

1 **A new field approach for the collection of samples for aquatic $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ analysis using**
2 **headspace equilibration and molecular sieve traps: The Super Headspace Method**

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20 **A new field approach for the collection of samples for aquatic ¹⁴CO₂ analysis using**
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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Carbon dioxide evasion from inland waters such as lakes, rivers and streams,
26 represents a significant component of the global carbon cycle, yet in many parts of the world
27 relatively little is known about its source. Radiocarbon dating of aquatic CO₂ has the
28 potential to provide new insights into C cycling in the terrestrial-aquatic-atmosphere
29 continuum, and while a range of methods are available for the collection of samples for ¹⁴C
30 analysis, they all have limitations or disadvantages (e.g. slow collection rates, potential non-
31 equilibrium). These issues are further compounded in remote field sites. Here, we describe a
32 new method for the field collection of CO₂ samples from low pH waters (pH<7) for
33 radiocarbon analysis, which involves a scaled-up version of the widely-used headspace
34 equilibration technique coupled with syringe-injection of samples into molecular sieve traps
35 for convenient and stable storage. We present the results of laboratory and field tests to verify
36 this “Super Headspace Method”, and discuss its advantages compared to existing techniques,
37 particularly for sampling in remote locations. This includes its high portability, speed of use,
38 and absence of any special sample preservation requirements.

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The importance of lakes, rivers and streams as globally significant sources of
42 greenhouse gases is being increasingly recognised (Borges *et al.*, 2015). CO₂ evasion from
43 these inland waters has been estimated at ~2.1 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Raymond *et al.*, 2013), which is
44 broadly the same magnitude as the total terrestrial land carbon sink. Moreover, there is still
45 considerable uncertainty concerning the sources of aquatic CO₂ (Raymond *et al.*, 2013),
46 which must be addressed if we are to more accurately predict the response of the global
47 carbon cycle to change. This is particularly relevant to the Arctic regions where there is
48 evidence that “old” carbon is being released into aquatic systems in response to warming (e.g.
49 Vonk *et al.*, 2015).

50 The isotopic composition of aquatic carbon can be used to identify the sources of
51 different forms of carbon (e.g. particulate and dissolved organic carbon, dissolved inorganic
52 carbon and methane), and the processes responsible for their transformations (Benner *et al.*,
53 2004; Raymond and Bauer, 2001; Billett *et al.*, 2012). Radiocarbon (^{14}C) analysis/dating
54 provides unique information to enable the partitioning of different carbon sources (e.g.
55 organic matter versus carbonate), its age and rate that it is cycled across the terrestrial-
56 aquatic-atmospheric system (Billett *et al.*, 2007).

57 Isotopic methods for the analysis of aquatic organic carbon are well established.
58 However, analysis of aquatic CO_2 has until recently received far less attention, particularly in
59 regard to ^{14}C . This is a serious omission given the magnitude of the CO_2 evasion flux
60 (Raymond *et al.*, 2013) and because an accurate quantification of the contemporary carbon
61 balance of catchments containing old carbon (e.g. peatlands) requires an understanding of the
62 age of the CO_2 (Billett *et al.*, 2015), which is best determined through measurement of the
63 ^{14}C content of aquatic CO_2 .

64 The “gas stripping” method is frequently used to determine the isotopic composition
65 of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and aquatic CO_2 (the latter via temperature and pH
66 dependent equilibria (Stumm and Morgan, 1981; Butler, 1982) and experimentally-derived
67 isotopic fractionation factors (Zhang *et al.*, 1995)). Originally developed for the analysis of
68 sea waters (Kroopnick *et al.*, 1970), the procedure involves the recovery of the total DIC
69 following acidification of water samples with phosphoric acid to a point where all of the DIC
70 is converted to CO_2 ; the CO_2 is then recovered for isotope analysis (including ^{14}C
71 measurement; e.g. McNichol *et al.*, 1994; Dean *et al.*, 2014). This, or similar, methods are
72 also used for measurement of stable carbon isotopes in freshwaters (e.g. Gillikin and
73 Bouillon, 2007). However, these methods have significant disadvantages for the preparation
74 of radiocarbon samples because of the greater sample size requirements; stable carbon
75 isotope analysis of DIC requires as little as 0.5 ml or less of water (e.g. Gillikin and Bouillon,
76 2007; Klein Gebbinck *et al.*, 2014) whereas ^{14}C analysis may require hundreds or thousands
77 of millilitres even for measurements undertaken using accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS;
78 the actual volume of water needed being dependent on the DIC concentration). There are also
79 concerns about the reliability of the “gas stripping” method for determining the isotopic
80 composition of aquatic CO_2 since it has been suggested that some of the assumptions
81 regarding equilibrium conditions and the calculations used may not hold for all (i.e.
82 biogeochemically variable) aquatic systems (Billett and Garnett, 2010). In addition, when
83 using water samples for isotope analysis consideration must be given to sample preservation,

84 especially given recent reports of the high lability of different forms of aquatic carbon
85 (McCallister and Giorgio, 2012, Moody *et al.*, 2013; Drake *et al.*, 2015).

86 New methods for the radiocarbon analysis of aquatic CO₂ have recently been
87 developed. For example, Gao *et al.* (2014) reported a rapid method using headspace
88 extraction of acidified water samples. Other methods exploit the convenience of zeolite
89 molecular sieves as a CO₂ adsorbent, which has the advantage that the sample CO₂ can be
90 quickly isolated and stabilised in the field, and stored in a concentrated, stationary phase
91 inside gas-tight cartridges; this provides advantages of high portability of samples and avoids
92 concerns relating to the preservation and transport of water samples. These molecular sieve
93 traps have been used in conjunction with floating chambers in order to collect CO₂ evaded
94 from a stream surface; once sufficient CO₂ has accumulated, chamber air is pumped through
95 a molecular sieve trap to collect the CO₂, allowing it to be returned to the laboratory,
96 recovered and analysed (Billett *et al.*, 2006). A passive (in situ) sampling method has also
97 been developed whereby a gas permeable hydrophobic filter allows aquatic CO₂ (but not
98 water) to enter a cartridge containing the molecular sieve, where it is again trapped and held
99 until returned to the laboratory for processing (Garnett *et al.*, 2012). These methods have
100 proven to be extremely valuable in a number of studies (e.g. Billett *et al.*, 2007; Billett *et al.*,
101 2012; Vihermaa *et al.*, 2014), however, neither are particularly rapid, and both result in the
102 collection of time-integrated samples, rather than the collection of a sample from a single
103 instance in time (a floating chamber sample may take several hours to collect, whereas a
104 passive sample may take 3-6 weeks). In aquatic systems prone to high temporal variability
105 associated with rapid rainfall-runoff response, it is important for source/age attribution to be
106 able to sample individual parts of the hydrograph. Hence while time-integrated sampling
107 offers many advantages and is appropriate to many situations, we identified a need for a new
108 and faster sampling approach that would allow the determination of the ¹⁴C age of aquatic
109 CO₂ at a specific moment in time. This would allow results to be compared with other
110 measurements (e.g. DO¹⁴C, PO¹⁴C), tied to the same sampling chronology and which would,
111 for example, have considerable benefits for capturing relatively short-term hydrological
112 events (e.g. storm events). In addition, we required a sampling method that could be used in
113 remote locations and therefore had low power requirements, was easily transportable (i.e.
114 minimal equipment) and had no special storage requirements.

115 Here, we present a new sampling technique for ¹⁴C dating of aquatic CO₂, which
116 meets the requirements for remote field working. The technique combines established
117 “headspace equilibration” techniques widely used as a method to directly measure aquatic

118 dissolved CO₂ (e.g. Kling *et al.*, 1991; Dinsmore *et al.*, 2013), scaled up to provide the larger
119 sample size requirements of ¹⁴C analysis, with syringe injection of headspace gases into
120 molecular sieve CO₂ traps. We present the results of tests used to verify the “Super
121 Headspace Method”, which is rapid and highly portable, and has already proven to be reliable
122 during field sampling campaigns in remote Arctic ecosystems.

123

124 **2. Methods**

125

126 2.1 Description of the new sampling method

127 We used a collapsible water carrier (5 L and 10 L Accordion Water Carrier – AWC;
128 Highlander, Livingston, UK; Figure 1) for an equilibration chamber. The AWC was modified
129 by replacing the screw cap lid with a 2-holed rubber bung which had stainless steel pipe
130 inserted into each hole (~5 cm lengths of 6 mm o/d). Sampling ports were provided using
131 quick connect couplings (Colder Products Co, USA) attached to the pipes via ~5 cm lengths
132 of tubing (Tygon E3603, Saint-Gobain, France). Although the couplings had shut-off valves
133 that automatically closed on disconnection, plastic clips were also placed across the Tygon
134 tubing to provide an additional second seal (WeLoc, Scandinavia Direct, UK). Tests using an
135 infrared gas analyser (IRGA; PPSystems EGM-4, Hitchin, UK) verified that the AWC was
136 gas tight (when filled with 1 L of nitrogen, less than 0.0025 ml of CO₂ accumulated after 15
137 minutes, i.e. <0.1 % of a typical sample).

138 Immediately before use, the AWC was “collapsed” to remove atmospheric air and
139 then flushed with CO₂-free air and evacuated using a 1 L “jumbo” syringe (Thames Restek
140 UK Ltd); the gas port of the syringe had a quick coupling attached via a ~3 cm length of
141 Tygon tubing providing a leak-tight connection to the AWC. CO₂-free air was generated on-
142 site using the 1 L syringe by passing atmospheric air twice through a cartridge (1.8 cm o/d x
143 45 cm length) containing soda lime (i.e. when the syringe was filled and also when injected
144 into the AWC; earlier tests using an IRGA had confirmed the complete removal of
145 atmospheric CO₂ during this operation, and this can be repeated, as necessary, in the field
146 using the IRGA to confirm a CO₂-free source). Stream water was then gently pumped into the
147 AWC via Tygon tubing using a 12V aquarium pump at a flow rate of ~300 cc/minute (pump
148 rate will vary according to water temperature and hydraulic head). The volume of water
149 sampled was initially estimated by monitoring the pumping time, and later (after sample
150 collection) more accurately measured using a 1 L measuring cylinder (alternatively a

151 balance/weighing scales (accurate to at least ± 0.01 kg) can be used to infer sample volume
152 from the weight). A known volume of CO₂-free air was injected into the AWC using the 1 L
153 syringe to create a headspace into which aquatic CO₂ was equilibrated. As with other,
154 established headspace methods, equilibration was achieved by shaking.

155 Following equilibration, the CO₂ concentration of the headspace inside the AWC was
156 measured using an IRGA. Measured volumes of headspace gas were then removed from the
157 AWC using the jumbo syringe and injected into a cartridge containing Type 13X zeolite
158 molecular sieve (Figure 1; see Hardie *et al.*, 2005 for details about the molecular sieve
159 cartridge). As the gas slowly (<500 ml/minute) passed through the cartridge, sample CO₂ was
160 trapped by the molecular sieve. After passing through the molecular sieve cartridge (MSC),
161 the remaining headspace gases were allowed to vent to atmosphere via a cartridge containing
162 soda lime, which prevented atmospheric CO₂ back-filling into the MSC. At least ~ 3 ml CO₂
163 is recommended for collection of samples for radiocarbon analysis using these MSCs as
164 established from tests performed on standard gases of known radiocarbon concentration
165 (Garnett and Murray, 2013). Therefore, if necessary, several litres of equilibrated headspace
166 gas were syringe-injected into the same MSC, as calculated using:

$$167 \quad V = (3 \times 10^6) / C \quad (1)$$

168 Where V is the volume of headspace gas (ml) at a CO₂ concentration of C (ppm)
169 required to provide the minimum 3 ml of CO₂ for a sample.

170

171 2.2 Laboratory tests of sampling methods

172 Laboratory tests investigated whether contamination and isotopic fractionation of
173 samples occurred. First, to test for the introduction of contaminants during syringe-injection
174 of a MSC, ¹⁴C-dead CO₂ (derived from the combustion of geologically-old anthracite) was
175 sampled by syringe-injecting into a MSC and then recovered for ¹⁴C analysis using routine
176 methods (Garnett and Murray, 2013). To test for isotopic fractionation during transfer using
177 the 1 L syringe and also during injection into a MSC, a CO₂-enriched air reference gas
178 (“Mix”) with a known $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature was aliquoted using syringe-injection into 2 foil gas
179 bags (SKC Ltd, UK) and 2 MSCs. To test the complete headspace equilibration and MSC
180 syringe-injection procedure, a gas standard of known ¹⁴C concentration (CO₂ derived from
181 TIRI barley mash; Gulliksen and Scott, 1995) was introduced to an AWC containing 3 L of

182 deionised water and a 1 L headspace formed from CO₂-free air, shaken for 3 minutes (to
183 equilibrate), and transferred into a MSC using syringe-injection.

184 2.3 Field tests of sampling methods

185 Field tests initially focussed on establishing the optimum protocol for headspace
186 equilibration of stream water in an AWC. Firstly, the time required for isotopic equilibration
187 was assessed by collecting headspace gases after different periods of time (total shaking
188 times of 30, 90, and 180 seconds; the same water sample was used for each sample, with a
189 new headspace recreated using CO₂-free air in between each sample collection). This test was
190 performed in duplicate, with the CO₂ concentration being measured at 30 second intervals
191 and all headspace samples collected using syringe-injection into MSCs. In addition, a single
192 water sample was shaken for 180 seconds and the headspace CO₂ recovered by syringe-
193 injection into a molecular sieve cartridge.

194 A second field test aimed to determine the optimum water:headspace ratio for
195 equilibrating samples. Water:headspace ratios of 2:1, 3:1, 4:1 and 5:1 were tested, by varying
196 the volume of stream water inside an AWC and maintaining the headspace volume at 1 L.
197 Each ratio was investigated in triplicate, with headspace CO₂ concentrations measured at 30
198 second intervals throughout a total equilibration time of 3 minutes. For each water:headspace
199 ratio, the total headspace gas (~1 L) from one sample was collected by syringe-injection into
200 an MSC. The headspace gases (~1 L) from the 2 additional equilibrations at the same
201 water:headspace ratio were syringe-injected into foil gas bags.

202 All field tests were performed at a small (approximately 40 cm wide by 30 cm deep)
203 peatland stream adjacent to Langlands Moss, a domed ombrotrophic peat bog in central
204 south-west Scotland, UK (55°44'5.5"N 04°10'25.8"W). The site has been used previously for
205 aquatic ¹⁴C measurements of CO₂ and CH₄ (Garnett *et al.*, 2015). Peat depth in the centre of
206 Langlands Moss is at least 8 m (Langdon and Barber, 2005). Water temperature and pH were
207 measured and a sample of stream water collected in a sealed foil bag for total DIC
208 measurement using gas-stripping.

209 2.4 Recovery of sample CO₂ and carbon isotope analysis

210 Molecular sieve and gas bag samples from Langlands Moss were returned to the
211 NERC Radiocarbon Facility (located 2 km from the field site) and the CO₂ cryogenically
212 recovered (Garnett and Murray, 2013). For the water sample, total DIC was recovered as CO₂
213 following acidification using ortho-phosphoric acid and cryogenic collection (Bryant *et al.*,

214 2013). The volume of CO₂ recovered from all samples was measured using a pressure
215 transducer in a calibrated volume, and divided into aliquots for ¹³C and ¹⁴C analysis. The
216 ¹³C/¹²C ratio (expressed in ‰ relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB) international
217 standard) was determined using isotope ratio mass spectrometry (Thermo Fisher Delta V).
218 Only standard gases and samples from the field experiment investigating equilibration with
219 different water:headspace ratios were selected for ¹⁴C analysis. These samples were measured
220 by AMS at the Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (East Kilbride, UK)
221 using an aliquot of sample CO₂ converted to graphite (Slota *et al.*, 1987). Following
222 convention, ¹⁴C results were corrected for mass-dependent fractionation by normalising to a
223 δ¹³C of -25 ‰ and expressed as conventional radiocarbon ages (years BP, where 0 BP =
224 AD1950) and % modern (Stuiver and Polach, 1977).

225

226 3. Results

227

228 3.1 Laboratory tests of sampling method

229 The ¹⁴C-dead anthracite-derived CO₂ that had been collected using syringe-injection
230 into a MSC had a ¹⁴C content of 0.43 ± 0.01 % modern (43,699 ± 169 years BP; Table 1) and
231 was comparable to the routine background for the molecular sieve method (Garnett and
232 Murray, 2013). Samples of the “Mix” reference gas recovered from foil gas bags had
233 identical δ¹³C values to the reference (all -25.2 ‰; Table 1). “Mix” gas samples recovered
234 from MSCs following syringe-injection were slightly ¹³C-depleted (-25.4 ‰), but overlapped
235 with the reference when considering measurement precision (Table 1). The TIRI barley
236 mash-derived CO₂ standard gas processed through all stages of the sampling method (from
237 AWC equilibration through to MSC syringe-injection and CO₂ recovery) had a ¹⁴C
238 concentration of 116.15 ± 0.54 % modern (Table 1) and was therefore identical (<1 σ) to the
239 international consensus value (116.35 % modern; Gulliksen and Scott, 1995).

240 3.2 Field tests of sampling method

241 The δ¹³C value of headspace CO₂ when the same water sample was equilibrated
242 multiple times showed little variation with the exception of one sample (A 0-30 sec; Table 2)
243 collected after just 30 seconds of shaking; this was slightly ¹³C-enriched compared to the
244 other samples. Headspace gases collected subsequently from this water sample (after 90 and
245 180 seconds total shaking time) had identical δ¹³C values (-24.6 ‰). For the second water

246 sample where headspace gases were collected after different periods of shaking, all $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
247 values overlapped at $<1 \sigma$. The weighted mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the two samples subjected to
248 multiple headspace collections differed by only 0.3 ‰, and were in close agreement with the
249 sample collected using a single sampling period of 180 seconds (sample B).

250 Measurement of the headspace during equilibration showed that CO_2 concentrations
251 had consistently reached nearly 90 % of their final value after just 30 seconds of shaking, and
252 that additional shaking beyond 120 seconds made little difference to the headspace CO_2
253 concentration (Figure 2). The amount of CO_2 recovered from a 1 L headspace sample
254 increased as the water:headspace ratio increased. For example, a mean of 3.2 ml of CO_2 was
255 recovered in samples equilibrated at a ratio of 2:1, and a mean of 4.5 ml CO_2 recovered from
256 a ratio of 5:1 (Table 3). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ decreased when the volume of recovered CO_2 increased ($P <$
257 0.05) or the volume of water equilibrated increased ($P < 0.05$; and therefore $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ also
258 decreased when the water:headspace ratio increased since the headspace volume was 1 L for
259 all samples). The radiocarbon age of the dissolved CO_2 collected ranged from 478 to 630
260 years BP (Table 3), a range of just 152 years, and therefore all samples overlapped with each
261 other at just over the 2σ measurement uncertainty. There was no significant correlation
262 between radiocarbon concentration and either the volume of CO_2 recovered or volume of
263 water equilibrated (and therefore no correlation between ^{14}C age and water:headspace ratio).
264 However, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and %modern were significantly correlated at $P < 0.05$. All pairs of MSC and
265 bag samples collected using the same water:headspace ratio had ^{14}C contents that overlapped
266 at $< 1 \sigma$ measurement uncertainty.

267

268 **4. Discussion**

269 We had identified a clear need for a sampling method to enable the rapid collection of
270 aquatic CO_2 samples for radiocarbon analysis, especially in remote locations. Existing
271 approaches for the collection of these samples had a number of disadvantages, in particular,
272 the relatively time consuming nature of passive and floating chamber molecular sieve
273 sampling methods (Billett *et al.*, 2006; Garnett *et al.*, 2012), or logistical challenges
274 associated with the collection and storage of water samples sufficiently large for DI^{14}C
275 analysis. Whilst recent improvements have significantly reduced the volume of water
276 required for DI^{14}C analysis (Gao *et al.*, 2014), preservation of water samples was also a
277 concern for remote fieldwork, especially given recent reports on the lability of some forms of
278 aquatic carbon (Moody *et al.*, 2013; Drake *et al.*, 2015). Various methods have been used to

279 stabilise water samples, including freezing, acidifying or poisoning (with e.g. with HgCl), but
280 these methods are either impractical for use in remote locations or create samples that are
281 hazardous to process and dispose (Gulliver *et al.*, 2010). In addition, the logistics of
282 transporting large water volumes from remote locations to analytical laboratories remain,
283 regardless.

284 This new sampling method employs headspace equilibration (Kling *et al.*, 1991; Hope
285 *et al.*, 1995; Jahangir *et al.*, 2012), which is widely used to provide samples for the
286 determination of dissolved greenhouse gas concentrations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 in inland waters.
287 In our case, we envisaged the method being used to collect aquatic CO_2 from relatively acidic
288 streams associated with organic-rich soils and peatlands. In such waters, where pH is
289 typically <7 , greater than 50 % of the total DIC will exist as dissolved CO_2 (Polsenaere and
290 Abril, 2012). Therefore, in common with established headspace equilibration methods, we
291 considered that it would be unnecessary to acidify our water samples in order to recover
292 sufficient sample as CO_2 . We believe that our new method could also be reliable for sampling
293 waters with higher pH or lower CO_2 concentrations. For example, acidification of water
294 samples could be undertaken in the field to increase headspace CO_2 volumes, although this
295 would bring additional complications (especially for sampling in remote locations) and would
296 require additional tests for reliability.

297 In our method the established headspace equilibration technique (Kling *et al.*, 1991;
298 Hope *et al.*, 1995; Jahangir *et al.*, 2012) is scaled up to provide the necessary larger volume
299 samples using a sampling method originally devised for the collection of methane from water
300 for ^{14}C analysis (Garnett *et al.*, 2015). Headspace gases are injected using a large syringe into
301 the same molecular sieve traps that have previously been proven to be very reliable for the
302 collection of ^{14}C samples of aquatic CO_2 either collected passively (Garnett *et al.*, 2012) or
303 from a floating chamber (Billett *et al.*, 2006). The traps have also been shown to be reliable
304 for the separation of CO_2 from methane (Garnett *et al.*, 2011). Thus, some aspects of the new
305 method are taken from existing techniques that have already undergone rigorous testing.
306 Nevertheless, we considered it important to perform a series of laboratory and field based
307 tests in order to verify the new method.

308 Background ^{14}C when using the syringe-injection method (tested using ^{14}C -dead
309 anthracite) was almost identical to the routine background for similar-sized samples
310 processed using the molecular sieve traps (Garnett and Murray, 2013). This indicates that the
311 syringe-injection method does not introduce significant contamination from sources with

312 detectable ^{14}C concentrations (the most likely being atmospheric CO_2). The absence of
313 significant isotopic fractionation when sampling CO_2 using syringe injection was confirmed
314 using the “Mix” reference gas; although the reference gas recovered from the molecular sieve
315 samples was slightly depleted in ^{13}C relative to the reference and bag samples; values from
316 all samples overlapped when the 2σ measurement uncertainty was considered (Table 1). The
317 absence of fractionation had been expected, since IRGA measurements of the CO_2
318 concentration of the exhaust gases of a cartridge during syringe injection had indicated
319 complete trapping of CO_2 in similar-sized samples. However, it should be noted that the sieve
320 cartridges do have a finite capacity (estimated at $\sim 8\text{-}10\text{ ml CO}_2$), above which syringe
321 injection of CO_2 samples will result in incomplete trapping and possible isotopic fractionation
322 (this would not affect the ^{14}C results, since these are by convention corrected for isotopic
323 fractionation by normalisation to a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -25 ‰ ; Stuiver and Polach, 1977). The final
324 laboratory test was performed on the complete method, from equilibration, to syringe
325 injection and CO_2 recovery. We chose to use CO_2 derived from the TIRI barley mash
326 radiocarbon standard, which has an enriched ^{14}C signature relative to the contemporary
327 atmosphere, and is therefore very sensitive to detecting any contaminants with a ^{14}C -dead
328 signature (e.g. derived from the various plastic materials used), but would also indicate
329 significant contamination from atmospheric CO_2 . The ^{14}C content of this standard was $< 1\sigma$
330 of the consensus value, and therefore consistent with the absence of any significant
331 contamination.

332 The field testing of the method addressed several key issues: 1) The shaking time
333 required to fully equilibrate a sample, and 2) The optimal water:headspace ratio for the
334 equilibration of samples.

335 Measurement of the CO_2 concentration in the headspace of the equilibration vessel
336 during field sampling indicated that the CO_2 rapidly approached its maximum concentration,
337 and that values barely increased after manual shaking for longer than 90 seconds (Figure 2).
338 There was also very little difference in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the headspace CO_2 , even when the
339 entire equilibrated headspace had been removed and the headspace resampled from the same
340 water sample on several occasions (Table 2). The latter can probably be explained by the fact
341 that each headspace equilibration only removed a small ($< 10\text{-}15\%$) proportion of the total
342 carbon available (estimated based on the total DIC concentration of the gas-stripped sample
343 of $19.2\text{ ml CO}_2/\text{L}$). Despite these field results suggesting that the samples were fully
344 equilibrated within 2 minutes, we chose to standardise our sampling method with a shaking
345 time of 3 minutes to allow for manual differences in shaking technique between operators.

346 This was also consistent with our headspace equilibration method for the collection of
347 methane samples for ^{14}C analysis (Garnett *et al.*, 2015), thus permitting the collection of
348 samples of both CO_2 and CH_4 for ^{14}C analysis using the same equilibrated water sample.

349 Higher water:headspace ratios resulted in a higher CO_2 concentration (Figure 2) with
350 slightly decreased $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the headspace CO_2 ; at the extreme ratios of 2:1 and 5:1, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
351 ranged from -22.4 to -22.6 ‰ and -23.0 to -23.4 ‰, respectively (Table 3). This suggested
352 that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of the headspace CO_2 might be slightly affected by the water:headspace
353 ratio, and therefore question the reliability of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. However, we cannot exclude
354 the possibility that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the stream water CO_2 changed during the course of the
355 sampling, even if there were no visual changes in flow regime. Samples were collected over
356 several hours in the order presented in Table 3, and therefore if the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the stream water
357 CO_2 became slightly more depleted over time, then this would explain the up to ~ 1 ‰ shift
358 in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the samples collected from different water:headspace ratios. We also note that
359 the single sample of TIRI barley mash CO_2 that was recovered after being equilibrated with
360 deionised water returned a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value (Table 1) that was just 0.5 ‰ from the expected value
361 (-26.9 ‰), which supports the reliability of the method for determining $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$. However, the
362 primary aim of the new sampling method is the provision of reliable ^{14}C measurements, and
363 further investigation is required if the method is to be used specifically for the precise
364 determination of aquatic $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$.

365 The ^{14}C age of all eight headspace-equilibrated CO_2 samples, whether collected using
366 syringe injection into molecular sieve cartridges or foil gas bags, were remarkably similar and
367 marginally failed to all agree within 2 σ measurement uncertainty (Table 3). There was no
368 correlation between ^{14}C age and sample CO_2 volume, water volume, or water:headspace
369 ratio, suggesting that the method is resilient and any of the water:headspace ratios would be
370 equally suitable for sample collection (however, in practice we have subsequently adopted a
371 3:1 water:headspace ratio). All paired MSC and gas bag samples for each water:headspace
372 ratio gave ^{14}C ages that overlapped at < 2 σ , indicating that there was no significant
373 difference between gas storage methods. However, we consider molecular sieve cartridges to
374 be more convenient and reliable for long term storage compared to gas bags, as the latter are
375 cumbersome to handle, difficult to transport and can develop leaks.

376 The single sample of total DIC that was determined using the “gas stripping” method
377 had a radiocarbon age that was significantly older than any of the samples collected using
378 headspace equilibration (Table 3). Whilst this could be interpreted as highlighting a potential

379 problem with the new “Super Headspace Method”, such as atmospheric contamination, we
380 consider that extremely unlikely given the tests that we have performed on the method;
381 namely 1) there was no correlation between ^{14}C age and volume of CO_2 recovered which
382 would be expected if there had been significant atmospheric contamination, 2) the CO_2 from
383 headspace-equilibrated samples in this study was similar, or older, in age compared to
384 previous measurements at the same site (this study: 478-630 years BP, previous study: 303-
385 521 years BP; Garnett *et al.*, 2013), 3) tests with known ^{14}C content standards were in
386 agreement with consensus values, and 4) frequent monitoring with an IRGA confirmed the
387 absence of atmospheric CO_2 ingress in the “Super Headspace” sampling equipment. Hence
388 we are confident that the new method produces accurate aquatic $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ values.

389 Instead, we consider that the discrepancy between results for headspace-equilibrated
390 and gas stripped samples more likely reflects an issue with the latter. Errors could arise due to
391 either: 1) a small contribution of geological carbonate contributing to gas-stripped samples,
392 and not the headspace-equilibrated samples (for practical reasons the water samples were not
393 filtered, but a small particle of as little as ~ 2 mg ^{14}C -dead CaCO_3 in the 485 ml water sample
394 would be sufficient to account for the discrepancy between headspace-equilibrated and gas
395 stripped results; although the stream flows from a peatland, the underlying geological
396 formation (Clackmannan Group) does contain limestone; British Geological Society;
397 <http://mapapps.bgs.ac.uk/geologyofbritain/home.html>), 2) disequilibrium between aquatic
398 CO_2 and DIC due to unfavourable mixing in the stream (suggested by Billett and Garnett
399 (2010) who also reported older ages for gas stripped DIC samples compared to CO_2 collected
400 using a floating chamber), and 3) a sample preservation issue (the DIC sample was stored for
401 ~ 4 months in a refrigerator without any other means of sample preservation, prior to
402 processing, and therefore transfer of carbon between different inorganic pools within the
403 sample may have occurred. Although we did not measure methane during this study, it has
404 previously been found to be abundant and much older than CO_2 at this site (up to 3291 years
405 BP; Garnett *et al.*, 2015), and so methane oxidation during sample storage could explain a
406 significant proportion of the offset between headspace-equilibrated and gas stripped
407 samples). In this respect, it should be noted that by avoiding the need for the acidification of
408 water samples, and instead relying on rapid equilibration of samples by shaking and the
409 isolation of aquatic CO_2 from the water sample in the field and stable storage on molecular
410 sieve, the new method completely avoids all of the confounding issues associated with the
411 gas stripping method.

412

413 **5. Conclusions**

414 The new method for the collection of samples of aquatic CO₂ for ¹⁴C dating has
415 features that we believe provide considerable advantages over existing methods, particularly
416 for fieldwork in remote locations. The benefits include high portability, speed (< 15 minutes
417 collection time per sample) and minimal power requirements. Besides the IRGA, most items
418 are low cost (~£400 for the 1 L syringe and <£100 for all other items). The recovered samples
419 need no special storage or preservation as sample CO₂ can be stored on the molecular sieves
420 for many months before processing. The ¹⁴C content of headspace equilibrated CO₂ using this
421 method is not sensitive to different water:headspace ratios, though we have adopted a
422 standardised 3:1 ratio with 3 minutes of manual shaking. The method has proved to be
423 reliable and robust following extensive use in remote locations including northern Canada
424 and Sweden. We suggest that the availability of a rapid, transportable, field based method for
425 measuring aquatic ¹⁴CO₂ has considerable application in ecosystems where the terrestrial C
426 cycle is being affected by climate warming like the Arctic (e.g. Vonk *et al.*, 2015), or where
427 peatland management is leading to significant destabilisation of soil C pools (e.g. Evans *et*
428 *al.*, 2014).

429

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434

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- 556

557 **Table 1.** Laboratory tests of the sampling methods. CO₂ derived from ¹⁴C-dead anthracite
 558 was injected into a MSC to test for contamination during syringe-injection sampling. A
 559 standard gas (“Mix”) was aliquoted using a 1 L syringe into foil gas bags and MSCs to test
 560 for isotopic fractionation. CO₂ derived from an international radiocarbon standard (“TIRI
 561 barley mash”) was equilibrated with 3 L of deionised water in an AWC and syringe-injected
 562 into a molecular sieve trap, testing all stages of the new sampling method.

563

Sample	Total gas used (ml)	Recovered CO ₂ (ml)	%CO ₂	δ ¹³ C _{VPDB} ± 0.1 ‰	Publication code (SUERC-)	¹⁴ C content (%modern ± 1σ)
Anthracite CO ₂	-	6.3	-	-23.1	51692	0.43 ± 0.01
Mix gas (reference)	~6000	-	-	-25.2	-	-
Mix gas – bag 1	1000	7.6	0.76	-25.2	-	-
Mix gas – bag 2	1000	7.7	0.77	-25.2	-	-
Mix gas – MSC 1	1000	7.7	0.77	-25.4	-	-
Mix gas – MSC 2	1000	7.7	0.77	-25.4	-	-
TIRI barley mash CO ₂	750	6.8	0.91	-26.4	60184	116.15 ± 0.54

564

565 **Table 2.** Field test to investigate the shaking time required for isotopic equilibration of AWC
 566 CO₂ samples. Samples collected 8th May, 2014 from a small stream draining Langlands
 567 Moss, Scotland, UK. Samples A and C represent water samples where headspace gas was
 568 removed for analysis after different periods of equilibration (with the headspace being
 569 recreated after each sample collection). Sample B represents a single sample collected after
 570 equilibrating stream water for 180 seconds. Stream temperature was 9.5 °C and pH 5.75.

571

Sample	Water volume (ml)	Shaking interval (sec)	CO ₂ recovered (ml)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}} \pm 0.1$ ‰
A	3550	0-30	6.3	-23.3
		30-90	5.6	-24.6
		90-180	5.0	-24.6
		<i>Weighted mean</i>		<i>-24.1</i>
B	2190	0-180	5.7	-23.8
C	2020	0-30	5.1	-23.8
		30-90	4.3	-23.9
		90-180	3.3	-23.8
		<i>Weighted mean</i>		<i>-23.8</i>

572

573 **Table 3.** Field test to investigate the effect of water:headspace ratio on the isotopic
574 composition of CO₂ collected by equilibration of water samples in the AWC. Samples
575 collected on 10th February, 2014 from a small stream draining Langlands Moss, Scotland,
576 UK. Stream temperature was 4.7 °C and pH 6.35.

577

Target water: headspace ratio	Repli- cate no.	Water volume (ml)	CO ₂ recov- ered (ml)	Sample storage method	δ ¹³ C _{VP} DB ± 0.1 ‰	Publication code (SUERC)-	Convent- ional ¹⁴ C age (years BP ± 1 σ)	¹⁴ C content (%modern ± 0.1 σ)
2:1	1	1900	3.3	Bag	-22.6	-	-	-
2:1	2	1950	3.2	Bag	-22.4	51947	571 ± 35	93.14 ± 0.41
2:1	3	2000	3.2	MSC	-22.6	51952	630 ± 37	92.46 ± 0.43
3:1	1	2950	3.6	Bag	-22.3	-	-	-
3:1	2	2900	3.7	Bag	-22.5	51948	566 ± 35	93.19 ± 0.41
3:1	3	2960	3.4	MSC	-22.9	51956	544 ± 37	93.45 ± 0.43
4:1	1	3870	4.2	Bag	-22.8	-	-	-
4:1	2	4400	4.5	Bag	-23.2	51949	533 ± 35	93.58 ± 0.41
4:1	3	3950	4.1	MSC	-23.4	51955	478 ± 37	94.23 ± 0.44
5:1	1	5050	4.4	Bag	-23.0	-	-	-
5:1	2	4900	4.7	Bag	-23.2	51950	536 ± 37	93.55 ± 0.43
5:1	3	4730	4.3	MSC	-23.4	51951	561 ± 37	93.25 ± 0.43
ΣDIC (gas stripped)	-	485	9.3	Bag	-22.4	63602	906 ± 37	89.34 ± 0.41

578

579 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

580

581 **Figure 1.** A. Photograph of the sampling equipment used (accordion water carrier
582 equilibration vessel, 1 L syringe and cartridges containing soda lime and molecular sieve). B.
583 Schematic showing the syringe injection of a CO₂-rich headspace sample into a molecular
584 sieve cartridge. Headspace gases are injected using the 1 L syringe into a cartridge containing
585 molecular sieve where the CO₂ is trapped. Exhaust gases (no longer containing sample CO₂)
586 exit to atmosphere after passing through a cartridge containing soda lime, which prevents
587 back filling with atmospheric CO₂.

588

589

590 **Figure 2.** Variation in mean headspace CO₂ concentrations at different water:headspace
591 ratios with increasing equilibration (shaking) time. Each data point represents the mean of
592 three individual samples. Samples collected on 10th February, 2014 from a small stream
593 draining Langlands Moss, Scotland, UK. Stream temperature was 4.7 °C and pH 6.35.

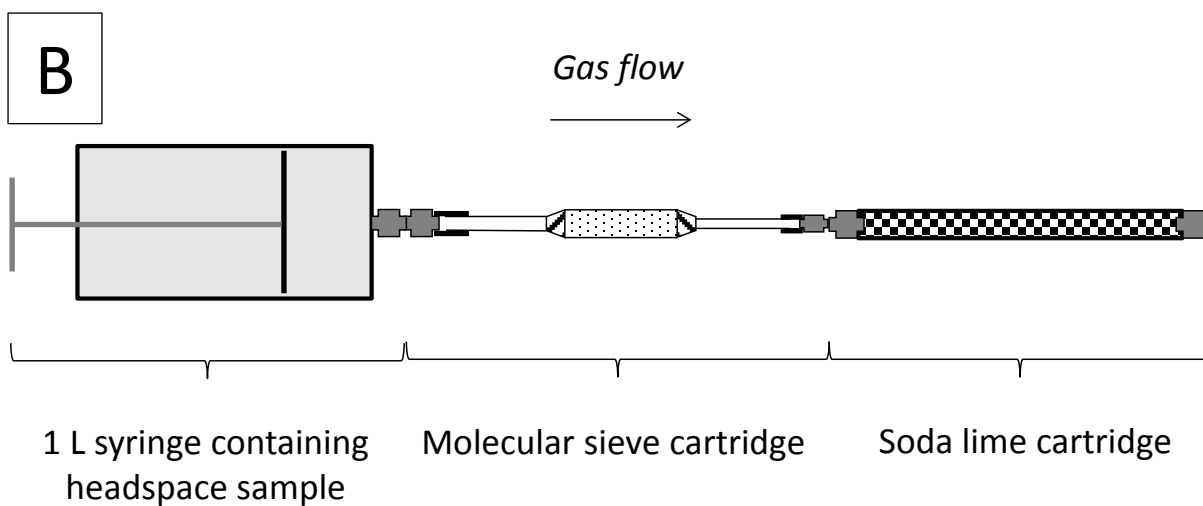
594

595 **Fig. 1**

596



597



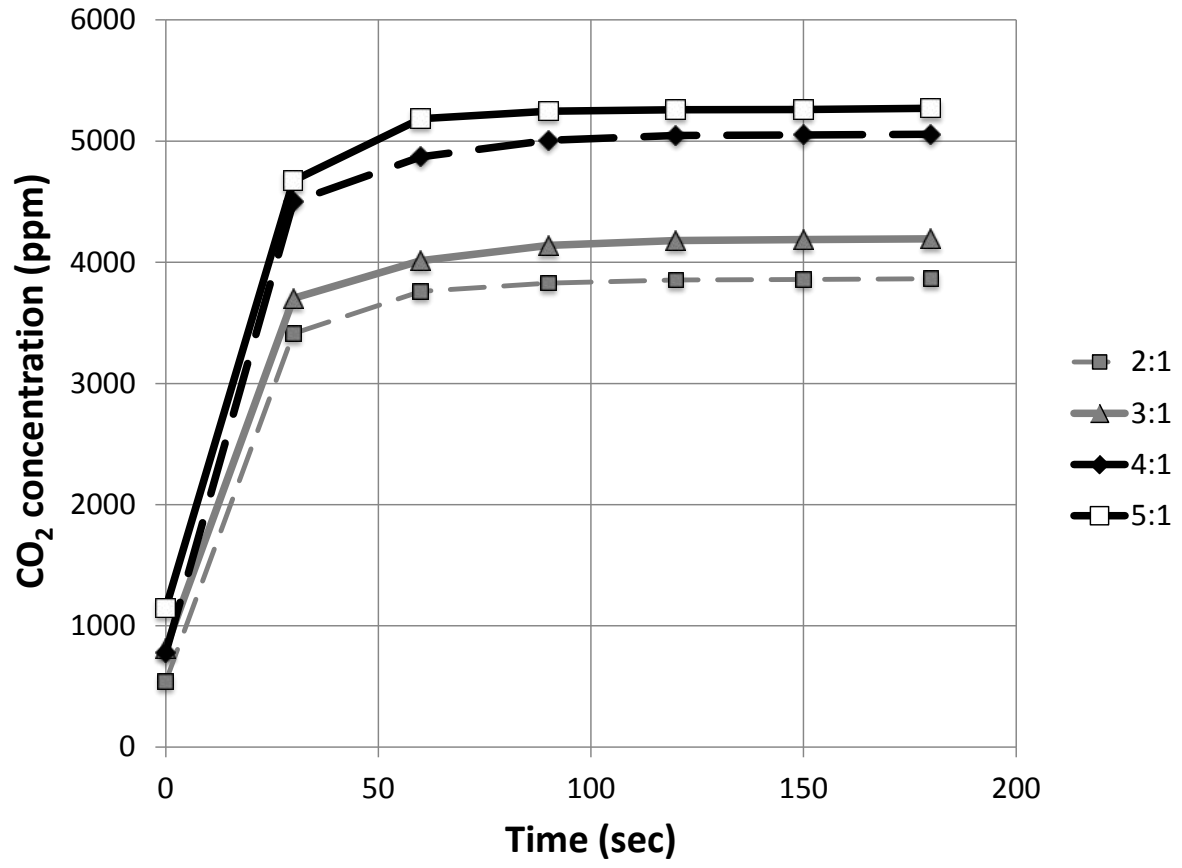
598

599

600 **Fig.2**

601

602



603

604