

# QEPAS for chemical analysis of multi-component gas mixtures

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**Abstract** A gas sensor based on quartz-enhanced photoacoustic spectroscopy and using near-infrared, fiber-coupled diode lasers as an excitation source was developed for chemical analysis of gas mixtures containing H<sub>2</sub>S, CO<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> at concentrations from 0 to 100%. Analysis of physical phenomena affecting the sensor operation is performed, the sensor performance is evaluated, and simple algorithms are developed to derive concentrations of the gases from detected electrical signals.

## 1 Introduction

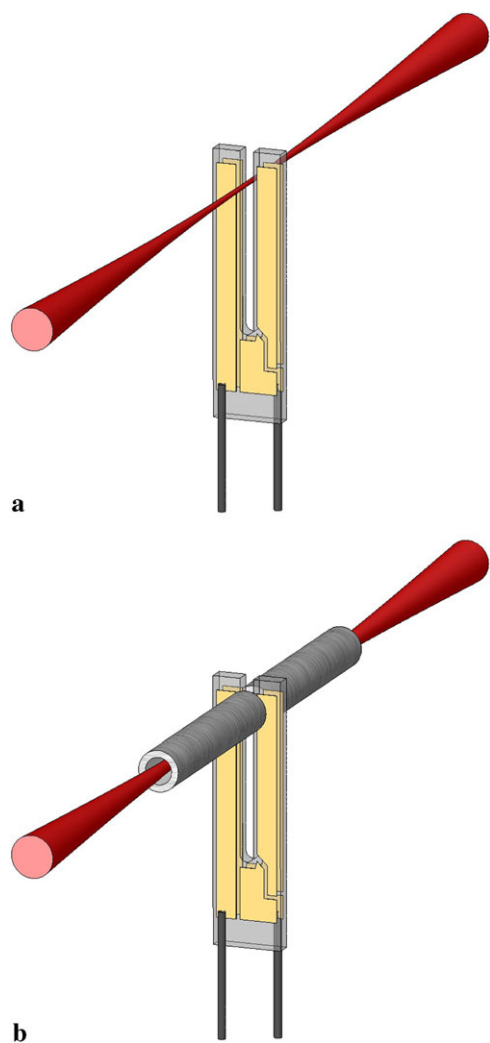
Quartz-enhanced photoacoustic spectroscopy (QEPAS) is a gas-sensing technique that features an absorption detection module with dimensions of 1–2 cm and allows the analysis of gas samples of a few mm<sup>3</sup> in volume [1–5]. This technique is based on the use of a quartz tuning fork (QTF) as a detector for acoustic oscillations induced in an absorbing gas by modulated optical radiation. The QTF is a piezo-electric element which converts its deformation into separation of electrical charges. Due to its geometry and arrangement of the film electrodes deposited on the quartz crystal, the QTF is selectively sensitive to the sound originating in a small, 100–300 μm wide, space between its prongs. This property determines the simplest configuration of the QEPAS absorption detection module (spectrophone) shown in Fig. 1a.

The force acting on the QTF prongs is created by pressure difference in the cylindrical acoustic wave produced in the gas by the modulated laser radiation. Thus, the QTF is effectively probing absorption in the optical path equal to its thickness, typically ~0.3 mm. The minimum detectable absorption coefficient achieved with such a short path length is often insufficient for practical needs. Therefore, in most reported QEPAS based gas sensors a spectrophone configuration shown in Fig. 1b was used. In addition to the QTF, it contains two pieces of rigid tubing placed along the excitation laser beam and positioned close to, but not touching, the QTF, with 30–50 μm gaps. These tubes form a so-called microresonator, which concentrates the acoustic pressure and, when properly designed, provides an additional resonant acoustic enhancement [6]. The sensitivity to absorption coefficient in configuration from Fig. 1b is up to 30 times higher than in configuration shown in Fig. 1a.

Design parameters and performance of the Fig. 1b spectrophone are dependent on the properties of the gas where it is immersed, in particular, the gas density and the speed of sound. Besides, QEPAS detection sensitivity can be affected by the dynamics of molecular relaxation, namely, the energy transfer rate from the optically excited state to translational motion of gas molecules. This rate can change with the carrier gas. Most of the QEPAS sensors reported to date were intended for monitoring a concentration of one or several trace chemical species in the otherwise invariable carrier gas. The examples include measuring pollutants in ambient air [7, 8] or physiological markers in human breath [9]. However, there is a wide range of applications where the bulk composition of the carrier gas can change. One such application, which was an immediate motivation for this work, is monitoring H<sub>2</sub>S concentration in the gas diffusing through the fluid isolation layer of the flexible oil risers. Flexible oil risers are multilayer pipes for transporting oil,

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**Fig. 1** Schematic representation of two kinds of spectrophones

most often from undersea sources to floating platforms. Hot oil is kept inside by a layer of plastic (fluid isolation layer), while the outer metal layers provide the structural stability. The corrosion rate of the metal elements strongly depends on the composition of the surrounding gas, and in particular, concentration of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  at the 100–1000 parts-per-million by volume (ppm) level. The gas environment of the metal layers is formed by the species diffusing from oil through the fluid isolation layer, and is composed mostly of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ , varying from almost pure carbon dioxide to almost pure methane.

In this paper we present a QEPAS based gas sensor for analyzing composition of a model gas mixture consisting of  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$  and trace amounts of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . All the measurements were carried out at atmospheric pressure, as required by the application. Using experimental results, we develop algorithms of deriving concentrations of the analytes from the measured signals, as well as general approaches to ap-

plying QEPAS for chemical analysis of gases with variable bulk composition.

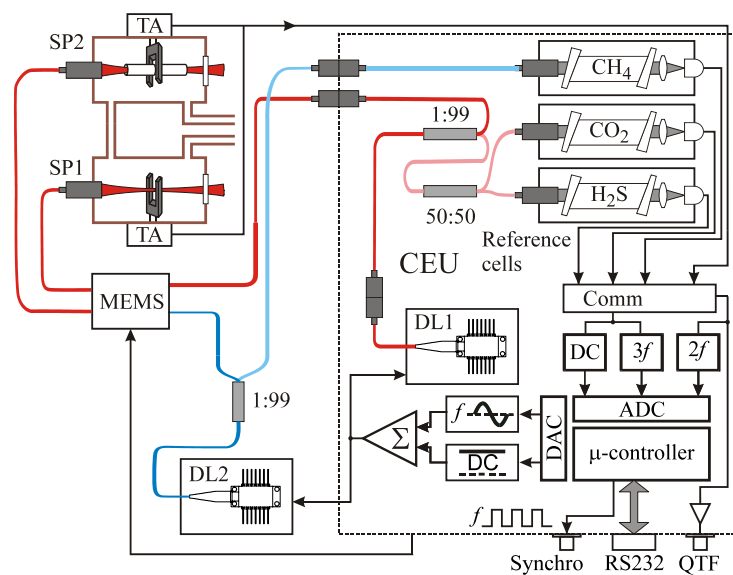
## 2 Sensor design

The general principles and configuration of a QEPAS based gas-sensing platform for quantifying one chemical species have been described previously [2]. For this work, the sensor system was modified to allow sequential detection of three different species,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$  (Fig. 2). This was done in a similar way as reported in [12]. Near-infrared (overtone) absorption bands were selected to permit the use of reliable and convenient diode lasers developed for telecommunication needs. The  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  NIR absorption bands overlap, and therefore one DFB DL (DL1 in Fig. 2) at  $\lambda = 1.58 \mu\text{m}$  was used for the detection of both species. This laser delivered  $\sim 38 \text{ mW}$ , measured after the spectrophone. A second laser, DL2 with  $\lambda = 1.65 \mu\text{m}$ , was used to detect  $\text{CH}_4$ . The optical power of this laser measured after the spectrophone was  $16.0 \text{ mW}$ . Fiber couplers were utilized to split the radiation of each laser and direct 99% of the optical power to one of the two spectrophones, and send the remaining fraction of radiation to reference cells. Permanently sealed reference cells contained high concentrations of the target species to ensure optical absorption in the 1–5% range. For  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  we used long reference cells with optical path length  $l = 16.5 \text{ cm}$ . The  $\text{CH}_4$  reference cell was shorter, with  $l = 2.5 \text{ cm}$ . Each cell incorporated a pre-aligned, fixed fiber collimator and a photodiode. During the concentration measurements the laser wavelength was locked to the selected absorption line using a 3f component of the photodiode signal as an error signal in a DC laser current regulation loop.

One of the QEPAS spectrophones (Sp1) used only a QTF as shown in Fig. 1a. Its design is presented in Fig. 3a. The QTF was mounted in the center of a cylindrical cell  $\sim 16 \text{ mm}$  high with inner diameter  $13 \text{ mm}$ , equipped with tilted AR coated windows and gas connectors. The QTF crystal was precisely positioned using a specially designed alignment jig, eliminating the need of active optical alignment. The laser radiation from a single-mode optical fiber was first collimated and then focused between the prongs of the QTF. The optical elements and the QTF were passively aligned using precisely machined components. A polyethylene foam sheet  $\sim 1 \text{ mm}$  thick was placed around the inner cell walls to suppress acoustic resonances of the cell itself.

The second spectrophone (Sp2) incorporated a microresonator as shown in Fig. 1b. A photograph of the identical module with the top hermetic lid removed is shown in Fig. 3b. This module was fabricated by Achray Photonics Inc. based on our instructions. Active optical alignment was used to ensure free propagation of the radiation through the

**Fig. 2** Schematic of the QEPAS sensor for analyzing concentrations of the three gases. The device also includes temperature, pressure, and relative humidity sensors immersed in the gas stream immediately before the spectrophones, not shown here. CEU—control electronics unit; DL1, DL2—diode lasers; SP1—spectrophone without microresonator, SP2—spectrophone with microresonator; TA—transimpedance amplifier



**Table 1** Sensitivity measured in dry and wet N<sub>2</sub> as a trace gas carrier. Wet N<sub>2</sub> contained from 1.1% to 1.4% water vapor by volume. All measurements are performed at atmospheric pressure. Detection bandwidth is 0.785 Hz, corresponding to 1 s interval between readings from the CEU. NE—noise equivalent; NNEA—normalized noise equivalent absorption coefficient in cm<sup>-1</sup> W/√Hz

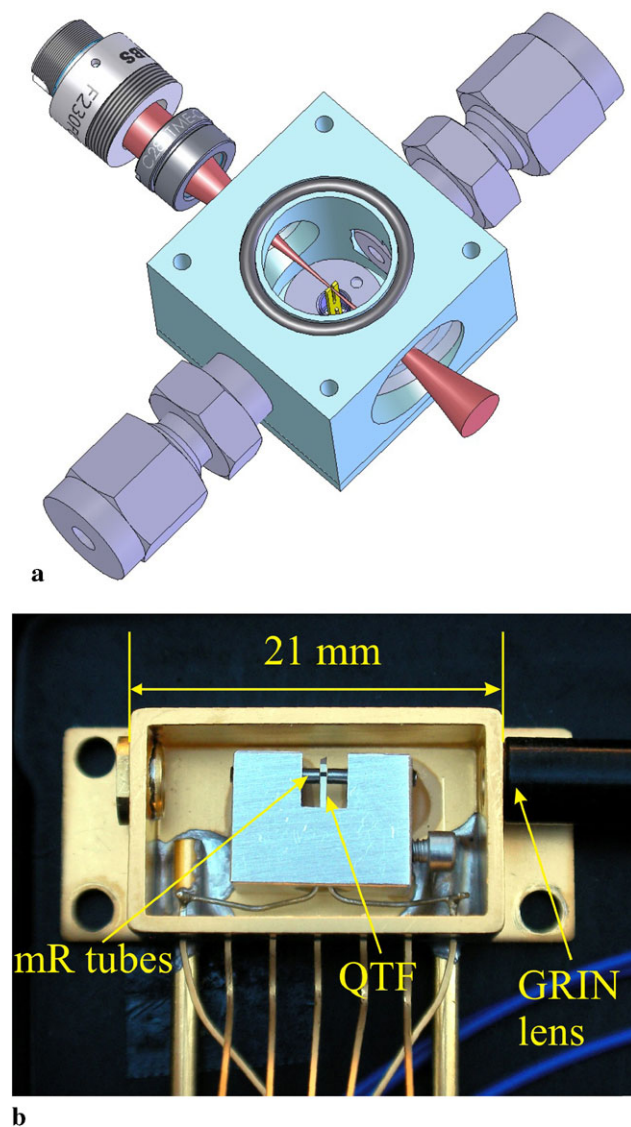
Species	H <sub>2</sub> S		CO <sub>2</sub>		CH <sub>4</sub>	
	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet
Carrier	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet
Excitation frequency, cm <sup>-1</sup>	6320.6		6321.20		6057.09	
Laser power, mW	38.3		37.9		16.0	
NE concentration, ppm	10.1	9.1	270	123	1.5	0.5
NE absorption coeff., cm <sup>-1</sup>	1.4 × 10 <sup>-7</sup>	1.2 × 10 <sup>-7</sup>	2.6 × 10 <sup>-7</sup>	1.2 × 10 <sup>-7</sup>	6.4 × 10 <sup>-7</sup>	2.1 × 10 <sup>-7</sup>
NNEA	5.8 × 10 <sup>-9</sup>	5.3 × 10 <sup>-9</sup>	1.1 × 10 <sup>-8</sup>	4.0 × 10 <sup>-9</sup>	1.1 × 10 <sup>-8</sup>	3.7 × 10 <sup>-9</sup>

microresonator tubes. The microresonator was formed by two pieces of hypodermic, stainless steel tubing with inner diameter 0.51 mm, outer diameter 0.81 mm, and 4.4 mm long, separated from the QTF by ~30 μm gaps. In order to protect the silver electrodes of the QTF from H<sub>2</sub>S, they were electroplated with a 5 μm layer of gold. This shifted the natural frequency of the QTF from 32.8 kHz to 32.2 kHz.

Using an additional spectrophone Sp1 without a microresonator served two purposes. First, it expanded the dynamic range of the sensor. While the linear dynamic range of the QTF itself is extremely wide and sufficient for any practical gas-sensing task, the dynamic range of the digitizing electronics did not allow performing both measurements of the thermal noise of the QTF and a photoacoustic signal produced by 100% CH<sub>4</sub> in the spectrophone with a microresonator. An additional spectrophone with only a QTF expanded the dynamic range ~10 times, which was sufficient for the reported application. A second purpose was to assist in the unambiguous interpretation of our experimental results. A coefficient relating optical absorption in the gas with the electrical response of a spectrophone depends on

the speed of sound in the gas, and the dependence is different for two kinds of spectrophones shown in Fig. 1. Therefore, having the information from the two spectrophones helps in the reliable identification of the gas composition.

A 4 × 4 MEMS switch made by combining two 1 × 4 switches (LightBend Mini 1 × 4, Agiltron Inc.) was used to direct any of the two lasers to any of the two spectrophones. The switch was controlled by a parallel 4-bit binary code supplied by a control electronics unit, CEU. As shown in Fig. 3, the CEU incorporated also an electronic switchboard to select signal from one of the spectrophones and from one of the three reference cells. All the three reference cells and the laser DL1 were mounted inside the CEU with 10 × 25 × 25 cm dimensions. As in previous versions [1], the CEU performed the functions of locking the laser wavelength to the selected absorption line, measuring the QTF parameters, and modulating the lasers at half the resonant frequency of the corresponding QTF. To determine the QTF parameters, an electrical, sine wave excitation voltage was applied to it, and the excitation frequency was scanned to find out the QTF natural frequency by measuring the QTF



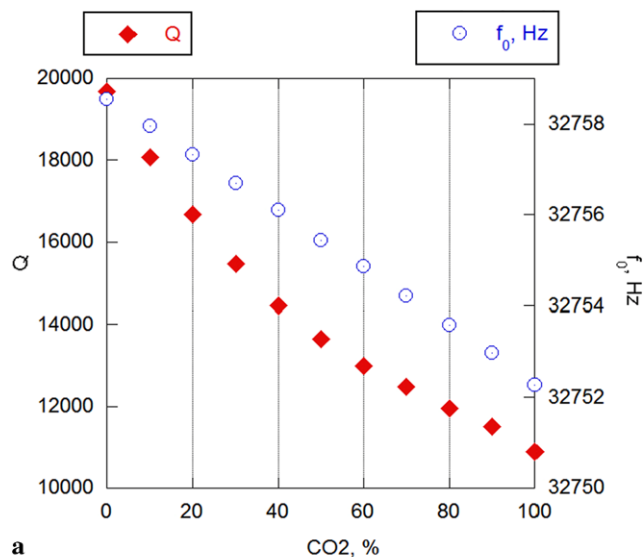
**Fig. 3** Sp1—no microresonator (a) and Sp2—photo Achray (b)

current. The  $Q$ -factor was derived from the QTF ringdown time following a rapid interruption of the excitation voltage.

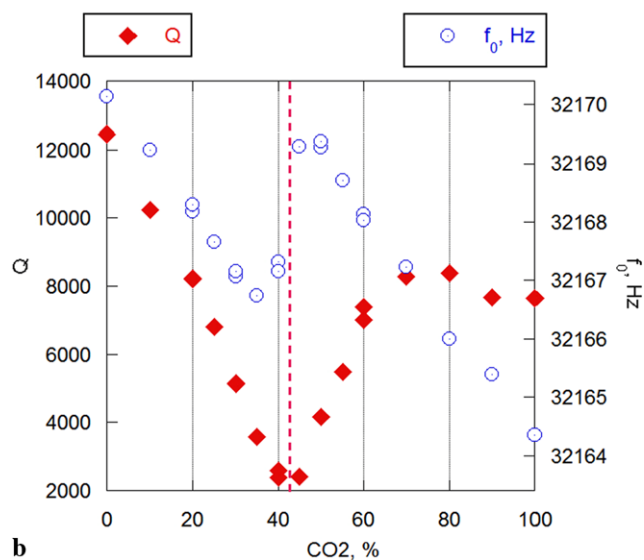
Up to 10 sets of parameters can be pre-programmed in the CEU, each set including the selection of the laser, the reference cell, and the spectrophone, laser current and temperature, modulation depth, and regulation parameters. The CEU can be programmed to loop through the desired sets of parameters in an autonomous mode. Besides, it can communicate with an external computer through RS232, receiving commands and exchanging data.

### 3 Results and physical interpretation

Initially the device sensitivity was evaluated in nitrogen as a carrier, using calibrated trace gas sources and more sen-



**a**

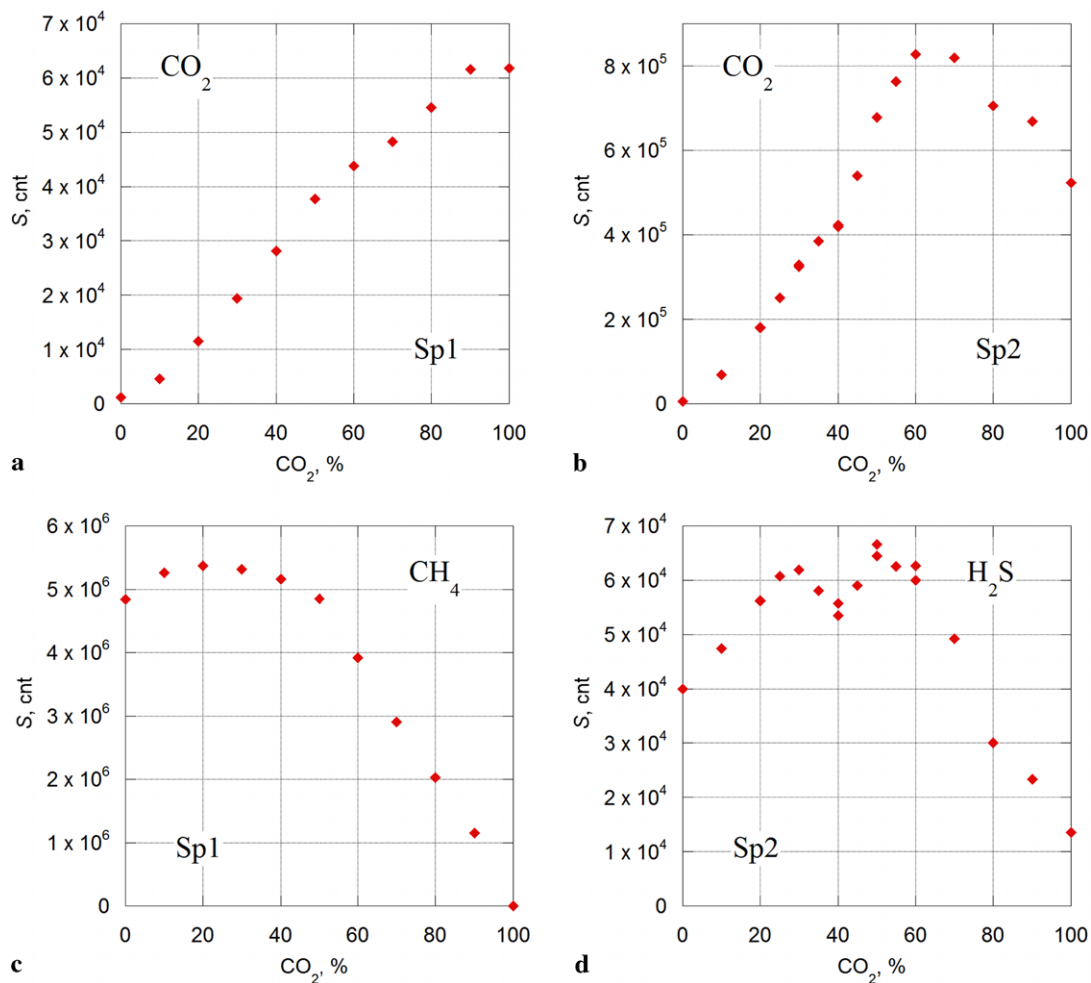


**b**

**Fig. 4**  $Q$ -factor and resonance frequency  $f_0$  of the QTFs as a function of gas mixture: Sp1 (a) and Sp2 (b)

sitive Sp2. The results are shown in Table 1. They correspond to the detection bandwidth of 0.785 Hz, which is set by the internal CEU digital filters and is applicable when the data are read every 1 s without additional averaging. It can be seen that H<sub>2</sub>O has a significant impact on QEPAS sensitivity to CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>. However, it was determined that methane plays the same role of the V-T relaxation catalyst as H<sub>2</sub>O in N<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, in gas mixtures containing >5% CH<sub>4</sub> relaxation of both CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> is fast enough to satisfy  $2\pi f\tau < 1$  condition, and the measured QEPAS signal is not noticeably affected by this factor.

Before performing the gas-sensing measurements in variable carriers, we analyzed the resonant properties of the spectrophones when they were filled with a mixture of CO<sub>2</sub>:CH<sub>4</sub> in different proportions. The results are shown in



**Fig. 5** Raw measurement results. The system saturates at  $S = 2^{23} \approx 8.4 \times 10^6$  cnt

Fig. 4. The Sp1 shows a smooth  $Q(C)$  and linear  $f_0(C)$  dependences, where  $C$  is a fraction of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the gas mixture and  $f_0$  is the resonant frequency of the QTF. The Sp2 shows a minimum in  $Q(C)$  corresponding to the fastest growth of  $f_0(C)$  at  $C = 42\%$ . This feature appears when the natural frequency of the microresonator coincides with the natural frequency of the QTF. The speed of sound in the  $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$  mixture at  $C = 42\%$  is 337 m/s (calculated from the gas parameters and verified by direct measurements), close to the speed of sound in air, which confirms the correct Sp2 design.

Next, the photoacoustic response of the sensor to mixtures containing 0.5%  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and variable amounts of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  was studied. Because of the weak  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  signal and the need to measure trace concentrations of this species, only more sensitive Sp2 was used for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  measurements. High concentrations of  $\text{CH}_4$  caused the signal from Sp2 to saturate the electronics, and therefore only Sp1 was used for the  $\text{CH}_4$  measurements. For  $\text{CO}_2$ , where a weak  $3\nu_3 + \nu_1$  band is excited but the concentration is high, signals from both spectrophones were recorded. The results of the mea-

surements are shown in Fig. 5. The signal  $S$  is expressed in the internal ADC counts (cnt), which can be directly read from the CEU RS232 port. Each point was a result of averaging 10–20 individual measurements, and the peak-to-peak noise of a single measurement is  $\sim 1000$  cnt. Thus, errors in the plots were primarily determined by flow controllers in the gas dilution system and did not exceed 1% (horizontal scale). We verified that off-the-trend point at zero  $\text{CH}_4$  concentration in plot (Fig. 5a) is correct and related to the relaxation dynamics ( $\text{CH}_4$  presence increasing the relaxation rate of excited  $\text{CO}_2$ ). Physically,  $1 \text{ cnt} = 6.67 \times 10^{-16} \text{ A}$  of QTF rms current. The following factors impact the QEPAS signal:

- The analyte concentration.
- Cross-talk between the partially overlapping lines of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . In this application, the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations are high and the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations are low. Therefore, a practically important effect is a negative offset to the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  signal created by high  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations, which will be discussed below.

- Vibrational-to-translational (V-T) energy transfer rates and pathways. As will be shown below, high concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> will partially quench the QEPAS signal from H<sub>2</sub>S, apart from the negative signal offset mentioned above.
- Carrier gas dependent QTF quality factor, especially in Sp2.
- Scaling factor ( $\gamma - 1$ ) in the source term of the equation governing the generation of the photoacoustic signal [11]. This factor changes from 0.289 for pure CO<sub>2</sub> to 0.304 for pure CH<sub>4</sub>, and we neglect this 5% change.
- Speed of sound, affecting the sensitivity of both spectrophones but in a different way. In Sp1, the sensitivity is changing because of the geometric stretching of the function describing the acoustic field distribution [11] as shown in Fig. 6a. In Sp2, the main factor affecting the sensitivity is detuning between acoustic resonance of the microresonator and mechanical resonance of the QTF (Fig. 6b).

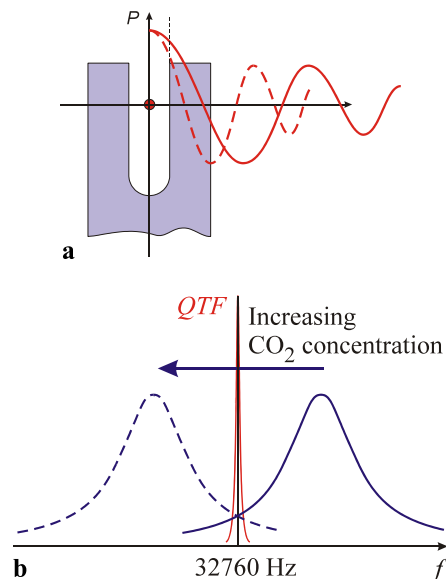
The resonant frequency of the acoustic gas resonator is proportional to the speed of sound  $v_s$ . For calculating  $v_s$  in the gas mixture, we can use the usual equation

$$v_s = \sqrt{\gamma \frac{RT}{M}} \tag{1}$$

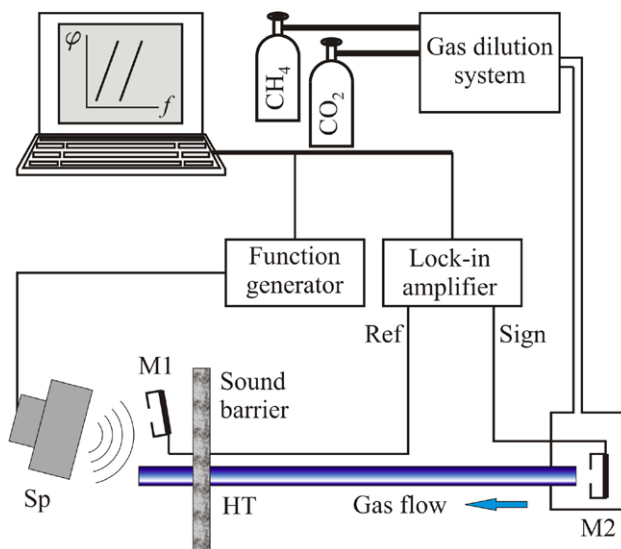
where  $\gamma = c_p/c_v$  is the adiabatic coefficient,  $R = 8.31$  J/(Mol K) is the gas constant,  $T$  is the absolute temperature and  $M$  is the molar mass. For a mixture of two gases,  $M$ ,  $c_p$  and  $c_v$  are calculated as weighted mean values according to the volume gas fractions in the mixture. We took  $c_p(\text{CH}_4) = 35.52$  J/(Mol K),  $c_v(\text{CH}_4) = 27.2$  J/(Mol K),  $c_p(\text{CO}_2) = 37.136$  J/(Mol K), and  $c_v(\text{CO}_2) = 28.82$  J/(Mol K) using the data from Ref. [12]. We also performed direct measurements of the speed of sound in a tube; the setup is shown in Fig. 7. A hypodermic stainless steel tube  $l = 26$  cm long with an outer diameter of 1.65 mm and inner diameter 1.19 mm was used as a sound guide. Theory predicts that the speed of sound in a tube with rigid walls is equal to the speed of sound in the open space. Sound was generated by a small speaker in  $f = 27\text{--}35$  kHz frequency range and detected by two miniature MEMS microphones (Knowles Acoustics SPM0404HE5H-PB) with a 0.84 mm diameter acoustic port. The phase difference  $\varphi$  between the two microphones was measured as a function of speaker frequency, and the speed of sound was found using the equation:

$$v_s = 2\pi l \left( \frac{d\varphi}{df} \right)^{-1} \tag{2}$$

The  $v_s$  values calculated using (1) and determined from experimental data using (2) are in a good agreement, as shown in Fig. 8.

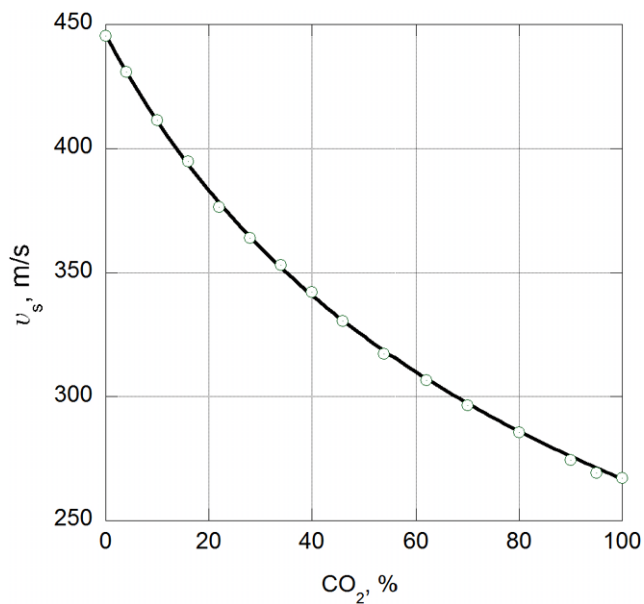


**Fig. 6** Speed of sound effect on the QEPAS signal for a spectrophone without microresonator (a) and with microresonator (b). In both cases the dashed line corresponds to higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, meaning lower speed of sound, shorter sound wavelength, and lower resonant frequency of an acoustic resonator. The curves in (a) represent a snapshot of the acoustic pressure field



**Fig. 7** Measuring the speed of sound.  $M1$ ,  $M2$ —miniature microphones,  $Sp$ —speaker,  $HT$ —hypodermic tube. Lock-in amplifier measures the phase difference between two microphones while the speaker frequency is scanned. The slope of  $\varphi(f)$  determines the speed of sound

For a better understanding of the data, the signal from Sp2 can be divided by  $Q$  of the QTF, which is directly measured by the CEU by means of the electrical excitation of the QTF. The result reflects the magnitude of the acoustic pressure acting on the QTF and manifests the resonant properties of the microresonator. If we assume that the effect of the microresonator resonance shift with the

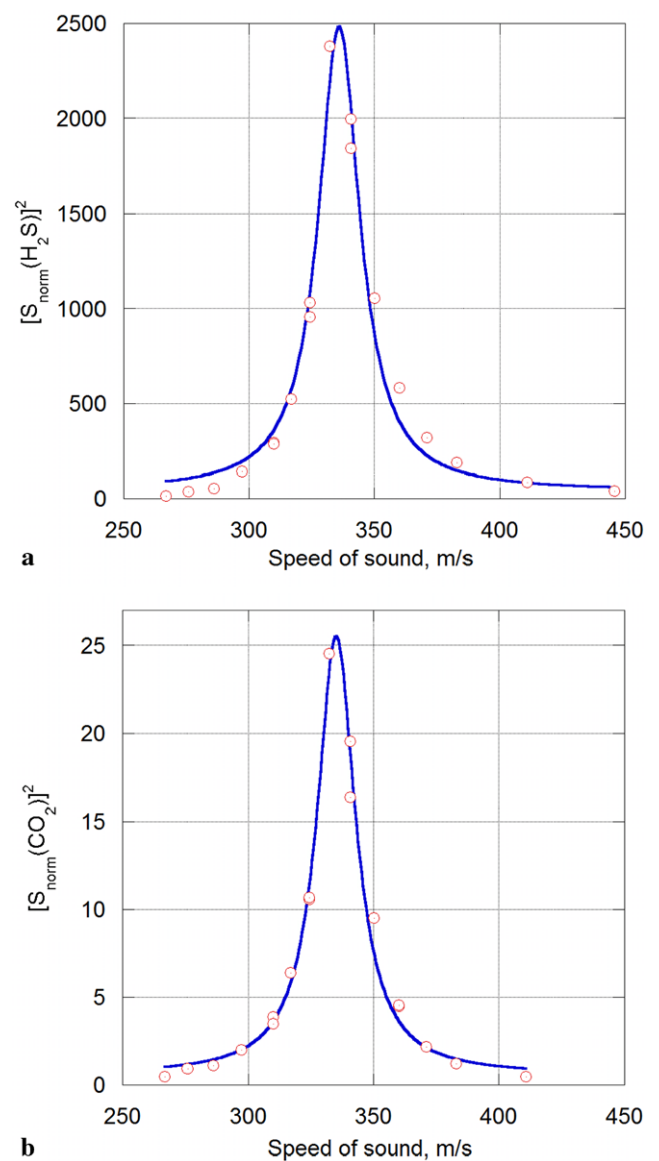


**Fig. 8** Speed of sound in a  $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$  mixture, calculated (line) and measured (circles)

changing speed of sound governs the signal, then this signal squared and plotted as a function of the speed of sound must follow Lorentzian curve. Such a fit is shown in Fig. 9 for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  signals, normalized to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations, respectively. Both signals behave similarly and yield almost the same fit parameters. The maximum is located at  $v_s = 336$  m/s ( $C = 43\%$ ), in agreement with  $Q(C)$  from Fig. 4. The peak position also agrees with the observed phase of the photoacoustic signals (Fig. 12). The width of the tuning curve yields the quality factor of the microresonator  $Q_{mR} = 17$ .

The overlapping absorption bands of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  make it impossible to find a perfectly isolated, interference-free  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  line at atmospheric pressure. In Fig. 10 the target  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  line is shown together with the closest  $\text{CO}_2$  line, which creates a *negative* offset to the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  QEPAS signal. Coinciding phases of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  signals make it easier to compensate for the  $\text{CO}_2$  interference at the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  wavelength. We performed a set of measurements of varying  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations in  $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$  mixtures of different composition. They prove that this negative offset signal is independent of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration. An example of such a measurement is shown in Fig. 11. The laser wavelength was locked to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  absorption line using the reference cell, and the QEPAS signal was detected. Similar measurements were performed with other mixing ratios of  $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ . It was found out that the negative offset to the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  signal created by the  $\text{CO}_2$  line wings is 0.011 of the peak  $\text{CO}_2$  signal.

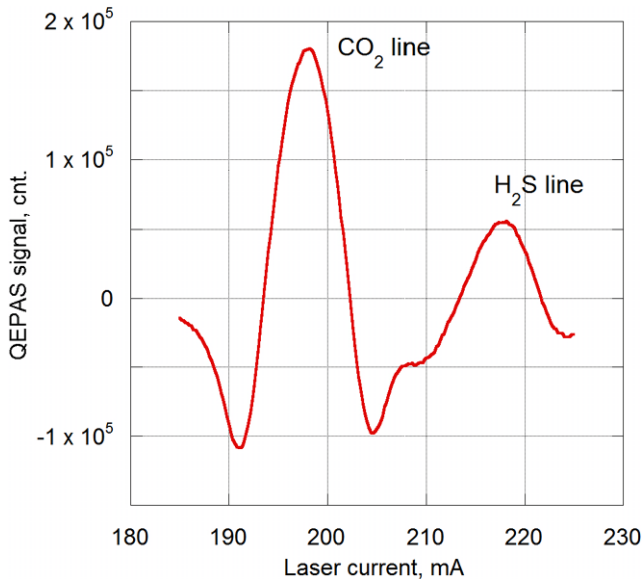
Phases of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  signals practically coincide (Fig. 12), pointing to no essential V-T relaxation delay. Therefore we conclude that  $\text{CO}_2$  relaxation is promoted by



**Fig. 9** Square of the normalized to  $Q$  QEPAS signal fitted by a Lorentzian curve:  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (a) and  $\text{CO}_2$  (b)

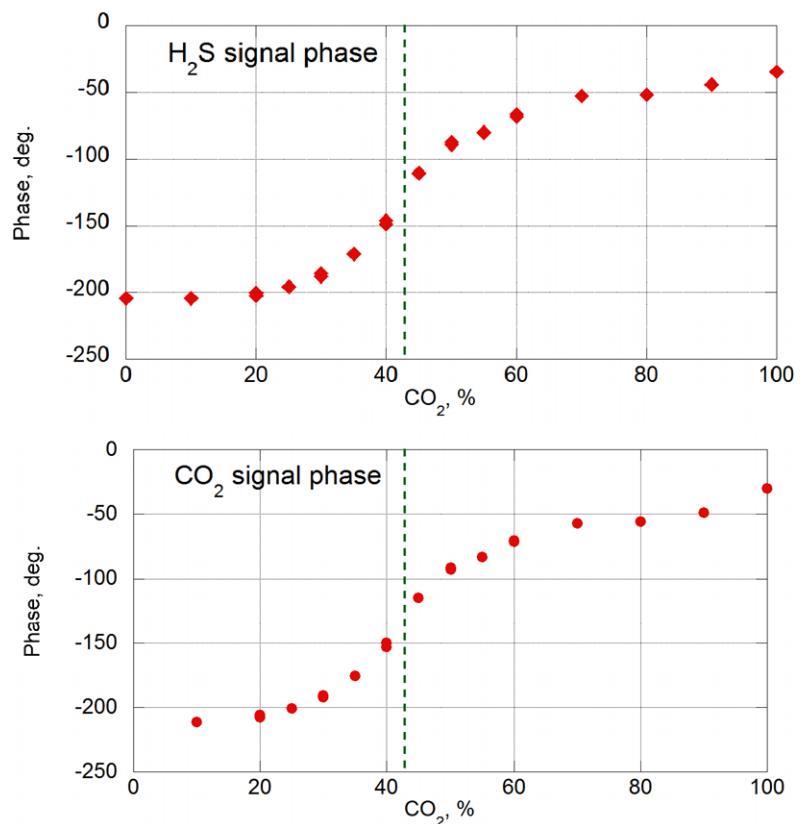
the presence of  $\text{CH}_4$ . This explains a somewhat out-of-the-trend position of the  $C = 100\%$  (no  $\text{CH}_4$ ) point in Fig. 5a and Fig. 12b plots.  $\text{CO}_2$ , however, has an impact on the V-T relaxation of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , branching part of the initial excitation into slowly relaxing intramolecular states and thus removing this portion of energy from producing the photoacoustic signal. It can be seen if we plot the ratio of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  to  $\text{CO}_2$  signals from Sp2 (Fig. 13). At low  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations the device is 14.2 times more sensitive to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  than to  $\text{CO}_2$  because of the stronger absorption line of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , while at 100%  $\text{CO}_2$  this number drops to 7.4. The calibration will hold true as soon as  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration is low, so that the rate of collisions with the carrier gas molecules is much higher than self-collisions. Since the linear fit in Fig. 13 does not rep-

resent a physical model, we estimate its validity to be  $\sim 5\%$  based on the scattering of the points.

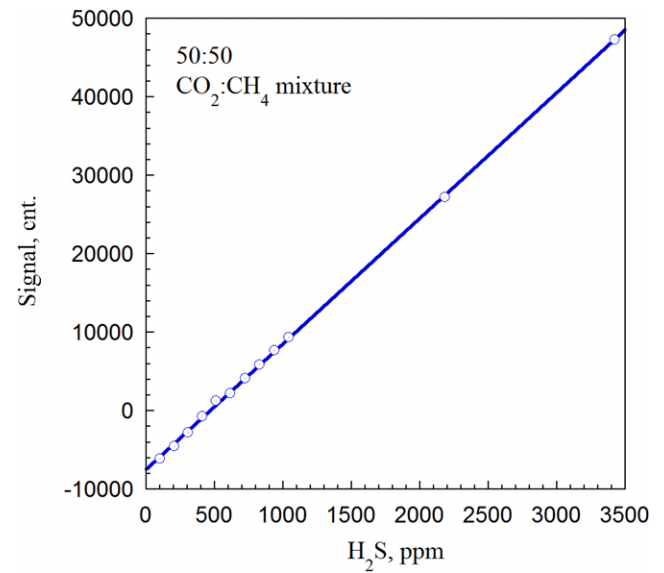


**Fig. 10** QEPAS signal ( $2f$  wavelength modulation) from Sp2 when the laser current is scanned. The  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  line at  $6320.6\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the  $\text{CO}_2$  line at  $6321.20\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , both used for the concentration analysis, partially overlap at atmospheric pressure. The gas mixture contains 20%  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\sim 80\%$   $\text{CH}_4$ , and 0.5%  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$

**Fig. 12** Phase of the photoacoustic signals from Sp2

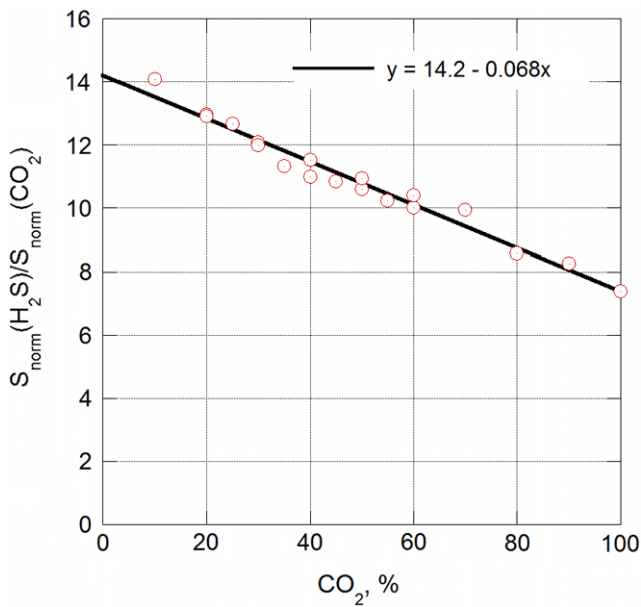


In Fig. 14 summarizes the observed dependences of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  QEPAS signal and QTF properties on the  $\text{CO}_2$  content in a  $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$  mixture and presents them as a minimum detectable concentration. It is defined as the concentration producing QEPAS signal with a RMS equal to the thermal noise of the QTF in a 0.785 Hz band. This plot does not take into

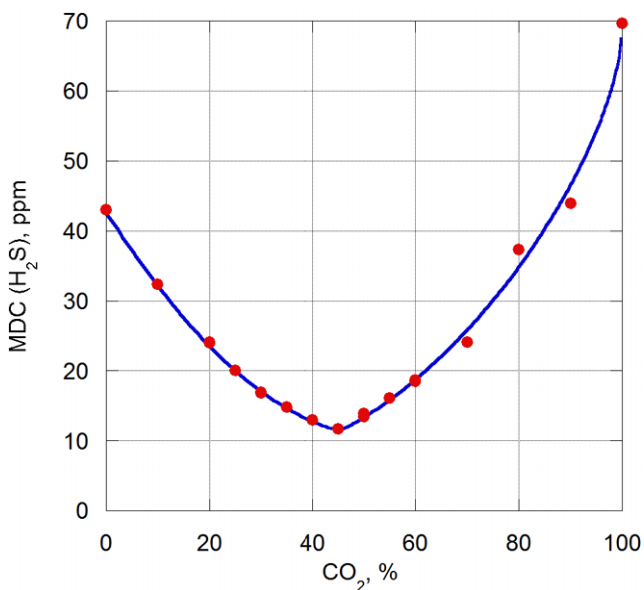


**Fig. 11** QEPAS signal from  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  at low concentrations





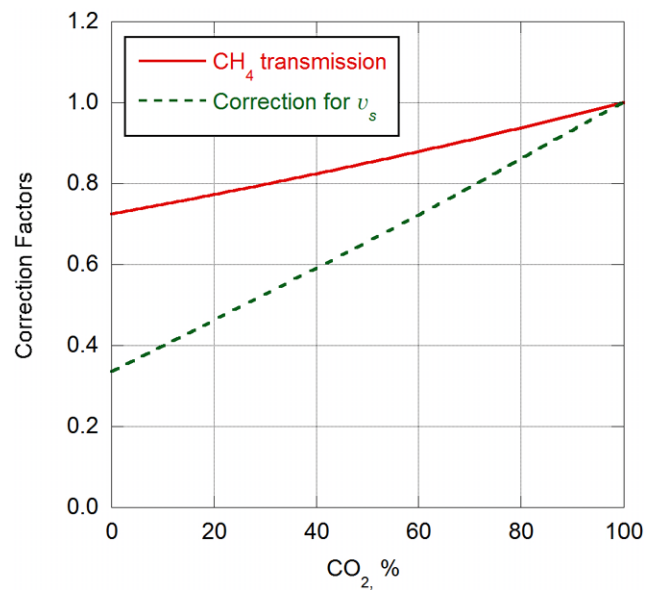
**Fig. 13** Ratio of H<sub>2</sub>S and CO<sub>2</sub> QEPAS signals, both normalized to their respective concentrations



**Fig. 14** Minimum detectable concentration of H<sub>2</sub>S defined as the concentration producing QEPAS signal with rms equal to the thermal noise of the QTF in 0.785 Hz band. The blue curve is a trend guide

account uncertainties in determining the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration based on data from Sp1.

For a better understanding of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> signals from Sp1, a number of normalizations should be performed. First, QEPAS signals for the spectrophone type depicted in Fig. 1b depend on the speed of sound, as explained in Fig. 6a. Using the  $v_s(C)$  dependence from Fig. 8 and the model described in [11], N. Petra calculated the correction factor as a function of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. This factor is shown in Fig. 15 as a



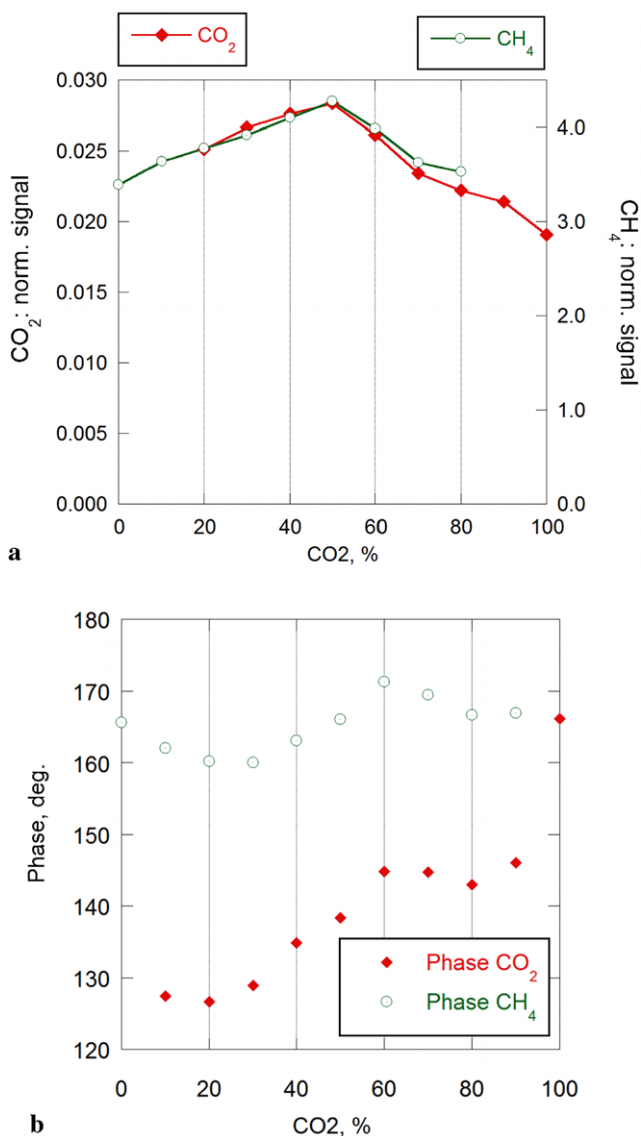
**Fig. 15** Correction factors for QEPAS signals from Sp1

dashed line, normalized to be 1 at 100% CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. Second, the attenuation of optical radiation in its 0.92 cm long path from the window to the QTF in Sp1 cannot be neglected for the CH<sub>4</sub> line. The corresponding calculated optical transmission is shown in Fig. 15 as a solid line.

The CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> QEPAS signals from Sp1 normalized to these correction factors and also to  $Q$  and CO<sub>2</sub> or CH<sub>4</sub> concentration, respectively, are shown in Fig. 16a. The maximum observed at  $C = 50\%$  most likely results from an accidental acoustic resonance in the Sp1 enclosure. This is confirmed by the phase data in Fig. 16b. The phase change rate is highest at  $C = 50\%$ , which is an indication of crossing the resonance. The phase dependence on CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is similar for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> signals, except for the almost constant shift. This shift is due to the different laser drivers and different laser designs (lasers manufactured by different companies), causing a different phase shift between the control voltage and the wavelength modulation of the laser. The rapid phase change for the CO<sub>2</sub> signal at  $C = 100\%$  is caused by the slower V-T relaxation of the excited CO<sub>2</sub> when CH<sub>4</sub> is absent. Apart from that, there is no dramatic difference in V-T relaxation rates of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, as indicated by the phase and amplitude data in Fig. 16.

#### 4 Practical procedures for concentration analysis

The Lorentzian fit in Fig. 9 proves the physical model of Sp2 operation and allows the evaluation of the  $Q$ -factor of the acoustic microresonator, and it is helpful in designing next versions of spectrophones. However, the fit is not sufficiently close for quantitative analysis of the gas mixture. Therefore, a different approach was developed for the data

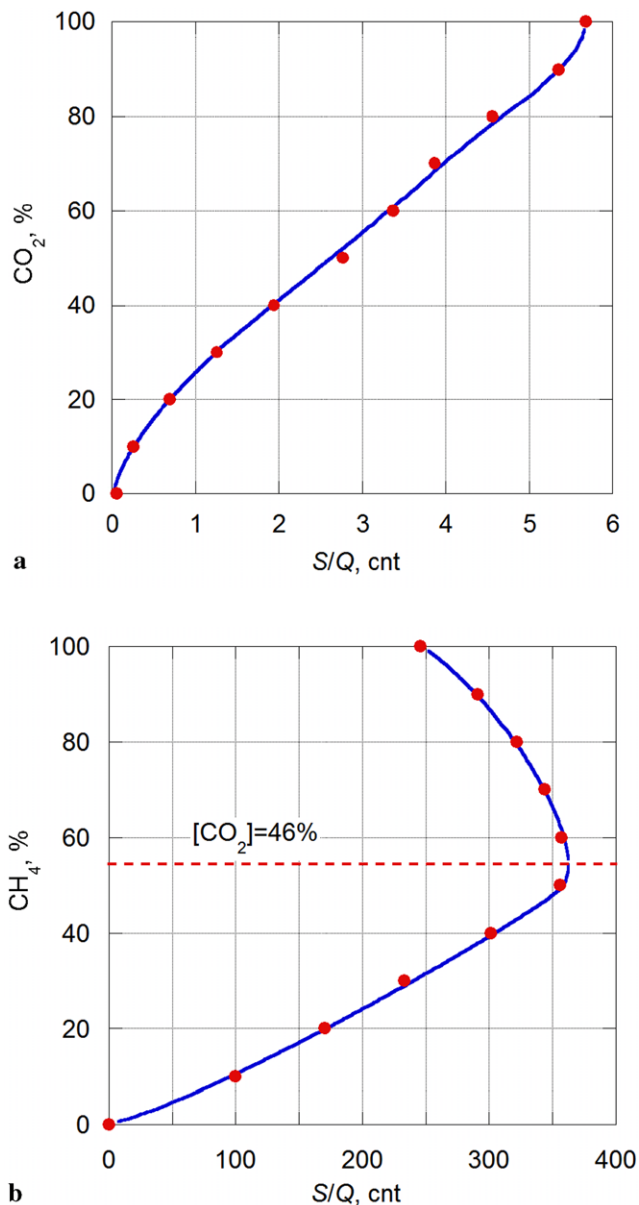


**Fig. 16** Corrected signals from Sp1 (a) and phase of these signals (b)

analysis, based on the fact that in this application the CO<sub>2</sub> is expected to be present at least at several percent concentration levels. In our data analysis we avoided using quantities which directly depend on the physical properties of the QTF, such as its  $Q$  and  $f_0$ , because these properties can change when the QTF is contaminated. Instead,  $S/Q$  was used, which depends only on the acoustic pressure acting on the QTF and on the electromechanical coefficient of the QTF.

The procedure we apply for the QEPAS data analysis consists of three steps:

1. Use  $S(\text{CO}_2)/Q$  data from Sp1 to determine the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> by means of the calibration curve in Fig. 17a derived from Fig. 4a and Fig. 5a data.



**Fig. 17** A curve for determining CO<sub>2</sub> concentration based on QEPAS signal from Sp1 (a) and a similar curve for CH<sub>4</sub> (b). The blue curve is a trend guide

2. Based on the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, determine the branch on the Fig. 17b calibration curve and determine the concentration of CH<sub>4</sub> using  $S(\text{CH}_4)/Q$  data from Sp1.
3. Use  $S(\text{CO}_2)$  data from Sp2 as the sensitivity calibration for Sp2. This approach eliminates the need to know exactly the resonant curve of the microresonator (Fig. 9), which depends on the gas composition and temperature. Knowing  $S(\text{CO}_2)$ , the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and  $S(\text{H}_2\text{S})$ , the H<sub>2</sub>S concentration can be calculated using the Fig. 13 plot. The following equation gives the concentration

[H<sub>2</sub>S] expressed as a function of the QEPAS signals from Sp2 and [CO<sub>2</sub>] concentration:

$$[\text{H}_2\text{S}] = \frac{S(\text{H}_2\text{S}) + 0.011S(\text{CO}_2)}{\{14.2 - 0.068[\text{CO}_2]\} \times \frac{S(\text{CO}_2)}{[\text{CO}_2]}}. \quad (3)$$

Summing in the numerator takes care of the spectral overlapping of the two absorption lines; the denominator uses calibration curve of Fig. 13, and the ratio of the CO<sub>2</sub> signal to its concentration represents the resonant curve. The numerical coefficients do not have direct physical meaning.

If the carrier gas contains large quantities (percents, at least) of other components besides CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, it may reduce the accuracy of the result because of the change of the speed of sound and hence the change of the dashed curve from Fig. 15. It is assumed that the real gas in the outer layers of flexible oil risers may contain H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O vapor. Based on the results of this work, we propose to add a speed of sound measurement module to the sensor. The architecture of such a module will be similar to the setup shown in Fig. 7. For compactness, the tube can be coiled. The water vapor concentration cannot exceed the saturated vapor pressure and therefore will not significantly impact  $v_s$ . Therefore, information about  $v_s$  combined with temperature data will not only improve the accuracy of H<sub>2</sub>S, CH<sub>4</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measurements but also provide indirect information about the H<sub>2</sub> concentration. Another future modification is to introduce a QTF signal preamplifier with a switchable amplification coefficient, which will extend the dynamic range of each spectrophone.

## 5 Conclusions

Application of QEPAS to chemical analysis of multi-component gas mixtures is a complicated task because of several involved physical processes linked to the speed of sound, molecular relaxation dynamics, and overlapping of absorption lines. Therefore, a detailed study is needed for

each particular case of such application. The reported work provides an example of such a study and can serve as a guide to developing the data-analysis approaches in similar cases. Regardless of the complexity of the involved phenomena, it was possible to derive a simple data-analysis algorithm that provides sufficient accuracy of the results. The developed sensor has small sensing modules (spectrophones) and a wide dynamic range, allowing measuring both H<sub>2</sub>S at ppm levels and CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> at up to 100% levels.

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