

UC Berkeley

UC Berkeley Previously Published Works

Title

Performance and emissions characteristics of a lighting cone for charcoal stoves

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/5cw5q617>

Authors

Lask, Kathleen
Gadgil, Ashok

Publication Date

2017-02-01

DOI

10.1016/j.esd.2016.03.001

Peer reviewed

Lask, K. L., and A. Gadgil (2017). “Performance and Emissions Characteristics of a Lighting Cone for Charcoal Stoves”. *Energy for Sustainable Development*, V. 36, pp. 64-67. DOI: 10.1016/j.esd.2016.03.001.

1 **Performance and Emissions Characteristics of a Lighting Cone for Charcoal**

2 **Stoves**

3

4 Kathleen Lask^{a,b*} and Ashok Gadgil^{a,b}

5

6 ^aUniversity of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA 94720

7 ^bLawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA 94720

8

9 *corresponding author: klask@berkeley.edu, 510-486-7435

10 Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, 1 Cyclotron Road Mailstop 90R2121

11 Berkeley, CA 94720

12

13

14 **Abstract**

15 A lighting cone is a simple metal cone placed on the charcoal bed during ignition to act as a
16 chimney, increasing draft through the fuel bed. Many traditional charcoal-burning stoves tend to
17 be difficult to light due to poor draft through the fuel bed, so lighting cones are used in various
18 parts of the world as an inexpensive accessory to help with charcoal ignition. The goal of this
19 work was to determine the validity of using a lighting cone to decrease the ignition time of
20 charcoal beds in traditional Haitian charcoal stoves, and evaluate its impact on stove emissions
21 and fuel consumption during the typically inefficient and slow ignition phase. We found that the
22 lighting cone successfully reduced ignition time by over 50%. Due to a more efficient, shorter
23 ignition stage, charcoal consumption during ignition was reduced by over 40%, an important
24 consideration for heavily-deforested Haiti, and carbon monoxide, a major pollutant from
25 charcoal combustion, was reduced by over 50%. This suggests that lighting cones are a viable
26 and beneficial accessory for aiding ignition in shallow-bed charcoal stoves.

27

28

29 *Keywords:* Haiti; Cookstove; Charcoal; Lighting Cone; Carbon Monoxide; Ultrafine Particulates

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 In the developing world, close to 3 billion people cook and heat their homes with biomass
33 fuels including charcoal (WHO, 2014). Emissions from these biomass fires can be quite harmful
34 to both the environment and human health; such emissions cause 4.3 million premature deaths a
35 year, affecting primarily women and children, and are the largest environmental threat to health
36 in the world (WHO, 2014; Lim et al., 2012). Cooking with biomass fuels also contributes to

37 adverse environmental effects such as climate change and deforestation(Bond et al., 2013).

38 Typically, charcoal-burning stoves have relatively shallow and exposed charcoal
39 beds.The combustion rate and efficiency of charcoal is heavily dependent on the extent to which
40 oxygen can reach the surface of the charcoal (Shelton, 1983). The charcoal beds in traditional
41 stoves commonly ignite slowly due to interference from the wind and theinitial lack of draft
42 (upward air flow) through the stove body and charcoal bed. In the shallow charcoal beds, it is
43 initially difficult to achieve the draft required to create a self-sustaining flow of oxygen through
44 the charcoal, so the combustion processes are stifled and inefficient due to an inadequate supply
45 of oxygen. Therefore, devices that increase the amount of oxygen reaching the surface of the
46 charcoal can greatly speed its ignition, reducing the amount of time needed to begin cooking.

47 Many devices and techniques exist to decrease the amount of time needed for a charcoal
48 bed to be well lit, such as charcoal chimneys and lighter fluid. These products, however, can be
49 expensive and toxic and are not well-suited for developing economies with low incomes where
50 cooking with charcoal is a daily necessity. A straightforward and inexpensive accessory used to
51 reduce ignition time, referred to in this paper as a “lighting cone”,is already in use by some local
52 populations in countries such as China, Zaire, and Mozambique but little research on lighting
53 cones exists in the literature (Lask and Gadgil, 2015).

54 This paper aims to evaluate the effectiveness of a lighting cone, not only on the
55 immediate concern of a reduced ignition time, but also its impacts on fuel consumption and
56 emissions from a charcoal-burning stove during its ignition phase.

57 **2 Experimental System and Protocol**

58 *2.1 Lighting Cone*

59 A lighting cone (Fig. 1) is a conical tube of sheet metal open at both ends. It is placed

60 with the larger end down on the charcoal bed after the kindling (e.g., sappy wood or newspaper)
61 has been lit, and is removed once the charcoal is considered lit enough to sustain its combustion
62 even if a pot is placed on the stove.

63 The slightly conical shape allows for improved mechanical stability in placing the cone
64 on the somewhat uneven charcoal-bed, and reduces the likelihood of wind-driven downdrafts of
65 ambient air entering the top of the cone. A lighting cone can provide additional usability benefits
66 for the cooks by protecting the ignition process from the wind and directing smoky emissions
67 away from the cooks and their children standing near the stove (Personal communication with
68 Haitian NGO staff).

69 After building and testing several lighting cones, the lighting cone used in the
70 experiments reported in this paper has a bottom diameter of 200 mm to adequately encompass
71 the fuel bed of a traditional Haitian stove and a top diameter of 100 mm to achieve a slight taper.
72 The cone is made from 0.3 mm thick stainless steel sheet and is 610 mm tall to produce adequate
73 draft.



74
75 **Figure 1:** Lighting cone on the traditional Haitian stove used for experiments. A lighting cone is
76 a metal cone intended to reduce the time necessary for ignition.

77

78 *2.2 Traditional Haitian Stove*

79 The lighting cone was tested using a traditional Haitian stove (Fig. 2). A Haitian stove
80 was chosen because most of the 10 million Haitian people cook with charcoal and wood, which
81 totals over 70% of Haiti's energy consumption, even though the country is heavily deforested
82 (Nexant, Inc., 2010; IEA, 2004; Van der Plas, 2007).The traditional stove design features a
83 shallow and exposed charcoal bed as described in the introduction.

84 Haitians typically use simple stoves made locally from scrap sheet metal. These stoves
85 are widely available and have either a square or circular charcoal chamber. The stove tested in
86 this study has a square charcoal chamber with evenly distributed holes along the sides and
87 bottom. The pot sits directly on the charcoal bed, which is approximately 110 mm square. Ash
88 falls through to a tray underneath which is emptied by turning the stove over.



89

90 **Figure 2:** Traditional Haitian stove used for experiments. Traditionally, Haitian stoves are made
91 from scrap metal and feature a round or square shallow charcoal chamber with several holes.

92

93 *2.3 Laboratory and Equipment Setup*

94 All testing was performed in the cookstove lab at Lawrence Berkeley National
95 Laboratory (LBNL). The test system consisted of a stove platform under a ventilationhood that
96 drew gases upward through an aluminum duct (150 mm diameter) using two blowers. Sampling
97 ports in the duct led to several instruments for measurement of emitted gases in real time (1 Hz).

98 These instruments included: a CAI NDIR gas analyzer for carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide
99 measurements, a McGee Scientific Aetholameter for black carbon measurements, and for
100 particulate size distribution measurements, a TSI Fast Mobility Particle Sizerspectrometer
101 (diameter range 5 – 500 nm), anda TSI Aerodynamic Particle Sizer spectrometer (diameter range
102 500 nm – 20 μm). ADustTrak DRX Model 8534was used to measure total mass of particles with
103 diameters $< 2.5 \mu\text{m}$; the DustTrak measurements reported in this paper have been calibrated
104 using a gravimetric filter system. The total assembly ofthe stove, fuel and lighting cone were
105 placed on ahigh-resolution ($64 \text{ kg} \pm 0.1 \text{ g}$) precision platform scale to record real-time (1 Hz)
106 fuel consumption.

107 The fuel used in the experiments was Grillmark© all-natural lump charcoal, which is
108 produced in a fashion similar to Haitian charcoal. The rectangular lump charcoal was broken into
109 pieces similar in size to Haitian charcoal (no larger than 80 mm by 50 mm by 25 mm). Charcoal
110 samples were measured to have a moisture content of 5.9%, analyzed using standard oven-drying
111 procedures (ASTM, 2007).

112 *2.4 Protocol*

113 Each test was performed by loading the fuelbed ofthe traditional stove with 475 g of
114 charcoal. The charcoal was arranged in a toroidal bed of approximately 200 mm outer diameter
115 and 60 mm inner diameter. High resin pine (total mass $5 \pm 0.2 \text{ g}$) was broken into 3 to 5 thin
116 pieces and arranged in a pyramid-like structure in the center of the charcoal toroid to act as a fire
117 starter. This fuel bed set-up is similar to that observed from Haitian cooks. If the test included a
118 lighting cone, the cone was placed on the charcoal bed immediately after the high resin pine was
119 first lit.

120 Ignition time was recorded from when the high resin pine was first lit until the charcoal

121 bed was considered well lit. Based on conversations with and observations of Haitian cooks, the
 122 bed was considered well-lit when at least an estimated 70% of the charcoal pieces were observed
 123 to be red, which occurred at a thermal power of approximately 2.4 kW. The thermal power was
 124 estimated from the measured CO₂ release rate from the stove as shown in Equation 1.

$$P_{th} = CO_{2,rate} \left(\frac{MW_C}{MW_{CO_2}} \right) e_C \quad (1)$$

125 where P_{th} is the thermal power, MW_C and MW_{CO₂} are the molecular weights of carbon and
 126 carbon dioxide, respectively, e_C is the specific energy of carbon, and CO_{2,rate} is the rate of CO₂
 127 emitted in grams per second. Fuel consumption was recorded on the platform scale in real time as
 128 well as weighing the charcoal before and after each test.

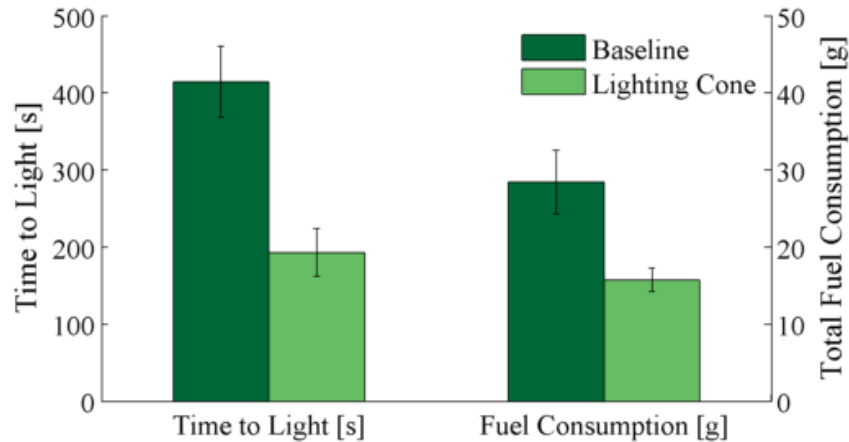
129 Ten baseline (without cone) tests and eleven lighting cone tests were conducted to obtain
 130 adequately tight confidence intervals in the reported results. Statistical significance was
 131 determined for all tests by applying the Student's t-test as the sample size is small (n < 30)
 132 (Taylor, 1997; Spiegel et al., 2008). All error bars on the graphs represent a 95% confidence
 133 interval.

134 **3. Results and Discussion**

135 *3.1 Ignition Time and Fuel Consumption*

136 Figure 3 compares the ignition time and fuel consumption with and without a lighting
 137 cone. As shown in Fig. 3, using a lighting cone decreases ignition time by over 50%, reducing
 138 the lighting time from 414 seconds to 193 seconds (or from about 7 to 3 minutes), on average.
 139 This indicates that the lighting cone works as expected, increasing the draft through the charcoal
 140 bed to speed ignition by accelerating the burn rate (grams of fuel combusted per second) and
 141 promoting higher temperatures in the charcoal bed. Although the burn rate for the lighting cone
 142 was found to be greater than the baseline, the significant decrease in ignition time counteracted

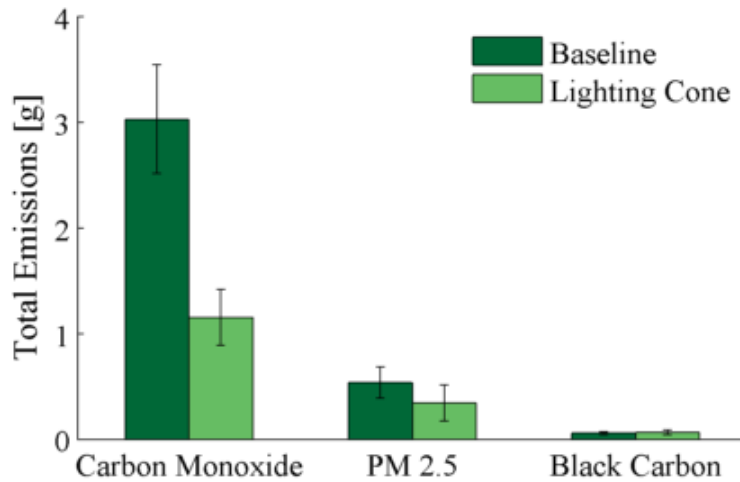
143 the effect of a higher burn rate on total fuel consumption. As can be seen in Fig. 3, the time
 144 necessary to light the cone was short enough that the lighting cone still significantly reduced the
 145 fuel consumption needed for ignition.



146 **Figure 3:** Time to light and fuel consumption with and without (baseline) a lighting cone. The
 147 lighting cone decreased ignition time by over 50% and fuel consumption by over 40%. For both
 148 time to light and fuel consumption, the differences are significant at $p = 0.05$; error bars show a
 149 95% confidence interval.

151 3.2 Emissions

153 Figure 4 shows the total grams of carbon monoxide (CO), particulate matter of size
 154 smaller than $2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$), and black carbon (BC) emitted from the baseline and lighting cone
 155 cases. Almost 3 times more mass of CO is emitted than particulates ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and BC)
 156 because charcoal combustion produces more CO due to its smoldering combustion conditions and
 157 releases less particulate matter than other biomass fuels such as wood, because the volatiles
 158 which typically form particulates have been driven off in the charcoal production process (Ward
 159 and Radke, 1993; Shelton, 1983). As shown in Fig. 4, the lighting cone reduced carbon
 160 monoxide by over 50% (statistically significant at $p = 0.05$); however, the reductions in
 161 particulate ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and black carbon) emissions were not statistically significant ($p = 0.05$).



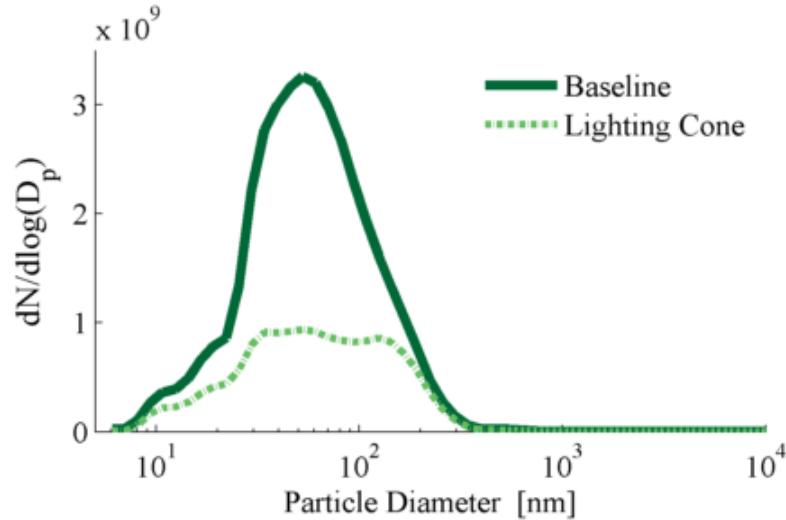
162

163 **Figure 4:** Total mass emissions of carbon monoxide, black carbon, and PM_{2.5} during ignition of
 164 the charcoal bed with and without (baseline) the lighting cone. The lighting cone more than
 165 halved the CO emitted during ignition, but did not have a statistically significant effect on the
 166 particulate emissions. Error bars represent a 95% confidence interval.

167

168 3.3 Particulate Size Distribution

169 The distribution of ultrafine particle concentration with and without the lighting cone is shown in
 170 Fig. 5. The results show that most of the particles generated are quite small (less than 1 μm), and
 171 a large difference is seen in the particle size distributions of the baseline (no cone) and cone
 172 cases. Additionally, the lighting cone greatly reduces the number of ultrafine (less than 100 nm)
 173 particles compared to the baseline. While fine particles (less than 2.5 μm) emitted in combustion
 174 are harmful to human health, recent research indicates that the ultrafine particles are particularly
 175 detrimental (Oberdörster et al., 2005; MacNee and Donaldson, 2003). Therefore, the
 176 results suggest that in addition to user convenience and comfort, the lighting cone could also be
 177 better for human health than traditional lighting practices.



178

179 **Figure 5:**The average particle size distribution for baseline and lighting cone cases. The lighting
 180 cone greatly reduces the number of ultrafine (less than 100 nm) particles compared to the
 181 baseline (no cone). Relatively few particles larger than 1 μm are released from either the baseline
 182 or lighting cone cases.

183

184 4. Conclusions

185 This research investigated the impacts of a lighting cone, a relatively easy-to-build and
 186 inexpensive accessory, on the ignition time, fuel consumption, and emissions during the lighting
 187 of a traditional Haitian charcoal stove. The results show that the lighting cone decreased ignition
 188 time by over 50%. User convenience is a well-known crucial consideration in stove use and
 189 adoption. Therefore, a device that reduces the amount of time and effort needed to light a stove
 190 could be useful not only for lighting current traditional stoves, but also as an accompaniment for
 191 promoting more efficient stoves, especially if the stove has difficulties with ignition. A lighting
 192 cone also improves the ignition stage of charcoal stoves for both the environment and human
 193 health by reducing the number of ultrafine particles emitted, reducing charcoal consumption by
 194 over 40%, and reducing carbon monoxide emissions by over 50% during this stage. Therefore,
 195 the application of lighting cones for assisting ignition of charcoal stoves in countries and
 196 communities where they are not in use is worth further exploration.

197

198 **Acknowledgments**

199 This project was supported by the National Science Foundation through a Graduate Research
200 Fellowship and by the Department of Defense through the National Defense Science &
201 Engineering Graduate Fellowship Program for Ms. Lask, and Rudd Chair funds for Prof. Gadgil.
202 We sincerely thank Crispin Pemberton-Pigott and Peter Coughlin for providing field data and
203 advice in the early stages of the project, as well International Lifeline Fund, especially Christine
204 Roy, for its collaboration with the observations in Haiti. Special thanks go to Sharon Chen and
205 Arjun Kaul for their assistance with experimental work. This work was performed at the
206 Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, operated by the University of California, under DOE
207 Contract DE-AC02-05CH11231. We gratefully acknowledge the partial support for this work
208 from DOE's Biomass Energy Technologies Office.

209 **References**

210 ASTM International, Standard test methods for direct moisture content measurement of wood
211 and wood-base materials. ASTM D4442-07, 2007.
212
213 Bond, TC, Doherty, SJ, Fahey, DW, Forster, PM, Berntsen, T, DeAngelo, BJ, et al. Bounding the
214 Role of Black Carbon in the Climate System: A Scientific Assessment. *Journal of Geophysical*
215 *Research: Atmospheres*, 118:5380–5552, 2013.
216
217 International Energy Agency (IEA). *World Energy Outlook 2004: Energy and Development*.
218 IEA Publications, 2004.
219
220 Lask, K, Gadgil, A., *Simplified Model for Lighting Cone Design*. Lawrence Berkeley National
221 Laboratory, Technical Report LBNL-6965E, 2015.
222
223 Lim, SS, Vos, T, Flaxman, AD, Danaei, G, Shibuya, K, Adair-Rohani, H, et al. A Comparative
224 Risk Assessment of Burden of Disease and Injury Attributable to 67 Risk Factors and Risk
225 Factor Clusters in 21 Regions, 1990–2010: A Systematic Analysis for the Global Burden of
226 Disease Study 2010. *The Lancet*, 380:2224–2260, 2012.
227

- 228 MacNee, W, Donaldson, K. Mechanism of Lung Injury Caused by PM10 and Ultrafine Particles
229 with Special Reference to COPD. *European Respiratory Journal*, 21(Supplement 40):47s–51s,
230 2003.
231
- 232 Nexant, Inc. Final Report: Assessment of Haiti Alternative Cooking Technologies Program.
233 United States Agency for International Development, 2010.
234 [Accessed May 2013: pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADX776.pdf]
235
- 236 Oberdörster, G, Oberdörster, E, and Oberdörster, J. Nanotoxicology: An Emerging Discipline
237 Evolving from Studies of Ultrafine Particles. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 113(7):823-
238 839, 2005.
239
- 240 Shelton, JW. *Solid Fuels Encyclopedia*. Garden Way Publishing, 1983.
241
- 242 Spiegel,MR, Lipschutz, S, Liu, J. *Mathematical Handbook of Formulas and Tables*. McGraw-
243 Hill, third edition, 2008.
244
- 245 Taylor, JR. *An Introduction to Error Analysis: The Study of Uncertainties in Physical*
246 *Measurements*. University Science Books, second edition, 1997.
247
- 248 Van der Plas, R. Haiti: Strategy to Alleviate the Pressure of Fuel Demand on National Woodfuel
249 Resources. Republic of Haiti Ministry of Environment, Bureau of Mines and Energy, Energy
250 Sector Management Assistance Program Technical Paper No. 112/07, 2007.
251
- 252 Ward, DE, Radke, LF. Emissions Measurements from Vegetation Fires: A Comparative
253 Evaluation of Methods and Results. In PJ Crutzen and JG Goldammer (Eds.), *Fire in the*
254 *Environment: The Ecological, Atmospheric, and Climatic Importance of Vegetation Fires*, pp.
255 53–76, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1993.
256
- 257 World Health Organization (WHO). *Indoor Air Quality Guidelines: Household Fuel*
258 *Combustion*. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2014.