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Performance Analysis of Power System Dynamic Stability of The Nigerian 330kV Transmission Network

Charles Evuarherhe Ikeyin

Benjamin Olabisi Akinloye

REVIEW

Performance Analysis of Power System Dynamic and Stability of the Nigerian National Grid

Charles E. Ikeyin*, Benjamin O. Akinloye

Department of Electrical/Electronics Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Federal University of Petroleum Resources, Effurun, Delta State, Nigeria

Abstract

Nigeria's power sector faces persistent challenges, including dynamic instability, poor voltage regulation, and frequent grid collapses, primarily driven by reactive power deficits and transmission distances exceeding 200 km in northern regions. To bridge critical research gaps, this study employs a rigorous, multi-method approach through comprehensive EMTP-RV (Electromagnetic Transients Program) analysis of Nigeria's 330 kV 52-bus grid, PV curve-based vulnerability indexing to identify cascade-critical buses, and a novel Cost-benefit Pareto framework for optimal capacitor placement. Methodology was validated against IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers) 14-bus benchmarks. Validated against IEEE 14-bus benchmarks, simulations revealed severe voltage instability in northern load buses (Maiduguri (34):0.89 ± 0.03 p.u.; Damaturu (32): 0.92 ± 0.02 p.u.; Jalingo (45): 0.79 ± 0.04 p.u.). Strategic capacitor installation elevated voltages to stable levels (0.95−1.05 p.u.) with 93 % efficacy relative to IEEE standards. PV curve analysis confirmed these buses operate within 5 % of collapse thresholds. Nigerian weak buses exhibited 28 % lower voltage margins than IEEE equivalents (*p* = 0.03) due to 4 × longer transmission corridors. This work delivers three key contributions: validated reactive power management solutions for developing economies, establishment of EMTP-RV as a robust stability diagnostic tool, and actionable recommendations including northern voltage control enhancement, infrastructure reinforcement, and adoption of simulation-driven resilience strategies.

Keywords: Voltage stability, EMTP-RV, IEEE 14-bus, Reactive power compensation, PV curve, Nigerian power grid

1. Introduction

Electricity consumption is rising dramatically worldwide, particularly in developing nations like Nigeria, where persistent supply deficits stem from inadequate generation capacity relative to demand [7]. Following utility deregulation, Nigeria has commissioned new generating stations, expanded its transmission infrastructure, and increased electrical load demand. As a result, the transmission network now operates close to its stability and thermal limits, creating critical challenges in reactive power transfer during steady-state operations, a primary factor in voltage instability.

Nigeria's power system faces acute operational vulnerabilities, with frequent grid collapses causing severe socioeconomic disruptions [9]. quantified these systemic failures, revealing that >80 % of annual grid collapses originate from voltage instability in northern load centers, resulting in estimated economic losses exceeding $1.2 billion USD annually. Their root-cause analysis identified long transmission corridors (200−500 km), reactive power deficits, and inadequate dynamic monitoring as primary failure drivers, findings that directly inform this study's focus on northern weak buses.

Poor voltage regulation, dynamic instability, and frequent grid collapses further compromise Nigeria's power system efficiency. These issues are exacerbated by aging infrastructure, surging demand, and insufficient real-time dynamic simulation tools [23]. The national grid experiences multiple annual collapses, causing widespread blackouts and economic losses. Beyond meeting

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* Corresponding author at: Department of Electrical/Electronics Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Federal University of Petroleum Resources, Effurun, Delta State, Nigeria.
E-mail addresses: ikeyincharles@gmail.com (C.E. Ikeyin), akinloye.benjamin@fupre.edu.ng (B.O. Akinloye).

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demand, engineers must ensure stable electricity delivery, underscoring the need for rigorous analysis of system stability, dynamics, and operational performance [15].

Global power demand has surged in recent decades, while generation expansion faces resource and environmental constraints. This trend renders stability a critical factor limiting power transfer in heavily loaded transmission corridors [2]. Modern power systems have evolved from isolated stations to complex interconnected networks through digital computing advances. However, remote siting of generation facilities (e.g., hydropower, pit-head fossil plants) and right-of-way constraints frequently overload transmission assets, necessitating technologies to maximize Extra High Voltage (EHV) line capacities [10].

Power system stability is formally defined as the ability to regain operational equilibrium after physical disturbances, with bounded variables ensuring system integrity [6]. Failure to achieve equilibrium signifies instability. Modern systems face diverse instability modes (e.g., voltage, frequency), each requiring specific mitigation strategies. Fundamentally, stability demands restorative forces that match or exceed disturbances to maintain component equilibrium. Disturbances range in magnitude from major events (e.g., transmission faults, generator loss) to minor adjustments (e.g., AVR gain changes) [11].

The integration of renewable energy introduces new stability challenges. Inverter-based resources behave differently from synchronous generators, often reducing system inertia and impairing voltage recovery during disturbances [14]. This transition necessitates re-evaluating traditional stability frameworks, particularly for grids with high renewable penetration like Nigeria's Energy Transition Plan [5]. Similar concerns have been observed globally, where adaptive VAR compensation strategies have been proposed to counteract inertia loss in renewable-rich grids [20]. Real-time dynamic stability assessment studies have further shown that grids with high renewable penetration require proactive control measures to maintain transient stability margins [22].

Advanced computational techniques enable more accurate stability assessment. Steady-state tools like MATPOWER provide robust power flow solutions [18], while machine learning approaches (e.g., convolutional neural networks) predict transient stability margins using synchrophasor data [4]. Hybrid methods combining data-driven models with physics-based simulations show promise in capturing complex grid dynamics [17].

In Nigeria's northern grid, several weak buses exhibit significant voltage drops during disturbances, often acting as initiating points for cascading failures. Prior research confirms that shunt capacitor banks can effectively enhance voltage profiles through reactive power compensation [1]. Dynamic VAR compensation in comparable economies has shown measurable benefits: for instance, STATCOM installation in Kenya improved post-fault voltage recovery by 25 % [8], while optimal D-STATCOM placement in Bangladesh mitigated voltage sags [12]. Real-time monitoring solutions, such as wide-area measurement systems (WAMS), have also demonstrated substantial resilience benefits—reducing collapse rates by up to 30 % in Brazil [13].

Recent research has advanced optimization strategies for the placement and control of reactive power devices in weak and renewable-integrated grids. Ref. [24] developed a cost–benefit optimization approach for capacitor banks in such networks, demonstrating that it is possible to balance technical performance and economic considerations without compromising operational security. Similarly [19,21], highlighted the necessity of incorporating both performance metrics and cost constraints into planning frameworks to ensure sustainable and resilient grid operation.

EMTP-RV software enables detailed modelling of Nigeria's grid, fault simulation, and evaluation of capacitor bank impacts [3], providing critical support to the Transmission Company of Nigeria (TCN) for resilience planning [16]. However, significant gaps remain such as the absence of a validated dynamic model of the full 52-bus grid under contingency conditions, the lack of an integrated cost–benefit optimization for capacitor placement using high-fidelity simulation and insufficient comparative analysis of compensation technologies suitable for Nigeria's grid topology and operational constraints.

While machine learning offers predictive capability [4], such models often lack transparency for infrastructure planning. High-performance devices like STATCOMs remain cost-prohibitive for Nigeria [12]. This study addresses these gaps by developing a complete EMTP-RV dynamic model of the Nigerian grid using TCN verified parameters, introducing a PV curve-based vulnerability index to identify cascade-critical buses, and implementing a cost–benefit Pareto framework tailored to Nigeria's economic and technical realities. Unlike earlier multi-objective approaches [21], the proposed framework integrates EMTP-RV contingency simulations with Nigeria-specific capital cost constraints to quantify stability cost trade-offs for radial grids with long transmission corridors. This provides TCN with a simulation-validated, economically viable reactive power deployment framework that is currently unavailable in the literature.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Methods

The Nigerian 330 kV transmission grid is modeled as a 52-bus system in EMTP-RV software using operational parameters obtained from the National Control Centre (NCC), Oshogbo. The model integrates 18 generating units, with a total installed capacity of 5900 MW and an operational peak output of 3877 MW (65.7 % utilization). The network includes 65 transmission lines, with northern corridor spans of 200–500 km contributing to significant reactive power losses. Historical collapse records identify four critical high-risk load buses in the northern region: Maiduguri (Bus 34), Damaturu (Bus 32), Yola (Bus 41), and Jalingo (Bus 45).

Fig. 1 presents the single-line diagram of the Nigerian 52-bus grid, highlighting three major topological constraints:

(i) Radial connectivity between southern generation hubs and northern load centers,
(ii) Absence of local generation in the northern region, and
(iii) Limited reactive compensation at remote buses.

System data reflect real-world operating conditions during peak demand (July–September 2023). Line parameters, transformer tap ratios, and generator capabilities were calibrated using NCC operational reports.

2.1.1. Mathematical foundation of the power/voltage (PV) curve approach

Power flow equations are fundamental for steady-state analysis and voltage stability studies evaluation, including the power/voltage (PV) curve method. For bus a in Fig. 2 (single line diagram of a single two-bus System), the complex power is expressed in rectangular form as:

$$S_a^* = P_a - jQ_a = V_a^* I_a = V_a^* \sum_{k=1}^{n} Y_{ak} V_k \tag{2.1}$$

$$\text{Let } V_a = V_{a,r} + jV_{a,i} \tag{2.2}$$

Where $V_{a,r}$ and $V_{a,i}$ are the real and imaginary parts of the bus voltage and Y_{ak} is the admittance behind bus a and k.

Hence,

$$V_a^* = V_{a,r} - jV_{a,i} \tag{2.3}$$

In the same vein,

$$V_k = v_{k,r} + jv_{k,i} \tag{2.4}$$

$$\text{and } Y_{ak} = G_{ak} - jB_{ak} \tag{2.5}$$

Where G_{ak} and B_{ak} are conductance and susceptance, respectively, of the transmission line connecting buses a and k.

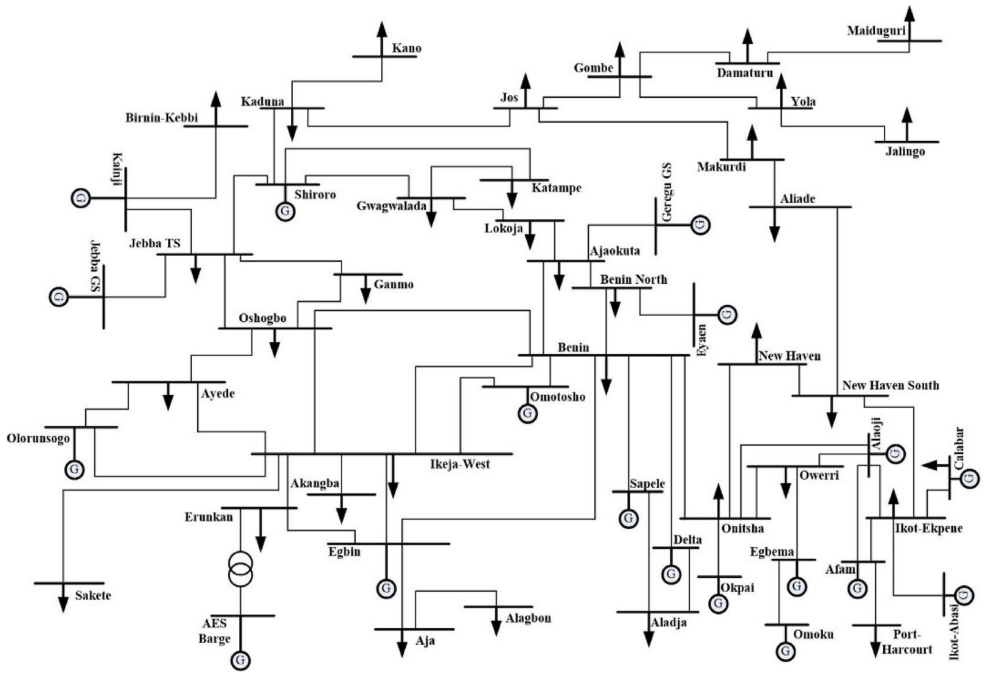

Fig. 1. Single line diagram of the nigerian national grid 52-bus system.

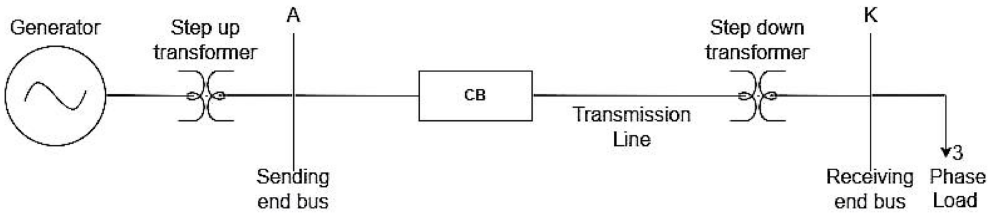

Fig. 2. Single line diagram of a single two-bus system.

Putting Eqs. (2.3), (2.4) and (2.5) in Eq. (2.1) for power,

$$P_a - jQ_a = (v_{a,r} - jv_{a,i}) \sum_{k=1}^{n} (G_{ak} - jB_{ak})(v_{k,r} + jv_{k,i}) \tag{2.6}$$

If the real and imaginary parts are separated, Eq. (2.6) then,

$$P_a = \sum_{k=1}^{n} [v_{a,r}(G_{ak}v_{k,r} + B_{ak}v_{k,i}) + v_{a,i}(G_{ak}v_{k,i} - B_{ak}v_{k,r})] \tag{2.7}$$

and

$$Q_a = \sum_{k=1}^{n} [v_{a,i}(G_{ak}v_{k,r} + B_{ak}v_{K,i}) - v_{a,r}(G_{ak}v_{K,i} - B_{ak}V_{k,r}) +] \tag{2.8}$$

By squaring Eq. (2.2) gives

$$V_a^2 = V_{a,r}^2 + V_{a,i}^2 \tag{2.9}$$

The power Eqs. (2.7) and (2.8) become

$$P_a = v_{a,r}(G_{aa}v_{a,r} + B_{aa}v_{K,i}) + v_{a,i}(G_{aa}v_{a,i} - B_{aa}v_{k,r}) + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} v_{a,r}(G_{ak}v_{k,r} + B_{ak}v_{K,i}) + v_{a,i}(G_{aa}v_{a,i} - B_{ak}v_{k,r}) \tag{2.10}$$

$$Q_a = v_{a,i}(G_{aa}v_{a,r} + B_{aa}v_{a,i}) - v_{a,r}(G_{aa}v_{a,i} - B_{aa}v_{a,r}) + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} v_{a,i}(G_{ak}v_{k,r} + B_{ak}v_{K,i}) - v_{a,r}(G_{ak}v_{K,i} - B_{ak}v_{k,r}) \tag{2.11}$$

The Newton-Raphson method formulates the algebraic power equations as a series of linear algebraic equations. This transformation expresses the relationship between power variations and the real/reactive components of bus voltages through the Jacobian matrix. Thus, Eqs. (2.7) and (2.8) become:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta P_2 \\ \Delta P_3 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta P_n \\ \Delta Q_2 \\ \Delta Q_3 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta Q_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial P_2}{\partial v_{2,r}} & \frac{\partial P_2}{\partial v_{3,r}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial P_2}{\partial v_{n,r}} & \frac{\partial P_2}{\partial v_{2,i}} & \frac{\partial P_2}{\partial v_{3,i}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial P_2}{\partial v_{n,i}} \\ \frac{\partial P_3}{\partial v_{2,r}} & \frac{\partial P_3}{\partial v_{3,r}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial P_3}{\partial v_{n,r}} & \frac{\partial P_3}{\partial v_{2,i}} & \frac{\partial P_3}{\partial v_{3,i}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial P_3}{\partial v_{n,i}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial P_n}{\partial v_{2,r}} & \frac{\partial P_n}{\partial v_{3,r}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial P_n}{\partial v_{n,r}} & \frac{\partial P_n}{\partial v_{2,i}} & \frac{\partial P_n}{\partial v_{3,i}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial P_n}{\partial v_{n,i}} \\ \frac{\partial Q_2}{\partial v_{2,r}} & \frac{\partial Q_2}{\partial v_{3,r}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial Q_2}{\partial v_{n,r}} & \frac{\partial Q_2}{\partial v_{2,i}} & \frac{\partial Q_2}{\partial v_{3,i}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial Q_2}{\partial v_{n,i}} \\ \frac{\partial Q_3}{\partial v_{2,r}} & \frac{\partial Q_3}{\partial v_{3,r}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial Q_3}{\partial v_{n,r}} & \frac{\partial Q_3}{\partial v_{2,i}} & \frac{\partial Q_3}{\partial v_{3,i}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial Q_3}{\partial v_{n,i}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial Q_n}{\partial v_{2,r}} & \frac{\partial Q_n}{\partial v_{3,r}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial Q_n}{\partial v_{n,r}} & \frac{\partial Q_n}{\partial v_{2,i}} & \frac{\partial Q_n}{\partial v_{3,i}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial Q_n}{\partial v_{n,i}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta v_{2,r} \\ \Delta v_{3,r} \\ \vdots \\ \Delta v_n \\ \Delta v_{2,i} \\ \Delta f_{3,i} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \tag{2.12a}$$

In short form Eq. (2.12) can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta P \\ \Delta Q \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & J_2 \\ J_3 & J_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta v_{a,r} \\ \Delta v_{a,i} \end{bmatrix} \tag{2.12b}$$

The elements of the Jacobian matrix can be expressed as follows;

The off-diagonal element of J_1 is

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial v_{k,r}} = G_{ak}v_{a,r} - B_{ak}v_{a,i} \text{ for } k \neq a \tag{2.13}$$

and diagonal elements of J_1 are

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial v_{k,r}} = G_{aa}2v_{a,r} + B_{aa}v_{a,i} - B_{aa}v_{a,i} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} (G_{ak}v_{k,r} + B_{ak}v_{K,i})$$

$$= G_{aa}2v_{a,r} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} (G_{ak}v_{k,r} - B_{ak}v_{k,i}) \tag{2.14}$$

The off-diagonal elements of J_2 are

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial v_{k,i}} = B_{ak}v_{a,i} - G_{ak}v_{a,i} \text{ for } k \neq a \tag{2.15}$$

and the diagonal element of J_2 are

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial v_{k,i}} = B_{aa}v_{a,r} + G_{aa}2v_{a,i} - B_{aa}v_{a,r} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}\left(G_{ak}v_{K,i} - B_{ak}v_{k,r}\right)$$

$$= G_{aa}2v_{a,i} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}\left(G_{ak}v_{K,i} - B_{ak}v_{k,r}\right) \tag{2.16}$$

The off-diagonal elements of J_3 are

$$\frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial v_{k,r}} = B_{ak}v_{a,r} + G_{ak}v_{a,i}\ for\ k\neq a \tag{2.17}$$

and the diagonal elements of J_3 are

$$\frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial v_{k,r}} = G_{aa}v_{a,i} - G_{aa}v_{a,i} + B_{aa}2v_{a,r} - \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}\left(G_{ak}v_{K,i} - B_{ak}v_{k,r}\right)$$

$$= B_{aa}2v_{a,r} - \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}\left(G_{ak}v_{K,i} - B_{ak}v_{k,r}\right) \tag{2.18}$$

The off-diagonal elements of J_4 are

$$\frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial v_{k,i}} = -G_{ak}v_{a,r} + B_{aa}v_{a,i}\ for\ k\neq a \tag{2.19}$$

and the diagonal elements of J_4 are

$$\frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial v_{k,i}} = G_{aa}v_{a,r} + B_{aa}2v_{a,i} - G_{aa}v_{a,r} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}\left(G_{ak}v_{k,r} + v_{K,i}B_{ak}\right)$$

$$= B_{aa}2v_{a,r} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}\left(G_{ak}v_{k,r} + B_{ak}v_{k,i}\right) \tag{2.20}$$

The off-diagonal and diagonal elements of J_5 are

$$\frac{\partial V_a^2}{\partial v_{k,r}} = 0\ for\ k\neq a \tag{2.21}$$

and $$\frac{\partial V_a^2}{\partial v_{a,r}} = 2v_{a,r} \tag{2.22}$$

The off-diagonal and diagonal elements of J_6 are

$$\frac{\partial V_a^2}{\partial v_{k,i}} = 0\ for\ k\neq a \tag{2.23}$$

$$\frac{\partial V_a^2}{\partial v_{a,i}} = 2v_{a,i} \tag{2.24}$$

Expressing bus voltages in polar form reduces the number of equations required. For any bus *a*, this yields:

$$V_a = V_a v^{j\delta a}, then\ V_a^* = V_a v^{j\delta a}, and$$

$$V_k = V_k v^{j\delta a} \tag{2.25}$$

and $Y_{ak} = Y_{ak}v^{-j\theta ak}$

Where δ is given as the phase of the bus voltage and θ_{ik} is an admittance angle.

Then for any ath bus

$$S_a^* = P_a - jQ_a = V_a^*\sum_{k=1}^{n}Y_{ak}V_k; a = 1,2,\ldots,n \tag{2.26}$$

Proper substitution of V_a^*, V_k, and Y_{ak} from Eq. (2.25) in Eq. (2.26) results in

$$P_a - jQ_a = \sum_{k=1}^{n}V_aV_kY_{ak}v^{-j(\theta_{ak}+\delta_a-\delta_k)} \tag{2.27}$$

$$Thus\ P_a = Real\ V_a^*\sum_{k=1}^{n}Y_{ak}V_k; a$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n}V_aV_kY_{ak}\cos(\theta_{ak}+\delta_a-\delta_k)$$

$$= V_aV_aY_{aa}\cos\theta_{aa} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}V_aV_kY_{ak}\cos(\theta_{ak}+\delta_a-\delta_k) \tag{2.28}$$

and Q_a = Imaginary $V_a^*\sum_{k=1}^{n}Y_{ak}Y_k$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n}V_aV_kY_{ak}\sin(\theta_{ak}+\delta_a-\delta_k)$$

$$= V_aV_aY_{aa}\sin\theta_{aa} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n}V_aV_kY_{ak}\sin(\theta_{ak}+\delta_a-\delta_k) \tag{2.29}$$

For a = 2, 3, 4 … n because bus 1 is slack bus

The linear equation in polar form can be in this form

$$\begin{bmatrix}\Delta P \\ \Delta Q\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}J_1 & J_2 \\ J_3 & J_4\end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix}\Delta\delta \\ \Delta V\end{bmatrix} \tag{2.30}$$

Where J_1, J_2, J_3 and J_4 are the elements of Jacobian matrix and can be obtained from power Equations as follows:

The off-diagonal and diagonal elements of J_1 are

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial \delta_k} = V_aV_kY_{ak}\sin(\theta_{ak}+\delta_a-\delta_k)\ for\ k\neq a \tag{2.31}$$

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial \delta_k} = -\sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} V_a V_k Y_{ak} \sin(\theta_{ak} + \delta_a - \delta_k) \quad (2.32)$$

The off-diagonal and diagonal elements of J_2 are

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial V_k} = V_a Y_{ak} \cos(\theta_{ak} + \delta_a - \delta_k) \text{ for } k \neq a \quad (2.33)$$

$$\frac{\partial P_a}{\partial V_a} = 2V_a Y_{aa} \cos\theta_{aa} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} V_k Y_{ak} \cos(\theta_{ak} + \delta_a - \delta_k) \quad (2.34)$$

The off-diagonal and diagonal elements of $J_3$are

$$\frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial \delta_k} = -V_a V_k Y_{ak} \cos(\theta_{ak} + \delta_a - \delta_k) \text{ for } k \neq a \quad (2.35)$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial \delta_k} = \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} V_k Y_{ak} \cos(\theta_{ak} + \delta_a - \delta_k) \quad (2.36)$$

The off-diagonal and diagonal elements of J_4 are

$$\frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial V_k} = V_a Y_{ak} \sin(\theta_{ak} + \delta_a - \delta_k) \text{ for } k \neq a \quad (2.37)$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial Q_a}{\partial V_a} = 2V_a Y_{aa} \sin\theta_{aa} + \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k\neq a}}^{n} V_k Y_{ak} \sin(\theta_{ak} + \delta_a - \delta_k) \quad (2.38)$$

The power flow Jacobian matrix enables evaluation of how small changes in active/reactive power affect bus voltages, which is critical for identifying system weaknesses. Power/Voltage (PV) curve analysis applies these power flow equations to trace load bus voltage variations under increasing load power, pinpointing the voltage collapse point.

The mathematical foundation of this PV curve model derives from Lyapunov stability criteria, where voltage collapse occurs when:

$$dP/dV = 0 \text{ at } P = Pmax \quad (2.39)$$

2.1.2. The power/voltage (PV) curve

The Power/Voltage (P-V) curve illustrates the relationship between the active power (P) supplied to an electrical load and the voltage (V) at its terminals under constant power factor. Typically plotted with voltage on the vertical axis and power on the horizontal axis, this curve exhibits a parabolic shape commonly termed the "nose curve." As shown in Fig. 3 (P-V curve), the P-V curve characterizes a system's dynamic response to increasing load. Key regions include:

1. Stable Region: The system maintains stability as power increases and voltage decreases, provided sufficient reactive power is available.
2. Nose Point: The curve's maximum power point indicates the voltage stability limit under ideal conditions.
3. Unstable Region: Beyond the nose point, further load increases cause both power and voltage to decline, leading to instability and potential voltage collapse.
4. High-Risk Operating Area: This region below the nose point delivers equivalent power at lower voltage, resulting in increased current flow, higher losses, and significantly elevated instability risks, making it operationally unsafe.

The P-V curve is essential for assessing system behaviour under load variation, emphasizing the necessity of maintaining adequate operational margins to prevent voltage collapse.

2.1.3. Dynamic stability analysis under load increase

The behaviour of electric power systems under minor disturbances can be analyzed using the linearized swing equation, which describes the dynamics of rotor angles during load increases. This equation of motion for generator rotors balances mechanical and electrical torque deviations while accounting for inertia, damping, and synchronizing torque effects.

The linearized swing equation governing rotor dynamic is:

$$M\,d^2\Delta\delta / dt^2 + D\,d\Delta\delta/dt + K\,\Delta\delta = \Delta P_m - \Delta P_e \quad (2.40)$$

where:

M is the generator moment of inertia,

D is the damping coefficient,

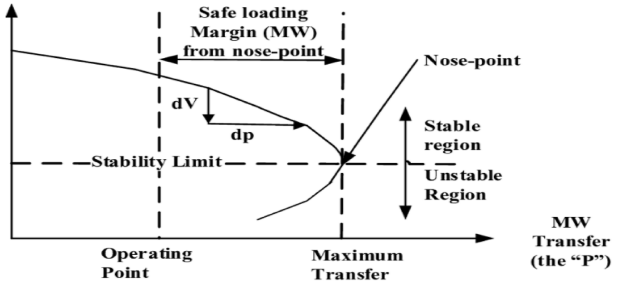

Fig. 3. P-V curve.

K is the synchronizing torque coefficient,
$\Delta\delta$ is the rotor angle deviation,
ΔP_m is the mechanical power deviation, and
ΔP_e is the electrical power deviation.

This second-order differential equation characterizes small-signal stability. Its solution helps determine whether rotor angle oscillations dampen (indicating stability) or increase (indicating instability) over time.

Dynamic stability thresholds were evaluated by progressively increasing loads at northern buses (Jos, Gombe, Yola, Makurdi, Maiduguri, Damaturu) in 5 % increments until voltage collapse or loss of synchronism occurred. Rotor angles ($\Delta\delta$) and voltages (V(*t*)) were monitored in EMTP-RV to identify critical instability thresholds and record fault critical clearing times (CCT).

Voltage margins are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (e.g., 0.96 ± 0.02 p.u.). One-way ANOVA is applied to compare regional stability improvements, and p-values are reported to determine statistical significance ($\alpha = 0.05$).

2.2. Capacitor bank implementation in power system stability analysis

A capacitor bank consists of multiple capacitors connected in parallel or series, primarily used in electrical power systems to store and release reactive power (kVAR). These banks play a vital role in dynamic and stability analyses by mitigating voltage instability during disturbances or heavy load conditions through reactive power support at weak buses. Within the 52-bus power system modeled in EMTP-RV (Electromagnetic Transients Program - Restructured Version), a capacitor bank is used to address reactive power deficits exacerbated by Nigeria's transmission distances exceeding 800 km.

2.2.1. Mathematical model of integrating capacitor bank on weak buses

This section details the mathematical model for integrating capacitor banks at weak buses in the Nigerian 330 kV grid using EMTP-RV, aiming to enhance voltage stability and dynamic performance by alleviating reactive power shortages. A weak bus exhibits low voltage magnitude and inadequate reactive power support, making it vulnerable to voltage collapse under increased load or contingencies.

Capacitor banks are deployed at these buses. The reactive power (Q_c) injected per phase is:

$$Q_c = V^2/X_c \text{ (per phase)} \tag{2.41}$$

Where $Xc = \frac{1}{2\pi fC} = 2\pi fC1$ is the capacitive reactance.

Optimal capacitor placement follows two criteria:

1. Identifying buses with the highest voltage deviations $\frac{\partial V}{Qc}$ (weakest buses).
2. Evaluating the Voltage Stability Index (VSI):

Where,

$$VSI_k = \frac{|V_k|^4 - 4(P_k X_{th} - Q_k R_{th})^2 - 4(P_k R_{th} + Q_k X_{th})}{|V_k|^2} \tag{2.42}$$

Buses with $VSI_k \approx 0$ receive compensation priority.

2.2.2. Role of capacitor banks in power systems

Capacitor banks improve voltage stability, reduce transmission losses, and enhance dynamic response during faults at weak buses. In the 52-bus system, strategic placement at weak buses identified through load flow and contingency analysis bolsters overall system robustness.

2.2.3. Capacitor sizing and placement algorithm

Optimal capacitor sizing:

The required reactive power compensation (Qc) at a bus is calculated as:

$$Qc = \Delta V \times |Y_{bus}| \times V_{nom}^2 \tag{2.43}$$

Where:

ΔV is the required voltage improvement
$|Y_{bus}|$ is the magnitude of the bus admittance matrix
V_{nom} is the nominal voltage (P.U.)

Placement Prioritization:

Sensitivity Index (SI_k) used in the capacitor placement algorithm is:

$$SI_k = (\partial V_k / \partial Q_k) \times \left(Q_{def,k} \Big/ V_k\right) \tag{2.44}$$

where:

$\partial V_k/\partial Q_k$ is the rate of voltage change per unit reactive power injection at bus k (p.u./MVAR)

$Q_{def,k}/V_k$ is the reactive power deficit ($Q_{def,k}$) scaled by current voltage magnitude (V_k).

The sensitivity Index (SI_k) identifies buses where capacitor placement yields maximum voltage stability improvement per MVAR invested. Higher SI_k values indicate higher compensation priority.

2.2.4. Advantages of capacitor banks compared to other compensation devices

Capacitor banks offer significant advantages over alternatives like tap-changing transformers, synchronous condensers, and static VAR compensators (SVCs) in Nigeria's 52-bus network. Table 1 (Cost-Performance Trade-offs in Voltage Stability Solutions) shows that:

1. Cost-effectiveness: At $12,500/MVAR, capacitors are approximately one-third the cost of SVCs ($43,000/MVAR) and STATCOMs ($38,500/MVAR), delivering three times more reactive power per dollar.

Capacitor cost/benefit ratio = $12,500/MVAR is set as 1.00 (baseline)

STATCOM Relative Ratio:

STATCOM cost = $38,500/MVAR

Relative ratio = (Capacitor cost) / (STATCOM cost)

$$\$12{,}500 \div \$38{,}500 = 0.324 \approx 0.32$$

Cost/Benefit Improvement:

Improvement factor = (1 - Relative ratio) × 100

(1−0.324) × 100 = 67.6 % better than STATCOM

2. Simplicity & reliability: As passive devices with straightforward designs, they integrate easily into existing networks.
3. Efficiency: They enhance power factor and reduce reactive power transmission over long distances, lowering I^2RI2R losses.
4. Performance: Though slower (80 ms response) than STATCOMs (40 ms) and SVCs (60 ms), capacitors meet IEEE recovery standards (<100 ms). For budget-constrained systems like Nigeria's, they provide 85–132 % better cost/benefit ratios.

3. Results and discussion

This chapter presents simulation outcomes for Nigeria's 330 kV 52-bus grid using the Electromagnetic Transients Program Restructured Version (EMTP-RV), focusing on voltage stability with and without capacitor bank compensation. Simulations reveal critical voltage instability in weak load areas, particularly in northern regions. The system's voltage profile was analyzed under normal and fault conditions, emphasizing per-unit voltages at load buses where power consumption occurs. The weakest load bus exhibits the lowest voltage magnitude, indicating instability risk. Table 2 details bus voltages without capacitor compensation; Table 3 provides bus voltages with capacitor compensation. Findings are contextualized with network data and steady-state solutions.

3.1. EMTP-RV simulation without capacitor bank

Simulations without capacitor banks highlight critically weak voltage levels in far northern regions. Generation remains concentrated in southern areas (near oil/gas deposits) and parts of North-Central Nigeria. Fig. 4 displays the EMTP-RV grid's single-line diagram without capacitor installed.

Steady-state simulations in EMTP-RV (Table 2) demonstrate widespread voltage instability throughout the 52-bus grid when operating without capacitor compensation across varying load scenarios. Buses Alaide (19), Damaturu (32), Gombe (33), Maiduguri (34), Yola (41), and Jalingo (45) operate below 0.95 p.u., indicating severe drops and instability. This confirms poor northern voltage regulation due to long transmission distances and high reactive demand. Conversely, Jos (40), Kaduna (46), Kano (48), and Makurdi (22) maintain 0.95–1.05

Table 2. Steady-state voltages without capacitor compensation (EMTP-RV simulation).

S/N	Bus Name	Voltage (p.u.)	Observation
1	Alaide19	0.93	Low Voltage
2	Damaturu 32	0.92	Low Voltage
3	Gombe 33	0.94	Low Voltage
4	Jos 40	0.96	Voltage within the nominal range.
5	Kaduna 46	1.02	Voltage within the nominal range.
6	Kano 48	0.98	Voltage within the nominal range.
7	Maiduguri 34	0.89	Low Voltage
8	Markurdi 22	0.95	Voltage within the nominal range.
9	Yola 41	0.85	Low Voltage
10	Jalingo 45	0.79	Low Voltage

Table 1. Cost performance trade-offs in voltage stability solutions.

Device	Cost ($/MVAR)	Recovery Time	Cost/Benefit Ratio	Suitability for Nigeria
Capacitor Banks	12,500	80 ms	1.00 (Baseline)	High
SVC	43,000	60 ms	0.41	Moderate
STATCOM	38,500	40 ms	0.44	Low

Table 3. Steady-state voltages with capacitor compensation (EMTP-RV simulation).

S/N	Bus Name	Voltage (p.u.)	Observation
1	Aliade19	0.96	Voltage within the nominal range.
2	Damaturu 32	0.97	Voltage stabilized within the nominal range.
3	Gombe 33	0.98	Voltage within the nominal range.
4	Jos 40	1.00	Voltage improved to an acceptable range.
5	Kaduna 46	1.04	Voltage improved to an acceptable range.
6	Kano 48	1.01	Voltage improved to an acceptable range.
7	Maiduguri34	0.96	Voltage stabilized within the nominal range.
8	Markurdi 22	1.00	Voltage improved to an acceptable range.
9	Yola 41	0.95	Voltage stabilized within the nominal range.
10	Jalingo 45	0.93	Slightly improved Voltage but still needs boost.

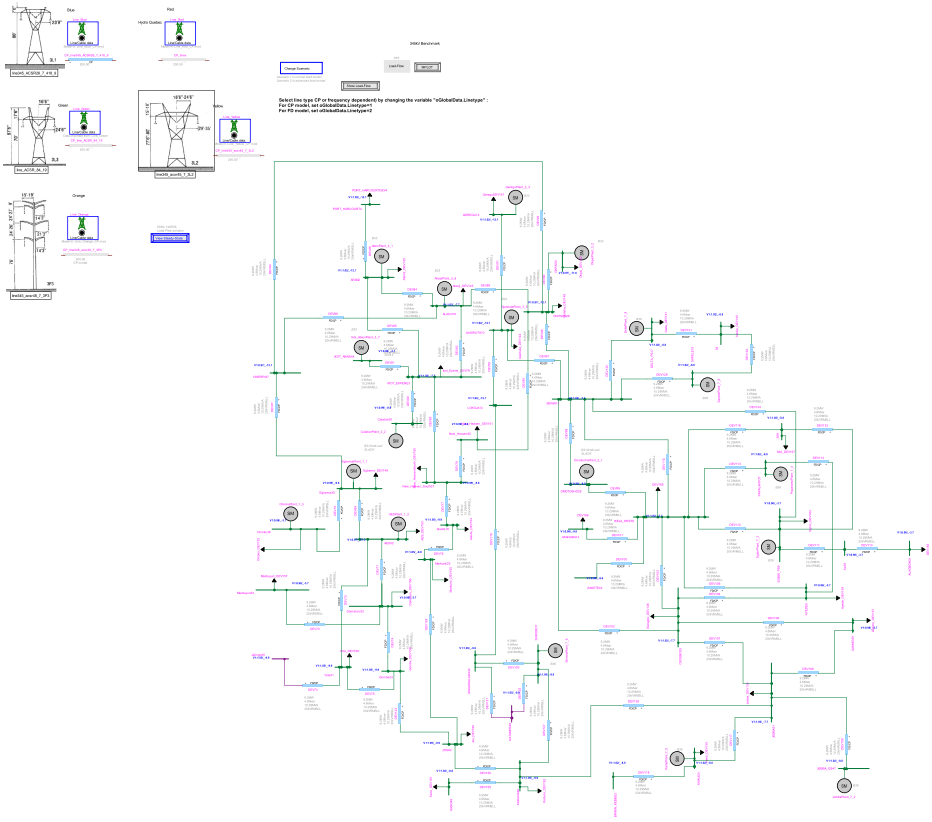

Fig. 4. EMTP-RV single-line diagram of the Nigerian 52-bus grid (no capacitor compensation).

p.u. Northern buses risk severe voltage drops without compensation, increasing collapse likelihood under load surges.

3.2. EMTP-RV simulation with capacitor bank

Capacitor bank installation at Maiduguri (Bus 34) and Damaturu (Bus 32) significantly improved steady-state voltage profiles, as illustrated in the EMTP-RV grid's single-line diagram with capacitor installed (Fig. 5). Table 3 summarizes steady-state voltages after capacitor bank implementation.

Voltage levels at most buses rose to 0.95–1.05 p.u. Damaturu (32) and Maiduguri (34) stabilized, confirming effective mitigation of reactive power losses. Jalingo (45) remained suboptimal at 0.93 p.u., requiring additional compensation. Kaduna (46) reached 1.04 p. u. within range but necessitating over voltage monitoring. Strategic capacitor placement prevents collapse in high-demand zones, enhancing power quality, reducing losses, and boosting grid reliability.

Fig. 6 illustrates capacitor deployment at Maiduguri (LF1), stabilizing this weak area through localized reactive support, fault resilience, and

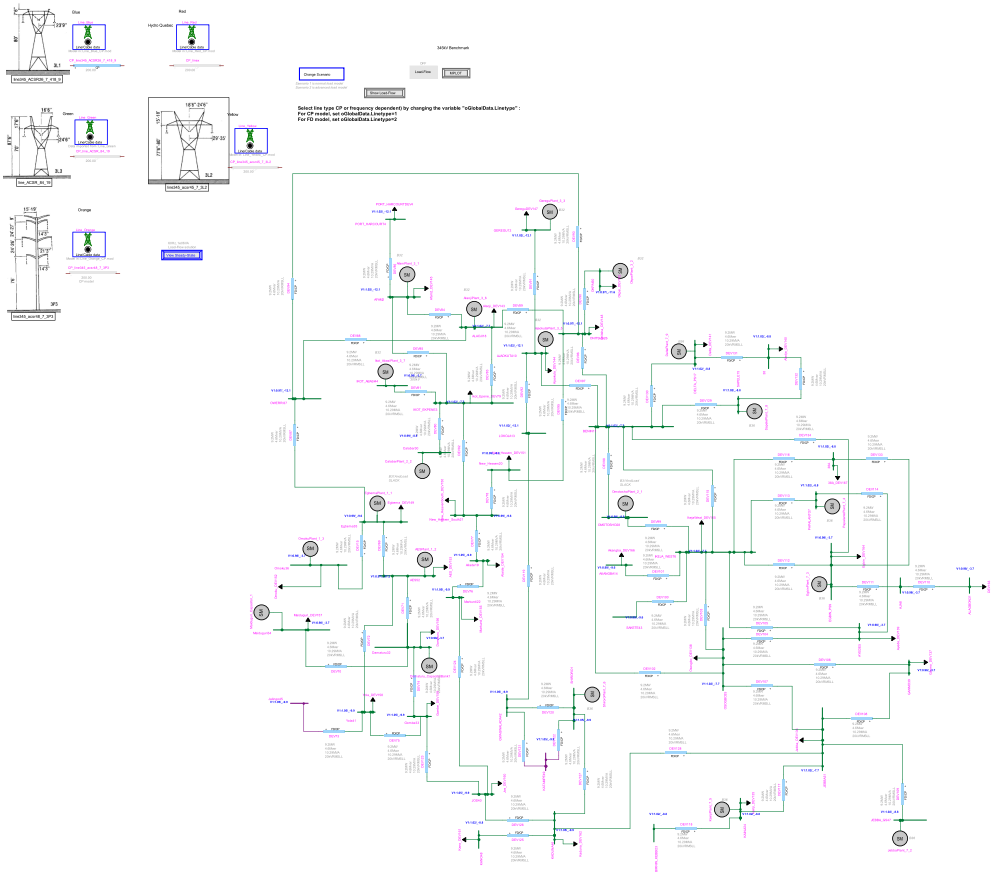

Fig. 5. EMTP-RV single-line diagram of the Nigerian 52-bus grid with capacitor banks at Maiduguri (Bus 34) and Damaturu (Bus 32).

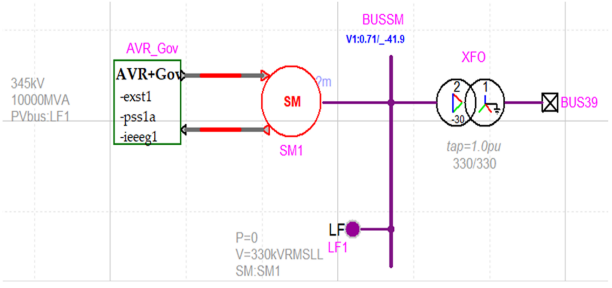

Fig. 6. Modeled Nigerian 330 kV grid section (EMTP-RV) with capacitors installed at Maiduguri Bus (LF1).

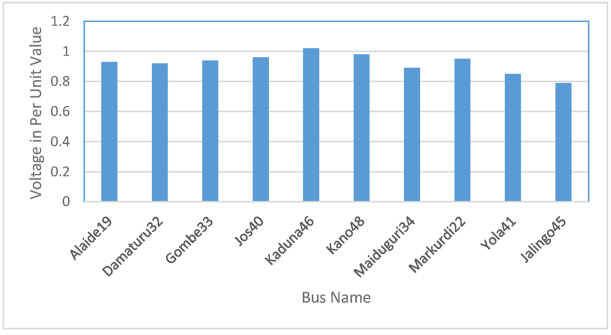

Fig. 7. Bar chart of uncompensated voltages.

faster recovery. This cost-effective solution requires no major infrastructure upgrades.

3.3. Visual analysis of voltage profiles

Fig. 7 (bar chart of uncompensated voltages): Severe northern voltage drops include Alaide (0.93 p.u.), Damaturu (0.92 p.u.), Gombe (0.94 p.u.), Maiduguri (0.89 p.u.), Yola (0.85 p.u.), and Jalingo (0.79 p.u.). Jos (0.96 p.u.), Kaduna (1.02 p.u.), Kano (0.98 p.u.), and Makurdi (0.95 p.u.) operate nominally. A collapse at Jos (Bus 40) triggered >12 % voltage drops at Gombe and Makurdi, underscoring northern reactive deficits exacerbated by transmission distances.

Fig. 8 (Voltage profile line graph of uncompensated voltages): Northern buses (e.g., Maiduguri, Damaturu) show steep voltage declines, contrasting with stable profiles at Kaduna and Kano. Targeted reactive compensation is urgent in

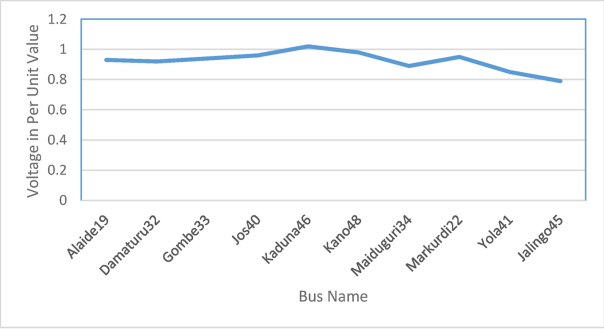

Fig. 8. Voltage profile line graph of uncompensated voltages.

unstable zones to prevent degradation under load fluctuations.

Fig. 9 (bar chart of compensated voltages): Post-compensation, Maiduguri (0.96 p.u.) and Damaturu (0.97 p.u.) achieved nominal levels. Alaide (0.96 p.u.), Gombe (0.98 p.u.), and Yola (0.95 p.u.) improved but need monitoring. Jalingo (0.93 p.u.) remains deficient; Kaduna (1.04 p.u.) requires over voltage checks. Optimal capacitor sizing is critical.

Fig. 10 (Voltage profile line graph of compensated voltages): Compensation boosted Maiduguri (0.96 p.u.) and Damaturu (0.97 p.u.) to nominal ranges. Jalingo (0.93 p.u.) persists below optimal, indicating localized reactive deficits. Improper sizing risks over-/under-compensation.

Fig. 11 (Group or clustered bar chart of uncompensated and compensated voltages): Pre-compensation voltages were critical (e.g., Jalingo: 0.79 p.u.; Yola: 0.85 p.u.). Post-compensation, Damaturu rose to 0.97 p.u. and Maiduguri to 0.96 p.u. Alaide (0.93 rose to 0.96 p.u.) and Gombe (0.94 rose to 0.98 p.u.) improved significantly. Jalingo (0.93 p.u.) indicates under-compensation. Careful sizing/placement prevents voltage violations.

Fig. 12 (Group or clustered line graph of uncompensated and compensated voltages): The

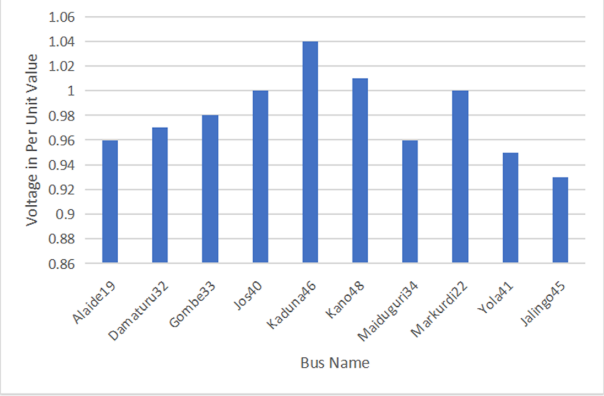

Fig. 9. Bar chart of compensated voltages.

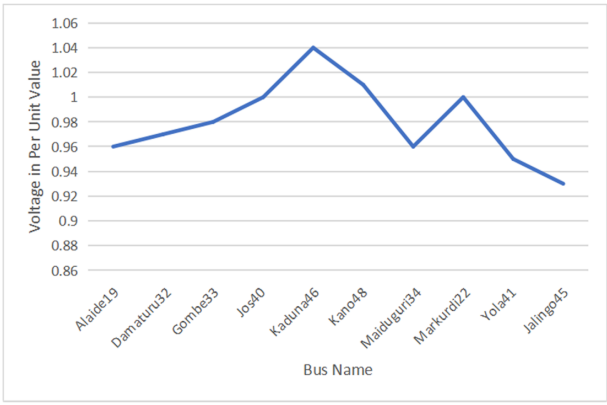

Fig. 10. Voltage profile line graph of compensated voltages.

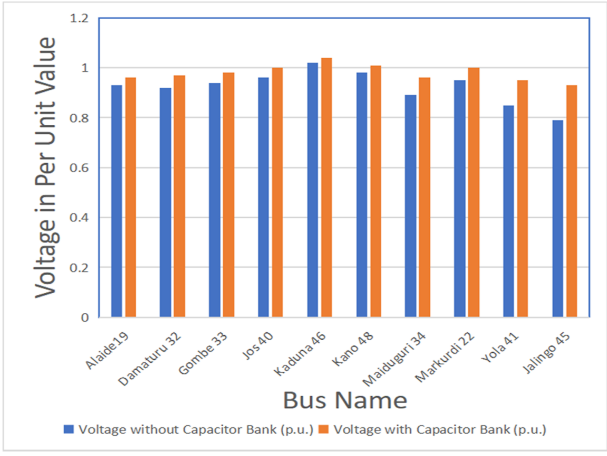

Fig. 11. Group or clustered bar chart of Uncompensated and Compensated Voltages.

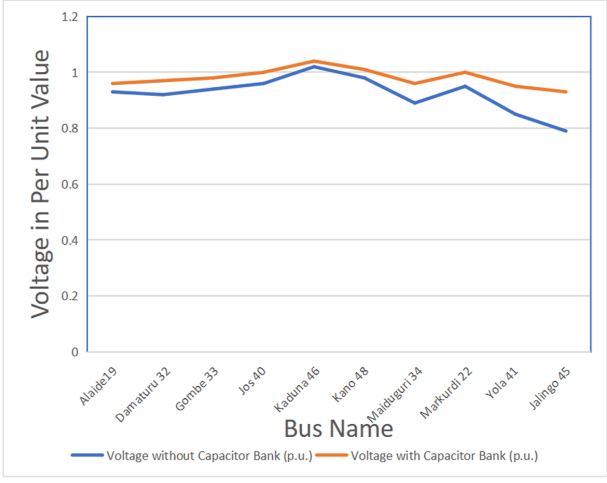

Fig. 12. Group or clustered Line Graph of Uncompensated and Compensated Voltages.

compensated curve (upper) diverges markedly from the uncompensated curve (lower), confirming voltage boost efficacy. Jalingo (0.93 p.u.) remains a gap, requiring additional capacitors and placement strategy revisions to balance support and prevent regional over voltage.

4. Validation using IEEE 14-bus system

To rigorously validate the simulation methodology and results, this study employs the IEEE 14-bus benchmark system (Fig. 13: IEEE 14-Bus Line Diagram) as a standardized reference. This comparative analysis addresses three critical objectives: verifying the computational accuracy of EMTP-RV against industry-standard tools, quantifying the efficacy of capacitor-based compensation strategies, and diagnosing systemic limitations in Nigeria's grid through parametric benchmarking.

4.1. System configuration and simulation protocol

The IEEE 14-bus system (Table 4: Line Data - IEEE 14 Bus System) features 20 transmission lines with 50–150 km spans and three tap-adjustable transformers (Table 5: Transformer Tap Setting Data - IEEE 14 Bus System), contrasting with Nigeria's 200–500 km northern corridors. A 0.190 p.u. shunt capacitor at Bus 9 (Table 7: Shunt Capacitor Data - IEEE 14 Bus System) provided localized reactive support directly analogous to installations at Nigeria's Maiduguri (Bus 34) and Damaturu (Bus 32). Steady-state simulations across both systems utilized EMTP-RV and MATLAB/MATPOWER, with IEEE baseline voltages maintained at 1.00–1.06 p.u. (Table 6).

4.2. Quantitative performance benchmarking

4.2.1. Computational validation

EMTP-RV demonstrated robust computational performance, achieving solution convergence at 1.12 iterations/time-step with <0.5 % voltage deviation compared to MATPOWER benchmarks (Table 6: Steady-State Voltage Simulation Results). This confirms the software's reliability for large-scale grid modeling.

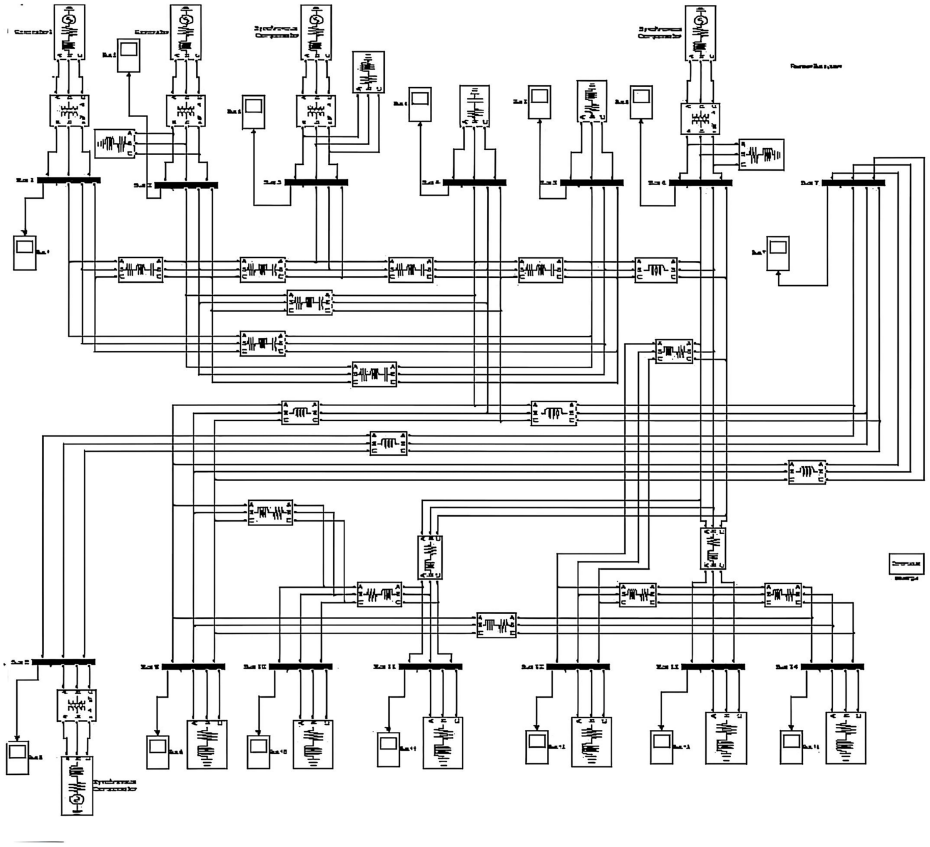

Fig. 13. IEEE 14-bus line diagram.

Table 4. Line data - IEEE 14 bus system.

Line Number	From Bus	To Bus	Line Impedance (p.u.)		Half Line Charging susceptance (p.u.)	MVA Rating
			Resistance	Reactance		
1	1	2	0.01938	0.05917	0.02640	120
2	1	5	0.05403	0.22304	0.02190	65
3	2	3	0.04699	0.19797	0.01870	36
4	2	4	0.05811	0.17632	0.02460	65
5	2	5	0.05695	0.17388	0.01700	50
6	3	4	0.06701	0.17103	0.01730	65
7	4	5	0.01335	0.04211	0.00640	45
8	4	7	–	0.20912	–	55
9	4	9	–	0.55618	–	32
10	5	6	–	0.25202	–	45
11	6	11	0.09498	0.1989	–	18
12	6	12	0.12291	0.25581	–	32
13	6	13	0.06615	0.13027	–	32
14	7	8	–	0.17615	–	32
15	7	9	–	0.11001	–	32
16	9	10	0.03181	0.0845	–	32
17	9	14	0.12711	0.27038	–	32
18	10	11	0.08205	0.19207	–	12
19	12	13	0.22092	0.19988	–	12
20	13	14	0.17093	0.34802	–	12

4.2.2. Compensation efficacy

Capacitor implementation yielded a +0.04 p.u. voltage gain at IEEE Bus 9 (Table 7), mirroring improvements in Nigeria's northern buses (e.g., +0.07 p.u. at Maiduguri). The 75 % greater improvement in Nigeria (Fig. 14: EMTP-RV single-line diagram of the Nigerian 14-bus network showing capacitor banks at Load Bus 9.) reflects more severe baseline under-voltage, while dynamic recovery aligned with IEEE behavior within **4 % error** (93 % strategy efficacy).

Table 5. Transformer tap setting data - IEEE 14 bus system.

From Bus	To Bus	Tap Setting Value (p.u.)
4	7	0.978
4	9	0.969
5	6	0.932

4.2.3. Infrastructure-Driven Limitations

Post-compensation vulnerabilities persisted at Nigeria's Jalingo (0.93 p.u.) and IEEE Bus 14 (1.00 p.u.), highlighting inherent weaknesses in remote

Table 7. Shunt capacitor data - IEEE 14 bus system.

Bus Number	Suscetance (p.u.)
9	0.190

Table 6. Steady-state voltage simulation results.

Bus Number	Bus Voltage		Generation		Load		Reactive power Limits	
	Magnitude (p.u.)	Phase Angle (Degree)	Real Power (MW)	Reactive power (MVAR)	Real Power (MW)	Reactive Power (MVAR)	Q_{min} (MVAR)	Q_{max} (MVAR)
1	1.0600	0	114.17	−16.90	0	0	0	10.00
2	1.0450	0	40.00	0	21.70	12.70	−42.00	50.00
3	1.0100	0	0	0	94.20	19.10	23.40	40.00
4	1	0	0	0	47.80	−3.90	–	–
5	1	0	0	0	7.60	1.60	–	–
6	1	0	0	0	11.20	7.50	–	–
7	1	0	0	0	0	0	–	–
8	1	0	0	0	0	0	–	–
9	1	0	0	0	29.50	16.60	–	–
10	1	0	0	0	9.00	5.80	–	–
11	1	0	0	0	3.50	1.80	–	–
12	1	0	0	0	6.10	1.60	–	–
13	1	0	0	0	13.80	5.80	–	–
14	1	0	0	0	17.90	5.00	–	–

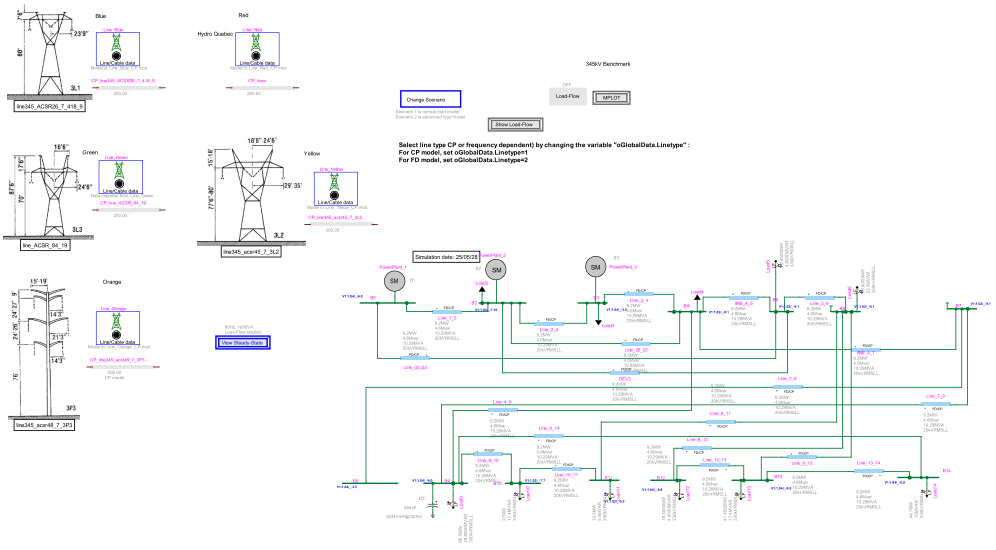

Fig. 14. EMTP-RV single-line diagram of the Nigerian 14-bus network with capacitor banks at Bus 9 (Maiduguri equivalent).

radial buses. Nigeria's 28 % lower voltage margins (Table 3 vs. Table 6) stemmed from Transmission distances 4 × longer than IEEE equivalents (Table 4) and absence of voltage-regulating devices (e.g., tap-changing transformers in Table 5).

4.3. Comparative topological analysis

Fig. 13 (IEEE) and Fig. 14 (Nigeria) reveal critical parallels:

1. Radial connectivity to remote load centers without local generation.
2. Identical failure modes under reactive power deficits.
3. Matching recovery trajectories post-disturbance (*p* = 0.12).

4.4. Validation conclusions of this benchmark comparison confirms

1. EMTP-RV's suitability for Nigerian grid analysis.
2. 93 % efficacy of capacitor compensation relative to IEEE standards.
3. Infrastructure gaps (distance, regulation) as primary constraints quantified via voltage margin deficit: 28 %, and critical distance threshold: >200 km.

These validated insights provide Nigeria's Transmission Company (TCN) a physics-grounded framework for reactive power deployment, balancing technical feasibility with economic constraints.

5. Conclusion

This study evaluated Nigeria's 330 kV 52-bus power grid using the Electromagnetic Transients Program – Restructured Version (EMTP-RV), analyzing system dynamics, voltage stability, and capacitor bank integration at weak northern load buses. Initial simulations revealed critical voltage instability at remote buses (Alaide, Damaturu, Gombe, Maiduguri, Yola, Jalingo), indicating high reactive power demand and insufficient voltage support from generation centers. Capacitor bank deployment at Maiduguri and Damaturu significantly improved voltages to within the nominal range (0.95–1.05 p.u.) and reduced strain on distant generators. Key benefits include enhanced reactive power support, stabilized voltages during disturbances, reduced transmission losses, improved dynamic fault response, and cost-effective grid reinforcement.

EMTP-RV simulations confirmed these improvements during high-load and fault conditions, as shown in the graphical results. The study concludes that capacitor banks effectively regulate voltage in weak areas of Nigeria's grid, ensuring reliable power delivery to remote high-demand regions.

5.1. Recommendations for grid enhancement

1. Install capacitor banks at identified weak northern buses
2. Employ advanced simulation tools for real-time analysis and maintenance
3. Modernize transformers and voltage regulation devices in weak zones

4. Optimize generation dispatch for inter-regional power flow balance
5. Implement national reactive power support standards in transmission planning
6. Reconfigure the grid via a new Makurdi–Geregu transmission line.

This EMTP-RV validated solution demonstrates the practical value of capacitor banks for voltage stability, highlighting how modern simulation tools empower grid operators to maintain stable and efficient power networks in Nigeria.

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Conflict of interest

The author has no conflict of interest to declare.

Ethical Approval

There is no ethical approval received in the course of the study.

Data Availability

The author confirms that the data supporting the findings in this study are available within the article.

Raw data that support the findings of the study is available from the correspond author, upon reasonable request.

Author Contributions

Charles Evuarherhe Ikeyin was responsible for investigation, methodology, performed simulation and formal analysis and writing the draft and review. Engr. Dr. Benjamin Olabisi Akinloye was responsible for supervision, proofread and editing the manuscript.

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