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3 **Technical note: CO₂ is not like CH₄ – limits of and corrections to the**
4 **headspace method to analyse pCO₂ in water**

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6 Matthias Koschorreck¹, Yves T. Prairie², Jihyeon Kim², Rafael Marcé^{3,4}

7 ¹Department Lake Research, Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research - UFZ, Brückstrasse 3a, D-39114 Magdeburg,
8 Germany

9 ² Département des Sciences Biologiques, Université du Québec à Montréal, Montréal, Québec, Canada

10 ³ Catalan Institute for Water Research (ICRA), Emili Grahit 101, 17003 Girona, Spain

11 ⁴ University of Girona, Girona, Spain

12 Correspondence to: Matthias Koschorreck (matthias.koschorreck@ufz.de)

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18 **Abstract.** Headspace analysis of CO₂ frequently has been used to quantify the concentration of CO₂ 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. In this paper we provide a method to quantify the potential error resulting from simple application of Henry's
21 law to headspace CO₂ samples. By analysing the potential error for different types of water and experimental conditions we
22 conclude that the error incurred by headspace analysis of CO₂ is less than 5% for samples with pH <7.5. However, the simple
23 headspace calculations can lead to high error (up to -800%) or even impossible negative values in highly undersaturated
24 samples equilibrated with ambient air, unless the shift in carbonate equilibrium is explicitly considered. The precision of the
25 method can be improved by lowering the headspace ratio and/or the equilibration temperature and use of a CO₂ free gas for
26 headspace creation. We provide a direct method to correct CO₂ headspace results using separately measured alkalinity.



27 **1. Introduction**

28 The analysis of dissolved CO₂ 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 CO₂ from other alkalinity and pH (Lewis and Wallace,
30 1998;Robbins et al., 2010) are affected by considerable random and systematic errors (Golub et al., 2017) caused e.g. by
31 dissolved organic carbon which may result in significant over estimation of the CO₂ partial pressure (pCO₂) (Abril et al.,
32 2015). Thus, direct measurement of CO₂ is highly recommended, particularly in softwaters.

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

38 In freshwater research this is the widely applied standard method to analyse the concentration of the greenhouse gases such as
39 CH₄ and N₂O (UNESCO/IHA, 2010). The method is handy, does not depend on sophisticated equipment in the field, and
40 provides reliable results. Surprisingly, papers and protocols have been published which use this method also to analyse
41 dissolved CO₂ concentrations in freshwaters (UNESCO/IHA, 2010;Cawley, 2018;Lambert and Fréchet, 2005). However
42 CO₂ cannot be treated like CH₄ because CO₂ is in dynamic chemical equilibrium with other carbonate species in water while
43 CH₄ is not (Stumm and Morgan, 1981;Sander, 1999). Depending on the CO₂ concentration and pH, reactions of the carbonate
44 equilibrium will either produce or consume some CO₂ in the sample vessel (Cole and Prairie, 2009). Although this is textbook
45 knowledge and has been considered in numerous papers (Golub et al., 2017;Gelbrecht et al., 1998;Rantakari et al., 2015;Aberg
46 and Wallin, 2014;Horn et al., 2017), especially in marine research (Dickson et al., 2007), a practical evaluation of the
47 systematic error when applying simple headspace analysis on CO₂ on typical freshwaters is missing. The underlying
48 assumption is that "the effect is likely small" (Hope et al., 1995). In this paper we aim to quantify the error associated with the
49 simple application of Henry's law on headspace CO₂ data, present practical guidelines describing conditions under which the
50 simple headspace analysis of CO₂ can give acceptable results, and offer a tool for exact CO₂ calculation using a complete
51 headspace method that accounts for the carbonate equilibrium in the sample vessel, which can also be used for correcting
52 results obtained by simple headspace analysis of CO₂ using additional information regarding the carbonate system (i.e.
53 alkalinity or DIC). Lastly, we tested the proposed correction procedure to a set of field measurements where pCO₂ was
54 determined with independent methods (with and without headspace equilibration).



55 **2. Methods**

56 **2.1 Theoretical considerations**

57 If a water sample is equilibrated with a headspace containing a given $p\text{CO}_2$ (zero in case N_2 or other CO_2 -free gas is used),
58 some CO_2 is exchanged between water and headspace resulting in an altered dissolve inorganic carbon (DIC) concentration in
59 the water of the sample thereby altering the equilibrium of the carbonate system in the water. Depending on partial pressures
60 of CO_2 in the water relative to the headspace gas prior to equilibration, some CO_2 will either be produced from HCO_3^- or
61 converted to HCO_3^- . The exact amount will depend on temperature, pH, alkalinity, and the original $p\text{CO}_2$ of the water sample.
62 If an N_2 headspace was applied, the vessel will finally contain more CO_2 than before equilibration and consequently simply
63 applying Henry's law results in a too high $p\text{CO}_2$ value. If an air headspace is applied, the error becomes negative in under-
64 saturated samples.

65 To calculate this error we implemented an R-script that simulates the above mentioned physical and chemical equilibration for
66 a wide range of hypothetical $p\text{CO}_2$, alkalinity, temperature, and headspace ratio ($\text{HR} = V_{\text{gas}} / V_{\text{liquid}}$) values. As output, we then
67 compared the corrected (for the chemical equilibrium shift) and non-corrected $p\text{CO}_2$ values.

68 **2.1 Field data**

69 We routinely sampled water in 4 German reservoirs and 11 Canadian lakes exhibiting a wide range of total alkalinity (TA)
70 between 0.2 and 2.4 meq L^{-1} . Two techniques were used to measure water $p\text{CO}_2$ in each sampling site: *in situ* NDIR technique
71 and headspace equilibration technique. First, for the *in situ* NDIR technique, the water is pumped through the lumen side of a
72 membrane contactor (mini module, Membrana, U.S.A.) (Cole and Prairie, 2009) and the gas side is connected to a NDIR
73 analyser (EGM4, PP-Systems, U.S.A. or LGR ultra-portable gas analyser) in a counter-flow recirculating loop. Readings were
74 taken when the CO_2 [ppmv] values of the NDIR analyser became stable (usually less than a minute) at which point the gas
75 loop is in direct equilibrium with the sampled water. Final $p\text{CO}_2$ of the water was calculated by multiplying the CO_2 mixing
76 ratio by the ambient atmospheric pressure. Second, for the headspace technique, the water samples were taken in 60 mL
77 syringes. In the German reservoirs, about 40 mL of water sample were taken and eventually occurring bubbles were pushed
78 out by adjusting the sample volume to 30 mL. Samples were stored at 4° C and analysed within 1 day. In the laboratory, 30
79 mL of pure N_2 gas was added to the syringes after the samples had reached laboratory temperature and the syringes were
80 shaken for one hour at laboratory temperature. After headspace equilibration water was discarded from the syringes and the
81 headspace was manually injected into a gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) and a methanizer
82 (GC 6810C, SRI Instruments, U.S.A.). In the Canadian lakes, 20 mL of the water samples were taken and equilibrated with
83 40 mL volume of atmospheric air by vigorously shaking the syringes for 2 minutes. The equilibrated air was immediately
84 transferred to and stored in 12 mL pre-evacuated exetainer vials (Labco Ltd., UK) and returned to the laboratory where it was
85 injected into a gas chromatograph (GC-2014, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a FID. The original water $p\text{CO}_2$ was
86 then calculated according to the headspace ratio, temperature, and the measured headspace $p\text{CO}_2$ as follows:



$$87 \quad pCO_{2\text{ water}} = \frac{(pCO_{2\text{ After eq}} \times K_{h\text{ Eq}}) + \left(\frac{V_{\text{gas}}}{V_{\text{liquid}}} \times \left(\frac{pCO_{2\text{ After eq}} - pCO_{2\text{ Before eq}}}{V_m} \right) \right)}{K_{h\text{ Sample}}} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

88 with $pCO_{2\text{ Before eq}}$ and $pCO_{2\text{ After eq}}$ = CO₂ mixing ratio in the headspace before and after equilibrium [ppm], $K_{h\text{ Eq}}$ and
89 $K_{h\text{ Sample}}$ = gas solubility at the equilibration temperature and at the sampling temperature (Henry coefficient (Sander, 2015)
90 [mol L⁻¹ atm⁻¹], V_{gas} = headspace volume, V_{liquid} = sampled-water volume, and V_m = molar volume [L mol⁻¹] (UNESCO/IHA,
91 2010).

92 The difference between the two methods was divided by the pCO₂ measured by the *in situ* NDIR analysis and expressed as %
93 error. In addition, temperature and pH of the water were measured *in situ* by a CTD probe (Sea and Sun, Germany) or a portable
94 pH meter (pH meter 913, Metrohm Ltd, Canada). In 12 samples from Canadian lakes, total alkalinity (TA) was analysed by
95 titration with 0.11N HCl.

96 3. Results and Discussion

97 3.1 Simulations from chemical equilibrium

98 Applying a CO₂-free gas as headspace always resulted in a positive error (over-estimation of the real pCO₂, Figure 1a). If air
99 is applied as headspace the error becomes negative in case of under saturated samples (Figure 1b). The error tends to be lower
100 if ambient air is used for headspace equilibration (Figure 1b) compared to equilibration with CO₂-free gas (Figure 1a). This is
101 because less CO₂ is exchanged between water and headspace during the equilibration procedure. The error will be quite low
102 in high CO₂, low alkalinity samples which are typical for boreal regions. However, the error can be higher than 100% if the
103 samples are under saturated. The magnitude of the error is predictable from pH. Because of the carbonate equilibrium reactions,
104 high pH is necessarily accompanied by low pCO₂ for a given alkalinity. Consequently, the error is large at high pH while it is
105 below 10 % at pH < 8 (headspace ratio 1:1).

106 Our field dataset is consistent with the theoretical predictions. The fit between both methods is rather good (Figure 2a, R² =
107 0.96) showing that the absolute error was in an acceptable range. However, the relative error reached values up to 200 %. A
108 large error was observed at low pCO₂ while the error approached zero at pCO₂ above 1000 μatm (Figure 2b). Data scatter was
109 considerable as was observed previously (Johnson et al., 2010), most probably because the analytical error of the applied
110 methods was often in the same range as the absolute difference between both methods. In under-saturated samples the
111 difference between N₂ and air headspace became apparent, in line with theoretical predictions the error became negative when
112 air was applied as headspace (Figure 2b).

113 3.2 Error magnitude depends on the experimental procedure

114 The maximum error (error_{max}) depends on how much gas is exchanged between water and headspace. The more gas is
115 exchanged between water and headspace the higher the error is. Thus, the error increases with decreasing solubility coefficient



116 or HR. In high alkalinity samples, the error can be significantly reduced by using a larger headspace to water ratio (Figure 3).
117 By raising the headspace ratio from 1 to 5 at 20° the error can be reduced from about 50% to about 10%.
118 Since solubility of CO₂ depends on temperature, the equilibration temperature also affects headspace equilibration. Due to
119 lower solubility at higher temperature, more gas evades into the headspace and thus, the error increases with increasing
120 temperature (Figure 3). At a HR of 1, the error increases from 97 % at 20° to 111 % at 25°C in a high (1 meq L⁻¹) alkalinity
121 sample. Thus, the error can be significantly reduced by lowering the equilibration temperature. A possible way to take
122 advantage of this is to perform headspace equilibration at *in situ* temperature in the field, as have been done in several studies.
123 If *in situ* water temperature is lower than typical laboratory temperature, the error is thereby reduced. However, care must be
124 taken to make sure that the exact equilibration temperature is known.

125 3.3 What about kinetics?

126 CO₂ reactivity with water would not cause a problem for headspace analysis if the reaction kinetics were slow compared to
127 physical headspace equilibration. The slowest reaction of the carbonate system is the hydration of CO₂ which has a first order
128 rate constant of 0.037 s⁻¹ (Soli and Byrne, 2002) so that chemical equilibration of CO₂ in water is in the range of seconds
129 (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001; Schulz et al., 2006). This means that chemical equilibrium reactions are faster than physical
130 headspace equilibration and the chemical system can be assumed always to be in equilibrium. Thus, the reactions of the
131 carbonate system have to be fully considered in headspace analysis of CO₂.

132 3.4 Correction of CO₂ headspace data

133 If other information regarding the carbonate system of the sample is known (alkalinity or DIC), one can correct for the bias
134 induced by simple headspace calculations. The procedure involves estimating the exact pH of the equilibrium solution before
135 and after equilibration. Here, we develop the procedure when the alkalinity of the sample is known, in addition to the usual
136 parameters required for headspace calculations: water temperature of equilibration and in the field, pCO₂ after equilibration,
137 pCO₂ of the headspace gas before equilibration, and headspace ratio.

138 After equilibration, the pH (-log₁₀[H⁺]) of the aqueous solution can be obtained by finding the roots of the 3rd polynomial

$$140 \quad 0 = [H^+]^3 + TA \cdot [H^+]^2 - ([CO_2]K_1 + K_w)[H^+] - 2K_1K_2[CO_2] \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

141 where $[CO_2] = pCO_2 \cdot K_{hEq}$ and from which one can obtain the ionisation fraction for CO₂ (α_{CO_2}) as

$$142 \quad \alpha_{CO_2} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{K_1}{[H^+]} + \frac{K_1K_2}{[H^+]^2}} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

143 Where K₁ and K₂ are the temperature -dependent equilibrium constants for the dissociation reactions for bicarbonates and
144 carbonates, respectively (Millero, 1979). K_w is the dissociation constant of water into H⁺ and OH⁻ (Millero, 1979). The total
145 DIC contained in the original sample (DIC_{orig}) can then be calculated as



$$146 \quad DIC_{orig} = \frac{CO_2}{\alpha_0} + (CO_{2HS_{after}} - CO_{2HS_{bef}}) \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

147 Given the DIC concentration of the original solution from Eq. 4, the pH of this solution prior to equilibration can be obtained
148 by finding the roots of the 4th order polynomial

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$$150 \quad 0 = [H^+]^4 + (TA + K_1) \cdot [H^+]^3 + (TA \cdot K_1 - K_w + K_1 K_2 - [DIC]_{orig} K_1) \cdot [H^+]^2 + (K_1 K_2 \cdot TA - K_1 K_w - 2[DIC]_{orig} K_1 K_2) \cdot [H^+] - \\ 151 \quad K_1 K_2 K_w \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

152 to then estimate the corresponding ionization fraction α'_{CO_2} as in Eq. 3 above and calculate the original pCO₂ of the sample
153 as

$$154 \quad pCO_2 = \frac{\alpha'_{CO_2} [DIC]_{orig}}{K_{h, Sample}} \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

155 where $K_{h, Sample}$ is determined for the water temperature during field sample collection. We applied the above correction
156 procedure to the Canadian samples where pCO₂ was measured in several samples using both headspace and in situ NDIR
157 methods together with measured alkalinity data. Figure 4 shows that the corrected values matched the in situ NDIR values
158 nearly perfectly ($r^2=0.997$) whereas the simple headspace calculations resulted, as expected, in significant underestimation for
159 undersaturated samples equilibrated with ambient air.

160 We examined the sensitivity of the correction procedure to the precision of the alkalinity measurements and found that the
161 error associated with alkalinity determination does not severely impact the final pCO₂ estimate when using N₂ as a headspace
162 gas. For example, the error in the corrected pCO₂ values is always below 20% even when the alkalinity is known only to within
163 50% error (Fig. 3c). However, more precise alkalinity values are required when using ambient air as a headspace gas in
164 undersaturated conditions (Fig. 3d).

165 The correction calculations have been implemented in an R script and, for a user-friendly interface, as an JMP add-in (or JSL
166 script) (<https://github.com/icra/headspace>). Roots of the polynomials (Eqs. 2 and 5) can be solved using either standard
167 analytical formulas (e.g. Zwillinger (2018)) or by iterative algorithms. Analytical solution are faster than iterative algorithms
168 but can suffer small instabilities ($SD \approx 1$ ppmv) in extreme situations (alkalinity >4000 $\mu\text{eq L}^{-1}$ and pCO₂ <100 ppmv) due to
169 limitations inherent to double precision numerical calculations.

170 4. Conclusions

171 The headspace method has been used in several studies about CO₂ fluxes from surface waters. Our error analysis shows that
172 the usual headspace method can be used (error <5%) if the pH is below 7.5 or pCO₂ is above 1000 μatm (TA <1700, air
173 headspace), a typical situation in most boreal systems. However, the standard headspace introduces large errors and cannot be
174 used reliably for under saturated samples, which are typical of eutrophic or low DOC systems. In all other cases, not accounting
175 for the chemical equilibrium shift leads to a systematic over estimation. The magnitude of the error can be reduced by
176 increasing the water/headspace ratio, lowering the equilibration temperature, and/or using air instead of N₂ as headspace. The



177 magnitude of that error can be roughly estimated from Figure 1. If alkalinity is known, pCO₂ obtained from headspace
178 equilibration can be corrected by the provided scripts. We therefore recommend to always measure alkalinity if the headspace
179 method is to be used for pCO₂ determinations. The procedure can also be used to correct historical pCO₂ data. Our field data
180 showed that the correction works well even in highly undersaturated conditions and is not very sensitive to the precise
181 determination of alkalinity if N₂ is used as a headspace gas. The precision of the corrected pCO₂ is similar to that obtained
182 from direct pCO₂ measurement using a field NDIR analyser coupled to an on-line equilibrator (Cole and Prairie, 2009; Yoon
183 et al., 2016).

184 **5. Code availability**

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

186 **6. Data availability**

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

188 **7. Supplement link (will be included by Copernicus)**

189 **8. Author contribution**

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

192 **9. Competing interests**

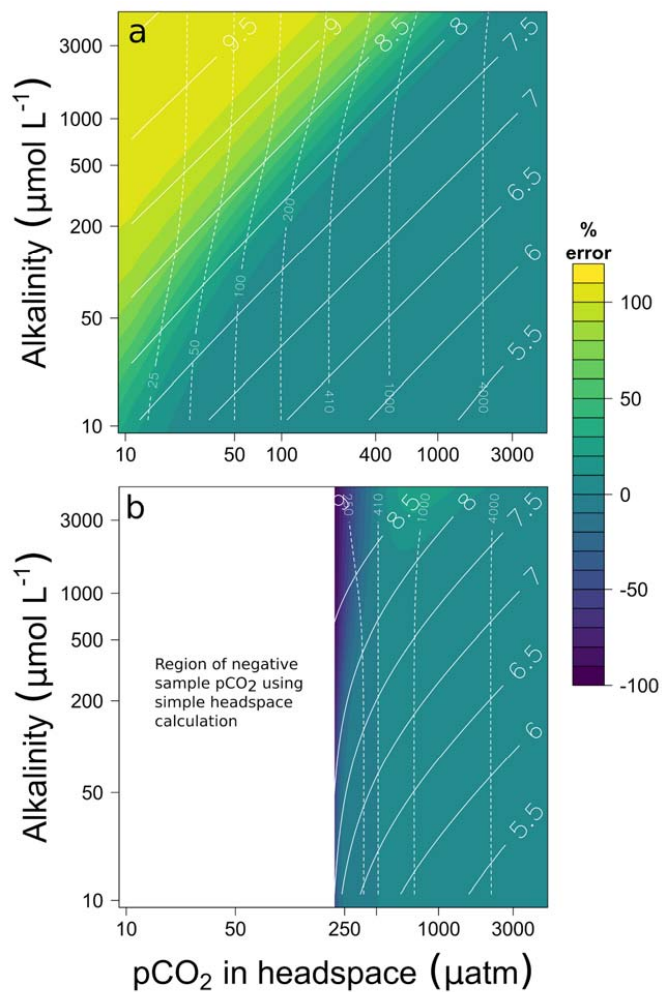
193 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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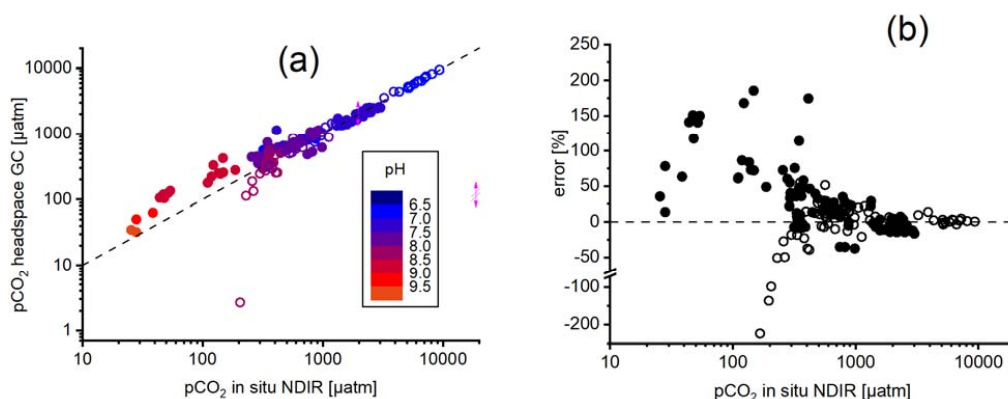
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202 Environmental Change.
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210 **Figure 1: Error [%] when applying simple headspace calculations of pCO₂ on hypothetical water samples of different alkalinity and**
211 **pCO₂ in the headspace after equilibration for (a) N₂ headspace and (b) air headspace. The resulting pH and pCO₂ of the samples**
212 **are depicted as full and dashed lines, respectively. Headspace ratio 1:1, equilibration and field temperature 20°C. Note the log scale**
213 **in all axes. In b) results for pCO₂ in headspace after equilibration lower than 215 μatm are masked, because they would imply**
214 **negative pCO₂ in the sample.**

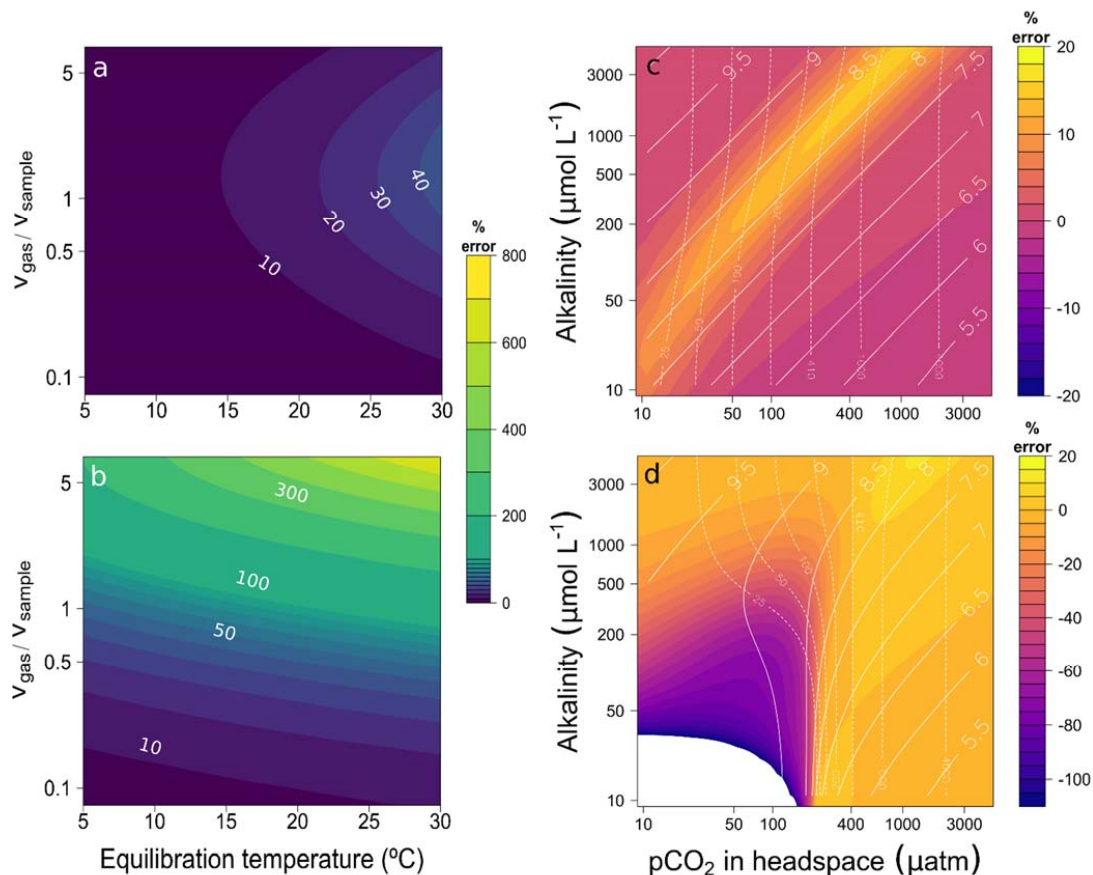


215 **Figure 2: (a) Field data from 4 German reservoirs and 11 Canadian lakes comparing pCO₂ derived from headspace analysis with**
216 **direct pCO₂ measurements by NDIR analysis (pH colour coded). (b) Difference between both methods expressed as percentage of**
217 **the NDIR value as a function of pCO₂. Open symbols: air headspace, closed symbols: N₂ headspace applied.**
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222 **Figure 3:** Error [%] when applying simple headspace calculation depending on headspace ratio and equilibration temperature for
223 a) 100 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ and b) 1000 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ alkalinity. Panels a and b were constructed using highly undersaturated conditions (headspace
224 $\text{pCO}_2=50 \mu\text{atm}$ after equilibration and field water temperature of 20°C). The value of some isolines are added for reference. c) Error
225 [%] applying our complete headspace method when the alkalinity value supplied for calculations is off the real alkalinity of the
226 sample by +50%. The results are for hypothetical water samples of different alkalinity and pCO_2 in the headspace after equilibration
227 using N_2 headspace, headspace ratio 1:1, and equilibration and field temperature of 20°C. d) like c) but with air headspace.

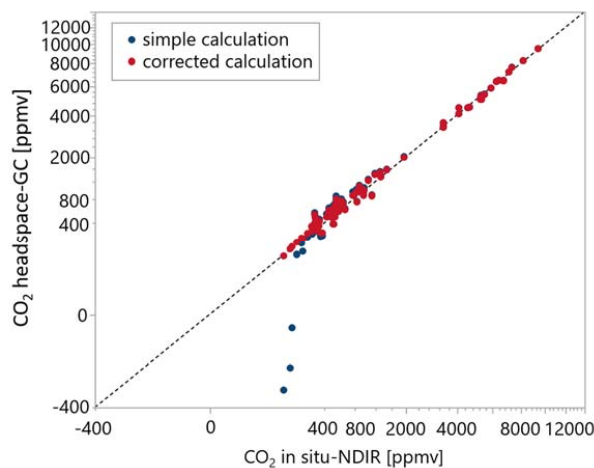
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235 **Figure 4: Comparison of uncorrected and corrected data (using measured alkalinity) with pCO₂ measured by NDIR analysis. Blue**
236 **dots indicate samples with negative concentrations if not corrected.**

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