



ECE 486 Control Systems

Lecture 07: Effect of Zeros and Extra Poles Routh-Hurwitz Stability Criterion

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Checklist



Modeling

Analysis

Design

Root Locus

Frequency Response

State-Space

Wk	Topic	Ref.
1	Introduction to feedback control	Ch. 1
2	State-space models of systems; linearization	Sections 1.1, 1.2, 2.1–2.4, 7.2, 9.2.1
2	Linear systems and their dynamic response	Section 3.1, Appendix A
2	Transient and steady-state dynamic response with arbitrary initial conditions	Section 3.1, Appendix A
3	National Holiday Week	
4	System modeling diagrams; prototype second-order system	Sections 3.1, 3.2, lab manual
4	Transient response specifications	Sections 3.3, 3.14, lab manual
5	Effect of zeros and extra poles; Routh-Hurwitz stability criterion	Sections 3.5, 3.6
5	Basic properties and benefits of feedback control; Introduction to Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) control	Section 4.1–4.3, lab manual
6	Review A	
6	Term Test A	
7	Introduction to Root Locus design method	Ch. 5
7	Root Locus continued; introduction to dynamic compensation	Root Locus
8	Lead and lag dynamic compensation	Ch. 5
8	Lead and lag continued; introduction to frequency-response design method	Sections 5.1–5.4, 6.1

Wk	Topic	Ref.
9	Bode plots for three types of transfer functions	Section 6.1
9	Stability from frequency response; gain and phase margins	Section 6.1
10	Control design using frequency response	Ch. 6
10	Control design using frequency response continued; PI and lag, PID and lead-lag	Frequency Response
11	Nyquist stability criterion	Ch. 6
11	Nyquist stability criterion continued; gain and phase margins from Nyquist plots	Ch. 6
12	Review B	
12	Term Test B	
13	Introduction to state-space design	Ch. 7
13	Controllability, stability, and pole-zero cancellations; similarity transformation; conversion of controllable systems to Controller Canonical Form	Ch. 7
14	Pole placement by full state feedback	Ch. 7
14	Observer design for state estimation	Ch. 7
15	Joint observer and controller design by dynamic output feedback; separation principle	State-Space
15	In-class review	Ch. 7
16	END OF LECTURES: Revision Week	
16	Final	

Lecture Overview

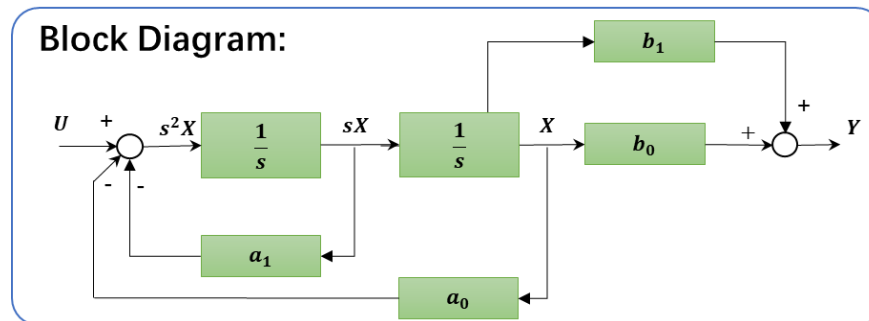
- Review: 2nd order system prototype; transient response specs (rise time, overshoot, settling time)
- Today's topic: effect of zeros and extra poles; Routh-Hurwitz stability criterion
- Learning Objectives: Understand the effect of zeros and higher-order poles on the shape of transient response; discuss relation with stability; formulate and learn how to apply the Routh-Hurwitz stability criterion

System Representation (Last week)

Transfer Function:

$$H(s) = \frac{b_1 s + b_0}{s^2 + a_1 s + a_0}$$

Block Diagram:



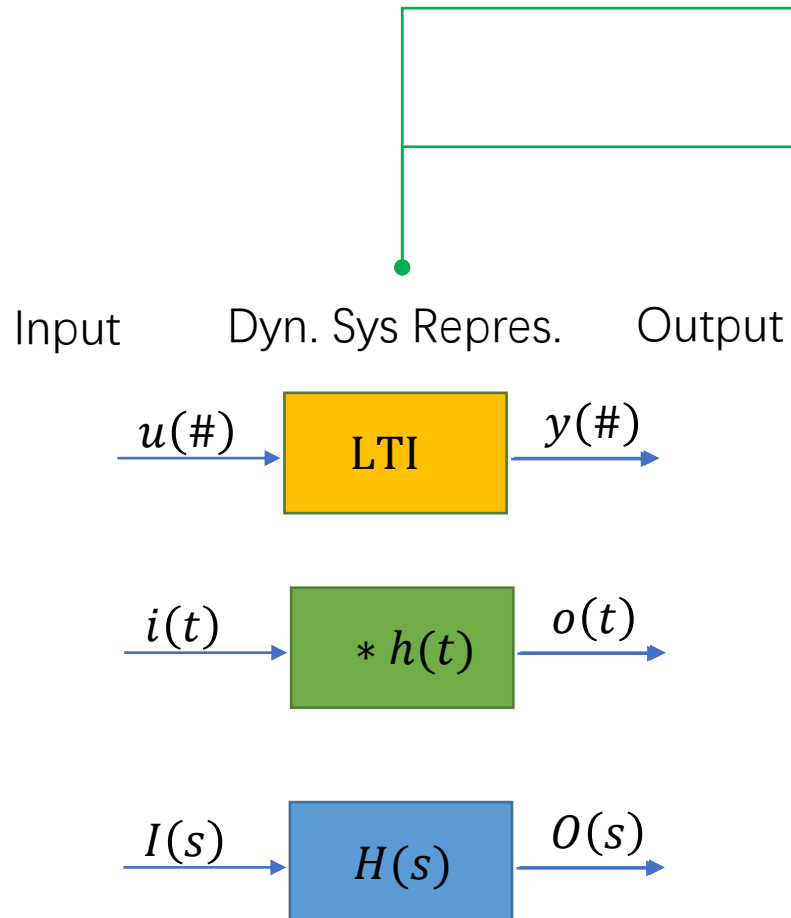
State space model:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} u$$

$$y = (b_0 \quad b_1) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$s^2 + \underbrace{2\zeta\omega_n}_{\downarrow \frac{b}{m}} s + \underbrace{\omega_n^2}_{\downarrow \frac{k}{m}} = \frac{f}{m}$$

System Representation



Configuration form

Equations of Motion

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{q}_1 = f_1(q_1, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n, t) \\ \ddot{q}_1 = f_2(q_1, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n, t) \\ \vdots \\ \ddot{q}_n = f_n(q_1, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n, t) \end{cases}$$

Initial Conditions

$$\begin{cases} q_1(0) = q_{10}, \dots, q_n(0) = q_{n0} \\ \dot{q}_1(0) = \dot{q}_{10}, \dots, \dot{q}_n(0) = \dot{q}_{n0} \end{cases}$$

State space model:

State Equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} u$$

Output Equation

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} b_0 & b_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

ODE:

$$\frac{d^n y}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = b_m \frac{d^m x}{dt^m} + b_{m-1} \frac{d^{m-1} x}{dt^{m-1}} + \dots + b_0 x(t)$$

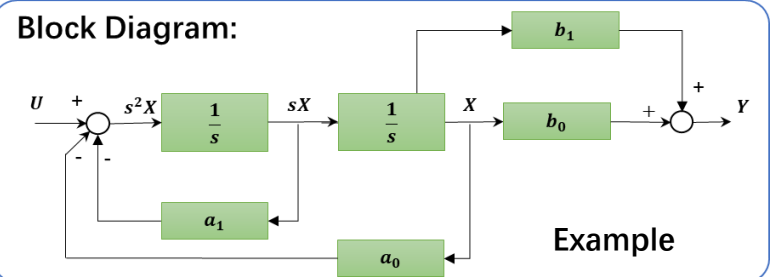
ICs $\frac{d^k y}{dt^k} = y_k$

Transfer Function:

$$\frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{b_m s^m + b_{m-1} s^{m-1} + \dots + b_0}{s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0}$$

ICs = 0

Block Diagram:



2nd Order Systems · $x^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n x + \omega_n^2 = \frac{f}{m}$

$$H(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

By the quadratic formula, the poles are:

$$s = -\zeta\omega_n \pm \omega_n\sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}$$

$$= -\omega_n(\zeta \pm \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1})$$

The nature of the poles changes depending on ζ :

- ▶ $\zeta > 1$ both poles are real and negative
- ▶ $\zeta = 1$ one negative pole
- ▶ $\zeta < 1$ two complex poles with negative real parts

$$s = -\sigma \pm j\omega_d$$

$$\text{where } \sigma = \zeta\omega_n, \omega_d = \omega_n\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2} = \frac{\omega_n^2}{(s + \sigma)^2 + \omega_d^2}$$

▶ Impulse response:

$$h(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{H(s)\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{(\omega_n^2/\omega_d)\omega_d}{(s + \sigma)^2 + \omega_d^2}\right\}$$

$$= \frac{\omega_n^2}{\omega_d} e^{-\sigma t} \sin(\omega_d t) \quad (\text{table, \# 20})$$

▶ Step response:

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{H(s)}{s}\right\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{\sigma^2 + \omega_d^2}{s[(s + \sigma)^2 + \omega_d^2]}\right\}$$

$$= 1 - e^{-\sigma t} \left(\cos(\omega_d t) + \frac{\sigma}{\omega_d} \sin(\omega_d t)\right) \quad (\text{table, \#21})$$

$$x^2 + \underbrace{2\zeta\omega_n}_{\frac{b}{m}} x + \underbrace{\omega_n^2}_{\frac{k}{m}} = \frac{f}{m}$$

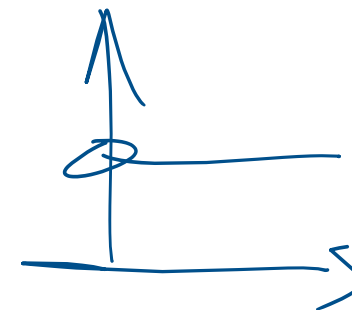
$$\ddot{x} + \frac{b}{m}\dot{x} + \frac{k}{m}x = f$$

$$s^2 X + \frac{b}{m}sX + \frac{k}{m}X = F$$

$$H(s) = \frac{X(s)}{F(s)}$$

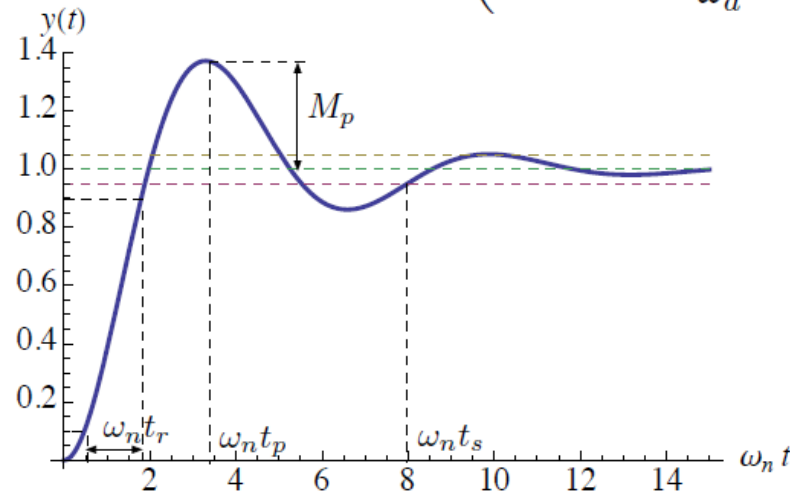
$$X\left(s^2 + \frac{b}{m}s + \frac{k}{m}\right) = F$$

$$\boxed{1(t)} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{s}$$



System Response

Step response: $y(t) = 1 - e^{-\sigma t} \left(\cos(\omega_d t) + \frac{\sigma}{\omega_d} \sin(\omega_d t) \right)$



- rise time t_r — time to get from $0.1y(\infty)$ to $0.9y(\infty)$
- overshoot M_p and peak time t_p
- settling time t_s — first time for transients to decay to within a specified small percentage of $y(\infty)$ and stay in that range (we will usually worry about 5% settling time)

Recap: Transient Response

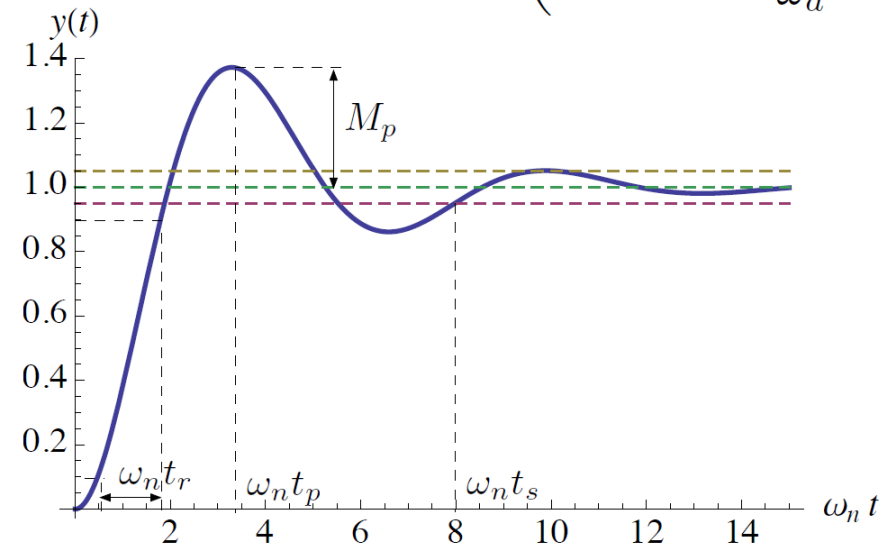
- Transient Response Spec
 - Rise time, t_r
 - Overshoot, M_p
 - Settling time, t_s

Recap: Transient Response

- Transient Response Spec

- Rise time, t_r
- Overshoot, M_p
- Settling time, t_s

Step response: $y(t) = 1 - e^{-\sigma t} \left(\cos(\omega_d t) + \frac{\sigma}{\omega_d} \sin(\omega_d t) \right)$

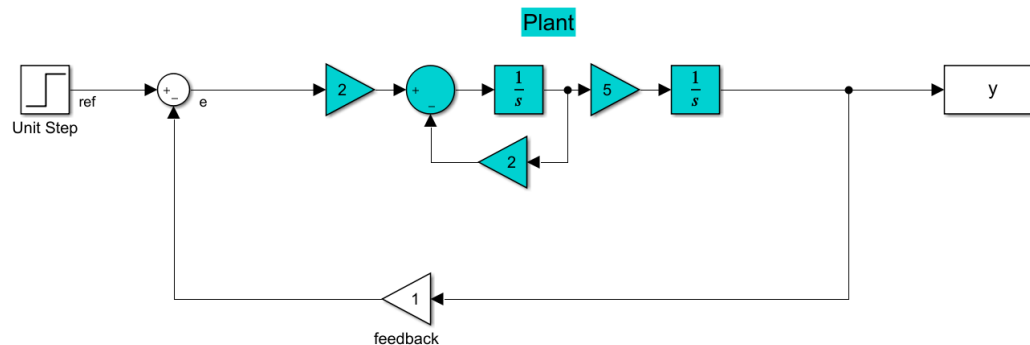


- ▶ rise time t_r — time to get from $0.1y(\infty)$ to $0.9y(\infty)$
- ▶ overshoot M_p and peak time t_p
- ▶ settling time t_s — first time for transients to decay to within a specified small percentage of $y(\infty)$ and stay in that range (we will usually worry about 5% settling time)

Transient Response Spec: Recall Lab 0

Lab 0

A Simple Plant under a unit step input

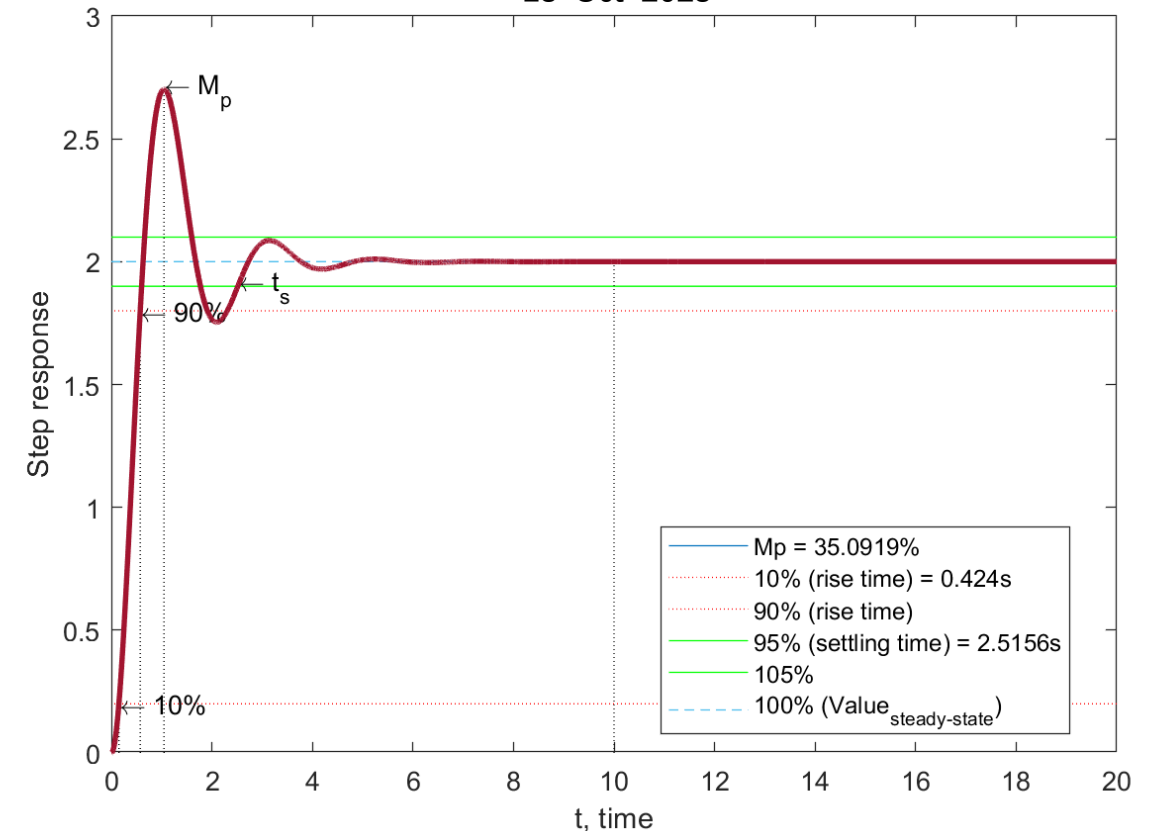


```
%Mp
% Mp is the percentage overshoot -

%tr
% tr is the time required for the response to rise from 10% of the
% steady-state value to 90% of the steady-state value.

%ts
% ts is the time it takes for the response settle between 95% and 105% of
% the steady-state value. One way to find ts is to use a while loop,
% initialize a counter (x) to the end of the response array, and move
% forwards through the array until the response is no longer within the
% 95-105% bounds.
```

M_p , t_r , and t_s for a transfer function ECE 486
13-Oct-2023



Effect of Zeros on the Transient Response

$$H(s) = \frac{q(s)}{p(s)}; \begin{matrix} \text{= } 0 \text{ (zeros)} \\ \text{= } 0 \text{ (poles)} \end{matrix}$$

$$\frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

zeros are roots of $q(s)$; poles are roots of $p(s)$

Example: start with $H_1(s) = \boxed{\frac{1}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1}}$ ($\omega_n = 1$)

Effect of Zeros on the Transient Response

$$H(s) = \frac{q(s)}{p(s)};$$

zeros are roots of $q(s)$; poles are roots of $p(s)$

Example: start with $H_1(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1}$ ($\omega_n = 1$)

Let's add a zero at $s = -a$, $a > 0$ — LHP zero

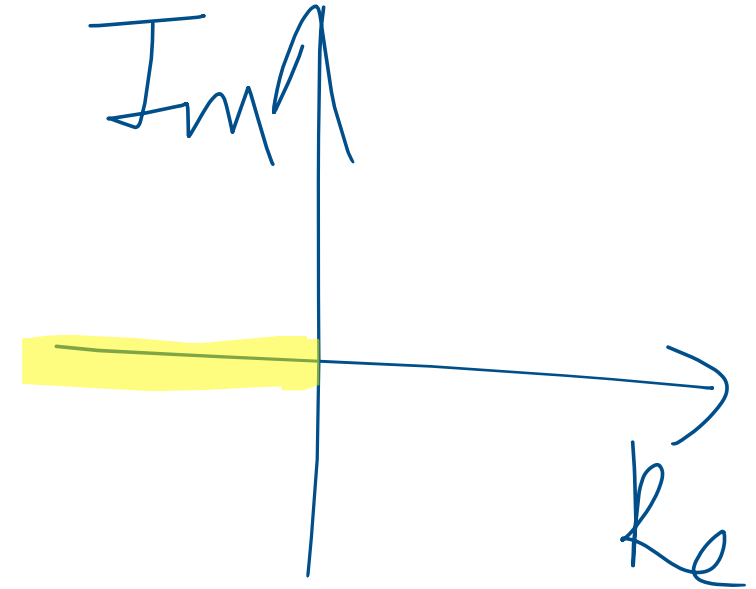
To keep DC gain = 1, let's take the numerator to be $\frac{s}{a} + 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} H_2(s) &= \frac{\frac{s}{a} + 1}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1} \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1}}_{\text{this is } H_1(s)} + \frac{1}{a} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{s}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1}}_{\text{call this } H_d(s)} \\ &= H_1(s) + \frac{1}{a} H_d(s), \quad H_d(s) = sH_1(s) \end{aligned}$$

Original

additional term

post adding
LHP zero



Effect of a LHP Zero

$$Y(s) = \underbrace{U(s)}_{1/s} H(s)$$

$$H_1(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1} \xrightarrow{\text{add zero at } s = -a} H_2(s) = H_1(s) + \frac{1}{a} \cdot s H_1(s)$$

Step response:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_1(s) &= \frac{H_1(s)}{s} \\ Y_2(s) &= \frac{H_2(s)}{s} \\ &= \frac{H_1(s)}{s} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{s H_1(s)}{s} \\ &= Y_1(s) + \frac{1}{a} s Y_1(s) \end{aligned}$$

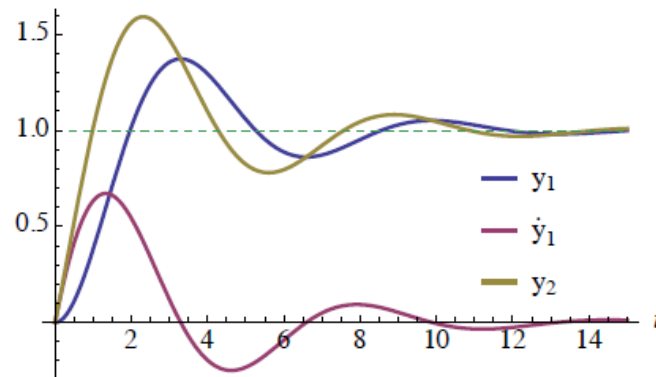
$$y_2(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{Y_2(s)\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{Y_1(s) + \frac{1}{a} \cdot s Y_1(s)\right\} = y_1(t) + \frac{1}{a} \dot{y}_1(t)$$

(assuming zero initial conditions)

Effect of a LHP Zero

Step response (zero at $s = -a$)

$$y_2(t) = y_1(t) + \frac{1}{a} \dot{y}_1(t) \quad \text{where } y_1(t) = \text{original step response}$$



Effects of a LHP zero:

- ▶ increased overshoot (major effect)
- ▶ little influence on settling time
- ▶ what happens as $a \rightarrow \infty$? — effects become less significant

Effect of a LHP Zero

$$H_1(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1} \xrightarrow{\text{add zero at } s = -a} H_2(s) = H_1(s) + \frac{1}{a} \cdot s H_1(s)$$

Step response:

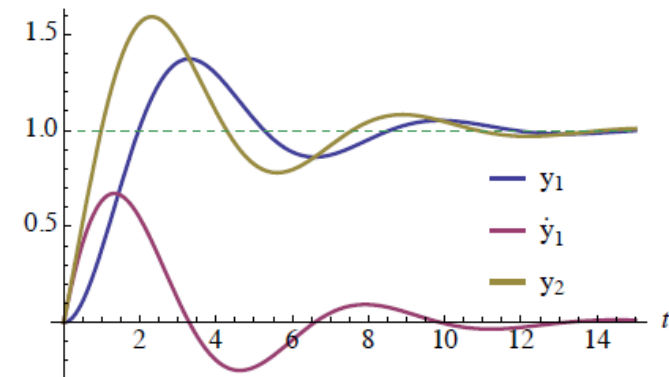
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$$y_2(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{Y_2(s)\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{Y_1(s) + \frac{1}{a} \cdot s Y_1(s)\right\} = y_1(t) + \frac{1}{a} \dot{y}_1(t)$$

(assuming zero initial conditions)

Step response (zero at $s = -a$)

$$y_2(t) = y_1(t) + \frac{1}{a} \dot{y}_1(t) \quad \text{where } y_1(t) = \text{original step response}$$

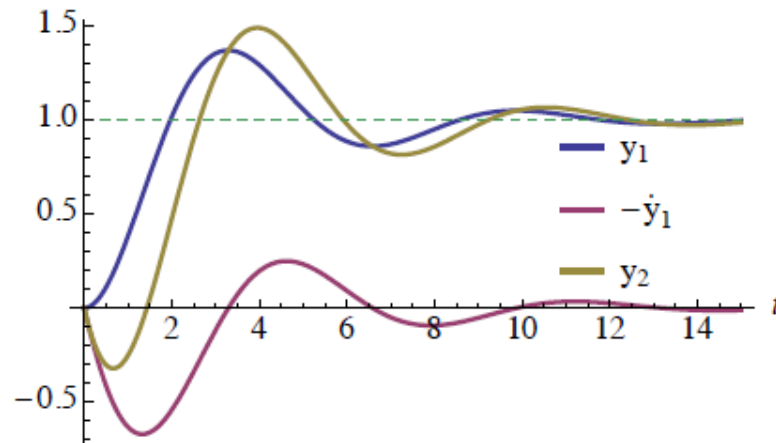


Effects of a LHP zero:

- ▶ increased overshoot (major effect)
- ▶ little influence on settling time
- ▶ what happens as $a \rightarrow \infty$? — effects become less significant

Effect of a RHP Zero

$$H_1(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2\zeta s + 1} \xrightarrow{\text{add zero at } s = \textcolor{red}{a}} H_2(s) = H_1(s) - \frac{1}{a} \cdot sH_1(s)$$
$$y_2(t) = y_1(t) - \frac{1}{\textcolor{red}{a}} \cdot \dot{y}_1(t)$$



Effects of a RHP zero:

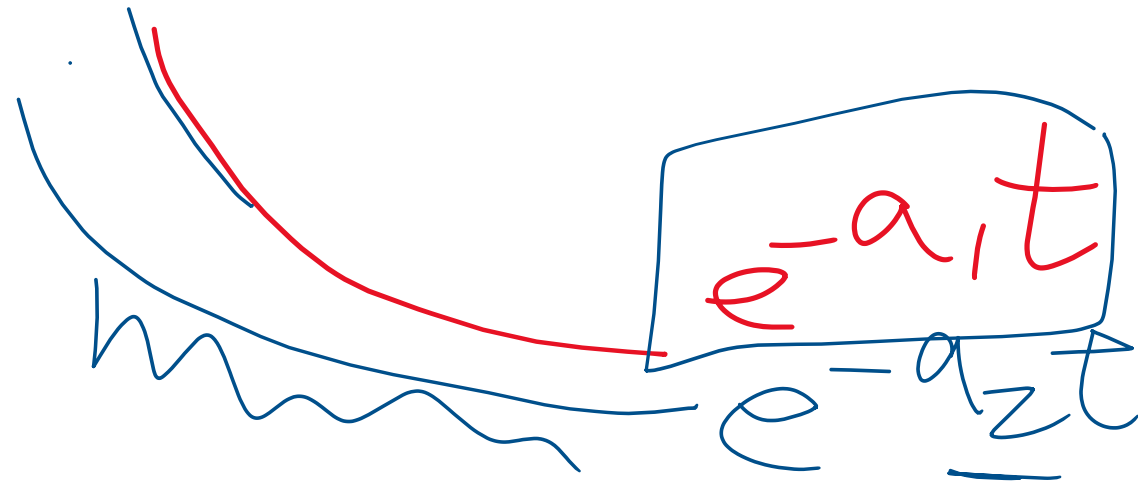
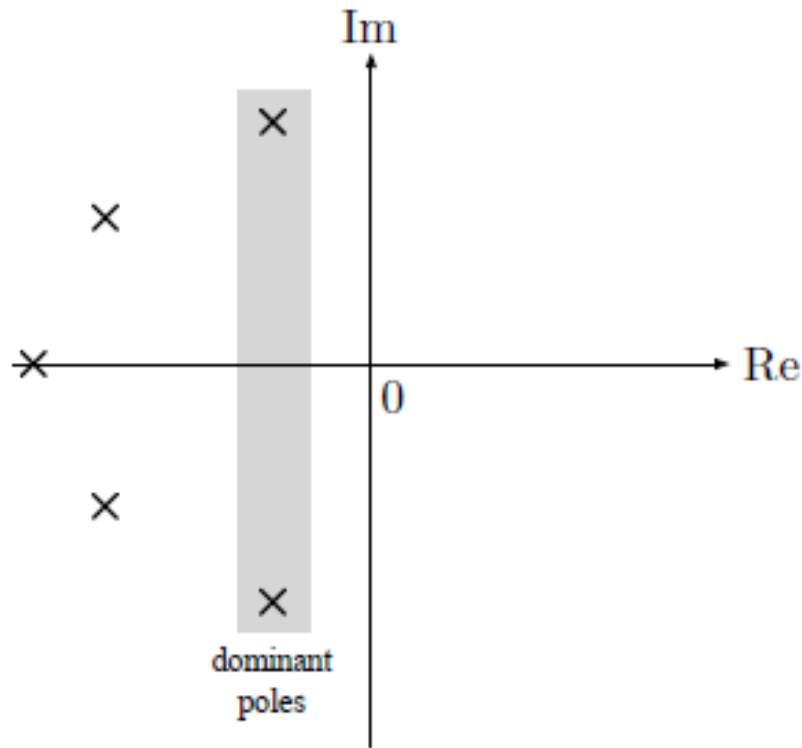
- ▶ slows down (delays) the response
- ▶ creates *undershoot* (at least, when a is small enough)

Effect of Extra Poles

A general n th-order system has n poles

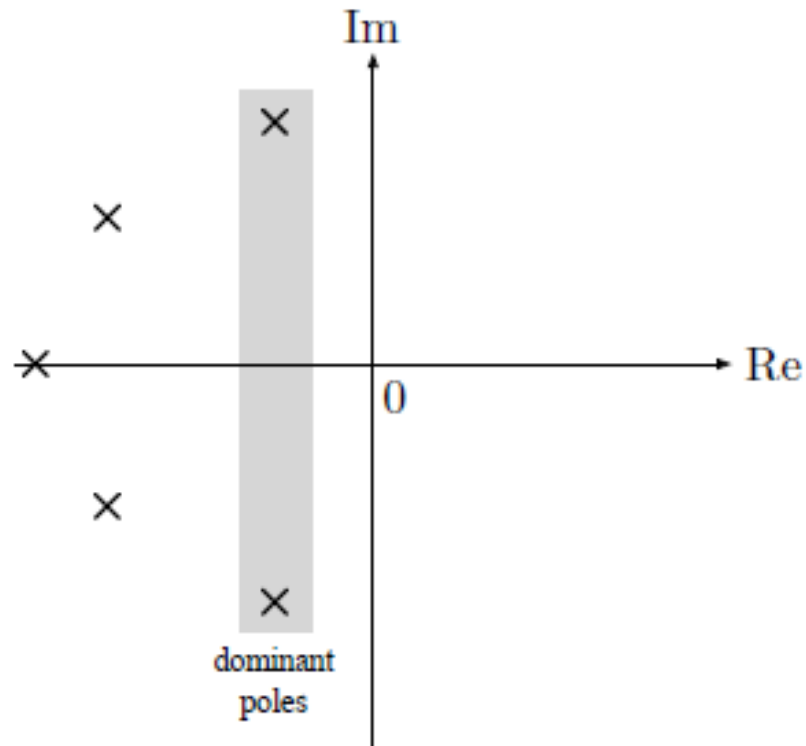
e^{-at}

- ▶ extra LHP poles are not significant if their real parts are at least $5\times$ the real parts of dominant LHP poles



Effect of Extra Poles

A general n th-order system has n poles

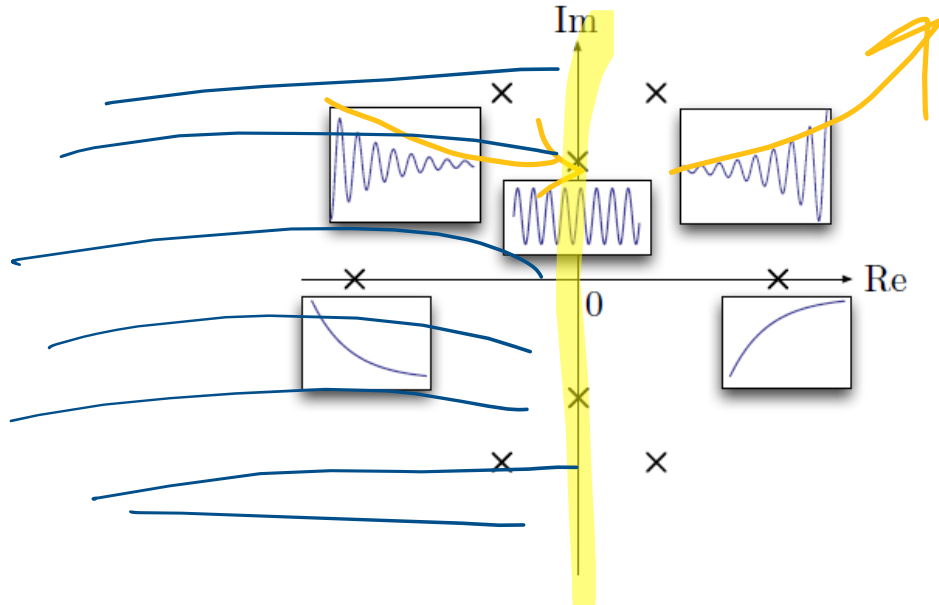


- ▶ extra LHP poles are not significant if their real parts are at least $5\times$ the real parts of dominant LHP poles
- ▶ e.g., if dominant poles have $\text{Re}(s) = -2$ and we have extra poles with $\text{Re}(s) = -10$, their time-domain contributions will be e^{-2t} and $e^{-10t} \ll e^{-2t}$
- ▶ $5\times$ is just a convention, but we can really see the effect of extra poles that are closer

Effect of Poles

$$e^{j\omega t} = \cos \omega t + j \sin \omega t$$

Effect of Pole Locations



- ▶ poles in open LHP ($\text{Re}(s) < 0$) — stable response
- ▶ poles in open RHP ($\text{Re}(s) > 0$) — unstable response
- ▶ poles on the imaginary axis ($\text{Re}(s) = 0$) — tricky case

Marginal Case: Poles on the Imaginary Axis

Let's consider the case of a pole at the origin: $H(s) = \frac{1}{s}$

Is this a stable system?

- ▶ impulse response: $Y(s) = \frac{1}{s} \Rightarrow y(t) = 1(t)$ (OK)
- ▶ step response: $Y(s) = \frac{1}{s^2} \Rightarrow y(t) = t, t \geq 0$ — unit ramp!!

What about purely imaginary poles? $H(s) = \frac{\omega^2}{s^2 + \omega^2} = 0$

- ▶ impulse response: $Y(s) = \frac{\omega^2}{s^2 + \omega^2} \Rightarrow y(t) = \omega \sin(\omega t)$
- ▶ step response: $Y(s) = \frac{\omega^2}{s(s^2 + \omega^2)} \Rightarrow y(t) = 1 - \cos(\omega t)$

Systems with poles on the imaginary axis are *not stable*.

Stability

- An LTI is Bounded-Input, Bounded-Output (BIBO) Stable if one of the 3 conditions is satisfied
 - Every **bounded input maps to a bounded output** regardless of IC
 - The impulse response $h(t)$ is **absolutely integrable**:
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |h(t)| dt < \infty$$
 - All **poles** of the transfer function $H(s)$ are strictly stable (**in OLHP**)

Open left half plane

Checking for Stability

- Consider a general Transfer Function:

$$H(s) = \frac{q(s)}{p(s)}$$

where q and p are polynomials, and $\deg(q) < \deg(p)$

- Need tools for checking stability: if all roots of $p(s) = 0$ lie in OLHP.
- Factorization is hard to do for high-degree polynomials
 - computationally intensive, especially symbolically.
- **But:** often we don't need to know precise pole locations, just need to know that they are strictly stable.

Checking for Stability

Problem: given an n th-degree polynomial

$$p(s) = s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + a_2 s^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} s + a_n$$

with real coefficients, check that the roots of the equation $p(s) = 0$ are strictly stable (i.e., have negative real parts).

Terminology: we often say that the polynomial p is (strictly) stable if all of its roots are.

Checking for Stability

Terminology: we say that A is a **necessary condition** for B if

$$A \text{ is false} \implies B \text{ is false}$$

Important!! Even if A is true, B may still be false.

Necessary condition for stability: a polynomial p is strictly stable only if all of its coefficients are strictly positive.

Proof: suppose that p has roots at r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n with $\operatorname{Re}(r_i) < 0$ for all i . Then

$$p(s) = (s - r_1)(s - r_2) \dots (s - r_n)$$

— multiply this out and check that all coefficients are positive.

Terminology: we say that A is a **sufficient condition** for B if

$$A \text{ is true} \implies B \text{ is true}$$

Thus, A is a **necessary and sufficient condition** for B if

$$A \text{ is true} \iff B \text{ is true}$$

— we also say that A is true **if and only if** (iff) B is true.

We will now introduce a necessary and sufficient condition for stability: the *Routh–Hurwitz Criterion*.

Routh-Hurwitz Criterion-A brief history

J.C. Maxwell, "On governors," Proc. Royal Society, no. 100, 1868

... [Stability of the governor] is mathematically equivalent to the condition that all the possible roots, and all the possible parts of the impossible roots, of a certain equation shall be negative. ... I have not been able completely to determine these conditions for equations of a higher degree than the third; but I hope that the subject will obtain the attention of mathematicians.



In 1877, Maxwell was one of the judges for the Adams Prize, a biennial competition for best essay on a scientific topic. The topic that year was *stability of motion*. The prize went to *Edward John Routh*, who solved the problem posed by Maxwell in 1868.

In 1893, *Adolf Hurwitz* solved the same problem, using a different method, independently of Routh.



Edward John Routh, 1831–1907



Adolf Hurwitz, 1859–1919

Routh's Test

Problem: check whether the polynomial

$$p(s) = s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + a_2 s^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} s + a_n$$

is strictly stable.

We begin by forming the **Routh array** using the coefficients of p :

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} s^n : & 1 & a_2 & a_4 & a_6 & \dots & \text{(if necessary, add zeros in the} \\ s^{n-1} : & a_1 & a_3 & a_5 & a_7 & \dots & \text{second row to match lengths)} \end{array}$$

Note that the very first entry is always 1, and also note the order in which the coefficients are filled in.

Routh's Test

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} s^n & : & 1 & a_2 & a_4 & a_6 & \dots \\ s^{n-1} & : & a_1 & a_3 & a_5 & a_7 & \dots \\ s^{n-2} & : & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & \end{array}$$

Next, we form the third row marked by s^{n-2} :

$$\begin{array}{cccc} s^{n-2} & : & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots \end{array}$$

where

$$b_1 = -\frac{1}{a_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_2 \\ a_1 & a_3 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{a_1} (a_3 - a_1 a_2)$$

$$b_2 = -\frac{1}{a_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_4 \\ a_1 & a_5 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{a_1} (a_5 - a_1 a_4)$$

$$b_3 = -\frac{1}{a_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_6 \\ a_1 & a_7 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{a_1} (a_7 - a_1 a_6) \quad \text{and so on ...}$$

Note: the new row is 1 element shorter than the one above it

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} s^n & : & 1 & a_2 & a_4 & a_6 & \dots \\ s^{n-1} & : & a_1 & a_3 & a_5 & a_7 & \dots \\ s^{n-2} & : & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & \\ s^{n-3} & : & c_1 & c_2 & \dots & & \end{array}$$

Next, we form the fourth row marked by s^{n-3} :

$$\begin{array}{cccc} s^{n-3} & : & c_1 & c_2 & \dots \end{array}$$

where

$$c_1 = -\frac{1}{b_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{b_1} (a_1 b_2 - a_3 b_1)$$

$$c_2 = -\frac{1}{b_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_5 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{b_1} (a_1 b_3 - a_5 b_1)$$

and so on ...

Routh's Test

Eventually, we complete the array like this:

$$s^n : \quad 1 \quad a_2 \quad a_4 \quad a_6 \quad \dots$$

$$s^{n-1} : \quad a_1 \quad a_3 \quad a_5 \quad a_7 \quad \dots$$

$$s^{n-2} : \quad b_1 \quad b_2 \quad b_3 \quad \dots$$

$$s^{n-3} : \quad c_1 \quad c_2 \quad \dots$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s^1 : \quad * \quad *$$

$$s^0 : \quad *$$

(as long as we don't get stuck with

division by zero: more on this later)

After the process terminates, we will have $n + 1$ entries in the first column.

The Routh-Hurwitz Criterion

Consider degree- n polynomial

$$p(s) = s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} s + a_n$$

and form the Routh array:

$$\begin{array}{l} s^n : \\ s^{n-1} : \\ s^{n-2} : \\ s^{n-3} : \\ \vdots \\ s^1 : \\ s^0 : \end{array} \begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & a_2 & a_4 & a_6 & \dots \\ a_1 & a_3 & a_5 & a_7 & \dots \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & \\ c_1 & c_2 & \dots & & \\ * & * & & & \\ * & & & & \end{array}$$

The Routh-Hurwitz criterion: Assume that the necessary condition for stability holds, i.e., $a_1, \dots, a_n > 0$. Then:

- ▶ p is stable if and only if all entries in the first column are positive;
- ▶ otherwise, $\#(\text{RHP poles}) = \#(\text{sign changes in 1st column})$

Example

Check stability of

$$p(s) = s^4 + 4s^3 + s^2 + 2s + 3$$

Example

Check stability of

$$p(s) = s^4 + 4s^3 + s^2 + 2s + 3$$

All coefficients strictly positive: necessary condition checks out.

$$\begin{array}{lcl} s^4 : & 1 & 1 \quad 3 \\ s^3 : & 4 & 2 \quad 0 \\ s^2 : & 1/2 & 3 \\ s^1 : & -22 & 0 \\ s^0 : & 3 & \end{array}$$

Answer: p is unstable — it has 2 RHP poles (2 sign changes in 1st column)

Low-Order Cases ($n = 2, 3$)

$$n = 2 \quad p(s) = s^2 + a_1 s + a_2$$

$$s^2 : 1 \quad a_2$$

$$s^1 : a_1 \quad 0$$

$$s^0 : b_1$$

$$b_1 = -\frac{1}{a_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_2 \\ a_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = a_2$$

— p is stable iff $a_1, a_2 > 0$ (necessary *and* sufficient).

$$n = 3 \quad p(s) = s^3 + a_1 s^2 + a_2 s + a_3$$

$$s^3 : 1 \quad a_2$$

$$s^2 : a_1 \mid a_3$$

$$s^1 : b_1 \quad 0$$

$$s^0 : c_1$$

$$b_1 = -\frac{1}{a_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_2 \\ a_1 & a_3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{a_1 a_2 - a_3}{a_1}$$

$$c_1 = -\frac{1}{b_1} \det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = a_3$$

— p is stable iff $a_1, a_2, a_3 > 0$ (necc. cond.) and $a_1 a_2 > a_3$

Stability Conditions for Low-Order Polynomials

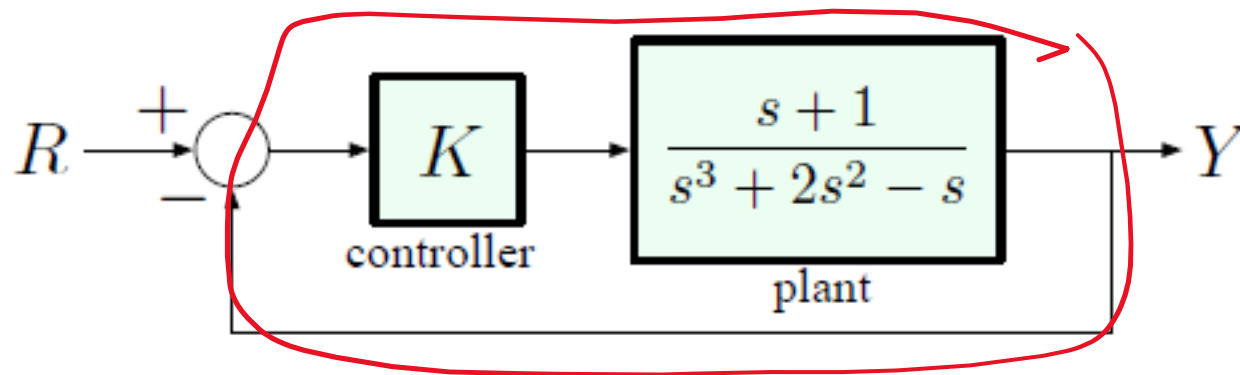
The upshot:

- ▶ A 2nd-degree polynomial $p(s) = s^2 + a_1s + a_2$ is stable if and only if $a_1 > 0$ and $a_2 > 0$
- ▶ A 3rd-degree polynomial $p(s) = s^3 + a_1s^2 + a_2s + a_3$ is stable if and only if $a_1, a_2, a_3 > 0$ and $a_1a_2 > a_3$
- ▶ These conditions were already obtained by Maxwell in 1868.
- ▶ In both cases, the computations were *purely symbolic*: this can make a lot of difference in *design*, as opposed to *analysis*.

Routh-Hurwitz as a Design Tool

Parametric Stability Range: Determining range of parameters for stability in controller design

Example: consider the unity feedback configuration

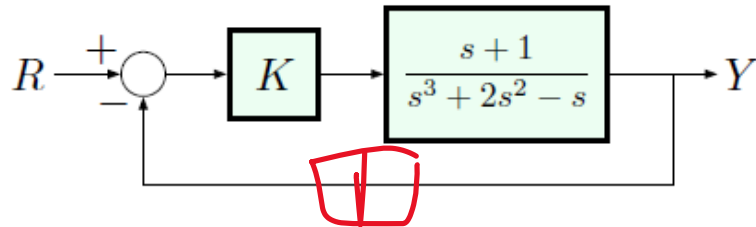


Note that the plant is *unstable* (the denominator has a negative coefficient and a zero coefficient).

Problem: determine the range of values the scalar gain K can take, for which the closed-loop system is stable.

Routh-Hurwitz as a Design Tool

Parametric Stability Range: Determining range of parameters for stability in controller design



Problem: determine the range of values the scalar gain K can take, for which the closed-loop system is stable.

Let's write down the transfer function from R to Y :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{Y}{R} &= \frac{\text{forward gain}}{1 + \text{loop gain}} \\ &= \frac{K \cdot \frac{s+1}{s^3+2s^2-s}}{1 + K \cdot \frac{s+1}{s^3+2s^2-s}} = \frac{K(s+1)}{s^3 + 2s^2 - s + K(s+1)} \\ &= \frac{Ks + K}{s^3 + 2s^2 + (K-1)s + K}\end{aligned}$$

Now we need to test stability of $p(s) = s^3 + 2s^2 + (K-1)s + K$.

Test stability of

$$p(s) = s^3 + 2s^2 + (K-1)s + K$$

using the Routh test.

Form the Routh array:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} s^3 : & 1 & K-1 \\ s^2 : & 2 & K \\ s^1 : & \frac{K}{2} - 1 & 0 \\ s^0 : & K & \end{array}$$

For p to be stable, all entries in the 1st column must be positive:

$$K > 2 \quad \text{and} \quad K > 0 \quad (\text{already covered by } K > 1)$$

Note: The necessary condition requires $K > 1$, but now we actually know that we must have $K > 2$ for stability.

Remarks on Routh Test

- The result (#(RHP roots)) is not affected by multiplying or dividing any row of the Routh array by an arbitrary **positive** number
- For zero element in the 1st column, we can replace the 0 by a small number ε and apply Routh test to that. When we are done with the array, take the limit as $\varepsilon \rightarrow \infty$. (see Ex. 3.33 in FPE)
- For an **entire row of zeros**, the procedure is a more complicated (see Example 3.34 in FPE) - we will not worry about this too much.

