

Title: An action agenda for Africa's electricity sector

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One-sentence summary:

2 Innovations for modernizing and expanding Africa's electricity sector to the benefit of all

4 Abstract:

Africa's electricity sector has to undergo extensive modernization and expansion. We develop
6 five policy recommendations to guide this challenge. First, introduction of a continent-wide
risk-guarantee scheme coupled with targeted demand-side subsidies, to accelerate progress with
8 electrification. Second, digitalization and open-access of energy-sector planning and
management tools. Third, integration of local-content requirements into renewable energy
10 policies, to capture energy-sector jobs. Fourth, strengthening and expansion of regional power-
pools through African-led, international partners-supported partnerships. Fifth, expansion of
12 investments in off-grid and interconnected clean-energy mini-grids.

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Main text:

2 By 2030, Africa will be home to one-fifth of the world's population; and with population
growth rates projected to remain higher than the global average, the figure may rise to one-fourth
4 by 2050. To meet the needs of the population in a manner that is socially equitable,
economically viable, and environmentally sustainable, Africa's electricity sector will require a
6 major transformation (1).

Over the past decade, Africa's electricity sector has undergone some important changes.
8 Efforts to expand access to electricity have progressed at a slightly faster pace than anticipated
ten years ago. In parallel, the deployment of renewable-energy technologies has progressed
10 apace, in spite of new discoveries of natural gas across the continent, and favoured by the
volatility of oil prices, surpassing the expectations that many private sector actors held a decade
12 ago. (Notwithstanding, renewable-energy sources other than hydropower still play a limited role
in electricity generation in the continent.) Nonetheless, the expansion and modernization of
14 Africa's electricity sector needs heightened efforts, as evidenced by current electrification rates,
generation-capacity levels, and security-of-supply indicators.

16 Drawing on the literature cited herein and our expert judgement, we identify a suite of
actions (Table 1) to complete the transformation of Africa's electricity sector (Figure 1). We
18 believe that, if implemented, our recommendations would put Africa's electricity sector on track
to sharply increase electrification rates across the continent, while securing long-term access to
20 affordable energy, and reducing global-warming greenhouse-gas emissions and emissions of
local-air pollutants (2).

Introduction of supply-side incentives and demand-side subsidies

2 In spite of progress with off-grid rural electrification, at least 250 million people in Africa
cannot afford electricity, a gap that the COVID-19 global health pandemic has widened by about
4 80 million people who have fallen into extreme poverty (3). A combination of supply-side
incentives and demand-side subsidies can go a long way toward expanding electricity markets
6 and bridging the affordability gap.

 Supply-side incentives refers to the combination of risk-guarantee schemes and so-called
8 blending instruments. Through international-partner finance, risk-guarantee schemes cover
private lenders against the risk of a government failing to perform its contractual obligations and,
10 in some case, against expropriation, civil unrest and other imponderables. Blending instruments
are public-private partnerships through which grants are used to attract larger volumes of private
12 and, in some cases, public finance. The combination of risk-guarantee schemes and blending
instruments is set to play a central role in expanding electrification in Africa (4). However, it is
14 increasingly clear that coordination among the various partners is indispensable for these
schemes to work. Here, coordination refers to the ability of the various actors to align eligibility
16 and implementation requisites across their respective portfolios. Given this requirement, and the
magnitude of the energy access problem in Africa, a continent-wide risk-guarantee scheme
18 should be established, ideally by a combination of African and other multilateral lending
institutions. Such an integrated approach, through which overall savings can outweigh risk
20 premia (5), could be articulated under the aegis of the *African Single Electricity Market*,
launched in early February 2021.

22 Demand-side subsidies refers to direct or indirect payments to secure electricity access to
the poorest households in Africa. This kind of subsidies can take the form of a reduced rate,

calculated using twelve-month or shorter rolling-average electricity-consumption data, for
2 example, and may be complemented with cross-subsidies. Although the experience with this
type of subsidies remains limited, initiatives such as the European Union’s *GET.Invest*
4 programme and the World Bank’s *Africa Renewable Energy and Access* programme are putting
the concept on the policy agenda. These initiatives suggest that, when combined with supply-
6 side incentives, demand-side subsidies can help close the affordability gap referred to above by
serving the poorest households. International partners should adopt and scale-up this kind of
8 approaches. In doing so, they should be mindful of the need to rely on highly disaggregated
estimates of affordability to underpin the design of demand-side subsidy programmes (6).

Digitalization of energy-sector planning and management tools

The electricity sector is in the midst of a major transformation, as utilities’ primary role is
12 gradually becoming “the management of energy supplied by independent power producers,
rather than building and owning capacity themselves” (7). Such transformation is driven by
14 digitalization, which makes it possible to “identify who needs energy and deliver it at the right
time, in the right place and at the lowest cost” (8). Worldwide, digitalization is forecast to
16 become a US\$ 64 billion market by 2025, with smart-meters alone accounting for US\$ 26 billion
in the same year (7).

18 For Africa’s electricity sector, digitalization entails three main opportunities (8). First,
reduce the need for additional investments in electricity infrastructure: through pre-set financial
20 incentives, digitalization makes it possible to adjust electricity consumption during peak-demand
and off-peak periods, accommodate variability in supply, and limit network congestion. Second,
22 reduce electricity costs for consumers, by facilitating the integration of distributed electricity
generation (typically, household-level solar photovoltaic panels and storage facilities) into local

2 grids. Third, reduce the planning and capacity challenges inherent to the variability of renewable
2 energy-powered electricity generation.

4 To reap the full benefits of digitalization, a pan-African digital roadmap, such as the
4 European Union’s *Digital Single Market Strategy*, needs to be developed, consistent with
existing guidelines and mechanisms for secure data sharing (8). At the national level,
6 governments would benefit from adopting policies that are conducive to the expansion of
renewable energy markets, and of technological innovation, notably with regard to the
8 development of digital start-ups (7). Against these benchmarks, the African countries that are
best placed to embrace digitalization are Nigeria, Egypt, Kenya, Ethiopia and Ghana (7).

10 **Integration of local-content requirements into renewable-energy policies**

12 In Africa, financial incentives for renewable energy-powered electricity generation have
had a modest success. Whereas feed-in tariffs are becoming less relevant given the fall in cost of
renewable energy-powered technologies, auctions suffer from limited competition in the
14 electricity market and the lack of domestic expertise – South Africa being the notable exception.
Coherent policies that are stable over the long term, not least with regard to renewable-energy
16 targets, independent electricity-market regulators and, as relevant, measures to reform
monopolies are indispensable for financial incentives to deliver at their fullest, as they have done
18 in other parts of the world.

20 Irrespective of the type of financial incentive used, most electricity projects in Africa are
undertaken by foreign developers, notably European, Chinese and United States companies,
owing to their experience and, especially, their ability to secure financing. As a result, African
22 governments have introduced different types of so-called local-content requirements, namely

obligations concerning local employment, procurement of local goods and services, and the
2 transfer of technologies and know-how, to which foreign investors have to abide. In countries
such as Kenya and Nigeria, these requirements are defined through quantitative targets, whereas
4 in other countries, such as Uganda and Zambia, they take the form of qualitative goals.

Empirical evidence, from Africa and elsewhere (9), reveals that there is ample scope for
6 improving the effectiveness of local-content requirements. Two design shortcomings are
specially common in Africa: the mismatch between requirements and actual domestic capacities,
8 which deters and delays foreign investors, and the lack of sustained demand, which limits the
ability of local providers to plan and undertake capacity expansions.

10 To increase the effectiveness of local-content requirements, countries with limited
domestic capacities can focus on a small number of promising sub-sectors, as opposed to a
12 broad-based approach targeting all aspects of electricity generation, transmission and
distribution. For the sub-sectors chosen, a certification system can help ensure the required
14 quality standards. Countries with stronger capacities can take a more ambitious approach,
structured around (i) introducing legislative provisions and governance arrangements for local-
16 content requirements, (ii) engaging both foreign investors and local providers in the definition of
the requirements, and (iii) monitoring and reporting on the extent to which the requirements are
18 met. For both types of countries, it is advisable to tighten requirements only gradually, while
continuously adjusting ambition levels to reflect technology and labour market dynamics.

Strengthening and expansion of regional power-pools through African-

2 led international partners-supported partnerships

Regional power-pools, based increasingly on renewable energy supplies, are now
4 possible across most of the African continent (10). Nonetheless, additional efforts are needed to
reap the full benefits of power pooling (11). Notwithstanding shared challenges, notably
6 underinvestment, the nature of the additional efforts needed varies across African regions.

South Africa is the main electricity producer for the Southern African power pool,
8 facilitated by the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Given the challenges
that the country is increasingly facing to meet its domestic demand for electricity, and the
10 dramatic decreases in cost of solar, wind and energy storage, the case for relying on solar and
wind energy-powered electricity generation becomes stronger in the region. Yet, at present, for
12 both renewable energy and electric-power transmission, many of the investment discussions in
the SADC region focus on large dams, notably the Grand Inga Dam project, which have been the
14 technology of choice for decades. Concentrating solar power technology, which is already being
deployed in South Africa, can help shift the balance away from hydropower and toward solar
16 energy, but only to the extent that stronger financial incentives are in place, compared to those
introduced thus far.

18 To date, the members of the Maghreb Electricity Committee (COMELEC), Northern
Africa's power pool, have only engaged in cross-border trade with the Iberian peninsula, across
20 the Mediterranean Sea (Spain currently exports electricity to Morocco). As concentrating solar
power in Morocco develops, the country plans to export electricity to Spain and possibly
22 Portugal. Tunisia and Egypt are planning similar export arrangements (with Italy and Greece,

respectively). Against this background, COMELEC has pledged to launch, in 2025, a common
2 electricity market for its five members. A planned interconnection between Morocco and
Mauritania stands as the first milestone toward that goal. At present, efforts to develop intra-
4 regional trade are hampered by insufficiently liberalised electricity markets and limited tradition
of cross-border infrastructure investments in the region.

6 Both the Eastern Africa Power Pool (EAPP) and the West African Power Pool (WAPP)
originate from pre-existing cross-border arrangements aimed at promoting cooperation on energy
8 issues. In both regions, cooperation thus far has been limited to bilateral agreements, such as the
lines linking Kenya with Ethiopia, and Ghana with Burkina Faso. Nonetheless, efforts are under
10 way in both regions to harmonise regulations, contractual terms, and tariff levels applicable to
electricity transmission, with a view to expanding power pooling beyond bilateral agreements.
12 In the EAPP region, this goal is hampered by the lack of an updated development plan, reflecting
changes in assumptions about costs and the expected impacts of newly implemented policies,
14 because such a plan is a precondition for raising the funding required to establish a regional
power pool. In the WAPP region, utility near-bankruptcy is a key hurdle to intra-regional trade,
16 which calls for the regulated entry of foreign investment.

The Central African Power Pool (CAPP) remains underdeveloped. Poverty and other
18 development challenges in the region limit the size of the electricity market, thus inflating prices.
Compounding this challenge, weak governance arrangements result in insufficient competition in
20 the sector, leading to underinvestment and ultimately thwarting any intra-regional power-pooling
ambitions. International partner-facilitated bilateral inter-connections can pave the way to
22 regional power pooling.

Expansion of investments in off-grid and interconnected clean-energy

2 **mini-grids**

In moderately populated areas, where both grid extension and deployment of a relatively
4 large number of stand-alone electricity-generation systems would be prohibitively expensive,
off-grid mini-grids are the most economical electrification option in most cases (12). In light of
6 strained public-sector budgets, scaled-up deployment of off-grid mini-grids depends on
expanded and sustained private-sector investment. Two approaches to mobilising private-sector
8 finance can bolster off-grid mini-grid deployment rates.

So-called third generation mini-grids, which combine photovoltaic solar panels and
10 batteries with a back-up diesel oil-powered electricity generator, require less than two-weeks
scheduled maintenance per year. Such high level of reliability makes it possible to incentivize
12 off-grid mini-grid deployment through performance-based subsidies (13). For example, with
World-Bank backing, Nigeria's rural electrification agency pays off-grid mini-grid developers
14 USD 350 per connection, provided that the customer has had a steady supply of power for at
least three months. Similarly, the reliability of third-generation mini-grids allows developers to
16 offer customers a contract that includes, in addition to the electricity connection, the option to
purchase income-generating appliances, such as machines for welding, milling and rice hulling,
18 thus increasing deployment rates (13).

Interconnected mini-grids can generate and distribute electricity to customers that are not
20 connected to main grid, while selling excess power to the main grid, as found in Nigeria, or they
can choose to sell to the main grid all the electricity generated, as do some mini-grids in
22 Tanzania. Electricity consumers benefit from interconnected mini-grids through increased

reliability of supply and, in most instances, lower prices (14). Interconnected mini-grid
2 development is hampered by both regulation, which is unclear at best, and in some cases acts as
a deterrent to interconnections, and technical standards, which may differ between mini-grids
4 and the main grid. Overcoming the barriers to interconnected mini-grid development requires
conducive policy and regulatory frameworks that clarify licensing procedures, and tariff
6 regulations, establishing tariff levels for the various interconnection options.

Moving forward

8 Implementing our recommendations requires careful consideration of the policy options
that may be most appropriate in each situation. Because power, agency and politics impact on
10 the decisions made concerning policy targets and instruments, the policy strategies chosen to
make such decisions are of paramount importance (15). These strategies ought to establish the
12 objectives, time-horizons and societal goals – related, notably, to employment, environmental
quality and equity – that should guide efforts to modernize Africa’s electricity sector. Crucially,
14 these strategies ought to be immune to two sets of policy drivers that, in a developmental
context, are especially powerful. First, prevailing national-level incumbency issues and
16 information asymmetries. Second, unduly rigid priorities and procedures on the part of
international partners. We contend that, under the aegis of the newly launched African Single
18 Electricity Market, and capitalizing on United Nations-sponsored high-level policy consultations,
the Sustainable Energy for All initiative has a pivotal role to play in facilitating the development
20 of these policy strategies.

Table 1: A suite of actions to expand and modernize Africa’s electricity sector

Action	Key actor(s)	Key implementation mechanisms	Barriers to implementation	Trade-offs
Introduction of supply-side incentives and demand-side subsidies	International partners, national governments, investors and utilities	Continent-wide risk-guarantee scheme coupled with targeted demand-side subsidies	Insufficient coordination, limited experience, and lack of regulatory mechanisms	Difficulties associated with phasing out demand-side subsidies
Digitalization of energy-sector planning and management tools	National governments	National digitalization plan, underpinned by economy-wide data-sharing mechanisms	Limited experience and insufficient funding	Cyber-security threats and associated risks of economic disruption
Integration of local-content requirements into renewable-energy policies	National governments and local entrepreneurs	Local-content requirements embedded in financial incentives for renewable energy, and initial protection of local start-ups	Poorly developed policies, limited experience and corruption	Difficulties associated with phasing out the requirements (when local capacity has improved)
Strengthening and expansion of regional power pools through African-led international partners-supported partnerships	National governments and international partners	Regional agreements, backed with multilateral lending and logistical partnerships	Ineffective coordination and insufficient national partnerships	Uncertainty about surplus capacity
Expansion of investments in off-grid and interconnected clean-energy mini-grids	National and sub-national governments, and international partners	National-government facilitation of multilateral subsidies for off-grid mini-grids and policy and regulatory reforms to promote interconnected mini-grids	Limited awareness and experience among both African governments and international partners	Crowding-out of funding for rural electrification projects

Figure 1: Key implementation-related aspects, by recommended action



Source: Authors' own assessment

Note: Table S1 (Supplementary Materials) lists the countries included in each of the six regions shown in the figure

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Competing interests

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability

All data are available in the main text.



Supplementary Materials for

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Table S1

Table S1

Country composition of the regions listed in Figure 1

Region	Countries
Northern Africa	Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco and Tunisia
West Africa	Benin, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Côte d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo
East Africa	Burundi, Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Seychelles, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda
Central Africa	Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea and Gabon
Southern Africa	Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, São Tomé and Príncipe, Zambia, Zimbabwe, eSwatini
South Africa	South Africa

The regional breakdown presented above is that used by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. The designations employed do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the authors concerning the legal status of any country, territory or area, or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its boundaries.