

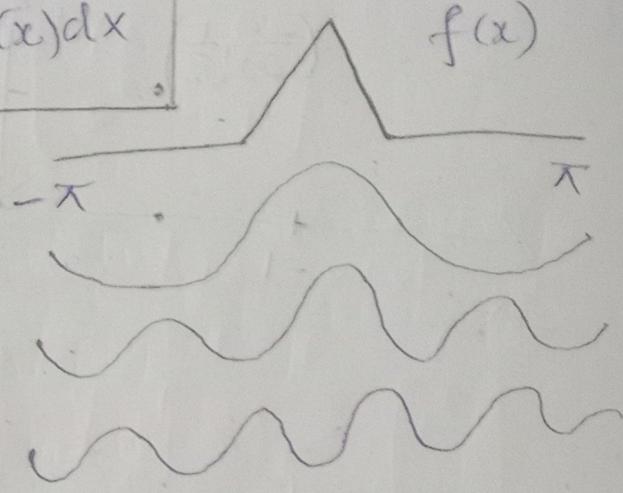
Fourier Series:

It tells that any arbitrary function can be approximated as infinite sum of sines and cosines of increasingly high frequency.

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \bar{g}(x) dx$$

$\rightarrow f(x), g(x)$ defined in $[a, b]$
 $f(x)$

These are 2π periodic sine and cosines since $f(x)$ is 2π periodic



$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx))$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(kx) dx = \frac{\langle f(x), \cos(kx) \rangle}{\|\cos(kx)\|^2}$$

$$b_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(kx) dx = \frac{\langle f(x), \sin(kx) \rangle}{\|\sin(kx)\|^2}$$

notation:

$\langle a, b \rangle$ - Inner product of a and b

norm or length of $a \Rightarrow \langle a, a \rangle = \|a\|^2$

Note! Dot product is one of the form of inner product.

Draw the fourier!

1. Inner product: In essence, an inner product is a function that takes two vectors from vector space and gives you a scalar (a number).

* It's a generalization of the familiar dot product in **Euclidean spaces**.

Typical notation: $\langle u, v \rangle$ where $u, v \in V$

V = vector space.

2. Why Inner product spaces matter:

It enables us to define geometric concepts

like:

• Length (Norm): The magnitude of a vector can be found using inner product:

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$$

• Angles:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\| \|v\|}$$

XX Two vectors are orthogonal if their inner product is **zero**

** The Idea of projecting one vector onto another has numerous applications and makes use of the inner product. This leads to concepts like finding closest approximation of a function within a subspace.

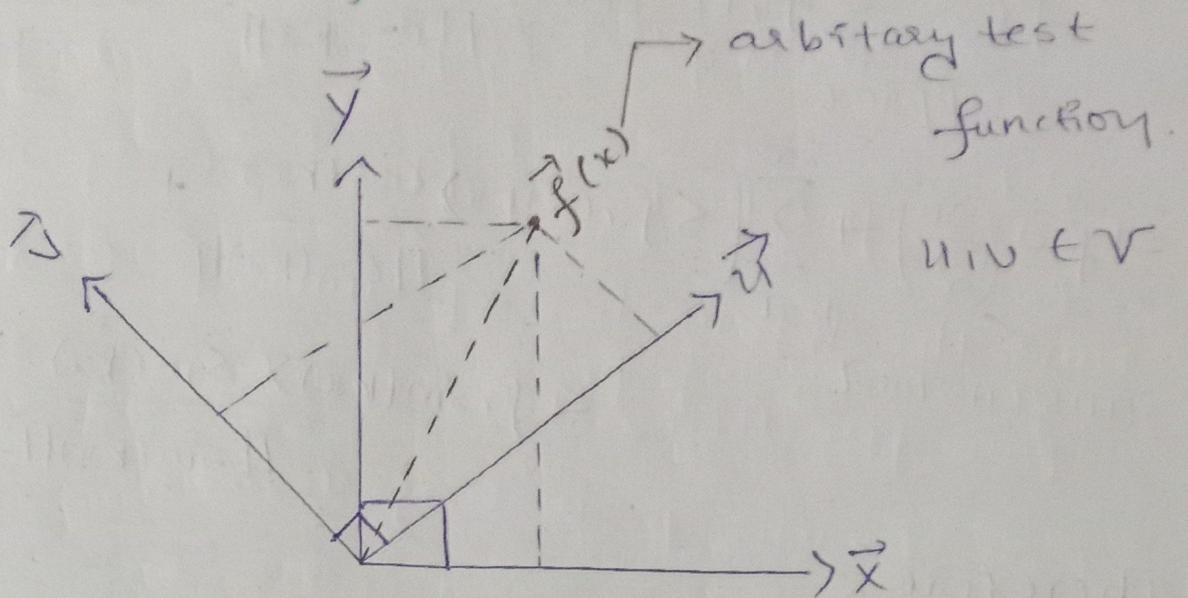
** Least Squares Approximation:
We find the "best fit" line minimizing the error by orthogonally projecting data points onto subspace defining the line.

** Gram-Schmidt process: This powerful algorithm allows us to create an orthonormal basis (a set of unit length and mutually orthogonal vectors) from any basis within an inner product space.

** Hilbert Spaces: These are special type of inner product spaces that are complete (no gaps or missing points). They provide the foundation for quantum mechanics,

Fourier analysis and much of functional analysis.

now lets draw fourier:



$\bar{x} \bar{y}$ - coordinate system (orthogonal basis) of \mathbb{R}^2
 $\bar{u} \bar{v}$ - " " " "

* If we want to represent \vec{f} in xy system. we take the projection of \vec{f} along \vec{x} direction (It is given by inner product of f, x) and along \vec{y} direction and multiply with respective unit vectors!!

$$\vec{f} = \langle \vec{f}, \bar{x} \rangle \frac{\bar{x}}{\|\bar{x}\|^2} + \langle \vec{f}, \bar{y} \rangle \frac{\bar{y}}{\|\bar{y}\|^2}$$

$$\vec{f} \approx \langle \vec{f}, \bar{u} \rangle \frac{\bar{u}}{\|\bar{u}\|^2} + \langle \vec{f}, \bar{v} \rangle \frac{\bar{v}}{\|\bar{v}\|^2}$$

Conclusion:

If $\bar{u} = \cos(kx)$ and $\bar{v} = \sin(kx)$

$$\bar{f} \approx \langle \bar{f}, \cos(kx) \rangle \frac{\cos(kx)}{\|\cos(kx)\|^2} + \frac{\langle \bar{f}, \sin(kx) \rangle \sin(kx)}{\|\sin(kx)\|^2}$$

approx

$$\Rightarrow \bar{f} = \left(\frac{a_0}{2} \right) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\langle \bar{f}, \cos(kx) \rangle \frac{\cos(kx)}{\|\cos(kx)\|^2} + \right.$$

some constant

$$\left. \langle \bar{f}, \sin(kx) \rangle \frac{\sin(kx)}{\|\sin(kx)\|^2} \right)$$

Therefore :-

Fourier series is nothing but projecting any arbitrary function (\bar{f}) onto orthogonal basis $\cos(kx)$ and $\sin(kx)$.

* Before I wrote:

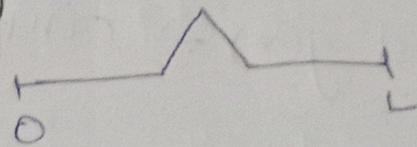
$$a_k = \langle \bar{f}, \cos(kx) \rangle \frac{1}{\|\cos(kx)\|^2}$$

= It is nothing but how much of my function \bar{f} is along $\cos(kx)$ function direction.

||ly b_k :

* If our $f(x)$ defined from 0 to L

Then: $f(x) \in L_2([0, L])$



$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(a_k \cos\left(\frac{2\pi k}{L}x\right) + b_k \sin\left(\frac{2\pi k}{L}x\right) \right)$$

Reason: we want to make sine and cosine periodic between 0 to L (\because our f is also periodic from 0 to L).

$$a_k = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi k}{L}x\right) dx$$

$$b_k = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi k}{L}x\right) dx$$

Remember / Recall!

$x \in [a, b]$

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx$$

Inner product

is defined like this if $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are real valued functions

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \bar{g}(x) dx$$

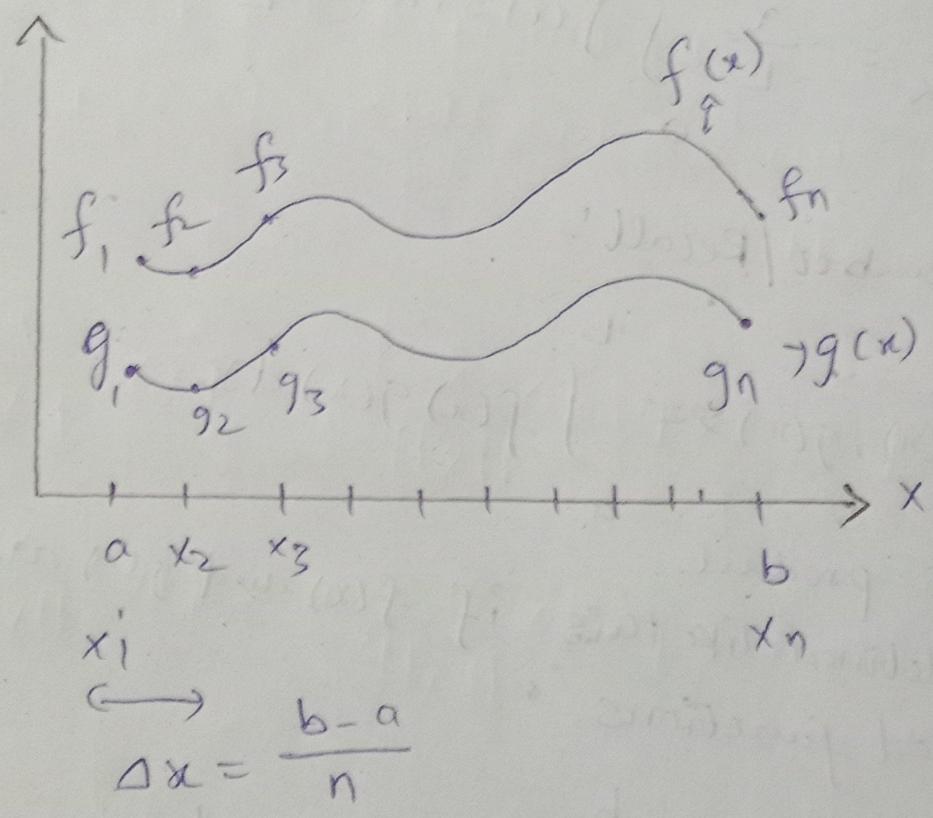
if $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are complex valued functions and $\bar{g}(x) \rightarrow$ complex conjugate.

Inner products in Hilbert space :-

Aim: The definition of inner product of two functions tells exact same information of inner product of vectors.

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \bar{g}(x) dx$$

Inner product definition of two functions. Tells how functions are aligned in space functional



$$\underline{f} = \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}$$

functional vector

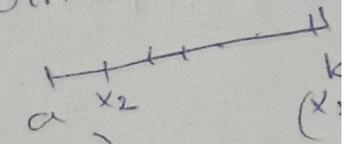
$$\underline{g} = \begin{bmatrix} g_1 \\ g_2 \\ \vdots \\ g_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\langle \underline{f}, \underline{g} \rangle = \underline{g}^T \underline{f} = \begin{bmatrix} g & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k g_k$$

observe!

If we sample $[a, b]$ to $2n$ points

$$\text{then } \langle \underline{f}, \underline{g} \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{2n} f_k g_k = 2 \sum_{k=1}^n f_k g_k$$



what is the issue here?

we are trying to normalize it with Δx

$$\langle \underline{f}, \underline{g} \rangle \Delta x = \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) g(x_k) \Delta x$$

It is just the Riemann approximation. It

will \downarrow of $\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle$ when we make Δx

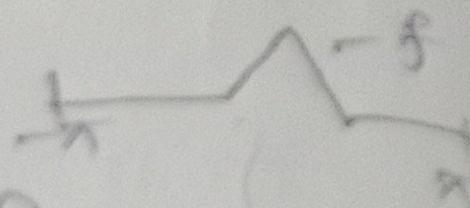
be equal to

$$\int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx$$

infinitely small.

** We have complex Fourier series as well.

* Lets try to show $\sin(kx)$ and $\cos(kx)$ are orthogonal basis in $[-\pi, \pi]$



$$\Rightarrow \text{To show } \Rightarrow \langle \sin(kx), \cos(kx) \rangle = 0$$

we know

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \sin kx, \cos kx \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(kx) \cos(kx) dx$$

(odd)(even) = odd

$$= 0$$

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{a_0}{2} dx + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} a_n \cos nx dx + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} b_n \sin nx dx$$

$$= \frac{a_0}{2} (2\pi) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \left(\frac{\sin nx}{n} \right)_{-\pi}^{\pi} + 0$$

odd f^n

$$\left(\therefore \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0, & f(x) \text{ is odd } f^n \\ 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx, & f(x) \text{ is even } f^n \end{cases} \right.$$

Pf:-

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = \underbrace{\int_{-a}^0 f(x) dx}_I + \int_0^a f(x) dx$$

$$I = \int_{-a}^0 f(x) dx$$

$$x = -y$$

$$= - \int_a^0 f(-y) dy$$

$$= \begin{cases} \int_0^a f(y) dy, & \text{if } f \text{ is even } f^n \\ - \int_0^a f(y) dy, & \text{if } f \text{ is odd } f^n \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \int_0^a f(x) dx, & f \rightarrow \text{even} \\ - \int_0^a f(x) dx, & f \rightarrow \text{odd} \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = \begin{cases} \int_0^a f(x) dx + \int_0^a f(x) dx, & f \rightarrow \text{even} \\ - \int_0^a f(x) dx + \int_0^a f(x) dx, & f \rightarrow \text{odd} \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = \begin{cases} 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx, & f \rightarrow \text{even} \\ 0, & f \rightarrow \text{odd} \end{cases}$$

Also $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos nx dx = \frac{\sin nx}{n} \Big|_{-\pi}^{\pi} = 0$

$$\int_0^{\pi} \underbrace{\sin nx dx}_{\text{odd}} = \underline{0}$$

$$\rightarrow \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx = a_0 \pi \Rightarrow \boxed{a_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx}$$

Again, $f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f(x) \cos kx) dx = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(\frac{a_0}{2} \cos kx + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx \cos kx + b_n \sin nx \cos kx \right) dx$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos kx dx = 0 + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx \cos kx dx + 0$$

Consider the integral $I_1 = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos nx \cos kx dx$

$$I_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos(n+k)x + \cos(n-k)x) dx$$

If $n=k$ $I_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos 2kx + 1) dx$
 $= \frac{1}{2} (2\pi) = \pi$

$n \neq k \Rightarrow I_1 = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos(n+k)x + \cos(n-k)x) dx$
 $= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\sin(n+k)x}{n+k} + \frac{\sin(n-k)x}{n-k} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$

$$I_1 = 0$$

$$\therefore \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos nx \cos kx dx = \begin{cases} 0, & n=k \\ \pi, & n \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos kx dx &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx \cos kx dx \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} a_1 \cos x \cos kx dx + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} a_2 \cos 2x \cos kx dx + \dots \\ &+ \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} a_k \cos kx \cos kx dx + \dots \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

$= a_k(\pi)$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos kx dx = \pi a_k$$

$$\Rightarrow a_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos kx dx$$

Again consider, $f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin kx dx = \underbrace{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{a_0}{2} \sin kx dx}_{\text{odd}} + \underbrace{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx \sin kx dx}_{\text{odd}} + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin nx \sin kx dx$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin kx dx = 0 + 0 + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin nx \sin kx dx$$

Consider the integral

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin nx \sin kx dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(n-k)x - \cos(n+k)x dx$$

$f \quad n=k \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (1 - \cos 2kx) dx = \pi$

$f \quad n \neq k \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\sin(n-k)x}{n-k} - \frac{\sin(n+k)x}{n+k} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} = 0$

$$\therefore \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin nx \sin kx dx = \begin{cases} 0, & n \neq k \\ \pi, & n = k \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin kx dx = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin nx \sin kx dx$$

$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} b_1 \sin x \sin kx dx + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} b_2 \sin 2x \sin kx dx + \dots$$

$$+ \dots + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} b_k \sin kx \sin kx dx + \dots$$

π

$$\int_0^{\pi} f(x) \sin kx dx = \pi b_k$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{b_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} f(x) \sin kx dx}$$

Limitation :-

If the image has sharp edges or minute information we can't represent using sines and cosines. That means we have to change the basis to represent the data.

Wavelets :-

In wavelets we have different basis. But we don't know which basis to choose w.r.t our given data.

* We have experiment with different basis like square/har wavelet and so many others.

SVD :-

using this technique we are able to find the basis to represent data:

$$X = U \Sigma V^T$$

$$\text{Let } X_{3 \times 2} = U_{3 \times 2} \Sigma_{2 \times 2} V^T_{2 \times 2}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

$$U U^T = U^T U = I$$

$$x = U \Sigma V^T$$

$$x x^T = U \Sigma V^T (V \Sigma^T U^T)$$

$$= U \Sigma \Sigma^T U^T$$

$$x x^T = U \Lambda U^T$$

$$\text{Now } x x^T U = U \Lambda U^T U$$

$$x x^T U = U \Lambda$$

$\therefore U$ is the eigen vector of $x x^T$

||ly V is the eigen vector of $x^T x$

eg:

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2}$$

$$x x^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 8 & 6 \\ 8 & 8 & 8 \\ 6 & 8 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$|x x^T - \lambda I| = 0 \rightarrow$ To get eigen values

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 10-\lambda & 8 & 6 \\ 8 & 8-\lambda & 8 \\ 6 & 8 & 10-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$(10-\lambda)(8-\lambda)(10-\lambda) - 6\lambda$
 $- 8(80 - 8\lambda - 48)$
 $+ 6(64 - 48 + 6\lambda)$

lets

$$\text{take } X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X X^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

3×2 2×3

$$|X X^T - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1-\lambda & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (2-\lambda) \{ (1-\lambda)^2 \} + 1 \{ -1(1-\lambda) \} + 1 \{ -(1-\lambda) \} = 0$$

$$= (1-\lambda) \{ (2-\lambda)(1-\lambda) - 1 - 1 \} = 0$$

$$= \boxed{\lambda=1} \quad \cancel{2-\lambda-\lambda+\lambda^2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 = 3\lambda \quad \lambda(\lambda-3) = 0$$

$$\boxed{\lambda=3}$$

$$\boxed{\lambda=0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\lambda=3}$$

$$(X X^T - \lambda I) U = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -u_1 - u_2 + u_3 = 0$$

$$-u_1 - 2u_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{u_1 = -2u_2}$$

$$\boxed{u_1 = 2u_3}$$

$$\text{Let } \boxed{u_2 = -1}$$

$$\text{Then } \boxed{u_1 = 2}, \boxed{u_3 = 1}$$

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\lambda = 1$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} u_1 - u_2 + u_3 &= 0 \\ -u_1 &= 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{u_1 = 0} \\ \boxed{u_2 = u_3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Let } \boxed{u_2 = 1}$$

$$\therefore \hat{v}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\lambda = 0$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2u_1 - u_2 + u_3 = 0$$

$$-u_1 + u_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{u_1 = u_2}$$

$$\boxed{u_1 = -u_3}$$

$$\text{Let } \boxed{u_3 = -1} \Rightarrow \boxed{u_1 = 1} \Rightarrow \boxed{u_2 = 1}$$

$$U_3^{\wedge} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda=3 \quad \lambda=1 \quad \lambda=0$$

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

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{\lambda_2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{\lambda_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \lambda_3$$

$$\text{here } \lambda_1 = 3 \quad \lambda_2 = 1 \quad \lambda_3 = 0$$

$x^T x$ - using this matrix we find $\sqrt{\quad}$ matrix

To find the principal components of x we multiply with U

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

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{3 \times 2} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{3 \times 3}$
 $\hspace{15em} 2 \times 3$

we were unable to multiply
 \Rightarrow unable to find principal components.

Lets compute

$$x^T x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

2×3 3×2

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now $|x^T x - \lambda I| = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (2-\lambda)^2 = 1$$
$$2-\lambda = 1 \quad 2-\lambda = -1$$
$$\boxed{\lambda = 1} \quad \boxed{\lambda = 3}$$

For $\lambda = 1$ Lets compute \hat{v}_1

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$v_{11} + v_{12} = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{v_{11} = -v_{12}}$$

Let $v_{12} = -1$

$$\boxed{\hat{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}}$$

For $\lambda = 3$ we get v_2

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_{21} \\ v_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{v_{21} = v_{22}} \text{ if } v_{22} = 1 \text{ then:}$$

$$\therefore v_2^{\wedge} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

now $v = [v_2^{\wedge} \ v_1^{\wedge}]$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{arranged in decreasing} \\ \text{order of } \lambda \end{array} \right\}$

$$\boxed{v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}}$$

now lets try to find the principal components of x

$$p = x v$$

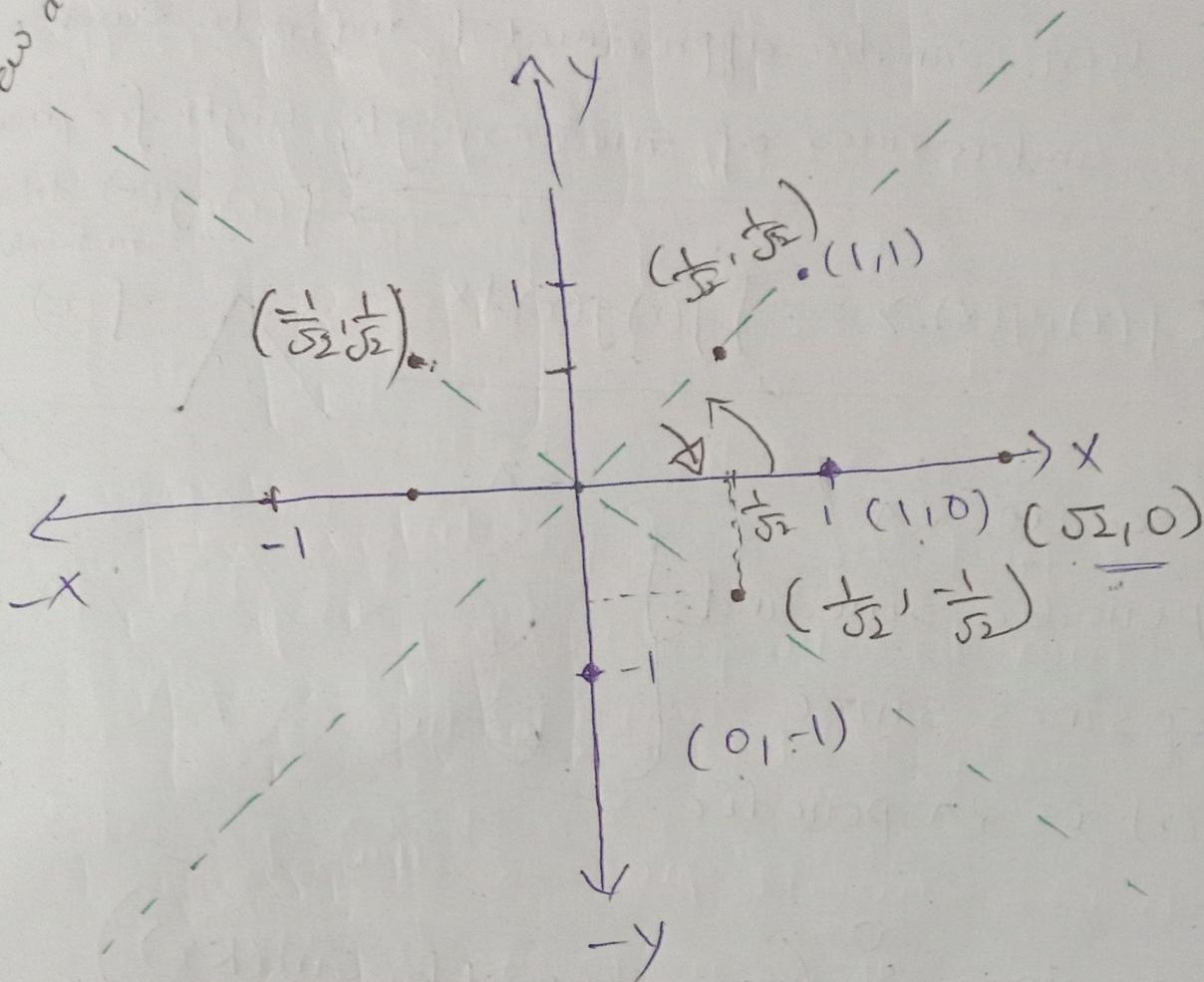
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$3 \times 2 \quad 2 \times 2$

(P)

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

new axes



$x=0 \quad y=0$

$(1,1)$	\rightarrow	$(\sqrt{2}, 0)$	}	$(1,1)$	\rightarrow	$(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$
$(0,-1)$	\rightarrow	$(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$		$(0,-1)$	\rightarrow	$(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$
$(1,0)$	\rightarrow	$(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$		$(1,0)$	\rightarrow	$(\sqrt{2}, 0)$

