Toxic Species and Particulate Emissions from Synthetic Polymer Fires

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own, except where work which has formed part of jointly-authored publications has been included. The contribution of the candidate and the other authors to this work has been explicitly indicated below. The candidate confirms that appropriate credit has been given within the thesis where reference has been made to the work of others.

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 PVC Sheathed Electrical Cable Fire Smoke Toxicity, Proceedings of the Ninth International Seminar on Fire and Explosion Hazards, St. Petersburg, Russia (April, 2019).

(Included in Chapter 4)

All the experimental work, analysis of results and writing up of the publication were carried out by Miss Hasimawaty Binti Mat Kiah. Bintu Grema Mustafa participated in carrying out the experimental procedures as two students are required when undertaking experiments and I participated in her work relating to the toxic hazards of commercial wood products. Dr Herodotos Phylaktou, Professor Gordon Andrews and Dr Hu Li (particle number specialist) supervised the research work and proof-read the publication.

On-going and other joint publications are listed in Appendix A.

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Abstract

Overall fire statistics and residential and industrial fires in which there have been large number of fatalities demonstrate that the cause of most deaths can be attributed to effects of toxic smoke produced in these fires. Despite this fact there are no national or international legal requirements to determine the toxic emissions from materials used in construction, electrical cabling or the wide range of polymer based products used in house construction and industry. Many polymers used commercially are fire retarded and the materials used for this can add to the toxicity. The only indirect control comes through some test requirements for product classification based on the volume of smoke production. However, this is not an adequate approach to the problem. Fire smoke contents can cause death directly or can impair escape so that people die indirectly from the effects of toxic gases, and in the first we need to identify and quantify these emissions for different materials and under different fire conditions. Currently, as a consequence of this lack of legal requirements, there is a dearth of data on toxic emissions from real industrial products under fire conditions.

This research was focused on toxic gas emissions under fire conditions from practical industrial polymeric materials: insulating foams, electrical cables, Polyethylene and Polystyrene goods together with some other polymeric materials: rubber, GRP, PVC pipes and clear Acrylic. All were either used by industry who gave samples for testing or were on sale in construction product retailers. Some of the goods were fire retarded and had HCI, HBr or HF in the product gases or had high ash content. These generally produced higher toxic emissions than non-fire retarded products.

Most of the work was carried out using the Leeds University modified Cone Calorimeter with raw gas sampling from a chimney above the cone outlet. A heated sample line, heated filter and heated sample pump with heated FTIR was the method of analysis used. All products were found to have significant toxic gas emissions, but the most important toxic gas depended on the material tested and was rarely CO. A data set of toxic emissions and toxic gas yields was produced which is greater than most data sources in the literature for synthetic polymer materials.

Part of this work was the modification of the Purser Furnace by adding raw hot gas sampling and eliminating the backflow of dilution air into the reaction tube. This took a long time to design and construct and was only available at the end of the research work where it was used with PE samples at lean and rich equivalence ratios.

A significant part of the work was the first use of this equipment for particle size analysis using the DMS 500 instrument. Ultra fine particles (<50nm) were present in all the fires and were a significant health hazard.

Acknow	ledgements	iii
Abstract	t	iv
Table of	Contents	v
List of T	ables	xiii
List of F	ïgures	xvi
Nomenc	lature and Symbols	xxvi
Chapter	1 Introduction	1
1.1	Fire Statistics	1
1.2	Notable Relevant Fires	5
	1.2.1 Grenfell Tower	6
	1.2.2 The Rose Park Nursing Home	6
	1.2.3 Piper Alpha	7
	1.2.4 Kings Cross Fire 1988	7
1.3	Particulates	10
1.4	Legislation	11
1.5	General Research Aims	12
Chapter	2 Literature Review	13
2.1	Toxic Gases and Particulate Emissions from Fires	13
	2.1.1 Asphyxiant Gases	18
	2.1.2 Irritant Gases	18
	2.1.3 Particulates from Smoke	19
2.2	Causes of Fire Deaths	20
	2.2.1 Smoke Inhalation	20
	2.2.2 Burns (Heat Shock)	22
	2.2.3 Reduction of Oxygen Levels	23
2.3	Fire Stages	23
	2.3.1 Smouldering Fires (Incipient)	24
	2.3.2 Developing Fires (Well-ventilated Flame)	24
	2.3.3 Ventilation Controlled Pre-Flashover Fire	25
	2.3.4 Fully Developed Fires (Post-Flashover Phase)	25
	2.3.5 Decay Phase	25
2.4	Factors Influence the Emission of Toxic Gases from Fires	25
	2.4.1 Equivalence Ratios of Fuel and Air Mixture	26

Table of Contents

	2.4.2 Variable Ventilation Conditions	27
	2.4.3 Type of Test Materials	27
2.5	Review of Fire Toxicity Test Methods	29
	2.5.1 Using the Purser Furnace System	29
	2.5.2 Using the Cone Calorimeter Method	30
2.6	Specific Research Objectives	41
Chapter	3 Research Methodology	42
3.1	Cone Calorimeter	42
	3.1.1 Test Procedure for the Cone Calorimeter Method	44
3.2	Purser Furnace	45
	3.2.1 Principles of Operation	45
	3.2.2 Problems of the Purser Furnace Method	47
	3.2.3 Description of the Modified Purser Furnace Method	48
	3.2.4 Test Procedure for the Purser Furnace Method	50
3.3	Analysers Used in Experimental Works	51
	3.3.1 Fourier Transform Infrared Heated Gas Analyser (FTIR).	51
	3.3.2 Differential Mobility Spectrometer (DMS500)	56
	3.3.3 Smoke Meter	59
	3.3.4 Thermodenuder	60
3.4	Test Materials	62
	3.4.1 Sample Preparation Before Test for the Cone Calorimete	er65
	3.4.2 Sample Preparation for Pre and Post Analysis	66
3.5	Pre and Post Analysis Equipment	67
	3.5.1 CHNS-O Analyser	68
	3.5.2 Thermo-Gravimetric Analyser (TGA)	69
	3.5.3 Bomb Calorimeter	71
	3.5.4 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)	73
	3.5.5 Gas Chromatography (GC-MS)	74
3.6	Calculations and Data Interpretations	74
	3.6.1 Determination of Sample Chemical Formula	75
	3.6.2 Air to Fuel Ratio (AFR) and Equivalence Ratio, Φ (ER)	76
	3.6.3 Normalised Mass Loss (NML) and Mass Loss Rate	. .
		84
	3.6.4 Heat Kelease Kate (HKK)	85

3.6.5 Gas Concentration, Total Toxicity and Major Gas Contribution85
3.6.6 Emission Index for Pollutants or Toxic Gas Yields for Fire Toxicity87
3.6.7 Particle Number and Mass Distributions, Particulate Yields and Cumulative Mass
3.6.8 Soot Mass from Filter Papers90
3.6.9 Summarised Data for Proximate and Ultimate Analysis91
Chapter 4 Electrical Cable Fires in the Cone Calorimeter95
4.1 Introduction95
4.2 General Combustion Properties of PVC and Other Types of Electrical Cable Fires
4.2.1 PVC Electrical Cable Fires
4.2.1.1 PVC Prysmian A Electrical Cable Fires
4.2.1.2 Other PVC Electrical Cable Fires104
4.2.2 Non PVC Electrical Cable Fires106
4.2.2.1 Solar Energy Cable Fires106
4.2.2.2 Siemens' Wind Turbine Cable Fires108
4.2.2.3 LSZH Electrical Cable Fires109
4.2.2.4 Other Non-PVC Electrical Cable Fires
4.3 Toxicity from Various Types of Electrical Cable Fires113
4.3.1 Gas Concentrations for PVC Prysmian A Cable Fires113
4.3.2 Gas Concentrations for Other Electrical Cable Fires119
4.3.3 Total Toxicity for PVC Prysmian A Cable Fires129
4.3.4 Total toxicity for Other Electrical Cable Fires
4.3.5 Gas Yields for PVC Prysmian A Cable Fires137
4.3.6 Gas Yields for Other Electrical Cable Fires145
4.3.7 Major Gases Contribution for PVC Prysmian A Cable Fires162
4.3.8 Major Gases Contribution for Other Electrical Cable Fires176
4.4 Particle Number and Mass Distributions for Electrical Cable Fires
4.4.1 Particle Number Distributions for PVC Prysmian A Cable Fires at Various Heat Fluxes and Ventilation Rates
4.4.2 Particle Mass Distributions for PVC Prysmian A Cable Fires at Various Heat Fluxes and Ventilation Rates

4.4.3 Particle Size Distributions for Wind Turbine Cable Fires at Irradiation Level of 35 kW/m2 and Free Ventilation209
4.4.4 Particle Size Distributions for Other LSZH Cable Fires at Irradiation Level of 35 kW/m2 and Free Ventilation213
4.4.5 Particulate Yields for PVC Prysmian A Cable Fires at Various Heat Fluxes and Ventilation Rates216
4.4.6 Particulate Yields for Siemens' Wind Turbine Cable Fires at Heat Flux of 35 kW/m ² and Free Ventilation
4.4.7 Particulate Yields for Other LSZH Cable Fires at Heat Flux of 35 kW/m ² and Free Ventilation222
4.5 Findings and Conclusion from Electrical Cable Fire Tests223
Chapter 5 Solid Foam Fires with Free Ventilation in the Cone Calorimeter Test
5.1 General Combustion Properties of Various Foam Fires227
5.1.1 Mass Loss Rates, Equivalence Ratios and Heat Release Rates for PIR Foam Fires228
5.1.2 Mass Loss Rates, Equivalence Ratios and Heat Release Rates for PU and PIR Foam Fires
5.2 Toxicity from PU and PIR Foam Fires232
5.2.1 Gas Concentrations for PIR Foam Fires at Various Irradiation Levels with Free Ventilation
5.2.2 Gas Concentrations for PU and PIR Foam Fires at 35 kW/m ² Irradiation Level with Free Ventilation
5.2.3 Gas Yields for PIR Foam Fires at Various Irradiation Levels with Free Ventilation237
5.2.4 Gas Yields for PU and PIR Foam Fires at 35 kW/m ² Irradiation Level with Free Ventilation
5.2.5 Total Toxicity for PIR Foam Fires at Various Irradiation Levels with Free Ventilation242
5.2.6 Total toxicity for PU and PIR Foam Fires at 35 kW/m ² Irradiation Level with Free Ventilation245
5.2.7 Major Gases Contribution for PIR Foam Fires at Various Irradiation Levels with Free Ventilation
5.2.8 Major Gases Contribution for PU and PIR Foam Fires at 35 kW/m ² Irradiation Level with Free Ventilation
5.3 Particle Size Distributions for PIR Foam Fires with Varied Irradiation Levels
5.3.1 Particle Number and Mass Distributions for PIR Foam Fires258
5.3.2 Particulate Yields for PIR Foam Fires

Findings and Conclusion from Solid Foam Fire Tests	.267
5.4.1 PIR Foam Fires at Various Irradiation Levels	.267
5.4.2 PIR and PU Foam Fires at 35 kW/m ² with Free Ventilation	.268
6 Polyethylene Fires with Free Ventilation in the Cone orimeter Test	.271
Introduction	.271
General Combustion Properties for Different Types of Polyethylene Fires	.272
6.2.1 Profile for Mass Reduction and Oxygen Changes	.274
6.2.2 MLR and ER	.275
6.2.3 Heat Release Rate (HRR) for Polyethylene Fires	.276
Determination of Ignition Time and Temperature Profile for Polyethylene and GRP Fires with Pilot Ignition and Free Ventilation Condition	.277
6.3.1 Ignition Time and Test Data for Polyethylene and GRP Fires	.278
6.3.2 Surface Temperature for Polyethylene and GRP Burning Samples) .280
Toxicity of Polyethylene Fires	.283
6.4.1 Gas Concentration as a Function of Time	.283
6.4.2 Gas Yields for Polyethylene Fires at 35 kW/m ² with Free Ventilation	e .287
6.4.3 Total Toxicity for Polyethylene Fires at 35 kW/m ² with Free Ventilation	.296
6.4.4 Major Gases Contribution for Polyethylene Fires at 35 kW/m ² with Free Ventilation	.297
Findings and Conclusion from Polyethylene Fire Tests	.305
7 Polystyrene Fires with Free Ventilation in the Cone orimeter Test	.307
General Combustion Properties of Various Polystyrene Fires	.307
7.1.1 Profile for Mass Reduction and Oxygen Changes	.308
7.1.2 Correlations between MLR and ER	.309
7.1.3 Heat Release Rate (HRR) Profiles for Polystyrene Fires	.310
Toxicity of Polystyrene Fires	.311
7.2.1 Gas Concentration as a Function of Time	.311
7.2.2 Gas Yields for Polystyrene Fires at 35 kW/m ² with Free Ventilation	.315
	 Findings and Conclusion from Solid Foam Fire Tests

7.2.3 Total Toxicity for Polystyrene Fires at 35 kW/m ² with F Ventilation	ree 321
7.2.4 Major Gases Contribution for Polystyrene Fires at 35 kW/m ² with Free Ventilation	322
7.3 Findings and Conclusion from Polystyrene Fire Tests	332
Chapter 8 Other Polymer Fires with Free Ventilation in the Cone Calorimeter Test	334
8.1 General Combustion Properties of Other Polymer Fires	334
8.1.1 Profile for Mass Reduction and Oxygen Changes	335
8.1.2 Correlations between MLR and ER	335
8.1.3 Heat Release Rate (HRR) Profiles	336
8.2 Toxicity of Other Polymer Fires	337
8.2.1 Gas Concentration as a Function of Time	337
8.2.2 Gas Yields	339
8.2.3 Total Toxicity	343
8.2.4 Major Gases Contribution	344
8.3 Particle Size Distributions from Other Polymer Fires	352
8.3.1 Particle Number and Mass Distributions for Rubber Bu Sheet Fire	ıtyl 352
8.3.2 Particulate Yields for Rubber Butyl Sheet Fire	355
8.4 Findings and Conclusion from Other Polymer Fire Tests	356
Chapter 9 Development and Testing in the Purser Furnace	358
9.1 Improved Design of the New Purser Furnace System	358
9.1.1 The Purser Furnace Method for Fire Toxicity Measurements and Its Design Problems	358
9.1.2 The Redesigned Furnace for Toxic Gas and Particulat Measurements	e 362
9.2 Engineered Design	364
9.2.1 Insertion of Orifice Plate to Overcome Back Flow Problem	365
9.2.2 Mixing Improvement in the Measurement Chamber	365
9.2.3 Explosion Vent Installation	366
9.2.4 Direct Heated Gas and Diluted Samplings	366
9.3 Construction Works of the Modified Furnace System	366
9.3.1 Driving Mechanism System	367
9.3.1.1 Gear Ratio Calculations	368
9.3.1.2 Verification of Driving Speed	369

	9.3.2 C	Quartz Tube	370
	9.3.3 T	ube Furnace	371
	9.3.4 N	lixing and Measurement Chamber	371
9.4	Commis	sioning and operation of New Purser Furnace System	373
9.5	Experim	ental Data	373
	9.5.1 G	General Combustion Properties	375
	9.5.2 T an	oxicity of Polyethylene Fires in the Cone Calorimeter d Purser Furnace Tests	377
	9.5.2.1	Gas Concentration (Raw Gas Samples)	377
	9.5.2.2	Gas Yields	380
	9.5.2.3	Total Toxicity	385
	9.5.2.4	Major Gases Contribution	386
	9.5.3 P Fu	Particle Mass from Polyethylene Fires in the Purser	390
	9.5.4 P Pu	Particle Size Distributions of Polyethylene Fires in the Irser Furnace Test	394
	9.5.4.1	Particle Number and Mass Distributions	394
	9.5.4.2	Particulate Yields	398
9.6	Findings Calorim	and Conclusion from PE-Y Fire Tests in the Cone	400
Chapter 1	0 Conc	lusion and Recommendation	102
10.1	Genera	al Discussion of Significant of Findings	402
	10.1.1	Main Findings	402
10.2	Conclu	sion	404
	10.2.1 Ca	Restricted Ventilation Fire Tests in the Cone	404
	10.2.2	Free-ventilated Fire Tests in the Cone Calorimeter4	405
	10.2.3	Fire Tests in the Purser Furnace System	409
	10.2.4 Ca	Comparison of Results for Fire Tests in the Cone alorimeter and Purser Furnace System4	411
10.3	Recom	mendation	411
10.4	Future	Works	412
	10.4.1 the Fu	Fire Tests with and without Thermodenuder attached to e Particle Sizer in the Cone Calorimeter and Purser Irnace System	412
	10.4.2 Sy	More Fire Tests in the New Developed Purser Furnace	413

10.4.3 More Restricted Ventilation Fire Tests in the Cone	2
Calorimeter Burning various Polymers41	3
List of References41	5
List of Abbreviations42	24
Appendix A Papers and Presentations42	:6
A.1 List of Papers and Publications42	:6
A.1.1 PVC Electrical Cable Fires42	:6
A.1.2 Solid Foam Fires42	:6
A.1.3 Other Submitted Abstracts42	:6
A.1.4 Other Joint Publications42	:6
A.2 List of Conferences and Presentations42	27
Appendix B The Modified Cone Calorimeter42	8
B.1 Standard Test Procedure and Check List42	8
B.2 Pictures of Cone Calorimeter Tests43	1
Appendix C The Modified Purser Furnace43	2
C.1 Standard Test Procedure and Check List43	2
C.2 Pictures of Purser Furnace Tests43	4
Appendix D List of Fire Toxicity Tests43	5
Appendix E Cumulative Mass of CO for Various Polymer Fires43	9
Appendix F Assembly Drawings of the Modified Purser Furnace44	3

List of Tables

Table 1.1 2016	Trends in fire deaths in the countries of the World in 2012- [2]
Table 1.2 Septe	Fire incident types in Great Britain from 2008 to ember 2019 [1]5
Table 1.3	List of fire incidents involved cladding materials8
Table 2.1	Asphyxiant and irritant gases [22, 23]13
Table 2.2	Toxic gases and their effects to human health15
Table 2.3	Limit concentration for major toxic species [39-41]22
Table 2.4	Composition of test materials containing nitrogen [63]28
Table 2.5 studi	List of references related to the previous fire toxicity es
Table 3.1	Calibrated irradiation level at certain Cone temperature44
Table 3.2 meas	Calibration and wavelength range for each species sured by the FTIR [105-107]53
Table 3.3 build	List of PVC electrical cables and their application in ling64
Table 3.4 build	List of non-PVC electrical cables and their application in ling64
Table 3.5	List of polymers and their application in building65
Table 3.6	Chemical formula for various groups of polymers68
Table 3.7	Stoichiometric A/F by mass for various Hydrocarbons78
Table 3.8	Antoine Constants for water82
Table 3.9	Dial number points of the driver at certain $\Phi83$
Table 3.10	Air flowrates (IAF) in different units85
Table 3.11	Proximate and ultimate analysis results for test materials.92
Table 4.1 cable	Thickness, sample mass and Copper mass for electrical samples96
Table 4.2	Test details for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires97
Table 4.3 of irr	Test details for other PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² adiation level under free ventilation condition98
Table 4.4	Test details for non PVC electrical cable fires
Table 4.5 irrad	(a) Maximum gas yields for electrical cable fires at various iation levels and ventilation rates159
Table 4.5 fires	(b) Mean gas yields for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable at various irradiation levels and ventilation rates

Table 4.5 (c) Mean gas yields for other electrical cable fires atseveral irradiation levels and ventilation rates.	161
Table 4.6 First six major species for PVC Prysmian A electrical cab fires.	ole 171
Table 4.7 First six major species for various electrical cable fires.	186
Table 5.1 Test details for PIR foam (Grenfell Tower) fires at various irradiation levels with free ventilation.	228
Table 5.2 Test details for PU and PIR foam (Grenfell Tower) fires at35 kW/m² irradiation level with free ventilation.	228
Table 5.3 Maximum gas yields for solid foam fires at variousirradiation levels with free ventilation	244
Table 5.4 Mean gas yields for solid foam fires at various irradiationlevels with free ventilation.	ı 245
Table 5.5 First six major species for various solid foam fires	254
Table 6.1 Test details for Polyethylene fires	273
Table 6.2 Test details for PE-Y fires.	278
Table 6.3 Test details for PE-Blue fires.	279
Table 6.4 Test details for PE-Black fires.	279
Table 6.5 Test details for GRP-Blue fires.	280
Table 6.6 FTIR species that are in or well outside the calibration range.	284
Table 6.7 Maximum gas yields for Polyethylene fires at irradiationlevel of 35 kW/m² with free ventilation.	295
Table 6.8 Mean gas yields for Polyethylene fires at irradiation levelof 35 kW/m² with free ventilation.	296
Table 6.9 First six major species for various Polyethylene fires	302
Table 7.1 Test details for Polystyrene fires.	307
Table 7.2 Maximum gas yields for Polystyrene fires.	320
Table 7.3 Mean gas yields for Polystyrene fires	320
Table 7.4 First six major species for various Polystyrene fires	328
Table 8.1 Test details for other polymer fires	335
Table 8.2 Maximum gas yields for other polymer fires	342
Table 8.3 Mean gas yields for other polymer fires.	343
Table 8.4 First six major species for other polymer fires	349
Table 9.1 Calibrated values for fuel feed rate at corresponding dial or point number.	370
Table 9.2 Calculated details and parameters prior to Purser Furnac tests.	e 374

Table 9.3 Test details for the Purser Furnace tests.	375
Table 9.4 Maximum gas yields for Polyethylene fires in the ConeCalorimeter and Purser Furnace tests.	384
Table 9.5 Mean gas yields for Polyethylene fires in the ConeCalorimeter and Purser Furnace tests.	385
Table 9.6 First six major species for PE-Y fires in the Cone Calorimeter and Purser Furnace.	388
Table 9.7 PM mass collected from filter paper in the Purser Furnace tests.	e 392
Table 9.8 Filter paper analysis by TGA for the Purser Furnace tests	.394

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Fire distribution by (a) types in worldwide (2016) [2] and (b) causes of fire deaths in Great Britain for 2018/19 [4]3
Figure 1.2 Total fire-related fatalities, England; year ending September 2011 to year ending September 2019 [1]4
Figure 2.1 Reaction path to formation Nitrogen based species from the reaction with the Nitrogen from the air in fires [24]14
Figure 2.2 Different development stages of a compartment fire [45]24
Figure 3.1 Configuration of the Cone Calorimeter with a chimney43
Figure 3.2 Configuration of the Cone Calorimeter for restricted ventilation test (with the air tight box)
Figure 3.3 The actual and schematic configuration of the Purser Furnace System
Figure 3.4 FTIR and Oxygen analyser56
Figure 3.5 Example of spectrum recorded by the FTIR analyser56
Figure 3.6 Particle sizer, the DMS500 [124, 125]58
Figure 3.7 An online graph as shown by the DMS500 computer59
Figure 3.8 Smoke meter equipment60
Figure 3.9 Filter paper in the electrically heat holder after collection of particles. The black circle indicates mainly soot particles. If the volatiles are high the circular spot is brown
Figure 3.10 Volatile remover, the Dekati Thermodenuder62
Figure 3.11 Electrical cable samples in sample holder
Figure 3.12 Polymer samples in sample holder
Figure 3.13 Cryomill used to grind samples67
Figure 3.14 Crushing machine and ball mill PM10067
Figure 3.15 Ground polymer samples in powder form68
Figure 3.16 Thermo EA200069
Figure 3.17 Shimadzu TGA-5070
Figure 3.18 Bomb Calorimeter – Parr 620072
Figure 3.19 Samples formed by the presser72
Figure 3.20 Photo of SEM Hitachi SU8230 FESEM73
Figure 3.21 Spectrums and image from SEM analysis74
Figure 4.1 Combustion properties against time for PVC Prysmian A
electrical cable fires at 25 kW/m ² with various air flow rates101

Figure 4.3 Combustion properties against time for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 50 kW/m ² with various air flow rates104
Figure 4.4 Combustion properties against time for other PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² with various air flow rates106
Figure 4.5 Combustion properties against time for Solar Energy cable fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation108
Figure 4.6 Combustion properties against time for Siemens' Wind Turbine cable fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation109
Figure 4.7 Combustion properties against time for LSZH electrical cable fires at different heat fluxes and ventilation rates
Figure 4.8 Combustion properties against time for other tested electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation113
Figure 4.9 Gas concentrations as a function of time for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 25 kW/m ² and various ventilation rates115
Figure 4.10 Gas concentrations as a function of time for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and various ventilation rates117
Figure 4.11 Gas concentrations as a function of time for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 50 kW/m ² and various ventilation rates119
Figure 4.12 Concentration of gases as a function of time from other PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation121
Figure 4.13 Concentration of gases as a function of time from Solar Energy cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation123
Figure 4.14 Concentration of gases as a function of time from Siemens' Wind Turbine cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 4.15 Concentration of gases as a function of time from LSZH electrical cable fires under several test conditions127
Figure 4.16 Concentration of gases as a function of time from other Non-PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation. 129
Figure 4.17 Total toxicities indices for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 25 kW/m ² with various air flow rates
Figure 4.18 Total toxicities for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² with various air flow rates131
Figure 4.19 Total toxicities for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 50 kW/m ² with various air flow rates132
Figure 4.20 Total toxicity for other PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation133

Figure 4.21 Total toxicity for Solar Energy cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation134
Figure 4.22 Total toxicity for Siemens' Wind Turbine cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation135
Figure 4.23 Total toxicity values (LC50, COSHH and AEGL-2) for LSZH electrical cable fires under several test conditions136
Figure 4.24 Total toxicity for other Non-PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 4.25 Gas yields for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 25 kW/m ² and various ventilation conditions139
Figure 4.26 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 25 kW/m ² and various ventilation conditions139
Figure 4.27 Gas yields for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and various ventilation conditions141
Figure 4.28 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and various ventilation conditions142
Figure 4.29 Gas yields for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 50 kW/m ² and various ventilation conditions144
Figure 4.30 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for PVC Prysmian A electrical cable fires at 50 kW/m ² and various ventilation conditions145
Figure 4.31 Gas yields for other PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation147
Figure 4.32 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for other PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 4.33 Gas yields for Solar Energy cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation149
Figure 4.34 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for Solar Energy cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation150
Figure 4.35 Gas yields for Siemens' Wind Turbine cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation152
Figure 4.36 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for Siemens' Wind Turbine cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation152
Figure 4.37 Gas yields for LSZH electrical cable fires at different heat fluxes and ventilation rates
Figure 4.38 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for LSZH electrical cable fires at different heat fluxes and ventilation rates155
Figure 4.39 Gas yields for other Non-PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation157
Figure 4.40 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for other Non-PVC electrical cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation158

Figure 4.55 Particle number distributions from the burning of PVC Prysmian A cable at 25 kW/m ² and various air flow rates195
Figure 4.56 Particle number distributions from the burning of PVC Prysmian A cable at 35 kW/m ² and various air flow rates197
Figure 4.57 Particle number distributions from the burning of PVC Prysmian A cable at 50 kW/m ² and various air flow rates199
Figure 4.58 Particle mass distributions from the burning of PVC Prysmian A cable at 25 kW/m ² and various air flow rates200
Figure 4.59 Size distributions for 10 nm and 100 nm particles from PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 25 kW/m ² and various air flow rates
Figure 4.60 Particulate cumulative mass for PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 25 kW/m ² and various air flow rates
Figure 4.61 Particle mass distributions from the burning of PVC Prysmian A cable at 35 kW/m ² and various air flow rates204
Figure 4.62 Size distributions for 10 nm and 100 nm particles from PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and various air flow rates
Figure 4.63 Particulate cumulative mass for PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and various air flow rates
Figure 4.64 Particle mass distributions from the burning of PVC Prysmian A cable at 50 kW/m ² and various air flow rates207
Figure 4.65 Size distributions for 10 nm and 100 nm particles from PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 50 kW/m ² and various air flow rates
Figure 4.66 Particulate cumulative mass for PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 50 kW/m ² and various air flow rates
Figure 4.67 Particle number distributions from the burning of Wind Turbine cables at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation211
Figure 4.68 Particle mass distributions from the burning of Wind Turbine cables at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation212
Figure 4.69 Particulate cumulative mass from the burning of Wind Turbine cables at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation213
Figure 4.70 Particle number distributions from the burning of other LSZH cables at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation214
Figure 4.71 Particle mass distributions from the burning of other LSZH cables at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation215
Figure 4.72 Particulate cumulative mass from the burning of other LSZH cables at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation216
Figure 4.73 Particulate yields for PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 25 kW/m ² and various air flow rates218

Figure 4.74 Particulate yields for PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and various air flow rates219
Figure 4.75 Particulate yields for PVC Prysmian A cable fires at 50 kW/m ² and various air flow rates220
Figure 4.76 Particulate yields (number and mass) for Wind Turbine cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 4.77 Particulate yields (number and mass) for other LSZH cable fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 5.1 Combustion properties for Polyisocyanurate foam fires at various heat fluxes with free ventilation230
Figure 5.2 Combustion properties for Polyurethane and Polyisocyanurate foam fires at 35 kW/m2 with free ventilation231
Figure 5.3 Concentration of toxic gases as a function of time for various PIR foam fires
Figure 5.4 Concentration of toxic gases as a function of time for PU and PIR foam fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation236
Figure 5.5 Yield of gases as a function of time for various PIR foam fires
Figure 5.6 Combustion efficiency, ŋ as a function of time for various PIR foam fires239
Figure 5.7 Yield of gases as a function of time for PU and PIR foam fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 5.8 Combustion efficiency, ŋ as a function of time for PU and PIR foam fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation242
Figure 5.9 The LC50 _{30min} , COSHH _{15min} and AEGL-2 _{10min} total relative toxicity for various PIR foam fires243
Figure 5.10 The LC50 _{30min} , COSHH _{15min} and AEGL-2 _{10min} total relative toxicity for PU and PIR foam fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation246
Figure 5.11 Contribution of major gases (based LC50 _{30min}) for various PIR foam fires247
Figure 5.12 Contribution of major gases (based COSHH _{15min}) for various PIR foam fires248
Figure 5.13 Contribution of major gases (based AEGL-2 _{10min}) for various PIR foam fires250
Figure 5.14 Contribution of major gases (based LC50 _{30min}) for PU and PIR foam fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation251
Figure 5.15 Contribution of major gases (based COSHH _{15min}) for PU and PIR foam fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation252
Figure 5.16 Contribution of major gases (based AEGL-2 _{10min}) for PU and PIR foam fires at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation253

Figure 5.17 Particle size (number) distribution for PIR foam fire at various heat fluxes and free ventilation259
Figure 5.18 Particle size (mass) distribution for PIR foam fire at various heat fluxes and free ventilation
Figure 5.19 Number and mass distributions for 10 nm, 50 nm and 100 nm particles from PIR foam fire at various heat fluxes and free ventilation
Figure 5.20 Particle size distributions in 3D Waterfall plot for PIR foam fire at various heat fluxes and free ventilation
Figure 5.21 Cumulative mass as a function of particle size for PIR foam fire at various heat fluxes and free ventilation
Figure 5.22 Particulate yields for PIR foam fire at various heat fluxes and free ventilation
Figure 6.1 Types of bunds used in industry274
Figure 6.2 Normalised mass loss and oxygen changes against time for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation275
Figure 6.3 MLR and ER against time for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 6.4 HRRs against time for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation277
Figure 6.5 Surface temperature profiles for Polyethylene and GRP fires at various heat fluxes and free ventilation
Figure 6.6 Infrared images for Polyethylene and GRP fires during the flaming condition, with the peak temperature indicated283
Figure 6.7 Gas concentrations for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 6.8 Gas yields for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 6.9 Combustion efficiency, ŋ and gas yields as a function of equivalence ratio for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 6.10 Total toxicity for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 6.11 Contribution of major gases (based LC50 _{30min}) for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation298
Figure 6.12 Contribution of major gases (based COSHH _{15min}) for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation300
Figure 6.13 Contribution of major gases (based AEGL-210min) for Polyethylene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation301
Figure 7.1 Normalised mass loss profiles for Polystyrene fires

Figure 7.2 Oxygen changes during polystyrene fire tests
Figure 7.3 Mass loss rate (MLR) as a function of time
Figure 7.4 Equivalence ratio (ER) as a function of time
Figure 7.5 Heat release rates for various Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² of irradiation level and free ventilation condition
Figure 7.6 Toxic gas concentrations as a function of time for various Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 7.7 Gas yields for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 7.8 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 7.9 Total toxicity LC50 for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 7.10 Total toxicity COSHH _{15min} for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation322
Figure 7.11 Total toxicity AEGL-2 for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 7.12 Contribution of major gases (based LC50 _{30min}) for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 7.13 Contribution of major gases (based COSHH _{15min}) for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 7.14 Contribution of major gases (based AEGL-2 _{10min}) for Polystyrene fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 8.1 Mass loss and oxygen consumption profiles for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation335
Figure 8.2 MLR and ER for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 8.3 HRR profiles for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 8.4 Gas concentrations for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 8.5 Gas yields for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 8.6 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 8.7 Total toxicities for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation
Figure 8.8 Contribution of major gases (based LC50 _{30min}) for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation345

Figure 8.9 Contribution of major gases (based COSHH _{15min}) for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation346
Figure 8.10 Contribution of major gases (based AEGL-2 _{10min}) for other tested polymer fires at 35 kW/m ² with free ventilation348
Figure 8.11 Particle number and mass distributions for Rubber Butyl Sheet (RBS FB) fire at heat flux of 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation.352
Figure 8.12 Particle number and mass distributions in 3D Waterfall plot for Rubber Butyl Sheet (RBS FB) fire at heat flux of 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 8.13 Size distributions for 10 nm, 50 nm and 100 nm particles for Rubber Butyl Sheet (RBS FB) fire at heat flux of 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation
Figure 8.14 Particulate cumulative mass for Rubber Butyl Sheet (RBS FB) fire at heat flux of 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation355
Figure 8.15 Particulate yields (number and mass) for RBS FB fire at 35 kW/m ² and free ventilation356
Figure 9.1 (a) Diagram of the old version Purser Furnace System [104]
Figure 9.1 (b) Overall diagram of the new Purser Furnace System364
Figure 9.1 (c) Quartz tube ends were sealed using the end caps365
Figure 9.2 Driving motor, driving belt and driving controller
Figure 9.3 Speed rate values as a function of travel time (a) and dial number (b)
Figure 9.4 Furnace Quartz tube
Figure 9.5 Main section of the tube furnace
Figure 9.6 Transparent chamber of the new furnace rig
Figure 9.7 Before, during and after test observations
Figure 9.8 Temperature profiles in the Purser Furnace tests: Test 1 is ER 2.0 and Test 2 is ER 0.8
Figure 9.9 General combustion properties for PE-Y fires in the Cone Calorimeter and Purser Furnace at different fire conditions377
Figure 9.10 Concentration of gases for PE-Y fires in the Cone Calorimeter and Purser Furnace at different fire conditions380
Figure 9.11 Yield of gases for PE-Y fires in the Cone Calorimeter and Purser Furnace at different fire conditions
Figure 9.12 Combustion efficiency, ŋ for PE-Y fires in the Cone Calorimeter and Purser Furnace at different fire conditions383
Figure 9.13 Total toxicity for PE-Y fires in the Cone Calorimeter and Purser Furnace at different fire conditions

Figure 9.14 Contribution of major toxic gases for the Purser Furnace tests at two different equivalence ratios
Figure 9.15 Filter paper samples collected from the Purser Furnace tests
Figure 9.16 PM mass as a function of time for the Purser Furnace tests
Figure 9.17 Soot yields as a function of time for the Purser Furnace tests
Figure 9.18 Wet ash contents from filter paper analysis by the TGA for the Purser Furnace tests
Figure 9.19 Particle number and mass distributions for PE-Y fires in the Purser Furnace at two different equivalence ratios
Figure 9.20 Particle number and mass distributions in 3D Waterfall plot for PE-Y fires in the Purser Furnace at two different equivalence ratios
Figure 9.21 10 nm and 100 nm particle distributions for PE-Y fires in the Purser Furnace at two different equivalence ratios
Figure 9.22 Particulate cumulative mass as a function of particle size for PE-Y fires in the Purser Furnace at two different equivalence ratios
Figure 9.23 Particulate yields (number and mass) for PE-Y fires in the Purser Furnace at two different equivalence ratios

Nomenclature and Symbols

- CO Carbon monoxide
- CO₂ Carbon dioxide
- HCN Hydrogen cyanide
- HBr Hydrogen bromide
- HCI Hydrogen chloride
- HF Hydrogen fluoride
- N₂ Nitrogen
- O₂ Oxygen
- SO₂ Sulphur dioxide
- Φ Equivalence ratio
- % Percent
- °C Unit temperature degree Celsius
- kW Unit energy kilowatt
- m² Unit area meters square
- g/g Yield unit gram/gram
- ppm Part per million
- s Unit time seconds
- dm³ Unit volume cubic decimetre
- m3 Unit volume cubic metre
- min Unit time minutes
- mm Unit length millimetre
- nm Unit length nanometre
- g Unit mass gram
- L Unit volume litre
- vol. Volume
- wt. Weight
- ŋ Combustion efficiency

Chapter 1 Introduction

Fire toxicity is one of the main causes of death and injury in fires in buildings. Statistics in the UK [1] show that toxic smoke inhalation accounts for about 60% of the total deaths in fires. However, currently there are no regulations that require the toxic emissions from the burning of building to be determined and taken into account. This project tests the fire toxicity of various polymeric materials used in the construction and contents of buildings. Other than gas toxicity, small particle size also a significant fire hazard. This hazard had been studied and measured from a small range of size (5nm).

1.1 Fire Statistics

As reported by the recent World Fire Statistics 2018 [2] and reproduced in Table 1.1, in consideration of 53 countries, India gave the highest number in fire deaths from year 2012 to 2016 with the fire death average number per year of 20,668. Russia gave the highest number of fire deaths for year 2016 which was about 50 percent (8,749 deaths) of the total world fire deaths (17,310 deaths), followed by USA with 3,390 deaths and Ukraine with 1,872 deaths. Meanwhile the total fire deaths in Great Britain in 2016 was 367 deaths and in Malaysia was 142 deaths with average number per year 344 and 122 deaths. Figure 1.1 (a) shows the total number of world fires categorised by type of environment in which the fires took place – the biggest fraction, 35.5 percent involved structure fires, 22.1 percent involved grass and forest fires. Structural fires are the most hazardous to human life as it is where the highest concentration of people.

In the last few decades, the development in the fire safety research has led to the growth of fire toxicological studies. Before that, the well-known fire hazards were limited to thermal hazards only [3]. Fire statistics now show that the main cause of fire deaths is by smoke inhalation, not by heat burns.

In Great Britain the cause of death in fires has been attributed mainly the effects of smoke typically 40% due to "smoke" and another 20% due to the combination of "smoke and heat" with only 20% attributed to "heat" alone (the balance being "unspecified" or "other"). The 2013/14 statistics [8] are typical of these with three

main categories being 41, 20 and 20 % respectively. The most recent (2018/19) breakdown [9], is shown in Fig. 1.1 (b).

	Country	Population.	Number of fire deaths				Average number per				
		thous. inh.	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	vear	100,000	100 fires	
								,	inh.		
	0	Население,		числ		ших		Среднее число			
Ne	Страна	тыс. чел.	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	вгод	на 100	на 100	
				Anzahl	der Bran	distan			тыс.чел.	пожаров	
	Staat	Einwohner in		Anzani	Oer Bran	dtoten		Mittelwert			
	otaat	1.000	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	je Jahr	Einw	Brände	
1	India	1 267 500	23 281	22 177	19,513	17 700	-	20.668	1.6	Drange	
2	USA	323 128	2,855	3 4 2 0	3 275	3 280	3300	3 244	10	0.2	
3	Bandladesh	154 331	210	161	70	68	-	127	0.1	0.2	
4	Russia	146 270	11 652	10 601	10 138	9 405	8749	10 109	6.9	67	
5	Japan	128 130	1 721	1 625	1 678	1.563	-	1 647	1.3	3.8	
6	Vietnam	83 000	78	45	90	62	98	75	0.1	3.0	
7	Germany	82 218	384	430	372	367	-	391	0.5	0.2	
8	Thailand	70 498	20	110	-		-	65	0.0	-	
g	France	66 628	362	321	280	335	289	317	0.5	01	
10	Great Britain	63 786	380	350	322	325		344	0.5	0.2	
11	Italy	61 000	258	196	141	222	295	222	0.4	0.1	
12	Myanmar	51 498	184	83	60			109	0.2	7.2	
13	Spain	47 079	170	132	162	143	175	156	0.3	0.1	
14	Ukraine	42 673	2 751	2 494	2 246	1 948	1872	2 262	5.3	3.2	
15	Poland	38 454	564	515	493	512		521	1.4	0.3	
16	Canada	35 544	149	141	150	-	-	147	0.4	0.4	
17	Malaysia	31 800	98	72	139	158	142	122	0.4	0.3	
18	Nepal	30 430	77	59	67	-	-	68	0.2	6.8	
19	Taiwan	23 069	142	92	124	117	169	129	0.6	8.0	
20	Romania	20 121	222	-	-	646	258	375	1.9	1.2	
21	Kazachstan	17 500	518	455	401	386	371	426	2.4	2.9	
22	Netherlands	16 979	-	-	75	81	42	66	0.4	0.1	
23	Greece	10 788	49	33	-	-	-	41	0.4	0.1	
24	Belaium	10 700	70	48	-	-	-	59	0.6	0.3	
25	Czech Republic	10 579	125	111	114	115	124	118	1.1	0.6	
26	Sweden	9 851	103	96	-	110	-	103	1.0	0.4	
27	Hungary	9 830	140	112	94	108	114	114	1.2	0.5	
28	Jordan	9 700	42	35	35	52	28	38	0.4	0.1	
29	Belarus	9 505	927	783	737	578	538	713	7.5	5.7	
30	Austria	8 544	30	20	-	-	-	25	0.3	0.1	
31	Israel	8 300	-	-	-	-	19	19	0.2	0.2	
32	Serbia	7 187	-	62	73	-	-	68	0.9	0.1	
33	Bulgaria	7 154	53	106	103	109	-	93	1.3	0.3	
34	Singapore	5 800	1	4	-		1	2	0.0	0.0	
35	Denmark	5 710	65	70	84	68	52	68	1.2	0.5	
36	Kyrgyzstan	5 522	90	80	80	48	80	76	1.4	1.9	
37	Finland	5 463	77	58	86	74	82	75	1.4	0.6	
38	Slovakia	5 412	44	-	-	-	-	44	0.8	0.3	
39	Norway	5 109	40	62	54	-	-	52	1.0	0.7	
40	New Zealand	4 596	-	-	-	13	19	16	0.3	0.2	
41	Croatia	4 290	36	-	21	24	22	26	0.6	0.3	
42	Moldova	3 553	150	120	118	107	-	124	3.5	2.5	
43	Kuwait	3 415	21	17	19	38	50	29	0.8	1.5	
44	Mongolia	3 120	75	53	61	59	60	62	2.0	1.6	
45	Armenia	3 017	-	-	-	-	32	32	1.1	0.6	
46	Lithuania	2 889	150	160	125	125	101	132	4.6	1.1	
47	Slovenia	2 064	8	0	0	3	-	3	0.1	0.0	
48	Qatar	1 975	22	4	18	18	1	13	0.6	1.0	
49	Latvia	1 969	99	104	94	88	95	96	4.9	0.9	
50	Estonia	1 315	54	47	54	50	39	49	3.7	0.9	
51	Cyprus	858	2	5	-	-	-	4	0.4	0.0	
52	Brunei	430	1	0	7	4	3	3	0.7	7.4	
53	Liechtenstein	37	0	0	0	0	-	0	0.0	0.0	
To	tal/MTORO/Gesamt	2 980 306	48 550	45 678	41 773	39 109	17 310	43 883	1.5	1.3	

 Table 1.1
 Trends in fire deaths in the countries of the World in 2012-2016 [2].



Figure 1.1 Fire distribution by (a) types in worldwide (2016) [2] and (b) causes of fire deaths in Great Britain for 2018/19 [4].

The causes of fire-related deaths are fairly stable across recent years, except for 2017/18 where the 'other' category was higher (27% compared with a usual range of between 10–20%) due to the Grenfell Tower fire - a large proportion of the fatalities are recorded as 'unspecified' while the public inquiry is still ongoing [9].

Smoke produced in fires normally contains toxic gases, vapour and various sizes of particulates. While the fire deaths are mainly attributed to the effects of smoke in terms of visibility and toxicity and most of previous fire toxicity studies are found to be focused more on the determination of toxic potency of fire effluents based on gas-phase products compared to particle-phase products. the effect of particulates has only recently started receiving attention. There are currently only a limited number of studies [5-7] which focus on the determination of particulate size from fires. As awareness on the health and environmental impact from particles generated in fires has increased, it is vital to conduct research in order to investigate the particulates emissions from the combustion of different materials and their effects on human health other than to be only focused on the toxic gases emission from the fire. This work will present data on both gaseous and particulate yields.

The latest Fire Rescue and Incident Statistics in England for year ending September 2019 [1] as in Figure 1.2, it showed a decrease of 31 percent of fire deaths which gave 248 fire deaths compared with year 2017 which gave 362 fire deaths including 72 from the Grenfell Tower fire. From the data, most of fire deaths involve fires in dwellings and other buildings compared to other locations such as road vehicles and other outdoor. This statistic has raised a critical concern to researchers when knowing that between these fire locations, even number of fires occurred are much lower for building fires than for chimney, road vehicle and other outdoor fires but it has contributed to a high number of the total fire deaths. This consideration has become one of the reasons why the present work focussing on investigating the toxic gases and particulate emissions from building material fires. Table 1.2 shows a statistic of fire incident number by type comparing the year ending September 2019 with the year ending September 2018, five years previously in 2013/14 and ten years previously (where available) in 2008/09 in Great Britain. Fire related fatalities in dwellings had shown an increase of 9% in 2019 compared to 2018.



Figure 1.2 Total fire-related fatalities, England; year ending September 2011 to year ending September 2019 [1]

Incident type	Year ending September 2019 compared with							
	Year end	ding	2013/14		2008/09			
	Septemb	oer 2018						
554,269 all incidents	584,408	-5% 🖊	526,812	+5% 🔶	717,805	-23% 🖊		
163,039 fires	182,013	-10% 🕂	171,349	-5% 🕂	249,237	-35% 🔶		
69,534 primary fires	74,730	-7% 🖊	73,230	-5% 🖊	104,348	-33% 🕂		
28,655 dwelling fires	30,740	-7% 🔶	31,910	-10%	38,584	-26% 🖊		
25,755 accidental	27,569	-7% 🖶	28,613	-10%	32,428	-21% 🖶		
dwelling fires		•		•		•		
90,236 secondary fires	103,360	-13%	92,132	-2%	136,744	-34% 🔶		
228,309 fire false alarms	231,856	-2% 🕂	224,119	+2%	312,914	-27% 🖊		
162,921 non-fire incidents	170,539	-4% 🔶	131,344	+24%	155,654	+5%		
18,619 medical incidents	25,630	-27% 🖊	13,649	+36%		.1		
252 fire-related fatalities	251	=	278	-9% 🖊	323	-22% 🔶		
				-		-		
203 fire-related fatalities in dwellings	187	+9%	217	-6% 🕂	255	-20% 🕂		
6,980 non-fatal casualties	7,107	-2% 🖊	7,819	-11%	9,227	-24% 🔶		
3,083 non-fatal casualties	3,131	-2% 🖊	3,453	-11%	5,030	-39% 🔶		
requiring hospital treatment								
5,164 non-fatal casualties in dwellings	5,284	-2% 🔶	6,118	-16% 🔶	7,455	-31% 🕂		

1.2 Notable Relevant Fires

Below is a brief summary of some well known fires in which the toxicity of the fire products was the main contributor to the mass fatalities of these fires. A list of other fires relevant to this project, involving cladding materials is also given in Table 1.3.

1.2.1 Grenfell Tower

Grenfell Tower fire happened on June 14, 2017 and took away 72 lives including one victim who died in the hospital seven months after the incident and around 70 injured [8]. As generally reported, the fire on this 24-storey residential tower block was started by a malfunctioning fridge-freezer on the fourth floor which then spread rapidly up the building's exterior, bringing fire and smoke to all the residential floors. This fire incident is one example of cladding materials based fire cases. Zinc cladding was initially considered as cladding materials for the building construction of the Grenfell Tower in 2015 but due to cost saving purpose, cladding materials like Reynobond PE and aluminium with plastic filling were finally used. There are many buildings constructed with using flammable cladding materials and many more will be in future if no further objection by rules as safety guidance. In Dubai UAE, more 70% skyscrapers were constructed with flammable cladding materials which was mainly PE. In example, Burj Kalifa Hotel fire started with an explosion and this building were constructed with 100% PE as panel cores of the cladding part. There were many fire cases around the world that involved cladding materials and some examples were listed in Table 1.3.

Whilst currently the cause of death of the 72 people in the building is currently "unspecified" (as discussed above) one of the objectives of the Public Inquiry is the determination of the cause of death. The phase 1 report from the fire Toxicology expert witness Prof. Purser [9] reported that blood toxicology from a limited number of victims (15) showed high concentrations of carboxyl haemoglobin consistent with CO poisoning. He also states that these measurements and and 999 call transcripts indicate that people who died in their flats were overcome by asphyxiant gases (CO and HCN) and died before their bodies were burned. He also identified the building cladding, PVC windows and contents of the apartments as contributors to the fatal toxic emissions.

1.2.2 The Rose Park Nursing Home

In 2004, a fire at a residential care home, the Rosepark Care Home, located in Lanarkshire, Scotland resulted in 14 deaths of elderly residents and another four residents injured [10, 11]. Fire safety procedures at this care home were found to be inadequate and deficient. As reported, the staff waited nine minutes before they contacted the fire service [11]. From the accident investigation and reconstruction tests with detailed toxic species concentration measurements [12] concluded that the elderly population of 18 residents were exposed to the same

mix of fire effluents but at different levels of severity depending upon their location. Ten persons in open rooms were exposed to high concentrations, resulting in death at the fire scene within ~8–9 min of the start of the fire. Persons in more protected locations were found alive after much longer exposure times although they some of these subsequently died due to their exposure.

1.2.3 Piper Alpha

A very high number of deaths (at least 165 died) caused by the Piper Alpha initial explosion and subsequent fires at North Sea oil platform, near Aberdeen in July 1988 [13]. This incident involved pool and liquid and gas jet fires in multi-level buildings. The cause of the incident was a leak of condensate due to failures of the permit to work system which resulted in a small explosion and subsequent hydrocarbon fires which eventually destroyed the whole platform [14]. Of the diseased, a large number (109) died from smoke inhalation most of them while sheltering in the designated accommodation modules.

1.2.4 Kings Cross Fire 1988

31 died in this fire accident at the Kings Cross Railway Station which was started by smokers' matches falling through the gap at the edge of the escalator [15]. The dirt and grease accumulated over months was the fuel ignited by the falling match below the escalator. A flashover through the ticket hall resulting from the pyrolysis of multilayers of paint is thought to have contributed to the dense toxic smoke that was associated with the fire the public inquiry that followed concluded that the toxic smoke contributed to the deaths and recommended the removal of materials known to produce toxic fumes.

 Table 1.3
 List of fire incidents involved cladding materials.

No.	Incident	Location	Date of Event	Number of Deaths	Number of Injuries	Cause of Fires	Information
1	EPF Building	Jalan Gasing, PJ, Selangor Malaysia, 6 storey building	13.02.2018 (14:15)	-	-	On the 1st floor due to renovation works at the back of the building	PE cladding
2	Grenfell Tower	North Kensington, London England, 24 storey flat	14.06.2017 (00:54)	72 (2 died in the hospital)	>70	Fridge-freezer faulty on 4th floor	Cladding materials used in the building were PE filler, PIR foam insulation, PU seal for joints and PVC windows
3	The Marina Torch Tower	Dubai UAE, 79 storey building	04.08.2017 (01:00)	-	-	Not known (Suspected caused by a thrown cigarette butt and it landed on a plant at a balcony)	During restorative works
4	The Marina Torch Tower	Dubai UAE, 79 storey building	21.02.2015 (02:00)	-	7 (due to smoke inhalation)	Fire started on the 50th floor	
5	Burj Khalifa Hotel	Dubai UAE, 63 storey building	31.12.2015 (New Year's Eve)			An explosion in the 39th floor	Fire started with an explosion. Flammable cladding materials (100% PE as panel cores)
6	Tamweel Residential Tower	Jumeirah Dubai UAE, 34 storey building	18.11.2012	-	-	A cigarette butt thrown into a bin	
7	Sharjah Residential Tower (Tiger 3 Building in Al Taawun)	Sharjah Dubai UAE, 40 storey building	04.03.2018 (07:03)	-	7	Flames allegedly started from a kitchen in an apartment on the 8th floor of the building.	
8	Al Buteenah Apartment	Al Buteenah, Sharjah Dubai UAE	12.02.2018 (01:12)	5 (due to suffocation)		From investigation, fire might have started from the air- conditioning unit on the 1st floor.	
9	Al Manama Supermarket	Sharjah Dubai UAE	14.04.2017	2 (died of suffocation)	5		
10	Nasser Tower	King Faisal Street, Sharjah Dubai UAE, 32 storey building	01.10.2015	-	-		
11	Hafeet Tower 2 (10 Apartments)	Al Tawun, Sharjah Dubai UAE	22.04.2013			Fire broke out on the 20th floor.	
12	10 Apartments	Al Qasimiya, Sharjah Dubai UAE, 10 storey building	12.03.2013	-	-	A blaze gut 10 apartments on the 1st floor.	

13	Al Tayer Tower	Al Nahda Park, Sharjah Dubai UAE, 40 storey building	28.04.2012				
14	Al Baker Tower 4	Al Tawun Mall, Sharjah Dubai UAE	25.01.2012			The fire was caused by a lit cigarette that was thrown off the balcony from an upper floor and landed on the balcony on the 1st floor.	
15	A High-rise Residential Tower	Al Nahda, Sharjah Dubai UAE	08.11.2011		6		
16	Al Wahda Street Apartment	Sharjah Dubai UAE	08.03.2011			Fire caused by an electric short circuit.	
17	Bu Tinah Fire	Bu Tinah, Sharjah Dubai UAE, 14 storey building	06.07.2010				
18	Al Buhaira Corniche Apartment	Sharjah Dubai UAE	04.01.2009	-		Fire started from a kitchen and gutted the apartment on the 13th floor.	
19	Abdullah Khouri Building	Jamal Abdul Nasser Street, Sharjah Dubai UAE	28.10.2008	2		Fire on the 4th floor.	
20	Al Ta'awun Residential Building	Sharjah Dubai UAE	26.05.2008	-		The fire started on the 1st storey and extended to apartments up to the 7th floor.	
21	Al Tahira Tower	Al Nahda, Sharjah Dubai UAE	21.07.2007	1	3	Fire breaks out in an apartment at the 8th floor.	
22 23	Majaz 2 Residential Tower Al Yasmeen Apartment	Sharjah Dubai UAE Sharjah Dubai UAE Bubairah Carriaha, Sharjah	09.04.2007 25.01.2007			Fire tore through four floors.	
24	Dana Tower	Dubai UAE, 47 storey building	09.01.2007				
25	Baku Residence Building	Baku Azerbaijan, 16-level residence building	19.05.2015	15 (toxic smoke inhalation)	63		Flammable Styrofoam facing had been installed on exterior of buildings. Flammable materials used in facade renovation.
26	Sanghai Fire	Shanghai China, 28 storey high-rise building	15.11.2010 (14:15)	58	>70	Fire started with construction materials and spread throughout the building.	
27	The Beijing Television Cultural Center Fire	Beijing China	09.02.2009 (20:27)	1 (a fire-fighter)	7	A nearby unauthorised fireworks (Chinese New Year Celebration) display caused the fire.	The building was built far less steel than conventional skyscrapers.

1.3 Particulates

Beyond the gaseous toxic emissions fires also emit large amounts of respirable particulates of various sizes which may harm the occupants and fire-fighters in different ways giving either a short term effect or a long term effect. Compared to ultra-fine particles, large particles usually will give a short term or immediate effect to the people who are exposed to them during the fire by causing irritancy to their eyes and skins which will reduce their capability to escape. As a long term effect, generation of nanoparticles (especially particle size below than 50 nm) from the combustion process may cause cancer disease to the people who has exposed to them when being absorbed through the blood line [16, 17].

The main aspects of particle toxicity relate to where they deposit in the respiratory tract, which depends on particle size, and their toxicity, which depends partly on their chemical composition and partly on their physical characteristics. In general large inhalable particles ~100-15 microns diameter, deposit in the upper respiratory tract and airways, If the carry toxic chemicals they cause acute airway inflammation, or following long term exposure (eg smoke from air pollution or tobbaco) chronic obstructive lung disease and lung cancer. Smaller particles ~0.5-5 microns diameter penetrate into the alveolar region of the lung and can cause acute lung inflammation and oedema a few hours after exposure during a fire, which can be fatal. Ultrafine and nanoparticles may cause acute lung inflammation or emphysema but also cross into the blood stream where they can cause several effects depending on their chemistry and physical characteristics. These effects include polymer fume fever, cardiovascular disease (including heart attacks), and carcinogenicity.

Smaller particles can penetrate into the blood system easier than larger particles. These nanoparticles may act as transporters of absorbed and adsorbed toxic compounds (VOC or aerosols) into the lungs the blood stream and vital organs. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) such as Benzene and Naphthalene are the example of toxic compounds that may cause the cancer decease to the humans when they breathe in these particles during the fire. In 2014, there was a fire death case which was due to cancer decease where three fire fighters died on the same day after 13 years giving service as responders in the fire incident of the World Trade Centre, USA because of their direct exposure to the toxic species and particulates [17]. It is very important to do further investigations on the particle size and particle distribution from fires in order to be able to control

and prevent this kind of hazard from harming the people who are directly exposed.

Measurement of particulate yields and characterisation of particle size distribution is an important objective of this project.

1.4 Legislation

Most of fire deaths are generally involved in building fires. Building fire cases have involved various kinds of building structures such domestic or private home fires, high rise living accommodation fires, commercial and industrial building fires, public place building fires and also care centre fires.

There are various types of combustible materials used in building construction. Wood is the most common building material which is widely used compared to other materials like polymers. Due to an increase in demand for synthetic materials, cost savings with an advanced industrial production process, these synthetic materials have become a favourable option by the contractors and the end users. Even furniture, tools and small appliances are widely made by the synthetic materials.

Combustible building construction materials mostly used is wood, only 20 percent usage involved other materials which are mainly polymers. Polymer fires may produce gases which are more toxic than the wood fires depending to the type of polymer burnt, in example Polyisocyanurate (PIR) based materials will produce Hydrogen cyanide (HCN) which is toxic even at low concentration level. PVC based materials will produce irritant gases that can cause irritancy effects when burned which may impair the people who exposed to it from escape during the fire event. As for today, there is no regulation yet found to stop of using PVC or other harmful polymers in buildings.

The British standards for toxicity provide a guidance for the escape/safety of occupants where there is stated that there must be enough time to reach a place of safety without any harm [18-20]. From the existing standards, regarding the toxicity, only smoke obscuration is mentioned and the illustration of smoke alarms [18]. Smoke spread from the origin, hot gas layer and smoke optical density are the main parameters related to the application of fire safety engineering [19]. Although there are tenability limits defined in terms of exposure to toxic and irritants fire gases there is legal requirement to control the use of such materials based on their toxic yields in fire. The only control that may

translate to an indirect control of toxicity is the visibility requirement for safe escape and by controls of reaction-to-fire properties of products [20].

1.5 General Research Aims

In overall, the present work mainly aims to highlight and investigate the toxicity dangers of various electrical cables and polymers sold commercially for buildings using two different test methods, an existing modified Cone Calorimeter and a new developed Purser Furnace System with attachment to several external analysers such as Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR), Oxygen Analyser, Particle Sizer (DMS500) and Smoke Meter. The FTIR and Oxygen analyser were used to measure the toxic gases. For measurement of the particulate sizes, a particle size equipment called the Cambustion DMS500 was used. Smoke meter was also used to measure soot mass collected on the placed filter papers. Series of fire tests were conducted under different realistic fire conditions from well to under-ventilated fires. More than 40 polymers were burned and tested including the electrical cables. General research objectives are as follow:

- a) Develop a methodology for the analysis of toxic gases and particulates in the Cone Calorimeter and the steady state tube furnace.
- b) Design, construct and commissioning the new developed Purser Furnace System.
- c) Provide data of combustion and fire toxicity properties such as heat release rate, equivalence ratio, mass loss rate, toxic gas concentration, total toxicity, major gas contribution, gas and particulate yields and particle size and number distributions from polymer fires.
- d) Compare the results from both Cone Calorimeter and Purser Furnace methods.

- 415 -

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A.2 List of Conferences and Presentations

- 1) ISFEH9 2019 St. Petersburg, Russia, April 21-26, 2019, PVC Sheathed Electrical Cable Fire Smoke Toxicity, (Oral).
- 2) ISFEH9 2019 St. Petersburg, Russia, April 21-26, 2019, Toxic Gases from PU and PIR Foam Fires (Poster).
- Fired-UP 2018 University of Edinburgh, United Kingdom, May 17-18, 2018, Toxicity of electrical cable fires under restricted and free ventilations in the Cone Calorimeter (Oral).
- 4) Cambridge Particle Meeting 2017 University of Cambridge, United Kingdom, June 23, 2017.
 - a) Particle size distribution as a function of time during pine wood combustion on a cone calorimeter (Oral, presented by Dr Hu Li).
 - b) Particle size emissions from PVC electrical cable fires (Poster).
- MySECON2017 2017 University of Manchester, United Kingdom, May 12, 2017. Toxic species and particle size distribution from PVC cable fires (Poster).