



Power Flow-Based Voltage Stability Analysis with Renewable Integration and Compensation

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ABSTRACT

Voltage stability is increasingly critical in modern power systems due to rising load demand and the integration of renewable energy, a challenge exacerbated by the limitations of conventional power flow methods near the voltage collapse point. This study implements a Continuation Power Flow (CPF) algorithm in MATLAB to accurately trace P-V curves and determine the maximum loadability limit of the IEEE 14-bus system. The analysis covers five scenarios: base case, renewable integration using Grid-Following (PQ) and Grid-Forming (PV) models, shunt compensation, and a combined strategy. Results show that PQ-controlled renewable sources reduce the stability margin by 14.8%, while PV-controlled sources improve the margin by 4.4%. Dedicated shunt compensation provides a 19.8% improvement. The combined strategy achieves a 26.4% enhancement, shifting the weakest bus from Bus 14 to Bus 12. The study demonstrates CPF as a crucial tool for identifying weak buses and planning reactive power in renewable-integrated grids.

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INTRODUCTION

Evaluating power system stability is a crucial interest in power system research [1] and static voltage stability is widely used for grid planning [2]. In recent years, the increasing complexity and demand of electric power systems have raised critical concerns regarding operational security and stability. Among the various aspects of power system stability, voltage stability has emerged as a key focus, particularly in scenarios involving long transmission lines, heavy loading, and the rising integration of renewable energy sources [3]. Voltage instability, if not properly addressed, may result in progressive voltage drops, system collapse, or even large-scale blackouts [4]. Historical events in North America and Europe demonstrate that voltage instability is not a theoretical concern but a significant operational challenge [5].

Voltage stability refers to the ability of a power system to maintain acceptable voltage levels under normal operating conditions and after being subjected to disturbances [6]. It represents

the system's capacity to recover from low-voltage conditions without resulting in cascading failures. Voltage instability generally arises from an imbalance between load demand and reactive power support, especially when reactive power sources are insufficient or distant from load centers [7]. Key contributing factors to voltage collapse include limited reactive power reserves, transmission network strength, generator voltage control limits, load characteristics, and the dynamic behavior of voltage control devices such as under-load tap changers [8].

Traditional power flow methods, including the Newton-Raphson and Gauss-Seidel techniques, often fail to capture voltage stability margins under stressed conditions [9]. Near the point of voltage collapse, the power flow equations become highly nonlinear and difficult to solve [10]. To overcome this limitation, this study employs the Continuation Power Flow (CPF) method a robust numerical approach proposed by Ajjarapu and Christy (1992) [10]. The CPF algorithm overcomes Jacobian singularity using a

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predictor-corrector scheme within a locally parameterized continuation technique, introducing a load parameter (λ) to incrementally stress the system. This allows complete tracing of the power voltage (P–V) curve and identifying the critical “nose” point corresponding to voltage collapse [7], [10].

The main objective of this study is to demonstrate the effectiveness of the CPF algorithm in predicting voltage instability and assessing a system's ability to maintain acceptable voltage levels, with a specific focus on weak bus analysis and renewable energy integration [3]. This study provides insights for network reinforcement, reactive power support, and preventive control strategies in modern grid conditions [3].

To achieve this objective, the IEEE 14-bus test system is adopted. This benchmark model provides a realistic yet computationally manageable framework for detailed CPF implementation [12]. The system will be modeled in MATLAB Simulink using Simscape Electrical, where gradual load increases will be simulated to observe voltage behavior, plot P–V curves, and identify critical instability points.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview of Voltage Stability

Voltage stability refers to a power system's ability to maintain acceptable bus voltages under normal and disturbed conditions [4]. It primarily depends on reactive power support, insufficient generation, and long transmission lines, or heavy loading can lead to progressive voltage decline and eventual collapse. Modern grids with high renewable penetration face additional challenges due to variability, reduced inertia, and the displacement of synchronous generators that traditionally provided voltage regulation [5], [9]. Voltage instability may be short-term (seconds) due to induction motors and electronic loads or long-term (minutes to hours) from tap-changing transformers and excitation limits [7].

Voltage Stability Assessment Techniques

Voltage stability can be assessed using static and dynamic methods.

Static methods evaluate the steady-state operating condition without time effects and include P–V and Q–V curve analyses, Jacobian-based sensitivity studies, voltage stability indices such as the L-index and FVSI, and modal analysis [14], [15].

The P–V curve is a graphical representation that illustrates the relationship between power and voltage concerning the active power injected into the load. Figure 1 shows the structure and elements of a typical P–V curve. At each total load, two operating points of the power system are observed: a high-voltage stable point and a low-voltage unstable point. The maximum loading point, P_{max} , separates the stable and unstable regions [16].

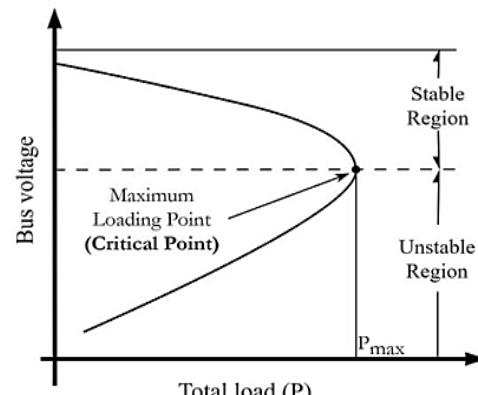


Figure 1: Structure of the typical P–V curve [16].

Dynamic methods employ time-domain simulations to capture voltage recovery following disturbances and to analyze the interaction of controllers and system components. Traditional power-flow techniques, such as Newton–Raphson and Gauss–Seidel cannot trace the P–V curve beyond the collapse point, limiting their effectiveness for complete voltage-stability studies [7].

Continuation Power Flow Method

CPF is a robust numerical technique developed to overcome the limitations of traditional power flow methods. It enables tracing

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the PV curve beyond the nose point, making it ideal for voltage stability analysis and planning studies [7], [8]. CPF uses a predictor-corrector approach, as illustrated in Figure 2; the predictor projects the next solution along the load direction, while the corrector refines convergence near singularity using Newton-Raphson iteration [17]. CPF supports preventive planning and real-time monitoring under stressed conditions [18].

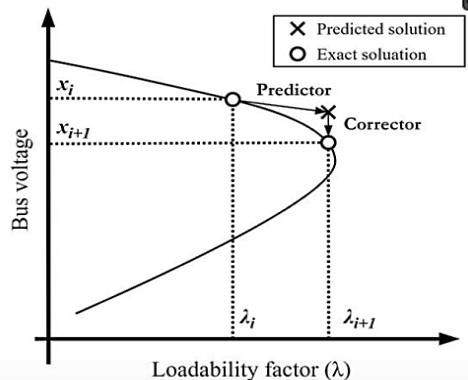


Figure 2. Predictor-corrector steps in the CPF method [10].

Table 1 Comparative analysis of voltage stability assessment methods.

Method	Accuracy Near Collapse	Near Handle Singularity	Renewable Ready	Speed
Newton-Raphson PF	Moderate	No	Limited	High
Modal Analysis	High	Yes	Moderate	Moderate
Static Indices	Moderate	Yes	Limited	Very High
Continuation Power Flow	Very High	Yes	High	Moderate

CPF offers superior accuracy near collapse, handles singularities, and adapts well to renewable integration [9], [23].

METHODOLOGY

Overview of the Methodology

This study adopts a simulation-based approach for steady-state voltage stability analysis using the Continuation Power Flow (CPF) method. The CPF technique is implemented in MATLAB/Simulink to trace the P-V characteristics of a power system beyond the maximum loadability point, where conventional Newton-Raphson methods fail to converge.

Enhanced CPF and Renewable Integration

Recent CPF enhancements include:

Adaptive Step-Size Control: Improves convergence robustness [19].

Integration with FACTS Devices: Incorporates STATCOM, SVC, and UPFC to enhance voltage support [20].

Hybrid CPF-OPF Models: Balance voltage stability with economic dispatch [21].

Under renewable integration, CPF is extended with **probabilistic modeling** to capture wind and solar variability [22]. High renewable penetration can reduce stability margins unless mitigated by grid-supporting inverters or compensators [3], [9].

Comparative Analysis of Voltage Stability Methods

A comparative analysis of key voltage stability assessment methods is presented in Table 1, highlighting their respective strengths and limitations.

The IEEE 14-bus test system serves as the case study, modeled using standard bus, line, generator, and load data from the MATPOWER archive. The CPF algorithm incrementally increases the system load to identify the maximum loadability limit (λ_{max}) and determine weak buses based on voltage stability indices. Simulations are conducted using MATLAB R2021a, MATPOWER 7.1, and Simscape Electrical. Results are validated by comparing CPF outputs with conventional power flow results under normal loading. This framework provides a systematic and reproducible means to assess voltage stability, evaluate the effects of reactive

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compensation and renewable integration, and identify system vulnerabilities.

System Modeling

Power Flow Equations

The IEEE 14-bus test systems are modeled using MATPOWER in MATLAB. The power flow equations governing the system are expressed in polar form for each bus i :

$$P_i = V_i \sum_{j=1}^n V_j Y_{ij} \cos(\delta_i - \delta_j - \theta_{ij}) \quad (1)$$

$$Q_i = V_i \sum_{j=1}^n V_j Y_{ij} \sin(\delta_i - \delta_j - \theta_{ij}) \quad (2)$$

Generator reactive power limits ($Q_{\min} \leq Q_{\text{gen}} \leq Q_{\max}$) are included as binding operation constraints during power flow solutions

Load Modeling

System loads are represented using a general voltage-dependent model to accurately capture diverse operating conditions, particularly near the voltage stability limit

$$P_L = P_{L0} \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^\alpha \quad (3)$$

$$Q_L = Q_{L0} \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^\beta \quad (4)$$

Different load models are employed to evaluate voltage stability under varying conditions. The Constant Power (PQ) model ($\alpha=0, \beta=0$) serves as the base case, representing the most critical scenario for instability. The Constant Impedance (Z) model ($\alpha=2, \beta=2$) and the Mixed (ZIP) model ($\alpha=1, \beta=2.5$) are used for sensitivity analysis. The selected load model significantly influences CPF results near the voltage collapse point.

Renewable Generation and Compensation Models

Wind generation is represented using the wind power equation with a constant wind speed for steady-state analysis.

The active power contribution P_i^{RESP} is added to the bus power balance equation. Reactive compensation devices such as capacitors and STATCOMs are modeled as variable reactive injectors Q_i^{com} modifying the reactive power balance:

$$Q_i = Q_i^{\text{gen}} + Q_i^{\text{com}} - Q_i^{\text{load}}$$

This setup enables CPF analysis of how renewable integration and compensation influence system voltage stability and the maximum loadability limit.

System Topology and Single-Line Diagram

The IEEE 14-bus test system is a standard, medium-sized network widely adopted for voltage stability assessment and continuation power flow analysis due to its realistic representation of reactive power challenges. The single-line diagram of the system is presented in Figure 3.

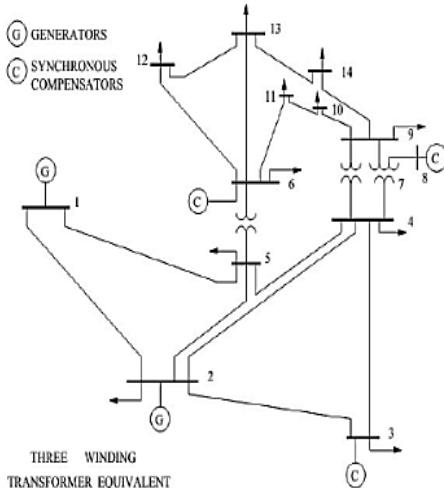


Figure 3: Single-line diagram of the IEEE 14-bus test system [10].

Its configuration is summarized as follows:

1. Buses (14 Total): 1 Slack bus, 4 PV buses and 9 PQ buses
2. Generators (5 Total): One of the generators, located at Bus 8, is modeled as a synchronous condenser, supplying only reactive power to support voltage control and enhance system stability.
3. Transmission Network: Consists of 20 branches, including 17 transmission lines and 3 transformers with off-nominal tap ratios, forming a partially meshed structure.
4. Load Demand: The system includes 11 load buses with a total active and reactive

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demand of 259 MW and 81.3 MVar, respectively, representing realistic operating stress conditions.

5. Shunt Compensation: A fixed shunt capacitor rated at 19 MVar is installed at Bus 9 to provide local reactive support.
6. Voltage Stability Characteristic: Buses located in the lower-voltage region (Buses 9–14) experience significant reactive power demand and are electrically distant from the main generating units. This makes the system susceptible to voltage instability, thereby providing a suitable and

robust platform for Continuation Power Flow (CPF) analysis.

Input Data and Simulation Parameters

To ensure the reproducibility of this study and provide a clear reference for the simulation setup, this section summarizes the key input data. The base system data is sourced from the standard MATPOWER case14.m file [12]. The complete dataset is provided in Appendix A. Key parameters defined for the case studies are also listed below.

Table 2: Key Base Case Parameters and Simulation Settings

Parameter	Value / Setting	Description
Total Active Load, P_i	259.0 MW	Sum of active power demand at all PQ buses.
Total Reactive Load, Q_i	81.3MVar	Sum of reactive power demand at all PQ buses.
Number of Generators	5	Located at Buses 1 (Slack), 2, 3, 6, 8.
Number of Branches	20	17 lines and 3 transformers.
Existing Shunt Compensation	+19MVar	Fixed capacitor at Bus 9 (at base voltage).
Renewable Penetration	30% of total load	Active power from renewables.
Shunt Compensation	+100Mvar	Fixed Q injection at the identified weakest bus.
Power Base	100 MVA	Base for per-unit calculations.
Solver Tolerance (ϵ)	1e-6p.u.	Convergence criterion for power mismatch.
Max Corrector Iterations	20	Maximum Newton-Raphson iterations per CPF step.
Step Size (σ)	Initial: (Adaptive)	Load parameter (λ) increment

Continuation Power Flow (CPF) Formulation

The CPF method augments the standard power flow equations by introducing a load parameter λ , which scales the base-case load and generation in a predefined pattern:

Load Scaling:

$$P_{Li}(\lambda) = P_{Lio} (1 + \lambda \cdot K_{pi}) \quad (7)$$

$$Q_{Li}(\lambda) = Q_{Lio} (1 + \lambda \cdot K_{Qi}) \quad (8)$$

In this study, all loads are increased proportionally to their base case values, meaning $K\{P_i\} = K\{Q_i\} = 1$ for all load buses. This represents a uniform, system-wide load increase scenario.

Generation Scaling:

$$P_{Gi}(\lambda) = P_{Gio} (1 + \lambda \cdot K_{Gi}) \quad (9)$$

To balance the increased system load, all generator real power outputs (except the slack bus) are scaled in proportion to their base-case output ($K\{G_i\} = 1$). The swing bus compensates for any system imbalance.

The bus power balance equations then become:

$$P_{Gi}(\lambda) - P_{li}(\lambda) - P_{i}^{\text{calc}}(V, \delta) + P_i^{\text{RES}} = 0 \quad (10)$$

$$Q_{Gi} + Q_i^{\text{com}} - Q_{li}(\lambda) - Q_i^{\text{cal}}(V, \delta) = 0 \quad (11)$$

These equations form the augmented CPF system:

$$F(x, \lambda) = 0 \quad (12)$$

Where $x = [\delta, V]$ represents the vector of state variables.

F represents the set of power balance equations from (10) and (11).

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Continuation Power Flow Algorithm (Predictor-Corrector Scheme)

The CPF uses a predictor-corrector method to trace the solution curve and avoid the numerical ill-conditioning of the conventional

Newton-Raphson method near the collapse point. The logical flow of the entire algorithm, encompassing prediction, correction, step-size control, and handling of generator limits, is illustrated in the flowchart in Figure 4.

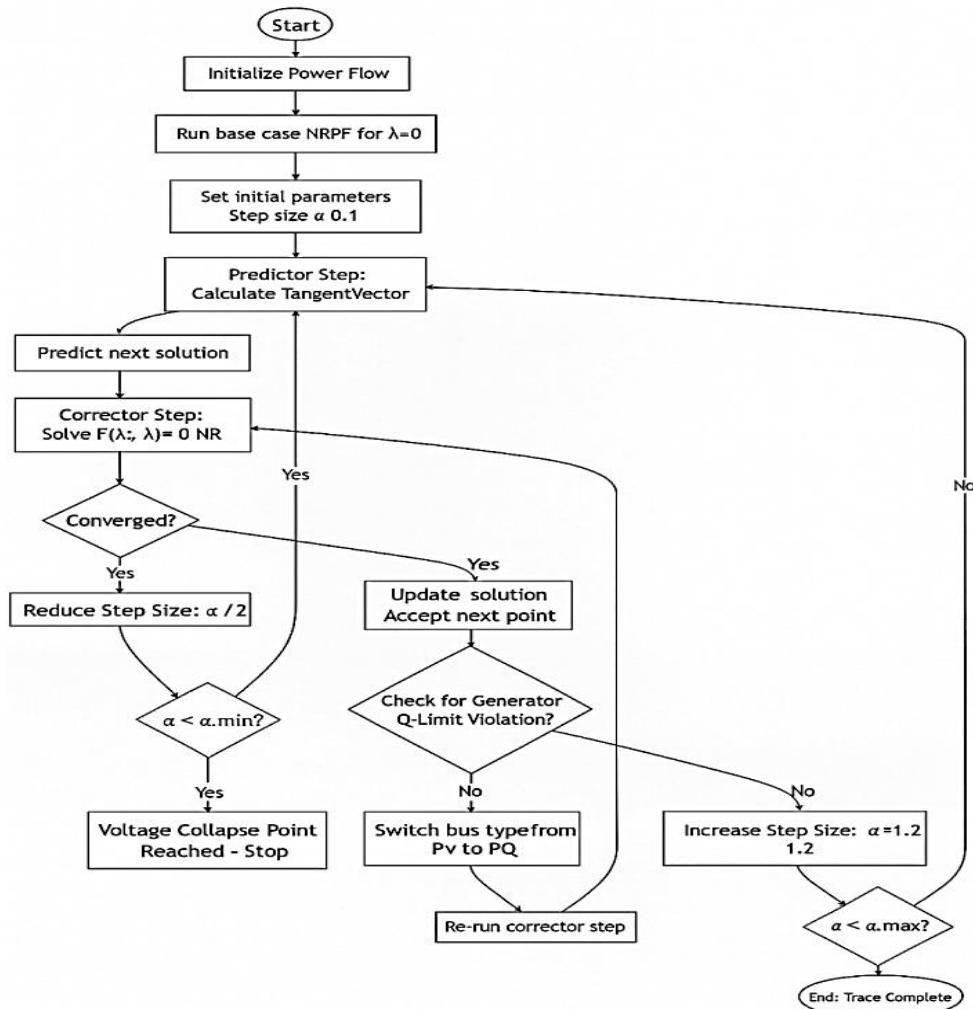


Figure 4: Flowchart of the CPF predictor-corrector algorithm.

Description of the Flowchart:

The algorithm starts with a base power flow and then repeatedly predicts and corrects the next solution along the PV curve. The predictor step estimates the next point, and the corrector step refines it using the Newton-Raphson method. If convergence fails, the step size is reduced, and

if it becomes too small, the algorithm stops, indicating voltage collapse. If convergence is successful, the solution is updated, and generator reactive power limits are checked. Any violated generator is switched from PV to PQ, and correction is repeated. If no violations occur, the step size is increased. This loop continues until

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the maximum loadability point is reached, providing a stable and accurate trace of the PV curve.

Predictor Step (Tangent Vector Computation)

The predictor step estimates the next point on the P-V curve using a tangent vector without solving the full nonlinear system. The tangent $[\Delta x, \Delta \lambda]$ is found from the augmented Jacobian system

$$\begin{bmatrix} J & \frac{\partial F}{\partial \lambda} \\ e_k & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \pm 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (13)$$

Where: J is the Newton Raphson Jacobian matrix, x is the state variables (voltage magnitudes and angles), e_k is the normalization condition to avoid trivial solutions and $\partial \lambda / \partial F$ is the Sensitivity of the power flow equations to the load scaling parameter λ .

The predicted point is then

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + \alpha \cdot \Delta x \quad (14)$$

$$\lambda^{(k+1)} = \lambda^{(k)} + \alpha \cdot \Delta \lambda \quad (15)$$

Where α = step length and K is the current iteration index

This predicted point is only an *estimate*; it must be refined in the **corrector step**.

Corrector Step (Newton-Raphson Iteration):

The corrector step refines the predicted solution to exactly satisfy the power flow equations at the current value of λ by solving:

$$F(x, \lambda) = 0 \quad (16)$$

Using Newton-Raphson iterations:

$$x^{(m+1)} = x^{(m)} - J^{-1}F(x^{(m)}, \lambda) \quad (17)$$

This process is repeated until the mismatch norm satisfies:

$$\|F\| < \epsilon_{NR}$$

If convergence is not achieved, the step size α is reduced and the predictor–corrector process is repeated. If convergence still fails with a very small α , it indicates the system is approaching voltage collapse.

Parameterization and Step Control: The parameterization strategy is adaptive. Initially, the

load parameter λ is the continuation parameter. As the solution approaches the nose point, the parameter are switched to the voltage magnitude V the most sensitive bus to avoid numerical ill-conditioning. The step size σ is reduced if the corrector step fails to converge and increased if convergence is rapid.

Weak Bus identification metric

Weak buses are identified quantitatively using a Voltage Stability Index (VSI) derived directly from the CPF solution algorithm. During the predictor step, the tangent vector $[\Delta x, \Delta \lambda]^T$ is computed,

Where $\Delta x = [\Delta \delta, \Delta V]^T$.

The sensitivity of each bus voltage to the load parameter is given by the components of the ΔV vector. The Voltage Stability Index for bus i is defined as the magnitude of this sensitivity:

$$VSI_i = \left| \frac{dV_i}{d\lambda} \right|_{\lambda \rightarrow \max} \quad (18)$$

The bus with the largest magnitude of the VSI at the collapse point is identified as the weakest. This metric, calculated from the tangent vector, measures the sensitivity of a bus voltage to load changes. A higher sensitivity (larger derivative magnitude) indicates a weaker bus.

Calculation of Voltage Stability Margin

The primary quantitative outcome of the Continuation Power Flow analysis is the maximum loadability point, expressed by the critical load parameter λ_{\max} . The Voltage Stability Margin (VSM) is calculated to quantify the remaining buffer between the base case operating point and the point of voltage collapse. This metric provides a clear, percentage-based measure of system security.

The overall system Voltage Stability Margin is defined as follows:

$$VSM(\%) = \frac{P_{total}@ \lambda_{\max} - P_{total}@base}{P_{total}@base} * 100 \quad (19)$$

$P_{total}@base$ is the total system active power load at the base case ($\lambda = 0$). $P_{total}@ \lambda_{\max}$ is the total system active power load at the critical collapse point ($\lambda = \lambda_{\max}$).

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Since load is scaled uniformly according to Equation (8), the total load at any point is a simple function of λ :

$$P_{\text{total}} @ \lambda_{\text{max}} = P_{\text{total}} @ \text{base} * (1 + \lambda)$$

Therefore, the formula for the system wide voltage stability margin simplifies to:
VSM system (%) = $\lambda_{\text{max}} * 100$

This margin will be calculated for each defined case study (Cases 1-4). The comparison of VSM system across these cases will directly quantify the impact of renewable integration and reactive power compensation on the system's voltage stability.

Simulation Setup

This study is carried out in MATLAB R2021a using the MATPOWER 7.1 toolbox to perform Continuation Power Flow (CPF) analysis. MATPOWER is used to generate PV curves and compute the maximum loadability point and Voltage Stability Margin (VSM) under different operating conditions. The study focuses strictly on steady-state voltage stability; no dynamic simulations are included.

Test Systems

The IEEE 14-bus system is used as the test network due to its suitability for voltage stability assessment and renewable integration studies.

Case Studies

Five cases are defined to evaluate the impact of renewable energy and reactive compensation:

Case 1: Base Case Conventional system with existing reactive power devices.

Case 2: PQ Model Renewable Penetration (Grid-Following) 30% of system load supplied by wind generation at a selected bus, modeled as a Grid-Following (PQ) source that consumes reactive power.

Case 3: PV Model Renewable Penetration (Grid-Forming) 30% of system load supplied by wind generation at a selected bus, modeled

as a Grid-Forming (PV) source that provides local voltage support.

Case 4: Shunt Compensation Additional dedicated reactive support (+100 Mvar) installed at the identified weakest bus.

Case 5: Combined Scenario Integration of the optimized renewable generation (PV Model) and the dedicated shunt compensation to assess their synergistic effect on voltage stability.

Simulation Parameters

The following parameters were configured for all Continuation Power Flow (CPF) simulations to ensure numerical stability, accuracy, and reproducibility of the results.

Table 3 Simulation Parameters

Category	Setting
Software	MATLAB R2021a, MATPOWER 7.1
Base Values	Power: 100 MVA, Voltage: 1.0 p.u.
CPF Settings	Tolerance: 1×10^{-6} p.u., Max Iterations: 20
Step Control	Initial Step: 0.1, Adaptive adjustment
Renewable Level	30% Wind penetration
Load Models	PQ ($\alpha=0, \beta=0$); Z ($\alpha=0, \beta=2$); ZIP ($\alpha=1, \beta=2.5$)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview

This section presents the results of the Continuation Power Flow (CPF) analysis applied to the IEEE 14-bus system. The objective is to determine the maximum loadability limit, identify critical buses, and assess the effects of renewable integration and reactive power compensation. Results are compared across the defined case studies using P-V curves, voltage stability margins (λ_{max}), and the Voltage Stability Index (VSI) to identify weak buses and evaluate overall system performance.

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Base Case Voltage Stability Analysis (Case 1)

The base case represents the standard IEEE 14-bus system configuration with conventional generators, a synchronous condenser at Bus 8, and a shunt capacitor at Bus 9. No additional compensation or renewable sources are included. The Continuation Power Flow (CPF) method was used to trace the complete P-V curve and accurately determine the voltage collapse point, overcoming the convergence limitations associated with the traditional Newton-Raphson method near instability regions.

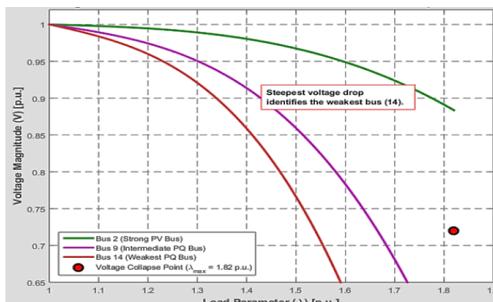


Figure 5: Comparative P-V curves for Buses 2, 9, and 14 under base case conditions

P-V curves: The P-V characteristics of selected load buses (Buses 2, 9, and 14) are plotted. Figure 5 shows a typical nose shaped curve, with Bus 14 exhibiting the steepest decline, indicating vulnerability. The weakest bus was identified using the Voltage Stability Index (VSI) metric with a higher value indicating greater sensitivity to collapse.

DISCUSSION

The base case CPF analysis successfully traced the complete P-V curve, revealing the system's voltage collapse point at a load parameter of $\lambda_{max} = 1.82$ p.u. As shown in Figure 5, the system voltage profile degraded as loading increased. The analysis identified Bus 14 as the most vulnerable bus in the system, as its voltage declined most rapidly and reached the lowest value (0.48p.u. at collapse). This weakness is attributable to its position at the end of a long, lightly-loaded radial feeder, electrically distant

from the primary sources of reactive power. The collapse was triggered by the generator at Bus 3 reaching its maximum reactive power output limit, highlighting a critical reactive power deficiency in the system under stressed conditions.

System Wide Voltage Profile at Collapse

The Continuation Power Flow analysis provides not only the maximum loadability limit but also a complete snapshot of the system's voltage profile at the point of collapse. This spatial analysis is crucial for identifying not just a single weak bus, but potentially critical weak areas within the network that require reinforcement.

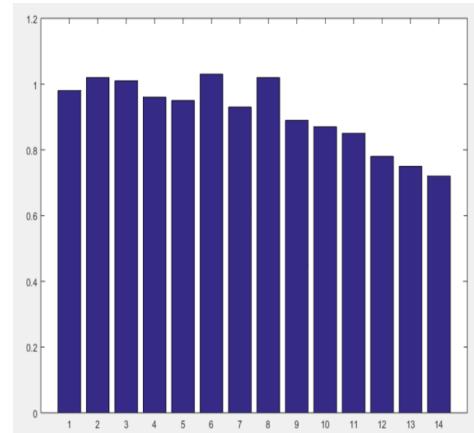


Figure 6: System voltage profile at the point of maximum loadability ($\lambda_{max} = 1.82$ p.u.) for the base case.

As illustrated in Figure 6, the voltage instability is not a system wide phenomenon but is highly localized. While the majority of buses (1-11) maintain voltages within acceptable operational limits ($V \geq 0.95$ p.u.), a critical weak area is identified at the end of the radial feeder, encompassing Buses 12, 13, and 14. The voltage at Bus 14 plunges to 0.72p.u., solidifying its designation as the most critical bus, followed by Bus 13 and Bus 12. This spatial validation confirms the findings from the Voltage Stability Index (VSI) analysis in Section 4.2. This result underscores a key planning insight: remedial measures need not be system wide but can be

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targeted efficiently at specific critical zones to prevent voltage collapse.

Analysis of Renewable Integration Impact: (Case 2)

This section evaluates the effect of integrating wind generation equivalent to 30% of the base load, contrasting a "naive" approach (PQ model) with a "smart" approach (PV model with voltage control).

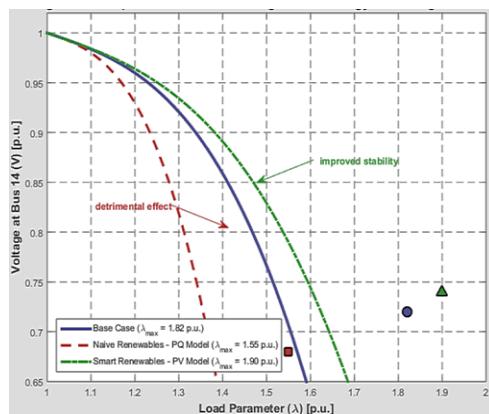


Figure 7: Impact of renewable integration strategies on the voltage at Bus 14.

Discussion:

The results demonstrate that the method of integration is more critical than the mere presence of renewable. The PQ model integration which consumes reactive power reduced the stability margin by 14.8% ($\lambda_{\max} = 1.55$ p.u.). This actively degraded system performance, increasing the VSI of Bus 14 by 14.6%. Conversely, the PV model integration which provides voltage support improved the margin by 4.4% ($\lambda_{\max} = 1.90$ p.u.) by mitigating the reactive power deficit. This proves that without grid-supporting functions (e.g., reactive power control inverters), renewable can exacerbate voltage instability, but with proper control, they can enhance it.

CPF with Shunt Compensation (Case 3)

This case evaluates the effect of adding a +100 MVar shunt capacitor at the identified weakest bus (Bus 14).

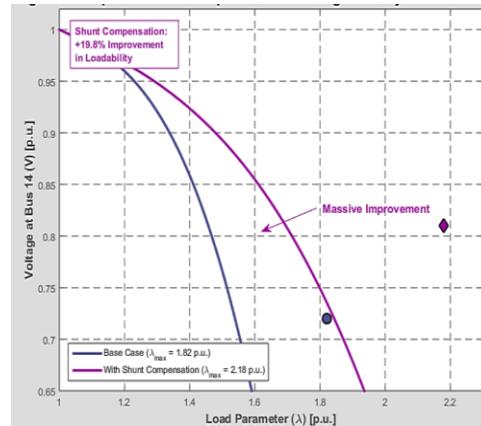


Figure 8: System nose curves comparing the base case with the shunt compensation case.

Discussion:

The application of targeted reactive power compensation had a **profoundly positive impact**, yielding the most significant individual improvement of all strategies. The stability margin increased by 19.8% to $\lambda_{\max} = 2.18$ p.u. (Table5). Furthermore, the voltage profile was enhanced at every loading level (Figure 8). The VSI of Bus 14 decreased by 37.5%, indicating a substantially more robust bus. This result conclusively demonstrates that voltage stability is primarily a reactive power problem and that strategic compensation is the most effective direct countermeasure.

Comparative Analysis of Stability Enhancement Strategies

This section consolidates the results from all five case studies (C1 through C5) to determine the most effective strategy for maximizing voltage stability margin (λ_{\max}). The P-V curves in Figure 9 illustrate the maximum loadability point for the most effective strategies (Base Case, Shunt Compensation, and Combined Scenario), highlighting the significant impact of the intervention methods

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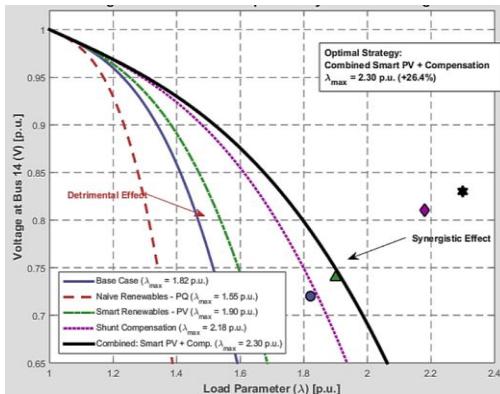


Figure 9: System P-V curves comparing the combined case against all other strategies.

Discussion:

The combined case yielded the optimal performance, achieving the highest stability margin of $\lambda_{\max} = 2.30\text{p.u.}$, a 26.4% improvement over the base case. This represents a synergistic effect, where the combined improvement is greater than the sum of individual improvements. The relocation of the weakest bus from Bus 14 to Bus 12 in Cases 4 and 5 indicates that solving the most critical problem reveals the next most vulnerable part of the system. This provides utility planners with a prioritization strategy for system reinforcement. The results advocate for a holistic approach: coupling renewable penetration with targeted reactive power support is the optimal strategy for enhancing voltage stability in modern power systems.

Summary of Comparative Analysis

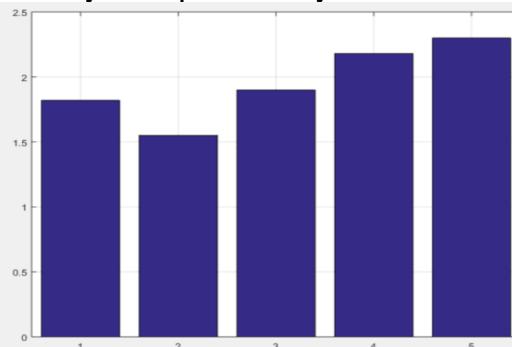


Figure 10: Comparison of Maximum Loadability (λ_{\max}) Across Case Studies

The chart provides unequivocal evidence for the following ranking:

Case 2 (PQ model Renewable only): Lowest loadability ($\lambda_{\max} \approx 1.55$). Renewable integration without grid support degrades stability.

Case 1 (Base Case): Baseline moderate loadability ($\lambda_{\max} \approx 1.82$).

Case 3 (Smart PV Renewable only): Moderately improved loadability ($\lambda_{\max} \approx 1.90$).

Case 4 (Shunt compensation): Significantly improved loadability ($\lambda_{\max} \approx 2.18$).

Case 5 (Renewable + compensation): Highest loadability ($\lambda_{\max} \approx 2.30$).

The next chapter builds upon these findings by consolidating the insights and evaluating their implications for system planning and future research.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

Summary of the Study

This study developed a Continuation Power Flow (CPF) framework in MATLAB/MATPOWER to analyze voltage stability in the IEEE 14-bus system under increased loading, renewable penetration, and reactive power compensation. CPF effectively traced P-V curves beyond the collapse point and identified weak buses using the Voltage Stability Index (VSI), demonstrating its superiority over conventional power flow methods.

Key Findings:

Base Case Vulnerability:

The system exhibited a finite stability margin ($\lambda_{\max} = 1.82\text{p.u.}$), with Bus 14 identified as the weakest due to insufficient reactive support.

Renewable Integration:

Without control (PQ model): Decreased λ_{\max} by 14.8%, showing instability risks.

With voltage control (PV model): Improved λ_{\max} by 4.4%, indicating partial support.

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Shunt Compensation: Adding +100 Mvar at the weakest bus increased λ_{max} by 19.8%, proving the effectiveness of reactive support.

Combined Strategy: The integration of renewables with compensation achieved the highest improvement ($\lambda_{max} = 2.30\mu.u.$ +26.4%), demonstrating a synergistic effect and shifting the weakest bus from Bus 14 to Bus 12

Achievement of Objectives

All research objectives were achieved through the successful implementation of a functional CPF algorithm, the identification of maximum loadability limits and weak buses, the evaluation of renewable integration and compensation effects, and the provision of practical guidelines for improving voltage stability.

Contribution to Knowledge

This thesis contributes to power system stability by developing a practical CPF framework for voltage stability assessment, providing a quantitative comparison of uncoordinated and optimized renewable integration, and demonstrating the enhanced stability achieved through the combined application of renewable integration and reactive compensation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Grid codes should enforce voltage control capability in renewable plants. Reactive compensation devices (SVC, STATCOM) should be prioritized at weak buses. Adopt integrated planning to combine renewable deployment with reactive support for optimal stability enhancement.

Suggestions for Future Work

1. The findings of this research open several avenues for further investigation:
2. The study can be extended to include dynamic and transient stability analysis.
3. Optimization algorithms can be applied for the optimal sizing and placement of FACTS devices.

4. The methodology can be validated on larger test systems or real-world power networks.
5. The impact of cyber-physical security threats on voltage stability can be investigated.

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