# Math 221: LINEAR ALGEBRA

Chapter 3. Determinants and Diagonalization §3-2. Determinants and Matrix Inverses

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Determinants and Matrix Inverses

Adjugates

Cramer's Rule

Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinan

# Linear Algebra with Applications Lecture Notes

#### Current Lecture Notes Revision: Version 2018 — Revision E

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#### **Determinants and Matrix Inverses**

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Theorem (Product Theorem)

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and

$$\mathrm{A} = \mathrm{E}_1 \mathrm{E}_2 \cdots \mathrm{E}_p \quad \text{and} \quad \mathrm{B} = \mathrm{F}_1 \mathrm{F}_2 \cdots \mathrm{F}_q.$$

where  $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{i}}$  and  $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{j}}$  are elementary matrices.

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where  $\rm E_i$  and  $\rm F_j$  are elementary matrices. Then by the relation of elementary row operations with determinants (Theorem 3.1.2), we see that

$$\begin{split} |AB| &= |E_1 \cdots E_p F_1 \cdots F_q| \\ &= |E_1| \cdots |E_p| |F_1| \cdots |F_q| \\ &= |E_1 \cdots E_p| |F_1 \cdots F_q| \\ &= |A| |B|. \end{split}$$

#### Theorem (Determinant of Matrix Inverse)

An  $n \times n$  matrix A is invertible if and only if  $\det A \neq 0$ . In this case,

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Proof. "⇒":

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" $\Leftarrow$ ": If  $|A| \neq 0$ , then  $\mathsf{rref}(A) = I$  because otherwise one obtains contradiction by Theorem 3.1.2. This is another way to say that A is invertible: (recall the matrix inverse algorithm)

$$[A|I] \rightarrow \left[\underbrace{\mathsf{rref}(A)}_{-I} \middle| A^{-1}\right].$$

Find all values of c for which  $A = \begin{bmatrix} c & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & c \\ -1 & c & 5 \end{bmatrix}$  is invertible.

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 is invertible. 
$$\det A = \begin{bmatrix} c & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & c \\ -1 & c & 5 \end{bmatrix} = c \begin{bmatrix} 2 & c \\ c & 5 \end{bmatrix} + (-1) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & c \end{bmatrix}$$

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 $= c(10 - c^{2}) - c = c(9 - c^{2}) = c(3 - c)(3 + c).$ 

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Therefore, A is invertible for all  $c \neq 0, 3, -3$ .

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- 2. If A is not invertible, then neither is  $A^{T}$ . Hence,  $\det A = 0 = \det A^{T}$ .
- 3. If A is invertible, then  $A = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_2 E_1$ . Hence, by Case 1,

$$\begin{split} \left| \boldsymbol{A}^T \right| &= \left| (\boldsymbol{E}_k \boldsymbol{E}_{k-1} \cdots \boldsymbol{E}_2 \boldsymbol{E}_1)^T \right| \\ &= \left| \boldsymbol{E}_1^T \boldsymbol{E}_2^T \cdots \boldsymbol{E}_{k-1}^T \boldsymbol{E}_k^T \right| \\ &= \left| \boldsymbol{E}_1^T \right| \left| \boldsymbol{E}_2^T \right| \cdots \left| \boldsymbol{E}_{k-1}^T \right| \left| \boldsymbol{E}_k^T \right| \\ &= \left| \boldsymbol{E}_1 \right| \left| \boldsymbol{E}_2 \right| \cdots \left| \boldsymbol{E}_{k-1} \right| \left| \boldsymbol{E}_k \right| \\ &= \left| \boldsymbol{E}_1 \right| \left| \boldsymbol{E}_{k-1} \right| \cdots \left| \boldsymbol{E}_2 \right| \left| \boldsymbol{E}_1 \right| \\ &= \left| \boldsymbol{E}_k \right| \left| \boldsymbol{E}_{k-1} \right| \cdots \left| \boldsymbol{E}_2 \boldsymbol{E}_1 \right| \\ &= \left| \boldsymbol{E}_k \boldsymbol{E}_{k-1} \cdots \boldsymbol{E}_2 \boldsymbol{E}_1 \right| \\ &= \left| \boldsymbol{A} \right|. \end{split}$$

Suppose A is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix. Find det A and det B if

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 2^3 \det(A^{-1}) = -4 
 \frac{1}{\det A} = \frac{-4}{8} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

Suppose A is a  $3\times 3$  matrix. Find det A and det B if

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# Solution

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 2^3 \det(A^{-1}) = -4 
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Therefore,  $\det A = -2$ .

# Solution (continued)

Now,

$$\det(A^{3}(B^{-1})^{T}) = -4$$

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$$\frac{1}{1} = \frac{-4}{1} = \frac{1}{1}$$

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Therefore,  $\det B = 2$ .

Suppose A, B and C are  $4 \times 4$  matrices with

$$\det A = -1, \det B = 2,$$
 and  $\det C = 1.$ 

Find  $\det(2A^2(B^{-1})(C^T)^3B(A^{-1}))$ .

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Find  $\det(2A^2(B^{-1})(C^T)^3B(A^{-1}))$ .

#### Solution

$$\det(2A^{2}(B^{-1})(C^{T})^{3}B(A^{-1})) = 2^{4}(\det A)^{2}\frac{1}{\det B}(\det C)^{3}(\det B)\frac{1}{\det A}$$

$$= 16(\det A)(\det C)^{3}$$

$$= 16 \times (-1) \times 1^{3}$$

$$= -16.$$

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## Solution

Since  $A^T = A^{-1}$ ,

$$det A^{T} = det(A^{-1})$$

$$det A = \frac{1}{det A}$$

$$(det A)^{2} = 1$$

A square matrix A is orthogonal if and only if  $A^T = A^{-1}$ . What are the possible values of det A if A is orthogonal?

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Assuming A is a real matrix, this implies that  $\det A = \pm 1$ , i.e.,  $\det A = 1$  or  $\det A = -1$ .

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Determinants and Matrix Inverses

# Adjugates

Cramer's Rule

Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinant



# Adjugates

For a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ , we have already seen the adjugate of A defined as

$$adj(A) = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{array} \right],$$

and observed that

$$\begin{array}{lll} A \ adj(A) & = & \left[ \begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{cc} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{array} \right] \\ \\ & = & \left[ \begin{array}{cc} ad - bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad - bc \end{array} \right] \\ \\ & = & (\det A)I_2 \end{array}$$

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and observed that

$$A \operatorname{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{ad} - \operatorname{bc} & 0 \\ 0 & \operatorname{ad} - \operatorname{bc} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= (\operatorname{det} A)I_2$$

Furthermore, if det  $A \neq 0$ , then A is invertible and

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \operatorname{adj}(A).$$

## Definition (Adjugate Matrix)

If A is an  $n\times n$  matrix, then the adjugate matrix of A is defined to be

adj
$$(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left[ \begin{array}{c} c_{ij}(A) \end{array} \right]^T = \left[ \begin{array}{c} (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij}) \end{array} \right]^T,$$

where  $c_{ij}(A)$  is the (i, j)-cofactor of A, i.e., adj(A) is the transpose of the cofactor matrix (matrix of cofactors).

Find adj(A) when  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 5 & -7 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$  and compute A adj(A).

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 $adj(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 42 & 6 & 22\\ 33 & -21 & 13\\ 21 & 3 & -19 \end{bmatrix}.$ 

Solution

Find adj(A) when  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 5 & -7 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$  and compute A adj(A).

Solution

$$adj(A) = \begin{vmatrix} 42 & 6 & 22 \\ 33 & -21 & 13 \\ 21 & 3 & -19 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Notice that

$$A \operatorname{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 5 & -7 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 42 & 6 & 22 \\ 33 & -21 & 13 \\ 21 & 3 & -19 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 180 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 180 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 180 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Therefore,

$$A \operatorname{adj}(A) = (\det A)I.$$

# Theorem (The Adjugate Formula)

If A is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then

$$A \operatorname{adj}(A) = (\det A)I = \operatorname{adj}(A)A.$$

Furthermore, if  $\det A \neq 0$ , then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \operatorname{adj}(A).$$

#### Proof.

We only prove the case when n=3.

$$A \text{ adj}(A) = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} c_{11} & c_{21} & c_{31} \\ c_{12} & c_{22} & c_{32} \\ c_{13} & c_{23} & c_{33} \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} |A| & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & |A| & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & |A| \end{array} \right]$$

where, for example,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(3,2)-th entry} &= a_{31}c_{21} + a_{32}c_{22} + a_{33}c_{23} \\ &= \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

# Example

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Using the adjugate formula,

$$\begin{array}{rcl} A \operatorname{adj}(A) & = & (\det A)I \\ \det(A \operatorname{adj}(A)) & = & \det((\det A)I) \\ (\det A) \times \det \operatorname{adj}(A) & = & (\det A)^{n}(\det I) \end{array}$$

 $(\det A) \times \det \operatorname{adj}(A) = (\det A)^n$ 

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$$\det(A) \times \det \operatorname{adj}(A) = (\det A)^{n} (\det A)$$

 $(\det A) \times \det \operatorname{adj}(A) = (\det A)^{n}(\det I)$  $(\det A) \times \det \operatorname{adj}(A) = (\det A)^{n}$ 

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 $(\star)$ 

which implies that

$$\det \, adj(A) = 0 = 0^{n-1} = (\det A)^{n-1}.$$

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Proof. (of  $(\star)$ )

We will prove  $(\star)$  by contradiction.

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We will prove  $(\star)$  by contradiction. Indeed, if det A=0, then

$$A \operatorname{adj}(A) = (\det A)I = (0)I = O,$$

i.e., A adj(A) is the zero matrix.

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which implies that

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i.e., A adj(A) is the zero matrix. If  $\det \operatorname{adj}(A) \neq 0$ , then adj(A) would be invertible, and A adj(A) = O would imply A = O. However, if A = O, then adj(A) = O and is not invertible, and thus has determinant equal to zero, i.e.,  $\det \operatorname{adj}(A) = 0$ , (a contradiction!) Therefore,  $\det \operatorname{adj}(A) = 0$ , i.e., (\*) is true.

Let A and B be  $n \times n$  matrices. Show that  $\det(A + B^T) = \det(A^T + B)$ .

Let A and B be  $n \times n$  matrices. Show that  $det(A + B^T) = det(A^T + B)$ .

# Solution

Notice that

$$(A + B^{T})^{T} = A^{T} + (B^{T})^{T} = A^{T} + B.$$

Since a matrix and it's transpose have the same determinant

$$\det(A + B^{T}) = \det((A + B^{T})^{T}) = \det(A^{T} + B).$$

For each of the following statements, determine if it is true or false, and supply a proof or a counterexample.

- 1. If adj(A) exists, then A is invertible.
- 2. If A and B are  $n \times n$  matrices, then  $det(AB) = det(B^TA)$ .

For each of the following statements, determine if it is true or false, and supply a proof or a counterexample.

- 1. If adj(A) exists, then A is invertible.
- 2. If A and B are  $n \times n$  matrices, then  $det(AB) = det(B^{T}A)$ .

#### Problem

Prove or give a counterexample to the following statement:

If  $\det A = 1$ , then  $\operatorname{adj}(A) = A$ .

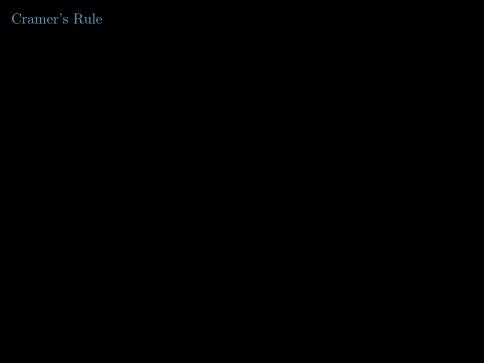
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Determinants and Matrix Inverses

Adjugates

## Cramer's Rule

Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinant



# Cramer's Rule

If A is an  $n \times n$  invertible matrix, then the solution to  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  can be given in terms of determinants of matrices.

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# Theorem (Cramer's Rule)

Let A be an  $n \times n$  invertible matrix, the solution to the system  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  of n equations in teh variables  $x_1, x_2 \cdots x_n$  is given by

$$x_1 = \frac{\det\left(A_1(\vec{b})\right)}{\det A}, \quad x_2 = \frac{\det\left(A_2(\vec{b})\right)}{\det A}, \quad \cdots, \quad x_n = \frac{\det\left(A_n(\vec{b})\right)}{\det A}$$

where, for each j, the matrix  $A_j(\vec{b})$  is obtained from A by replacing column j with  $\vec{b}$ :

$$A_j(\vec{b}) = \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} \vec{a}_1 & \cdots & \vec{a}_{j-1} & \vec{b} & \vec{a}_{j+1} & \cdots & \vec{a}_n \end{array} \right]$$

# Proof.

► Notice that

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where

$$\begin{split} I_{j}(\vec{x}) &= \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} \vec{e}_{1} & \cdots & \vec{e}_{j-1} & \vec{x} & \vec{e}_{j+1} & \cdots & \vec{e}_{n} \end{array} \right] \\ &= \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & & x_{1} & & \\ & \ddots & & \vdots & & \\ & & 1 & x_{j-1} & & \\ & & & x_{j} & & \\ & & & x_{j+1} & 1 & \\ & & & \vdots & \ddots & \\ & & & x_{n} & & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{split}$$

#### Proof. (continued)

▶ Hence, by taking the determinants on both sides, we have

Hence, by taking the determinants on both sides, we have 
$$\det(A \cdot (\vec{b})) = \det(A \cdot (\vec{z}))$$

 $\det(A_j(\vec{b})) = \det(A I_j(\vec{x}))$ 

$$= \ \det(A) \det(I_j(\vec{x}))$$
  $\blacktriangleright$  And because  $\det(A) \neq 0,$  we can then write:

$$\det(I_j(\vec{x})) = \frac{\det(A_j(\vec{b}))}{\det(A)}$$

Finally, notice that  $det(I_i(\vec{x})) = \cdots$ 

The because 
$$\det(\Pi) \neq 0$$
; we can then write: 
$$\det(A_i(\vec{b}))$$

#### Proof. (continued)

► Hence, by taking the determinants on both sides, we have

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \det(A_j(\vec{b})) & = & \det(A \ I_j(\vec{x})) \\ & = & \det(A) \det(I_i(\vec{x})) \end{array}$$

▶ And because  $det(A) \neq 0$ , we can then write:

$$\det(I_j(\vec{x})) = \frac{\det(A_j(\vec{b}))}{\det(A)}$$

Finally, notice that  $\det(I_j(\vec{x})) = \cdots = x_j$ .

# $\operatorname{Problem}$

Find  $x_3$  such that

$$3x_1 + x_2 - x_3 = 5x_1 + 2x_2 =$$

Find x<sub>3</sub> such that

# Solution

By Cramer's rule,  $x_3 = \frac{\det A_3}{\det A}$ , where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Computing the determinants of these two matrices,

$$\det A = -4 \quad \text{and} \quad \det A_3 = -6.$$

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Therefore, 
$$x_3 = \frac{-6}{-4} = \frac{3}{2}$$
.

#### Romarl

For practice, you should compute  $\det A_1$  and  $\det A_2$ , where

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and then solve for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

#### Remark

For practice, you should compute  $\det A_1$  and  $\det A_2$ , where

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and then solve for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

Solution. 
$$x_1 = -1, x_2 = 7/2.$$

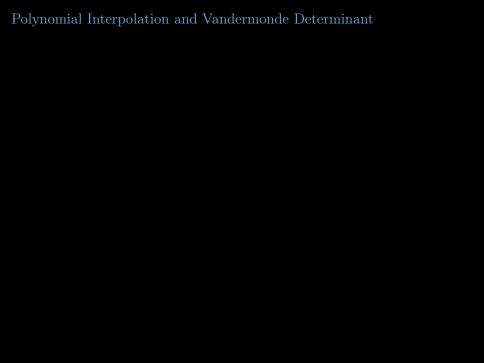
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**Determinants and Matrix Inverses** 

Adjugates

Cramer's Rule

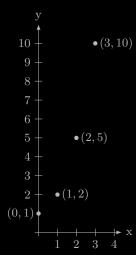
Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinant



# Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinant

#### Problem

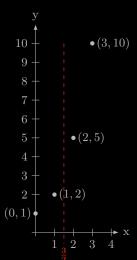
Given data points (0,1), (1,2), (2,5) and (3,10), find an interpolating polynomial p(x) of degree at most three, and then estimate the value of y corresponding to x=3/2.



# Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinant

#### Problem

Given data points (0,1), (1,2), (2,5) and (3,10), find an interpolating polynomial p(x) of degree at most three, and then estimate the value of y corresponding to x=3/2.



#### Solution

We want to find the coefficients  $r_0$ ,  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$  and  $r_3$  of

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$$r_0$$
,  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$  and  $r_3$  of 
$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + r_3 x^3$$
 to that  $p(0) = 1$ ,  $p(1) = 2$ ,  $p(2) = 5$ , and  $p(3) = 10$ .

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$$\mathbf{p}(0) \quad = \quad \mathbf{r}_0 = 1$$

$$p(0) = r_0 = 1$$
  
 $p(1) = r_0 + r_1 + r_2 + r_3 = 2$ 

$$p(1) = r_0 + r_1 + r_2 + r_3 = 2$$

$$p(2) = r_0 + 2r_1 + 4r_2 + 8r_3 = 5$$

$$p(3) = r_0 + 3r_1 + 9r_2 + 27r_3 = 10$$

Solve this system of four equations in the four variables r<sub>0</sub>, r<sub>1</sub>, r<sub>2</sub> and r<sub>3</sub>.

Solve this system of four equations in the four variables  $r_0$ ,  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$  and  $r_3$ .

	1	0	0	0	1 -		1	0	0	0	1
	1	1	1	1	2		0	1	0	0	0
l	1	2	4	8	5		0	0	1	0	1
П	1	9	0	27	10		lο				

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & | & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 & | & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 & | & 10 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore,  $r_0 = 1$ ,  $r_1 = 0$ ,  $r_2 = 1$ ,  $r_3 = 0$ , and so

$$p(x) = 1 + x^2.$$

Solve this system of four equations in the four variables  $r_0,\,r_1,\,r_2$  and  $r_3.$ 

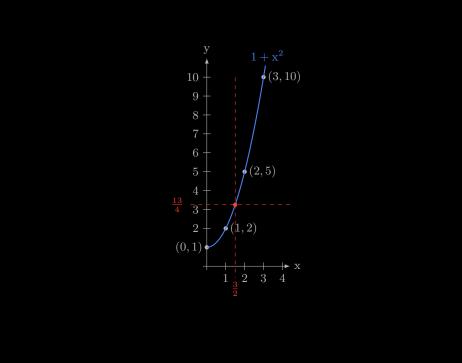
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & | & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 & | & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 & | & 10 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore,  $r_0 = 1$ ,  $r_1 = 0$ ,  $r_2 = 1$ ,  $r_3 = 0$ , and so

$$p(x) = 1 + x^2.$$

Finally, the estimate is

$$y = p\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 1 + \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{13}{4}.$$



## Theorem (Polynomial Interpolation)

Given n data points  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  with the  $x_i$  distinct, there is a unique polynomial

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

such that  $p(x_i) = y_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$ 

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The polynomial p(x) is called the interpolating polynomial for the data.

To find  $p(x) = r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \cdots + r_{n-1}x^{n-1}$ , set up a system of n linear equations in the n variables  $r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}$ .

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$$r_0, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{n-1}$$
. 
$$r_0 + r_1 x_1 + r_2 x_1^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_1^{n-1} = y_1$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} r_0 + r_1 x_2 + r_2 x_2^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_2^{n-1} & = & y_2 \\ \\ r_0 + r_1 x_3 + r_2 x_3^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_3^{n-1} & = & y_3 \end{array}$$

$$\vdots$$
  $\vdots$   $\vdots$   $x_n + r_2 x_n^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_n^{n-1} = y_n$ 

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$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

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$$\begin{array}{rcl} r_0 + r_1 x_1 + r_2 x_1^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_1^{n-1} & = & y_1 \\ r_0 + r_1 x_2 + r_2 x_2^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_2^{n-1} & = & y_2 \\ r_0 + r_1 x_3 + r_2 x_3^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_3^{n-1} & = & y_3 \\ & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ r_0 + r_1 x_n + r_2 x_n^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_n^{n-1} & = & y_n \end{array}$$

The coefficient matrix for this system is

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

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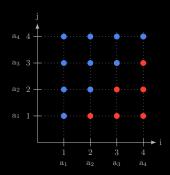
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ► Such matrix is called Vandermonde matrix.
- ► Its determinant is called Vandermonde determinant.

## Theorem (Vandermonde Determinant )

Let  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  be real numbers,  $n \geq 2$ . The corresponding Vandermonde determinant is

$$\det \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \cdots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_n & a_n^2 & \cdots & a_n^{n-1} \end{array} \right] = \prod_{1 \leq j < i \leq n} (a_i - a_j).$$



## Proof.

We will prove this by induction. It is clear that when n=2,

$$\det\begin{pmatrix}1&a_1\\1&a_2\end{pmatrix}=a_2-a_1=\prod_{1\leq j< i\leq 2}(a_i-a_j).$$

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Assume that it is true for n-1. Now let's consider the case n. Denote

$$p(x) := \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \cdots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_{n-1} & a_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & a_{n-1}^{n-1} \\ 1 & x & x^2 & \cdots & x^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

#### Proof. (continued)

Because  $p(a_1) = \cdots = p(a_{n-1}) = 0$  (why?), p(x) has to take the following form:

$$p(x)=c(x-a_1)(x-a_2)\cdots(x-a_{n-1}).$$

To identify the constant c, notice that c is the coefficient for  $x^{n-1}$ . By cofactor expansion of the determinant along the last row,

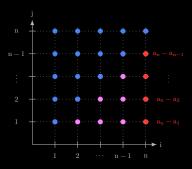
$$c = (-1)^{n+n} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \cdots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_{n-1} & a_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & a_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \prod_{1 \le i \le i \le n-1} (a_i - a_j).$$

## Proof. (continued)

Hence,

$$p(a_n) = \left(\prod_{1 \leq j < i \leq n-1} (a_i - a_j)\right) \times (a_n - a_1)(a_n - a_2) \cdots (a_n - a_{n-1})$$



$$p(a_n) = \prod_{1 \le j < i \le n} (a_i - a_j).$$

#### Example

In our earlier example with the data points (0,1), (1,2), (2,5) and (3,10), we have

$$a_1 = 0$$
,  $a_2 = 1$ ,  $a_3 = 2$ ,  $a_4 = 3$ 

giving us the Vandermonde determinant

$$\left|\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 \end{array}\right|$$

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According to the previous theorem, this determinant is equal to

$$\begin{split} &(a_2-a_1)(a_3-a_1)(a_3-a_2)(a_4-a_1)(a_4-a_2)(a_4-a_3)\\ =&(1-0)(2-0)(2-1)(3-0)(3-1)(3-2)\\ =&2\times3\times2\\ =&12. \end{split}$$

## Corollary

The Vandermonde determinant is nonzero if  $a_1,a_2,\dots,a_n$  are distinct.

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The Vandermonde determinant is nonzero if  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  are distinct.

This means that given n data points  $(x_1,y_1),(x_2,y_2),\ldots,(x_n,y_n)$  with distinct  $x_i$ , then there is a unique interpolating polynomial

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}.$$