

Lecture 24 - The Spectral Theorem, Quadratic Forms, and Matrix Powers

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$$\text{Eigenvalue: } A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}, \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$$

$$A^T = A$$

Goals: Use eigenvalues and eigenvectors to analyze definiteness of symmetric matrices and to draw conclusions about powers of a matrix A .

Theorem 24.1.1: Let A be an $n \times n$ and $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$ a collection of eigenvectors for A with respective eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$, so $A\mathbf{v}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j$ for all j .

- If the r eigenvalues are pairwise different then the collection of r vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$ is linearly independent, so $r \leq n$. Thus, an $n \times n$ matrix cannot have more than n different eigenvalues.
- If A is symmetric and $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$, then $\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = 0$. In other words, the eigenvectors for different eigenvalues of a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix are orthogonal to each other.

Theorem 24.1.4: (Spectral Theorem) Let A be a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix. There is an orthogonal basis $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$ of \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors for A . The corresponding eigenvalues are all of the eigenvalues for A (so if \mathbf{w}_j has eigenvalue λ_j , then any eigenvalue of A equals some λ_j).

The collection of eigenvalues of a square matrix is called its **spectrum**.

Recall that we can apply the Fourier formula to an orthogonal basis to find the coefficients of a vector \mathbf{v} with respect to that basis. So if $\{\mathbf{w}_j\}$ is an orthogonal basis of eigenvectors of a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A , then

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}_i}{\mathbf{w}_i \cdot \mathbf{w}_i} \right) \mathbf{w}_i.$$

We will use this to study quadratic forms.

Example 1: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 13 & -3 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A and compute the quadratic form $q_A(x, y)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{1) Find eigenvalues: } \det(A - \lambda I_2) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} [13-\lambda] & [-3] \\ [-3] & [5-\lambda] \end{pmatrix} = (13-\lambda)(5-\lambda) - 9 = \lambda^2 - 18\lambda + 56 \\ &= (\lambda - 14)(\lambda - 4) = 0 \\ &\rightarrow \lambda = 14, 4 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{2) } \lambda = 14 - \text{eigenvlue: } N(A - 14I_2) &= N \begin{pmatrix} [-1] & [-3] \\ [-3] & [-9] \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \text{solve } \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 \\ -3 & -9 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \vec{0} \\ \text{sol} \rightarrow \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} &\quad \text{eigenvlue: } \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda = 4 - \text{eigenvlue: } N(A - 4I_2) &= N \begin{pmatrix} [9] & [-3] \\ [-3] & [1] \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \text{solve } \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -3 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \vec{0} \\ \text{sol} \rightarrow \vec{x} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} &\quad \text{eigenvlue: } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

3) Find Quadratic

$$f_a = 13x^2 + 5y^2 - 6xy$$

If \mathbf{w}_1 and \mathbf{w}_2 are the eigenvectors from Example 1, then we have that $\{\mathbf{w}'_1, \mathbf{w}'_2\}$, where $\mathbf{w}'_j = \mathbf{w}_j / \|\mathbf{w}_j\|$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^2 . This basis is then a rotation of the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^2 . Let's see how this affects our quadratic form:

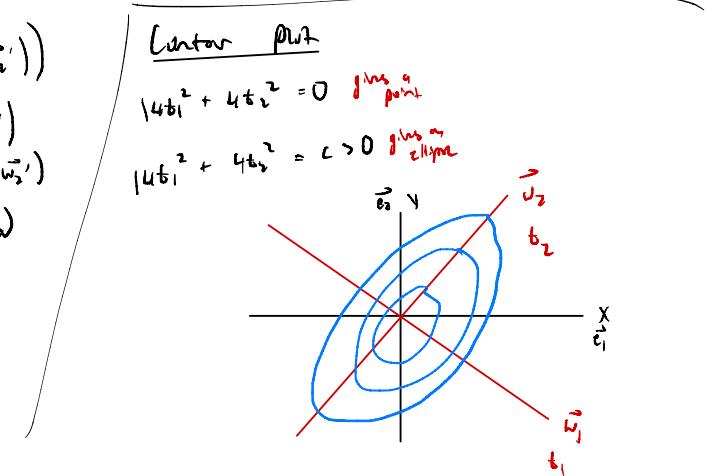
Example 2: Write $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ in terms of the orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{w}'_1, \mathbf{w}'_2\}$ and recalculate $q_A(\mathbf{v})$. Then, sketch a contour plot of $q_A(x, y)$.

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x\vec{e}_1 + y\vec{e}_2 \rightarrow \text{by formula, } \vec{v} = t_1\vec{w}'_1 + t_2\vec{w}'_2$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} \vec{w}'_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda = 14 \\ \vec{w}'_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda = 4 \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{aligned} t_1 &= \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}'_1}{\vec{w}'_1 \cdot \vec{w}'_1} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}'_1 \\ A\vec{w}'_1 &= 14\vec{w}'_1 \\ A\vec{w}'_2 &= 4\vec{w}'_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$q_A(x, y) = 13x^2 + 5y^2 - 6xy$$

$$\begin{aligned} q_A(\vec{v}) &= q_A(x, y) = \vec{v} \cdot (A\vec{v}) \\ &= \vec{v} \cdot \left(A \left(t_1\vec{w}'_1 + t_2\vec{w}'_2 \right) \right) \\ &= \vec{v} \cdot \left(14t_1\vec{w}'_1 + 4t_2\vec{w}'_2 \right) \\ &= 14t_1(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}'_1) + 4t_2(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}'_2) \\ &\sim 14t_1(t_1) + 4t_2(t_2) \\ &= 14t_1^2 + 4t_2^2 \end{aligned}$$



The takeaway from the previous example / remark is that writing a quadratic form q_A in terms of the orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of A greatly simplifies its expression (i.e. no cross terms). This is especially helpful for $n \times n$ symmetric matrices for large n .

Definition: For an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix A and the associated quadratic form $q_A(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot (A\mathbf{x})$, we say A and q_A are:

- **positive-definite** if $q_A(\mathbf{v}) > 0$ for all $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$, and **positive-semidefinite** if $q_A(\mathbf{v}) \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$.
- **negative-definite** if $q_A(\mathbf{v}) < 0$ for all $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$, and **negative-semidefinite** if $q_A(\mathbf{v}) \leq 0$ for all $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$.
- **indefinite** if $q_A(\mathbf{v})$ takes both positive and negative values for different \mathbf{v} .

Example 3: Determine the definiteness of $A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -3 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$q_A = -3x^2 - 4y^2 < 0 \quad \forall \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}, \text{ negative-definite}$$

$$q_B = x^2 + 9y^2 - 6xy = (x - 3y)^2 \geq 0 \quad \forall \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}, \text{ positive-semidefinite}$$

In general, it is difficult to look at a quadratic form to determine its definiteness. However, we can determine it much easier if we rewrite it using the ideas from Example 2. If $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$ are the orthogonal eigenvectors of A with associated eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, then we can write any $\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \mathbf{w}_i$ via the Fourier Formula. Repeating as in Example 2, we arrive at the **diagonalization formula**

$$q_A(\mathbf{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i (\mathbf{w}_i \cdot \mathbf{w}_i) t_i^2.$$

Written this way, we have the following proposition.

Proposition 24.2.10: A symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A is:

1. positive-definite when its eigenvalues are all positive;
2. negative-definite when its eigenvalues are all negative;
3. indefinite when some eigenvalue is positive and some eigenvalue is negative;
4. positive-semidefinite when all eigenvalues are ≥ 0 and 0 is an eigenvalue;
5. negative-semidefinite when all eigenvalues are ≤ 0 and 0 is an eigenvalue.

Example 4: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 16 & -2 & -6 \\ -2 & 19 & -3 \\ -6 & -3 & 27 \end{bmatrix}$ has eigenvectors $\mathbf{w}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{w}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{w}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ with eigenvalues 12, 20, and 30 respectively. Calculate $q_A(x, y, z)$, its diagonalized form, and determine its definiteness. Verify that this matches the conclusion of Proposition 24.2.10.

$$q_A(x, y, z) = 16x^2 + 14y^2 + 27z^2 - 4xy - 12xz - 6yz$$

↑ ↑ ↓
first row, sum col second row, third col third row, sum col

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Diag: } q_A(\vec{v}) &= 12(\vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_1)t_1^2 + 20(\vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{v}_2)t_2^2 + 30(\vec{v}_3 \cdot \vec{v}_3)t_3^2 \\ &= 72t_1^2 + 100t_2^2 + 900t_3^2 > 0 \quad \text{positive-definite} \\ \vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} t_1 \\ t_2 \\ t_3 \end{pmatrix} &= t_1 \vec{w}_1 + t_2 \vec{w}_2 + t_3 \vec{w}_3 \\ \text{all eigenvalues } > 0, \therefore \text{positive-definite} \end{aligned}$$

Matrix Powers

Example 5: If \mathbf{v} is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue 42, what is $A^2\mathbf{v}$, $A^4\mathbf{v}$, and $A^{42}\mathbf{v}$?

$$\begin{aligned} A\vec{v} &= 42\vec{v} & A^{42}\vec{v} &= (42)^{42}\vec{v} \\ \text{Ther, } A^2\vec{v} &= A(42\vec{v}) = 42(A\vec{v}) = 42^2\vec{v} & \\ A^4\vec{v} &= (42)^4\vec{v} \end{aligned}$$

In general, if $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$, then $A^r\mathbf{v} = \lambda^r\mathbf{v}$ for any $r \geq 1$.

Note also that if A is invertible, then $A^{-1}\mathbf{v} = \lambda^{-1}\mathbf{v}$, so we also have $(A^{-1})^r\mathbf{v} = \lambda^{-r}\mathbf{v}$.
0 is not a power

We can use this idea to calculate high powers of certain $n \times n$ matrices. We have the following interpretation of the spectral theorem.

Theorem 24.4.1: (Spectral Theorem via matrix decomposition) Let A be a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix with orthogonal eigenvectors $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$ with corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$. Let W be the $n \times n$ matrix whose columns are the unit vectors $\mathbf{w}_j/\|\mathbf{w}_j\|$.

Then $W^\top = W^{-1}$ (i.e. W is orthogonal), and

$$A = W D W^\top = W D W^{-1},$$

where D is the diagonal matrix $D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$.

Important: The order of the eigenvalues in D must match the order of the eigenvectors in W .

Example 6: Let A be as in Example 1. Find the decomposition $A = W D W^\top$ and describe what happens to A^m for large m .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 13 & -3 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_1 = 14, \quad \lambda_2 = 4, \quad \vec{w}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{w}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = W D W^\top = \begin{bmatrix} -3/\sqrt{10} & 1/\sqrt{10} \\ 1/\sqrt{10} & 3/\sqrt{10} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3/\sqrt{10} & 1/\sqrt{10} \\ 1/\sqrt{10} & 3/\sqrt{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^2 = (W D W^\top)(W D W^\top) = W D I_n D W^\top = W D^2 W^\top$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^M &= W \begin{bmatrix} 14^M & 0 \\ 0 & 4^M \end{bmatrix} W^\top = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 14^M & 0 \\ 0 & 4^M \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} -3(14)^M & 4^M \\ 14^M & 3(4)^M \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 9(14)^M + 4^M & -3(14)^M + 3(4)^M \\ -3(14)^M + 3(4)^M & 14^M + 9(4)^M \end{bmatrix} \\ &\approx \frac{14^M}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 9 + (\frac{4}{14})^M & -3 + 3(\frac{4}{14})^M \\ -3 + 3(\frac{4}{14})^M & 1 + 9(\frac{4}{14})^M \end{bmatrix} \approx \frac{14^M}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -3 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The last example says that if A has a largest (in absolute value) eigenvalue, it will control the behavior of high powers of A .

Proposition 24.4.2: For a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A , if there is an eigenvalue whose absolute value exceeds that of all other eigenvalues (called the **dominant eigenvalue**) and if the solutions to $Ax = \lambda x$ constitute a line (which happens whenever there are n different eigenvalues), then for large m , we have

$$A^m \approx \left(\frac{\lambda^m}{\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w}} \right) \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^\top,$$

for any eigenvector \mathbf{w} of A with eigenvalue λ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -3 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

↓
dissipative

$$M = W D W^{-1}$$

↑ orthogonal

$$M^* = W D^* W^{-1} = W D^* W^T \rightarrow D^* = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}, W = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{w}_1 & \dots & \vec{w}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

\vec{w}_i is real for \vec{w}_i

If M is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix, then that implies that there are n real eigenvalues.

Ex: $M = \begin{bmatrix} 3/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 \\ 1/5 & 2/5 & 1/5 \\ 1/5 & 1/5 & 2/5 \end{bmatrix}$ given: $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = \frac{2}{5}$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

given: $\vec{w}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is eigenvector

i) $M\vec{w}_1 = M \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \therefore \vec{w}_1 \in 1\text{-eigenspace}$

Are there more eigenvectors in 1-eigenspace?

$$\rightarrow M\vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x} \rightarrow M\vec{x} = \vec{0}, \text{ find } \vec{x}$$

$$M\vec{x} - \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$(M - I_3)\vec{x} = \vec{0} \leftarrow \text{null space}$$

\therefore the 1-eigenspace = $N(M - I_3)$

So you find $\dim(N(M - I_3))$

Rank-Nullity: For $m \times n, n = \dim(L(A)) + \dim(N(A))$

$$M - I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -2/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 \\ 1/5 & -2/5 & 1/5 \\ 1/5 & 1/5 & -2/5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$c_1 \quad c_2 \quad c_3$

Find $\dim L(M - I_3)$

$$\vec{c}_1 + \vec{c}_2 + \vec{c}_3 = \vec{0} \quad \text{a. cols are lin dependent}$$

b. remove one column

$\therefore \{\vec{c}_1, \vec{c}_2\}$ is basis of $L(M - I_3)$

$$\therefore \dim L(M - I_3) = 2$$

$$\therefore \dim N(M - I_3) = 1 \text{ by rank-nullity}$$

$$\therefore \dim(1\text{-eigenspace}) = 1, 1\text{-eigenspace} = \text{span}(\vec{w}_1)$$

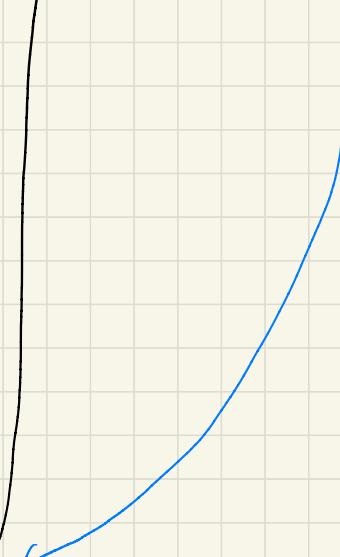
only 2 to multiply
symmetric can share
eigenvalues

need to find out which value is duplicated
- do so by calculating dimension
of eigenspace & each eigenvalue
span & complete w/
that eigenvalue

∴ only 1 copy of λ_1 in set of eigenvalues
bc \vec{w}_1 is the eigenvector for it

∴ there's two copies of $\lambda_2 \rightarrow \lambda_2 = \lambda_2$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2/5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2/5 \end{bmatrix}$$



Now we find W .

We know \vec{w}_1 is eigenvector for λ_1 , \vec{w}_2 is eigenvector for λ_2 , \vec{w}_3 is eigenvector for λ_3 .

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{\|\vec{w}_1\|} & \frac{1}{\|\vec{w}_2\|} & \frac{1}{\|\vec{w}_3\|} \\ \| \vec{w}_1 \| & \| \vec{w}_2 \| & \| \vec{w}_3 \| \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

We know \vec{w}_1 . Now we calculate \vec{w}_2 using $\lambda_2^{\frac{1}{2}}$

$$M_{\vec{x}} - \lambda \vec{x} \rightarrow M \vec{x} - \frac{2}{5} \vec{x}$$

$$\rightarrow (M - \frac{2}{5} I_n) \vec{x} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \frac{1}{5}x + \frac{1}{5}y + \frac{1}{5}z = 0$$

$$x + y + z = 0$$

$$y = -x - z$$

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -x-z \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = y \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + z \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{2}{5}\text{-eigenspace} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

We transform this into an orthogonal basis

bc we want an orthonormal basis for W .

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \|\vec{v}_1\| = 2$$

keep \vec{v}_1 , find \vec{v}_2'

$$\vec{v}_2' = \vec{v}_2 - \text{Proj}_{\vec{v}_1}(\vec{v}_2)$$

$$= \vec{v}_2 - \frac{\vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{v}_1}{\vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_1} (\vec{v}_1) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}_2' = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \|\vec{v}_2'\| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + 1} = \sqrt{\frac{5}{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2}$$

Thus, an orthogonal basis at $\frac{2}{5}$ -eigenspace is $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2'\}$

thus $\vec{w}_1 = \vec{v}_1$, $\vec{w}_3 = \vec{v}_2'$

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{\|\vec{w}_1\|} & \frac{1}{\|\vec{w}_2\|} & \frac{1}{\|\vec{w}_3\|} \\ \| \vec{w}_1 \| & \| \vec{w}_2 \| & \| \vec{w}_3 \| \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & \frac{2}{\sqrt{10}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M^{100} = W D^{100} W^T \approx W \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} W^T$$

\uparrow
 $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{approx}} 0$

$$W \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} W^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

A Markov matrix A always has an eigenvalue 1. All other eigenvalues are in absolute value smaller or equal to 1.