

GENERALIZED VANDERMONDE DETERMINANTS AND APPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT. Vandermonde determinants are well known and have many applications. Less well known are the *generalized Vandermonde determinants* and their relationship to Hermite interpolation polynomials, factor rings of polynomials, and the spectral decomposition of a linear operator.

1. GENERALIZED VANDERMONDE DETERMINANTS

Vandermonde determinants arise in diverse areas of mathematics. But the familiar Vandermonde determinant is too restrictive. We give formulas for evaluating a more general class of related determinants. Let \mathbb{K} be an arbitrary field. An $m \times m$ *Vandermonde matrix* over \mathbb{K} has the form

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \dots & x_m \\ x_1^2 & x_2^2 & x_3^2 & \dots & x_m^2 \\ x_1^3 & x_2^3 & x_3^3 & \dots & x_m^3 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_1^{m-1} & x_2^{m-1} & x_3^{m-1} & \dots & x_m^{m-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

The Vandermonde matrix V can be efficiently defined in terms of the column vector function $X(x) = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{m-1}\}^T$ evaluated at the points $x = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m \in \mathbb{K}$; we write $V = \{X(x_1), X(x_2), \dots, X(x_m)\}$. The *determinant* of V is given by the formula

$$(1) \quad \det V = \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} (x_j - x_i)$$

whose proof is usually left as an exercise in using elementary row operations.

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We now focus attention upon other Vandermonde determinants that are only infrequently mentioned but which give insight into the relationship between a polynomial and its roots. These determinants are best defined in terms of the *normalized derivatives* $X^{[k]}(x)$ of the column vector function $X(x)$,

$$X^{[k]}(x) := \frac{1}{k!} \partial_x^k X(x),$$

[6, p.60]. For example,

$$X^{[1]}(x) = \{0, 1, \binom{2}{1} x, \binom{3}{1} x^2, \dots, \binom{m-1}{1} x^{m-2}\}^T,$$

and

$$X^{[2]}(x) = \{0, 0, 1, \binom{3}{2} x, \dots, \binom{m-1}{2} x^{m-3}\}^T,$$

so that $\{X, X^{[1]}, \dots, X^{[k]}, \dots, X^{[m-1]}\} =$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ x & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ x^{m-1} & \binom{m-1}{1} x^{m-2} & \dots & \binom{m-1}{k} x^{m-k-1} & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It follows that

$$(2) \quad \{X(0), X^{[1]}(0), \dots, X^{[k]}(0), \dots, X^{[m-1]}(0)\} = I$$

where I is the identity $(m \times m)$ -matrix; an important property which will be used later. Note that this definition remains valid even in the case of the finite fields \mathbb{F}_p , if we merely replace the coefficient by 0 whenever a factor of p appears. We use the shortened notation $X_j^{[k]} := X^{[k]}(x_j)$, and $X_y^{[k]} := X^{[k]}(y)$ for the column vector function $X^{[k]}(x)$ evaluated at the points $x = x_j$ and at the indeterminate $x = y$, respectively.

With the above notation in hand, we are able to prove simple formulas for evaluating the determinant of the *generalized Vandermonde matrix*

$$(3) \quad W := \underbrace{\{X_1 X_1^{[1]} \dots X_1^{[m_1-1]}\}}_{m_1 \text{ columns}} \underbrace{\{X_2 X_2^{[1]} \dots X_2^{[m_2-1]}\}}_{m_2 \text{ columns}} \dots \underbrace{\{X_r X_r^{[1]} \dots X_r^{[m_r-1]}\}}_{m_r \text{ columns}},$$

where $m = m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_r$. Later, we give a formula for evaluating the determinant of the closely related matrix obtained by replacing any single column of the above matrix by the column $X_x := X(x)$.

The proof of the following theorem utilizes the concept of the derivative of a determinant. For example, if we partial differentiate with respect to x_3 the left and right

sides of the formula

$$\det\{X_1, X_2, X_3\} = (x_2 - x_1)(x_3 - x_1)(x_3 - x_2),$$

which is the Vandermonde determinant (1) with $m = 3$, and evaluate it at $x_3 = x_2$, we get

$$\partial_3 \det\{X_1, X_2, X_3\}|_{x_3=x_2} = \partial_3(x_2 - x_1)(x_3 - x_1)(x_3 - x_2)|_{x_3=x_2}$$

or

$$\det\{X_1, X_2, X_2^{[1]}\} = (x_2 - x_1)^2.$$

Explicitly, we have shown that

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ x_1 & x_2 & 1 \\ x_1^2 & x_2^2 & 2x_2 \end{pmatrix} = (x_2 - x_1)^2.$$

More generally, we have the result

Theorem 1. *If $m = m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_r$ and*

$$W = \left\{ \underbrace{X_1 X_1^{[1]} \dots X_1^{[m_1-1]}}_{m_1 \text{ columns}} \underbrace{X_2 X_2^{[1]} \dots X_2^{[m_2-1]}}_{m_2 \text{ columns}} \dots \underbrace{X_r X_r^{[1]} \dots X_r^{[m_r-1]}}_{m_r \text{ columns}} \right\},$$

then $\det W = \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} (x_j - x_i)^{m_i m_j}$.

Proof. We can assume without loss of generality that $1 \leq m_1 \leq \dots \leq m_r$. We argue by reverse induction on the number of blocks $r \leq m$ for each fixed $m > 0$. For $r = m$, we have $m_1 = m_2 = \dots = m_r = 1$, and W is just the classical Vandermonde matrix with determinant as in (1). We now assume true for r blocks where $0 \leq m - r \leq k$, and prove true for any matrix W which has r blocks which satisfy $0 \leq m - r = k + 1$. Thus, we must evaluate

$$W = \left\{ \underbrace{X_1 X_1^{[1]} \dots X_1^{[m_1-1]}}_{m_1 \text{ columns}} \underbrace{X_2 X_2^{[1]} \dots X_2^{[m_2-1]}}_{m_2 \text{ columns}} \dots \underbrace{X_r X_r^{[1]} \dots X_r^{[m_r-1]}}_{m_r \text{ columns}} \right\},$$

where $0 \leq m - r = k + 1$ by assuming true for any number of blocks s such that $0 \leq m - s \leq k$.

Since $1 \leq m_1 \leq m_2 \leq \dots \leq m_r$, it follows that $m_r \geq 2$. Let

$$W_x := \left\{ \underbrace{X_1 X_1^{[1]} \dots X_1^{[m_1-1]}}_{m_1 \text{ columns}} \underbrace{X_2 X_2^{[1]} \dots X_2^{[m_2-1]}}_{m_2 \text{ columns}} \dots \underbrace{X_r X_r^{[1]} \dots X_r^{[m_r-2]} X_x}_{m_r \text{ columns}} \right\},$$

for the indeterminate x . Then W_x contains $s = r + 1$ blocks, so by the induction hypothesis, $\det W_x =$

$$\prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq r-1} (x_j - x_i)^{m_i m_j} \prod_{1 \leq i < r} (x_r - x_i)^{(m_r-1)m_i} \prod_{1 \leq i < r} (x - x_i)^{m_i} (x - x_r)^{m_r-1}.$$

Applying the operator $\frac{1}{(m_r-1)!}\partial_x^{m_r-1}$ to both sides of this equation, and evaluating at $x = x_r$ gives the desired result

$$\begin{aligned} \det W &= \frac{1}{(m_r-1)!}[\partial_x^{m_r-1} \det W_x]_{x=x_r} \\ &= \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq r-1} (x_j - x_i)^{m_i m_j} \prod_{1 \leq i < r} (x_r - x_i)^{(m_r-1)m_i} \prod_{1 \leq i < r} (x_r - x_i)^{m_i} \\ &= \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} (x_j - x_i)^{m_i m_j}. \end{aligned}$$

□

In the proof of the above theorem, we have not been careful about the case when the field \mathbb{K} is a finite field. Nevertheless, the theorem remains valid even in this case.

There is another class of determinants that can be efficiently evaluated by algebraic formulas. Replacing the k^{th} column in the i^{th} block of W with the column vector $X_x = X(x)$ we get the matrix $W_{ik} :=$

$$\left\{ \underbrace{X_1 X_1^{[1]} \dots X_1^{[m_1-1]}}_{m_1 \text{ columns}} \dots \underbrace{X_i \dots X_i^{[k-2]} X_x X_i^{[k]} \dots X_i^{[m_i-1]}}_{m_i \text{ columns}} \dots \underbrace{X_r X_r^{[1]} \dots X_r^{[m_r-1]}}_{m_r \text{ columns}} \right\}.$$

The determinant of W_{ik} is given by the formula

$$(4) \quad \det W_{ik} = q_i^{k-1}(x) \det W$$

where $q_i^k(x)$ is defined for $k \geq 0$ by

$$\begin{aligned} q_i^k(x) &:= \left[\frac{1}{\psi_i(x_i)} + \left(\frac{1}{\psi_i(x)} \right)^{[1]} \Big|_{x=x_i} (x - x_i) + \left(\frac{1}{\psi_i(x)} \right)^{[2]} \Big|_{x=x_i} (x - x_i)^2 + \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{\psi_i(x)} \right)^{[m_i-k-1]} \Big|_{x=x_i} (x - x_i)^{m_i-k-1} \right] (x - x_i)^k \psi_i(x) \end{aligned}$$

for $\psi_i(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)^{m_j}$. Note that $q_i^k(x)$ is just the first $m_i - k$ terms of the Taylor series expansion of the rational function $1/\psi_i(x)$ around the point $x = x_i$.

For example, suppose we wish to evaluate the determinant

$$\det \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x & 0 \\ x_1^2 & x_2^2 & x^2 & 1 \\ x_1^3 & x_2^3 & x^3 & 3x_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

It follows that $r = 2$, $m_1 = 1$ and $m_2 = 3$, so that $\det W = (x_2 - x_1)^3$ and

$$q_2^1(x) = \left[\frac{1}{x_2 - x_1} - \frac{(x - x_2)}{(x_2 - x_1)^2} \right] (x - x_2)(x - x_1).$$

Thus we have

$$\det W_{22} = q_2^1(x) \det W = (x_1 - x_2)(x - x_1)(x - x_2)(x + x_1 - 2x_2).$$

The reader might like to try his hand at a proof of the general formula (4), or he might consult the reference [4, p.176].

2. SPECTRAL BASIS

Let $\mathbb{R}[x]_h := \mathbb{R}[x]/h(x)$ be the *factor ring* of polynomials in the indeterminate x generated by the principal ideal of the polynomial $h(x) = \prod_{i=1}^r (x - x_i)^{m_i}$, [2]. The factor ring $\mathbb{R}[x]_h$, as an m -dimensional vector space, is spanned by the *standard basis*

$$(5) \quad X(x) = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{m-1}\}^T,$$

which we write in column vector form. Using this notation, any polynomial $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]_h$ has the form $g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i x^i = A_X X(x)$ where A_X is the *row vector*

$$A_X := (a_0 \quad a_1 \quad a_2 \quad \cdots \quad a_{m-1})$$

of components of $g(x)$ in the standard basis X .

The *spectral basis* of the factor ring $\mathbb{R}[x]_h$ is the column vector of m polynomials

$$(6) \quad S(x) := (p_1 \quad q_1 \quad \cdots \quad q_1^{m_1-1} \quad \cdots \quad p_r \quad q_r \quad \cdots \quad q_r^{m_r-1})^T$$

in $\mathbb{R}[x]_h$ defined by the equation

$$(7) \quad S(x) := W^{-1} X(x),$$

where W is the invertible generalized Vandermonde matrix (3). The polynomials of the spectral basis are also specified directly in (4), which is a form of *Cramer's rule* for $i = 1, \dots, r$, and $k = 0, 1, \dots, m_i - 1$, where $p_i := q_i^0$. The polynomial $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]_h$, defined above, is easily expressed in the spectral basis $S(x)$,

$$g(x) = A_X X(x) = A_X W W^{-1} X(x) = A_S S(x)$$

where $A_S := A_X W$ is the row vector of components of $g(x)$ in the spectral basis. Expressing $g(x)$ in the spectral basis is equivalent to the famous *Chinese Remainder Theorem* for the modular number system Z_h modulo the composite number $h \in \mathbb{N}$, [3, p. 337].

The spectral basis of the factor ring $\mathbb{R}[x]_h$ has great utility because the polynomials of this basis enjoy the following simple *rules of multiplication*:

- $\sum_{i=1}^r p_i = 1, \quad p_i p_j = \delta_{ij} p_i, \quad p_i q_i = q_i$
- $q_i^{m_i-1} \neq 0, \quad q_i^{m_i} = 0,$

for all $i, j = 1, \dots, r$. Consequently, $p_i q_j = p_i p_j q_j = \delta_{ij} q_j$ and $q_i^a q_j^b = q_i^a p_i q_j^b = \delta_{ij} q_j^{a+b}$. Because of these properties, the p_i form a *complete system of (primitive)*

idempotents, and the *nilpotents* q_i have *index of nilpotency* m_i for $i = 1, \dots, r$, respectively. The algebraic properties of the spectral basis are most easily derived as a consequence of the *Euclidean algorithm*, [3].

For example, let $h(x) = (x - x_1)(x - x_2)^3$, and $X = \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}^T$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \begin{pmatrix} X(x_1) & X(x_2) & X^{[1]}(x_2) & X^{[2]}(x_2) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ x_1 & x_2 & 1 & 0 \\ x_1^2 & x_2^2 & 2x_2 & 1 \\ x_1^3 & x_2^3 & 3x_2^2 & 3x_2 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

The spectral basis for $\mathbb{R}[x]_h$ is given by

$$S(x) = W^{-1}X(x).$$

For $x_1 = 2$ and $x_2 = 3$, we find

$$(8) \quad S(x) = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ q_2 \\ q_2^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 27 - 27x + 9x^2 - x^3 \\ -26 + 27x - 9x^2 + x^3 \\ 24 - 26x + 9x^2 - x^3 \\ -18 + 21x - 8x^2 + x^3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We also have $X(x) = WS(x)$, or

$$(9) \quad X(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \\ x^3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 + p_2 \\ 2p_1 + 3p_2 + q_2 \\ 2^2p_1 + 3^2p_2 + 6q_2 + q_2^2 \\ 2^3p_1 + 3^3p_2 + 27q_2 + 9q_2^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The relationship

$$(10) \quad x = 2p_1 + 3p_2 + q_2$$

is called the *spectral decomposition* of x in $\mathbb{R}[x]_{(x-2)(x-3)^3}$. Note the spectral decompositions for x^2 and x^3 follow by *squaring* and *cubing* both sides of the expression (10) for the spectral decomposition of x , using the rules of multiplication given above.

3. HERMITE INTERPOLATION

An easy consequence of (2) and (7) is that

$$W^{-1} = \{S(0), S^{[1]}(0), \dots, S^{[m-1]}(0)\}$$

and, using (3) and (7),

$$I = \{S(x_1), \dots, S^{[m_1-1]}(x_1); \dots; S(x_r), \dots, S^{[m_r-1]}(x_r)\}.$$

It follows that $S(x)$ is a basis of orthogonal *Hermite Polynomials*, [1]. Just as the *truncated Taylor series* of an analytic function $f(x)$ can be obtained by taking the remainder of the result obtained by dividing the infinite series expansion of $f(x)$

by $(x - x_1)^m$, the *Hermite interpolation polynomial* of $f(x)$ is obtained by taking the remainder obtained by dividing $f(x)$ by the more general polynomial $h(x) = \prod_{i=1}^r (x - x_i)^{m_i}$.

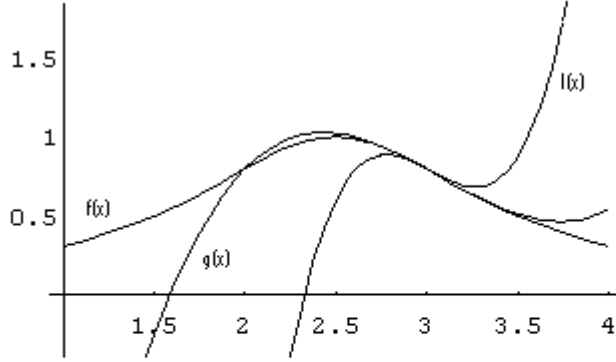


FIGURE 1. Hermite interpolation $g(x)$ and truncated Taylor series $l(x)$, for the function $f(x)$. Note that Hermite interpolation forces agreement at both the points $x = 2$ and $x = 3$.

As an example, we shall use the spectral decomposition (10) of x to find the Hermite interpolation polynomial $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]_{(x-2)(x-3)^3}$ of the rational function $f(x) = \frac{4}{4+(2x-5)^2}$. Using (10) and the rules for multiplication of the spectral basis, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &:= f(2p_1 + (3 + q_2)p_2) = f(2)p_1 + f(3 + q_2)p_2 \\ &= f(2)p_1 + [f(3) + f^{[1]}(3)q_2 + f^{[2]}(3)q_2^2]p_2, \\ &= f(2)p_1 + [f(3) + f^{[1]}(3)(x - 3) + f^{[2]}(3)(x - 3)^2]p_2 \end{aligned}$$

where $f^{[k]}(x) = \frac{1}{k!} \frac{d^k f(x)}{dx^k}$ is the normalized k^{th} derivative of $f(x)$. The last equality above shows that the Hermite interpolation polynomial $g(x)$ of $f(x)$ gives a *Taylor series*-like expansion of $f(x)$ around the points $x = 2$ and $x = 3$. The graph above shows $f(x)$, $g(x)$, and $l(x)$ where

$$l(x) = f(3) + f^{[1]}(3)(x - 3) + f^{[2]}(3)(x - 3)^2 + f^{[3]}(3)(x - 3)^3$$

is the first four terms of the Taylor series expansion of $f(x)$ around $x = 3$. The Hermite polynomial of $f(x)$ in the factor ring $\mathbb{R}[x]_h$ for $h(x) = (x - 3)^4$, gives exactly the polynomial $l(x)$.

4. LINEAR ALGEBRA

The relationship (7), $X(x) = WS(x)$, between the standard basis $X(x)$ and the spectral basis $S(x)$ of the factor ring $\mathbb{K}[x]/h(x)$ can be applied immediately to a linear operator t to obtain

$$(11) \quad X(t) = WS(t),$$

where

$$h(x) := \det\{x\mathbf{1} - t\} = \prod_{i=1}^r (x - x_i)^{n_i}$$

is the *characteristic polynomial* of t and $\mathbf{1}$ is the identity operator. We have already seen examples of this relationship in (8) and (9). If the *minimal polynomial* $\varphi(x)$ of t is known, the spectral basis can be calculated with fewer multiplications, and the algebra thereby generated by the operator t is *isomorphic* to the factor ring $\mathbb{K}[x]/\varphi(x)$, [3, p.343]. Recall that every operator satisfies its characteristic equation (Cayley-Hamilton), and that the minimal polynomial is the polynomial of least degree which has this property. The *spectral decomposition* of the operator t is just the special case of the relationship (11)

$$(12) \quad t = \sum_{i=1}^r (x_i + q_i)p_i,$$

where $p_i = p_i(t)$, and $q_i = q_i(t)$.

The spectral decomposition completely determines the *analytic structure* of t , in so far as that, using (12), any function $f(t)$ can immediately be written down:

$$(13) \quad \begin{aligned} f(t) &:= f\left(\sum_{j=1}^r (x_j + q_j)p_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^r f(x_j + q_j)p_j \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^r [f(x_j) + f^{[1]}(x_j)q_j(x) + \dots + f^{[m_j-1]}(x_j)q_j^{m_j-1}(x)]p_j(t), \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^r [f(x_j) + f^{[1]}(x_j)(t - x_j) + \dots + f^{[m_j-1]}(x_j)(t - x_j)^{m_j-1}]p_j(t) \\ &:= \sum_{j=1}^r [f^{[m_j-1]}(x_j), \dots, f^{[1]}(x_j), f(x_j)]_{t-x_j} p_j(t). \end{aligned}$$

Many structure theorems for linear operators can be easily derived from the spectral decomposition (12), [4], [5]. For example, an operator is *diagonal* iff $t = \sum x_i p_i$, and an operator has *cyclic structure* iff its minimal polynomial is identical with its characteristic polynomial. Both of these results follow by choosing vectors v_i such

that $p_i v_i = v_i$ and $q_i^{m_i-1} v_i \neq 0$, for $i = 1, \dots, r$ and then defining $v = \sum v_i$. The set of *Jordan chains* of vectors

$$\{S(t)v\}^T := \{v_1, q_1 v_1, \dots, q_1^{m_1-1} v_1, \dots, v_r, q_r v_r, \dots, q_r^{m_r-1} v_r\}$$

make up a *row* of *generalized eigenvectors* with the property that

$$(14) \quad t\{S(t)v\}^T = \{S(t)v\}^T T_J,$$

where T_J is the *Jordan canonical form* of the operator t with respect to the basis $\{S(t)v\}^T$. On the other hand, using (7),

$$\{X(t)v\}^T = \{W S(t)v\}^T$$

gives the change of basis from the spectral basis $\{S(t)v\}^T$ to the *cyclic basis* $\{X(t)v\}^T$ generated by the vector v . In the cyclic basis $\{X(t)v\}^T$,

$$(15) \quad t\{X(t)v\}^T = \{X(t)v\}^T T_X$$

where T_X is the *companion matrix* of t .

For example, both the minimal and characteristic polynomial of the matrix

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 10 & -29 & 47 \\ 0 & 4 & -3 & 5 \\ 0 & 4 & -7 & 16 \\ 0 & 2 & -5 & 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

is $h(x) = (x-2)(x-3)^3$, from which it follows that the spectral decomposition of T is given by (10),

$$(16) \quad T = 2P_1 + 3P_2 + Q_2,$$

where, using (8),

$$P_1 = 27\mathbf{1} - 27T + 9T^2 - T^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -12 & 24 & -36 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & -4 & 8 & -12 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 & -6 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$P_2 = \mathbf{1} - P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 12 & -24 & 36 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & -7 & 12 \\ 0 & 2 & -4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Q_2 = T - 2P_1 - 3P_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & -5 & 11 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$Q_2^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Choosing the *third* column vector v_1 of P_1 , and the *fourth* column vector v_2 of P_2 , and defining $v = v_1 + v_2$, gives

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 24 \\ 2 \\ 8 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 36 \\ 3 \\ 12 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v = v_1 + v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 60 \\ 5 \\ 20 \\ 11 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Checking, we find that $P_1 v = v_1$, and $P_2 v = v_2$ and $Q_2^2 v = Q_2^2 v_2 \neq 0$, as required. A set of *generalized eigenvectors* for the matrix T is given by

$$C := \{P_1 v, P_2 v, Q_2 v, Q_2^2 v\} = \begin{pmatrix} 24 & 36 & 11 & -2 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 8 & 12 & 4 & 0 \\ 4 & 7 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and the *cyclic basis* generated by the vector v is

$$V := \{v, Tv, T^2 v, T^3 v\} = \begin{pmatrix} 60 & 167 & 484 & 1443 \\ 5 & 15 & 47 & 151 \\ 20 & 56 & 164 & 496 \\ 11 & 31 & 91 & 275 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The Jordan canonical form of the operator T is then given by

$$T_J = C^{-1}TC = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$V^{-1}TV = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -54 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 81 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -45 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

gives the *companion matrix* for the operator t with respect to the cyclic basis V .

Using the spectral decomposition (16) and (13), the inverse of T is given by

$$T^{-1} = \frac{1}{2}P_1 + \frac{1}{3+Q_2}P_2 = \frac{1}{2}P_1 + \frac{1}{3}P_2 - \frac{1}{9}Q_2 + \frac{1}{27}Q_2^2 = \frac{1}{54} \begin{pmatrix} 18 & -96 & 248 & -394 \\ 0 & 9 & 24 & -39 \\ 0 & -36 & 102 & -132 \\ 0 & -18 & 42 & -48 \end{pmatrix}$$

Similarly, we can calculate

$$\sqrt{T} = \sqrt{2}P_1 + \sqrt{3}P_2 + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}Q_2 - \frac{1}{24\sqrt{3}}Q_2^2.$$

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