

# Quartz-enhanced photoacoustic spectroscopy-based sensor system for sulfur dioxide detection using a CW DFB-QCL

J. P. Waclawek · R. Lewicki · H. Moser ·  
M. Brandstetter · F. K. Tittel · B. Lendl

Received: 17 December 2013 / Accepted: 24 February 2014  
© Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2014

**Abstract** Sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) trace gas detection based on quartz-enhanced photoacoustic spectroscopy (QEPAS) using a continuous wave, distributed feedback quantum cascade laser operating at 7.24 μm was performed. Influence of water vapor addition on monitored QEPAS SO<sub>2</sub> signal was also investigated. A normalized noise equivalent absorption coefficient of NNEA ( $1\sigma$ ) =  $1.21 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$  was obtained for the  $\nu_3$  SO<sub>2</sub> line centered at 1,380.93 cm<sup>-1</sup> when the gas sample was moisturized with 2.3 % H<sub>2</sub>O. This corresponds to a minimum detection limit ( $1\sigma$ ) of 63 parts per billion by volume for a 1 s lock-in time constant.

## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Quartz-enhanced photoacoustic spectroscopy

Laser-based photoacoustic spectroscopy (PAS) is a well-known technique for detection of trace chemical species in the gas phase providing high sensitivity and selectivity [1, 2]. PAS trace gas analysis finds applications in diverse fields such as environmental monitoring, industrial process control or medical diagnostics [3–5]. The absorption of modulated laser radiation by gas molecules causes heating of the chemical species which results in thermal expansion and leads to a

pressure change in the targeted media. For modulated laser light, this generated pressure waves can be detected by an acoustic transducer. Conventional PAS employs sensitive microphones placed into resonant cells that have typically volumes greater than 10 cm<sup>3</sup> [6]. A variation of the traditional PAS approach uses a quartz tuning fork (QTF) as a sharply resonant piezoelectric acoustic transducer with an extremely high quality factor ( $Q$ -factor) of >10,000, instead of a broadband electric microphone and a relatively low  $Q$ -factor ( $\sim 200$ ) resonant photoacoustic cell. This technique is known as quartz-enhanced photoacoustic spectroscopy (QEPAS) and was first reported in 2002 [7]. The QTF is a low-loss piezoelectric element resonating at 32,768 (=2<sup>15</sup>) Hz in vacuum and converts its deformation, caused by generated pressure waves, into separation of electrical charges that can be measured either as voltage or current. Due to the small size of the QTF, the QEPAS technique facilitates the measurement of trace gases in an ultra-small acoustic detection module (ADM) with a total effective sample volume of only a few mm<sup>3</sup>. Only the fundamental symmetric vibration of the QTF is piezoelectric active, i.e., when the two prongs bend in opposite directions in the plane of the QTF. Thus, in a typical arrangement the laser beam is focused between the prongs of the QTF in order to probe the acoustic waves and achieve the highest electric signal [1, 2, 8–10]. Acoustically the QTF is a quadrupole, which results in excellent environmental noise immunity, because sound waves from distant acoustic sources tend to move the QTF prongs in the same direction, thus resulting in no electrical response. The detected QEPAS signal is directly proportional to the absorption coefficient per unit concentration of the target species, the concentration of the target species, the laser power, the  $Q$ -factor of the acoustic resonator and inversely proportional to the QTF frequency  $f_0$  [11]. The pressure of the sample gas influences the  $Q$ -factor of the QTF, vibrational–translational (V–T) relaxation of the targeted

---

J. P. Waclawek · H. Moser · M. Brandstetter · B. Lendl (✉)  
Institute of Chemical Technologies and Analytics, Vienna  
University of Technology, Getreidemarkt 9/164-UPA,  
1060 Vienna, Austria  
e-mail: bernhard.lendl@tuwien.ac.at

R. Lewicki · F. K. Tittel  
Electrical and Computer Engineering Department, Rice  
University, MS-366; 6100 Main St., Houston, TX 77005, USA  
e-mail: fkt@rice.edu

trace gas analyte, as well as the width of the absorption line and potential cross-interference with other species. In order to achieve the best QEPAS detection sensitivity and selectivity, it is necessary to select the optimum operating pressure for a QEPAS-based trace gas sensor system.

The generation of a photoacoustic wave is related to the vibrational–translational (V–T) relaxation in gases, i.e., the energy transfer from vibrationally excited molecular states to translational degrees of freedom. In case of a slow V–T relaxation with respect to the modulation frequency  $f_{\text{mod}}$  ( $\omega\tau_{\text{VT}} \gg 1$ , where  $\omega = 2\pi f_{\text{mod}}$ ), the photoacoustic sound generation is suppressed because the excitation of the gas molecules is faster than the complete relaxation. Therefore, the generated photoacoustic wave is weaker than it would be in case of instantaneous V–T energy equilibrium. SO<sub>2</sub> is a comparatively slow relaxing molecule, and due to the fact that QEPAS uses a rather high modulation frequency of  $\sim 16.384$  kHz determined by the QTF, the detected signal amplitude is affected by the V–T relaxation rate of the target molecule. In a pure mixture of the trace chemical species in N<sub>2</sub>, the vibrational energy can be transferred during collisions between SO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> molecules and also between SO<sub>2</sub> molecules themselves. Due to the strong dipole moment of the H<sub>2</sub>O molecule, its addition to a sample gas mixture results in a V–T relaxation of excited molecules that is considerably faster and is therefore an efficient catalyst for the vibrational energy transfer reactions in the gas phase [12, 13]. Thus, the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O vapor enhances the QEPAS response to SO<sub>2</sub> which results in higher amplitude of the detected signal.

In this work, the metrological qualities of the QEPAS detection are investigated with sulfur dioxide as the target analyte. SO<sub>2</sub> is a major air pollutant released into the atmosphere by both natural and anthropogenic sources, including industrial combustion processes, fuel-based transport activities as well as volcanic eruptions. SO<sub>2</sub> emissions are a precursor to acid rain and atmospheric particulates which affects vegetation, stratospheric chemistry and climate. Exposure to SO<sub>2</sub> in ambient air has been associated with various health symptoms, including reduced lung functions, increased incidence of respiratory diseases and premature mortality. The threshold of SO<sub>2</sub> impact on human health at brief exposures occurs when the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration exceeds 380 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) in ambient air [14].

## 2 Experimental

### 2.1 CW DFB-QCL performance and SO<sub>2</sub> wavelength selection

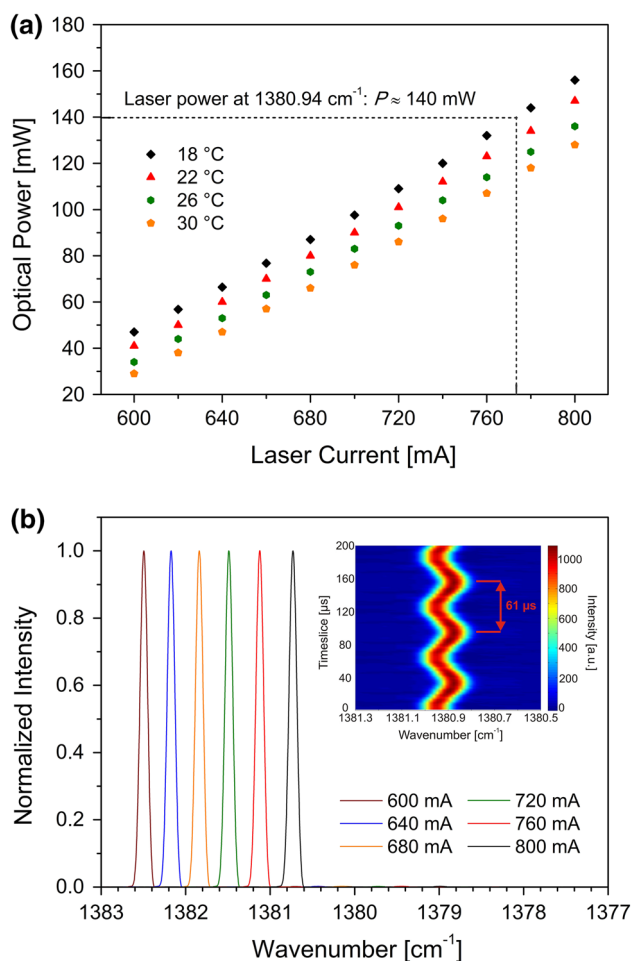
In this work, a high heat load (HHL) packaged continuous wave (CW), distributed feedback quantum cascade laser

(DFB-QCL) (*L10195-7253H*, *Hamamatsu*) emitting at  $\sim 7.24$   $\mu\text{m}$  was employed as a compact, efficient and powerful spectroscopic source generating up to 155 mW of optical radiation in the molecular fingerprint region. The DFB-QCL operated at a single-mode frequency and could be tuned over a few wave numbers by varying the QCL either by temperature or injection current. Coarse frequency tuning from 1,380.73 to 1,378.94  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  at a fixed laser current of 800 mA could be achieved by increasing the laser temperature from 18 °C (291.2 K) to 30 °C (303.2 K). This results in the laser temperature tuning coefficient of approximately  $-0.149$   $\text{cm}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$ . Fine frequency tuning in the range of  $\sim 1.77$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was accomplished by changing the laser current from 600 to 800 mA, which correlated to a current tuning coefficient of approximately  $-0.009$   $\text{cm}^{-1} \text{mA}^{-1}$ . The optical power of the collimated laser beam was measured by a commercial power meter (*Solo 2*, *Gentec-Eo*). Figure 1a depicts the injection current versus optical power characteristics of the CW DFB-QCL at four different temperatures. The QCL is capable of emitting an optical power as high as 155 mW when operated at a temperature of 18 °C and at an injection current of 800 mA. Figure 1b shows the emitted single-mode laser radiation spectra at different QCL currents but constant temperature of 18 °C and the inset shows a step scan recording of the modulated QCL beam. Both spectra were obtained by a FT-IR spectrometer (*Vertex 80v*, *Bruker Optics*) with an instrumental spectral resolution of 0.0749  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

The most intense absorption band of SO<sub>2</sub> is located in the spectral region between 1,330 and 1,400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , with the strongest line centered at 1,348.38  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Figure 2a shows HITRAN2008 simulated absorption spectrum for the  $\nu_3$  fundamental band of SO<sub>2</sub> within the 7.3  $\mu\text{m}$  spectral region [15]. Figure 2b depicts HITRAN2008 simulated absorption spectra of 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub> and 2.5 % H<sub>2</sub>O:N<sub>2</sub> within the spectral range covered by the CW DFB-QCL. In order to perform sensitive SO<sub>2</sub> QEPAS measurements, an absorption line centered at 1,380.93  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and a QCL operating temperature of 18 °C were selected, because of its high line intensity, good separation from other SO<sub>2</sub> lines, and no H<sub>2</sub>O interference.

### 2.2 Sensor system architecture and operation principle

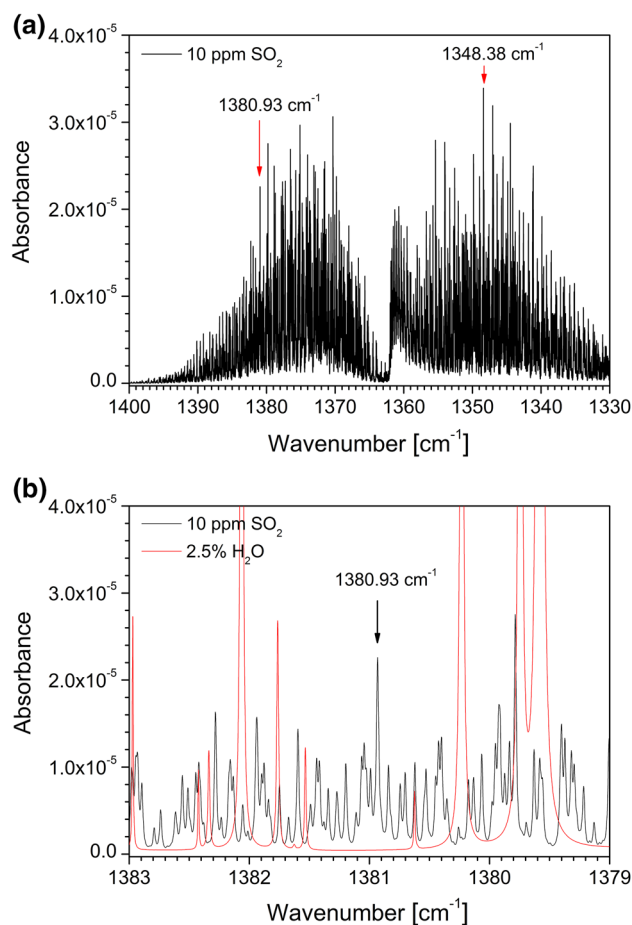
The QEPAS-based gas sensor system architecture employing a high heat load (HHL) packaged CW DFB-QCL as a spectroscopic source is depicted in Fig. 3. An anti-reflection (AR) coated aspheric collimating lens (*Black Diamond<sup>TM</sup>*, effective focal length = 4 mm) was used to collimate the laser beam. The HHL QCL package consists of an anti-reflection (AR) coated ZnSe window placed coplanar to the QC chip. In order to improve the laser beam quality, a spatial filter consisting of a plano-convex CaF<sub>2</sub> lens ( $f = 25$  mm)



**Fig. 1** **a** CW DFB-QCL output power and injection current tuning characteristics at four temperatures, **b** single-mode QCL output radiation for six injection currents at a fixed temperature of 18 °C; *Inset*: Step scan recording of the single-mode QCL radiation modulated with a frequency of 16.4 kHz and a modulation depth of  $m = 0.072 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

and a 300- $\mu\text{m}$  pinhole was implemented. The beam was focused with a second  $\text{CaF}_2$  lens ( $f = 25 \text{ mm}$ ) into a compact QEPAS ADM gas cell, which consisted of a gas in- and outlet connectors, two ZnSe windows (AR coated) and the QTF used as an acoustic transducer. The  $Q$ -factor of the bare QTF used in this work was  $\sim 106,415$  in vacuum and  $\sim 14,603$  at atmospheric pressure, resulting in a change in the QTF resonant frequency from  $f_0 = 32,763.8$  to  $f_0 = 32,751.5 \text{ Hz}$ , respectively.

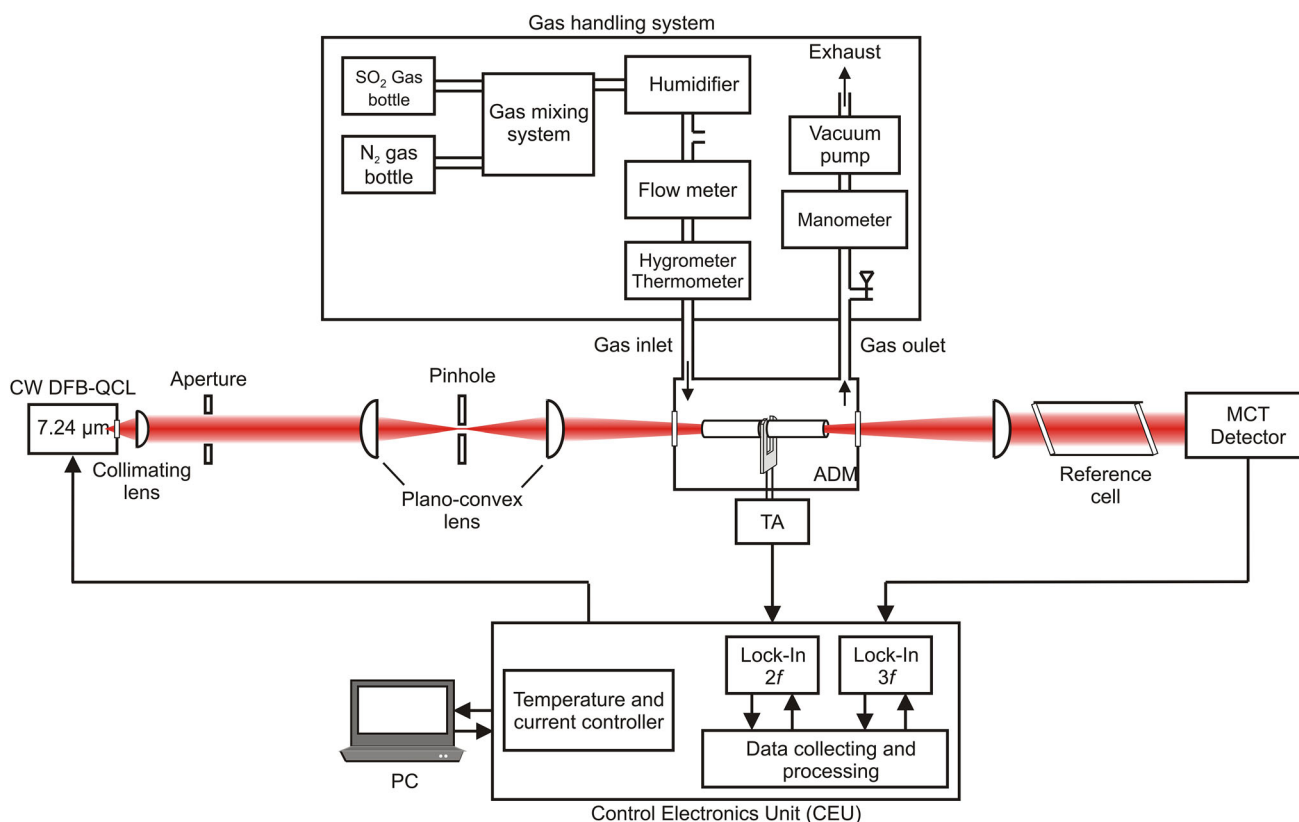
A further significant enhancement of the detected QEPAS signal can be achieved when two tubes acting as a micro-resonator (mR) are added to the QTF sensor architecture. For a near-IR fiber-coupled diode laser-based QEPAS system, an experimental optimization study of the geometrical mR parameters showed that the highest signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) is achieved for two 4.4 mm long and 0.5–0.6 mm inner diameter mR tubes



**Fig. 2** **a** HITRAN2008 simulated spectra of 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$  in  $\text{N}_2$  and **b** HITRAN2008 simulated spectra of 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$  and 2.5 %  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in  $\text{N}_2$  within the wavelength tuning range of the 7.24  $\mu\text{m}$  CW DFB-QCL ( $p = 100 \text{ mbar}$ ,  $l = 1 \text{ cm}$ ,  $T = 296 \text{ K}$ )

[16]. However, when using mid-IR-free space optics, a larger inner diameter of the tubes is acceptable to simplify the alignment of the excitation beam through the mR tubes without significant reduction in the QEPAS signal. Therefore, two 4.4-mm-long stainless steel tubes with 0.84 mm inner diameter were used. Moreover, for better confinement of the propagating acoustic wave, a typical QEPAS configuration was used, where the QTF is positioned 30–50  $\mu\text{m}$  from the end faces of the QTF mR tubes. The QCL beam was transmitted through the mR tubes and the gap between QTF prongs. Acoustic coupling between the mR and the piezoelectric QTF leads to an improved QEPAS-based trace gas sensor detection sensitivity of  $\sim 10$  times.

A reference cell filled with 0.5 %  $\text{SO}_2:\text{N}_2$  at a pressure of 133 mbar and a MCT detector (*PCI-2TE-12/MPAC-F-100*, *Vigo Systems S.A.*) located after the ADM were used as the reference channel in order to lock the laser frequency to the center of the selected  $\text{SO}_2$  absorption line. The sensor platform was based on  $2f$  wavelength modulation



**Fig. 3** Schematic diagram of the QEPAS-based  $\text{SO}_2$  gas sensor employing a  $7.24 \mu\text{m}$  CW DFB-QCL

spectroscopy (WMS) and QEPAS detection [8, 17]. The  $2f$  WMS operation mode provides suppression of the acoustic background that is by nonselective absorbers. In this case, the noise level is primarily determined by the thermal noise of the QTF [18]. However, additional noise can be introduced by unintended illumination of the QTF by laser light, including any scattered light and incidental reflections from optical elements [11].

In order to implement the  $2f$  WMS technique, the emission wavelength of the CW DFB-QCL was modulated at half of the QTF resonance frequency  $f_{\text{mod}} = f_0/2$  by embedding a sinusoidal modulation atop of the DC laser current. The detection of the QTF signal was performed at  $f_0$ , using an internal lock-in amplifier (LIA) with a time constant set to 1 s. The QEPAS detection was carried out in two modes: scan mode and locked mode. In the scan mode, the DC component of the QCL current is slowly tuned, so the laser frequency sweeps over the desired spectral range in order to acquire spectral information of the gas sample. In the locked mode, the QCL frequency is locked to the center of the  $\text{SO}_2$  absorption line at  $1,380.93 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and a MCT detector signal is demodulated by a LIA at  $3f$ . A proportional correction signal is applied to the DC component of the QCL to maintain the laser frequency at zero-crossing of the demodulated at 3rd harmonic MCT detector

signal for the targeted  $\text{SO}_2$  line. In this case, a continuous monitoring of the reference channel  $3f$  signal helps to avoid any laser drift.

The acoustic waves interact with the QTF causing vibration of its prongs and therefore generate a piezoelectric current in the element. The piezoelectric current was converted to a voltage by a custom-made ultra-low noise transimpedance amplifier with a  $10 \text{ M}\Omega$  feedback resistor and was subsequently transferred to a custom-made control electronics unit (*QEPAS Control Electronics Unit, CDP Systems Corp.*), which provides measurement of the QTF parameters, modulation of the laser current and measurement of the  $2f$  component of the QTF and the  $3f$  component of the photodetector signal. Further data processing was carried out with a LabVIEW-based program by transferring the digitized data to a computer.

### 2.3 Sample preparation system

Different  $\text{SO}_2$  concentration levels within the range of 0–10 ppm were achieved by diluting a 50 ppm  $\text{SO}_2:\text{N}_2$  calibration mixture with ultra-high purity  $\text{N}_2$  using a custom-made gas mixing system. The  $\text{N}_2$  used for dilution can be moisturized with water vapor in a range between 0 and  $\sim 88 \%$  of a relative humidity when passing  $\text{N}_2$  through the

gas phase of temperature controlled H<sub>2</sub>O bath. The moisture was measured by a capacitive humidity sensor (*KFS150, HygroSENS*) and could be varied either by the temperature of the water bath or of the gas pressure. Pressure and flow of the sample gas inside the ADM are controlled and maintained at optimum level using a gas flow meter (*GSC-B9TS-BB23, Vögtlin*), a needle valve and a vacuum pump (*N860.3 FT.40.18, KNF*). The flow of the gas mixture was kept at a constant flow of 250 ml min<sup>-1</sup> for the dry sample gas and 100 ml min<sup>-1</sup> for the humid sample gas mixtures, respectively.

### 3 Experimental results and discussion

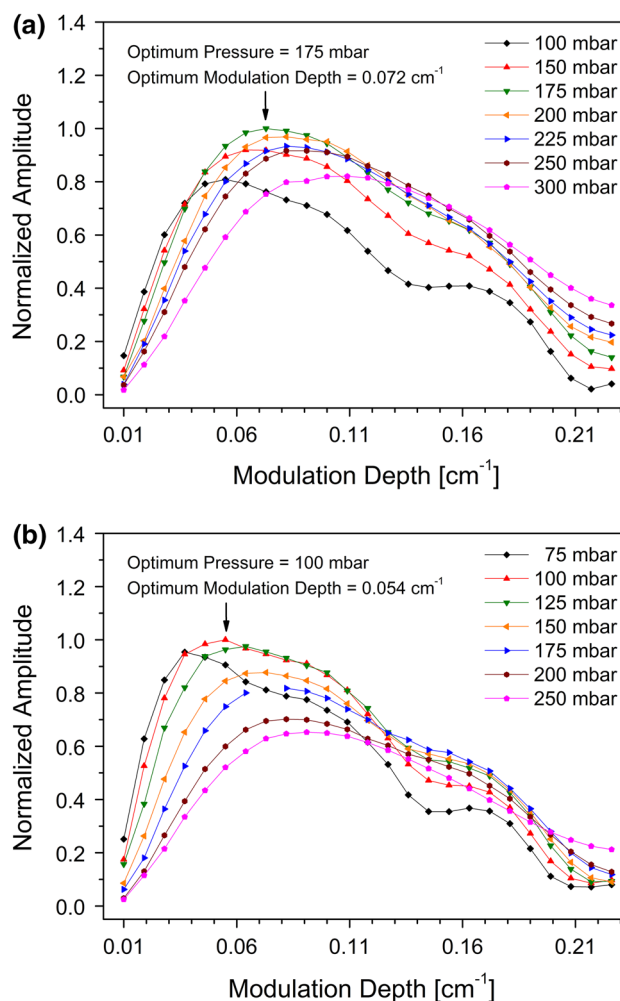
#### 3.1 Determination of optimum QEPAS operating parameters

The laser wavelength modulation depth  $m$  must be optimized at each pressure level in order to identify the optimum operating conditions in terms of the highest  $2f$  WMS signal amplitudes, since the QEPAS sensor's sensitivity to the concentration of the trace gas component in a specific gas mixture is a function of the sample pressure. This two-parameter sensor optimization ( $p$  and  $m$ ) was performed for two different gas mixtures:

- a dry reference gas mixture and
- a reference gas mixture moisturized with 2.3 % H<sub>2</sub>O corresponding to a relative humidity of  $\sim 81$  % at 23 °C and atmospheric pressure.

At each pressure level, the QTF parameters  $f_0$  and  $Q$  were measured and the QEPAS laser modulation depth was varied in the range between 1 and 25 mA, which corresponded to 0.009 and 0.225 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

The results of the  $2f$  WM QEPAS signal amplitudes for different modulation depths are shown in Fig. 4. The optimum working pressure and modulation depth for a dry sample gas of 50 ppm SO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub> was found to be 175 mbar and 0.072 cm<sup>-1</sup> and for 50 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> in moisturized N<sub>2</sub> (AH = 2.3 %) 100 mbar and 0.054 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The difference between optimum working conditions for the two situations is due to the V–T relaxation mechanisms which are different in the two mixtures because of the different pressures and water content. In the dry gas mixture, the vibrational relaxation is slow, since the heat dissipation cannot efficiently follow the fast frequency modulation of the incident laser radiation. In this case, the optimum working conditions can be found at higher pressure levels, since an increase in the relaxation rate is achieved by an increase in the gas pressure. On the other hand, the QTF  $Q$ -factor decreases with increasing pressure, which causes the detected QEPAS signal to decrease [19].

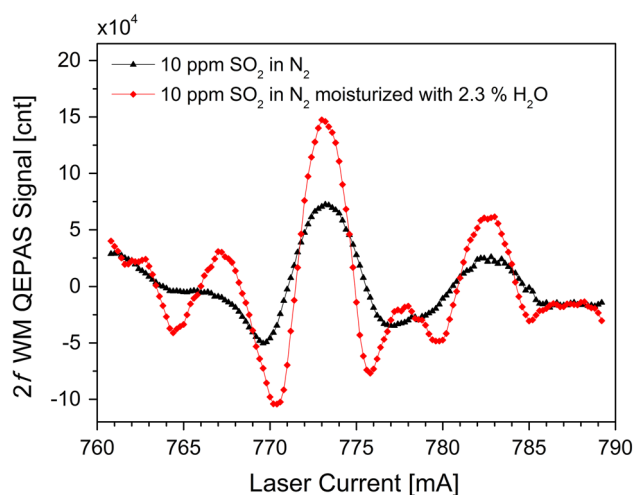


**Fig. 4** Sensor optimization curves acquired at different operation pressures for **a** 50 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> in dry N<sub>2</sub> and **b** 50 ppm SO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub> moisturized with 2.3 % H<sub>2</sub>O

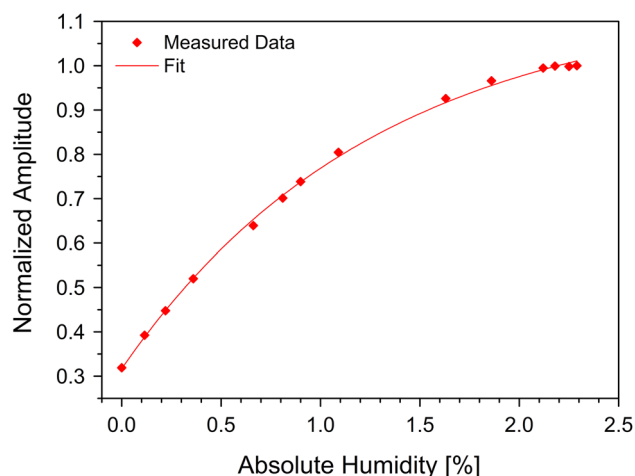
Figure 4a shows the sensor optimization curves for a dry gas sample resulting from the competition of these two mechanisms. For a humid SO<sub>2</sub> gas mixture, the optimum working pressure shifted to lower pressure levels in respect to a dry gas mixture results. The presence of H<sub>2</sub>O vapor influenced the QEPAS response to SO<sub>2</sub> by enhancing the V–T energy transfer rate. As previously, the QTF  $Q$ -factor increases at reduced pressures and the impact of these effects result in the sensor optimization curves shown in Fig. 4b. At optimum working pressure, the QTFs  $Q$ -factor shifted from  $\sim 27,958$  to 33,448 and its resonance frequency shifted from  $f_0 = 32,756.78$  to  $f_0 = 32,757.29$  Hz, respectively.

#### 3.2 Influence of water vapor on the SO<sub>2</sub> QEPAS signal

As discussed above, the presence of water vapor increases the relaxation rate of slow relaxing molecules such as SO<sub>2</sub>



**Fig. 5**  $2f$  WM QEPAS signals for 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$  in dry  $\text{N}_2$  (black) and moisturized  $\text{N}_2$  with a 2.3 %  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  mixture (red) when laser was tuned across absorption line located at  $1,380.94 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at the optimum working condition for each:  $p = 175 \text{ mbar}$ ,  $m = 0.072 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (dry gas) and  $p = 100 \text{ mbar}$ ,  $m = 0.054 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (humidified gas), respectively



**Fig. 6**  $2f$  WM QEPAS signal amplitudes of 50 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$  as a function of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  concentration ( $p = 100 \text{ mbar}$ ,  $m = 0.054 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ )

and therefore improves the QEPAS response to  $\text{SO}_2$  by increasing the signal amplitude. Figure 5 shows QEPAS spectra of 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$  in dry  $\text{N}_2$  and moisturized with 2.3 % water vapor mixture when the CW DFB-QCL emission wavelength was tuned across the  $\text{SO}_2$  absorption line centered at  $1,380.94 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The measurements were performed at optimum operating conditions for each sample gas mixture, i.e.,  $p = 175 \text{ mbar}$ ,  $m = 0.072 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for dry gas and  $p = 100 \text{ mbar}$ ,  $m = 0.054 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for humidified gas, respectively. A comparison of the measured results shows that a  $\sim 2.04$  times improvement of the

QEPAS signal amplitude was achieved when the absolute humidity of analyzed gas mixture was 2.3 %.

The dependence of the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  concentration on the response of the QEPAS-based  $\text{SO}_2$  sensor system was investigated by acquiring  $2f$  WMS signals of the 50 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$  sample gas as a function of the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  concentration calibrated at the optimum working condition for a humid sample gas mixture ( $p = 100 \text{ mbar}$ ,  $m = 0.054 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). The results shown in Fig. 6 indicate an improvement of the QEPAS signal by a factor 3.13 when the absolute humidity of the analyzed gas mixture was 2.3 %.

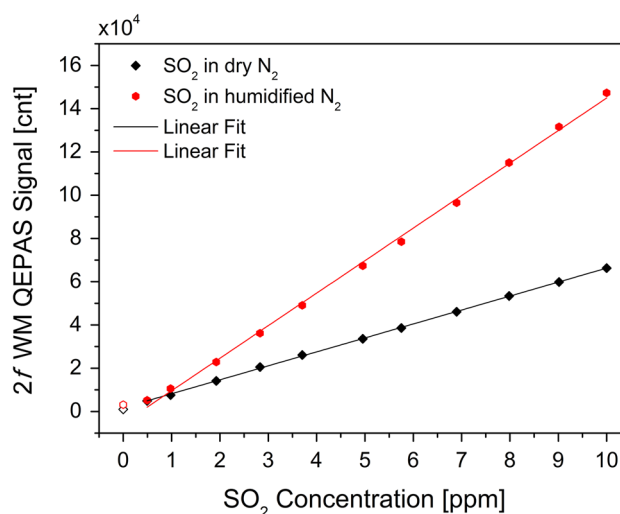
### 3.3 Sensitivity and linear response of the QEPAS-based $\text{SO}_2$ sensor system

For the selected  $\text{SO}_2$  absorption line centered at  $1,380.93 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the optical power emitted by the CW DFB-QCL was  $\sim 140 \text{ mW}$ . The laser beam was focused between the mR and the gap of QTF prongs with a transmission efficiency of  $>97 \%$ . The optical power measured at the focal point was  $\sim 52 \text{ mW}$  due to optical power losses by the sensor system components, i.e., the aperture, the spatial filter and the  $\text{CaF}_2$  lens. An optical power of  $\sim 48 \text{ mW}$  was directed through the QTF prongs, when taking the absorption of the ZeSe window and the transmission efficiency into account.

The evaluation of the  $\text{SO}_2$  QEPAS sensor sensitivity for dry and wet sample gas mixtures was investigated for both, a scan mode and a line-locked mode. The evaluation in the scan mode was performed by tuning the laser current from 760 to 790 mA which corresponded to a frequency tuning from  $1,381.12$  to  $1,380.83 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and acquiring  $2f$  WMS signal for dry and humidified gas mixture of 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2:\text{N}_2$  using a 1 s lock-in time constant and optimum operating settings for each mixture. The noise level was determined from the baseline recorded when the ADM was filled with dry and humidified nitrogen. The measurement results are illustrated in Fig. 5. The noise was calculated as the standard deviation of the measured data points, which yielded a value of  $1\sigma = 2,907$  counts and  $1\sigma = 3,506$  counts, respectively, for the scanned range. For a dry mixture of 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2:\text{N}_2$ , the determined QEPAS SNR was 25, which resulted in a minimum detection limit ( $1\sigma$ ) of 404 ppbv. For a humidified with 2.3 % water vapor mixture of 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2:\text{N}_2$ , the measured SNR was 42, which yielded a minimum detection limit ( $1\sigma$ ) of 238 ppbv. A normalized noise equivalent absorption coefficient NNEA ( $1\sigma$ ) =  $9.90 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$  and NNEA ( $1\sigma$ ) =  $5.05 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$  was obtained based on the corresponding detector bandwidth of 0.318 Hz and a QCL power of 48 mW between the prongs of the QTF (NNEA =  $\alpha_{\min} \cdot P \cdot \Delta f^{-1/2}$ , where  $\alpha_{\min}$  is the minimum optical absorption coefficient,  $P$  the optical power and

$\Delta f$  the detector bandwidth). However, the calculated noise values do not match the thermal noise level of the QTF at its resonance frequency, which is usually the dominating noise source limiting the device sensitivity. The noise determined from the baseline recorded for the ADM filled with  $N_2$  at 100 and 175 mbar without any QCL radiation inside the mR yielded a value of  $1\sigma \approx 350$  counts and  $1\sigma \approx 430$  counts for the dry and wet sample gas. The measured noise was  $\sim 8.2$ – $8.3$  times higher compared to the typical thermal noise value of the QTF. For a dry and wet sample gas of 10 ppm  $SO_2:N_2$ , this noise level yielded a SNR of 207 and 343, respectively. The observed elevated noise levels may be due to the QCL illumination of the QTF. Radiation blocked by the QTF creates an undesirable background, which is several times larger than the noise level of the QTF and thus limits the QEPAS detection sensitivity. Hence, it is important to employ a high QCL beam quality in QEPAS. However, due to the QCL packaging, a laser interference pattern of the CW DFB-QCL beam profile was created, which resulted in a decreased beam quality. Despite a subsequent beam quality improvement by means of an external spatial filter, it was not possible to transmit the focused QCL beam through the gap of the QTF prongs without illuminating them. Therefore, additional QEPAS sensor noise was created by illumination of the inner surface of the mR and the QTF by the QCL radiation, including scattered light. The discrepancies between the SNR values determined for the QTF with and without illumination imply that the sensor performance can be improved by obtaining better QCL beam quality. The noise level of the illuminated QTF was also dependent on the value of the modulation amplitude in which the level was higher at higher modulation amplitudes. However, the measured noise level of the moisturized gas sample was  $\sim 20\%$  higher despite a lower modulation amplitude, which might result from different values for operating pressure, i.e., a reduced pressure of 100 mbar and therefore a higher associated  $Q$ -factor.

Quantitative measurements of  $SO_2$  were performed using dry and moisturized  $SO_2$  gas mixtures in order to investigate the sensitivity and linear response of the QEPAS sensor system in the line-locked mode. Different  $SO_2$  concentration levels within a range from 0 to 10 ppm were achieved by diluting a 50 ppm  $SO_2:N_2$  calibration mixture. Each concentration was measured three times in 60 s using a 1 s lock-in time constant. The data were averaged and plotted as a function of concentration which is shown in Fig. 7. Good linearity between signals amplitude and  $SO_2$  concentrations is observed for the QEPAS-based sensor evaluating dry and moisturized gas mixtures at optimum operating conditions in each case (dry gas:  $R^2 = 0.9998$ , humidified gas:  $R^2 = 0.9984$ ). The calculated noise of the measured data points recorded by the



**Fig. 7** Measured  $2f$  WM QEPAS signal amplitudes as a function of  $SO_2$  concentration (black: dry gas mixture, red: with 2.3 % absolute humidity moisturized gas mixture)

ADM filled with  $N_2$  was  $1\sigma = 676$  counts for the dry gas mixture and  $1\sigma = 923$  counts for the moisturized sample, respectively. For a dry mixture of 10 ppm  $SO_2:N_2$ , the QEPAS SNR was 98, which yields a minimum detection limit ( $1\sigma$ ) of 102 ppbv. For the same 10 ppm  $SO_2:N_2$  mixture humidified with 2.3 % water vapor, the determined SNR was 160, which results in a minimum detection limit ( $1\sigma$ ) of 63 ppbv. Moreover, for available 48 mW laser optical power between the QTF prongs, a NNEA ( $1\sigma$ ) coefficient for a dry and moisturized gas mixture was calculated to be  $NNEA(1\sigma) = 2.24 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$  and  $NNEA(1\sigma) = 1.21 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ W Hz}^{-1/2}$ , respectively. Furthermore, the enhancement of relaxation process in the presence of  $H_2O$  vapor caused a substantial improvement of the QEPAS sensor system detection limit by a factor of  $\sim 1.62$ . In practical applications, the analyte often needs to be quantified in a gas mixture with unknown water content. In this case, the humidity can either be measured independently with a hygrometer, or the sample can be humidified before analysis. If the humidity is monitored with a sensor, the sensor detection sensitivity changes with the variation of the water content. Calibration data based on the present study can be used to convert measured values into actual analyte concentrations. In contrast, if the sample is humidified to nearby 100 % relative humidity before analysis, the sensor system sensitivity will be highest at optimum working conditions due to the enhancement of the V–T relaxation rate.

The corresponding limit of detection (LOD) was calculated with VALIDATA at three times the standard deviation of the intercept divided by the slope of the calibration curve, which resulted in 370 ppbv for dry sample gas and 300 ppbv for wet sample gas, respectively.

## 4 Conclusions

The results reported in this paper show that a CW DFB-QCL-based QEPAS sensor system offered sensitive detection of SO<sub>2</sub> sufficient for a number of practical applications, ranging from process control to environmental sensing. For the  $\nu_3$  SO<sub>2</sub> line centered at 1,380.93 cm<sup>-1</sup>, a minimum detection limit of 63 ppbv ( $\tau = 1$  s) was achieved when the gas sample was moisturized with 2.3 % water. This result corresponds to a normalized noise equivalent absorption coefficient of NNEA ( $1\sigma$ ) =  $1.21 \times 10^{-8}$  cm<sup>-1</sup> W Hz<sup>-1/2</sup>. However, the detection sensitivity of this sensor configuration is limited by a nonoptimum DFB-QCL beam quality, resulting from packaging issues. It is most likely that in case of better QCL beam quality, the noise level can be further reduced down to a typical noise equivalent value of the QTF. Considering this option, the minimum detection limit could be lowered by a factor of  $\sim 8.2$  times. The achieved detection sensitivity along with the small required sample volume allows achieving fast sensor response to changes in the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration of injected gas streams.

**Acknowledgments** JPW, HM and MB acknowledge financial support provided by the Austrian research funding association under the scope of the COMET program within the research network “Process Analytical Chemistry” (contract # 825340) and the Carinthian Tech Research RL, FKT acknowledge financial support provided by NSF ERC MIRTHE and NSF-ANR NexCILAS.

## References

1. R.F. Curl, F. Capasso, C. Gmachl, A.A. Kosterev, B. McManus, R. Lewicki, M. Pusharsky, G. Wysocki, F.K. Tittel, *Chem. Phys. Lett.* **487**, 1–18 (2010)
2. R. Lewicki, M. Jahjah, Y. Ma, P. Stefinski, J. Tarka, M. Razeghi, F. K. Tittel, Chap. 23 in *The Wonder of Nanotechnology: Quantum Optoelectronic devices and applications*. SPIE Press, pp. 597–632 (2013)
3. L. Gong, R. Lewicki, R. Griffin, F.K. Tittel, C.R. Lonsdale, R.G. Stevens, J.R. Pierce, Q.G.J. Malloy, S.A. Travis, L.M. Bobman-uel, B.L. Lefer, J.H. Flynn, *Atmos. Environ.* **77**, 893–900 (2013)
4. A. Varga, Z. Bozóki, M. Szakáll, G. Szabó, *Appl. Phys. B* **85**, 315–321 (2006)
5. S. Solga, T. Schwartz, M. Mudalel, L. Spacek, R. Lewicki, F. K. Tittel, C. Loccioni, T. Risby, *J. Breath Res.* **7**(3), 037101 (2013)
6. A. Miklós, P. Hess, Z. Bozóki, *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **72**, 1937 (2001)
7. A.A. Kosterev, Y.A. Bakhirkin, R.F. Curl, F.K. Tittel, *Opt. Lett.* **27**, 1902–1904 (2002)
8. F. K. Tittel, R. Lewicki, Ch. 15, (Woodhead Publishing Ltd., 2013), pp. 579–629
9. V. Spagnolo, P. Patimisco, S. Borri, G. Scamarcio, B.E. Bernacki, J. Kriesel, *Appl. Phys. B* **112**, 25–33 (2013)
10. C. Bauer, U. Willer, R. Lewicki, A. Pohlkötter, A. Kosterev, D. Kosynkin, F.K. Tittel, W. Schade, *J. Phys: Conf. Ser.* **157**(1), 012002 (2009)
11. A.A. Kosterev, F.K. Tittel, D. Serebryakov, A.L. Malinovsky, I. Morozov, *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **76**, 1–9 (2005)
12. A.A. Kosterev, Y.A. Bakhirkin, F.K. Tittel, *Appl. Phys. B* **80**, 133–138 (2005)
13. T.L. Cottrell, J.C. McCoubrey, *Molecular Energy Transfer in Gases* (Butterworths, London, 1961)
14. Pollution Prevention and Abatement Handbook (The World Bank Group, Washington DC, 1998)
15. L.S. Rothman, I.E. Gordon, Y. Babikov, A. Barbe, D. Chris Benner, P.F. Bernath, M. Birk, L. Bizzocchi, V. Boudon, L.R. Brown, A. Campargue, K. Chance, E.A. Cohen, L.H. Coudert, V.M. Devi, B.J. Drouin, A. Fayt, J.-M. Flaud, R.R. Gamache, J.J. Harrison, J.-M. Hartmann, C. Hill, J.T. Hodges, D. Jacquemart, A. Jolly, J. Lamouroux, R.J. Le Roy, G. Li, D.A. Long, O.M. Lyulin, C.J. Mackie, S.T. Massie, S. Mikhailenko, H.S.P. Müller, O.V. Naumenko, A.V. Nikitin, J. Orphal, V. Perevalov, A. Perrin, E.R. Polovtseva, C. Richard, M.A.H. Smith, E. Starikova, K. Sung, S. Tashkun, J. Tennyson, G.C. Toon, V.I.G. Tyuterev, G. Wagner, *J. Quant. Spectrosc. Radiat. Transf.* **130**, 4–50 (2013)
16. L. Dong, A.A. Kosterev, D. Thomazy, F.K. Tittel, *Appl. Phys. B* **100**, 627–635 (2010)
17. S. Schilt, L. Thevenaz, *Infrared Phys.* **48**, 154–162 (2006)
18. R.D. Grober, J. Acimovic, J. Schuck, D. Hessman, P.J. Kindlemann, J. Hespanha, A.S. Morse, K. Karrai, I. Tiemann, S. Manus, *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **71**, 2776–2780 (2000)
19. G. Wysocki, A.A. Kosterev, F.K. Tittel, *Appl. Phys. B* **85**, 301–306 (2006)