

Perron-Frobenius Theory

- **Definition** An $n \times n$ real matrix is positive if all its entries are positive i. e. $T_{i,j} > 0$.
for all $1 \leq i, j \leq n$
- **Perron's theorem**

Theorem

Given a positive square matrix T , there is a positive real number r , called the **Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue** of T , such that r is an eigenvalue of T and any other eigenvalue λ of T has $|\lambda| < r$. Moreover, there is a positive vector ψ with $T\psi = r\psi$. Any other vector with this property is a scalar multiple of ψ .

J. C. Baez and J. D. Biamonte, arXiv:1209.3632 [quant-ph].

Perron-Frobenius Theory

- **Perron-Frobenius theorem**

Theorem

Given an irreducible non-negative square matrix T , there is a positive real number r , called the **Perron–Frobenius eigenvalue** of T , such that r is an eigenvalue of T and any other eigenvalue λ of T has $|\lambda| \leq r$. Moreover, there is a positive vector ψ with $T\psi = r\psi$. Any other vector with this property is a scalar multiple of ψ .

- $T = A + cI$
- Perron-Frobenius eigenvalue satisfies the inequality
$$\min_i \sum_j T_{ij} \leq r \leq \max_i \sum_j T_{ij}$$
• Which implies that as long as A is irreducible it has a unique positive eigenvector corresponding to the 0-eigenvalue.

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(15)

$$\delta = \dim(\text{Im } A \cap \ker Y)$$

$$\delta = 0 \Rightarrow \dim(\text{Im } A \cap \ker Y) = 0$$

or

$$\text{Im } A \cap \ker Y = \{0\}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\text{Im } A \cap \ker Y)^\perp = \mathbb{R}^c$$

We will now use the relations

$$(\text{Im } A)^\perp = \ker A^T$$

$$\& (\ker A)^\perp = \text{Im } A^T$$

To motivate this:

(1) consider a case where $\ker A = 0$ such as

identity matrix or $\begin{pmatrix} * & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & * & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & * \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow$ upper or lower triangular

The orthogonal subspace will clearly consist of all 3 ind. vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 which are the columns of A^T ($\&$ rows of A). The rows of A are important for the kernel since they are the ones which multiply a column vector.

(2) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow$ # of ind column vectors
 $=$ # of ind row vectors = rank = 2

The orthogonal subspace of the image of this matrix is the vector \perp to the 2-ind column vectors. This is the same as $\ker A^T$ since in the transpose these columns become the rows $\&$ act on a column vector to annihilate it

(16)

$$\text{So we have } \text{Im } Y^T + \text{ker } A^T = \mathbb{R}^6$$

This implies that any vector in \mathbb{R}^6 should be describable by some a linear combination of a vector in $\text{Im } Y^T$ & $\text{ker } A^T$.

Let's check for our enzyme-kinetics example

$$\text{Im } Y^T = \text{Im } \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{all 4 column vectors}$$

$$\text{ker } A^T \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which are independent of the 4 vectors in $\text{Im } Y^T$

So the 6 together span $\mathbb{R}^6 \Rightarrow$ any vector should be expressable as a linear combination of them.

In particular if we consider a $\hat{\psi}$ in the kernel of A

$$\ln \hat{\psi} = \alpha + Y^T \ln x$$

$$\text{for our example } \hat{\psi} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ b \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow e^{-\alpha x} \hat{\psi} = x^Y$$

[↓]
component-wise
product

(17)

In our example

$$\alpha \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a \\ a \\ b \\ b \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(most general linear combination of
the basis of A^T)

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\psi} = e^{\alpha x}$$

or

$$e^{-\alpha} \hat{\psi} = x$$

↓

component-wise product

we can see that $A(e^{\alpha} \hat{\psi}) = 0$ since
all we are doing is multiplying the components
of $\hat{\psi}$ in one linkage class by a constant (&
the components in the second linkage class by
another constant). This is always allowed to a
symmetry.

- In the enzyme kinetics network if we just
solve the rate eqn. by brute force we get

$$\hat{\psi} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ e \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \hat{\psi} \\ x_C \\ x_S \\ x_{ES} \\ x_E \\ x_{EP} \end{array}$$

$$a = \bar{k}_3 / k_3$$

$$b = \bar{k}_4 / k_4$$

$$c = \bar{k}_3 / k_3 \quad \bar{k}_4 / k_4$$

$$d = k_1 / k_1 \quad \bar{k}_3 / k_3 \quad \bar{k}_4 / k_4$$

$$e = \frac{\bar{k}_3}{k_3} \quad \frac{k_1}{\bar{k}_1} \quad \frac{\bar{k}_4}{k_4} \quad \frac{\bar{k}_2}{k_2}$$

Let's see if we get the same solution from the kernel of A

$$A\hat{\psi} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-\lambda t} \hat{\psi} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a \\ a\bar{k}_3/k_3 \\ a\bar{k}_4/k_4 \\ b \\ b\bar{k}_4/\bar{k}_1 \\ b\bar{k}_1/\bar{k}_1 \bar{k}_2/k_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

we should be able to write this as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_E \\ x_S \\ x_E x_S \\ x_E S \\ x_E x_P \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{set } a=1 \quad b = \frac{\bar{k}_3}{k_3} \frac{\bar{k}_4}{k_4} \quad \text{& we get } \hat{\psi}!$$

- The solution is "complex-balanced". In fact, here it is even detailed-balanced.
- Let's consider another example

$$\begin{array}{c} A \xrightarrow{\frac{k_1}{k_1}} 2A \\ \uparrow k_3 \qquad \downarrow k_2 \\ B \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} C=3 \\ \ell=1 \\ S=2 \\ \Rightarrow S=0 \end{array}$$

Now we know that
the A matrix
null eigenvector
is
the soln.

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & 2A & B \\ -k_1 & \bar{k}_1 & k_3 \\ k_4 & -\bar{k}_1 - \bar{k}_2 & 0 \\ 0 & k_2 & -k_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_A \\ x_A^2 \\ x_B \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

(19)

$$\text{Complex-X-Balance} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} k_1 x_A = k_1 x_A^2 + k_3 x_B \\ k_1 x_A = (k_1 + k_2) x_A^2 \\ k_2 x_A^2 = k_3 x_B \end{array} \right.$$

For each complex, we equate those reactions for which it is the source & it is the product. This can be solved to give

$$x_A = \left(\frac{k_1}{k_1 + k_2} \right); x_B = \frac{k_2}{k_3} \left(\frac{k_1}{k_1 + k_2} \right)^2$$