



1 A Portable Nitrogen Dioxide Instrument Using Cavity-Enhanced Absorption

- 2 Spectroscopy
- 3 Steven A. Bailey¹, Reem A. Hannun², Andrew K. Swanson^{1,3}, Thomas F. Hanisco¹
- 4
- 5 1. Atmospheric Chemistry and Dynamics Lab, NASA Goddard Spaceflight Center,
- 6 Greenbelt, MD, USA
- 7 2. Atmospheric Science Branch, NASA Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, CA
- 8 3. SciGlob Instruments and Services, LLC, Columbia, MD, USA
- 9
- 10 Correspondence: Steven A. Bailey (steven.a.bailey@nasa.gov)

11 Abstract

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

19 1 Introduction

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





27 in making retrievals of NO₂ columns from satellite measurements (Cooper, M.J. et al. 2020, Dang,

- 28 R. et al. 2023).
- 29

30 Direct measurement of the vertical profile can verify and improve these *a priori* estimates. 31 Aircraft instruments cannot typically make a continuous vertical profile of the atmospheric 32 column. Therefore, an instrument small enough to fly on a balloon (or drone) is needed. 33 Techniques for measuring in situ NO2 include Laser Induced Fluorescence (LIF)(Thornton, J.A. et 34 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). 35 36 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 37 previous, ozone (O₃) based instrument (Hannun, et al., 2020). Second, stability and ease of 38 39 calibration are desirable, which we found to be the case with the O₃ instrument. Third, the 40 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 NO_2 would (in our experience) not be 41 42 suitable for our purposes. Its size and weight would be too great to work with a small weather 43 balloon, despite LIF having greater sensitivity than IBBCEAS. Previously, a small NO₂ instrument 44 was developed by the Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (Dutch: Koninklijk Nederlands 45 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 46 instruments fit our size and weight criteria, they suffer from a lengthy calibration procedure 47 48 before every flight. Additionally, an instrument using chemiluminescence does not have the 49 desired sensitivity we require.

50

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





- 56 measurement from one of our balloon flights. We also validate our instrument via a ground-
- 57 based comparison with another established NO₂ instrument.

58 2 Principle of operation

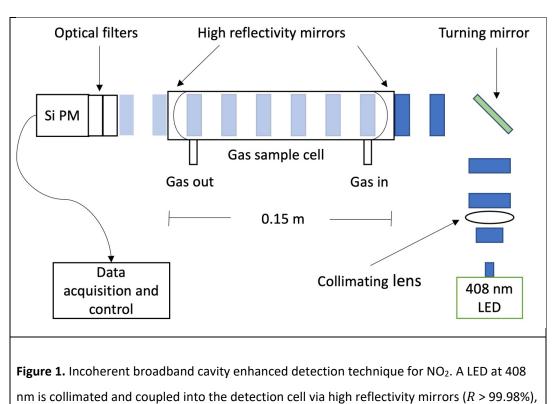
IBBCEAS is an established technique for the detection of trace gases (Fiedler *et al.*, 2003; Ball *et al.*, 2004; Washenfelder *et al.*, 2008) including NO₂ (Min *et al.*, 2016). We use an LED as our incoherent, broadband light source centered at 408 nm. This is coupled to an optical cavity with highly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

66

67 Shown in Figure 1, output from an LED is collimated into the gas sample cell (cavity) where it first passes through the leftmost mirror. Both mirrors have highly reflective coatings (>99.9%) on 68 69 curved surfaces (r=250 mm) facing towards each other. Only a small fraction of light enters the 70 cell, but the light (photons) bounces back and forth between both mirrors thousands of times on average before exiting the rightmost mirror. Photons that exit are then detected by a silicon 71 72 photomultiplier (SiPM). A transconductance amplifier is then used to convert small amounts of current from the SiPM into measurable voltage levels. A micro controller with a 12-bit analog to 73 74 digital convertor digitizes this voltage. The micro controller is both a data acquisition system and a controller of the LED and 3-way valve. A digital lock-in scheme is used to remove background 75 76 light by modulating the LED at 100 Hz with a large duty cycle (70%).







creating a long optical pathlength. The light attenuated by the sample is then detected using a silicon photomultiplier (SiPM).

77

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

83
$$\alpha_{abs} = \left(\frac{I_0 - I}{I}\right) \left(\frac{1 - R}{d} + \alpha_{Ray}\right)$$
(1)

84
$$\alpha_{cav} = \left(\frac{1-R}{d}\right)$$
 (2)

85
$$L_{\rm eff} = \left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{cav}}\right)$$
 (3)





Here I_0 is the intensity of light in the absence of any absorbing molecules, I is the intensity of light including absorbing molecules, R is the mirror reflectivity, d is the physical distance between cavity mirrors, and α_{Ray} is the extinction due to Rayleigh scatter. The term (1 - R)/d is the theoretical cavity loss, α_{cav} . L_{eff} represents the maximum effective pathlength. In the case of mirrors with R=0.9997, the maximum theoretical L_{eff} for our 15 cm cell would be 450 m.

92 3 Instrument description

93 PCAND is housed in a small aluminum box measuring 38 cm length x 22 cm width x 7 cm height 94 with a total weight of 2.7 kg. Inside the box (Figure 2) is an optical plate where all the instrument 95 components are mounted. Power comes from an 11.1 volt Lithium Ion rechargeable battery with 96 2200 mAh (24 Wh) of storage. Table 1 summarizes the PCAND design and performance 97 characteristics.

98

99 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 (1 σ , 1Hz)	2.3 x 10 ⁹ molec. cm ⁻³
Accuracy	6.0%
Time response	3 s







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.

101

102 3.1 Optical components

103 3.1.1 LED assembly

104 A UV LED (λ_{max} = 408 nm, FWHM = 30 nm) (Thorlabs M310D1) is mounted to a custom heat sink 105 and temperature controlled to 25 °C with a thermo-electric cooler controller (Thorlabs 106 MTD415T). Constant current to the LED is supplied by a low noise controller (Thorlabs 107 MLD203CLN). The LED assembly includes a 15 mm focal length collimating lens (Thorlabs LA1074-108 A) followed by a turning mirror (Thorlabs PF10-03-F01) to direct light into the sample cell. 109





110 3.1.2 Sample cell

- 111 The sample cell is manufactured from an aluminum alloy tube measuring 15 cm in length with a 112 1.4 cm inner diameter. The cell mirrors (Layertec 103654) have a reflectivity of R > 99.9% over 113 the detected spectral range (Figure 3) and a 250 mm radius of curvature. Mirrors are held to the 114 cell ends with bezel mounts on flanges with face seal o-ring glands. Although the mounts themselves are non-adjustable, they are fabricated to hold the mirrors in a way that maximizes 115 116 their centricity to the cell ends. Furthermore, the incoherent light source negates the need for 117 rigid mirror alignment. A pressure transducer (Honeywell ASDXACX015PAAA5) measures the cell 118 pressure from a port near the cell inlet.
- 119

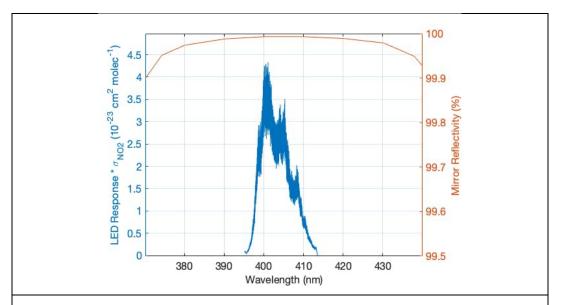


Figure 3. Normalized LED spectral response x NO₂ cross-section vs mirror reflectivity (99.98% @ 408 nm). The LED (λ_{max} = 408 nm, FWHM = 30 nm) response was measured using a grating spectrometer with the instrument SiPM and associated detector optics. The absorption cross-section of NO₂ (for this instrument) is the integration of the above product (with a resolution of 0.0005 nm) which yields 6.0419 x 10⁻¹⁹ cm² /molecule.





121 3.1.3 SiPM assembly

122 Following exit from the sample cell, light enters an optical bandpass filter (Semrock FF01-405/10-123 25), then a lens (Thorlabs LA1252-A) focuses the beam onto a Silicon Photo Multiplier (SiPM -124 Onsemi 30035) detector. The detector is biased by ~29 volts DC via a LT3494A boost converter. 125 This voltage sets the gain of this device. Signal from the SiPM is amplified through a 126 transimpedance amplifier based on a low noise, ADA4625-2 op-amp. The SiPM assembly is 127 thermally stabilized by heating it to a 35 °C setpoint using a Minco CT335 heater controller. The 128 temperature of the SiPM is monitored with a 10K thermistor mounted adjacent to the heater. Temperature of the detector is held to within 0.1 °C of the setpoint using the Minco controller. 129

130 3.2 Flow system

- The PCAND instrument uses a small, 12 volt diaphragm pump (Parker E134-11-120) to achieve a 1.4 standard liters per minute (SLM) flow rate. Flush time is approximately 3 seconds as evident from Figure 4. A 3-way valve (ASCO 411L3212HV) is used to switch the flow between sample air and scrubbed air (via an inline charcoal filter). The charcoal filter removes any NO₂ from the flow and gives us our I_0 (reference) measurement every 30 seconds for 5 seconds, leaving us sample air measurements 50 seconds out of every minute.
- 138





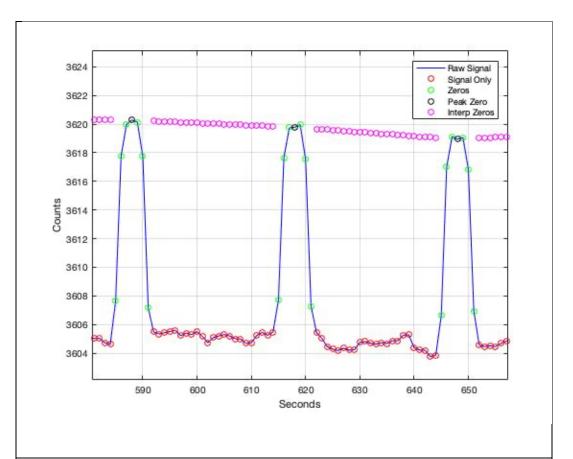


Figure 4. Cadence used to make real-time measurements of I_z (signal with no absorbers) vs I (signal with absorbers) is 7 seconds for I_z and 23 seconds for I. We found this was a good cadence allowing 3 seconds to achieve peak I_z and 3 seconds to return to I. A charcoal filter is switched into the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

139

140 We expect a small interference from water vapor. H2O vapor has a cross-section of 3×10^{-17} 141 cm² /molecule at 405 nm (Lampel *et al.*, 2015; 2017). An atmospheric abundance of H₂O = 1%

142 contributes the same absorption as 50 pptv of NO₂. In addition, we notice stronger attenuation

- 143 that is not consistent with gas phase absorption like that reported in ozone instruments using
- 144 UV absorption (Wilson *et al.*, 2006). In principle the presence of water vapor should not affect
- 145 the measurement if the abundance is constant between the sample and the scrubbed air.





- 146 However, the scrubber material (activated charcoal) can add or remove water vapor to the
- sampled air depending on the prior humidity. Because of this interference, water vapor is
- removed using two 30 cm lengths of 0.3 cm diameter Nafion Dewline tubing held in an
- enclosure with drierite. The dry air sample eliminates any contribution of water vapor in themeasurement.
- 151

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.

155 **3.3 Data acquisition**

156 PCAND uses an Arduino MKR Zero microcontroller for 3-way valve control, LED modulation, and 157 data acquisition. Arduino actuation of the valve is made through a CoolCube R valve controller, 158 which reduces the holding current needed to keep the valve in its open state. LED modulation is produced by the Arduino through the LED controller at a 100 Hz rate. This modulation has a 70% 159 160 duty cycle used to achieve a digital lock-in to remove any background light from the absorption 161 measurement. We oversample the absorption signal 42k samples / second to increase the native 162 Arduino internal 12-bit measurement to an effective (averaged over a second) ~21-bit measurement. Data is recorded both to an SD card and sent to an RS-232 port. The latter is useful 163 164 for both instrument testing and for connecting to an external iMet radiosonde where the data is merged for RF data downlink by the radiosonde. 165

166 3.4 Data processing

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

172
$$\alpha_{NO2} = \left(\frac{I_Z}{I} - 1\right) \left(\alpha_{cav} + \alpha_{Ray,Z}\right) + \Delta \alpha_{Ray}$$
(4)

173
$$\Delta \alpha_{Ray} = \alpha_{Ray,Z} - \alpha_{Ray,S}$$
(5)





174
$$\alpha_{Ray} = N_{air}\sigma_{Ray}$$
 (6)

$$175 \qquad \qquad \alpha_{NO2} = N_{NO2}\sigma_{NO2} \tag{7}$$

176
$$\alpha_{Ray,S} = \left(\frac{I_Z}{I} - 1\right) \alpha_{cav}$$
(8)

177

2ero air is NO₂ scrubbed air where I_Z substitutes for I₀ (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_{NO2}) (Vandalae, 1998).

183 4 Performance

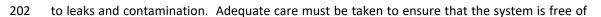
184 4.1 Sensitivity and calibration

185 The PCAND effective pathlength of the optical cavity determines the instruments sensitivity to NO₂. Highly reflective mirrors on either end of the cavity are statically mounted, so no adjustment 186 187 of their position is required. In practice, the alignment is stable over months of operation. After 188 the initial alignment, calibration is needed to determine the effective pathlength given the mirror 189 positions. We can use equation 4 with known quantities of NO₂ to determine the effective 190 pathlength (Figure 5a). We can also use Rayleigh scattering alone to solve for effective pathlength 191 (Figure 5b). This requires varying the pressure of zero air (in the absence of NO₂) to generate a 192 data set of absorption attenuation (I) vs number density of zero air. It also requires we solve for 193 equation 8 after it has been reduced from equation 4. To do this, we must assume $\alpha_{Ray,Z}$ is taken 194 at vacuum, so $\alpha_{Rav,Z}$ goes to zero leaving only $\alpha_{Rav,S}$. We must calculate (I_z) at vacuum using 195 our data set. This leaves us with equation 8 to solve for effective pathlength (equation 3). Using 196 known quantities of NO₂ and equation 4 yields a pathlength of 519 \pm 2 m. Using the Rayleigh 197 scattering method and equation 8 yields a pathlength of 524 ± 1 m. The two methods of 198 calibration are within < 1% of each other and both yield pathlengths that agree to within 2σ 199 uncertainty for each fit. Therefore, we choose to use the Rayleigh scattering method in future 200 calibrations (when needed) of PCAND. Note that due to the small Rayleigh cross-section of air at





408 nm, sigma = $1.5 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ /molecule (Bucholz, 1995) the calibration using air is susceptible



16 60 b. a. 14 50 12 40 Attn (10⁻³) Attn (10⁻³) 05 10 8 _{off} = 519 ± 2 m 20 $= 524 \pm 1 \text{ m}$ 10 0 2 2 0.4 8 10 12 14 16 18 0.6 0.8 1.2 1.6 1.8 1.4 N_{NO2} (10¹¹ molec cm⁻³) N_{air} (10¹⁹ molec cm⁻³)

203 leaks and that the air is pure.

Figure 5. NO₂ Sonde calibration: a) The effective pathlength (L_{eff}) as determined by attenuation (Attn) due to known additions of NO₂ from a reference tank of NO₂ mixed with zero air. The slope yields the effective pathlength as determined from Equation 1 in the text using the known NO₂ 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.

204

205 4.2 Precision and accuracy

The PCAND precision was determined by flowing zero air (under constant pressure of 920 mbar) into the cavity for 2 hours while accumulating 1Hz data. Figure 6 is an Allan deviation plot showing a 1 Hz precision of 94 pptv and a 10 s precision of 30 pptv. The 1 Hz precision translates to 2.3 x 10⁹ molecules cm⁻³ of NO₂ at 1 atmosphere.





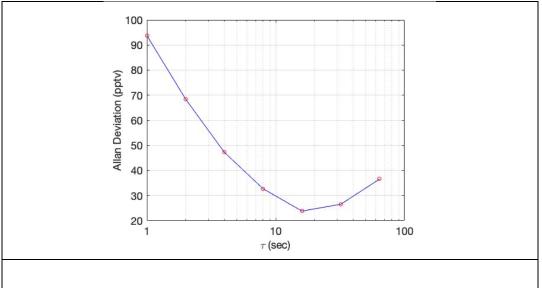


Figure 6. Allan deviation plot for 2 hr of sampling zero air at constant pressure (940 mbar). The Allan deviation is expressed in pptv equivalents of NO₂ as a function of the integration time τ . The curve shows a precision of 94 pptv at 1 second integration time.

211

212 The accuracy of PCAND measurements depends on NO₂ and Rayleigh cross section uncertainties, pressure sensor uncertainty, thermistor uncertainty, and cavity extinction uncertainty. The NO₂ 213 214 absorption cross-section uncertainty is reported to be 3% (Spinei, 2014; Vandalae 1998). We use 215 3% for the Rayleigh scattering cross-section uncertainty (Bucholtz, 1995). From data sheets, we 216 conclude temperature and pressure measurements to have uncertainties of 0.5% and 2% 217 respectively. We also measured cavity extinction slope uncertainty at 1%. Together, the total 218 uncertainty when propagated through equation 4 comes to 6 % when applied to the final NO₂ 219 number density.

220 4.3 Response time

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





226 4.4 Photolysis Effects

227	The photolysis quantum yield is 0.22 at 408 nm (Troe, 2000), so we expect some fraction of the
228	NO_2 in the cell to photolyze, NO_2 + hv -> NO + O. In static cells the photolysis of NO_2 has been
229	shown to be a concern (Platt et al., 2019) In the case of our detection, it is unlikely that a
230	significant fraction of NO $_2$ will be photolyzed because the sample flows through the cell quickly
231	with a flush time of approximately 1 s and the number of photons available for photolysis is
232	small.
233	We can estimate the number of photons in the cell from the detector signal. The SiPM has a
234	radiant sensitivity of 4 x 10^5 A/W and a photon detection efficiency of 50%. Based on our
235	detection signal of 2 x 10^{-5} A, we estimate the optical power is roughly 10^{-10} W and calculate a
236	photon flux of 2 x 10^9 photons/s. A typical absorbance with 1 ppb NO ₂ in the cell is 10^{-3} , thus
237	we expect that roughly 2 x 10^6 photons/s are absorbed by the 1 ppb NO $_2$ in the cell. At 900 hPa
238	the number density of 1 ppb NO $_2$ is roughly 2.2 x 10 10 molecules/cm 3 . The absorption of 2 x 10 6
239	photons would result in the photolysis of 4.4 x 10^5 NO ₂ molecules, or 2 x 10^{-5} of the available
240	NO_2 molecules. While this number is quite low for our conditions, it is worth noting that with
241	slower flows and higher photon fluxes the photolysis could be significant and secondary
242	chemistry could be a concern.

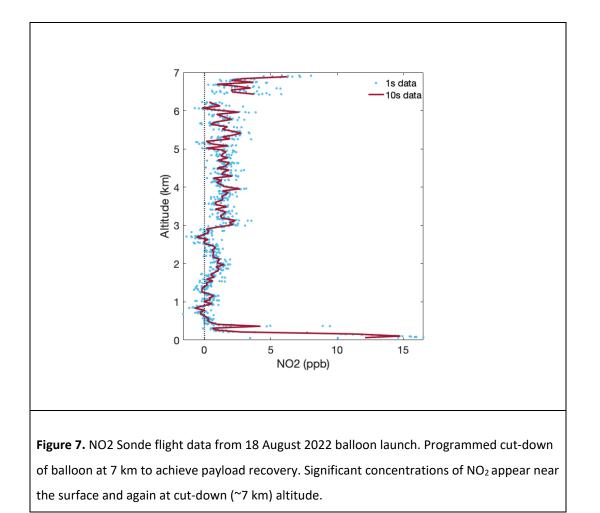
243 5 Field demonstration

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

- 251
- 252
- 253







254

255

256 5.1 Validation with CANOE

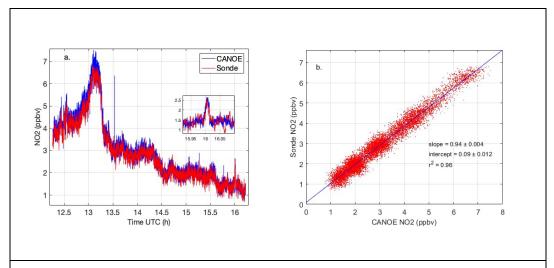
257

PCAND was validated with another NO₂ instrument called CANOE (Compact Airborne Nitrogen diOxide Experiment). CANOE was based on the design of a similar instrument called CAFE (St. Clair *et al.*, 2019) (Compact Airborne Formaldehyde Experiment). The only difference between CANOE and CAFE are the laser wavelengths (532 nm for CAFE vs 355 nm for CANOE) and PMT detectors used. CANOE is an LIF instrument which has been deployed on several airborne campaigns including Dynamics and Chemistry of the Summer Stratosphere (DCOTSS) and Fire





264 Influence on Regional to Global Environments and Air Quality (FIREX-AQ). CANOE has been 265 calibrated to known cylinders of NO₂ concentration. Figure 8 shows a ~4-hour data set where PCAND and CANOE shared the same inlet port sampling the air during a morning in the DC greater 266 267 metropolitan area. Clearly, a rush hour peak of NO₂ is seen trailing off by noon. Figure 8a shows 268 good agreement between the measurements with a slope of 0.94 \pm 0.004 and an intercept of



 0.09 ± 0.012 ppbv NO₂ (r² = 0.96). 269

> Figure 8. NO₂ Sonde 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 \pm 0.004 and an intercept of 0.09 \pm 0.012 ppbv with an r² = 0.96.

270 Summary and conclusions 6

PCAND provides very high sensitivity to NO₂ for such a small package using broadband cavity-271 enhanced UV absorption at 408 nm. PCAND has a precision of ~94 pptv s⁻¹ with an accuracy of 272 273 6.0%. Although PCAND was designed for portable, battery powered operation (as needed for a 274 sonde or drone flight), it could easily be used in either ground or lab-based measurements. It was 275 successfully tested on 3 balloon flights producing NO₂ vertical profiles for each. A comparison





with another (calibrated) NO₂ instrument (CANOE) showed strong agreement over a ~4-hour
 period.

- Author contributions. SAB performed the investigation, controller software, electronics design, testing, and wrote the paper. RAH wrote the signal processing code and determined the best wavelength to use for NO₂ absorption. AKS did all the mechanical design including optical plate, fixtures, and cell. TFH determined the correct mirrors to use, consulted with AKS on the optical layout, and made the science case for receiving funding for this work.
- 284 *Competing interest.* At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of285 Atmospheric Measurement Techniques.
- 286
- Acknowledgements. The balloon flights were made at the Howard University Beltsville Campus
 with the help of Adrian Flores. The drone flight was made at Virginia Commonwealth University
 Rice Rivers Center with the help of Gregory Garman and Ron Lopez. We would additionally like
 to thank Ryan Stauffer for his expertise in balloon flight needed to launch and recover our
- 291 instrument.

292

- *Financial support.* This research has been supported by the NASA Internal Research and Development (IRAD) program at Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC).
- 295 References
- 296Ball, S. M., Langridge, J. M., and Jones, R. L.: Broadband cavity enhanced absorption spectroscopy297usinglightemittingdiodes,Chem.Phys.Lett.,398,68–74,298https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cplett.2004.08.144, 2004.
- 299

Bucholtz, A.: Rayleigh-scattering calculations for the terrestrial atmosphere, Appl. Optics, 34,
2765–2773, https://doi.org/10.1364/AO.34.002765, 1995.

302

Cersosimo, A., Serio, C., and Masiello, G.: TROPOMI NO2 Tropospheric Column Data: Regridding
 to 1 km Grid-Resolution and Assessment of their Consistency with In Situ Surface Observations,
 Remote Sens., 12, 2212, https://doi.org/10.3390/rs12142212, 2020.





306 307 Cooper, M. J., Martin, R. V., Henze, D. K., and Jones, D. B. A.: Effects of a priori profile shape 308 assumptions on comparisons between satellite NO2 columns and model simulations, Atmos. 309 Chem. Phys., 20, 7231–7241, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-20-7231-2020, 2020a. 310 311 Cooper, M. J., Martin, R. V., McLinden, C. A., and Brook, J. R.: Inferring ground-level nitrogen 312 dioxide concentrations at fine spatial resolution applied to the TROPOMI satellite instrument, 313 Environ. Res. Lett., 15, 104013, https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aba3a5, 2020b. 314 315 Dang, R., Jacob, D. J., Shah, V., Eastham, S. D., Fritz, T. M., Mickley, L. J., Liu, T., Wang, Y., and 316 Wang, J.: Background nitrogen dioxide (NO2) over the United States and its implications for 317 satellite observations and trends: effects of nitrate photolysis, aircraft, and open fires, Atmos. 318 Chem. Phys., 23, 6271–6284, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-23-6271-2023, 2023. 319 320 Duncan, B. N., Lamsal, L. N., Thompson, A. M., Yoshida, Y., Lu, Z., Streets, D. G., Hurwitz, M. M., 321 and Pickering, K. E.: A space-based, high-resolution view of notable changes in urban NOx 322 pollution around the world (2005-2014), J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos., 121, 976-996, 323 https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JD024121, 2016. 324 325 Fiedler, S. E., Hese, A., and Ruth, A. A.: Incoherent broad-band cavity-enhanced absorption 326 spectroscopy, Chem. Phys. Lett., 371, 284–294, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0009-2614(03)00263-327 X, 2003. 328 329 Hannun, R. A., Swanson, A. K., Bailey, S. A., Hanisco, T. F., Bui, T. P., Bourgeois, I., Peischl, J., and 330 Ryerson, T. B.: A cavity-enhanced ultraviolet absorption instrument for high-precision, fast-time-331 response ozone Meas. Tech., 13, 6877-6887, measurements, Atmos. 332 https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-13-6877-2020, 2020. 333 334 Lampel, J., Pöhler, D., Tschritter, J., Frieß, U., and Platt, U.: On the relative absorption strengths 335 of water vapour in the blue wavelength range, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 8, 4329-4346, 336 https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-8-4329-2015, 2015. 337 338 Lampel, J., Pöhler, D., Polyansky, O. L., Kyuberis, A. A., Zobov, N. F., Tennyson, J., Lodi, L., Frieß, 339 U., Wang, Y., Beirle, S., Platt, U., and Wagner, T.: Detection of water vapour absorption around 340 363 nm in measured atmospheric absorption spectra and its effect on DOAS evaluations, Atmos. 341 Chem. Phys., 17, 1271–1295, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-1271-2017, 2017. 342 343 Martin, R. V., Jacob, D. J., Chance, K., Kurosu, T. P., Palmer, P. I., and Evans, M. J.: Global inventory 344 of nitrogen oxide emissions constrained by space-based observations of NO2 columns, J. 345 Geophys. Res.-Atmos., 108, https://doi.org/10.1029/2003JD003453, 2003. 346 347 Min, K.-E., Washenfelder, R. A., Dubé, W. P., Langford, A. O., Edwards, P. M., Zarzana, K. J., Stutz, 348 J., Lu, K., Rohrer, F., Zhang, Y., and Brown, S. S.: A broadband cavity enhanced absorption

349 spectrometer for aircraft measurements of glyoxal, methylglyoxal, nitrous acid, nitrogen dioxide,





350 and water vapor, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 9, 423-440, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-9-423-2016, 351 2016. 352 353 Miyazaki, K., Eskes, H., Sudo, K., Boersma, K. F., Bowman, K., and Kanaya, Y.: Decadal changes in 354 global surface NOx emissions from multi-constituent satellite data assimilation, Atmos. Chem. 355 Phys., 17, 807–837, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-807-2017, 2017. 356 357 Platt, U. and Kuhn, J.: Caution with spectroscopic NO2 reference cells (cuvettes), Atmos. Meas. 358 Tech., 12, 6259–6272, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-12-6259-2019, 2019. 359 360 Ryerson, T. B., Williams, E. J., and Fehsenfeld, F. C.: An efficient photolysis system for fast-361 response NO2 measurements, J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos., 105, 26447-26461, 362 https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JD900389, 2000. 363 364 Sluis, W. W., Allaart, M. a. F., Piters, A. J. M., and Gast, L. F. L.: The development of a nitrogen 365 dioxide sonde, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 3, 1753-1762, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-3-1753-2010, 366 2010. 367 368 Spinei, E., Cede, A., Swartz, W. H., Herman, J., and Mount, G. H.: The use of NO2 absorption cross 369 section temperature sensitivity to derive NO2 profile temperature and stratospheric-370 tropospheric column partitioning from visible direct-sun DOAS measurements, Atmos. Meas. 371 Tech., 7, 4299–4316, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-7-4299-2014, 2014. 372 St. Clair, J. M., Swanson, A. K., Bailey, S. A., and Hanisco, T. F.: CAFE: a new, improved nonresonant 373 374 laser-induced fluorescence instrument for airborne in situ measurement of formaldehyde, 375 Atmos. Meas. Tech., 12, 4581–4590, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-12-4581-2019, 2019. 376 377 Thornton, J. A., Wooldridge, P. J., and Cohen, R. C.: Atmospheric NO2: In Situ Laser-Induced 378 Fluorescence Detection at Parts per Trillion Mixing Ratios, Anal. Chem., 72, 528–539, 379 https://doi.org/10.1021/ac9908905, 2000. 380 381 Troe, J.: Are Primary Quantum Yields of NO2 Photolysis at $\lambda \leq 398$ nm Smaller than Unity?, Z. 382 Phys. Chem., 214, 573–581, https://doi.org/10.1524/zpch.2000.214.5.573, 2000. 383 384 Vandaele, A. C., Hermans, C., Simon, P. C., Carleer, M., Colin, R., Fally, S., Mérienne, M. F., 385 Jenouvrier, A., and Coquart, B.: Measurements of the NO2 absorption cross-section from 42 000 386 cm-1 to 10 000 cm-1 (238-1000 nm) at 220 K and 294 K, J. Quant. Spectrosc. Ra., 59, 171-184, 387 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4073(97)00168-4, 1998. 388 389 Washenfelder, R. A., Langford, A. O., Fuchs, H., and Brown, S. S.: Measurement of glyoxal using 390 an incoherent broadband cavity enhanced absorption spectrometer, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 8, 391 7779-7793, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-8-7779-2008, 2008. 392





Wilson, K. L. and Birks, J. W.: Mechanism and Elimination of a Water Vapor Interference in the
Measurement of Ozone by UV Absorbance, Environ. Sci. Technol., 40, 6361–6367,
https://doi.org/10.1021/es052590c, 2006.

- 396
- Womack, C. C., Brown, S. S., Ciciora, S. J., Gao, R.-S., McLaughlin, R. J., Robinson, M. A., Rudich,
 Y., and Washenfelder, R. A.: A lightweight broadband cavity-enhanced spectrometer for NO2
 measurement on uncrewed aerial vehicles, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 15, 6643–6652,
- 400 https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-15-6643-2022, 2022.