Concentration and pressure scaling of CH$_2$O electronic-resonance-enhanced coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering signals

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Nanosecond electronic-resonance-enhanced coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering (ERE-CARS) is evaluated for the measurement of formaldehyde (CH$_2$O) concentrations in reacting and nonreacting conditions. The three-color scheme utilizes a 532 nm pump beam and a scanned Stokes beam near 624 nm for Raman excitation of the C–H symmetric stretch ($\nu_1$) vibrational mode; further, a 342 nm resonant probe is tuned to produce the outgoing CARS signal via the $1^2A^1_2^*$ vibronic transition between the ground ($X^1A^1_2$) and first excited ($A^1A^2_2$) electronic states. This allows detection of CH$_2$O concentrations as low as $9 \times 10^{14}$ molecules/cm$^3$ (55 parts per million) in a calibration cell with CH$_2$O and N$_2$ at 1 bar and 450 K with 3% uncertainty. The measurements show a quadratic dependence of the signal with CH$_2$O number density. Pressure scaling experiments up to 11 bar in the calibration cell show an increase in signal up to 8 bar. We study pressure dependence up to 11 bar and further apply the technique to characterize the CH$_2$O concentration in an atmospheric premixed dimethyl ether/air McKenna burner flame, with a maximum concentration uncertainty of 11%. This approach demonstrates the feasibility for spatially resolved measurements of minor species such as CH$_2$O in reactive environments and shows promise for application in high-pressure combustors. © 2021 Optical Society of America

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1. INTRODUCTION

The accurate measurement of minor-species concentrations, such as that of formaldehyde (CH$_2$O), is necessary for emissions monitoring and can play a key role in understanding the thermochemistry of various combustion processes [1,2]. Because formaldehyde is a known carcinogen and pollutant, it is important to measure atmospheric CH$_2$O with parts per million (ppm) sensitivity [3]. In combustion, formaldehyde is an important intermediate for the oxidation of hydrocarbons. It is used to detect the presence of cool flames [4], visualize flame fronts [5], measure ignition delay [6], and provide modeling insight into numerous intermediate chemical reactions [7]. As such, background-free, spatially resolved measurements of ppm levels of formaldehyde in reactive and nonreactive environments are of fundamental and practical interest. Additionally, formaldehyde is one of the simplest asymmetric top molecules, representing a benchmark for more complex molecules.

Various experimental techniques have been applied in the gas phase to either confirm the molecular structure or provide information to combustion models for the oxidation of CH$_2$O. Absorption spectroscopy (AS) and four-wave mixing have been employed to investigate the rotational structure of the electronic ground [8,9] and excited states [10–12], while Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) has been used to measure CH$_2$O concentrations in gas samples collected from a dimethyl ether (DME) flame [13].

CH$_2$O planar laser-induced fluorescence (PLIF) has allowed determination of the 2D distribution of formaldehyde in applications such as turbulent flames [14–19], high-pressure environments [20], across shock waves [21], and to mark the ignition zone in a scramjet engine. Demonstration of qualitative CH$_2$O PLIF has been accomplished at repetition rates as high as 100 kHz [22], and the intensity change in the PLIF signal has also been used as a semiquantitative technique in DME flames [6]. Many of the described techniques for measuring concentration suffer from spatial resolution limitations, line-of-sight averaging (AS [8,10], FTIR [13]), or sensitivities to the molecular quenching environment (PLIF [15,17–21]).

Spatially resolved, quantitative background-free measurements of many combustion species over varying pressures have been made possible by coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering spectroscopy (CARS). CARS is a nonlinear optical technique.
that targets transitions of vibrational or rotational energy states of a polarizable medium using the frequency difference between two electric fields (pump and Stokes). The Raman resonances that exist near the pump/Stokes difference frequencies are subsequently probed by a third electric field (probe). The method is widely used in combustion because it allows for excellent spatial resolution and can be background-free with the appropriate experimental arrangement. Variations of CARS have been widely used for temperature and major-species concentration measurements [23]. Recently, femtosecond CARS [24] has been used for temperature and major-species concentration measurements. Variations of CARS have been widely used in combustion because it allows for excellent spatial resolution and can be background-free with the appropriate experimental arrangement.

2. EXPERIMENTAL APPARATUS

As shown in Fig. 1(b), the experimental setup employed an injection-seeded Nd:YAG laser (Spectra Physics, GCR-3) providing 700 mJ/pulse second-harmonic (532 nm) output at 10 Hz; the spectral linewidth (full width at half maximum, FWHM) of this output was measured (HighFinesse WS7 wave meter) to be 0.02 cm$^{-1}$. The 532 nm pump beam in the ERE-CARS scheme was produced by splitting off 10% of this output energy; the remaining was subsequently split with a 50/50 beam splitter to pump two narrowband single-grating dye lasers (Continuum, ND6000). In the dye laser, a mixture of DCM dye (exciton) and ethanol was used to produce a 50 mJ/pulse Stokes beam, (15% conversion efficiency), tunable from 15,966 to 16,052 cm$^{-1}$ (∼623–626.3 nm), with a measured linewidth (FWHM) of 0.1 cm$^{-1}$ and <1% pulse-to-pulse energy variation. In the second dye laser, LD688 dye (exciton) and methanol were mixed to generate output that was subsequently frequency-doubled in a Type-I $\beta$-barium borate (β-BBO) crystal to produce the probe beam, tunable from 29,200 to 29,450 cm$^{-1}$ (∼339.6–342.5 nm), with a measured linewidth of 0.2 cm$^{-1}$ (FWHM), and UV energy of 17 mJ/pulse (5% 532 to 342 nm conversion). The wavelengths and energies at each step were recorded during the experiment for use in post-processing of the measured ERE-CARS spectra.

Per-pulse energy adjustment of the pump and probe beams was performed using half-wave plate (HWP) and polarizer combinations, whereas neutral density filters were used for attenuation of the Stokes beam. For the experiments in the pressure vessel, the beams were all vertically polarized. However, for experiments in the McKenna burner, polarization-based nonresonant background suppression was necessary. This was accomplished by setting the pump and Stokes polarizations at 60° with respect to vertical, and an $\alpha$–BBO polarizing beam splitter on the detection side was set to 30°, perpendicular to the nonresonant background signal. This polarization configuration produced a 104 attenuation of the nonresonant background while incurring only a tenfold loss in the resonant signal [25,30].
The beams were directed into the probe volume in a folded BOXCARS arrangement [31]. The incoming beams were focused, and the outgoing ERE-CARS signal subsequently recollimated using 150 mm focal length plano-convex lenses (UV-grade fused silica). On the output, a physical mask was used to block the pump and Stokes beams, and the probe beam was directed into an energy monitor. The CARS signal beam was reflected by a 45° high reflector at 312 nm into three 310 nm bandpass filters (Edmund Optics, 34976, 10 nm FWHM) and a UV short-pass filter (Thorlabs, FGUV11M) to eliminate any stray scattering of the input beams before being measured by a UV sensitive photomultiplier tube (Hamamatsu R9110). The photomultiplier tube was connected to an oscilloscope (Rigol, 1000Z), controlled by a LabVIEW VI, used to save single-shot or averaged traces to the computer for post-processing analysis. A typical scan, depending on the range and resolution, lasted 10 to 25 min, as 64 laser shots were averaged for each step.

An optically accessible mixing chamber rated up to 30 bar with four 0.25-in.-thick UV-fused silica windows was used for conducting high-pressure experiments in an N₂ and CH₂O mixture. The mole fractions of N₂ and CH₂O were set by the following procedure, similar to that used by Walser et al. [32,33]: a 37% CH₂O aqueous solution (Fischer Scientific) was first placed in a windowless stainless-steel evaporation chamber; the evaporation chamber was heated to 475 K with heating tape, and the pressure vessel was evacuated and heated to 450 K; after 20 min, the valve between the chambers was opened, and the pressure vessel was evacuated and heated to 450 K; after 20 min, the water before entering the windowed vessel; after a few minutes, the test chamber was again isolated from the evaporation chamber with a manual valve; heated N₂ was then slowly added from a separate port to attain the desired pressure. As previously reported in [10,32], every time the vessel was cooled down to room temperature, a white film of polymerized CH₂O formed on the inner walls, requiring cleaning. To avoid polymerization, the pressure vessel was covered by heat tape, and hot air jets were directed at the windows. This system was designed to mix CH₂O in an N₂ environment with a mole fraction as low as 55 ppm at 1 bar. The uncertainty in the mixture fraction of CH₂O was approximately 5% at pressures from 0.5 to 11 bar, and the temperature was set at 450 K for the experiments in the pressure vessel. For experiments with the DME/air flame, a flat-flame porous plug McKenna burner, analogous to the one described in [13], replaced the pressure vessel.

Saturation of the CARS signal as a function of the energy of each of the CARS beams was measured, and it was found that the energy in the pump and Stokes beams must remain under 10 mJ/pulse, whereas the probe energy must be under 2 mJ/pulse, to avoid saturation. During the experiments in the pressure vessel, energies for each beam were kept at or below 3 mJ/pulse to avoid damage to the window and corresponding degradation of the input beams.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### A. Mixing Chamber Calibration

Characterization of the spectral response of the ERE-CARS signal was performed by scanning either the Stokes or probe frequencies during measurements of CH₂O in N₂ (mole fraction = 700 ppm) at 450 K and 1 bar in the pressure vessel described in the experimental setup. Initially, the Stokes-beam frequency was fixed to access the fundamental ν₁ band head at a Raman shift of 2782.5 cm⁻¹ [34], while the probe frequency was scanned from 29,230 to 29,300 cm⁻¹ (step size of 0.2 cm⁻¹). An average of two probe-frequency scans is shown in Fig. 2(a), performed with a pump and Stokes energy of 2 and 3 mJ/pulse, respectively, and a wavelength-dependent probe energy between 0.3 and 1 mJ/pulse. The results have been corrected for probe-pulse intensity variance with wavelength. This scan in Fig. 2(a), therefore, shows the wavelength dependence associated with electronic resonance enhancement of CARS signal via the 1⁴Spr vibronic transition. Prior ERE-CARS experiments with NO have demonstrated broad resonance enhancement, with peaks spaced about 40 cm⁻¹ [26], while for O₂, we observed two close separate peaks in the electronic resonance enhancement. Although the 1⁴Spr transition band of CH₂O has not been explicitly studied previously, these excitation features are consistent with comparable features observed in high-resolution scans of the 1⁴Spr absorption band, where two close distinct peaks were present at the transitions corresponding to the outgoing CARS signal of the probe scan [10]. While direct absorption might not take into account the resonant features of the ERE-CARS interaction, higher-resolution measurements of CH₂O performed using FREE-CARS in our laboratory (not shown here) also exhibit two well-resolved, strongly resonant ro-vibronic peaks ~20 cm⁻¹ apart. While the probe scan range was limited here by the probe dye laser wavelength range, excitation scans by Bouwens et al. [35] as well as CH₂O FREE-CARS excitation-wavelength scans suggest that significantly stronger resonance enhancement might be obtained by using a probe redshifted by ~200 cm⁻¹. Exploration of different electronic enhancements could be an interesting application for further studies if higher sensitivity is of interest.

Figure 2(b) shows scans of the Stokes beam with a probe wavelength fixed at 29,260 cm⁻¹ and 29,272 cm⁻¹, respectively [see Fig. 2(a)], while the Stokes beam was scanned with a 0.05 cm⁻¹ step from a Raman shift of 2770 cm⁻¹ to 2790 cm⁻¹. The first scan, with probe at 29,260 cm⁻¹, was performed three times at the same CH₂O/N₂ conditions to measure a 3% uncertainty in the scan repeatability. The resulting locations of the K_a levels were in agreement with the Coriolis-shift perturbation model and experimental fs-CARS measurements presented by Walser et al. [24] as well as the Raman spectra by Magnotti et al. [36]. The higher-resolution scans of this experiment showed the wrapping of the band head predicted by Walser et al., the overlap of the K_a = 1 and K_a = 2 levels as well as line-strength differences in scans performed at the two probe wavelengths. The difference in the two scans can be understood based on the energy levels diagram shown in Fig. 1(b). The ro-vibrational band reached in the S₁ excited electronic level depends on all three frequencies: ω₁ = ω₁ − ω₂ + ω₃. During the Stokes scans, ω₁ and ω₂ are held constant, and ω₂ is scanned through different (ω₁ − ω₂) Raman shifts, causing ω₃ to change with ω₂. As this Raman shift is varied to access different intermediate transitions, the probe accesses different final transitions within the S₁ excited electronic level, and the outgoing signal intensity...
will depend on both the \((\omega_1 - \omega_2)\) intermediate levels as well as the transition probabilities into and out of the levels accessed by the probe, further complicating modeling of the spectra.

Direct comparison between the two scans was achieved via normalization of the spectra by the electronic resonance enhancement measured in Fig. 2(a): by knowing the initial probe and stokes frequencies, \(\omega_2\) was matched to map the probe scan onto the Stokes scans. The Stokes scan was then divided by the matched probe scan to normalize the resonance enhancement. This correction was applied to each scan in Fig. 2(b) [see inset Fig. 2(b)]. The electronic enhancement normalization worked for the \(K_s = 3 - 5\) levels but did not completely match the band head \((K_s = 1, 2)\), where the resonance probability appears to vary too significantly, as the resonance enhancement with the probe fixed at 29,272 cm\(^{-1}\) falls abruptly above 2782.5 cm\(^{-1}\). Differences in the two scans may also result from different transition probabilities into \(S_1\) for different Raman shifts. While outside the scope of this paper, multiple probe scans at different Raman shifts would be necessary to fully study the effects of the transition probabilities on the two scans.

The goal of the current experiment was to perform measurements in a region of constant electronic resonance, so the probe was set to the broadest of the two electronic transitions (29,260 cm\(^{-1}\)), providing sufficient enhancement for the range of Raman shifts from 2775 to 2784 cm\(^{-1}\) and with a rapid drop-off outside this range. This choice of the probe wavelength enabled measurements of the \(K_s = 1 - 5\) transitions of the \(v_1\) vibrational band of the \(S_0\) electronic level with little change in resonance, while higher \(K_s\) transitions remained outside of the maximum resonance enhancement and below the detection limit at atmospheric pressure.

The scaling of CH\(_2\)O ERE-CARS signal with concentration was performed in a mixture of CH\(_2\)O and N\(_2\) at three different pressures. The probe laser was set to 29,260 cm\(^{-1}\), and the Stokes dye laser scanned across a Raman Shift of 2760 to 2790 cm\(^{-1}\), with a 0.2 cm\(^{-1}\) step size and 64-point averaging. The spectra shown in Fig. 3(a) were integrated between 2775 and 2785 cm\(^{-1}\) for each concentration. The square root of the result is plotted in Fig. 3(b), with a linear fit for each condition. At atmospheric pressure, a maximum signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of 2,000 was achieved for a concentration of \(1.14 \times 10^{16}\) molecules/cm\(^3\) of CH\(_2\)O (mole fraction of 700 ± 20 ppm, calculated from amount of CH\(_2\)O and N\(_2\) pressure). An SNR

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**Fig. 2.** Electronic-level splitting and its effect on the rotational levels of fundamental transition of the \(v_1\) vibrational mode. (a) Average of two wavelength scans of the probe beam at atmospheric pressure with 700 ppm of CH\(_2\)O in N\(_2\) at 450 K. The Stokes beam was tuned to a Raman shift of 2782.5 cm\(^{-1}\) relative to the pump beam, and the probe beam was scanned in steps of 0.2 cm\(^{-1}\). Each point was averaged over 64 laser shots. (b) Signal from wavelength scans of the Stokes beam for two different denoted probe frequencies tuned within the electronic resonance band. Scans were performed with a step size of 0.05 cm\(^{-1}\) and 64 shot average for each step. Inset in (b) shows a detail of the scans divided by the resonance enhancement measured in (a).

**Fig. 3.** (a) Scans performed at atmospheric pressure with increasing concentrations of CH\(_2\)O in N\(_2\) to calibrate the technique for different concentrations and estimate a detectability limit. Scans were performed with a 0.2 cm\(^{-1}\) step size and 64-point averaging. (b) Concentration scaling at different pressures. The data points were obtained by integrating the intensity of the spectral scan from 2775 cm\(^{-1}\) to 2785 cm\(^{-1}\). Solid lines represent the linear fits.
of 10 was achieved for the lowest measured concentration of \(9 \times 10^{14}\) molecules/cm\(^3\) (mole fraction of 55 \pm 20 ppm). The detection limit was estimated at \(2 \times 10^{14}\) molecules/cm\(^3\) for an SNR of 1 (molar fraction of 12 ppm), although this concentration of CH\(_2\)O was too low to be accurately dispensed in the current system. As seen in Fig. 3(a), the nonresonant signal from 100% N\(_2\) remained constant across the spectrum, which is much lower than the resonant signal.

The square root of the CARS signal intensity was found to be linear with number density, as observed previously in ERE-CARS experiments with other molecules [27], and can be inferred from theory, which predicts that the intensity of CARS signal is proportional to the square of the number density [37]. The experiments for Fig. 3(b) were performed at constant pressures of 1, 3, and 5 bar, respectively, exhibiting a similar number density dependence. Above atmospheric pressure, the slope of the concentration scaling fit decreased, indicating that the effects of pressure may already have an influence from 3 bar. To test the influence of pressure on the concentration scaling, further experiments were performed in which the mole fraction of CH\(_2\)O was kept constant and the pressure was increased.

Figure 4(a) shows a sample of scans at pressures ranging from 1 to 11 bar. Each data point in Fig. 4(b) was calculated by integrating the spectra between 2775 and 2785 cm\(^{-1}\), after nonresonant background subtraction, and shows two independent measurements. Figure 4(b) shows that, as pressure is increased, the signal does not follow the squared number density scaling. The signal increases slowly with pressure and flattens out above 8 bar. The deviation from the theoretically predicted squared number density dependence at high pressures was previously observed in ERE-CARS measurements of other species [23,38]. Absorption experiments at high pressure showed that up to 10% of the input 29, 260 cm\(^{-1}\) probe beam energy was absorbed at 8 bar, but this is not enough to account for the flattening of the signal [39]. The deviation is likely caused by two factors: 1) collisional line broadening in both electronic levels; 2) reabsorption of the outgoing CARS beam. The indication of the line broadening associated with the final electronic transition is most obvious in the scan at 11 bar [Fig. 4(a)], in which higher excited \(K_a = 7\) and 9 levels appear, suggesting that the electronic resonance has broadened sufficiently to bring transitions from these higher \(K_a\) states into resonance and plays a nontrivial role in the flattening of the signal. As the outgoing CARS signal wavelength matches the \(1\,^3\!\nu\_6\) vibronic transition of CH\(_2\)O, reabsorption of the CARS signal through this same transition could also play a significant role in the signal flattening at higher pressures and number densities.

While further study of these effects is beyond the scope of this publication, the pressure scaling experiments show that the ERE-CARS technique can be used at least up to 11 bar and indicate that it is necessary to perform a constant pressure concentration calibration for the pressure expected during the experiment.

**B. Application to Dimethyl Ether Flame**

CH\(_2\)O ERE-CARS was tested in the reacting environment of an atmospheric pressure premixed DME/air flat-flame burner. This particular flame was selected because it could be compared with the publication by Kaiser et al. [13] in which a thorough characterization of CH\(_2\)O concentration in a DME/air flame was performed using FTIR on gas samples extracted with a physical probe. The 25.4 mm diameter water-cooled McKenna flat-flame burner was mounted on a vertical translation stage, in place of the pressure vessel. Polarization-based nonresonant-background suppression was applied after experiments showed the nonresonant contribution of unburnt DME to be \(~5\%\) of the resonant signal. An image of the flame, the samples of three repeated Stokes scans in the DME flame at \(\phi = 1.3\) and a calibration scan from the pressure vessel are shown in Fig. 5. The energies used for the flame were 6 mJ/pulse for the pump and Stokes beams and 1.5 mJ/pulse for the probe beam. Three scans were performed for each equivalence ratio; then, each data set was integrated from 2775 to 2785 cm\(^{-1}\) and calibrated with the integrated signal from the pressure vessel and the temperature-dependent number density of the flame. The standard deviation from multiple scans was used to estimate the uncertainty, which reached a maximum of 11% for the richest conditions (\(\phi = 1.64\) and 2.19), where the flame also appeared unstable and likely contributed to increased signal fluctuations.

The vertical translation stage was moved from 0.25 to 1.75 mm above the burner with a 0.25 mm step, for a rich and
a lean flame condition [Fig. 6(a)]. The results were plotted with the physical probe sampling data from Kaiser et al. [13], with the stated ±10% precision. Both show an increase of CH\(_2\)O concentration in the premix zone and then a drop in the downstream, where the flame is hot and CH\(_2\)O is turned into reaction products. Downstream of the flame front the CH\(_2\)O concentration rapidly decays. For the \(\phi = 0.67 \pm 0.05\) condition, the visible flame is much broader, and the change in CH\(_2\)O concentration is less pronounced in the upstream and in the downstream sides of the flame. Comparison of our results with the data from the physical probe experiments of Kaiser et al. [13] shows that the trends agree well in the pre-flame zone; however, after the flame front, our concentration measurements show a slower decay in the CH\(_2\)O concentration [see Fig. 6(a)]. The most apparent difference between the two experiments is that the ERE-CARS measurement is an *in situ* measurement, while in the previous method a sample is first extracted from the flame and then analyzed. It is possible that the probe quenched the flame, or that further reactions from CH\(_2\)O into products weren’t interrupted quickly enough during the sampling. Small differences in the mass flows and in the absolute flame position are also probable and may explain the peak offset in the \(\phi = 1.49\) condition. Overall, the general trends are in agreement for the two experiments.

Further experiments, as shown in Fig. 6(b), were performed by varying the equivalence ratio at a fixed height of 0.75 mm above the burner. The same experimental conditions of Fig. 6(a) were used, and the equivalence ratio was varied from 0.4 to 2.1. The specific height was selected because it is right before the flame front, where CH\(_2\)O oxidation should occur. Figure 6(b) shows a linear increase in CH\(_2\)O concentration in the oxidation layer up to a stoichiometric flame, with a peak concentration around \(\phi = 1.6\). As a comparison for these results could not be found in the literature, this measurement may be used as a guideline for modeling the CH\(_2\)O concentration in the oxidation layer of this nonadiabatic flame.

### 4. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, quantitative ERE-CARS measurements of the CH\(_2\)O concentration were performed in a high-pressure mixing chamber and in a premixed DME/air McKenna burner. Concentration was obtained by integrating the signal from 2775 to 2785 cm\(^{-1}\), calibrated with measurements in the pressure vessel. The height above the burner indicates the height of the probe volume above the top surface of the burner. The zero is set to where the probe volume hits the top surface of the burner. Y error bars are the standard deviation of multiple measurements, and x error bars represent the 0.05 mm uncertainty from the micrometer. Also shown are measurements by Kaiser et al. [13] in an analogous burner. (b) Concentration measurements of an equivalence ratio scan 0.75 mm above the burner. The x error bars represent ±0.05 uncertainty in the equivalence ratio, and the y error bars are from the standard deviation of multiple trials.
yielded a similar trend to that shown in the previous literature, allowing additional characterization of the CH$_2$O concentration of this flame at varying heights and equivalence ratios with a precision of 11% or better. This was the first application of ERE-CARS measurements for CH$_2$O concentration, and the first application of a CARS technique to measure CH$_2$O concentration in a flame and in a high-pressure environment.

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