

What fuels the fire? Cooking fuel estimates at global, regional and country level for 1990-2030

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What fuels the fire? Cooking fuel estimates at global, regional and country level for 1990-2030

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Household air pollution generated from the use of polluting cooking fuels and technologies is a major source of disease and environmental degradation in low- and middle-income countries. Using a novel modelling approach, we provide global, regional and country estimates for 6 specific fuel categories (electricity, gaseous fuels, kerosene, biomass, charcoal, coal) and overall polluting/clean fuel use – from 1990-2020 and with urban/rural disaggregation. Model results show 53% of the global population relied on polluting cooking in 1990, dropping to 36% in 2020. In urban areas, gaseous fuels dominate, with a growing reliance on electricity; in rural populations, high levels of biomass use persist alongside increasing use of gaseous fuels. Future projections of observed trends suggest 31% will still lack access to clean cooking in 2030, and the Sub-Saharan African population relying on polluting fuels is on course to exceed 1 billion by 2025.

For 3 billion people¹ living in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), the simple act of cooking is a major health and safety risk. The inefficient combustion of fuels in simple stoves and devices produces high levels of household air pollution (HAP). Chronic exposure to HAP increases the risk of noncommunicable disease including ischemic heart disease, stroke, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lung cancer, as well as pneumonia²; HAP exposure accounts for some 3.8 million premature deaths annually³. Open fires or poorly balanced pots also cause of burns and scalds, while kerosene and charcoal use in the home is a major source of poisonings from either ingestion or carbon monoxide exposure².

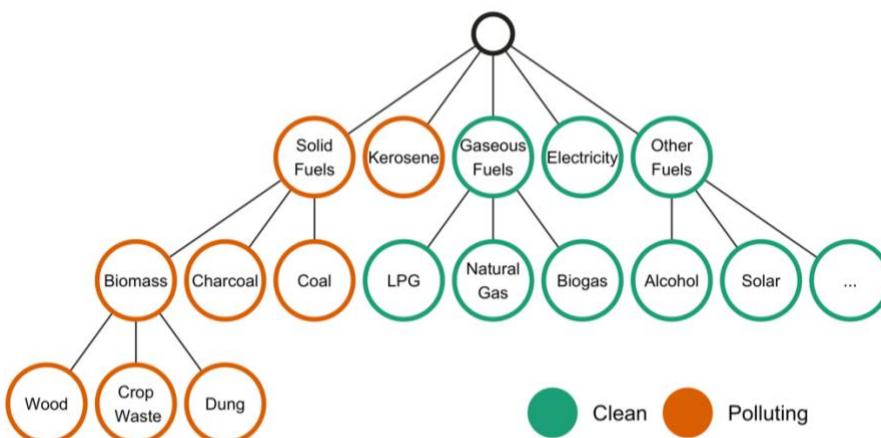
Households that rely on polluting energy systems frequently have to travel great distances to gather fuel – sometimes travelling hours each week – putting them at increased risk of musculoskeletal injury, and violence. Fuel collection is often tasked to women and children, perpetuating the negative socioeconomic and gender inequities of energy poverty by taking away time that could be spent on other activities like schooling, income-generation and socializing.⁴ Polluting cooking practices are also an important cause of environmental degradation and climate change: the black carbon from cooking, heating and lighting is responsible for 50% of anthropogenic global black carbon emissions⁵ and around 30% of wood fuels harvested globally are unsustainable⁶.

In recognition of these significant burdens, the global community has prioritized achieving universal access to clean cooking, enshrined in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development⁷ as one of three targets for Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 7, to “ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy”. To inform and motivate policy towards this goal, the World Health Organization (WHO) publishes estimates of exposure to HAP⁸ and related disease burdens³, which have historically been calculated using the estimated population mainly using solid fuels⁹ for cooking. In 2014, the WHO published the first-ever normative evidence-based guidance on the fuels and technologies

47 that can be considered ‘clean’ for health², which highlight the importance of stove and fuel
48 performance while also specifically discouraging the use of certain fuels – notably
49 unprocessed coal and kerosene, a liquid fuel previously considered clean that emits high
50 levels of harmful pollution. Since then, tracking of ‘solid fuels’ has been replaced with
51 ‘polluting fuels and technologies’ – where polluting fuels consists of unprocessed biomass
52 (wood, crop residues, dung), charcoal, coal, and kerosene (Figure 1). Meanwhile, estimates
53 of the proportion of the population mainly using clean fuels and technologies – where clean
54 fuels consists of gaseous fuels (liquified petroleum gas or LPG, natural gas, biogas),
55 electricity, alcohol, and solar energy (Figure 1) – have informed monitoring of progress
56 towards universal clean cooking¹. Acknowledging very limited survey data on the
57 technologies used for cooking, and the limited availability of truly clean-burning (for health)
58 biomass stoves in LMICs, this analysis focuses only on the fuels used rather than stove
59 technologies.

60 While the aggregate indicators polluting and clean fuel use are effective for summarising and
61 communicating the global extent of polluting cooking and progress towards global goals,
62 fuel-specific estimates are needed to optimally inform policies and decision-making on how
63 to achieve the greatest reductions in HAP exposure as quickly as possible, in combination
64 with local expert knowledge on challenges of affordability, availability, infrastructure and
65 cultural preferences. Fuel-specific estimates are also desirable to refine estimates of HAP
66 exposure and health burdens at regional, country level, and sub-national levels, fully taking
67 into account the varying harm and types of pollution associated with different fuels (notably,
68 carbon monoxide is currently absent from burden of disease calculations¹⁰).

69 Using a new model based on individual/specific fuel categories¹¹ (detailed in Section 4), we
70 report estimates of cooking fuel use at country, regional (SDG and WHO regions) and global
71 levels, for each year from 1990-2020, with urban/rural disaggregation. We provide estimates
72 of aggregate clean and polluting fuel use (analysed in Section 1), and report for the first time
73 estimates for 6 specific fuel categories: electricity, gaseous fuels, kerosene, unprocessed
74 biomass, charcoal and coal (analysed in Section 2). For brevity, gaseous fuels and
75 unprocessed biomass are from here onwards called “gas” and “biomass”, respectively. We
76 also report future projections of all estimates up to 2030, representing a possible scenario
77 where trends seen in recent decades continue. All estimates are provided as supplementary
78 material for download.



79
80

Figure 1: Classification of cooking fuels as clean or polluting.

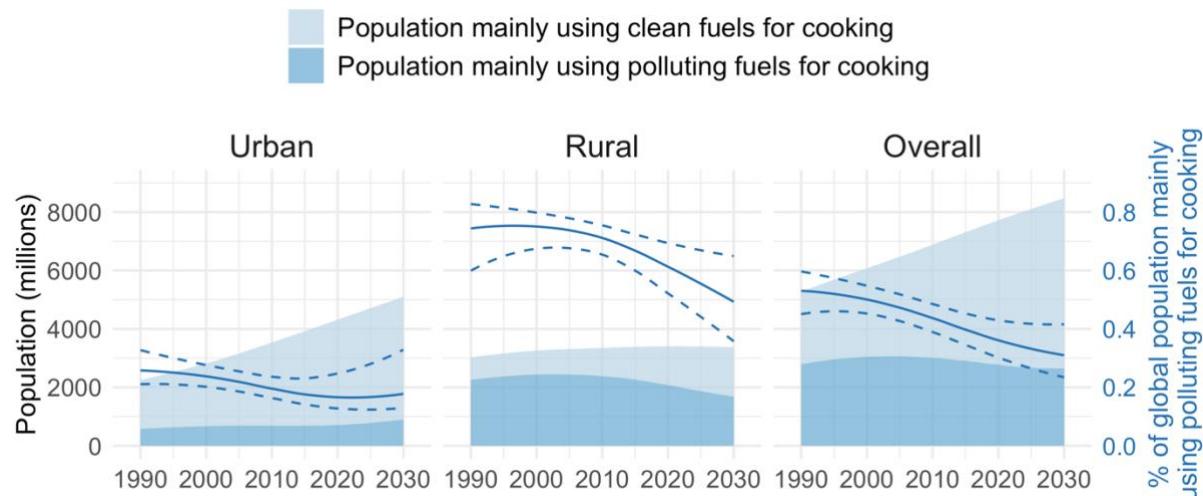
81 1 Progress towards universal clean fuel use

82 The percentage of the global population mainly using polluting fuels for cooking has declined
83 steadily over the last three decades, as illustrated in the right panel of Figure 2, from 53%

84 [45-60] in 1990 to 36% [30-43] in 2020. If observed trends continue, this percentage is
85 expected to decline further to 31% in 2030. However, the percentage of the population
86 mainly using polluting cooking fuels does not tell the whole story, as rising populations have
87 contributed to an absolute number of people mainly using polluting fuels which has deviated
88 little from 3 billion people since 1990 (2.8 billion [2.4-3.1] in 1990, 3.0 billion [2.8-3.3] in 2000,
89 3.0 billion [2.7-3.3] in 2010 and 2.8 billion [2.3-3.3] in 2020). This number is projected to drop
90 only to 2.7 billion people by 2030.

91 Strictly at a global scale, the percentage of people in rural areas using polluting fuels for
92 cooking (central panel of Figure 2) decreased only slightly between 1990 and 2010, from
93 75% [60-83] to 71% [66-76], but progress has since accelerated so that the estimated
94 percentage cooking with polluting fuels in 2020 is 61% [52-69]. This is projected to decrease
95 further to around 50% in 2030. These reductions have been matched by substantial
96 decreases in the absolute rural population using polluting fuels, from a high of 2.5 billion
97 [2.2-2.6] in 2003, to 2.1 billion [1.8-2.4] in 2020 and then a projected 1.7 billion in 2030.

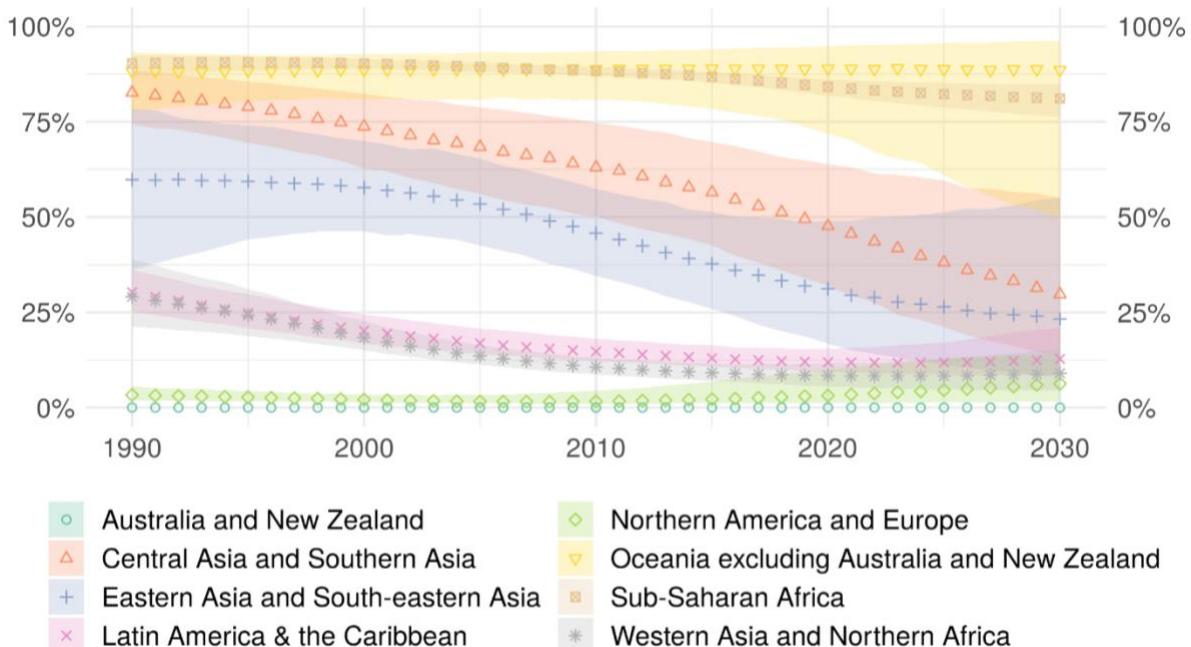
98 Conversely, following a decrease from 1990 to 2020, the percentage of the global urban
99 population using polluting fuels appears to have plateaued at 17% [13-25] in 2020 –
100 projected to be 18% in 2030 – while the absolute urban population using polluting fuels may
101 even increase from 0.7 billion [0.5-1.1] in 2020 to 0.9 billion in 2030.



102
103 *Figure 2: Global population mainly using clean and polluting fuels for cooking (shaded area), shown*
104 *alongside the percentage of the global population mainly cooking with polluting fuels (solid line), with 95%*
105 *uncertainty intervals (dotted lines).*

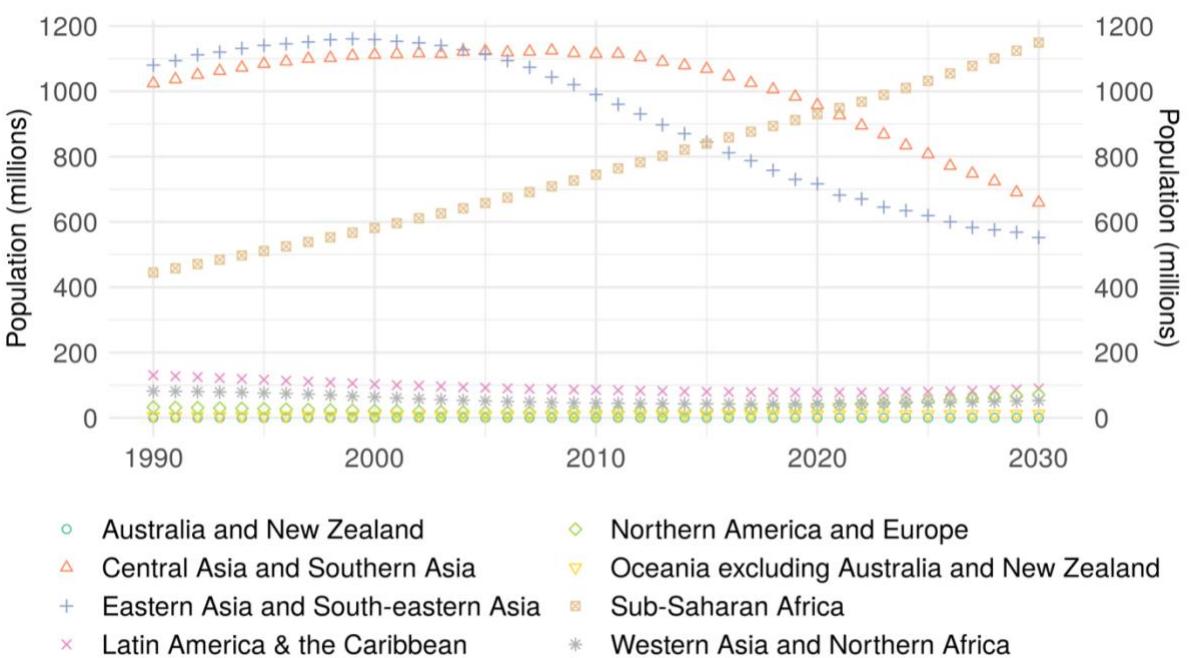
106 The stagnation in the global population using polluting and clean fuels disguises important
107 regional trends. In 1990, more than three quarters of people in the Central Asia and
108 Southern Asia region and more than half of people in the Eastern Asia and South-eastern
109 Asia region mainly used polluting fuels for cooking (Figure 3). Both of these regions have
110 made significant progress over the last three decades in transitioning towards universal
111 clean cooking. However, these successes are overshadowed by alarmingly little progress in
112 the Sub-Saharan Africa region, where polluting fuel use has dropped from 90% [87-92] in
113 1990 to only 84% [82-86] in 2020. If observed trends continue, this is projected to drop to

114 only 81% [76-85] in 2030, meaning four in five Sub-Saharan African people will continue to
115 suffer the health and socioeconomic burdens of polluting cooking.



116
117 *Figure 3: Percentage of the global population mainly cooking with polluting fuels in each SDG region, with*
118 *95% uncertainty intervals (shaded).*

119 Once again, to truly understand the human cost of polluting cooking, it is more telling to
120 consider the absolute number of people using polluting fuels (Figure 4). The number of people
121 mainly cooking with polluting fuels is rising at an alarming rate in Sub-Saharan Africa and is
122 projected to exceed 1 billion people by 2030 (perhaps by as early as 2025).



123
124 *Figure 4: Population mainly cooking with polluting fuels in each SDG region.*
125 In the year 2000, out of those mainly cooking with polluting fuels, 3 in 4 (75%) lived in either
126 Central Asia and Southern Asia or Eastern Asia and South-eastern Asia, and only 1 in 5 (19%)

127 resided in Sub-Saharan Africa, as illustrated in Figure 5. In 2020, around 1 in 3 (34%) live in
128 Sub-Saharan Africa and this is projected to approach to 1 in 2 (45%) by 2030.



129

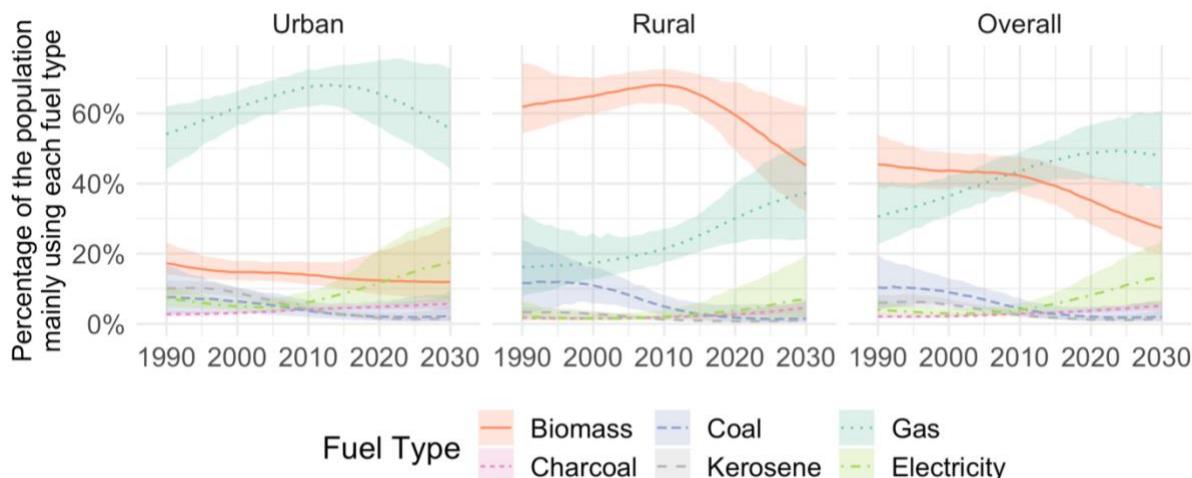
130 *Figure 5: Regional breakdown of the global population mainly using polluting fuels for cooking.*

131 **2 The changing fuel mix in low- and middle-income countries**

132 Analysis of specific fuel use at regional, country and sub-national level can help to better
133 estimate the impacts of current policies for household energy use well as inform the future
134 development of policies and programs. Here we discuss some of the most notable trends
135 across LMICs.

136 Among LMICs (Figure 6), use of gaseous fuels increased consistently from 31% [23-41] in
137 1990 to 49% [41-56] in 2020, overtaking unprocessed biomass fuels as the dominant
138 cooking fuel type in the last decade. Use of electricity for cooking also rose, from 4% [3-7] in
139 1990 to 8% [4-14] in 2020, with a considerably larger increase in urban areas where
140 infrastructure tends to be better established.

141 Between 1990 and 2010, increases in the use of clean fuels appear to be primarily explained
142 by considerable decreases in the use of coal and kerosene. Coal use in rural areas has
143 dropped from 12% [3-25] in 1990 to 5% [3-8] in 2010 then to 2% [1-6] in 2020. Kerosene use
144 has also decreased: in urban areas it dropped from 10% [8-12] in 1990 to 4% [3-5] in 2010
145 then to 2% [1-3] in 2020, while in rural areas it dropped from 3% [2-5] in 1990 to 1% [0-2] in
146 2020. However, from around 2010 onwards the use of biomass fuels has also started to
147 decrease consistently, mainly in rural areas where use of unprocessed biomass fuels has
148 dropped from 68% [63-73] in 2010 to 60% [51-68] in 2020.



149

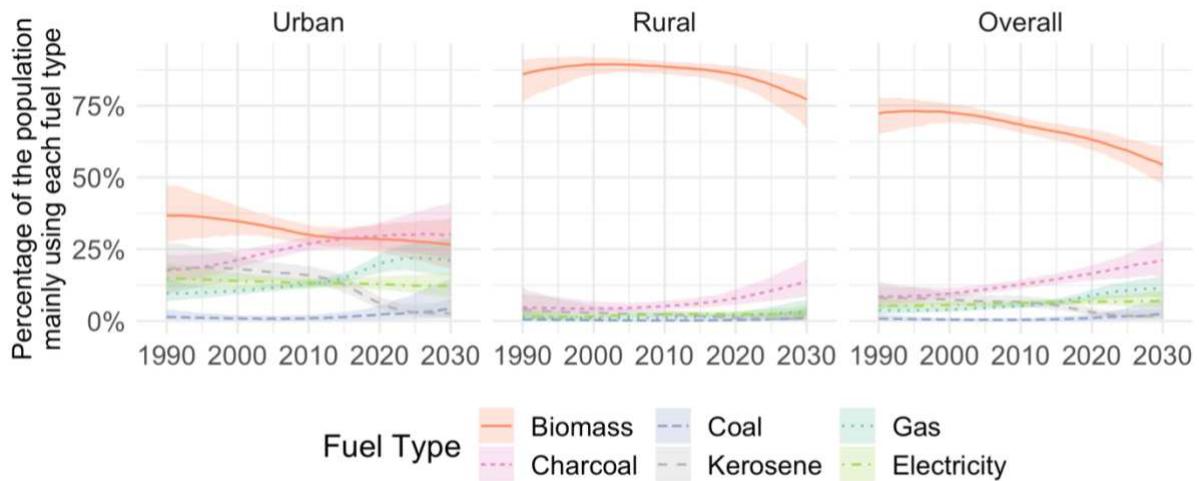
150 *Figure 6: Cooking fuel use in LMICs.* Percentage of the population in LMICs mainly using each fuel type, with
151 95% uncertainty intervals.

152 Although globally the use of kerosene has dwindled, it persists in urban areas of LMICs in
153 both Oceania (15% [7-35] in 2018) and in Sub-Saharan Africa (6% [4-9] in 2020). Globally
154 the proportion using charcoal is low (4% [3-4] in 2020), but in urban areas of Sub-Saharan
155 Africa (Figure 7) it has overtaken biomass as the most popular fuel (30% [25-35] in 2020). If
156 observed trends continue into the next decade, use of gaseous fuels in urban areas of
157 LMICs is projected to start falling as more people switch to electricity, and eventually level-
158 off overall.

159 2.1 Case studies: regional and country analyses of fuel use

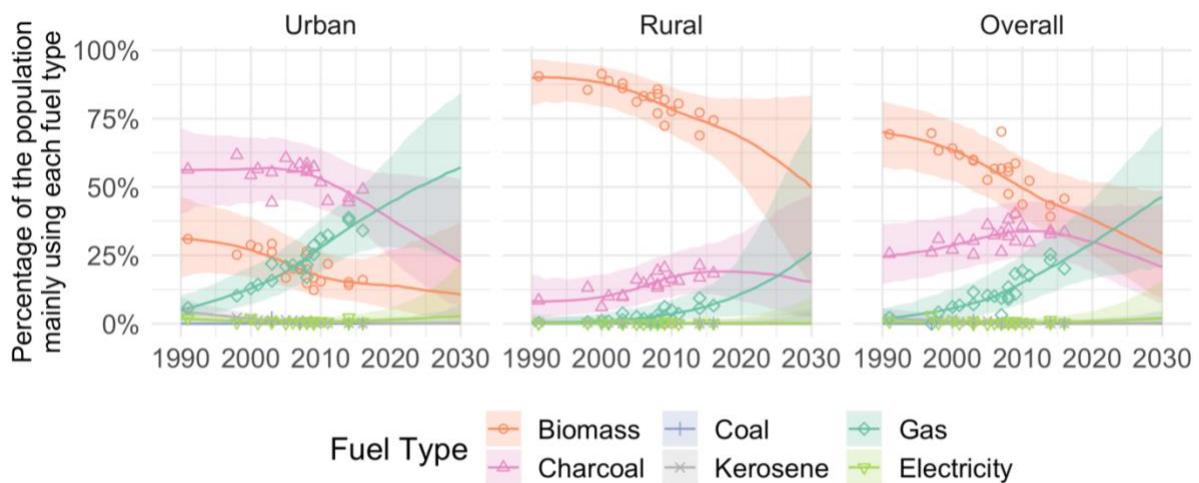
160 Here we demonstrate how our estimates can be used for detailed analysis at the regional,
161 national and sub-national level, using Sub-Saharan Africa and Ghana as case studies. In
162 2020, fuel use in urban areas of Sub-Saharan Africa (Figure 7) is highly pluralistic, consisting
163 of charcoal (30% [25-35]), biomass (28% [24-34]), gaseous fuels (20% [17-23]) and
164 electricity (13% [11-15]). In rural areas, however, use of biomass (86% [82-89]) and charcoal
165 (8% [6-11]) constitutes a near duopoly, with only 6% using any of the other fuels.

166 If observed trends continue into the next decade, use of kerosene is projected to diminish to
167 around 2% of the Sub-Saharan African population in 2030, with only a few countries
168 maintaining high levels in 2030: 36% in Equatorial Guinea, 44% in Djibouti, and 76% in Sao
169 Tome and Principe – where kerosene use is actually projected to increase. Meanwhile,
170 modest decreases in the use of biomass fuels look likely to be largely offset by increases in
171 the use of charcoal. Concerningly, very little progress is projected to be made in the use of
172 gaseous fuels or electricity either in urban or rural parts of Sub-Saharan Africa.



173
174 **Figure 7: Cooking fuel use in Sub-Saharan Africa.** Percentage of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa mainly
175 using each fuel type, with 95% uncertainty intervals. Plots for other regions are included as supplementary
176 information.

177 Zooming in to the national and sub-national level, Figure 8 shows modelled estimates for
178 fuel use in Ghana alongside observed values from available household survey data – which
179 are plotted to illustrate how the model captures non-linear fuel use trends, survey variability
180 and uncertainty.



181
182 **Figure 8: Cooking fuel use in Ghana.** Percentage of the urban population (left), the rural population (centre) and
183 overall population (right) of Ghana mainly using each fuel type, with central estimates as lines. Points show
184 available survey data. The 95% uncertainty intervals shown as shaded areas combine model uncertainty and
185 survey variability: where data are plentiful, the uncertainty is small and the intervals capture the vast majority of
186 survey points; where survey data are limited or unavailable, in particular when projecting into the future, the
187 uncertainty grows, and our uncertainty intervals are wider. Plots for other LMICs are included as supplementary
188 information.

189 In Ghana the plurality of people uses biomass fuels in 2020 (38% [25-52]), with a further
190 30% [19-43] relying on charcoal (Figure 8). Use of biomass fuels remains high in rural areas,
191 despite dropping from 90% [80-97] in 1990 to 68% [51-82] in 2020. Although use of charcoal
192 was steadily rising in rural areas between 1990 (8% [2-18]) and 2010 (17% [10-26]), there is
193 some evidence that this has stalled. In urban areas, meanwhile, use of gaseous fuels has
194 risen consistently from 5% [2-10] in 1990 to 44% [28-61] in 2020. This is likely the result of
195 concerted government efforts (starting around 1990) to promote the use of LPG as a
196 substitute for the widely used charcoal and firewood¹². Increased use of gas has come at the
197 expense of biomass, which dropped about 14 percentage points between 1990 and 2010,

198 and charcoal, which dropped about 15 percentage points between 2010 and 2020. Indeed,
199 there is some evidence (65% probability) that in 2020 more people use gaseous fuels than
200 any other fuel in urban areas of Ghana. If observed trends continue, use of gaseous fuels is
201 projected to rise to 46% by 2030, meaning about 1 in 2 people in Ghana will still rely on
202 polluting fuels for cooking.

203 3 Discussion

204 Previous estimates of cooking fuel use have been limited to clean versus polluting/solid fuel
205 use, preventing detailed assessment of progress towards global goals and minimizing the
206 utility of household energy use data for policymaking. Here we used a novel Bayesian
207 hierarchical modelling approach to comprehensively and reliably estimate the use of 6 fuel
208 types – as well as overall clean and polluting fuel use – under realistic constraints, from 1990
209 to 2020. We also presented future projections of existing trends up to 2030, representing a
210 ‘business-as-usual’ scenario to motivate new policy and providing a baseline against which
211 the effects of new interventions can be assessed.

212 Our analysis shows that although there has been progress towards clean household energy,
213 the global community is far off track from reaching universal access to clean cooking by
214 2030. The global proportion mainly using polluting fuels dropped by an estimated 17%
215 between 1990 and 2020, although the absolute number of people using polluting fuels has
216 deviated little from 3 billion over the last 3 decades. Progress in urban areas is now static,
217 although clean fuel use is increasing in rural areas (particularly gas and electricity). Indeed,
218 our business-as-usual scenario projects 2.7 billion people, just under 1 in 3, will continue to
219 mainly rely on polluting cooking fuels in 2030. A deeper regional analysis has highlighted the
220 emergence of Sub-Saharan Africa as having the largest population mainly using polluting
221 fuels for cooking after 2020, which is likely to exceed 1 billion people in the next 10 years;
222 the need for greater focus and resources to implement policies and programmes promoting
223 the adoption of clean in Sub-Saharan Africa cannot be overstated. Analysis at the level of
224 specific fuels reveals further insights, such as the global elimination of kerosene and coal for
225 cooking, and the emergence of charcoal as the most popular fuel in urban Sub-Saharan
226 Africa.

227 While the availability of a complete set of estimates by specific fuel represents a significant
228 step forward in the monitoring and understanding of polluting fuel use for cooking, these
229 estimates do not take into account the technology used for cooking – due to a lack of data
230 from nationally-representative surveys. Moving forward, access to technological solutions
231 like low-emission advanced combustion biomass cookstoves should be monitored in national
232 surveys to facilitate inclusion in global analyses, following the example of the Core
233 Questions on Household Energy Use jointly developed by the WHO and the World Bank’s
234 Energy Sector Management Assistance Programme (ESMAP) to track SDG Target 7.1¹³.
235 Finally, future modelling that accounts for all fuels used by a household for cooking (not just
236 the main fuel), as well as polluting fuels used for heating and lighting, will improve
237 understanding of exposure to total household air pollution, thus better informing policy and
238 programmatic decision-making, as well as the global monitoring of health and environmental
239 impacts.

240 Supplementary Information

241 Table 1, provided as supplementary information, details the sources and coverage of survey
242 data contained within the WHO Household Energy Database, as of March 2020.
243 Additionally, the following outputs are provided for download:

- 244 A. Country estimates (% and population) of clean, polluting, and specific fuel use, with
245 urban and rural disaggregation, 1990-2030 (xlsx spreadsheet).
- 246 B. Global and SDG regional estimates (% and population) of clean, polluting, and
247 specific fuel use, with urban and rural disaggregation, 1990-2030 (xlsx spreadsheet).

- 248 C. WHO regional estimates (% and population) of clean, polluting, and specific fuel use,
249 with urban and rural disaggregation, 1990-2030 (xlsx spreadsheet).
250 D. Plots of country estimates (low- and middle-income only) of clean, polluting and
251 specific fuel use (%), with urban and rural disaggregation, 1990-2030 (pdf
252 document).
253 E. Plots of global and SDG regional estimates of clean, polluting, and specific fuel use
254 (%), with urban and rural disaggregation, 1990-2030 (pdf document).
255 F. Plots of WHO regional estimates of clean, polluting, and specific fuel use (%), with
256 urban and rural disaggregation, 1990-2030 (pdf document).

257 Reminder: regional and global estimates for specific fuels exclude high-income
258 countries.

259 4 Methods

260 This section outlines the methodology we used to derive cooking fuel estimates for 1990-
261 2030.

262 4.1 Household survey data and selection criteria

263 Data used in this analysis is drawn from the WHO's Household Energy Database¹⁴, a
264 regularly updated compilation of nationally-representative household survey data for WHO
265 Member States from various sources, detailed in Table 1 (included as supplementary
266 information). The version of the database used for this analysis comprises 1353 surveys
267 collected from a total of 170 countries (including high income countries) between 1960 and
268 2018.

269 For this analysis we exclude surveys from before 1990, and only include data from surveys
270 providing individual fuel breakdowns and with less than 15% of the population in total
271 categorized as "missing", "not cooking in the household" or "mainly cooking with 'other'
272 fuels". There was no differentiation in the model between surveys that reported only
273 household- or population-weighted fuel use estimates. Where surveys reported both
274 household- and population-weighted estimates, only population-weighted estimates were
275 used, in order to best estimate the population reliant on different cooking fuels. Using this
276 selection criteria 1136 surveys – collected from 153 countries – were used for modelling.
277 Table 1 shows both the number of surveys in the database and the number used for
278 modelling from each data source.

279 Surveys included in the database are inconsistent in the questions posed to households
280 about cooking (typical questions by survey source are included in Table 1). Most survey
281 questions are focused on the type of cooking fuel or energy rather than the cooking device,
282 and thus the database version included in this study does not contain comprehensive data
283 on solid fuel stove type (e.g. forced draft or brand information). Almost all surveys only
284 assess the primary, or main, cooking fuel or energy source, which constrains the analysis to
285 the primary fuel and technology used for cooking, although it is well documented that
286 households often use multiple stoves and/or fuels, often referred to as 'stove-stacking'¹⁵⁻¹⁷.

287 The WHO Household Energy Database contains data on the proportion of households
288 mainly using a wide variety of cooking fuels, including alcohol fuels (e.g. ethanol); biogas;
289 charcoal; coal; crop residues; dung; electricity; kerosene; liquid petroleum gas (LPG); natural
290 gas; solar energy; and wood. However, surveys are not always consistent in the fuel options
291 they present to respondents. In particular, some surveys combine fuels into a single option
292 (notably natural gas and LPG are often combined into the category 'gas'). The result of this
293 is that the time series of survey data for certain individual fuels can be unstable or unreliable
294 in some countries.

295 Where appropriate in terms of similarity of health impacts, and relevance to policymakers,
296 these issues can be remedied by combining affected fuels into a single category for

modelling purposes. Here we combine wood, crop residues and dung into the category 'biomass', representing the combined use of unprocessed/raw biomass fuels, and we combine LPG, natural gas and biogas into the category 'gas' – refer to Figure 1 for a visual representation of these categories. Although solar and ethanol are considered clean fuels, they have been included under the category 'other fuels', due to the sparse number of data points available for these fuels (105 total data points for solar energy ranging between 0% and 0.8%; 7 total data points for ethanol ranging between 0% and 0.14%).

We therefore estimate the population mainly using six fuel types: 1. biomass, 2. charcoal, 3. coal, 4. kerosene, 5. gas, and 6. electricity. A final category, 'other fuels' represents the aggregate use of minor clean fuel types, e.g. solar and ethanol. Estimates for overall 'polluting' and overall 'clean' fuel use are then derived by aggregating estimates of relevant fuel types. 'Other fuels' were not modelled individually but are included in the aggregate 'clean' category.

4.2 The global household energy model

Previous statistical models for estimating fuel use have focussed on a single variable, i.e. solid fuel use or polluting fuel use^{9,18}. Instead, we sought to model how a strongly related set of variables (the proportion of the population using each individual fuel type) changes over time, under the key constraint that as the use of one fuel increases the sum of the others must decrease, so that the total never exceeds 100%. No standard statistical procedure is available to achieve this, which merited the development of the bespoke Global Household Energy Model¹¹ (GHEM), a state-of-the-art Bayesian hierarchical approach¹⁹ to jointly estimating the use of individual fuels for cooking.

Trends in the proportions using each fuel type are modelled together for both urban and rural areas of each country using smooth functions of time (thin-plate splines) as the only covariate. Estimates produced by the model are realistic in the sense that: a) as use of one fuel increases, the sum of the others automatically decreases, so that the total fuel use always equals 100%; and b) for each country, urban, rural and overall fuel use is linked by estimates of the survey sample urban proportion (including for years without surveys), also based on smooth functions of time.

The model outputs Bayesian 'posterior' probability distributions for fuel use in a given year and country, which can answer questions like "What is the probability that the use of coal exceeds 10% in urban areas of Mongolia?". For reporting purposes, summaries of these distributions can be taken to provide both point estimates (e.g. means or medians, the latter being what we present here and in the supplementary information) and measures of uncertainty (e.g. 95% prediction intervals (PIs) – which mean there is a 95% probability that fuel use lies within the given range).

GHEM is implemented using the R programming language and the NIMBLE²⁰ software package for Bayesian statistical modelling with Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC). The probability distributions assumed for input survey data do not allow for inputs where the sum of the percentage mainly using all mutually exclusive fuel categories exceeds 100% (110 surveys, with a median total excess of 0.01%), which can occur due to rounding at different stages of data collection. For these surveys, fuel use values were uniformly scaled (divided by the sum of mutually exclusive categories), to have a total of 100%. Countries classified as high-income according to the World Bank country classification²¹ (60 countries) are assumed to have fully transitioned to clean household energy and are reported as >95% access to clean fuels and technologies¹. In addition, no estimates are provided for LMICs where no surveys were available or suitable for modelling post-1990 (Bulgaria, Cuba, Lebanon, and Libya). Modelled estimates for the use of overall clean, overall polluting and specific fuels are therefore provided for a total of 130 countries – 128 LMICs plus 2 countries with no World Bank income classification (Cook Islands and Niue).

347 Population data from the United Nations Population Division (2019 version) were used to
348 derive the population-weighted regional and global aggregates. We present aggregate
349 estimates for the 8 SDG regions, as well as for the 6 WHO regions. LMICs without suitable
350 survey data were excluded from all regional calculations and high-income countries were
351 excluded from regional calculation for specific fuels – this means our regional estimates for
352 specific fuels (e.g. gas) refer only to LMICs in those regions. Values of 100% clean fuel use
353 were used for high income countries when calculating regional aggregates of clean and
354 polluting fuel use.

355 **4.3 Future projections**

356 We also project observed trends in fuel use into the future using GHEM. These future
357 projections were developed by extrapolating observed trends, representing a ‘business-as-
358 usual’ scenario assuming no new policies or interventions.

359 The degree of uncertainty associated with such projections depends on a number of
360 factors which vary by country, including the number of surveys conducted near present day
361 and how changeable the trends are estimated to be over the available data period (1990-
362 2018) – for example, projections for a country where trends are linear may display less
363 uncertainty than a country with sudden changes in fuel use (e.g. Indonesia). The model has
364 been validated¹¹ for making fuel use predictions up to 5 years beyond the end year of the
365 data. Hence for years close to the end of the data period (e.g. 2019, 2020, 2021), point
366 estimates and 95% prediction intervals can be interpreted as predictions of what may
367 happen based on trends in the data. Further into the future, uncertainty tends to grow
368 beyond practical levels but point estimates remain useful for policy purposes with a specific
369 interpretation: what may happen if observed trends continue and no new policies or
370 interventions are introduced.

371 **Author Contributions**

372 Oliver Stoner, Jessica Lewis, Itzel Lucio Martínez, and Heather Adair-Rohani developed the
373 concept for the manuscript. Oliver Stoner developed the Global Household Energy Model,
374 carried out the country and regional analysis and made major contributions to the
375 manuscript. Jessica Lewis made significant contributions to the manuscript. Itzel Lucio
376 Martínez was primarily responsible for updating the WHO Household Energy Database –
377 including the addition of new surveys and validation of existing surveys – during the period
378 over which this work was carried out and made significant contributions to the manuscript.
379 Sophie Gumi contributed to the concept of the work, previously managed the WHO
380 Household Energy Database and made minor contributions to the manuscript. Theo
381 Economou previously supervised Oliver Stoner in developing the model and made minor
382 contributions to the manuscript. Heather Adair-Rohani made significant contributions to the
383 manuscript, manages the WHO Household Energy Database, and coordinated efforts for the
384 development and application of the presented methodology for global household energy
385 monitoring.

386 **Competing Interests**

387 The authors declare no competing interests.

388 **Disclaimer**

389 The authors alone are responsible for the views expressed in this article and they do not
390 necessarily represent the views, decisions or policies of the institutions with which they are
391 affiliated.

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Figures

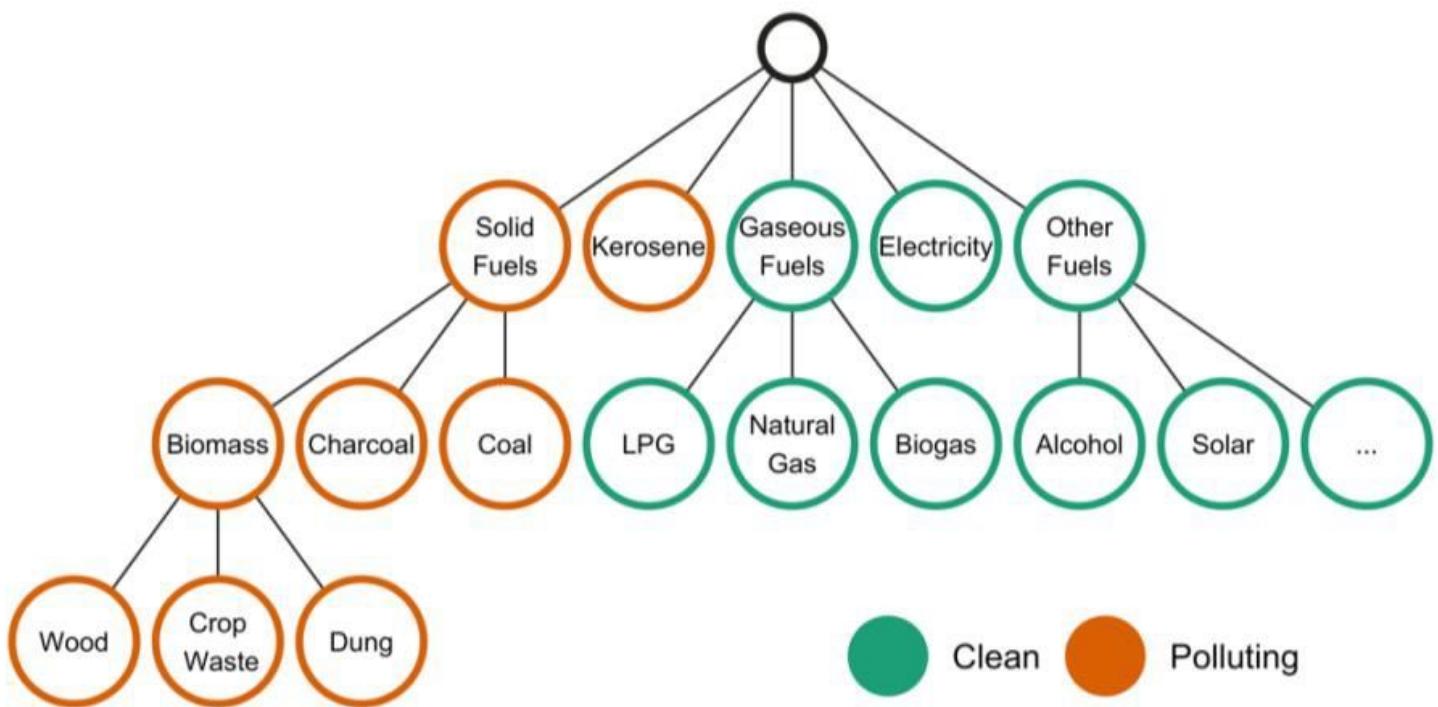


Figure 1

Classification of cooking fuels as clean or polluting.

Population mainly using clean fuels for cooking
Population mainly using polluting fuels for cooking

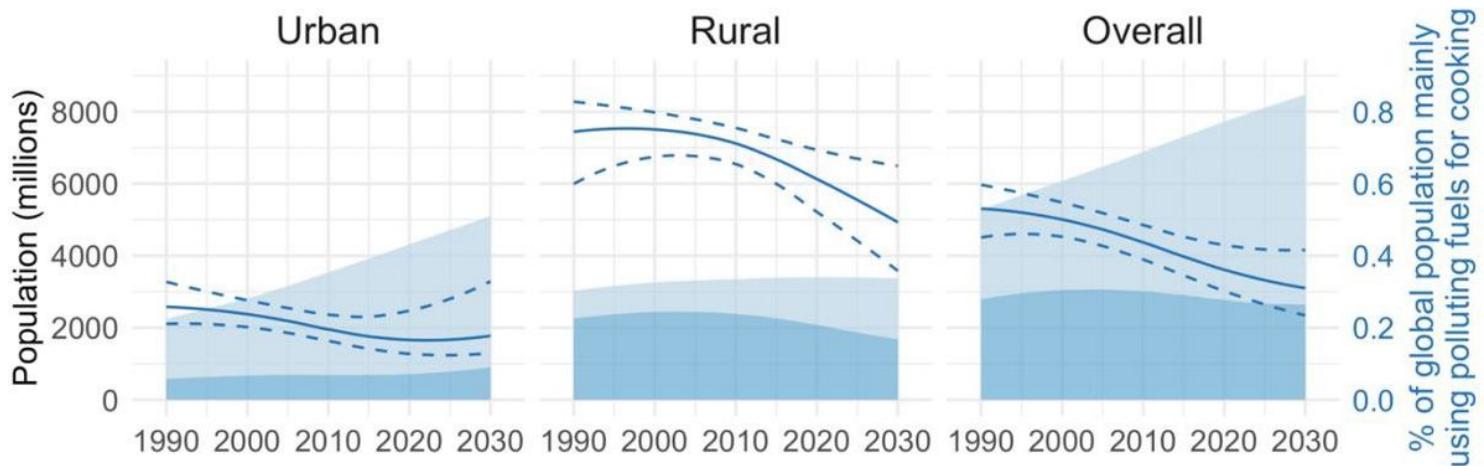


Figure 2

Global population mainly using clean and polluting fuels for cooking (shaded area), shown alongside the percentage of the global population mainly cooking with polluting fuels (solid line), with 95% uncertainty intervals (dotted lines).

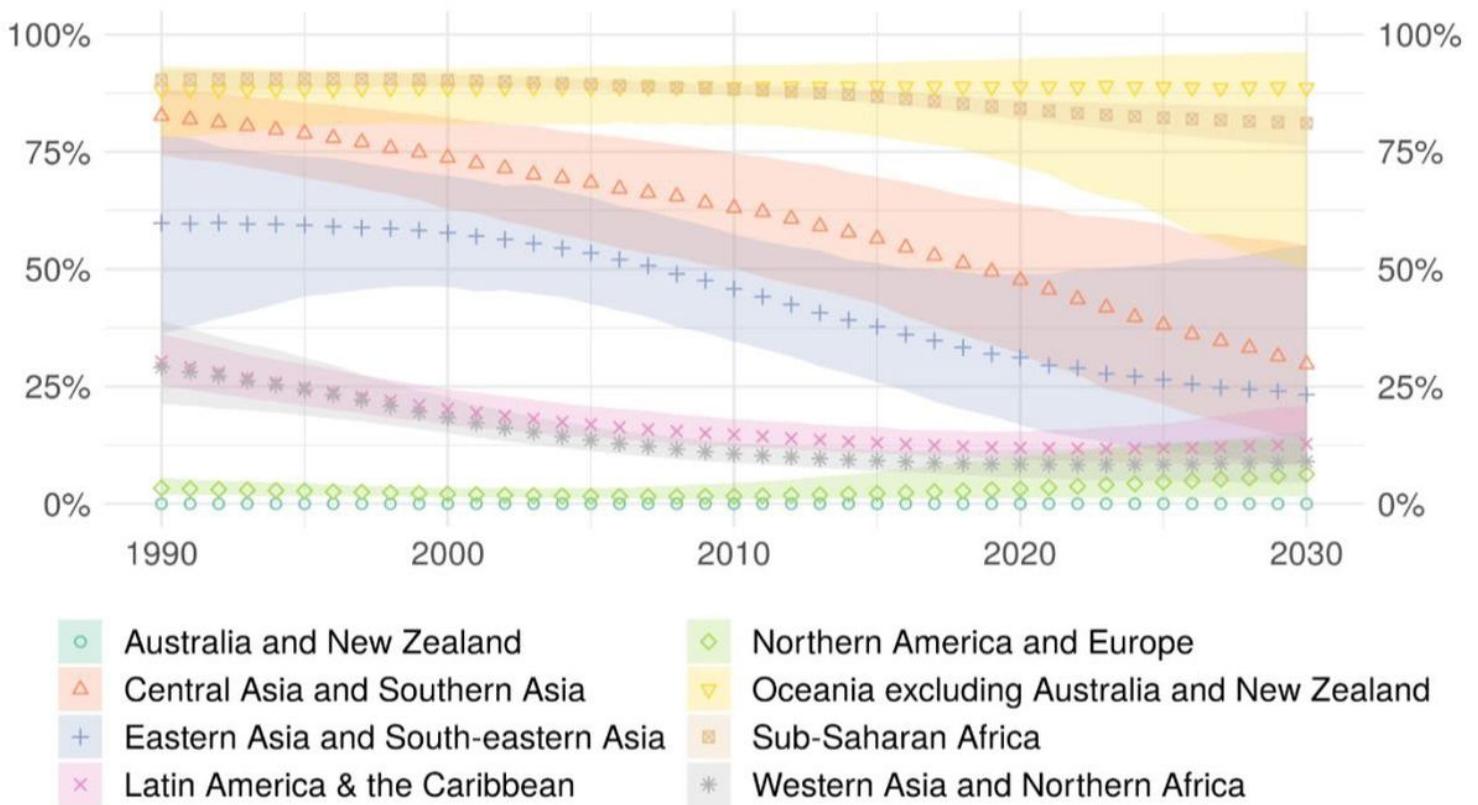


Figure 3

Percentage of the global population mainly cooking with polluting fuels in each SDG region, with 95% uncertainty intervals (shaded).

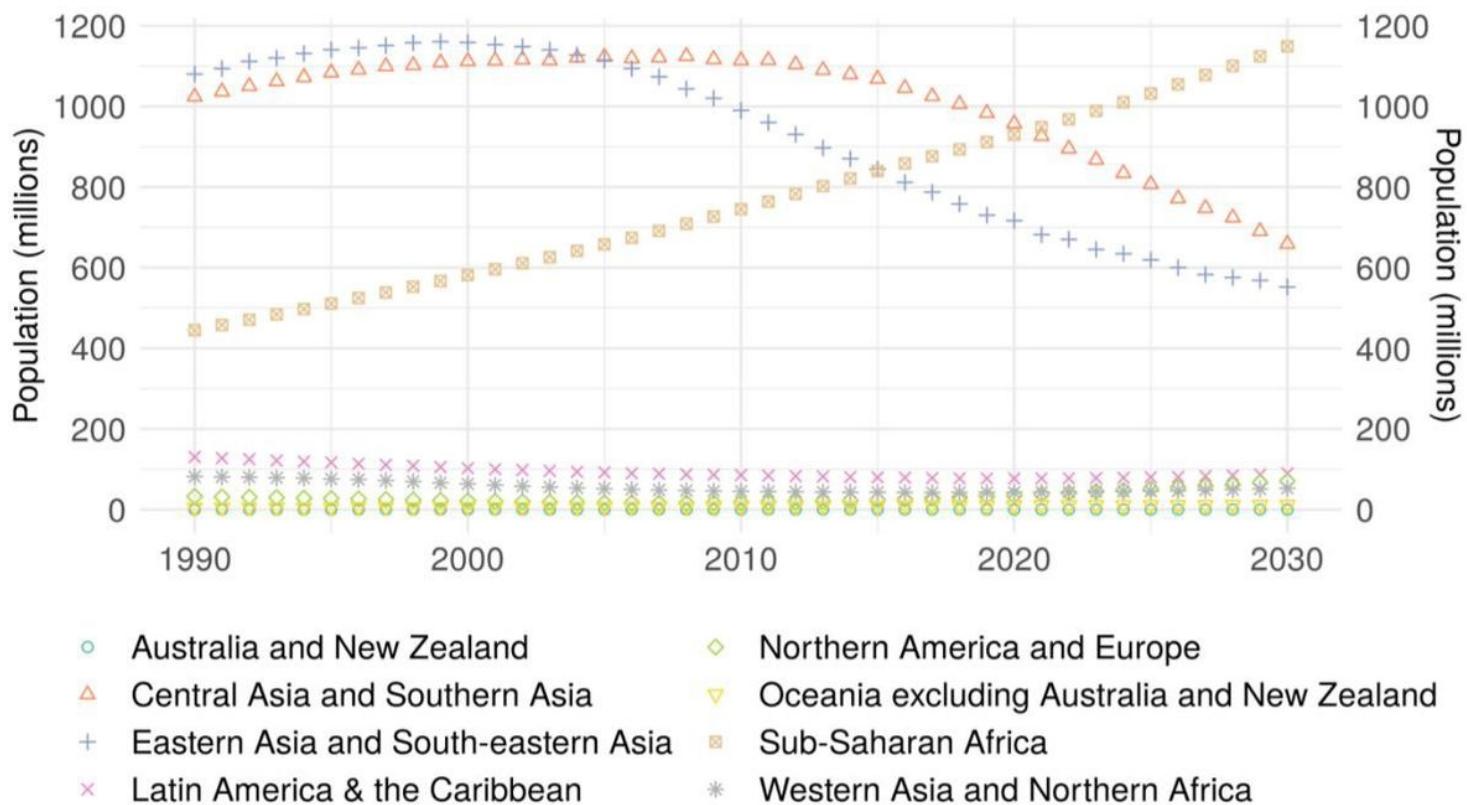


Figure 4

Population mainly cooking with polluting fuels in each SDG region.



Figure 5

Regional breakdown of the global population mainly using polluting fuels for cooking.

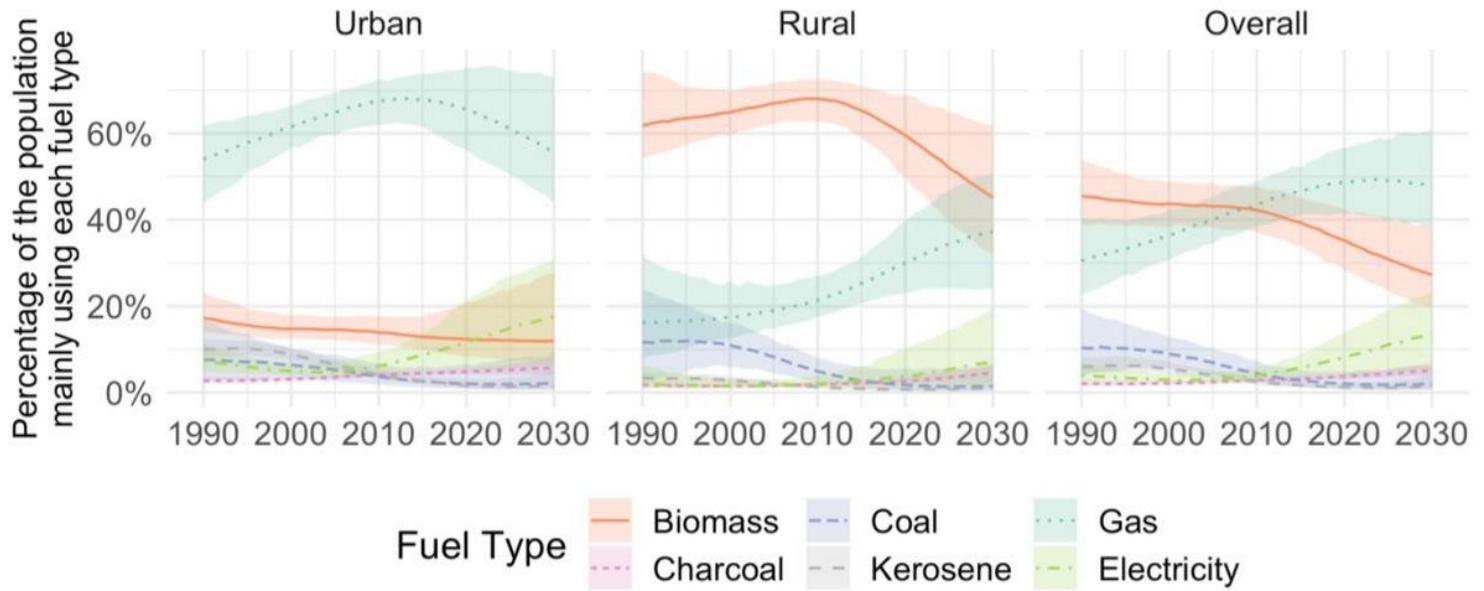


Figure 6

Cooking fuel use in LMICs. Percentage of the population in LMICs mainly using each fuel type, with 95% uncertainty intervals.

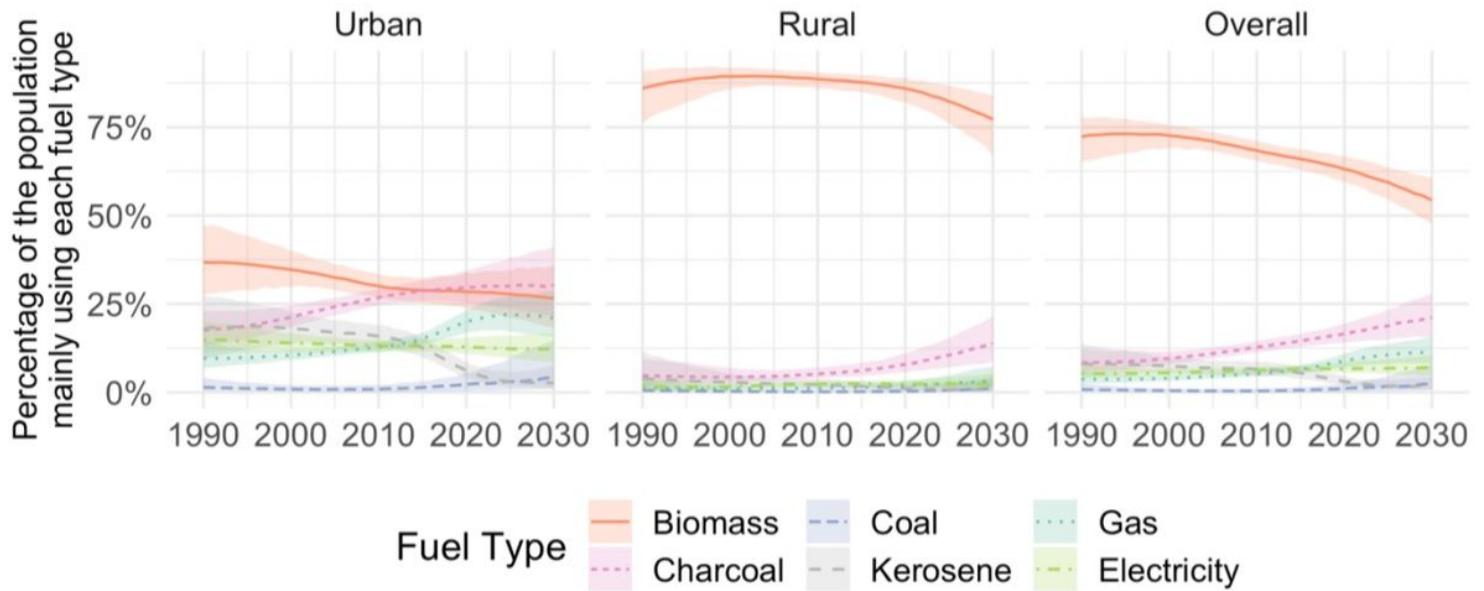


Figure 7

Cooking fuel use in Sub-Saharan Africa. Percentage of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa mainly using each fuel type, with 95% uncertainty intervals. Plots for other regions are included as supplementary information.

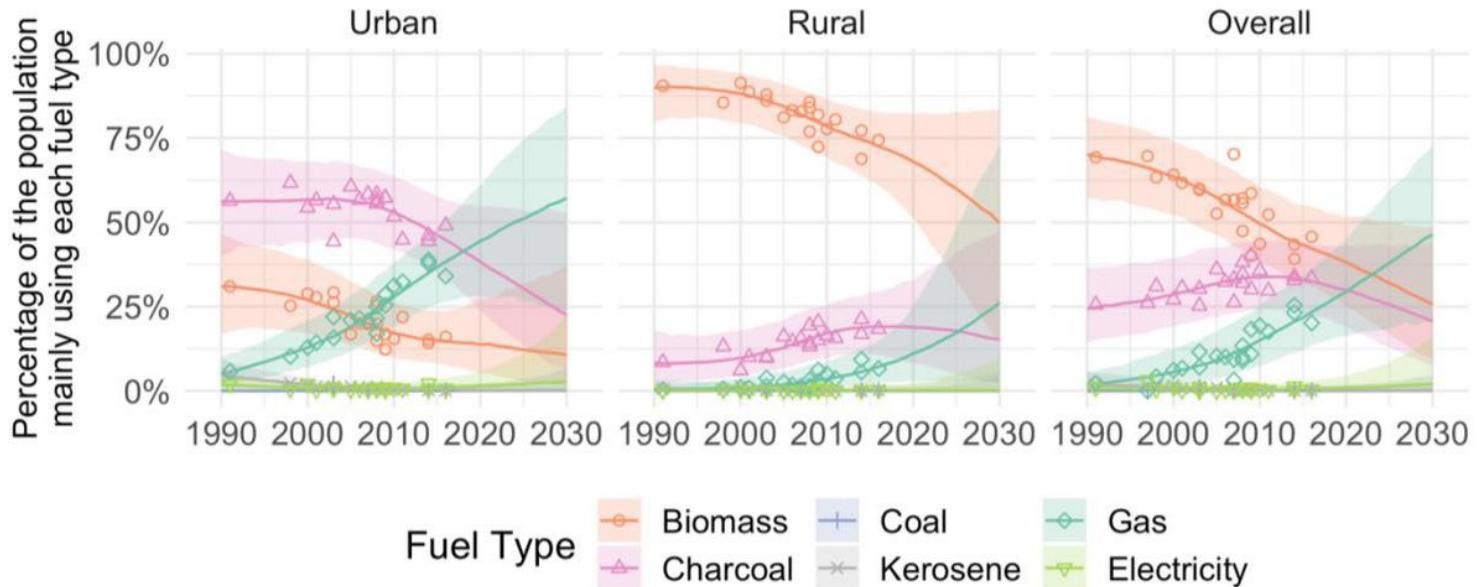


Figure 8

Cooking fuel use in Ghana. Percentage of the urban population (left), the rural population (centre) and overall population (right) of Ghana mainly using each fuel type, with central estimates as lines. Points show available survey data. The 95% uncertainty intervals shown as shaded areas combine model uncertainty and survey variability: where data are plentiful, the uncertainty is small and the intervals capture the vast majority of survey points; where survey data are limited or unavailable, in particular when projecting into the future, the uncertainty grows, and our uncertainty intervals are wider. Plots for other LMICs are included as supplementary information.

Supplementary Files

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- [DLMICPlots2020Version.pdf](#)
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