

Techno-Economic and Environmental Analysis of Power Generation Expansion Plan of Ghana

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Highlights

- LEAP demand projection for Ghana from 2010 to 2014.
- Develop scenarios using an adaptation of Schwartz's scenario approach.
- Develop LEAP model for generation scenario.
- Each scenario represents possible generation expansion strategy.
- High renewable energy systems penetration results in net economic and environmental benefits.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Ghana faces serious energy related challenges as the country struggles to meet generation
3 requirement. The electricity supply system of the country is characterised by power outages
4 which has serious implications on the quality of life as well as industrial development. Stable
5 electrical energy is important with the recent development of the country's oil and gas
6 industry which has the potential of attracting investors to the expected oil and gas driven
7 economy in the near future, since reliable and affordable electricity generation system is an
8 indispensable commodity in the technological development of any country. Even though the
9 country is unable to meet the current demand, the future demand is projected to be increasing
10 at 10% per annum (Abledu, 2013). This does make the development of a realistic generation
11 expansion plan very essential if the country is to achieve its medium to long term
12 development goals. Inadequate appropriate expansion has resulted in the current situation
13 where the generation capacities can only meet about 65% of the current demand (March
14 2014) (Energy Commission, 2015)

15 The conventional grid generation in Ghana is by Hydro, with the Akosombo Hydro
16 dam providing almost all the grid power when it was commissioned in 1966 (Aryeetey,
17 2005). The Akosombo generating plant was originally constructed with a total installed
18 capacity of 588 MW. The capacity was increased to 912 MW in 1972 with an addition of two
19 generating units to the original four. (Aryeetey, 2005). The construction of the Akosombo
20 hydro plant was tied to the Volta Aluminium Company (VALCO). The idea was to develop
21 the huge bauxite reserves in the country to make use of the energy from the Akosombo dam
22 (VALCO, 2016). The smelter was subsequently constructed consisting of five portlines
23 capable of producing 200 000 MT of primary aluminium annually. The company today which
24 is now 100% owned by the Government of Ghana operates about 20% its rated capacity as a
25 result of insufficient supply of power (Energy Commission, 2015). An additional hydro dam,
26 the Kpong dam, was constructed near Akuse, 24 km downstream of Akosombo dam. The
27 Kpong hydroelectric plant was commissioned in 1982 with an installed capacity of 160 MW
28 (Aryeetey, 2005). Thermal power generation was introduced to supplement the conventional
29 Hydroelectricity after a drought in 1983 underscored the need to diversify the country's
30 generation system. The introduction of Thermal power generation into the generation mix of
31 the country occurred in 1997 with the construction of a combined cycle power plant with an
32 installed capacity of 330 MW at Aboadze near Sekondi-Takoradi. The Takoradi Thermal
33 Power Station (TAPCO), as it is officially called, was eventually expanded to 550 MW with

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34 the addition of 2x110 MW combustion turbine plants in 2000. This marked the beginning of a
35 gradual shift to thermal generation in the country. The installed capacity as at March 2014
36 was 2851MW which is made up of 1580 MW (55.4%) from the three hydro dams, 1248 MW
37 (43.77%) from Thermal plants and only 2.5 MW (0.09%) from photovoltaic plant (Energy
38 Commission, 2015). All the plants are operated by Volta River Authority (VRA) except Bui,
39 which is operated by Bui Power Authority (BPA). VRA and BPA are both government
40 agencies. Sunon-Asogli, and CENIT are private entities which contribute about 11.61% of
41 the installed capacity (Energy Commission, 2015).

42 There is a growing interest in power generation systems worldwide because of the
43 growing demand of power and the environmental implications of these power systems. The
44 adverse environmental and societal impacts and fluctuation in the prices of fossil fuels in the
45 world market has necessitated the exploitation of sustainable power generation technologies.
46 Ghana is endowed with a number of renewable energy resources which can be exploited to
47 help meet the energy needs of the country. There an excellent solar radiation all year round,
48 and in every part of the country, with an average radiation of 5.5kWh/m². Sites suitable for
49 medium and small hydro power plants have also been identified in various part of the country
50 with a potential of adding over 900 MW to the national grid if fully exploited. Sites near the
51 coastal parts of the country have also been identified with excellent conditions for wind
52 thermal generation (Gyamfi, et al., 2015).

53 The scenario approach was adopted to examine the possible pathways that future
54 generation system in Ghana could evolve. Scenario approach is a key techniques applied by
55 futurists in various disciplines to develop strategic plans and policies. Several definitions of
56 scenario exist in literature, however the definition of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
57 Change (IPCC) summarises the concept of scenario analysis as applied to the natural sciences
58 (IPCC, 2013): "*A scenario is a coherent, internally consistent and plausible description of a
59 possible future state of the world. It is not a forecast; rather, each scenario is one alternative
60 image of how the future can unfold*". It is deduced from this definition that scenarios are not
61 predictions, and hence do not forecast, but rather present alternatives of possible outcomes.
62 The term scenario as it is applied in strategic planning was pioneered by Herman Khan and
63 was originally applied in military studies in the 1950s (William, 1988). The concept has since
64 been applied in an increasing number of disciplines: Kahn and Wiener developed scenarios to
65 explore the consequences of nuclear proliferation at the heart of the cold war (Kahn &
66 Wiener, 1967) , while Brewer applied the concept to explore policies for Europe forestry

67 sector (Brewer, 1986). The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has applied
68 this methodology by developing emission scenarios in its assessment reports (IPCC, 2016) .
69 The application of scenarios for the energy studies are inspired by the work of Lovins who
70 developed scenarios for Soft Energy Paths (SEP) (Swart, et al., 2004). Most recent energy
71 scenarios with continental focus include Energy Technology Perspectives (IEA, 2014),
72 International Energy Outlook (EIA, 2014), Greenpeace’s Energy Revolution (Teske, et al.,
73 2015) and World Energy Outlook (OECD/IEA, 2013) . At the national level, scenarios were
74 employed for assessing alternative energy pathways in California (Ghanadan & Koomey,
75 2005), Venezuela (Bautista, 2012), Korea (Park, et al., 2013), Panama (McPherson &
76 Karney, 2014) and most recently, for environmental assessment of energy production from
77 landfill gas plants in Tehran (Nojedehi, et al., 2016).

78 In Ghana, scenarios approach was applied to develop the strategic national energy
79 plan from 2006 to 2020 (Energy Commission, 2006). This study examines three pathways:
80 option1 is an expansion plan based on thermal and 10% Non-conventional Renewable Energy
81 Technologies (NRET)¹ by 2020; option 2 based on thermal, Bui hydro and 10% NRET and
82 option 3 is thermal, nuclear and 10% NRET. The current study presented in this paper made
83 use of option 2 which represents the current official expansion plan as the base case scenario
84 and explores the performance of generation system with higher levels of NRET. The aim of
85 the analysis is to provide a framework that could lead to discussion for the development of
86 renewable energy technologies in Ghana. Nonetheless, these scenarios can never be an
87 exhaustion of all possible pathways. However, the findings in this paper will provide a useful
88 platform for discussions with stakeholders and energy policy planners.

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91 **2. Methodology**

92 **2.1. Scenario Framework**

93 Due to the diverse nature of the application of this technique, various methodologies have
94 been developed to guide scenario development. The scenarios in this paper were developed to
95 explore possible developments in the supply side of the generation system of Ghana using an
96 adaptation of the Schwartz’s scenario planning methodology (Schwartz, 1991). Schwartz’s
97 scenario methodology is one of the most comprehensive methods of scenario building and
98 has been applied widely in literature for scenario planning. An adaptation of Schwartz’s

59 ¹ NRET does not include large hydro generation

99 approach was used in developing scenarios to explore energy pathways in California
100 (Ghanadan & Koomey, 2005). A framework developed to support environmental decision
101 making was also based on this methodology (Mahmoud , et al., 2009). Schwartz’s approach
102 was also employed for analysing alternative generation pathways for the Panama’s electricity
103 sector Figure 1 shows the framework used in the development of the scenarios in this paper
104 (McPherson & Karney, 2014).

Figure 1 Framework for Scenario development
(Schwartz, 1991)

Step 1: Identifying focal issue: the construction of scenarios begins with identification of
the main topic or idea and building outward. The focal point of this paper was to explore the
suitability of high integration of Renewable Energy Technologies (RET) in Ghana.

Step 2: identification of key variables: the second stage involves listing the key variables
influencing the outcome of the decision as well as the social, economic, political,
environmental and technological forces that influence the key factors. Examples of key
variables that influence the generation sector of Ghana includes energy security and
reliability, types of RET technologies, RET potential, cost of fuel, technical capacity, Cost of
technologies as well as economic and population growth rates.

Step3: Evaluating key variables: the next stage involves ranking of key variables making
use of two criteria: degree of importance and degree of uncertainty. The idea is to identify
two or three of the most important and uncertain variables from the ranking. Figure 2 presents
the ranking of the key variables influencing the generation system of Ghana.

Figure 2 Evaluating driving forces in generation system of Ghana (Ghanadan & Koomey, 2005)

Step 4: Developing scenarios logic: The scenario logic is then developed based on the
ranking exercise. The key is to end up with few policy scenarios with clear policy direction to
assist decision makers. The scenarios are developed to revolve around the key variables and
enriched by adding details making use of the other key factors. This is done by making use of
each key structure or trend of the ranking.

The most uncertainty and important driving forces highlighted in Figure 2 form the
basis for the development of the four scenarios analysed in this paper:

131 The Base Case scenario which assumes the current generation capacity addition in Ghana and
132 shows increased expansion in thermal power generation which operates largely on natural gas
133 (NG) and crude oil will continue into the future. The capacity addition of NRET were based
134 on the national strategic plan (Energy Commission, 2006) and the most recent modification
135 of the country's renewable penetration target presented as part of the country's Intended
136 Nationally Determined Contribution (GH-INDC) presented to the United Nations Framework
137 Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) during COP21 in Paris in December 2015, as
138 well as the committed systems that are either currently under construction, or have been
139 granted permits by Energy Commission of Ghana (Energy Commission, 2015). Existing
140 thermal plants will continue to operate on both natural gas and crude oil with the aim to
141 switch fully into natural gas by 2030 to conform to the existing national strategy. New
142 thermal generation plants will be fuelled by natural gas.

143 Coal scenario is similar to the base case except with the introduction of coal plants to
144 take share of new natural gas thermal plants. This scenario assumes the introduction of coal
145 plants to meet 10% of new thermal plants that are to be constructed from 2016 onwards.

146 Modest RET scenario focuses on the promotion of renewable energy technologies
147 which have significant potential. Thus PV, Wind, small Hydro, wave, biomass and MSW are
148 integrated in moderate amounts with the aim of increasing the renewable capacity² to about
149 20% by year 2030.

150 High RET Scenario explores the full potential of RET. Thus emphasis is placed at
151 deploying renewable energy technologies based on confirmed domestic potential. This
152 scenario assumes shifting of policy towards the development of low emission technologies
153 with reduction in fossil fuel generation.

154 **Step 5: Analyses of the scenarios:** the final stage of the scenarios methodology used in this
155 paper involves an analysis of the various scenarios in order to elaborate future generation
156 development proposed by the various scenarios and their consequences. This involves the
157 translation of the qualitative narration of the scenarios into quantity data and assessed using
158 the Long-range Energy Alternative Planning (LEAP) energy planning tool. The Long-range
159 Energy Alternatives Planning (LEAP) system developed by Stockholm Environmental
160 Institute (SEI) is a widely used energy modelling tool for energy policy analysis and
161 Greenhouse gases (GHG) emission mitigation studies, and is widely used especially in
162 developing countries. Applications of LEAP for scenario analysis includes long term forecast

² Renewable energy in this case does not include Large hydro generation

163 of Taiwan's energy system (Huang, et al., 2011), analysis of alternative scenarios and their
164 implications on the electricity sector of Lebanon (Dagher & Ruble, 2011), as well as that of
165 Greece (Roinioti, et al., 2012) and for Cambodia and Laos (Luukkanen, et al., 2015). The
166 model has also been applied for environmental and cost assessment of power scenarios in
167 Nigeria (Gujba, et al., 2011). In Ghana LEAP was adopted for developing energy and
168 emission scenarios as basis for the country INDC commitment (Republic of Ghana, 2015). A
169 detail description of the LEAP methodology is available in Heaps (Heaps, 2012).

2.2 Development of Ghana LEAP demand Model

171 The Bottom-Up demand model approach in LEAP was adopted for modelling the
172 future energy demand in this thesis. Bottom-Up or End Use approach provides a detailed
173 engineering based modelling account for sectors as well as end users and energy consuming
174 devices and is the most suitable method when assessing long term transitions (Heaps, 2012).
175 The key factor in the development of future energy system is the projection of demand, which
176 in turn depends on the demographic and macroeconomic indicators of the study area. A
177 reliable energy system should be able to meet the demand requirement. The population of
178 Ghana in 2010 was 24 658 845 million people which was projected to be increasing at a
179 growth rate of 2.4% (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013). The electricity consumption pattern in
180 Ghana varies significantly between urban and rural areas. In 2010, 83.8% of the urban
181 households had access to electricity compared to only 39.5% of rural households. With the
182 current average population growth rate of 55.8% in 2010, which is expected to increase to
183 about 60% by 2040 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013), the energy demand for domestic
184 consumption is expected to increase significantly by 2040.

185 The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) average growth rate from 2005 to 2009 was about
186 6% rising to a peak of 14% in 2011 as a result of the production of crude oil in commercial
187 quantities in Ghana, which began in late 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2016). The GDP
188 growth rate of 8% was adopted for base case load projection from 2010 to 2020, increasing to
189 12% from 2020 to 2040 when the power supply is expected to improve. The energy intensity
190 data used for the model was developed from energy consumption survey conducted by the
191 Energy Commission of Ghana in 2010 (Energy Commission, 2015).

192 The LEAP model was designed with 2010 as the base year, to analyse the possible
193 developmental structure of the generation system of Ghana up to 2040. The choice the base
194 year was due to availability of data: the national census conducted by the Ghana Statistical
195 Service (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013) and a national energy survey by the Energy

196 Commission (Energy Commission, 2015) were conducted in 2010, providing reliable data for
197 model. The selection of 2010 also provided opportunity to validate the results with real data
198 for the past years (2010 to 2014).

199 The results of the energy demand projection from 2010 to 2040 using LEAP energy
200 demand model is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Electricity demand forecast

203 The results show that demand projection will increase into the future with an average demand
204 growth rate of 9%, 8% and 8% within the periods of 2010 to 2020, 2020 to 2030 and 2030 to
205 2040 respectively. These growth rates follow the historical demand growth of the country,
206 and are consistent with official load projections (GRIDCO, 2011). Figure 3 further shows that
207 the total energy requirement of Ghana by 2020 will be 18.88GWh increasing to 62.5 GWh at
208 the end of the study period. This means that the current installed capacity of 2.19 GW will
209 have to be expanded to 5.0 GW and 16 GW in 2020 and 2040 respectively, if the country is
210 to be able to meet its future electricity requirement. This therefore requires the exploration of
211 all energy sources available in the country and long term energy development and expansion
212 plan if the country is to benefit from its expanding economy due to its recent oil and gas
213 production.

214 It is important to note that the actual demand may be higher than the projection in this
215 study. This is because the projections are based on historical demand and GDP values which
216 themselves may not reflect the actual demand. The insufficient generation and low
217 electrification rate especially in rural areas lead to suppressed demand. Thus the historical
218 trends alone may not fully capture the real demand which is best captured by back casting
219 (Bazilian, et al., 2012). This is confirmed by the trend in historical demand data of Ghana
220 (Energy Commission, 2015), which shows a negative demand growth during the energy
221 crises in 2007. This clearly shows that the official demand projection is closely related to
222 generating capacity. The focus of the paper is to explore possible pathways for sustainable
223 power generation in Ghana and to undertake an environmental and economic analysis of the
224 various scenarios. As a result, this demand will be used for all the scenarios.

225 The technology cost data was adopted from IEA (IEA, 2014), NREL (NREL, 2012)
226 and GRIDCO (GRIDCO, 2011). The future year investment cost of the conventional energy
227 systems in Ghana (large Hydropower and thermal power) were assumed to be constant
228 throughout the study period while that of renewable systems were assumed to decrease

229 according to projections presented in IEA (2014). Table 1 shows the investment, fixed
230 operational and maintenance (O&M) and variable O&M values considered in the LEAP
231 model for the various times intervals considered in the study. Fixed operation and
232 Maintenance (O&M) is the part of the maintenance cost of a plant which does not depend on
233 the operation of the plant. Components of fixed O&M includes property tax and insurance,
234 planned and unplanned maintenance, administration, operation staff as well as re-investments
235 within the scheduled lifetime of the plant. Variable O&M generally refers to consumption of
236 auxiliary material such as fuel additives, lubricants and lubricants, and treatment and disposal
237 of waste. Renewable energy systems such as wind and PV have very low variable O&M
238 which was considered to be zero in this paper

Table 1 Cost data considered in LEAP

242 The operation and maintenance cost were calculated using the percentage rates from National
243 Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) cost and performance data for power generation
244 technologies rates (NREL, 2012).

245 The prices of fossil fuel resource are particularly very difficult to predict because of
246 its high price fluctuations in the world market. However, the bench mark fuel price
247 projections in IEA annual energy outlook 2015 (IEA, 2015) were considered as the most
248 reliable assumptions and hence adopted for this paper. These prices are the average spot price
249 in the United States and hence did not include local port as well as transportation charges.
250 Even though Ghana started producing oil and gas in commercial quantities in 2010, the prices
251 in the local market are determined by the international prices and are adjusted in line with
252 fluctuations in the international market.

253 To model the feedstock fuel of the thermal plants considered in the Ghana LEAP
254 model, the actual crude oil and natural gas prices made available for power generation in
255 Ghana were used for the reference years, that is, from 2010 to 2015. For the future years, the
256 price projections in (IEA, 2015) were adopted. Transportation and taxes were calculated
257 using 20% and 90% for crude oil and natural gas respectively to reflect the current price
258 trend. Table 2 shows the fuel prices used in the LEAP model.

Table 2 Fuel prices used in the model

262 Ghana has no known coal reserves. The model therefor assumed that all coal will be
1 263 imported. The coal price projections were therefore based on the projections, while
2 264 transportation, taxes and processing charges were assumed to be 60%.

265 **2.3 Modelling the Generation System**

266 The dependent installed capacity of Ghana in 2010 was 1865 MW consisting of two
3 267 large hydro dams with capacity of 1040 MW with the remaining contribution from six
4 268 thermal power plants. To model the generation system of Ghana in LEAP, the various
5 269 generating plants were aggregated. This means that single hydro and thermal plants were
6 270 modelled to represent the system.

271 The operational characteristics of the plants used in modelling the generation system
7 272 from 2010 to 2014 are presented in Table 3.

273
274 Table 3 Operational characteristics of generation plans in Ghana

275
276 The data in Table 3 was developed from actual plant operational data obtained from energy
277 outlook of Ghana from 2011 to 2015 (Energy Commission, 2015). All the plants were
278 modelled as combined cycle plants because plans are far advanced to convert all the
279 remaining simple cycle plants into combine cycle (Energy Commission, 2006).

280 Most of the thermal plants in Ghana are designed to operate on LCO and natural gas.
281 Natural gas is the preferred fuel when available because of its relative low cost and minimal
282 environmental impact. However, because of insufficient supply, LCO continue to contribute
283 almost half of the feed stock fuel (Energy Commission, 2015). The feedstock ratio of 55%
284 NG and 45% LCO was assumed for 2010 to 2014. Beyond 2014, the ratio was interpolated to
285 80% and 20% for natural gas and LCO by 2020 respectively, and eventually to 100% natural
286 gas by 2030. This is in line with the proposals to operate the thermal plants fully on natural
287 gas described in the Strategic National Energy Plan (SNEP) of Ghana (Energy Commission,
288 2006).

289 **Results and Discussion**

290 **3.1 Technical**

291 The generation outlook of Ghana under various policy directions described in the scenarios is
292 presented in Figure 4. It is observed from Figure 4 /that the installed capacity of Ghana will
293 need to be expanded to at least 16 GW in order to meet demand and the specified reserved
294 margin.

295

296

Figure 4 Installed capacities of scenarios

297

298 Higher installed capacities will be required for the RET scenarios. This is due to the relatively
299 low capacity credit of renewables considered in higher capacities in RET scenarios and
300 conforms to the finding of McPherson & Karney (2014) which suggest that higher capacities
301 of RET need to be constructed to be able to meet the same demand as that of the thermal
302 plants. The higher RET deployment will ensure higher diversity of the generation mix with a
303 reduction of the thermal share of generation. This will result in 57% and 38% renewable
304 share for high and modest RET scenarios respectively compared to only 18% for the base
305 case.

306 **3.2 Cost**

307 The economic results of the scenarios expressed in 2010 US dollars, are presented in Table 4.
308 O&M cost includes both fixed O&M and variable O&M. Environmental Externalities (Env.
309 Ext.) costs were also captured to enable a quantification of the environmental effect of the
310 scenario. The generation of power from fossil fuel leads to emission of Greenhouse gases
311 (GHG) which has an adverse effect on society. The cost of these negative consequences
312 therefore needs to be considered when appraising generation technologies. Currently, Ghana
313 does not have a carbon tax mechanism in place; however, the study assumes an introduction
314 of \$10 /tonne carbon tax in 2020 rising up to \$20 /tonne in 2030. The aim of this current
315 study is not to achieve a level of carbon pricing that will overcome externalities associated
316 with power production in Ghana but rather highlight the effect of the introduction of carbon
317 tax on the various scenarios. Revenue from the sale of electricity was not capture in this
318 analysis. This is because the same demand was applied to all the scenarios and the scenarios
319 were modelled to meet this demand as well as the specified reserved margin. Thus the cost
320 benefit summary in Table 4 expresses only the avoided transformation cost³, fuel purchase
321 and environmental externalities cost compared to the base case scenario. These results may
322 therefore not indicate the exact cost values for the scenarios; however, they provide useful
323 benchmark for comparing their economic performance.

324

³ Transformation cost = capital + O&M cost

325 Table 4 Cumulative discounted cost benefits 2010 to 2040 relative top base case scenario⁴

326
327 It is observed from Table 4 that the capital and O&M costs of the alternate scenarios
328 are higher than the base case scenario. At the reference discount rate (10%), an extra \$787
329 million and \$2408 million in capital investment will be required to implement the modest
330 RET scenario and the high RET scenarios respectively over the 30 year study plan
331 considered. These results were not surprising considering the higher investment cost of
332 technologies considered in the alternative scenarios. However, it was observed that the total
333 Net Present Value (NPV) of the cost of the RET scenarios were lower than both the base case
334 and coal scenarios. This is due to the significant savings in cost of fuel that occur in the two
335 RET scenarios. These results show that the current generation system plan of Ghana (Base
336 case scenario) is the obvious choice when consideration is given to only investment cost.
337 However, the long term savings in fuel cost by the alternative scenarios over the study period
338 of 2010 to 2040 increasingly makes the higher integration of RET into the generation plan a
339 viable alternative. The trend in cumulated discounted cost/benefits of the scenarios over the
340 study period is illustrated in Figure 5.

341
342 Figure 5 Cumulated discounted cost benefits of scenarios (Discounted Rate =10%)

343
344 The results in Figure 5 shows that economic benefits due to savings in fuel cost could be
345 achieved within short term with modest introduction of renewables. However, high RET
346 scenario will begin to yield economic benefits beyond 2033. This means that based on the
347 assumptions and constrains used in developing the scenarios, RET can be deployed into the
348 Ghana generation mix on their own merit when consideration is given to their long term
349 benefits.

350 Table 4 further compares the NPV of the alternative scenarios under discount rates of
351 5% and 15%. An immediate observation of the trend in NPV seems to suggest that the choice
352 of discount rate does not significantly affect the choice of the alternative scenario compared
353 to the base case as a similar trend was observed. However an analysis in terms of the
354 cumulative NPV compared to the base case clearly shows that the lower the discount rate, the
355 higher the present value of the future cash flows. It is observe from Table 4 that lower
356 discount rate favour the RET scenarios which are dominated with high capital intensive

359 ⁴ Positive values represent extra cost while negative benefits, compared to base case scenario.

357 technologies. A key policy priority should therefore be geared towards the provision of
358 guarantee long term finance to promote the high integration of RET.

359 The cost of fossil fuel was considered as the most important parameter that influences
360 the cost of generation of the thermal plants, while that of RET is largely dependent on
361 investment cost. These two parameters also have high variability in price: while the cost of
362 RET especially wind and solar have seen a downward trend in capital cost; that of fossil fuel
363 price is generally unstable. To this end, sensitivities on the capital cost of RET and cost of
364 fossil fuel were undertaken to determine the effect of variation of these parameters on the
365 economic performance of the scenarios.

366 Table 5 presents the NPV of the scenarios under the various fossil fuels and RET
367 investment cost sensitivities. The top part of the table shows the cumulative NPV in 2010
368 billion US dollars, while the bottom part compares the NPV of the alternative scenarios to the
369 base case.

370 Table 5 Economic performance with fuel and RET investment cost sensitivities⁵

371
372 It can be seen from Table 5 that the alternative scenarios are less expensive compared to the
373 base case over the study period. This is mainly due to the higher fuel savings in the
374 alternative scenario with increase in fuel cost. This trend is similar to the trend in Table 4 and
375 seems to suggest that variation in fuel and RET investment cost does not significantly affect
376 the comparative performance of the scenarios. However, a closer look at the percentage
377 change of NPV compared to the base case shows a better understanding of the variation.
378 Modest RET scenario's will be 3.69% to 4.77% less expensive, while that of high RET will
379 be 9.59% to 13.23%, compared to the base case. It was however surprising to note that RET
380 scenarios resulted in higher benefits with higher fuel prices. This was evidenced with the
381 highest savings for the alternative scenarios occurring with HF + LR sensitivity. It can thus
382 be suggested that the inclusion of modest to high RET into the generation mix of Ghana will
383 not only help to diversify the generation system but will also lead to economic benefits of
384 between 0.5% to 13.23% depending on the development of fuel and RET investment cost.
385 This finding has important implications for developing of RET by showing that based on the
386 current economic trends, technologies and energy resources in Ghana, higher penetration of
387 RET is competitive on its own merit to conventional expansion when considered over a 30
388 year period.

⁵ key: LF = Low fuel cost; HF = high fuel cost; HR = high RET investment cost; LR = low RET investment cost

389 3.3 Environment

1 390 The Forth Assessment Report (AR4) 100 year GWP factors were adopted for this
2
3 391 study. This is in line with IPCC's 2013 conference of parties(COP 19) guidelines which
4
5 392 recommends that as of 2015, national communications should use the AR4 factors to ensure
6
7 393 uniformity in reporting (UNFCCC, 2014). The cumulative one hundred year direct GWP at
8
9 394 point of emissions of the scenarios compared to base case scenario is shown in Figure 6.
10
11 395 The environmental effect of the introduction of coal on the environment is evidenced by the
12
13 396 higher emission of the coal scenario compared to the cleaner NG generation in the base case.
14
15 397 The only difference between the coal and base case scenarios is the endogenous addition of
16
17 398 coal plants to take up a maximum of 20% of new natural gas plants share. The introduction of
18
19 399 coal plants has resulted in a cumulative emission of about 30 million metric tonne CO₂eq
20
21 400 compared to base case (Figure 6).

22 401 Figure 6 Cumulative GHG emissions compared to base case scenario

23 402
24
25 403 There is currently no enforcement of CO₂ emissions limitation on power generation plants in
26
27 404 Ghana. This is because of the comparatively lower emission levels in the country because of
28
29 405 the relatively low emission factors. This has informed the continuous expansion of thermal
30
31 406 plants as represented in the base case scenario. Coal which has presently topped the list of
32
33 407 possible candidate plants, will lead to higher emission levels in the country. The contribution
34
35 408 of coal generation plants to global GHG emissions is further highlighted in the International
36
37 409 Energy Agency (IEA) world energy report (IEA, 2011). According to the IEA, even though
38
39 410 coal share of world generation in 2009 was 41%, it accounted for 73% of the world 11.8 Giga
40
41 411 tonne of CO₂ emissions for that year (IEA, 2011). Aside the major GHG, coal ash which is
42
43 412 solid waste produced after combustion, contains a number of toxins including arsenic,
44
45 413 cadmium, selenium. The adoption of the coal scenario will therefore be at the expense to the
46
47 414 environment. It is important for the country to consider the introduction of emission standards
48
49 415 with the liberalisation of the energy sector to encourage independent power producers to not
50
51 416 only invest in renewable energy but to continue to explore more efficient thermal generation
52
53 417 such as combine cycle gas plants

54 418 Figure 6 further confirms the general idea of the contribution of renewable energy
55
56 419 technologies in the reduction of CO₂ emissions. The results shows that if the country could
57
58 420 afford to follow the generation expansion plan proposed in the high RET scenario, about 90
59
60 421 million metric tonne CO₂eq will be avoided over the study period, a reduction of about 40%

422 to the base case plan. It is however essential to further analyse the environmental effect of
423 high introduction of biomass generation which was considered in higher capacities in the
424 RET scenarios. This is because biomass generation lead to higher emission of photochemical
425 oxidation (POCP) and Eutrophication (EP) (Gujba, et al., 2011) as well a source of
426 particulate matter (PM1, PM2,5, PM10) and heavy metals (Paiano & Lagioia, 2016). Over
427 exploitation of forest a reserve leading to deforestation is also possible with biomass
428 generation. These negative implications were not considered in this study. There will
429 therefore be the need to further assess this renewable energy source if the scenarios proposed
430 in this study are to be adopted for implementation. However, Paiano & Lagioia (2016)
431 suggested that innovation in bioenergy conversions could control these emmissions, while the
432 cultivation of dedicated energy crops for power generation may help to solve the problem of
433 deforestation (Zafeiriou, et al., 2016).

434 The environmental results in LEAP can also be expressed in terms of cost of avoided
435 CO₂ emission. Cost of CO₂ avoided is the cost of reducing CO₂ emission to the atmosphere
436 expressed as \$/tonne of CO₂ not emitted with respect to the base case scenario. The decision
437 criterion is to identify the least cost alternative in reducing a tonne of CO₂. The results of the
438 cost of CO₂ avoided under different discount rates are shown in Table 6.

439
440 Table 6 Cost of avoided CO₂ emissions (US \$/tonne of CO₂eq)

441
442 It is interesting to note that even though the GHG savings is higher in the high RET scenario,
443 the modest RET scenario results in net higher benefits at 5% and 10% discount rates. It
444 should be noted that cost of avoided CO₂ is not applicable to the coal scenario since it
445 resulted in higher emission compared to the base case. These results show that Ghana could
446 secure funding through Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) under the Kyoto protocol if
447 the country makes maximum use of its abundant renewable energy potential. CDM allows
448 developing countries to sell carbon credits to developing countries with mandatory
449 greenhouse emission reduction targets.

452 **4. Conclusions and Policy Implications**

453 This study explored a number of policy options that can be adopted to meet the
454 increasing electricity requirements of Ghana based on the available energy resources and
455 technologies. The generation system of the country will need to be expanded more than five

456 times from 2014 to 2040 if the country is to meet the future energy requirement. The country
1 457 therefore faces a number of policy choices in balancing environmental implications and
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3 458 social cost, as well as diversification of the system.
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5 459 The results show that an adaption of the coal scenario which is one of the official
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7 460 generation options, will lead to cumulative incremental cost benefits compared to the base
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9 461 case scenario as a result of fuel cost savings over the study period. However, this will be at
10
11 462 the expense of environmental implications, as the coal scenario will lead to overall higher
12
13 463 100 year global warming potential. RET scenarios offer favourable options if the appropriate
14
15 464 choice is based on environmental and net incremental cost. The significant increase in capital
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17 465 cost is the main hindrance for implementing the RET scenarios. However, the results show
18
19 466 that significant savings in fuel cost over the study period will be sufficient to offset the capital
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21 467 investment resulting in net benefits. A long term perspective is thus critical and suggest that
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23 468 RET deployment can be cost effective on their own merit compared to conventional fossil
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25 469 fuel generation when considered over long term horizon.

26 470 Diversification of the generation mix with renewable energy technologies will reduce
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28 471 the overall fossil fuel generation which is characterised by unreliable feedstock fuel supply as
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30 472 well as price shocks. The results show significant greenhouse emissions savings is achieved
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32 473 in the RET scenarios resulting in net benefits in cost of avoided emissions compared to the
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34 474 base case. These findings suggest that if the country could afford to develop its generation
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36 475 system with high deployment of RET, additional benefits in the form of carbon trading under
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38 476 the Kyoto could be achieved. This will have significant implication for further development
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40 477 of renewables with availability of funds which is the main obstacle for the implementation of
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42 478 these technologies.

43 479 The results reveal that overall benefits are achieved with higher integration of RET.
44
45 480 Even though high integration of RET require higher capital investment, significant savings in
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47 481 fuel cost over the study period lead to overall benefits with higher integration of RET.
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49 482 Sensitivities on the development of fuel prices and investment cost of RET revealed that, the
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51 483 integration of modest to high RET into the generation mix will lead to economic benefits of
52
53 484 0.5% to 13.23% depending on the costs development over the 30 year study period. The high
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55 485 RET offers the highest economic and environmental benefits. Policy direction should
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57 486 therefore explore mechanisms which will lead towards higher development of RET
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59 487 technologies.
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488 The main weakness of this study is the key assumptions used in the model. It was not
1 possible to explicitly determine the development of fossil fuel prices into the future
2 489
3 considering historical price fluctuations. Also investment cost of energy technologies are site
4 490
5 specific, thus using average values may not fully represent the cost at a particular location.
6 491
7 The cost results in this study should therefore be interpreted with caution and should
8 492
9 therefore not be considered as the exact cost values for the scenarios. Nonetheless the results
10 493
11 provided a useful benchmark for analysing the possible generation pathways.
12 494

13 495 Further studies need to be carried out to assess the impact of high penetration of
14 496
15 renewable generation technologies on the stability of the grid as well has grid expansion
16 497
17 studies to accommodate the potential generation expansion.
18 498

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Table 1 Cost data considered in LEAP

Technology	Investment		Fixed O&M		Variable O&M	
	Cost (\$/kWh)		(\$/kW-Yr)		(\$/MWh)	
	2010	2040	2010	2040	2010	2040
Large Hydro	1600	1600	7	7	2.72	2.72
Small Hydro	3300	3300	15	15	6	6
Thermal (NG)	1200	1200	6.31	6.31	3.67	3.67
PV	3200	2010	50	37	0	0
Onshore Wind	1620	1620	49	49	0	0
Tidal wave	4000	3420	147	112		
Biomass	3300	3300	83	83	13	13
MSW	7320	6000	278	223	28	23
Coal	2300	2300	23	23	3.71	3.71

Table 2 Fuel prices used in the model

Fuel	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035	2040
Crude oil (\$/bbl)	92	128	130	125	114	60	103	129	163	207	263
NG (\$/MMBtu)		6.56	8.19	8.38	8.49	8.80	10.5	12.8	14.5	18.4	24.2
Coal (\$/MMBtu)	-	-	-	-	-	3.17	3.42	4	4.67	5.46	6.34

Table 3 Operational characteristics of generation plans in Ghana

Plants	Dependable installed capacity(MW)						
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	
Hydro	1040	1040	1040	1420	1420	1420	
Thermal	765	765	875	1130	1130	1376	
PV				2	2	2	
Plants	Average availability (%)						
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	
Hydro	76.78	83	88.6	66.2	67.4	47	
Thermal	46.77	46.77	47.45	46.8	46.8	46.7	
PV				20	20	20	

Table 4 Cumulative discounted cost benefits 2010 to 2040 relative top base case scenario¹

Cost (Million US\$)	5% Discount Rate			10% Discount Rate			15% Discount Rate		
	Coal	Modest RET	High RET	Coal	Modest RET	High RET	Coal	Modest RET	High RET
Transformation	467.46	2120.37	6249.27	180.62	786.89	2407.60	81.63	309.98	1053.59
Fuel	-1815.21	-3757.94	-8238.53	-685.67	-1290.07	-2856.71	-299.37	-497.37	-1115.76
Env. Ext.	120.72	-213.40	-465.84	39.96	-71.97	-157.84	14.76	26.91	59.35
NPV	-1227.03	-1850.98	-2455.09	-465.09	-598.15	-606.96	-202.98	-214.30	-121.52

¹ Positive values represent extra cost while negative benefits, compared to base case scenario.

Table 5 Economic performance with fuel and RET investment cost sensitivities²

	NPV (Billion 2010 US\$)			
	Base	Coal	M. RET	H. RET
LF + LR	15.43	15.24	14.86	13.95
HF + LR	19.50	19.06	18.57	16.92
LF + HR	15.94	15.76	15.86	15.82
HF + HR	20.00	19.56	19.56	18.77
	Percentage change			
LF + LR	0	-1.23	-3.69	-9.59
HF + LR	0	-2.26	-4.77	-13.23
LF + HR	0	-1.13	-0.50	-0.75
HF + HR	0	-2.2	-2.2	-6.12

Table 6 Cost of avoided CO₂ emissions (US \$/tonne of CO₂eq)

	Discount rate (%)		
	5	10	15
Modest	-46.15	-14.91	-5.34
High	-28.06	-6.94	-1.39

² key: LF = Low fuel cost; HF = high fuel cost; HR = high RET investment cost; LR = low RET investment cost

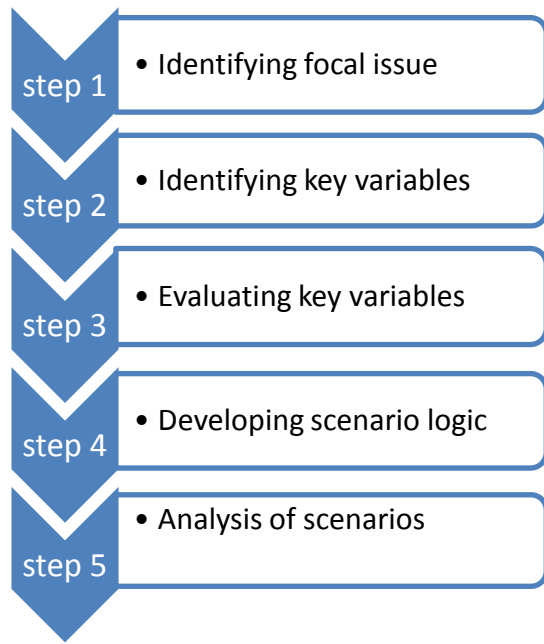


Figure 1 Framework for Scenario development (Schwartz, 1991)

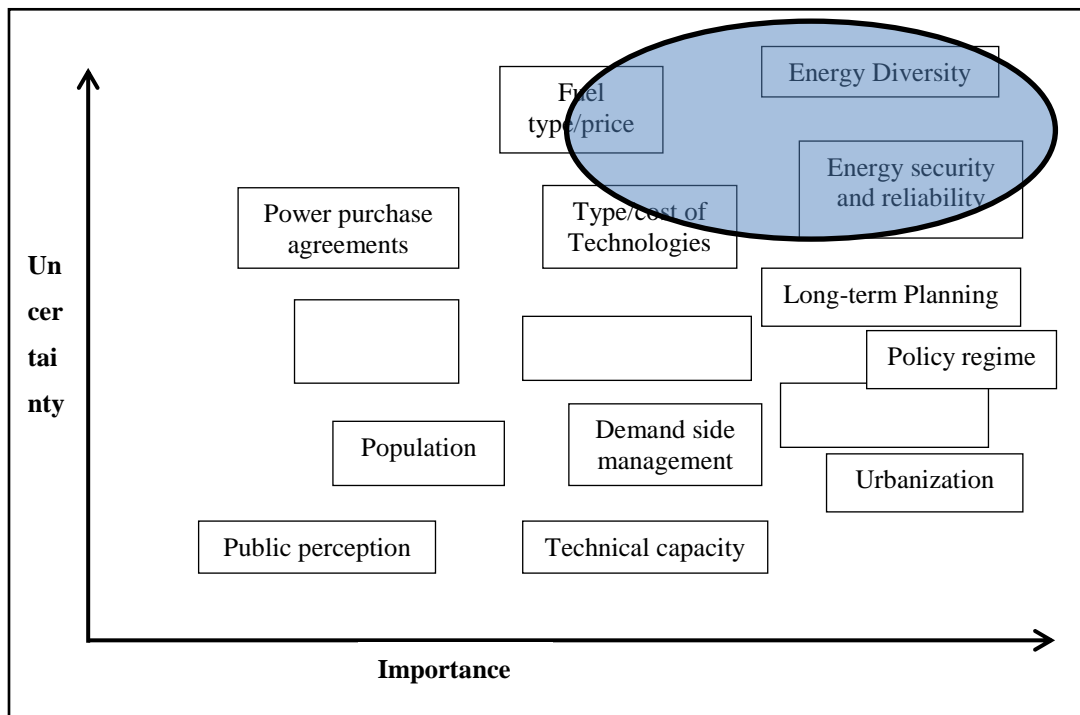


Figure 2 Evaluating driving forces in generation system of Ghana (Ghanadan & Koomey, 2005)

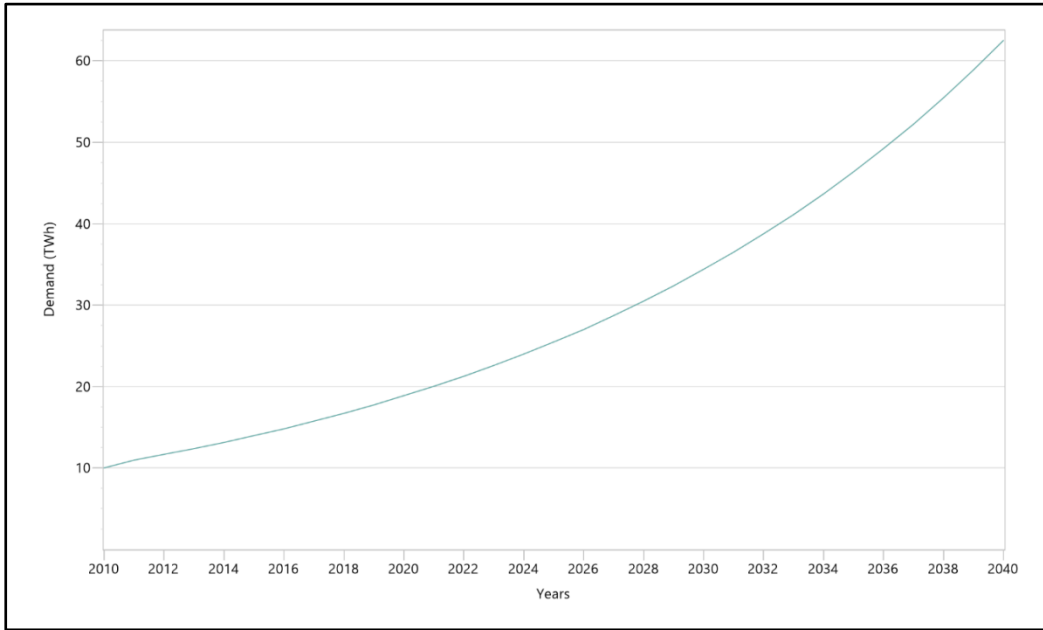


Figure 3 Electricity demand forecast

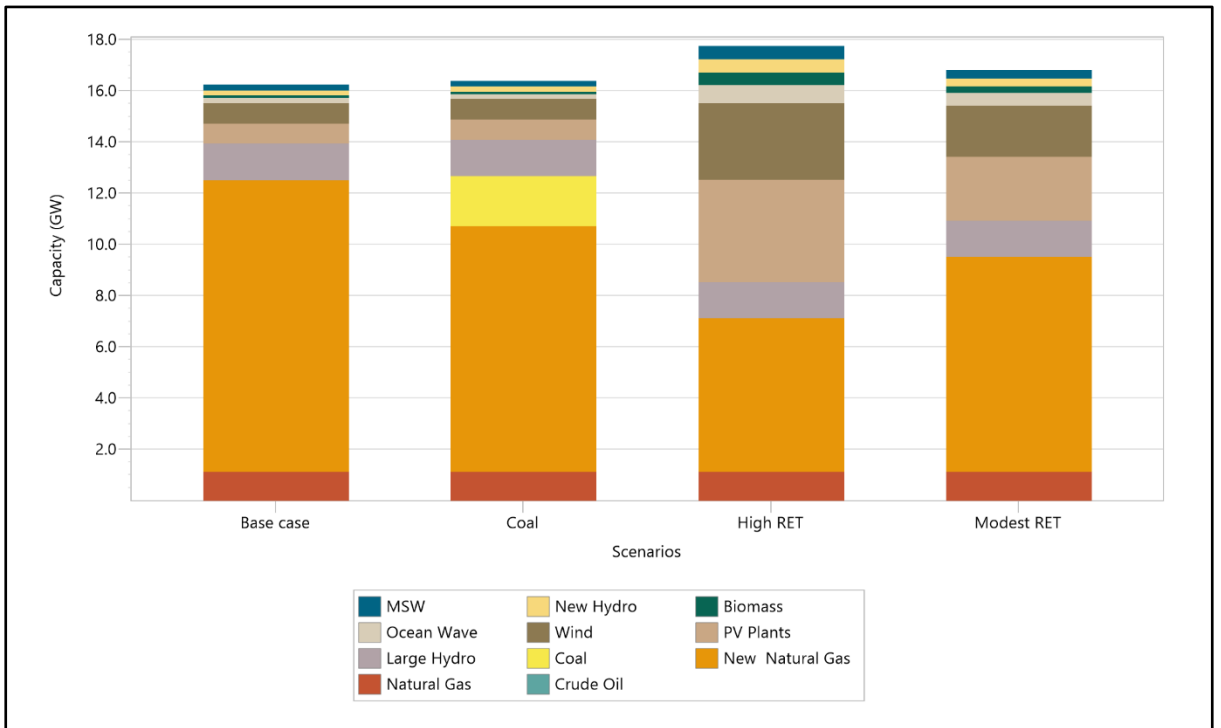


Figure 4 Installed capacities of scenarios

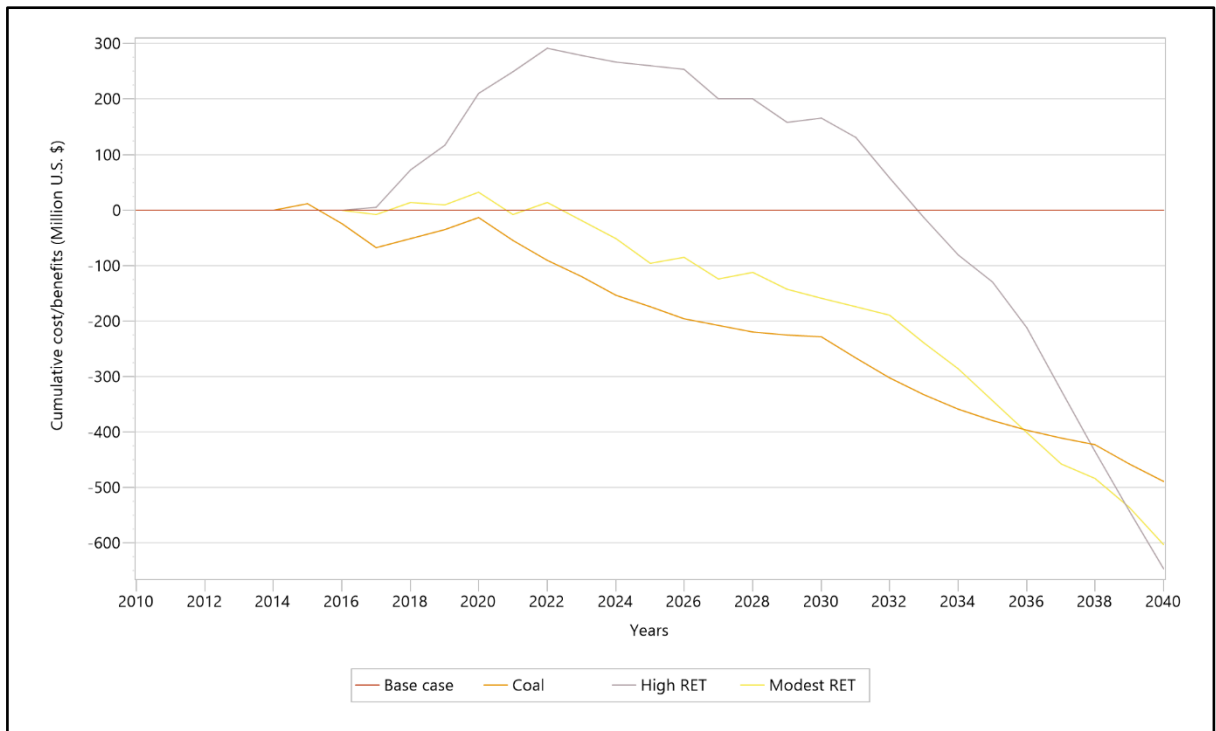


Figure 5 Cumulated discounted cost benefits of scenarios (Discounted Rate =10%)

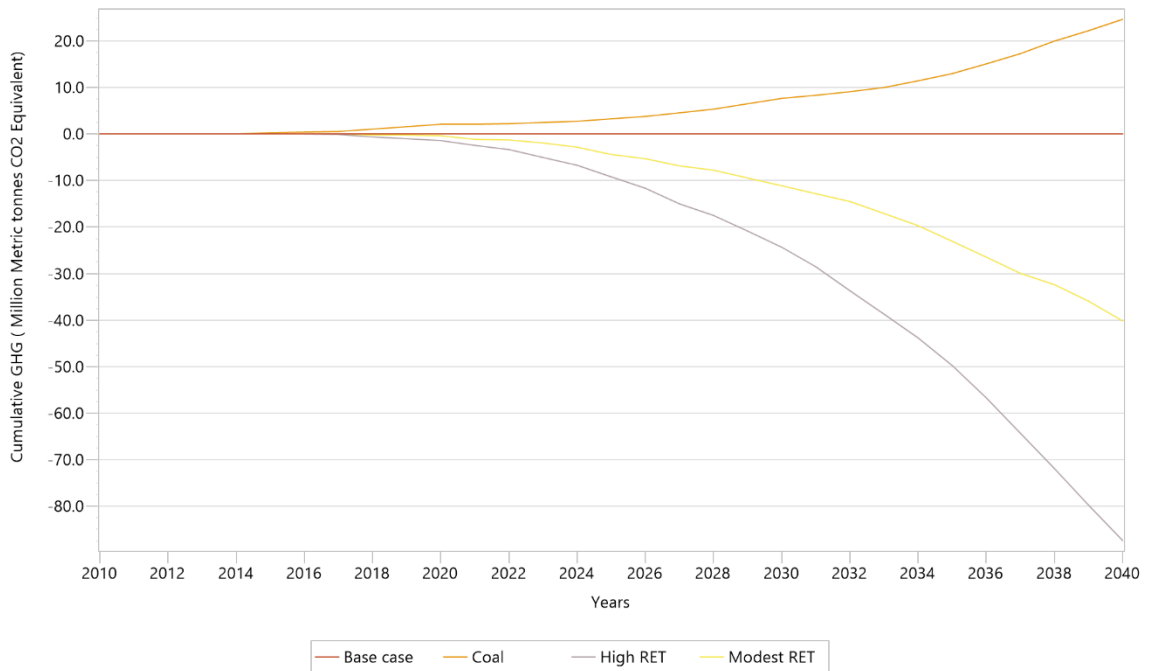


Figure 6 Cumulative GHG emissions compared to base case scenario