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# 3 **Technical note: CO<sub>2</sub> is not like CH<sub>4</sub> – limits of and corrections to the** 4 **headspace method to analyse pCO<sub>2</sub> in freshwater**

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17

18 **Abstract.** Headspace analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> frequently has been used to quantify the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in freshwater. According  
19 to basic chemical theory, not considering chemical equilibration of the carbonate system in the sample vials will result in a  
20 systematic error. By analysing the potential error for different types of water and experimental conditions we show that the  
21 error incurred by headspace analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> is less than 5% for typical samples from boreal systems which have low alkalinity  
22 (<900 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>), with pH (<7.5), and high pCO<sub>2</sub> (>1000 μatm). However, the simple headspace calculation can lead to high  
23 error (up to -300%) or even impossibly negative values in highly under saturated samples equilibrated with ambient air, unless  
24 the shift in carbonate equilibrium is explicitly considered. The precision of the method can be improved by lowering the  
25 headspace ratio and/or the equilibration temperature. We provide a convenient and direct method implemented in a R-script  
26 or a JMP add-in to correct CO<sub>2</sub> headspace results using separately measured alkalinity.

28 The analysis of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in water is an important basis for the assessment of the role of surface waters in the global  
29 carbon cycle (Raymond et al., 2013). Indirect methods like calculating CO<sub>2</sub> from other parameters like alkalinity and pH  
30 (Lewis and Wallace, 1998; Robbins et al., 2010) are affected by considerable random and systematic errors (Golub et al., 2017)  
31 caused e.g. by dissolved organic carbon which may result in significant over estimation of the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure (pCO<sub>2</sub>)  
32 (Abril et al., 2015), or by pH measurement errors (Liu et al., 2020). Thus, direct measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> is highly recommended,  
33 particularly in softwaters.

34 Headspace analysis is a standard method to analyse the concentration of dissolved gasses in liquids (Kampbell et al., 1989). In  
35 principle, a liquid sample is equilibrated with a gaseous headspace in a closed vessel under defined temperature. The partial  
36 pressure of the gas in the headspace is analysed, in most cases either by gas chromatography or infra-red spectroscopy. The  
37 concentration of the dissolved gas in solution is then calculated by applying Henry's law after correction for the amount of gas  
38 transferred from the solution to the headspace.

39 In freshwater research this is the widely applied standard method to analyse the concentration of the greenhouse gases such as  
40 CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O (UNESCO/IHA, 2010). The method is handy, does not depend on sophisticated equipment in the field, and  
41 provides reliable results. Papers and protocols using this method have also been published to analyse dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>  
42 concentrations in freshwaters (UNESCO/IHA, 2010; Cawley, 2018; Lambert and Fréchet, 2005). However, CO<sub>2</sub> cannot be  
43 treated like CH<sub>4</sub> because CO<sub>2</sub> is in dynamic chemical equilibrium with other carbonate species in water while CH<sub>4</sub> is not  
44 (Stumm and Morgan, 1981; Sander, 1999). Depending on the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and pH, reactions of the carbonate equilibrium  
45 will either produce or consume some CO<sub>2</sub> in the sample vessel (Cole and Prairie, 2009). Although this is textbook knowledge  
46 and has been considered in some recent papers (Golub et al., 2017; Gelbrecht et al., 1998; Rantakari et al., 2015; Aberg and  
47 Wallin, 2014; Horn et al., 2017), and is standard practice in marine research (Dickson et al., 2007), a practical evaluation of  
48 the systematic error when applying simple headspace analysis to CO<sub>2</sub> on typical freshwaters is missing, presumably because  
49 it is widely assumed that "the effect is likely small" (Hope et al., 1995). In this paper, we aim to quantify the error associated  
50 with the simple application of Henry's law on headspace CO<sub>2</sub> data, present practical guidelines describing conditions under  
51 which the simple headspace analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> can give acceptable results, and offer a convenient tool for the exact CO<sub>2</sub>  
52 calculation that accounts for the carbonate equilibrium shifts in the sample equilibration vessel. The approach can also be used  
53 for correcting previous results obtained by simple headspace analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> using additional information regarding the  
54 carbonate system (i.e. alkalinity or DIC), a procedure we tested on a set of field measurements where pCO<sub>2</sub> was determined  
55 with independent methods (with and without headspace equilibration). Lastly, we evaluated how likely this correction may be  
56 required using a large data set from 337 diverse Canadian lakes.

58 **2.1 Theoretical considerations**

59 If a water sample is equilibrated with a headspace initially containing a known pCO<sub>2</sub> (zero in case N<sub>2</sub> or other CO<sub>2</sub>-free gas is  
60 used), some CO<sub>2</sub> is exchanged between water and headspace resulting in an altered dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)  
61 concentration in the water of the sample thereby altering the equilibrium of the carbonate system in the water. Depending on  
62 partial pressures of CO<sub>2</sub> in the water relative to the headspace gas prior to equilibration, some CO<sub>2</sub> will either be produced  
63 from HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or converted to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. The exact amount will depend on temperature, pH, total alkalinity (TA), and the original  
64 pCO<sub>2</sub> of the water sample. If a CO<sub>2</sub>-free headspace gas was applied, the vessel will finally contain more CO<sub>2</sub> than before  
65 equilibration and consequently simply applying Henry's law results in a too high pCO<sub>2</sub> value. If ambient air headspace is  
66 applied, the error becomes negative in under-saturated samples and the calculated pCO<sub>2</sub> an underestimate.

67 To calculate this error we implemented an R-script that simulates the above mentioned physical and chemical equilibration for  
68 a wide range of hypothetical pCO<sub>2</sub>, alkalinity, temperature, and headspace ratio ( $HR = V_{\text{gas}} / V_{\text{liquid}}$ ) values. As output, we then  
69 compared the corrected (for the chemical equilibrium shift) and non-corrected pCO<sub>2</sub> values. All simulations were performed  
70 at 1 atm total pressure and results expressed as  $\mu\text{atm}$ .

71 **2.2 Field data**

72 As a further validation of our simulations, we used various data sets for which the pCO<sub>2</sub> was determined in multiple ways. We  
73 collated 266 observations from 4 reservoirs and 3 streams in Germany, 10 Canadian lakes, and a Malaysian reservoir exhibiting  
74 a wide range of TA between 0.03 and 1.9 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> and pH between 5.2 and 9.8. Two independent techniques were used to  
75 measure water pCO<sub>2</sub> in each sampling site: *in situ* NDIR technique and headspace equilibration technique. The same NDIR  
76 technique was used for all sites while the headspace technique differed slightly between sites. First, for the *in situ* NDIR  
77 technique, the water was pumped through the lumen side of a membrane contactor (mini module, Membrana, U.S.A.) (Cole  
78 and Prairie, 2009) and the gas side was connected to a NDIR analyser (EGM4, PP-Systems, U.S.A. or LGR ultra-portable gas  
79 analyser) in a counter-flow recirculating loop. Readings were taken when the CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction (mCO<sub>2</sub> [ppm]) values of the  
80 NDIR analyser became stable (fluctuating  $\pm 3$  ppm around the mean) at which point the gas loop is in direct equilibrium with  
81 the sampled water. Final pCO<sub>2</sub> of the water was calculated by multiplying the mCO<sub>2</sub> by the ambient atmospheric pressure.  
82 Second, for the headspace technique, the methodology differed slightly among locations. In the German reservoirs, about 40  
83 mL of water sample were taken in 60 mL syringes and eventually occurring bubbles were pushed out by adjusting the sample  
84 volume to 30 mL. Samples were stored at 4° C and analysed within 1 day. In the laboratory, 30 mL of pure N<sub>2</sub> gas was added  
85 to the syringes after the samples had reached laboratory temperature and the syringes were shaken for one hour at laboratory  
86 temperature. After headspace equilibration, the water was discarded from the syringes and the headspace was manually injected  
87 into a gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) and a methanizer (GC 6810C, SRI Instruments,  
88 U.S.A.). In the Canadian lakes, 20 mL of the water samples were taken in 60 mL syringes and equilibrated with 40 mL volume

89 of atmospheric air by vigorously shaking the syringes for 2 minutes. In the Malaysian reservoir, 600 mL of water samples  
 90 were taken in 1.2 L of glass bottles and equilibrated with 611.5 mL of atmospheric air in 2016. In consecutive years, diverse  
 91 volumes of water samples were taken in 60 mL or 100 mL syringes and equilibrated with diverse volumes of calibrated air  
 92 brought from the laboratory. The equilibrated air was immediately transferred to and stored in 12 mL pre-evacuated exetainer  
 93 vials (Labco Ltd., UK) and returned to the laboratory where it was injected into a gas chromatograph (GC-2014, Shimadzu,  
 94 Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a FID. The original water pCO<sub>2</sub> was then calculated according to the headspace ratio, temperature,  
 95 and the measured headspace mCO<sub>2</sub> as follows:

$$96 \quad pCO_{2 \text{ water}} = \frac{(mCO_{2 \text{ After eq}} \times K_{h \text{ Eq}} \times P) + \left\{ \left( \frac{V_{\text{gas}}}{V_{\text{liquid}}} \right) \times \left( \frac{mCO_{2 \text{ After eq}} - mCO_{2 \text{ Before eq}}}{V_m} \right) \right\}}{K_{h \text{ Sample}}} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

97 with  $mCO_{2 \text{ Before eq}}$  and  $mCO_{2 \text{ After eq}}$  are respectively the CO<sub>2</sub> mole fractions in the headspace before and after equilibrium  
 98 [ppm],  $K_{h \text{ Eq}}$  and  $K_{h \text{ Sample}}$  = gas solubility at the equilibration temperature and at the sampling temperature (Henry coefficient  
 99 (Sander, 2015)) [mol L<sup>-1</sup> atm<sup>-1</sup>], P = pressure [atm],  $V_{\text{gas}}$  = headspace volume,  $V_{\text{liquid}}$  = sampled-water volume, and  $V_m$  = molar  
 100 volume [L mol<sup>-1</sup>] (UNESCO/IHA, 2010). Results from Eq. 1 are reported as pCO<sub>2</sub> at one atmosphere of barometric pressure  
 101 and are corrected for ambient pressure at the time of sampling by multiplying with the in situ atmospheric pressure.

102 The difference between headspace and NDIR method was divided by the pCO<sub>2</sub> measured by the *in situ* NDIR analysis and  
 103 expressed as % error. In addition, temperature and pH of the water were measured *in situ* by a CTD probe (Sea and Sun,  
 104 Germany) or a portable pH meter (pH meter 913, Metrohm Ltd, Canada). In samples from Canada and Germany, TA was  
 105 analysed by titration with 0.11N HCl. In some systems, a single TA measurement was available for multiple dates and therefore  
 106 assumes little temporal variability in the alkalinity of these systems. In the Malaysian samples, TA was derived from dissolved  
 107 inorganic carbon (DIC) measurements and pH. Analysis of certified calibration gases showed that the analytical error of both  
 108 the NDIR instrument and GC was <0.37% at 1000 ppm. Analysis of 7 replicate samples by our GC-headspace method gave a  
 109 standard deviation of 6%. This includes all random errors due to sampling, sample handling and analysis.

110 To demonstrate the effect of our correction procedure, we used data from 377 lakes for which we had complete ancillary data  
 111 and precise headspace measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> (<5% error between duplicates) obtained from the pan-Canadian Lake Pulse  
 112 sampling program (Figure B1a, see Huot et al. (2019) for details).

### 113 3. Results and Discussion

#### 114 3.1 Simulations from chemical equilibrium

115 Applying a CO<sub>2</sub>-free gas as headspace always results in a positive error (over-estimation of the real pCO<sub>2</sub>, Figure 1a). If  
 116 ambient air is applied as headspace the error becomes negative in case of undersaturated samples (Figure 1b). In general, the  
 117 error tends to be lower if ambient air is used for headspace equilibration (Figure 1b) compared to equilibration with CO<sub>2</sub>-free  
 118 gas (Figure 1a), except in undersaturated conditions. This is because less CO<sub>2</sub> is exchanged between water and headspace

119 during the equilibration procedure. The error will be below 5% in supersaturated and low alkalinity ( $<900 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ) samples  
120 which are typical for boreal regions. However, the error can be higher than 100% if the samples are undersaturated. The  
121 magnitude of the error is predictable from pH. Because of the carbonate equilibrium reactions, high pH is necessarily  
122 accompanied by low  $\text{pCO}_2$  for a given alkalinity. Consequently, the error is large at high pH while it is below 10 % at  $\text{pH} < 8$   
123 (headspace gas:liquid ratio of 1:1).

124 Our field dataset is consistent with the theoretical predictions. While the fit between the simple headspace calculation and  
125 NDIR values over the whole range of values can be considered adequate overall (Figure 2a,  $R^2 = 0.92$ ), it is clear that the  
126 deviations can become very large (up to about 300%), particularly at water  $\text{pCO}_2$  values  $<600 \mu\text{atm}$  (Figure 2b). As expected  
127 from the simulations, the error in undersaturated samples was positive when using  $\text{CO}_2$ -free gas as headspace and negative  
128 (sometimes impossible negative results) using ambient air (Figure 2b). The error became negligible at  $\text{pCO}_2$  above  $1000 \mu\text{atm}$   
129 (Figure 2b). Data scatter was considerable as was observed previously (Johnson et al., 2010), most probably because the  
130 analytical error of the applied methods was often in the same range as the absolute difference between both methods.

### 131 3.2 Error magnitude depends on the experimental procedure

132 The maximum error depends on how much  $\text{CO}_2$  is exchanged between water and headspace. The more gas is exchanged  
133 between water and headspace the higher the error is. Thus, the error increases with decreasing solubility coefficient or HR. In  
134 high alkalinity samples, the error can be significantly reduced by using a smaller headspace to water ratio (Figure 3). By  
135 lowering the headspace ratio from 1 to 0.2 at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  the error can be reduced from about 50% to about 10%.

136 Since solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  depends on temperature, the equilibration temperature also affects headspace equilibration. Due to  
137 lower solubility at higher temperature, more gas evades into the headspace and thus, the error increases with increasing  
138 temperature (Figure 3a,b). At a HR of 1, the error increases from 97 % at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  to 111 % at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  in a high ( $1 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ )  
139 alkalinity sample. Thus, the error can be significantly reduced by lowering the equilibration temperature. A possible way to  
140 take advantage of this is to perform headspace equilibration at *in situ* temperature in the field, as has been done in several  
141 studies. If *in situ* water temperature is lower than typical laboratory temperature, the error is thereby reduced. However, care  
142 must be taken to make sure that the exact equilibration temperature is known. For example, an error of  $1^\circ\text{C}$  in the equilibration  
143 temperature results in a 2 % different  $\text{pCO}_2$  value ( $\text{TA}=1 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ ,  $\text{pCO}_2 = 1000 \mu\text{atm}$ ,  $\text{HR} = 1$ ) (Figure A1a). Both ambient  
144 air and  $\text{N}_2$  can be used as headspace gas. Using  $\text{N}_2$ , however, eliminates the error associated with the exact quantification of  
145  $\text{pCO}_2$  Before. Using the same example, an unlikely error of 100 ppm in the headspace gas ( $\text{mCO}_2$  Before eq) results in a 6.4%  
146 different  $\text{pCO}_2$  result (Figure A1b).

### 147 3.3 What about kinetics?

148  $\text{CO}_2$  reactivity with water would not cause a problem for headspace analysis if the reaction kinetics were slow compared to  
149 physical headspace equilibration. The slowest reaction of the carbonate system is the hydration of  $\text{CO}_2$  which has a first order

150 rate constant of  $0.037 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Soli and Byrne, 2002) so that chemical equilibration of  $\text{CO}_2$  in water is in the range of seconds  
 151 (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001; Schulz et al., 2006). This means that chemical equilibrium reactions are faster than physical  
 152 headspace equilibration and the chemical system can be assumed always to be in equilibrium. Thus, the reactions of the  
 153 carbonate system have to be fully considered in headspace analysis of  $\text{CO}_2$ .

### 154 3.4 Correction of $\text{CO}_2$ headspace data

155 If other information regarding the carbonate system of the sample is known (alkalinity or DIC), one can correct for the bias  
 156 induced by simple headspace calculations. A procedure to correct headspace  $\text{CO}_2$  data using pH and alkalinity is already  
 157 available in the SOP N°4 in Dickson et al. (2007) for marine samples and could be adapted to freshwater samples as well. For  
 158 convenience, we provide here a modified procedure when the alkalinity of the sample is known by introducing an analytical  
 159 solution to the equilibrium problem (iterative in SOP N°4) and by using dissociation constants that may be more appropriate  
 160 to freshwaters. The procedure essentially involves estimating the exact pH of the equilibrium solution before and after  
 161 equilibration. If the alkalinity of the sample is known, the pH ( $-\log_{10}[\text{H}^+]$ ) of the aqueous solution after equilibration can be  
 162 obtained by finding the roots of the 3<sup>rd</sup> order polynomial

$$163 \quad 0 = [\text{H}^+]^3 + \text{TA} \cdot [\text{H}^+]^2 - ([\text{CO}_2]K_1 + K_w)[\text{H}^+] - 2K_1K_2[\text{CO}_2] \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

164 where  $[\text{CO}_2] = p\text{CO}_2 \cdot K_{h \text{ Eq}}$  and from which one can obtain the ionisation fraction for  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\alpha_{\text{CO}_2}$ ) as

$$165 \quad \alpha_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{K_1}{[\text{H}^+]} + \frac{K_1K_2}{[\text{H}^+]^2}} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

166 where  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are the temperature -dependent equilibrium constants for the dissociation reactions for bicarbonates and  
 167 carbonates, respectively (Millero, 1979), and for estuarine conditions, Millero (2010) as amended in Orr et al. (2015).  $K_w$  is  
 168 the dissociation constant of water into  $\text{H}^+$  and  $\text{OH}^-$  (Dickson and Riley, 1979). The total DIC contained in the original sample  
 169 ( $\text{DIC}_{\text{orig}}$ ) can then be calculated as

$$170 \quad \text{DIC}_{\text{orig}} = \frac{\text{CO}_2}{\alpha_{\text{CO}_2}} + (\text{CO}_{2 \text{ HS after}} - \text{CO}_{2 \text{ HS bef}}) \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

171 where  $\text{CO}_2$  is the amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the equilibrated water [mol],  $\text{CO}_{2 \text{ HS after}} + \text{before}$  the amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the headspace after  
 172 and before equilibration [mol]. Given the DIC concentration of the original solution from Eq. 4 ( $[\text{DIC}] = \text{DIC}_{\text{orig}} / V_{\text{liquid}}$ ), the  
 173 pH of this solution prior to equilibration can be obtained by finding the roots of the 4<sup>th</sup> order polynomial

$$174 \quad 0 = [\text{H}^+]^4 + (\text{TA} + K_1) \cdot [\text{H}^+]^3 + (\text{TA} \cdot K_1 - K_w + K_1K_2 - [\text{DIC}]_{\text{orig}}K_1) \cdot [\text{H}^+]^2 + (K_1K_2 \cdot \text{TA} - K_1K_w - 2[\text{DIC}]_{\text{orig}}K_1K_2) \cdot [\text{H}^+] - \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

$$175 \quad K_1K_2K_w$$

176 to then estimate the corresponding ionization fraction  $\alpha'_{\text{CO}_2}$  as in Eq. 3 above and calculate the original  $p\text{CO}_2$  of the sample  
 177 as

$$pCO_2 = \frac{\alpha'_{CO_2}[DIC]_{orig}}{K_{h, Sample}}$$

Eq. 6

where  $K_{h, Sample}$  is determined for the water temperature during field sample collection (for simplicity, the equations above assume a 1 atm pressure). We applied the above correction procedure to our samples where  $pCO_2$  was measured in several samples using both headspace and in situ NDIR methods together with measured alkalinity data. Figure 4 shows that the corrected values matched the in situ NDIR values nearly perfectly ( $r^2=0.98$ ) whereas the simple headspace calculations resulted, as expected, in significant underestimation for undersaturated conditions, particularly for samples equilibrated with ambient air.

We examined the sensitivity of the correction procedure to the precision of the alkalinity measurements and found that the error associated with alkalinity determination does not severely impact the final  $pCO_2$  estimate when using  $N_2$  as a headspace gas. For example, the error in the corrected  $pCO_2$  values is always below 20% even when the alkalinity is known only to within 50% error (Fig. 3c). However, more precise alkalinity values are required when using ambient air as a headspace gas in undersaturated conditions (Fig. 3d).

Lastly, our simulations (Figs. 2 and 4) provide a complete analysis of the effects of the environmental and methodological conditions on the error incurred when using the simple headspace technique for estimating  $pCO_2$ . However, they do not assess how often such problematic conditions occur in inland water systems. To address this question, we applied our correction procedure to a dataset from 377 Canadian lakes (Huot et al., 2019). These results show a significant deviation between corrected and uncorrected values, particularly in lakes with high alkalinity ( $>900 \mu mol L^{-1}$ , Figure B1b) and ignoring the correction would have resulted errors  $>20\%$  in about 47% of the data. Furthermore, our analysis illustrates how a larger headspace ratio significantly exacerbates the magnitude of the error (Figure B1b).

The correction calculations have been implemented in an R script and, for a user-friendly interface, as an JMP add-in (or JSL script) (<https://github.com/icra/headspace>). Roots of the polynomials (Eqs. 2 and 5) can be solved using either standard analytical formulas or by iterative algorithms. For the analytical solution, our script uses a combined form of the computational steps described in Zwillinger (2018) for both the cubic and quartic polynomials to find their first real roots. Analytical solutions are faster than iterative algorithms but can suffer small numerical instabilities ( $SD \approx 1$  ppm) in extreme situations (alkalinity  $>4000 \mu mol L^{-1}$  and  $pCO_2 < 100$  ppm) due to limitations inherent to double precision numerical calculations. The provided scripts consider the barometric pressure and thus, allow calculation of  $pCO_2$  as well as  $CO_2$  concentration [ $\mu mol L^{-1}$ ] for *in situ* conditions.

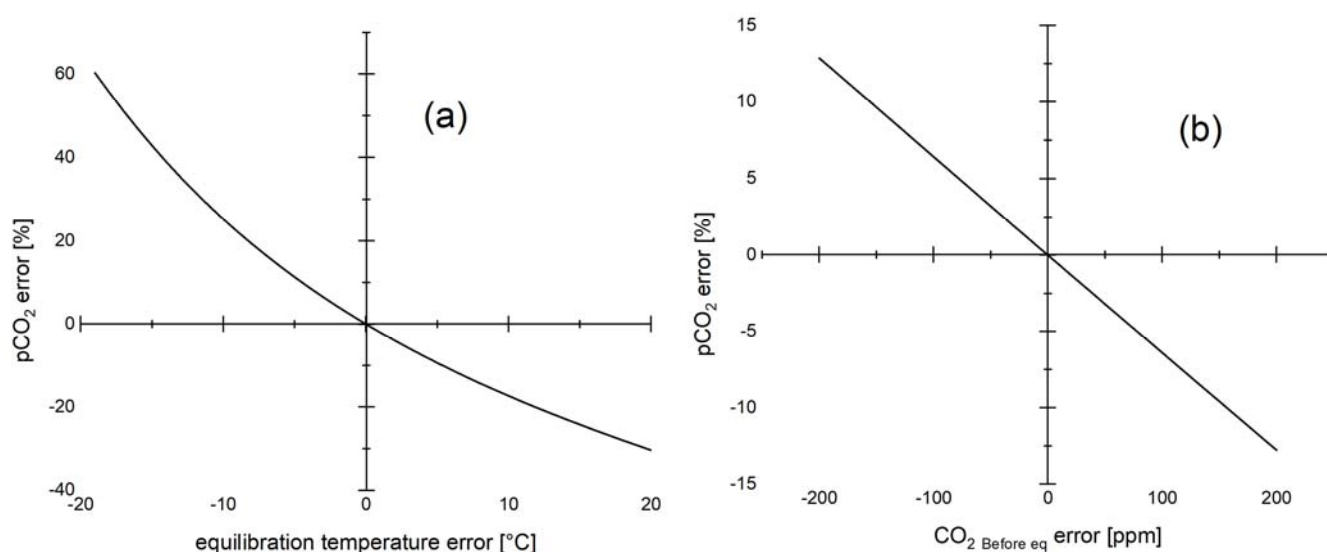
#### 4. Conclusions

The headspace method has been used in several studies about  $CO_2$  fluxes from surface waters. Our error analysis shows that the usual headspace method can be used (error $<5\%$ ) if the pH is below 7.5 or  $pCO_2$  is above 1000  $\mu atm$  ( $TA < 900 \mu mol L^{-1}$ , air headspace), a typical situation in most boreal systems. However, the standard headspace method introduces large errors

211 and cannot be used reliably for under saturated samples, which are typical of eutrophic or low DOC systems. In all other cases,  
212 not accounting for the chemical equilibrium shift leads to a systematic over estimation. The magnitude of the error can be  
213 reduced by increasing the water/headspace ratio or lowering the equilibration temperature. The magnitude of that error can be  
214 roughly estimated from Figure 1. If alkalinity is known,  $p\text{CO}_2$  obtained from headspace equilibration can be corrected by the  
215 provided scripts. We therefore recommend to always measure alkalinity if the headspace method is to be used for  $p\text{CO}_2$   
216 determinations. The procedure can also be used to correct historical  $p\text{CO}_2$  data. Our field data showed that the correction works  
217 well even in highly undersaturated conditions and is not very sensitive to the precise determination of alkalinity if  $\text{N}_2$  is used  
218 as a headspace gas. The precision of the corrected  $p\text{CO}_2$  is similar to that obtained from direct  $p\text{CO}_2$  measurement using a field  
219 NDIR analyser coupled to an on-line equilibrator (Cole and Prairie, 2009; Yoon et al., 2016).

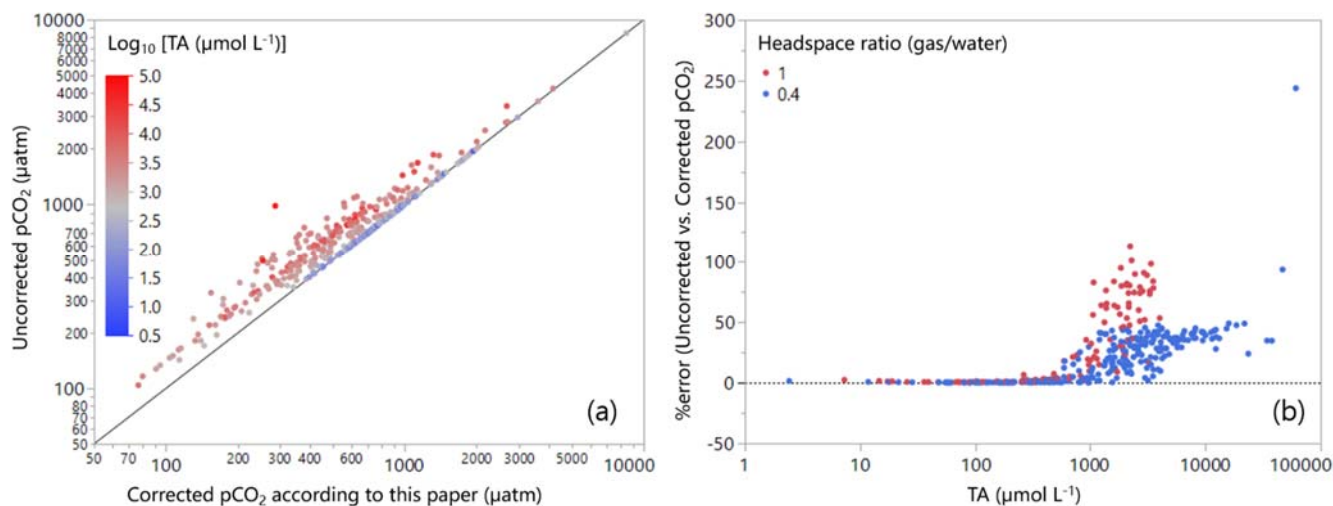
## 220 5. Appendices

### 221 Appendix A: Sensitivity analysis equilibration temperature and $\text{CO}_2$ Before eq



222  
223 **Figure A1: Error for a hypothetical sample with  $\text{CO}_2$  Before eq = 400 ppm,  $\text{CO}_2$  after eq = 1000 ppm, equilibration**  
224 **temperature 20°C, HR = 1 (a) depending on error in equilibration temperature (b) depending on error in initial**  
225 **headspace gas composition.**





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 228 **Figure B1: Field data from 377 lakes across Canada (a) for comparing pCO<sub>2</sub> derived from simple headspace calculation**  
 229 **with that from the corrected headspace calculation according to this paper (Log<sub>10</sub> [TA (µmol L<sup>-1</sup>)] colour coded). (b)**  
 230 **Difference between the uncorrected and corrected pCO<sub>2</sub> expressed as error (%) as a function of TA (µmol L<sup>-1</sup>) (The**  
 231 **headspace ratio colour coded). Note that CO<sub>2</sub>-free gas was used for headspace, and TA values were derived from DIC**  
 232 **measurement and pH. More information about the dataset in Huot et al. (2019).**

233 **6. Code availability**

234 All codes are publicly available at <https://github.com/icra/headspace>

235 **7. Data availability**

236 All data can be found in the supplemental information file.

237 **8. Supplement link (will be included by Copernicus)**

238 **9. Author contribution**

239 All authors conceived the story, performed calculations, and wrote the manuscript. JHK, YP, and RM wrote codes. MK and  
 240 JHK contributed field data.

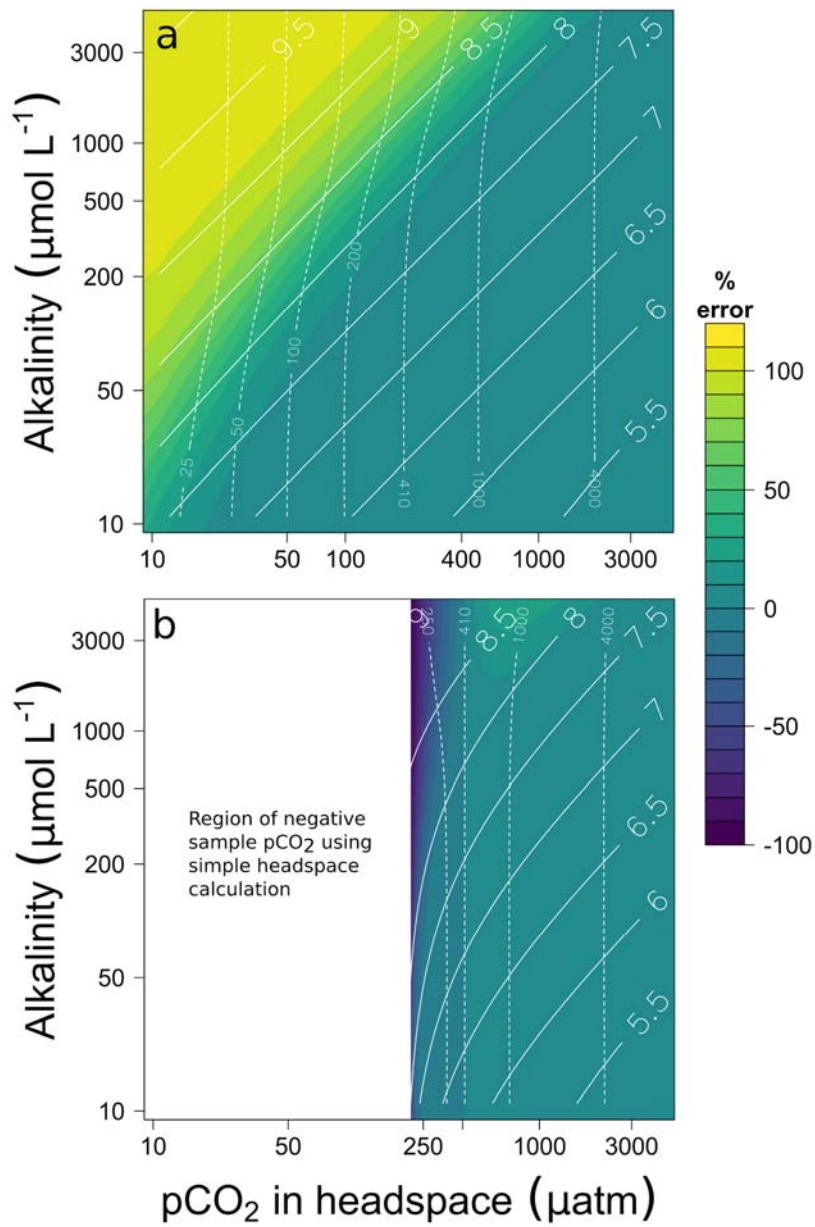
241 **10. Competing interests**

242 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

243 **11. Acknowledgements**

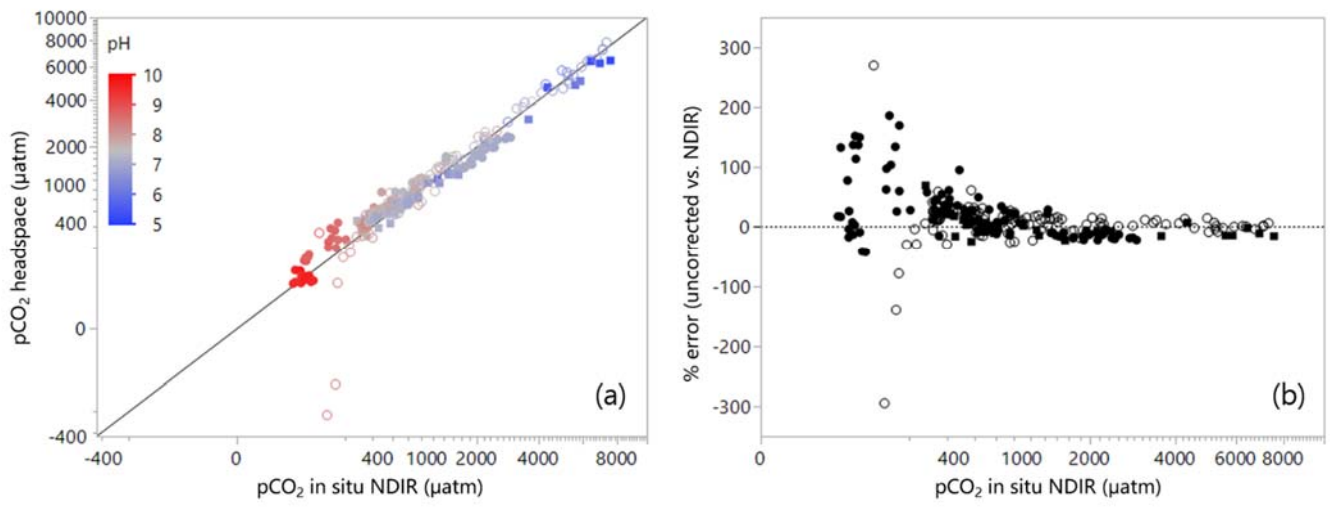
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**Figure 1: Error [%] when applying simple headspace calculations of  $p\text{CO}_2$  on hypothetical water samples of different alkalinity and  $p\text{CO}_2$  in the headspace after equilibration for (a)  $\text{CO}_2$ -free gas headspace and (b) ambient-air headspace assuming a pressure of 1 atm. The resulting pH and  $p\text{CO}_2$  of the samples are depicted as full and dashed lines, respectively. Headspace ratio 1:1, equilibration and field temperature  $20^\circ\text{C}$ . Note the log scale in all axes. In b) results for  $p\text{CO}_2$  in headspace after equilibration lower than 215  $\mu\text{atm}$  are masked, because they would imply negative  $p\text{CO}_2$  in the sample.**



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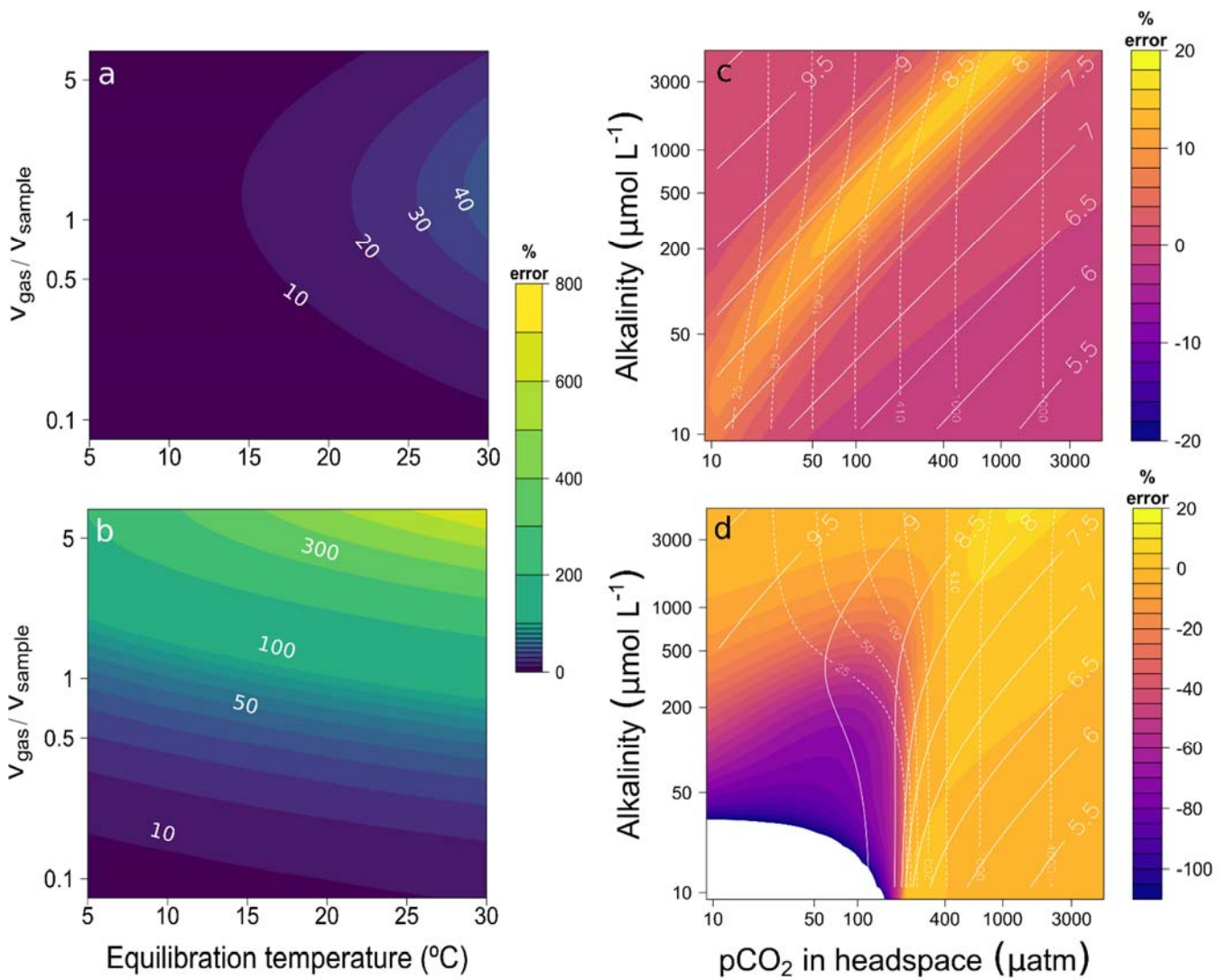
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**Figure 2: (a) Field data from 11 lakes, 5 reservoirs, and 3 streams in Germany, Canada, and Malaysia comparing pCO<sub>2</sub> derived from simple headspace analysis with direct pCO<sub>2</sub> measurements by NDIR analysis (pH colour coded). Note the cube-root scale in both axes. (b) Difference between the pCO<sub>2</sub> derived from the simple headspace analysis and the direct pCO<sub>2</sub> measurements by NDIR analysis expressed as error (%) as a function of the directly measured pCO<sub>2</sub> by NDIR analysis. Note the cube-root scale in x axis. Open-circle symbols: ambient-air headspace, closed-circle symbols: CO<sub>2</sub>-free gas headspace, and closed-square symbols: premeasured-CO<sub>2</sub> gas (between 150 to 250 ppm) headspace applied.**

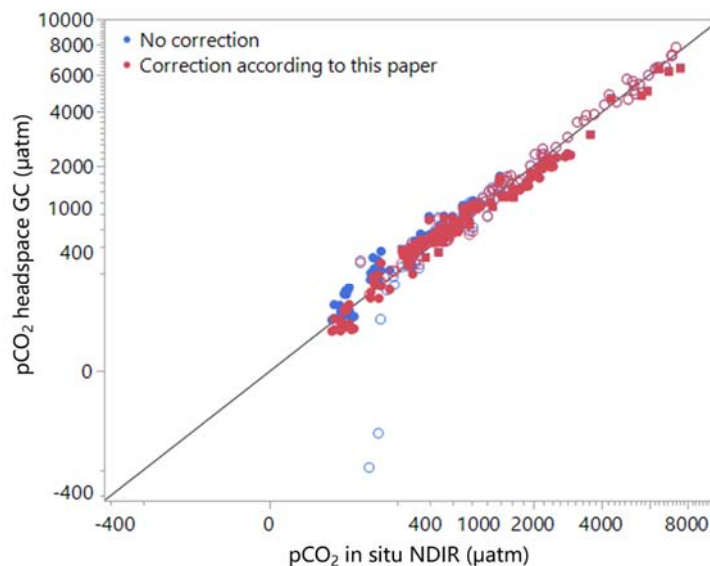
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273 **Figure 3: Error [%] when applying simple headspace calculation depending on headspace ratio and equilibration temperature for**  
 274 **a) 100  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  and b) 1000  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  alkalinity. Panels a and b were constructed using highly undersaturated conditions (headspace**  
 275  **$\text{pCO}_2=50 \mu\text{atm}$  after equilibration and field water temperature of  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). The values of some isolines are added for reference. c)**  
 276 **Error [%] applying our complete headspace method when the alkalinity value supplied for calculations is off the real alkalinity of**  
 277 **the sample by +50%. The results are for hypothetical water samples of different alkalinity and  $\text{pCO}_2$  in the headspace after**  
 278 **equilibration using  $\text{CO}_2$ -free gas headspace, headspace ratio 1:1, and equilibration and field temperature of  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$ . d) like c) but with**  
 279 **air headspace. All calculations assume a pressure of 1 atm.**

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282 **Figure 4: Comparison of uncorrected and corrected data with direct pCO<sub>2</sub> measurements by NDIR analysis. Note the cube-root**  
 283 **scale in both axes. Open-circle symbols: ambient-air headspace, closed-circle symbols: CO<sub>2</sub>-free gas headspace, and closed-square**  
 284 **symbols: premeasured-CO<sub>2</sub> gas (between 150 to 250 ppm) headspace applied.**

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