


Stochastic Modeling and the Theory of Queues
Prof. Krishna Jagannathan
Department of Electrical Engineering
Indian Institute of Technology – Madras

Lecture –52
Spectral Properties of Stochastic Matrices - Part 2

(Refer Slide Time: 00:14)



————— —————

Take for $i=1$, $v_i = e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$ $d_1 = 1$ $\pi_1 = \pi$


Assume d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n are distinct

Normalize v_i & π_i such that $\pi_i v_i = 1$ for $i=1, 2, \dots, n$.

Lemma For $i \neq j$ & distinct eigenvalues d_1, \dots, d_n , we have

$$\pi_j v_i = 0$$

Pf Consider $\pi_j v_i = \pi_j P v_i = \pi_j d_i v_i \Rightarrow \pi_j v_i = 0 \quad i \neq j$



So, we will assume that $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_M$ are distinct. This is a special case not always the case that this is true, but this is the most intuitive case, but also we normalize v_i and π_i such that $\pi_i v_i = 1$ for all i . These eigenvectors can be scaled such that $\pi_i v_i = 1$ for all i . For the special case $i = 1$ which is already true. This is just saying that for $i = 1$ this is $\pi e = 1$ which means that the sum of all the stationary probability is equal to 1 which we already know correct, but we are going to do this for all the eigenvectors.

Now, here is an interesting lemma say for i not equal to j and distinct eigenvalues λ_1 to λ_M we have $\pi_j v_i = 0$. So, if you take the dot product between these left eigenvectors and right eigenvectors for unequal indices you get 0. The way you prove this is you consider $\pi_j P v_i$. So, one way to write this is to realize that $P v_i$ is just $\lambda_i v_i$. So, I can write this as $\lambda_i \pi_j v_i$.

And the other way to write this is to take the left eigenvalue equation I will write these as $\lambda_j \pi_j v_i$ and these λ_j and λ_i are not equal. You are assuming distinct

eigenvalues this is the special case of distinct eigenvalues. This implies that this implies what you want implies $\pi_j \nu_i = 0$ for i not equal to j .

(Refer Slide Time: 03:27)

Diagonalized form of P

$$P = U \Lambda U^{-1} \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \nu_1 & \nu_2 & \nu_n \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \quad U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\pi_1 & - \\ -\pi_2 & - \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ -\pi_n & - \end{bmatrix}$$

↑
constant

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i \underbrace{\nu_i \pi_i}_{\text{rank-1 Matrix}}$$

$$P^n = U \Lambda^n U^{-1} \quad \text{or} \quad P^n = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^n \nu_i \pi_i$$

So, this will be useful in writing out the diagonalized form of the matrix P. Since the matrix P is assumed to have distinct eigenvalues you can always write a diagonal representation of P or diagonal decomposition. Namely P can be written as U lambda U inverse where lambda so I should tell you what these matrices U and lambda are. This lambda is simply the diagonal matrix of all the eigenvalues.

U is the matrix of all the right eigenvectors made into a matrix. You can always show that this sort of a Diagonalization can be done as long as the lambdas are distinct. Now, what is U inverse? So, what you can show using the above lemma is that U inverse (()) (05:12) equation will simply turn out to be the matrix in which all the left eigenvectors are arranged in their rows.

This follows from the fact that so you can easily verify U inverse what I claim to be U inverse is in fact the inverse of U by simply noting that the $\pi_i \lambda_i = 1$ for all i and sorry I think I made a mistake I beg your pardon these are eigenvectors so I should be writing ν_i I made a mistake. So, you know, that $\pi_i \nu_i = 1$ and $\pi_i \nu_j$ is equal to 0. From that you can prove that the structure of U inverse is like this, this is using the lemma above.

So, this is great. So, this kind of a diagonalized representation is possible. If you write out this matrix P another way of writing $P = U \lambda U^{-1}$ is simply to write $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i \nu_i \pi_i$

to $M \lambda_i^{n-1} \nu_i \pi_i$. So, this $\nu_i \pi_i$ is rank 1 matrix. This is nothing, but the spectral decomposition of the matrix P or you can just look it as a rewriting of the equation $P = U \Lambda U^{-1}$.

Next, how about P^n ? Can you write a similar spectral decomposition of P^n . Interestingly the matrix P^n has eigenvalues λ_i^n where λ_i are the eigenvalues of P , but the eigenvectors will be the same. You can show that $P^n \nu_i$ will be $\lambda_i^n \nu_i$ and similarly for the left Eigen vectors. So, all in all you can write the matrix P^n will have a diagonal representation $U \Lambda^n U^{-1}$.

So, only the diagonal matrix get raise to the n th power this is basic linear algebra or you can write it as $P^n = \sum_{i=1}^M \lambda_i^n \nu_i \pi_i$. This is the spectral decomposition of the matrix P^n , but we know that $\lambda_1 = 1$ we have taken $\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\nu_1 = e$ and π_1 is equal to the stationary distribution π .

(Refer Slide Time: 08:46)

The slide contains the following handwritten content:

- NPTEL logo
- Equation:
$$P^n = e \pi + \sum_{i=2}^M \lambda_i^n \nu_i \pi_i \quad \forall n \geq 1$$
- Lemma: $|d_i| \leq 1, \quad i = 2, \dots, M.$
- Proof:
 - $d_i \pi_i = \pi_i P^n \leftarrow \text{left e.v. eqn}$
 - $d_i \pi_i = \sum_k \pi_i P_{kj}^{(n)} \quad \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, M$
 - $|d_i| |\pi_i| \leq \sum_k |\pi_i P_{kj}^{(n)}| \leq \sum_k |\pi_i| \leq 1 \quad \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, M$
 - Choose $j = \arg \max_k |\pi_i P_{kj}^{(n)}|$
 - $\Rightarrow |d_i| \leq \sum_k \frac{|\pi_i P_{kj}^{(n)}|}{|\pi_i|} \leq 1 \leq M \quad \forall n \geq 1 \Rightarrow |d_i| \leq 1$

So, I can just write that out I can just pull that as a special term so I will have $e \pi + \sum_{i=2}^M \lambda_i^n \nu_i \pi_i$. So, this is an important equation this is nothing, but the spectral decomposition of P^n . So, P^n so this is true for all n greater than or equal to 1. So, for all n greater than or equal to 1 we have an explicit expression for P^n which is the matrix of all π_i, π_i, π_i plus a bunch of terms.

Now the question is what happens to these terms $i = 1$ to $M \lambda_i^n$ to the $n \nu_i \pi_i$. So, if this sum from $i = 2$ to M goes to 0 then we can easily conclude that P^n converges to $e \pi$.

π_i . Now what happens is the following see these eigenvalues λ_i which are the eigenvalues other than the one eigenvalue these can be shown lemma that to be having magnitude less than or equal to 1.

Actually $\lambda_1 = 1$ and the others have magnitude less than or equal to 1. The way to proof this is the following. Remember that the lemma only says that the absolute value less than or equal to 1 for $i = 1$ to M . I can just write $i = 2$ to M because I know that $\lambda_1 = 1$ so maybe I should just write $i = 2$ to M . Now, if all these λ_i from 2 to M have a magnitude strictly less than 1 then I will have convergence of P to the n to e^{π_i} .

We know that in the case of an ergodic Markov chain these convergence happens we already proved it in Perron's theorem. So, for an ergodic Markov chain we can conclude that the absolute value of λ_i is actually less than 1. In general, if you do not have ergodicity the eigenvalues are less than or equal to 1. The way you prove this lemma is as follows. You consider the left eigenvalue equation $\lambda_i^n \pi_i = \pi_i P^n$.

You consider the j th component of this. This is just the left eigenvalue equation for π_i . So, if you consider the j th component of this you will get $\lambda_i^n \pi_i(j) = \sum_l \pi_i(l) P_{lj}^n$. So, $\pi_i(l) P_{lj}^n$. So, the way you prove this lemma is to write out the left eigenvalue equation $\lambda_i^n \pi_i = \pi_i P^n$. This is just the left eigenvalue equation for P^n .


Now, you look at the j th component of this equation you get $\lambda_i^n \pi_i(j) = \sum_l \pi_i(l) P_{lj}^n$. This is true for all j equals 1 to dot, dot, dot M . From this we can get λ_i^n is equal to so maybe I should put absolute value I can write is less than or equal to absolute value of $\lambda_i^n \pi_i(j)$ is less than or equal to $\sum_l \pi_i(l) |P_{lj}^n|$ and the absolute value of P_{lj}^n is less than or equal to 1 so I can upper bounded by 1.

So, this just turns out to be $\sum_l \pi_i(l)$. This is true for all j equals 1, 2, dot, dot, dot, M . Now you choose j this is true for all j the above equation so choose j such that $j = \text{Arg max}_j \sum_l \pi_i(l) |P_{lj}^n|$ over all these so to take the j for which that guy is this absolute value is the biggest then what happens is that you will get absolute value of λ_i^n is less than equal to $\sum_l \pi_i(l) |P_{lj}^n|$.

And you have chosen j such that these ratios are all less than or equal to 1 because you have chosen the j for which absolute value of π_i is the largest. So, each of these term $(\lambda_i)^n$ (15:46) is less than or equal to 1 which means that this sum is less than or equal to M and this is true for all n greater than or equal to 1 and the only way that absolute value of λ_i to the n is less than or equal to M for all n is if absolute value of λ_i is less than or equal to 1 because if absolute value of λ_i were bigger than 1 then sum n th power will be bigger than M and that is not possible.

So, we have shown that all the eigenvalues are less than or equal to 1. The first eigenvalue is of course equal to 1 and then the subsequent eigenvalues are all less than or equal to 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 16:30)



For an ergodic DTMC, we know $P^n \rightarrow \underline{e}\underline{\pi}$ (Frobenius)


$\Rightarrow |\lambda_i| < 1$ for $i=2, 3, \dots, M$ for an ergodic DTMC.

$$P^n = \underline{e}\underline{\pi} + \sum_{i=2}^M (\lambda_i)^n \underline{v}_i \underline{\pi}_i$$

Rate of convergence is governed by the second largest eigenvalue of P i.e.,

$i^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{j=2, \dots, M} |\lambda_j|$, then $|\lambda_{i^*}|$ determines the rate of convergence.

← Perron-Frobenius eigenvalue



Now we know that for an ergodic Markov chain we know that P^n converges to $\underline{e}\underline{\pi}$ as n tends to infinity. How do we know this? This we know this from Frobenius theorem which means that if you look at this spectral decomposition which means that the sum from $i=2$ to M must go to 0 and that means that all these λ_i for $i=2$ to M must have absolute value strictly less than 1.

So, this implies absolute value of λ_i is strictly less than 1 for $i=2, 3, \dots, M$ for an ergodic DTMC. So, you have this kind of a convergence so $P^n \rightarrow \underline{e}\underline{\pi}$ I am just rewriting this equation $P^n = \underline{e}\underline{\pi} + \sum_{i=2}^M (\lambda_i)^n \underline{v}_i \underline{\pi}_i$ and all these eigenvalues have absolute values strictly less than 1 and therefore all these terms go down exponentially fast geometrically fast.

And therefore we have a very clear understanding now that P^n converges to π geometrically fast and we even have the rate of convergence. The rate of convergence for an ergodic Markov chain is governed by the second largest eigenvalue of P ie you look at the λ_j for which has the largest magnitude of these λ_j where j is from 2 to M . Remember λ_1 is equal to 1 you forget that.

And you look at all the other eigenvalues and take the eigenvalue with the largest magnitude. Overall, this is the eigenvalue with the second largest magnitude. The largest eigenvalue being 1 and then there is a whole bunch of eigenvalue so absolute value is strictly less than 1 for a ergodic Markov chain and you look at that index for which the absolute value of the eigenvalue value is the largest.

Then absolute value of λ_{i^*} will determine the rate of convergence and this eigenvalue which has the second largest magnitude they are sometimes known as the Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue. So, what is the Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue of P ? There is a eigenvalue which is equal to 1 you forget that and look for all other eigenvalues other $M - 1$ eigenvalues you take the 1 with the largest absolute magnitude.

Of course, the λ_{i^*} itself may be complex, but you are looking at the eigenvalue with the second largest absolute value and that is known as the Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue and this Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue determines how fast the matrix P^n converges to π . If the Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue has a magnitude very close to 1 than the convergence is very slow.

And conversely if the absolute λ_{i^*} this Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue if it is fairly small in magnitude then the convergence to steady state π is very fast. So, this is a good exercise, it basically just uses linear algebra in the sense of this spectral decompositions and we get a very fine grained understanding of how this P^n behaves. For ergodic Markov chains we have a very precise characterization of the rate of convergence.

We know that is geometric already from Frobenius theorem, but the exponent in the geometry convergence is exactly characterized to be the second smallest largest eigenvalue in magnitude. If the Markov chain is not ergodic there could be other eigenvalues λ_{i^*} with

absolute value = 1. In that case P^n will not converge to e^{π} . So, I will briefly discuss what happens in those cases?

So, in the ergodic case in the aperiodic case you have convergence to e^{π} which is geometrically fast. In the periodic case what happens is you will have other eigenvalues whose magnitude is equal to 1 you will have eigenvalues on the unit circle.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:36)

The slide contains the following handwritten text:

- For a periodic DTMC with period d : We will have d -eigenvalues on the unit circle that are equally spaced.

The diagram shows a unit circle in the complex plane with the real axis and imaginary axis. The point 1 is marked on the positive real axis. Several other points are marked on the circle, representing eigenvalues, and they are connected to the origin by lines. The angle between these lines is indicated as $\frac{2\pi}{d}$.

- If we have C -recurrent classes \rightarrow the multiplicity of the eigenvalue 1 will be equal to C . And C -linearly indep left eigenvectors that solve $\pi P = \pi$.

So, these I will just state without proof for periodic DTMC. Let us say I have one recurrent class and the recurrent class is periodic. In this case we will have d eigenvalues on the unit circle in the complex plane that are equally spaced. This I am not going to prove what I am saying is that if you have this let us say this is the unit circle on the complex plane. I know that there is an eigenvalue at 1 always for a stochastic matrix.

You will have other eigenvalues which are equispaced on the unit circle. You have d such eigenvalues and the spacing between all these guys will be equal and this angle will be $\frac{2\pi}{d}$. So, we will have d equally spaced eigenvalues on the unit circle for a period d Markov chain. So, you will not have convergence if this expression out here this spectral expansion here is still valid except that this λ^i some of these λ^i have magnitude equal to 1 they will lie on the unit circle.

So, if the n th power does not converge to 0 that is what happens in a periodic Markov chain. The way you prove this is using the fact that in a period d Markov chain you can partition the states into a d separate subsets where all the transitions go from S_0 to S_1 , S_1 to S_2 and so

on till S_{d-1} to S_0 we saw this result already and using that result we can argue that the matrix P will have to have a certain rotating structure among these blocks going from S_0 to S_1 and so on.

And then we can prove that these eigenvalues lie on this unit circle equally spaced. This is there is a guided exercise in Gallagher book for this, but I am not going to prove it here. The other case I want to point out is that if you have c recurrent classes what will happen is that we will have the multiplicity of the eigenvalue 1 will be equal to c . Remember that in the previous discussion I have only covered the case when all the λ_i are distinct.

That is not the most general case if these λ_i were not distinct then you will have a bit of an issue in the sense that eigenvector λ_i so the eigenvector ν_i and the left eigenvalue π_i may not span the space $\text{span } R^M$. In that case this sort of a diagonal elevation $U \lambda U^{-1}$ may not work. So, if you have repeated eigenvalues you may not be able to appeal to the mechanism that I have talked about using diagonalization.

You have to go into a formalism called Jordan form in linear algebra which is in my opinion not very directly intuitive for the study of Markov chains. I am just saying that you can do it using Jordan's form. I will not get into that in detail in the specific case when you have c recurrent classes then the multiplicity of the Eigen value 1 will be c . So, there will be c repeated Eigen values at λ equal to 1.

And you will have c linearly independent left eigenvalues or let us say eigenvectors that is all $\pi_i P$ equals π_i . So, there will not be a unique π_i like this. There will be c linearly independent solutions to $\pi_i P$ equals π_i and of course all the linear combinations of these linearly independent solutions will also be solutions. So, if there are c recurrent classes we will have c repeated eigenvalues at λ equal to 1.

And correspondingly we will have c linearly independent solutions to $\pi_i P$ equals P . So, these two things I am not going to prove so this is where I will stop.