

## Stochastic Modelling and Random Processes

### Hand-out 1 Linear Algebra

Consider a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  with elements  $a_{ij}$ . The **determinant** of the matrix is given by

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\pi) \prod_{i=1}^n a_{i\pi(i)},$$

where the first sum is over all permutations  $\pi$  of the indices  $1, \dots, n$  with associated signature  $\text{sgn}(\pi) \in \{-1, 1\}$ .  $A$  has  $n$  complex **eigenvalues**  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{C}$  which are the roots of the **characteristic polynomial**

$$\chi_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda \mathbb{I}_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n (\lambda_i - \lambda),$$

which is a polynomial of degree  $n$ . If  $\lambda_i$  is an eigenvalue, so is the complex conjugate  $\bar{\lambda}_i$ , since  $\chi_A$  has real coefficients. Furthermore

$$\det A = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i,$$

where the trace  $\text{Tr}$  is defined as the sum of the diagonal elements of  $A$ .

$|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is **right (column) eigenvector** with eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $\langle u|$  **left (row) eigenvector** if

$$A|v\rangle = \lambda|v\rangle, \quad \langle u|A = \lambda\langle u|.$$

From now we assume that all eigenvalues are distinct (see overleaf for other cases). Then  $A$  has a complete basis of eigenvectors, which can be normalized and are orthogonal in the sense that

$$\langle u_i|v_j\rangle = \delta_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i\rangle\langle u_i| = \mathbb{I}.$$

**Gershgorin theorem.** Every eigenvalue of  $A$  lies in at least one **Gershgorin disc**

$$D(a_{ii}, R_i) \subseteq \mathbb{C}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad \text{where} \quad R_i = \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}|.$$

**Further remarks, including diagonalization**

- If all eigenvalues are distinct, the matrix  $|v_i\rangle\langle u_i| \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  projects a vector  $\langle x|$  onto the eigenspace of the corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$

$$\langle x|v_i\rangle\langle u_i| = a_i\langle u_i| \quad \text{with coefficient} \quad a_i = \langle x|v_i\rangle.$$

$A$  itself can be decomposed as a linear combination of such **projectors**,  $A = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |v_i\rangle\langle u_i|$   
 For projections we have  $|v_i\rangle\langle u_i| |v_j\rangle\langle u_j| = \delta_{ij} |v_i\rangle\langle u_i|$  so for powers of  $A$  we simply get

$$A^k = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^k |v_i\rangle\langle u_i| \quad \text{for all } k \geq 1.$$

- Alternatively, one often considers the **similarity transformation matrix**

$$Q = \sum_{j=1}^n |v_j\rangle\langle e_j| = [|v_1\rangle, \dots, |v_n\rangle] \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \quad (\langle e_j| \text{ is } j\text{-th basis vector}),$$

built from writing the right column eigenvectors into a square matrix. Then

$$AQ = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \lambda_i |v_i\rangle\langle u_i|v_j\rangle\langle e_j| = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |v_i\rangle\langle e_i| = \sum_{i,j=1}^n |v_i\rangle\langle e_i|e_j\rangle\langle e_j|\lambda_j = Q\Lambda$$

where  $\Lambda = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j |e_j\rangle\langle e_j|$  is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues, and we have

$$A = Q\Lambda Q^{-1} \quad \text{where the inverse of } Q \text{ is } Q^{-1} = \sum_{j=1}^n |e_j\rangle\langle u_j|.$$

- If  $A = A^T$  is **symmetric**, then all eigenvalues  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$  are real and the eigenvectors have real entries, 'are equal' in the sense that  $\langle u_i|v_j\rangle = \delta_{ij}$ , and form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In this case  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is an orthogonal matrix, i.e.  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ .
- A matrix is **diagonalizable** with diagonal form  $\Lambda$  as given above if and only if the eigenvectors form a basis. If this is not the case, the matrix is called **defective**, and the **Jordan normal form** is not diagonal.

### Justification of projector representation

Recall for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  we denote by  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{C}$  its eigenvalues, and by  $\langle u_i|$  and  $|v_i\rangle$  the corresponding left and right eigenvectors. We assume that they both form a basis of  $\mathbb{C}^n$  and the normal form of the matrix  $A$  is a diagonal matrix. One simple sufficient condition for this is all eigenvalues to be distinct. Let  $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$  be two distinct eigenvalues. Then

$$\lambda_i \langle u_i|v_j\rangle = \langle u_i|A|v_j\rangle = \lambda_j \langle u_i|v_j\rangle,$$

which implies  $\langle u_i|v_j\rangle = 0$ , so corresponding left and right eigenvectors are orthogonal. Even if not all eigenvalues are distinct, as long as eigenvectors form a basis, they can be chosen such that

$$\langle u_i|v_j\rangle = \delta_{ij} \quad \text{for all } i, j = 1, \dots, n. \quad (1)$$

The projector matrices form a partition of unity (the identity matrix) in the sense that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i\rangle\langle u_i| = \mathbb{I}.$$

This can be seen from (1) and the fact that eigenvectors form a basis, since for any  $k, l$  we have

$$\langle u_k| \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i\rangle\langle u_i| \right) |v_l\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle u_k|v_i\rangle\langle u_i|v_l\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{ki}\delta_{li} = \delta_{kl} = \langle u_k|v_l\rangle = \langle u_k|\mathbb{I}|v_l\rangle.$$

This implies of course  $A = A \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i\rangle\langle u_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |v_i\rangle\langle u_i|.$