



Gravimetrically-Prepared Carbon Dioxide Standards in Support of Atmospheric Research

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Abstract

We have explored a one-step method for gravimetric preparation of CO₂-in-air standards in aluminum cylinders. We consider both adsorption to stainless steel surfaces used in the transfer of highly-pure CO₂, and adsorption of CO₂ to cylinder walls. We demonstrate that CO₂-in-air standards can be prepared with relatively low uncertainty (~0.04%, ~95% Confidence Level) by introducing aliquots whose masses are known to high precision, and by using well-characterized cylinders. Five gravimetric standards, prepared over the nominal range 350 to 490 μmol mol⁻¹ (parts per million, ppm), showed excellent internal consistency, with residuals from a linear fit equal to 0.05 ppm. This work complements efforts to maintain the World Meteorological Organization, Global Atmosphere Watch, mole fraction scale for carbon dioxide, widely used for atmospheric monitoring. This gravimetric technique could be extended to other atmospheric trace gases, depending on the vapor pressure of the gas.

Introduction

Numerous laboratories make routine measurements of atmospheric carbon dioxide to better understand its sources, sinks, and temporal variability. These measurements are typically calibrated using high-pressure gas standards containing CO₂ in air (typically natural air with



1 assigned CO₂ mole fractions), traceable to primary standards prepared or analyzed using
2 absolute methods, such as manometry (Keeling et al., 1986;Zhao and Tans, 2006) and
3 gravimetry (Machida et al., 2011;Rhoderick et al., 2016;Brewer et al., 2014), which provide
4 traceability to the SI. The World Meteorological Organization (WMO), Global Atmosphere
5 Watch (GAW) initially adopted the Scripps Institution of Oceanography scale (Keeling et al.,
6 1986) and subsequently the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) scale
7 (Zhao et al., 1997), both of which are based on repeated manometric measurements of a suite
8 of primary standards, for WMO-affiliated monitoring networks. The WMO-GAW scale has been
9 updated over the years as understanding has improved and measurement records of primary
10 standards have increased (Keeling et al., 2002;Keeling et al., 1986;Zhao and Tans, 2006).

11

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 (~0.01%
14 1-sigma) in order to assess changes (drift) in cylinders over many years. Long-term monitoring
15 of atmospheric CO₂ requires a stable reference, sufficient to identify small atmospheric
16 gradients (of order 0.1 μmol mol⁻¹, or 0.1 ppm, in the remote troposphere). Hereafter we will
17 use ppm (parts per million) for μmol mol⁻¹. Both methods can be influenced by the adsorption
18 of CO₂ to surfaces. There is increasing evidence that CO₂ can adsorb to the internal surfaces of
19 cylinders and desorb with decreasing pressure (Langenfelds et al., 1996;Miller et al.,
20 2015;Leuenberger et al., 2015;Brewer et al., 2018;Schibig et al., 2018). This impacts both the
21 gravimetrically-assigned mole fraction and the mole fraction of CO₂ in air withdrawn from
22 cylinders over time. Further, since cylinder characteristics may differ among cylinder
23 manufacturers, understanding the behavior of CO₂ in cylinders is critical to maintaining stable
24 scales over time.

25

26 The gravimetric technique can employ multiple steps, in which the target gas (CO₂ in this case)
27 is diluted to the desired amount fraction. For example, Brewer et al. (2014) first prepared
28 standards with mole fractions of a few percent, then made dilutions of those to the range
29 needed for ambient monitoring (~400 ppm). Others have opted to dilute CO₂ to ppm levels in



one step (Machida et al., 2011). Matrix gases can also be added in different ways: CO₂ can be mixed with individual gases (N₂, O₂, Ar) to form an air-like matrix, or CO₂ can be added to natural air from which the CO₂ has been removed. Methods of targeting stable isotopes of CO₂ (e.g. ¹³C-CO₂) to better match natural abundances have also been explored (Brewer et al., 2014).

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

Experimental Methods

Standards were prepared in 29.5-L Luxfer aluminum cylinders (Scott Marrin, Inc. Riverside, CA), with brass, packless valves (Ceoduex). We chose these cylinders for two reasons. First, we wanted to perform the dilutions in one step, and therefore needed relatively large cylinders. Second, we wanted to use cylinders that were well-characterized. We have considerable experience with CO₂-in-air in this type of cylinder. Specific to this work, all cylinders used were filled with natural air and decanted several times for CO₂ adsorption studies (Schibig et al., 2018) prior to being used for gravimetric standards described here.

For this gravimetric work, each cylinder was evacuated to ~30 mtorr (4 Pa) and weighed on a mass comparator (Sartorius CCE40K3) relative to a control cylinder of similar mass and volume. The mass comparator was calibrated using a 10 kg mass (Troemner), and linearity over the working range was confirmed by adding a 5 kg mass (Mettler Toledo) to the reference cylinder. We then added ~50 psi (0.34 MPa) natural air containing 402 or 408 ppm CO₂ determined by analysis (WMO X2007 scale). Cylinders were then vented, partially evacuated to ~400 torr (53 kPa), and weighed. The mass of residual air along with the mole fraction of CO₂ were used to calculate the initial mass of CO₂ in the cylinder. We did not evacuate the cylinders further



1 because CO₂ adsorption studies (Schibig et al., 2018) were performed at pressures ranging from
2 0.1–13.8 MPa. The Schibig et al. (2018) work provided a means to determine the amount of CO₂
3 adsorbed to cylinder walls, and we wanted to perform the gravimetric addition with a small
4 amount of residual CO₂ in the cylinders, consistent with that work. For the standards presented
5 here, the initial CO₂ in the cylinder corresponds to < 0.8% of the total CO₂, and so the
6 uncertainty associated with the mole fraction of initial CO₂, derived from an independent CO₂
7 calibration (Zhao and Tans, 2006), makes a negligible contribution to the total uncertainty
8 (Table 1). The majority of the uncertainty in the mass of CO₂ originally in the cylinder results
9 from uncertainty in the mass determination of the residual air. Nevertheless, we include a
10 standard uncertainty of 0.025% on the NOAA X2007 CO₂ scale
11 (https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccl/ccl_uncertainties_co2.html).
12

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



1 calibrated using internal weights, and span-checked by adding a 2.0000g mass to the 5-mL
2 container.
3
4 Each purified CO₂ aliquot was transferred from the 5-mL container to a partially-evacuated
5 cylinder on a stainless steel vacuum manifold using a pressurization/expansion method
6 (Dlugokencky et al., 2005). The cylinder was connected to the vacuum manifold using a 1/8" OD
7 AT-steel transfer line. AT-steel, also known as "activity tested steel" (Grace Discovery Science,
8 Columbia, MD) is treated using vapor deposition to improve surface inertness. In initial tests we
9 found that AT-steel performed better than other types of stainless steel, but in subsequent
10 tests both 1/8" O.D. stainless steel and 1/8" O.D. AT-steel performed similarly (see Results and
11 Discussion).
12
13 To transfer the aliquot to the cylinder, the manifold and transfer line were pre-heated to ~60 °C
14 and evacuated to 5 mtorr. In quick succession, the cylinder valve was opened and the valve on
15 the 5-mL container was opened allowing CO₂ to expand into the cylinder. The expansion of CO₂
16 resulted in significant cooling of the 5-mL container, so we heated the 5-mL container,
17 manifold, and transfer lines to ~60 °C while alternately pressurizing the 5-mL container to ~200
18 psi (1.38 MPa) with CO₂-free air (dilution gas) and expanding into the cylinder. After about 20
19 pressurization/expansion cycles, the valve on the 5-mL container was closed and the cylinder
20 pressurized with dilution gas. The 5-mL container was removed from the manifold at a cylinder
21 pressure of ~ 500 psi (3.45 MPa), and the cylinder was then further pressurized to 1000 psi
22 (6.90 MPa) with dilution gas. Dilution gas consisted of scrubbed natural air (Cryogenic Ultra-
23 pure grade, Scott Marrin Inc; now Praxair, Los Angeles, CA). This gas was analyzed for CO₂ by
24 non-dispersive infrared analysis (NDIR; Licor Li-7000). Samples of dilution gas were compared to
25 a reference of dry nitrogen (99.999%) scrubbed using Ascarite II (Sigma Aldrich). All cylinders of
26 dilution gas contained 0.01 ± 0.01 ppm CO₂. After cylinders cooled to room temperature, they
27 were weighed on the mass comparator relative to the control cylinder.
28



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

6

7

$$8 \quad X_{CO_2} = \frac{pf n_a + n_b}{pf n_a + n_b + n_{air}} + X_{CO_2,ad} + X_{CO_2,dil} \quad (1)$$

9

10 The number of moles of each component was determined from the mass and molecular weight.
 11 For CO₂ we used a molecular weight of $44.0096 \pm 0.0006 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ (consistent with a ¹³C-CO₂
 12 content of -29 per mil on the VPDB scale, determined using off-axis integrated cavity output
 13 spectroscopy (Los Gatos Research) traceable to the University of Colorado (INSTAAR) Stable
 14 Isotope Laboratory realization of VPDB (Troler et al., 1996; Tans et al., 2017). For the dilution
 15 gas, we used a molecular weight of $28.9621 \pm 0.0042 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$. The oxygen content of the
 16 dilution gas was measured using a paramagnetic method (Beckman, E2) traceable to NIST SRM
 17 2659A ($20.863\% \pm 0.011\% \text{ O}_2$ in N₂). Argon was taken as 0.933% (Sutour et al., 2007), and the
 18 noble gases Xe, Ne, and Kr were taken as 0.09, 18.0 and 1.14 ppm, respectively. We assumed
 19 100% transfer efficiency with an uncertainty of 0.01% (rectangular distribution) (see Results and
 20 Discussion).

21 The mole fraction correction for CO₂ adsorbed to the cylinder walls ($X_{CO_2,ad}$) was determined
 22 from multiple decanting experiments (Schibig et al., 2018). Briefly, in those experiments,
 23 cylinders were filled with dry natural air (~400 ppm), and drained at 0.3 L min^{-1} and analyzed
 24 continuously for CO₂ by NDIR. These studies showed remarkably consistent results: that the
 25 mole fraction of CO₂ exiting the cylinder increased as the cylinder pressure decreased, and that
 26 the data can be described with a Langmuir isotherm (Figure 1). By fitting the data with a
 27 Langmuir isotherm as derived by Leuenberger et al. (2015), and integrating the area between



1 the Langmuir fit and the initial X_{CO_2} , we determined the amount of CO_2 that desorbs from the
 2 walls as the cylinder is vented slowly to near-ambient pressure (Fig 1). The amount of CO_2
 3 adsorbed to the walls, expressed as a fraction of total CO_2 in the cylinder, was typically about
 4 0.004% (Table 3). This corresponds to 0.016 ppm CO_2 at 400 ppm.
 5
 6 The Schibig et al. (2018) decanting tests reveal substantially less CO_2 adsorbed compared to
 7 mother/daughter tests (Miller et al., 2015; Brewer et al., 2018), in which half the contents of
 8 one cylinder are transferred to an equal size cylinder and the adsorption determined based on
 9 the resulting mole fraction difference. From mother/daughter tests on 5.9-L cylinders from
 10 Airgas (Riverton, NJ) and 5-L cylinders from Air Products (Vilvoorde, Belgium), Miller et al.
 11 (2015) estimated that about 0.02% of the CO_2 was adsorbed to the walls. Brewer et al. (2018)
 12 performed similar tests on 10-L aluminum cylinders treated with the BOC Spectra Seal process,
 13 and found CO_2 adsorption fractions of about 0.05%.
 14
 15 In preparation for this work, we performed mother/daughter tests on both 5.9-L and 29.5-L
 16 aluminum cylinders (Scott Marrin, Riverside, CA), including cylinders CB11941 and CB11873
 17 used in this work. Cylinders CB11941 and CB11873 were filled with natural air, vented, and then
 18 evacuated to 5 psia (0.03 MPa). Air from two "mother" cylinders containing natural air was
 19 transferred into CB11941 and CB11873. We found that the CO_2 in daughter cylinders CB11941
 20 and CB11873 was 0.16-0.19 ppm lower than their respective mothers after transfer (Table 4),
 21 similar to the results of Miller et al. (2015) and Brewer et al. (2018). Our tests with 5.9-L
 22 cylinders showed ~0.2 ppm differences (not shown).
 23
 24 Mother/daughter tests suggest five to ten times more adsorption than that determined from
 25 the Schibig et al. (2018) low-flow data. The difference between mother/daughter tests and the
 26 low-flow experiments could be related to thermal fractionation. Schibig et al. (2018) performed
 27 both low-flow (0.3 L min^{-1}) and high-flow (5.0 L min^{-1}) tests, and measured significant
 28 temperature gradients on the cylinder surfaces during the high-flow tests, but not during the
 low-flow tests. They concluded that both adsorption and fractionation were occurring at high
 flow. During our mother/daughter tests, the mother cylinders experienced significant cooling



1 during transfer, which could have caused fractionation as cooler air sinks in the center core of
2 the cylinder, with CO₂ preferentially remaining in the mother cylinders. In fact, after
3 transferring half of the gas from a mother cylinder to a respective daughter cylinder, the mole
4 fraction of CO₂ in each mother cylinder increased 0.06 ± 0.01 ppm relative to its value
5 determined prior to transfer (Table 4). Figure 1, which represents a typical low-flow decanting
6 result, suggests that the increase due to desorption from the cylinder walls should be far
7 smaller than 0.06 ppm at 50% of the original cylinder pressure. Because mother/daughter tests
8 appear to be subject to both thermal fractionation and surface adsorption, we estimated $X_{\text{CO}_2, \text{ad}}$
9 exclusively from the Schibig et al. (2018) low-flow data (Table 3).

10

11 Results and Discussion

12

13 Five standards were prepared gravimetrically, with CO₂ mole fractions ranging from 357 to 492
14 ppm, and evaluated by analysis using laser spectroscopy (Tans et al., 2017). Preparation
15 uncertainties were determined by propagating uncertainties associated with variables in
16 equation (1) (Table 1), using software available from the National Institute of Standards and
17 Technology (NIST) (<https://www.nist.gov/programs-projects/metrology-software-project>). The
18 two most important factors influencing uncertainty are repeatability associated with weighing
19 the purified CO₂ aliquot (~25%) and the molecular weight of air (~65%). For MW_{air}, the
20 uncertainty is partially limited by our ability to measure O₂ and calibrate the O₂ analyzer.

21

22 Each standard was analyzed twice over a period of two weeks. The response was expressed as
23 the mole fraction of CO₂, calculated on the WMO X2007 CO₂ scale, relative to that of CB11941,
24 and fit with a linear function (Figure 2, Table 5). We use this relative response because mole
25 fraction assignments on the X2007 scale account for differences in the abundances of stable
26 isotopes of CO₂ (mainly ¹³C-CO₂) between the gravimetric standards and secondary standards
27 used for calibration (Tans et al., 2017). For comparison, we also calculated response based on
28 the analyzer signal derived from a single CO₂ isotopologue (¹⁶O-¹²C-¹⁶O, 626). Differences in the



1 residuals from a linear fit were less than 0.005 ppm compared those derived using the response
2 derived from X2007 assignments (Table 5).

3

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

20

21 To support our assumption of 100% transfer efficiency, we examined both the potential for
22 adsorption of CO₂ in the manifold and transfer line, and the efficiency of transferring CO₂ from
23 the 5-mL container to a cylinder. We tested the transfer line by flowing air containing 0.1 ppm
24 CO₂ at 0.2 L min⁻¹ through 1/8" AT-steel tubing to an NDIR analyzer. Then we injected 0.6mL of
25 10% CO₂-in-air into this air stream. After the initial slug of CO₂ was observed and the NDIR
26 signal returned to baseline, we heated the transfer line and measured the additional CO₂
27 coming off (Figure 3). Comparing the area of the CO₂ released upon heating with that of the
28 main sample injected, we found that our AT-steel transfer line (length 1m) retained about
29 0.04% of CO₂ in the sample. We were able to drive off most of this CO₂ on the first heating



1 cycle, with < 0.01% released on subsequent heating. Tests with stainless steel (not AT-steel)
2 showed similar results. By heating the lines multiple times and passing a large amount of CO₂-
3 free air through them, it is unlikely that a significant amount of CO₂ would remain in the
4 manifold or transfer line.

5

6 We tested the transfer efficiency from the 5-mL container by cryogenically moving aliquots of
7 CO₂ from one 5-mL container to another on a vacuum line (using liquid N₂), without additional
8 flushing, by measuring changes in mass. When both the initial 5-mL container and transfer line
9 were heated, a transfer efficiency of $99.9 \pm 0.1\%$ was achieved. Without heating, the same test
10 revealed only 99% efficiency. We expect that repeated pressurization/expansion with CO₂-free
11 air, in addition to heating, would improve the transfer efficiency of the CO₂ aliquot to near
12 100%. The relatively good agreement among the four standards prepared after CB11941
13 supports this assumption. It seems unlikely that this level of agreement could be achieved with
14 poor or variable transfer efficiency.

15

16 We also can compare these standards to the WMO X2007 CO₂ scale. The mean ratio, comparing
17 the gravimetrically assigned mole fractions to values assigned on the WMO X2007 scale is
18 1.00052 with standard deviation 0.00017. Thus, the WMO X2007 scale is 0.05% lower than a
19 scale based on these gravimetric standards. However, this difference is not outside the range of
20 uncertainties (~0.05% for WMO X2007 and ~0.033 % for this work, ~95% Confidence Level, or
21 coverage factor k=2). While the ¹³C-CO₂ content of these gravimetrically-prepared standards is
22 lower than that of natural air (-29 per mil, compared to about -8 per mil for natural air), and
23 these standards were compared to WMO secondary standards with ¹³C-CO₂ at ambient levels
24 during analysis, this introduces negligible bias because the analytical method compensates for
25 different isotopic abundances (Tans et al., 2017). Further discussion on differences between the
26 WMO scale and these gravimetric standards will be included in a subsequent publication.

27

28 **Conclusions**

29



1 Five gravimetric CO₂-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
3 adsorb to cylinder walls. This correction was determined from low-flow decanting studies, and
4 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
7 can be prepared with relatively low uncertainty. This work supports parallel efforts to maintain
8 the WMO/GAW mole fraction scale for CO₂.

9

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14 **Supporting Information**

15

16 Table_1_landscape.docx

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1

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

Cylinder	Components						
	CO ₂ _a	μ_CO ₂ _a	CO ₂ _b	μ_CO ₂ _b	Air	μ_Air	n _{CO2}
	g	g	g	g	g	g	mol
CB11873	6.80E-03	2.24E-05	1.36062	0.00008	2515.637	0.033	3.1070E-02
CB11906	7.28E-03	1.25E-05	1.52917	0.00007	2542.399	0.026	3.4911E-02
CB11941	1.07E-02	1.25E-05	1.51156	0.00015	2470.262	0.030	3.4589E-02
CB11976	7.32E-03	1.18E-05	1.66307	0.00011	2445.198	0.014	3.7954E-02
CB12009	7.72E-03	1.81E-05	1.71751	0.00007	2307.305	0.039	3.9200E-02

Cylinder	Adjustments						Amount Fraction
	n _{air}	μ_n _{air}	X _{CO2,ad}	μ_X _{CO2,ad}	X _{CO2,dil}	μ_X _{CO2,dil}	X _{CO2}
	mol	mol	ppm	ppm	ppm	ppm	ppm
CB11873	86.8596	0.0144	-0.015	0.001	0.01	0.01	357.569
CB11906	87.7836	0.0146	-0.015	0.002	0.01	0.01	397.523
CB11941	85.2929	0.0142	-0.017	0.001	0.01	0.01	405.363
CB11976	84.4275	0.0140	-0.020	0.002	0.01	0.01	449.330
CB12009	79.6664	0.0133	-0.022	0.001	0.01	0.01	491.795

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

CO₂_a = initial mass of CO₂ in cylinder (based on analyzed mole fraction and mass of air)

CO₂_b = mass of CO₂ aliquot in 5-mL container and added to cylinder

Air = mass of air

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

n_{air} = total moles of air

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.

Component	Fraction	Method
CO ₂ (source)	0.99994	
CO ₂ (aliquot)*	0.99997	
H ₂ O	0.00003	electrolytic
CH ₄	0.00002	laser spectroscopy
CO	0.00001	laser spectroscopy
N ₂ O	2·10 ⁻⁸	GC-ECD
ethyne	3·10 ⁻⁹	GC-GCMS
ethene	2·10 ⁻⁹	GC-GCMS
propane	2·10 ⁻⁹	GC-GCMS
other hydrocarbons	< 2·10 ⁻⁸	GC-GCMS
total non-condensable	0.00002	residual pressure

3 *Since the CO₂ aliquots were cryogenically purified to remove non-condensable gases,
 4 we calculate the aliquot purity based on H₂O only. Non-condensibles include e.g., N₂,
 5 O₂, 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.

Cylinder	N	average %	std. dev. %
CB11873	5	0.0043%	0.0003%
CB11941	4	0.0042%	0.0003%
CB11906	5	0.0038%	0.0004%
CB11976	5	0.0044%	0.0005%
CB12009	5	0.0044%	0.0002%

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Table 4: Results of mother/daughter testing on 29.5-L aluminum cylinders. Note: Final pressures do not sum correctly due to thermal differences.

Cylinder		~ Pressure (MPa)		CO ₂ (ppm)
CB11795	mother	12.07	initial	401.928
CB11795	mother	5.79	after transfer	401.988
CB11941	daughter	0.03	initial	
CB11941	daughter	5.72	after transfer	401.828
change in mother				0.060
daughter - mother				-0.160
CB11088	mother	13.80	initial	408.125
CB11088	mother	6.69	after transfer	408.188
CB11873	daughter	0.03	initial	
CB11873	daughter	6.55	final	407.995
change in mother				0.063
daughter - mother				-0.193

Table 5: Analysis of CO₂-in-air standards. "Best-fit" values were determined from a linear fit (response vs. prepared CO₂) using orthogonal distance regression. Uncertainties (unc.) are shown as ~68% Confidence Level. Results are not sensitive to how the response was normalized.

cylinder	prepared ppm	unc. ppm	response	unc.	best-fit ppm	residual ppm
CB11873	357.569	0.058	0.881915	0.000028	357.535	-0.034
CB11906	397.523	0.062	0.980465	0.000025	397.527	0.004
CB11941	405.363	0.073	1.000000	0.000025	405.455	0.092
CB11976	449.330	0.074	1.108007	0.000025	449.285	-0.045
CB12009	491.795	0.077	1.212741	0.000039	491.787	-0.008

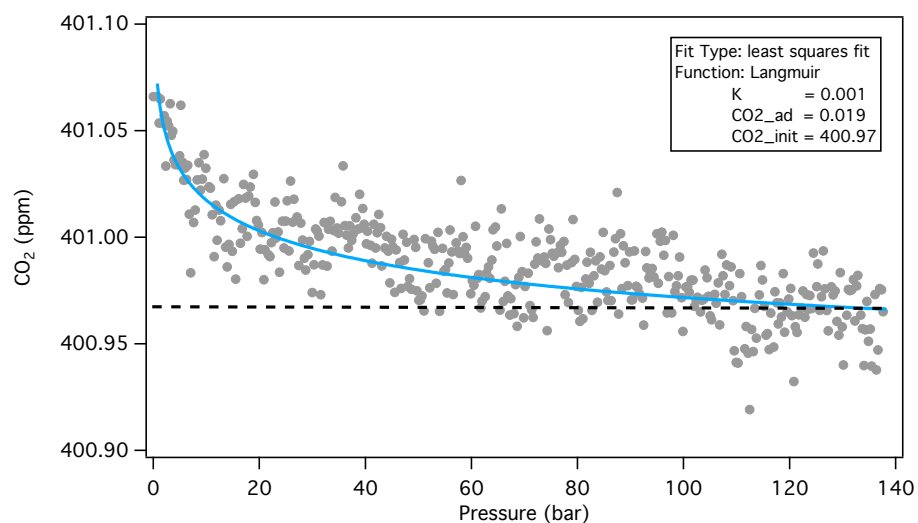
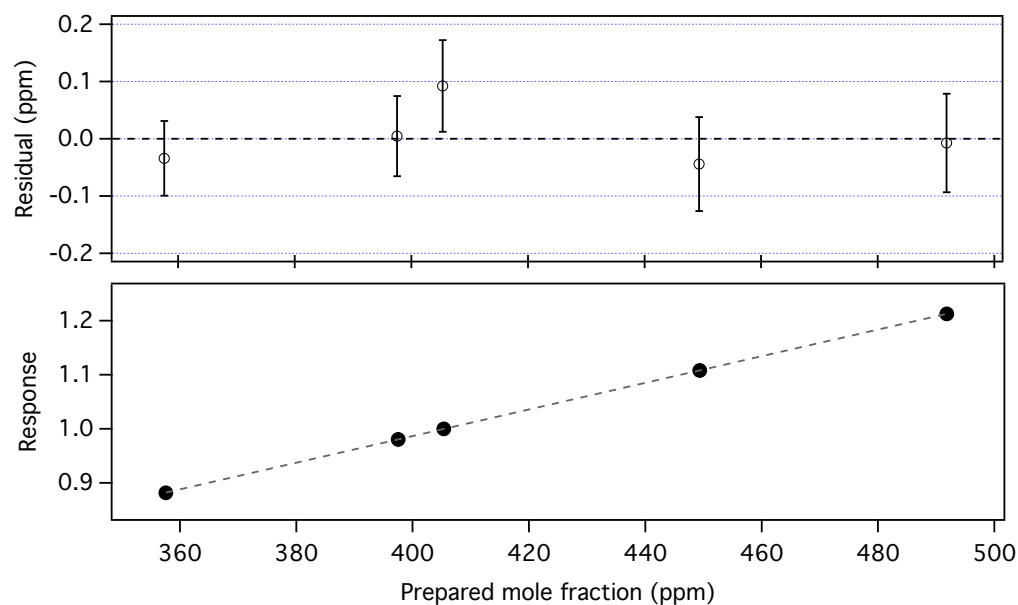


Figure 1: Typical result from CO₂ decanting experiments showing an increase in X_{CO_2} with decreasing cylinder pressure. The fraction of CO₂ adsorbed was found by comparing the area under the Langmuir isotherm (blue line) with the area under the Langmuir isotherm but above the initial CO₂ mole fraction (dashed line). The adsorbed CO₂ calculated this way, expressed as a mole fraction, is similar to the parameter $\text{CO}_{2,\text{ad}}$ from the Langmuir model (Leuenberger et al., 2015; Schibig et al., 2018).



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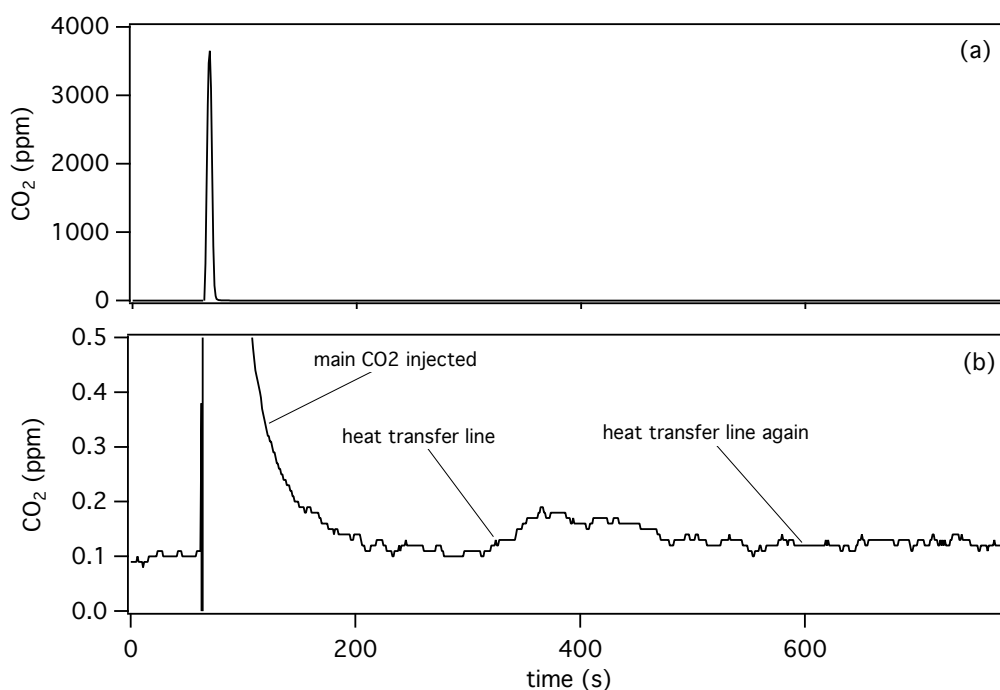


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Figure 2: Normalized response of gravimetrically-prepared standards, analyzed by laser spectroscopy (lower panel). Residuals from linear fit are shown in upper panel, along with preparation uncertainties (~68% Confidence Level, or coverage factor $k=1$).



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Figure 3: Measure of CO₂ passing through AT-steel transfer line. The peak in (a) results from 0.6cm³ air containing 10% CO₂ injected into CO₂-free air flowing at 0.2 L min⁻¹. Panel (b) is an expanded view of panel (a), showing a second peak at ~400s, which results from CO₂ driven off the tubing by heating.