

1 **A Portable Nitrogen Dioxide Instrument Using Cavity-Enhanced Absorption**
2 **Spectroscopy**

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11 **Abstract**

12 The Portable (2.7 kg) Cavity-enhanced Absorption of Nitrogen Dioxide (PCAND) instrument for
13 measuring *in situ* nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) was developed using incoherent, broadband cavity-
14 enhanced absorption spectroscopy (IBBCEAS). An LED light source centered at 408 nm was
15 coupled to a cavity 15 cm in length, achieving an effective optical pathlength of ~520 m. Precision
16 was measured as 94 pptv (1 s). To date, we have flown this instrument on 3 balloon test flights.
17 This instrument records data to an SD card and outputs data (via an RS232 port) to external
18 devices including a commercial radiosonde (iMet) for real-time data downlink.

Deleted: Our precision was measured as 94 pptv (1 s).

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19 **1 Introduction**

20 Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is a major contributor to air pollution in the Earth's troposphere. Its main
21 source is a byproduct of combustion from the burning of fossil fuels (Spinei, E. *et al.* 2014). NO₂
22 has been monitored from satellite instruments (like OMI, TROPOMI, and GEMS) for a decade
23 (Miyazaki, K. *et al.* 2017, Duncan, B. *et al.* 2015, Martin, R.V. *et al.* 2003, Cooper, M.J. *et al.* 2020),
24 providing a global understanding of emissions and air quality. However, satellite retrievals of the
25 total column NO₂ rely on estimates of the vertical distribution of NO₂ based on models or
26 climatology (Cersosimo, A. *et al.* 2020). These *a priori* estimates are a major source of uncertainty

29 in making retrievals of NO₂ columns from satellite measurements (Cooper, M.J. *et al.* 2020, Dang,
30 R. *et al.* 2023).

31
32 Direct measurement of the vertical profile can verify and improve these *a priori* estimates.
33 Aircraft instruments cannot typically make a continuous vertical profile of the atmospheric
34 column. Therefore, an instrument with adequate precision that is small enough to fly on a balloon
35 is needed. Typical concentrations of NO₂ range from a part per billion by volume (ppbv) in clean
36 environments to several 10's of ppbv in polluted environments. A typical balloon ascent rate is
37 5 m/s, so a time response on the order of 10 s would give a 50 m resolution. An instrument
38 sensitivity of less than a ppbv in 1 s integration is adequate to resolve the vertical distribution of
39 NO₂ in a clean environment.

40 Existing compact sensors do not meet our requirements. Electrochemical sensors are widely used
41 in low-cost sensor networks. These sensors meet the size and weight requirements to fly on a
42 balloon, but they do not have the precision and accuracy needed for determining the vertical
43 profile of NO₂. In addition, these electrochemical sensors do not have fast time response and
44 not well-suited to changing environments. Kim, H., Müller, M., Henne, S., and Hüglin, C.: Long-
45 term behavior and stability of calibration models for NO and NO₂ low-cost sensors, Atmos. Meas.
46 Tech., 15, 2979–2992, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-15-2979-2022>, 2022. Previously, a small NO₂
47 instrument was developed by the Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (Dutch: Koninklijk
48 Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut, KNMI) (Sluis, et al., 2010). That instrument uses
49 chemiluminescence in a liquid solution to measure NO₂, with a reported precision of 7.7
50 ppbv/sec. Although this chemiluminescence instrument fits our size and weight criteria, it
51 requires a lengthy calibration procedure before every flight and it does not have adequate
52 sensitivity for our purposes.

53 Techniques for measuring in situ NO₂ with high precision in the atmosphere include Laser Induced
54 Fluorescence (LIF) (Thornton, J.A. *et al.* 2000, optical absorption methods, like IBBCEAS (Womack,
55 C.C. *et al.* 2022, Min K.E. *et al.* 2016), and chemical techniques, like chemiluminescence (Ryerson,
56 T.B. *et al.* 2000). Although all these techniques have their pros and cons for use, we chose to
57 focus on optical, absorption methods for several reasons. First, we have successful experience

58 using IBBCEAS in a previous ozone (O₃) based instrument (Hannun, *et al.*, 2020). Second, stability
59 and ease of calibration are desirable, which we found to be the case with the O₃ instrument.
60 Third, the technique can be scaled to a small enough size and weight to fly (via balloon) into the
61 free troposphere. An instrument using LIF to measure NO₂ would (in our experience) not be
62 suitable for our purposes. Its size and weight would be too great to work with a small weather
63 balloon, despite LIF having greater sensitivity than IBBCEAS.

64
65 A description of PCAND follows. Performance metrics will show PCAND meets the Federal
66 Aviation Administrations (FAA) uncontrolled, maximum allowable weight (~2.7 kg) for a balloon
67 payload. In addition, PCAND sensitivity to NO₂ exceeds that from the KNMI sonde by more than
68 an order of magnitude. A description of the PCAND calibration procedure is detailed showing its
69 simplicity. An atmospheric vertical profile measurement from one of our balloon flights is shown.
70 Finally, a ground-based validation of PCAND with another established NO₂ instrument is made.

71 **2 Principle of operation**

72 IBBCEAS is an established technique for the detection of trace gases (Fiedler *et al.*, 2003; Ball *et*
73 *al.*, 2004; Washenfelder *et al.*, 2008) including NO₂ (Min *et al.*, 2016). PCAND uses an LED as the
74 incoherent, broadband light source centered at 408 nm. This is coupled to an optical cavity with
75 highly reflective mirrors on either end. IBBCEAS leverages the mirror reflectivity to turn a
76 physically short path length (15 cm) of the cavity into an effective optical pathlength of ~520 m.
77 This effective pathlength increases the probability of NO₂ absorption in the cavity, thereby
78 increasing the sensitivity (94 pptv @ 1 s) of the instrument.

79
80 Shown in Fig. 1, output from an LED is collimated into the gas sample cell (cavity) where it first
81 passes through the leftmost mirror. Both mirrors have highly reflective coatings (99.97%) on
82 curved surfaces (r=250 mm) facing towards each other. Only a small fraction of light enters the
83 cell, but the light (photons) bounces back and forth between both mirrors thousands of times on
84 average before exiting the rightmost mirror. Photons that exit are then detected by a silicon
85 photomultiplier (SiPM). A transconductance amplifier is then used to convert small amounts of

Deleted: Direct measurement of the vertical profile can verify and improve these *a priori* estimates. Aircraft instruments cannot typically make a continuous vertical profile of the atmospheric column. Therefore, an instrument small enough to fly on a balloon (or drone) is needed. Techniques for measuring in situ NO₂ include Laser Induced Fluorescence (LIF)(Thornton, J.A. *et al.* 2000), various-optical, absorption methods (like IBBCEAS)(Womack, C.C. *et al.* 2022, Min K.E. *et al.* 2016), and chemical techniques (like chemiluminescence)(Ryerson, T.B. *et al.* 2000). Although all these techniques have their pros and cons for use, we chose to focus on optical, absorption methods for several reasons. First, we have successful experience using IBBCEAS in a previous, ozone (O₃) based instrument (Hannun, *et al.*, 2020). Second, stability and ease of calibration are desirable, which we found to be the case with the O₃ instrument. Third, the technique can be scaled to a small enough size and weight to fly (via balloon or drone) into the free troposphere. An instrument using LIF to measure NO₂ would (in our experience) not be suitable for our purposes. Its size and weight would be too great to work with a small weather balloon, despite LIF having greater sensitivity than IBBCEAS. Previously, a small NO₂ instrument was developed by the Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (Dutch: Koninklijk Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut, KNMI) (Sluis, *et al.*, 2010). That instrument uses chemiluminescence to measure NO₂, with a reported precision of 7.7 ppbv/sec. Although chemiluminescence instruments fit our size and weight criteria, they suffer from a lengthy calibration procedure before every flight. Additionally, an instrument using chemiluminescence does not have the desired sensitivity we require. ¶

Deleted: A description of our instrument using IBBCEAS follows. Performance metrics will show our instrument meets the Federal Aviation Administrations (FAA) uncontrolled, maximum allowable weight (~2.7 kg) for a balloon payload. In addition, we record sensitivity to NO₂ that exceeds the KNMI sonde by more than an order of magnitude. A description of our calibration procedure is detailed showing its simplicity. Finally, we demonstrate an atmospheric vertical profile measurement from one of our balloon flights. We also validate our instrument via a ground-based comparison with another established NO₂ instrument. ¶

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134 current from the SiPM into measurable voltage levels. A micro controller with a 12-bit analog to
 135 digital convertor digitizes this voltage. The micro controller is both a data acquisition system and
 136 a controller of the LED and 3-way valve. A digital lock-in scheme is used to remove background
 137 light by modulating the LED at 100 Hz with a large duty cycle (70%).

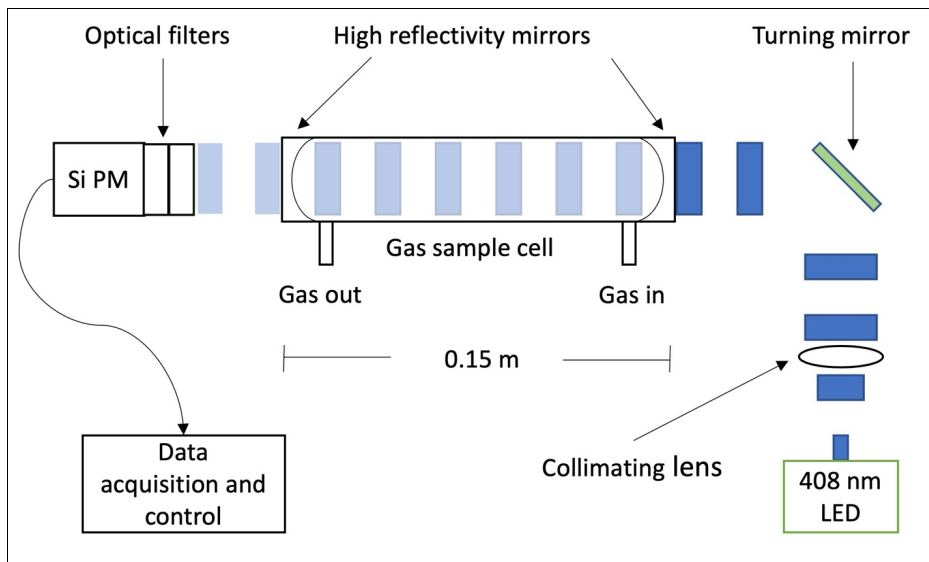


Figure 1. Incoherent broadband cavity enhanced detection technique for NO₂. An LED at 408 nm is collimated and coupled into the detection cell via high reflectivity mirrors ($R = 99.97\%$), creating a long optical pathlength. The light attenuated by the sample is then detected using a silicon photomultiplier (SiPM).

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138
 139 Trace gas absorption (using IBBCEAS) is a measurement of light attenuation. As light is absorbed
 140 and scattered (via Rayleigh), an attenuation of light is seen at the SiPM. The Beer-Lambert
 141 absorption coefficient, α_{abs} , is directly related to the light intensity exiting the cavity
 142 (Washenfelder *et al.*, 2008; Hannun *et al.*, 2020) through the equations:

143

$$144 \quad \alpha_{abs} = \left(\frac{I_0 - I}{I}\right) \left(\frac{1 - R}{d} + \alpha_{Ray}\right) \quad (1)$$

147
$$\alpha_{cav} = \left(\frac{1-R}{d}\right) \quad (2)$$

148
$$L_{eff} = \left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{cav}}\right) \quad (3)$$

149
 150 Here I_0 is the intensity of light in the absence of any absorbing molecules, I is the intensity of
 151 light including absorbing molecules, R is the mirror reflectivity, d is the physical distance between
 152 cavity mirrors, and α_{Ray} is the extinction due to Rayleigh scatter. The term $(1 - R)/d$ is the
 153 theoretical cavity loss, α_{cav} . L_{eff} represents the maximum effective pathlength. In the case of
 154 mirrors with $R = 99.97\%$, the maximum theoretical L_{eff} for our 15 cm cell would be 450 m.

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155 **3 Instrument description**

156 PCAND is housed in a small aluminum box measuring 38 cm length x 22 cm width x 7 cm height
 157 with a total weight of 2.7 kg. Inside the box (Fig. 2) is an optical plate where all the instrument
 158 components are mounted. Power comes from an 11.1 volt Lithium Ion rechargeable battery with
 159 2200 mAh (24 Wh) of storage. Table 1 summarizes the PCAND design and performance
 160 characteristics.

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162 Table 1. Summary of PCAND performance capabilities

Specification	Value
Size	38 x 22 x 7 cm
Weight	2.7 kg
Power	< 6 W
Data rate	1 Hz
Precision (1σ , 1Hz)	2.3×10^9 molec. cm^{-3}
Accuracy	6.0%
Time response	3 s

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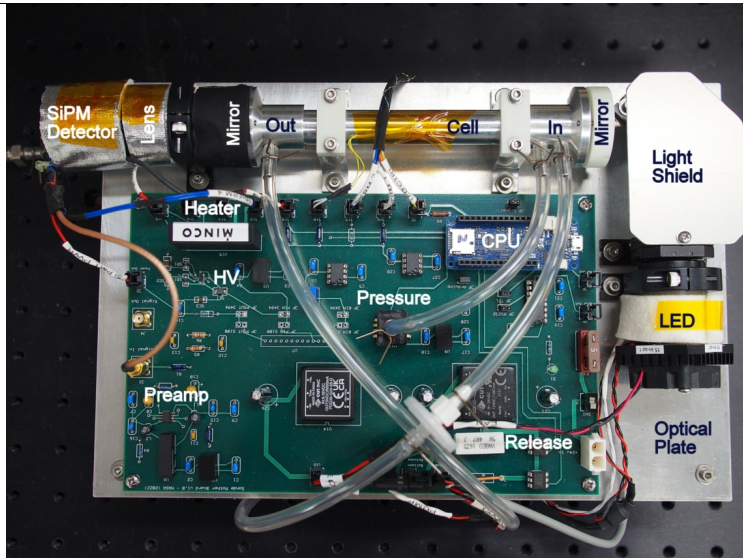


Figure 2. A top view of the NO₂ instrument. Major components include A) the optical plate, which consists of the LED assembly, light shield, turning mirror (under light shield), the optical cell, end mirrors, collimating lens, and SiPM detector; B) The electronics motherboard with detector preamp, heater controller, pressure sensor, balloon release circuit, and the data acquisition system (CPU). Not shown is the nafion tubing used to dry the air before entering the instrument.

166

167 3.1 Optical components

168 3.1.1 LED assembly

169 A UV LED ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 408 \text{ nm}$, FWHM = 30 nm) (Thorlabs M310D1) is mounted to a custom heat sink
 170 and temperature controlled to 25 °C with a thermo-electric cooler controller (Thorlabs
 171 MTD415T). Constant current to the LED is supplied by a low noise controller (Thorlabs
 172 MLD203CLN). The LED assembly includes a 15 mm focal length collimating lens (Thorlabs LA1074-
 173 A) followed by a turning mirror (Thorlabs PF10-03-F01) to direct light into the sample cell.

174

175 3.1.2 Sample cell

176 The sample cell is manufactured from an aluminum alloy tube measuring 15 cm in length with a
177 1.4 cm inner diameter. The cell mirrors (Layertec 103654) have a reflectivity of $R = 99.97\%$ over
178 the detected spectral range (Fig. 3) and a 250 mm radius of curvature. Mirrors are held to the cell
179 ends with bezel mounts on flanges with face seal o-ring glands. Although the mounts themselves
180 are non-adjustable, they are fabricated to hold the mirrors in a way that maximizes their
181 centricity to the cell ends. Furthermore, the incoherent light source negates the need for rigid
182 mirror alignment. A pressure transducer (Honeywell ASDXACX015PAAA5) measures the cell
183 pressure from a port near the cell inlet.

184

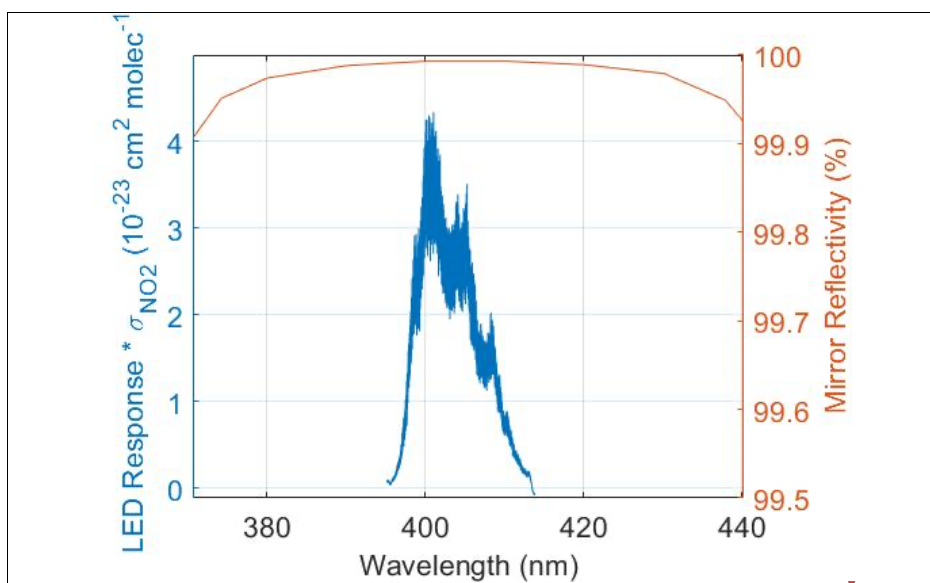


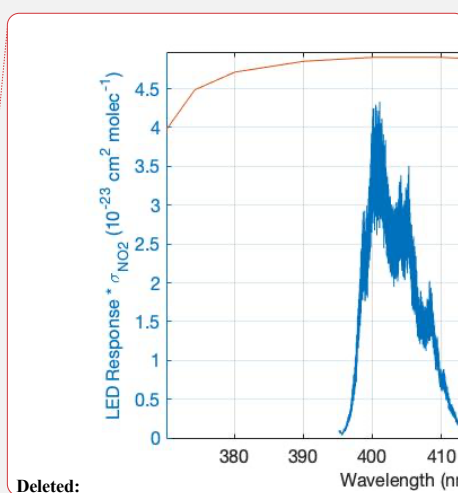
Figure 3. Normalized LED spectral response x NO₂ cross-section vs mirror reflectivity (99.97% @ 408 nm). The LED ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 408 \text{ nm}$, FWHM = 30 nm) response was measured using a grating spectrometer with the instrument SiPM and associated detector optics. The absorption cross-

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section of NO₂ (for this instrument) is the integration of the above product (with a resolution of 0.0005 nm) which yields 6.0419 x 10⁻¹⁹ cm² /molecule.

189

190 3.1.3 SiPM assembly

191 Following exit from the sample cell, light enters an optical bandpass filter (Semrock FF01-405/10-
192 25), then a lens (Thorlabs LA1252-A) focuses the beam onto a Silicon Photo Multiplier (SiPM -
193 Onsemi 30035) detector. The detector is biased by ~29 volts DC via a LT3494A boost converter.
194 This voltage sets the gain of this device. Signal from the SiPM is amplified through a
195 transimpedance amplifier based on a low noise, ADA4625-2 op-amp. The SiPM assembly is
196 thermally stabilized by heating it to a 35 °C setpoint using a Minco CT335 heater controller. The
197 temperature of the SiPM is monitored with a 10K thermistor mounted adjacent to the heater.
198 Temperature of the detector is held to within 0.1 °C of the setpoint using the Minco controller.

199 3.2 Flow system

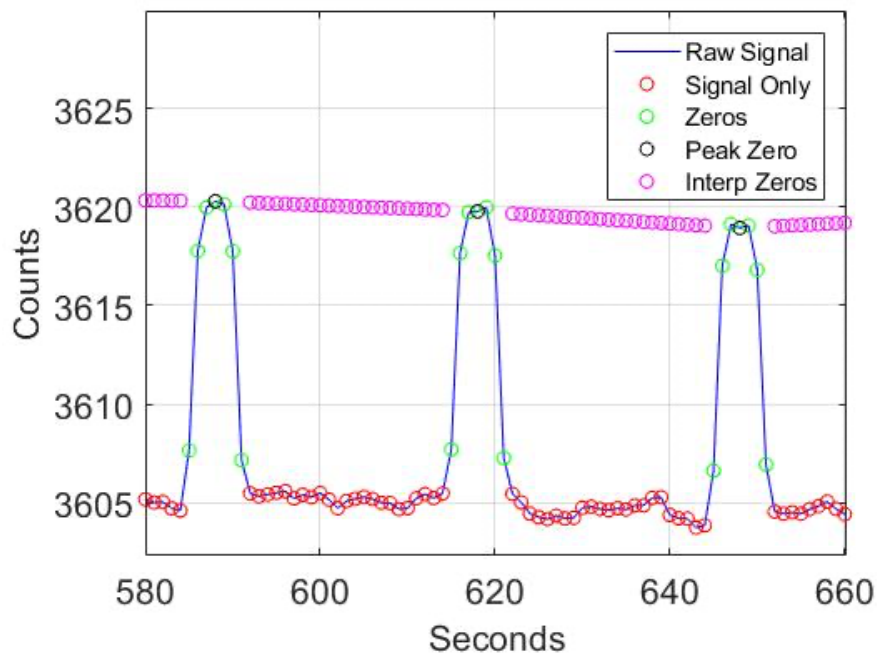
200 The PCAND instrument uses a small, 12 volt diaphragm pump (Parker E134-11-120) to achieve a
201 1.4 standard liters per minute (SLM) flow rate. Flush time is approximately 3 seconds as evident
202 from Fig. 4. A 3-way valve (ASCO 411L3212HV) is used to switch the flow between sample air and
203 scrubbed air (via an inline charcoal filter). The charcoal filter removes any NO₂ from the flow and
204 gives us our I_0 (reference) measurement every 30 seconds for 5 seconds, leaving sample air
205 measurements 50 seconds out of every minute.

206

207

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Figure 4. Cadence used to make real-time measurements of I_z (signal with no absorbers) vs I (signal with absorbers) is 7 seconds for I_z and 23 seconds for I . We found this was a good cadence allowing 3 seconds to achieve peak I_z and 3 seconds to return to I . A charcoal filter is switched into the airflow to achieve the I_z measurement.

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211
 212 We expect a small interference from water vapor. H₂O vapor has a cross-section of 3×10^{-27}
 213 $\text{cm}^2/\text{molecule}$ at 405 nm (Lampel *et al.*, 2015; 2017). An atmospheric abundance of H₂O = 1%
 214 contributes the same absorption as 50 pptv of NO₂. In addition, we notice stronger attenuation
 215 that is not consistent with gas phase absorption like that reported in ozone instruments using
 216 UV absorption (Wilson *et al.*, 2006). In principle the presence of water vapor should not affect
 217 the measurement if the abundance is constant between the sample and the scrubbed air.

226 However, the scrubber material (activated charcoal) can add or remove water vapor to the
227 sampled air depending on the prior humidity. Because of this interference, water vapor is
228 removed using two 30 cm lengths of 0.3 cm diameter Nafion Dewline tubing held in an
229 enclosure with Drierite. The dry air sample eliminates any contribution of water vapor in the
230 measurement.

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231
232 PCAND uses fluorinated ethylene propylene (FEP) lined thermoplastic tubing for all internal
233 plumbing and nylon fittings are used for connections. A 2-micron teflon membrane filter is
234 positioned immediately before the cell inlet to keep small particles from entering the cell and
235 potentially dirtying the mirrors. The loss of NO₂ on the surfaces of the tubing, valve, filter, Nafion,
236 and cell was measured to be less than 0.1 ppb.

237 3.3 Data acquisition

238 PCAND uses an Arduino MKR Zero microcontroller for 3-way valve control, LED modulation, and
239 data acquisition. Arduino actuation of the valve is made through a CoolCube R valve controller,
240 which reduces the holding current needed to keep the valve in its open state. LED modulation is
241 produced by the Arduino through the LED controller at a 100 Hz rate. This modulation has a 70%
242 duty cycle used to achieve a digital lock-in to remove any background light from the absorption
243 measurement. We oversample the absorption signal 42k samples / second to increase the native
244 Arduino internal 12-bit measurement to an effective (averaged over a second) ~21-bit
245 measurement. Data is recorded both to an SD card and sent to an RS-232 port. The latter is useful
246 for both instrument testing and for connecting to an external iMet radiosonde where the data is
247 merged for RF data downlink by the radiosonde.

Deleted: PCAND uses fluorinated ethylene propylene (FEP) lined thermoplastic tubing for all internal plumbing. A 2-micron teflon membrane filter is positioned immediately before the cell inlet to keep small particles from entering the cell and potentially dirtying the mirrors. ¶

248 3.4 Data processing

249 The PCAND absorbance calculation uses equation 1, but accounts for the differential cell pressure
250 between the sample flow and the zero flow, which is restricted by the scrubber. Including the
251 Rayleigh scattering for both zero air and sample air, Eq. 1 is rewritten as equation 4 (Min *et al.*
252 2016 ; Hannun *et al.*, 2020) :

253

260
$$\alpha_{NO_2} = \left(\frac{I_Z}{I} - 1\right) (\alpha_{cav} + \alpha_{Ray,Z}) + \Delta\alpha_{Ray} \quad (4)$$

261
$$\Delta\alpha_{Ray} = \alpha_{Ray,Z} - \alpha_{Ray,S} \quad (5)$$

262
$$\alpha_{Ray} = N_{air}\sigma_{Ray} \quad (6)$$

263
$$\alpha_{NO_2} = N_{NO_2}\sigma_{NO_2} \quad (7)$$

264
$$\alpha_{NO_2} = \left(\frac{I_Z}{I} - 1\right) \alpha_{cav} + N_{NO_2}\sigma_{NO_2} \quad (8)$$

Deleted: $\alpha_{Ray,S} = \left(\frac{I_Z}{I} - 1\right) \alpha_{cav}$

266 Zero air is NO₂ scrubbed air where I_Z substitutes for I_0 (from equation 1). Rayleigh cavity
 267 extinction is broken into 2 parts ($\alpha_{Ray,Z}$ and $\alpha_{Ray,S}$) describing zero air and sample air cavity
 268 extinction respectively. In both cases, the Rayleigh scattering cross-section (σ_{Ray}), weighted by
 269 the SiPMT response curve (Fig. 3), is used (Bucholtz, 1995). The NO₂ number density
 270 (concentration) is found by knowing the absorption cross-section of NO₂ (σ_{NO_2}) (Vandalae, 1998).

271
 272 By varying the pressure of the cell with zero air, we can extrapolate a value for I_0 . Substituting I_0
 273 for I_Z in equation 4, we arrive at equation 8. At vacuum (I_0), both $\alpha_{Ray,Z}$ terms go to zero. The
 274 α_{NO_2} term also goes to zero with no NO₂ in zero air.

275
 276
$$\alpha_{Ray,S} = \left(\frac{I_0}{I} - 1\right) \alpha_{cav} \quad (8)$$

Deleted: Zero air is NO₂ scrubbed air where I_Z substitutes for I_0 (from equation 1). Rayleigh cavity extinction is broken into 2 parts ($\alpha_{Ray,Z}$ and $\alpha_{Ray,S}$) describing zero air and sample air cavity extinction respectively. In both cases, the Rayleigh scattering cross-section (σ_{Ray}), weighted by the SiPMT response curve (Figure 3), is used (Bucholtz, 1995). The NO₂ number density (concentration) is found by knowing the absorption cross-section of NO₂ (σ_{NO_2}) (Vandalae, 1998)....

278 **4 Performance**

279 **4.1 Sensitivity and calibration**

280 The PCAND effective pathlength of the optical cavity determines the instruments sensitivity to
 281 NO₂. Highly reflective mirrors on either end of the cavity are statically mounted, so no adjustment
 282 of their position is required. In practice, the alignment is stable over months of operation. After
 283 the initial alignment, calibration is needed to determine the effective pathlength given the mirror
 284 positions. Equation 4 can be used with known quantities of NO₂ to determine the effective
 285 pathlength (Fig. 5a). Additionally, Rayleigh scattering alone can be used to solve for effective
 286 pathlength (Fig. 5b). This requires varying the pressure of zero air (in the absence of NO₂) to

297 generate a data set of absorption attenuation (I) vs number density of zero air. It also requires
 298 we solve for equation 8 after it has been reduced from equation 4. To do this, an assumption is
 299 made that $\alpha_{Ray,Z}$ is taken at vacuum, so $\alpha_{Ray,Z}$ goes to zero leaving only $\alpha_{Ray,S}$. Therefore, (I_z)
 300 is calculated at vacuum from the data set. Equation 8 is left to solve for effective pathlength
 301 (equation 3). Using known quantities of NO_2 (and equation 4) yields a pathlength of 519 ± 2 m.
 302 Using the Rayleigh scattering method and equation 8 yields a pathlength of 524 ± 1 m. The two
 303 methods of calibration are within $< 1\%$ of each other and both yield pathlengths that agree to
 304 within 2σ uncertainty for each fit. Therefore, we choose to use the Rayleigh scattering method
 305 in future calibrations (when needed) of PCAND. Note that due to the small Rayleigh cross-section
 306 of air at 408 nm, $\sigma = 1.5 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^2/\text{molecule}$ (Bucholz, 1995) the calibration using air is
 307 susceptible to leaks and contamination. Adequate care must be taken to ensure that the system
 308 is free of leaks and that the air is pure. In practice, curvature in the Rayleigh calibration curve
 309 indicate the presence of a leak or contamination.

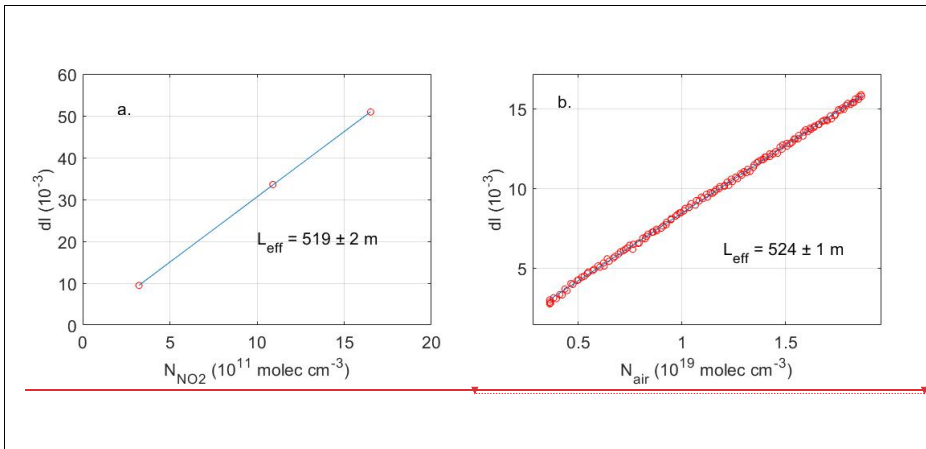
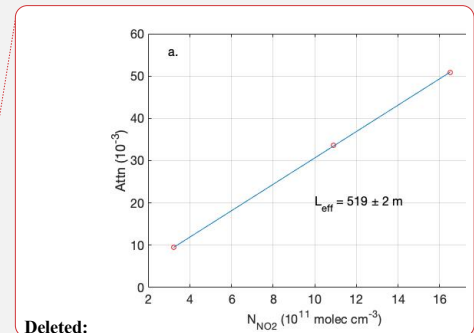
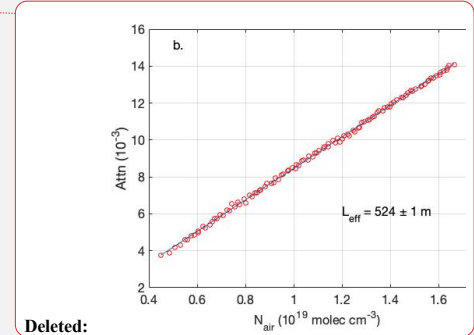


Figure 5. PCAND calibration: a) The effective pathlength (L_{eff}) as determined by attenuation (Attn) due to known additions of NO_2 from a reference tank of NO_2 mixed with zero air. The slope yields the effective pathlength as determined from Equation 1 in the text using the known NO_2 absorption cross section; b) Attenuation due to Rayleigh scatter over a range of cell pressures. The slope of attenuation as a function of number density gives the pathlength



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using the known Rayleigh scattering cross-section for zero air. The pathlength from each calibration agreed to within 2σ uncertainty for each fit.

312

313 4.2 Precision and accuracy

314 The PCAND precision was determined by flowing zero air (under constant pressure of 920 mbar)
315 into the cavity for 2 hours while accumulating 1Hz data. Figure 6 is an Allan deviation plot showing
316 a 1 Hz precision of 94 pptv and a 10 s precision of 30 pptv. The 1 Hz precision translates to 2.3×10^9
317 molecules cm^{-3} of NO_2 at 1 atmosphere.

318

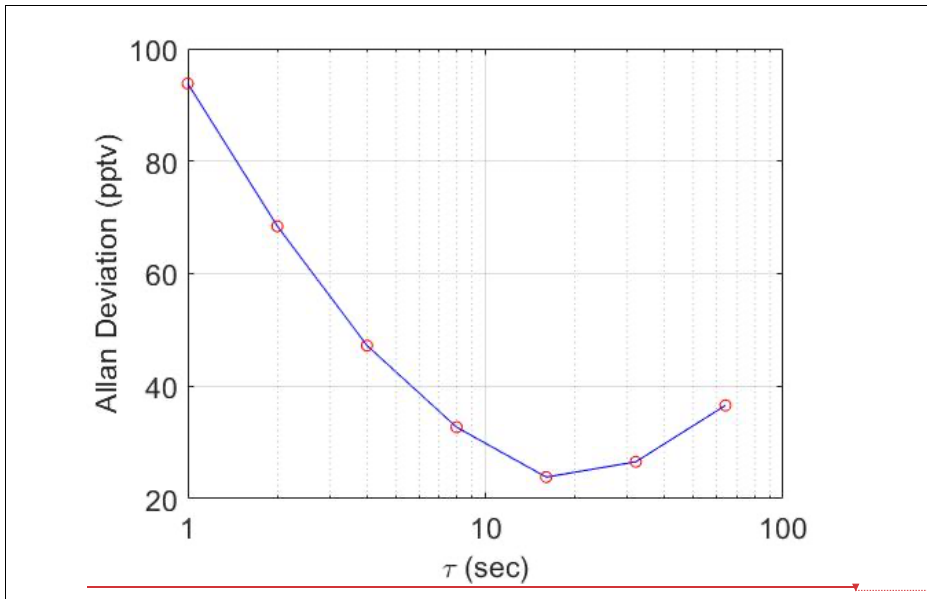
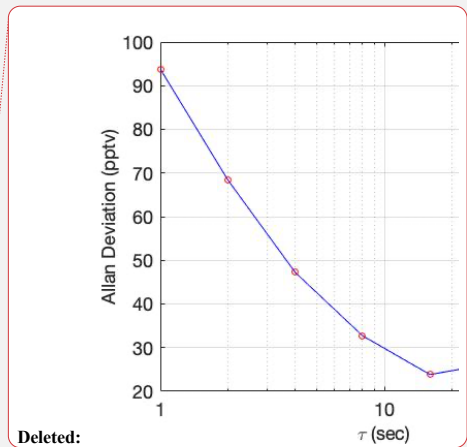


Figure 6. Allan deviation plot for 2 hours of sampling zero air at constant pressure (940 mbar). The Allan deviation is expressed in pptv equivalents of NO_2 as a function of the integration time τ . The curve shows a precision of 94 pptv at 1 second integration time.

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Deleted: NO_2 Sonde calibration: a) The effective pathlength (L_{eff}) as determined by attenuation (Attn) due to known additions of NO_2 from a reference tank of NO_2 mixed with zero air. The slope yields the effective pathlength as determined from Equation 1 in the text using the known NO_2 absorption cross section; b) Attenuation due to Rayleigh scatter over a range of cell pressures. The slope of attenuation as a function of number density gives the pathlength using the known Rayleigh scattering cross-section for zero air. The pathlength from each calibration agreed to within 2σ uncertainty for each fit.

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334 The accuracy of PCAND measurements depends on NO₂ and Rayleigh cross section uncertainties,
335 pressure sensor uncertainty, thermistor uncertainty, and cavity extinction uncertainty. The NO₂
336 absorption cross-section uncertainty is reported to be 3% (Spinei, 2014; Vandalae 1998). A 3%
337 Rayleigh scattering cross-section uncertainty (Bucholtz, 1995) was used. Taken from data sheets,
338 a conclusion was made that temperature and pressure measurements have uncertainties of 0.5%
339 and 2% respectively. Cavity extinction slope uncertainty was measured at 1%. Together, the total
340 uncertainty (when propagated through equation 4) comes to 6% when applied to the final NO₂
341 number density.

342 4.3 Response time

343 Response time is a direct function of gas flush time in our cell given our small vacuum pump. A
344 flow rate of 1.4 SLM is achieved with the pump resulting in a response time of approximately 3
345 seconds (Fig. 4). Given our cadence of 5 second zero followed by 25 second sample, one can see
346 (by eye) it takes ~3 seconds for the signal to stabilize with zero air. A larger pump could shorten
347 this response time at the expense of more mass and power needed.

348 4.4 Photolysis Effects

349 The photolysis quantum yield is 0.22 at 408 nm (Troe, 2000), so we expect some fraction of the
350 NO₂ in the cell to photolyze, NO₂ + hv -> NO + O. In static cells the photolysis of NO₂ has been
351 shown to be a concern (Platt *et al.*, 2019) In the case of our detection, it is unlikely that a
352 significant fraction of NO₂ will be photolyzed because the sample flows through the cell quickly
353 with a flush time of approximately 1 s and the number of photons available for photolysis is
354 small.

355 We can estimate the number of photons in the cell from the detector signal. The SiPM has a
356 radiant sensitivity of 4 x 10⁵A/W and a photon detection efficiency of 50%. Based on our
357 detection signal of 2 x 10⁻⁵ A, we estimate the optical power is roughly 10⁻¹⁰ W and calculate a
358 photon flux of 2 x 10⁹ photons/s. A typical absorbance with 1 ppb NO₂ in the cell is 10⁻³, thus
359 we expect that roughly 2 x 10⁶ photons/s are absorbed by the 1 ppb NO₂ in the cell. At 900 hPa
360 the number density of 1 ppb NO₂ is roughly 2.2 x 10¹⁰ molecules/cm³. The absorption of 2 x 10⁶
361 photons would result in the photolysis of 4.4 x 10⁵ NO₂ molecules, or 2 x 10⁻⁵ of the available
362 NO₂ molecules. While this number is quite low for our conditions, it is worth noting that with

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379 slower flows and higher photon fluxes the photolysis could be significant and secondary
380 chemistry could be a concern.

381 5 Field demonstration

382 PCAND was launched on 3 low altitude (~7 km) balloon flights for demonstration purposes during
383 the summer of 2022. PCAND was physically linked (via RS232 cable) to a commercial weather
384 sonde for real-time data downlink (via the weather sonde). Results from the flight (Fig. 7)
385 launched on 18 August 2022 show a vertical profile of NO₂ indicative of that time of year with
386 high concentrations of NO₂ near the ground. This flight occurred at 8 am local time when the
387 boundary layer was still close to the ground. The temperature deviation in the instrument box
388 during flight to 7km was less than 1 °C.

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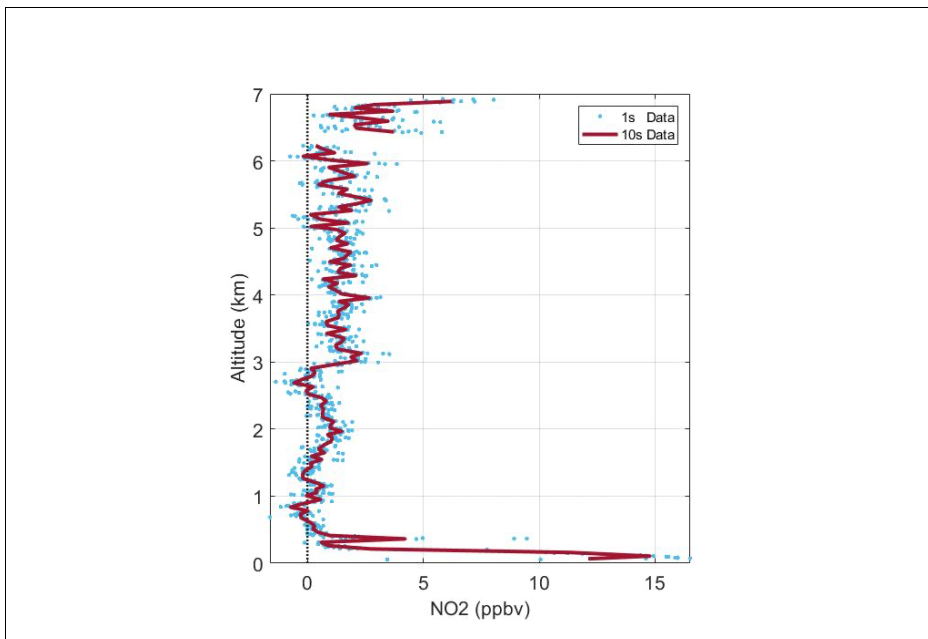


Figure 7. PCAND flight data from 18 August 2022 balloon launch. Programmed cut-down of balloon at 7 km to achieve payload recovery. Significant concentrations of NO₂ appear near the surface and again at cut-down (~7 km) altitude.

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396 5.1 Validation with CANOE

397

398 PCAND was validated with another NO₂ instrument called CANOE (Compact Airborne Nitrogen
399 diOxide Experiment). CANOE was based on the design of a similar instrument called CAFE (St.
400 Clair *et al.*, 2019) (Compact Airborne Formaldehyde Experiment). The only difference between
401 CANOE and CAFE are the laser wavelengths (532 nm for CAFE vs 355 nm for CANOE) and PMT
402 detectors used. CANOE is an LIF instrument which has been deployed on several airborne
403 campaigns including Dynamics and Chemistry of the Summer Stratosphere (DCOTSS) and Fire
404 Influence on Regional to Global Environments and Air Quality (FIREX-AQ). CANOE has been
405 calibrated to known cylinders of NO₂ concentration. Fig. 8 shows a ~4-hour data set where PCAND
406 and CANOE shared the same inlet port sampling the air during a morning in the DC greater
407 metropolitan area. Clearly, a rush hour peak of NO₂ is seen trailing off by noon. Fig. 8b shows
408 good agreement between the measurements with a slope of 0.94 ± 0.004 and an intercept of
409 0.09 ± 0.012 ppbv NO₂ ($r^2 = 0.96$).

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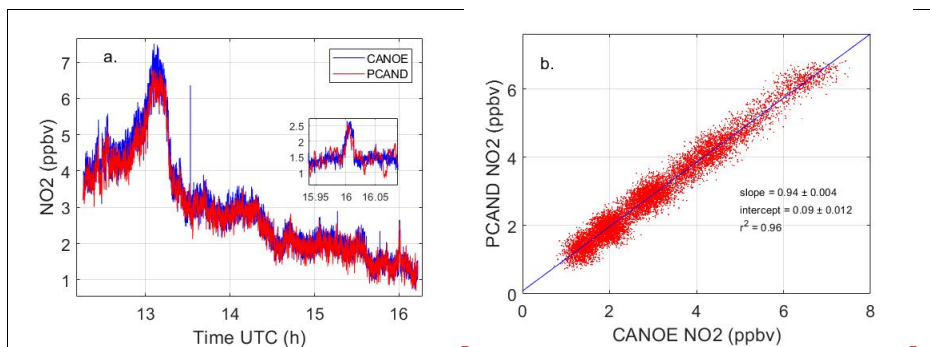
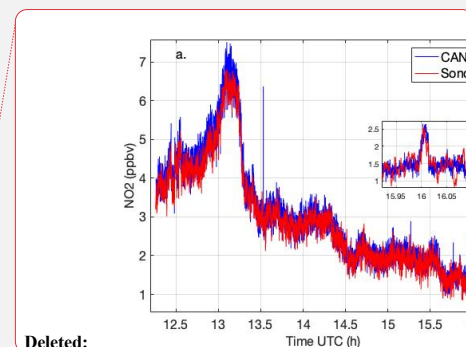
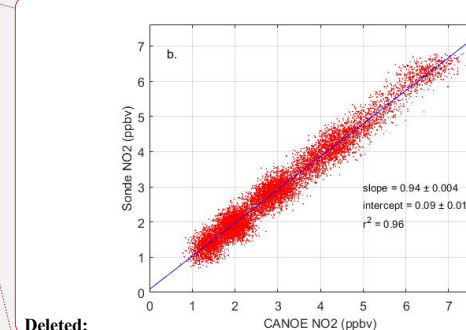


Figure 8. PCAND and CANOE measurements during rush hour at GSFC on 14 July 2023. a) Comparison over ~4 hours which clearly shows rush hour peak around ~13 UTC. b) Scatter plot of the same data showing high correlation between instrument measurements. A linear fit to the data gives a slope of 0.94 ± 0.004 and an intercept of 0.09 ± 0.012 ppbv with an $r^2 = 0.96$.



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414 **6 Summary and conclusions**

415 PCAND provides very high sensitivity to NO₂ for such a small package using broadband cavity-
 416 enhanced UV absorption at 408 nm. PCAND has a precision of ~94 pptv s⁻¹ with an accuracy of
 417 6.0%. Although PCAND was designed for portable, battery powered operation (as needed for a
 418 balloon flight), it could easily be used in either ground or lab-based measurements. It was
 419 successfully tested on 3 balloon flights. A comparison with another (calibrated) NO₂ instrument
 420 (CANOE) showed strong agreement over a ~4-hour period.

424 *Author contributions.* SAB performed the investigation, controller software, electronics design,
425 testing, and wrote the paper. RAH wrote the signal processing code and determined the best
426 wavelength to use for NO₂ absorption. AKS did all the mechanical design including optical plate,
427 fixtures, and cell. TFH determined the correct mirrors to use, consulted with AKS on the optical
428 layout, and made the science case for receiving funding for this work.

429

430 *Competing interest.* At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of
431 Atmospheric Measurement Techniques.

432

433 *Acknowledgements.* The balloon flights were made at the Howard University Beltsville Campus
434 with the help of Adrian Flores. We would additionally like to thank Ryan Stauffer for his expertise
435 in balloon flight needed to launch and recover our instrument.

436

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438 Development (IRAD) program at Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC).

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Deleted: The drone flight was made at Virginia Commonwealth University Rice Rivers Center with the help of Gregory Garman and Ron Lopez.

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