



A rapid method for preparing low volume CH₄ and CO₂ gas samples for ¹⁴C AMS analysis



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ABSTRACT

¹⁴C measurements of CH₄ in environmental samples (e.g. soil gas, lake water, gas hydrates) can advance understanding of C cycling in terrestrial and marine systems. The measurements are particularly useful for detecting the release of old C from climate sensitive environments such as peatlands and hydrate fields. However, because ¹⁴C CH₄ measurements tend to be complex and time consuming, they are uncommon. Here, we describe a novel vacuum line system for the preparation of CH₄ and CO₂ from environmental samples for ¹⁴C analysis using accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS). The vacuum line is a flow-through system that allows rapid preparation of samples (1 h for CH₄ and CO₂, 30 min for CH₄ alone), complete separation of CH₄ and CO₂ and is an easy addition to multipurpose CO₂ vacuum lines already in use. We evaluated the line using CH₄ and CO₂ standards with different ¹⁴C content. For CH₄ and CO₂, respectively, the total line blank was 0.4 ± 0.2 and 1.4 ± 0.6 μg C, the ¹⁴C background 51.1 ± 1.2 and 48.4 ± 1.5 kyr and the precision (based on pooled standard deviation) 0.9‰ and 1.3‰. The line was designed for sample volumes of ca. 180 ml containing 0.5–1% CH₄ and CO₂, but can be adjusted to handle lower concentration and larger volume samples. This rapid and convenient method for the preparation of CH₄ and CO₂ in environmental samples for ¹⁴C AMS analysis should provide more opportunities for the use of ¹⁴C CH₄ measurements in C cycle studies.

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1. Introduction

CH₄ is an atmospheric trace gas with a warming potential 28× that of CO₂ over a 100 yr timespan (Myhre et al., 2013) as well as a precursor for tropospheric O₃ (Fiore et al., 2012). Since the industrial revolution (1750–2010), CH₄ concentration has increased from 700 ± 25 to 1795 ± 18 ppb (Prather et al., 2012). Global annual CH₄ emissions are reasonably well constrained from ‘top-down’ observations of changing atmospheric lifetime and abundance (Spahni et al., 2011; Prather et al., 2012) and emission inventories (Yusuf et al., 2012). In contrast, the geographical distribution and interannual variability of individual CH₄ emission sources are poorly understood (Dlugokencky et al., 2011) and remain major uncertainties in projections of future atmospheric CH₄ levels and surface temperatures (Heimann and Reichstein, 2008). A better understanding of C cycling in terrestrial and marine systems should improve estimations of individual CH₄ emission sources and our ability to predict future CH₄ levels.

Isotope analysis is a powerful tool for advancing understanding of C cycling (e.g. Kvenvolden, 1995; Sansone et al., 2001; Steinmann et al., 2008). In terrestrial and marine systems, CH₄ is produced biologically via the microbial decomposition of organic C under anaerobic conditions, thermogenically deep underground and abiotically in cold seep environments (Le Mer and Roger, 2001; Reeburgh, 2007). The CH₄ produced can be released to the atmosphere, stored (e.g. coal beds and CH₄ hydrates) or consumed under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Its stable isotope content (¹³C/¹²C, ²H/¹H) can distinguish microbial from thermogenic sources and between different microbial CH₄ production pathways (Whiticar, 1999; Townsend-Small et al., 2012), as well as the extent of methane oxidation (Alperin et al., 1988; Kessler et al., 2006). Radiocarbon (¹⁴C/¹²C) measurements can provide additional information on CH₄ sources and determine the age of contributing C pools (i.e. source age; Kessler et al., 2005; Garnett et al., 2013).

¹⁴C is produced in the atmosphere by cosmic radiation, oxidized to ¹⁴CO₂ and incorporated into the global C cycle. Because ¹⁴C decays over time, C isolated from the atmosphere in terrestrial and marine systems (i.e. stored C) has a lower ¹⁴C/¹²C ratio than atmospheric CO₂ or C recently fixed by photosynthesis. CH₄ (or

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CO₂) originating from material that has been isolated/stored and has a low ¹⁴C/¹²C ratio is termed old and, when the ¹⁴C/¹²C ratio approaches zero, the term dead/fossil is applied. Oppositely, CH₄ (or CO₂) produced from organic material with a ¹⁴C/¹²C ratio similar to the present atmospheric ¹⁴C/¹²C CO₂ ratio is referred to as modern or young.

¹⁴C is of particular interest for understanding C cycle feedbacks to climate change because it can measure source age. The rapid cycling of C between plants (terrestrial vegetation and aquatic phytoplankton) and microbes has a near net zero effect on the atmospheric C pool (Trumbore, 2009). On the other hand, the decomposition of older and fossil C that has not been part of the active C cycle for millennia results in a net flux of C to the atmosphere and a positive warming feedback. Thus, measurement of ¹⁴C CH₄ (and ¹⁴C CO₂) can help detect the release of old and fossil C to the atmosphere in addition to advancing understanding of C cycling. Unfortunately, because ¹⁴C CH₄ measurements tend to be expensive, complex and time consuming, their use as a tool for C cycle investigations is limited.

There are four general techniques for preparing CH₄ from environmental samples for isotope (¹⁴C and ¹³C) analysis. They are often used to prepare sample CO₂ simultaneously with CH₄ and generally take > 1 h. The processing time does not include the reduction of CO₂ to graphite (graphitization), which is required for most ¹⁴C accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) analyses. The most common technique is a flow-through system where a carrier gas (He and/or O₂) is used to carry sample gas through a system at atmospheric pressure (e.g. Chanton et al., 1992; Pohlman et al., 2000, 2009). The sample gas is carried through a series of cryogenic traps and a combustion tube packed with an oxidizing catalyst (CuO or Pt wire) and heated to > 800 °C in a tube furnace. The traps allow separation of sample CH₄ from CO₂ and other impurities, while the combustion tube converts the CH₄ to CO₂. A portion of the resulting CO₂ is analyzed for ¹³C via isotope ratio MS (IRMS), while the remaining CO₂ is reduced to graphite for ¹⁴C analysis using AMS. In most cases, the sample CO₂ is recovered after the CH₄ and is also analyzed for ¹⁴C and ¹³C.

In a second and similar technique, a sample flask is attached to a vacuum line system composed of cryogenic traps and a combustion tube and the sample is carried through the line at reduced pressure (e.g. Lowe et al., 1991; Garnett et al., 2011). This technique utilizes the pressure difference between the sample flask and vacuum line system to move sample through the line and does not require a carrier gas. Thirdly, CH₄ can be separated from CO₂ and prepared for isotopic analysis using custom-made gas chromatography systems (e.g. Aravena and Wassenaar, 1993). More recently, a fourth technique was developed that recirculates sample gases mixed with a carrier gas through cryogenic traps and a combustion tube at reduced pressure (Kessler and Reeburgh, 2005). The recirculating procedure allows complete recovery of sample CH₄ and thereby eliminates any ¹³C CH₄ and ²H CH₄ isotope fractionation.

Three of the above methods cryogenically separate CH₄ from CO₂; however, careful consideration is needed with the technique because a portion of CH₄ may be condensed with CO₂ at liquid N₂ temperature (LN₂, -196 °C) if the partial pressure of CH₄ is too high (Clymo and Bryant, 2008; Garnett et al., 2011). Other than cryogenic separation, there are two common techniques for isolating CH₄ from CO₂. The addition of a base such as KOH to a sample will sequester the CO₂ in solution as CO₃²⁻ (e.g. Chasar et al., 2000). After extraction of CH₄, acidification of the sample releases the CO₂, which can then be purified and analyzed for ¹⁴C and ¹³C. This is an effective technique, but special attention must be paid to ensure the base is free of CO₃²⁻ and hydrocarbons and does not contribute to the method blank. Passing sample gases through certain types of molecular sieve can also pull out CO₂ and separate it from CH₄ (Garnett et al., 2011). The CO₂ can be retrieved later by heating

the molecular sieve. This is also an effective technique, but molecular sieves, if not properly treated, can lend themselves to memory effects and high blanks (e.g. Hardie et al., 2005). Overall, these alternative methods require greater time commitment per sample than cryogenic separation because of the effort required to maintain a low background.

A few of the reported techniques also target the removal of CO, an impurity that can alter ¹⁴C and ¹³C CH₄ values for samples with sufficient CO concentration. An inline trap with Schütze reagent or Sofnocat 423 that converts CO to CO₂ at room temperature (e.g. Lowe et al., 1991; Chanton et al., 1992; Petrenko et al., 2008) is commonly used for this purpose. Once oxidized to CO₂, the CO can be cryogenically separated from CH₄. Another option used for CO removal is catalytic oxidation over CuO at 290 °C (Kessler and Reeburgh, 2005). Compared with Schütze reagent, CuO and Sofnocat 423 are safer to handle because they are less reactive and pose fewer health risks [based on material safety data sheet (MSDS) numbers]. Also, CuO can be easily reactivated by baking under air at 900 °C, whereas there are no common methods for regeneration of Schütze reagent or Sofnocat 423. Isotopic analysis of the CO-derived CO₂ is common with large volume air samples (e.g. Klouda and Connolly, 1995), but to the best of our knowledge, not with the terrestrial and marine studies that are the focus here.

Here we present a novel flow-through vacuum line system for preparing CH₄ and CO₂ from low volume environmental samples for ¹⁴C AMS and ¹³C IRMS analysis. The system utilizes a carrier gas and cryogenically separates CH₄ from CO₂, but unlike previous methods, maintains low pressure through the line to ensure complete CH₄/CO₂ separation. Further, the system (i) allows rapid recovery of both CH₄ and CO₂ (1 h per sample, 30 min for CH₄ alone), (ii) is an easy addition to multipurpose CO₂ vacuum lines already in use, (iii) includes a 290 °C oven with CuO that efficiently oxidizes CO to CO₂ and (iv) employs the sealed tube Zn graphitization method (Xu et al., 2007) so that the 0.5–1 h processing time includes sample purification and combustion along with graphitization preparation. Our aim with this flow-through line was to provide a method for the sequential preparation of CH₄ and CO₂ in environmental samples for ¹⁴C AMS analysis that is rapid and convenient and thereby expands the use of ¹⁴C measurements in C cycle studies.

2. Methods

2.1. Flow-through vacuum line

The line has 3 stages (Fig. 1). In stage 1, CO₂ and CO, after catalytic oxidation to CO₂, are separated from CH₄ in individual cryogenic traps [1–8] (numbers in square brackets refer to those in Fig. 1). In stage 2, the purified CH₄ is combusted to CO₂ [9]. In stage 3, the sample CO₂ and CH₄-derived CO₂ are recovered, quantified and prepared for graphitization [10–18]. When not in use, stages 1 and 2 are kept at atmospheric pressure and temperature with a flow of ultra-zero (UZ) air (< 5 ml/min). The UZ airflow prevents particulates and gases in ambient air from entering the line and maintains a low line blank. This is the same air used for the carrier gas in the system and is cleaned with an inline Ascarite filter [2] just after exiting its tank [1]. Stage 3 is a multipurpose CO₂ vacuum line kept under vacuum when not in use. Altogether, the flow-through line combines techniques from three previous studies: a low pressure flow-through system for pure CH₄ samples (Pack et al., 2011), a CuO oven at 290 °C to catalytically oxidize CO to CO₂ (Kessler and Reeburgh, 2005) and a multipurpose CO₂ vacuum line (Xu et al., 2007).

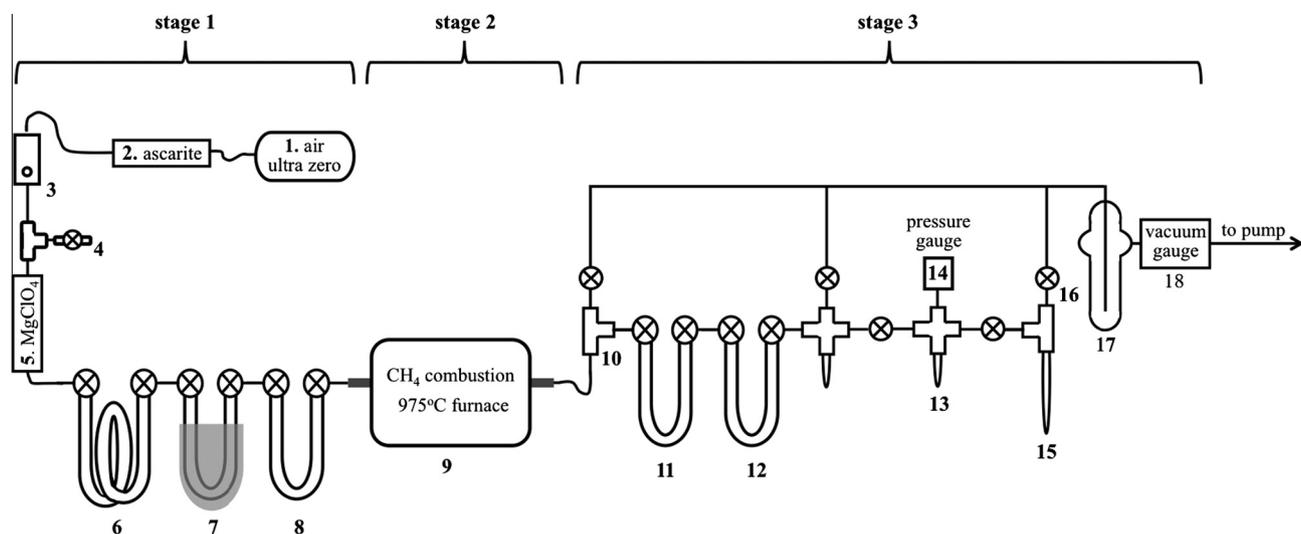


Fig. 1. Diagram of flow-through vacuum line (not to scale): [1] Tank of UZ air with a low-end pressure of 35 kPa (gauge), [2] Pyrex glass tube (9 mm outer diameter, OD \times 25 cm) packed with Ascarite, [3] flowmeter (0–50 ml/min), [4] Swagelok Ultra-torr tee (6.35 mm, #SS-4-UT-3) and needle valve (6.35 mm tube fittings, #SS-1RS4) with septum for injection, [5] Pyrex glass tube (9 mm OD \times 15 cm) packed with $\text{Mg}(\text{ClO}_4)_2$, [6] Pyrex glass multi-loop trap (9 mm OD, 9 cm \times 18 cm with non-rotating stem valves) packed with glass ribbon and cooled with LN_2 , [7] Pyrex glass U trap packed with CuO , wrapped with heat tape, heated to 290 °C with a variac transformer and monitored with a thermocouple, [8] Pyrex glass U trap packed with glass beads and cooled with LN_2 , [9] Lindberg/Blue Furnace (Thermo Scientific #TF55050A) at 975 °C with a quartz combustion tube (25 mm OD \times 40 cm, tapered to 9 mm OD at both ends) packed with CuO , [10] Swagelok Ultra-torr tee where the tube furnace outlet is attached to stage 3, [11] Pyrex glass U trap packed with glass beads and cooled with a dry ice-EtOH slurry, [12] Pyrex glass U trap packed with glass beads and cooled with LN_2 , [13] calibrated volume reservoir, [14] MKS Inst. BaratronType 122A absolute pressure gauge with PRD-D-1 digital readout, [15] reaction tube for graphitization, [16] vacuum valve – plug valve separating the line from the vacuum pump, [17] vacuum trap cooled with LN_2 to prevent back flow of vacuum pump oil, [18] Granville-Phillips series 375 convectron vacuum gauge; \otimes represents either plug or stem valves. Glass or quartz wool and steel wool are placed on top of all the trap packing to prevent movement in response to pressure change. The U traps [7, 8, 11, 12] are all 9 mm OD, 7.5 cm \times 18 cm, and have non-rotating stem valves. The connecting tubing for [1]–[4] and [4]–[6], [8]–[10] is 6.35 mm and 3.18 mm OD, respectively, high temperature Teflon tubing (Cole-Parmer).

2.2. Procedures

2.2.1. Daily setup

The oven for CO oxidation [7] and the tube furnace for CH_4 combustion [9] are turned on and allowed to thermally equilibrate to 290 °C and 975 °C, respectively, for 1 h. During this time, a dewar flask with LN_2 is added to the vacuum trap [17], stage 3 (the multipurpose vacuum line) is pumped to baseline (1–2 m torr) and a dry ice–EtOH slush is added to the water trap [11]. After this warm up period, the combustion tube [9] outlet is attached to an Ultra-torr fitting [10] on the multipurpose vacuum line, connecting stages 1 and 2 to stage 3. The pressure through the line is monitored with a pressure gauge [14] in the middle of stage 3, and a vacuum gauge [18] at the end of stage 3. Pressures reported in torr are read at the pressure gauge [14], while those reported in m torr are read from the vacuum gauge [18].

2.2.2. Sample introduction

The entire line from trap [6] to the vacuum valve [16] is filled with 500 torr UZ air and evacuated ($3\times$). This cleans out the traps and ovens, helps keep the background value low and reduces the chance of memory effects. The line will quickly evacuate to 300–600 m torr and then slowly stabilize to a pressure dependent on the amount of O_2 released by the combustion tube [9] (its CuO packing is decomposed to Cu and O_2 when heated to > 600 °C). Evacuating to a pressure < 300 –600 m torr does not improve the line blank and pumps O_2 out of the combustion tube [9]. This pressure may vary with other systems, depending on the setup of the vacuum line and position of the vacuum gauge relative to the vacuum pump. After the third evacuation, the line is left open to the vacuum pump (i.e. valve [16] is left open) and UZ air at ca. 10 ml/min is supplied to the line at the flow meter [3]. This creates a continuous flow of UZ air through the line from the flow meter to the vacuum pump with a line pressure of ca. 1 torr. Next, LN_2

dewar flasks are added to traps [6, 8, 12]. Finally, sample gas is introduced to the line at the injection port [4] via a syringe. A needle valve behind the injection port is used to keep the injection flow < 105 ml/min. Without the needle valve, the low line pressure (ca. 1 torr) would rapidly pull the sample gases out of the syringe and into the line. After sample introduction is complete, the needle valve is fully opened.

2.2.3. Sample purification, separation and combustion

The injected sample gas is carried with the UZ airflow through a series of traps. Starting in stage 1, it passes through an inline trap packed with $\text{Mg}(\text{ClO}_4)_2$, which dries the sample. Next, the sample enters a multi-loop trap cooled with LN_2 [6], where sample CO_2 is frozen out. The sample then passes through two U traps: one packed with CuO and heated to 290 °C [7], followed by another cooled with LN_2 [8]. Here, CO is oxidized to CO_2 and then frozen down. The purified sample continues to stage 2, passes through a 975 °C combustion tube [9], and the sample CH_4 is converted to CO_2 and water. O_2 for combustion is supplied by the continuous flow of UZ air (ca. 20% O_2) and the CuO packing in the combustion tube. The combusted sample enters stage 3, where the water is frozen down with a dry ice–EtOH cooled trap [11], the CH_4 -derived CO_2 is recovered in a LN_2 cooled trap [12] and the remaining sample and UZ air (mostly N_2 and O_2) are pumped away. This whole process is allowed to run for 10 min to ensure that all sample CH_4 and CO_2 are recovered.

2.2.4. Preparation of CO_2 for graphitization

The left valve on trap [11] is closed after the 10 min run, which again separates stage 3 from stages 1 and 2, and allows the residual UZ air in stage 3 to be pumped out. While stage 3 pumps to baseline, the valves on the trap holding the sample CO_2 [6] are closed and the trap is left cold with LN_2 (it is important to keep this trap cold – see the safety note below). Oppositely, the valves on the trap

holding the CO-derived CO₂ [8] are left open, the LN₂ dewar is removed from the trap (it is important that the valves on the trap are left open—see the safety note below) and the CO₂ is allowed to volatilize (this CO₂ is pumped away later).

Once stage 3 has been pumped to baseline, the trap with the CH₄-derived CO₂ [12] is isolated, the trap's LN₂ dewar is removed and the CO₂ is cryogenically transferred to a known volume reservoir [13] and quantified by measuring the CO₂ pressure [14]. An aliquot of the quantified CO₂ may be taken for ¹³C IRMS analysis, while the remaining CO₂ is prepared for ¹⁴C AMS analysis as described by Xu et al. (2007) using the sealed tube Zn graphitization method.

Lastly, the sample CO₂ that was isolated in trap [6] is transferred to trap [12] for quantification and graphitization. To start, stage 3 and stages 1–2 are evacuated to baseline and 200–500 m torr, respectively, while leaving trap [6] isolated (this pumps away the CO-derived CO₂). After replacing the LN₂ dewar on trap [12], the valves on trap [6] are opened, and the continuous flow of UZ air through the line resumes. The LN₂ dewar on trap [6] is removed, the sample CO₂ is volatilized and carried with the UZ airflow to trap [12]. This transfer is given 10 min to come to completion, after which the sample CO₂ in trap [12] is quantified and prepared for graphitization as described above.

2.2.5. Safety note

It is important that any trap cooled with LN₂ is evacuated before or left open (to provide added volume for gas expansion) when the LN₂ is removed. A portion of the N₂ and O₂ in the UZ air and O₂ released from the CuO in the combustion tube [9] can condense in any trap cooled with LN₂ during sample processing. If a LN₂ cooled trap warms without prior evacuation and its valves are closed, the pressure from the expanding N₂ and O₂ gases could cause the trap to explode. For the same reason, when shutting down the vacuum line at the end of the day, it is important to remove the LN₂ dewar from the vacuum trap [17] and pump out any N₂ or O₂ condensed in the trap. An added safety concern is that condensed O₂ can combust if exposed to sufficient hydrocarbons along with a spark. These conditions are unlikely with the vacuum line system and low hydrocarbon samples described here. Further, when O₂ condenses in a trap it forms a blue liquid and we have not observed this under the operating conditions described above.

2.2.6. Line maintenance

The Ascarite filter [2], Mg(ClO₄)₂ filter [5] and CuO packing in the 290 °C oven [7] for CO oxidation need to be monitored and replaced or regenerated over time. The frequency at which these packings need to be changed depends on the number of samples processed and their composition (e.g. CO and water content, volume). The Ascarite and Mg(ClO₄)₂ packing change in physical appearance when they become saturated with CO₂ or water, respectively: the Ascarite lightens in color and dries out, while the Mg(ClO₄)₂ turns opaque and looks wet. The efficiency of the CO 290 °C oven should be monitored with dilute CO run through the line and, when found to be less efficient, the CuO packing should be regenerated as described below.

2.3. Experiments

Six pure standards (N₂ gas, CH₄ gas, bone dry CO₂ gas, and CO₂ from OX1, coral and calcite solids; see Tables 1 and 2 for ¹⁴C and ¹³C content) were prepared on the flow-through vacuum line to evaluate the total C blank, modern ¹⁴C background, combustion efficiency, accuracy and precision for the preparation of both CH₄ and CO₂. All ¹⁴C AMS and ¹³C IRMS analyses were carried out at the W.M. Keck Carbon Cycle AMS (KCC AMS) facility at the University of California, Irvine (Southon and Santos, 2004, 2007).

Table 1

Summary of measured ¹⁴C from ca. 0.5–1 mg C aliquots of pure CH₄ and CO₂ standards prepared on the flow-through vacuum line and their expected values (age = radiocarbon age in kyr; SD, ± 1σ standard deviation).

Standard		Measured ¹⁴ C					Expected ¹⁴ C	
Name	Type	n	FM	SD	Age	SD	FM	Age
Dead CH ₄	Gas	8	0.0016	0.0003	51.9	1.8	0.0025	48.1 ^a
BD-CO ₂	Gas	2	0.0024	0.0005	48.4	1.5	0.0019	50.3
OX1-CO ₂ ^b	Solid	6	1.0395	0.0020			1.0398 ^c	
Coral-CO ₂	Solid	3	0.945	0.0027			0.9440 ^d	

^a Values from dead CH₄ gas prepared on the Kessler and Reeburgh (2005) vacuum line.

^b We use the new notation (OX1) based on Mook and Van Der Plicht (1999) rather than the older notation HOX-1.

^c Currie and Polach (1980), Stuiver and Polach (1977).

^d Hinger et al. (2010).

Table 2

Summary of measured ¹³C from ca. 0.5–1 mg C aliquots of pure CH₄ and CO₂ standards prepared on the flow-through vacuum line and their expected values (SD, ± 1σ standard deviation).

Standard		Measured ¹³ C			Expected ¹³ C	
Name	Type	n	‰	SD	‰	SD
Dead CH ₄	Gas	2	-36.27	0.08	-36.35 ^a	0.05
OX1-CO ₂	Solid	2	-19.0	0.1	-19.0 ^b	
Calcite-CO ₂	Solid	3	2.87	0.16	3.15 ^c	0.39

^a Values from dead CH₄ gas prepared on the Kessler and Reeburgh (2005) vacuum line.

^b Currie and Polach (1980), Stuiver and Polach (1977).

^c Unpublished data from Ellen R. Druffel's Lab at the University of California, Irvine.

2.3.1. Line total C blank

The N₂ (15–185 ml) was drawn from a UHP N₂ gas cylinder through a soda lime trap (to remove any residual CO₂) using a 60 ml syringe. It was then introduced to the flow-through line and treated as a sample. The amount of C in the traps where sample CO₂ (Fig. 1, No. 6) and CH₄ (Fig. 1, No. 12) freeze down was considered to be the total C line blank for each species.

2.3.2. ¹⁴C blank, efficiency, accuracy and precision for CH₄

The CH₄ (0.1–3 ml) was drawn from a UHP CH₄ gas cylinder with a 5 ml syringe and treated as a sample. The CH₄ gas was derived from a fossil source and is therefore ¹⁴C-free (dead). Several aliquots of the CH₄ were prepared by J. Kessler's Lab using established vacuum line techniques (Kessler and Reeburgh, 2005) and the ¹⁴C and ¹³C contents of the resulting CO₂ were measured at the KCC AMS Facility. The measurements confirmed that the CH₄ gas was dead and provided data for an inter-laboratory comparison. The amount of CH₄ recovered as CO₂ on the line was used to determine the line's combustion efficiency, while the ¹⁴C and ¹³C values of the recovered CO₂ were used to evaluate the line's modern ¹⁴C background and the ¹³C accuracy and precision for CH₄.

2.3.3. ¹⁴C blank, efficiency, accuracy and precision for CO₂

CO₂ from a bone dry CO₂ (BD-CO₂) gas cylinder was stored in 120 ml glass serum bottles (Wheaton Scientific #223747) with butyl rubber stoppers (Bellco Glass #2048-11800). Aliquots (0.1–2 ml) were drawn from the storage bottles via a 3 ml syringe and introduced to the line. The OX1 (NIST, SRM 4990 B) was combusted to CO₂ in sealed quartz tubes and cryogenically purified on a vacuum line (see Xu et al., 2007). A 20 ml syringe was used to draw the OX1-CO₂ (1–2 ml) from the vacuum line and introduce it to the flow-through line. The amount of CO₂ recovered compared with the OX1-CO₂ introduced was used to calculate the line's

CO₂ recovery. Coral (an in-house standard from E. Druffel's lab) and calcite standards (ca. 10 mg fine powder) were acidified with 0.8 ml H₃PO₄ (85%) in 3 ml evacuated glass vials with septa and heated (70 °C, 2 h). The resulting coral and calcite CO₂ was drawn directly from the glass vials using a 5 ml syringe and injected into the line. Because the BD-CO₂ gas is nearly dead, it was used for the line's modern ¹⁴C CO₂ background evaluation, while the ¹⁴C and ¹³C values for the CO₂ from the solid standards were used to evaluate the accuracy and precision of CO₂ prepared on the line.

Note that ¹⁴C background determined from ¹⁴C dead standards represents the amount of modern C contaminating samples prepared on the line and does not include ¹⁴C dead/fossil contaminants (i.e. ¹⁴C dead contamination would not show when analyzing a dead C standard). We did not evaluate fossil background in the study because the samples/standards used were 0.5–1 mg C and fossil background only becomes important with samples < 0.1 mg C (Santos et al., 2007).

2.3.4. Separation of CH₄ and CO₂

Mixed standards were used to evaluate the ability of the flow-through vacuum line to separate sample CO₂ and CH₄. Standards were made by adding 1–2 ml OX1-CO₂, 2–4 ml dead CH₄ and 180 ml UHP N₂ to evacuated 120 ml glass serum bottles sealed with blue butyl stoppers. Mixed standard was removed from a bottle and injected into the line in three aliquots using a 60 ml syringe. The rate at which the mixed standards were injected was varied to test the separation of CO₂ and CH₄ at different injection flow rate. We purposely chose to mix modern OX1-CO₂ with dead CH₄ so that the CH₄ and CO₂ would have a 1000-fold difference in ¹⁴C content and provide a sensitive test for the separation of the two gases.

2.3.5. CO oxidation efficiency

Both pure and diluted CO were used to evaluate the oxidation efficiency of the CO oven (Fig. 1, No.7). Pure CO from a UHP CO gas cylinder was either stored in 120 ml evacuated glass serum bottles with butyl rubber stoppers or diluted in the bottles with 2 ml pure CO in 180 ml UHP N₂ (ca. 1% CO). Pure CO (1.6–2.6 ml) and dilute CO (14–31 ml) were removed from their respective bottles via 5 or 60 ml syringes, and injected into the flow-through vacuum line. CO that is not oxidized in the CO oven (Fig. 1, No. 7) cannot freeze down in the subsequent trap (Fig. 1, No. 8). It can therefore continue down the line, be oxidized to CO₂ in the 975 °C combustion tube (Fig. 1, No. 9) and freeze down where CH₄-derived CO₂ is normally trapped (Fig. 1, No. 12). Thus, the amount of CO₂ in the CO-derived CO₂ trap (Fig. 1, No. 8) compared with that in the CH₄-derived CO₂ trap (Fig. 1, No. 12) was used to determine the CO oven oxidation efficiency. We varied the rate at which the CO was injected into the line and the temperature of the CO oven to test the oxidation efficiency under different conditions.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Total C line blanks, combustion efficiency and ¹⁴C background

The total C line blank was 0.0004 ± 0.0002 mg C and 0.0014 ± 0.0006 mg C for CH₄ and CO₂, respectively (n = 7). There was a large error associated with these values because they were close to the detection limit of the pressure gauge (Fig. 1, No. 14) in the calibrated volume reservoir (Fig. 1, No. 13), but the values were still < 0.2% of a 1 mg C sample. The line's CH₄ combustion efficiency was 100.9 ± 3.6% (n = 8), while its CO₂ recovery was 101.5 ± 1.6% (n = 5).

The line's modern ¹⁴C background measured from 0.5–1 mg C aliquots of dead CH₄ and BD-CO₂ prepared on the line (Table 1)

was satisfactory (i.e. < 0.0037 FM or > 45 kyr; fraction modern [FM] and ¹⁴C age [kyr] as defined by Stuiver and Polach, 1977). Also, the CH₄ values were comparable with aliquots of the same CH₄ gas prepared on the Kessler and Reeburgh (2005) vacuum line (Table 1). Because the BD-CO₂ gas standard was nearly (but not completely) dead, it had an expected ¹⁴C content of 0.0019 ± 0.0001 FM (50.3 ± 0.3 kyr, n = 1, instrument precision) instead of the ca. 0.0016 ± 0.0004 FM (51.8 ± 1.7 kyr, n = 277; Khosh et al., 2010) routinely measured for dead coal standards at the KCC AMS facility using sealed tube Zn graphitization. The CH₄ and CO₂ modern ¹⁴C backgrounds were subtracted from sample and standard ¹⁴C values during the routine data reduction of raw ¹⁴C AMS data (e.g. Santos et al., 2007).

3.2. Accuracy and precision

The ¹³C values from the dead CH₄ gas prepared on the flow-through vacuum line were within the analytic error (± 1σ) of the same CH₄ prepared on the Kessler and Reeburgh (2005) vacuum line (Table 2). As commercially available CH₄ is generally prepared from fossil sources, we were unable to locate a CH₄ standard with a modern level of ¹⁴C. The ¹⁴C and ¹³C values from the CO₂ standards (BD-CO₂ gas, and CO₂ from the OX1, coral and calcite solids) prepared on the line were within the analytic error of their expected values (Tables 1 and 2).

The precision for CH₄ and CO₂ prepared on the line, based on replicate measurements of standards and samples, is shown in Table 3. The pooled standard deviation for ¹⁴C measurements was 0.0009 FM (0.9‰, n = 5) and 0.0013 FM (1.3‰, n = 11) for CH₄ and CO₂, respectively, similar to the 2–3‰ long term relative error achieved at the KCC AMS Facility using sealed tube Zn graphitization (Xu et al., 2007). For the ¹³C measurements, the pooled standard deviation was 0.06‰ (n = 15) and 0.13‰ (n = 10) for CH₄ and CO₂, respectively, similar to the 0.1–0.15‰ precision routinely achieved with gas bench ¹³C IRMS analysis at the KCC AMS Facility.

3.3. Separation of CH₄ and CO₂

The multi-loop trap (Fig. 1, No. 6) is a critical component in the line for efficiently freezing down CO₂ and separating it from CH₄, but was not present in our original design. Initially, sample CO₂ was frozen down alongside the CO-derived CO₂ in the U trap following the CO oven (Fig. 1, No. 8) and was not analyzed. The dead CH₄ in OX1:CH₄ mixed standards prepared on the original line averaged 0.0166 ± 0.0239 FM (39.0 ± 10.3 kyr, n = 6) and had a higher ¹⁴C content than aliquots of pure dead CH₄ prepared on

Table 3

Average values and standard deviation (SD, ± 1σ) from replicate ¹⁴C AMS and ¹³C IRMS measurements of standards and samples prepared on the flow-through vacuum line.

Sample	n	¹⁴ C (FM)	SD	Δ ¹⁴ C (‰)	SD	n	δ ¹³ C (‰)	SD
Bog S4-CH ₄ ^a	2	1.0450	0.0000	37.3	0.1	2	-60.3	0.1
Bog S5-CH ₄ ^a	3	1.0656	0.0015	57.7	1.5	3	-56.6	0.2
Dead CH ₄	–	–	–	–	–	10	-36.3	0.1
Bog S4-CO ₂ ^a	2	0.9408	0.0011	-66.3	1.1	2	-4.0	0.1
Bog S5-CO ₂ ^a	3	1.0193	0.0028	11.7	2.8	3	-8.9	0.2
Calcite-CO ₂	–	–	–	–	–	2	2.9	0.2
OX1-CO ₂	6	1.0395	0.0020	31.7	2.1	2	-19.0	0.1

^a Gas samples collected from collapsed bog sites between June 16 and September 13, 2011 in the Alaska Peatland Experiment sites (APEX, 64.70°N, -148.32°W) near the Bonanza Creek Experimental Forest on the Tanana Valley flood plain in interior Alaska, USA (<http://www.lter.uaf.edu/>). The samples were collected by Merritt R. Turetsky's lab group in the Department of Integrative Biology, University of Guelph, Canada. The data are used here solely for the purpose of precision tests.

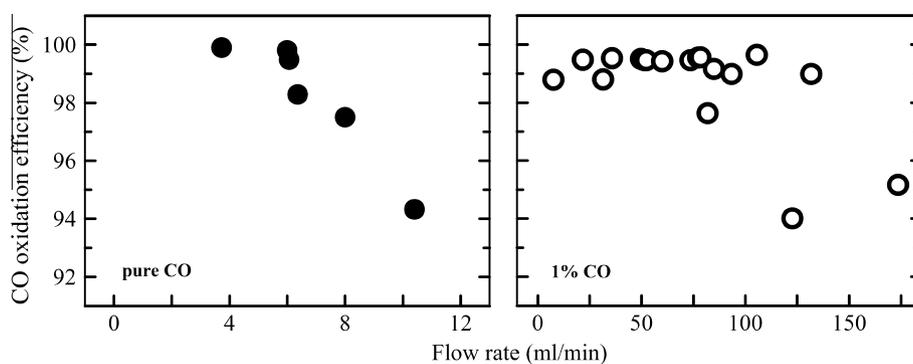


Fig. 3. CO oxidation efficiency vs. injection flow rate for pure CO (left) and dilute 1% CO (right).

Table 5

CO oxidation efficiency of the 290 °C CuO packed oven (Fig. 1, No. 7) under different oven temperatures. The last line shows the amount of CH₄ oxidized alongside CO in the 290 °C oven.

Standard	n	Oven (°C)	Volume (ml)	Injection (ml/min)	Efficiency (% ± 1σ)
Pure CO	5	290	1.6–2.6	≤6.7	99.0 ± 1.1
Dilute CO	15	290	14–31	≤105	99.3 ± 0.3
Pure CO	1	247	1.8	6.7	95.3
Dilute CO	2	247	27	54–58	99.4 ± 0.1
Pure CH ₄	3	290	2	≤20	0 ^a

^a When pure CH₄ was injected into the line with the oven at 290 °C, no CO₂ was recovered in the subsequent LN₂ cooled CO trap (Fig. 1, No. 8).

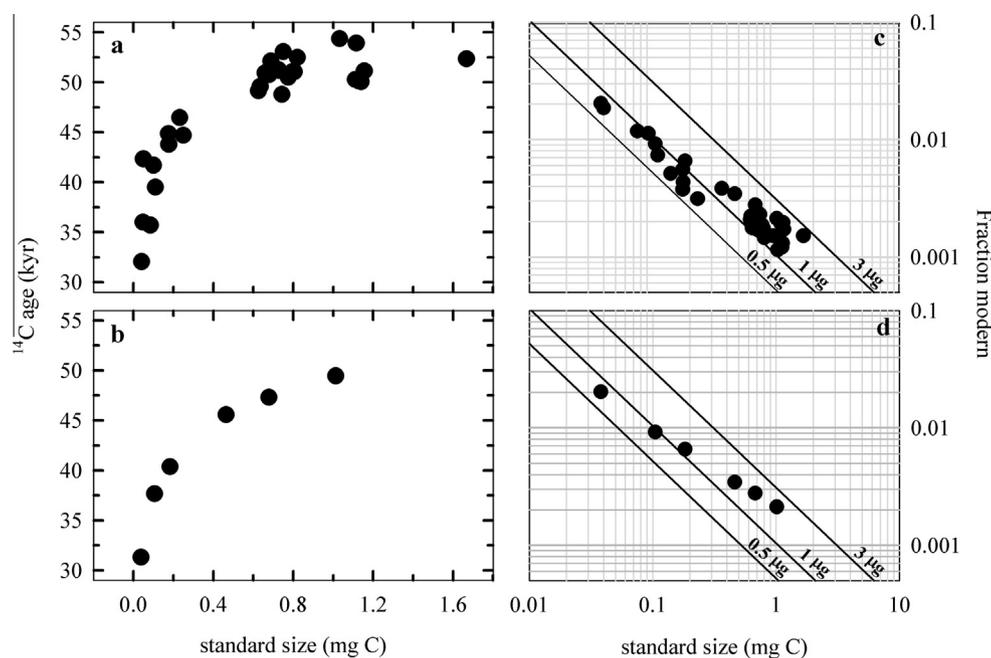


Fig. 4. ¹⁴C age and FM of different size aliquots of dead CH₄ (a) and (c) and BD-CO₂ gas (b) and (d) standards prepared on the flow-through vacuum line. For plots (c) and (d), the scale is log base 10 and the solid black lines represent the effect of fixed amounts of modern C background on the dead standard values [based on calculations from Santos et al. (2007)].

(e.g. Petrenko et al., 2013) and CO concentration can be less than CH₄ depending on sample type (e.g. Schmidt and Conrad, 1993; Poissant et al., 2007). With these properties, if 1% of sample CO escaped the CO trap and contaminated the sample CH₄, it should have a minimal effect on the sample's measured ¹⁴C CH₄ content.

From tabulating the amount of pure and dilute CO used to test the line's CO oxidation efficiency, we found that the CuO in the 290 °C oven (Fig. 1, No. 7) would be deactivated after it oxidized ca. 19 mg of C from CO. If a sample had a CO concentration of

1 ppm, it would take ca. 37,500 l of sample to deactivate the CuO in the oven. The CuO is regenerated by removing it from the oven trap and baking it in a crucible under room air (900 °C, 2 h). A larger trap containing more CuO would be able to oxidize a greater amount of CO before deactivation. The catalytic ability of CuO to oxidize CO may be dampened by the presence of water (Royer and Duprez, 2011), so we utilize an inline Mg(ClO₄)₂ filter (Fig. 1, No. 5) to dry samples before they reach the 290 °C CuO packed oven (Fig. 1, No. 7). A number of factors, including mg C–CO oxi-

dized, water exposure and total time operated since regeneration, likely contribute to the CuO deactivation, so monitoring the CO oxidation efficiency with 1% CO in N₂ run through the flow-through line should be carried out as regular line maintenance.

3.5. Sample volume and concentration

We evaluated the flow-through line for sample volumes of ca. 180 ml with CH₄ and CO₂ concentration of ca. 0.5–1%. This volume and concentration gave ca. 0.5–1 mg C for both CH₄ and CO₂. In order to prepare samples with lower CH₄ and/or CO₂ concentration on the line (i) modern ¹⁴C background corrections would need to be adjusted for sample size, (ii) fossil ¹⁴C backgrounds would need to be quantified and/or (iii) larger sample volumes may be required.

To investigate the relationship between modern ¹⁴C background and sample size, we prepared a series of small dead standards (BD-CO₂ and CH₄ gas; 0.04–0.5 mg C) on the line. The resulting data, along with the 0.5–1 mg C data from above, show that the modern ¹⁴C background is inversely proportional to sample size when size drops below 0.5 mg C (Fig. 4a and b; i.e. larger samples dilute the constant background contamination more than smaller ones). Using the isotope mass balance equations outlined by Santos et al. (2007) to evaluate our dead standard data confirmed that the size of the contaminating modern background was constant at ca. 0.0006–0.0011 mg C (Fig. 4c and d). Because of this inverse relationship, the measured ¹⁴C content of small dead standards must be used to adjust the modern ¹⁴C background for small samples (< 0.5 mg C). Such an adjustment allows ca. 180 ml samples with a CH₄ and CO₂ concentration down to 0.1% (yielding 0.1 mg C) to be prepared on the line. For samples with < 0.1 mg C, we would need to also address the fossil ¹⁴C background (Santos et al., 2007). For future work, in addition to addressing the fossil background, we plan to use graphitization techniques that minimize background effects and improve graphitization efficiency with smaller (0.015–0.1 mg C; Khosh et al., 2010) and ultra-small (0.004–0.015 mg C; Xu et al., 2013) samples.

The second option to compensate for low CH₄ and CO₂ concentration is the use of larger sample volumes (> 180 ml). However, the line would require several modifications to handle larger volumes. First, 105 ml/min is the highest injection flow rate appropriate for the line due to the CO oxidation efficiency (Fig. 3 and 1% CO). This translates to longer processing time for larger sample volumes; e.g. it would take ca. 20 min to introduce a 2 l sample. Thus, a larger diameter CO oven is needed to allow efficient oxidation of CO at higher flow rate. Second, introducing larger volume samples to the line via a 60 ml syringe (the largest standard size syringe) would require many injections, which would be inefficient and increase the line background. For larger volumes, techniques for introducing samples from gas canisters (stainless steel or glass) or collapsible gas sample bags (Al or plastic) instead of syringes need to be developed and tested.

3.6. Application to natural samples

Here we present the first depth profiles of ¹⁴C CH₄ and ¹⁴C CO₂ from soil pore gas in an Arctic peatland. Gas samples were collected over a 2 week period from a fen on North Mountain, near Thule, Greenland (76°32'N, 68°50'W) using PVC gas probes with inner silicone membrane tubes. The membranes allowed CH₄ and CO₂ gas from the soil to diffuse into the inner volume of the gas probes (Jacinthé and Groffman, 2001; Kamman et al., 2001; De Gregorio et al., 2005). Samples were taken from the gas probes with a 60 ml syringe and stored in 2 × 120 ml evacuated glass serum bottles with blue butyl rubber stoppers. The samples were

returned to UC Irvine and prepared for ¹⁴C AMS analysis on the flow-through vacuum line.

The ¹⁴C CH₄ data showed a gradual decrease with depth (Fig. 5), but ranged from 3.2‰ to 44.4‰ [‰ as defined by Stuiver and Polach (1977)] and were all modern. This indicated that the main component of CH₄ at the site was derived from C fixed within recent decades and not that old C that had been buried and isolated from the atmosphere for millennia. The ¹⁴C CH₄ data also correlated with the ¹⁴C CO₂ data (Fig. 5), suggesting that CH₄ and CO₂ were derived from a similar C source at the site. Altogether, these data demonstrate both the efficacy of ¹⁴C measurements in C cycle studies and for detecting the release of old C from peatlands and other climate sensitive C reservoirs.

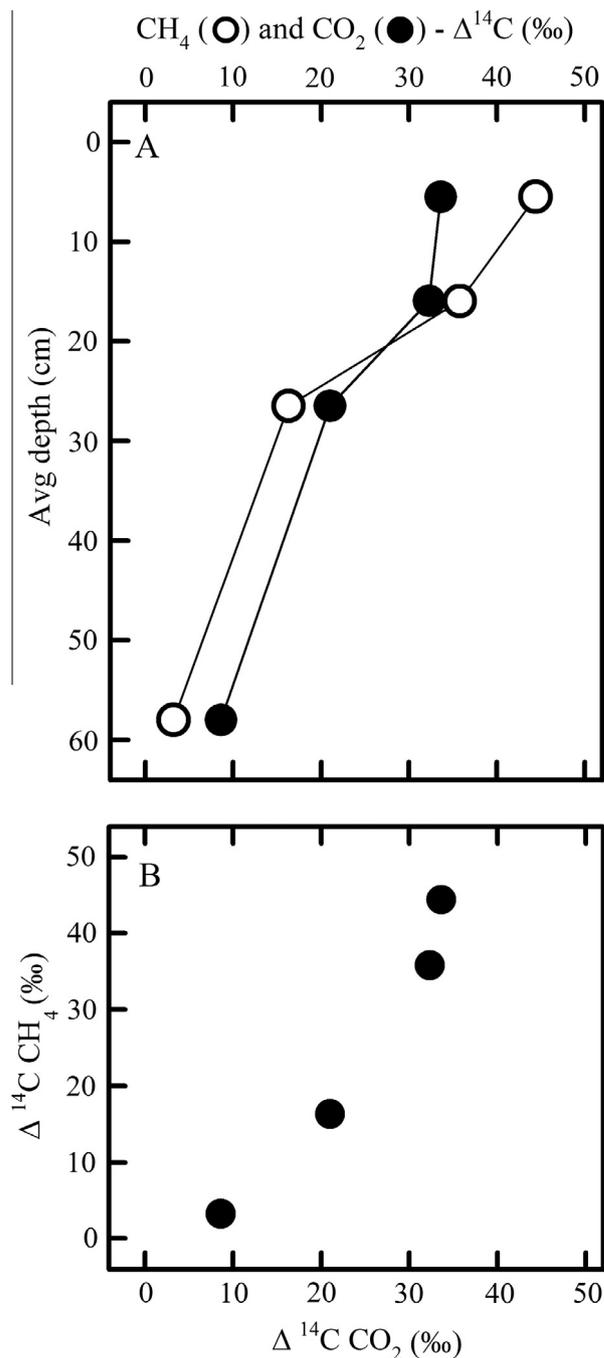


Fig. 5. CH₄ and CO₂ ¹⁴C AMS data from Arctic soil pore gas samples.

Northern peatlands store vast amounts of C and may provide a positive feedback if their C stores are impacted by the warming climate (Davidson and Janssens, 2006). In order to obtain accurate future projections of atmospheric CH₄, it is important that C cycling within peatlands is well understood. A small number of C isotope studies (¹⁴C and ¹³C of CH₄ and CO₂) of northern peatlands (e.g. Wahlen et al., 1989; Quay et al., 1991; Chanton et al., 1995, 2008; Chasar et al., 2000; Clymo and Bryant, 2008; Garnett et al., 2011, 2012) have provided insight into the production, consumption and transport pathways of CH₄ and CO₂, and the rate at which they are cycled between reservoirs. These C isotope studies go back more than a decade, but remain incomplete with respect to sample depth resolution, location (e.g. topography, hydraulic conductivity), type of ecosystem and seasonality (Chasar et al., 2000); namely, C cycling patterns in peatlands need to be linked to these local properties. The shortage of data is, in part, due to the challenges and cost associated with ¹⁴C CH₄ measurements, both in collecting gas samples from peatlands (Clymo and Bryant, 2008; Garnett et al., 2011) and sample processing in the lab. The rapid and convenient sample preparation method described here should provide more opportunities for ¹⁴C CH₄ measurements for peatlands and a variety of other C cycle studies.

4. Conclusions

The flow-through vacuum line described here can reliably allow preparation of CH₄ and CO₂ from environmental samples for isotopic analysis and should help increase the use of ¹⁴C CH₄ measurements in C cycle studies. The modern ¹⁴C background for CH₄ and CO₂ is satisfactory and consistent, and the precision and accuracy are good. The main advantages of the method are that it (i) is rapid – 1 h for both CH₄ and CO₂, 30 min for CH₄ alone, (ii) completely separates CH₄ and CO₂ while maintaining a low ¹⁴C background and (iii) efficiently oxidizes CO to CO₂ for cryogenic removal using a catalytic agent that can be easily regenerated. Further, the system uses UZ air for a carrier gas, which is less expensive than He and safer than pure O₂, yet still provides enough O₂ for CH₄ combustion and maintains a sufficiently low ¹⁴C background. The main disadvantage is that, because samples are introduced to the vacuum line via syringe and the maximum allowable injection flow rate is 105 ml/min (due to CO oxidation efficiency), the technique is limited to a small sample volume (ca. 180 ml) with a relatively high concentration of CH₄ and CO₂ (> 0.1%). For future work, we will improve CO oxidation efficiency with a larger diameter CuO packed 290 °C oven and develop techniques for introducing samples via gas canisters and gas sample bags.

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