

# Low Voltage Inverters for Off-Grid and Portable Applications in Africa: Untapped Potential, Technologies, and Future Prospects

Moses Arthur Baidoo\*, Zhicheng Wang, Jie Cao, Bin Zhang, Jie Zhao, Wenjuan Deng, Silong Quan, Shenghang Yi and Qi Liu and Yuke Wu

Department of Electronic and Electrical Engineering, East China University of Technology; Nanchang, Jiangxi, China.

**Corresponding Author:** Moses Arthur Baidoo, Department of Electronic and Electrical Engineering, East China University of Technology; Nanchang, Jiangxi, China.

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## Abstract

With over 600 million people in Sub-Saharan Africa lacking reliable electricity, off-grid systems have become essential, yet most depend on medium and high-voltage inverters (24-48 V and above) that require multiple batteries connected in series to meet minimum input voltages, raising both cost and complexity. By contrast, low-voltage inverters, defined in this paper as systems operating below 12V DC, can function even with a single 3.2 V 300 Ah LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cell. This makes them a game-changing technology for advancing rural electrification by meeting basic village energy needs in a simpler and more affordable way. Leveraging advances in LiFePO<sub>4</sub> large-format cells, simplified BMS, and wide-bandgap devices (GaN, SiC), low-voltage inverters now achieve 90-95% efficiency, extend lifespans to 3,000-5,000 cycles, and reduce upfront costs by up to 20% compared to 48 V systems. Their applications span residential solar kits, community microgrids, mobile health clinics, small businesses, humanitarian relief, and industrial IoT. Evidence from pilot projects in Kenya, Ghana, and Nigeria demonstrates that these systems lower household energy expenses, reduce reliance on kerosene and diesel, and enable productive uses such as irrigation, refrigeration, and digital connectivity. The findings conclude that low-voltage inverters represent a distinct technological pathway, not merely scaled-down versions of conventional systems, with untapped potential to accelerate universal energy access, rural development, and progress toward Sustainable Development Goal 7 in Africa.

**Keywords:** Low Voltage Inverters, Rural Electrification, Off Grid Systems, LiFePO<sub>4</sub> Battery, Sub Saharan Africa, Wide Bandgap (WBG), Sustainable Development Goal 7 (SDG7), Energy Access, Microgrid

## 1. Introduction

There is lack of access to affordable and reliable electricity which is one of the most serious developmental challenges in the 21st century. International Energy Agency estimate the number of people in the whole world left without access to electricity at about 675 million of which the vast majority (IEA) is in sub-Saharan Africa [1]. Although the world has made significant strides in energy transitions, almost 80 percent of the people who lack access to grid electricity reside in rural places where it is either not technically feasible or prohibitively expensive to reach them with the grid (World Bank) [2]. Therefore, energy poverty is not a localized issue but it is a global matter in development which is interconnected with the issue of economic difference, climate change and sustainable development goals (SDGs). Access gaps in energy have intensified socio-economic divide between energy-rich and industrialized countries and

African continent has been at the epicenter of this crisis [3].

Almost 80 percent of the world's population without electricity, which primarily applies to Sub-Saharan Africa, is estimated to be 600 million people (IEA) [4]. Rural electrification has always been a challenge, as village settlements are scattered, there are insufficient financial capabilities, and institutional obstacles are present [5]. Centralized solutions are incongruent because rural properties have little purchasing power to cover the expensive cost of installing central grids over long distances [6]. This has made most villages rely on diesel generators, kerosene lights, and firewood, which is costly, degrades the environment, and is also not enough to meet modern requirements [7]. Moreover, the slow implementation of rural electrification results from poor policies and regulations, the underdeveloped industry in the region, and the feeble involvement of the private sector [8].



**Figure 1: Low Frequency Inverter South Africa Market Inverter 4000W Pure Sine Wave Inverter for House Application Power**

The availability of electricity is directly related to gains in education levels, health, communication and income-generating activities. In rural settings, electricity is used to supplement agricultural output in terms of irrigation, freezing of perishable foods and processing equipment [9]. Social well-being is another benefit of electrification since it allows the consumption of information via radio, television, and internet services [10]. Furthermore, current healthcare establishments cannot survive without stable power, as it is essential to power up the diagnostic equipment, vaccine refrigerators, and illuminating emergency services [11]. This socio-economic difference between electrified and non-electrified populations brings about the spotlight on electricity as a primary facilitator of human development [12]. Unless energy poverty is resolved, efforts to alleviate poverty, increase access to education, and promote health system outcomes in sub-Saharan Africa will be limited.

The majority of off-grid systems in Africa use high-voltage inverters, which generally have a nominal voltage of 24 V, 48 V, or even greater. Technically, these systems are efficient but very difficult to implement in rural settings. They frequently demand costly parts, upper technical knowledge to install and repair, and complicated Battery control strategies [13]. There is also an electrical danger risk posed by high-voltage circuits, especially in areas where households have no trained specialists or can rely on after-sales services [14]. This increases the initial and recurrent expenses that deter purchasing by households with low-income levels and micro-enterprises.

The third challenge has been occasioned by the lack of coordination between high-specification inverters and the actual energy requirements of the rural households. The common rural energy consumption patterns are frequently low-power ones which can be used in lighting, charging mobile phones, fans, and small entertainment appliances [15]. Using high-voltage inverters in these situations is both not economically practical nor necessary [16]. The effect arises as there is reduced use of the costly systems or results in dependent usage of conventional fuel during system failures. The distinction between these two challenges highlights the requirement in rural contexts to develop solutions that are optimal to the rural context, in terms of

both energy demand being low and reliability and safety being of paramount importance.

This review aims to analyze the future of low-voltage inverter systems, those that are at low voltages below 12 V DC input, as an off-grid system alternative to the traditional systems. The low-voltage inverters hold potential to reduce costs of the system, low maintenance costs, and an increased level of safety when compared to the high-voltage inverters [17]. Their offering of large-format lithium iron phosphate (LiFePO<sub>4</sub>) cells and simpler power conversion designs has enabled them to offer a route to low-cost and scalable electrification.

This paper highlights the distinctiveness of energy scenarios in Africa, where the vendor, clinic, and fisherman portable systems and modular community micro-grids are appropriate to low-voltage inverter technology [18]. Areas where low-voltage inverters can achieve high rates of returns in a socio-economic sense are indicated in the review, which includes the field of healthcare, agriculture, education, and small-scale enterprises.

Although low-voltage inverter technologies can be promising, their mass deployment has some barriers in terms of the standardization of the technology, locating the components, and adapting to environmental conditions in Africa. The current review intervention is therefore meant to critically evaluate these hurdles and recommend upcoming research areas with the primary focus on co-design with African stakeholders, localization of production of the devices, and policy arrangements that stimulate innovation [19].

Rural households and small-scale businesses are the main emphasis of the review, considering that they are at the core of African economies. Reliable electricity is a common feature that these entities do not have; thus, they are the most suitable entities to be served by decentralized low-voltage solutions [20]. There is also a focus on portable and emergency power systems that are necessary to mobile vendors, fishermen, health clinics and humanitarian relief. Their energy demands are small yet urgent and there is a need to have compact and robust systems [21].

## 1.1. Energy Access Challenges in Africa

### 1.2. Electrification Gaps

#### 1.2.1 Population without reliable electricity access

Although, Sub-Saharan Africa is associated with most of the population of the world lacking reliable access to electricity due to global advances in electrification. The International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) indicated that more than 570 million individuals in the region were still without energy and this number has hardly changed within the past ten years [22]. This is not merely an issue of insufficient availability of the facilities but also relates

to the frailty of the available systems. In many cases, even households technically linked to grid lines have long periods of outage thus, rendering access not only inaccurate but also not adequate to sustain the basic needs [7]. According to the African Development Bank (AfDB), in most countries of Sub-Saharan region, the annual per capita electricity consumption is less than 200 kWh against an average of more than 3,000 Kwh globally [23]. These gaps highlight the way energy poverty is a barrier to implementing Sustainable Development Goal 7, which focuses on universal access to the affordable sustainable and reliable energy (UNDP) [24].

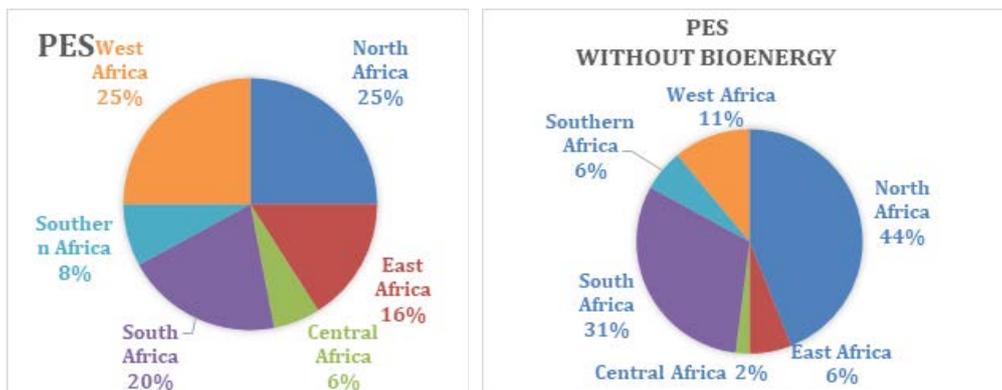


Figure 2: The Challenge of Energy Access in Africa

#### 1.2.2. Urban-rural disparity in grid connectivity

The highest level of electrification gap is experienced in the rural regions, which have the greatest presence of the population. According to Eberhard and Gratwick, although urban electrification rates in Africa continent have shown a steady increase, rural electrification rates are far behind not only because of technical limitations but also economic limitations [25]. To reach rural and lightly populated areas, central grids would have to be expanded in terms that significantly overlap with transmission and distribution infrastructure which, in many cases, is not economically viable given the low utilization rates [26]. The World Health Organization (WHO) emphasized direct impact of this rural disadvantage on health performance since clinics and schools in the rural areas cannot easily provide goods and services without reliable electricity [27]. Besides, Nygaard and Hansen, observe that traditional biomass continues to be a source of cooking and lighting among the rural households, and because of this, the energy access gap increases [28]. Such rural-urban divide has continued to augment cycles of inequality with the rural communities lacking access to modern services, which has continued to reinforce poverty and low levels of socioeconomic mobility [29].

#### 1.2.3. Dependence on costly diesel generators

Diesel generators are an increasingly common, but flawed, back-up in situations where grid connection lags behind or lacks altogether. Kirubi et al., contended that the dependence on diesel will not only result in overpricing energy to households and businesses but will also expose the economy to uncertainty associated with volatile energy prices all over the world [9]. Diesel generation is usually three to four times as expensive per kWh as renewable mini-grid generation

[5]. In addition to its economic cost, diesel reliance poses a threat to the environment due to greenhouse emissions and air pollution gases in local areas [30]. Van der Zwaan et al., emphasizes that diesel generation weakens the long-term energy security as the majority of the African countries import petroleum products, becoming victims of risks to foreign exchange fluctuations [31]. Moreover, according to Bertheau and Blechinger, systems that rely on generators often cannot satisfy long-term community demands where fuel supply networks of remote locations are not reliable [32]. Such constraints have led to the advocacy of decentralized renewable energy systems, e.g., solar PV with battery storage as more viable and cost-competitive alternatives to electrify rural areas [33].

### 1.3. Household and Community Load Profiles

#### 1.3.1. Typical Rural Power Needs (Lighting, Fans, Phone Charging)

The demand of energy in most rural communities in the region is comparatively less irrespective of the lack of energy-intensive devices besides the use of basic services provision. According to the studies, the power consumption by the household in most cases varies between 50 and 200 watts and most of them are consumed by lighting and charging of telephone as well as utilization of small fans within the hotter countries [34]. The importance of lighting is especially clear, allowing people to work in the absence of daylight, teaching children and ensuring the safety of their households [35]. Charging mobile phones has risen to another dominant load demand; in some African nations, mobile penetration is over 70 percent, which means that un-electrified households need to travel to the nearest trading centers or even make payments to paid phone charging

services [36]. Small fans, small radios etc. are also becoming more prevalent, particularly in areas where there is high temperature at night, so this points to the issue of comfort and access to information as a driver of household load profiles [37]. The existence of these low and yet vital forms of energy services indicates that the formulation of electrification policies should aim at supporting environments with limited energy consumption levels as opposed to the presumptions of substantial electricity demand levels that revolve around metropolitan environments.

### 1.3.2. Seasonal/Occupational Variations in Load (Agriculture, Fisheries)

In addition to domestic energy needs, the demand of the community centers on occupational patterns that are seasonal in nature. Electricity demand is also highly affected by agricultural phasing, especially in the areas where a community relies on irrigation and crop processing. The rural communities usually have sudden periods of upsurged energy needs when water is pumped using pumping engines, when grinding grain or post-harvest processing [9]. Refrigeration and ice-making are other important seasonal energy requirements in fishing societies in coastal/lake regions, which are used to preserve fish catch, mainly at time of peak fishing [38]. Small businesses like welding, and tailoring, grain grinding also increase their working hours during the hours when the power is on increasing the evening loads in trading centers [39]. This variability in seasons and occupational demands points to the inefficiency of a one-size-fits-all version of electrification and the fact that modularized, adaptable systems are required to respond to the needs of communities as they vary as well.

## 1.4. Infrastructure and Economic Constraints

### 1.4.1. High Cost of Extending Central Grids

The one of the reasons that long term of rural electrification is that grid expansion is prohibitively expensive. Expanding centralized grid to the low-density rural regions is a costly undertaking in terms of transmission and distribution of setups which are hardly worth the low demand densities [40]. Generally, grid extension in Africa may range between USD 10,000 and 20,000 per kilometer which is not affordable to utilities with limited funds [41]. The unfavourability of the economy is further enhanced by the low level of household consumption, which attracts poor sources of revenue to regain the expenses incurred in implementing infrastructure [42]. Consequently, most governments focus on cities and corporate corridors resulting in the growing gap between the rural and urban areas.

### 1.4.2. Fuel Logistics and Generator Inefficiencies

In areas where grids are not in place, diesel generators have been the option of last choice, but these mechanisms add significant inefficiencies and logistical problems. The sine diesel source of generation is both financially and physically unreliable and costly owing to the vary prices of the fuel, alongside rampant scarcities in remote regions [43]. Diesel fuels can only reach remote villages via transportation, which adds excessive expenses to the total cost and in some cases double the retail cost of fuels in towns [44]. Moreover, small-

scale diesel generators have a technical efficiency that is usually low (< 30%), which prompts them to consume more energy than they are supposed to and incur incremental operating costs [45]. Such inefficiencies destabilize the sustainability of diesel-based rural electrification and leave a lot of cost implications on communities and domestic arrangements of households.

### 1.4.3. Barriers to Renewable Technology Adoption

In spite of the undeniable potential of renewable energy technologies that have been widely discussed with regard to, and with reference to, the installation of renewable energy systems like mini-grids and solar home systems, a number of obstacles to the large-scale application of renewable energy technologies still persist. Low-income households are put off by high up-front capital cost even in situations where the long-term savings are evident [46]. The problem is worsened by a shortage of affordable credit and differing schemes of financing in the countryside [47]. Additionally, regulatory impediments such as tax regulatory frameworks and energy policy discontinuities tend to keep out the private sector [48]. The other issue is technical capacity; inadequate maintenance of the systems and equipment due to untrained technicians in remote areas results in unreliable equipment lifespan [49]. Societal obstacles are also quite present, given that in some cases, ignorance about renewable systems creates distrust or apprehension to switch to traditional fuels [50]. In aggregate, these difficulties indicate that a deployment of renewables on this scale in rural Africa must not just be technology-oriented but also needs to be facilitated by a favorable financial, institutional, and social environment.

## 1.5. Low Voltage Inverter Technologies

### 1.5.1. Definition and Classification

#### 1.5.1.1. What Constitutes a Low-Voltage Inverter (<12 V DC input)

Low-voltage inverters are a type of power electronic devices which converts Direct Current (DC) into Alternating Current (AC) at input voltages that are usually less than 12 volts. Such systems are aimed at the small-scale/portable energy systems where the concern is to be inexpensive, simple in construction, and safe rather than possess a high-power transfer capacity [51]. Practically, low-voltage inverters can accept DC input between 3.2 V lithium iron phosphate cells to 12 V or 48 V modular battery systems to ensure that they serve the small-scale power demands of households, micro-enterprises, and mobile energy consumers [52].

The technical benefit of using lower voltages is that the shock hazard is lower, in addition to simplified integration of systems. The low operating voltages reduce the chances of deadly electrical accidents which makes them easily applied in areas where people using the gadget do not have formal electrical knowledge [53]. Also, unlike the systems with high voltage, these systems do not involve elaborate compulsions of insulation and grounding which reduce the overall cost and burden of maintenance [54]. The low-voltage inverters are a way to safer and more accessible track to energy accessibility especially in rural and off sited areas, where

cost-effectiveness and ease of repair becomes vociferous [55].

Other flexibility displays in low-voltage inverters is the flexibility to renewable energies, especially to solar photovoltaics (PV). They unlock the way to scale affordable electrification in rural communities as they have used the advent of solar home systems and plug-and-play kits and their increasing popularity in rural areas to the full advantage [56]. Additionally, the newer semiconductor device advances, gallium nitride (GaN) and silicon carbide (SiC), further increases their efficiency, permitting low-voltage inverters to perform with low thermal losses and improve conversion, even at small power levels [57].

#### 1.5.1.2. Distinction from conventional 24 V / 48 V systems

Although conventional inverter systems typically operate at 24 V or 48 V DC inputs, the distinction between these systems and low-voltage inverters lies not only in their technical specifications but also in their areas of application. Medium- to large-scale systems generally employ higher-voltage inverters for purposes such as household electrification in urban and peri-urban areas, microgrids, and industrial backup power applications [58]. In contrast, low-voltage inverters are most effective when used to support small-scale power needs that rarely exceed 500 W to 1 kW, such as lighting, mobile devices, and small household appliances in rural settings [59].

There are also advantages of conventional 24 V and 48 V systems such as lower losses in transmissions and greater load carrying capacity, but the gains are usually unnecessary in small scale rural systems where distance and loads are small [60]. As an example, a rural home that needs only a few hundred watt-hours each day would not be helped by the complication and expense of the higher-voltage inverter-based power systems [61]. Rather, low-voltage systems correspond to a reduced initial capital investment as well as to technical issues in adoption since they can be incrementally combined with reduced cells, less sophisticated battery control and locally accessible components [62].

Additionally, in situations in which energy requirements are extremely non-steady or irregular, low-voltage inverters have an operational advantage. Unlike their high voltage counterparts, where heavier duty protecting devices are required, low voltage inverters allow sudden load variation and undue voltage fluctuations without inflicting much damage on the users or equipment [63]. The fact that this flexibility is most useful in Sub-Saharan Africa is especially important because power demands change in both household and rural seasonal jobs are a normal aspect of rural living in Sub-Saharan Africa [64].

The classification is also mirrored on varying routes to scalability. Whereas 24 V and 48 V inverters are aimed to apply to centralized or semi-centralized systems, low-voltage inverters are modular by design, which allows taking a decentralized approach to electrification. This renders them very applicable to mobile solar kits, pico-grids, and emergency relief energy generators, where such applications require plug-and-play functionality [65]. Low-voltage inverters therefore do not simply constitute a smaller-scale form of usual systems but rather, encompass a different aspect of technology that best fits within given socioeconomic and environmental scenarios.

### 1.6. Core Components

#### 1.6.1. Large-Format LiFePO<sub>4</sub> Cells (3.2 V, 50–600 Ah)

Energy storage medium is at the core of low-voltage inverter systems and in recent years this has moved increasingly towards high-current large format lithium iron phosphate cells (LiFePO<sub>4</sub>). They are often 3.2 volt per cell, 50 to 600 ampere-hour, generally long-life, and offer a safety, durability, and economy trade-off good for rural electrification and portable use. LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cells have greater cycle life than traditional lead-acid batteries and are able to survive over 3,000 to 5,000 cycles (at 80% depth of discharge), compared to conventional lead-acid batteries, thereby reducing the total cost of ownership over long-term deployments [66]. Because of their stable chemistry, they have reduced chances of thermal runaway and therefore are safer when used off-grid where professional construction and monitoring might not be permitted [67].

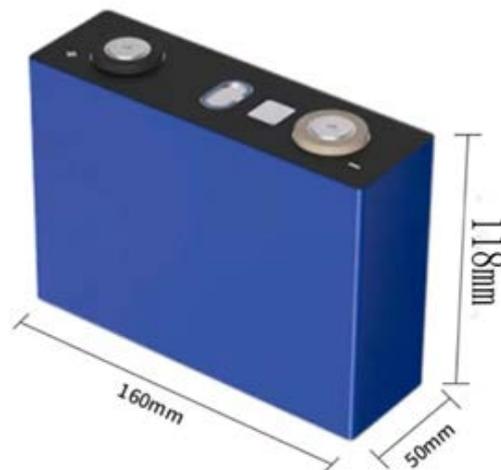


Figure 3: CATL 3.2V 100ah Lithium-Ion Battery Cell

The physical advantage of large-format cells as opposed to smaller modular formats is its simplicity. One high capacity cell negates numerous parallel and series connections, the number of welds, interconnects, and balancing needs [68]. It does more than just reduce points of failure: It also increases reliability even in abusive environments typical of Sub-Saharan Africa, including dust, excessive heat, and humidity. Also, LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cells have high discharge rates that allow compatibility with inverter and uninterrupted power supply (UPS) loads where they continue to perform well when subject to peak loads without excessive voltage drop [69]. Communities that have low yet critical energy demands given that they integrate such cells provide stable and efficient operation of inverters at the small scale that are

to operate over numerous years with minimal maintenance.

### 1.6.2. Simplified Battery Management Systems (BMS)

BMS facilitate the practical sustainability and safety of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cells, however in applications to low-voltage inverters, primary objectives of design are frequently simplicity and reliability rather than sophistication. Conventional BMS systems have been designed to be high voltage systems, with complex balance algorithms and thermal monitoring and communication treatments [70]. Nevertheless, in a scenario where affordability and maintenance simplicity are the primary factors of BMS architectures, simple BMS architectures offer adequate levels of protection against overcharging, deep discharges, and short-circuits [71].

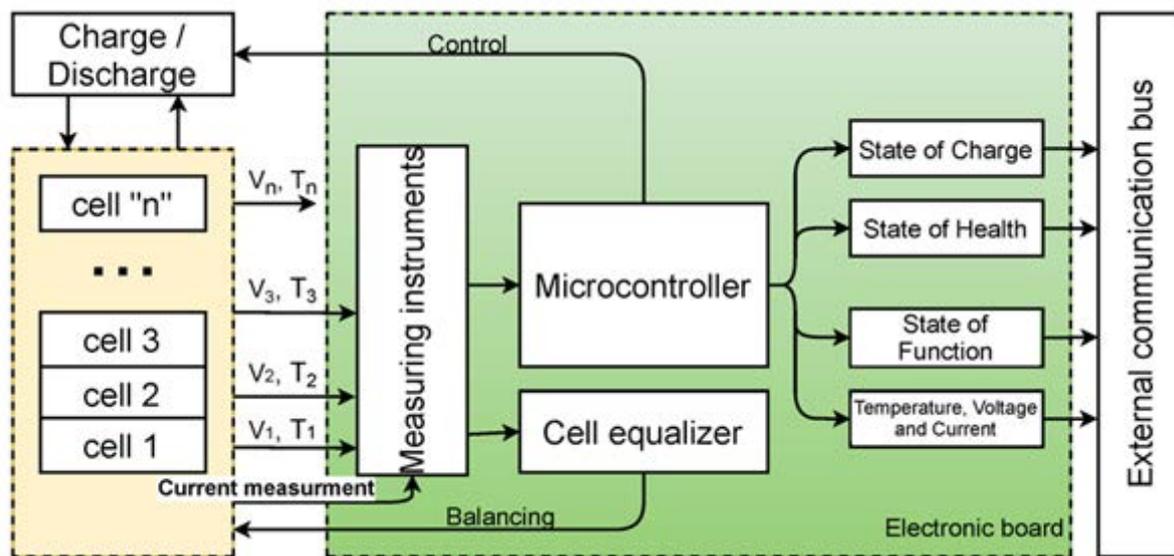


Figure 4: Simplified Battery Management System Diagram

The functions of a simplified BMS are especially essential in the setting where qualified technical assistance is in limited. Simplified design consisting of primitive protection links ensure the ease in troubleshooting and repairing systems by local technicians which limits down time and subsequent acceptance by the community of new technology [72]. Through this, simplified BMS implementation that is not dependent on balancing can be conducted reliably by exerting fewer components and at lower cost because the large-format cells have stable voltage profiles, thereby decreasing overall system costs [73]. Moreover, due to improvement in low-cost microcontroller as well as solid state relay, there has been development of small size and cost-effective BMS units that can be included specifically with low inverter assemblies [74]. Such traits cause simplified BMS designs to be very receptive to the modular and decentralized aspect of rural electrification endeavors.

### 1.6.3. DC-AC Conversion Efficiency at Low Voltages

The efficiency of DC-AC conversion is a characteristic feature of the activity of low voltage inverter systems. At lower voltages, unlike higher-voltage inverters that enjoy lower currents and consequently lower conduction losses, low-voltage inverters have to cope with much higher currents at

the same power output [75]. This issue poses a test when it comes to the designing of switching devices, topologies and thermal management in order to maintain the conversion efficiency at a competitive one. Low-voltage inverters are commonly optimized with H-bridge/push-pull topologies and have relatively low cost to realize, though they are only suited to smaller systems [76].

The conversion efficiency has also substantially increased with the introduction of sophisticated power semiconductor devices even at low voltages. Recent technologies of MOSFETs with lower on-resistance and wide-bandgap devices (gallium nitride (GaN) transistors) enable lower switching losses, better thermal characteristics, and increased overall efficiency [77]. It has been reported that even low-voltage solar inverter applications, optimized designs can achieve efficiencies of 90-95% [78].

The quality of the passive components, e.g. inductors and capacitors must be carefully sized to comply with high current densities without unwanted heating and emission of electromagnetic interference that would raise the noise level [79]. Differently, other conversion algorithms, like pulse-width modulation (PWM) or maximum power point tracking

(MPPT) are in the front line when it is to avoid conversion loss, particularly in combination with solar photovoltaic systems [80]. In the case of applications in rural and portable applications, high efficiency is not only an engineering target but an economic imperative: each percentage improvement in inverter efficiency results immediately in added battery life, lower system costs and associated reliability improvements in the provision of critical services.

### 1.7. Inverter Topologies

Inverter topology is a particularly important consideration in the design of the low-voltage power system because it is the choice of topology that confers a number of attributes of value to the performance of the system beyond efficiency, such as reliability, cost, compatibility with renewables and with other applications. Inverter topologies used in off-grid and portable uses, where cost, modularity, and safety are highly valued, have to trade off notebook based technical limitations with practical limitations. Among several other

possibilities, the most interesting ones with regards to low-voltage systems are the H- bridge, the push-pull, the flyback, the multilevel mini-inverters and the bidirectional models. The features of each of the cables make them benefit certain levels of loads, operating conditions and integration schemes.

#### 1.7.1. H-Bridge

No topology is more commonly used than the H-bridge configuration in low-voltage inverter design, because of the simplicity of the connection, its compactness and low cost. It has four switches in the shape of H that enables the polarity of the DC input to be reversed to provide an AC out signal waveform [81]. The H-bridge has the advantage of providing square-wave or modified sine-wave output in low-voltage applications using comparatively few components and may be of value in portable power supplies and small solar inverter kits [82].

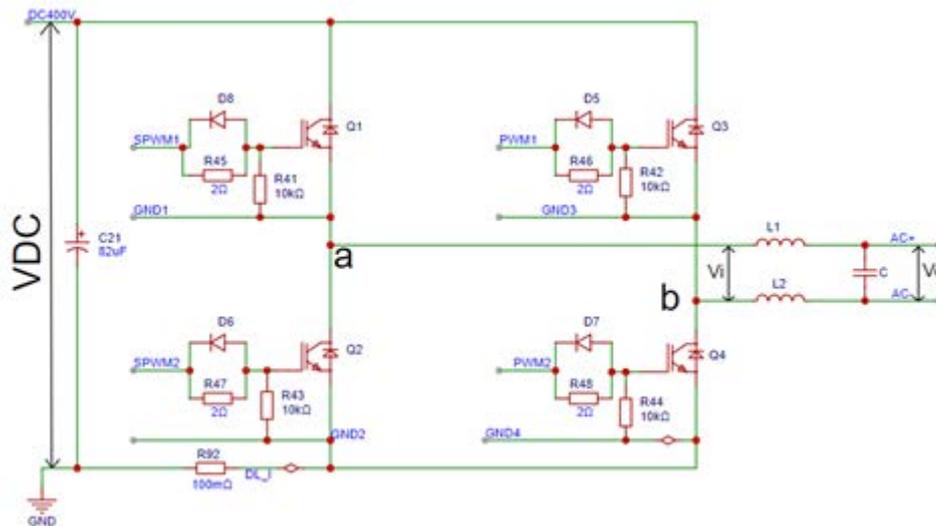


Figure 5: Inverter Bridge Circuit Design

Nevertheless, against its popularity, the H-bridge has some drawbacks such as the intensity of harmonic distortion and reduced effectiveness when connected to high loads. Numerous modulation techniques have been investigated in order to enhance the quality of the output signal or waveform and limit total harmonic distortion (THD) e.g. pulse-width modulation (PWM) [83]. Further, the application of newer devices, such as the so-called modern MOSFET and insulated gate bipolar transistors (IGBTs) have improved switching efficiency and thermal stability, making H bridge designs much friendlier long run or off-grid applications [84].

#### 1.7.2. Push-Pull

In a push-pull inverter topology, a compact and efficient inverter design solution is given when the power requirements are in the low to medium range compared with in situations where cost minimization and transformer isolation become vital. This arrangement utilizes the two transistors in a push and pull configuration to move the current across the transformer and at the secondary side, there is an output waveform in the opposite alternating envelope [85]. The key benefit of it is the ability to utilize the transformer of the maximized capacity since the core is engaged during both switching cycle halves, which enhances the power density [53].

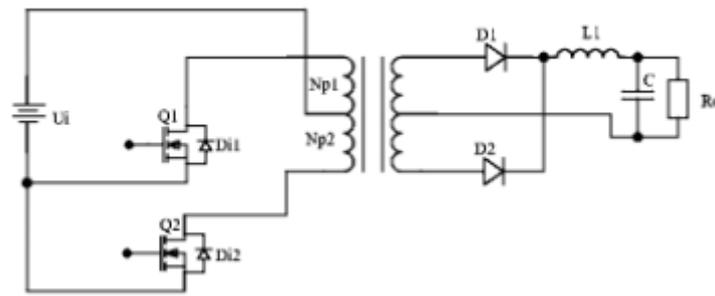


Figure 6: Push-Pull Circuit Topology

Using push-pull inverters in an automotive system as well as in small renewable energy systems is common due to their capabilities of stepping-up low DC voltages to useful AC signals [86]. They however, are sensitive to transistor switching imbalances which may cause the core to become saturated, performance loss in efficiency, ultimately resulting in the failure of components. To curb these problems, a well-developed control method like current-mode control and digital feedback has been proposed [87]. This is an important reason why the push-pull topology finds application in low-cost, medium-power uses such as rural electrification, and

portable electronics.

### 1.7.3. Flyback

The flyback converter can be viewed as a flyback inverter and is particularly useful in low-power applications that value isolation and/or simplicity. The flyback topology is unlike the push-pull whereby it uses the energy stored in the transformer during switch-on release to switch off [88]. This makes possible intrinsic galvanic isolation and space-saving compactness with the same transformer providing both induction and energy storage.

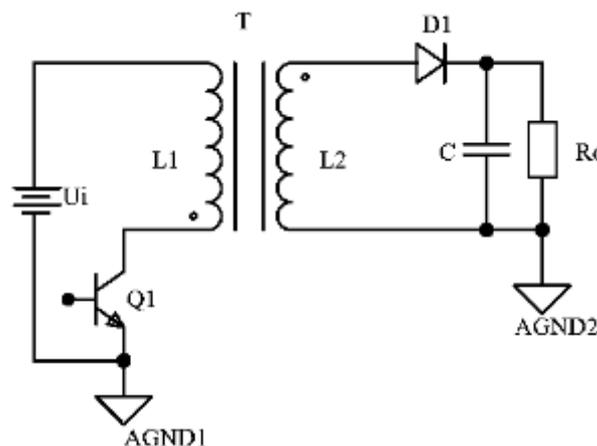


Figure 7: Flyback Converter

Flyback designs also tend to be valuable in low-voltage inverters when the workload to be powered is small, like lighting, cellphone chargers, and auxiliary loads [89]. The topology is also appealing in case of variable output solar power applications, where panel voltages vary greatly [90]. However, it is much less efficient than a push-pull, or H-bridge system, especially at higher power levels. The more recent innovations such as resonant switching and wide-bandgap semiconductors have enhanced the efficiency of flyback inverters and had their use applied in microinverter scenarios [91].

### 1.7.4. Multilevel Mini-Inverters

Multilevel differentiators have become popular in the field of renewable energy integrations and smaller systems, too, known as multilevel mini-inverters, are now used to power small solar energy or portable applications. The basic concept is to combine a staircase waveform using more than one voltage level thereby minimizing the harmonic distortion,

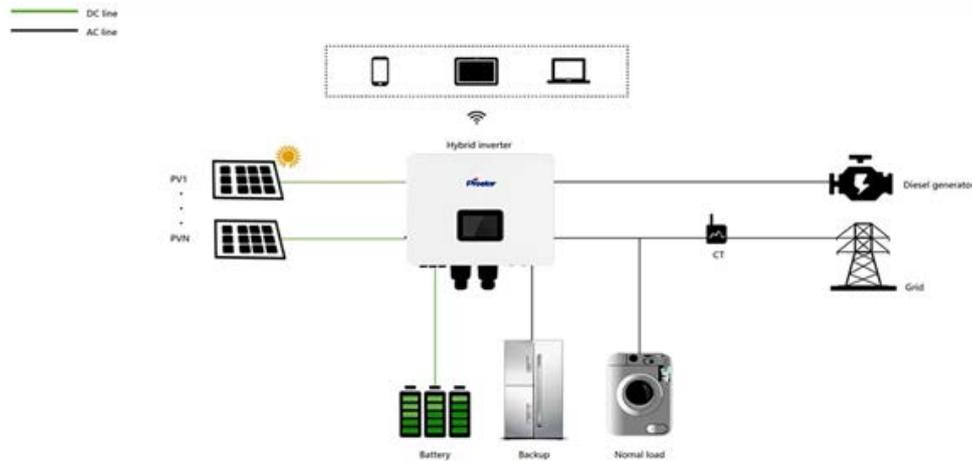
and enhancing the quality of power (Nabae et al.). Multilevel mini inverters can enable greater output voltage by using multiple smaller DC sources, e.g. PV modules or sub-packs of batteries, without necessarily using large transformers [86].

Their usage in low-voltage applications is also especially beneficial in distributed solar systems with the potential to improve the overall resilience and efficiency of the overall system by matching each PV module to a specific mini-inverter [58]. Despite having a greater number of switches and control complexity than an H-bridge or push-pull based topology, they are very well suited to modular electrification solutions in rural and peri-urban Africa, due to their capacity to provide grid-compatible sinusoidal outputs [92]. Miniaturization of control electronics and declining costs of semiconductor devices are ongoing trends that make multi-level mini-inverters more cost effective to decentralize power access.

### 1.7.5. Bidirectional Inverter Systems

Bidirectional inverters are a refinement of conventional topologies that facilitates 2-way flow of power across the DC and AC domains. This is a necessary functionality in systems combining energy storage, renewable generation and/or variable loads. In a typical system, besides just providing

AC power out of DC it is also possible that the inverter has the capability to rectify AC power to replenish the battery bank [93]. This feature is required in hybrid systems when renewables are augmented by grid/generator backup, and cable systems in emerging vehicle-to-grid systems [94].



**Figure 8: How Does a Bidirectional Inverter Works**

Bidirectional inverters are an important choice of low-voltage systems, maximizing the use of batteries and giving additional flexibility to the system. As an illustration, they allow efficient charging with solar panels during the day and discharging into household/ community loads at night, and they also allow connection with auxiliary AC generators [95]. Such control strategies as a droop control and a hierarchical management of a microgrid increase their ability to stabilize local grid loaded with variable renewable input [96]. Contrary to the unidirectional systems, they have the advantage to balance multiplex energy sources which makes them a major advocate to resilient and community-based electrification in resource-limited areas being more expensive than the unidirectional systems.

## 1.8. Performance Characteristics

### 1.8.1. Efficiency under low and medium loads

One of the most important measures of the appropriateness of low-voltage inverters to off-grid and portable applications is their efficiency. In contrast to large-scale grid-tied inverters that have been optimized to work continuously and at higher power, low-voltage inverters need to be effective at a low load where loss during conversion is more likely to prevail [97]. During light loads, switching and conduction losses are disproportionately high and this may cause the global efficiency to drop below 80 percent [98]. But with the improved topologies including resonant converters and better modulation techniques researchers have shown efficiency increases even with small power outputs [99].

The other efficiency determinant is the semiconductor device used. The development of wide-bandgap semiconductors, especially gallium nitride (GaN) and silicon carbide (SiC), has allowed low-voltage inverters achieve a high efficiency of over 92% at medium loads, and has reduced the efficiency gap between low-voltage and high-voltage inverters [100].

In addition, these inverters can be designed with customized algorithms that can ensure higher efficiencies in variable renewable energy scenarios; i.e., maximum power point tracking (MPPT) algorithms can be considered [101]. Such performance improvements are critical in rural and portable applications where each percentage gain in efficiency is translated to more battery life and a smaller system.

### 1.8.2. Safe Operation and Reduced Shock Hazards

The other definite characteristic of low-voltage inverter systems is their safety consideration. Working with less than 100 V DC lessens the possibility of electric shocks that may be fatal and this makes the devices more appropriate in those places where the electrical users and technicians may not have a formal training in electricity [102]. International definitions regularly establish the lower end of the range up to 60 V DC as being a safety extra-low voltage (SELV) area and highlight the low risk associated with such systems as opposed to high-voltage installations [103]. This becomes especially significant in the setting of rural electrification when there can be other vulnerable people like children in the household that have daily exposure to electrical devices [104].

In addition to the safety of the users, the reduced voltage will lower insulation demands, the chances of the presence of an arc flash, and the complexity of grounding systems [105]. This uses the least amount of cost on the whole system and at the same time operates safely. Moreover, protection schemes involving rudimentary fuses, circuit breakers, and surge protectors are adequate to prevent any dangers to the system without having to invest in complex and costly safety devices typical of high-voltage inverters [106]. Therefore, the nature of low-voltage inverters may in itself make them especially suited to community-scale solar kits, mobile clinics, and learning settings in remote locations.

### 1.8.3. Comparative analysis with high-voltage inverters

As compared to standard 24 V or 48 V inverters, low-voltage inverters have advantages and trade-offs that have to be interpreted in the rural and portable setting. In general, high-voltage inverters have a high efficiency because they operate at low conduction current density that diminishes the conduction loss in conductors and switches [107]. They also perform better in delivering a higher power load, and hence fit in a grid-connected system and industrial environment [108]. But what is gained is longer safety risk, greater insulation needs and system complexity [109].

Low-voltage inverters are, in contrast, designed to meet low power requirements, commonly less than 1 kW, where higher-voltage solutions have no functional advantage, or their economic cost is uneconomic. They pose less risk of electric shock, they are simpler to install and they can be used in rural households and in small businesses because of their compatibility with plug-and-play solar kits [110]. They are a bit less efficient at higher loads, although this has been narrowed considerably by recent technological achievements in device design and control logic [111]. In practice, they are commonly traded off against absolute efficiency maximization, in favour of affordability, safety, and easy maintenance. Based on all these, low-voltage inverters are already becoming a part of the realization that they are not just small-scale replicas of the high-voltage models, but are actually being optimized to fill a certain social and economic need [112].

## 1.9. Advantages in the African Context

### 1.9.1. Economic Benefits

#### 1.9.1.1. Lower System and Maintenance Costs

The overall system and maintenance costs have been a key benefit of low-voltage inverters in Africa and could be lowered with an adoption of low-voltage inverters in Africa. Compared to conventional high-voltage inverters that are more technically efficient in some respects, the costs of the components, complexity of the installation process, and advanced maintenance which may not be within the possibilities of rural settings are frequently involved [113]. As opposed to low-voltage inverters, which possess fewer components, resulting not only in a decrease of initial capital expenditure but also in the minimum long-term costs of repair. This economic efficiency can also be attributed to the fact that the households in Africa usually have little to spend on energy solutions, and the fact that the African population has to indulge in such low levels of disposable income, is a reality that governs technology adoption at affordable [114].

There are also major savings on the cost of maintenance in a low-voltage system. Such simplified architecture is less demanding in terms of specialized technicians, and typical faults are usually diagnosed and can be resolved by local operators with a limited education [115]. Furthermore, the less wear and tear on components, especially combined with lithium iron phosphate (LiFePO<sub>4</sub>) batteries that do not need much balancing, further reduces the need and cost of servicing [116]. Such cost savings are vital in locations when it is tricky to get replacement parts fast and expensive to

purchase due to logistical difficulties.

### 1.9.1.2. Reduced Bill of Materials (BOM) and Assembly Time

Another economic benefit to low-voltage inverter systems is shorter bill of materials (BOM) and reduced time to assemble. Since these systems work at reduced input voltages, they do not demand so many parts like busbars, heavy-duty connection, and bulk insulation parts [117]. Such simplification of parts can mean both cheaper material prices and faster assembly procedures, with a particular advantage in local production situations.

Indeed, local assembly of parts and local production of energy systems is one of the most critical measures taken in Africa in the context of promoting renewable technologies [118]. Inverters that are low voltage are best suited to this approach due to its streamlined designs, and this can allow small scale workshops or regional plants to fabricate the systems with much greater efficiency and less technical know-how [119]. Such localization of production, besides the cost reduction, linked to imports and tariffs, will provoke employment and knowledge transfer within African economies. Moreover, quicker assembly translates into shorter lead times in the implementation of rural electrification which are vital in hastening the process to universal accessibility of electricity [20].

## 1.10. Safety and Usability

### 1.10.1. Reduced Electrical Hazards in Unskilled Environments

The low-voltage inverters also offer clear benefits in African environments in the area of safety. High-electrical safety training levels are also lacking among households and technicians in most rural communities. High voltages, 48 V or higher, of high-voltage inverters contain the risk of electric shock and damage of equipment at inadvertent mishandling [120]. In comparison, there are low voltage inverters under 100 V DC, which are much less hazardous, and fall under the internationally accepted range considered to be safety extra-low voltage (SELV) (International Electrotechnical Commission) [121].

This mitigated risk is very crucial to the community approach; in schools, health clinics, and shared solar plants where several non-expert users handle electrical systems [122]. To illustrate, there are rural clinics that could use low-voltage systems to turn on the lighting, refrigeration, and communication equipment without risking the well-being of the staff and patients unreasonably [123]. Moreover, exposed risks make it less necessary to resort to such elaborate protective measures as arc-fault interrupters and complicated systems of insulation, which cost plenty of money and would be hard to look after in a remote African environment [124].

### 1.10.2. Simpler Design for Easy Troubleshooting

There is also the usability that uses simple design of the low-voltage inverters and makes troubleshooting and repairs easier. Advanced high-voltage systems may need exclusive

diagnostic tools and training, and thus they are not suitable to be employed in places where there is minimal expertise [125]. However, in low-voltage networks, diagnosis even using only the simplest tools and just the naked eye will permit the local technician to detect problems like loose connections, frosts, or trouble with fuses or subordinate circuits [126].

Such simplicity brings far-reaching long-term consequences to sustainability. Once communities become locally self-reliant to manage and maintain systems without having to rely on external engineers or high-priced service contracts, their sense of ownership and resilience would grow [127]. Also, basic troubleshooting minimizes downtimes, so that vital services like the lighting in homes or storage cold of medicines are always accessible. Low-voltage inverters also reduce access barriers to maintenance, and thus promote even higher system reliability and renewed confidence in renewable energy solutions among the affected community.

### 1.11. Portability and Adaptability

#### 1.11.1. Mobile Vendors, Fishermen, and Rural Clinics

A key strength of low-voltage inverters is that they can be moved easily, especially to facilitate and sustain mobile livelihoods and key community services. In Africa, a large portion of its informal economic sector is dependent on small business traders who need minimal supply of electricity to use in lighting, phone charging, or running refrigerators on perishable products [128]. To these vendors, the convenient transportability of small unit inverter systems to different markets or on trading routes helps in the reduction of dependence on any costly kerosene lamps or failure-prone diesel power generators.

Likewise, there is an urgent need in fishing communities in coastal and inland lake areas to have portable energy solutions. Preservation of catches requires cold storage and ice-making, and in the absence of reliable power, post-harvest losses can destroy incomes and food security [129]. Solar or small wind installations could power portable low-voltage inverter systems that would enable fishermen to preserve products in decentralized environments as well as use them to power navigation and communication devices [130].

Another area where portability can be revolutionary is the use in rural healthcare facilities and mobile clinics. Clinics remain non-grid in most areas, and power interruptions continue to plague the areas where this is not the case [123]. Configured in conjunction with effective batteries and solar panels, portable inverter systems can be used in life-saving applications such as vaccine refrigeration and sterilization apparatus, as well as basic night-time lighting related to operations [131]. Their compactness allows medical outreach services, which necessarily need to move to distant or nomadic communities, can transport energy solutions that are effective, light, and secure.

#### 1.11.2. Compact Design for Transport-Based Energy Needs

The size of low-voltage inverters makes them especially applicable to transport-related energy requirements. As opposed to high-voltage systems that occupy bulky transformers and complex protection and insulation, inverters work at low voltages and can be mounted on small boxes and with a minimum of accompanying peripherals [132]. This design aspect would be very useful when accessing energy in boats, tricycles, or vehicles in rural transport that facilitates mobile vending, delivery and processing of agricultural products [133].

The compact inverters also act as a 2-in-1 device within the same regions to propel vehicle systems and secondary loads like refrigeration or communication [134]. As another example, transport and energy services can be combined: battery-powered tricycles with low-voltage chargers have been piloted as mobile charging hubs in some East African locations [135]. Small size also increases end-user regulator acceptance, where smaller printers are easier to manipulate, hide and repair, essential where equipment can be ruined by theft, dust and harsh weather conditions in such locations [136].

### 1.12. Reliability and Resilience

#### 1.12.1. Operation Under African Environmental Conditions (Dust, Heat, Humidity)

Superior performances of low voltage inverter systems an important performance characteristic of low-voltage inverter systems is reliability under adverse operating conditions. High ambient temperatures, dust storms, and seasonal humidity are prevalent in many African regions and have the potential to damage electronic equipment [137]. However, low-voltage inverters are usually assembled with less sensitive components and less demanding insulation standards and therefore can be more tolerant to such an environment. It was discovered that overheating and dust on the high voltage systems are reported to frequently cause inverter failures in Africa, but such hazards are lower in low voltage systems because of less thermal stress and less complicated cooling needs [138].

Another hurdle is humidity, especially in the coastal and equatorial areas, which causes a rapid corrosion of electrical circuits. Low-voltage inverters' current technology can be compact, have conformal coatings and closed casing, to better withstand such environments than more complex high-voltage systems that have multiple uncovered connectors [139]. Also, being able to withstand the inability to cope with the inconsistent load conditions is a strength: low-voltage inverters can survive the frequent variations without using too many protective relays, without reducing the delivery [140]. These qualities render them quite applicable in the powering of health institutions, schools, community centers where the power must be dependable in terms of social impacts.

#### 1.12.2. Modular Expansion for Community Systems

The fact that low-voltage inverters are modularly expandable

is also another critical advantage of this type of inverter in African contexts. Electrification in rural areas can start with extremely low-scale systems that can just satisfy lighting and phone charging demands but eventually can increase to cover additional community load (e.g. schools, water pumping, or micro-enterprises) [141]. Such scalability is supported by the fact that low-voltage inverters can be incrementally added, without a system redesign [142].

This modularity enhances the involvement of the community and financial sustainability. Rather than needing to make huge initial investments, the households or community cooperatives can scale up slowly according to the resources available [41]. Moreover, modular systems are redundant to the extent that when one inverter is faulty, the other can still be in operation [143]. To NGOs and electrification initiatives using donor funds, modular low-voltage solutions allow them the flexibility of rolling out energy access in line with needs and capacities without overwhelming communities with the high costs or technical demands.

### 1.13. Application Domains in Africa

#### 1.13.1. Residential Off-Grid Solutions

##### 1.13.1.1. Solar Home Lighting and Phone Charging Systems

Residential off grid solutions are at the top of the list of most direct and broad areas of application of low-voltage inverter technologies in Africa. As access to grid electricity is limited to fifty percent of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa, solar home systems (SHS) have provided affordable alternatives to households and have gained popularity [144]. Such systems are often composed of photovoltaic panels, low-volt batteries, small inverters which is able to run LED lighting, mobile phone chargers, and radios. Their low cost, modular nature and non-dependence on unreliable national grids is what would be attractive [145].

The most popular energy service taken up by rural households is lighting. Compared to the use of kerosene lamps, solar-powered lighting provides great health benefits, decreases air pollution indoors, and also reduces the costs of household energy [146]. Charging of phones is one of the most esteemed applications of solar home systems in addition to lighting. As the penetration of mobile phones in the African continent exceeds that of electrification, the household considers the ability to charge their mobile phones not just as something essential to communicate but as something that also provides them with livelihood benefits because they can access various banking, agricultural extension services, and market information via their phones [147]. The effects of such small low-voltage inverter-based systems thus extend far beyond their immediate power outputs, to allow households to be wired into broader economic and social systems.

##### 1.13.1.2. Entertainment Devices and Small Appliances

With time, the energy need of households increases as they move through various electricity-related needs which now include phone charging, and lighting to entertainment devices and small machines as electrification expands. The next step on the energy ladder would be televisions, radios,

and palm fans, and inverters that work on low voltage are very suitable to these loads, as they have low consumption [148]. For example, a typical solar home system consisting of a 100 W panel and a low-voltage inverter is capable of reliably powering LED television sets and radios several hours each day.

The role of entertainment devices might seem to be bigger than it is because they are not only leisure instruments, but also their purpose offers educational and informational services. Health campaigns, agricultural tips, and political inclusions are done through radios and televisions in the countryside [149]. Households also appear to be productive with small appliances including fans, sewing machines, or rechargeable lantern intended to complement the household and microenterprise productivity. Households using solar kits in Nigeria, for example, have found ways to utilize them to conduct business in homes, to work at late hours, and to have more sources off the income [132]. In this way, low-voltage inverters do not provide only convenient life at home but also social and economic empowerment.

### 1.14. Community and Microgrid Systems

#### 1.14.1. Solar Lighting and Irrigation

On the community scale, solar PV and low-voltage inverters are scalable to pooled energy requirements through microgrids. Solar-powered street and security lighting are among one of the most frequently used. They enhance a safer environment, curb crime and extend community activities to the night hours to benefit trade, education, and health facilities [150]. Low-voltage inverters have transformed the agricultural communities through the use of solar irrigation systems. The replacement of diesel pumps saves farmers the expense of purchasing diesel fuel to run the machines, and also makes water available to farmers throughout periods of dry seasons [151].

Solar irrigation is especially effective in semi-arid areas like the Sahel, which is experiencing irregular weather patterns that contribute to food insecurity. A combination of low-voltage inverter systems and efficient DC pumps presents a viable alternative to farmers that is resilient and sustainable, and easily supports multiple crops and increased yields [152]. Notably, some cooperative models manage the systems, and this spreads cost and ingrains a sense of community ownership in a technology. Through this, the inverter applications on the community level extend beyond supplying energy and strengthen the food security and social resiliency.

#### 1.14.2. Educational Device Charging Stations

There is also an opportunity to develop an additional community-level implementation of low-voltage inverters in the area of the supply of charging stations for educational devices. NGOs and African governments have rolled out laptops, tablets, and e-learning devices to schools in rural communities in the name of digital education [153]. But the success of these programs is always limited by the unavailability of stable power to recharge gadgets. The use of low-voltage solar or renewable hybrid inverter-based

systems ensures that schools have dedicated charging infrastructure that is safe, able to be handled by the teachers and off-site local technicians [154].

These types of charging stations would not only improve the standards in the educational sector but also generate more communal advantages. It is common practice to send charging infrastructure to households after school hours so that the households can share the use of technology and the importance of investing in renewable to the community [155]. The electronic charging of schools with light energy and access to the internet also helps close the digital divide and provide the rural youth with instruments to enter knowledge economies [156]. Achieving these educational and communal needs, low-voltage inverter systems provide us with developing human capital at the same time encouraging sustainable electrification programs in the long-term.

### 1.15. Portable and Business Applications

#### 1.15.1. Market Stalls and Refrigeration for Food Vendors

Low-Voltage inverter systems Portable: There are heavy potentials in transforming the operations of the small businesses in the vibrant informal economy in Africa by the use of portable Low-Voltage inverter systems. Rural towns and the peripheries of urban areas are controlled mostly by market stalls, which use electricity to provide lighting, to operate point-of-sale machines, and to refrigerate the goods that are perishable [157]. Without access to inexpensive and mobile energy, a large number of sellers use kerosene lamps as a source of light and keep the ice blocks as a source of cooling, which is quite expensive and unsustainable. Decentralized solutions present a cost-effective alternative because inverters integrated with solar panels and battery storage allow working longer hours and slowing down waste production, and increasing revenues [158].

Refrigeration is especially important to food vendors since losses during post-harvest and storage are a significant impediment to food security in Sub-Saharan Africa [159]. As an illustration, retailers of meat and fish in small quantities are losing significant quantities of their products in storage and presentation processes as they lack a trustworthy cold storage facility. Refrigerators that are powered by portable inverters will go some lengths to alleviate such losses by offering clean and continuous refrigeration and even transportation of the vendors with them [160]. Such technologies not only help mitigate post-harvest losses, boosting profitability and hence livelihoods, but also contribute to wider nutritional benefits in rural and peri-urban populations.

#### 1.15.2. Mobile Health Clinics and Vaccine Storage

Mobile health clinics commonly play a central role in health service delivery in rural Africa because they move large distances to provide underserved communities with health services. Such clinics tend to have unreliable power supplies, limiting their capability to offer critical services including lighting, refrigerating, and running test devices [161]. A potential solution of this disconnection is low-

voltage inverters incorporated into portable solar systems, which can be a convenient, lightweight, sustainable, and safe energy source [162].

One specific application is as a vaccine storage. The problem of cold-chain logistics has also been raised by the World Health Organization on the behalf of Sub-Saharan Africa, where the electricity supply or its absence completely can often interfere with the vaccination efforts [163]. Refrigeration systems using inverters that can work successfully on smaller-scale solar systems keep vaccines at proper temperatures during transport to or inside small distant clinics [164]. It not only secures the provision of healthcare but also the resilience of such outcomes in case of emergency concerning public health, as in the case of disease outbreaks where mobile clinics will be needed to access vulnerable populations within the shortest time.

### 1.16. Industrial IoT and Remote Monitoring

#### 1.16.1. Agriculture Sensors and Irrigation Controls

The emergence of the industrial Internet of Things (IoT) has presented an opportunity to enhance agricultural productivity in Africa although such technologies need stable and distributed sources of power. Low-voltage inverters are essential in the applicability of small-scale sensors and controllers to monitor soil moisture, manage irrigation and determine the health of crops [165]. Low-voltage inverters, by incorporating with solar-powered micro-systems, allow sustained use of IoT devices in remote fields, where the farmers can carefully utilize water and enhance productions [166].

The use of automated irrigation systems with the help of these IoT devices with an inverter has already proven its high advantages. Such irrigation controls allow to use water more carefully and protect crops against drought in the areas where drought is likely, as well as decrease expenses of farmers since labour is consumed, in this case, much less [167]. These systems have additional advantages of food security in that they stabilize food production, despite climatic variability. Such technology may be life-altering to smallholder farmers, as it would enable them to move their production out of subsistence and into more business-like activities [168].

#### 1.16.2. Weather Stations and Telecom Relay Points

Environmental monitoring and telecommunication are another significant area of operation that low-voltage inverter allow industrial IoT applications. Weather stations play a crucial role in gathering climate information, which is used in planning of crops, disaster planning, as well as water resource management. Nonetheless, a large number of meteorological stations across Africa are underpowered or using diesel generation and are thus limited in their coverage and durability [169]. Solar panel-based compact inverter-based systems offer an autonomous and durable source of energy to power weather sensors to enhance the availability of data in remote regions [170].

Dependable and distributed power systems are also critical to telecommunications infrastructure. In rural Africa, telecom relay points and base stations are commonly not near the grid, and diesel generators are about 100 percent in use, which is costly [171]. A better and greener option would be low-voltage inverter systems in conjunction with renewable energy resources that will make sure that rural populations are connected to mobile networks and digital services [172]. The decentralization of power can extend the benefit of the digital divide addressed by expanding telecommunications channels to rural areas, as well as access to mobile banking, e-commerce and e-learning.

### 1.17. Emergency and Humanitarian Power

#### 1.17.1 Clinics, Relief Shelters, Disaster Response Kits

As concerning emergency situations and humanitarian aid, inverter systems with low voltages have become a solution of critical importance in the supply of stable and portable energy to the population that suffers from emergencies. Africa is prone to natural disasters, floods, droughts, cyclones and man-made crises such as armed conflicts and massive displacement. In this case, the supply of electricity may become one of the most urgent demands serving life-saving medical treatment, communication, and regular shelter services [173]. Conventional generators are easily employed in humanitarian settings, but they are subjected to many difficulties like fuel shortage, expensiveness, and extremely complex supply of fuel in distant locations in disasters [174]. In comparison, there is a decentralized and sustainable alternative, low-voltage inverter systems, which use solar panels and portable battery packs.

Whether it is medical clinics or a relief shelter, inverter-based systems are especially useful since they have the capability of providing power to vital instruments like lighting, fans, refrigerators, and communications tools [175]. To illustrate, solar-inverter kits may be portable to accommodate the refrigeration of medicines and vaccines in the event of an epidemic, but they may also provide the staples of diagnosis, such as ultrasound and oxygen concentrators in emergency clinics that lack grid connections [176]. The ability to transport, set up, and conduct maintenance faster, as well as the fact that a compact inverter-based kit is easier to transport and takes a short time and less work to set up than a diesel generator, has caused an increase in the use of these machines in disaster response teams (United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction [UNDRR]) [177].

In addition, electricity can be used in the disaster shelters more than just to help with medical assistance. In temporary settlements, power can be used to enhance security and mitigate threats of gender-based violence, as well as improve the community's well-being for lighting purposes [178]. The availability of charging stations for mobile phones also allows displaced populations to communicate with relatives, mobile cash transfers, and even get updates to humanitarian operations, strengthening the social and psychological tenacity of populations affected [179]. Low-voltage inverters enable humanitarian actors to increase the scope and integrity of their operations in fragile settings due to their

ability to lessen the dependency on centralized, fuel-based systems.

### 1.18. Transport-Based Power Systems

#### 1.18.1 Boats, Tricycles, and Small E-Mobility Hubs

In Africa, the transport-based energy systems are in the stages of a swift development, and low-voltage inverters are at the core of most of the innovations in this industry. In the continent, small boats, motorized tricycles, and other light modes of transport are valuable in the livelihood activities like fishing, delivery of goods, and movements in the rural areas [180]. But such systems do not always have a sustainable source of lighting, refrigeration and communication power. Making systems portable and powered by inverters allows them to turn the wheels of vehicles into mobile sources of energy, turning vehicles into sources of energy access in addition to their mobility functions [181].

In this case, the use of inverter-installed vessels in fisheries is growing in importance where refrigerators and cold storage are employed to ensure there are no post-harvest losses of fish, which would end up spoiling way before they could reach the markets [182]. Solar-powered inverter can use energy to reach rural market hubs in the use of lighting technology, communication electronics, and even an entertainment system, which enables it to be able to bring about micro-entrepreneurship activities in tricycles and small cargo vehicles [183]. They may also serve as charging-on-wheels, whereby rural homes without connection to the grid could be powered by these vehicles.

Exploration of low-voltage inverter technologies is also taking place in small-scale hubs present in e-mobility initiatives in Africa. These charging stations support the charging of the electric bikes and scooters that are gaining prominence in the low-cost and low-carbon mobility niche in peri-urban and rural settings [184]. Using both transport and energy functionality, such inverter-powered hubs will lead to less fossil fuel reliance, and open out conspiracy approaches to business around mobility-as-a-service [185].

Most notably, transport-based inverter systems can be modified to withstand rough African climate. Compact design, modularity, and safety benefits of low-voltage systems would be resilient to dust, heat, and vibrations that a transport operation subjected them to [186]. This way, such systems also lead to sustainable livelihoods in addition to larger aims of rural electrification, conservation of the environment, and climate change mitigation.

### 1.19. Case Studies & Examples

#### 1.19.1. Deployment Experiences

##### 1.19.1.1. Pilot Projects in Kenya, Ghana, and Nigeria

Pilot projects have also proved in African countries that low-voltage inverter technologies have the potential of expanding the population in rural and peri-urban areas with access to reliable energy. Solar power has also been used in Kenya with mini-grids and household inverter systems being installed to supply off-grid communities, especially in counties like Turkana, Kitui, and Marsabit, that are poorly

covered by national grid [9]. Many of these projects, which typically involve NGOs and/or private firms as partners to international donors, demonstrate the potential of low-voltage inverter systems to alleviate reliance on kerosene-based lighting and ineffective diesel-driven generators, as well as boost the living conditions achieved by means of lighting, refrigeration, and charging mobile phones [187].

The use of low-voltage inverter systems in solar home systems, and within microgrid structures, used in some community-driven electrification efforts in Ghana. The value of inverters that are flexible and modular allowing them to meet the changing household and community energy needs has been highlighted by projects in the Upper East and Northern regions [188]. This introduction has also aided smallholder farming, with conventional irrigation systems being bolstered by the introduction of inverter-assisted solar irrigation systems, in which the solar-powered systems make annual tending of crops possible, thus allowing upholding food security in semi-arid regions [188]. Notably, these pilot projects show that with cheap financial tools, low-voltage inverter systems offer rapid payback opportunities and benefit a wide-reaching economy.

There have been several pilot deployments in Nigeria, especially within the rural communities where they face problems with the unreliability of grid supply and frequent blackouts. In other places like Ogun and Kaduna, inverter-based solar kits have also been rolled out to households, schools and health facilities via both government-led and privately-led programs [190]. The pilot programs indicate that inverter-supported systems do not just make energy more reliable but also help households decrease energy-related spending by substituting expensive diesel generator operations [191]. Moreover, the projects designed with small enterprises and informal businesses, including barber shops, food shops and ICT centers, demonstrate that inverters present a channel, through which constructive utilization of energy could be harnessed to directly generate work and revenue [192].

On the whole, pilot initiatives in Kenya, Ghana and Nigeria indicate the potential of inverter-based technology to fill energy access gaps and at the same time point respectful lessons in terms of financing, community outreach and long-term maintenance. On an empirical scale, such experiences present a supporting character to the idea that low-voltage inverters can serve as complements to broader electrification efforts in Africa in a context-specific manner.

#### 1.19.1.2. Community-Level Adoption Patterns

Challenges within social and cultural dynamics of community level of adoption are also factors that determine the success of inverter technologies in Africa. The adoption trends tend to depict the income levels of the households, their social trust on new technologies and the perceived advantages of changing their traditional fuels system into an inverter-powered system [193]. In the rural Kenya regions, adoption has often been in response to precedent effect, with early adopters encouraging their neighbors to adopt

after showing them a clear improvement on their household living standards, e.g. brightening their lights, or improving air quality within their houses [194].

In Ghana, communities whose local leadership and institutions are proactive and cooperative have been found to migrate faster to inverter-supported microgrids systems. Communal ownership approaches where members of the community help to shoulder the expenses and burden of maintaining a system that uses inverter, ensures financial, as well as social wellbeing [195]. Besides, households would be more concerned about those energy services that influence productivity on a daily basis including charging phones to communicate, working pumps to irrigate farms, and refrigerating food [196]. Such adoption patterns that are influenced by demands highlight that community acceptance is enhanced when the technologies are in line with the instantaneous livelihood requirement.

Nigeria is a special case scenario where decentralized systems have developed an attitude in the community through unreliable grid supplies. The inverters have become the standard means of protection in any place with regard to blackouts in the network, and many urban and peri-urban communities are already used to this hybrid format of dependence on power [197]. The slow pace in the rural areas is due to the high initial costs and accessibility has been enhanced by means of programs that have subsidies, pay as you go finances, and the cooperative business ventures. Trust in service providers also affects the community adoption; after-sales services that are irresponsible or installations of poor quality have caused resistance in other parts of the country [198].

What appears to be present in African settings is that the issue of community-level adoption is not merely technical but rather a socio-economic process driven by affordability, culture and institutionalist. Long term adoption trends are based on stable system performance, access to finance, and incorporation of inverter-based solutions into local livelihood plans. As pilot projects are scaled to larger deployments, these adoption dynamics will be important to consider and address as a way to scale low-voltage inverter systems across Africa.

### 1.20. Cost Comparison

#### 1.20.1. 3.2 V Large Cell vs. Conventional 48 V Systems

Energy storage and inverter integration cost dynamics in Africa is core of the argument as to whether low voltage inverter systems using 3.2 V LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cells can perform better than conventional 48V designs. Grid-tied and off-grid applications are common with 48 V battery systems, where complex series-parallel battery connections are usually required in order to provide practical levels of energy storage capacity. Not only does this raise a number of cells but also complicates the wiring, balancing and protection systems that are necessary [199]. In comparison, more ampere-hour-rated 3.2 V cells in long format allow simplifying the system architecture by using fewer individual units to form a battery pack, also reducing the bill of materials [200]. This

simplification can be turned into lower install cost and a fewer failure points in rural African landscapes where there are limited sources of labor and technical expertise which adds to the overall cost-effectiveness [201].

The lower complexity of systems influences the inverter design, as well. The low-voltage inverters, which are specific to 3.2 V cells, do not need high-voltage insulation, time-consuming safety precautions, and expensive protection devices required of conventional 48 V systems. Comparisons of life-cycle cost of battery inverter systems find that large-format low-voltage systems can result in up to 20 percent lower initial capital cost under household deployment and mainly due to material efficiency and less complex electronics [202]. In cases where African household's affordability is the critical determination in the adoption process, such decrease in cost of upfront can make systems accessible or rather an aspirational technology [203].

### 1.20.2. Long-Term Maintenance and Replacement Economics

The total cost of long-term maintenance and replacement is a key factor on determining the economics of low-voltage inverter system besides up-front cost. The typical 48 V systems can have higher initial and when needed maintenance (NOT TOO CLEAR TO ME) as it may need due to cell imbalance, the degradation of a collection of smaller PSUs, and an increase in the rate of failure on the wiring and connectors [204]. In remote areas with very limited spare parts in Africa, it may not be easy to replace individual defective cells in a long string resulting in expensive system downtimes [205].

In comparison, large-format LiFePO<sub>4</sub> (3.2 V) cells operate at deep-cycling and have longer life spans, where the cycle life can easily surpass 4000 charge-discharge cycles and equate to 10-15 years of life in service [206]. The abridged structure in these systems implies that in case of the necessity of cell replacement, it is easier and less time-consuming. Moreover, the thermal stability and low risk of thermal runaway of LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cells minimize the risk of devastating failures, especially when applied in rural societies where a fire safety system is not available [207].

Economically, life-cycle studies show that the per-unit cost of large-format cells is costlier than their smaller 48 V counterparts despite the increased cost of producing a unit, less replacement frequency and decreased maintenance load result in a rise in cost-competitiveness over time [208]. As reflected in collectivized initiatives in sub-Saharan Africa, there is a stronger profit payback in low-voltage systems in circumstances where the replacement period rises past one decade in time along with microfinancing programs [209]. That is why it is important to note that in cases like this long-term economics is at play, not just initial cost, in determining trends in adoption.

### 1.21. User Perspectives

#### 1.21.1. Reliability in Extreme Environmental Conditions

The African User focuses greatly on the views of reliability in

conditions of extreme environmental conditions, which are about high temperatures, dust, and humidity. Performance of conventional 48 V systems is also expected to decline in such settings, especially when battery overheating and increased evaporation of electrolytes occur [210]. LiFePO<sub>4</sub>-based low-voltage systems exhibit better stability in tropical environments, such as superior resistance to thermal stress and an increased resistance to capacity fade [211].

Sahel and East African drylands communities, where dust and the temperature fluctuate are much prominent, have cited more satisfaction with low voltage inverters as there are cases of premature failure [212]. Likewise, in equatorial areas with wet humid environments, users can appreciate the waterproofing capabilities of LiFePO<sub>4</sub>-based configurations, since the system can keep its performance without much maintenance [213]. Practically, reliability assures users, who trust systems and therefore directly influence adoption rates, in that communities that have witnessed repeated failures of the traditional systems will most likely shun the technology altogether.

#### 1.21.2 Lessons from Field Technicians and End-Users

Experience of field technicians and end-users can teach valuable scale-up lessons on low-voltage inverter adoption. Some technicians also point to the fact that the low-voltage systems are simple, thus limiting the training needs that accompany the development of local capacity to install and maintain them [214]. In scenarios with limited availability of skills, easier designs enable local youths to work as energy entrepreneurs, forming the locally grown technical workforce that can help implement projects of decentralized electrification [215].

Instead, end-users are always concerned with ease, safety, and affordability as the major factors of satisfaction. Another benefit of low-voltage systems to many rural households is the possibility to solve minor problems without references to professional assistance [216]. Systems that avoid risks of electrical shock and limit indoor air pollution by providing an alternative to kerosene lamps and diesel generators are especially attractive to women as they are often the ones to organize household energy use [217]. Such views highlight the fusion between the design of technologies and their social acceptance where feasibility is as significant as performance.

In the field, there is also evidence relating to the need of trust in service providers and the availability of after-sales support, as a necessity in the long-term adoption. Through projects in Nigeria, Tanzania, and Ethiopia, we can establish that in countries where local technical support and spare parts are provided by the corresponding company, customers are readier to invest in low-voltage systems with higher prices [218]. The lessons emphasize the need to incorporate user experiences into policy regimes and technological development processes towards sustainable energy access in Africa.

### 1.22. Technological Challenges

#### 1.22.1. Efficiency Trade-Offs

### 1.22.1.1. Low-Voltage Limitations Under Higher Loads

A key technological imperative in the integration of low-voltage inverter systems into Africa energy environments is the uncertainty of efficiency trade-offs in case of scaling power requirements. Low-voltage inverters are appropriate in the household lighting, phone charging, and operation of small devices. Nevertheless, they are more likely to experience a drop-in efficiency when used to power water pumps or refrigeration or entertainment systems [219]. Such a decrease is caused by the increase in present requirements at low voltages that causes the resistive losses in conductors and other parts to automatically become higher [220]. By contrast to systems operating at higher voltages, low-voltage systems can transfer the same power with lower current, but since they must use thicker wiring, heat dissipation systems to prevent performance degradation, low-voltage systems cannot always be made to work with lower power rated components.

The inverter conversion efficiency is also subject to the effect of the load scaling. As research indicates, low-voltage inverters can achieve an efficiency of 90-94 percent under the ideal conditions but that efficiency is disappointed greatly when the load is in the medium to a heavy range [221]. These fluctuations are especially difficult in the African off-grid set up where demand patterns may differ significantly between day and night or season to season as is the case with agricultural irrigation or fisheries work [222]. This has had an effect on producing design/use mismatches among users, with failure in appropriate use or under-utilization as a result.

The fact that thermal management only adds further trouble, given that the lower-voltage systems produce even greater heat owing to increased current flows. The overheating problem, which is not only decreasing the efficiency of inverters in a rural African area where ambient temperatures are often greater than 35 °C, can be used to speed component aging [223]. Careful mitigation techniques, like oversized heat sinks or forced air cooling raise the costs of a system, making it less affordable to the end user. In this way, warning efficiency trade-offs of low-voltage systems introduce a far-reaching technological hindrance to the ample scalability of low-voltage systems to something more accomplished than fundamental household applications.

## 1.23. Component Sourcing Issues

### 1.23.1. Quality Concerns in Large LiFePO<sub>4</sub> Cell Imports

Another technological challenge is the fact that the whole world is using an imported component, especially the desire to obtain large-format LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cells in order to cover the markets of Africa. Although LiFePO<sub>4</sub> chemistry is known to be stable and safe, and have a long cycle life, its quality is anchored on the manufacturing standards of cell manufacturers that are largely based in China, South Korea and more recently in India [224]. African distributors can struggle to check the authenticity and quality of imported cells, and reports of subpar/counterfeit cells are available in the local market [225].

This kind of inconsistency harms system performance and survival efficiency as low-quality cells usually experience low storage capacity and increased self-discharge rates and variable failure conditions [226]. To communities that have made investments in energy systems via microfinance or cooperative projects, the early failures of batteries undermine confidence in solar solutions and become a factor in the reversion to renewable energy adoption pathways [227]. Often examples are given by field technicians of a case with flawed imports but they end up in a warranty scuffle that cannot easily be enforced across borders and ultimately leave the end-user in the lurch [228].

This challenge is also compounded by the fact that lack of standardized testing laboratories is the order of the day in most African countries. The lack of available test infrastructure to test incoming batteries loads will put the default option of accepting the information provided by the supplier [229]. Such reliance poses more risks of importing low-grade components that does not only interfere with safety but also efficiency. Therefore, keeping quality assurance in LiFePO<sub>4</sub> imports essential to the overall informativeness on the new low-voltage inverters around the continent.

### 1.23.2. Limited Regional Manufacturing Capacity

An intrinsically linked problem is that there is little to no regional battery/inverter manufacturing capacity in Africa. Although the need to use solar or off-grid energy systems is increasing, the domestic industries are insufficient, and are forced to consume imported products lacking batteries and even in basic electronic components [135]. The reliance increases expenses through tariffs, shipping charges and currency depreciation, among other expenses, and it is transferred to the final user [230]. However, in other countries where local assembly of solar home systems has arisen, like in Nigeria, Kenya and Ghana, the value chain is mostly imported, thus cost reduction and local labor opportunities are restricted [231].

The underdevelopment of supply chains to global disruptions is also a problem since no domestic production exists. As a case in point, the partiality of Africa to global logistical delays was brought to the fore with the COVID-19 pandemic slowing parallel supplies of critical components like LiFePO<sub>4</sub> cells and inverter boards particularly within the upstream space and surface space [232]. Such reliance does not only increase the costs of the system but also lowers reliability since the replacement parts cannot be available when required [233].

Furthermore, innovative developmental and research capacity is also limited, which explains why inverter technology has difficulty being adapted to the African environment and usage. Although advanced Asian and European markets are still improving low-voltage topologies in pursuit of higher efficiency, African settings usually deploy second-tier products that are not optimal regarding tropical heat, dust, or humidity [234]. The constraints can be alleviated by developing indigenous skills in the design and manufacture of components and this will need very high policy and investment.

## 1.24. Lack of Standardization

### 1.24.1. Interface Compatibility Problems

Lack of standard interfaces between systems resulting in incompatibility is one of the long-standing technical barriers to adoption of low-voltage inverter in Africa. In contrast to higher-voltage inverter platforms and, particularly, their propensity towards standards alignment (usually, to existing international standards), low-voltage solutions are far more fragmented, with manufacturers developing proprietary connectors, communication protocols, and protective interfaces [235]. This inconsistency causes problems with composing elements like solar charge controllers, batteries, and auxiliary loads, since they might not interact to full effect when taking the different companies into consideration [236].

For end-users, particularly those in the rural sector this incompatibility commonly leads to restriction of systems to one-supplier locked solutions leading to higher maintenance costs thus, lacking flexibility in scaling. Mismatched equipment may result in instabilities and imbalanced load sharing in terms of power in microgrid scenarios where multiple businesses or households may pool their resources together, as well as increase failure rates [237]. To make the matter worse, system components in many African energy markets cannot be replaced or upgraded easily because plug-and-play standards are lacking and doing so can be cumbersome and expensive. Practically, this interoperability weakness is present not just because standardization is absent, but also because consumer confidence in distributed energy system is weak.

### 1.24.2. Absence of Quality Certification Frameworks

It is also similarly troubling that few countries in most parts of Sub-Saharan Africa have strong quality certification standards on low-voltage inverters as well as related tools. Although there are international organizations that define tests and certification procedures of power electronics such as the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) and Underwriters Laboratories (UL), their application in African contexts is erratic [238]. Local markets are overwhelmed with cheap, yet unreliable and uncertified devices, many of which are imported to Asia and cannot be consumed due to unsafe and unsatisfactory standards [239].

With no regional certification agencies, there is a situation wherein counterfeit and substandard products can prevail and, therefore, result in safety risks to communities (electrical fires, inverter breakdowns, and system life shortening) [240]. Unless claims of products can be independently ascertained, households and communities have to place complete trust in the promises made by the vendors, which can be erroneous. Moreover, the absence of harmonization of certification is an obstacle to donor and government-funded programs to scale up renewable energy adoption as the project developers struggle to ensure that the equipment they procure will always comply with international performance standards [30].

These challenges could be reduced by developing the African

testing labs and certification processes that may enable the products to be safe and appropriate to the local conditions. Nevertheless, constructing these frameworks involves a lot of investment, policy planning, and technical knowledge, which most countries do not have at the present point in time [241]. In the meantime, lack of quality certification still isolates consumer confidence in low-voltage technologies.

## 1.25. Environmental and Battery Challenges

### 1.25.1. Impact of Deep Cycling on Battery Life

Batteries constitute the core of low-voltage inverter system and the system reliability is directly dependent on battery performance as well. Of great concern, repeated deep cycling of batteries is a common phenomenon in off-grid African homes that depend mostly on stored energy to meet their night-time demand. The severe discharge rates shorten the operational life of batteries especially those of lead-acid types which are large in numbers today due to their low price [242]. Even more resistant lithium iron phosphate (LiFePO<sub>4</sub>) cells also prove to lose this capacity faster with frequent charging beyond 80 percent depth of discharge [243].

When such systems are undersized in suburban areas, systems usually fail early due to people being required to fully exhaust their batteries before a single day comes to completion, which adds to the prices of replacement units [224]. This issue negates the cost benefit of low-voltage systems since the costs of replacing their batteries constitute a significant percentage of the lifecycle costs [245]. Besides, the environmental implications of unused batteries, namely, lead-acid batteries, are harsh, as they contribute to soil/water pollution in areas where no recycling mechanisms work properly [246]. Deep cycling is therefore not only performance and economical thing that concerns performance but it also brings sustainability concerns in the African context.

### 1.25.2. Temperature Sensitivity in African Climates

Temperature-sensitivity issues with the largely hot and humid African climate are another hostile environmental constraint that low-voltage inverter and their batteries potentially face. Although safer than other chemistries, lithium-based chemistries are susceptible to degradation when under regular high ambient temperatures above 3540 C, such as in West and East Africa [247]. High temperatures promote electrolyte decomposition, self-discharge, and lead to thermal stress around battery casings, contributing to a decrease in total cycle life [248].

In the case of inverters, the inefficiencies caused by the heat already pressure by the high current losses at low voltages cause either reduced performance at partial load levels or causes an abrupt failure at high-demand levels [249]. These issues are exacerbated by dust and humidity that enters the ventilation, corroding some sensitive electronic parts of a system further decreasing reliability [250]. These environmental issues reduce the resilience of low-voltage systems in Africa relative to higher-voltage systems, which are in many cases better thermally manageable.'

The limitation relative to them is possible to be addressed using context-specific variations that can take the form of passive cooling designs, dust-proof casing designs, and enhanced charge controllers that can moderate depth of discharge. However, such improvements tend to elevate the cost of the system, causing a trade-off between cost and the system life span [251]. Unless addressed systematically, temperature sensitivity and environmental stressors will be the major obstacles in realizing the proliferation of low-voltage inverter systems in Africa.

### 1.26. Future Prospects

The future of low-voltage inverter technologies in Africa is deeply connected to the capacity to integrate into the developing energy ecosystem, adjust to the flow of technologies, and seize opportunities made available by a policy framework ensuring value addition on a local level. With more access to energy across the continent, such systems are no longer only perceived as transitional stopgaps, but also as part of Africa, particularly as a long-term electrification strategy. The interaction of mini-grid expansion, smart energy management, local manufacturing, and research orientations are likely to define the path of these technologies and how its cost constraint meets the need to be sustainable and resilient.

### 1.27. Integration with Mini-Grids

#### 1.27.1. Hybridized Village-Scale Systems

Mini-grids have become an important avenue that can electrify rural Africa particularly in areas where expansion of the national grid is not just economical. The incorporation of low-voltage inverters within the hybridized village-scale systems is a chance to enhance flexibility and resiliency within the systems [252]. In contrast to traditional high-voltage systems, low-voltage inverters may be customized to household-scale energy demands and be interconnected to make modular clusters at the community level [253].

Practically, such hybridization may enable individual households to stay energy independent, and yet export and share surplus electricity with others during high production through local networks [254]. As a case example, the recent microgrid pilots in East Africa prove that the decentralized inverter-based nodes can increase the resilience of the system due to the failure isolation and blackout mitigation [255]. These types of hybridized designs would increase the technical performance, but also match the African socio-economic reality better, where, unlike centralized rollouts, a miraculous leap is unlikely to be possible in energy expansion.

### 1.28. Smart Energy Management

#### 1.28.1. AI-Based Load Forecasting

Inverter systems, low-voltage Artificial intelligence (AI) will provide a transformative contribution in optimizing demand-side management through enhanced demand-side management. The use of AI-based load forecasting instruments will allow a more accurate prediction of both household and community consumption to plan charging and release cycles of batteries more adequately [256]. This

type of predictive control leads to less battery strain, longer life expectancy, and less system loss time.

In Africa, where energy demand profiles are very dynamic and dependent on informal sources of the economy, machine learning models hold the prospect of real-time adjustment of energy supply to variable demands [257]. For instance, machine learning algorithms using data from mobile payment systems can help to forecast cycles of energy affordability, making both financial and technical operations of inverter-based systems more optimal. The possibility of combining AI and low-voltage systems is therefore the fusion of energy access and digital technology.

#### 1.28.2. IoT-Enabled Remote Monitoring

In combination with AI, the Internet of Things (IoT) provides opportunities to remotely control and monitor distributed inverter networks. With the low-cost IoT sensors, it is possible to monitor various parameters, including battery state of health, the performance of the inverters, and the prevailing ambient environmental conditions, and transmit the data to the centralized dashboards [258]. In the case of rural Africa, this implies that the technicians can remotely detect defects and instruct the local users on how to proceed without incurring the expense of sending them to the site [259].

The introduction of IoT also leads to the possibility of energy service companies to provide pay-as-you-go (PAYG) service provision alongside uninterrupted system uptime due to predictive maintenance [36]. Notably, the current technological knowledge gap narrows with the application of IoT to monitoring because systems are simplified to be observed easily and feedback loops establish the continuing improvement of the performance.

### 1.29. Local Manufacturing and Policy Support

#### 1.29.1. Opportunities for African Entrepreneurs

Clean energy supply chain the localization of low-voltage inverter production will provide a vast potential to African entrepreneurs to capture value in the clean energy supply chain. Although a lot of the hardware in use today is imported, fledgling local industry in Kenya, Nigeria, and South Africa is attempting local assembly and customization of hardware [18]. With specialized needs in mind, like hard-wearing cases in dusty conditions or modular plug-and-play system design, African companies will be able to establish a competitive horse in the market over imported products [260].

#### 1.29.2. Training and Open Source Hardware Initiatives

In order to maximize local innovation potential, the entrepreneurship ought to be accompanied by capacity building. Open-source hardware platforms and inverter control systems, etc., based on Arduino, are becoming the means of vocational training and collaborative design [261]. These efforts open up inverter designs to the Many by providing access that reduces barriers to entry by small-scale manufacturers and spurs regional ecosystems of innovation. Integration of technical education and entrepreneur skills

may transform into training programs that will spearhead the new wave of creative African energy players [262].

### 1.29.3. The Learning PART 8 Importation, Assembly, and Training

#### 1.29.4. Import Incentives and Assembly Support

On the policy front, it can be catalytic where governments can provide tax immunity to the imports of components but provide support to domestic assembly centers. Like the sector of those making mobile phone assemblers became established in Africa, during this trend policy measures could be made to enhance the development of inverter assembly plants [263]. These incentives would depress the cost of entry; hence, they would enable the energy sector to move beyond import-heavy solutions towards the localization of production to some extent to cut cost and create employment.

### 1.30. Research Directions

#### 1.30.1. Co-Design of Solar-Battery-Inverter Systems

The literature should be directed more towards a co-design approach where a solar panel, battery and inverter are not distinct, but coupled subsystems. These types of integrated designs could maximize the voltages levels, storage capacity, and the efficiencies of the inverter to be able to suit various African conditions [264]. Co-design is especially pertinent to the feasibility of ensuring that low-voltage inverters are compatible with battery chemistries such as LiFePO<sub>4</sub>, and solar PV modules used in small-scale implementations.

Understanding of household energy priorities will also be valuable to co-design research as it could also be used to help make technological designs more relatable to local practices, especially in Africa [265]. Through integrating the needs of users in the technical development, co-design provides a route both to technical, and social acceptance.

#### 1.30.2. Optimized Inverter Design for African Conditions

Lastly, designs of inverters specifically suited to the African climatic conditions such as hot ambient temperatures, large amounts of dust, and poor maintenance infrastructure are urgently needed [266]. The research can be on passive cooling systems, long-lasting casing, and easier interface that minimizes the rate of failures and affordable. Other possible areas to investigate are in advancement of wide-bandgap semiconductors, like silicon carbide (SiC), to achieve greater efficiency and thermal robustness in low-voltage inverters [267].

These lines of research hold the technical innovation as well as the guarantee that the peculiarities of African conditions will become an imprint in the next generation of inverter technologies.

## 2. Conclusion

Low-voltage inverter technology is discussed as a revolution that can be profoundly influential in the energy situation in Africa. These solutions are designed differently, given socio-economic and environmental realities peculiar to the continent, in sharp contrast to conventional high-voltage systems, offering potential to electrify over time,

on an affordable, safe and flexible manner. Due to the rapid urbanization of the African continent, population increase, and the urgent need to have universal access to energy, low-voltage inverters an autonomous energy source play a more important role in combating many other problems. Not only do their deployment fill the gaps in electrification, but they also precondition a more locally driven energy future that is more sustainable.

Because of their affordability, efficiency, and safety, they also offer a unique combination that can be used in varied African settings using low-voltage inverter systems. On an economic level, they have a reduced bill of materials, are easier to assemble, and have lower maintenance levels that enable cost effective-scale in both rural and peri-urban settings (Muller et al.,). Technically, they are very flexible, as they perform well with low and medium loads and are safer to operate since there are reduced chances of severe electric shocks from high voltage electricity (Sierra et al.,). They are in modular form, which allows their installation at the household level as well as a community level, making them adaptable to granting incremental access to electricity following the patchwork nature of energy infrastructure in Africa [144].

Also, the convenience and flexibility of low-voltage inverters open markets to mobile vendors, fishermen, rural clinics, and other platforms that do not have fixed needs of energy [19]. They can be used in the African environment because they thrive in harsh conditions of dust, humidity, and high temperatures, meaning that they are highly applicable in an environment with poor conditions (Mensah et al.,). All of these characteristics highlight how low-voltage inverters can be used as the foundation of decentralized electrification approaches.

Even though there are obvious benefits, less than what is possible is being exploited in Africa with regard to low-voltage inverter technologies. Many families have not converted to using inverter-based solar systems because they are now offering a cleaner and more sustainable alternative to relying on kerosene lamps, diesel generators, or firewood to gain access to basic energy sources (Oyuke & Schmidt). The product has not penetrated the market quite evenly, with the bulk of the efforts focused on East Africa, with West and Central Africa not being quite represented in terms of adoption and study [119].

Low-voltage inverters also have great potential in mini-grids, PAYG solar programs, and in hybrid community systems; this wider usage has the potential to fast-track achievement of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 7 of universal energy access [22]. Moreover, with the connection to mobile money solutions and IoT-based surveillance, Africa can potentially become a venue to explore new paradigms in energy provision that would offer the same financial inclusivity with maintenance consistency (Cross & Murray,).

The other aspect with untapped potential is local entrepreneurship. Taming the resource everywhere, Africa

might currently be an importer of applied technologies, which are not necessarily adequately adapted to this region; regional assembly and the design of products can change this situation and turn Africa into a center of energy-specific innovation (Kapfudzaruwa et al.). Not only could this transition increase energy security, but it could also create jobs, develop skills, and activate the local economies.

To realize the potential of low-voltage inverter systems, action is needed in a coordinated manner amongst many stakeholders. The policymakers should focus on enabling regulations, such as tax breaks on localized assembly, rural electrification efforts, and quality requirements that do not cause the markets to be flooded with cheap imports (Szabo et al.). Low-voltage inverter solutions also need to be included in the national energy frameworks in terms of governments, and they must be combined with grid extension and massive renewable investments [4].

The important role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) is a piloting of community-level projects, a facilitating process of financing mechanisms, in addition to documenting the best practices that are repeatable in other areas [38]. NGOs can also act as mediators between technology suppliers and end users ostensibly to ensure that the systems do not only get implemented but also maintained in a fashion that encourages sustainable systems.

Innovators and business owners will have to be empowered to ensure technological adaptation locally. A new round of investments in training, open-source design platforms, and regional innovation-centers will produce a new generation of African energy technologists who will be able to design solutions locally optimized (Karekezi & Kimani). Co-design approaches could be advanced further through collaboration across universities, private firms, and community organizations that would allow integrating African realities in technological development (Barker et al.).

Finally, making a transition to widespread adoption of low-voltage inverters will need an ecosystemic strategy that incorporates technological, financial, and social innovations. By being decisive, Africa stands the chance to use such technologies beyond gaining universal access to energy but also present itself as a frontier in the efforts to decentralize energy systems towards the use of renewable energy [268-270].

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