

## 1 Vandermonde Matrix

**Definition 1.** A *Vandermonde matrix* is a matrix with the terms of a geometric progression in each row, i.e.:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 & \cdots & x_m^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

If  $c$  is a column vector of coefficients, then the product of the Vandermonde matrix and  $c$  is a column vector of the values of the polynomial at the points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$ .

Thus the product  $(Ac)_i = p(x_i)$  where  $p(x)$  is the polynomial defined by the coefficients in  $c$ .

## 2 Orthogonal Vectors and Matrices

**Definition 2.** A *hermitian conjugate* or *adjoint* of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  is the  $n \times m$  matrix  $A^*$  obtained by taking the complex conjugate of each entry and then taking the transpose.

$$A^* = \overline{A}^T$$

Where

$$A^* = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{a_{11}} & \overline{a_{21}} & \cdots & \overline{a_{m1}} \\ \overline{a_{12}} & \overline{a_{22}} & \cdots & \overline{a_{m2}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \overline{a_{1n}} & \overline{a_{2n}} & \cdots & \overline{a_{mn}} \end{bmatrix}$$

If  $A = A^*$ , then  $A$  is said to be hermitian.

**Definition 3.** An *inner product* is bilinear, meaning

$$(x_1 + x_2)y = x_1y + x_2y$$

$$x(y_1 + y_2) = xy_1 + xy_2$$

$$(\alpha x)(\beta y) = \alpha\beta xy$$

**Theorem 2.1.** The vectors in an orthogonal set  $S$  are linearly independent.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_k v_k = 0$  for an orthogonal set  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ . By bilinearity of the inner product,

$$0 = \langle \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_k v_k, v_i \rangle = \alpha_1 \langle v_1, v_i \rangle + \dots + \alpha_k \langle v_k, v_i \rangle.$$

Since  $\langle v_j, v_i \rangle = 0$  for  $j \neq i$ , we get

$$\alpha_i \langle v_i, v_i \rangle = 0 \implies \alpha_i = 0.$$

Hence, all  $\alpha_i$  must be zero and the vectors are linearly independent.  $\square$

*Key idea:*

*Inner products and Orthogonality can decompose arbitrary vectors into orthogonal components.*

**Theorem 2.2.** *If  $q_1, \dots, q_n$  are orthogonal, then where  $v$  is an arbitrary vector, and  $q^T v$  is a scalar.*

*The vector  $r = v - (q_1 v)q_1 - \dots - (q_n v)q_n$  is orthogonal to  $q_1, \dots, q_n$ .*

*Multiplying  $q_i$  by  $r$  gives*

$$\begin{aligned} q_i r &= q_i v - (q_i q_1) v q_1 - \dots - (q_i q_n) v q_n \\ &= q_i v - q_i v q_i q_i \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

### 3 Norms

*Certain norms are more useful than other norms. These are the induced matrix norms, defined in terms of the behavior of a matrix as an operator between its normed domain and range spaces.*

*The induced norm  $\|A\|_{(\cdot)}(m, n)$  of a matrix  $A$  is defined as the smallest number  $C$  such that*

$$\|A\|_{(\cdot)}(m, n) \leq C \|x\|_n$$

*Otherwise, this is the*

$$\|A\|_{(\cdot)}(m, n) = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_m}{\|x\|_n} = \sup_{\|x\|_n=1} \|Ax\|_m$$

**Definition 4.** *Cauchy-Schwarz and Holder's Inequality*

$$\langle x, y \rangle \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

$$\|xy\|_1 \leq \|x\|_p \|y\|_q$$

*where  $p$  and  $q$  are conjugate exponents (i.e.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ ). Other than  $p = q$ , this is possible for any  $p > 1$  (e.g.  $p = 3, q = \frac{3}{2}$ ).*

## ***References***

[1] *Lloyd N. Trefethen, David Baué, Numerical Linear Algebra, Northwestern University.*