

# What is Perron-Frobenius Theorem?

①

Sachin Gautam (June 28, 2022)

§0. Notations from linear algebra. Let  $C \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ . We say  $C$  is non-negative (resp. positive) - written as  $C \geq 0$  (resp.  $C > 0$ ) if  $c_{kl} \geq 0$  (resp.  $c_{kl} > 0$ ) for every  $k, l \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . (Same for  $\underline{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ).

- $\chi_G(t) := \det(t \cdot I_n - C)$  is the characteristic polynomial of  $G$ .
- $\sigma(G) \subset \mathbb{C}$  set of eigenvalues of  $G$  - called spectrum of  $G$ .  
(root of  $\chi_G(t)$ )
- $\rho(G) = \text{Max} \{ |\lambda| : \lambda \in \sigma(G) \}$  - spectral radius of  $G$ .
- $\text{Adj}(G) =$  adjoint matrix of  $G$  :  $[(k, l)\text{-th entry of } \text{Adj}(G) \text{ is } (-1)^{k+l} \text{ times determinant of } (n-1) \times (n-1) \text{ size matrix obtained from } G \text{ by deleting } l\text{-th row and } k\text{-th column.}]$

Recall that  $G \cdot \text{Adj}(G) = \text{Adj}(G) \cdot G = \det(G) \cdot I_n$

- For  $G, D \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  ;  $\boxed{G \sim_{\text{sym}} D}$  means that there is a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  such that  $c_{kl} = d_{\pi(k), \pi(l)}$  ;  $\forall k, l \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

Definition : We say  $G$  is reducible if  $G \sim_{\text{sym}} \left[ \begin{array}{c|c} G_1 & 0 \\ \hline G_3 & G_2 \end{array} \right]_{n-p}$ .

Otherwise,  $G$  is said to be irreducible ('unzerlegbar' - the word Frobenius used - translates to "cannot be decomposed").

§1. Perron-Frobenius Theorem: Let  $A \geq 0$  be an  $n \times n$ , irreducible

matrix. Then  $\rho = \rho(A) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  is a simple eigenvalue of  $A$ ,  
i.e.,  $\chi'_A(\rho) \neq 0$ . Any (non-zero) eigenvector  $\underline{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with eigenvalue  
 $\rho$  (i.e.,  $A\underline{u} = \rho\underline{u}$ ) is either  $\underline{u} > 0$  or  $-\underline{u} > 0$  "sign-coherent".

Moreover,  $\chi'_A(\rho) > 0$  and  $B(t) := \text{Adj}(t \cdot I_n - A) > 0 \quad \forall t \geq \rho$ .

Second part: [ $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0})$  irreducible]. Let us define

$$h := \# \{ \lambda \in \sigma(A) : |\lambda| = \rho \} \quad (\text{called } \underline{\text{index of imprimitivity}} \text{ of } A)$$

Then: (i)  $\sigma(A)$  is invariant under rotation by  $2\pi/h$ .

That is,  $e^{2\pi i k/h} \sigma(A) = \sigma(A)$ .

(ii)  $\{ \lambda \in \sigma(A) : |\lambda| = \rho \} = \{ \rho \cdot e^{2\pi i k/h} : 0 \leq k \leq h-1 \}$ .

(iii)  $A \underset{\text{sym}}{\sim} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & A_{h-1} \\ A_h & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  "block cyclic form"  
diagonal 0's are square blocks.

Examples:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  is reducible;  $\chi_A(t) = (t-2)^3$   
(Jordan block)

$\rho(A) = 2 \in \sigma(A) = \{2\}$ ; but the eigenvalue is not simple.

(3)

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is irreducible.  $\chi_A(t) = t^3 - 1$   
 (cyclic matrix)  $= (t-1)(t - e^{2\pi i/3})(t - e^{4\pi i/3})$

$\sigma(A) = \{1, e^{2\pi i/3}, e^{4\pi i/3}\}$  ;  $\rho(A) = 1 \in \sigma(A)$ .

§2. Some remarks. - (1) The conclusion  $\rho(A) \in \sigma(A)$  is true for any  $A \geq 0$  (not necessarily irreducible). However, it need not be a simple eigenvalue, as the example above shows.

(2) Oskar Perron (1880-1975) proved this theorem for  $A > 0$  in 1907.

Georg Frobenius (1849-1917) generalized this result in 1912.

Andrey Markov (1856-1922) (independently) obtained similar statement for "stochastic matrices" in 1908.

Maurice Potron (1872-1942) <sup>(re-)</sup> introduced positive matrices - for models of "economic stability".

(3) Applications - in almost all of the applications of Perron-Frobenius theorem, one encounters the following "discrete evolutionary process"

Given  $\boxed{\begin{matrix} A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \\ \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{matrix}}$  define  $\underline{v}^{(0)} = \underline{v}$  ;  $\underline{v}^{(1)} = A \underline{v}^{(0)}$  ;  $\underline{v}^{(2)} = A^2 \underline{v}^{(0)} = A \underline{v}^{(1)}$  ;  
 $\dots$   $\underline{v}^{(N)} = A \underline{v}^{(N-1)} \dots$   
 $= A^N \underline{v}^{(0)}$

The theorem is used to address the questions: does  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \underline{v}^{(N)}$  exist?

is it independent of the initial condition  $\underline{v}$ ?

§3. Irreducibility condition. - Let  $A \geq 0$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix.

Note:  $A > 0 \iff \forall \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n, \underline{v} \neq \underline{0}, \text{ we have } A\underline{v} > 0.$

Lemma. -  $A$  is irreducible  $\iff (I + A)^{n-1} > 0.$

Proof. - If  $A$  is reducible, both  $A$  and  $I + A$  have block triangular

form: 
$$I + A \underset{\text{sym}}{\sim} \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & | & O \\ \hline C_3 & | & C_2 \end{bmatrix} \implies (I + A)^N \underset{\text{sym}}{\sim} \begin{bmatrix} C_1^N & | & O \\ \hline * & | & C_2^N \end{bmatrix} \not> 0.$$

Assume  $A$  is irreducible. Let  $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n \setminus \{0\}$ . Let  $\underline{w} = (I + A)\underline{v} = \underline{v} + A\underline{v}$ .

Since  $A \geq 0, \underline{v} \geq 0$ , we get that  $v_j > 0 \implies w_j > 0.$

Claim:  $\underline{w}$  has strictly less 0's than  $\underline{v}$ . (Hence,  $(I + A)^{n-1} \underline{v} > 0$ ).

If not, upon relabelling, 
$$\underline{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{0} \\ \underline{v}' \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \} p \\ \} n-p \end{matrix}; \quad \underline{w} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{0} \\ \underline{w}' \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \} p \\ \} n-p \end{matrix}.$$

$(\underline{v}', \underline{w}') > 0.$

Write  $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & | & A_{12} \\ \hline A_{21} & | & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \} p \\ \} n-p \end{matrix}$ . We get  $A_{12} \underline{v}' = \underline{0}$ . Since  $\underline{v}' > 0$ , this means  $A_{12} = 0$  - contradicts irred.  $\square$

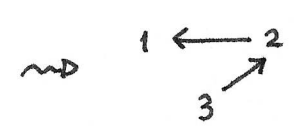
Visualizing "irreducibility":  $(I + A)^{n-1} = \sum_{p=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{p} A^p$ . Its

$(k, l)$ -th entry is: 
$$\delta_{kl} + \sum_{p=1}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{p} \left( \sum_{j_1, \dots, j_{p-1}} a_{kj_1} a_{j_1 j_2} \dots a_{j_{p-1} l} \right) > 0$$

$$\implies \forall k \neq l, \exists j_1, \dots, j_{p-1} \in \{1, \dots, n\} \text{ s.t. } a_{kj_1} a_{j_1 j_2} \dots a_{j_{p-1} l} > 0$$
  
( $1 \leq p \leq n-1$ )

Let  $\mathcal{G}_A$  be a directed graph on vertices  $1, \dots, n$ . For  $k, l \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ ,  $k \neq l$ ; we draw an arrow  $k \rightarrow l$  if and only if  $a_{kl} > 0$ .

Then  $A$  is irreducible  $\iff \mathcal{G}_A$  is connected

Examples:  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow$   cannot reach 2 or 3 from 1 - reducible.

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow$   connected. - hence the matrix is irred.

§4. Proof of the first part of Perron-Frobenius theorem. (Frobenius' Max-Min approach)

(4.1) Define  $c : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  by  $c(\underline{v}) = \min_{k: v_k \neq 0} \frac{(A\underline{v})_k}{v_k}$ .

That is,  $c(\underline{v}) \underline{v} \leq A\underline{v}$  and  $a \underline{v} \leq A\underline{v} \implies a \leq c(\underline{v})$ . Note:  $c(\lambda \underline{v}) = c(\underline{v}) \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{> 0}$

Hence, in maximizing  $c(\underline{v})$ , we may assume  $\|\underline{v}\|^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n v_j^2 = 1$ .

$K := \{ \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n : \|\underline{v}\|^2 = 1 \}$ . (Issue:  $c$  is not continuous on  $K$ ).

Replace  $K$  by  $L = \{ (I+A)^{n-1} \underline{v} : \underline{v} \in K \}$ . Since  $(I+A)^{n-1} > 0$ , every  $\underline{w} \in L$  is positive - hence  $c$  is continuous on  $L$ .

Note that  $\underline{v} \in K \implies c(\underline{v}) \leq c(\underline{w})$  [since  $c(\underline{v}) \underline{v} \leq A\underline{v} \implies c(\underline{v}) (I+A)^{n-1} \underline{v} \leq A (I+A)^{n-1} \underline{v}$  i.e.  $c(\underline{v}) \underline{w} \leq A\underline{w}$ .]

So, in maximizing  $c$ , we can restrict our domain to  $L$ .

Now  $c: L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is continuous, and  $L = (I+A)^{n-1}(K)$  is compact. Hence  $c$  attains its maximum value, say  $r \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  on

some  $\underline{w} \in L$ .  $r = \text{Max} \{c(\underline{u}) : \underline{u} \in L\} = c(\underline{w})$  for some  $\underline{w} \in L$ .

Note that  $c\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \text{Min}_k \sum_l a_{kl} > 0$  by irreducibility of  $A$

$\Rightarrow r > 0$ .

(4.2) If  $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n \setminus \{0\}$  is such that  $c(\underline{v}) = r$ , then  $A\underline{v} = r\underline{v}$  and  $\underline{v} > 0$ .

Proof. - We know  $c(\underline{v})\underline{v} \leq A\underline{v}$ , i.e.  $A\underline{v} - r\underline{v} \geq 0$ . If not equal to 0; Apply  $(I+A)^{n-1} > 0$  to get  $A\underline{w} - r\underline{w} > 0$  ( $\underline{w} = (I+A)^{n-1}\underline{v}$ ).

$\Rightarrow \exists \epsilon > 0$  small enough so that  $A\underline{w} > (r+\epsilon)\underline{w}$

$\Rightarrow c(\underline{w}) \geq r+\epsilon > r$  contradicting the definition of  $r$ .

Hence  $A\underline{v} = r\underline{v}$  (i.e.,  $r \in \sigma(A)$ ). Moreover  $\underline{w} = (I+A)^{n-1}\underline{v} = (1+r)^{n-1}\underline{v} > 0$

$\Rightarrow \underline{v} > 0$ . □

(4.3)  $r = \rho(A)$  and  $\dim \text{Ker}(r \cdot I_n - A) = 1$ .

Proof. - Let  $\underline{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  be such that  $A\underline{y} = \alpha \underline{y}$ . ( $\alpha \in \sigma(A)$ )

i.e.  $\forall k, \sum_{l=1}^n a_{kl} y_l = \alpha \cdot y_k$ . By triangle inequality, we get

$\sum_{l=1}^n a_{kl} |y_l| \geq |\alpha| \cdot |y_k|$ . Hence,  $A\underline{y}^+ \geq |\alpha| \cdot \underline{y}^+$  ( $\underline{y}^+ = \begin{bmatrix} |y_1| \\ \vdots \\ |y_n| \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n$ )

$\Rightarrow |\alpha| \leq c(\underline{y}^+) \leq r$ .

As  $r \in \sigma(A)$ , we get  $r = \rho(A)$ .

[ If  $\alpha = r$  in the previous paragraph, then  $\underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c(\underline{y}^+) = r \Rightarrow \underline{y}^+ > 0$ . Meaning  $y_k \neq 0 \forall k$ . ] - (\*)

Thus, if  $\dim(\text{Ker}(r \cdot I_n - A)) > 1$ , say  $\underline{u}, \underline{v}$  are two linearly independent vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $A\underline{u} = r\underline{u}$ ,  $A\underline{v} = r\underline{v}$ , by taking their linear comb<sup>n</sup>, we can get  $\underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\underline{y} \neq \underline{0}$  but  $y_k = 0$  for some  $k$ , contradicting (\*).  $\square$

(4.4)  $\chi'_A(p) > 0$  and  $B(t) := \text{Adj}(tI_n - A) > 0 \forall t \geq p$  ( $p = \rho(A) = r$ ).

Proof. - Since  $\dim(\text{Ker}(pI_n - A)) = 1$ , we get  $\text{rank}(pI_n - A) = n - 1$ .  
 $\Rightarrow$  some  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  minor of  $p \cdot I_n - A$  must be non-zero, i.e.  $B(p) \neq 0$ .

Now  $(p \cdot I_n - A) B(p) = \chi_A(p) = 0 \Rightarrow$  columns of  $B(p)$  are eigenvectors for  $A$  with eigenvalue  $= p$ . Hence every non-zero column of  $B(p)$  is either  $> 0$  or  $< 0$ . Same is true for rows of  $B(p)$  - by applying the previously proved results for  $A^T$ . Hence, either  $B(p) > 0$  or  $-B(p) > 0$ .

In either case  $\chi'_A(p) = \sum_{k=1}^n B_{kk}(p) \neq 0$ .

But  $p$  is the largest zero of  $\chi_A(t)$  and  $\chi_A(t) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  ( $= t^n + \dots$ )

$\Rightarrow \chi'_A(p) > 0$  (hence  $\chi_A(t) > 0 \forall t > p$ )

and  $B(p) > 0$ .

Finally  $B(t) = \chi_A(t) \cdot (t - A)^{-1} = \chi_A(t) \cdot \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^l}{t^{l+1}} > 0 \forall t \geq p$ .  $\square$

§5. Proof of the second part of Perron-Frobenius theorem.

$A \geq 0$ : irreducible  $n \times n$  matrix.  $\rho = \rho(A) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ . Let us fix  $\underline{u} > 0$

so that  $\boxed{A \underline{u} = \rho \underline{u}}$ .

Let  $h = \#\{\lambda \in \sigma(A) : |\lambda| = \rho\}$ .

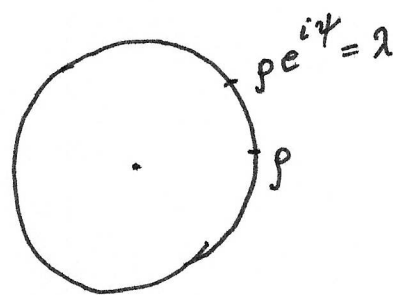
(5.1) There exists a diagonal matrix  $D = \text{diagonal}(\eta_1, \dots, \eta_n)$  such that

$|\eta_j| = 1$  (in fact  $D^h = I_n$ ; so  $\eta_1, \dots, \eta_n$  are  $h$ -th roots of 1)

and  $\boxed{A = e^{2\pi i/h} \cdot D A D^{-1}}$ .

Proof. Assume  $h > 1$  (assertion is trivial for  $h = 1$ ).

Choose  $\lambda = \rho e^{i\psi} \in \sigma(A)$  with smallest argument  $\psi \in (0, 2\pi)$ .



Let  $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$  be an eigenvector  $A \underline{v} = \lambda \underline{v}$ . Again, by triangle ineq.\*

$A \underline{v}^+ \geq |\lambda| \cdot \underline{v}^+ = \rho \underline{v}^+ \Rightarrow \underline{v}^+ \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \underline{u}$ . By scaling, if necessary,

we may assume that  $\underline{v}^+ = \underline{u}$ ; i.e.  $\underline{v} = D \underline{u}$  where  $D$  is diagonal and  $D^+ = I_n$ . Now  $A \underline{v} = \rho e^{i\psi} \underline{v}$  becomes  $\underbrace{(e^{-i\psi} D^{-1} A D)}_G \underline{u} = \rho \underline{u}$ .

So,  $C^+ = A$  and  $\boxed{C \underline{u} = \rho \underline{u}}$  ← take Real part to get

$\left. \begin{matrix} \text{Re}(C) \underline{u} = \rho \underline{u} \\ C^+ \underline{u} = \rho \underline{u} \end{matrix} \right\} \Rightarrow (C^+ - \text{Re}(C)) \underline{u} = 0$ . But  $C^+ - \text{Re}(C) \geq 0$  and  $\underline{u} > 0$ . Hence  $C^+ = \text{Re}(C) = A \Rightarrow C = A$ .

\* recall the notation  $\underline{v}_k^+ = |v_k| \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ . Same for matrices  $C_{kl}^+ = |c_{kl}|$



That is,  $A = e^{i\psi} D A D^{-1}$ . As  $\sigma(D A D^{-1}) = \sigma(A)$ , we get (9)

$\sigma(A) = e^{i\psi} \sigma(A)$ . Meaning  $\sigma(A)$  is stable under rotations by  $\psi$ .

Since there are exactly  $h$  eigenvalues on  $\{|z|=p\}$  - we conclude that  $\psi = \frac{2\pi}{h}$ . Finally from  $A = e^{2\pi i/h} D A D^{-1}$  the corresponding eigenvectors are  $\underline{u}, D\underline{u}, \dots, D^{h-1}\underline{u}$  and  $D^h \underline{u} = \underline{u} \Rightarrow D^h = I_n$ .  $\square$

### (5.2) Cyclic block decomposition

$$A \sim_{\text{sym}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & A_{h-2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & A_{h-1} \\ A_h & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scale to make sure 1 is an entry of  $D$ .

Permuting indices, if necessary, we may assume

$$D = \text{diagonal} \left( \underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_{p_0}, \underbrace{\eta_1, \dots, \eta_1}_{p_1}, \dots, \underbrace{\eta_{s-1}, \dots, \eta_{s-1}}_{p_{s-1}} \right)$$

$$\eta_j = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi n_j}{h} \cdot i\right) \quad 0 = n_0 < n_1 < \dots < n_{s-1} \leq h-1. \text{ With these}$$

permuted indices,  $A = (A_{kl})_{0 \leq k, l \leq s-1}$   $A_{kl}$  is  $p_k \times p_l$  size.

$$\varepsilon D A D^{-1} = \varepsilon \left( \eta_k \eta_l^{-1} A_{kl} \right) = (A_{kl}) \quad [\varepsilon = e^{2\pi i/h}]$$

$$\Rightarrow A_{00} = A_{11} = \dots = 0 \text{ and (taking } k=0) \text{ - either}$$

all  $A_{0l} = 0$  (contradicting irred.) or  $n_1 = 1$  and  $A_{02} = \dots = A_{0, s-1} = 0$ .

Continuing this way, we get  $n_1 = 1, n_2 = 2, \dots, n_{s-1} = h-1$  ( $s = h$ )

and hence  $A$  must have the form as claimed.  $\square$

## References. -

1. F. Gantmacher, Applications of the theory of matrices. Interscience Publishers.
2. T. Hawkins, Continued fractions and the origins of Perron-Frobenius theorem. Arch. Hist. Exact Sci (2008).
3. S. Karlin, Positive operators, J. Math. Mech. (1959).
4. C. MacCheer, The many proofs and applications of Perron's theorem. SIAM reviews. (2000).