Author response to anonymous referee #2 on "A new method for atmospheric detection of the CH₃O₂ radical" by L. Onel et al.

Note: The changes in the manuscript addressing the comments of the referee #2 are highlighted in yellow below. The authors refer to the line numbers in the manuscript before revision mentioned in the comments.

The authors would like to thank anonymous referee #2 for their valuable comments to this manuscript.

The first two questions (1/ and 2/) address the quenching of the CH_3O fluorescence by water vapour and methane, respectively:

1/ The sensitivity of conventional FAGE instruments is known to be dependent on the ambient water concentration due to the quenching of excited OH radicals by water molecules. This matrix effect is taken into account through the calibration of the OH sensitivity at different water-vapor concentrations. Can excited CH3O radicals also be quenched by water vapor? If so, what is the implication for ambient measurements of CH3O2?

2/ For calibration purposes, CH3O2 is generated using the water-photolysis approach by adding an excess of methane in the photolysis cell. Could the authors comment on the potential quenching of excited CH3O by methane during calibration experiments?

No measurement of the rate coefficients of the fluorescence quenching by the traces gases has been performed in this work. However, a very good agreement was obtained between the flow tube calibrations for CH_3O_2 with two different concentrations of water vapour in the flow tube: 7.5 x 10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ or 3 x 10^{17} molecule cm⁻³ (corresponding to 2.6 x 10^{14} molecule cm⁻³ and 1.0 x 10^{15} molecule cm⁻³, respectively in the FAGE detection cell) as shown by Figure 6 in Sect. 2.3.2.1. The result presented in Figure 6 shows that the CH₃O fluorescence quenching rate by water is minor for the above [H₂O].

Methane was also present in the FAGE chamber in concentrations of several times 10^{14} molecule cm⁻³. Calculations using the CH₃O fluorescence quenching rate coefficient of CH₄ reported by Wantuck et al. (1987), 1.05×10^{-10} s⁻¹, and a pressure in the FAGE detection cell of 2.65 Torr show only minor decreases in the fluorescence quantum yield, by few percent, when [CH₄] is increased from zero to the experimental values. Assuming a quenching rate coefficient of H₂O equal to that of CH₄, similar small decreases in the fluorescence quantum yield when [H₂O] was increased from zero to the concentration values used in the

flow tube calibration (0.3 - 1.0 x 10^{15} molecule cm⁻³). Therefore, the effects of methane and water on the FAGE sensitivity for CH₃O₂ are minimal.

A paragraph which discusses the $CH_3O(A)$ quenching rates of water and methane at the concentrations used in the flow tube calibration of the FAGE instrument for CH_3O_2 has been added at the end of the section 3.1.1:

"The calibrations using the flow-tube ("wand") method have been performed under water vapour concentrations similar to the ambient [H₂O_{vapour}] but few orders of magnitude higher than those present in the HIRAC chamber experiments. In contrast with $[H_2O_{vapour}]$ the methane concentrations used in the "wand" method were similar to [CH₄] present in HIRAC but higher than [CH₄] in the atmosphere. However, as detailed in this paragraph, the effects of methane and water on our sensitivity are minimal. Estimations using the reported fluorescence quenching rate coefficient of CH₃O(A) by CH₄, $k_{\text{quench.CH4}} = 1.05 \times 10^{-10} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (Wantuck et al., 1987) and the concentrations of CH₄ in the LIF detection cell for the calibrations using the flow-tube $(1.7 \times 10^{14} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3} \text{ and } 3.4 \times 10^{14} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$, corresponding to $5.0 \times 10^{16} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ ³ and 1.0×10^{17} molecule cm⁻³, respectively in the flow tube) resulted in only ~ 1–2% lower fluorescence quantum yield compared to the value determined in the absence of CH₄. No literature value has been found for the fluorescence rate coefficient of CH₃O(A) fluorescence by H₂O vapour. However, even if it assumed to be as large as the above reported value for CH₄ ($k_{quench,CH4}$), only a few percent decrease in the fluorescence quantum yield is computed (compared with a water concentration of zero) for the levels of H₂O vapour which are present at the CH_3O_2 FAGE detection axis when using the flow tube calibration method. These levels (1– 2% v/v) are similar to a typical water vapour concentration in the atmosphere. A very good agreement has been obtained between the calibration factors for CH₃O₂ detection with two different concentrations of water vapour in the flow tube: 7.5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ or 3.0×10^{17} molecule cm⁻³ (corresponding to 2.6×10^{14} molecule cm⁻³ and 1.0×10^{15} molecule cm⁻³, respectively in the FAGE cell) as shown in Figure 6 in Sect. 2.3.2.1. This very good agreement for H₂O vapour and the above calculations for CH₄ support the use of the flow tube method for the FAGE calibration of the CH₃O₂ concentrations."

Minor comments

P4 L4: "Here we report he first ..." should read "Here we report the first ..."

The suggested correction has been made.

P4 L13: Please report the sampling flow rate of the FAGE apparatus

Now the sampling flow rate is given at the beginning of section 2.1 (page 4): "The gas was sampled with a flow rate of 3.2 slm through a 1 mm diameter pinhole..."

P5 L4-5: Since the detection of the CH3O fluorescence is red-shifted from the excitation, why is the counting window delayed by 100 ns from the laser pulse? This time gating approach is usually used for the detection of on-resonant fluorescence.

The off-resonance CH₃O fluorescence occurs between ~ 300 - 400 nm and, hence a relatively broad bandpass filter, with an average transmission > 80% between 320–430 nm, was used for the fluorescence collection. However, it appears that red-shifted scattered laser light (the excitation wavelength was ~ 298 nm) produced in the FAGE chamber also passed through the interference filter, increasing the background. In order to avoid the majority of these background counts, the gate unit was opened 100 ns after the probe light pulse. As the optimum gate-width found for the CH₃O fluorescence was 2 µs (*vide infra*), no significant loss of CH₃O signal was encountered by the 100 ns delay in the fluorescence detection. Future improvements to the instrument will improve changing the cell material or coating to reduce this scattered light background.

The second paragraph on page 5 was changed as follows:

"The relatively broad bandpass filter used for the collection of the CH₃O fluorescence (average transmission > 80% between 320–430 nm) allowed some red-shifted scattered light (presumably from the walls of the chamber) generated by the probe laser to be transmitted and hence detected by the MCP-PMT. In order to ameliorate this and reduce the background signal, the gate unit was opened 100 ns after the laser pulse to detect fluorescence integrated over a gate-width of 2 μ s. The optimum gate-width of 2 μ s (values in the range 1-3 μ s were compared) is consistent with the CH₃O fluorescence lifetimes, calculated to be in the range of 0.9 – 1.5 μ s, using the reported radiative lifetimes for CH₃O of 1.5 μ s (Inoue et al., 1979), 2.2 μ s (Ebata et al., 1982) and (4 ± 2) μ s (Wendt and Hunziker, 1979) and using the fluorescence quenching rate coefficients of N₂ and O₂ (Wantuck et al., 1987) to calculate the rate of quenching at the pressure in the FAGE detection cell ((2.65 ± 0.05) Torr). As the fluorescence lifetime of CH₃O(A) in the detection cell is 0.9–1.5 μ s, delaying the counting of the fluorescence by 100 ns makes very little difference (~ 10%) in the fraction of fluorescence collected."

P5 L12-15: The authors mention that the wavelength is tuned on/off resonance with the CH3O transition line. In FAGE instruments, OH is continuously generated in a reference cell to be able to precisely tune the laser wavelength on and off resonance. How is it performed for CH3O on this instrument? Is CH3O continuously generated in a reference cell? If so, how is it done?

The signals were large enough that during conditions where CH_3O_2 concentrations were constant (e.g. in calibrations or during HIRAC experiments where steady-state concentrations were generated) it was established that the laser-wavelength was stable over a long period once the laser wavelength had been tuned to the CH₃O transition. Hence, the online wavelength position for CH₃O fluorescence detection was found without using a reference cell. The laser excitation scans shown in Figures 2 and 3 were performed using the flow tube method described in the sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2.1 to generate either CH₃O (by the CH₃OH photolysis at 185 nm) or CH₃O₂ (by the H₂O photolysis at 185 nm to generate OH followed by the reaction of the produced OH with CH₄ in the presence of O₂).

In the HIRAC experiments the concentration of CH_3O_2 radicals generated in the chamber in a steady-state with the UV lamps turned on at the beginning of each experiment using the $Cl_2/CH_4/air$ system was used to tune the laser at the correct excitation wavelength by performing similar scans to the laser scans shown in Figure 3.

In all measurements the offline wavelength position was fixed to the value obtained by adding 2.5 nm to λ (online) as described in the third paragraph on page 5. For field measurements in the future, when the concentrations of CH₃O₂ (and hence CH₃O after conversion) will be both lower and more variable over short timescales, a reference cell will be necessary. We are in the process of developing a reference cell.

The third paragraph on page 5 was changed to clarify how the laser is tuned to the correct CH₃O excitation wavelength:

"...Figure 2 shows the laser excitation spectrum centred at ~298 nm in the v_3 vibronic band recorded using an increment of $\Delta \lambda = 10^{-3}$ nm. The spectrum agrees well with previous work (Inoue et al., 1980;Kappert and Temps, 1989;Shannon et al., 2013). Figure 3 shows typical laser excitation scans performed over a narrower range of wavelengths in order to locate λ (online). The LIF spectra were obtained by using the CH₃O or CH₃O₂ radicals generated in a flow tube described in Sect. 2.3.1, with the flow tube output impinged close to the FAGE sampling inlet. The radicals were generated using the 184.9 nm light output of a Hg Pen-Ray lamp by either the photolysis of methanol in nitrogen to generate CH₃O or the photolysis of water vapour in synthetic air (to generate OH) in the presence of methane to form CH₃O₂. The CH₃O radicals were directly detected, while the CH₃O₂ radicals were first converted to CH₃O species by added NO prior to the fluorescence detection cell (Fig. 1). Similar laser scans to the scans shown in Fig. 3 were recorded by using the CH₃O₂ radicals produced in a steady-state concentration in HIRAC using photolytic mixtures of Cl₂/CH₄/air as described in Sect. 2.3.2.2. There were no unexpected features in the laser excitation scans for CH₃O recorded when FAGE sampled CH₃O₂ radicals from HIRAC, consistent with no interference being anticipated in the FAGE measurements of CH₃O as there were no other species in HIRAC absorbing at 298 nm and fluorescing at the wavelengths transmitted by the bandpass filter (average transmission > 80 % over 320 - 430 nm).

In this work the FAGE signals were large enough that during conditions where CH_3O_2 concentrations were constant (e.g. in calibrations or during HIRAC experiments where steady-state concentrations were generated) it was established that the laser wavelength was stable over a long period once λ had been tuned to the CH₃O transition. Hence, λ (online) was found without using a reference cell. We are in the process of developing a reference cell for field measurements in the future, when the concentrations of CH₃O₂ (and hence CH₃O after conversion) will be both lower and more variable over short timescales."

In addition, the future construction of the reference cell is mentioned in the paragraph of section 3.1.1 where all the future instrument improvements are listed:

"The further optimizations of sensitivity and the planned construction of a reference cell to find the online wavelength position could potentially enable CH_3O_2 measurements to be made in urban environments where CH_3O_2 concentrations are estimated to be considerably lower, for example a few 10⁷ molecule cm⁻³ based on modeling results (Whalley et al., to be submitted)."

P7 L15: The authors indicate a CH3O2-to-CH3O conversion efficiency of 40% at the optimum NO concentration. However, since CH3O can also be lost through its reaction with NO (and potentially through its reaction with O2 as well), isn't the 40% representative of a lower limit of the conversion?

The 40% value represents the optimum CH_3O_2 to CH_3O conversion efficiency as CH_3O is rapidly formed (by the CH_3O_2 + NO reaction) and removed in the system (by the CH_3O reactions with NO and O_2), as discussed in section 2.2 (page 7). The text in section 2.2 explains that this result was obtained by comparison of the FAGE signal vs. [NO] generated by numerical simulations using a chemistry system formed by the above reactions with experimental data. Therefore, no text change has been made as the value of 40% was obtained from a simulation at the relevant conditions.

P10 L12-13: It is indicated that the photon flux was varied between 0-1.5E14 photon/cm2/s. However, the lower bound reported for the radical generation is 1.5E10 molecule/cm3, which cannot correspond to a photon flux set at zero. Please clarify.

The lower limit of the photon flux was corrected:

"The concentration of CH₃O₂ was varied by changing the photon flux in the range of $0.5-1.5 \times 10^{14}$ photon cm⁻² s⁻¹ to generate [CH₃O₂] = $1.5-4.5 \times 10^{10}$ molecule cm⁻³."

P12 L9-14: The detection limits are calculated for a BKG signal of approximately 100 ct/s, which is reported as a typical value for this instrument. What are the contributions of the scattered visible and laser lights? How is the BKG signal expected to change when the solar irradiation changes during field measurements? How will it affect the detection limit during daytime?

The contributions to be background are roughly 50% laser scattered light within the detection cell and 50% visible light which enters the pinhole. For field measurements, there will be a contribution from solar scattered light which will scale with sunlight intensity. As for measurements of OH, the detection limit depends on the standard deviation of the background signal, and for more intense solar radiation, this will increase, increasing the detection limit. The visible scattered light is recorded on its own (together with dark counts) in a separate photon collection integration gate which is delayed a long time after the laser pulse, and is subtracted from the counts from the integration gate containing the fluorescence (after scaling for any differences in the two gate widths).

The second paragraph on page 12 was modified:

"...BKG is the background signal and had a typical value of ~100 counts s⁻¹, which represents ~50 counts s⁻¹ laser scattered light within the detection cell and ~50 counts s⁻¹ scattered visible light which enters the pinhole from the room with a negligible contribution (1 count s⁻¹ on average) of the detector dark counts, *t* is the time per data point, *m* represents the number of online data points and *n* is the number of offline data points." "cm⁻¹" was changed into "cm⁻³"

P15 L21 & L22: Two different uncertainties are given for the on-line signal: 12% and 6%. Which one is correct?

The paragraph on page 15 discusses the different components of the total uncertainty: 12% uncertainty represents the 2σ error in the fluorescence signal due to the uncertainty in the online wavelength position, while the 6% uncertainty is the 2σ error of the laser power measured with the power meter. A minor change was made in the last sentence of section 3.2.1:

"...of 12 % in the online FAGE signal and 6 % uncertainty in the laser power measured by the laser power meter and used to normalize the data. The uncertainty associated with the online signal, 12 % at 2σ level, was calculated as the average deviation of the signal value due to the error limits of $\pm 5 \times 10^{-4}$ nm in the online wavelength position (see the typical laser excitation scans shown in Fig. 3)."

P16 L39: The authors indicate that the oxygen concentration was lowered in some experiments performed on the HIRAC chamber. Could the lower oxygen concentration lead to a different sensitivity towards CH3O due to changes in quenching rates of excited CH3O?

Line 39 of page 16 describes the methoxy radical measurement in HIRAC (section 3.3) which is shown in Figure 8. The concentration of CH₃O in these HIRAC experiments was obtained by using the calibration factor for methoxy radicals, which in turn was determined using the photolysis of methanol in N₂ method described in section 2.3.1. In the HIRAC experiment shown in Figure 8 O₂ was only present in trace amounts $([O_2]_{HIRAC} = 5.4 \times 10^{15} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$, which corresponds to 1.8 x 10¹³ molecule cm⁻³ O₂ in the fluorescence detection cell) as described in section 3.3. This [O₂] is too small to produce a faster quenching rate of the CH₃O LIF signal in the chamber experiment compared to the quenching rate when using pure N₂, as estimated using the quenching rate coefficient of O₂ reported by Wantuck et al. (1986), $2.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹. The following sentence was added in the first paragraph of section 3.3 for clarification:

"The concentration of CH₃O during the experiment was computed by using the FAGE calibration factor for methoxy radicals generated from the photolysis of methanol in N₂, $C_{CH3O} = (5.1 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ (Sect. 3.1.1). The temporal profile of the CH₃O is shown in Fig. 8..."

Author response to anonymous referee #3 on "A new method for atmospheric detection of the CH₃O₂ radical" by L. Onel et al.

Note: The changes in the manuscript addressing the comments of the referee #3 are highlighted in yellow below. The authors refer to the line numbers in the manuscript before revision mentioned in the comments.

The authors would like to thank anonymous referee #3 for their valuable comments to this manuscript.

Page 4 line 30 and Page 6 Figures 2 and 3: As with detection of OH by the LIF FAGE technique, the authors must tune the laser on and off of the CH3O transition to determine the net signal due to CH3O fluorescence and the background signal due to laser scatter and other broadband fluorescence. OH LIF-FAGE instruments use a reference cell that generates high concentration of OH radicals to ensure that the laser is tuned to the correct frequency. It is unclear how the authors know that the laser is tuned to the correct CH3O excitation wavelength. Do they use a spectrometer to measure the wavelength, or do they have a reference cell that generates?

The signals were large enough that during conditions where CH_3O_2 concentrations were constant (e.g. in calibrations or during HIRAC experiments where steady-state concentrations were generated) it was established that the laser-wavelength was stable over a long period once the laser wavelength had been tuned to the CH₃O transition. Hence, the online wavelength position for CH₃O fluorescence detection was found without using a reference cell. The laser excitation scans shown in Figures 2 and 3 were performed using the flow tube method described in the sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2.1 to generate either CH₃O (by the CH₃OH photolysis at 185 nm) or CH₃O₂ (by the H₂O photolysis at 185 nm to generate OH followed by the reaction of the produced OH with CH₄ in the presence of O₂).

In the HIRAC experiments the concentration of CH_3O_2 radicals generated in the chamber in a steady-state with the UV lamps turned on at the beginning of each experiment using the $Cl_2/CH_4/air$ system was used to

tune the laser at the correct excitation wavelength by performing similar scans to the laser scans shown in Figure 3.

In all measurements the offline wavelength position was fixed to the value obtained by adding 2.5 nm to λ (online) as described at page 5, line 14. For field measurements in the future, when the concentrations of CH₃O₂ (and hence CH₃O after conversion) will be both lower and more variable over short timescales, a reference cell will be necessary. We are in the process of developing a reference cell.

The third paragraph on page 5 (lines 10-24) was changed for clarification:

"The signals were large enough that during conditions where CH₃O₂ concentrations were constant (e.g. in calibrations or during HIRAC experiments where steady-state concentrations were generated) it was established that the laser-wavelength was stable over a long period once the laser wavelength had been tuned to the CH₃O transition. Hence, the online wavelength position for CH₃O fluorescence detection was found without using a reference cell. Figure 2 shows the laser excitation spectrum centred at ~298 nm in the v_3 vibronic band recorded using an increment of $\Delta \lambda = 10^{-3}$ nm. The spectrum agrees well with previous work (Inoue et al., 1980; Kappert and Temps, 1989; Shannon et al., 2013). Figure 3 shows typical laser excitation scans performed over a narrower range of wavelengths in order to locate λ (online). The LIF spectra were obtained by using the CH_3O or CH_3O_2 radicals generated in a flow tube described in Sect. 2.3.1, with the flow tube output impinged close to the FAGE sampling inlet. The radicals were generated using the 184.9 nm light output of a Hg Pen-Ray lamp by either the photolysis of methanol in nitrogen to generate CH₃O or the photolysis of water vapour in synthetic air (to generate OH) in the presence of methane to form CH₃O₂. The CH₃O radicals were directly detected, while the CH₃O₂ radicals were first converted to CH₃O species by added NO prior to the fluorescence detection cell (Fig. 1). Similar laser scans to the scans shown in Fig. 3 were recorded by using the CH₃O₂ radicals produced in a steady-state concentration in HIRAC using photolytic mixtures of Cl₂/CH₄/air as described in Sect. 2.3.2.2. There were no unexpected features in the laser scans recorded when FAGE sampled CH₃O₂ radicals from HIRAC, consistent with no interference being anticipated in the FAGE measurements of CH₃O as there were no other species in HIRAC absorbing at 298 nm and fluorescing at the wavelengths transmitted by the bandpass filter (average transmission > 80 % over 320 - 430 nm).

In this work the FAGE signals were large enough that during conditions where CH_3O_2 concentrations were constant (e.g. in calibrations or during HIRAC experiments where steady-state concentrations were generated) it was established that the laser wavelength was stable over a long period once λ had been tuned to the CH_3O transition. Hence, λ (online) was found without using a reference cell. We are in the process of developing a reference cell for field measurements in the future, when the concentrations of CH_3O_2 (and hence CH_3O after conversion) will be both lower and more variable over short timescales."

Page 8 line 25: Equation 2 assumes that the concentration of methanol is proportional to the concentration of water vapor and that any loss of methanol in their bubbler system is equal to any loss of water in their flow tube. Can the authors justify this assumption?

Equation 2 assumes that the concentration of methanol vapour in the photolysis flow tube is equal to the concentration of water vapour in the flow tube obtained when the bubbler contained water instead of methanol. The flow tube calibration using the water vapour photolysis represents the conventional FAGE calibration method for OH and HO_2 and previous investigations have shown that the water vapour loss in the system formed by the bubbler and the flow tube is negligible. Even less wall losses can be expected in the case of methanol, which has a significantly higher vapour pressure than water.

The following sentence was added after equation 2 (page 8, line 29):

"Equation 2 assumes that there were no losses of water vapour and methanol vapour by condensation in the tubing connecting the bubbler to the flow tube. This is as expected based on the small difference in temperature between the bubbler (*vide supra*) and the connecting tubing (typically held at ~ 20 °C) and as the gas going through the bubbler was diluted with the gas by-passing the bubbler."

Page 12, line 25: (*i*) *The authors claim that reducing the pressure in their FAGE detection cell could increase the sensitivity of the instrument. Is this due to reduced quenching of the CH3O fluorescence by air? (ii) Have the authors measured the impact trace gases on the fluorescence efficiency, such as water vapor?*

(i) A potential improvement of the instrument sensitivity for CH_3O_2 by using a pressure in the detection cell lower than the present limit of 2.65 Torr is expected because of the experimental observation of an increase in the fluorescence signal when the pressure in the detection cell is reduced from 10.00–2.65 Torr. As the pressure is reduced there is a reduction in the CH₃O number density (which would decrease the LIF signal) and also a decrease in the quenching rate of the CH₃O fluorescence by air, and hence an increase in the fluorescence quantum yield (which would increase the LIF signal). These two effects are opposing, but at low pressures do not cancel, leading to the observed increase in signal with lower pressures. It is therefore expected that as the pressure is reduced further below 2.65 Torr that the signal would continue to increase. Another reason could be that the characteristics of the jet expansion and/or the ensuing flow to the LIF detection region change with pressure, leading to a more favourable transmission of radicals to the detection region, but it is difficult to test this experimentally. For clarification the text (page 12, lines 24 - 27) was modified as follows: "The present investigations into the change of sensitivity with pressure in the range from 2.65-10.00 Torr found that 2.65 Torr is the optimum value in this pressure interval. The result suggests that, by reducing the pressure in the above range of values, the decrease in fluorescence due to the reduction in the CH₃O number density was overcome by the increase in the fluorescence quantum yield due to a lower fluorescence quenching rate. Another reason could be that the characteristics of the jet expansion and/or the ensuing flow to the LIF detection region change with pressure, leading to a more favourable transmission of radicals to the detection region, but it is difficult to test this experimentally. Hence an additional improvement in the sensitivity might be obtained by using a lower detection cell pressure than the current value of 2.65 Torr using a more powerful pump."

(ii) No measurement of the rate coefficients of the fluorescence quenching by the traces gases has been performed in this work. However, a very good agreement was obtained between the flow tube calibrations for CH_3O_2 with two different concentrations of water vapour in the flow tube: 7.5 x 10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ or 3 x 10^{17} molecule cm⁻³ (corresponding to 2.6 x 10^{14} molecule cm⁻³ and 1.0 x 10^{15} molecule cm⁻³, respectively in the FAGE detection cell) as shown by Figure 6 in Sect. 2.3.2.1. The result presented in Figure 6 shows that the CH₃O fluorescence quenching rate by water is minor for the above [H₂O].

Methane was also present in the FAGE chamber in concentrations of several times 10^{14} molecule cm⁻³. Calculations using the CH₃O fluorescence quenching rate coefficient of CH₄ reported by Wantuck et al. (1987), 1.05×10^{-10} s⁻¹, and a pressure in the FAGE detection cell of 2.65 Torr show only minor decreases in the fluorescence quantum yield, by few percent, when [CH₄] is increased from zero to the experimental values. Assuming a quenching rate coefficient of H₂O equal to that of CH₄, similar small decreases in the fluorescence quantum yield when [H₂O] was increased from zero to the concentration values used in the flow tube calibration (0.3 - 1.0 x 10^{15} molecule cm⁻³).

A paragraph which discusses the $CH_3O(A)$ quenching rates of water and methane at the concentrations used in the flow tube calibration of the FAGE instrument for CH_3O_2 has been added at the end of the section 3.1.1:

"The calibrations using the flow-tube ("wand") method have been performed under water vapour concentrations similar to the ambient $[H_2O_{vapour}]$ but few orders of magnitude higher than those present in the HIRAC chamber experiments. In contrast with $[H_2O_{vapour}]$ the methane concentrations used in the "wand" method were similar to [CH₄] present in HIRAC but higher than [CH₄] in the atmosphere. However, as detailed in this paragraph, the effects of methane and water on our sensitivity are minimal. Estimations using the reported fluorescence quenching rate coefficient of CH₃O(*A*) by CH₄, $k_{quench.CH4} = 1.05 \times 10^{-10} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (Wantuck et al., 1987) and the concentrations of CH₄ in the LIF detection cell for the calibrations using the flow-tube $(1.7 \times 10^{14} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3} \text{ and } 3.4 \times 10^{14} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$, corresponding to $5.0 \times 10^{16} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ and $1.0 \times 10^{17} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$, respectively in the flow tube) resulted in only ~ 1–2% lower fluorescence

quantum yield compared to the value determined in the absence of CH₄. No literature value has been found for the fluorescence rate coefficient of CH₃O(*A*) fluorescence by H₂O vapour. However, even if it assumed to be as large as the above reported value for CH₄ ($k_{quench.CH4}$), only a few percent decrease in the fluorescence quantum yield is computed (compared with a water concentration of zero) for the levels of H₂O vapour which are present at the CH₃O₂ FAGE detection axis when using the flow tube calibration method. These levels (1– 2 % v/v) are similar to a typical water vapour concentration in the atmosphere. A very good agreement has been obtained between the calibration factors for CH₃O₂ detection with two different concentrations of water vapour in the flow tube: 7.5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ or 3.0×10^{17} molecule cm⁻³ (corresponding to 2.6×10^{14} molecule cm⁻³ and 1.0×10^{15} molecule cm⁻³, respectively in the FAGE cell) as shown in Figure 6 in Sect. 2.3.2.1. This very good agreement for H₂O vapour and the above calculations for CH₄ support the use of the flow tube method for the FAGE calibration of the CH₃O₂ concentrations."

Page 12, line 26: How does the OH sensitivity of the HIRAC FAGE compare to the field instrument? Assuming the CH3O sensitivity scales with the differences in the OH sensitivity, can the authors be more specific regarding the potential improvement in the LOD if this technique were to be used in the field instrument?

The HIRAC FAGE sensitivity for OH is about two times lower than the ground-based field instrument sensitivity for OH: $C_{OH (HIRAC)} = 8 \times 10^{-8}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹, $C_{OH (field)} = 1.5 \times 10^{-7}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹.

As the distance from the inlet pinhole to the laser axis in the CH_3O_2 fluorescence cell (Figure 1, 580 mm) is considerably longer than the corresponding distance in the ground–based field fluorescence cell for OH and HO₂ detection (88 mm), improvements in the CH_3O_2 sensitivity are expected for the field FAGE instrument. The decrease in the pinhole–to–laser axis from 580 mm to 88 mm would result in a reduced loss of the CH_3O_2 radicals on the instrument internal walls and would provide a greater population in the laser probed rotational level as the gas is still cooler than ambient following the pinhole expansion. However, the increase in the CH_3O sensitivity cannot be quantified simply using the difference in the OH sensitivity between the HIRAC instrument and the field instrument. A larger increase in sensitivity between the field instrument and HIRAC would be expected for OH than for CH_3O_2 based on expected heterogeneous losses, as the wall loss of OH is larger than the wall loss of CH_3O_2 . However, how much the decrease in temperature at the laser axis owing to a smaller nozzle-to-laser axis distance improves the FAGE sensitivity for CH_3O compared to the sensitivity for OH needs further investigation.

We think that no modification of the text is necessary as it cannot be assumed that improvements in the CH_3O_2 sensitivity will scale with the difference in the OH sensitivity between the HIRAC instrument and the ground-field instrument.

Page 16, line 19: The authors suggest that based on their flow tube calibrations that the rate constant for the CH3O2 + CH3O2 reaction may be 25% too high, perhaps due to a 25% overestimation of the CH3O2 absorption cross section. What is the uncertainty associated with the recommended rate constant? Does the rate constant derived using their flow tube calibration factor agree to within the combined uncertainty of the calibration and the rate constant?

The associated uncertainty with the IUPAC recommended value of the rate coefficient for the CH₃O₂ self-reaction, k_{CH3O2} , is ~ 12% (1 σ). Our measured value, based on the flow tube calibration factor is ~25% lower than the IUPAC recommendation, with an overall error of ~20% (1 σ). Therefore, the obtained k_{CH3O2} have overlapping error limits with the IUPAC preferred value at the 1 σ level.

The overall uncertainties of the two calibration methods of FAGE are discussed in detail in the manuscript. Even though the kinetic method agrees well with the flow tube method, it should be noted that the use of a lower value of *k* than k_{CH3O2} (IUPAC) would improve the level of agreement. Therefore, the text has not been changed.

Page 17, Figure 8: The authors measure the concentration of CH3O in nitrogen to reduce the loss of CH3O from the CH3O2 + O2 reaction. However, it appears that they use the calibration factor determined in air to estimate the CH3O concentrations in this experiment. Does the calibration factor change in N2 compared to air due to different fluorescence quenching rates?

The concentration of CH₃O in the HIRAC experiment shown in Figure 8 was obtained by using the calibration factor for methoxy radicals, which in turn was determined using the photolysis of methanol in N₂ method described in section 2.3.1. In this HIRAC experiment O₂ was only present in trace amounts ($[O_2]_{HIRAC} = 5.4 \times 10^{15}$ molecule cm⁻³, which corresponds to 1.8 x 10¹³ molecule cm⁻³ O₂ in the fluorescence detection cell) as described in section 3.3. This $[O_2]$ is too small to produce a faster quenching rate of the CH₃O LIF signal in the chamber experiment compared to the quenching rate when using pure N₂, as estimated using the quenching rate coefficient of O₂ reported by Wantuck et al. (1986), 2.5×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹.

The following sentence was added in the first paragraph of section 3.3 for clarification:

"The concentration of CH₃O during the experiment was computed by using the FAGE calibration factor for methoxy radicals generated from the photolysis of methanol in N₂, $C_{CH3O} = (5.1 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ (Sect. 3.1.1). The temporal profile of the CH₃O is shown in Fig. 8..."

A new method for atmospheric detection of the CH₃O₂ radical

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Abstract. A new method for measurement of the methyl peroxy (CH₃O₂) radical has been developed using the conversion of CH₃O₂ into CH₃O by excess NO with subsequent detection of CH₃O by fluorescence assay by gas expansion (FAGE) with laser excitation at *ca.* 298 nm. The method can also directly detect CH₃O, when no nitric oxide is added. Laboratory calibrations were performed to characterise the FAGE instrument sensitivity using the conventional radical source employed in OH calibration with conversion of a known concentration of OH into CH₃O₂ via reaction with CH₄/O₂. Detection limits of 3.8×10^8 molecule cm⁻³ and 3.0×10^8 molecule cm⁻³ were determined for CH₃O₂ and CH₃O₂ to 1.1×10^8 molecule cm⁻³ comparable to atmospheric concentrations. The kinetics of the second–order decay of CH₃O₂ via its self–reaction were observed in HIRAC (Highly Instrumented Reactor for Atmospheric Chemistry) at 295 K and 1 bar and used as an alternative method of calibration. The overall uncertainties of the two methods of calibrations are similar: 15 % for the kinetic method and 17 % for the conventional method and are discussed in detail. The capability to quantitatively measure CH₃O in chamber experiments is demonstrated via observation in HIRAC of CH₃O formed as a product of the CH₃O₂ self–reaction.

1 Introduction

Methyl peroxy (CH_3O_2) radicals are critical intermediates in the atmospheric oxidation (Orlando and Tyndall, 2012) and combustion of hydrocarbons (Zador et al., 2011). In the remote atmosphere CH_3O_2 is mainly formed by the reaction of methane with the OH radical via abstraction of an H atom (R1), followed by the reaction of the produced CH_3 radical with O_2 (R2).

$$OH + CH_4 \rightarrow CH_3 + H_2O$$

$$CH_3 + O_2 + M \rightarrow CH_3O_2 + M$$
(R1)
(R2)

Methyl radicals can also be formed from more complex species, e.g. the reaction of acetyl peroxy radicals with HO₂ in low NO_x environments or the reaction of acetyl peroxy radicals with NO in anthropogenically influenced environments. CH₃O₂ is predicted to be the most abundant peroxy radical in the atmosphere, yet there are no specific measurements of its concentration. Daytime concentrations estimated using a box model utilizing the MCM (Master Chemical Mechanism) version 3.3.1 (Saunders et al., 2003;Jenkin et al., 2015) are ~ 6 × 10⁸ molecule cm⁻³ in the tropical Atlantic ocean in summer (Whalley et al., 2010), ~ 2 × 10⁸ molecule cm⁻³ in a tropical rainforest (Whalley et al., 2011), and lower in polluted environments, for example ~ 5 × 10⁷ molecule cm⁻³ in London in summertime (Whalley et al., to be submitted).

The reaction of CH_3O_2 with NO (R3) usually dominates the chemistry of CH_3O_2 , particularly in environments influenced by anthropogenic NO_x emissions, resulting in NO₂ production and hence ozone production:

$$CH_3O_2 + NO \rightarrow CH_3O + NO_2$$
 (R3)

The subsequent reaction of CH_3O with O_2 (R4) produces HO_2 , which in turn oxidises another NO to NO_2 (R5) with further production of O_3 and propagation of the HO_x radical chain:

$$CH_{3}O + O_{2} \rightarrow CH_{2}O + HO_{2}$$

$$HO_{2} + NO \rightarrow OH + NO_{2}$$
(R4)
(R5)

However, under low NO_x levels (e.g. remote forested environments and the marine boundary layer) the self-reaction of CH_3O_2 (R6) and the reactions of CH_3O_2 with HO₂ and other organic peroxy (RO₂) species are important radical removal/termination reactions. The CH_3O_2 self-reaction occurs through two channels, (R6.a) and (R6.b) (Tyndall et al., 1998):

$$CH_{3}O_{2} + CH_{3}O_{2} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH + CH_{2}O + O_{2}$$

$$CH_{3}O_{2} + CH_{3}O_{2} \rightarrow CH_{3}O + CH_{3}O + O_{2}$$

$$(R6.b)$$

Despite the importance of the reaction (R6), there are uncertainties of about a factor of two in the value of its rate coefficient at room temperature, k_6 , which ranges from (2.7–5.2) × 10⁻¹³ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Atkinson et al., 2006); the preferred IUPAC value is $k_6 = 3.5 \times 10^{-13}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Atkinson et al., 2006). The previous kinetic studies used time-resolved UV-absorption spectroscopy to detect CH₃O₂ radical, typically at 250 nm, (Sander and Watson, 1980, 1981;McAdam et al., 1987;Kurylo and Wallington, 1987;Jenkin et al., 1988;Simon et al., 1990;Lightfoot et al., 1990). UV-absorption spectroscopy is a relatively insensitive technique and hence the detection limits of CH₃O₂ were quite high, for example approximately 4×10^{12} molecule cm⁻³ (Sander and Watson, 1980, 1981). In addition, due to the broad, featureless spectra of RO₂ species, which often overlap, UV-absorption is a relatively unselective technique for the study of the kinetics of individual RO₂. Therefore, there is a clear need for the determination of k_6 using a more selective method, which will be addressed in subsequent studies.

At present, CH₃O₂ is not specifically measured in the atmosphere by any direct or indirect method. Time-resolved continuouswave cavity ringdown spectroscopy (CRDS), using the v_{12} transition of the $A \leftarrow X$ band at ~ 1.3 µm has been used to detect CH₃O₂ directly in a photoreactor (Farago et al., 2013;Bossolasco et al., 2014). However, the detection limit is not sufficiently sensitive to enable tropospheric detection. Typically, the sum of HO_2 and all organic RO_2 has been measured in the atmosphere, making no distinction between HO₂ and different RO₂ species, although more recently the sum of RO₂ has been quantified separately to HO₂. One of the methods uses Chemical Ionisation Mass Spectrometry to determine the sum $[HO_2] + \sum_i [RO_{2,i}]$ or separately $[HO_2]$, depending on the control of the flows of the NO and SO₂ reagents (Hanke et al., 2002;Edwards et al., 2003). The sum $[HO_2]$ + $\sum_{i} [RO_{2,i}]$ has also been determined for many years by the Peroxy Radical Chemical Amplifier (PERCA) method, which uses NO and CO to generate NO₂ amplified by a chain reaction, and subsequently measured by a variety of methods, for example luminol fluorescence, laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) or cavity absorption methods (Cantrell and Stedman, 1982;Cantrell et al., 1984; Miyazaki et al., 2010; Hernandez et al., 2001; Green et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2016). A modification of PERCA, using a denuder to remove HO₂ has been used to estimate the sum of RO₂ (Miyazaki et al., 2010). RO_xLIF is a more recent method, which uses OH LIF detection at low pressure, known as FAGE (fluorescence assay by gas expansion) (Fuchs et al., 2008; Whalley et al., 2013). The RO_xLIF method measures either $[HO_x] = [OH] + [HO_2]$ by converting HO_x into HO₂ through addition of CO, or $[RO_x] =$ $[HO_x] + \sum_i ([RO_{2,i}] + [RO_i])$ by titrating RO_x to HO₂ by added NO and CO. After the conversion into HO₂, HO₂ is converted into OH in the FAGE chamber and detected by LIF. The sum $\sum_{i} [RO_{2,i}]$ and the concentration of the initial HO₂ can be determined from the separate measurements of HO_x, RO_x and OH. The limit of detection of the RO_xLIF method is ~ 0.1 pptv (2.5×10^6 molecule cm⁻ ³) (Fuchs et al., 2008; Whalley et al., 2013). Recently, the interference from certain types of RO₂ radicals in the FAGE detection of HO₂ was deliberately exploited to enable a partial RO₂ speciation (Whalley et al., 2013). The method was used in the Clean Air for

London campaign (ClearfLo) to distinguish between the sum of alkene, aromatic and long-chain alkane-derived RO_2 radicals and the sum of short-chain alkane-derived RO_2 radicals (Whalley et al., 2013).

As methoxy (CH₃O) radicals can be generated by techniques such as pulsed laser photolysis and microwave discharge and detected with high sensitivity by LIF (Shannon et al., 2013;Chai et al., 2014;Albaladejo et al., 2002;Biggs et al., 1993;Biggs et al., 1997), the method has been used in kinetic studies of a range of CH₃O reactions. These studies used the electronic excitation of the methoxy radical from the ground state to the first electronically excited state ($A^2A_1 \leftarrow X^2E$). The $A \leftarrow X$ excitation spectrum covers the range ~ 275–317 nm and leads to fluorescence from several vibronic bands in the near UV, and has been reported in a series of experimental and theoretical studies (Inoue et al., 1980;Kappert and Temps, 1989;Powers et al., 1997;Nagesh et al., 2014).

This paper reports the development of a new method for the selective and sensitive detection of CH_3O_2 radicals using FAGE by titrating CH_3O_2 to CH_3O by reaction with added NO (R3) and then detecting the resultant CH_3O by off-resonant LIF with laser excitation at *ca*. 298 nm. The method is similar to the standard method used for the detection of HO_2 radicals by FAGE through conversion of HO_2 to OH by reaction with added NO followed by OH on-resonance LIF at about 308 nm (Heard and Pilling, 2003). As LIF is not an absolute detection method, FAGE instruments require calibration, with the 184.9 nm photolysis of water vapour in air using a mercury (Hg) Pen-Ray lamp being a common method employed for generating known concentrations of OH and HO_2 (Heard and Pilling, 2003):

$$H_2O \xrightarrow{184.9 \text{ nm}} OH + H$$

$$H + O_2 + M \to HO_2 + M,$$
(R7)
(R8)

where $M = N_2$, O_2 and the photodissociation quantum yield of OH and H is unity. In this study the photolysis of water vapour is performed in the presence of excess methane to produce CH_3O_2 :

$$CH_4 + OH \rightarrow CH_3 + H_2O \tag{R1}$$

$$CH_3 + O_2 + M \rightarrow CH_3O_2 + M$$
(R2)

An alternative CH_3O_2 calibration is also presented, consisting of the analysis of the kinetics of the CH_3O_2 decay by self-reaction monitored by FAGE and compared with the water photolysis method. The studies are performed within HIRAC (Highly Instrumented Reactor for Atmospheric Chemistry) which is a 2.25 m³, custom-built, stainless steel chamber simulating the ambient conditions (Glowacki et al., 2007). HIRAC has been used in alternative calibrations of FAGE for OH and HO₂ using the temporal evolution of appropriate species, in validation and development of new atmospheric measurement techniques as well as in kinetic and mechanistic studies of atmospheric relevant reactions (Malkin et al., 2010;Winiberg et al., 2015;Winiberg et al., 2016).

Direct LIF detection of CH₃O radicals, which is also a key intermediate in the oxidation of methane and other VOCs in the troposphere and formed by reactions such as (R3) and (R6.b), is also reported here. However, in the atmosphere CH₃O is exclusively consumed by reaction with O_2 (R4) generating formaldehyde and recycling HO₂, resulting in a very short lifetime and consequently very low concentration (~10²-10³ molecule cm⁻³). For this reason no measurements in the atmosphere have previously been attempted. The photolysis of CH₃OH at 184.9 nm is used to estimate the FAGE sensitivity for CH₃O. The dominant photolysis channel of methanol between 165 and 200 nm generates CH₃O radicals (Wen et al., 1994;Kassab et al., 1983;Marston et al., 1993):

$$CH_3OH \xrightarrow{165-200 \text{ nm}} CH_3O + H \tag{R9}$$

A photodissociation quantum yield of CH₃O of 0.86 ± 0.10 has been found at 193.3 nm (Satyapal et al., 1989) in qualitative agreement with analysis of the end-products of the methanol photodissociation at 184.9 nm (Porter and Noyes, 1959;Buenker et al., 1984). Here we report the first measurements of CH₃O concentrations in an atmospheric simulation chamber. Methoxy radicals are generated by the CH₃O₂ self–reaction carried out within HIRAC at 295 K and 1000 mbar of N₂ containing O₂ in trace amounts to reduce the rate of removal of CH₃O by reaction with O₂. This work enhances the capability of HIRAC to measure short–lived radical species by the addition of both CH₃O₂ and CH₃O detection, and we discuss the potential of the method for detection of CH₃O₂ in the atmosphere itself.

2 Experimental

2.1 The FAGE instrument

Details on the HIRAC-based FAGE instrument for the detection of OH and HO₂ has been presented previously (Winiberg et al., 2015). Figure 1 shows a schematic cross-section of the instrument inlet and the two fluorescence detection cells. The gas was sampled with a flow rate of 3.2 slm through a 1 mm diameter pinhole and passed down a 50 mm diameter flow tube of 280 mm length first into the OH detection axis and, after a further 300 mm, into the CH₃O₂ detection axis. The pressure in the detection cells was maintained at (2.65 ± 0.05) Torr by using a high capacity rotary-backed roots blower pumping system (Leybold, trivac D40B and RuVac WAU251). CH₃O₂ radicals were titrated to CH₃O by adding high purity NO (BOC, N2.5 Nitric Oxide) with a typical 2.5 sccm flow rate (further details in Section 2.2) ~25 mm before the second detection axis into the centre of the flow. The resultant CH₃O radicals were measured by LIF.



Figure 1. Vertical cross-section of the FAGE fluorescence cells. The first (left) fluorescence cell was used to detect OH fluorescence through a (308.8 ± 5.0) nm bandpass filter (transmission > 50 %) and the second cell to detect CH₃O₂ after titration with added NO to form CH₃O using a bandpass filter between 320–430 nm with an average transmission > 80%.

Probe laser light was generated by a Nd:YAG (JDSU Q201-HD) pumped dye laser (SIRAH Credo-Dye-N) using a DCM dye (Sirah) in ethanol and operating at 5 kHz pulse repetition frequency, with a pulse width at half maximum of 25 ns, typical pulse energy of 120 µJ pulse⁻¹ and a linewidth of 0.08 cm⁻¹ at 595 nm. The frequency doubled light at either ~308 nm (OH detection) or ~298 nm (CH₃O detection), was focused into fibre optic cables to be delivered to the two detection cells. OH and CH₃O radicals were separately detected by LIF spectroscopy by exciting at 307.99 nm using the Q₁(2) rotational line of the $A^2\Sigma^+$ (v' = 0) $\leftarrow X^2\Pi_i$ (v'' = 0) OH transition in the first detection axis to monitor on-resonant fluorescence (308.8 ± 5.0 nm) and excitation at 297.79 nm in the A^2A_1 ($v'_3 = 3$) $\leftarrow X^2E$ ($v''_3 = 0$) CH₃O transition in the second detection axis to monitor red-shifted off-resonant LIF (320-430 nm). Here v_3 refers to the C–O stretching vibrational mode of CH₃O which demonstrates a progression in the LIF spectrum (Inoue et al., 1980;Kappert and Temps, 1989;Powers et al., 1997;Nagesh et al., 2014). The fluorescence in the two cells was collected orthogonal to the gas flow by two microchannel plate photomultiplier tubes (MCP-PMT) (Photek PMT325/Q/BI/G) equipped with a 50 ns gate unit (Photek GM10-50) for gated photon-counting, and the signal was amplified using a pre-amplifier (Photek PA200-10). Further details on the OH detection and calibration in HIRAC have been reported previously (Winiberg et al., 2015).

The laser and photon-counting timing for CH₃O detection was controlled by a delay pulse generator (9520 Quantum Composers). The relatively broad bandpass filter used for the collection of the CH₃O fluorescence (average transmission > 80% between 320–430 nm) allowed some red-shifted scattered light (presumably from the walls of the chamber) generated by the probe laser to be transmitted and hence detected by the MCP-PMT. In order to ameliorate this and reduce the background signal, the gate unit was opened 100 ns after the laser pulse to detect fluorescence integrated over a gate-width of 2 μ s. The optimum gate-width of 2 μ s (values in the range 1-3 μ s were compared) is consistent with the CH₃O fluorescence lifetimes, calculated to be in the range of 0.9 – 1.5 μ s, using the reported radiative lifetimes for CH₃O of 1.5 μ s (Inoue et al., 1979), 2.2 μ s (Ebata et al., 1982) and (4 ± 2) μ s (Wendt and Hunziker, 1979) and using the fluorescence quenching rate coefficients of N₂ and O₂ (Wantuck et al., 1987) to calculate the rate of quenching at the pressure in the FAGE detection cell ((2.65 ± 0.05) Torr). As the fluorescence lifetime of CH₃O(A) in the detection cell was 0.9–1.5 μ s, delaying the counting of the fluorescence by 100 ns makes very little difference (~ 10%) in the fraction of fluorescence collected.

All LIF signals reported here were normalized to the probe laser power as measured with a laser power meter (Maestro, Gentec-EO) before the start of each LIF measurement. Fluctuations in the relative laser power were monitored via a photodiode (UDT-555UV, Laser Components) during the measurements and were accounted for in the signal normalization. The LIF spectrum was corrected for the laser-scattered background by subtracting the normalized offline signal recorded over 60 s at the end of each LIF measurement using an offline wavelength λ (offline = 300.29 nm) = λ (online = 297.79 nm) + 2.5 nm, well away from any CH₃O absorption. The signals were large enough that during conditions where CH_3O_2 concentrations were constant (e.g. in calibrations or during HIRAC experiments where steady-state concentrations were generated) it was established that the laser-wavelength was stable over a long period once the laser wavelength had been tuned to the CH₃O transition. Hence, the online wavelength position for CH₃O fluorescence detection was found without using a reference cell. Figure 2 shows the laser excitation spectrum centred at ~298 nm in the v_3 vibronic band recorded using an increment of $\Delta \lambda = 10^{-3}$ nm. The spectrum agrees well with previous work (Inoue et al., 1980;Kappert and Temps, 1989;Shannon et al., 2013). Figure 3 shows typical laser excitation scans performed over a narrower range of wavelengths in order to locate λ (online). The LIF spectra were obtained by using the CH₃O or CH₃O₂ radicals generated in a flow tube described in Sect. 2.3.1, with the flow tube output impinged close to the FAGE sampling inlet. The radicals were generated using the 184.9 nm light output of a Hg Pen-Ray lamp by either the photolysis of methanol in nitrogen to generate $CH_{3}O$ or the photolysis of water vapour in synthetic air (to generate OH) in the presence of methane to form CH_3O_2 . The CH_3O radicals were directly detected, while the CH₃O₂ radicals were first converted to CH₃O species by added NO prior to the fluorescence detection cell (Fig. 1). Similar laser scans to the scans shown in Fig. 3 were recorded by using the CH₃O₂ radicals produced in a steady-state concentration in HIRAC using photolytic mixtures of Cl₂/CH₄/air as described in Sect. 2.3.2.2. There were no unexpected features in the laser scans recorded when FAGE sampled CH₃O₂ radicals from HIRAC, consistent with no interference being anticipated in the FAGE measurements of CH₃O as there were no other species in HIRAC absorbing at 298 nm and fluorescing at the wavelengths transmitted by the bandpass filter (average transmission > 80 % over 320 - 430 nm).

In this work the FAGE signals were large enough that during conditions where CH_3O_2 concentrations were constant (e.g. in calibrations or during HIRAC experiments where steady-state concentrations were generated) it was established that the laser wavelength was stable over a long period once λ had been tuned to the CH₃O transition. Hence, λ (online) was found without using a reference cell. We are in the process of developing a reference cell for field measurements in the future, when the concentrations of CH₃O₂ (and hence CH₃O after conversion) will be both lower and more variable over short timescales.



Figure 2. Laser excitation spectrum of the A^2A_1 ($\nu'_3 = 3$) $\leftarrow X^2E$ ($\nu''_3 = 0$) transition of the methoxy radical. CH₃O radicals were obtained by photolysis of methanol in N₂ at 184.9 nm. Fluorescence cell pressure = (2.65 ± 0.05) Torr; wavelength increment $\Delta \lambda = 10^{-3}$ nm, with each point corresponding to 5000 laser shots. The red arrow indicates the wavelength λ (online) ~ 297.79 nm used for the time–resolved kinetic studies of CH₃O.



Figure 3. Typical laser excitation scans of CH₃O performed over a much smaller range of wavelengths. Methoxy radicals were generated using OH/CH₄ (black line) to produce 5.5×10^{10} molecule cm⁻³ CH₃O₂, subsequently titrated to CH₃O by adding NO, and the photolysis of methanol (red line) to generate 4.9×10^{10} molecule cm⁻³ CH₃O directly. See main text for the description of the methods and calibration. The signal was normalised for the laser power ((10.3 ± 0.3) mW in methane method and (8.7 ± 0.2)

mW in methanol method). Fluorescence cell pressure = (2.65 ± 0.05) Torr; wavelength increment $\Delta \lambda = 10^{-3}$ nm, with each point corresponding to 5000 laser shots. The red arrow indicates the wavelength λ (online) ~ 297.79 nm used for the time–resolved kinetic studies of CH₃O.

2.2 Optimisation of the NO concentration for methyl peroxy radical detection

As NO was added ~ 25 mm prior the methoxy detection axis (Fig. 1), some of the methoxy radicals formed by Reaction (R3) reacted further with NO before the fluorescence detection:

$$CH_{3}O + NO \rightarrow CH_{2}O + HNO$$

$$(R10)$$

$$CH_{3}O + NO + M \rightarrow CH_{3}ONO + M,$$

$$(R11)$$

where $M = N_2$, O_2 . In addition to the above reactions, CH₃O reacts with O_2 by Reaction (R4). Figure 4 shows the dependence of the LIF signal on the concentration of NO obtained experimentally and by numerical simulations using Reactions (R3)–(R4) and (R10)–(R11) and outlined in the Supplementary Information. A maximum signal was obtained with added [NO] = 6.7×10^{13} molecule cm⁻³ for a reaction time of 3 ms, estimated from the linear flow velocity within the FAGE reactor. Figure 4 shows that the functional dependence with added [NO] of the experimental CH₃O signal and the simulated [CH₃O]/[CH₃O₂]₀ ratio display the same shape (within overlapping error limits) with the numerical simulations showing that [CH₃O]/[CH₃O₂]₀ at the detection axis was ~ 0.4 (i.e. 40 % conversion to CH₃O).



Figure 4. FAGE signal (left axis) and the ratio $[CH_3O]/[CH_3O_2]_0$ (right axis) as a function of the concentration of NO for a reaction time of 3 ms. Black squares are experimental CH₃O signals (errors are 1 σ) and red circles are the ratio $[CH_3O]/[CH_3O_2]_0$ generated by numerical simulations (percentage uncertainties are 20 %) using the chemistry system outlined in the main text and described in further detail in the Supplementary Information.

2.3 FAGE calibrations

 CH_3O and CH_3O_2 calibrations were carried out using the conventional radical source employed in fieldwork OH and HO_2 calibrations (Heard and Pilling, 2003) that produces radicals in a flow tube impinging just outside the FAGE inlet pinhole (Winiberg et al., 2015) and is described in Sect. 2.3.1. Two methods of calibration have been used for CH_3O_2 : the flow tube method and the kinetics of the self-reaction of CH_3O_2 carried out in HIRAC.

2.3.1 Calibration for methoxy radicals

In the CH₃O calibration experiments nitrogen (BOC, > 99.998 %) was used as carrier gas. Part of the N₂ flow was passed through a methanol (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 99.9 %) bubbler while the other portion bypassed the bubbler. The gas containing methanol vapour was then passed through a square cross-section flow tube of dimensions 13×13 (internal) $\times 300$ mm length with a flow rate of 40 slm (ensuring turbulent flow conditions), controlled by an electronic flow controller (Brooks, 0–100 slm air). The collimated light of a Hg Pen–Ray lamp (LOT–Oriel Hg–Ar) was directed across the flow tube (close to the downstream end) to photolyse methanol vapour. The flow tube output was impinged close to the FAGE inlet to sample CH₃O radicals at atmospheric pressure through a 1 mm diameter pinhole (Fig. 1).

The concentration of CH₃O radicals was calculated using Eq. (1):

$$[CH_{3}O] = [CH_{3}OH] \sigma_{CH_{3}OH, 184.9 \text{ nm}} \Phi_{CH_{3}O, 184.9 \text{ nm}} F_{184.9 \text{ nm}} \Delta t,$$
(1)

where $\sigma_{CH3OH, 184.9 \text{ nm}}$ is the absorption cross section of methanol at 184.9 nm, (6.35 ± 0.28) × 10⁻¹⁹ cm² molecule⁻¹, obtained by averaging reported values (Dillon et al., 2005;Jimenez et al., 2003;Nee et al., 1985), $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}}$ is the photon flux of 184.9 nm light and Δt is the irradiation time of the gas. Although it is known, based on end-product analysis, that the scission of O–H bond is a major photolysis channel of methanol at 184.9 nm (Buenker et al., 1984;Porter and Noyes, 1959), the photodissociation quantum yield of CH₃O at 184.9 nm, $\Phi_{CH3O, 184.9 \text{ nm}}$, has not been yet reported. Here it is assumed that $\Phi_{CH3O, 184.9 \text{ nm}}$ is equal to the photodissociation quantum yield at 193.3 nm, $\Phi_{CH3O, 193.3 \text{ nm}} = 0.86 \pm 0.10$, which has been reported (Satyapal et al., 1989). In order to determine the methanol vapour concentration in the flow tube, [CH₃OH], separate experiments were carried out with the same calibration system to bubble deionised water instead of methanol with the same flow rate. The water vapour concentration, [H₂O], was measured using a dew-point hygrometer (CR4, Buck Research Instrument) prior to the flow tube. Then [CH₃OH] was calculated using the averaged [H₂O] and the vapour pressures p_{CH3OH} and p_{H2O} at the temperatures measured for CH₃OH (13 °C) and H₂O (15 °C) in the bubbler:

$$[CH_{3}OH] = [H_{2}O] \frac{p_{CH_{3}OH}}{p_{H_{2}O}}$$
(2)

Equation 2 assumes that there were no losses of water vapour and methanol vapour by condensation in the tubing connecting the bubbler to the flow tube. This is as expected based on the small difference in temperature between the bubbler (*vide supra*) and the connecting tubing (typically held at ~ 20 °C) and as the gas going through the bubbler was diluted with the gas by-passing the bubbler.

N₂O photolysis at 184.9 nm to generate NO (via reaction of the photoproduct (O¹D) with N₂O giving a known yield of NO), which was subsequently measured using a commercial analyser, was used as a chemical actinometer to obtain the product $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}}$ × Δt (Winiberg et al., 2015) and hence calculate [CH₃O] via Eq. (1). The photolysis time, Δt , was estimated to be 8.3 ms, using the volumetric flow rate and the geometric parameters of the flow tube (assuming plug flow) and was in turn used to determine $F_{184.9}$ nm. Although it is the product $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}} \times \Delta t$ which is used to calculate [CH₃O], any change in the volumetric flow rate between the calibration and actinometry experiments will change Δt , and hence the product was corrected for any changes in volumetric flow rate. A range of [CH₃O] at constant [CH₃OH] was produced by changing the electrical current through the Hg lamp between 0 and 20 mA, and hence $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}}$, to generate the calibration plot presented in Fig. 5.



Figure 5. FAGE calibration for CH₃O at atmospheric pressure and 293 K; laser power $P = (12.9 \pm 0.3)$ mW and pressure in the detection cell of (2.65 ± 0.05) Torr. The FAGE signal, including the measurement with the Hg lamp turned off ([CH₃O] = 0), was obtained after subtraction of the offline signal, (12.3 ± 0.9) counts s⁻¹ mW⁻¹. Averaging time per point = 120 s. The error limits in [CH₃O] and the FAGE signal for the *x* and *y* axes respectively are representative of the 1 σ overall uncertainty, which contains the total systematic and statistical errors (see text for details of these). The error limits shown in the legend are the standard errors in the slope and intercept of the fit to the experimental data.

2.3.2 Calibration for methyl peroxy radicals

2.3.2.1 Flow tube method

Methyl peroxy radicals were generated by water photolysis at 184.9 nm (Reaction (R7)) to give OH followed by the reaction with excess methane in air (BOC, synthetic BTCA 178) – Reactions (R1)–(R2) to give CH₃O₂. The calibrations were performed using the set–up described above. Methane (BOC, CP grade, 99.5 %) was flowed at 82.5 sccm to convert OH into CH₃, which subsequently reacted rapidly with O₂ to form CH₃O₂. Figure S1 (Supplementary Information) shows an example of the OH signal with and without CH₄. The signal in the presence of CH₄ was (0.04 ± 0.04) of the signal in the absence of CH₄ showing that (0.96 ± 0.04) of OH was converted into CH₃O₂. The result is in agreement with the estimation of the fraction of OH titrated to CH₃O₂, 0.97, using a rate coefficient of 6.4×10^{-15} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ for the OH + CH₄ reaction (Atkinson et al., 2006) and an average residence time of OH in the calibration flow tube of 11 ms determined using the volumetric flow rate and the geometric parameters of the flow tube and position of the Hg pen lamp.

The concentration of CH_3O_2 was determined using Eq. (3):

 $[CH_3O_2] = 0.96 [OH] = 0.96 [H_2O] \sigma_{H2O, 184.9 \text{ nm}} \Phi_{H2O, 184.9 \text{ nm}} F_{184.9 \text{ nm}} \Delta t$

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(3)

where $\sigma_{\text{H2O}, 184.9 \text{ nm}}$ is the absorption cross section of water vapour at 184.9 nm, $(7.22 \pm 0.22) \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm}^2$ molecule⁻¹ (Cantrell et al., 1997;Creasey et al., 2000) and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{H2O}, 184.9 \text{ nm}}$ is the photodissociation quantum yield of OH, which is equal to unity. The values of $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}}$ and Δt were determined as described in the Sect. 2.3.1. No loss of CH₃O₂ by reaction with the HO₂ radicals generated by the reaction of H atoms with O₂ (R8) was encountered over the residence time of the radicals in the calibration flow tube (~11 ms) as CH₃O₂ reacts with HO₂ on a ten second timescale as determined using a reaction rate coefficient of $5.2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹ (Atkinson et al., 2006) and the radical concentrations in the flow tube. The CH₃O₂ radicals sampled through the FAGE pinhole expansion to a pressure of 2.65 Torr reached the detection region in about 85 ms while the calculated CH₃O₂ + HO₂ reaction half-life at this reduced pressure in the FAGE inlet was thousands of seconds and any change in the CH₃O₂ concentration is expected to be negligible.

Figure 6 shows results obtained from three separate calibration experiments. In the first two experiments air was humidified by passing a fraction of the air flow (40 slm total flow rate) through a deionised water bubbler. The hygrometer measured 7.5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ of water vapour prior to the calibration flow tube and the concentration of methane in the flow tube was 5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³. In the second experiment, a series of FAGE measurements were performed using a photon flux of $\sim 1.6 \times 10^{14}$ photon cm⁻² s⁻¹ to generate $\sim 4.5 \times 10^{9}$ molecule cm⁻³ CH₃O₂. In the third experiment [CH₄] = 10¹⁷ molecule cm⁻³ and all the air flow (now at 20 slm) was passed through the water bubbler to obtain 3×10^{17} molecule cm⁻³ H₂O vapour. The concentration of CH₃O₂ was varied by changing the photon flux in the range of 0.5– 1.5×10^{14} photon cm⁻² s⁻¹ to generate [CH₃O₂] = 1.5– 4.5×10^{10} molecule cm⁻³.



Figure 6. FAGE calibration for CH₃O₂ at atmospheric pressure and 293 K. The data were obtained by three separate experiments: two of them generating $[CH_3O_2] \cong 4.5 \times 10^9$ molecule cm⁻³ in the calibration flow tube (blue circles); laser power $P = (9.5 \pm 0.3)$ mW and (11.6 ± 0.4) mW, respectively and one experiment using $[CH_3O_2]$ in the range of $1.5-4.5 \times 10^{10}$ molecule cm⁻³ (red circles); $P = (9.2 \pm 0.2)$ mW. The pressure in the FAGE detection cell was maintained (2.65 ± 0.05) Torr in all experiments. Averaging time per point = 120 s. The error limits in $[CH_3O_2]$ and the FAGE signal for the *x* and *y* axes respectively are representative for the 1σ overall uncertainty, which contains the total systematic and statistical errors. The error limits shown in the legend are the standard errors in the slope and intercept of the fit to the experimental data.

2.3.2.2 CH₃O₂ second–order decay method

The principle behind this calibration method is that the second-order decay of CH_3O_2 is dependent upon its initial concentration, and hence its quantification offers an alternative way to calibrate the signal. The experiments were performed in the HIRAC chamber at 295 K and 1 bar of synthetic air obtained by mixing high purity oxygen (BOC, > 99.999 %)) and nitrogen (BOC, > 99.998 %) in the ratio of $O_2:N_2 = 1:4$. Methane (BOC, CP grade, $2-3 \times 10^{17}$ molecule cm⁻³) and molecular chlorine (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 99.5 %, $0.3-2.1 \times 10^{14}$ molecule cm⁻³) were delivered to the chamber. Eight UV black lamps (Phillips, TL-D 36W/BLB, $\lambda =$ 350–400 nm) housed in quartz tubes mounted radially inside the reactive volume were used to photolyse Cl₂ to generate Cl atoms and initiate the chemistry:

$$CH_4 + Cl \rightarrow CH_3 + HCl$$

$$(R12)$$

$$CH_3 + O_2 + M \rightarrow CH_3O_2 + M$$

$$(R2)$$

Numerical simulations using the chemical system described in Table S3 in the Supplementary Information showed that $[Cl]_0 = 1 - 6 \times 10^6$ molecule cm⁻³ (varied by changing the initial [Cl₂]). The high excess of methane $(2-3 \times 10^{17} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3})$ relative to $[Cl]_0$ ensured that the reactions of the Cl atoms with the self–reaction products formaldehyde and methanol were negligible. In each HIRAC experiment the lamps were alternatively turned on for 2–3 min and then off over 1–2 min to generate a series of typically 3–4 CH₃O₂ kinetic decays.

In order to detect CH_3O_2 the FAGE instrument was coupled to HIRAC through a custom-made ISO-K160 flange to sample the gas with a flow rate of ~ 3 slm. For most measurements, the 1 mm pinhole of the 280 mm long FAGE inlet was sampling ~230 mm from the chamber wall as in the OH measurements reported previously (Winiberg et al., 2015). Additional investigations into any CH_3O_2 gradient across the ~ 600 mm radius of HIRAC were conducted using measurements of CH_3O_2 formed by the CH_4 reaction with $O(^1D)$ generated by the photolysis of O_3 at 254 nm followed by the reaction of the produced CH_3 radical with O_2 at 295 K and 1 bar of synthetic air. An extended FAGE inlet (length 520 mm) was used to sample along 500 mm across the chamber starting with the inlet pinhole flush at the wall. A constant concentration of CH_3O_2 was found (within the 10 % overall error of the measurement) for all the sampled distance 0 - 500 mm from the wall (note that 0 mm here refers to the FAGE inlet being at an equivalent position to the wall away from the mounting flange). The absence of a CH_3O_2 gradient across the chamber provides evidence of the efficacy of the mixing in HIRAC and shows that the wall–loss of CH_3O_2 FAGE measurements within HIRAC, improving further the sensitivity.

2.4 Methoxy radical measurements within HIRAC

The experiment was carried out in HIRAC at 295 K and 1 bar of N₂ (BOC, > 99.998 %), but without any NO added to the FAGE cell (the cell furthest from the pinhole as shown in Fig. 1) so that [CH₃O] is measured directly. Initial concentrations in HIRAC were: $[CH_4]_0 = 4.50 \times 10^{17}$ molecule cm⁻³ and $[Cl_2]_0 = 5.57 \times 10^{15}$ molecule cm⁻³. After adding the reagents into the chamber the lamps (*vide supra*) were turned on to generate CH₃O by Reaction (R6.b).

3 Results

3.1 Sensitivity and detection limits for CH₃O₂ and CH₃O radicals obtained from calibrations

3.1.1 Flow tube method

The FAGE sensitivity for CH₃O₂ (C_{CH3O2}) and CH₃O (C_{CH3O}), is the slope of the linear regressions in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, which were $C_{CH3O2} = (4.1 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ and $C_{CH3O} = (5.1 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹. The error limits, 34 % for C_{CH3O2} and 43 % for C_{CH3O} , are overall 2σ uncertainties calculated using the sum in quadrature of the systematic uncertainties, 33 % for CH₃O₂ and 42 % for CH₃O (details in Section 3.2.1), and the statistical errors from the calibration plots, ~ 8 %. The higher errors in C_{CH3O} compared to C_{CH3O2} are due to the uncertainty in the methanol concentration, which is not determined directly (*vide supra*), $1\sigma \cong 7$ % and the error in the yield of CH₃O. The value of the CH₃O photolysis yield from CH₃OH reported at 193 nm was used (0.86 ± 0.10), which has an uncertainty of 11.63 % at the 1σ level (Satyapal et al., 1989).

From the sensitivity factor, C, the limit of detection (*LOD*) was calculated using Eq. (4) and assuming Poisson statistics appropriate for single photon counting:

$$LOD(CH_3O_2) = \frac{S/N}{C_{CH_3O_2}P} \sqrt{\frac{BKG}{t} \left(\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n}\right)}, \qquad LOD(CH_3O) = \frac{S/N}{C_{CH_3O}P} \sqrt{\frac{BKG}{t} \left(\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n}\right)}, \qquad (4)$$

where *S/N* is the signal-to-noise ratio, *P* is the laser power, *BKG* is the background signal and had a typical value of ~100 counts s⁻¹, which represents ~50 counts s⁻¹ laser scattered light within the detection cell and ~50 counts s⁻¹ scattered visible light which enters the pinhole from the room with a negligible contribution (1 count s⁻¹ on average) of the detector dark counts, *t* is the time per data point, *m* represents the number of online data points and *n* is the number of offline data points. For a typical 5 min averaged signal, i.e. m = n = 150, S/N = 2, P = 15 mW and t = 1 s, and using the values of *C* from the calibration, $LOD(CH_3O_2) = 3.8 \times 10^8$ molecule cm⁻³ and $LOD(CH_3O) = 3.0 \times 10^8$ molecule cm⁻³. An increase of the averaging time to 1 hour, i.e. m = n = 1800 data points, results in a decrease of the detection limits to $LOD(CH_3O_2) = 1.1 \times 10^8$ molecule cm⁻³ and $LOD(CH_3O) = 8.7 \times 10^7$ molecule cm⁻³.

Although CH₃O₂ has not been measured specifically in the atmosphere, there have been several calculations of its concentration using numerical models. In general, the concentration of CH_3O_2 is a function both of the loadings of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and the levels of NO_x. For the clean, remote environments at Cape Verde in the tropical Atlantic ocean and in the Borneo rainforest [CH₃O₂] is calculated to peak around 6×10^8 molecule cm⁻³ and about 2×10^8 molecule cm⁻³, respectively at noon using the modeling studies reported by Whalley et al. (Whalley et al., 2010; Whalley et al., 2011). Therefore, it should be possible using the FAGE conversion method to CH₃O and for an averaging time of 1 hour (vide supra) to achieve a measurement of atmospheric levels of CH₃O₂ in such clean environments, and shorter averaging times in some cases. Further optimizations of FAGE sensitivity can be achieved by the removal of the fibre optic cables to deliver the probe laser beam directly to the CH₃O detection cell to increase the laser power and, by increasing the pulse repetition frequency above the current value of 5 kHz (but without significant reduction in the pulse energy). The present investigations into the change of sensitivity with pressure in the range from 2.65–10.00 Torr found that 2.65 Torr is the optimum value in this pressure interval. The result suggests that, by reducing the pressure in the above range of values, the decrease in fluorescence due to the reduction in the CH_3O number density was overcome by the increase in the fluorescence quantum yield due to a lower fluorescence quenching rate. Another reason could be that the characteristics of the jet expansion and/or the ensuing flow to the LIF detection region change with pressure, leading to a more favourable transmission of radicals to the detection region, but it is difficult to test this experimentally. Hence an additional improvement in the sensitivity might be obtained by using a lower detection cell pressure than the current value of 2.65 Torr using a more powerful pump. It should be also noted that the distance from the inlet pinhole to the laser-axis in the CH₃O and CH₃O₂ fluorescence cell (Figure 1, ~ 580 mm) is considerably longer than the corresponding distance in the ground–based field fluorescence cell for OH and HO₂ detection (88 mm), and improvements in sensitivity would be expected for a shorter pinhole–to–laser excitation distance for CH₃O₂. The further optimizations of sensitivity and the planned construction of a reference cell to find the online wavelength position could potentially enable CH₃O₂ measurements to be made in urban environments where CH₃O₂ concentrations are estimated to be considerably lower, for example a few 10⁷ molecule cm⁻³ based on modeling results (Whalley et al., to be submitted).

The calibrations using the flow tube ("wand") method have been performed under water vapour concentrations similar to the ambient [H₂O_{vapour}] but few orders of magnitude higher than those present in the HIRAC chamber experiments. In contrast with [H₂O_{vapour}], the methane concentrations used in the "wand" method were similar to [CH₄] present in HIRAC but higher than [CH₄] in the atmosphere. However, as detailed in this paragraph, the effects of methane and water on our sensitivity are minimal. Estimations using the reported fluorescence quenching rate coefficient of CH₃O(A) by CH₄, $k_{\text{quench.CH4}} = 1.05 \times 10^{-10} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (Wantuck et al., 1987) and the concentrations of CH₄ in the LIF detection cell for the calibrations using the flow-tube $(1.7 \times 10^{14} \text{ molecule})$ cm⁻³ and 3.4×10^{14} molecule cm⁻³, corresponding to 5.0×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ and 1.0×10^{17} molecule cm⁻³, respectively in the flow tube) resulted in only $\sim 1-2\%$ lower fluorescence quantum yield compared to the value determined in the absence of CH₄. No literature value has been found for the fluorescence rate coefficient of $CH_3O(A)$ fluorescence by H_2O vapour. However, even if it assumed to be as large as the above reported value for CH₄ (k_{quench.CH4}), only a few percent decrease in the fluorescence quantum yield is computed (compared with a water concentration of zero) for the levels of H_2O vapour which are present at the CH_3O_2 FAGE detection axis when using the "wand" calibration method. These levels (1-2% v/v) are similar to a typical water vapour concentration in the atmosphere. A very good agreement has been obtained between the calibration factors for CH_3O_2 detection with two different concentrations of water vapour in the flow tube: 7.5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ or 3.0×10^{17} molecule cm⁻³ (corresponding to 2.6×10^{14} molecule cm⁻³ and 1.0×10^{15} molecule cm⁻³, respectively in the FAGE cell) as shown in Figure 6 in Sect. 2.3.2.1. This very good agreement for H_2O vapour and the above calculations for CH_4 support the use of the flow tube method for the FAGE calibration of the CH₃O₂ concentrations.

3.1.2 Methyl peroxy calibration using kinetics of the CH₃O₂ second–order decay

An alternative method of calibration for CH_3O_2 was to generate CH_3O_2 radicals in HIRAC to monitor the temporal decay of the CH_3O_2 FAGE signal once the photolysis lamps were turned off. Figure 7 shows an example of a decay in the CH_3O_2 signal generated by extinguishing the HIRAC lamps following the production of CH_3O_2 by the Cl atom initiated oxidation of CH_4 in the presence of O_2 (Reactions (R12) and (R2)). In the absence of other processes, the loss of CH_3O_2 is described by the integrated second–order rate law equation describing the CH_3O_2 self–reaction (Reaction (R6)):

$$\frac{1}{[CH_3O_2]_t} = \frac{1}{[CH_3O_2]_0} + 2 \cdot k_{obs}t,$$
(5)

where $[CH_3O_2]_t$ is the methyl peroxy concentration at reaction time *t*, $[CH_3O_2]_0$ is the initial concentration when the lights are switched off and k_{obs} is the observed rate coefficient (which is not equal to k_6 , see below). Using $[CH_3O_2] = \frac{S_{CH_3O_2}}{C_{CH_3O_2}}$, where $S_{CH_3O_2}$ is the signal measured by FAGE and $C_{CH_3O_2}$ is the instrument sensitivity, Eq. (6) is obtained for the temporal profile of the methyl peroxy signal:

$$\frac{1}{(S_{CH_3O_2})_t} = \frac{1}{(S_{CH_3O_2})_0} + \frac{2 \cdot k_{obs}t}{C_{CH_3O_2}} \qquad \text{or} \qquad (S_{CH_3O_2})_t = 1 / \left(\frac{1}{(S_{CH_3O_2})_0} + \frac{2 \cdot k_{obs}t}{C_{CH_3O_2}}\right), \tag{6}$$

In Eq. (6) $(S_{CH3O2})_t$ and $(S_{CH3O2})_0$ are the signal at time *t* and t = 0 respectively.

Eq. (6) was fitted to the experimental decays of S_{CH3O2} (see Fig. 7 as an example) fixing k_{obs} to the IUPAC recommendation, $k_{obs} = (4.8 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, in order to obtain C_{CH3O2} . Eighteen CH₃O₂ decays were analysed, which yielded an average value of $C_{CH3O2} = (5.6 \pm 1.7) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹. The error limit, 30 %, is the 2σ composite error calculated as the sum in quadrature of the total systematic uncertainty, 29 % (see Section 3.2.2), and the average random error of all determinations, with 8 %, taken as two standard errors in the fit of Eq. (6) to the CH₃O₂ temporal decays. This value agrees well with $C_{CH3O2} = (4.1 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ obtained from the flow-tube calibration method (section 3.1.1).



Figure 7. Second–order decay of the normalized CH₃O₂ signal with 1 second time resolution generated in HIRAC using Cl/CH₄/O₂ and black lamps (see main text for details); $[CH_4]_0 = 2.3 \times 10^{17}$ molecule cm⁻³ and $[Cl_2]_0 = 5.8 \times 10^{13}$ molecule cm⁻³ at 295 K and 1 bar mixture of N₂:O₂ = 4:1. At time zero the lamps were turned off. Fitting Eq. (6) to the data yielded $C_{CH3O2} = (5.1 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ (statistical error at 1 σ level).

Based on the lack of a measurable CH₃O₂ radical gradient across HIRAC (Section 2.3.2.2, *vide supra*) it is assumed that the loss of CH₃O₂ to the walls of HIRAC in these experiments was negligible over the timescale of 1–2 min of the temporal decay measurements. Our finding is consistent with previous results showing that the heterogeneous wall–loss rates for CH₃O₂ were significantly lower than the corresponding removal rates of HO₂ (Miyazaki et al., 2010;Mihele et al., 1999;Fuchs et al., 2008). Using a 30 cm long glass tube of 2 cm diameter, Miyazaki et al. measured that the heterogeneous removal efficiency for CH₃O₂ was six times lower than for HO₂. The HO₂ wall–loss rate coefficient at room temperature and 1000 mbar in HIRAC was found to be of ~ 10^{-2} s⁻¹ (Winiberg et al., 2015). Therefore, it can be expected that the wall–loss rate coefficient of CH₃O₂ in HIRAC was $k_{loss} \cong 10^{-3}$ s⁻¹ and so is not considered in the analysis here for CH₃O₂ decays which typically last for ~ 100 s. In order to investigate the sensitivity of C_{CH3O2} obtained by the kinetic analysis of the CH₃O₂ decay to k_{loss} higher than 10^{-3} s⁻¹, a wall–loss rate coefficient of 10^{-2} s⁻¹ was included in the analysis of the experimental decays of CH₃O₂ to obtain C_{CH3O2} , but only an increase in C_{CH3O2} of about 6 % on average was seen. A small deviation of the experimental data from the fit was obtained at the end of the measurements whether or not k_{loss} was included in the analysis (Fig. 7). The role of potential secondary chemistry at later times of the reaction will be investigated in future kinetic studies of the CH₃O₂ self–reaction.

Using the average sensitivity factor $C_{CH3O2} = (5.6 \pm 1.7) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ determined by the CH₃O₂ decay method in HIRAC, and for a signal to noise ratio S/N = 2, a laser power P = 15 mW and a time per data point t = 1 s in Eq. (4) results in an improved (compared with the flow tube calibration) $LOD(CH_3O_2) = 2.8 \times 10^8$ molecule cm⁻³ for 5 min averaging time, i.e. 150 online data points (*m*) and 150 offline points (*n*). The corresponding LOD for an averaging time of 1 hour, i.e. m = n = 1800is $LOD(CH_3O_2) = 7.9 \times 10^7$ molecule cm⁻³.

It should be noted that the observed rate coefficient, k_{obs} , is larger than the second-order rate coefficient of just the CH₃O₂ recombination reaction (R6), k_6 , as the methoxy radicals generated by channel R6.b react rapidly with molecular oxygen present in large excess, 5×10^{18} molecule cm⁻³, to produce HO₂ (R4) which in turn reacts with CH₃O₂ (R13):

$CH_3O_2 + CH_3O_2 \rightarrow CH_3OH + CH_2O + O_2$	(R6.a)
$CH_3O_2 + CH_3O_2 \rightarrow CH_3O + CH_3O + O_2$	(R6.b)
$CH_3O + O_2 \rightarrow CH_2O + HO_2$	(R4)
$CH_3O_2 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_3OOH + O_2$	(R13.a)
$CH_3O_2 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_2O + O_2 + H_2O$	(R13.b)

As each HO₂ radical consumes one CH₃O₂ species (R13) on the time scale of the reaction (R6), k_{obs} is given by (Sander and Watson, 1981;Lightfoot et al., 1990):

$$k_{\rm obs} = k_6 \cdot (1 + r_{6,b}) \tag{7}$$

where $r_{6,b}$ is the branching ratio for the reaction channel R6.b. According to IUPAC (Atkinson et al., 2006), there is a 23 % uncertainty in k_{obs} of the CH₃O₂ recombination at 298 K with a recommended value $k_{obs} = 4.8 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹. This value corresponds to $k_6 = (3.5 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ and $r_{6,b} = 0.37 \pm 0.06$ (Atkinson et al., 2006).

In order to check the validity of Eq. (7) in the presence of HO₂ removal by self–reaction and wall–loss, numerical simulations were performed to generate CH₃O₂ decays using a system incorporating the chemistry described by Reactions (R4), (R6), R(13) and R(14) (*vide infra*) and a heterogeneous loss of HO₂, $k_{loss(HO2)}$ (Supplementary Information). The rate coefficients were sourced from the IUPAC preferred values at 298 K (Table S3 in Supplementary Information) and $k_{loss(HO2)}$ was varied. The simulated decays of [CH₃O₂] vs. time were analysed using Eq. (5) (see Fig. S3 as an example) and gave an average observed rate coefficient of $k_{obs} = 4.7 \times 10^{-13}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, which is only 2 % lower than the IUPAC recommendation, for $k_{loss(HO2)}$ varied between 0.01–0.10 s⁻¹ and, hence confirm the applicability of Eq. (7).

$$HO_2 + HO_2 \rightarrow H_2O_2 + O_2$$

$$HO_2 + HO_2 + M \rightarrow H_2O_2 + O_2 + M$$
(R14.a)
(R14.b)

3.2 Calibration uncertainties

3.2.1 Flow tube method

The 2σ error associated with C_{CH3O2} of 34 % obtained by the flow tube method ($C_{CH3O2} = (4.1 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹), represents the overall uncertainty calculated using the sum in quadrature of the systematic uncertainty, 33 %, and the

statistical error from the calibration plots, ~ 8 %. The overall 34 % uncertainty is similar to the previous estimated total uncertainty, 36 %, in the use of the same method for calibration of OH and HO₂ measurements in HIRAC, where no CH₄ is added (Winiberg et al., 2015). The flow tube method is a proven method to generate known amounts of OH and HO₂ by the photolysis of H₂O at 184.9 nm in order to calibrate field instruments (Heard and Pilling, 2003).

The largest contribution to the total error of the method came from the 28 % total uncertainty in the photon flux of the calibration source, $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}}$. The product $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}} \times \Delta t$ is determined using N₂O actinometry relying on the measurement of [NO] in trace amounts (0.2–1.5 ppbv) using a commercial NO analyser (Thermo Electron Corporation 42C) followed by the data analysis using four rate coefficients each with ~ 10 % uncertainty (Burkholder et al., 2015). Although it is the product $F_{184.9 \text{ nm}} \times \Delta t$ which is directly determined by the actinometric method and used to calculate the concentration of radicals to calibrate FAGE (Eq. (3)), any difference in the volumetric flow rate between the calibration and actinometry experiments will change Δt . Therefore, the uncertainty in Δt , 2 %, needs to be accounted for. The contributions from the rest of the terms in Eq. (3) to the systematic uncertainty in the determination of [CH₃O₂] by this method were as follows: 6 % total error in $\sigma_{H2O, 184.9 \text{ nm}}$ (Cantrell et al., 1997), 10 % uncertainty in [H₂O], taken from the instrumental uncertainty of the hygrometer and 4 % error in the yield of CH₃O₂ produced by the OH conversion into CH₃ followed by the CH₃ + O₂ reaction. The contribution of the uncertainties in the FAGE measurements to the 33 % overall systematic uncertainty in the calibration were estimated to consist of 12 % in the online FAGE signal and 6 % uncertainty in the laser power measured by the laser power meter and used to normalize the data. The uncertainty associated with the online signal, 12 % at 2 σ level, was calculated as the average deviation of the signal value due to the error limits of $\pm 5 \times 10^{-4}$ nm in the online wavelength position (see the typical laser excitation scans shown in Fig. 3).

3.2.2 CH₃O₂ second–order decay calibration

The largest contribution to the calculated overall 2σ uncertainty of 30 % in C_{CH3O2} obtained by the CH₃O₂ second–order decay method ($C_{CH3O2} = (5.6 \pm 1.7) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹), derives from the 23 % error in the IUPAC preferred value of the observed rate coefficient for the effective CH₃O₂ self–reaction, $k_{obs} = (4.8 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-13}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Atkinson et al., 2006). It is instructive to examine the origin of the 23 % error. The studies which led to the IUPAC recommendation utilized the UV–absorption of CH₃O₂, typically at 250 nm, and the determined quantity was the ratio between the observed rate coefficient and the absorption cross section of CH₃O₂, k_{obs}/σ_{250nm} . IUPAC and the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) recommend 3.9 × 10⁻¹⁸ and 3.8 × 10⁻¹⁸ cm² molecule⁻¹, respectively for σ_{250nm} (Atkinson et al., 2006;Burkholder et al., 2015). The JPL recommendation (Burkholder et al., 2015) is the cross section obtained by the re–evaluation of the previous reported UV–absorption spectra by Tyndall et al. in 2001 (Tyndall et al., 2001), yielding $\sigma_{250nm} = 3.78 \times 10^{-18}$ cm² molecule⁻¹. Tyndall et al. used a cross section of (4.26 ± 0.52) × 10⁻¹⁸ cm² molecule⁻¹ (error at 2σ) for the maximum at 237.3 nm, obtained by analysing the shape of the absorption spectra between 200–300 nm reported since 1990. The studies before 1990 were not included due to errors in the calibration of the CH₃O₂ cross section leading to large discrepancies in the reported values. The 2001 evaluation of Tyndall et al. calculated $k_{obs} = (4.7 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-13}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ where the error limits are two standard deviations of the mean. Including an error of 10 % in the cross section of CH₃O₂, as suggested by the authors (Tyndall et al., 2001), a 19 % composite uncertainty in k_{obs} is obtained. The result is in good agreement with the 23 % uncertainty in the IUPAC recommendation.

The remaining contributions to the uncertainty in the calibration using the CH_3O_2 second-order decay method are: 6 % error in the laser power, 12 % uncertainty in the online signal determined by how well the laser is able to find the online wavelength position (*vide supra*) and 10 % error in (S_{CH3O2})₀ in Eq. (6), the value of the CH_3O_2 signal at the moment when the HIRAC lamps were turned off to generate a second-order decay.

3.2.3 Comparison between the FAGE sensitivities for CH₃O₂ obtained by the two calibration methods

The FAGE sensitivity factor obtained using the flow tube method, $C_{CH3O2} = (4.1 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹, is 27 % lower but has overlapping error limits with the result found using the CH₃O₂ second–order decay method, $C_{CH3O2} = (5.6 \pm 1.7) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ (uncertainties quoted to 2σ). The calculated overall error in the CH₃O₂ second–order decay method, 30 %, is similar to the total uncertainty in the flow tube method, 34 %. The flow tube method is known to reliably generate accurate concentrations of radicals and has been used for many years in the calibration of FAGE instruments employed in field measurements of OH and HO₂ (Heard and Pilling, 2003). The flow tube method has also been validated by using alternate methods of calibration, for example using the decay of a hydrocarbon in the HIRAC chamber to obtain [OH] (Winiberg et al., 2015). The method of using a time–resolved kinetic quantity to derive a calibration factor was validated for HO₂ in HIRAC, where C_{HO2} obtained from analysis of the temporal decay of HO₂ agreed with C_{HO2} from the flow tube method (Winiberg et al., 2015). These results suggests that the sensitivity of the FAGE system, represented by the value of *C*, is not changed between sampling from the calibration flow tube and sampling from within HIRAC itself.

The accuracy of the CH₃O₂ temporal decay method is largely determined by the accuracy of k_{obs} (see section 3.2.2. above). The quantity measured in the previous kinetic studies of CH₃O₂ + CH₃O₂ is k_{obs}/σ_{250nm} and hence the accuracy of k_{obs} is directly affected by any systematic errors in the determination of σ_{250nm} . In order to make C_{CH3O2} derived from the temporal decay and flow tube methods of the same, the value of k_{obs} would need to be reduced by ~ 25 %, which in turn requires a ~ 25 % reduction in σ_{250nm} . It is noted that the UV–absorption spectrum of CH₃O₂ is relatively broad and hence may prevent a selective detection due to the difficulty to discriminate from the potential presence of other species also absorbing around 250 nm, such as Cl₂ and CH₃CHO used in concentrations as high as 10¹⁶ molecule cm⁻³, while [CH₃O₂] was ~ 10¹³ molecule cm⁻³ (Dagaut and Kurylo, 1990;Roehl et al., 1996). As the absorption cross sections of Cl₂ and CH₃CHO at 250 nm lay in the range 10⁻²¹–10⁻²² cm² molecule⁻¹ (Keller-Rudek et al., 2013), the unaccounted for absorption of these species may have led to an overestimation of σ_{250nm} (CH₃O₂).

As noted in the 2001 review by Tyndall et al. (Tyndall et al., 2001), none of the previous laboratory studies of the CH_3O_2 recombination measured [CH_3O_2] by any method other than UV–spectroscopy. In addition, the traditional time–resolved measurements of CH_3O_2 used high CH_3O_2 concentrations ($10^{13}-10^{15}$ molecule cm⁻³) and, as the self–reaction is fairly slow, Tyndall et al. stated that the results were potentially affected by secondary chemistry (Tyndall et al., 2001). Therefore, there is a need for the use of a complementary technique in the kinetic study of this reaction, for example by LIF as described in this paper, which may offer some advantages to probe CH_3O_2 selectively in the absence of interferences from other species. In addition, LIF is more sensitive and hence requires significantly lower radical concentrations ($[CH_3O_2]_0 = (1-3) \times 10^{11}$ molecule cm⁻³ here) than for the UV–absorption studies which may help to minimize potential secondary chemistry.

3.3 Methoxy radical measurement within HIRAC

The typical concentration of $[O_2] = 5 \times 10^{18}$ molecule cm⁻³ used in the HIRAC experiments described above was lowered in some experiments to decrease the consumption of CH₃O by O₂ via Reaction (R4). In this manner, a concentration of methoxy radicals was obtained above the FAGE limit of detection in HIRAC to enable a direct measurement over few minutes. The chamber was filled with high purity nitrogen (> 99.998 %), but the ~ 6 m long N₂ delivery pipe was purposely incompletely purged before the experiment in order to deliver trace levels of oxygen to HIRAC. The initial Cl₂ concentration in these experiments was 5.6 × 10¹⁵ molecule cm⁻³ and hence is 1–2 orders of magnitude higher than [Cl₂]₀ used in the kinetic experiments above in order to generate higher [Cl] and hence [CH₃O]. The concentration of CH₃O during the experiment was computed by using the FAGE calibration factor for methoxy radicals generated from the photolysis of methanol in N₂, $C_{CH3O} = (5.1 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ (Sect. 3.1.1). The temporal profile of CH₃O is shown in Fig. 8, together with a numerical

simulation of CH₃O(*t*) using a chemistry system described in the Supplementary Information. The best fit to the experimental CH₃O concentration profile was obtained for $[O_2] = (5.4 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{15}$ molecule cm⁻³, i.e. around 0.02 % relative to N₂. The numerical simulations showed that Cl₂ consumption was dominated by the reaction with CH₃ radicals, present at a relatively high concentration, explaining the ~ 50 % decrease in [CH₃O] observed during its temporal measurement shown in Fig. 8. The Supplementary Information (Fig. S5) shows the concentration profiles of Cl₂, Cl, CH₃ and CH₃O₂ obtained by numerical simulations performed over ~ 2 min.



Figure 8. Concentration of CH₃O as a function of time in HIRAC: red points are the experimental data and black points are generated by a numerical simulation. CH₃O radicals were formed as a product of the self-reaction of CH₃O₂ species at 295 K and 1 bar of N₂, with CH₃O₂ generated by the reaction of Cl atoms with CH₄, with the HIRAC black lamps being turned on at time zero. Oxygen was present in trace amounts, determined to be $(5.4 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{15}$ molecule cm⁻³ from comparison of the simulations to the experimental data. The chemical mechanism used in the numerical simulations is presented in the Supplementary Information.

These results demonstrate the capability to measure an absolute concentration of CH_3O radicals in a simulation chamber, with CH_3O representing a further model target species for the validation of chemical mechanisms for the chemical oxidation of VOCs. However, it is recognized that the experiments need to be performed at reduced $[O_2]$, and that $[O_2]$ needs to be known *a priori* in order to test robustly the accuracy of the chemical mechanism and underlying kinetic parameters.

4. Conclusions

Currently there is no measurement of the absolute concentration of CH_3O_2 radicals in the atmosphere. In this work the FAGE technique has been extended by adding the capability to detect CH_3O_2 and CH_3O radicals to the more typical measurement of OH and HO₂ radicals. The method enables the speciated and sensitive detection of CH_3O_2 radicals by converting CH_3O_2 into CH_3O by reaction with NO and detecting the resultant CH_3O by LIF with excitation at *ca*. 298 nm. The limit of detection of the method obtained using the radical source commonly employed to provide accurate concentrations of OH with added CH_4 , is 3.8×10^8 molecule cm⁻³ for a signal-to-noise ratio of 2 and 5 min time resolution and reduces to 1.1×10^8 molecule cm⁻³ for S/N = 2 and 1

hour averaging time. Therefore, the method has the potential to be used in field measurements of the diurnal profiles of CH₃O₂ in clean air with low NO_x levels, such as remote continental environments and in the marine boundary layer. Further improvements of the FAGE sensitivity could be achieved via the increase in the laser repetition frequency above the current value of 5 kHz, a decrease in the detection chamber pressure (currently ~ 2.65 Torr), and the use of a shorter distance between the inlet sampling pinhole and the fluorescence detection axis (presently a long distance of ~ 580 mm). The method is also demonstrated for the direct detection of CH₃O, in the absence of added NO to the fluorescence cell. The limit of detection for CH₃O determined using the conventional radical source for S/N = 2 and 5 min averaging time is 3.0×10^8 molecule cm⁻³.

Additional investigations into the FAGE sensitivity for CH₃O₂ were carried out in the HIRAC simulation chamber at Leeds, by studying the kinetics of the second-order decays of CH₃O₂ by its self-reaction. The second-order decays of CH₃O₂ were analysed by fixing the observed rate coefficient to the IUPAC recommendation, $k_{obs} = (4.8 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-13}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, (Atkinson et al., 2006) in the fitting routine to extract the FAGE sensitivity factor for CH₃O₂, C_{CH3O2} . The obtained value, $C_{CH3O2} = (5.6 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹, agrees well with the result found using the conventional radical source, $C_{CH3O2} = (4.1 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{-10}$ counts cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ mW⁻¹ (uncertainties quoted to 1 σ). The two values have overlapping error limits at 1 σ level.

In addition to the quantitative detection of CH_3O_2 , experiments were carried out to measure CH_3O generated as a product by the CH_3O_2 self-reaction in HIRAC. Oxygen was present at a significantly lower concentration to reduce the consumption rate of CH_3O by reaction with O_2 in order to enable the measurement. Good agreement between the experimental data and $[CH_3O]$ generated by numerical simulations using a model describing the chemical system was obtained, demonstrating the capability to quantitatively measure CH_3O . As well as CH_3O_2 , a measurement of CH_3O will be useful as a further model target in future mechanistic studies of atmospherically relevant chemical systems within HIRAC.

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