Atmos. Meas. Tech., 6, 1491–1501, 2013 www.atmos-meas-tech.net/6/1491/2013/ doi:10.5194/amt-6-1491-2013 © Author(s) 2013. CC Attribution 3.0 License.





Evaluating calibration strategies for isotope ratio infrared spectroscopy for atmospheric ¹³CO₂ / ¹²CO₂ measurement

X.-F. Wen¹, Y. Meng¹, X.-Y. Zhang¹, X.-M. Sun¹, and X. Lee^{2,3}

¹Key Laboratory of Ecosystem Network Observation and Modeling, Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China

²Yale-NUIST Center on Atmospheric Environment, Nanjing University of Information Science & Technology, Nanjing 210044, China

³School of Forestry and Environmental Studies, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut 06511, USA

Correspondence to: X.-F. Wen (wenxf@igsnrr.ac.cn) and X. Lee (xuhui.lee@yale.edu)

Received: 4 January 2013 – Published in Atmos. Meas. Tech. Discuss.: 25 January 2013 Revised: 30 April 2013 – Accepted: 3 May 2013 – Published: 5 June 2013

Abstract. Isotope ratio infrared spectroscopy (IRIS) provides an in situ technique for measuring δ^{13} C in atmospheric CO2. A number of methods have been proposed for calibrating the IRIS measurements, but few studies have systematically evaluated their accuracy for atmospheric applications. In this study, we carried out laboratory and ambient measurements with two commercial IRIS analyzers and compared the accuracy of four calibration strategies. We found that calibration based on the ¹²C and ¹³C mixing ratios (Bowling et al., 2003) and on linear interpolation of the measured delta using the mixing ratio of the major isotopologue (Lee et al., 2005) yielded accuracy better than 0.06 ‰. Over a 7-day atmospheric measurement in Beijing, the two analyzers agreed to within -0.02 ± 0.18 ‰ after proper calibration. However, even after calibration the difference between the two analyzers showed a slight correlation with concentration, and this concentration dependence propagated through the Keeling analysis, resulting in a much larger difference of 2.44 ‰ for the Keeling intercept. The high sensitivity of the Keeling analysis to the concentration dependence underscores the challenge of IRIS for atmospheric research.

1 Introduction

Isotope ratio infrared spectroscopy (IRIS) is an emerging technology for making in situ, continuous δ^{13} C observation in ambient conditions. With proper calibration, it can achieve precision similar to that of isotope ratio mass spectrometry

(IRMS) (Kerstel and Gianfrani, 2008; Berryman et al., 2011; Werner et al., 2012). At least five types of IRIS instruments are available for field measurement of δ^{13} C, including tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy (Campbell Scientific Inc., Logan, UT; e.g., Bowling et al., 2003; Griffis et al., 2008; Wingate et al., 2010; Santos et al., 2012), quantum cascade laser absorption spectroscopy (Aerodyne Research, Inc., Billerica, MA; e.g., Wada et al., 2011; Kammer et al., 2011; Sturm et al., 2012), wavelength-scanned cavity ring-down spectroscopy (Picarro Inc., Sunnyvale, CA; e.g., Friedrichs et al., 2010; Bai et al., 2011; Berryman et al., 2011), off-axis integrated cavity output spectroscopy (Los Gatos Research, Mountain View, CA; e.g., McAlexander et al., 2011; Guillon et al., 2012), and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (e.g., Mohn et al., 2008; Griffith et al., 2012; Hammer et al., 2013). All the IRIS instruments should maintain accuracy traceable to the international PDB-CO2 or VPDB-CO₂ scale. However, in comparison to IRMS, whose operational procedures are mature, IRIS is a relatively immature technology still subject to a number of artifacts some users may not be fully aware of (Griffith et al., 2012; Werner et al., 2012). Sensitivity to changing environmental conditions (e.g., temperature dependence; Guillon et al., 2012) and dependence of δ^{13} C on CO₂ concentration are the two main sources of error affecting the IRIS measurements (Wada et al., 2011; McAlexander et al., 2011; Guillon et al., 2012). Proper calibration is necessary to ensure accurate measurements (Bowling et al., 2003; Kammer et al., 2011; Guillon et al., 2012; Hammer et al., 2013; Vogel et al., 2013).

Generally speaking, the IRIS instrument calibration strategy consists of pre-deployment and in-deployment components. Pre-deployment calibration is implemented by altering the analyzer's internal parameter set, either by the manufacturer or by the user, prior to field deployment (e.g., Guillon et al., 2012; Sturm et al., 2012). Additional calibration is carried out during field deployment to remove instrument drift and the residual concentration dependence. In this study, the pre-deployment calibration performed at the factory was left intact; instead the focus was on the in-deployment calibration.

The four in-deployment calibration methods we have examined (Sect. 2.2) rely on empirical correction functions (e.g., Griffith et al., 2012). Briefly, in Method 1, the mixing ratios of the individual isotopologues are calibrated separately against two or more standard gases of known ¹²CO₂ and ¹³CO₂ mixing ratios (Bowling et al., 2003; Griffis et al., 2005; Wingate et al., 2010; Griffith et al., 2012). Method 2 removes the instrument drift and concentration dependence by interpolating the measured delta value using the mixing ratio of the major isotopologue; this method is used in field measurements of water vapor isotopes (Lee et al., 2005; Wen et al., 2008, 2012; Welp et al., 2012) and has vet to be applied to δ^{13} C measurements. Recommended by Picarro Inc., Method 3 is a variation to Method 2 whereby the interpolation is carried out using two or more delta values (Berryman et al., 2011; Wada et al., 2011; Vogel et al., 2013). Recommended by Los Gatos Inc., Method 4 corrects the measured delta with a single offset value and thus requiring only one calibration gas.

In this paper, we report the results of a performance evaluation on two commercial IRIS analyzers. Measurements were made in the laboratory and in ambient conditions. Calibration was carried out using the four methods described above. We wish (1) to evaluate the accuracy of these two analyzers, (2) to identify the most appropriate calibration strategy for atmospheric applications, and (3) to examine error propagation of the concentration dependence through the Keeling analysis.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Analyzers and sampling configuration

The two IRIS analyzers used in this study were manufactured in 2010 by the Picarro Inc., Sunnyvale, CA (models G1101-i) and the Los Gatos Research Inc., Mountain View, CA (model DLT-100). The Picarro G1101-i analyzer was upgraded in March 2012 to remove spectral contamination caused by CH₄. According to Vogel et al. (2013), CH₄ can bias δ^{13} C by 0.4 ‰ ppm⁻¹. The results of this study should be interpreted for these models only. Newer models, with for example enhanced thermal stability, may yield better performance than reported here.

The Picarro G1101-i analyzer was configured with two three-way solenoid valves, resulting in one common port and three sample ports. The valves were controlled by the electric signal provided by the analyzer. The analyzer's sampling cell was maintained at a low pressure (140 Torr) and constant temperature (45 °C). Gas was not dried before entering the analyzer. (The water dilution and pressure broadening effect were supposed to be corrected by firmware imbedded in the instrument. In our case the correction coefficients supplied by the manufacturer were erroneous, resulting in too large corrections on the water vapor dilution, the water vapor pressure broadening, and the HDO spectral interference effects. In the following, only correction to the water vapor dilution effect was made.) The analyzer drew sampling air and calibration air at a flow rate of 0.03 L min⁻¹ STP and recorded the signals at 0.3 Hz.

The Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer was coupled with a multi-inlet unit supplied by the manufacturer (model 908-0003-9002), which allowed automatic switching between 8 different sampling ports. Its sampling and calibration flow rate were $0.5 \,\mathrm{L\,min^{-1}}$ STP and its sampling cell was maintained at low pressure (38 Torr) and constant temperature (45 °C). Gas was dried by passing through a Nafion gas dryer (PD-200T-12MPS, Perma Pure, Toms River, New Jersey) embedded in a Drierite tube before entering the analyzer to prevent water absorption interference. The air residence time in the dryer was about 1s. All measurements were made at 1 Hz.

2.2 Calibration procedures

The following calibration procedures aim to calibrate the IRIS measurements to the international standard and to remove concentration dependence. Because they were implemented frequently enough, they should also be able to remove instrument time drifts. Two sources can contribute to concentration dependence. In the case that the analyzer's measurements of the ${}^{12}CO_2$ and ${}^{13}CO_2$ molar mixing ratio are linear, an apparent concentration dependence of the $\delta^{13}C$ will arise if the analyzer's signal intercept is nonzero (that is, in the situation where the instrument reading is nonzero even when the target gas is completely absent in the detection chamber; e.g., Griffith et al., 2012; Sturm, 2013). In some cases, the instrument may not be perfectly linear with respect to the mixing ratio of the individual isotopologue (e.g., Tuzson et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2005); the nonlinearity may be negligibly small for the mixing ratio measurements, but may cause unacceptably large concentration dependence of the delta measurement.

2.2.1 Method 1: two-point mixing ratio gain and offset calibration

Method 1 is described by Bowling et al. (2003), Griffis et al. (2005), and Griffith et al. (2012). If the analyzer's

mixing ratio measurements are linear, Method 1 will eliminate the delta concentration dependence. Let x_i^{12} and x_i^{13} be the ${}^{12}\text{CO}_2$ and ${}^{13}\text{CO}_2$ molar mixing ratio and subscript *i* denote sampling sequence with *i* = 1, 2 and *a* standing for standard gas 1, standard gas 2, and sampling air, respectively. The calibration equations are

$$x_{a,t}^{12} = \frac{x_{2,t}^{12} - x_{1,t}^{12}}{x_{2,m}^{12} - x_{1,m}^{12}} \left(x_{a,m}^{12} - x_{1,m}^{12} \right) + x_{1,t}^{12}$$
(1)

$$x_{a,t}^{13} = \frac{x_{2,t}^{13} - x_{1,t}^{13}}{x_{2,m}^{13} - x_{1,m}^{13}} \left(x_{a,m}^{13} - x_{1,m}^{13} \right) + x_{1,t}^{13}, \tag{2}$$

where the additional subscript "t" and "m" indicate the true and the uncalibrated mixing ratio, respectively. In this method, standard gas 1 serves as the calibration zero and the calibration span is given by the difference in mixing ratio between the two standards (Werle et al., 2004).

This method requires standard gases of known mixing ratios of [$^{12}CO_2$] and [$^{13}CO_2$]. These values are derived from of the known total [CO₂] mixing ratio and the $\delta^{13}C$ values according to

$$[CO_2] = [{}^{12}CO_2] + [{}^{13}CO_2] + f[CO_2],$$
(3)

$$R_a = [{}^{13}C]/[{}^{12}C] = [{}^{13}CO_2]/[{}^{12}CO_2] = R_{VPDB}(1+\delta_a), \quad (4)$$

$$[{}^{12}\text{CO}_2] = [\text{CO}_2](1-f)]/(1+R_{\text{VPDB}}(1+\delta_a)), \tag{5}$$

and

$$[{}^{13}\text{CO}_2] = [\text{CO}_2](1 - f) - [{}^{12}\text{CO}_2], \tag{6}$$

where $[CO_2]$ is the total mixing ratio including all CO_2 isotopomers, f is the fraction (0.00474) of CO_2 containing all isotopomers other than ${}^{13}C^{16}O_2$ and ${}^{12}C^{16}O_2$, and R_{VPDB} is the ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ standard molar ratio, 0.0111797 (Vienna Peedee Belemnite or VPDB-CO₂ scale, i.e., reference material 8544, NBS19) (Allison et al., 1995). The assumption that f is constant should have little impact on $[{}^{12}CO_2]$ and $[{}^{13}CO_2]$ (Griffis et al., 2004).

The isotopic molar mixing ratio is converted to the delta notation as

$$\delta^{13} C = \left(R_{\text{sample}} / R_{\text{VPDB}} - 1 \right), \tag{7}$$

where R is the ratio of ¹³C to ¹²C in the sampled air (= $x_{a,t}^{13}/x_{a,t}^{12}$).

2.2.2 Method 2: two-point mixing ratio interpolation

This method has been used for water vapor isotope measurements (Lee et al., 2005; Wen et al., 2008, 2012; Welp et al., 2012). An advantage of this method is that the isotope ratio of the standard gas should be known precisely (such as via IRMS analysis) but its mixing ratio does not need to be. (This advantage also applies to Method 3 and 4). Its application to the δ^{13} C measurement consists of several steps. Using standard gas 1 as the span calibration gas, the calibrated ratio of carbon dioxide molar mixing ratios (13 C/ 12 C) is given by

$$R_{a,1t} = R_1 \frac{x_{a,m}^{13}}{x_{1,m}^{13}} \frac{x_{1,m}^{12}}{x_{a,m}^{12}},$$
(8)

where R_1 is the (known) ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratio of standard gas 1. Similarly, using standard gas 2 as the span calibration gas, we have

$$R_{a,2t} = R_2 \frac{x_{a,m}^{13}}{x_{2,m}^{13}} \frac{x_{2,m}^{12}}{x_{a,m}^{12}},$$
(9)

where R_2 is the (known) ${}^{13}\text{C}/{}^{12}\text{C}$ ratio of standard gas 2. The molar ratio of the carbon dioxide isotopologues in the sample, $R_{a,1t}$ and $R_{a,2t}$, are converted to the delta notation, $\delta_{a,1t}$ and $\delta_{a,2t}$ according to Eq. (7).

Next, a linear interpolation is made between the measured ¹²C mixing ratio to find the true ambient isotope ratio,

$$\delta_{a,t} = \frac{\left(\delta_{a,2t} - \delta_{a,1t}\right)}{\left(x_{2,m}^{12} - x_{1,m}^{12}\right)} \left(x_{a,m}^{12} - x_{1,m}^{12}\right) + \delta_{a,1t}.$$
 (10)

The mixing ratio measurements are calibrated using Eqs. (1)–(2). Equation (10) assumes that over the measurement range, the concentration-dependent behavior can be described by a linear relationship to the measured mixing ratio of the major isotopologue. Sturm (2013) presents a derivation of the concentration dependence arising from nonzero instrument intercept; Eq. (10) can be interpreted as a linear approximation to their result (their Eq. 3). We found that if the calibrated mixing ratio $x_{a,t}^{12}$ and $x_{a,t}^{13}$ and the true mixing ratios of the standards $x_{1,t}^{12}$, $x_{1,t}^{13}$, $x_{2,t}^{12}$, and $x_{1,m}^{13}$, $x_{1,m}^{12}$, $x_{1,m}^{13}$, $x_{2,m}^{12}$, and $x_{2,m}^{13}$, this method will yield identical results to Method 1.

2.2.3 Method 3: two-point delta value gain and offset calibration

Method 3 requires two standard gases with known but different δ^{13} C. The calibration is given by

$$\delta_{a,t} = m \cdot \delta_{a,m} + b, \tag{11}$$

where

$$m = \frac{\delta_{1,t} - \delta_{2,t}}{\delta_{1,m} - \delta_{2,m}}$$
(12)

and

$$b = \delta_{1,t} - \frac{\delta_{1,t} - \delta_{2,t}}{\delta_{1,m} - \delta_{2,m}} \delta_{1,m},$$
(13)

where δ_1 and δ_2 is the (true or measured) δ^{13} C of standard gas 1 and 2, respectively.

In the case that more than two standard gases are available, the coefficients m and b can be derived from linear regression. Method 3 is often used in IRMS measurements to correct the delta biases. In the case of IRIS, it works if the analyzer's mixing ratio measurements are perfectly linear and there is no offset in its calibration. Otherwise an apparent concentration dependence would still exist.

As with Methods 1 and 2, the Eqs. (1)–(2) are used for calibration of the mixing ratio measurements.

2.2.4 Method 4: single-point delta value offset calibration

Method 4 is a simplification of Method 3 as it assumes that the gain factor m = 1 (Eq. 11) and only an offset correction is needed. The method requires a single standard gas (denoted by subscript 1) with known δ^{13} C. The calibration equation is given by

$$\delta_{a,t} = \delta_{a,m} + (\delta_{1,t} - \delta_{1,m}). \tag{14}$$

Since in this case only one standard gas is available, the mixing ratio is calibrated using the following equations:

$$[CO_2]_{a,t} = [CO_2]_{a,m} + ([CO_2]_{1,t} - [CO_2]_{1,m}).$$
(15)

Mathematically the two calibrations (of $[CO_2]$ and delta) are equivalent: correction to the molar ratio *R* (as in the CO_2 mixing ratio) can be achieved by adding an offset to the delta value according to the Taylor approximation.

2.3 Standard gases

Three standard gases (Std1: 361.25 ppm for [CO₂] and $-8.909 \,\%$ for δ^{13} C; Std2: 398.76 ppm for [CO₂] and $-8.652 \,\%$ for δ^{13} C; Std3: 436.41 ppm for [CO₂] and $-10.134 \,\%$ for δ^{13} C) were obtained from the Key Laboratory for Atmospheric Chemistry, Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences, China Meteorological Administration. The CO₂ concentrations of these gases are traceable to the WMO 2007 scale at the Central Calibration Laboratory (CCL) of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO), and their δ^{13} C values are traceable to the NBS-19 and the NBS20 scale of the International Atomic Energy Agency and NOAA-ESRL.

2.4 Laboratory tests

In the first test, the precision of the analyzers was determined by estimating the Allan variances of the CO₂ concentration and the δ^{13} C value (Werle, 2011). The air sample was drawn continuously into the analyzers from a compressed-air tank with [CO₂] of 420 ppm and δ^{13} C of -9.8 ‰. Each measurement lasted 24 h. In the second test the three standard gases were measured sequentially. The switching sequence was Std1, Std2, Std3, with 10 min spent on each intake. The first 2 min of each measurement were discarded because of the transient response to step change. The calibration was done using the above procedures for each switching cycle by treating one of the three gases as the target of measurement and the other two gases as the calibration standards, and hourly mean values were produced from the calibrated measurements. This test lasted 24 h for each analyzer.

2.5 Atmospheric measurement

A purpose of the atmospheric measurement was to assess how these calibration procedures impact the analyzers' ability to measure δ^{13} C in atmospheric CO₂. The data were also used to evaluate error propagation through the Keeling mixing-line analysis. The analyzers drew ambient air through one sample intake from the outside of our laboratory in Beijing, China, from 12 April to 18 April (DOY 103-109) in 2012. The intake lines of both analyzers were equipped with a filter (pore size 2 µm, Swagelok model B-4F-05, Connecticut Valves and Fittings, Norwalk, Connecticut) contained in an enclosure heated to 60 °C to avoid condensation. The analyzers sampled gas standards Std1 and Std3 in the first 10 min of every hour, each lasting 5 min, and spent the remainder of the hour measuring the air sample. Calibration was carried out for each switching cycle, and hourly mean values were produced from the atmospheric measurements.

The isotope signal of CO_2 sources in Beijing was determined using the Keeling plot. The Keeling mixing-model parameters were obtained from a geometric mean regression of the carbon isotope ratio of ambient CO_2 versus the reciprocal of the total [CO_2] following the procedure outlined in Bowling et al. (2002) and Pataki et al. (2003).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Precision of measurement

Figure 1 shows the time series of the ${}^{12}\text{CO}_2$ concentration and Allan deviation as a function of averaging time for the ${}^{12}\text{CO}_2$ mixing ratio and δ^{13} C. The dashed lines show the expected behavior of the Allan deviation versus time for random white noises. The departure of the ${}^{12}\text{CO}_2$ Allan variance of the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer from the white noise line may indicate sensitivity to environmental temperature (Fig. 1b). The ${}^{12}\text{CO}_2$ mixing ratio precision improves with increasing averaging time; the best precision of 0.013 and 0.016 ppm was obtained with about 1800 and 500 s averaging for the Picarro G1101-i and the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzers, respectively. The Picarro G1101-i analyzer delta measurement had the best precision of 0.08 ‰ at 2000 s, and the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer had the best precision of 0.04 ‰ at 1000 s. For longer averaging times the precision



Fig. 1. Time series of the (**a**) 12 CO₂ concentration and Allan deviation of the (**b**) 12 CO₂ concentration and (**c**) δ^{13} C for the Picarro G1101-i and the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer. The dashed lines show the expected behavior of the Allan deviation versus time for random white noises.

degraded because of instrumental drift. The averaging period for the laboratory test (600 s) and for the atmospheric measurement (3000 s) were slightly different than the optimal averaging length revealed by the Allan analysis.

Our precision values are in the reported range of IRIS instruments for δ^{13} C. For example, Friedrichs et al. (2010) showed a precision of 0.08 ‰ with 130 min averaging for a Picarro analyzer model EnviroSense 2050. Vogel et al. (2013) found a precision 0.2 ‰ with 5 min averaging intervals for a model G1101-i analyzer from Picarro. Guillon et al. (2012) and McAlexander et al. (2011) found a precision of 0.05 ‰ and 0.15 ‰ with 60 s averaging for two model DLT-100 analyzers from Los Gatos. Bowling et al. (2003) showed a precision of 0.25 ‰ with a 2 min sampling interval for a model TGA100 from Campbell Scientific. Wada et al. (2011) found a precision of 0.05 ‰ of 0.05 ‰ with an integration time of 10 s for an analyzer from Aerodyne Research.

3.2 Comparison of calibration methods

Table 1 summarizes the results of the four δ^{13} C calibration methods as applied to the Picarro and the Los Gatos measurements of the standard gases in the laboratory test. Without calibration the measured δ^{13} C values deviated from the true values by -1.79 to -2.22 ‰ for the Picarro G1101-i analyzer and -4.33 to -5.70 % for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer.

The δ^{13} C error listed in Table 1 is defined as the calibrated delta minus the true delta after calibration using one of the four methods. In the case of Method 1, the error for standard gas 1 (Std1) was obtained by, calibrating its measurement against standard gases Std2 and Std3, and so on. The accuracy generally were better than 0.03 ‰ for both analyzers. Slightly better accuracy and precision were obtained if the calibration was interpolated (for Std2) as opposed to extrapolated (for Std1 and Std3). In agreement with the Allan variance analysis (Fig. 1b), the precision of the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer was better than that of the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, although both analyzers had worse precision than the best Allan variance precision due to the slightly shorter (600 s) averaging length than optimal calibration cycle.

The delta errors listed for Method 2 were obtained similarly to those for Method 1. For example, the error for standard gas 1 (Std1) was obtained by calibrating its measurement against standard gases Std2 and Std3. The accuracy were generally better than 0.04 ‰ for the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, which is nearly identical to the results of Method 1. The accuracy was not as good as that obtained with Method 1 for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer. In addition, the error and precision of extrapolation were also worse than those of interpolation for both analyzers. Our results support the standard practice that the concentrations of the calibration gases should bracket the ambient concentration.

Method 1 requires that the CO₂ mixing ratio and δ^{13} C of the calibration gases be known precisely, while Method 2 requires that $\delta^{13}C$ be known precisely. Calibration gases supplied by local vendors often have a concentration accuracy certified to 1 %; after their ¹³C has been analyzed by IRMS, these gases can be used for Method 2 but may not be good enough for Method 1. For example, let us suppose that the CO_2 concentration of Std3 is biased high by 1%. Interpolating with Std1 and Std3, the accuracy and precision of the Std2 measurement after the Method 1 calibration would be 0.05 ± 0.30 ‰ and 0.06 ± 0.11 ‰ for the Picarro G1101-i and the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer, respectively, which are slightly worse than those in Table 1. Extrapolating with Std2 and (the biased) Std3, the Std1 measurement would have an accuracy and precision of -0.24 ± 0.73 ‰ and -0.26 ± 0.26 % for the Picarro G1101-i and the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzers, respectively, which are much worse than those shown in Table 1.

Method 3 was applied to the measurement of standard gas 1 using standards Std2 and Std3 for calibration and to the measurement of standard gas 2 using standard Std1 and Std3 for calibration. Measurement errors for standard gas 3 were not quantified because the delta values of Std1 and Std2 were too close to each other as an effective calibration pair. The error was greater than 0.19 ‰ for the Picarro G1101-i analyzer and 0.49 ‰ for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer. We conclude that for these analyzers Method 3 was inferior

Table 1. Intercomparison of four δ^{13} C calibration methods. In the case of Method 1–2, one of the three standard gases (Std1, Std2, and Std3) was treated as the target of measurement and the other two were used for calibration. In the case of Method 3, Std3 was used in conjunction of either Std1 or Std2 as the calibration pair. In the case of Method 4, Std3 was used to calibrate the measurement of St1 and Std2. Standard deviations are for hourly measurements (n = 24). CO₂ mixing ratios are in ppm and delta measurements are in ‰.

					δ^{13} C error			
	Standard	[CO ₂]	True δ^{13} C	Measured $\delta^{13}C$	Method 1	Method 2	Method 3	Method 4
Picarro G1101-i analyzer	Std1 Std2 Std3	361.25 398.76 436.41	-8.909 -8.652 -10.134	$-10.70 \pm 0.51 \\ -10.68 \pm 0.52 \\ -12.35 \pm 0.50$	$\begin{array}{c} -0.01 \pm 0.65 \\ 0.00 \pm 0.29 \\ 0.00 \pm 0.52 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.04 \pm 0.58 \\ -0.02 \pm 0.29 \\ 0.04 \pm 0.58 \end{array}$	0.26 ± 0.34 -0.19 ± 0.32 -	0.43 ± 0.39 0.19 ± 0.33 -
Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer	Std1 Std2 Std3	361.25 398.76 436.41	-8.909 -8.652 -10.134	$-13.24 \pm 0.89 \\ -13.73 \pm 0.84 \\ -15.83 \pm 0.90$	$\begin{array}{c} -0.03 \pm 0.23 \\ 0.01 \pm 0.10 \\ -0.02 \pm 0.18 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.13 \pm 0.20 \\ -0.06 \pm 0.10 \\ 0.13 \pm 0.20 \end{array}$	$0.61 \pm 0.09 \\ -0.49 \pm 0.05 \\ -$	1.37 ± 0.11 0.62 ± 0.11 -

to Methods 1 and 2. To further improve the measurement would require standard gases with a larger delta difference (> 10 %).

Similarly, Method 4 was not recommended for these analyzers. The one-point delta offset correction (Eq. 14) using Std3 as the calibration standard removed much of the measurement errors for standard gas 1 and 2. Still, the residual error was greater than 0.19 ‰ for the Picarro G1101-i analyzer and 0.62 ‰ for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer.

3.3 Comparison of the two analyzers

Figure 2 illustrates the time variations of atmospheric δ^{13} C in Beijing during DOY 103–109 (12 April to 18 April) in 2012, the difference between the Picarro G1101-i and the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzers, and a histogram of the differences. Here the results of Method 1 are shown. The analyzers observed similar diurnal cycles due to atmospheric entrainment and boundary layer mixing. No obvious systematic difference being only -0.02 ± 0.18 ‰ (mean and standard deviation of hourly measurements). The difference can be approximated by the Gaussian distribution. If Method 2 was used for calibration, the mean difference was 0.03 ± 0.19 ‰.

Figure 3a illustrates the corresponding time variation of atmospheric CO₂ concentration and the difference between the two analyzers. Although similar diurnal cycles were observed, the concentration measured by the Picarro G1101-i analyzer was 2.2 ± 1.0 ppm lower than that of the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer. The difference was systematic and became larger as the H₂O concentration increased (Fig. 3b). Two factors may have contributed to the difference. The Nafion dryer embedded in the Drierite tube used by the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer yielded theoretically an outlet dew point of lower than -35° or about 300 ppm of water vapor. The corresponding dilution effect is an underestimation of CO₂ concentration of 0.1 ppm at 400 ppm of carbon dioxide. In the case of the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, as pointed out in Sect. 2.1, the correction coefficients supplied by the



Fig. 2. Time variations of (**a**) hourly atmospheric δ^{13} C in Beijing during DOY 103-110 in 2012, (**b**) difference between the Picarro G1101-i and the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer, and (**c**) histogram of the differences. Here Method 1 was used for calibration.

manufacturer were erroneous, resulting in too large corrections on the water vapor effect. We were able to correct the dilution effect using the water vapor concentration measured by the analyzer, but were unable to remove the smaller effect due to the water vapor pressure broadening and the HDO spectral interference (Rella et al., 2013; Nara et al., 2012). These latter effects are on the order of 2 ppm/%v water at 400 ppm of carbon dioxide, and can be up to 5 ‰ at ambient humidity (Rella, 2012; Rella et al., 2013).

Table 2. Keeling mixing-line analysis of ambient measurement in Beijing during DOY 103–110 in 2012. The regression was made using the calibrated δ^{13} C against the reciprocal of the calibrated CO₂ concentration. Gas standards Std1 and Std3 were used for Methods 1–3 and Std3 was used for Method 4.

		Method 1	Method 2	Method 3	Method 4
Picarro G1101-i Analyzer (00:00–24:00)	Slope Intercept R ²	$\begin{array}{c} 6133.3 \pm 421.3 \\ -23.85 \pm 1.00 \\ 0.83 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6143.7 \pm 424.6 \\ -23.88 \pm 1.02 \\ 0.83 \end{array}$	8564.9 ± 882.2 -29.62 ± 2.13 0.61	$\begin{array}{c} 6133.0 \pm 437.4 \\ -23.86 \pm 1.05 \\ 0.82 \end{array}$
Picarro G1101-i Analyzer (22:00–04:00)	Slope Intercept R ²	6185.0 ± 824.7 -25.53 ± 1.99 0.88	$\begin{array}{c} 6862.5\pm823.5\\-25.64\pm1.99\\0.88\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1143.8 \pm 2343.7 \\ -36.54 \pm 5.65 \\ 0.65 \end{array}$	6569.9 ± 926.3 -24.97 ± 2.23 0.84
Los Gatos DLT-100 Analyzer (00:00–24:00)	Slope Intercept R ²	$5336.7 \pm 333.0 \\ -21.85 \pm 0.79 \\ 0.86$	$\begin{array}{c} 4795.1 \pm 330.4 \\ -20.62 \pm 0.79 \\ 0.83 \end{array}$	3533.1 ± 128.5 -18.02 ± 0.31 0.95	$9123.6 \pm 349.9 \\ -30.53 \pm 0.83 \\ 0.95$
Los Gatos DLT-100 Analyzer (22:00–04:00)	Slope Intercept R ²	$\begin{array}{c} 6154.6 \pm 635.9 \\ -23.81 \pm 1.52 \\ 0.91 \end{array}$	$5626.7 \pm 646.8 \\ -22.60 \pm 1.55 \\ 0.89$	$\begin{array}{c} 3818.9 \pm 261.8 \\ -18.70 \pm 0.63 \\ 0.95 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1003.6 \pm 648.9 \\ -32.70 \pm 1.56 \\ 0.97 \end{array}$



Fig. 3. (a) Same as for Fig. 2a except for hourly atmospheric CO_2 concentration and (b) dependence of their difference on the H_2O concentration.

Figure 4 shows the dependence of the difference of atmospheric δ^{13} C calibrated with Method 1 and that calibrated with Method 2 on the corresponding CO₂ concentration. No obvious concentration dependence was observed for the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, but some dependence existed for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer. The difference may originate from the different assumptions used by these methods: Method 1 assumes that the mixing ratios of the individual



Fig. 4. Dependence of the difference in atmospheric δ^{13} C between Method 1 and Method 2 on the CO₂ concentration.

isotopologues are linear, whereas Method 2 assumes that the measured delta value is linear with respect to the measured mixing ratio of the major isotopologue.

Figure 5 also shows that the difference of the calibrated atmospheric δ^{13} C between the analyzers was also dependent on the CO₂ concentration. Once again, the results of Method 1 are shown. Even though the mean difference between two analyzers was very small (-0.02 ± 0.18 ‰), there was a slight negative linear relationship of the hourly δ^{13} C bias between the analyzers to the CO₂ concentration. The difference between the two analyzers may have been caused by CO₂ concentration effects and biases from spectral broadening and interferences (Rella, 2012).



Fig. 5. Dependence of the difference in atmospheric δ^{13} C between the two analyzers on the CO₂ concentration. Here Method 1 was used for calibration.

3.4 Error propagation in the Keeling mixingline analysis

Although we cannot conclude which of the two analyzers had better accuracy, comparisons between the two analyzers and between the calibration methods should allow us to gain insight into the problem of error propagation through the Keeling analysis. Table 2 summarizes the results of the Keeling analysis of the atmospheric measurement using the four different calibration methods. Figure 6 gives the Keeling plot for the results obtained with the Method 1 calibration. The intercept of the Keeling plot was $-23.85 \pm 1.00 \%$ ($\pm 95 \%$ confidential level) for the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, and $-21.85 \pm 0.79 \%$ for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer, based on the results of Method 1 (Table 2).

If the analysis was restricted to the nighttime (22:00 to 04:00) to better isolate the local influence, the intercept of Keeling plot was reduced to -25.53 ± 1.99 ‰ for the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, and -23.81 ± 1.52 ‰ for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer, based on the results of Method 1. The intercept during the nighttime represents the integrated value of the potential CO₂ sources in an urban airshed (Pataki et al., 2007; Wada et al., 2011), which should be a mixture of natural gas, gasoline, and coal combustion, and biogenic respiration of plants and soil. Our lab is next to the Beijing Olympic Garden, dominated by trees and grasses, and domestic central heating (by coal and natural gas) in Beijing ended on 18 March (DOY 78) in 2012, as mandated by the city government. In general, the δ^{13} C values of C3 plants are in the range of -22 to -35 ‰, and that of C4 plants are in the range of -19 to -9 ‰ (Koch, 2008). Pataki et al. (2003) found a high degree of temporal and spatial variability in C3 ecosystems, with individual observations ranging from -32.6 to -19.0 ‰. Soil δ^{13} C values vary from -23.5 to -16.3 ‰ in the Dallas metropolitan area, Texas (Clark-Thorne and Yapp,



Fig. 6. Keeling plot of the calibrated atmospheric δ^{13} C against the reciprocal of the calibrated CO₂ concentration for (**a**) the Picarro G1101-i and (**b**) the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer. Both daytime and nighttime data were used. Calibration was made with Method 1.

2003). The δ^{13} C values of natural gas combustion are in the range of -42 to -37 %, gasoline combustion in the range of -28 to -60 %, and coal in the range of -27 to -25 % (Clark-Thorne and Yapp, 2003; Pataki et al., 2007; Wada et al., 2011). Our Keeling intercept values appeared to show that C4 reparation was an important source of the urban CO₂ in Beijing in addition to fossil fuel combustion.

The intercept difference between the two analyzers (2.00 ‰, Method 1 in Table 2), which may have resulted from the effect of the erroneous CO₂ concentrations of the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, was substantially larger than the difference between their δ^{13} C measurements (-0.02 ± 0.18 ‰; Fig. 2). We performed a sensitivity analysis in order to understand error propagation of the concentration dependent behavior in the Keeling analysis. We assumed that the true atmospheric δ^{13} C is a linear function of the inverse of the CO₂ concentration, as given by the regression shown in Fig. 6a in the case of the Picarro G1101-i analyzer.

$$\delta^{13} C = \frac{6133.3}{[CO_2]} - 23.85 \tag{16}$$

We then added a small concentration-dependent error to this equation:

$$\delta^{13}C = \frac{6133.3}{[CO_2]} - 23.85 + d, \tag{17}$$



Fig. 7. The relationship of the intercept of the Keeling plot to the parameter specifying the concentration dependence behavior for (**a**) the Picarro G1101-i and (**b**) the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer. Error bars indicate the 95 % confidence bound.

where d is a parameter that describes the severity of the concentration dependence

$$d = -\varepsilon + \frac{2\varepsilon}{50} \left([\text{CO}_2] - 400 \right). \tag{18}$$

In Eq. (18), the delta error (d) is $-\varepsilon$ at a concentration of 400 ppm and $+\varepsilon$ at a concentration of 450 ppm. Finally, we recomputed the y intercept of Eq. (17) by varying ε . (Similar results are shown in Fig. 7b for the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer.) The results, given in Fig. 7, shows the error propagation through the concentration dependence as a function of ε on the intercept of the Keeling plot.

The results in Fig. 7 can largely explain the intercept differences between the two analyzers. In the case of the difference seen between the two analyzers, the concentration dependence (Fig. 5) can be approximated by Eq. (18) with $\varepsilon = 0.15$ ‰. According to Fig. 7, this error would propagate through the Keeling analysis, resulting in a difference of 2.44 ‰ in the Keeling intercept. This prediction was close to the actual difference of 2.00 ‰ in the intercept value (Table 2).

Similarly, the uncertainty in the Keeling intercept caused by the calibration method can be understood through the error propagation prediction. For the Picarro G1101-i analyzer, there was no concentration dependence in the calibrated δ^{13} C between Methods 1 and 2 (Table 2), and the intercept values based on these two methods were nearly identical. In the case of the Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzer, the Keeling intercept was -21.85 ± 0.79 ‰ if Method 1 was used for calibration, and -20.62 ± 0.79 ‰ if Method 2 was used (even though the actual δ^{13} C differed by only -0.05 ± 0.05 ‰; data not shown), giving a difference of -1.23 ‰ (Method 1– Method 2). The concentration dependence shown in Fig. 4 yielded a value of -0.08 ‰ for the parameter ε . According to Fig. 7, the concentration dependence would result in a difference of -1.39 ‰ for the Keeling intercept between the two methods.

4 Conclusions

In this study, an intercomparison was made between one analyzer from Picarro Inc. (models G1101-i) and one analyzer from Los Gatos Research (model DLT-100) to characterize their performance, to compare different calibration strategies, and to investigate error propagation of the concentration dependence through the Keeling analysis. We showed that the preferred calibration methods were that based on calibration of the ¹²C and ¹³C mixing ratio (Method 1) and that based on the delta interpolation using the measured ¹²C mixing ratio. These methods yielded accuracy better than 0.06 ‰ for the Picarro G1101-i and Los Gatos DLT-100 analyzers. Over the 7-day atmospheric measurement, the two analyzers tracked the natural variability of δ^{13} C very well and achieved an average difference of -0.02 ± 0.18 %. One of the factory recommended methods, based on two-point delta value gain and offset calibration, had errors exceeding 0.2 %.

We found that even a small concentration dependence can be amplified in the Keeling analysis, causing large errors in the Keeling intercept. Even though the mean difference was small (-0.02 ‰), because the difference in the hourly delta value between the two analyzers was linearly correlated with the CO₂ concentration, a much larger difference of 2.44 ‰ was found for the Keeling intercept.

Acknowledgements. This study was supported by the Strategic Program of Knowledge Innovation of Chinese Academy of Sciences (grant KZCX2-EW-QN305), the Ministry of Education of China (grant PCSIRT), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant 31070408), the Strategic Program of Science and Technology of the Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research (grant 2012QY008), and the National Science Foundation of the USA (grant ATM-0914473).

Edited by: P. Werle

References

- Allison, C. A., Francey, R. J., and Meijer, H. A. J.: Recommendations for the reporting of stable isotope measurements of carbon and oxygen in CO_2 gas. Reference and intercomparison materials for stable isotopes of light elements, IAEA-TECDOC, 825, 155–162, 1995.
- Bai, M., Köstler, M., Kunstmann, J., Wilske, B., Gattinger, A., Frede, H. G., and Breuer, L.: Biodegradability screening of soil amendments through coupling of wavelength-scanned cavity ring-down spectroscopy to multiple dynamic chambers, Rapid Commun. Mass Sp., 25, 3683–3689, 2011.
- Berryman, E. M., Marshall, J. D., Rahn, T., Cook, S. P., and Litvak, M.: Adaptation of continuous flow cavity ring down spectroscopy for batch analysis of δ^{13} C of CO₂ and comparison with isotope ratio mass spectrometry, Rapid Commun. Mass Sp., 25, 2355–2360, 2011.
- Bowling, D. R., McDowell, N. G., Bond, B. J., Law, B. E., and Ehleringer, J. R.: ¹³C content of ecosystem respiration is linked to precipitation and vapor pressure deficit, Oecologia, 131, 113–124, 2002.
- Bowling, D. R., Sargent, S. D., Tanner, B. D., and Ehleringer, J. R.: Tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy for stable isotope studies of ecosystem–atmosphere CO₂ exchange, Agr. Forest Meteorol., 118, 1–19, 2003.
- Clark-Thorne, S. T. and Yapp, C. J.: Stable carbon isotope constraints on mixing and mass balance of CO_2 in an urban atmosphere:Dallas metropolitan area, Texas, USA, Appl. Geochem., 18, 75–95, 2003.
- Friedrichs, G., Bock, J., Temps, F., Fietzek, P., Körtzinger, A., and Wallace, D.: Toward continuous monitoring of seawater ${}^{13}\text{CO2}/{}^{12}\text{CO}_2$ isotope ratio and $p\text{CO}_2$: Performance of cavity ringdown spectroscopy and gas matrix effects, Limnol. Oceanogr. Meth., 8, 539–551, 2010.
- Griffis, T. J., Baker, J. M., Sargent, S. D., Tanner, B. D., and Zhang, J.: Measuring field-scale isotopic CO₂ fluxes with tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy and micrometeorological techniques, Agr. Forest Meteorol., 124, 15–29, 2004.
- Griffis, T. J., Lee, X., Baker, J. M., Sargent, S. D., and King, J. Y.: Feasibility of quantifying ecosystem–atmosphere C¹⁸O¹⁶O exchange using laser spectroscopy and the flux-gradient method, Agr. Forest Meteorol., 135, 44–60, 2005.
- Griffis, T. J., Sargent, S. D., Baker, J. M., Lee, X., Tanner, B. D., Greene, J., Swiatek, E., and Billmark, K.: Direct measurement of biosphere-atmosphere isotopic CO₂ exchange using the eddy covariance technique, J. Geophys. Res., 113, D08304, doi:10.1029/2007JD009297, 2008.
- Griffith, D. W. T., Deutscher, N. M., Caldow, C., Kettlewell, G., Riggenbach, M., and Hammer, S.: A Fourier transform infrared trace gas and isotope analyser for atmospheric applications, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 5, 2481–2498, doi:10.5194/amt-5-2481-2012, 2012.
- Guillon, S., Pili, E., and Agrinier, P.: Using a laser-based CO₂ carbon isotope analyser to investigate gas transfer in geological media, Appl. Phys. B, 107, 449–457, 2012.
- Hammer, S., Griffith, D. W. T., Konrad, G., Vardag, S., Caldow, C., and Levin, I.: Assessment of a multi-species in situ FTIR for precise atmospheric greenhouse gas observations, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 6, 1153–1170, doi:10.5194/amt-6-1153-2013, 2013.

- Kammer, A., Tuzson, B., Emmenegger, L., Knohl, A., Mohn, J., and Hagedorn, F.: Application of a quantum cascade laser-based spectrometer in a closed chamber system for real-time δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O measurements of soil-respired CO₂, Agr. Forest Meteorol., 151, 39–48, 2011.
- Kerstel, E. and Gianfrani, L.: Advances in laser-based isotope ratio measurements: selected applications, Appl. Phys. B, 92, 439– 449, 2008.
- Koch, P. L.: Isotopic Study of the Biology of Modern and Fossil Vertebrates, in Stable Isotopes in Ecology and Environmental Science, 2nd Edn., edited by: Michener, R. and Lajtha, K., Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Oxford, UK, online first, doi:10.1002/9780470691854.ch5, 2008.
- Lee, X., Sargent, S., Smith, R., and Tanner, B.: In-situ measurement of water vapor ¹⁸O/¹⁶O isotope ratio for atmospheric and ecological applications, J. Atmos. Ocean. Tech., 22, 555–565, 2005.
- McAlexander, I., Rau, G. H., Liem, J., Owano, T., Fellers, R., Baer, D., and Gupta, M.: Deployment of a Carbon Isotope Ratiometer for the Monitoring of CO₂ Sequestration Leakage, Anal. Chem., 83, 6223–6229, 2011.
- Mohn, J., Zeeman, M. J., Werner, R. A., Eugster, W., and Emmenegge, L.: Continuous field measurements of δ^{13} C–CO₂ and trace gases by FTIR spectroscopy, Isot. Environ. Healt. S., 44, 241–251, 2008.
- Nara, H., Tanimoto, H., Tohjima, Y., Mukai, H., Nojiri, Y., Katsumata, K., and Rella, C. W.: Effect of air composition (N₂, O₂, Ar, and H₂O) on CO₂ and CH₄ measurement by wavelength-scanned cavity ring-down spectroscopy: calibration and measurement strategy, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 5, 2689–2701, doi:10.5194/amt-5-2689-2012, 2012.
- Pataki, D. E., Ehleringer, J. R., Flanagan, L. B., Yakir, D., Bowling, D. R., Still, C. J., Buchmann, N., Kaplan, J. O., and Berry, J. A.: The application and interpretation of Keeling plots in terrestrial carbon cycle research, Global Biogeochem. Cy., 17, 1022, doi:10.1029/2001GB001850, 2003.
- Pataki, D. E., Xu, T., Luo, Y. Q., and Ehleringer, J. R.: Inferring biogenic and anthropogenic carbon dioxide sources across an urban to rural gradient, Oecologia, 152, 307–322, 2007.
- Rella, C. W.: Accurate stable carbon isotope ratio measurements in humid gas streams using the Picarro δ^{13} CO₂ G2101-i gas analyzer, White Paper of Picarro Inc, 1–13, 2012.
- Rella, C. W., Chen, H., Andrews, A. E., Filges, A., Gerbig, C., Hatakka, J., Karion, A., Miles, N. L., Richardson, S. J., Steinbacher, M., Sweeney, C., Wastine, B., and Zellweger, C.: High accuracy measurements of dry mole fractions of carbon dioxide and methane in humid air, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 6, 837–860, doi:10.5194/amt-6-837-2013, 2013.
- Santos, E., Wagner-Riddle, C., Lee, X., Warland, J., Brown, S., Staebler, R., Bartlett, P., and Kim, K.: Use of the isotope flux ratio approach to investigate the C¹⁸O¹⁶O and ¹³CO₂ exchange near the floor of a temperate deciduous forest, Biogeosciences, 9, 2385–2399, doi:10.5194/bg-9-2385-2012, 2012.
- Sturm, P.: Interactive comment on "Evaluating calibration strategies for isotope ratio infrared spectroscopy for atmospheric ${}^{13}\text{CO}_2/{}^{12}\text{CO}_2$ measurement" by X.-F. Wen et al., 2013, Atmos. Meas. Tech. Discuss., 6, C170–C176, 2013.
- Sturm, P., Eugster, W., and Knohl, A.: Eddy covariance measurements of CO₂ isotopologues with a quantum cascade laser absorption spectrometer, Agr. Forest Meteorol., 152, 73–82, 2012.

X.-F. Wen et al.: Evaluating calibration strategies for isotope ratio infrared spectroscopy

- Tuzson, B., Zeeman, M. J., Zahniser, M. S., and Emmenegger, L.: Quantum cascade laser based spectrometer for in situ stable carbon dioxide isotope measurements, Infrared Phys. Techn., 51, 198–206, 2008.
- Vogel, F. R., Huang, L., Ernst, D., Giroux, L., Racki, S., and Worthy, D. E. J.: Evaluation of a cavity ring-down spectrometer for in situ observations of ¹³CO₂, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 6, 301–308, doi:10.5194/amt-6-301-2013, 2013.
- Wada, R., Pearce, J. K., Nakayama, T., Matsumi, Y., Hiyama, T., Inoue, G., and Shibata, T.: Observation of carbon and oxygen isotopic compositions of CO₂ at an urban site in Nagoya using Mid-IR laser absorption spectroscopy, Atmos. Environ., 45, 1168–1174, 2011.
- Welp, L., Lee, X., Griffis, T., Wen, X. F., Xiao, W., Li, S. G., Sun, X. M., Hu, Z. M., Martin, M. V., and Huang, J. P.: A metaanalysis of water vapor deuterium-excess in the mid-latitude atmospheric surface layer, Global Biogeochem. Cy., 26, GB3021, doi:10.1029/2011GB004246, 2012.
- Wen, X. F., Sun, X. M., Zhang, S. C., Yu, G. R., Sargent, S. D., and Lee, X.: Continuous measurement of water vapor D/H and ¹⁸O/¹⁶O isotope ratios in the atmosphere, J. Hydrol., 349, 489– 500, 2008.
- Wen, X. F., Lee, X., Sun, X. M., Wang, J. L., Tang, Y. K., Li, S. G., and Yu, G. R.: Inter-comparison of four commercial analyzers for water vapor isotope measurement, J. Atmos. Ocean. Tech., 29, 235–247, 2012.

- Werle, P.: Accuracy and precision of laser spectrometers for trace gas sensing in the presence of optical fringes and atmospheric turbulence, Appl. Phys., 102B, 313–329, 2011.
- Werle, P., Mazzinghi, P., D'Amato, F., De Rosa, M., Maurer, K., and Slemr, F.: Signal processing and calibration procedures for in-situ diode-laser absorption spectroscopy, Spectrochim. Acta A, 60, 1685–1705, 2004.
- Werner, C., Schnyder, H., Cuntz, M., Keitel, C., Zeeman, M. J., Dawson, T. E., Badeck, F.-W., Brugnoli, E., Ghashghaie, J., Grams, T. E. E., Kayler, Z. E., Lakatos, M., Lee, X., Máguas, C., Ogée, J., Rascher, K. G., Siegwolf, R. T. W., Unger, S., Welker, J., Wingate, L., and Gessler, A.: Progress and challenges in using stable isotopes to trace plant carbon and water relations across scales, Biogeosciences, 9, 3083–3111, doi:10.5194/bg-9-3083-2012, 2012.
- Wingate, L., Ogée, J., Burlett, R., Alexandre, B., Devaux, M., Grace, J., Loustau, D., and Gessler, A.: Photosynthetic carbon isotope discrimination and its relationship to the carbon isotope signals of stem, soil and ecosystem respiration, New Phytol., 188, 576–589, 2010.