

Characterization of H₂S QEPAS detection in methane-based gas leaks dispersed into environment

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ABSTRACT

The increase in fatal accidents and chronic illnesses caused by hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) exposure occurring in various workplaces is pushing the development of sensing systems for continuous and in-field monitoring of this hazardous gas. We report here on the design and realization of a Near-IR quartz-enhanced photoacoustic sensor (QEPAS) for H₂S leaks detection. H₂S QEPAS signal was measured in matrixes containing up to 1 % of methane (CH₄) and nitrogen (N₂) which were chosen as the laboratory model environment for leakages from oil and gas wells or various industrial processes where H₂S and CH₄ can leak simultaneously. An investigation of the influence of CH₄ on H₂S relaxation and photoacoustic generation was proposed in this work and the sensor performances were carefully assessed with respect to CH₄ content in the mixture. We demonstrated the high selectivity, with no cross talk between H₂S, H₂O and CH₄ absorption lines, high sensitivity, and fast response time of the developed sensor, achieving a minimum detection limit (MDL) of 2.5 ppm for H₂S with 2 s lock-in integration time. The employed 2.6 μm laser allowed us to employ the sensor also for CH₄ detection, achieving an MDL of 85 ppm. The realized QEPAS sensor lends itself to the development of a portable and compact device for industrial monitoring.

1. Introduction

Trace gas detection is among the main issues in industrial and urban area environmental monitoring, atmospheric science, and medical applications. Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) is one of the most challenging gases to detect since it is hazardous, corrosive, and flammable even at very low concentrations. The Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA, US Department of Labor) fixed at 20 part per million (ppm) the concentration limit for H₂S breathing, for an eight-hour period, with a maximum peak exposure of 50 ppm for ten minutes [1]. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health determined an IMDH (Immediately Dangerous to Life and Health) concentration limit of 100 ppm for H₂S. The typical rotten eggs smell, perceptible starting from concentrations of few ppm, disappears at 100 ppm and olfactory paralysis and eye irritation could occur. Exposures to concentrations higher than 500 ppm are fatal [2].

Human activity represents the main source of H₂S global emission. This gas is largely produced in coke ovens, sewerage, tanneries, pulp and paper industries [3]. H₂S concentrations ranging from few ppms to

percents are found in crude oil and natural gas (NG) reservoirs [4]. A recent study on releases of methane (CH₄) and H₂S from active, abandoned and marginally producing oil and gas wells in Ontario (Canada), classifies these emissions as major risks for human and ecosystem health [5]. In addition, leakages from NG transmission pipelines systems typically occur. In their last survey, the European Gas Pipeline Incidents Data Group (EGIP) reported that the major contributions for gas pipelines leakages arise from external interferences, corrosion, construction defects or material failure, and natural disasters such as earthquakes [6]. H₂S is also found as a by-product in NG processing plants during raw NG purification and in petroleum refiners, where H₂S is produced during hydrodesulfurization of petroleum feedstocks and fuels [7].

According to the OSHA, approximately 100 accidents involving H₂S exposure (70 % of which were fatal) occurred over the last two decades in a variety of workplaces in USA, including oil and gas wells, gas and petroleum plants, sewer lines, and tanks [1]. In addition, the release of H₂S impose serious threats also for the environments and residents surrounding the leak sources [8,9]. Thereby, the development of sensors capable of real-time and continuous monitoring of H₂S leaks dispersed

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into environment has become an urgent need. Beyond the fast response and sensitivity, the high selectivity represents the main characteristic to fulfil, provided the high probability to identify an H₂S leak source that is strictly related to a hydrocarbon-based matrix, mainly composed of CH₄.

Many techniques have been used for H₂S detection. Gas chromatography was largely exploited, but despite the high sensitivity and precision, the need for a sample preparation consisting in multiple steps makes this technique not suitable for real-time measurement and detection of short-term concentration variations [10]. Chemical sensors, such as those based on semiconductor metal-oxides [11] or electrochemical sensing techniques [12,13] have been demonstrated to provide high sensitivity and real-time monitoring. However, their performances are strongly affected by environmental conditions, such as temperature and humidity levels.

Optical sensors represent an effective solution, providing both high sensitivity and high selectivity through laser excitation of gas absorption transitions in the infrared range. Mid-IR Quantum Cascade Lasers (QCLs) combined with multipass cells have been employed for H₂S detection at trace level, demonstrating their applicability for industrial processes aimed at petrochemical environments [14,15]. Chen et al. [16] obtained a minimum detection limit (MDL) of 670 part per billion (ppb) for 2 s averaging time, by means of off-axis integrated cavity output spectroscopy combined with a distributed-feedback (DFB) diode laser emitting around 1.57 μm. A similar telecom fiber-coupled laser and two resonant photoacoustic cells were employed in photoacoustic spectroscopy (PAS) based-systems developed for industrial applications [17,18]. An MDL of 6 ppm was achieved for 10 s integration time [17], whereas long averaging time (~30 min) were required to reach detection limits as low as 500 ppb [18]. PAS basic principle consists in detecting sound waves induced by gas non-radiative energy relaxation as consequence of infrared modulated light absorption. Quartz-enhanced photoacoustic spectroscopy (QEPAS) represents an evolution of the PAS approach and exploits a quartz tuning fork (QTF) to transduce the acoustic wave into an electric signal. The use of QTFs avoids the need for a photodetector, which is mandatory for multipass cells and cavity-based spectroscopy [19]. Reduced dimensions, high sensitivity and fast response time make QEPAS a perfect candidate for realization of compact and portable sensors to be employed for on-site measurements [20–22]. Recently, PAS and QEPAS sensors were developed both for hydrocarbon detection at high concentration or at trace-level [23,24], biomedical applications [25] and detection of dangerous and toxic gases [26,27].

H₂S strongest absorption lies in the THz spectral region. Sampaolo et al. [28] demonstrated a QEPAS sensor for H₂S detection, exploiting a liquid-nitrogen-cooled THz QCL operating in pulsed mode. By targeting a line-strength of 5.53•10⁻²⁰ cm/mol, an MDL of 2.5 ppm at 300 ms lock-in integration time has been achieved. However, poor quality THz beams, lack of commercially available laser sources, costs and dimensions create serious limits to the implementation of portable sensors. In the Mid-IR spectral range, QCL sources are commercially available with continuous wave output power > 100 mW, but the average absorption linestrength is almost two order of magnitude lower with respect to the THz spectral range [29,30]. Nevertheless, the record in detection limit was achieved in the Mid-IR. Indeed, Helman et al. [29] reached an MDL of 492 ppb for an integration time of 1 s, by exciting a line-strength of 7.77•10⁻²² cm/mol with an off-beam QEPAS configuration and a continuous wave external cavity QCL (~160 mW optical power). In the Near-IR spectral range, low cost, low weight, and low power consumption DFB diode lasers have been exploited for H₂S detection. An absorption line at 1.57 μm having a linestrength of 1.15•10⁻²³ cm/mol was excited in a QEPAS sensor realized by Kosterev et al. [31] to achieve an MDL of 10 ppm with 35 mW laser power available for PA generation. A sub-ppm MDL was reached employing a similar laser source relying on an erbium-doped fiber amplifier to boost the optical power up to ~1.5 W [32,33]. Viciani et al. [34] achieved a 4 ppm detection limit at 1 s integration time, exploiting a diode laser

emitting around 2.6 μm, with an optical power of only 3 mW, but exploiting a line-strength one order of magnitude stronger with respect to the sensor reported in ref [31].

However, none of these research works has ever directly dealt with the main issue afflicting all the H₂S optical sensors. i.e., the almost unavoidable spectral interference between H₂S and CH₄. This problem is absent in the THz range but is a crucial issue when operating in Near-IR and Mid-IR spectral regions. Moreover, for photoacoustic sensing, it is essential to study the response of the sensor system when the gas matrix fluctuates. This requires a detailed analysis of the energetic levels involved in the non-radiative energy relaxation processes to the experimental characterization of the photoacoustic generation and detection. This specific research, focused on H₂S photoacoustic detection in a CH₄-based matrix, has never been carried out as well, so far.

In this work we address these two open issues, demonstrating a Near-IR-QEPAS sensor for H₂S detection providing fast response, high selectivity, and sensitivity. Mixtures of H₂S traces in nitrogen (N₂) or air with CH₄ concentrations up to 1 % were obtained to simulate natural gas leaks dispersed into environment. The influence of CH₄ on H₂S detection in terms of PA generation and interference effect was investigated. Moreover, the employed 2.6 μm DFB laser allowed us to target a Near-IR CH₄ transition as well, with the possibility of achieving a sequential H₂S/CH₄ detection.

2. H₂S and CH₄ relaxation paths

When a gas sample, characterized by a known composition, is dispersed into the environment, the photoacoustic detection of one (or many) molecules within the gas leak requires a detailed investigation of the influence of gas sample matrix, diluted and mixed with the main atmospheric components. The 2.6 μm Near-IR region was identified as spectral-wise suitable for QEPAS detection of H₂S and CH₄. A schematic representation of the infrared energy levels diagram of H₂S, CH₄ and the main atmospheric gas species (N₂, oxygen O₂, and water vapor H₂O) is represented in Fig. 1. For illustration purposes, each spectral band is represented by an energy level placed at the band center. In the region chosen for H₂S/CH₄ excitation, CH₄ spectrum consists of a bending band 3ν₄ and a combination band ν₂ + 2ν₄, creating a cluster of interacting states, i.e. a polyad, at higher energy levels (not shown in the figure) [35]. When one of these states is excited, the vibrational energy is suddenly (in the ns range) transferred to the lower state 3ν₄ of the octad. Then, CH₄ relaxation occurs via vibrational to translational (V-T) processes: a bending quantum ν₄ is lost by collisions with the other molecules in their ground states. The overall process is characterized by a collisional rate given by [36]:

$$k_{VT}^{CH_4} = P \sum_i C_i^i k_{VT}^{CH_4 - M_i} \quad (1)$$

where P is the pressure, Cⁱ is the concentration of the collisional partners and k_{VT}^{CH₄ - M_i} is the V-T relaxation rate associated to collisions between the excited molecule CH₄^{*} and the molecule M_i in its ground state. Because of its hydrogen bonds and low moment of inertia, H₂O acts as a V-T relaxation promoter for CH₄. This effect was investigated in several works [37–39]. Moreover H₂O bending mode could be excited via a vibrational-vibrational (V-V) process: the transferred energy is released as kinetic energy for CH₄ PA generation due to the fast H₂O V-T relaxation via self-collisions and collisions with N₂ [40,41]. Similarly, energy relaxation of CH₄ is accompanied by a resonant excitation of O₂ first excited level. However O₂ relaxation rates are much lower than QEPAS modulation frequencies thus the transferred energy is lost for PA generation [42,43].

The V-V processes rate will depend upon the gas pressure and collisional partner concentration M_i according to:

$$k_{VV} = PC_i^i k_{VV}^{CH_4 - M_i} \quad (2)$$

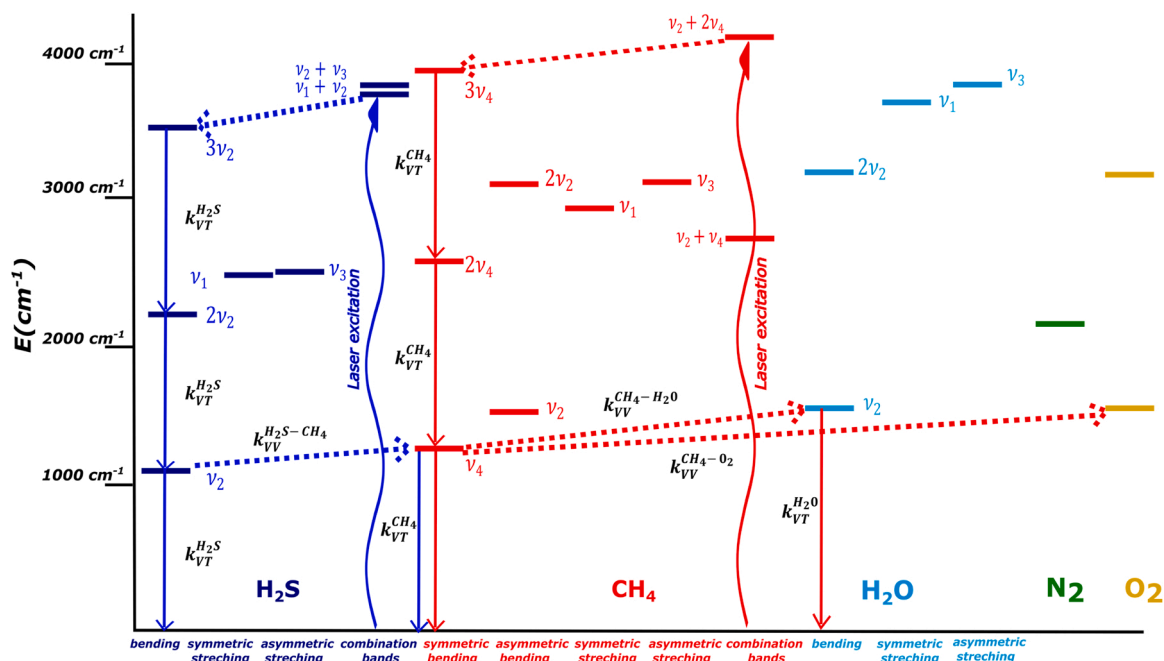


Fig. 1. Energy level diagram showing the laser excitation and the relaxation paths of CH_4 (red arrows) and H_2S (blue arrows) molecules. The red and blue curved arrows are the laser excitations of CH_4 and H_2S energy levels, whereas the solids and dashed arrows represent V-T and V-V processes, respectively. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

The V-T and V-V relaxation rates of excited CH_4^* with the main atmospheric components are reported in Table 1.

Analogously H_2S excitation and relaxation are examined. H_2S spectra is characterized by a triad composed of the bending mode $3\nu_2$ and two combination bands ($\nu_1 + \nu_2$, $\nu_2 + \nu_3$) [44,45]. However, to our knowledge, no studies reporting on H_2S V-V and V-T relaxation paths and the associated collisional rates are available in literature, so far. Nonetheless the following hypothesis could be done:

- Laser excitation of one of H_2S states of the triad is followed by energy transfer to $3\nu_2$ band, which is the lowest state of the triad. H_2S V-T relaxation results in the loss of the lowest energy quantum ν_2 and can be described by a formula similar to Eq. (1).
- H_2S shows similar vibrational de-excitation velocity compared to H_2O due to their similar chemical properties. Thus, the effects of H_2O as a V-T promoter for H_2S relaxation should be almost negligible [46]. Indeed, Viciani et al. [34] observed this effect in the 2.6 μm Near-IR spectral region for up to 2 % H_2O concentration.
- A V-V exchange is energetically possible between $\text{H}_2\text{S}^*(\nu_2)$ and CH_4 since the energy difference ($\Delta\nu = 128 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) is less than the thermal energy ($k_B T \sim 207 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) [47]. V-V exchanges with other molecules are unlikely due to higher energy gap between the involved vibrational bands.

Table 1

V-T relaxation rates of the n^{th} CH_4 vibrational state with the main collisional partners in standard air. The reactions in bold represent the V-V processes.

	k ($\text{s}^{-1}\text{Torr}^{-1}$)	Ref
$\text{CH}_4^*(n\nu_4) + \text{CH}_4 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4^*((n-1)\nu_4) + \text{CH}_4$	$1.32 \cdot 10^3$	[42]
$\text{CH}_4^*(n\nu_4) + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_4^*((n-1)\nu_4) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$1.05 \cdot 10^5$	[37]
$\text{CH}_4^*(n\nu_4) + \text{N}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4^*((n-1)\nu_4) + \text{N}_2$	$1.32 \cdot 10^5$	[42]
$\text{CH}_4^*(n\nu_4) + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4^*((n-1)\nu_4) + \text{O}_2$	$1.71 \cdot 10^3$	[42]
$\text{CH}_4^*(\nu_4) + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + \text{O}_2^*$	$4.34 \cdot 10^3$	[43]
$\text{CH}_4^*(\nu_4) + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}^*(\nu_2)$	$2.60 \cdot 10^4$	[40]

3. Experimental apparatus

The schematic of the experimental setup is shown in Fig. 2.

The laser source is a DFB diode laser emitting around 2638 nm with an output power up to 12 mW. A thermoelectric cooler (TEC) and a current driver (CD) allow setting the laser temperature and providing current for the laser diode, respectively. The laser light is focused through an acoustic detection module (ADM) by means of a plano-convex Si lens, with a focal length of 75 mm. The ADM consists of a gas cell equipped with an inlet and an outlet window, allowing the gas mixture to flow through the airtight chamber containing a spectrophone, composed of a T-shaped QTF and in-plane acoustic resonator (AR) tubes [48]. The spectrophone has a resonance frequency $f_0 = 12,458.52 \text{ Hz}$ and quality factor $Q = 32,140$ at $P = 100 \text{ Torr}$ in a mixture containing pure N_2 . A voltage ramp and a sinusoidal dither are applied to the laser source to finely tune the laser emission wavelength and modulate the laser light at the half of the QTF fundamental resonance mode $f_0/2$, respectively. Both signals are provided by a TEKTRONIC AFG 31,000 waveform generator. The piezoelectric current was converted into an electrical signal by a transimpedance amplifier (TA) and the f_0 component was detected by a lock-in amplifier (2 f-Wavelength Modulation). A data acquisition card (National Instrument USB 6361) and a LabVIEW-based software are used to acquire the demodulated signal. The gas handling system is composed of an MCQ Instrument Gas Blender GB-100, used to manage the flow rate for three gas channels and produce the desired gas mixture. Pure N_2 was used as carrier gas. A Nafion humidifier (PermSelect PDMSXA) was placed downstream the gas mixer to humidify the samples (not shown in the figure), fixing the H_2O concentration for all measurements at 1 % of absolute humidity. Relative humidity and temperature within the gas line were measured by an IST AG HYT 271 sensor positioned near the ADM (not shown in the figure). An MKS type 649 pressure controller/flow meter, in combination with a needle valve and a pump allowed fixing the gas pressure and monitoring the flow rate inside the gas line. The gas flow rate was fixed at 50 sccm, with a 1 % of accuracy of the flow setpoint of each channel provided by the instrument datasheet.

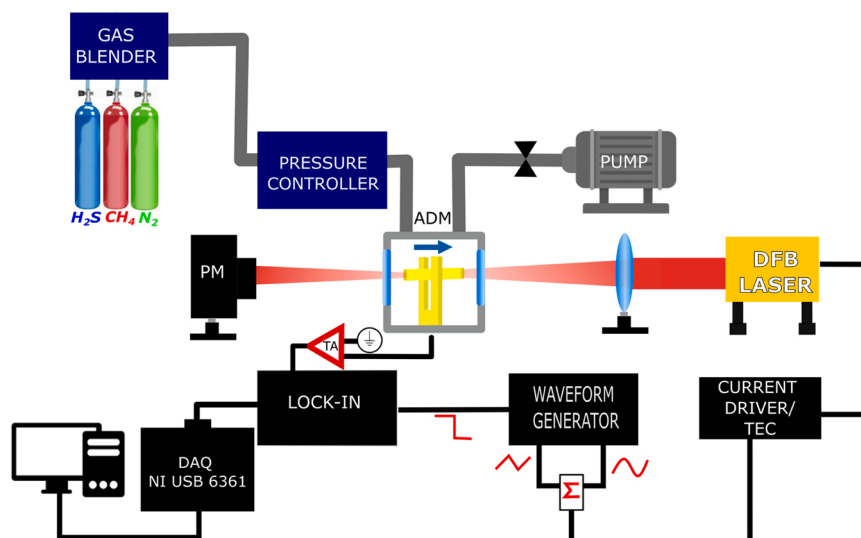


Fig. 2. Schematic of the experimental apparatus. ADM-acoustic detection module, DFB- distributed feedback laser, TEC-thermoelectric cooler, PM-power meter.

4. Sensor performance for H₂S and CH₄ detection

4.1. Preliminary characterization

By tuning the laser temperature, the Near-IR spectral region from 3788 cm⁻¹ to 3795 cm⁻¹ can be investigated. With the aim of pursuing a sequential detection of CH₄ and H₂S, the detection scheme requires the laser temperature to be set at T = 20 °C to excite the CH₄ absorption line located at 3791.67 cm⁻¹, with a line strength of 4.41·10⁻²⁶ cm/molecule for 1000 ppm of CH₄. Then, the laser temperature is set at T = 15 °C to target the H₂S absorption line at 3793.24 cm⁻¹ with a line strength of 1.47·10⁻²⁶ cm/molecule for 10 ppm of H₂S [49]. The optical power available for PA generation, in correspondence of both the absorption lines selected, was measured to be ~ 7 mW. QEPAS sensor response was also studied in terms of gas pressure and modulation amplitude and optimized for H₂S detection.

Fig. 3a reports the H₂S QEPAS peak signal as a function of the gas pressure for a gas target concentration of 150 ppm diluted in N₂. The pressure maximizing H₂S QEPAS signal was experimentally found to be 200 Torr. In Fig. 3b, a comparison between QEPAS spectra of a mixture composed of 150 ppm H₂S in N₂ acquired at 100 Torr and 200 Torr, respectively, with 100 ms integration time, are shown.

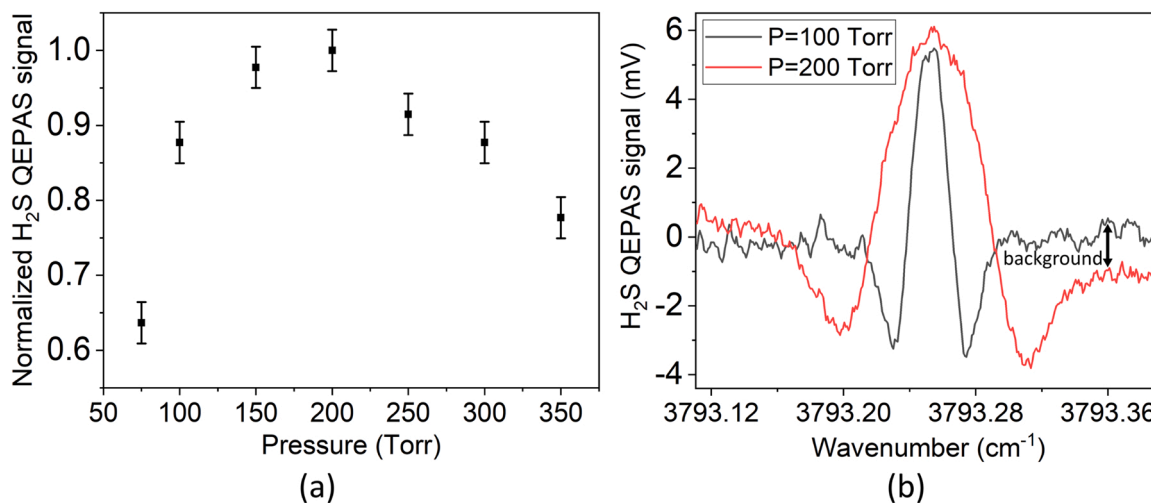


Fig. 3. a) Normalized H₂S QEPAS peak signal as a function of gas pressure. The data refer to a gas mixture of 150 ppm of H₂S in N₂. b) Spectra of 150 ppm of H₂S in N₂ recorded at 100 Torr and 200 Torr at 100 ms integration time. The non-zero background absorption at P = 200 Torr is marked by the black arrow.

It can be easily noted that at 200 Torr, a non-zero background absorption arises with respect to the noise level at 100 Torr. This is due to the interference of a nearby absorption line of H₂O. This effect is levelled off at P = 100 Torr, with only a ~ 10 % loss in the QEPAS signal. As a result, all measurements for both analytes were carried out at P = 100 Torr, with an optimum amplitude modulation of 20 mV. HITRAN database was used to simulate the absorption cross section of CH₄-based gas leak, containing H₂S, dispersed in air and analyzed at a pressure of 100 Torr. The simulated spectrum, shown in Fig. 4, is related to 1000 ppm of CH₄ and 10 ppm of H₂S, mixed with a standard air mixture containing typically 1.19 % H₂O, 20.90 % O₂, 77.87 % N₂ and traces of other gases [49].

The simulation clearly shows the spectral scenario to deal with: at 100 Torr, H₂S and CH₄ do not interfere each other and H₂O is the only absorber potentially interfering with the two target molecules. Once experimentally verified that, at the selected operating pressure, the pressure broadening of the H₂O line at 3792.6 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 4, upper panel) is small enough to not influence the H₂S signal background, the possible H₂O interference on CH₄ detection must now be excluded. Thereby, it was verified that almost all the nearby H₂O lines were under the sensitivity of our QEPAS sensor. The only detectable H₂O absorption feature at 3791.8 cm⁻¹ did not affect CH₄ line shape at the selected

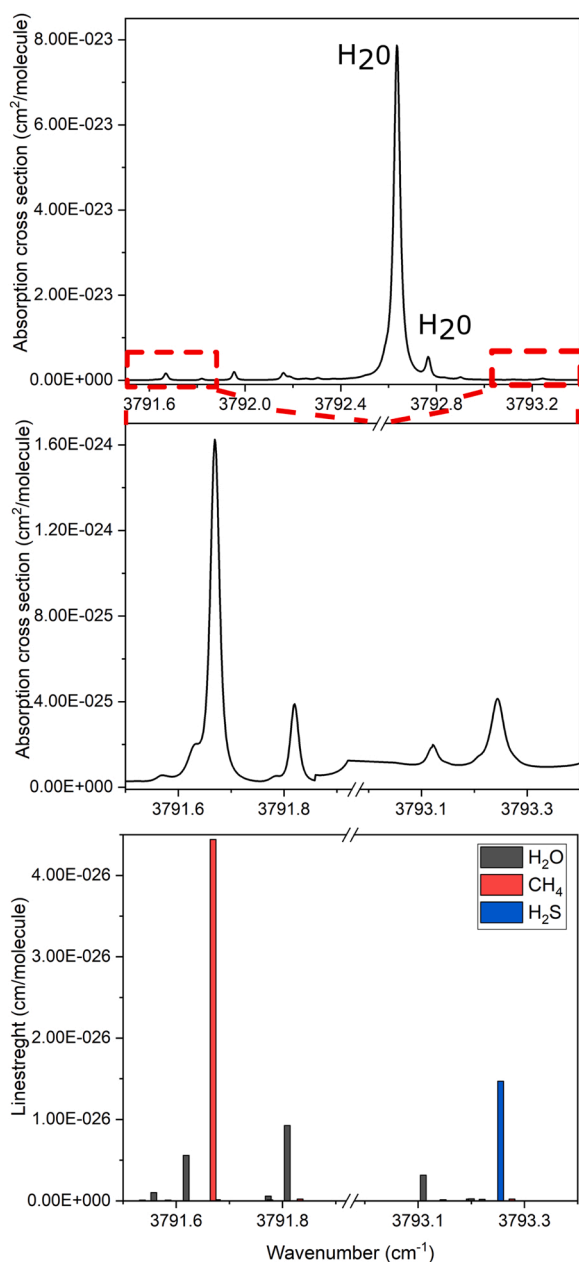


Fig. 4. Absorption cross section of a mixture of 10 ppm of H₂S, 1000 ppm of CH₄ and air (1.19 % H₂O, 20.90 % O₂, 77.87 % N₂ and traces of other gases) at P = 100 Torr and T = 296 K. Upper panel: simulation in the spectral region 3791.5–3793.4 cm⁻¹. Central panel: enlarged view around the selected H₂S and CH₄ absorption lines. Lower panel: stick spectrum of H₂O, H₂S and CH₄ analytes in the same ranges of the central panel.

working pressure.

Following these preliminary characterizations, the most appropriate integration time τ for sensor calibration was chosen. Based on a possible further development and engineering of this QEPAS prototype as H₂S in-situ and real-time leak detector, a trade-off must be found between fast-response time and high sensitivity. We experimentally verified that 2 s integration time and 4 s acquisition time allowed us to unambiguously detect H₂S QEPAS signal with respect to noise level in the few ppm scale, providing a signal to noise ratio (SNR) of ~ 4 for a 10 ppm H₂S concentration in N₂, as it will be demonstrated in the following section.

4.2. H₂S and CH₄ calibration in N₂

Firstly, the sensor calibration for H₂S and CH₄ detection was carried out in a concentration range typical of a CH₄-based leak containing H₂S, dispersed into the environment. CH₄ concentration was varied from 0.03 % to 1 % using a certified mixture of 1 % CH₄ in N₂ and N₂ as carrier gas. Similarly, we analyzed the QEPAS response for H₂S detection from 10 ppm to 250 ppm using a certified mixture of 250 ppm of H₂S in N₂. The calibration curves, consisting in the 2 f-QEPAS signal peak values acquired at different concentrations, with a 2 s integration time, are shown in Fig. 5. A linear trend was verified for both analytes with a linearity coefficient of 0.0368 mV/ppm and 0.0011 mV/ppm for H₂S and CH₄, respectively.

In order to investigate how the detection limits of the sensor improve as a function of the integration time, an Allan-Werle deviation analysis of H₂S QEPAS signal was performed [50]. A 2-hour long acquisition (0.1 s lock-in integration time and 0.3 s acquisition time) was carried out in N₂ at P = 100 Torr and at a laser current fixed far from gas absorption. The results are shown in Fig. 6: MDL is plotted as a function of integration time starting from 2 s integration time with MDL equal to 2.5 ppm. The NNEA for H₂S detection was found equal to 8.8×10^{-9} cm⁻¹W/Hz^{1/2}. H₂S detection limit can be further improved to the sub-ppm scale by increasing the integration time up to 30 s, but such sensitivity and response time levels are not functional for real time detection. By performing a similar analysis for CH₄, a MDL of 85 ppm was calculated for a 2 s integration time.

4.3. Influence of CH₄ on H₂S detection

The sensor performances for detection of both analytes in the same mixture were analyzed. In Fig. 7, the measured QEPAS signal for a N₂-based mixture of 1 % CH₄ and 125 ppm H₂S, obtained diluting a 10 % certified concentration, is compared to the QEPAS spectrum of the single analytes diluted in N₂.

It is evident that H₂S traces do not influence the CH₄ QEPAS signal neither in terms of interference effect nor as a V-T promoter. Conversely, a ~ 38 % reduction of the H₂S peak signal was observed when increasing the CH₄ concentration in the mixture from 0 % to 1 %. When a spectrophone is employed in a QEPAS sensor for gas detection, several factors can affect the detection of a given target molecule, such as H₂S in this case [51].

4.3.1. Influence of gas density on QTF resonance properties

QTF quality factor was measured by electrically exciting the QTF around the expected resonance frequency. By performing a Lorentzian fit, the QTF quality factor measured for a mixture composed of 1 % CH₄ and 125 ppm H₂S in N₂ was found equal to 32,933, differing by less than ~ 3 % with respect to the Q measured with no CH₄ in the mixture (32,140). This difference is also lower than the uncertainty on Q-factor value calculated from the fitting errors. Thereby this effect can be also neglected. These variations in the matrix composition didn't affect the resonance frequency as well, shifting from 12,458.54 Hz to 12,458.52 Hz. The experimental results were also compared to theoretical calculations. The Q-factor related to fluid damping can be derived by the model developed by Hosaka et al. which is an approximation for vibrating rectangular prongs oscillating in a viscous gas matrix [52]. The applicability of this model to QTFs vibrating at the fundamental and overtone mode was experimentally demonstrated [53,54]. In addition, the model was validated for T-shaped QTFs, like the one employed in this work [55]. Based on this model, the damping contribute to the overall quality factor can be theoretically evaluated as follows:

$$Q_{\text{gas}} = \frac{4\rho T w^2 f_0}{3\mu_{\text{gas}} w + \frac{3}{4}w^2 \sqrt{4\pi\rho_{\text{gas}} \mu_{\text{gas}} f_0}} \quad (3)$$

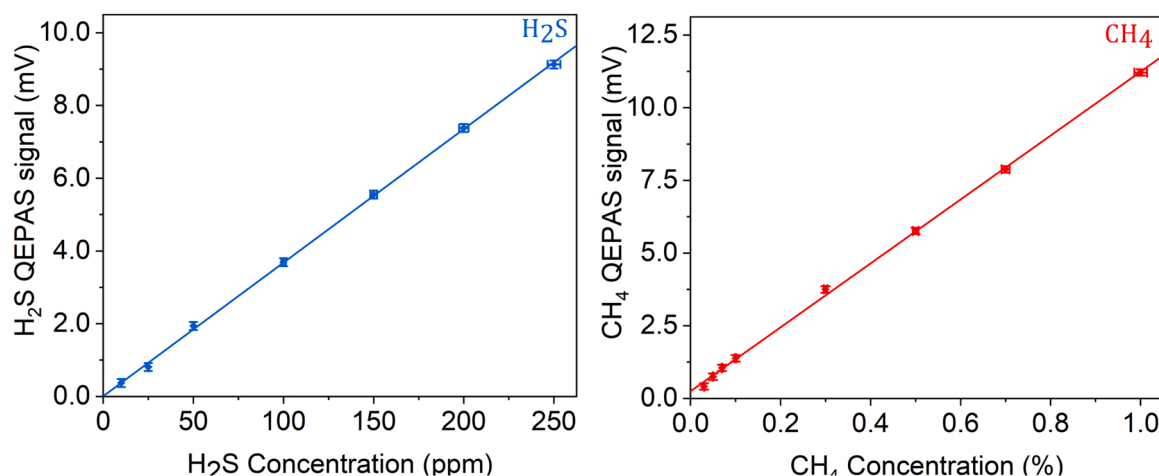


Fig. 5. QEPAS peak signal versus CH₄ (left panel) and H₂S (right panel) concentration acquired at 2 s integration time and P = 100 Torr. The solid lines represent the best linear fits.

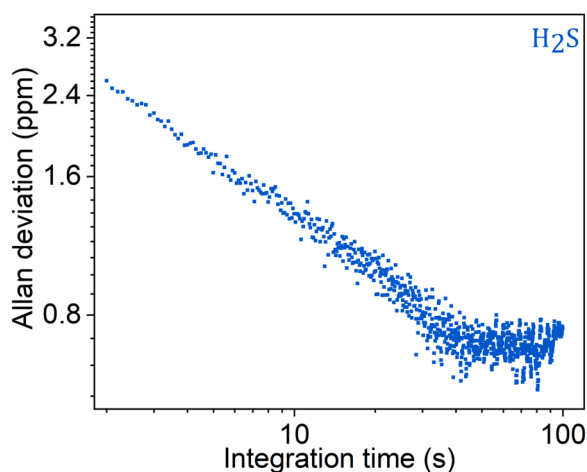


Fig. 6. Allan deviation of H₂S QEPAS signal as a function of integration time. At 2 s integration time, the calculated MDL is 2.5 ppm.

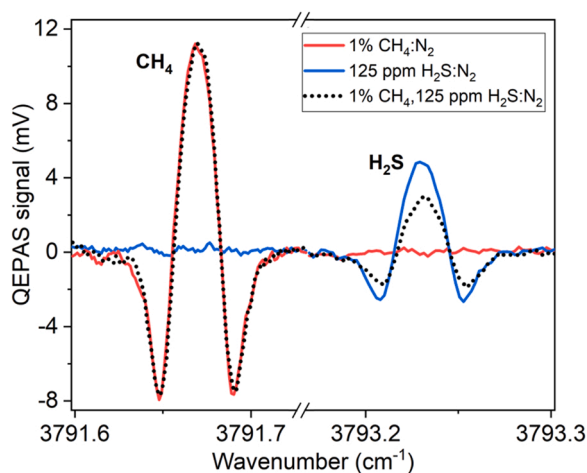


Fig. 7. 2 f CH₄ and H₂S QEPAS spectra measured for three mixtures: 1 % CH₄ in N₂, 125 ppm H₂S in N₂ and 1 % CH₄ and 125 ppm H₂S in N₂.

where $f_0 = 12458.52\text{Hz}$ is the QTF resonance frequency, $w = 0.25\text{mm}$ is the crystal width, $T = 1.4\text{mm}$ is the prong thickness and $\rho = 2650\text{kg/m}^3$ is the quartz density. $\rho_{\text{gas}} = M_{\text{gas}} P/RT$ and μ_{gas} are the gas density and the dynamic viscosity of the mixture, respectively. Both M_{gas} and μ_{gas} are calculated as a sum of each gas species molar mass and viscosity, respectively, weighted by their concentration. By using Eq. (3) it can be evaluated that a Q_{gas} variation larger than 3 % is obtained for CH₄ concentrations higher than 8 %, which is well above the typical concentration range for leaks detection.

4.3.2. Influence of sound speed on AR tubes' signal enhancement

Gas mixture composition could modify the speed of sound, causing a detuning between acoustic resonance of the resonator tubes and that of the QTF. Indeed, the effective tube length for the fundamental resonance mode of resonator tubes depends upon the sound velocity v_s according to [56]:

$$l = \frac{v_s}{2f_0} - \frac{16d}{3\pi} \quad (4)$$

where f_0 is the QTF fundamental resonance frequency and d is the internal tubes diameter (1.59 mm). Evaluating v_s through the ideal gas sound velocity [31] a negligible variation of $\sim 26\ \mu\text{m}$ in the optimum tube length was calculated when increasing the CH₄ concentration in the mixture from 0 % to 1 %. Significant decreases in the QEPAS peak signal has been observed only for tube length variations larger than 1 mm with respect to the optimal tube length [48]. Thereby also in this case the effect on the QEPAS signal is negligible.

4.3.3. CH₄ influence on H₂S relaxation dynamics

It remains one last effect to investigate, i.e., the V-V energy transfer (see Fig. 1) from H₂S to CH₄ molecules, which can negatively affect the H₂S photoacoustic generation due to a retarded energy relaxation. We extended the CH₄ concentration range up to 5 %, to investigate the influence of the matrix effect on H₂S relaxation. Based on the previous calculations, the acoustic QTF response was considered flat for all the investigated mixtures. This was also confirmed experimentally. The QEPAS peak signals measured for 50 ppm (red dots), 100 ppm (blue dots) and 125 ppm (black dots) H₂S concentrations are plotted as a function of CH₄ concentration in Fig. 8a. H₂S signal was experimentally found to be not affected by CH₄ contamination in the carrier gas up to 0.1 % concentration. This is clear from the inset of Fig. 8a, where the fluctuation of the H₂S peak signal mean value over 4 acquisitions, observed in the range 0.03–0.01 %, fall within the 1- σ noise error bars calculated for each CH₄ concentration (0.1 mV). This is also confirmed

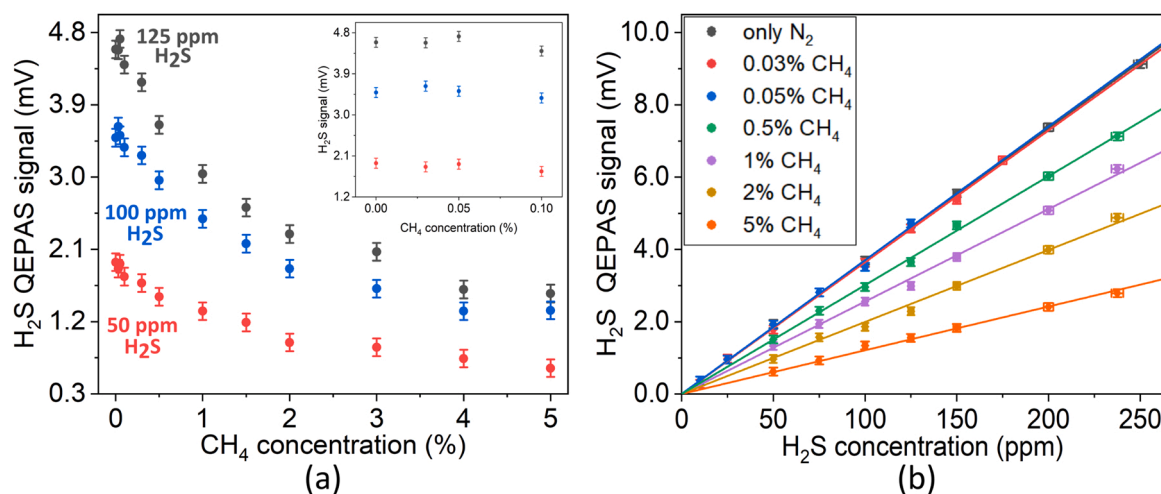


Fig. 8. (a) H₂S QEPAS signal as a function of CH₄ concentration. The data refer to H₂S concentrations of 50 ppm (red dots), 100 ppm (blue dots) and 125 ppm (black dots). The inset shows an enlarged view in the 0.03–0.1 % range of CH₄ concentration (b) H₂S calibration in mixtures containing both CH₄ and N₂. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

by comparing in Fig. 7b the nearly perfect overlap between the H₂S calibration curves obtained in N₂ with those measured for mixtures containing CH₄ concentrations of 300 ppm and 500 ppm. The linear fit coefficients, their uncertainty and the calculated MDLs are reported in Table 2. Thereby, the obtained results demonstrate that the presence of CH₄ molecules up to per thousand range in the N₂-based matrix do not significantly modify the H₂S V-T relaxation rate, which thus occurs primarily through collisions with gas components at tens of per cents concentration, namely N₂.

As CH₄ concentration increases above the per thousand scale, H₂S QEPAS signal drops down reaching a plateau for concentrations > 4 %, corresponding to a peak value reduction of ~ 70 %. Exponential decrease of PAS signal cannot be explained by simply assuming V-T relaxation but are clear evidence of the presence of V-V processes resulting in energy transfer to slower relaxation channels [42,57,58]. Based on the discussion presented in the first section, a V-V exchange from H₂S* (ν₂) to CH₄ is likely to happen due to their similar energy. If CH₄ concentration is sufficiently high, the rate associated with this process given by $C_{\text{CH}_4} P_{\text{V}}^{\text{H}_2\text{S}-\text{CH}_4}$, becomes comparable to the rate characterizing the V-T process $k_{\text{VT}}^{\text{H}_2\text{S}}$ (see Eq. (1)). However, the vibrational energy transferred to CH₄ molecules is not efficiently converted into translational energy, and thus available for photoacoustic generation, due to CH₄ slow relaxation times with respect to water-like molecules, such as H₂S. The observed plateau corresponds to a saturation of the number of collisions occurring between H₂S and CH₄.

In principle, a phase shift should be directly related to the above-mentioned V-T, V-V processes. [42,57,58]. Nevertheless, the relatively low operating pressure of 100 Torr used for all the measurements didn't allow an unambiguous interpretation of the phase data. In fact, the phase shift in the photoacoustic signal can be calculated as $\Phi(\tau) = \arctan(2\pi f\tau)$, where f is the modulation frequency and τ is the non-radiative relaxation time. Provided that $\tau^{-1} = \sum_i C_i k_i$ [42], the capability of the system in recognizing phase shifts due to variations in concentration of the collisional partners strongly decreases at lower pressures, where the slope of the $\Phi(\tau)$ function is lower as well.

From this investigation, it follows that the H₂S calibration curve

must be necessarily adapted to the CH₄ concentration to properly interpret the QEPAS signals and accurately retrieve the H₂S concentration, when the CH₄ component in the gas matrix exceeds 1000 ppm.

Thereby, several calibration curves have been extracted for different CH₄ concentration, up to 5 % and the obtained results are reported in Fig. 8b and Table 2. An H₂S sensor MDL lower than 4 ppm was calculated for CH₄ concentration up to 1 % and worsens to ~ 8 ppm for 5 % CH₄ concentration, where CH₄ quenching effect is saturated. It is worth to notice that the obtained detection limits at 2 s integration time are below the OHSAs' long exposure limit.

The applicability of H₂S/CH₄ detection in a standard air matrix was also investigated. With this purpose, we acquired QEPAS spectra for mixtures obtained by replacing N₂ with standard air (20 % O₂, 1 % H₂O and 79 % N₂) as carrier gas. Fig. 9 shows a comparison between the spectra obtained for a mixture of 1000 ppm of CH₄ and 50 ppm of H₂S diluted in N₂ and in standard air, respectively. A 30 % reduction of the

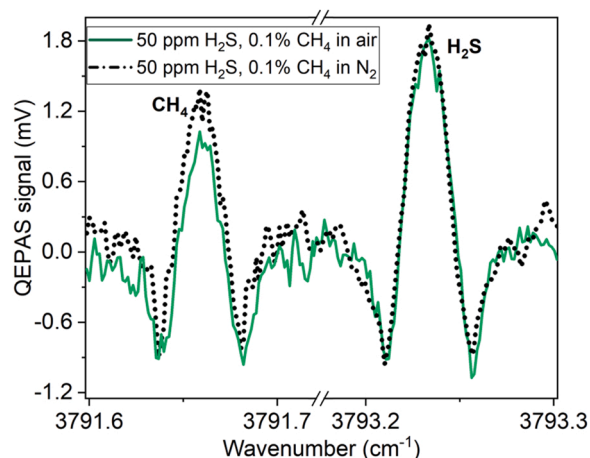


Fig. 9. 2f CH₄ and H₂S QEPAS spectra measured for two mixtures: 50 ppm H₂S, 0.1 % CH₄ and N₂, 50 ppm H₂S, 0.1 % CH₄ and air.

Table 2

Slopes and MDL of H₂S calibrations obtained by using mixtures of N₂ and CH₄ as carrier gas.

	Only N ₂	0.03 % CH ₄	0.05 % CH ₄	0.5 % CH ₄	1 % CH ₄	2 % CH ₄	5 % CH ₄
Slope (mV/ppm)	0.0368 ± 0.0001	0.0365 ± 0.0003	0.0370 ± 0.0005	0.0301 ± 0.0002	0.0256 ± 0.0003	0.0199 ± 0.0003	0.0121 ± 0.0002
MDL (ppm)	2.5	2.5	2.5	3	3.7	4.7	7.8

CH₄ QEPAS signal was observed. This experimental evidence, together with the resonance properties of the resonator remaining unchanged also in standard air, points in the direction of a V-V exchange occurring between excited CH₄ and O₂ molecules, as explained in the first section. The energy transferred to O₂ is thus expected to be substantially lost due to the slow V-T relaxation time (0.63 ms) compared to one period of laser modulation (0.08 ms) resulting in a lower CH₄ signal. Consequently, CH₄ signal interpretation should take into account the presence of O₂ and of the fluctuations in H₂O concentration [58]. On the contrary, H₂S peak remained unaffected by the matrix variation, showing that no efficient V-T or V-V exchange can occur with O₂ molecules, neither with H₂O. Thus, the calibrations obtained for H₂S detection in a matrix containing CH₄ up to per thousands, H₂O (~ 1 %) and N₂ are still valid when the gas matrix is represented by standard air, since O₂ at the ~ 20 % level does not affect the photoacoustic generation.

5. Conclusions

We presented a Near-IR-QEPAS sensor capable of a fast-response sensing of H₂S trace-gas, within a matrix containing N₂ and CH₄ up to few percent. Spectral window of operation and detection parameters, such as gas sample pressure and modulation amplitude, were identified in order to avoid spectral interference among H₂O, CH₄ and H₂S absorption lines. The high selectivity provided by the sensing system allowed us to focus on the analysis of H₂S photoacoustic detection nonlinearities arising from the interaction with the gas matrix. Firstly, the complete scheme of the energy levels involved was evaluated to qualitatively identify the possible pattern of V-T and V-V energy transfers. Then, a systematic characterization of the H₂S signal cross-correlations with other components was carried out. Indeed, we demonstrated that V-V energy transfer from H₂S to CH₄ for CH₄ concentrations larger than 1000 ppm degrades H₂S QEPAS signal. Nonetheless, we demonstrated that the sensor detection limit for H₂S detection at 2 s integration time was well below the OSHA's long exposure limit (20 ppm) in all the investigated gas matrices. MDL was calculated as low as 4 ppm for CH₄ concentration ≤ 1 % in the matrix, which can be assumed as a reasonable reference concentration representing relatively small natural gas leaks dispersed into environment. We validated the sensor for H₂S detection in a standard air-based matrix, demonstrating the sensor potentiality for on-field and real-time measurements deployment.

As a future development of this experimental investigation, the presented measurements can be repeated at higher pressures to obtain a more reliable evaluation of the QEPAS signal phase shifts and pursue a complete characterization of H₂S relaxation processes. This type of measurements should require the employment of higher H₂S concentrations to increase QEPAS SNR and compensate both for background absorption interference arising from the broadening of CH₄ and H₂O features, and for Q-factor deterioration.

In addition, our sensor performance, together with the commercial availability of Near-IR sources, demonstrate its applicability for realizing portable safety sensors detecting CH₄ and H₂S emissions from natural gas reservoirs or in industrial areas. For this future development, a line-locking configuration will be implemented, rather than full spectral scan acquisitions: H₂S peak signal would be continuously monitored and, when a non-zero signal indicating a leak arises, the system would send alerts and sequentially look for CH₄ concentration to i) compensate the H₂S signal and accurately retrieve its concentration, if needed, ii) evaluate the fire/explosion potential due to the leak. In addition, a future development will be engineering this QEPAS prototype in an explosion proof sensor deployable for in situ leak detection.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: Angelo Sampaolo reports equipment, drugs, or supplies and travel were

provided by Polytechnic University of Bari.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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