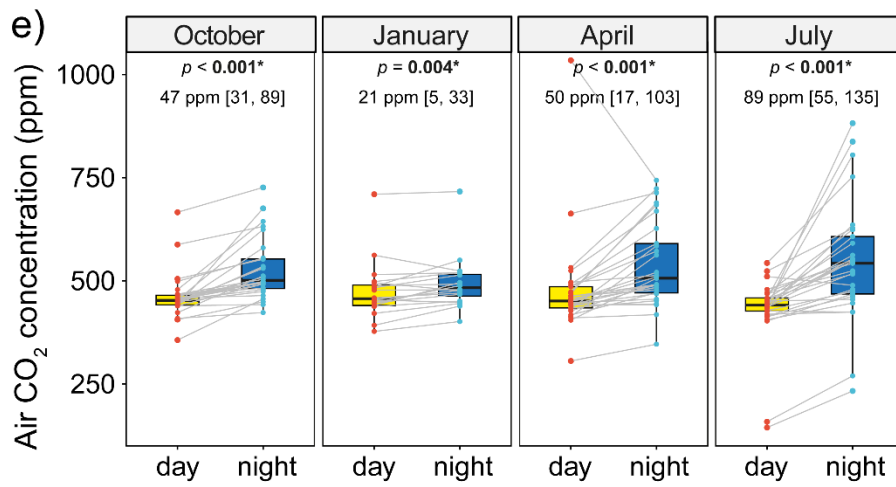
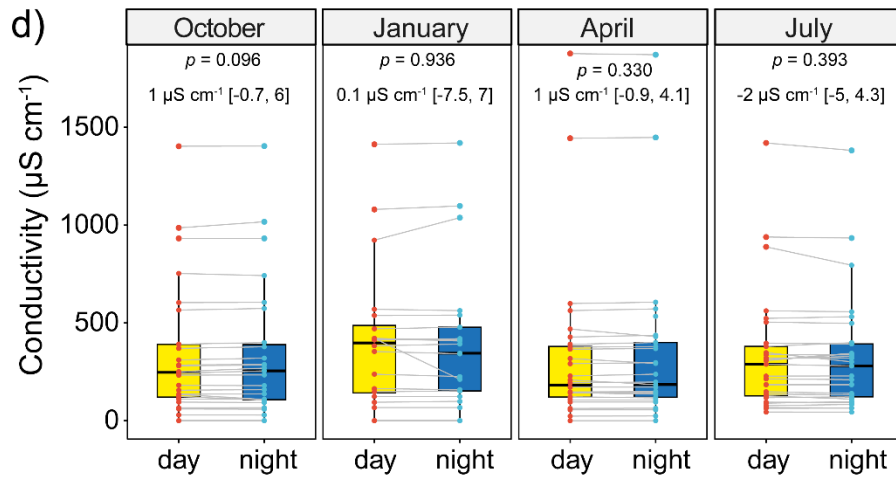
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59 **Figure S3.** Directly measured CO₂ flux data from this study (in gC m⁻² d⁻¹; yellow for CO₂ flux during day-time and
60 blue for night-time) in comparison to the CO₂ fluxes based on calculated pCO₂ and modelled gas exchange velocity
61 in Hotchkiss et al. (2015)¹³. The fluxes are plotted against discharge ranging from 0.0001 to >10,000 m³ s⁻¹.

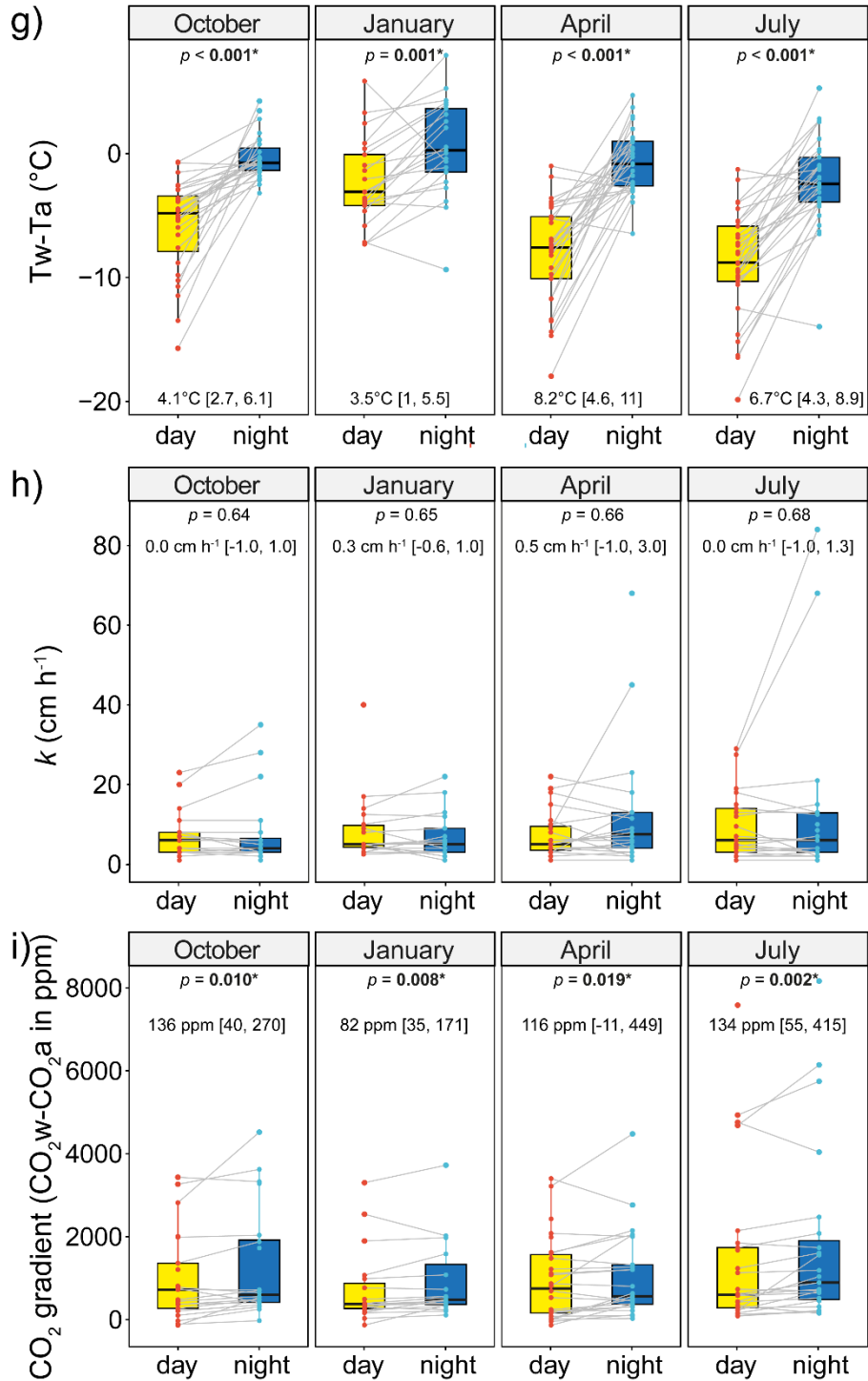


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Figure S4. The absolute changes of CO_2 fluxes (ΔCO_2 flux) from day to night related to different catchment and hydromorphological variables. Different symbols distinguish different sampling periods and the different colors display each sampling site.

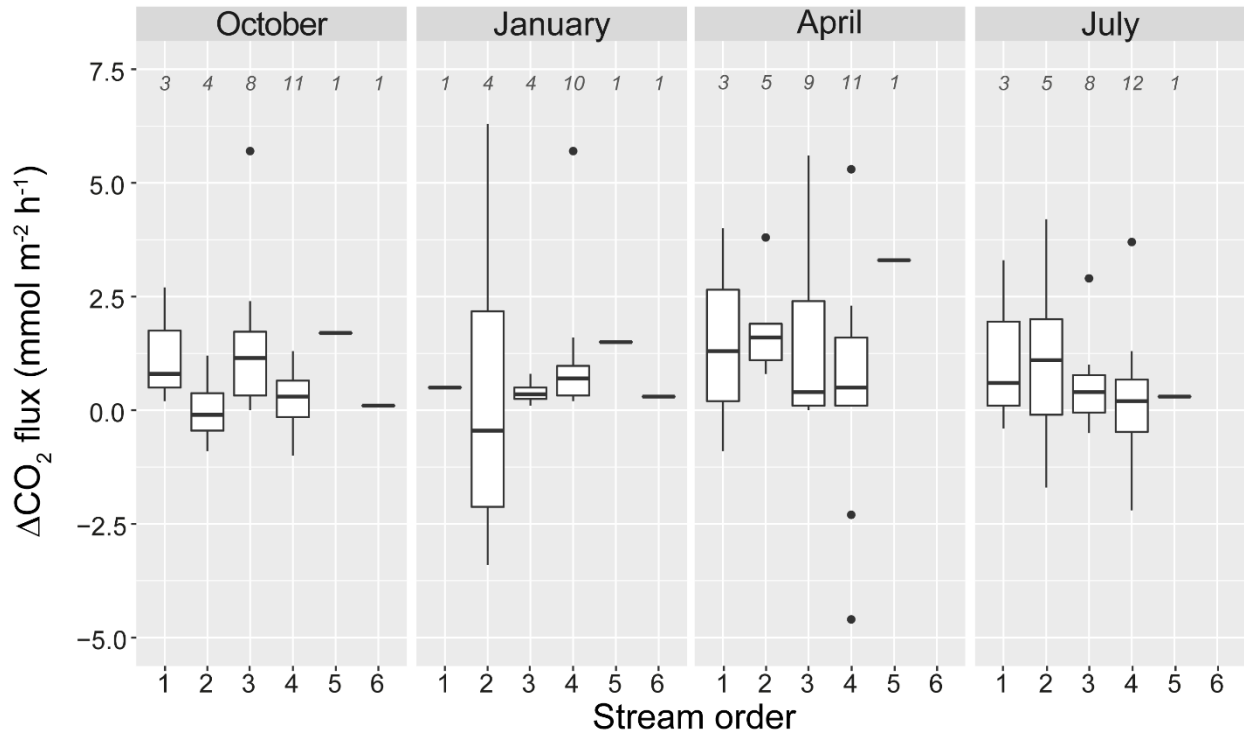






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69 **Figure S5.** Physical and chemical parameters measured at day- and night-time for each sampling period and the
70 changes for each site indicated by a line as a visual help. The parameters include a) water temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), b) water
71 $p\text{CO}_2$ (μatm), c) oxygen concentration (mg L^{-1}), d) conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$), e) air CO_2 concentration (ppm), f) pH, g)
72 a proxy for heat flux as temperature in the water minus temperature in the air ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), h) gas transfer velocity k at *in situ*
73 temperature (cm h^{-1}), and i) the CO_2 gradient calculated as $p\text{CO}_2$ in the water minus CO_2 in the air (ppm). The
74 boxplots visualize the median of all stream sites (line), the first and third quartiles (hinges), and the 1.5 * inter-
75 quartile ranges (IQR) (whiskers). The p values are given for the Wilcoxon signed rank test as well as the median
76 value of the change [IQR] for each sampling period.

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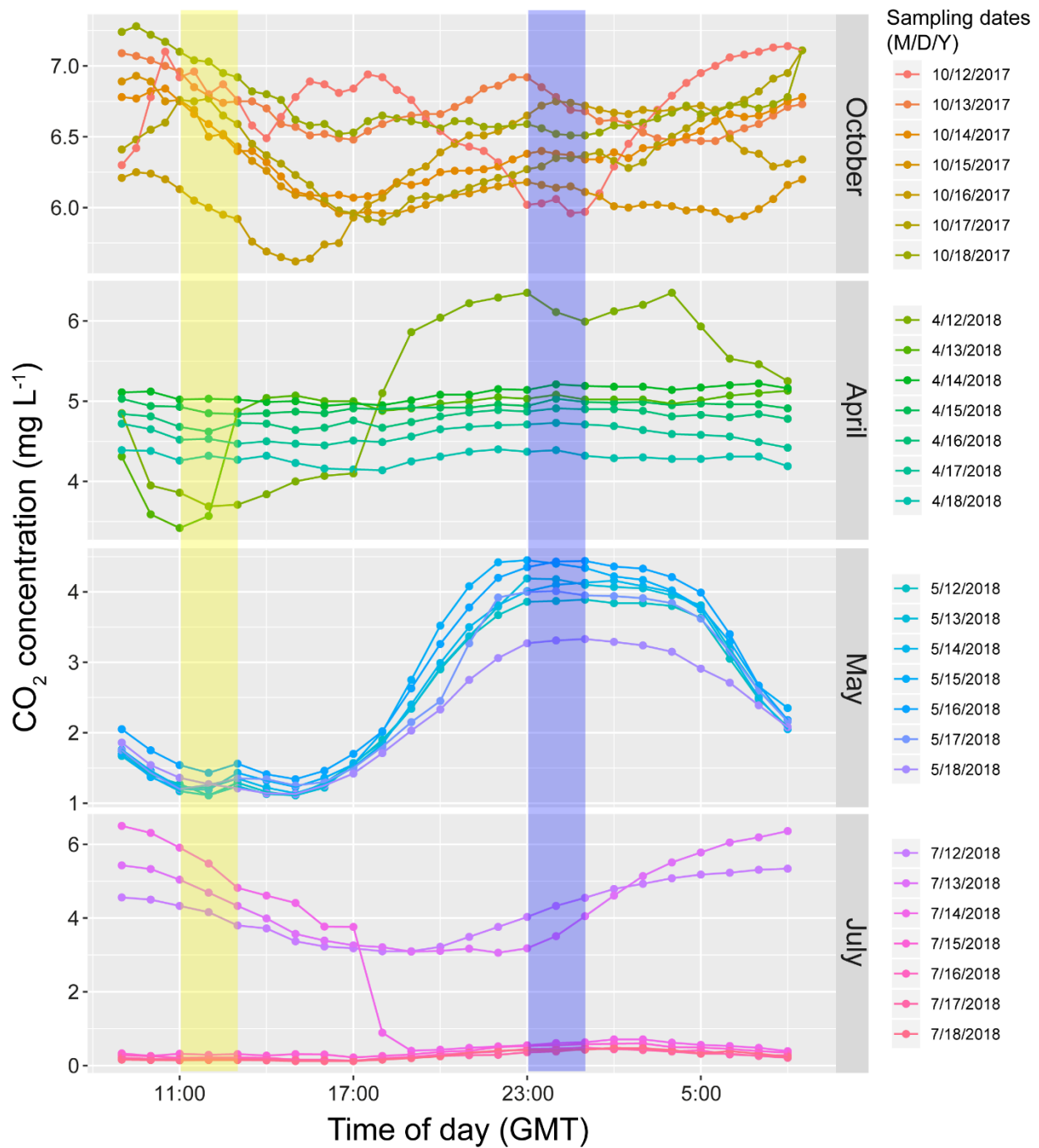
Figure S6. The absolute changes of CO_2 fluxes (ΔCO_2 flux) from day to night separated by Strahler stream order and sampling period. The sample sizes for each Strahler stream order and sampling period is given on top of the graph in gray and italics.

Table S4. Upscaled annual CO_2 fluxes from 14 European streams where a full dataset was available for all sampling periods to assess the influence of only day-time measurements versus inclusion of day- and night-time measurements of CO_2 fluxes.

Stream ID	Annual CO_2 flux ($\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$)		Difference (day+night minus only day)		
	Only day	Day and night	$\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$	$\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$	%
AUT1_1	22.03	30.90	8.88	106.5	40
AUT1_2	10.34	11.75	1.41	16.9	14
AUT2_1	60.97	71.41	10.44	125.3	17
DEU1_1	24.81	25.94	1.14	13.6	5
DEU2_1	24.39	30.08	5.69	68.2	23
DEU2_2	13.96	19.21	5.25	63.0	38
ESP1_1	1.21	1.82	0.61	7.4	51
ESP1_3	19.53	22.37	2.83	34.0	14
ESP2_1	8.63	10.83	2.21	26.5	26
ESP2_3	13.00	14.20	1.20	14.4	9
GBR2_1	32.65	32.17	-0.49	-5.8	-1
GBR2_2	20.25	19.07	-1.18	-14.2	-6
ITA1_1	137.07	144.16	7.10	85.1	5
PRT1_2	71.34	84.21	12.87	154.4	18

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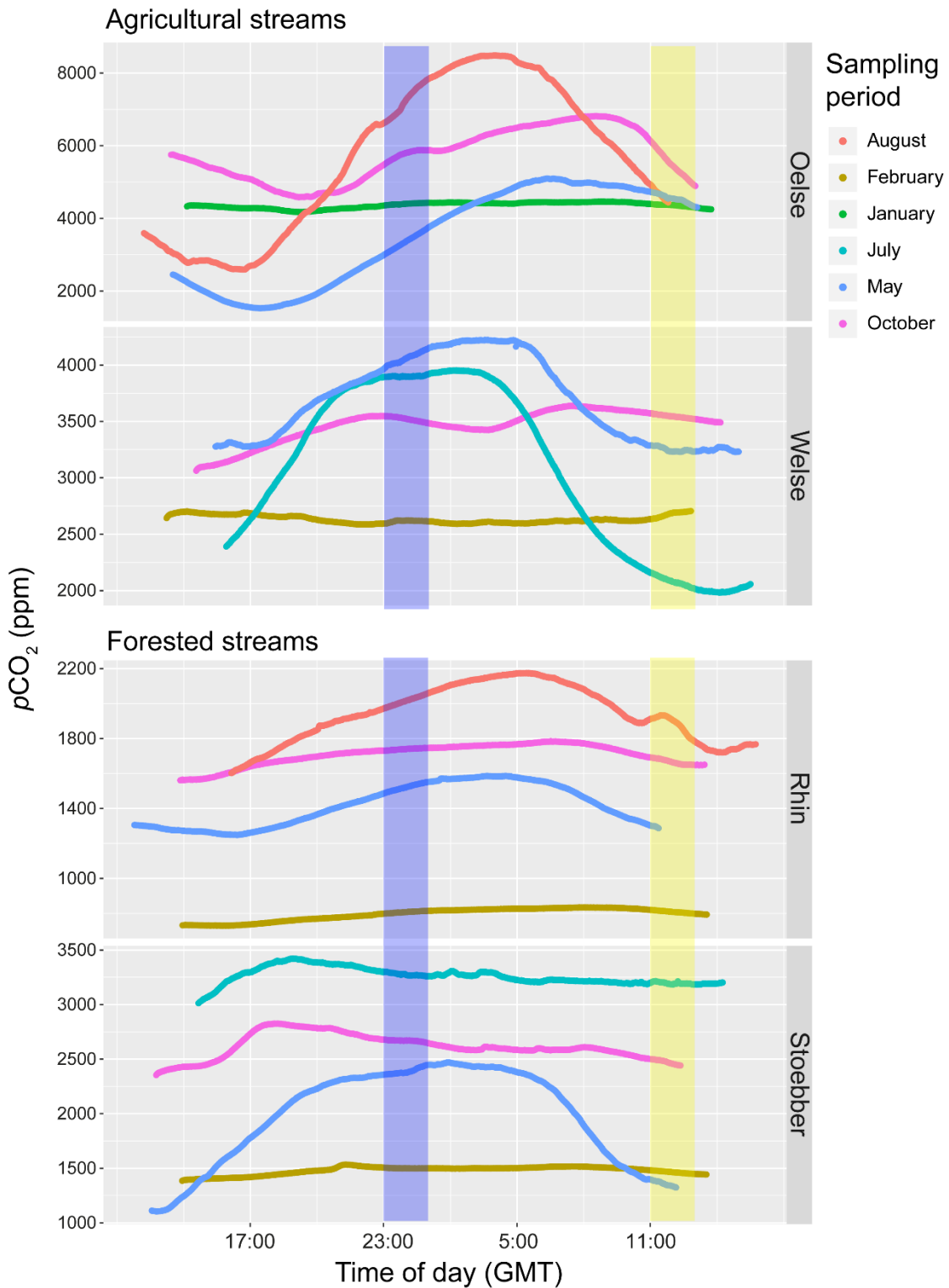
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91 **Figure S7.** Diel CO₂ dynamics in the water of a Swedish agricultural stream from Wallin et al. (2020)¹⁵, which is
 92 located close by the EuroRun site SWE2_2. The CO₂ concentration is shown over 24 hours for each day of one
 93 week in the month October, April, May (peak time of diel CO₂ concentration differences in this study) and July. The
 94 approximate sampling window chosen for this study (11:00 and 23:00 GMT) is highlighted in blue for the night and
 95 yellow for the day.

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97

98 **Figure S8.** Diel CO_2 dynamics in the water of four selected streams from Bodmer et al. (2016)¹⁴. The streams have
 99 different dominated land uses and are located in Germany (more information please refer to the reference of Bodmer
 100 et al. (2016)). The CO_2 was measured over 24 hours in different months in 2013/2014 and the Rhin is a sampling
 101 site of EuroRun (DEU1_1). The approximate sampling window chosen for this study (11:00 and 23:00 GMT) is
 102 highlighted in blue for the night and yellow for the day.

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