# Linear Methods (Math 211) Lecture 24 - §3.2 & 3.3

(with slides adapted from K. Seyffarth)

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# Recall

- Determinants and Transpose
- Cramer's Rule
- Polynomial Interpolation

- Polynomial Interpolation
- Vandermonde Determinants
- Oiagonalization
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

# Theorem (§3.2 Theorem 6)

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  $p(x_i) = y_i$  for i = 1, 2, ..., n.

The polynomial p(x) is called the interpolating polynomial for the data. We will prove that interpolating polynomials exist and are unique in the next few slides.

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

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

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

$$r_0 + r_1 x_2 + r_2 x_2^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_2^{n-1} = y_2$$

$$r_0 + r_1 x_3 + r_2 x_3^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_3^{n-1} = y_3$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$r_0 + r_1 x_n + r_2 x_n^2 + \dots + r_{n-1} x_n^{n-1} = y_n$$

The coefficient matrix for this system is

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

The determinant of a matrix of this form is called a Vandermonde determinant.

# The Vandermonde Determinant

# Theorem (§3.2 Theorem 7)

Let  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  be real numbers,  $n \ge 2$ . The the corresponding Vandermonde determinant is

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \Pi_{1 \le j < i \le n} (x_i - x_j).$$

### Example

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

Diagonalization

$$x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1, x_3 = 2, x_4 = 3$$

giving us the Vandermonde determinant

#### Example

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

$$x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1, x_3 = 2, x_4 = 3$$

giving us the Vandermonde determinant

According to Theorem 7, this determinant is equal to

$$(a_2 - a_1)(a_3 - a_1)(a_3 - a_2)(a_4 - a_1)(a_4 - a_2)(a_4 - a_3)$$
  
=  $(1 - 0)(2 - 0)(2 - 1)(3 - 0)(3 - 1)(3 - 2) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 = 12$ .

As a consequence of Theorem 7, the Vandermonde determinant is nonzero if  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  are distinct.

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

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

Diagonalization

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Polynomial Interpolation

Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Find  $A^{100}$  efficiently.

# Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ . Find $A^{100}$ efficiently.

Consider the matrix  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Observe that P is invertible and that

$$P^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Diagonalization

Furthermore,

$$P^{-1}AP = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = D,$$

where D is a diagonal matrix.

### Example (continued)

This is significant, because

$$P^{-1}AP = D$$

$$P(P^{-1}AP)P^{-1} = PDP^{-1}$$

$$(PP^{-1})A(PP^{-1}) = PDP^{-1}$$

$$IAI = PDP^{-1}$$

$$A = PDP^{-1},$$

Diagonalization

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and

$$A^{100} = (PDP^{-1})^{100}$$

$$= (PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) \cdots (PDP^{-1})$$

$$= PD(P^{-1}P)D(P^{-1}P)D(P^{-1}\cdots P)DP^{-1}$$

$$= PDIDIDI \cdots IDP^{-1}$$

$$= PD^{100}P^{-1}.$$

Now,

Polynomial Interpolation

$$D^{100} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^{100} = \begin{bmatrix} 2^{100} & 0 \\ 0 & 5^{100} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Diagonalization

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Therefore,

$$A^{100} = PD^{100}P^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2^{100} & 0 \\ 0 & 5^{100} \end{bmatrix} \left( \frac{1}{3} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2^{100} + 2 \cdot 5^{100} & 2^{100} - 2 \cdot 5^{100} \\ 2^{100} - 5^{100} & 2 \cdot 2^{100} + 5^{100} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2^{100} + 2 \cdot 5^{100} & 2^{100} - 2 \cdot 5^{100} \\ 2^{100} - 5^{100} & 2^{101} + 5^{100} \end{bmatrix}$$

If 
$$A = PDP^{-1}$$
, then  $A^k = PD^kP^{-1}$  for each  $k = 1, 2, 3, ...$ 

The process of finding an invertible matrix P and a diagonal matrix D so that  $A = PDP^{-1}$  is referred to as diagonalizing the matrix A, and P is called the diagonalizing matrix for A.

Diagonalization

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#### Problem

Polynomial Interpolation

- When is it possible to diagonalize a matrix?
- How do we find a diagonalizing matrix?

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

#### Definition

Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix,  $\lambda$  a real number, and  $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$  an n-vector. If  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$ , then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A, and  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of A corresponding to  $\lambda$ , or a  $\lambda$ -eigenvector.

### Example

Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Then

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 3\mathbf{x}.$$

This means that 3 is an eigenvalue of A, and  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is an eigenvector of A corresponding to 3 (or a 3-eigenvector of A).

# Finding all Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors of a Matrix

Suppose that A is an  $n \times n$  matrix,  $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$  an n-vector,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , and that  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$ . Then

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{x} = 0$$
$$\lambda I\mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{x} = 0$$
$$(\lambda I - A)\mathbf{x} = 0$$

Since  $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$ , the matrix  $\lambda I - A$  has no inverse, and thus

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0.$$

The characteristic polynomial of an  $n \times n$  matrix A is

$$c_A(x) = \det(xI - A).$$

Diagonalization

# Example

Find the characteristic polynomial of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

The characteristic polynomial of an  $n \times n$  matrix A is

$$c_A(x) = \det(xI - A).$$

#### Example

Find the characteristic polynomial of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

$$c_A(x) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \det \begin{bmatrix} x - 4 & 2 \\ 1 & x - 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= (x - 4)(x - 3) - 2$$
$$= x^2 - 7x + 10$$

Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix.

- **1** The eigenvalues of A are the roots of  $c_A(x)$ .
- ② The  $\lambda$ -eigenvectors X are the nontrivial solutions to  $(\lambda I A)X = 0$ .

# Example (continued)

Find the eigenvalues of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

# Theorem (§3.3 Theorem 2)

Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix.

- The eigenvalues of A are the roots of  $c_A(x)$ .
- 2 The  $\lambda$ -eigenvectors X are the nontrivial solutions to  $(\lambda I - A)X = 0.$

# Example (continued)

Find the eigenvalues of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

We have

$$c_A(x) = x^2 - 7x + 10 = (x - 2)(x - 5),$$

so A has eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = 2$  and  $\lambda_2 = 5$ .

Diagonalization

Polynomial Interpolation

# Example (continued)

Find the eigenvectors of 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

# Example (continued)

Find the eigenvectors of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

To find the 2-eigenvectors of A, solve (2I - A)X = 0:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The general solution, in parametric form, is

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ t \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 where  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Recall that 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

To find the 5-eigenvectors of A, solve (5I - A)X = 0:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The general solution, in parametric form, is

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -2s \\ s \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 where  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Summary

- Polynomial Interpolation
- Vandermonde Determinants
- Oiagonalization
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors