## MATH50004 Differential Equations Spring Term 2021/22

## Repetition Material 5: The trace-determinant rule

The trace-determinant rule helps to quickly obtain information about real parts of eigenvalues of  $2 \times 2$  matrices, which is crucial for stability analysis. It does not require you to look at the characteristic polynomial, and you only need to compute the trace and determinant of the matrix.

**Proposition 1** (Trace-determinant rule for two-dimensional linear systems). Consider a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2\times 2}$ , and let  $p := \operatorname{tr} A$  be its trace and  $q := \det A$  be its determinant. Then all eigenvalues of A

- (i) have negative real part if and only if p < 0 and q > 0 (stability),
- (ii) are non-real if and only if  $p^2 4q < 0$  (focus or centre),
- (iii) have positive real part if and only if p > 0 and q > 0 (instability),
- (iv) are real and have opposite signs if and only if q < 0 (saddle).

*Proof.* We first show that if  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  are the eigenvalues of A (i.e. the roots of the characteristic polynomial), then  $q = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$  and  $p = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ . Here we use that  $\det(A - \lambda \operatorname{Id}_2)$  can be written as  $(\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2) = \lambda^2 - p\lambda + q$ .

Assume that  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the eigenvalues of A. Then the characteristic polynomial reads as

$$\chi(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda \operatorname{Id}) = (\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2)$$
 for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ .

For  $\lambda = 0$ , we get  $q = \det(A) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$ . To prove  $p = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ , note that the two matrices A and  $T^{-1}AT$  have the same trace, and we choose T such that  $T^{-1}AT$  is in complex Jordan form, having  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  on the diagonal. This implies that  $p = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ . It follows that  $(\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2) = \lambda^2 - p\lambda + q$ , and note that either  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are both real, or they are complex conjugate, which implies in both cases that p is real.

- (i) If  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  have negative real part, then  $p = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 < 0$  and  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = q > 0$ . Conversely, if p < 0, q > 0 and  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$  are real, then q > 0 implies they have the same sign and p < 0 that they are both negative. If p < 0, q > 0 and  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$  are complex conjugate, then p < 0 implies that the real part of  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  is negative.
- (ii) Since  $(\lambda \lambda_1)(\lambda \lambda_2) = \lambda^2 p\lambda + q$ , the roots of this equation are  $\frac{1}{2}(p \pm \sqrt{p^2 4q})$  are therefore non-real if and only if  $p^2 4q < 0$ .
- (iii) If  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  have positive real part, then  $p = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 > 0$  and  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = q > 0$ . Conversely, if p > 0, q > 0 and  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$  are real, then q > 0 implies they have the same sign and p > 0 that they are both positive. If p > 0, q > 0 and  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$  are complex conjugate, then p > 0 implies that the real part of  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  is positive.
- (iv) If  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are real and have opposite signs, then  $q = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 < 0$ . If q < 0, then  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  cannot be complex conjugate, so they must be both real and have opposite signs due to  $q = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 < 0$ .