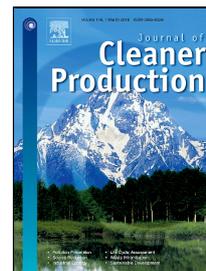


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The spatiotemporal features of Greenhouse Gases Emissions from Biomass Burning in China from 2000-2012

Jiaoyue Wang, Fengming Xi, Zhu Liu, Longfei Bing, Ahmad Alsaedi, Tasawar Hayat, Bashir Ahmad, Dabo Guan



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3 **The spatiotemporal features of Greenhouse Gases Emissions from Biomass**
4 **Burning in China from 2000-2012**

5 Jiaoyue Wang^{a, b}, Fengming Xi^{a, b,*}, Zhu Liu^{c, d, e, *}, Longfei Bing^{a, b}, Ahmad Alsaedi
6 ^f, Tasawar Hayat ^{f,g}, Bashir Ahmad ^f & Dabo Guan^{e, h}

7 ^a Institute of Applied Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shenyang 110016, PR
8 China

9 ^b Key Laboratory of Pollution Ecology and Environmental Engineering, Chinese
10 Academy of Sciences, Shenyang 110016, PR China

11 ^c Sustainability Science Program, John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard
12 University, Cambridge MA 02138, USA

13 ^d Resnick Sustainability Institute, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena CA
14 91125, USA

15 ^e School of International Development, University of East Anglia, Norwich NR4 7TJ,
16 UK

17 ^f NAAM Research Group, Department of Mathematics, King Abdulaziz University,
18 Jeddah 21589, Saudi Arabia

19 ^g Department of Mathematics, Quaid-I-Azam University, Islamabad 44000, Pakistan

20 ^h Ministry of Education Key Laboratory for Earth System Modeling, Center for Earth
21 System Science, Tsinghua University, Beijing, 100084, PR China

22 *Corresponding author: Fengming Xi and Zhu Liu

23 Fengming Xi

24 E-mail: xifengming@iae.ac.cn

25 Telephone: 86-24-83973123

26 Fax: +86-24- 83973123

27 Postal address: 72 Wenhua Rd, Shenyang 110016, PR China

28 Affiliations: Institute of Applied Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences

29 Zhu Liu

30 E-mail: zhuliu@caltech.edu

31 Telephone: 1-858-729-8727

32 Postal address: Pasadena CA 91125, USA

33 Affiliations: California Institute of Technology

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51 **Abstract**

52 Greenhouse gases emissions from biomass burning have been given a little attention,
53 especially the spatiotemporal features of biomass burning sources and greenhouse
54 gases emissions have not been comprehensively uncovered. This research undertook
55 IPCC bottom-up inventory guideline to estimate Chinese greenhouse gases emissions
56 from biomass burning and applied geographical information system to reveal biomass
57 burning emissions spatiotemporal features. The purposes were to quantify greenhouse
58 gases emissions from various biomass burning sources and to uncover the spatial and
59 temporal emissions features so to deliver future policy implications in China. The
60 results showed that the average annual biomass burning emissions in China from
61 2000-2012 were 880.66 Mt for CO₂, 96.59 Mt CO₂-eq for CH₄, and 16.81 Mt CO₂-eq
62 for N₂O. The spatial pattern of biomass greenhouse gases emissions showed about
63 50 % of national emission were in the east and south-central regions. The majority of
64 biomass burning emissions were from firewood and crop residues, which accounted
65 for more than 90 % of national biomass burning emissions. All types of biomass
66 burning emissions exhibited similar temporal trends from 2000-2012, with strong
67 inter-annual variability and fluctuant increase. The large grassland and forest fires
68 induced the significant greenhouse gases emissions peaks in the years of 2001, 2003
69 and 2006. We found that biofuel burning, with low combustion efficiency, is the
70 major emission source. Open burning of biomass was widespread in China, and east
71 and south-central regions were the major distribution of biomass burning greenhouse
72 gases emission. Optimized design for improving the efficiency of biomass utilization
73 and making emission control policy combination with its spatiotemporal features will
74 be the effective way to reduce the biomass burning emissions.

75 **Keywords:** Greenhouse gases emission, Biomass burning, Biofuel, Open burning

76 1. Introduction

77 Biomass burning is the burning of living and dead vegetation. It often refers to
78 forest fires, grassland fires, field burning of crop residue, burning of crop residue as
79 fuel and fuel wood (Yan et al., 2006). Biomass burning is a significant source of
80 Greenhouse Gases (GHGs) (Shi and Yamaguchi, 2014), contributing 20-50 % of
81 global GHGs emissions (Yadav et al., 2017), and greatly impacting local, regional and
82 global atmospheric chemistry and climate change (Weldemichael and Assefa, 2016).
83 Biomass burning is also one important reason that induce the inter-annual variability
84 in the growth rate of some trace gases (Langenfelds et al., 2002) and the uncertainty in
85 atmospheric transport simulations of trace gases (Bian et al., 2007). In many policies
86 and regulations, biomass combustion is always considered as “carbon-neutral” due to
87 the released CO₂ refixation by vegetation in the next growth cycle (Searchinger et al.,
88 2009). However, this refixation is not a comforting balance because the short cycle
89 CO₂ cannot be rapidly removed by vegetation regrowth, and biomass burning CO₂ in
90 the atmosphere has been monitored by satellite (Yan et al., 2006). If the burnt
91 ecosystem is not regrown, the liberated CO₂ remain in atmosphere for long time,
92 thereby affecting the global CO₂ budget (Yadav et al., 2017). Together with the
93 relative long cycle of CH₄ and N₂O in atmosphere (Koppmann et al., 2005), the
94 effects of GHGs emissions from biomass burning on global climate change cannot be
95 ignored (Haberl et al., 2012). Accurately evaluating GHGs emissions from biomass
96 burning at both global and regional levels is urgently needed to better understand the
97 interactions between anthropogenic GHGs emissions and climate change (Shi et al.,
98 2015).

99 Studies on GHGs emissions from biomass burning are limited (Koppmann et al.,
100 2005). Existing studies were mostly focus on open burning of forest fires, grassland

101 fires, and field burning of crop residues (e.g., EDGAR, 2011; Gadde et al., 2009),
102 lacking of biofuel burning. Biofuel burning is popular in countries with rural
103 population, such as China. Biofuel as major energy takes up 54 % of the total rural
104 life energy (Hu, 2008). Short of biofuel burning estimation may dramatically
105 underestimate biomass burning emissions in China. The relevant studies in China are
106 few, and the disparity in the estimates of burned biomass amount and the emission
107 factors have resulted in differences in biomass burning emission inventories (Yan et
108 al., 2006). Streets et al. (2003) estimated that CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from biomass
109 open burning were approximately 300 Mt CO₂-eq. Cao et al. (2005) and Lu et al.
110 (2011) extended biomass burning to biofuel, and the emissions increased to more than
111 800 Mt CO₂-eq in the same year. Yan et al. (2006) first considered N₂O emission
112 from biofuel and open burning sources, and the GHGs emission was approximately
113 759 Mt CO₂-eq. Tian et al. (2011) and Zhao et al. (2012) extended the CO₂ and CH₄
114 emissions from an individual year to temporal changes. The widely available biomass
115 burning emission database of EDGAR v4.2 (2011) provides multi-year GHGs
116 emission inventory; however, the database only focuses on open field biomass
117 burning, lacking the part of biofuel that is important in Chinese rural life energy (Li
118 and Xu, 2010).

119 Overall, there are few studies on the inventories of GHGs emissions from all types
120 of biomass burning. The existing studies in China only focused on a specific year or a
121 narrow temporal scale, with limited biomass burning sources, lacking detail
122 spatiotemporal information. The underrepresented expression of biomass burning
123 GHGs emissions in China is inevitable (Shi and Yamaguchi, 2014). Comprehensively
124 uncovering the features of biomass burning emissions from the perspectives of
125 complete biomass burning sources and a spatiotemporal scale is essential (Yan et al.,

126 2006). In this study, a bottom-up estimate of biomass burning emission in China using
 127 statistical data was conducted. The spatiotemporal features of biomass burning
 128 emission analysis were performed by Geographical Information System (GIS). Open
 129 burning emissions from forest fire, grassland fire and field burning of crop residues,
 130 biofuel burning emissions from crop residues, firewood and livestock excrement, and
 131 emissions from biomass-based electricity generation were considered. The outcomes
 132 of the study will help to understand Chinese biomass burning GHGs emissions and
 133 make a scientific basis for policy implementations.

134 2. Material and Methods

135 Biomass burning emission is estimated based on the activity data of burned
 136 biomass and emission factors using Eq. (1) (Eggleston et al., 2006). Activity data
 137 were calculated from the official statistics Yearbook. Emission factors were based on
 138 China's specific values and the default value provided by IPCC bottom-up inventory
 139 guideline (Eggleston et al., 2006) (Table 1).

$$140 \quad Q_i = \sum M_j \cdot EF_{i,j} \cdot 10^{-3} \quad (1)$$

141 i was the type of GHG (CO_2 , CH_4 or N_2O); j was the type of biomass; Q_i was the total
 142 amount of i emission each year, t/y; M_j was the amount of j burned biomass each year,
 143 t/y or kWh/y; and $EF_{i,j}$ was the i emission factor of biomass j , g/kg or g/kWh.

144 Biomass burning types include forest and grassland fires, firewood, crop residue
 145 burning, livestock excrement burning and biomass-based electricity generation. The
 146 activity data calculation methods are listed in the following sections.

147 2.1 Forest and grassland fires

148 The amounts of biomass burning from forest and grassland fires are calculated
 149 using Eq. (2).

$$150 \quad M_1 = A \cdot D \cdot F \quad (2)$$

151 M_1 was the amount of burned biomass each year, t/y; A was the burned area each year,
 152 m^2/y ; D was the biomass density, t/m²; and F was the burning efficiency.

153 The burned forest and grassland areas from 2000–2012 for each province were
 154 from the China Forestry Yearbook (NFB, 2001-2013) and China Husbandry
 155 Yearbook (EBCHY, 2001-2013). Biomass density was estimated by Fang et al.
 156 (1996) for forest and by Yan et al. (2006) for grassland. The burning efficiency was
 157 0.33 for forest and 0.95 for grassland (Yan et al., 2006).

158 2.2 Firewood

159 Firewood includes energy forest, forestry production logging slash, wood and
 160 bamboo manufacturing residues, forest intermediate cutting, civil firewood cutting,
 161 and sideway trees (Liu and Shen, 2007). Based on the statistical data from the China
 162 Forestry Yearbook (NFB, 2001-2013), the firewood production was calculated using
 163 Eq. (3) (Liu and Shen, 2007).

$$164 \quad M_2 = \sum_{i=0}^n Qf_i \cdot r_i \cdot m_i \quad (3)$$

165 i was the biomass type; M_2 was the actual amount of firewood each year, t/y; Qf_i was
 166 the resource amount of wood i each year, and the unit was the volume of m³/y, area of
 167 m²/y or numbers/y; r_i was the ratio of wood i used as fuel; and m_i was the weight
 168 coefficient, t/m³, m²/m³ or t/individual. For the associated parameters, see the study by
 169 Liu and Shen (2007).

170 According to the felling forest data, the forestry production logging slash was
 171 approximately 40 % of the forest biomass, including timber forests, shelter forests,
 172 and special forests that reach the felling standard. Wood and bamboo processing
 173 residues constituted approximately 34.4 % of log and bamboo production. The
 174 intermediate cutting times in middle-aged and young trees were approximately 2 to 3
 175 during their growing periods.

176 2.3 Crop residues burning

177 Crop residues can be burned as household energy and directly burned in field. The
178 burning amount of crop residues was calculated using Eq. (4) (Lu et al., 2011).

$$179 \quad M_3 = (\sum_{i=0}^n P_i \cdot N_i) \cdot C \cdot B \cdot F \quad (4)$$

180 i was the crop type; M_3 was the amount of crop residue burning each year, t/y; P_i was
181 crop i production each year, t/y; N_i was the residue/crop ratio of crop i ; C was the
182 collected coefficient; B was the burning ratio; and F was the burning efficiency.

183 Detailed crop production data were collected from the China Statistical Yearbooks
184 (NBSC, 2001-2013). The residue/crop ratios were available from the studies of Lu et
185 al. (2011) and Yevich and Logan (2003). The collected coefficient of crop residues
186 was 0.881 (Yevich and Logan, 2003). The percentage of crop residues burned in the
187 field was 19.4 % (Yan et al., 2006) and 47 % for biofuel (Chen et al., 2017). The
188 burning efficiency for the crop residue was approximately 92.5 % (Lu et al., 2011).

189 2.4 Livestock excrement burning

190 Livestock excrement burned as fuel in China is small and only distributes in the
191 pastoral and semi-pastoral areas of Inner Mongolia, Xinjiang, Tibet, Qinghai and
192 Ningxia provinces. The amount of livestock excrement burning was calculated using
193 Eq. (5) (Lu et al., 2011).

$$194 \quad M_4 = (\sum_{i=0}^n S_i \cdot Y_i) \cdot C \cdot R$$

195 (5)

196 Where i was the large livestock type; M_4 was the amount of livestock excrement
197 burning each year, t/y; S_i was the numbers of large livestock i at the end of the year; Y
198 was the excrement production per one large livestock i during its feeding period
199 (approximately 365 d), t/individual/y; C was the large livestock excrement dry matter
200 content; and R was the ratio of livestock excrement direct burned as fuel.

201 The numbers of large livestock were collected from the China Statistical Yearbooks
202 (NBSC, 2001-2013). The excrement coefficients of large livestock were estimated by
203 He (2012). The dry matter content of large livestock excrement was 18 %, and its
204 direct burning as fuel was 20 % (Tian et al., 2011).

205 *2.5 Biomass-based electricity generation*

206 The development of biomass-based electricity generation in China is late, and the
207 available data began in 2006. From the Clean Development Mechanism project
208 database and methodology (AM0006) (CDM, 2014), we can obtain the estimated
209 average GHGs reduction (CO₂-eq, t/y), the approved date, the location, and the
210 calculation method of GHGs reduction. According to the GHGs reduction coefficient
211 of 1.79 kg CO₂-eq/kWh (Shafie et al., 2014), the electricity generation was calculated
212 using Eq. (6).

$$213 \quad M_5 = R_{GHG} / 1.79 \quad (6)$$

214 M_5 was the biomass-based electricity generation each year, kWh/y; and R_{GHG} was the
215 GHGs emission reduction each year, kg/y.

216 **3 Results and Discussions**

217 *3.1 The GHGs emissions from biomass burning on national scale*

218 Biomass burning GHGs emissions showed increase trend from 822.69 Mt CO₂-
219 eq in 2000 to 1,088.18 Mt CO₂-eq in 2013, with an average annual growth rate of
220 2.4 %. CO₂ was the overwhelmingly largest contributor (88 %), followed by CH₄
221 (10 %) and N₂O (2 %) (Table 2). The three types GHGs presented similar variations
222 with strong inter-annual variability and fluctuant increase over time, even though their
223 emission magnitudes differed greatly (Table 2). The contributions of biomass burning
224 sources were similar for the three GHGs types (Fig. 1). Crop residues burned as fuel
225 was the biggest contributor. Biofuel of firewood and crop residues burned in field

226 were the other two major emission sources. The top three biomass burning sources
227 accounted for approximately 86-98 % of the total biomass burning emissions (Fig. 2),
228 which was consistent with other study (Lu et al., 2011). The remaining biomass
229 burning emissions (approximately 2-14 %) was mainly from forest fires, with small
230 peaks in 2003 and 2006. The contribution of grassland fires was small, while its peak
231 amount in 2001 increased its share to 11 % (Fig. 2). The decreased biomass burning
232 amount from forest and grassland fires over time indicated that more attention to
233 control of wildfires had a good effect (Yan et al., 2006). Livestock excrement burned
234 as fuel was the least contributor of biomass burning.

235 Biomass burning as life energy was the dominant burning type in rural China
236 (Yevich and Logan, 2003). In this study, biofuel burning emission (crop residues,
237 firewood and livestock excrement burned as fuel) was the main biomass burning
238 GHGs emissions in China, taking up approximately 77-81 % of the total emissions.
239 Biomass open burning emission (field burning of crop residue and forest and
240 grassland fires) constituted only 25 % of biofuel burning. Its temporal change was
241 consistent with biofuel emissions but fluctuated more moderately. The annual average
242 of open field burning of crop residues was 162 Tg CO₂-eq, which was consistent with
243 other study (Li et al., 2016). Compared to crop residues, emissions from forest and
244 grassland fires were small, but the obvious peak emissions resulted from large
245 grassland and forest fires cannot be neglected (Fig. 2). Biomass-based electricity
246 generation emission was not large, while it increased obviously from 2006 to 2012
247 (with annual 73 % growth rate). The swift increases were derived from its ability of
248 energy saving and GHGs emission reduces as well as government promotion (Xu et
249 al., 2016). The development of new and efficient biomass-to-electricity technologies
250 and consideration of logistical component of biomass should be promoted to improve

251 the economic and GHGs emissions reduction outcomes (Liu et al., 2017).

252 *3.2 The spatiotemporal GHGs emissions from biomass burning on regional scale*

253 Biomass burning emissions were mainly distributed in east and south-central
254 regions of China (Table 2; Fig. 4), accounting for half of the total emissions. The
255 southwest region, northeast region, and north-central region separately took up
256 approximately 10-15 %, with less than 10 % in the northwest region. The regional
257 GHGs emissions presented various temporal changes, with a fluctuating decrease in
258 east and south-central regions, a parabolic increase and then decrease in southwest
259 region, a rapid increase in northeast region, and a steady increase in north-central
260 region. The national GHGs emission peaks in 2001, 2003, and 2006 due to large
261 grassland and forest open fires (Fig. 2) were mainly distributed in the south-central
262 region and northeast region. The large open fires separately caused GHGs to take up
263 35-54 % and 32-53 % of the regional emissions.

264 The contribution of biomass burning source to regional GHGs emissions was
265 different (Fig. 3). In the north-central, northeast, and east regions, crop residues
266 burned as fuel were the largest contributor, accounting for more than 50 % of the
267 regional GHGs emissions. In the south-central and northwest regions, crop residues
268 burned as fuel and firewood separately took up approximately 30% of the regional
269 emissions. Since three (Xinjiang, Qinghai and Ningxia provinces) of the five pastoral
270 and semi-pastoral areas are in northwest region, livestock excrement played an
271 important role in GHG emissions, especially for the N₂O emission (constituting 37 %
272 of the regional emission). In the southwest region, firewood became the largest
273 contributor. The different biofuel utilization among various regions depends on local
274 natural resources and economy (Wang and Feng, 2004). The different biomass
275 burning type contribution to regional GHGs emissions indicated that the mitigation

276 potential and related strategies and policies should be different in various regions.

277 *3.3 The GHGs emissions from biomass burning on provincial scale*

278 From the provincial GHGs emissions during 2000-2012 period (Fig. 4), we found
279 that more than 40 Mt CO₂-eq emissions were major in Jiangsu, Anhui, Shandong,
280 Henan, Hubei, Hunan, Hebei, Heilongjiang, Sichuan, and Guangxi provinces. High
281 population density, increased consumption of firewood and crop residue as life
282 energy, and serious crop residues burned in the field were the main cause of large
283 emissions (Cao et al., 2008). The lower GHGs emissions were mostly in Beijing,
284 Tianjing, Shanghai, Hainan, Tibet, Qinghai, and Ningxia provinces (Fig. 4). Beijing,
285 Tianjing and Shanghai municipalities have rapid urbanization, while Hainan, Tibet,
286 Qinghai, and Ningxia provinces have smaller population. The demand of biomass
287 burning as life energy in these areas was relatively lower (Cao et al., 2008).

288 From the temporal changes during 2000-2012 period (Fig. 4), the relative emission
289 growth rates in some interior provinces, including Jilin, Heilongjiang, Inner
290 Mongolia, Ningxia, and Xinjiang provinces, were obviously higher than those of
291 coastal provinces in the east and south-central regions, although the absolute
292 emissions in these interior provinces were generally small. The smallest emission
293 growth rate appeared in Shanghai, then the coastal provinces of Jiangsu, Zhejiang,
294 Guangdong and Hainan provinces. The disparity in the provincial emission growth
295 rates mainly resulted from different energy structure (Cao et al., 2008). In the less-
296 developed rural areas of the west region and the abundant biomass resource of
297 northeast provinces, the inexpensive and easily obtained firewood and crop residues
298 were consistently important energy (Yevich and Logan, 2003). In contrast, in the
299 developed coastal provinces, other high-grade energy sources, such as gas, coal, and
300 electricity were used widely. Making related mitigation strategies and policies should

301 consider not only high GHGs emission provinces but also include higher emission
302 growth rate provinces.

303 *3.4 Chinese biomass burning GHGs emission contribution*

304 In this study, the annual GHGs emissions from biomass burning in China during
305 2000-2012 period were 993 Mt CO₂-eq/y, equivalent to approximately 10 % of the
306 national total GHGs emissions from fossil fuel combustion and cement production.
307 The biomass burning GHGs emissions in China accounted for approximately 8 % of
308 global (Watson et al., 2001), 22 % of developing world, and 34 % of Asia biomass
309 burning GHG emissions (Yevich and Logan, 2003). The emissions of CH₄ and N₂O
310 accounted for approximately 7 % of the global biomass burning non-CO₂ GHGs
311 emissions (Montzka et al., 2011). Annual open biomass burning GHGs emissions
312 were approximately 210 Mt CO₂-eq/y, taking approximately 17 % of Asia (Streets et
313 al., 2003) and 2-3 % of the world open biomass burning emissions (Van der Werf et
314 al., 2006). Compared to other main contributors of open biomass burning emission in
315 Asia (Yevich and Logan, 2003), this study was lower than the estimated 238-688 Mt
316 CO₂-eq/y in India (Venkataraman et al., 2006) and 240 Mt CO₂-eq/y in Southeast
317 Asia (Shi and Yamaguchi, 2014) but significantly higher than the 58 Mt CO₂-eq/y in
318 Indonesia (Permadi and Oanh, 2013).

319 *3.5 Emission uncertainties*

320 Biomass burning emissions were associated with the amount and types of biomass
321 burning and related emission factors. It was true that some types of biomass burning
322 were very little known. This inventory in such cases relied heavily on inferences of
323 activity data from statistical information and the emission factors. According to
324 previous studies, the activity data of each biomass type was within an uncertainty
325 range of approximately ± 50 % around the mean value (Saatchi et al., 2011), and the

326 typical uncertainty of related emission factor was on the order of 20-30 %
327 (Hoelzemann et al., 2004). Based on the IPCC guidelines for national greenhouse gas
328 inventories (2006) and the method of Streets et al (2003), we estimated the
329 uncertainty of biomass burning emissions, and considered seven types of burning
330 sources and three chemical species. The estimated emission ranges were 264.20-
331 1,585.19 Mt CO₂ /y, 28.98-173.86 Mt CO₂-eq /y for CH₄, and 5.04-30.26 Mt CO₂-eq
332 /y for N₂O.

333 *3.6 Policy implication*

334 Biomass resources in China are abundant (Chen et al., 2017). Rational utilization of
335 biomass resources can significantly reduce GHGs emissions and alleviate both energy
336 and air quality concerns (Weldemichael and Assefa, 2016). Based on above findings,
337 several policy implications should be raised for a health and environmental policy
338 interventions:

339 It is urgent to promote efficient biomass energy utilization in Chinese rural areas.
340 Biomass as an important life energy in rural China will not change in the near future.
341 Considering rural resident preference for conventional energy usages, it is important
342 to develop clean and efficient combustion technologies for household use. Widely
343 disseminating clean-burning household stove use accompanied by some subsidy
344 programs can be piloted in the high biomass use as life energy region and then
345 promoted nationwide. Appropriate bioenergy planning according to regional
346 conditions is crucial. In the abundant biomass regions such as east and south-central,
347 biomass power generation may be a good choice for governments to fulfill emissions
348 reduction considering comprehensive benefits. Optimizing biomass power plant
349 layout and minimizing logistics costs should be paid to insure biomass power under a
350 good operation status (Liu et al., 2017). The market of biomass-based clean and

351 efficient energy (such as power generation, biomass briquettes, biogas production)
352 should be expanded to rural areas to thoroughly address rural conventional energy
353 structure. Strengthening the awareness of rural residents on their willing to choose and
354 use such clean biomass energy efficiently for air pollution reduction is also in demand
355 (Sun et al., 2016).

356 It is critical to put forward effective measures to prohibit open field burning of crop
357 residues. Now, central and local governments have recognized the negative effects of
358 crop residues field burning and took some control actions to ban open field burning of
359 crop residues (MEP, 1999). For instance, to define the government responsibility, to
360 monitor fire spots by meteorological and environmental satellite, to strengthen the
361 inspection of illegal activities, etc. (Zhang et al., 2017). The key point is strengthening
362 the enforcement of these good regulations in the northeast, east and south-central
363 regions. In addition to administrative control measures from the government, the
364 integrated utilization of crop residues initiatives such as returning straw to soil to
365 increase soil texture and fertility (Sun et al., 2016), making crop residue as efficient
366 energy by advanced technology to partially replace fossil energy (Zhang et al., 2017),
367 and using straw as feed supply to animal and raw material to plate-making and
368 charcoal making (Zhang et al., 2017) are another valid control measures. The crop
369 residues utilization efficiency improvement needs government supports from aspects
370 of fund, policy, technology, education, etc..

371 It is important to consider spatiotemporal features when making biomass burning
372 GHGs emission control policy. The key control areas are in east and south-central
373 regions, especially for the contributions of biofuel of crop residues in east region and
374 biofuel of crop residues and firewood in south-central region. Mitigation strategies
375 and policies should consider both provinces with high biomass burning GHGs

376 emission and provinces with higher emission growth rate. The provinces with high
377 biomass burning emission potential can reduce the emissions by increasing biomass in
378 energy structure optimization and adopting advanced biomass technology. The forest
379 and grassland open fire control have had a good effect on biomass burning GHGs
380 emissions reduction in recent years. Government should continue to strengthen the
381 monitoring and preventing of anthropogenic forest and grassland fires, especially in
382 the south-central region and northeast region.

383 **4. Conclusions**

384 The GHGs emissions from biomass burning increased in China from 2000 to 2012.
385 The majority of biomass burning emissions were from firewood, crop residues burned
386 as fuel, and crop residues field burning, which accounted for more than 90 % of the
387 national biomass burning emissions. The large grassland and forest open fires resulted
388 in obvious emission peaks in several years. The obvious emission peaks resulted from
389 large grassland and forest fires mainly distributed in the south-central region and
390 northeast region. Half of biomass burning GHGs emissions were mainly distributed in
391 the east and south-central regions. The biomass burning GHGs emissions in coastal
392 provinces were higher than the interior provinces, while the relative emission growth
393 rates presented a contrary trend. Future research on obtaining more accurate biomass
394 burning data, improving the quality of statistics as well as combination of model
395 simulation and prediction would be definitely necessary for feature identification of
396 regional and global biomass burning GHGs emissions and policy making.

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603 **Table 1 Emission factors for biomass burning in China**

Emission factors (g/kg)	Field burning			Biofuel			Electricity generation
	forest fire	grassland fire	crop residue	firewood	crop residue	livestock excrement	biomass-based (g/kWh)
CO ₂	1,599.3 ^[1]	1,613 ^[1]	1,445.76 ^[1]	1,658 ^[2]	1,437.97 ^[3]	1,060 ^[4]	3,602 ^[5]
CH ₄	4.7 ^[1]	2.3 ^[1]	3.90 ^[1]	5.2 ^[2]	5.2 ^[2]	4.14 ^[4]	16.32 ^[5]
N ₂ O	0.26 ^[6]	0.21 ^[6]	0.07 ^[7]	0.0624 ^[6]	0.12 ^[8]	0.3132 ^[6]	0.2862 ^[5]

604 Note: superscript numbers indicate references. [1] indicates Lu et al., 2011; [2] indicates Yan et al., 2006; [3]

605 indicates Zhao et al., 2012; [4] indicates Tian et al., 2011; [5] indicates Koppmann et al., 2005; [6] indicates

606 Eggleston et al., 2006; [7] indicates Gadde et al., 2009; [8] indicates Liu, 2011.

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Table 2 The inventories of GHGs emissions from biomass burning during 2000-2012 period (Mt CO₂-eq)

Regions	Year												
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂													
North-central	68.54	76.81	78.40	92.84	87.29	90.93	95.15	91.93	97.05	94.62	98.11	102.35	103.45
Northeast	75.79	86.09	89.23	121.34	106.79	103.05	122.04	104.45	117.04	116.40	127.80	139.97	146.29
East	209.20	213.25	232.01	217.89	229.87	200.21	208.14	207.69	225.83	231.77	228.26	229.63	236.22
South-central	208.99	303.94	196.44	189.56	217.26	222.56	240.87	232.43	236.68	236.30	234.81	236.24	236.79
Southwest	104.56	152.78	159.12	162.78	133.80	149.56	137.15	129.56	137.31	129.48	130.09	124.42	128.39
Northwest	50.09	66.64	55.94	53.53	63.39	58.65	63.91	66.52	71.57	73.06	71.72	77.09	78.19
National	729.01	898.43	824.77	890.00	858.85	849.70	902.31	854.92	909.67	907.84	914.77	939.40	961.11
CH₄ (CO₂-eq)													
North-central	7.72	8.62	8.83	10.31	9.84	10.24	10.75	10.44	11.08	10.79	11.33	11.89	12.17
Northeast	8.59	9.75	10.19	13.32	12.06	11.70	13.68	12.07	13.67	13.52	15.08	16.59	17.47
East	23.39	23.84	25.81	24.19	25.60	22.44	23.39	23.60	25.70	26.53	26.16	26.35	27.45
South-central	23.01	26.95	21.62	20.82	23.84	24.44	26.47	25.56	26.20	26.31	26.28	26.55	26.79
Southwest	11.73	16.82	17.53	17.91	14.86	16.54	15.16	14.38	15.22	14.41	14.46	13.88	14.36
Northwest	5.71	5.92	6.36	6.11	7.18	6.70	7.25	7.56	8.11	8.28	8.15	8.74	8.88
National	79.91	91.84	90.21	96.35	93.73	92.81	98.49	94.25	100.81	100.87	102.24	105.39	108.75
N₂O (CO₂-eq)													
North-central	1.55	1.60	1.67	2.21	1.88	2.04	2.19	2.03	2.18	2.13	2.21	2.33	2.40
Northeast	1.60	1.91	1.90	3.54	2.39	2.28	3.05	2.19	2.47	2.55	2.70	2.98	3.13
East	4.14	4.11	4.29	3.98	4.41	3.98	4.12	4.12	4.46	4.58	4.47	4.56	4.71
South-central	3.72	7.66	3.52	3.43	3.96	4.00	4.17	4.13	4.32	4.29	4.27	4.30	4.35
Southwest	2.01	2.58	2.65	2.79	2.43	2.67	2.48	2.36	2.65	2.45	2.56	2.29	2.39
Northwest	1.39	1.40	1.49	1.48	1.61	1.61	1.65	1.66	1.72	1.75	1.76	1.84	1.89
National	13.77	18.66	14.81	18.36	16.08	15.97	17.58	15.79	17.06	17.18	17.23	17.73	18.32

Note: North-central including Beijing and Tianjin municipalities, Hebei, Shanxi, and Inner Mongol provinces; Northeast including Liaoning, Jilin and Heilongjiang provinces; East including Shanghai municipality, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Anhui, Fujian, Jiangxi and Shandong provinces; South-central including Henan, Hubei, Hunan, Guangdong, Guangxi and Hainan provinces; Southwest including Chongqing municipality, Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan and Tibet provinces; Northwest including Shaanxi, Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia, Xinjiang provinces.

Figure captions

Fig. 1. The contribution of biomass burning types to greenhouse gases emissions during 2000-2012 period

Fig. 2. The biomass burning amount changes in China during 2000-2012 period

Fig. 3. The relative percentage of different biomass burning types to average regional greenhouse gases emissions during 2000-2012 period

Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of China's biomass burning greenhouse gases emissions (Mt CO₂-eq) during 2000-2012 period and the relative emission growth rate from 2000 to 2012.

Fig. 1



Fig. 2

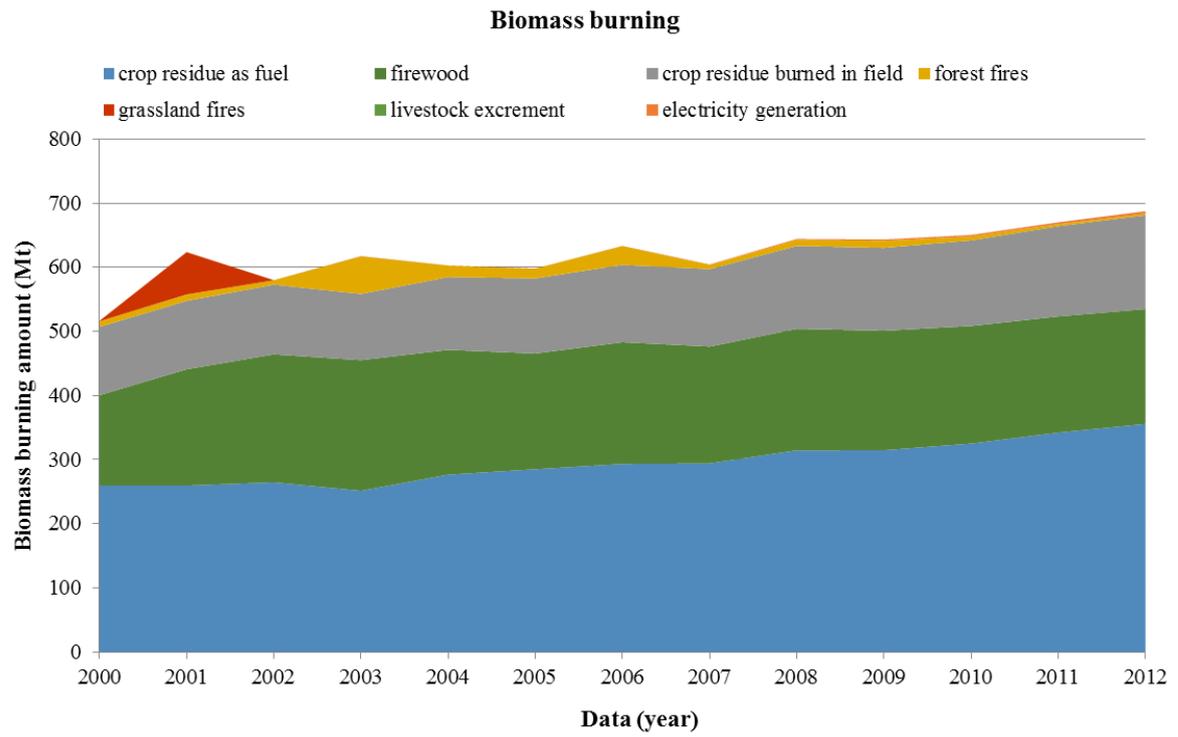


Fig. 3

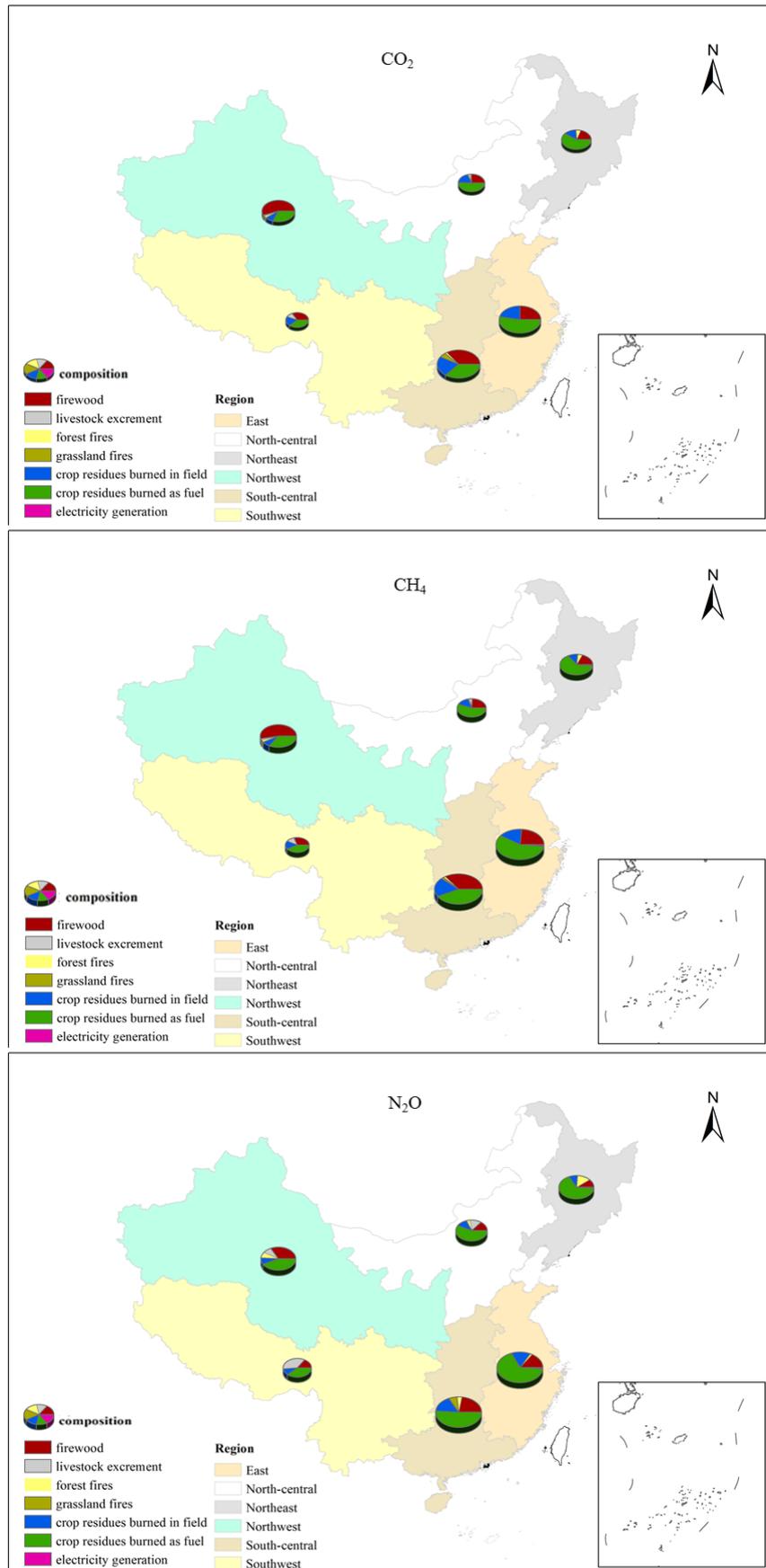


Fig. 4

