

Change of Basis

Consider a linear transform, $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}$, and its inverse, $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$, which map a vector back and forth between its representation in the standard basis and its representation in the basis, \mathcal{B} :

$$\mathbf{u} \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}} \\ \xleftarrow{\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}} \end{array} [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} .$$

Change of Basis (contd).

Let \mathcal{B} consist of N basis vectors, $\mathbf{b}_1 \dots \mathbf{b}_N$. Since $[\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the representation of \mathbf{u} in \mathcal{B} , it follows that

$$\mathbf{u} = ([\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}})_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + ([\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}})_2 \mathbf{b}_2 + \dots + ([\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}})_N \mathbf{b}_N.$$

But this is just the matrix vector product

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{B} [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

where

$$\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{b}_1 | \mathbf{b}_2 | \dots | \mathbf{b}_N].$$

We see that $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}$.

Similarity Transforms

Now consider a linear transformation represented in the standard basis by the matrix \mathbf{A} . We seek $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}}$, *i.e.*, the representation of the corresponding linear transformation in the basis \mathcal{B} :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{u} & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{A}} & \mathbf{Au} \\ \uparrow \mathbf{B} & & \downarrow \mathbf{B}^{-1} \\ [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} & \xrightarrow{[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}}} & [\mathbf{Au}]_{\mathcal{B}} \end{array}$$

The matrix we seek maps $[\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ into $[\mathbf{Au}]_{\mathcal{B}}$. From the above diagram, we see that this matrix is the composition of \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{A} , and \mathbf{B}^{-1} :

$$[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}.$$

We say that \mathbf{A} and $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ are related by a *similarity transform*.

Diag. of Symmetric Matrices

Because of linearity, one might expect that a transformation will have an especially simple representation in the basis of its eigenvectors, x . Let \mathbf{A} be its representation in the standard basis and let the columns of \mathbf{X} be the eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} . Then \mathbf{X} and $\mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{X}^{-1}$ take us back and forth between the standard basis and x :

$$\mathbf{u} \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{X}^T} \\ \xleftarrow{\mathbf{X}} \end{array} [\mathbf{u}]_x .$$

Diag. of Symmetric Matrices (contd.)

The matrix we seek maps $[\mathbf{u}]_x$ into $[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}]_x$:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{u} & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{A}} & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} \\ \uparrow \mathbf{X} & & \downarrow \mathbf{X}^T \\ [\mathbf{u}]_x & \xrightarrow{[\mathbf{A}]_x} & [\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}]_x \end{array}$$

From the above diagram, we see that this matrix is the composition of \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{A} , and \mathbf{X}^T :

$$\Lambda = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}.$$

We observe that Λ is diagonal with $\Lambda_{ii} = \lambda_i$, the eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} associated with eigenvector, \mathbf{x}_i .

Spectral Thm. for Sym. Matrices

Any symmetric $N \times N$ matrix, \mathbf{A} , with N distinct eigenvalues, can be factored as follows:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{X}^T$$

where $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ is $N \times N$ and diagonal, \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{X}^T are $N \times N$ matrices, and the i -th column of \mathbf{X} (equal to the i -th row of \mathbf{X}^T) is an *eigenvector* of \mathbf{A} :

$$\lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i$$

with eigenvalue $\Lambda_{ii} = \lambda_i$. Note that \mathbf{x}_i is orthogonal to \mathbf{x}_j when $i \neq j$:

$$(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T)_{ij} = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In other words, $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{I}$. Consequently,

$$\mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{X}^{-1}.$$

Spectral Thm. for Sym. Matrices (contd).

Using the definition of matrix product and the fact that Λ is diagonal, we can write $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{X}^T$ as

$$(\mathbf{A})_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^N (\mathbf{X})_{ik} \Lambda_{kk} (\mathbf{X}^T)_{kj}.$$

Since $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_2 | \dots | \mathbf{x}_N]$ and $\Lambda_{kk} = \lambda_k$

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{A})_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_k)_i \lambda_k (\mathbf{x}_k)_j \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N (\lambda_k \mathbf{x}_k \mathbf{x}_k^T)_{ij} \\ \mathbf{A} &= \sum_{k=1}^N \lambda_k \mathbf{x}_k \mathbf{x}_k^T \end{aligned}$$

where $\lambda_k \mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k$.

Spectral Thm. for Sym. Matrices (contd).

The *spectral factorization* of \mathbf{A} is:

$$\mathbf{A} = \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T + \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}_2^T + \cdots + \lambda_N \mathbf{x}_N \mathbf{x}_N^T.$$

Note that each $\lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^T$ is a rank one matrix. Let $\mathbf{A}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^T$. Now, because $\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i = 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i &= (\lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^T) \mathbf{x}_i \\ &= \mathbf{A}_i \mathbf{x}_i \end{aligned}$$

i.e., \mathbf{x}_i is the only eigenvector of \mathbf{A}_i and its only eigenvalue is λ_i .

Diag. of Non-symmetric Matrices

The situation is more complex when the transformation is represented by a non-symmetric matrix, \mathbf{P} . Let the columns of \mathbf{X} be \mathbf{P} 's *right eigenvectors* and the rows of \mathbf{Y}^T be its *left eigenvectors*. Then \mathbf{X} and $\mathbf{Y}^T = \mathbf{X}^{-1}$ take us back and forth between the standard basis and x :

$$\mathbf{u} \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{Y}^T} \\ \xleftarrow{\mathbf{X}} \end{array} [\mathbf{u}]_x .$$

Diag. of Non-symmetric Matrices (contd.)

The matrix we seek maps $[\mathbf{u}]_x$ into $[\mathbf{Pu}]_x$:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{u} & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}} & \mathbf{Pu} \\ \uparrow \mathbf{X} & & \downarrow \mathbf{Y}^T \\ [\mathbf{u}]_x & \xrightarrow{\Lambda} & [\mathbf{Pu}]_x \end{array}$$

From the above diagram, we see that this matrix is the composition of \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{P} , and \mathbf{Y}^T :

$$\Lambda = \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{P} \mathbf{X}$$

We observe that Λ is diagonal with $\Lambda_{ii} = \lambda_i$, the eigenvalue of \mathbf{P} associated with right eigenvector, \mathbf{x}_i , and left eigenvector, \mathbf{y}_i .

Spectral Theorem

Any $N \times N$ matrix, \mathbf{P} , with N distinct eigenvalues, can be factored as follows:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{Y}^T$$

where Λ is $N \times N$ and diagonal, \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y}^T are $N \times N$ matrices, and the i -th column of \mathbf{X} is a *right eigenvector* of \mathbf{P} :

$$\lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}_i$$

with eigenvalue $\Lambda_{ii} = \lambda_i$ and the i -th row of \mathbf{Y}^T is a *left eigenvector* of \mathbf{P} :

$$\lambda_i \mathbf{y}_i^T = \mathbf{y}_i^T \mathbf{P}$$

with the same eigenvalue.

Spectral Theorem (contd.)

Note that \mathbf{x}_i is orthogonal to \mathbf{y}_j when $i \neq j$:

$$(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^T)_{ij} = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In other words, $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^T = \mathbf{I}$. Consequently,

$$\mathbf{Y}^T = \mathbf{X}^{-1}.$$

Spectral Theorem (contd).

The *spectral factorization* of \mathbf{P} is:

$$\mathbf{P} = \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{y}_1^T + \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{y}_2^T + \cdots + \lambda_N \mathbf{x}_N \mathbf{y}_N^T.$$

Note that each $\lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{y}_n^T$ is a rank one matrix. Let $\mathbf{P}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T$. Now, because $\mathbf{y}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i = 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i &= (\lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T) \mathbf{x}_i \\ &= \mathbf{P}_i \mathbf{x}_i \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_i \mathbf{y}_i^T &= \mathbf{y}_i^T (\lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T) \\ &= \mathbf{y}_i^T \mathbf{P}_i \end{aligned}$$

i.e., \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{y}_i are the sole right and left eigenvectors of \mathbf{P}_i . The only eigenvalue is λ_i .

Stochastic Matrices

If \mathbf{P} is stochastic, then

$$1 = \sum_i P_{ij}.$$

Let $\mathbf{y}^T = [1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1]$. It follows that

$$(\mathbf{y}^T)_j = \sum_i (\mathbf{y}^T)_i P_{ij}.$$

Consequently, \mathbf{y}^T is a left eigenvector with unit eigenvalue of every stochastic matrix:

$$\mathbf{y}^T = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{P}.$$

Stochastic Matrices (contd.)

What is the representation of an arbitrary distribution, \mathbf{z} , in the basis of eigenvectors of an arbitrary stochastic matrix, \mathbf{P} ?

$$\mathbf{z} = c_1\mathbf{x}_1 + c_2\mathbf{x}_1 + \cdots + c_N\mathbf{x}_N = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{c}.$$

Solving for \mathbf{c} :

$$\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{Y}^T\mathbf{z}.$$

Since $\mathbf{y}_1^T = [1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1]$, it follows that:

$$c_1 = \sum_j Y_{1j}^T z_j = \sum_j z_j = 1$$

which is independent of the specific \mathbf{z} and \mathbf{P} !