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Fine particle emissions from tropical peat fires decrease rapidly with time since ignition

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Key Points:

- In this study we show that emissions of PM_{2.5} from Malaysian peat fires are likely three-times larger than previously assumed.
- We show that the emissions of fine particulate matter from peat fires in the field decrease rapidly with the age of the fire
- We show that the likely cause is the accumulation of an ash layer as the peat burns below the surface.

Abstract

Southeast Asia experiences frequent fires in fuel-rich tropical peatlands, leading to extreme episodes of regional haze with high concentrations of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) impacting human health. In a study published recently, the first field measurements of PM_{2.5} emission factors for tropical peat fires showed larger emissions than from other fuel types. Here we report even higher PM_{2.5} emissions factors, measured at newly ignited peat fires in Malaysia, suggesting current estimates of fine particulate emissions from peat fires, may be underestimated by a factor of three or more. In addition, we use both field and laboratory measurements of burning peat to provide the first mechanistic explanation for the high variability in PM_{2.5} emission factors, demonstrating that build-up of a surface ash layer causes the emissions of PM_{2.5} to decrease as the peat fire progresses. This finding implies that peat fires are more hazardous (in terms of aerosol emissions) when first ignited than when still burning many days later. Varying emission factors for PM_{2.5} also has implications for our ability to correctly model the climate and air quality impacts downwind of the peat fires. For modelers able to implement a

36 time varying emission factor, we recommend an emission factor for PM_{2.5} from newly ignited
37 tropical peat fires of 58 grams of PM_{2.5} per kilogram of dry fuel consumed (g.kg⁻¹), reducing
38 exponentially at a rate of 9% per day. If the age of the fire is unknown or only a single value may
39 be used, we recommend an average value of 28 g.kg⁻¹.

40

41 **1 Introduction**

42 Tropical peatland fires in Southeast Asia release huge amounts of particulate and gaseous
43 carbon to the atmosphere [Page *et al.*, 2002; Turetsky *et al.*, 2015], accounting on average for
44 approximately 10-15% of the net estimated global total greenhouse gas emissions from
45 deforestation and forest degradation, albeit with significant interannual variability [Ballhorn *et al.*,
46 2009; van der Werf *et al.*, 2009]. Fire emission inventories usually estimate emissions using
47 the algorithm of Seiler and Crutzen [1980], which multiplies together the total area burned, the
48 fuel loads, combustion efficiencies and the emission factors (the mass of each species emitted
49 per unit of dry vegetation burned). Within the fire emissions inventory GFED4s (Global Fire
50 Emissions Database 4s), from 1997 to 2016, on average peat fires in Indonesia account for 3% of
51 total fire PM_{2.5} emissions globally. This contribution increases during El Niño years when fires
52 are elevated. The most extreme year on record was 1997 when this region accounted for 17% of
53 total fire PM_{2.5}. During the more recent 2015 El Niño episode, the contribution was 8%, while
54 the contribution is very small (less than a percent) during wet years [van der Werf *et al.*, 2017].
55 These seasonal peatland fires destroy unique ecosystems and release aerosols with significant
56 impacts on air quality, agricultural productivity, human health and regional economies [Gaveau
57 *et al.*, 2014]. Unlike forest fires on mineral soils, (which usually burn with great intensity, lofting
58 emissions high into the atmosphere), peat fires typically smoulder for a long time producing
59 enormous quantities of fine particulates, which become trapped in the planetary boundary layer
60 [G. Rein, 2013]. For example, in 2015 smoke from peat fires in Indonesia blanketed much of
61 Asia in a persistent plume of pollution throughout September and October [Field *et al.*, 2016;
62 Huijnen *et al.*, 2016], contributing to an estimated 100,000 premature deaths due to exposure to
63 fire-related air pollution [Kopplitz *et al.*, 2016]. Due to long-range transport of these emissions,
64 tropical peatland fires frequently affect large areas of the world [Andreae, 1983; Edwards *et al.*,
65 2006; Viatte *et al.*, 2015].

66 Emission factors are defined as the grams of a species emitted to the atmosphere per
67 kilogram of dry fuel consumed and are used to calculate total emissions from fires [Andreae and
68 Merlet, 2001]. Previous studies of fine particulate emission factors (EFs) from temperate
69 peat/organic soils in North Carolina, USA found significant variability in EFs between sites and
70 studies with Geron and Hays [2013] reporting PM_{2.5} EFs ranging from 9 g.kg⁻¹ to 79 g.kg⁻¹. For
71 tropical peat fires Inuma *et al.* [2007] reported a PM₁₀ EF of 33 g.kg⁻¹ and May *et al.* [2014]
72 reported a PM₁ EF of 34.9 g.kg⁻¹ from laboratory burns of Indonesian peat. Emissions from
73 temperate and tropical peat are likely to be different, since there are differences in composition
74 (e.g. tropical peat has significantly higher carbon content) [Hu *et al.*, 2018]. Temperate and
75 boreal peats are derived largely from sedges, shrubs and Sphagnum and other mosses, whereas
76 the tropical peats of SE Asia are derived largely from the leaves, wood, and roots of trees
77 because the peatlands are forested with diverse trees up to 70 m tall [Yule, 2010]. Consequently,
78 tropical peats tend to be largely composed of lignin and the products of lignin degradation (e.g.
79 tannins, humic acids and other phenolic compounds), whereas temperate and boreal peats have

80 much larger proportions of cellulose and hemicellulose, and less lignin and its derivatives
81 [Andriessse, 1988].

82 Until recently there were no reported emission factors for PM_{2.5} from tropical peat fires in
83 the field, despite their extremely detrimental impact on regional air quality. Previous estimates
84 of excess mortality in the region relied on predicted emissions extrapolated from measurements
85 from other fuel types or regions [Giglio *et al.*, 2013; Lelieveld *et al.*, 2015; van der Werf *et al.*,
86 2010]: with GFED4 using an emission factor of 9.1 g.kg⁻¹ for PM_{2.5} [Van der Werf, 2013]. The
87 first EFs for PM_{2.5} from tropical peat fires were reported by Stockwell *et al.* [2016] (whilst this
88 study was in progress) and included EFs from five different smoke plumes at two different peat
89 fires in Indonesia. Their observed PM_{2.5} emission factors ranged from 15.7 g.kg⁻¹ to 29.6 g.kg⁻¹
90 [Stockwell *et al.*, 2016]. These EFs are significantly larger and more variable than emissions of
91 PM_{2.5} from other non-soil fuel types (with boreal forests showing the next largest and most
92 variable emissions of PM_{2.5} with values of 15 ± 7 g.kg⁻¹ dry fuel consumed) [Akagi *et al.*, 2011].
93 Neither studies of temperate peat EFs [Geron and Hays, 2013] nor that of Stockwell *et al.* [2016]
94 explore the reasons behind the variability in PM_{2.5} emissions. Black *et al.* [2016] measured PM_{2.5}
95 emissions from laboratory burns of peat cores from North Carolina, USA over 5 to 7 hours in
96 duration, noting that emissions in the first 3 hours of the burn were 3 to 10 times larger than for
97 the final few hours. This suggests that as the fire progresses, there are changes in the burning
98 conditions that influence the emission of fine particulates. Given the evidence for premature
99 mortality occurring as a result of PM_{2.5} pollution [Lelieveld *et al.*, 2015], there is a need for an
100 improved understanding of the magnitude and causes of variability of PM_{2.5} emissions from
101 tropical peat fires. In this paper we present PM_{2.5} EFs from *in-situ* measurements of Malaysian
102 peat fires that are considerably higher than the previous assumed value of 9.1 g.kg⁻¹, (as used in
103 global fire emissions databases based on measurement in tropical forests because peat-specific
104 measurements were lacking [Giglio *et al.*, 2013]). This finding means that recent estimates of
105 deaths attributable to PM_{2.5} for biomass burning in the region are likely to be underestimated. We
106 also observed that the emission of fine particles decreased rapidly with the age of the peat fire
107 (i.e. the time since ignition). We hypothesize that this phenomenon occurs because of an
108 accumulation of peat ash over the surface of the burning peat, which impedes the fire's access to
109 oxygen and acts as an aerodynamic filter, reducing particulate emissions to the atmosphere.
110 Finally, we present strong evidence from a series of laboratory-based peat burn experiments to
111 support this theory. This finding implies that newly ignited fires are particularly hazardous for
112 human health due to their large emission of PM_{2.5}.

113 **2 Methodology and field sites**

114 In this study we present emission factors for PM_{2.5} derived from measurements made *in*
115 *situ* at peat fires burning in North Selangor, Malaysia. The experimental methodology involves
116 coincident and collocated measurements of PM_{2.5} and carbon monoxide (CO) in fresh smoke
117 within a few meters of the burning peat in order to establish emission ratios (of PM_{2.5} to CO).
118 Emission factors of PM_{2.5} can then be calculated by combining these emission ratios with
119 emission factors of CO from the fires (see e.g. [Paton-Walsh *et al.*, 2014; Smith *et al.*, 2018;
120 Smith *et al.*, 2014; Stockwell *et al.*, 2016]). An aerosol monitor measured PM_{2.5} concentrations
121 (see Section 2.1), whilst mole fractions of CO were measured with a Thermo Scientific Model
122 48i CO analyser (see Section 2.2). The instruments' inlets were deployed in close proximity to
123 one another and immediately downwind of peat fires burning in the vicinity of 3.68 °N, 101.05
124 °E. Fire plumes were sampled on six different days over one month, at four different locations,

125 with measurements made within 10 m of the burning peat. Most fires were the result of “slash
126 and burn” practices, where palm oil fronds had been set alight above the peat, with the fire
127 spreading into the peat and persisting for weeks after the surface slash fire had ceased. One fire
128 had been ignited at numerous places on top of piles of peat, in preparation for planting a crop of
129 okra. Photographs are provided in Figure 1, and further details of the fires are given in a
130 supplementary information section.

131 **2.1 Measurements of PM_{2.5} and CO concentrations**

132 We used a TSI DustTrak DRX 8533 aerosol monitor and a Thermo Scientific Model 48i CO
133 analyser to estimate emission ratios of PM_{2.5} to CO. An Ecotech Aurora 1000 integrating
134 nephelometer was successfully deployed and sufficiently collocated on the 14th and 27th July
135 2016 to act as a separate measure of aerosol loading, and yielded agreement within 7%. The
136 nephelometer and DustTrak instruments both measure light scattering at different wavelengths,
137 from which total PM_{2.5} concentrations may be inferred, by reference to an independent
138 gravimetric measurement (the estimate of PM_{2.5} concentrations from the measured light
139 scattering assumes a size distribution of particles that matches that used to calibrate the
140 instruments by reference to gravimetric samples). Prior to deployment at the Malaysia peat fires
141 the DustTrak and nephelometer were calibrated against gravimetric standards in a smoke
142 chamber experiment in Australia using wood-smoke and coal. The results agreed within the
143 precision of determining the calibration factor (~ 5%) for wood-smoke and within 20% for coal
144 (with the DustTrak reading lower than the gravimetric value). In addition, the DustTrak showed
145 excellent agreement with continuous coincident PM_{2.5} measurements made with a Met-One
146 model BAM-1020 beta-attenuation monitor with the DustTrak reading 3% lower than the BAM-
147 1020 for wood-smoke (with an R² of 0.94), and <2% lower for coal (R² of 0.97). We assume
148 that the size distribution for peat smoke (and hence the DustTrak response) will lie between that
149 of the wood-smoke and the coal (as most peat smoke particles are in the PM_{2.5} size range [*Geron*
150 *and Hays*, 2013; *Hu et al.*, 2018]), but we were unable to calibrate the DustTrak directly against
151 gravimetric standards in peat smoke. We have estimated the uncertainty in the DustTrak
152 measurements of PM_{2.5} in peat smoke to be ±20%, which dominates the uncertainty in the
153 emission ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO. We have estimated a larger uncertainty in the final peat fire
154 emission ratio (at site 4) due to possible interference from surface vegetation combustion.

155 The CO analyser was calibrated using a 5,092 ppm standard of CO, diluted using an Environics
156 6100 diluter to concentrations of 39.6 ppm, 29.7 ppm, 24.7 ppm, 19.8 ppm, 9.9 ppm, 4.9 ppm
157 and 0.0ppm, with concentrations agreeing within 2%. Mole fractions of CO were converted to
158 equivalent concentrations, assuming standard atmospheric pressure and an ambient temperature
159 of 305 K, such that 1 ppm of CO is equivalent to 1.11 mg m⁻³ of CO.

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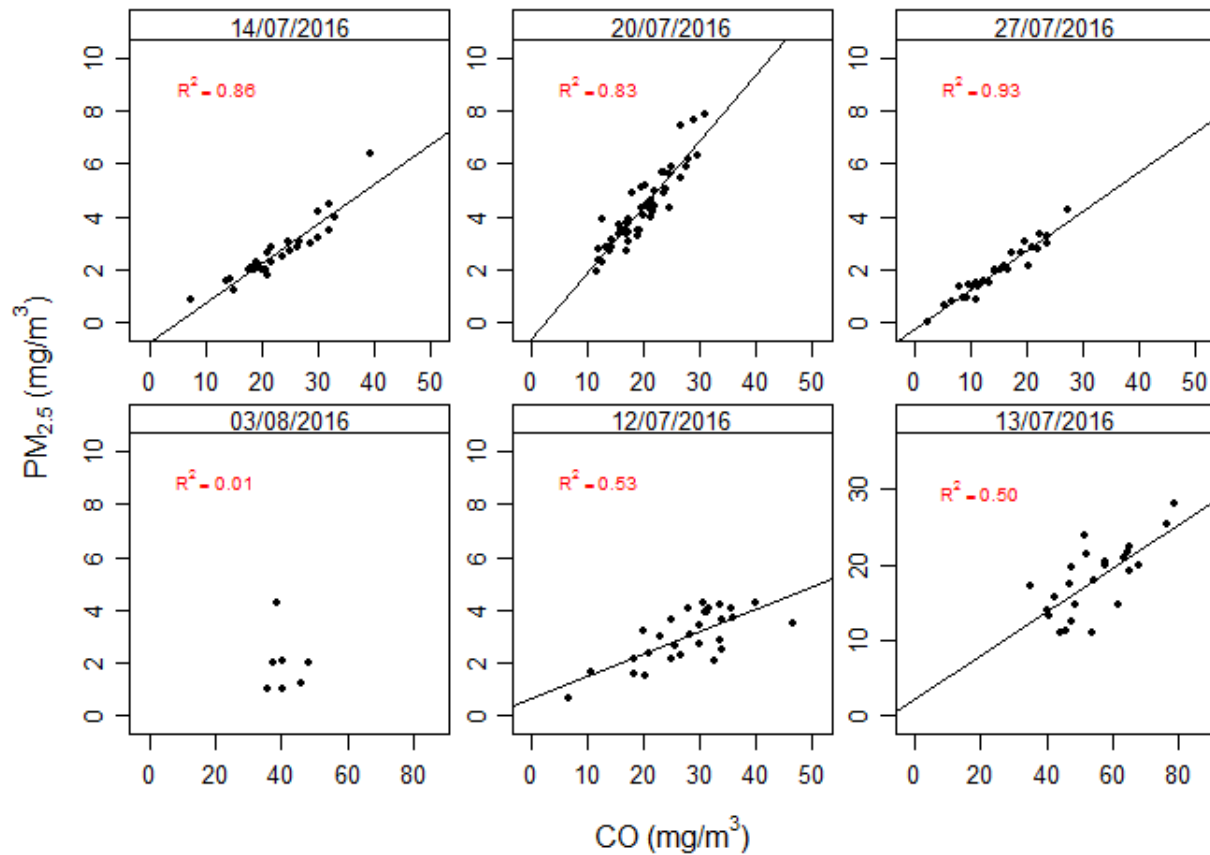
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Figure 1: (A) Site 1, 12 July 2016; (B) Site 2 (okra), 13 July 2016; (C) Site 3, 14 July 2016; (D) Site 4, 20 July 2016; (E) Site 4, 27 July 2016; (F) Site 4, 3 August 2016

168

2.2 Determining emission ratios of $PM_{2.5}$ to CO

169 The 5-second averages of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were shifted by approximately 90-seconds and
170 averaged over one minute in order to yield the best correlation to one-minute averages of CO
171 concentrations, by accounting for differences in integration/sampling time of the different
172 measurements. Figure 2 shows scatter plots of $PM_{2.5}$ and CO concentrations at each of the fires.



173
174 **Figure 2: Correlation plots of PM_{2.5} plotted against CO observed at the six peat fires sampled.**

175

176 **2.3 Measurements of Modified Combustion Efficiency (MCE)**

177 Modified combustion efficiency (MCE) was measured using a handheld CO/CO₂ monitor
178 (KANE 100-1). This uses a non-dispersive infrared sensor for measuring CO₂ and an
179 electrochemical sensor for carbon monoxide. MCE is the ratio of excess CO₂ over background
180 divided by the sum of excess CO and excess CO₂ over background [Hao and Ward, 1993] and is
181 used to characterise the efficiency of burning within a fire. The instrument was calibrated prior to
182 deployment and showed agreement within 1% of coincident measurements of MCE made at two
183 fires with the FTIR described below.

184 **2.4 Measurements of the Emission Factor for CO**

185 The emission factor for CO (grams of CO emitted per kilogram of dry fuel burned) was
186 calculated from *in situ* measurements of trace gas mole fractions using open-path Fourier
187 transform infrared spectroscopy. A full description of the use of this method for determining
188 emission factors from biomass burning can be found in Smith *et al.* [2014]. Here, we deployed a
189 MIDAC M2000 series FTIR spectrometer to measure the spectra of an infrared lamp located 18–
190 28 m from the spectrometer on two occasions (20 July 2016 and 27 July 2016) at Site 4. The
191 aerosol sampling equipment was located approximately in the middle of the path. Carbon content
192 of the peat is required for the calculation of emission factors. This was found to be 55.5%, as

193 determined from our peat carbon content measurements of four samples collected from Site 4
194 (see Section 2.5). Uncertainties in emission factors for CO (determined by calculating the
195 combined uncertainties from: the spectral database; the impact of uncertainties in the temperature
196 on the spectral line strengths; spectral fitting uncertainties and uncertainties in the gradient of
197 best fit) are estimated at 16% [Paton-Walsh *et al.*, 2014]. When combined in quadrature with the
198 20% estimated uncertainties in the emission ratios of PM_{2.5} to CO, this yields an uncertainty in
199 emission factors of PM_{2.5} of 25%.

200 **2.5 Measurements of peat bulk density, moisture content, and carbon content**

201 Fuel moisture content and bulk density measurements were determined after *in situ* sampling.
202 Peat samples were taken from all four field sites from 2016 using a surface core sampler with a
203 volume of 785 cm³. Two samples were taken at Sites 2, 3 and 4, while only one sample was
204 taken at Site 1. All samples were then separated into pre-weighed aluminium trays and their
205 initial wet weight was measured on a Sartorius TR212 balance (S/N: 24003700 calibration date
206 17/08/2016). After which all samples were inserted into a Memmert UFB400 (S/N: EN60529)
207 drying oven at 60°C for seven days. After drying was complete samples were removed from the
208 oven and allowed to cool to room temperature over two hours. Samples were then weighed to
209 determine their final dry weight for the calculation of moisture content. The bulk density of
210 samples from sites 1, 3, 4 and the samples used for experimental burning (Section 5) were within
211 6% of each other, whilst Site 4 had significantly lower bulk density, having been ploughed in
212 preparation for planting. Fuel moisture for all sites in July/August 2016 (Sites 1 and 4
213 determined as 53%, Site 3 as 53% and Site 2 at 62%), was lower than the samples collected
214 experimental burns (in January 2017), which had a moisture content of 77%. For carbon content
215 analysis, subsamples of peat and ash were oven dried at 105°C for 7 hours and then hand-milled
216 for homogenization. Carbon content of the sub-samples was analysed using 20 mg of material
217 enclosed in a tin capsule and measurements undertaken using a total element analyser (Thermo
218 Flash EA 1112, CE Instruments).

219 **3 Emission factors of PM_{2.5}**

220 Average background amounts of 0.1 ppm of CO and 29 µg m⁻³ of PM_{2.5} (measured upwind of
221 the fires just before or after sampling the smoke plumes) were subtracted from the measurements
222 within the smoke plumes and the emission ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO at each of the fires (Table 1) was
223 determined by calculating the total excess PM_{2.5} divided by the total excess CO (described in
224 Paton-Walsh *et al.* [2014]). Gaseous emission factors for two of our fires (20 July 2016 and 27
225 July 2016) are reported by Smith *et al.*, [2018]. They calculate emission factors of 200 and 201
226 grams of CO per kilogram of dry fuel consumed (EF CO, in g.kg⁻¹), assuming the fraction of
227 carbon emitted as particulate matter (F_{PMC}) to be 0.0127 as reported by previous studies of PM
228 EFs for tropical peatlands [Jayarathne *et al.*, 2017]. Our subsequent analysis of PM_{2.5} emissions
229 from these fires finds an F_{PMC} of 0.043, and so we recalculate the EF CO for these fires to be
230 194 and 195 g.kg⁻¹ (using Eqn. 3 in Smith *et al.*, [2018].). MCE showed little variability across
231 the fires sampled and so the mean emission factor for CO of 194.5 g.kg⁻¹, was used to convert
232 the emission ratios to emission factors of PM_{2.5} in grams per kilogram of dry fuel burned (Table
233 1).

234 Very large variability in measured emission ratios of PM_{2.5} to CO was found from the peat fires
235 sampled, across six different days and at four different sites. There was more than a factor of six

236 between the largest and the smallest emission ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO, despite relatively small
 237 variations in the bulk density and fuel moisture content at the sites. The fuel moisture content
 238 was determined from predominantly unburnt peat samples at the sites, but in reality will decrease
 239 as the fire progresses, drying the peat in its path. However, fuel moisture differences are unlikely
 240 to explain the variability in emissions of PM_{2.5}, because MCE was relatively constant at the fires
 241 sampled (at $\sim 0.83 \pm 0.02$).

242
 243 Emission factors for PM_{2.5} measured in this study are surprisingly large, with only the lowest
 244 measured emission factor in agreement with the assumed value of 9.1 g.kg⁻¹ in the most widely
 245 used global biomass burning inventory (GFED4 [*van der Werf et al.*, 2017]). Note that GFED
 246 used PM_{2.5} emission factors from tropical forest burning for peat fires, because no actual
 247 measurements for tropical peat were available previously [*Giglio et al.*, 2013]. The mean value
 248 measured of 28 g.kg⁻¹ is approximately three times the previous inventory value and similar to
 249 the largest value reported recently by *Stockwell et al.* [2016]. The largest emission factor was
 250 more than twice this value at 58 g.kg⁻¹ and was observed at an okra field when small, freshly
 251 ignited man-made piles of pure peat were burning on the surface of the okra field. As explained
 252 above, the variability could not readily be explained by differences in MCE or fuel moisture and
 253 since the humidity was consistently above 65% and temperatures were in the low 30s centigrade,
 254 meteorological differences are insufficient to explain the spread of emission factors measured.

255
 256
 257 **Table 1:** Dates, age of burn, modified combustion efficiency (MCE), fuel moisture content, bulk density, minutes of
 258 data recorded, mean and standard deviation of the concentration of CO and PM_{2.5} measured, emission ratios (with
 259 1σ uncertainty) and emission factors (with 1σ uncertainty) for PM_{2.5} at each of the fires sampled.

260
 261

| Sampling Date and Location | Age of burn (days) | MCE | Fuel Moisture Content | Bulk Density | Minutes of Data | Mean conc CO mg/m ³ | Mean conc PM _{2.5} mg/m ³ | Emission Ratio PM _{2.5} /CO | Emission Factor PM _{2.5} g.kg ⁻¹ |
|----------------------------|--------------------|------|-----------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|--|
| 12/07/2016 Site 1 | >10 | 0.84 | 54% | 0.583 g cm ⁻³ | 60 | 31 ± 9 | 3.0 ± 1.0 | 0.10 ± 0.02 | 19 ± 5 |
| 13/07/2016 Site 2 | 0 | 0.81 | 62% | 0.438 g cm ⁻³ | 48 | 61 ± 13 | 18 ± 5 | 0.30 ± 0.06 | 58 ± 15 |
| 14/07/2016 Site 3 | 12 | 0.85 | 53% | 0.605 g cm ⁻³ | 60 | 25 ± 8 | 2.6 ± 1.2 | 0.10 ± 0.02 | 20 ± 5 |
| 20/07/2016 Site 4 | 6 | 0.84 | 54% | 0.625 g cm ⁻³ | 100 | 22 ± 6 | 4.3 ± 1.4 | 0.20 ± 0.04 | 38 ± 10 |
| 27/07/2016 Site 4 | 13 | 0.85 | 54% | 0.625 g cm ⁻³ | 60 | 16 ± 7 | 1.9 ± 0.9 | 0.12 ± 0.02 | 23 ± 6 |
| 03/08/2016 Site 4 | 20 | 0.8 | 54% | 0.625 g cm ⁻³ | 14 | 46 ± 5 | 2.0 ± 1.1 | 0.04 ± 0.03 | 8 ± 6 |

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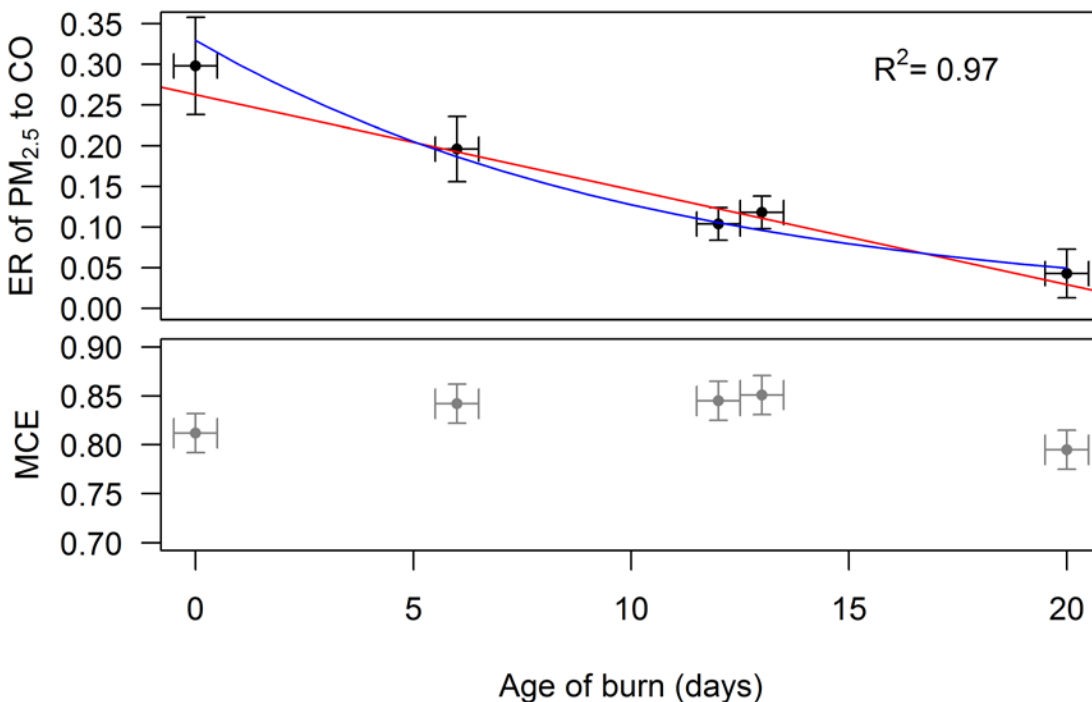
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264 4 Emission factors for PM_{2.5} change with age of burn

265 The ignition dates for all but the first burn are known from regular reconnaissance in the area.
 266 The date of ignition of the first burn is unknown (due to cloud cover and the limited spatial
 267 extent of the fire, no satellite hotspots were detected), but was greater than ten days, having been
 268 observed burning 10 days prior during initial scouting of the area. We noticed that the emission
 269 ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO showed a strong anti-correlation with the age of the peat fire (see Figure 3),
 270 with the emission ratio decreasing by approximately 9% per day. Both linear and exponential

271 regressions yield the same correlation coefficient ($R^2 = 0.97$), however an exponential decay is
 272 more physically reasonable, since we do not expect the emissions to drop to zero after 3 weeks.

273 From this observation, and observations of ash layers (see Figure 1A, 1B and 1E), we theorized
 274 that the peat ash accumulating on the surface of the peat as it burned downwards, could be the
 275 cause of the drop in emissions. The accumulation of ash insulates the fire and reduces the
 276 availability of oxygen. In addition we hypothesized that the ash might act as an aerodynamic
 277 filter, thereby reducing the emissions of $PM_{2.5}$ from the surface of the burn. Given that we had
 278 only sampled five fires with known ignition dates (and that the rains had set in, preventing
 279 further field measurements), we could not be sure that variables other than time since ignition
 280 (e.g. moisture, rainfall, wind etc) were not driving the variability. For this reason we decided to
 281 test our theory via a series of experimental burns, using peat collected from one of the field sites
 282 (Site 3 on 1 January 2017). If our theory was correct, we would expect to see rapid decreasing
 283 $PM_{2.5}$ emission ratios from laboratory burns and increasing carbon content in the overlying ash.



284
 285 **Figure 3:** $PM_{2.5}$ to CO emission ratios (upper panel) and MCE (lower panel) as a function of age of burn in days. A
 286 linear fit to the data is given in red and an exponential fit in blue: both fits yield an R^2 value of 0.97. The error bars
 287 indicate the estimated uncertainties in the age of the burn (± 12 hours); in MCE ($\pm 3\%$) and the 1σ uncertainties in
 288 the emission ratio (see Table 1).
 289

290 5 Supporting evidence from controlled peat burn experiments

291 An insulating chamber was filled with approximately 4000 – 6000 cm^3 of peat and ignited
 292 using a nichrome wire-bound ceramic ignition coil with 110 Watts of energy applied for 30
 293 minutes (as described in *Wilson et al.* [2015] and [*Guillermo Rein et al.*, 2008]). Once burning
 294 independently, the chamber was placed under a custom-made fume hood, where the sample

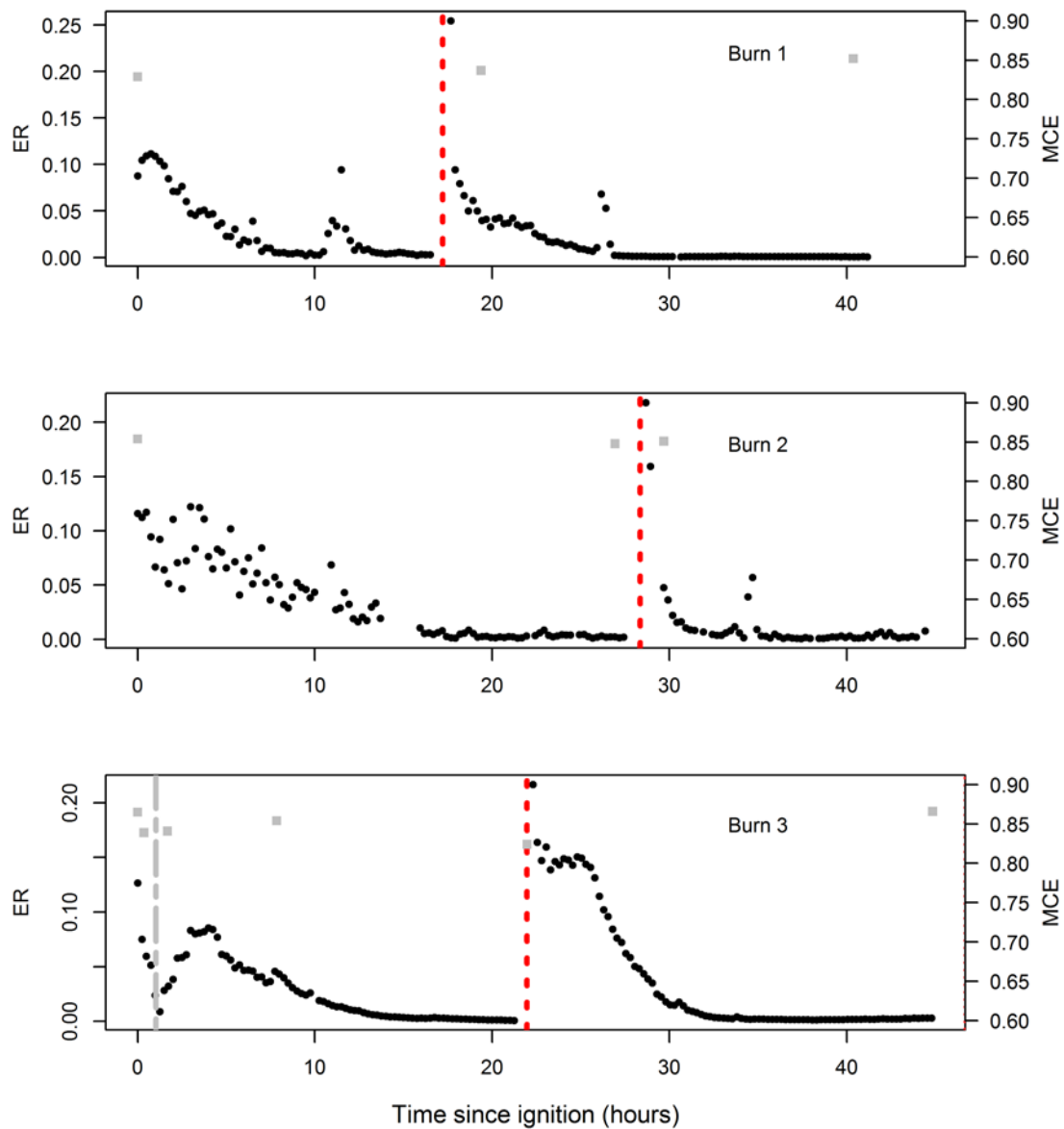
295 heads for the DustTrak and CO analyser were situated. The peat was left to burn for 24 hours
296 after which the accumulated ash was sampled and then removed using a spatula, leaving the
297 actively burning peat as the surface layer once again. We undertook two experimental burns in
298 this manner, yielding just less than four days of data. (Photographs of the experimental set-up are
299 provided in an additional figure as supplementary information to this manuscript).

300
301 We found that the emission ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO was initially high, with significant
302 visible smoke emanating from the chamber. The PM_{2.5} emissions decreased significantly with
303 time after ignition, whilst the CO emissions remained relatively elevated, such that the emission
304 ratio dropped steadily over time (at rates that varied between approximately 5% and 20% per
305 hour). The time-series of emission ratios of PM_{2.5} to CO during the first two experimental burns
306 are shown in the top two panels of Figure 4. We observed a ~60-90% decline in the emission
307 ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO over the first 8 hours of our burns, which is similar to the 64% and 91%
308 decline in measured PM_{2.5} emission factors across 7 hours reported for peat fuels in *Black et al.*
309 [2016]. Once the ash layer was removed, there was an obvious increase in visible smoke again
310 and the emission ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO increased to values similar to those recorded just after
311 ignition, before decreasing again as fire progressed. This additional evidence from the small-
312 scale laboratory burns, confirms the findings from the field campaign, that the emissions of
313 PM_{2.5} decrease with time since ignition as the peat fire progresses downwards and that the
314 decrease is caused by the accumulation of the ash layer on the surface of the burning peat.

315
316 During the removal of the ash layer (*c.* 3-4 cm in depth), samples were taken from the ash
317 surface and ash base (at a minimum of 7 different sampling points) for later analysis of carbon
318 content. In both experimental burns the ash from the surface layer had higher carbon content than
319 that from the ash base (Burn 1: 5.3% for surface ash vs 2.3% for base ash and Burn 2: 40% for
320 surface ash vs 15% for base ash). This supports our theory of the ash filtration effect, because the
321 ash at the base is newly formed and has had less time than the surface ash to capture carbon-rich
322 fine particulate matter emanating from the burning peat. Nevertheless, the carbon-content
323 measurements are very variable and other mechanisms by which the ash layer reduces the
324 emissions of PM_{2.5} cannot be ruled out, (for instance by changing the burning conditions by
325 reducing the supply of oxygen).

326
327 As a further test of the ash filtration theory, we ignited a third experimental burn and
328 measured the emitted CO and PM_{2.5} for approximately one hour. A layer of pre-incinerated ash
329 was then applied to cover the surface of the burning peat and measurements continued. We
330 noticed an immediate and substantial drop in the emitted PM_{2.5}, and the PM_{2.5} to CO emission
331 ratio. In the next few hours we observed visible smoke leaking out around the inside of the
332 chamber walls and an accompanying increase in the PM_{2.5} to CO emission ratio, until after 5
333 hours the emission ratio began to drop again as observed in the previous two experimental burns
334 (see bottom panel of Figure 4). We took samples of the pre-incinerated ash (before addition to
335 the surface of the experimental peat burn) and further samples of this added surface ash at
336 regular intervals as the burn progressed, for subsequent analysis for carbon content. We found
337 that the pre-incinerated ash (prior to its addition to the experimental burn surface) had a lower
338 carbon content (0.6%) than all of the subsequent post burn re-retrieved surface ash samples,
339 confirming that carbon rich smoke particles have been trapped in the pre-incinerated ash. The
340 first sample, taken one hour after the ash addition, showed discolouration (black amongst the

341 original yellow) and had a carbon content of 7.4%. Subsequent samples showed very significant
 342 variability (as opposed to steadily increasing % carbon), with carbon content values varying from
 343 1.1% to 4.7% in the centre of the chamber, to 38% at the edge of the chamber. This suggests that
 344 the added ash layer provided an inhomogeneous surface layer, with the smoke from the peat
 345 permeating through particular regions of the added ash. Despite the consistently higher carbon
 346 content of the ash that had been exposed to burning peat below it, the carbon content data
 347 showed sufficient variability that we cannot conclude with total certainty that the mechanism by
 348 which the particulate emissions decrease is through the $PM_{2.5}$ being captured by the
 349 accumulating ash layer.



350

351 **Figure 4.** Time-series of 15-minute averages of emission ratios $PM_{2.5}$ to CO (black dots and left-hand axis) and
 352 MCE (grey dots and right-hand axis). The emission ratio is high after ignition, dropping steadily as the fire burns
 353 downwards. Note that Burn 2 was ignited in 3 sections (and the other burns in a single section) and shows
 354 considerably more variability in the emission ratio. During all 3 burns, the emission ratio increases immediately

355 when the ash layer is removed (red dotted vertical line) and then decreases steadily. The time-series also show
356 occasional short-lived increases in the emission ratio above a very low baseline level, which we interpret as a
357 collapse in the ash pile, causing a disturbance to the surface. MCE does not vary significantly as the fire progresses
358 in any of the experimental burns. In Burn 3 the addition of the artificial ash layer is shown by the grey dotted
359 vertical line.

360

361

362

363

364 **6 Discussion & Conclusion**

365 This study has identified unexpectedly large emission factors of PM_{2.5} from newly-
366 ignited fires on disturbed tropical peatlands. These new measurements imply that PM_{2.5}
367 emissions from these fires have been previously underestimated, possibly by a factor of three or
368 more. These fires are known to cause widespread smoke (or haze) and to increase the incidence
369 of respiratory illnesses and mortality [Kopplitz *et al.*, 2016; Sahani *et al.*, 2014], such that accurate
370 knowledge of these emissions is important for understanding the impacts of these fires on human
371 health in the region. Southeast Asian peat fires account for about half of all biomass burning
372 emissions in that region [van der Werf *et al.*, 2017]. If our newly derived average emission factor
373 were implemented in GFED, peat fires would contribute 10% of global total PM_{2.5} emissions
374 from biomass burning (not 3% as with current emission factors), with Indonesia by far the largest
375 contributor to this. This is more than the total emissions from South America, despite the
376 significantly smaller surface area of the peatlands, and implies that this region has the highest
377 density of emissions anywhere in the world.

378 Several studies have aimed to estimate premature mortality from outdoor pollution.
379 *Lelieveld et al.* [2015] estimated that 52,000 people died prematurely in 2010 in Indonesia from
380 inhaling outdoor air pollution from various sources, with biomass burning being responsible for
381 27% of this number. Our results would boost this number through higher concentrations closer to
382 fires and the resulting larger area exposed to lower-level concentrations. While uncertain, this
383 boost may be largest during relatively low fire years, given that then the emission factors are
384 highest and the relation between exposure and mortality is relatively linear [Cohen *et al.*]. In
385 addition, *Lelieveld et al.* [2015] used emissions estimates from 2010, a year with substantially
386 lower-than-average fire emissions in Southeast Asia. Our results do not directly impact mortality
387 rates found by *Marlier et al.* [2013], because they boosted modelled PM_{2.5} to better match
388 satellite-derived aerosol optical depth (AOD). This has become common practice in aerosol
389 studies as aerosol models underestimate AOD by roughly a factor three [Kaiser *et al.* [2012],
390 although the degree to which scaling is necessary varies between studies. In fact, AOD can be a
391 poor indicator of surface PM_{2.5} [Ford and Heald, 2016] and the scaling will be influenced by the
392 degree of vertical mixing, which is often not well reproduced by models [Korhonen *et al.*, 2014].
393 While our findings are not applicable globally, this mismatch, and thus the need for scaling, is
394 one of the key open questions in biomass burning research. Use of higher emission factors for
395 PM_{2.5} as indicated by this study would lower the need for such scaling when modelling peat fires
396 in this region.

397 The decrease of fine particulate matter emissions with the age of the peat fire, as
398 described in this study, provides an explanation for the variability in emission factors observed in

399 this and other measurements reported in the literature recently [Stockwell *et al.*, 2016]. The
400 observed decrease with age of the fire was replicated in our experimental burns, with the
401 laboratory burns displaying more rapid decreases in emissions of PM_{2.5}. In a real peat fire
402 (especially at a slash and burn site), there will usually be a much greater surface area, because of
403 uneven ground. This will slow the accumulation of the ash layer barrier above the burning peat
404 and hence reduce the rate of decrease of fine particulate emissions. A real peat fire will spread
405 horizontally as well as downwards and so, in a larger scale fire, the peat is likely to be burning at
406 different depths and hence may produce different emissions factors for PM_{2.5} in different plumes
407 from the same fire as has been reported in the literature [Stockwell *et al.*, 2016]. Other factors,
408 such as burn temperature [Kuwata *et al.*, 2017], burn history [Konecny *et al.*, 2016; Kuwata *et*
409 *al.*, 2017] and peat soil bulk density [Wijedasa, 2016] have been used to explain variability in
410 aerosol properties and gas emissions and may also add to variability in PM_{2.5} emissions.

411 Use of a single average emission factor for PM_{2.5} from tropical peat fires, without
412 accounting for the decreasing emissions as a fire ages, will underestimate emissions from newly-
413 ignited fires and overestimate emissions from long-burning fires. In fact, fire emissions from the
414 Southeast Asian peatlands have the highest interannual variability of any region [van der Werf *et*
415 *al.*, 2010], due to the suppression of fires in wetter years when the forests flood more deeply and
416 for longer than in drier years [Fanin and Van Der Werf, 2017]. However using the results of this
417 study in models like GFED would dampen this interannual variability,. This is because low fire
418 years usually coincide with a short less intense dry season, (when many fires are started but do
419 not grow large because of the moist conditions) and our results show that these short-lived fires
420 have the highest emission factors of PM_{2.5}.

421 Despite the drawbacks of using a single average emission factor for PM_{2.5} from peat
422 fires, it may not always be possible to implement a time varying emission factor. Knowledge of
423 when the fire started in different areas of the peat may be missing, or the model may not allow
424 for variable emission factors. In these instances we recommend the use of a PM_{2.5} emission
425 factor of $24 \pm 6 \text{ g.kg}^{-1}$ which is the average value for all reported emission factors for PM_{2.5} from
426 tropical peat available in the literature (six from this study, averaging 26.4 g.kg^{-1} and seven from
427 Stockwell *et al.*, 2016, averaging 21.5 g.kg^{-1}).

428

429 In this study we have shown that emissions of PM_{2.5} from newly ignited peat fires are
430 likely three-times larger than previously assumed. We have found that the emissions of fine
431 particulate matter from peat fires decrease rapidly with the age of the fire, and shown that the
432 likely cause is the accumulation of an ash layer on the surface as the peat burns from the surface
433 downwards. This has important implications for understanding the impact of tropical peat fires
434 on both air quality and climate. Further measurements of emissions from tropical peat are needed
435 and future studies should ensure that the age of the fire is noted. In the meantime, for someone
436 wishing to implement these findings, we recommend the use of an emission factor for PM_{2.5}
437 from newly ignited tropical peat fires of 55 g.kg^{-1} , reducing exponentially at a rate of 9% per
438 day. Where implementation of a variable PM_{2.5} emission factor is not feasible, we recommend
439 use of an average PM_{2.5} emission factor of 24 g.kg^{-1} .

440

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 454 design, all fieldwork, all experimental burns, trouble-shooting, data analysis, QA/QC and calibrations, scientific
 455 interpretation and editing. Clare Paton-Walsh (Murphy) wrote the paper and contributed to the experimental design,
 456 some fieldwork, most of the experimental burns, trouble-shooting, data analysis, QA/QC and calibrations and
 457 scientific interpretation. Thomas Smith conceived of and led the project, took care of most of the logistics and
 458 contributed to the experimental design, all fieldwork, all experimental burns, trouble-shooting, scientific
 459 interpretation and editing. Élise-Andrée Guérette contributed to the data analysis, QA/QC and calibrations and
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 462 Rein contributed to the design of the experimental burns/ignition strategy, scientific interpretation and editing.
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