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Topic:

DRIVERS OF ENERGY CONSUMPTION IN GHANA: A SECTORAL DECOMPOSITION ANALYSIS OF ENERGY SUPPLY AND DEMAND DRIVERS

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by

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family for their love and support.

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ABSTRACT

Energy plays a crucial role in determining Ghana's socioeconomic growth. The rapid growth of demand and the increasing complexities of energy supply in Ghana pose a significant challenge to Ghana's efforts to a universal energy access.

This thesis is aimed at assessing the drivers of energy consumption in Ghana using a sectorial decomposition of energy demand and supply drivers. It applies the additive Logarithmic Mean Divisia Index (LMDI) to decompose drivers of Ghana's energy consumption between 2000-2020. Activity effect, efficiency, effect, and intensity effect were used to quantify changes in PEC. Changes in FEC were assessed by quantifying the contributions from three different factors: activity effect, structure effect, and intensity effect. The results show that the activity effect and the efficiency effect led to an increase in PEC while the intensity effect led to a decline in PEC. Similarly, FEC increased significantly throughout the period with the activity effect being the major contributor to the increase in consumption. The structure and intensity largely contributed to a drop in final energy consumption. Within the residential sector, the growth of population and the proportion of the population with access to electricity, clean fuels, and those who use traditional biomass were the dominant factors driving FEC while technological improvement in energy intensity was an inhibiting factor to consumption growth. In the industrial sector, the activity effect contributed to FEC growth while structure and intensity effects were inhibitors to consumption growth. The results of this study will help the government to reduce energy consumption by encouraging industrial restructuring and enforcing energy-efficiency and energy-saving policies.

Keywords: LMDI decomposition analysis; energy consumption; intensity effect; activity effect; Ghana energy system.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

| LMDI | Logarithmic Mean Divisia Index |
|--------------------|--|
| BMBF | Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung |
| WASCAL | West African Science Service Center on Climate Change and Adapted Land Use |
| IEK-STE | Institute for Energy and Climate Research Systems - Research and Technological Development |
| FZJ | Forschungszentrum Jülich |
| SDGs | Sustainable Development Goals |
| IDA | Index Decomposition Analysis |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GVA | Gross Value Added |
| UN | United Nations |
| EC | Energy Commission |
| POP | Population |
| GSS | Ghana Statistical Service |
| TJ | Tera Joule |
| RE | Renewable Energy |
| UAM | Université Abdou-Moumouni |
| MW | Mega Watt |
| FEC | Final Energy Consumption |
| PEC | Primary Energy Consumption |
| POP _b | Population that uses traditional biomass |
| POP _{ele} | Population with access to electricity |

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CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the context and focus of the study. It comprises the background, problem definition, and justification of the research, which describes the problem and need for research. This chapter also presents the research questions and objectives of this study.

1.1 Background

Ghana's energy mix is predominantly conventional biomass, a fragile hydropower industry, and imported fossil fuels, which cause concerns about energy security, emissions, and high costs, which have a detrimental influence on economic growth[1], [2]. Like many other nations in sub-Saharan Africa, Ghana has difficulties meeting its energy needs[3]. According to [4], the final energy consumption will increase by 7%-12% annually over the next two decades. The trend in energy consumption is likely to worsen owing to the influx of outdated appliances[5]. These future trends require Ghana to diversify its energy-supply mix while minimizing emissions. This implies that Ghana must explore energy sources that are economically viable, socially fair, and environmentally friendly.

Ghana has huge potential for renewable energy, including bio-energy, solar, wind, hydropower, tidal wave power, and waste-to-energy, which remain underexploited [3, 7]. In recent years, there has been growing interest in renewable energy in Ghana as it seeks to reduce its dependence on imported fossil fuels and improve energy security. The government has set a target to increase the share of renewable energy in the energy mix to 10% by 2030[7] to achieve a more sustainable and diversified energy system. In addition, green hydrogen and its derivatives have emerged as promising substitutes for conventional fossil fuels[9, 10] and have the potential to play a significant role in Ghana's future energy mix. Through electrolysis, clean and carbon-free energy sources can be used to create green hydrogen and its derivatives, such as ammonia, methanol, and synthetic fuels.

1.2 Problem Definition and Justification

Ghana currently faces several energy challenges, including reliance on imported fossil fuels, limited access to electricity in rural areas, and high energy costs. Many key driving factors have influenced Ghana's total energy consumption, including ever-growing urbanization and

population, economic growth, changes in the lifestyles of the population, and governmental policies. This presents the need to assess the extent at which these drivers influence energy consumption to ensure sustainable energy consumption and production.

This study employs a sectoral decomposition analysis of energy supply and demand drivers to identify the key factors contributing to changes in energy consumption in different sectors of the Ghanaian economy. This analysis provides insights into the most effective policy interventions to promote sustainable energy consumption and production in Ghana and the possible integration of green hydrogen and its derivatives into the future final energy mix. Furthermore, this study contributes to the literature on energy demand and supply in Ghana and provides a basis for future research in this area. The results of this study will shed light on the benefits of using green hydrogen and its derivatives in Ghana.

1.3 Objectives of Study

This study aims to fulfil the following objectives:

- 1. To identify the factors driving energy consumption in Ghana.
- 2. To assess the extent of the impact of these factors by conducting a sectorial decomposition analysis in terms of demand and supply.
- 3. To provide policy options for government, energy companies, and stakeholders on how to reduce energy consumption.

1.4 Research Questions

This research seeks to answer the following main question:

- 1. What are the main drivers of the energy demand and supply in Ghana?
- 2. How do these drivers affect a country's energy demand and supply?
- 3. What policy recommendations will promote sustainable energy consumption, production, and integration of green hydrogen and its derivatives in Ghana?

1.5 Conclusion

This chapter introduces the research and provides background information. The problem statement, as well as the justification for the project, has been clearly stated along with the questions and objectives outlined for the research.

CHAPTER TWO 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is divided into three sections: The first section provides a general overview of Ghana's energy sector, trends, and existing installed capacities, and the second section examines Ghana's demand and supply outlook. The last section reviews the studies that have applied the decomposition methodology.

2.1 Overview of Ghana's Energy Sector: Trends, and Existing Generation Systems

Ghana faces challenges in achieving its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) owing to insufficient energy supply caused by factors such as rapid population growth, urbanization, changes in lifestyle, and economic structure[3, 11]. Before the Akossombo Dam was built, Ghana's power supply was from isolated diesel-generating plants situated close to crucial load centres [11]. The dam was constructed between 1961 and 1965 with funding from the World Bank, United the Kingdom, and the United States[2]. Its generating capacity increased from 588 to 912 MW in 1972. The Kpong Hydroelectric Dam, built between 1977 and 1982, has a capacity of 160 MW[11]. The power generation from these dams is heavily influenced by the seasonal cycles. Thermal power generation was introduced in 1997 as a complement to traditional hydroelectricity following the 1983 drought[2], which emphasized the need to diversify Ghana's energy-generation system. In 2000, two 110 MW combustion turbine plants were added to the Takoradi Thermal Power Station (TAPCO), expanding its capacity from 330 to 550 MW[11]. This marked Ghana's initial steps towards transitioning to thermal energy generation.

The figure below shows the percentage share of electricity generation by fuel type from 2000 to 2021.



Figure 1: Electricity Generation (2000-2021) Source: [4]

In 2000, hydropower plants generated 92% of Ghana's electricity, whereas thermal plants generated only 8%. As of 2021, the energy blend includes a mix of 0.55% renewables, 34.1% hydro energy, and 65.3% thermal energy[4]. The table below shows existing energy systems with their installed and dependable capacities. Table 2.1 below shows the installed generating capacity of power in Ghana.

| Plant | Installed Capacity | Dependable Capacity |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Hydro Power Plants | | |
| Akosombo | 1,020 | 900 |
| Kpong | 160 | 140 |
| Bui | 404 | 360 |
| Sub-total | 1,584 | 1,400 |
| Thermal Power Plants | | |
| Takoradi Power Company (TAPCO) | 330 | 300 |
| Takoradi International Company (TICO) | 340 | 320 |
| Tema Thermal 1 Power Plant (TT1PP) | 110 | 100 |
| Tema Thermal 2 Power Plant (TT2PP) | 87 | 70 |
| Cenit Energy Ltd | 110 | 100 |
| Kpone Thermal Power Plant | 220 | 200 |
| Ameri Plant | 250 | 230 |

Table 2. 1: Installed Generation Capacities in Ghana as of 2021 (MW)

| Sunon Asogli Power (Ghana) Ltd | 560 | 520 |
|--------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Karpowership | 470 | 450 |
| Trojan | 44 | 39.6 |
| Amandi | 203 | 190 |
| AKSA | 370 | 350 |
| Cenpower | 360 | 340 |
| Early Power / Bridge | 144 | 140 |
| Genser | 155 | 131 |
| Sub-total | 3,753 | 3,480.6 |
| Other Renewables | | |
| On-grid | | |
| VRA Solar (Navrongo) | 2.5 | 2 |
| VRA Solar (Lawra) | 6.5 | 4.5 |
| VRA Solar (Kaleo) | 13 | 10 |
| BXC Solar | 20 | 16 |
| Meinergy | 20 | 16 |
| Bui Solar | 51 | 46 |
| Safisana Biogas | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Tsatsadu Hydro | 0.05 | 0.05 |
| Distributed Solar PV | 30.9 | - |
| Sub-total | 144.05 | 94.65 |
| Off-grid | | |
| Solar | 7.42 | - |
| Wind | 0.02 | - |
| Sub-total | 7.44 | - |
| Mini-grid | | |
| Solar | 0.314 | - |
| Wind | 0.011 | - |
| Sub-total | 0.325 | - |
| Total Renewables | 119.865 | 94.6 |
| Total | 5,488.82 | 4,975.25 |

Source: [4]

Thermal plants operate on different types of fossil fuels that contribute to greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. They are worst affected when there is a shortfall in the gas supply. A clear instance is the Russia-Ukraine War, which disrupted the gas supply and caused a surge in gas prices.

2.2 Energy Demand and Supply Outlook in Ghana

Various governments have prioritized the energy industry in their policies, including those that assure environmentally friendly energy production and use and increase access to affordable modern energy sources[12]. However, the country is still unable to meet its energy needs independently. Statistics from the Energy Commission show that the total dependable installed capacity as of 2021 is 43,538,190 MWh, while the total energy consumption is 108,682,350 MWh. This implies that Ghana generates only approximately 40% of the total energy consumed. To lessen its dependency on imported fossils, the local generation needs to be prioritized. Per[4], Ghana's total energy supply mix is mainly biomass, oil, and natural gas, accounting for 34%, 35%, and 26% of the total supply in 2021. The figure below shows the total energy supplied by the fuel in Ghana.



Figure 2: Total energy supply by fuel Source: [4]

Energy demand in Ghana is expected to surge because more firms will expand and households will become richer with an increasing population and industrialization. Energy demand is expected to increase by 7%-12% annually over the next two decades[10], and this will present a significant energy challenge to Ghana despite improvements in generation capacity. [4] also projected that peak electricity demand has been increasing at an annual rate of 9.2% since 2016. All these projections present a clear need for Ghana to explore diverse sustainable low-carbon energy-

generating sources to meet growing demand. As a signatory to the Paris Agreement, the exploration of these sources must be environmentally friendly and contribute to reducing Ghana's greenhouse gas emissions. Figure 2.3 shows the main energy consumers in Ghana categorized into sectors (residential, industrial, agricultural, transport, and service).



Figure 3: Total energy consumed by sectors

Source: [4]

2.3 Decomposition Analysis

Several studies have used index decomposition analysis (IDA) frameworks to analyse drivers of changes in energy consumption, CO₂ emissions, energy efficiency, and many other variable indicators[13];[14];[15];[16][17][18]. [20] used the Logarithmic Mean Divisia Index (LMDI) approach of IDA frameworks to examine the factors influencing CO₂ emissions from the industrial sector of Fujian province, China. Decomposition analysis between 2005 and 2016 revealed industrial scale effect was the main driving factor of CO₂ emissions, while the energy intensity effect was the main inhibitor. This structural effect had a minimal impact on CO₂ emissions in the Fujian industrial sector. [21] focused on examining CO₂ emissions from electricity generation in China during the 1991-2001 time period using the LMDI approach. The findings showed that the economic activity effect was the main contributor to CO₂ emissions from electricity generation, whereas the generation efficiency effect was the main inhibitor of CO₂ emissions. [22] explored

the changes in energy intensity in Latvia using LMDI methods for the energy sectors. The increased energy intensity is attributed to the expansion of the energy-demanding sectors. The scale, composition, emission regulation, and production efficiency influence CO_2 emissions in the production of Indian exports [23]. The study decomposed data within the 1995-2009 period and found that the scale effect increased CO_2 emissions by more than 184%. However, the other three effects had a dampening effect on CO_2 emissions. [24] discussed the factors affecting changes in energy consumption and investigated energy intensity across the Indonesian manufacturing sector from 1980 to 2015. The results showed that limited changes in the industrial structure contributed to a 65% reduction in energy intensity over the study period. Energy efficiency improvements and financial shocks also influence energy intensities. Other studies have employed a similar methodology to investigate trends in other variable indicators, as shown in Table 2.2.

| Indicator | | Frameworks | | | Driving effects | | | |
|-----------------|--------------|------------|-----------|--------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------------|------|
| | Region | Study | Sector | Activity | Structure | Intensity | Others | |
| | | period | | effect | effect | effect | | |
| Energy | Australia | 1978-2009 | Economy- | Х | | Х | Efficiency effect | [25] |
| Intensity | Ghana | 2000-2020 | wide | Х | \checkmark | Х | Labor productivity | [26] |
| Electricity | | 1995-2014 | Economy- | \checkmark | Х | \checkmark | Energy | |
| Consumption | | | wide | | | | consumption effect | [27] |
| | China | 1990-2015 | Manufactu | Х | \checkmark | \checkmark | Transfer effect | |
| | | | ring | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | [28] |
| | 46 cities | 1960-2001 | Transport | Х | \checkmark | Х | urbanization effect | [29] |
| | 40 countries | 1995-2009 | | Х | \checkmark | \checkmark | Х | |
| | | | Economy- | | | | | [30] |
| <u> </u> | USA | 2000-2016 | wide | Х | \checkmark | \checkmark | Labor input effect | [31] |
| CO ₂ | Thailand | 2005-2017 | Manufactu | Х | \checkmark | \checkmark | Х | |
| Emissions | | | ring | | | | | [32] |
| | China | 2009-2018 | Power | \checkmark | √ | | Х | [33] |

 Table 2. 2: Representative literature for LMDI decomposition analysis

| | China | 1985-2009 | Transport | \checkmark | \checkmark | \checkmark | Transportation | [34] |
|-------------|-----------|------------|------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|------|
| | | | | | | | modal shifting | |
| | | | | | | | effect | |
| | Shanghai, | 1996-2007 | Industrial | Х | \checkmark | \checkmark | industrial output | [35] |
| | China | | | | | | | |
| | Korea | 1991-2009 | Manufactu | \checkmark | \checkmark | \checkmark | emission-factor | [36] |
| | | | ring | | | | effect. | |
| | Kerala, | 2007-08 | power and | \checkmark | Х | \checkmark | Х | |
| | India | to 2016-17 | petroleum | | | | | [37] |
| | | | sector | | | | | |
| Energy | | | | | | | | |
| Consumption | South | 1970-2016 | Manufactu | | | \checkmark | Х | [38] |
| | Africa | | ring | | | | | |
| | EU | 2005-2016 | Economy- | \checkmark | Х | Х | Demographic | [39] |
| | Countries | | wide | | | | effects, changes in | |
| | | | | | | | lifestyle, weather | [40] |
| | Korea | 1991-2001 | Manufactu | | \checkmark | \checkmark | Х | |
| | | | ring | | | | | |

| | China | 2000-2014 | Non- | Х | \checkmark | \checkmark | labour productivity | [41] |
|-------------|-------|-----------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|------|
| | | | ferrous | | | | effect and | |
| | | | metal | | | | industrial scale | |
| | | | industry | | | | effect. | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| Carbon | China | 2001-2015 | Urban | Х | Х | | urban sprawl, and | [42] |
| Intensity | | | residential | | | | land demand | |
| Water and | China | 2011-2015 | Economy- | \checkmark | \checkmark | \checkmark | industrial water | [43] |
| Energy | | | wide | | | | consumption | |
| Consumption | | | | | | | | |

CHAPTER THREE

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 General Formulae of LMDI

The LMDI decomposition analysis method is widely used because of its desirable features, including the ability to provide perfect decomposition, consistency in aggregation, and the ability to express components in additive or multiplicative forms [44].

Assume Z is an aggregate variable, and there are m factors (X1, X2, X3...Xm) that influence Z over some time. The general IDA identity is given by

$$Z = \sum_{j} Z_{j} = \sum_{j} Z_{1}, j \ Z_{2}, j \ Z_{3}, j \dots \dots Z_{3}, j$$
[1]

The contribution of the *m*th factor to the change in the aggregate from a reference time, t to a time, T is expressed as;

$$\Delta Z_{xm} = \sum_{j} L\left(Z_j^T, Z_j^t\right) In\left[\frac{X_{m,j}^T}{X_{m,j}^t}\right] = \sum_{i} \frac{Z_j^T - Z_j^t}{InZ_j^T - InZ_j^t} In\left[\frac{X_{m,j}^T}{X_{m,j}^t}\right]$$

$$[2]$$

Where L (a, b) = (a-b) / (lna - lnb)

3.2 Decomposition of Energy Consumption

The general IDA identity for the decomposition of energy consumption is given by

$$\mathbf{E} = \sum_{i} E_{i} = \sum_{i} Q \frac{Q_{i}}{Q} \frac{E_{i}}{E} = \sum_{i} Q S_{i} I_{i}$$
[3]

Where i denotes the sector, E is the total energy, Q is the economic activity (gross domestic output or gross added value), and $S_i = \frac{Q_i}{Q}$ represents the proportion of the economic activity relative to the whole economy in which the structural effect is captured. $I_i = \frac{E_i}{Q_i}$ is the total energy intensity of sector i which captures the intensity effect.

In the additive LMDI approach, the change in energy consumption due to the activity, structure, and intensity effects from a reference time t to time T is calculated as follows:

$$\Delta E = E^{T} - E^{t} = \Delta Eact + \Delta Estr + \Delta Eint$$
[4]

Where;

 Δ Eact, Δ Estr, and Δ Eint are the changes due to activity, structure, and intensity effects which are respectively represented by Q, S_i , and I_i in equation [3] above. The following formulae were used to quantify the above effects:

$$\Delta \text{Eact} = \sum_{i} w_i \ln\left(\frac{Q^T}{Q^t}\right)$$
[5a]

$$\Delta \text{Estr} = \sum_{i} w_i \, \ln\left(\frac{S_i^T}{S_i^t}\right)$$
[5b]

$$\Delta Eint = \sum_{i} w_{i} \ln\left(\frac{I_{i}}{I_{t}^{t}}\right)$$

$$wi = \frac{E_{i}^{T} - E_{i}^{t}}{InE_{i}^{T} - InE_{i}^{t}}$$
[5c]

3.2.1 Decomposition of Primary Energy Consumption (PEC) The primary energy consumed was decomposed using the following decomposition identity:

$$PEC = GDP \frac{PEC}{FEC} \frac{FEC}{GDP}$$
[6]

Where GDP denotes the activity effect, PEC/FEC the efficiency effect, and FEC/GDP the intensity effect.

3.2.2 Decomposition of Final Energy Consumption of Industrial Sector

/ **•** T \

The division of industrial subsectors was performed based on available disaggregation data on energy consumption. As a result, this study considered five industrial subsectors (manufacturing, mining and quarrying, services, transport and agriculture). Due to data unavailability and restrictions, it was not possible to treat the transport sector separately. To simplify this problem, this sector was integrated into the industry sector. The equation used to decompose the final energy consumption in the industrial sector is as follows:

$$FEC = \sum_{i} GVA \frac{GVA_{i}}{GVA} \frac{FEC_{i}}{GVA_{i}} = GVA \frac{GVA_{man}}{GVA} \frac{FEC_{man}}{GVA} + GVA \frac{GVA_{ser}}{GVA} \frac{FEC_{min}}{GVA_{min}} + GVA \frac{GVA_{agr}}{GVA_{agr}} \frac{FEC_{agr}}{GVA_{agr}} + GVA \frac{GVA_{ser}}{GVA_{ser}} \frac{FEC_{ser}}{GVA_{ser}} + GVA \frac{GVA_{trp}}{GVA} \frac{FEC_{trp}}{GVA_{trp}}$$
[7]

where i represents the disaggregated subsectors, and FEC and GVA are the final energy consumption and gross added value of the industrial sector, respectively. Similarly, GVA_i and FEC_i are the gross added values and final energy consumptions for the different subsectors of the industrial sector considered.

3.2.3 Decomposition of Final Energy Consumption of Residential Sector

The residential energy demand is mainly influenced by an increasing population (households). The final residential energy consumed was decomposed into various fuel types by using the following decomposition identity:

$$FEC = FEC_{r,b} + FEC_{r,ele} + FEC_{r,cf} = POP \frac{POP_b}{POP} \frac{FEC_{r,b}}{POP_b} + POP \frac{POP_{ele}}{POP} \frac{FEC_{r,ele}}{POP_{ele}} + POP \frac{POP_{cf}}{POP} \frac{FEC_{r,cf}}{POP_{cf}}$$
[8]

Where POP and FEC are the population and final energy consumption of the residential sector. $FEC_{r,b}$ $FEC_{r,ele}$, and $FEC_{r,cf}$ respectively represent the final energy consumed in the residential sector from traditional biomass, electricity, and clean fuels. Similarly, POP_b , POP_{ele} , and POP_{cf} represent the population that use the biomass, the population with electricity access, and the population that uses clean fuels for cooking.

| | - | |
|------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| Sector | Industry | Residential |
| (Index=i) | 1. Manufacturing | 1. Electricity |
| | 2. Mining and Quarrying | 2. Traditional biomass |
| | 3. Agriculture | 3. Clean fuels |
| | 4. Services | |
| | 5. Transportation | |
| Activity effect | Gross Value Added (GVA) | POP |
| Structure effect | GVAi/GVA | POP <i>i</i> / POP |
| Intensity effect | FECi/GVAi | FECi/ POPi |

Table 3. 1: Overview of decomposition identities used in this study

i denote the subsector

- FEC = final energy consumed in the residential sector
- POP = total population
- GVA = total gross added value
- GVAi = gross added value per each subsector
- FECi = final energy consumed per each subsector
- POPi = population with or without access to electricity

3.3 Data Sources

Primary and Final energy consumption data were obtained from the Ghana Energy Commission (EC) and the UN Statistics website, a public database that provides time-series data for different sectors between 2000 and 2020. UN Data comprises data from various national sources that have been harmonized to enable comparability of data across different countries. Economic activity data

were obtained from the World Bank's database. Data from the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) were used to cover specific data needs, such as population and population with access to electricity.

3.4 Data Overview

Owing to data unavailability and restrictions, simplifications and approximations were performed to fill out missing data.

Industrial Sector:

FEC for the manufacturing, construction, and non-fuel mining industries was used. However, its corresponding activity data was unavailable. Therefore, activity data for manufacturing alone.

FEC for mining and quarrying was used. However, its corresponding data was not available. The activity data used for mining and quarrying in this study were for mineral rents. Even so, data from 2000-2014 were missing and had to be filled using a simple ratio and proportion method.

FEC for the transportation sector was used. The activity data for transportation was retrieved from the World Bank website as a percentage of services imports and BoP. However, it was difficult to obtain data on service imports and BoP for Ghana. Therefore, transport activity was calculated as a percentage of GDP.

Residential Sector

The population without access to electricity was assumed to be the population that uses traditional biomass for cooking.

The FEC for the population that has access to clean fuels was not readily available. Therefore, the FEC for oil products was used as the FEC for instead.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The additive LMDI analysis was performed using Excel 2016. Activity, efficiency, and intensity effects were used to analyse primary energy consumption (PEC). PEC increased from 265,360 TJ in 2000 to 490,228 TJ in 2020. This is consistent with a previous study [44] which asserts that increased PEC is as a result of economic growth. The activity effect between this period was positive and contributed to an increase in primary energy consumption by 755,232 TJ. This implies that the increase in primary energy consumption was primarily due to GDP growth which is in line with the findings of [45] and [25]. In the same period, the efficiency effect also contributed to an increase in primary energy consumption by 80,382 TJ. This increase in energy consumption could indicate worsening impacts of transformational losses, which could be a signal of aging energy infrastructure. The activity effect is the growth rate of GDP and the efficiency effect is the ratio of primary energy consumption to final energy consumption. The increase in primary energy consumption due to the activity effect was 9 times higher than the increase due to the efficiency effect. The intensity effect contributed to a drop in primary energy consumption by 610,744 TJ owing to improvements in technology. Table 4.1 below show the additive LMDI decomposition results for PEC from 2000 to 2020. Figure 4(a) shows the contributions of the various influencers while Figure 4(a) shows the decomposition in quarterly terms.

| Period | total effect | activity effect | efficiency effect | intensity effect |
|-----------|--------------|-----------------|-------------------|------------------|
| 2000-2001 | 177 | 17,032 | 9,914 | -26,769 |
| 2001-2002 | -4,516 | 39,519 | 361 | -44,396 |
| 2002-2003 | -8,512 | 54,529 | 15,804 | -78,845 |
| 2003-2004 | -4,365 | 37,977 | -1,402 | -40,939 |
| 2004-2005 | -7,603 | 46,464 | -7,432 | -46,634 |
| 2005-2006 | 29,633 | 169,697 | 23,360 | -163,425 |
| 2006-2007 | -1,213 | 46,576 | 4,007 | -51,796 |
| 2007-2008 | -1,605 | 38,654 | 4,459 | -44,718 |
| 2008-2009 | -15,084 | -24,982 | -53,007 | 62,906 |
| 2009-2010 | 34,444 | 57,041 | 29,798 | -52,395 |
| 2010-2011 | 31,958 | 60,566 | -8,505 | -20,102 |
| 2011-2012 | 33,107 | 16,042 | 4,158 | 12,907 |
| 2012-2013 | 4,407 | 148,720 | 2,543 | -146,857 |
| 2013-2014 | 15,742 | -49,850 | 12,229 | 53,362 |
| 2014-2015 | 15,046 | -39,144 | 11,706 | 42,484 |
| 2015-2016 | -10,717 | 48,864 | -7,088 | -52,493 |
| 2016-2017 | -13,697 | 26,945 | -14,478 | -26,163 |
| 2017-2018 | 62,715 | 42,456 | 30,787 | -10,527 |
| 2018-2019 | 18,346 | 6,661 | 3,900 | 7,784 |
| 2019-2020 | 46,604 | 11,463 | 19,268 | 15,872 |

Table 4. 1: Additive Decomposition results of PEC between 2000-2020



Figure 4: PEC decomposition

In final terms, activity, structure and intensity effects were used to analyse final energy consumption. Final energy consumption increased from 243,501 in 2000 to 368,303 TJ in 2020 representing a 51.25% increment. This increase is close to the projections of [46] and [47] that estimates final energy consumption growth by 7%-12% annually over the next two decades. As shown in Table 4.2, the activity effect played a role in promoting final energy consumption growth by 324,124 TJ. In the same period, both structure and intensity effects were -38,027 TJ and -204,422 TJ respectively and played inhibitory roles to the growth of final energy consumption. The intensity effect was approximately 5 times larger than the structure effect which implies that the role played by the intensity effect in inhibiting final energy growth contributing 144,368 TJ drop in energy consumption. Strong energy intensity was observed between 2014-2015 period. This period was characterized by the unstable power supply popularly known as 'dumsor' and strong economic growth respectively. The energy consumption intensity played major inhibitory role to energy consumption except in recent times (from 2016-2017 to 2018-2019) when it showed a positive trend. This trend is consistent with the findings of [25] which asserted energy

consumption intensity has a positive relationship with economic growth. In effect, the increase in GDP was the major promoter of final energy consumption while improvements in technologies and energy utilization efficiency measures greatly inhibited energy consumption growth. Table 4.2 below illustrate the decomposition results of FEC. Figures 5(a) and (b) show the contributions of the various drivers of final energy consumption in Ghana. In Figure 5(b), the contribution of the activity effect to total final energy consumption was negative. This was so because of the power crisis which spanned 2012-2015 impacting economic activities.

| Period | Total effect | Activity effect | Structure effect | Intensity effect |
|-----------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|
| 2000-2001 | -2,845 | 17,484 | 3,210 | -23,539 |
| 2001-2002 | 6,528 | 32,330 | 7,926 | -33,728 |
| 2002-2003 | -24,106 | 19,388 | -5,558 | -37,936 |
| 2003-2004 | 4,115 | 23,619 | 5,931 | -25,435 |
| 2004-2005 | -2,951 | -14,631 | -27,855 | 10,273 |
| 2005-2006 | 30,081 | 112,365 | 24,849 | -107,133 |
| 2006-2007 | 1,777 | 26,597 | 5,631 | -30,451 |
| 2007-2008 | -18,094 | 5,659 | -11,344 | -12,409 |
| 2008-2009 | 47,277 | 15,519 | 12,629 | 19,129 |
| 2009-2010 | 18,276 | 53,256 | 21,065 | -56,045 |
| 2010-2011 | 47,539 | 48,155 | 14,523 | -15,139 |
| 2011-2012 | 10,145 | 268 | -15,088 | 24,965 |
| 2012-2013 | 30,768 | 104,636 | 31,465 | -105,333 |
| 2013-2014 | 14,635 | -13,639 | 11,664 | 16,610 |
| 2014-2015 | -122,748 | -183,505 | -125,483 | 186,240 |
| 2015-2016 | 36,224 | 82,462 | 39,265 | -85,503 |
| 2016-2017 | -6,416 | -26,813 | -23,071 | 43,468 |
| 2017-2018 | 21,810 | 7,343 | -8,662 | 23,129 |
| 2018-2019 | -209 | -9,268 | -13,570 | 22,629 |
| 2019-2020 | 52,170 | 71,321 | 42,384 | -61,535 |

Table 4. 2: Additive Decomposition results of FEC between 2000-2020



Figure 5: FEC Decomposition

Industrial final energy consumption surged from 111,314 TJ in 2000 to 230,429 TJ in 2020. Consistent with the findings of [12], the growth of industrial GVA led to an increase in industrial energy consumption. [48] studied energy efficiency in Ghana and found that the industry sector in Ghana contributes to energy consumption and will continue to increase, posing a challenge to both energy security and meeting its Paris Agreement goals. The activity effect was positive and contributed to an increase in industrial final energy consumption by 263,428 TJ. Within the same period, the structure effect had an oscillating effect on industrial energy consumption resulting in a decline in final energy consumption by 60,748 TJ. The intensity effect also led to a decline in energy consumption by 230,429 TJ. However, the inhibitory role of structure effect on industrial final energy consumption was approximately 2 times lower than the intensity effect. The activity effect was the GVA growth rate of the industrial sector and the structure effect was the proportion of the industrial GVA growth. Figures 6(a) illustrate the contribution of the various influencers of industrial final energy consumption. Figure 6(b) shows a quarterly decomposition of the drivers of energy consumption.

| Period | Total effect | Activity effect | Structure effect | Intensity effect |
|-----------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|
| 2000-2001 | -7,666 | 4,633 | -2,239 | -10,060 |
| 2001-2002 | 7,437 | 20,502 | 2,628 | -15,693 |
| 2002-2003 | -28,145 | 8,689 | -11,215 | -25,619 |
| 2003-2004 | -2,128 | 11,143 | -3,446 | -9,825 |
| 2004-2005 | -3,504 | 3,672 | -8,648 | 1,471 |
| 2005-2006 | 10,609 | 82,965 | 2,310 | -74,666 |
| 2006-2007 | 1,531 | 20,433 | 2,237 | -21,139 |
| 2007-2008 | -16,183 | -2,372 | -13,690 | -121 |
| 2008-2009 | 40,325 | 9,360 | 11,103 | 19,862 |
| 2009-2010 | 25,001 | 53,152 | 18,549 | -46,701 |
| 2010-2011 | 41,151 | 44,986 | 18,014 | -21,850 |
| 2011-2012 | 18,853 | 5,019 | -3,462 | 17,296 |
| 2012-2013 | 19,330 | 89,964 | 20,437 | -91,071 |
| 2013-2014 | 11,807 | -20,899 | 9,323 | 23,382 |
| 2014-2015 | -121,526 | -184,530 | -123,908 | 186,912 |
| 2015-2016 | 31,436 | 76,924 | 34,772 | -80,260 |
| 2016-2017 | -48,279 | -45,562 | -43,023 | 40,305 |
| 2017-2018 | 5,175 | -18 | -14,777 | 19,970 |
| 2018-2019 | -3,723 | -13,601 | -17,015 | 26,893 |
| 2019-2020 | 49,091 | 50,693 | 33,526 | -35,128 |

Table 4. 3: Additive Decomposition results of Industrial FEC between 2000-2020



Figure 6: Industrial FEC Decomposition

Residential energy consumption increased from 132,187 TJ to 137,874 TJ. Activity effect considered was population and the structure effect was the proportion of the population with and without access to electricity as well as those with access to clean fuels. The activity effect as shown in Table 4.4 was positive and played a major role in promoting residential energy consumption by 75,062 TJ. Increased population leads to increased urbanization which promotes residential energy growth. However, this increase was offset by the structure effect which led to a decline in residential energy consumption by 4,659 TJ. The increase in residential energy consumption can also be attributed to the increase in population with electricity access. As the electricity access rate increases, lifestyle choices change. Also, [25] and [49] in their studies assert that population growth can lead to an increase in household income, which can increase residential energy consumption due to social lifestyle changes. The demand for electricity to power residential appliances surged leading to an increase in final energy consumption. Though increasing electricity access rate increases residential electricity demand, this was compensated by energy efficiency measures and appliance efficiency standards such as measures prohibiting the influx of 'second-hand' domestic appliances. The intensity effect led to a decline in energy consumption by 75,029 TJ. Figures 7 (a) and (b) shows the contributions of the drivers of residential energy consumption throughout the period and in quarterly terms respectively.

| Period | Total effect | Activity effect | Structure effect | Intensity effect |
|-----------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|
| 2000-2001 | -178 | 6,951 | 3,350 | -10,479 |
| 2001-2002 | -3,926 | 8,828 | 5,281 | -18,035 |
| 2002-2003 | -650 | 6,999 | 3,678 | -11,328 |
| 2003-2004 | 1,581 | 8,574 | 5,417 | -12,410 |
| 2004-2005 | -24,618 | -16,303 | -19,327 | 11,012 |
| 2005-2006 | 23,501 | 29,430 | 26,539 | -32,468 |
| 2006-2007 | -54 | 6,164 | 3,394 | -9,611 |
| 2007-2008 | 3,114 | 8,032 | 5,370 | -10,288 |
| 2008-2009 | 4,951 | 4,158 | 1,526 | -733 |
| 2009-2010 | 2,249 | 7,100 | 4,515 | -9,366 |
| 2010-2011 | 12,379 | 3,169 | 509 | 8,701 |
| 2011-2012 | -4,708 | -4,751 | -7,625 | 7,668 |
| 2012-2013 | 16,754 | 16,972 | 14,038 | -14,256 |
| 2013-2014 | 4,827 | 7,260 | 4,340 | -6,773 |
| 2014-2015 | -1,499 | 1,025 | -1,852 | -673 |
| 2015-2016 | 3,056 | 5,528 | 2,673 | -5,145 |
| 2016-2017 | 5,863 | 2,749 | -48 | 3,162 |
| 2017-2018 | 6,574 | 3,101 | 315 | 3,158 |
| 2018-2019 | -2,386 | 2,332 | -455 | -4,263 |
| 2019-2020 | 4,255 | 1,652 | -1,140 | 3,743 |

Table 4. 4: Additive Decomposition results of Residential FEC between 2000-2020



Figure 7: Residential FEC Decomposition

4.1 Policy Recommendations

The activity effect is the major promoter of energy consumption. However, reducing the activity effect to reduce Ghana's energy consumption is not the best approachBased on the above results, the following policy recommendations for reducing energy consumption in Ghana should be encouraged.

- Encouraging the integration of renewable energy, green hydrogen, and its derivatives into the energy mix: Renewable energy can be installed at the point of energy consumption. This allows for a more decentralized energy system and therefore reduces or eliminates transmission losses. Therefore, to reduce energy consumption by improving efficiency, Ghana could encourage the use of renewable energy technologies in both residential and industrial sectors. Encouraging the public could go hand in hand with proper incentives to encourage the use of RE systems and the implementation of energy efficiency measures.
- Changing the economy's structure from high-intensive sectors (manufacturing, mining) to less intensive (service) ones. This could be done by targeting sectors whose economic activities have higher added value compared to energy consumption.
- 3. Enforcing strict energy efficiency policies: The influx of less standard energy-intensive appliances contributes to an increase in (residential) energy consumption. Curbing this menace will reduce energy consumption in Ghana. Therefore, the government must establish policies that target energy savings, reduce losses, and address aging energy infrastructure
- Education on demand management: The government could roll out public awareness campaigns to educate the public about energy conservation, efficient utilization, and the benefits of reducing energy consumption.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION

This study applied the additive approach of LMDI decomposition analysis to decompose Ghana's energy consumption from 2000 to 2020 and analysed the contributions of three main factors to changes in energy consumption (activity effect, structure effect, and activity effect). The findings of this study reveal several key drivers, including economic growth, population expansion, industrial development, and the relative lack of energy-efficient technologies. Acknowledging these factors is pivotal for formulating effective energy policies that can address the mounting energy demand while simultaneously ensuring sustainable development and environmental conservation. The analysis also indicates an oscillating pattern in energy intensity in Ghana promoted by structural effect and labour productivity. Energy efficiency has not been the focus on energy policies. Policymakers can use this information to develop policies that promote energy efficiency and reduce energy consumption in Ghana.

Moreover, the identified disparities in energy consumption among different sectors emphasizing the need for tailored, sector-specific strategies. While the industrial sector appears to be the major contributor to overall energy consumption, the residential sector also plays significant role, necessitating targeted interventions to promote energy efficiency and conservation at all levels. Encouraging behavioural changes, promoting energy-saving practices, and incentivizing the adoption of green technologies can effectively curb wasteful energy consumption and foster a culture of responsible energy usage across all sectors of the economy.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX B: INPUT DATA

| | Industrial FEC (TJ) | | | | | |
|------|---------------------|---------------|---------|--------|---------|---------|
| i=1 | Manufacturi | Manufacturing | | | | |
| i=2 | Mining and | quarrying | | | | |
| i=3 | Agriculture, | forestry, and | fishing | | | |
| i=4 | Services | | | | | |
| i=5 | Transportation | on | | | | |
| | i=1 | i=2 | i=3 | i=4 | i=5 | TOTAL |
| 2000 | 39,538 | 19,442 | 7,188 | 5,065 | 40,081 | 111,314 |
| 2001 | 36,313 | 16,850 | 7,231 | 5,149 | 40,344 | 105,887 |
| 2002 | 36,587 | 17,442 | 7,535 | 5,316 | 43,815 | 110,696 |
| 2003 | 30,932 | 7,777 | 2,327 | 5,526 | 47,205 | 93,766 |
| 2004 | 30,604 | 6,480 | 2,663 | 5,651 | 49,687 | 95,085 |
| 2005 | 32,134 | 10,369 | 2,618 | 6,070 | 49,038 | 100,228 |
| 2006 | 36,312 | 14,257 | 2,659 | 5,735 | 49,565 | 108,527 |
| 2007 | 32,591 | 14,257 | 2,835 | 5,442 | 52,696 | 107,821 |
| 2008 | 32,658 | 12,961 | 2,749 | 5,651 | 51,309 | 105,328 |
| 2009 | 36,949 | 19,442 | 3,618 | 6,907 | 67,634 | 134,550 |
| 2010 | 36,907 | 20,923 | 3,707 | 10,591 | 68,874 | 141,002 |
| 2011 | 34,047 | 25,996 | 4,752 | 11,218 | 88,125 | 164,139 |
| 2012 | 36,287 | 27,108 | 5,800 | 11,972 | 105,287 | 186,454 |
| 2013 | 37,373 | 19,442 | 6,057 | 13,814 | 108,660 | 185,346 |
| 2014 | 36,444 | 20,738 | 6,103 | 14,860 | 109,685 | 187,830 |
| 2015 | 40,831 | 15,554 | 2,149 | 10,549 | 121,130 | 190,213 |
| 2016 | 40,822 | 16,039 | 1,933 | 15,404 | 112,678 | 186,877 |
| 2017 | 42,749 | 17,874 | 2,264 | 15,781 | 102,951 | 181,620 |
| 2018 | 46,402 | 19,471 | 2,574 | 15,070 | 118,055 | 201,573 |
| 2019 | 48,272 | 19,803 | 2,770 | 16,786 | 127,233 | 214,864 |
| 2020 | 50,969 | 19,317 | 3,041 | 18,125 | 138,976 | 230,429 |

| | INDUSTRY ACTIVITY | | | | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| GVA in US\$ Billion | | | | | | |
| | i=1 | i=2 | i=3 | i=4 | i=5 | TOTAL |
| 2000 | 0.45 | 0.15 | 1.76 | 1.43 | 0.97 | 4.76 |
| 2001 | 0.48 | 0.14 | 1.87 | 1.55 | 1.03 | 5.07 |
| 2002 | 0.56 | 0.18 | 2.17 | 1.80 | 1.27 | 5.98 |
| 2003 | 0.68 | 0.09 | 2.79 | 2.22 | 1.50 | 7.29 |
| 2004 | 0.78 | 0.08 | 3.37 | 2.55 | 1.73 | 8.51 |
| 2005 | 0.93 | 0.18 | 4.02 | 3.11 | 1.42 | 9.65 |
| 2006 | 1.99 | 0.44 | 5.92 | 9.50 | 3.07 | 20.93 |
| 2007 | 2.13 | 0.54 | 6.78 | 11.71 | 4.25 | 25.40 |
| 2008 | 2.16 | 0.60 | 8.43 | 13.24 | 3.81 | 28.25 |
| 2009 | 1.76 | 0.76 | 8.07 | 12.49 | 4.75 | 27.84 |
| 2010 | 2.06 | 1.27 | 9.03 | 15.51 | 7.93 | 35.80 |
| 2011 | 2.53 | 2.16 | 9.31 | 18.04 | 10.72 | 42.75 |
| 2012 | 2.34 | 1.99 | 9.13 | 19.64 | 11.78 | 44.87 |
| 2013 | 7.28 | 1.86 | 12.80 | 25.50 | 17.83 | 65.25 |
| 2014 | 6.04 | 1.73 | 10.73 | 20.50 | 16.50 | 55.50 |
| 2015 | 5.48 | 1.17 | 9.87 | 20.02 | 3.68 | 40.22 |
| 2016 | 6.08 | 0.69 | 11.71 | 24.66 | 7.18 | 50.31 |
| 2017 | 6.13 | 1.08 | 11.82 | 26.27 | 4.32 | 49.62 |
| 2018 | 6.81 | 1.16 | 12.21 | 29.40 | 4.03 | 53.60 |
| 2019 | 6.94 | 1.40 | 11.84 | 30.85 | 3.45 | 54.48 |
| 2020 | 7.67 | 1.57 | 13.21 | 31.65 | 4.76 | 58.85 |

| | | RESIDE | | | |
|-----|-----------|---------------------|-------------|--------|-------------|
| i=1 | final ene | | | | |
| i=2 | final ene | ergy consumed by el | ectricity | | |
| i=3 | final ene | ergy consumed from | clean fuels | | |
| | YEAR | FECr, bio | FECr, ele | FECcf | FEC, r (TJ) |
| | | i=1 | i=2 | i=3 | |
| | 2000 | 127,402 | 5,699 | 4,185 | 137,287 |
| | 2001 | 120,563 | 7,697 | 5,499 | 133,759 |
| | 2002 | 114,362 | 5,940 | 4,250 | 124,552 |
| | 2003 | 108,853 | 6,790 | 4,581 | 120,224 |
| | 2004 | 104,101 | 7,243 | 5,044 | 116,388 |
| | 2005 | 98,866 | 7,150 | 5,081 | 111,097 |
| | 2006 | 94,411 | 7,578 | 6,070 | 108,060 |
| | 2007 | 91,248 | 7,542 | 5,822 | 104,612 |
| | 2008 | 88,562 | 8,168 | 5,625 | 102,355 |
| | 2009 | 86,866 | 8,712 | 10,203 | 105,781 |
| | 2010 | 86,014 | 8,939 | 8,562 | 103,514 |
| | 2011 | 91,285 | 15,944 | 8,155 | 115,384 |
| | 2012 | 91,811 | 17,586 | 8,905 | 118,302 |
| | 2013 | 94,333 | 18,907 | 7,778 | 121,018 |
| | 2014 | 95,769 | 18,990 | 6,746 | 121,505 |
| | 2015 | 96,063 | 18,175 | 7,619 | 121,857 |
| | 2016 | 95,717 | 18,771 | 7,751 | 122,240 |
| | 2017 | 98,808 | 20,517 | 8,826 | 128,151 |
| | 2018 | 100,461 | 24,758 | 9,191 | 134,410 |
| | 2019 | 97,877 | 25,084 | 9,519 | 132,479 |
| | 2020 | 99,305 | 27,955 | 10,614 | 137,874 |

| i=1 | Population with acces | | | |
|------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------|------------|
| i=2 | The population that us | ses traditional biom | nass | |
| i=3 | Population with acces | s to clean fuels | | |
| | POPele, access | POPbio | POPcf | TOTAL POP |
| | i=1 | i=2 | i=3 | |
| 2000 | 8,593,824 | 11,071,678 | 1,219,261 | 19,665,502 |
| 2001 | 9,055,143 | 11,140,434 | 1,332,908 | 20,195,577 |
| 2002 | 9,721,323 | 11,037,003 | 1,494,599 | 20,758,326 |
| 2003 | 10,302,155 | 11,027,359 | 1,685,032 | 21,329,514 |
| 2004 | 11,133,020 | 10,773,424 | 1,862,048 | 21,906,444 |
| 2005 | 9,279,992 | 13,216,959 | 2,137,210 | 22,496,951 |
| 2006 | 12,725,808 | 10,372,778 | 2,425,352 | 23,098,586 |
| 2007 | 13,492,504 | 10,215,816 | 2,797,582 | 23,708,320 |
| 2008 | 14,717,283 | 9,608,804 | 3,162,391 | 24,326,087 |
| 2009 | 15,234,599 | 9,716,163 | 3,617,860 | 24,950,762 |
| 2010 | 16,418,970 | 9,155,749 | 4,091,955 | 25,574,719 |
| 2011 | 16,788,197 | 9,417,744 | 4,533,628 | 26,205,941 |
| 2012 | 15,177,886 | 11,680,876 | 5,022,588 | 26,858,762 |
| 2013 | 19,460,597 | 8,065,000 | 5,395,017 | 27,525,597 |
| 2014 | 22,077,748 | 6,118,610 | 5,780,253 | 28,196,358 |
| 2015 | 21,364,572 | 7,506,367 | 6,091,768 | 28,870,939 |
| 2016 | 23,436,562 | 6,117,741 | 6,442,838 | 29,554,303 |
| 2017 | 23,875,587 | 6,346,675 | 6,618,675 | 30,222,262 |
| 2018 | 24,819,995 | 6,050,646 | 6,853,282 | 30,870,641 |
| 2019 | 26,321,112 | 5,201,178 | 7,060,993 | 31,522,290 |
| 2020 | 27,495,117 | 4,685,284 | 7,144,049 | 32,180,401 |

| | PEC | FEC |
|------|---------|---------|
| 2000 | 265,360 | 248,601 |
| 2001 | 265,537 | 239,647 |
| 2002 | 261,021 | 235,248 |
| 2003 | 252,509 | 213,990 |
| 2004 | 248,144 | 211,473 |
| 2005 | 240,541 | 211,325 |
| 2006 | 270,174 | 216,587 |
| 2007 | 268,961 | 212,433 |
| 2008 | 267,356 | 207,683 |
| 2009 | 252,272 | 240,331 |
| 2010 | 286,716 | 244,516 |
| 2011 | 318,674 | 279,523 |
| 2012 | 351,781 | 304,756 |
| 2013 | 356,188 | 306,364 |
| 2014 | 371,930 | 309,335 |
| 2015 | 386,976 | 312,070 |
| 2016 | 376,259 | 309,116 |
| 2017 | 362,563 | 309,771 |
| 2018 | 425,278 | 335,983 |
| 2019 | 443,624 | 347,343 |
| 2020 | 490,228 | 368,303 |

PRIMARY AND FINAL ENERGY CONSUMPTION