

1 assigned $CO₂$ mole fractions), traceable to primary standards prepared or analyzed using absolute methods, such as manometry (Keeling et al., 1986;Zhao and Tans, 2006) and gravimetry (Machida et al., 2011;Rhoderick et al., 2016;Brewer et al., 2014), which provide traceability to the SI. The World Meteorological Organization (WMO), Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) initially adopted the Scripps Institution of Oceanography scale (Keeling et al., 1986) and subsequently the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) scale (Zhao et al., 1997), both of which are based on repeated manometric measurements of a suite of primary standards, for WMO-affiliated monitoring networks. The WMO scale has been updated over the years as understanding has improved and measurement records of primary standards have increased (Keeling et al., 2002;Keeling et al., 1986;Zhao and Tans, 2006).

12 Determining the absolute amount of $CO₂$ in air is a challenge for both gravimetric and 13 manometric methods, particularly since the relative uncertainties must be very small (~0.006%) 1-sigma, or about a factor of 4 lower than the WMO network compatibility goal of 0.1 ppm (WMO, 2018)), in order to assess changes (drift) in cylinders over many years. Long-term 16 monitoring of atmospheric $CO₂$ requires a stable reference, sufficient to identify small 17 atmospheric gradients (of order 0.1 μ mol mol⁻¹, or 0.1 ppm, in the remote troposphere). 18 Hereafter we will use ppm (parts per million) for μ mol mol⁻¹. Both methods can be influenced 19 by the adsorption of $CO₂$ to surfaces. There is increasing evidence that $CO₂$ can adsorb to the internal surfaces of cylinders and desorb with decreasing pressure (Langenfelds et al., 1996;Miller et al., 2015;Leuenberger et al., 2015;Brewer et al., 2018;Schibig et al., 2018). This 22 impacts both the gravimetrically-assigned mole fraction and the mole fraction of $CO₂$ in air withdrawn from cylinders over time. Further, since cylinder characteristics may differ among 24 cylinder manufacturers, understanding the behavior of $CO₂$ in cylinders is critical to maintaining stable scales over time.

27 The gravimetric technique can employ multiple steps, in which the target gas $(CO₂$ in this case) is diluted to the desired amount fraction. For example, Brewer et al. (2014) first prepared standards with mole fractions of a few percent, then made dilutions of those to the range

1 needed for ambient monitoring (\approx 400 ppm). Others have opted to dilute CO₂ to ppm levels in 2 one step (Machida et al., 2011). Matrix gases can also be added in different ways: $CO₂$ can be 3 mixed with individual gases (N_2 , Q_2 , Ar) to form an air-like matrix, or CO₂ can be added to 4 natural air from which the $CO₂$ has been removed. Methods of targeting stable isotopes of $CO₂$ 5 (e.g. 13 C-CO₂) to better match natural abundances have also been explored (Brewer et al., 6 2014).

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8 Here we describe one-step preparation of $CO₂$ -in-air compressed gas standards in aluminum 9 cylinders. We used information gained from recent decanting experiments (Schibig et al., 2018) 10 to correct for CO2 adsorption to the cylinder walls. This work was undertaken to support NOAA 11 manometric efforts and learn more about the behavior of $CO₂$ in aluminum cylinders.

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13 **Experimental Methods**

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15 Standards were prepared in 29.5-L Luxfer aluminum cylinders (~22kg empty) (Scott Marrin, Inc. 16 Riverside, CA), with brass, packless valves (Ceoduex). We chose these cylinders for two reasons. 17 First, we wanted to perform the dilutions in one step, and therefore needed relatively large 18 cylinders. Second, we wanted to use cylinders that were well-characterized. We have 19 considerable experience with $CO₂$ -in-air in this type of cylinder. Specific to this work, all 20 cylinders used were filled with natural air and decanted several times for $CO₂$ adsorption 21 studies (Schibig et al., 2018) prior to being used for gravimetric standards described here. 22 23 For this gravimetric work, each cylinder was evacuated to \sim 30 mtorr (4 Pa) and weighed on a 24 mass comparator (Sartorius CCE40K3: 40kg capacity, 2mg readability) relative to a control

25 cylinder of similar mass and volume. The mass comparator was calibrated using a 10 kg mass

26 (Troemner), and linearity over the working range was confirmed by adding a 5 kg mass (Mettler

27 Toledo) to the reference cylinder. We then added ~50 psi (0.34 MPa) natural air containing 402

28 or 408 ppm $CO₂$ determined by analysis (WMO X2007 scale). Cylinders were then vented,

29 partially evacuated to \sim 400 torr (53 kPa), and weighed. The mass of residual air along with the

1 mole fraction of CO_2 were used to calculate the initial mass of CO_2 in the cylinder. We did not 2 evacuate the cylinders further because $CO₂$ adsorption studies (Schibig et al., 2018) were 3 performed at pressures ranging from 0.1-13.8 MPa. The Schibig et al. (2018) work provided a 4 means to determine the amount of $CO₂$ adsorbed to cylinder walls, and we wanted to perform 5 the gravimetric addition with a small amount of residual $CO₂$ in the cylinders, consistent with 6 that work. For the standards presented here, the initial $CO₂$ in the cylinder corresponds to $<$ 7 0.8% of the total $CO₂$, and so the uncertainty associated with the mole fraction of initial $CO₂$, 8 derived from an independent $CO₂$ calibration (Zhao and Tans, 2006), makes a negligible 9 contribution to the total uncertainty (Table 1). The majority of the uncertainty in the mass of 10 $CO₂$ originally in the cylinder results from uncertainty in the mass determination of the residual 11 air. Nevertheless, we include a standard uncertainty of 0.025% on the WMO X2007 CO₂ scale 12 (https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccl/ccl_uncertainties_co2.html).

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14 An initial aliquot of high-purity CO₂ was added to an evacuated 50-mL stainless steel container 15 with a single metal bellows valve (Swagelok, model SS-4H) (pressure rated to 1000 psi, or 6.90 16 MPa, at 37 °C). After CO₂ was loaded into the 50-mL container at the desired pressure, it was 17 cryogenically transferred to a 5-mL stainless steel container, also with a metal bellows valve 18 (total mass \sim 150g) that had been evacuated and weighed previously. The CO₂ was cryogenically 19 purified by freezing at -197 °C and pumping off non-condensible gases. We estimate the purity 20 of the CO₂ source at 99.994% and that of the cryogenically-purified CO₂ aliquots at 99.997 ± 21 0.002% (Table 2). In this smaller volume, both liquid and vapor phases of $CO₂$ would be present 22 at room temperature (18 °C in this case). Note that the vapor pressure of CO₂ at 18 °C is ~795 23 psi (5.48 MPa), and that our 5-mL container and valve was rated to 1000 psi (6.89 MPa). We 24 employed this secondary transfer to a smaller container so that we could weigh \sim 1.5g CO₂ on a 25 balance with 0.01mg readability (Mettler Toledo AT201, 200g capacity). The 50-mL container 26 used in the first step is too large to be weighed on the AT-201. This is an important aspect of 27 this work. Without this secondary step, our uncertainties would have been about a factor of 10 28 larger. The mass of $CO₂$ in each 5-mL aliquot was determined by weighing the 5-mL container 29 relative to a control object of similar mass and density (sequence ABABA....). The AT-201 was

 calibrated using internal weights, and span-checked by adding a 2.0000g mass to the 5-mL container.

4 Each purified CO₂ aliquot was transferred from the 5-mL container to a partially-evacuated cylinder on a stainless steel vacuum manifold using a pressurization/expansion method (Figure 1) (Dlugokencky et al., 2005). The cylinder was connected to the vacuum manifold using a 1/8" OD AT-steel transfer line. AT-steel, also known as "activity tested steel" (Grace Discovery Science, Columbia, MD) is treated using vapor deposition to improve surface inertness. In initial tests we found that AT-steel performed better than other types of stainless steel, but in subsequent tests both 1/8" O.D. stainless steel and 1/8" O.D. AT-steel performed similarly (see Results and Discussion).

13 To transfer the aliquot to the cylinder, the manifold and transfer line were pre-heated to \sim 60 °C and evacuated to 5 mtorr (0.7 Pa). In quick succession, the cylinder valve was opened and the 15 valve on the 5-mL container was opened allowing $CO₂$ to expand into the cylinder. The 16 expansion of $CO₂$ resulted in significant cooling of the 5-mL container, so we heated the 5-mL 17 container, manifold, and transfer lines to ~60 °C while alternately pressurizing the 5-mL 18 container to \sim 200 psi (1.38 MPa) with CO₂-free air (dilution gas) and expanding into the cylinder. After about 20 pressurization/expansion cycles, the valve on the 5-mL container was closed and the cylinder pressurized with dilution gas. The 5-mL container was removed from 21 the manifold at a cylinder pressure of \sim 500 psi (3.45 MPa), and the cylinder was then further pressurized to 1000 psi (6.90 MPa) with dilution gas. Dilution gas consisted of scrubbed natural air (Cryogenic Ultra-pure grade, Scott Marrin Inc; now Praxair, Los Angeles, CA). This gas was 24 analyzed for $CO₂$ by non-dispersive infrared analysis (NDIR; Licor Li-7000). Samples of dilution gas were compared to a reference of dry nitrogen (99.999%) scrubbed using Ascarite II (Sigma 26 Aldrich). All cylinders of dilution gas contained 0.01 ± 0.01 ppm CO₂. After cylinders cooled to 27 room temperature, they were weighed on the mass comparator relative to the control cylinder.

1 The mole fraction of CO_2 , X_{CO2} , was calculated using equation (1), where n_a is the moles of CO_2 2 transferred from the 5-mL container, n_b is the moles of CO_2 initially present in the cylinder, n_{air} 3 is the total moles of air (sum of natural air initially present and dilution air), *p* is the purity 4 coefficient, *f* is the transfer efficiency, $X_{CO2,ad}$ is a correction for the amount of CO₂ adsorbed to 5 the cylinder walls (*X_{CO2,ad}* < 0) expressed in ppm, and *X_{CO2,dil}* is the amount of CO₂ in the dilution 6 air, also expressed in ppm.

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X_{CO2} = \frac{pf n_a + n_b}{pf n_a + n_b + n_{air}} + X_{CO2,ad} + X_{CO2,dil}
$$
 (1)

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11 The amount of each component was determined from the mass and molecular weight. For $CO₂$ 12 we used a molecular weight of 44.0096 \pm 0.0006 g mol⁻¹ (consistent with a ¹³C-CO₂ content of - 29 per mil on the VPDB scale, determined using off-axis integrated cavity output spectroscopy (Los Gatos Research) traceable to the University of Colorado (INSTAAR) Stable Isotope Laboratory realization of VPDB (Trolier et al., 1996;Tans et al., 2017). For the dilution gas, we 16 used a molecular weight of 28.9602 \pm 0.0042 g mol⁻¹. The oxygen content of the dilution gas was measured using a paramagnetic method (Beckman, E2) traceable to NIST SRM 2659A $(20.863\% \pm 0.011\% O_2 \text{ in N}_2)$. Argon was taken as 0.933% (Sutour et al., 2007), and the noble gases Xe, Ne, and Kr were taken as 0.09, 18.0 and 1.14 ppm, respectively. Nitrogen was 20 assumed to comprise the remaining fraction. We assumed 100% transfer efficiency (f=1.0) with an uncertainty of 0.01% (rectangular distribution) (see Results and Discussion).

22 The mole fraction correction for $CO₂$ adsorbed to the cylinder walls ($X_{CO2,ad}$) was determined 23 from multiple decanting experiments (Schibig et al., 2018). Briefly, in those experiments, 24 cylinders were filled with dry natural air (\approx 400 ppm), and drained at 0.3 L min⁻¹ and analyzed 25 continuously for $CO₂$ by NDIR. These studies showed remarkably consistent results: that the 26 mole fraction of $CO₂$ exiting the cylinder increased as the cylinder pressure decreased, and that 27 the data can be described with a Langmuir isotherm (Figure 2). By fitting the data with a

 Langmuir isotherm as derived by Leuenberger et al. (2015), and integrating the area between 2 the Langmuir fit and the initial X_{CO2} , we determined the amount of $CO₂$ that desorbs from the 3 walls as the cylinder is vented slowly to near-ambient pressure (Fig. 2). The amount of $CO₂$ 4 adsorbed to the walls, expressed as a fraction of the total amount of $CO₂$ in the cylinder, was typically about 0.004% (Table 3). Although the low-flow data show very good reproducibility (Table 3), we assumed a standard uncertainty of 0.01 ppm.

7 Five standards were prepared gravimetrically, with $CO₂$ mole fractions ranging from 357 to 492

ppm. Preparation uncertainties were determined by propagating uncertainties associated with

variables in equation (1) (Table 1), using software available from the National Institute of

Standards and Technology (NIST) (https://www.nist.gov/programs-projects/metrology-

software-project). The two most important factors influencing uncertainty are repeatability

12 associated with weighing the purified $CO₂$ aliquot (contributing ~25%) and the molecular weight

13 of air (contributing \sim 65%). For MW_{air}, the uncertainty is partially limited by our ability to 14 measure O_2 and calibrate the O_2 analyzer.

Results and Discussion

 Following preparation, standards were analyzed using laser spectroscopy (Tans et al., 2017). Each standard was analyzed twice over a period of two weeks. The response was expressed as 20 the mole fraction of $CO₂$, calculated on the WMO X2007 $CO₂$ scale, relative to that of CB11941. We use this relative response because mole fraction assignments on the X2007 scale account 22 for differences in the abundances of stable isotopes of $CO₂$ (mainly ¹³C-CO₂) between the gravimetric standards and secondary standards used for calibration (Tans et al., 2017). For 24 comparison, we also calculated response based on the analyzer signal derived from a single $CO₂$ 25 isotopologue (${}^{16}O-{}^{12}C-{}^{16}O$, 626). Both methods give similar results with respect to consistency of the standard set.

 Table 4 and Figure 3 show the best-fit results and residuals (difference between best fit and prepared mole fraction). All standards agree (within expanded uncertainties) with the

1 regression line. The standard deviation of residuals is 0.05 ppm and the largest residual is 0.09 2 ppm. Since the uncertainty associated with the molecular weight of air is the largest contributor 3 to the total uncertainty, but is common to all standards, it is worth recalculating uncertainty 4 without this contribution in order to assess consistency. Without μ_M MW_{air}, standard 5 uncertainties for each standard are 40-60% lower than when μ MW_{air} is included. Recalculating 6 the regression using these lower uncertainties, we find that the residuals do not change 7 appreciably. However, the residual for cylinder CB11941 becomes 0.098 ppm. With a standard 8 uncertainty of 0.046 ppm, CB11941 is not consistent with the rest of the standards. This may be 9 the result of preparation. Cylinder CB11941 was the first standard prepared, and followed 10 testing that involved injecting high concentrations of $CO₂$ into the manifold and transfer line. It 11 is possible that some residual $CO₂$ remained in the manifold and transfer line, and was 12 introduced into CB11941 when the manifold and transfer line were heated. The other 13 standards were prepared following several heating cycles, and are less likely to be influenced by 14 any residual $CO₂$.

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16 To support our assumption of 100% transfer efficiency, we examined both the potential for 17 adsorption of $CO₂$ in the manifold and transfer line, and the efficiency of transferring $CO₂$ from 18 the 5-mL container to a cylinder. We tested the transfer line by flowing air containing \sim 0.1 ppm 19 $CO₂$ at 0.2 L min⁻¹ through 1/8" AT-steel tubing to an NDIR analyzer. Then we injected 0.6mL of 20 10% CO₂-in-air into this air stream. After the initial slug of CO₂ was observed and the NDIR 21 signal returned to baseline, we heated the transfer line and measured the additional $CO₂$ 22 coming off (Figure 4). Comparing the area of the $CO₂$ released upon heating with that of the 23 main sample injected, we found that our AT-steel transfer line (length 1m) retained about 24 0.04% of CO₂ in the sample. We were able to drive off most of this CO₂ on the first heating 25 cycle, with < 0.01% released on subsequent heating. Tests with stainless steel (not AT-steel) 26 showed similar results. By heating the lines multiple times and passing a large amount of $CO₂$ -27 free air through them, it is unlikely that a significant amount of $CO₂$ would remain in the 28 manifold or transfer line.

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 We tested the transfer efficiency from the 5-mL container by cryogenically moving aliquots of $CO₂$ from one 5-mL container to another on a vacuum line (using liquid N₂), without additional flushing, and measuring changes in mass. When both the initial 5-mL container and transfer line 4 were heated, a transfer efficiency of 99.9 ± 0.1% was achieved. Without heating, the same test 5 revealed only 99% efficiency. We expect that repeated pressurization/expansion with $CO₂$ -free 6 air, in addition to heating, would improve the transfer efficiency of the $CO₂$ aliquot to near 100%. The relatively good agreement among the four standards prepared after CB11941 supports this assumption. It seems unlikely that this level of agreement could be achieved with poor or variable transfer efficiency.

11 As mentioned earlier, we estimated the amount of $CO₂$ adsorbed to the cylinder walls (~0.004%) from the results of low-flow decanting experiments*.* The Schibig et al. (2018) 13 decanting tests reveal substantially less $CO₂$ adsorbed compared to "mother/daughter" tests (Miller et al., 2015;Brewer et al., 2018), in which half the contents of one cylinder are transferred to an equal size cylinder and the adsorption determined based on the resulting mole fraction difference. From mother/daughter tests on 5.9-L cylinders from Airgas (Riverton, NJ) and 5-L cylinders from Air Products (Vilvoorde, Belgium), Miller et al. (2015) estimated that 18 about 0.02% of the $CO₂$ was adsorbed to the walls. Brewer et al. (2018) performed similar tests 19 on 10-L aluminum cylinders treated with the BOC Spectra Seal process, and found $CO₂$ adsorption fractions of about 0.05%.

 In preparation for this work, we performed mother/daughter tests on both 5.9-L and 29.5-L aluminum cylinders (Scott Marrin, Riverside, CA), including cylinders CB11941 and CB11873 used in this work. Cylinders CB11941 and CB11873 were filled with natural air, vented, and then evacuated to 5 psia (0.03 MPa). Air from two "mother" cylinders containing natural air was 25 transferred into CB11941 and CB11873. We found that the $CO₂$ in daughter cylinders CB11941 and CB11873 was 0.16-0.19 ppm lower than their respective mothers after transfer (Table 5), similar to the results of Miller et al. (2015) and Brewer et al. (2018). Our tests with 5.9-L 28 cylinders also showed differences of ~0.2 ppm (not shown).

 Mother/daughter tests suggest five to ten times more adsorption than that determined from the Schibig et al. (2018) low-flow data. The difference between mother/daughter tests and the low-flow experiments could be related to thermal fractionation. Schibig et al. (2018) performed 4 both low-flow (0.3 L min⁻¹) and high-flow (5.0 L min⁻¹) decanting experiments. They found that 5 changes in $CO₂$ at the high flowrate were 2.5 times those observed at the low flowrate, and attributed the difference to thermal fractionation at the higher flow rate. During our mother/daughter tests, the mother cylinders experienced significant cooling during transfer, which could have caused fractionation as cooler air sinks in the center core of the cylinder, with 9 CO₂ preferentially remaining in the mother cylinder. In fact, after transferring half of the gas 10 from a mother cylinder to a respective daughter cylinder, the mole fraction of $CO₂$ in each 11 mother cylinder increased 0.06 ± 0.01 ppm relative to its value determined prior to transfer (Table 5). From figure 2, which represents a typical low-flow decanting result, the increase due to desorption from the cylinder walls should be far smaller than 0.06 ppm at 50% of the original cylinder pressure.

15 Finally, we compare these standards to the WMO X2007 CO₂ scale. The mean ratio of gravimetrically assigned mole fractions to values assigned on the WMO X2007 scale is 1.00045 with standard deviation 0.00017. Thus, the WMO X2007 scale is ~0.05% lower than a scale based on these gravimetric standards. However, this difference is not outside the range of uncertainties (~0.05% for WMO X2007 and ~0.033 % for this work, ~95% Confidence Level, or 20 coverage factor k=2). While the ^{13}C -CO₂ content of these gravimetrically-prepared standards is lower than that of natural air (-29 per mil, compared to about -8 per mil for natural air), and 22 these standards were compared to WMO secondary standards with 13 C-CO₂ at ambient levels during analysis, this introduces negligible bias because the analytical method compensates for different isotopic abundances (Tans et al., 2017). Further discussion on differences between the WMO X2007 scale and these gravimetric standards will be included in a subsequent publication.

Conclusions

1 Five gravimetric CO_2 -in-air standards, prepared at the ppm level in one dilution step, show

- 2 excellent internal consistency. Prepared mole fractions were adjusted for $CO₂$ expected to
- adsorb to cylinder walls. This correction was determined from low-flow decanting studies, and
- is a factor of 5-10 smaller than that inferred from mother/daughter tests. With improved
- 5 understanding of CO₂ adsorption characteristics, and by introducing condensed-phase aliquots
- 6 of CO₂ into small vessels that can be weighed with sufficient repeatability, $CO₂$ -in-air standards
- can be prepared with relatively low uncertainty. This work supports parallel efforts to maintain
- 8 the WMO mole fraction scale for $CO₂$.
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- **Supporting Information**
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16 Table 1 landscape.pdf

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CB11976 84.4328 0.0140 -0.020 0.01 0.01 0.01 449.301 **CB12009** 79.6713 0.0133 -0.022 0.01 0.01 0.01 491.763

Table 1: Components and standard uncertainties associated with standard preparation.

Note: Entries preceded by " μ " represent standard uncertainties (~68% Confidence Level)

 $CO₂$ a = mass of $CO₂$ aliquot in 5-mL container, added to cylinder

 $CO₂$ b = initial mass of $CO₂$ in cylinder (based on analyzed mole fraction and mass of residual air)

Air = mass of air (includes 10-15g residual air initially present in cylinder)

 n_{CO2} = total amount of CO₂ (moles) (0.99997 purity correction applied)

 n_{air} = total amount of air (moles)

 $X_{CO2,ad}$ = correction applied to account for adsorption to cylinder walls

 $X_{CO2, dil}$ = correction applied to account for $CO₂$ in the dilution gas

 X_{CO2} = mole fraction of CO₂

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- 2 **Table 2**: CO₂ purity assessment.

^{*}Since the CO₂ aliquots were cryogenically purified to remove non-condensible gases,
we calculate the aliquot purity based on H₂O only. Non-condensibles include e.g., N₂,

we calculate the aliquot purity based on H_2O only. Non-condensibles include e.g., N₂,

 O_2 , Ar, H₂, CO, and CH₄.

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9 Table 3: Summary of CO₂ adsorption experiments. For each cylinder, the test was repeated N 10 times. Adsorbed $CO₂$ is expressed as a fraction of the total $CO₂$ in the cylinder.

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6 **Table 4**: Analysis of CO2-in-air standards. "Best-fit" values were determined from

7 a linear fit (response vs. prepared $CO₂$) using orthogonal distance regression, with fit

8 coefficients equal to 2.4644 \cdot 10⁻³ and 8.7851 \cdot 10⁻⁴. Uncertainties (unc.) are shown as ~68%

9 Confidence Level. Results are not sensitive to how the response was normalized.

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2 **Table 5**: Results of Mother/Daughter testing on 29.5-L aluminum cylinders. Note: Final

pressures do not sum correctly due to thermal differences. Mother/Daughter differences were

4 calculated as Daughter minus Mother (after transfer).

Figure Captions

 Figure 1: Schematic of the blending manifold. The sample aliquot (5-mL) was connected to one of three aliquot inlet ports (p1, p2, p3). The sample was transferred to the receiving cylinder by opening the cylinder valve (with v2 closed), opening the valve on the 5-mL vessel, and then alternately pressurizing the section between valves v2 and v3, and opening v3 to send the gas 7 to the cylinder. The sample manifold is constructed of $\frac{1}{4}$ " o.d. stainless steel tubing with welded or Swagelok VCR connections. Valves are stainless steel, diaphragm-sealed (Swagelok model DSV51).

- **Figure 2:** Typical result from Schibig et al. (2018) CO2 decanting experiments showing an
- 12 increase in X_{CO2} with decreasing cylinder pressure. The fraction of $CO₂$ adsorbed was found by
- comparing the area under the Langmuir isotherm (blue line) with the area under the Langmuir
- 14 isotherm but above the initial $CO₂$ mole fraction (dashed line). The adsorbed $CO₂$ calculated this
- 15 way, expressed as a mole fraction, is similar to the parameter $CO_{2,ad}$ from the Langmuir model
- (Leuenberger et al., 2015;Schibig et al., 2018). Fit parameters, K, CO2_ad, and CO2_init are
- described in Leuenberger et al. (2015).

Figure 3: Normalized response of gravimetrically-prepared standards, analyzed by laser

 spectroscopy (lower panel). Residuals from linear fit are shown in upper panel, along with preparation uncertainties (~68% Confidence Level, or coverage factor k=1).

23 **Figure 4**: Measure of CO₂ passing through a ~1-m AT-steel transfer line. The peak in (a) results 24 from 0.6cm³ air containing 10% CO₂ injected into CO₂-free air flowing at 0.2 L min⁻¹. Panel (b) is 25 an expanded view of panel (a), showing a second peak at \sim 400s, which results from CO₂ driven off the tubing by heating.