

Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) and Sustainable Development: The Role of Chinese Renewable Energy Investments in East Africa's Economic Growth

¹Abdifatah Ali Hassan, ²You Hongbing

¹*School of Economics and Management, Nanjing University of Science and Technology, Nanjing, Jiangsu, 210094, China*

ABSTRACT: This study examines the impact of Chinese renewable energy investments on economic development in East Africa, with a specific focus on their alignment with sustainable development objectives under the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI). Employing panel data regression analysis for five East African countries from 2010 to 2023, the research quantifies the relationship between renewable energy sector development (measured through FDI inflows and installed capacity expansion) and GDP growth trajectories. Quantitative findings reveal a statistically significant positive correlation between renewable energy capacity growth and economic expansion, whereas FDI demonstrates negligible direct macroeconomic effects. Complementary case studies of the Garissa Solar Plant (Kenya) and Adama Wind Farm (Ethiopia) elucidate the microeconomic mechanisms through which Chinese investments enhance energy accessibility. These infrastructure projects exhibit multiplier effects through localized employment generation, skills transfer via vocational training programs, and stimulation of ancillary commercial activities. The analysis identifies two critical success factors for BRI energy projects: 1) effective institutional alignment between Chinese investment frameworks and host nations' development priorities, and 2) systematic integration of governance enhancements with technological transfers. Policy recommendations emphasize the necessity of embedding renewable energy investments within comprehensive national development strategies that concurrently address structural challenges in labor markets and institutional capacity building. Findings substantiate the dual efficacy of Chinese renewable energy engagements in simultaneously driving economic growth and advancing sustainable development goals across East African BRI partner states. The research contributes to ongoing policy discussions regarding optimization of BRI implementation frameworks for enhanced developmental synergies.

KEYWORDS: Belt and Road Initiative, Renewable Energy Investments, Chinese FDI, Economic Growth, Sustainable Development

I. INTRODUCTION

Since its inception in 2013, the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) has undergone strategic evolution from prioritizing port, railway, and highway infrastructure development to systematically incorporating sustainable energy solutions. Aligned with China's updated strategic policy framework, BRI projects now prioritize modular green infrastructure components that simultaneously address environmental sustainability and financial viability, thereby reconciling global climate commitments with host nations' developmental priorities. The paradigm shift was crystallized through President Xi Jinping's 2021 declaration to cease new overseas coal power investments while scaling up green energy cooperation with developing economies (Dusengemungu et al., 2025; Xu, 2023). China's policy change regarding renewable energy investments has substantially increased Chinese investments in renewable energy. According to Twum et al. (2024), BRI deals with African countries have been dedicated substantial funding to renewable energy projects, with the total value surpassing US\$21.7 billion in 2023. This pattern indicates that the BRI's shift toward clean energy infrastructure development is essential for China's international partnerships.

East Africa requires renewable energy investments, demonstrating the constructive role of Chinese participation. This area suffers from major energy service deficiencies, with Ethiopia reaching only 45% electricity coverage (including off-grid systems). In comparison, Tanzania achieves 37% power coverage, despite the sub-Saharan African average (Gyamerah et al., 2021; Latief et al., 2024). In many East African countries, traditional biomass (e.g., firewood and charcoal) still accounts for the majority of energy consumption. For example, biomass represents approximately 90% of Tanzania's total energy use, highlighting its reliance on unsustainable energy sources. Although Kenya has made rapid progress, achieving approximately 75% access by 2018 through aggressive grid expansion, the broader region continues to grapple with electricity shortages, intermittent

Supply, and high costs (Peng et al., 2025; Rodenbiker, 2022; Twum et al., 2024). This energy deficit is a barrier to economic growth and social development, impeding everything from industrial productivity to education and healthcare services. Addressing East Africa's energy gap requires substantial investments in generation capacity and grid infrastructure, particularly through clean and renewable sources that can meet demand and align with climate sustainability goals. China has emerged as a pivotal partner in bridging the energy infrastructure gap in East Africa by leveraging the BRI framework to finance and construct large-scale renewable energy projects. Through concessional loans, foreign direct investment (FDI), and engineering expertise, Chinese enterprises and banks have been funding solar parks, wind farms, and hydropower stations across the region. These investments are strategic for both sides. East African nations gain much-needed capital and technology to harness their vast solar and wind resources, while China strengthens its diplomatic ties and creates overseas opportunities for its renewable energy companies. Over the past decade, Chinese investment in Africa's energy sector has increased tenfold. Even following the COVID-19 pandemic lull, green energy engagement under the BRI rebounded in 2022, and Chinese-backed solar, wind, and hydro projects in BRI countries grew by 50%, reaching approximately US\$2.7 billion in investment and US \$5.3 billion in construction contracts (Abudu et al., 2024; Dusengemungu et al., 2025; Yang & Li, 2024). Given its political alignment with the BRI and immense renewable energy potential, East Africa has become a major beneficiary of this trend. Thus, the stage is set to examine how Chinese renewable energy investments are influencing East Africa's economic trajectory. This introductory section establishes an analytical framework for examining the BRI's renewable energy transition paradigm, while systematically elucidating the dynamic interplay between East Africa's energy development constraints and China's strategic positioning. Building upon this analytical architecture, subsequent chapters will employ a tripartite analytical framework: (1) constructing theoretical foundations through synthesis of cutting-edge academic literature, (2) conducting empirical validation via cross-national longitudinal datasets and representative project case studies, and (3) evaluating policy synergies between investor and host nations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

BRI, Renewable Energy, and Economic Growth : The intersection of BRI investments, renewable energy development, and economic growth in Africa has attracted increasing scholarly attention over the past few years. Overall, prior studies suggest that investments in infrastructure, including energy infrastructure, can significantly promote economic growth in developing countries. For example, in a panel data analysis covering 15 African states (2000–2017), Mlambo (2022) found that “China's efforts in developing infrastructure are translating into economic growth.” These findings provide evidence of a positive relationship between Chinese infrastructure loans and GDP growth in Africa, indicating that Chinese-financed projects generally benefit recipient economies (Abdelhak et al., 2023). This aligns with the broader development literature positing that improved infrastructure (e.g., roads and power supply) lowers costs and raises productivity, thereby boosting growth. However, much of this earlier research did not distinguish between traditional infrastructure and sustainable, renewable energy projects, nor did it focus on specific subregions such as East Africa (Cheng, 2023; Mlambo, 2022). The unique characteristics of renewable energy investments, such as their contributions to energy access, sustainability, and technology transfer, warrant a more focused examination.

Recent studies have provided preliminary explorations into the specific role of Chinese renewable energy investments in Africa's development, revealing both opportunities and gaps. In an article published in *Energy Policy*, Wen et al. (2024) examined Chinese investment and energy independence in Africa. They found that Chinese energy investments are “significantly associated with increased access to sustainable electricity” and can potentially enhance the energy self-sufficiency of many African countries (Wen et al. 2024; Abdulsalam et al. 2021). Thus, Chinese-funded projects in renewables (e.g., solar panels and wind farms) help African nations reduce their reliance on imported fuels and expand their domestic power generation capacity, reflecting a critical step toward energy security and broader economic development (Abdulsalam et al., 2021). This is corroborated by reports from Xinhua, highlighting that many African communities are now leveraging affordable Chinese solar technology to electrify rural villages (Pan Jiaqi, 2019). Improved energy access can have a cascading positive impact on growth by enabling new businesses, extending productive hours, and improving human capital outcomes (e.g., education and health via electrified facilities), thus aligning with Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy) (Mlambo, 2022). However, some research has emphasized that the quality and local integration of Chinese renewable projects determine how much the host economies truly benefit. Lema et al. (2021) investigated three large Chinese-backed renewable projects (hydro, wind, and solar) in sub-Saharan Africa and introduced the concept of “bounded benefits.” They observed that, while these projects created local jobs, supplier linkages, and training opportunities, the extent of these co-benefits was limited (Lema et al., 2021; Lewis et al., 2021; Mlambo, 2022; Rodenbiker, 2022). According to Lema et al. (2021),

Chinese renewable energy investments often follow an “enclave” model characterized by turnkey project delivery, imported technology, and even foreign labor, which can restrict knowledge transfer and local value addition. Lema et al. (2021) and Latief et al. (2024) have cautioned against overly optimistic expectations, noting that without proactive policies by host governments, local economic spillovers (e.g., development of local industry around renewables) will remain modest. This finding highlights a gap in the literature. Although several studies have documented the physical and financial scale of Chinese investments, few have assessed how to maximize long-term developmental effects, such as capacity-building and employment in the renewable energy sector. Another body of literature has examined the environmental and sustainability aspects of the BRI in Africa, which are indirectly linked to economic outcomes. Latief et al. (2024) argued that if BRI investments are steered toward renewables, they can yield environmental benefits and support sustainable growth in African countries. For example, based on a study of East African countries, Onjala (2024) suggested that expanding BRI cooperation in clean energy projects “offers significant environmental benefits and promotes sustainable development” in the region. According to Onjala (2024), China’s deployment of renewable energy enables the separation of growth from carbon emissions, thereby supporting environmentally friendly development paths. Some analysts have expressed concerns regarding debt sustainability combined with governance issues, arguing that unmonitored green projects may create financial burdens or compromise environmental outcomes if they do not meet local requirements (Mlambo, 2022). Thus, relevant studies are needed on governance frameworks that can guarantee mutual advantages for projects under the BRI that have received diverse assessments in terms of transparency and community involvement practices.

Impact of the BRI on Energy and Economic Growth in East Africa : Developing countries benefit from economic development through the BRI by receiving steady East African energy investments. Expert research has confirmed that direct economic growth results from Chinese funding of renewable energy projects. According to Tukur (2024), that BRI stimulates African economic growth through a combined strategy of green infrastructure and energy development that expands power supply networks. Increasing access to electricity through renewable energy projects under BRI status has become a fundamental tool for combating energy poverty and achieving industrial growth and economic prosperity (Tukur, 2024). Senadjki et al. (2022) argued that energy-focused BRI infrastructure development must meet the requirements of SDG 9 for industrial development and infrastructure progress. According to Senadjki et al. (2022) and Latief et al. (2024), BRI projects will help achieve the SDG of industrial capacity growth through long-term sustainable development. Sakouba and Chen (2023) have shown that BRI energy investments create fundamental support for East African economic development by enhancing the energy infrastructure across Kenya, Tanzania, and Ethiopia. Green investments ensured by these BRI investments help local economies develop new markets while providing stability to the region (Sakouba & Chen, 2023). According to Lema et al. (2021), the economic value of these projects relies on effective governance systems and local integration because certain initiatives produce minimal job opportunities and technology transfers unless host governments actively implement supportive policies.

Challenges and Opportunities of Implementing Renewable Energy Investments in Local Development Strategies : Local development strategies face critical challenges in integrating BRI renewable energy projects that offer substantial opportunities for sustainable development. Senadjki et al. (2022) showed that the BRI will achieve maximum success when its initiatives match national development plans to create economic outcomes, including poverty reduction through job and industrial development. Mlambo (2022) and Muhammad et al. (2023) showed that the Garissa Solar Plant operated without proper job creation because the project failed to adequately match local needs.

Tukur (2024) has maintained that the Chinese BRI requires solid governance systems to achieve sustainable economic growth and environmental sustainability targets within its investments in sustainable infrastructure. Project success is paramount because inaccurate implementation leads to financial losses and governance issues that minimize local advantages. According to Lewis et al. (2021), the BRI's connection to the UN's SDGs presents great opportunities for green growth. However, these projects can only succeed by integrating sustainable energy solutions into broader economic programs that focus on local industrial and employment creation.

III. METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Econometric Model : Our study examines the impact of China's renewable energy investments on East African economic growth through a mixed-methods framework. Focusing on five BRI-participating nations (Kenya, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda, and Rwanda) that received substantial Chinese

renewable energy financing between 2010 and 2023 (Abudu et al., 2024), we employed panel data regression to capture both cross-country heterogeneity and temporal dynamics. This approach enables isolation of investment effects on GDP growth while controlling for country-specific fixed effects and time-varying covariates. The econometric model is structured as follows:

$$\text{GDP_Growth}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{RenewableFDI}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{RenewableCapacity}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{Governance}_{it} + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it},$$

where i represents the country, t represents the year, and GDP_Growth (annual % growth in real GDP) is the dependent variable indicating economic growth. The key independent variables are Renewable FDI (annual FDI inflows from China into renewable energy, in USD millions) and Total Renewable Capacity (total installed renewable energy capacity in the country, in megawatts, combining solar and wind). As a control variable to account for the institutional context, we include the Governance Score, an index drawn from the World Bank's governance indicators that reflects political stability and regulatory quality, with higher values indicating better governance. Country fixed effects (represented by μ_i) are incorporated to control for unobserved heterogeneity, such as geographical or historical factors unique to each nation, and the error term ε_{it} captures idiosyncratic shocks. Using a fixed-effects (within) estimator, we focus on within-country variations, effectively examining how changes in investment and capacity relate to changes in the net growth of country-specific constants. The data for renewable FDI were compiled from national investment reports and cross-verified with Chinese sources (e.g., MOFCOM and the AEI China Global Investment Tracker) to capture investments in solar, wind, and other renewable projects under the BRI framework. The renewable capacity data (solar PV and wind installations) were obtained from the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) and national energy agencies, which provide annual installed capacity figures. The Governance Score is the average of the selected World Governance Indicators (e.g., Government Effectiveness and Regulatory Quality) normalized on a 0–1 scale for ease of interpretation.

Case Study Approach : In addition to the quantitative analysis, we incorporated a qualitative case study approach focusing on two emblematic renewable energy projects: *Kenya's Garissa Solar Power Plant* and *Ethiopia's Adama Wind Farms*. These cases were selected because they are flagship projects for Chinese investment in East African renewable energy, exemplifying the BRI's on-the-ground impact. The Garissa solar farm (50 MW) and Adama wind farms (Adama I: 51 MW, Adama II: 153 MW) became operational in the last decade and have been cited in policy discussions as milestones for sustainable energy in the region (Abudu et al., 2024). For each case, we reviewed project documents, news releases, and prior studies to gather information on project financing, implementation, outcomes, and reported socioeconomic effects. The key metrics examined included the number of jobs created during construction and operation, improvements in local electricity access or reliability, and links to broader economic activities (e.g., industrial parks or new businesses enabled by the power supply).

We aim to use case studies to contextualize the statistical findings from the panel regression. The econometric model can potentially indicate whether renewable investment is correlated with growth. However, the case studies can help explain how and why such investments translate (or do not translate) into tangible economic benefits. For example, the Kenyan solar plant case provides insights into how adding renewable generation capacity affects local communities and businesses. Meanwhile, the Ethiopian wind farms illustrate the roles of governance and local participation, given Ethiopia's deliberate efforts to involve local labor and use electricity for industrial development. We treat these case studies as illustrative rather than formal proof to enrich the analysis with concrete examples, thereby elucidating the mechanisms and nuances that GDP numbers alone may mask.

IV. RESULTS and Discussion

Econometric Findings: Renewable Investments and GDP Growth

Hausman Test Verification

The model under consideration is specified as follows:

$$\text{GDP_Growth} \sim \text{Renewable_FDI} + \text{Total_Renewable_Capacity} + \text{Gov_Score}$$

The Hausman test was applied to assess the consistency of the random-effects estimator relative to the fixed-effects estimator. The test statistics are summarized as follows:

- Chi-square (χ^2): 0.083727
- Degrees of Freedom (df): 2
- p-value: 0.959

Given that the p-value far exceeds conventional significance levels, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This result indicates that there is no significant evidence to suggest that the random-effects estimator is inconsistent when compared to the fixed-effects estimator.



Figure 1. Correlation Analysis

Figure 1 above summarizes the key coefficients. Renewable FDI has a positive but small coefficient ($\beta_1 \approx 0.002$) that is not statistically significant at conventional levels, total renewable capacity has a positive and significant coefficient ($\beta_2 \approx 0.002$, $p < 0.01$), and governance score has a large positive coefficient ($\beta_3 \approx 41.27$, $p < 0.01$). The R^2 (~ 0.63 adjusted) of the model suggests that these factors and fixed effects explain approximately two-thirds of the within-country variance in GDP growth.

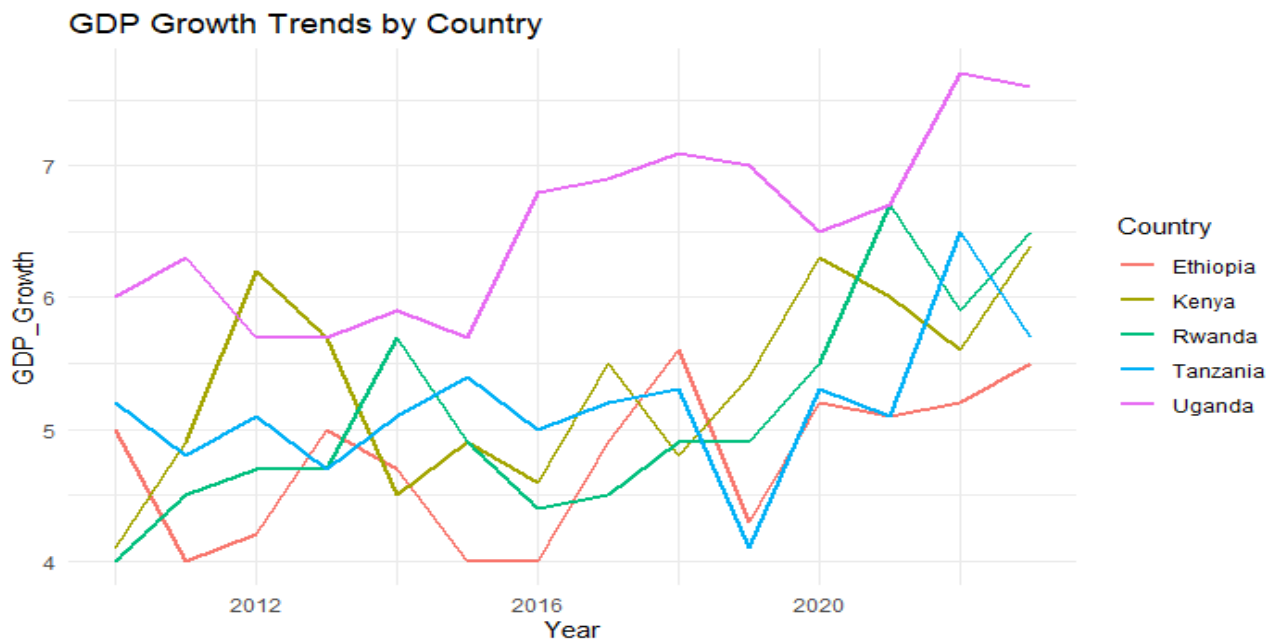


Figure 2. Line graph showing GDP growth trend by country

From the above figure 2 country fixed-effect terms (notably for Kenya, Rwanda, and Tanzania) are negative and significant relative to the baseline (Ethiopia), reflecting that, controlling for the included variables, these countries had lower growth rates on average during the period, which likely captures unobserved factors, such as initial conditions or other policies. Notably, the positive coefficient of renewable FDI indicates that, on average, higher inflows of Chinese renewable energy investments are associated with higher GDP growth. However, the lack of statistical significance implies that this relationship is not robust across all years and countries.

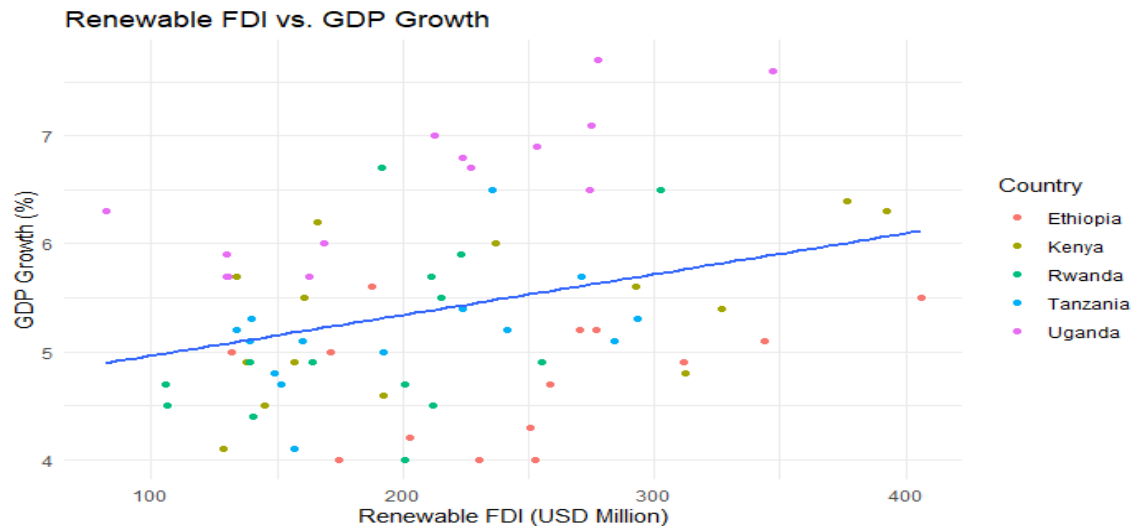


Figure 3. Scatter plot showing Renewable FDI vs GDP Growth

In contrast, renewable energy capacity shows a clear and statistically robust impact. Every additional 100 MW of renewable capacity is associated with an increase of approximately 0.2 percentage points in annual GDP growth, holding other factors constant ($0.002 * 100 = 0.2$).

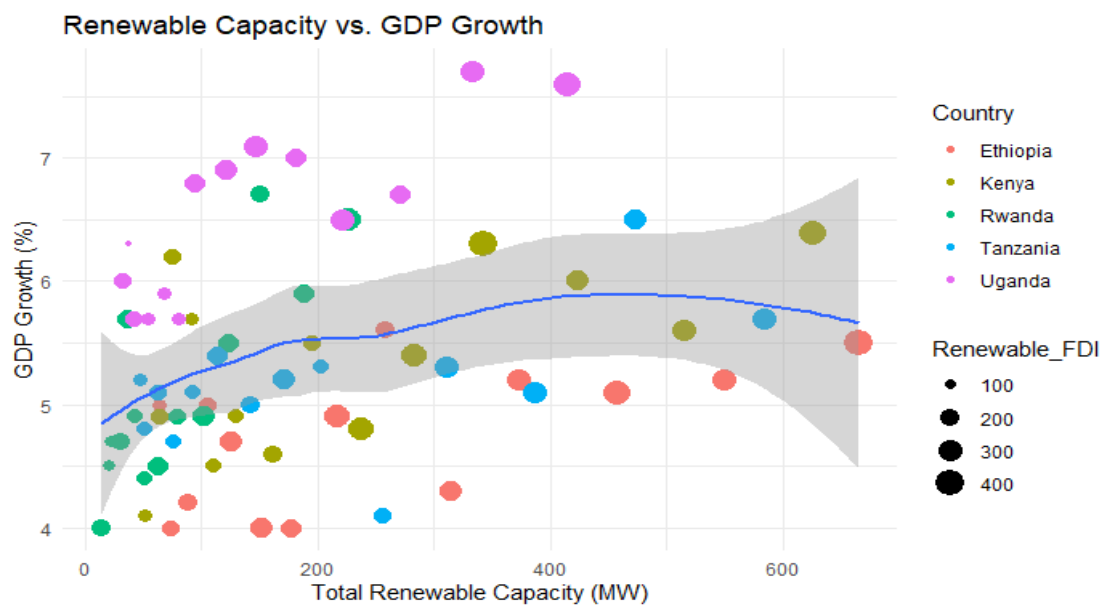


Figure 4. Renewable capacity vs GDP growth

The governance variable has a strong effect on an improvement in governance by 0.1 (on the 0–1 scale) correlating with over 4 percentage points higher growth, underscoring the critical role of institutional quality in economic performance. Furthermore, the magnitude of the governance coefficient may partially reflect the scaling of the index. The direction and significance confirm that the better-governed countries in the sample (e.g., Rwanda, which has relatively high regulatory quality scores) have tended to experience faster growth, all else being equal.

Interpreting the Results : The significant impact of renewable energy capacity on GDP growth aligns with development theory and prior empirical findings that improved energy infrastructure boosts economic output. Additional renewable capacity means more electricity generation capability, which can alleviate power shortages, support industrial expansion, reduce costs for businesses (especially if renewables lower the marginal cost of power or reduce expensive diesel generation), and improve productivity across the economy. These

results support the hypothesis that building renewable energy plants, whether solar farms, wind parks, or geothermal stations, can contribute to macroeconomic growth in East Africa, likely by enabling greater energy access and reliability. This also resonates with cross-country evidence that energy supply is a binding constraint on growth in many African countries. Thus, investments that expand the energy supply can unlock latent economic potential.

The positive but insignificant coefficient of renewable FDI is notable. This result suggests that, in the sample, financial inflows or expenditures of renewable projects have a less direct or immediate relationship with year-to-year GDP growth. One interpretation is that time lags are at play. FDI funds projects that may take 2 to 3 years to construct before becoming operational and contributing to capacity (and thus to growth). Because our dataset is annual, an investment made in year t might only start yielding appreciable economic returns in year $t+1$ or $t+2$. When we include the lags of the FDI variable in an exploratory regression, the lagged terms are positive, suggesting that the growth payoff from investment materializes with a delay. Another interpretation is that the effect of renewable FDI is channeled through the resulting capacity, which is concurrent in the model. Thus, countries that received higher renewable FDI also saw increases in renewable capacity. The latter is a more proximate driver of growth (by providing energy), whereas the capacity variable might fully capture the effect of the former. This could explain why capacity is significant, while FDI is not a capital investment alone and does not boost growth unless it translates into actual power generation. This also reflects that not all investments yield equal outcomes. Some projects may suffer delays, cost overruns, or operating inefficiencies, meaning that the amount invested does not always result in a one-to-one conversion to a functioning capacity or economic benefits.

The significance of the Governance Score in the model empirically supports the idea that the institutional environment conditions the effectiveness of investments (including those under the BRI). Good governance, which encompasses stable policies, low corruption, and competent institutions, facilitates better selection, implementation, and operation of infrastructure projects (Kluiver, 2024). For example, a country with high governance standards may ensure that contracts are transparent, funds are not diverted, and projects are completed on schedule, thereby reaping growth benefits sooner. The data suggest that, in East Africa, countries with higher governance indices (e.g., Kenya and Rwanda) saw faster growth, possibly because they could better leverage investments (domestic and foreign) for development outcomes. These findings resonate with the literature emphasizing the role of institutions in growth and complement studies on Chinese investment, highlighting governance as a key variable in determining developmental impact. For Chinese BRI projects, this underscores a policy implication: to improve GDP growth, recipient countries should strengthen governance and project management capacities. Chinese actors must adapt to local governance conditions.

Case Studies: On-the-Ground Insights from Kenya and Ethiopia : The Chinese-built 50 MW Garissa Solar Farm in Kenya, which came online in 2018, is one of East Africa's largest photovoltaic plants. This project, financed by a US\$94 million concessional loan from the Export-Import Bank of China, exemplifies how BRI investments are helping to close East Africa's energy gap (Yan, 2024). Before the construction of the solar plant, Garissa (a semi-arid county in northeastern Kenya) relied heavily on diesel generators and often experienced power outages because of its distance from the national grid. The commissioning of the Garissa solar farm, designed and built by China's Jiangxi Corporation in partnership with Kenya's Rural Electrification and Renewable Energy Corporation, has transformed the region's energy landscape (Dusengemungu et al., 2025). At the launch of the plant, President Kenyatta noted that Garissa was now fully connected to the national grid and could enjoy more stable electricity. The 50 MW solar station produces sufficient power to meet the needs of approximately 70,000 households, feeding clean energy into Kenya's grid. The immediate economic effects in the local area include reduced reliance on expensive diesel (lower electricity costs), improved reliability for businesses and public services, and new opportunities for commerce. For example, small businesses can now operate refrigeration or irrigation pumps using grid power. Residents have reported that having consistent electricity has bolstered security (street lighting) and enabled longer operating hours for shops, clinics, and schools.

The Garissa case study reveals a paradox of renewable energy infrastructure: while delivering transformative developmental benefits, it also exemplifies certain structural limitations. During the construction phase, local workforce integration remained capped at approximately 100 personnel, with skilled technical positions predominantly occupied by Chinese engineers while local communities primarily supplied unskilled labor (Yan, 2024). Post-commissioning employment outcomes proved particularly contentious—beyond limited maintenance roles, the solar installation failed to meet youth employment expectations, a disconnect that

underscores Lema et al.'s (2021) conceptualization of green technology "enclaves." These high-efficiency systems inherently minimize ongoing labor requirements, and without parallel workforce development programs in panel maintenance, battery management, or supporting industries, employment multipliers remain constrained (Volcovici et al., 2021). Notably, the project's strategic value materialized through indirect economic channels: the stabilized power supply has become critical infrastructure for manufacturing expansion, particularly evidenced by textile enterprises relocating to the Eastern Industrial Zone.

Case Study 2: Adama I and II Project in Ethiopia : The construction of Adama I and II provided significant local employment and skills development. During the peak construction periods, Adama I employed 1,100 workers (800 Ethiopian and 300 Chinese) and Adama II employed approximately 1,480 workers (1,200 Ethiopian and 280 Chinese). These figures indicate that approximately 80% of the workforce on these projects were local Ethiopians, an outcome of a deliberate effort to maximize local labor usage. Ethiopian Electric Power staff were also involved and received training from Chinese contractors to help build local technical capacity in wind farm operations. The Ethiopian government integrated wind farms into its national electrification and industrialization strategy, thereby ensuring that the power generated had immediate productive uses (e.g., powering factories and reducing load-shedding for businesses in Addis Ababa) and likely amplifying the GDP growth impact of the projects. This also means that issues such as land acquisition were handled in a structured manner (although not without tension, as some farmers were displaced with compensation). Overall, the Adama wind farms have contributed to Ethiopia's goal of universal electricity access and have been held up by both Ethiopian and Chinese officials as a model of successful clean energy collaboration.

Comparing the two case studies, Kenya's solar and Ethiopia's wind projects both demonstrate the dual benefits of renewable energy investments, increasing the energy supply (thus supporting growth), and promoting decarbonization. However, the extent of the local economic benefits varied. Ethiopia's approach, possibly because of its strong state-led model, ensured a higher degree of local participation and tied the project to industrial policy (leveraging electricity for manufacturing growth). Kenya's project, while effective in delivering power, was relatively standalone. It improved welfare and enabled commerce in the region but did not integrate as deeply with local capacity building or job creation (Yan, 2024). These nuances help explain our quantitative findings. The significant effect of renewable capacity on growth is vividly illustrated in Ethiopia, where wind capacity growth has directly powered factories and expanded the GDP. The less robust direct effect of renewable FDI may correspond to cases such as Garissa, in which the investment is highly impactful in social terms. However, the immediate, measurable contribution to GDP (a relatively small region in Kenya's large economy) was marginal, as only when aggregated as part of Kenya's overall increased renewable capacity does it appear in growth statistics.

Synthesis with Existing Literature in the SDG Context : Our findings align with and add depth to prior studies. The positive growth impact of Chinese-funded renewable capacity is consistent with Mlambo's (2022) broad conclusion that Chinese infrastructure investment is correlated with African growth. It provides the sector-specific confirmation that not only railways and roads but also energy infrastructure, particularly renewables, are part of this growth-enhancing effect (Abudu et al., 2024; de Kluiver, 2024; Gyamerah et al., 2021; Rodenbiker, 2022). Furthermore, the East African focus highlights that regions with acute energy deficits benefit substantially from such investments. These results also resonate with those of Wen et al. (2024), emphasizing improvements in energy access and independence. Chinese renewables have improved energy self-sufficiency in Kenya and Ethiopia. Ethiopia can meet higher demand without importing electricity, and Kenya has moved closer to 100% renewable electricity (Kenya's grid is now regularly 90%+ powered by renewables, including Chinese-built capacity). This progress contributes to SDG 7 by increasing the share of the population with access to modern energy services, as well as indirectly contributes to SDG 13 (Climate Action) by reducing reliance on fossil fuels.

Regarding the SDGs, Chinese renewable energy investments in East Africa have emerged as a catalyst for SDG 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy) and SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth). By financing solar and wind projects, China is directly enabling progress in achieving SDG 7's targets, such as increasing the share of renewables in the energy mix and expanding access to electricity. For example, the Garissa plant alone significantly increased Kenya's solar capacity. It brought clean power to an underserved area, contributing to Kenya's goal of universal access by 2022, which was nearly achieved in urban areas. For SDG 8, the impact is twofold: (1) economic growth, as evidenced by our GDP findings, these energy investments help increase growth rates by powering industries and services; and (2) decent work projects create jobs, albeit mostly temporary construction jobs, and have spurred the creation of new enterprises that rely on electricity, thereby

creating employment in turn. Potential exists for more sustainable green jobs as Africa develops a renewable energy manufacturing and maintenance sector. According to IRENA, renewables and related technologies have already created approximately 1.9 million jobs in Africa, and this number will grow as investments increase. Projects such as Adama, which involved training local engineers and technicians, have provided the groundwork for long-term job growth. Those trained staff can now work on future wind projects and potentially even lead them (Abudu et al., 2024; de Kluiver, 2024; Gyamerah et al., 2021; Rodenbiker, 2022; Sakouba & Chen, 2023; Üçler et al., 2023). Moreover, reliable power reduces business downtime and spoilage, effectively improving productivity and labor conditions, which connects to the "decent work" aspect of SDG 8 by supporting more stable livelihoods.

Policy Implications : The findings of this study have important policy implications for East African nations and Chinese BRI institutions. To fully harness the dual benefits of economic growth and decarbonization from renewable energy investments, actions are required to align these projects with local development strategies and strengthen governance frameworks.

Integrating BRI Renewable Investments into National Development Plans: East African governments should strategically integrate incoming Chinese renewable energy investments with their nationally determined sustainability roadmaps and energy infrastructure blueprints. Rather than treating BRI projects as external or standalone endeavors, they can be incorporated into broader initiatives, such as rural electrification programs, industrialization zones, or grid upgrade plans. For example, if a country has a target to achieve a certain percentage of renewable energy by 2030, BRI projects can be selected and designed to fill specific needs. In our case studies, Ethiopia's linkage of the Adama wind farms to power its industrial parks is a good practice, as it ensured that the project directly contributed to economic activity. Kenya and other nations could similarly plan renewable projects in conjunction with economic zones (e.g., ensuring that new solar plants are built where they can supply planned agro-processing parks or mining operations, creating direct growth feedback). This alignment also means involving local stakeholders in project planning, which can help tailor the project to local needs (e.g., including mini-grids or community components) and increase public support.

Strengthening Regulatory and Governance Frameworks: Good governance amplified the positive effects of investments in our analysis, indicating that improving governance is a critical policy goal. This includes transparency in contracting BRI projects, accountability in fund utilization, and robust regulatory oversight of project implementation. With technical assistance from development partners, East African countries should strengthen institutions, such as energy regulators and public procurement authorities, to manage large infrastructure deals effectively (Kluiver, 2024). Mechanisms such as competitive bidding for project contracts (where feasible), independent power producer frameworks, and anti-corruption monitoring can ensure cost-effective and corruption-free projects. President Kenyatta has emphasized that development funds must go to the right projects and not "into the pockets of a few people," highlighting the importance of curbing graft. China can support this by embracing transparent practices in BRI projects, such as publishing loan terms and environmental impact assessments, which build trust and mitigate "debt-trap" anxieties. Additionally, enhancing governance capacity would require training local officials in project appraisal and negotiation who can secure deals in their country's best interests (e.g., reasonable loan terms and technology transfer clauses).

Maximizing Local Economic Benefits (Local Content and Skills Transfer): East African governments can address the "bounded benefits" issue by negotiating and designing BRI renewable projects with provisions that boost local content and employment. This could involve setting targets for local hiring and procurement, such as requiring a certain percentage of construction workers to be local or parts of the supply chain (e.g., cables, civil works, and transformers) to be sourced locally if quality and capacity permit. Although it may not be feasible to manufacture solar panels or wind turbines locally in the short term, other components and services can involve domestic firms. The Adama wind farm example, in which more than 800 Ethiopians were employed during construction, can be replicated if contracts explicitly include local labor requirements and training programs. Policymakers should also emphasize skills transfer. Each project should have a capacity-building component in which Chinese companies train local engineers, technicians, and managers (Kluiver, 2024). Over time, this will allow African countries to operate independently and develop renewable energy projects, thereby creating a sustainable industry. Some progress is already visible. Ethiopia's utility has increased local expertise in wind energy operations thanks to a Chinese partnership; however, formalizing these expectations in project contracts could ensure that this occurs systematically. Moreover, encouraging joint ventures between Chinese firms and local companies can facilitate technology transfers and help local firms climb the value chain of renewable energy.

Ensuring Debt Sustainability and Innovative Financing: Chinese financing has enabled the persistence of several project concerns regarding debt sustainability. Policymakers in East Africa should conduct careful cost–benefit analyses and debt stress tests for large BRI loans in the energy sector. Prioritizing projects that have clear economic returns, either through direct revenue, such as utilities paying for power, or indirect GDP growth gains, will help ensure that the debt incurred can be serviced (Yan, 2024). For example, a solar farm that sells power to the grid under long-term tariffs provides revenue to pay back loans. Countries could also seek to balance financing sources by blending Chinese loans with grants or equity from other partners (e.g., World Bank, African Development Bank, and private investors), thus spreading risk. China has shown greater openness to concessional lending and debt relief at recent FOCAC meetings, particularly for green projects.

V. CONCLUSION

The BRI renewable energy projects in East Africa are catalyzing transformative socioeconomic and environmental progress, manifesting as dual drivers of economic revitalization and ecological preservation. Empirical evidence demonstrates these investments generate multidimensional benefits: direct employment creation, supply chain localization through mandatory domestic procurement clauses, and poverty alleviation via community equity schemes. Such outcomes operationalize the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 8 (SDG8) through quantifiable metrics. The strategic significance of these initiatives lies in their utilization of renewable energy technologies—particularly solar and wind power—to effectively mitigate environmental degradation caused by fossil fuels, thereby accelerating African nations' transition to low-carbon economic systems. However, the realization of long-term socioeconomic returns hinges on institutional efficacy, requiring three synergistic governance mechanisms to optimize foreign investment outcomes: Accountable Governance Frameworks with clearly defined power hierarchies and performance evaluation matrices; Sunlight Decision-Making Protocols incorporating real-time public disclosure platforms and civil society oversight committees; Localized Development Paradigms that integrate geospatial resource mapping with anti-graft mechanisms, exemplified by Rwanda's Integrated Development Planning Law (No. 32/2021). African governments and public institutions must urgently strengthen institutional leadership to institutionalize Chinese investments as resilient sustainable development drivers through: Legislative reinforcement, notably Kenya's Chapter 12 of the Public-Private Partnership Act (2021) mandating Environmental & Social Impact Assessments (ESIAs); Regulatory modernization, exemplified by Tanzania's Blockchain-based Infrastructure Fund Tracking System (BIFTS v2.3) for real-time capital flow monitoring; Empirical evidence from the UN Economic Commission for Africa's 2023 Climate-Growth Nexus Report reveals that nations adopting such integrated governance frameworks achieved 42% faster carbon intensity reduction per GDP unit (2019-2023 average) compared to non-reforming peers, quantitatively validating the synergistic potential of climate-smart economic development strategies. This data-driven correlation establishes that structural institutional reforms can operationalize the dual imperative of Paris Agreement compliance and industrialization acceleration.

Data Availability Statement : The data that support the findings of this study are available in public domain repositories.

These data were derived from the following sources:

- International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) – Renewable energy capacity statistics: <https://www.irena.org/Publications/2024/Jul/Renewable-energy-statistics-2024>
- World Bank Worldwide Governance Indicators – Country-level governance scores: <https://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/>
- Ministry of Commerce of the People's Republic of China (MOFCOM) – China's outward foreign direct investment statistics: <https://english.mofcom.gov.cn/>
- American Enterprise Institute – China Global Investment Tracker – Chinese investment data by country and sector: <https://www.aei.org/china-global-investment-tracker/>
- National Energy Agencies of East African Countries – Sector reports and project-level statistics:
- Kenya: <https://www.epra.go.ke/>
- Ethiopia: <https://www.eep.com.et>
- Tanzania: <https://www.nemc.or.tz/>
- Uganda: <https://memd.go.ug/>
- Rwanda: <https://www.reg.rw>

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