

1 **Emission Factors and Optical Properties of Black and Brown Carbon Emitted at a Mixed-**
2 **Conifer Forest Prescribed Burn**

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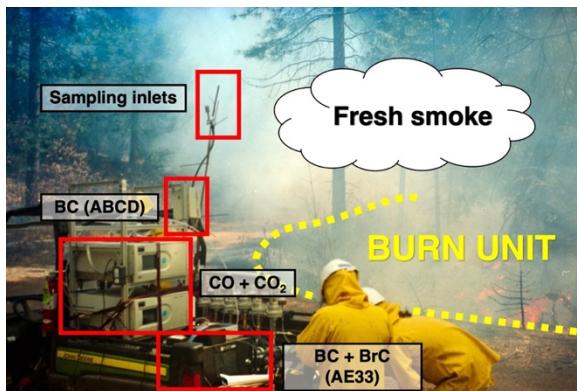
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24 **Abstract**

25 Prescribed burning is a fuel management practice employed globally that emits carbonaceous
26 aerosols that affect human health and perturb the global climate system. Fuel-based black and
27 brown carbon (BC and BrC) emission factors were calculated from ground and aloft smoke
28 during prescribed burns at a mixed-conifer, montane forest site in the Sierra Nevada in
29 California. BC emission factors were 0.52 ± 0.42 and $1.0 \pm 0.48 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ for the smoldering and
30 flaming combustion phases. Modified combustion efficiency is a poor predictor of BC emission
31 factor, in this study and published literature. We discuss limitations of using generalized BC to
32 PM_{2.5} mass emission ratios to generate emission inventories; using BC emission factors
33 measured in this study, we recommend BC to PM_{2.5} ratios of 0.7% and 9.5% for the smoldering
34 and flaming combustion in mixed conifer prescribed burns. We apportioned the measured aerosol
35 spectral absorption between BrC and BC and calculated absorption Ångström exponents (AAE)
36 of 6.26 and 0.67, respectively. Using a BrC-specific absorption cross-section, we estimated BC
37 concentrations and a smoldering combustion BrC emission factor of $7.0 \pm 2.7 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$, nearly 14
38 and 7 times greater than the smoldering and flaming BC emission factors. Furthermore, we
39 estimate that BrC would account for 23% and 82%, respectively, of the solar radiation absorbed
40 by the smoldering smoke in the atmosphere integrated over the solar spectrum (300–2500 nm)
41 and in the UV spectrum (300–400 nm), indicating that BrC affects tropospheric photochemistry
42 in addition to atmospheric warming.

43

44 **Key Figure**



45

46

47 **Keywords**

48 Prescribed burn, black carbon, brown carbon, emission factor, light absorbing aerosol, wildland
49 fire fuel consumption model

50

51 **1 Introduction**

52 Prescribed burns are controlled burns that consume excess and dead fuel in an ecosystem,
53 like the duff, shrubs and dead biomass in the forest understory, or floor. In contrast, wildfires are
54 uncontrolled burns that may consume both the understory and overstory, or canopy, of a forest
55 and may spread to nearby property, endangering the homes and lives of people in the wildland
56 urban interface. Routine prescribed burns, or other fuel management practices like mechanical
57 thinning, reduce the risk and severity of wildfire ignition in forest ecosystems and increase the
58 resistance to ecosystem transition (i.e., conversion of forest to shrubland) caused by wildfires
59 (Steel et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2023).

60 Prescribed burns and wildfires emit fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), carbon monoxide
61 (CO), carbon dioxide (CO₂), volatile organic compounds, and nitrogen oxides (Andreae, 2019;
62 Urbanski, 2014; Urbanski et al., 2008; Wiedinmyer et al., 2006). Emitted PM_{2.5} includes organic
63 aerosol, some of which is light-absorbing brown carbon (BrC), and black carbon (BC). Whereas
64 BC absorbs solar radiation broadly across the visible spectrum, BrC light absorption is highly
65 wavelength dependent and strongest in the near-UV spectral region (Bond et al., 2004;
66 Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Laskin et al., 2015). Due to their perturbation of the radiative balance of
67 the atmosphere and short atmospheric residence time compared to CO₂, BC, and BrC are
68 considered short-lived climate forcers (Feng et al., 2013; Kirchstetter and Thatcher, 2012; Zhang
69 et al., 2020). Additionally, BC and BrC surface deposition in snowy climates reduces the solar
70 reflectance of snow and may accelerate snow melt (Chelluboyina et al., 2024; Hadley and
71 Kirchstetter, 2012; Kaspari et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). Human exposure to carbonaceous
72 aerosols also has detrimental health effects including cardiovascular disease, lung cancer,
73 adverse birth outcomes, and premature mortality (Dong et al., 2023; Grahame et al., 2014;
74 Janssen et al., 2011). Wildland fires are a major source of pollution relevant to human exposure
75 and account for one third of total PM_{2.5} emissions in the U.S., with roughly equal contributions
76 from prescribed burns and wildfires (Larkin et al., 2020).

77 Wildland fire modeling frameworks, or smoke models, estimate the amount of smoke
78 emitted during burn events to create input emissions necessary for climate modeling, air
79 pollution modeling, and health impact assessments (California Air Resources Board, 2020;
80 Connolly et al., 2024; Cruz Núñez et al., 2014; Maji et al., 2024). Smoke emissions from
81 wildland fires are estimated with fuel consumption models like Burnup, part of the First-Order
82 Fire Effects Model (FOFEM), and CONSUME, part of the BlueSky Smoke Modeling
83 Framework (Keane and Lutes, 2018; BlueSky Modeling Framework, 2024). Both smoke models
84 compute total emissions of a pollutant by multiplying pollutant emission factors by the mass of
85 fuel consumed during both the high intensity and low intensity stages of a burn event, which
86 roughly correspond to the flaming and smoldering phases of a wildland fire.

87 The differences in fuel mass consumption and temperature in these phases affect the
88 emission rate of pollutants, sometimes by an order of magnitude. In the flaming phase, fuel mass
89 consumption and temperature are highest and combustion is more complete, while both are lower
90 in the smoldering phase that is characterized by incomplete combustion (Urbanski, 2014).
91 Flaming combustion generally has a higher emission rate of BC and a lower emission rate of BrC
92 compared with smoldering combustion, while smoldering combustion is marked by higher
93 emissions of CO and BrC (Chen et al., 2007). Experiments designed to quantify pollutant
94 emissions must consider the placement of sampling instrumentation to capture these distinct
95 combustion phases of a burn, with aerial sampling platforms more likely to capture a mixture of
96 flaming and smoldering combustion due to the convective lofting of smoke caused by flaming
97 combustion (Aurell et al., 2021). Ground-level smoke, on the other hand, tends to be dominated
98 from smoldering combustion (Aurell and Gullett, 2013).

99 In this study, we conducted field sampling of pollutant emissions from prescribed burning
100 of a mixed-conifer understory and computed BC emission factors, BrC emission factors, and
101 aerosol absorption properties with ground and aerial sampling platforms. We investigate the
102 relationship between BC emission factors and combustion conditions and, finding that the
103 modified combustion efficiency (MCE) is a poor predictor of BC emission factor, propose a
104 framework to aggregate emission factors by either flaming or smoldering conditions to convey
105 the average value and variability of emission factors within these combustion regimes in fuel
106 consumption models. We report BC/PM_{2.5} ratios, or speciation profiles, for a mixed-conifer

107 understory prescribed burn. We then discuss how applying an incorrect BC/PM_{2.5} ratio in
108 wildland fire modeling frameworks may lead to large errors in BC emissions, using the
109 ecosystem studied in this work as an example. We compute the absorption Ångström exponent
110 (AAE) for the prescribed burn smoke aerosols, demonstrating that AAE is sensitive to the
111 wavelengths used in its calculation, and present estimates of AAE separately for BC and BrC to
112 estimate their contributions the solar radiation absorbed by the smoldering smoke in the
113 atmosphere.

114

115 **2 Materials and Methods**

116 **2.1 Field Measurements**

117 Field measurements were made at the Blodgett Forest Research Station (38.915224, -
118 120.662420), located 1370 meters above sea level on the western slope of the Sierra Nevada, 21
119 km east of Georgetown, CA. Prescribed burns were conducted in a mixed conifer forest, typical
120 of montane ecosystems of the Sierra Nevada (North et al., 2016). Three forest units were burned
121 in consecutive days in April 2021, as shown in Figure S1 in the Supporting Information (SI). The
122 prescribed burn on the first day escaped the designated unit (A) and the burn was terminated
123 early. The remainder of unit A was burned on the second day and units B and C were burned on
124 the third and fourth days, respectively.

125 Prescribed burn smoke was measured using both a ground and an aerial sampling
126 platform. The ground platform consisted of pollutant analyzers secured to a utility task vehicle
127 stationed immediately downwind of the fire to capture fresh smoke two meters above ground
128 level (see Figure S2). The ground platform was moved once each day as the burns progressed
129 and winds shifted to be on service roads nearby the highest intensity burn activity and the aerial
130 platform takeoff/landing location. Across the four days, there were nine ground sampling
131 sessions: at two locations on each day, plus one “next-day” smoldering sample on the second day
132 for burn unit A before ignition of the remaining unit. For the aerial platform, pollutant analyzers
133 were attached to the unmanned aerial vehicle, a DJI Matrice 600 Pro hexacopter. Concurrent
134 with ground sampling, the unmanned aerial vehicle was flown 23 times across the four days with
135 at least five flights each day and a maximum of 10 flights on the third day. The aerial platform
136 was flown in the densest smoke plumes to intercept the bulk of the prescribed burn smoke and

137 hovered within these plumes to capture fresh emissions representative of the event. The average
138 elevation of aerial platform throughout sampling was 29 meters, with an average sampling
139 elevation range of 16–42 meters across all flights.

140 BC, CO, and CO₂ were measured on both the ground and aerial sampling platforms. BC
141 was measured using two filter-based aerosol absorption photometers: the Aerosol Magee
142 Scientific aethalometer model AE33 with a 2.5 μm cyclone on the inlet on the ground platform
143 and the custom-built Aerosol Black Carbon Detector (ABCD) on both the ground and aerial
144 platforms (Caubel et al., 2018; Sugrue et al., 2024). These instruments estimate BC
145 concentrations from measured aerosol light absorption and wavelength-specific absorption cross
146 section. The ABCD estimates BC concentration based on aerosol optical attenuation at 880 nm
147 wavelength (λ). The AE33 also measures BC at $\lambda=880$ nm, in addition to aerosol optical
148 attenuation at six other wavelengths. In particular, the AE33 reports the mass concentration UV-
149 absorbing aerosol (UVPM) based on the optical attenuation at 370 nm. BrC concentration was
150 estimated from these data as described below in Section 2.2. Filter-based aerosol absorption
151 photometry has well known limitations due to the interactions of the collected aerosol particles
152 and filter media. Corrections for these sampling artifacts are detailed in the Supporting
153 Information, SI.

154 Collocating the AE33 with the ABCD on the ground enabled an analysis to express BC
155 measured with the ABCD in terms of AE33 equivalence, also described below. CO and CO₂
156 were measured by non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) absorption photometry on the ground
157 platform using Horiba models APMA370 and APCA370, respectively.(Tasnja et al., 2025) CO
158 and CO₂ were measured on the aerial platform with an electrochemical cell (Alphasense CO-B4)
159 and NDIR sensor (PP Systems SBA-5), respectively. All instruments reported pollutant
160 concentrations at 1 Hz frequency. Data were post-processed and validated prior to analysis using
161 the quality assurance and control measures described in the SI, including pollutant concentration
162 time-series alignment and loading artifact correction of BC concentrations measured with the
163 ABCD.

164

165 **2.2 Calculations**

166 Light absorption by carbonaceous aerosols increases with decreasing wavelength, a trend
167 that is often modeled as a power-law:

168 $b_{abs}(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{-AAE}$ (Equation 1)

169 AAE was calculated by an ordinary least squares linear regression of the natural log
170 transformation of λ and $b_{abs}(\lambda)$. Here, $b_{abs}(\lambda)$ (m^{-1}) was calculated by multiplying the
171 wavelength-dependent, loading artifact-corrected, light-absorbing aerosol concentration reported
172 by the AE33 by the wavelength-dependent mass absorption cross-section of BC on a filter (m^2
173 g^{-1}). Aerosol absorption was calculated per second and then averaged per minute with a 90% data
174 completeness threshold applied at seven wavelengths measured by the ground aethalometer.

175 The Delta-C method has been used to estimate BrC concentrations with a multi-
176 wavelength aethalometer (Harrison et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2011; Stampfer et al., 2020;
177 Wagstaff et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2010, 2011a, b), where BrC is the difference between UVPM
178 and BC concentrations in units of $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$:

179 $BrC = UVPM - BC$ (Equation 2)

180 The AE33 aethalometer assumes light absorption at 880 nm is entirely due to BC and UVPM is
181 the mass concentration of all light absorbing aerosol at 370 nm. The AE33 further assumes that
182 UVPM has the same absorption cross-section as BC (i.e., $18.47\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$ at 370 nm). Thus, a
183 direct application of Equation 2 implicitly assumes that BrC has the same absorption cross-
184 section as BC.

185 In this study, we improve upon this method to estimate BrC concentrations. We first
186 determine the contribution of BrC to total aerosol absorption at 370nm:

187 $b_{abs,BrC}(370nm) = b_{abs}(370nm) - b_{abs,BC}(370nm)$ (Equation 3)

188 We estimate BC absorption at 370 nm, $b_{abs,BC}(370nm)$, by extrapolating the measured aerosol
189 light absorption at 880 assuming $AAE_{BC} = 0.67$. Whereas $AAE_{BC} = 1$ is a commonly used value
190 that is consistent with Mie theory (i.e., uncoated, ideal spherical particles with wavelength-
191 independent refractive index) (Liu et al., 2018), the value 0.67 was estimated based on the
192 optical properties of the smoke measured in this study, as described below in Section 3.3. We
193 then calculate BrC concentration by dividing $b_{abs,BrC}(370nm)$ by the current best estimate of the
194 BrC mass absorption cross-section empirically determined by Ivančič et al. ($4.5\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$ at 370
195 nm) rather than assuming BrC and BC have the same absorption cross-section. In doing so, our

196 BrC concentrations are equivalent to those reported by the newest model of the aethalometer
197 (i.e., the AE36) (Aerosol d.o.o., 2024).

198 Following the approach presented in Kirchstetter and Thatcher (2012), we computed the
199 contribution of BrC to smoldering smoke aerosol absorption of solar radiation. The contribution
200 of BrC to spectral absorption in each smoke sample, $b_{abs,BrC}(\lambda)$, is determined by subtracting the
201 BC absorption from the total absorption with Equation 3. Based on the apportionment of spectral
202 absorption to BC and BrC, we compute the fraction of spectral radiation for smoldering smoke
203 at each wavelength in the solar spectrum that would be absorbed by BrC:

204
$$f_{BrC} = \frac{b_{abs,BrC}(\lambda)}{b_{abs}(\lambda)} \quad (\text{Equation 4})$$

205 Last, we compute the fraction of solar radiation that BrC in the smoldering smoke would absorb
206 in the atmosphere:

207
$$F_{BrC} = \frac{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} f_{BrC}(\lambda) \cdot i(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} i(\lambda) d\lambda} \quad (\text{Equation 5})$$

208 where $i(\lambda)$ is the clear sky air mass one global horizontal solar spectrum at the earth's surface
209 (Levinson et al., 2010). We evaluate F_{BrC} using two sets of integration bounds (λ_1, λ_2): (1) across
210 the full solar irradiance spectrum from 300 to 2500 nm that is meaningful for atmospheric
211 warming and (2) in the near-UV from 300 to 400 nm that is more relevant to tropospheric
212 photochemistry (Li and Li, 2023; Mok et al., 2016).

213 The modified combustion efficiency (MCE) is typically used to assess the combustion
214 completeness during biomass burning and was calculated as the mass fraction of fuel C emitted
215 as CO_2 compared to CO_2 and CO (Ward and Radke, 1993):

216
$$MCE = \frac{\Delta CO_2}{\Delta CO_2 + \Delta CO} \quad (\text{Equation 6})$$

217 Background-subtracted concentrations ΔCO and ΔCO_2 were calculated as the difference between
218 measured concentrations and background concentrations, the latter of which were established
219 separately for each of the four days of sampling (listed in Table S2). MCE is unitless, and a value
220 of 0.9 is commonly used as a threshold to distinguish between flaming-dominated ($MCE > 0.9$)
221 and smoldering-dominated ($MCE < 0.9$) combustion (Selimovic et al., 2018).

222 Fuel-based BC and BrC emission factors (EF_i) in units of grams BC and BrC emitted per
223 kilogram fuel consumed (g kg^{-1}) were calculated by the carbon balance method:

224
$$EF_i = \frac{w_c * V_m}{MW_c} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{\Delta C_i}{(\Delta CO + \Delta CO_2)} dt \quad (\text{Equation 7})$$

225 where ΔC_i is the background-subtracted BC or BrC concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), $w_c = 0.5$ is the weight
 226 fraction of carbon in conifer forest fuels (Thomas and Martin, 2012), V_m is the molar volume of
 227 air and equal to $0.024 \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}$, MW_c is the molar mass of carbon and equal to 12 g mol^{-1} , and
 228 ΔCO and ΔCO_2 are mixing ratios (ppm) (Akagi et al., 2011). In Equation (7), the carbon balance
 229 method assumes that all fuel carbon is emitted as either CO or CO_2 , given 90–98% of total
 230 emitted carbon is emitted as these gases (Akagi et al., 2011; Binte Shahid et al., 2024; Nelson Jr.,
 231 1982; Yokelson et al., 2013). Emission factors were calculated by integration of the background-
 232 subtracted pollutant concentrations over different time intervals. The integration bounds for the
 233 aerial emission factors were the start and end times of each flight, with a temporal basis equal to
 234 the total flight duration, or $t_1 - t_0$ in Eq. 4. Flight durations ranged from 4–22 minutes. For the
 235 ground emission factors, the start time (t_0) was when the aethalometer began collecting samples
 236 on a new filter spot and the attenuation (ATN) was zero. The end time (t_1) was when the filter
 237 became saturated at an ATN of 100. At that point, the aethalometer advanced its filter tape. These
 238 integration bounds resulted in a ground sample temporal basis that corresponded to the ATN
 239 cycle of the aethalometer, which ranged from 2–36 minutes. A detailed discussion of the
 240 representativeness and chosen temporal basis of the emission factors is provided in the SI.
 241

242 **3 Results and Discussion**

243 **3.1 Emission Factors**

244 BC and BrC emission factors measured on the ground and aloft are presented in Table 1.
 245 Overall, the aerial platform measured smoke characterized by a higher modified combustion
 246 efficiency ($MCE_{aerial} = 0.88 \pm 0.05$, average \pm standard deviation) and nearly 2 times higher BC
 247 emission factor ($EF_{BC,aerial} = 0.92 \pm 0.48 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) than the smoke measured on the ground
 248 ($MCE_{ground} = 0.83 \pm 0.03$; $EF_{BC,ground} = 0.47 \pm 0.40 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$).
 249

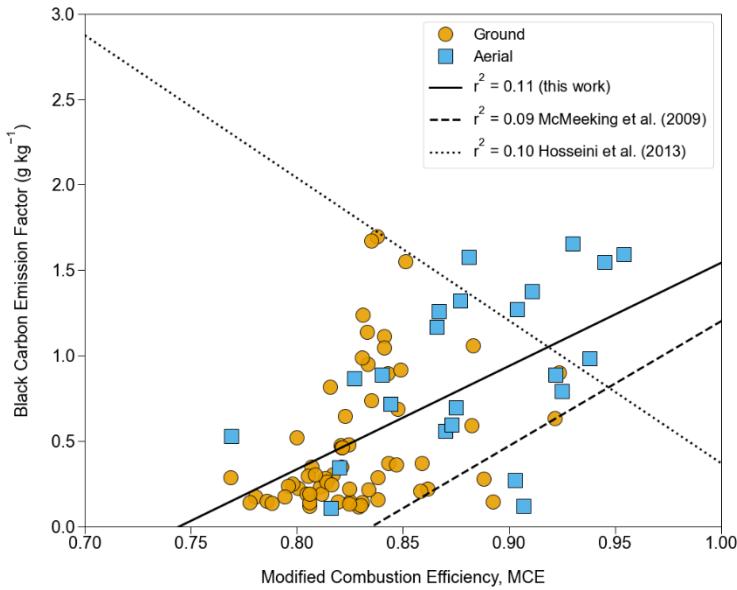
250 Table 1: Summary Statistics of Carbonaceous Aerosol Emission Factors and MCE (average \pm
 251 standard deviation)

	Number of Samples	MCE	BC (g kg^{-1})	BrC (g kg^{-1})
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Aerial samples	23	0.88 ± 0.05	0.92 ± 0.48	–
Ground samples	66	0.83 ± 0.03	0.47 ± 0.40	7.0 ± 2.7
Smoldering samples	77	<0.9	0.52 ± 0.42	–
Flaming samples	12	>0.9	1.0 ± 0.48	–
All samples	89	0.84 ± 0.04	0.59 ± 0.68	–

252

253 BC emission factors are plotted against MCE in Figure 1. Individual ground platform
 254 samples are plotted as orange circles and aerial samples are plotted as blue squares. Nearly all
 255 the smoke samples collected from the ground platform (64 of 66 ATN cycles) were associated
 256 with smoldering combustion ($MCE < 0.9$). A roughly equal number smoke samples collected
 257 aloft were associated with flaming-dominant combustion (10 flights) and smoldering-dominant
 258 combustion (13 flights). BC emission factors demonstrated a weak positive linear correlation
 259 (solid black line, $r^2 = 0.11$) against MCE values, with BC emission factors spanning an order of
 260 magnitude (0.11 to 1.70 g kg^{-1}) and MCE values ranging from 0.76 to 0.96 . This relationship is
 261 similar to the weak positive linear trend reported by McMeeking et al. (2009) for a laboratory
 262 study ($r^2 = 0.09$), shown as a dashed black line in Figure 1. In contrast, another laboratory study
 263 by Hosseini et al. (2013) reported a weak negative linear trend (dotted black line, $r^2 = 0.10$). The
 264 application of linear regression models to emission factor data would allow these field and
 265 laboratory studies to be scaled in fuel consumption models as a function of combustion
 266 conditions and/or fire intensity (Burling et al., 2011; May et al., 2014; Ottmar, 2014; Selimovic
 267 et al., 2018; Urbanski, 2014). However, given the very low coefficients of determination from
 268 this work and previous laboratory studies ($r^2 < 0.15$), MCE is not a strong predictor of the BC
 269 emission factor for smoke model estimates.

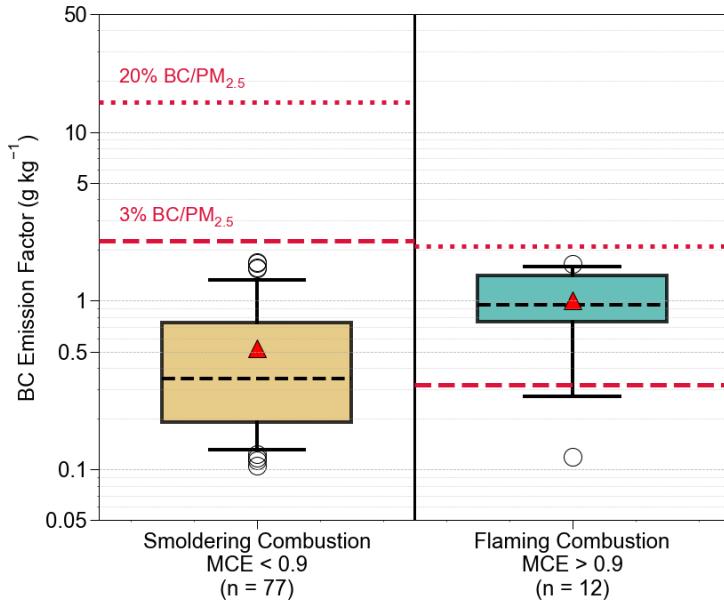


270

271 Figure 1: BC emission factors plotted against modified combustion efficiency for all samples.
 272 Symbology designates the ground (circles) and aerial (squares) measurement platforms. All
 273 samples fit with a linear regression model and compared to previous laboratory linear models of
 274 BC emission factors as a function of MCE (Hosseini et al., 2013; McMeeking et al., 2009).
 275

276 3.2 Emissions Modeling in Fuel Consumption Models

277 BC emission factor distributions for flaming ($MCE > 0.9$) and smoldering ($MCE < 0.9$)
 278 conditions are presented in Figure 2. These combustion categories were chosen to match how
 279 smoke models calculate emissions, often with combustion-phase dependent emission factors.
 280 Fuel consumption models (e.g., Burnup, CONSUME) compute the total fuel consumed
 281 separately during flaming and smoldering combustion phases of a burn. Smoke models then
 282 apply the appropriate EFs, with either one EF for flaming combustion and one EF for smoldering
 283 combustion (e.g., FOFEM), or using a linear model like that presented in Figure 1 where the
 284 calculated MCE in the fuel consumption model is used to obtain the corresponding EF. The
 285 average BC emission factors measured during flaming combustion conditions in this study were
 286 nearly 2 times greater than those measured during smoldering conditions: $EF_{BC, \text{flaming}} = 1.0 \pm$
 287 0.48 g kg^{-1} versus $EF_{BC, \text{smoldering}} = 0.52 \pm 0.42$, with similar magnitude as the average emissions
 288 factors for aerial and ground samples reported above.
 289



290

291 Figure 2: BC emission factors categorized into smoldering combustion (MCE < 0.9) and flaming
 292 combustion (MCE > 0.9) phases for input into fuel consumption. Boxes represent the
 293 interquartile range and tails the 5th and 95th percentile. The median is provided as the black
 294 dashed line across the box, the average as a red triangle, and outliers as open circles. Speciation
 295 profile-derived BC emission factors for 3% and 20% BC/PM_{2.5} for each combustion phase are
 296 plotted as red horizontal dashed and dotted lines, respectively. Note the logarithmic scale on the
 297 y-axis.

298

299 Also included in Figure 2 are BC emission factors calculated with the FOFEM
 300 methodology as a fraction of PM_{2.5} emission factors from Burling et al. (2011) for a mixed-
 301 conifer understory prescribed burn (Burling et al., 2011; Lutes, 2020). These BC emission factors
 302 are plotted as horizontal lines across each combustion regime in Figure 2 and represent values
 303 assumed in the most recent federal and California BC inventories. The 2020 National Emissions
 304 Inventory (dashed line) assumes a 3% BC/PM_{2.5} mass ratio for all wildland fire sources,
 305 including prescribed burns and wildfires (US Environmental Protection Agency, 2023). The 2013
 306 California BC Emissions Inventory (dotted line) assumes a 20% BC/PM_{2.5} mass ratio for
 307 prescribed burns (California Air Resources Board, 2016). These BC/PM_{2.5} mass ratios—or BC
 308 speciation profiles—are known to be highly uncertain (Chow et al., 2011). For example, in the
 309 EPA SPECIATE v5.3 database, prescribed burn BC/PM_{2.5} mass ratios vary from 3–11% and for
 310 uncontrolled forest fire or forest fuel types between 0.8–80% (SPECIATE, 2025).

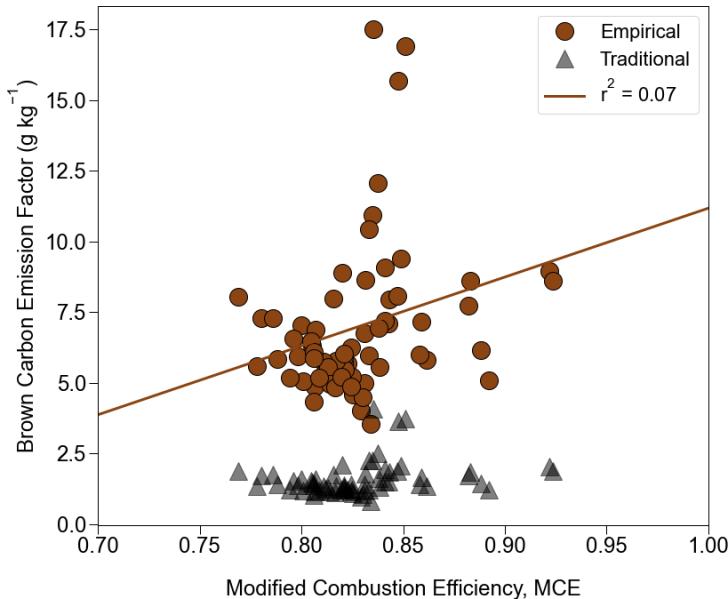
311 The difference between the average flaming and smoldering BC emission factors
312 measured in this study and the BC emission factors estimated from BC/PM_{2.5} ratios reveals the
313 current limitation in using the latter methodology in wildland fire modeling frameworks to
314 estimate BC emissions. PM_{2.5} emission rates for mixed-conifer forests and many other
315 ecosystems are higher under smoldering combustion than under flaming combustion, the
316 opposite of BC emission rates (Burling et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2007). As a result, BC emission
317 rates are erroneously predicted to be greater under smoldering combustion. The speciation
318 profiles assumed in the federal and California inventories overestimate BC emission factors
319 under smoldering combustion for this type of burn by a factor 4 and 29, respectively. Under
320 flaming combustion, the California inventory overestimates BC emission rates by a factor of 2,
321 whereas the federal inventory underestimates by 0.3. Dividing the average field BC emission
322 factors in this study by the PM_{2.5} emission factor from Burling et al. (2011) indicates that a more
323 appropriate BC speciation profile for a mixed-conifer understory prescribed burn would be 0.7%
324 and 9.5% for the smoldering and flaming combustion phases, respectively.

325

326 **3.3 Optical Properties and Apportionment of Aerosol Solar Radiation Absorption**

327 BrC emission factors were computed based on ground-level smoke measurements with
328 the multiwavelength aethalometer, most of which (64 of 66 samples) were during smoldering-
329 dominated combustion. There was a very weak positive linear relationship ($r^2 = 0.06$) between BrC
330 emission factors and MCE (Figure 3). The study average BrC emission factor was $7.0 \pm 2.7 \text{ g}$
331 kg^{-1} . It is worth noting that this BrC emission factor, computed as described in Section 2.2 based
332 on an absorption cross-section specific to BrC, is 4.4 times greater than the emission factor
333 calculated using the more traditional Delta-C method, where the absorption-cross section of BrC
334 is operationally defined as equal to the absorption cross-section of BC.

335



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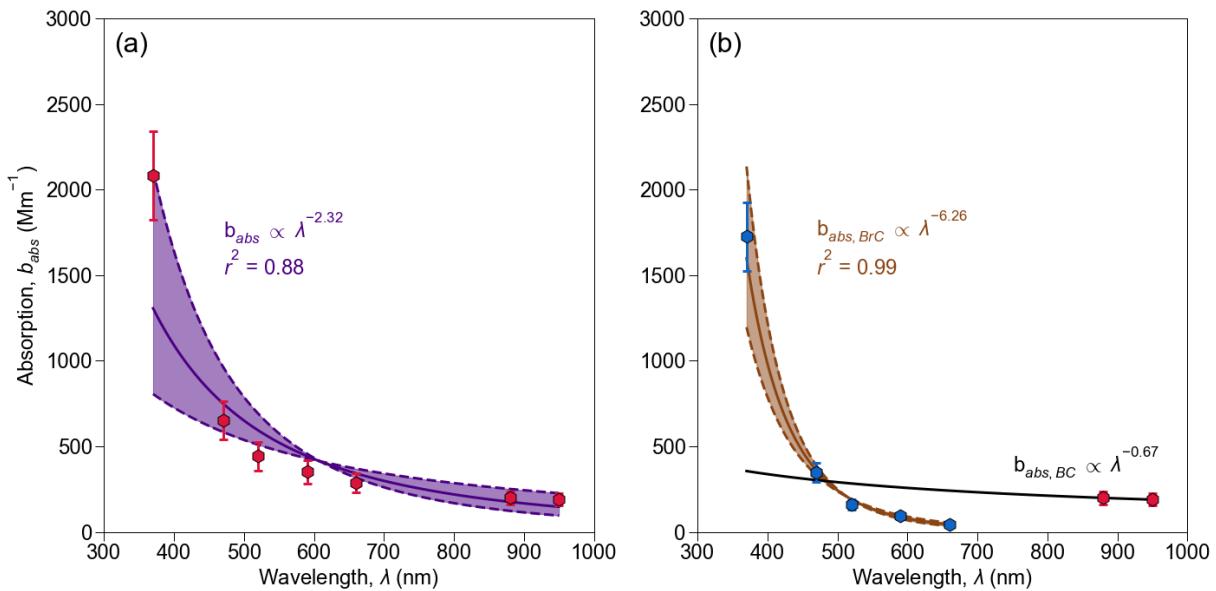
337 Figure 3: Ground BrC emission factors computed using the Delta-C method with a BrC-specific
 338 mass absorption cross-section (denoted as Empirical and shown with brown circles) and the
 339 more traditional approach using an operationally defined BrC mass absorption cross-section
 340 equal to that of BC (denoted as Traditional and shown with grey triangles) plotted against
 341 modified combustion efficiency. The solid brown line shows the linear regression for the BrC
 342 emission factors calculated with the empirical approach.

343

344 Study-average spectral absorption curves are plotted in Figure 4. A power-law fit to the
 345 data over all aethalometer wavelengths from 370–950 nm is shown in Figure 4a. The absorption
 346 data are fit with two trend lines in Figure 4b: an extrapolation of the power law fit to the near-IR
 347 data at 880 and 950 nm to illustrate the BC contribution to total absorption, $b_{abs,BC}(\lambda)$, and a
 348 power law fit of the BrC contribution to absorption, $b_{abs,BrC}(\lambda)$, which extends from mid-visible
 349 wavelengths to the near-UV, calculated using Eq. 3. The AAE given by the power law exponent
 350 reported in Figure 4a is 2.32 (1.35, 3.29; 95% confidence interval), indicating a significant
 351 contribution of BrC to total absorption. The power law fits in Figure 4b yield $AAE_{BrC} = 6.26$
 352 (5.37, 7.13) and $AAE_{BC} = 0.67$. For comparison, El Asmar et al. (2024) found similar overall
 353 AAE = 1.89 (range of 1.31–3.32) and a lower average $AAE_{BrC} = 5.00$ (range of 3.19–7.43) for
 354 prescribed burns in southeastern US measured 0–8 hours downwind with the same model
 355 multiwavelength aethalometer used in this study. The AAE_{BrC} for western wildfires measured
 356 with a photoacoustic spectrometer by Zeng et al. (2022) was also comparable (2.07 ± 1.01 ;

357 average \pm standard deviation). Mie theory predicts that $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}} = 1$ for particle diameters less
 358 than 10 nm and $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}} < 1$ for particle diameters greater than $\sim 0.2 \mu\text{m}$ (Wang et al., 2016),
 359 suggesting that the bulk of sampled aerosols had a diameter greater than 0.2 μm and less than 2.5
 360 μm , since a $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ cyclone was placed on the sampling inlet.

361



362
 363 Figure 4: Average 1-minute absorption at seven wavelengths measured by the ground
 364 aethalometer plotted as red hexagons, with error bars representing 95% confidence intervals. (a)
 365 Power-law fit of the average absorption curve at all wavelengths with an $\text{AAE} = 2.32$ (solid
 366 curve) and 95% confidence interval AAE values displayed as the bounding dashed curves. (b)
 367 Power-law fit of the BrC average absorption curve ($\lambda = 370, 470, 520, 590$, and 660 nm ; blue
 368 circles) with an $\text{AAE}_{\text{BrC}} = 6.26$ (solid brown curve) with 95% confidence interval AAE values
 369 displayed as the bounding dashed curves and the BC average absorptions ($\lambda = 880, 950 \text{ nm}$; red
 370 hexagons) with an $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}} = 0.67$ (solid black curve).

371

372 Whereas the absorption cross-section of BrC is much lower than that of BC over the near-
 373 IR to near-UV portion of the solar spectrum, smoldering smoke emits much more BrC than BC:
 374 $7.0 \pm 2.7 \text{ gBrC kg}^{-1}$ versus $0.52 \pm 0.42 \text{ gBC kg}^{-1}$. Consequently, using Equation 5 and shown in
 375 Figure S10, we estimate that BrC and BC would account for 23% and 77% of incoming solar
 376 radiation absorbed by the smoldering smoke in the atmosphere (integrated from 300 to 2500
 377 nm). Furthermore, BrC would contribute 82% of the aerosol absorption of solar radiation at

378 wavelengths below 400 nm and, therefore, may affect tropospheric photochemistry. Similarly,
379 Chakrabarty et al. (2023) found BrC contributes 66–86% of total aerosol absorption at 405 nm in
380 wildfire smoke emitted in the western United States.

381 AAE values reported in the literature are computed using different approaches. For
382 example, AAE is commonly derived from data at only two wavelengths and those wavelengths
383 differ from study to study, which makes direct comparison among studies challenging. To
384 illustrate this point, we calculated AAE values on 1-minute absorption data from the current
385 study using three wavelength pairs that approximate prior work. Table 2 reports power law fitting
386 of (i) 370 and 880 nm to approximate the wavelengths in a photoacoustic extintiometer, (ii) 470
387 and 660 nm to approximate a continuous light absorption photometer, and (iii) 470 and 880 nm
388 to approximate the satellite based AERONET.

389

390 Table 2: Measured and Nearest Aethalometer Wavelengths to Calculate the Absorption Ångström
391 Exponent (AAE)

Carbonaceous Aerosol Measurement Method	Example Studies	Measured Wavelengths, λ (nm)	Nearest Aethalometer Wavelengths, λ (nm)	AAE, Average \pm Standard Deviation
Aethalometer (Magee Scientific AE33)	This Work (Butler et al.) El Asmar et al. (2024)	370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880, 950	—	2.55 ± 0.43
Photoacoustic spectrometer (Droplet Technologies PAX)	Selimovic et al. (2018) Zeng et al. (2022)	401, 870	370, 880	2.97 ± 0.54
Continuous light absorption photometer	Marsavin et al. (2023)	467, 652	470, 660	2.82 ± 0.59
Satellite (AERONET)	Cazorla et al. (2013) Feng et al. (2013) Wang et al. (2016) Bian et al. (2020)	440, 870	470, 880	2.15 ± 0.37

392

393 The 1-minute average AAE for the three wavelength pairs are listed in the rightmost
394 column of Table 2. The 370, 880 and 470, 660 wavelength pairs have a 16% and 11% greater
395 value than the seven-wavelength power law fit in this work, whereas the 470, 880 wavelength
396 pair a 16% lesser value. These differences in average AAE indicate the uncertainty in interstudy
397 comparison is approximately $\pm 15\%$. Distributions of the coefficient of determination (r^2) for
398 each approach are also presented in Figure S11. A power law fit of 1-minute average data at all
399 seven wavelengths ($AAE_{7\lambda}$) yielded the highest average coefficient of determination ($r^2 = 0.88$),
400 followed closely by fitting data at only 370 and 880 nm ($r^2 = 0.87$). The lower average r^2 values
401 for power law fitting of data at 470 and 660 nm ($r^2 = 0.71$) and 470 and 880 nm ($r^2 = 0.60$)
402 suggest that the AAE values determined from these approaches are not as certain.
403

404 **4 Conclusion**

405 Fuel-based BC and BrC emission factors were calculated by the carbon balance method
406 with semi-continuous monitoring of a BC, CO, and CO₂ on ground and aerial platforms for four
407 days of prescribed burns. Aerial platform BC emission factors were measured under both flaming
408 and smoldering combustion, whereas ground platform BC and BrC emission factors skewed
409 towards almost entirely under smoldering combustion conditions. AAE, an aerosol optical
410 property, was similarly quantified for smoldering combustion. BC emission factors were found to
411 be poorly represented by a linear regression model based on MCE and were 2 times higher under
412 flaming combustion than smoldering combustion. In addition, BC emission factors may be used
413 in smoke models to improve wildland fire emissions inventories. BrC emission factors, estimated
414 using a BrC-specific absorption cross-section, were nearly 14 times greater than smoldering BC
415 emission factors and 7 times greater flaming BC emission factors. The study-average AAEs
416 indicated significant BrC absorption, especially in the near-UV spectrum, indicating that BrC is a
417 significant contributor to biomass smoke absorption of solar radiation. A fraction of this BrC
418 absorption may be attributable to so-called tar balls, which may comprise 5–30% of total PM_{2.5}
419 in wildfire smoke in the western United States (Adachi et al., 2024; Chakrabarty et al., 2023).

420 In future work, deployment of a multiwavelength aethalometer on the aerial platform,
421 would allow for Delta-C and AAE analyses to estimate BrC emission factors and optical
422 properties under flaming combustion. Multiwavelength aerosol absorption measurements on an

423 aerial platform across a wide range of combustion conditions would yield more representative
424 BrC emission factors and AAE values, which would inform how to model BrC emissions during
425 different combustion phases in fuel consumption models. Studies that quantify health impacts of
426 prescribed burn smoke with a chemical transport model will benefit from fuel-based emission
427 factors in this work and could determine the exposure concentrations of BC and BrC in PM_{2.5}.
428 The overall radiative effects of BC and BrC remains uncertain due to large uncertainties in global
429 emissions inventories from wildland fires sources (Bond et al., 2013). Further improvements in
430 bottom-up carbonaceous aerosol emissions inventories would constrain satellite retrievals of
431 aerosol optical depth used to model aerosol scattering and absorption in global climate models.

432 Further partnership between government agencies, private land owners, and tribal
433 nations will likely increase the frequency of prescribed burns, and thus possible health effects on
434 downwind communities (Miller et al., 2020). Continued field measurements of emission factors
435 with state-of-the-science platforms should focus on characterizing emission factors and optical
436 properties for ecosystems commonly burned in the western United States, like the mixed-conifer
437 forests studied here, Ponderosa pine forests, coastal forests, chaparral shrublands, and oak
438 savannas. Carbonaceous aerosol emission factors for each of these ecosystems remain
439 understudied, especially for BrC, and likely vary across ecosystems depending on fuel moisture
440 content, fuel types, and combustion efficiency of burn. In parallel, future studies could also
441 investigate the toxicity of BC and BrC emitted by prescribed burns, which may vary depending
442 on combustion conditions and fuels burned.

443

444 **Author Contribution**

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459 original draft, Writing – review and editing.
460

461 **Competing interests**

462 We declare that co-author Barsanti is on the editorial board of the journal *Atmospheric Chemistry*
463 and *Physics*.

464

465 **Code/Data Availability**

466 Data and code available upon request.

467

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480

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