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# A case of mathematical eponymy: the Vandermonde determinant

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## Abstract

We study the historical process that led to the worldwide adoption, throughout mathematical research papers and textbooks, of the denomination “Vandermonde determinant”. The mathematical object can be related to two passages in Vandermonde’s writings, of which one inspired Cauchy’s definition of determinants. Influential citations of Cauchy and Jacobi may have initiated the naming process. It started during the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century as a pedagogical practice in France. The spread in textbooks and research journals began during the first half of 20<sup>th</sup> century, and only reached full acceptance after the 1960’s. The naming process is still ongoing, in the sense that the volume of publications using the denomination grows significantly faster than the overall volume of the field.

## Résumé

Nous étudions le processus historique qui a conduit à l’adoption dans le monde entier de la dénomination « déterminant de Vandermonde ». L’objet mathématique peut être relié à deux passages dans les écrits de Vandermonde, dont l’un a inspiré Cauchy pour sa définition des déterminants. Les citations de Cauchy et Jacobi ont pu déclencher le processus de dénomination. Celui-ci a démarré au cours de la seconde moitié du XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle comme une pratique pédagogique. Cette pratique a précédé, plutôt que suivi, la diffusion dans les livres et les articles de recherche, qui a commencé pendant la première moitié du XX<sup>e</sup> siècle, et n’a atteint un réel consensus qu’après les années 1960. Le processus de dénomination est encore en cours, au sens où l’usage du nom croît significativement plus vite que le volume global de publications du domaine.

**Keywords:** Eponymy, Vandermonde determinant, history of determinants

**MSC 2010:** 01A90, 97A30, 15-03

## 1 Introduction

The Vandermonde determinant has become a standard example of Stigler’s law of eponymy: “No scientific discovery is named after its original discoverer”

(see [Stigler 1999] p. 277). The source? An authority: Henri Lebesgue (1875–1941). On October 20 1937, he gave a conference at Utrecht University, entitled “L’œuvre mathématique de Vandermonde”. The text of that conference was published in 1939, reproduced in 1956, and again in a 1958 monography to which we shall refer: [Lebesgue 1937]. In order to enhance Vandermonde’s main achievement on the resolution of algebraic equations ([Vandermonde 1770]), Lebesgue downplays his three other memoirs ([Lebesgue 1937], p. 21)<sup>1</sup>:

Thus the Vandermonde determinant is not due to Vandermonde; his theory of determinants is not very original, his notation of factorials is unimportant; his study of situation geometry is somewhat childish, what is left? What is left is his first memoir, about which Cauchy said [...]

Actually, the memoir on combinatorics contains more than just a notation for factorials: the identity

$$\binom{n}{k} = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{m}{i} \binom{n-m}{k-i}$$

is still referred to as “Vandermonde’s theorem” in probability and combinatorics textbooks (e.g. p. 315 of [Santos 2011]). Though “childish”, the memoir on situation geometry made him regarded as a precursor of knot theory (see [Przytycki 1992]). On his four mathematical memoirs, Vandermonde has quite an exceptional citations-per-paper ratio!

The life of Alexandre Théophile Vandermonde (1735–1796), his engagement during the French revolution, his interests in music, mechanics, and political economy, and his short mathematical carrier, have all been amply documented: see [Lebesgue 1937], [Hecht 1971], [Gillispie 1976], [Faccarello 1993], and [Sullivan 1997]. We shall not attempt a new biography nor a mathematical assessment of Vandermonde’s contribution. Neither shall we review here the early history of determinants. T. Muir’s *Theory of determinants in their historical order of development* is the indispensable basis, and we shall often refer to the first two volumes: [Muir 1906, Muir 1911]. Muir’s monumental work has been usefully completed since with new findings on Leibniz ([Knobloch 2001]) and Seki Kōwa ([Mikami 1914]). Our focus here is exclusively on the Vandermonde determinant, and more precisely on how that particular object came to be known under that name.

Lebesgue makes the following assertion ([Lebesgue 1937], p. 21):

What could have been personal, is the Vandermonde determinant? Yet it is not there, nor anywhere else in Vandermonde’s work.

Why then was Vandermonde’s name given to that determinant? Lebesgue has a conjecture.

Vandermonde considers linear equations of which the unknowns are denoted by  $\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3, \dots$ , and the coefficient of  $\xi_i$  in the  $k^{\text{th}}$

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<sup>1</sup>all translations are B.Y.’s

equation by  $i$ . The resolution of such a system, e.g. of

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \xi_1 + \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \xi_2 + \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \xi_3 + \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{matrix} &= 0, \\ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \xi_1 + \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \xi_2 + \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \xi_3 + \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{matrix} &= 0, \\ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \xi_1 + \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \xi_2 + \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \xi_3 + \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

will give determinants such as

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{vmatrix};$$

Forgetting for a while the convention of notations that has been made, interpret the upper indices as exponents, you get a Vandermonde determinant. And perhaps, it is this mix-up that saves Vandermonde's name from a more complete oblivion.

As we shall see, no trace of such a mix-up can be found in the literature. Quite on the contrary, the mutation of exponents into indices in a Vandermonde determinant is the very foundation of Cauchy's theory of determinants ([Cauchy 1812b]). Vandermonde himself ([Vandermonde 1771]) had made the observation that changing one of the indices of a general determinant into an exponent led to an alternating function. That remark did not escape either Cauchy nor Jacobi; this may have been the most solid argument in favor of the naming. On the other hand, it does not quite make the Vandermonde determinant a counterexample to Stigler's law: linear systems with Vandermonde matrices had been written and solved long before Vandermonde, by Isaac Newton (1642–1727) and Abraham de Moivre (1667–1754).

Nevertheless, our purpose here is not to decide whether it is right or wrong to name that determinant after Vandermonde (the reader will be given enough elements to form his/her own opinion). Neither is it to enter the debate on mathematical eponymy (see [Henwood & Rival 1980, Smith 1980]). The naming of the Vandermonde determinant is taken as a fact; and the *history of that fact*, we believe, is of independent interest. The toponymy of towns, mountains, or regions has long been studied as a concentrated trace of long term history. Similarly, the names in mathematics often reflect much more than the priority of their original discoverer. Relatively few studies have been devoted to mathematical eponymy; among them Stigler's articles (see [Stigler 1999] and references therein) stand out. The naming of a mathematical notion is in most cases a long term process that extends over many generations of mathematicians, and can be traced through historical accounts, textbooks, and research publications. By *naming process* we mean the penetration of the name as a function of time, "penetration" being taken in the marketing sense: the proportion of mathematicians knowing or using the name. It can be viewed as a quantifiable abstract of what J. Dhombres calls the "construction of a posterity" ([Dhombres 1998]). The naming process must be distinguished from citations

and credits: whereas many 19<sup>th</sup> century authors have acknowledged Vandermonde's contribution, very few accepted to actually *name* the determinant. It is also different from the "universality" (in the sense of [Brechenmacher 2010]) of the mathematical object: the Vandermonde determinant was present in the theory of determinants from its very foundation, and it has been used as a classical example or exercise at all periods and everywhere. But it has not always been *named* as it is now.

Lebesgue addressed his 1937 audience as follows.

[...] the name of Vandermonde would be ignored by the vast majority of mathematicians if it had not been attributed to the determinant that you know well, and which is not his!

The sentence seems to imply that the denomination "Vandermonde determinant" was familiar to any mathematics student or professor in 1937. We believe that the naming process started as a pedagogical practise during the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century in France. Initially, it was more like a rumor than an identified decision grounded on historical facts; actually, many mathematicians clearly resisted it. It slowly gained momentum during the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup>, but the denomination became universally used by mathematicians only after the 1960's. It may be considered that the naming process is still ongoing, in the sense that its growth rate remains higher than that of the field.

To support our assertions, we have examined a selection of influential textbooks, conducted a systematic search through available databases, and statistically studied numerical output data from MathSciNet. The first pedagogical publication we could find using the denomination, appeared in 1886; the first textbook in 1897; the first research paper in 1914. We have made a systematic query for the expressions "Vandermonde determinant" and "Vandermonde matrix", on the MathSciNet database. The occurrences start in 1929 and remain quite sporadic until 1960. After 1960, the numbers of occurrences grow exponentially. We have compared the growth rate with that of the (much larger) number of occurrences of "determinant" or "matrix". A statistical test has shown that the growth rate for "Vandermonde determinant" or matrix is significantly higher than the global rate of increase for determinant or matrix. With all necessary precautions on the use of quantitative methods (see [Goldstein 1999]), our conclusion is that the naming process, far from being an immediate recognition of Vandermonde's achievements, is a rather recent, and still developing phenomenon. It appears to be posterior, and related, to the spread of matrix theory (see [Brechenmacher 2010]).

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives a historical sketch of the mathematical objects under consideration (difference-products and alternating functions). Vandermonde's notations will be briefly examined in 2.1, then Cauchy's definition of determinants, based on difference-products, will be exposed in 2.2. In 2.3, Newton's and de Moivre's anteriority on the Vandermonde matrix through the divided differences method will be reviewed. In 2.4, Vandermonde's actual contributions will be discussed. Section 3 is devoted to the naming process, that will be examined from three different points of view. Historical accounts will be described in 3.1, focusing on the credits explicitly given to Vandermonde. The appearance of the naming in textbooks is described

in 3.2. The quantification of the naming process in research papers is treated in section 3.3.

## 2 Difference-products and alternating functions

### 2.1 Vandermonde’s notation

Before describing the mathematical objects under study, we shall briefly comment on Vandermonde’s notations, of which Lebesgue thought they could have induced a mix-up between indices and exponents. Here is Vandermonde’s definition of determinants ([Vandermonde 1771] p. 517):

I suppose that one represents by  $1, 1, 1, \&c. \quad 2, 2, 2, \&c. \quad 3, 3, 3, \&c.$  as many different general quantities, of which any one be  $\overset{\alpha}{a}$ , another one be  $\overset{\beta}{b}$ , &c. & that the product of both be ordinarily denoted by  $\overset{\alpha}{a} \cdot \overset{\beta}{b}$ . Of the two ordinal numbers  $\alpha$  &  $a$ , the first one, for instance, will designate from which equation the coefficient  $\overset{\alpha}{a}$  is taken, and the second one will designate the rank that the coefficient has in the equation, as will be seen hereafter.

I suppose moreover the following system of abbreviations, and that it be set

$$\frac{\alpha}{a} \left| \frac{\beta}{b} \right. = \overset{\alpha}{a} \cdot \overset{\beta}{b} - \overset{\alpha}{b} \cdot \overset{\beta}{a}$$

$$\frac{\alpha}{a} \left| \frac{\beta}{b} \right| \frac{\gamma}{c} = \overset{\alpha}{a} \cdot \frac{\beta}{b} \left| \frac{\gamma}{c} \right. + \overset{\alpha}{b} \cdot \frac{\beta}{c} \left| \frac{\gamma}{a} \right. + \overset{\alpha}{c} \cdot \frac{\beta}{a} \left| \frac{\gamma}{b} \right.$$

[...]

Vandermonde’s notations probably looked much less strange in the 19<sup>th</sup> century than they do nowadays. Referring to them, T. Muir said ([Muir 1906] p.24):

[...] we observe first that Vandermonde proposes for coefficients a positional notation essentially the same as that of Leibnitz[sic], writing  $\overset{1}{2}$  where Leibnitz wrote 12 or 1<sub>2</sub>.

Indeed, Vandermonde’s notations were quite similar to some of the many systems tried by Leibniz (see [Knobloch 2001]). During the first half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, different ways of denoting the coefficients of an array or a linear system coexisted (see [Muir 1906]):  ${}^i j, i_j, (i, j), {}^i a_j, a_i^{(j)} \dots$ . In the first treatise ever published on determinants, W. Spottiswoode used  $(i, j)$  ([Spottiswoode 1851]). C.L. Dodgson (Lewis Carroll) was the only one who ever denoted coefficients by  $i \left| j \right.$  ([Dodgson 1867]). G. Dostor’s classical treatise [Dostor 1877] proposed two notations, “juxtaposed” and “superposed” indices. Suarez and Gascó describe and use 6 different notations ([Suarez & Gascó 1882]). The modern notation  $a_{i,j}$  was already present in Cauchy’s memoir [Cauchy 1812b], p. 113. But Cauchy himself mostly preferred multiple letter notations such as  $a_i, b_i, c_i, \dots, e_i, f_i$  (e.g. p. 121).

## 2.2 Cauchy's definition

Cauchy's two founding memoirs [Cauchy 1812a, Cauchy 1812b] were read to the Institute on November 30 1812, but were only published in 1815. After a thorough analysis of both, T. Muir concludes with a very lively description of the respective roles of Vandermonde and Cauchy ([Muir 1906] p. 131).

If one bears this in mind, and recalls the fact, temporarily set aside, that Cauchy, instead of being a compiler, presented the subject from a perfectly new point of view, added many results previously unthought of, and opened up a whole avenue of fresh investigation, one cannot but assign to him the place of honour among all the workers from 1693 to 1812. It is, no doubt, impossible to call him, as some have done, the formal founder of the theory. This honour is certainly due to Vandermonde, who, however, erected on the foundation comparatively little of a superstructure. Those who followed Vandermonde contributed, knowingly or unknowingly, only a stone or two, larger or smaller, to the building. Cauchy relaid the foundation, rebuilt the whole, and initiated new enlargements; the result being an edifice which the architects of to-day may still admire and find worthy of study.

What was that "perfectly new point of view"? Previously, Bézout, Laplace, and Vandermonde had all defined determinants by induction using, explicitly or not, what is now known as Laplace's formula: the development of a determinant along one of its lines or columns. Cauchy's definition ([Cauchy 1812b] p. 113) is radically different:

Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  be several different quantities in number equal to  $n$ . It has been shown above, that by multiplying the product of these quantities, or

$$a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_n$$

by the product of their respective differences, or else by

$$(a_2 - a_1)(a_3 - a_1) \dots (a_n - a_1)(a_3 - a_2) \dots (a_n - a_2) \dots (a_n - a_{n-1})$$

one obtained as a result the alternating symmetric function

$$S(\pm a_1 a_2^2 \dots a_n^n)$$

which, as a consequence, happens to be always equal to the product

$$a_1 a_2 \dots a_n (a_2 - a_1) \dots (a_n - a_1)(a_3 - a_2) \dots (a_n - a_2) \dots (a_n - a_{n-1}) .$$

Let us suppose now that one develops this later product and that, in each term of the development, one replaces the exponent of each letter by a second index equal to that exponent: by writing, for instance,  $a_{r,i}$  instead of  $a_r^i$  and  $a_{i,r}$  instead of  $a_i^r$ , one will obtain as a result a new alternating symmetric function which, instead of being represented by

$$S(\pm a_1^1 a_2^2 \dots a_n^n) ,$$

will be represented by

$$S(\pm a_{1,1}a_{2,2} \dots a_{n,n}),$$

the sign  $S$  being relative to the first indices of each letter. Such is the most general form of the functions that I shall designate in what follows under the name of *determinants*.

In order to understand Cauchy's reasoning, one must keep in mind that his main focus was on functions of  $n$  variables: [Cauchy 1812b] came as a sequel to [Cauchy 1812a] where he discussed functions of  $n$  variables that take less than  $n!$  different values when the variables are permuted. He called "symmetric alternating functions" (fonctions symétriques alternées) those functions taking only two opposite values (they will be referred to as "alternating functions"). Among them, the polynomials in  $n$  variables are multiples of the "product of differences", later called difference-product (see [Muir 1906]). The difference-product develops into a sum of monomials with alternating signs. Those signs depend on the permutation of the variables and their exponents, and the "rule of signs" had been described by Cauchy before defining determinants. (On the discovery by Leibniz in 1683 of the rule of signs, see [Knobloch 2001]).

It will be useful to distinguish the three following functions of  $n$  variables  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ , even though they are algebraically equal:

- difference-product:  $\prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (a_j - a_i)$ ,
- alternating polynomial:  $\sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_n} (-1)^{\varepsilon(\sigma)} \prod_{i=1}^n a_i^{\sigma(i)-1}$ ,
- Vandermonde determinant:  $\det(a_i^j)_{1 \leq i \leq n, 0 \leq j \leq n-1}$ , henceforth designated by VD.

They are written in modern notations:  $\mathcal{S}_n$  is the group of permutations of  $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$  onto itself and  $\varepsilon(\sigma)$  denotes the signature of the permutation  $\sigma$ . Needless to say, the group of permutations and the signature as a homomorphism are anachronic. Cauchy had recognized in the development of the difference-product, the same rule of signs as that of a general determinant. Hence his idea of using

$$\prod_{i=1}^n a_i \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (a_j - a_i) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_n} (-1)^{\varepsilon(\sigma)} \prod_{i=1}^n a_i^{\sigma(i)}$$

as a general definition, after mutating the exponent of each variable into a second index.

As pointed out by [Muir 1906] p. 247, the year 1841 marked a new spurt for determinant theory, fueled by the publication in Crelle's journal of Jacobi's monograph, divided into 3 papers. There Jacobi rebuilds the whole theory, taking Cauchy's approach upside down. Here is Muir's account ([Muir 1906], p. 254).

At the outset, there is a reversal of former orders of things; Cramer's rule of signs for a permutation and Cauchy's rule being



led up by a series of propositions instead of one of them being made a convention or definition. This implies, of course, that a new definition of a signed permutation is adopted, and that conversely this definition must have appeared as a deduced theorem in any exposition having either of these rules as its starting point.

In other words, when Cauchy's started from the difference-product, then defined a general determinant by mutating exponents into indices, Jacobi first defined positive and negative permutations, then defined the determinant as a polynomial, with coefficients  $\pm 1$  according to the sign of the permutation. Eventually, Jacobi's definition prevailed upon Cauchy's, which was forgotten. Cauchy undoubtedly saw both pedagogical and mathematical advantages to his approach. When he writes his famous "Cours d'Analyse" in 1821, he follows exactly the same path as in his 1812 memoir. He recommends the difference-product as a general method for solving linear systems of equations, and applies it immediately to the Lagrange interpolation problem (pp. 71, 72, 426, 429 of [Cauchy 1821]). The third of Jacobi's memoirs in Crelle's Journal ([Jacobi 1841]) deals with alternating functions. Cauchy responds with [Cauchy 1841] in which he treats quotients of alternating functions by difference-products. Indeed, when comparing Cauchy's calculation of the determinant  $\det \left( \frac{1}{a_i + b_j} \right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$  (formula (10) p. 154 of [Cauchy 1841]) to the modern calculation, it may be considered that Cauchy had a point. (Interestingly enough, the denomination "Cauchy determinant" for that example seems to be rarely used outside France, whereas the particular case  $a_i = i, b_j = j - 1$  is universally known as "Hilbert matrix").

One year before 1841, the difference-product approach had been rediscovered by James Joseph Sylvester (1814-1897) [Sylvester 1840], who (without any reference to Cauchy) called "zeta-ic multiplication" Cauchy's operation of mutating exponents into indices in a polynomial. Muir's comment ([Muir 1906] p. 235) is somewhat ironic.

This early paper, one cannot but observe, has all the characteristics afterwards so familiar to readers of Sylvester's writings, – fervid imagination, vigorous originality, bold exuberance of diction, hasty if not contemptuous disregard of historical research, the outstripping of demonstration by enunciation, and an infective enthusiasm as to the vistas opened by his own work.

### 2.3 Newton, de Moivre, and the interpolation problem

The difference-product could hardly be considered an original notion in Cauchy's time. Apart from being a very natural way of combining  $n$  variables, it appears in the Lagrange interpolation problem. This other interesting case of mathematical eponymy is connected to ours, as we shall now see. For a history of interpolation, see [Fraser 1919], and section 10.4 of [Chabert & Barbin 1999]. If  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  are the Cartesian coordinates of the points to be interpolated and  $P = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}$  the unknown polynomial, then its

coefficients  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}$  satisfy the following linear system.

$$\begin{cases} a_0 + a_1x_1 + \dots + a_{n-1}x_1^{n-1} & = & y_1 \\ a_0 + a_1x_2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x_2^{n-1} & = & y_2 \\ & \vdots & \\ a_0 + a_1x_n + \dots + a_{n-1}x_n^{n-1} & = & y_n \end{cases} \quad (\text{LIS})$$

Assuming the  $x_i$ 's are all different, the solution is the Lagrange interpolation polynomial:

$$P(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{X - x_j}{x_i - x_j}. \quad (\text{LIP})$$

It may seem fair that whoever first wrote the system of equations (LIS) should get the credit for discovering the Vandermonde matrix and whoever wrote (LIP) for computing its inverse (and implicitly the VD). The naming ‘‘Lagrange interpolation’’ comes from one of the lessons that Joseph Louis Lagrange (1736–1813) gave at the École Normale in Paris in 1795 ([Lagrange 1795]). There, Lagrange did not pretend to expose his own research:

Newton is the first one who has posed that problem. Here is the solution he gives. [...]

Indeed, in the *Principia Mathematica*, Isaac Newton (1642–1727) had described a method to determine ‘‘a curved line of parabolic type which passes through any number of points’’ ([Newton 1687] pp. 695–696): what is now known as Newton’s divided differences method. In the *Principia*, Newton did not explicitly write (LIS). However, in a famous letter to Oldenburg dated October 24 1676, he mentions a manuscript, *Methodus differentialis*, that appeared in print only after the *Principia*, in 1711. There, the system (LIS) is explicitly written (see p. 10 of [Fraser 1919], where the *Methodus Differentialis* is reproduced and translated), but the explicit solution (LIP) is not given. One may think that writing down (LIP) would have seemed useless and even misleading to Newton: he must have been aware that his method was both faster and numerically more stable than the direct application of (LIP). The first one to explicitly write (LIP) is Newton’s friend Abraham de Moivre (1667–1754), in 1730 (on de Moivre’s relationship with Newton, see [Bellhouse & Genest 2007]). Instead of interpolation, de Moivre’s motivation was to calculate the coefficients in a linear combination of geometric series, when that linear combination is supposed equal to another series. The coefficients turn out to be the solution of a system equivalent to (LIS). In theorem iv pp. 33–35 of the *Miscellanea analytica* [de Moivre 1730], de Moivre explicitly writes a general system with power coefficients, and gives its solution, thus being the first one to write the inverse of a Vandermonde matrix. Actually, de Moivre had already published particular cases of that result in the first edition of his *Doctrine of chances* (see p. 132 of [de Moivre 1718]). There he said:

And if a general theorem were desired, it might easily be formed from the inspection of the foregoing.

These theorems are very useful for summing up readily those series which express the probability of the plays being ended in a given number of games.

Indeed, de Moivre’s motivation came from probability problems arising from dice games: the theorem is used for the solution of problem IV, p. 77 of *Miscellanea analytica*, and in later editions (1738 and 1756) of the *Doctrine of chances*. De Moivre gives full credit to Newton both for the interpolation problem and the divided differences method. The following extract of his preface to the *Doctrine of chances*, p. x of [de Moivre 1718] is worth quoting: its last sentence has a particular resounding with our subject.

There are other sorts of series, which tho’ not properly infinite, yet are called series, from the regularity of the terms whereof they are composed; those terms following one another with a certain uniformity, which is always to be defined. Of this nature is the Theorem given by Sir *Isaac Newton*, in the fifth *Lemma* of the third Book of his *Principles*, for drawing a curve through any given number of points: of which the demonstration, as well as other things belonging to the same subject, may be deduced from the first Proposition of his *Methodus Differentialis*, printed with some other of his tracts, by the care of my intimate friend, and very skilful mathematician, Mr. W. Jones. The abovementioned theorem being very useful in summing up any number of terms whose last differences are equal (such as the numbers called triangular, pyramidal, &c. the squares, the cubes, or other powers of numbers in arithmetic progression) I have shewn in many places of this book how it might be applicable to these cases. I hope it will not be taken amiss that I have ascribed the invention of it to its proper author, tho’ ’tis possible some persons may have found something like it by their own sagacity.

De Moivre’s anteriority on the Vandermonde matrix has already been pointed out on several occasions, in particular by [Tee 1993]. Actually, the difference-product form of the VD, and the explicit expression of the inverse matrix have been rediscovered many times, until late in the 20<sup>th</sup> century: see *e.g.* [Klinger 1967].

## 2.4 Vandermonde’s writings

We shall now examine what in Vandermonde’s work can be connected to the VD. About his “Memoir on elimination”, Vandermonde says ([Vandermonde 1771], footnote p. 516):

This memoir was read to the Academy for the first time on the 20<sup>th</sup> of January 1771. It contained different things that I have suppressed here because they have been published since by other Geometers.

These “other Geometers” certainly include Laplace, whose memoir though posterior, was published in the same volume as Vandermonde’s. Guessing what exactly did Vandermonde suppress cannot but remain conjectural.

Just like Cauchy in 1812, Vandermonde wrote about determinants as a byproduct of symmetric functions; his memoir on elimination is a sequel to the memoir on the resolution of equations. The publications dates, 1774 and 1776, are misleading: [Vandermonde 1770] was read to the academy “sometime

in November 1770”, *i.e.* only two months before [Vandermonde 1771]. Vandermonde undoubtedly had the first memoir in mind when he wrote the second, and both should be examined as a whole. Here are two quotations, that we have numbered for later reference.

[V1] [Vandermonde 1770], p. 369:

And yet,  $(a^2b + b^2c + c^2a - a^2c - b^2a - c^2b)$ , which equals  $(a - b)(a - c)(b - c)$ , squares as

$$\begin{aligned} & a^4b^2 + a^4c^2 + b^4c^2 + c^4a^2 + c^4b^2 \\ & - 2(a^4bc + b^4ac + c^4ab) - 2(a^3b^3 + a^3c^3 + b^3c^3) \\ & + 2(a^3b^2c + a^3c^2b + b^3a^2c + b^3c^2a + c^3a^2b + c^3b^2a) - 6a^2b^2c^2. \end{aligned}$$

[V2] [Vandermonde 1771], p. 522:

Those acquainted with the abbreviated symbols that I have named *partial types of combination*, in my *Memoir on the resolution of equations*, will recognize here the formation of the *partial type* depending on the second degree, for any number of letters; they will easily see that, by taking our  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ , &c. for instance, as exponents, all terms with equal signs in the development of one of our abbreviations, will also be the development of the *partial type* depending on the second degree, & formed with an equal number of letters.

Actually, the difference-product of four variables appears in the following passage ([Vandermonde 1770], p. 386):

The first of these cubes is

$$\begin{aligned} & (A^3B^3) - \frac{3}{2}(A^3B^2C) + 6(A^3BCD) + 6(A^2B^2C^2) - 3(A^2B^2CD) \\ & + \frac{3}{2}(a - b)(a - c)(a - d)(b - c)(b - d)(c - d)\sqrt{-3}; \end{aligned}$$

[...] as the square of the product of differences between the roots is a function of *types*, [...]

However, the development is not explicitly written, and we have not found that sentence ever referred to.

In [Vandermonde 1770], Vandermonde details the resolution of second and third degree equations (hence [V1]), then states his general method, and illustrates it by the fourth degree equation. The rest of the paper is devoted to a discussion on the symmetric functions of the roots. Admittedly, the difference-product of three variables appears in [V1], and its development is given; but this does not establish that Vandermonde saw it as a determinant. [V2] certainly proves that he knew determinants were related to his “partial types depending on the second degree” (*i.e.* alternating functions), through changing indices into exponents. He probably knew exactly to which “partial type” did the VD correspond, at least in dimension 3, and probably in dimension 4. There is no evidence he actually wrote a VD as a particular determinant, nor that he wrote difference-products of more than four variables. The impressive tables displayed on the three pages after p. 374 of [Vandermonde 1770] show that he certainly

had the capacity for much more difficult formal calculations. But they also prove that he did not have a general expression for symmetric nor alternating functions. The long footnote of pp. 374–375 seems to imply that he was on his way towards greater generality.

[...] By considering this formula as a multivariate finite difference equation, in which the difference of each variable is equal to unity, I can integrate & satisfy the conditions, by a particular procedure of which I propose to render an account in one of the future volumes.

It is not very surprising that, by manipulating symmetric functions of 3 or 4 variables, Vandermonde had been led to write difference-products. Whether or not he viewed them as determinants may not be the most important. More interesting is the relation that he had seen in [V2]. He undoubtedly knew that by making an exponent of the second index in a determinant, an alternating function was obtained. But conversely, had he realized that *any* determinant could be obtained from the difference-product by the reverse operation? [V2] comes in [Vandermonde 1771], immediately after his 4 pages “proof” of the alternating property, before which he had announced:

Instead of generally proving these two equations [the alternating property], which would demand an awkward rather than difficult calculation, I shall content myself with developing the simplest examples; this will suffice to grasp the spirit of the proof.

The alternating property of the difference-product is trivial; and with Cauchy’s definition, proving that a determinant changes sign when exchanging two columns becomes obvious. We do not think that Vandermonde would have written his four pages of “simplest examples” had he anticipated Cauchy’s definition. Lebesgue appreciation ([Lebesgue 1937] p. 38) on Vandermonde’s contribution to the resolution of equations might still have some truth in it when applied to Vandermonde’s determinants:

Vandermonde never came back on his algebraic researches because at first he felt only imperfectly their importance, and if he did not understand it better afterwards, it is precisely because he had not reflected deeply on them; [...]

## 3 The naming process

### 3.1 Historical accounts

We have searched historical notes in textbooks or research papers, for connections being made between Vandermonde and the VD. Many accounts have been given of Vandermonde’s contribution to the resolution of equations: see [Neumann 2007] or [Stedall 2011] for recent references. Among the most famous, [Nielsen 1929] and [van der Waerden 1985] (as many others) do not mention the VD. Similarly Vandermonde’s founding role is acknowledged in most historical accounts of determinant theory, but there again, his relation to the VD is seldom mentioned: throughout history, there seems to have been some embarrassment on the subject.

Muir’s masterly treatise is quite significant, and it may have had some later influence on the naming. As many other authors, Muir calls “difference-product” the VD and “alternants” those determinants stemming from alternating functions or generalizing the VD; he has been quite an active contributor of the field in the last decades of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In each volume, he devotes a chapter to alternants. Here are the first lines of that chapter in Volume 1 ([Muir 1906], p. 306):

The first traces of the special functions now known as *alternating functions* are said by Cauchy to be discernible in certain work of Vandermonde’s; and if we view the functions as originating in the study of the number of values which a function can assume through permutation of its variables, such an early date may in a certain sense be justifiable. To all intents and purposes, however, the theory is a creation of Cauchy’s, and it is almost absolutely certain that its connection with determinants was never thought of until his time.

In volume 2, Muir feels obliged to set some records straight ([Muir 1911], p. 154):

Further, as exaggerated statements regarding Vandermonde’s contribution to the subject have been widely accepted, it seems desirable to point out the exact foundation on which such statements rest. In a paper read in November 1770 Vandermonde says (p. 369), “Or  $a^2b + b^2c + c^2a - a^2c - b^2a - c^2b$ , qui égale  $(a - b)(a - c)(b - c)$  a pour carré  $a^4b^2 + \dots$ ” This is the whole matter.

As we have seen, there are essentially two ways to connect Vandermonde’s writings to the VD:

[V1]: Vandermonde has written the difference-product for three variables and its development, hence a particular case of the VD.

[V2]: Vandermonde has anticipated Cauchy’s definition by remarking that changing one of the indices into an exponent gives an alternating function.

Clearly, Muir is on the [V1] side, as all historians have been since. It was not quite so in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. As Muir points out, Cauchy had studied Vandermonde’s two memoirs on the resolution of equations and on elimination, and quotes them. In [Cauchy 1812b], [V1] is explicitly cited (p. 110):

Thus, supposing for instance  $n = 3$ , it will be found

$$\begin{aligned} S^2(\pm a_2 a_3^2) &= a_2 a_3^2 + a_3 a_1^2 + a_1 a_2^2 - a_3 a_2^2 - a_2 a_1^2 - a_1 a_3^2 \\ &= (a_2 - a_1)(a_3 - a_1)(a_3 - a_2). \end{aligned}$$

This last equation has been given by Vandermonde in his memoir on the resolution of equations.

Cauchy does not explicitly acknowledge that [V2] inspired his definition of determinants from difference-products, but the following quotation clearly alludes to [V2] ([Cauchy 1812a] p. 70).

The smallest divisor of this product is equal to 2 and it is easy to make sure, that, in any order, it is possible to form functions having only two different values. Vandermonde has given ways to compose functions of that kind. In general, to form with quantities

$$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$$

an order  $n$  function with index 2, it will suffice to consider the positive or the negative part of the product

$$(a_1 - a_2)(a_1 - a_3) \cdots (a_1 - a_n)(a_2 - a_3) \cdots (a_2 - a_n) \cdots (a_{n-1} - a_n)$$

whose factors are the differences of the quantities  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  taken two by two.

We could find in the literature only 4 other citations of [V2]. The earliest comes in the very first words of [Jacobi 1841]; admittedly, it is worth many others.

Cl.[sic] Vandermonde once elegantly observed that the proposed determinant

$$\sum \pm a_0^{(0)} a_1^{(1)} a_2^{(2)} \dots a_n^{(n)},$$

if indices are changed into exponents, comes from the product formed from the differences of all elements  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$

$$P = (a_1 - a_0)(a_2 - a_0)(a_3 - a_0) \cdots (a_n - a_0) \\ (a_2 - a_1)(a_3 - a_1) \cdots (a_n - a_1) \\ (a_3 - a_2) \cdots (a_n - a_2) \\ \dots \dots \dots \\ (a_n - a_{n-1})$$

The next citation that we are aware of, appears in [Terquem 1846].

A very ingenious observation of the same geometer [Vandermonde], about indices considered as exponents, has given birth to Mr. Cauchy's beautiful theory of *alternating functions* and to his proof of Cramer's formulae.

Our third citation comes from the preface of Spottiswoode's treatise. There he comments [Cauchy 1812b] as follows ([Spottiswoode 1851] p. vi):

The second part of this paper refers immediately to determinants, and contains a large number of very general theorems. Amongst them is noticed a property of a class of functions closely connected with determinants, first given, so far as I am aware, by Vandermonde; if in the development of the expression

$$a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n (a_2 - a_1) \cdots (a_n - a_1) (a_3 - a_2) \cdots (a_n - a_2) \cdots (a_n - a_{n-1})$$

the indices be replaced by a second series of suffixes, the result will be the determinant

$$S(\pm a_{1,1} a_{2,2} \dots a_{n,n}).$$

The last citation appears in [Prouhet 1856] who, before writing the difference-product of  $n$  variables “according to a theorem due to Vandermonde” gives [V2] as a reference.

It is likely that, since Cauchy’s definition never prevailed and soon fell into oblivion, so went with it Vandermonde’s “elegant observation”. From then on, [V1] has been the commonly accepted source for the naming. The position usually adopted is clearly expressed by an anonymous contributor to the “Nouvelles annales de Mathématiques” ([Un Professeur 1860], p. 181).

Vandermonde [...] decomposes into factors a polynomial that can be considered as a 3<sup>rd</sup> order determinant: but nothing indicates that he had the general theorem in mind, not even that he had considered that polynomial as a determinant.

The same view has been expressed many times, from R. Baltzer ([Baltzer 1857] p. 50) to J. Stedall ([Stedall 2011], p. 190), through S. Günther ([Günther 1875], p. 66) and G. Kowalewski ([Kowalewski 1942], p. 315); it appears in the Encyclopedia of Mathematics ([Remeslennikov 1993], p. 363). Only two of the early authors were less carefull in their attribution: F. Brioschi speaks of an “important relation due to Vandermonde” ([Brioschi 1854] p. 75), and G.A. Gohierre de Longchamps devotes a section to “Vandermonde’s theorem” ([Gohierre 1883] p. 82).

Since the publication of Lebesgue’s conference [Lebesgue 1937], his mix-up conjecture has been cited by several authors: see *e.g.* [Edwards 1984] p. 18, [Blyth & Robertson 2002] p. 197; it even appears in Gillispie’s Dictionary of Scientific Biography, [Gillispie 1976] p. 571. It has probably fostered the widely accepted idea that the attribution of the VD to Vandermonde is a misnomer. J. Dieudonné states it quite clearly ([Dieudonné 1978] p. 59).

This naming, due to Cauchy, is not historically justified, since Vandermonde never explicitly introduced such a determinant.

Yet, Dieudonné was aware of Cauchy’s use of the exchange between exponents and indices, that he presents as an “elegant trick”...

## 3.2 Textbooks

We have made a selection of 24 treatises and textbooks having appeared in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries, partially or completely devoted to determinants, and where the VD appears as a mathematical object, if only as a simple example or exercise. All of them have had several editions or translations. Our selection is arbitrary, and we have examined only a very small sample of the full textbook production of these times. We have not systematically searched outside the area of linear algebra, though we are aware that early occurrences of the naming can be found in other fields. For instance, in one of the earliest and most influential treatises on numerical analysis, when the authors expose Newton’s divided difference method, they write the interpolation system, its determinant, and add ([Whittaker & Robinson 1924] p. 23):

Now a difference-product may be expressed as a determinant of the kind known as Vandermonde’s[...]



As another example, Pólya and Szegő’s famous textbook contains a “generalized Vandermonde determinant” ([Pólya & Szegő 1945] p. 43). Nevertheless, we consider our sample as representative. Table 1 gives the references, the publication country (including translations), and the name given to the VD for each book in it.

Reference	Countries	Page	Naming
[Brioschi 1854]	Italy	75	none
[Baltzer 1857]	Germany, France	50	none
[Salmon 1859]	Great-Britain	13	none
[Bertrand 1859]	France, Italy	333	none
[Trudi 1862]	Italy	31	none
[Günther 1875]	Germany	66	difference product
[Dostor 1877]	France	142	none
[Scott 1880]	Great-Britain	115	difference product
[Mansion 1880]	Belgium	27	none
[Suarez & Gascó 1882]	Spain	360	none
[Gohierre 1883]	France	82	none
[Hanus 1886]	USA	187	difference product
[Chrystal 1886]	Great-Britain	53	none
[Pascal 1897]	Italy, Germany	166	Vandermonde
[Kronecker 1903]	Germany	304	none
[Hawkes 1905]	USA	218	none
[Weld 1906]	USA	169	alternant
[Wedderburn 1934]	USA	26	none
[Barnard & Child 1936]	Great-Britain, USA	126	none
[Aitken 1939]	USA	42	alternant
[Kowalewski 1942]	Germany	315	none
[Gantmacher 1953]	Russia, USA	99	Vandermonde
[Bourbaki 1970]	France, USA	532	Vandermonde
[Lang 1970]	USA	155	Vandermonde

Table 1: Textbooks including the VD, and whether or not it is given a name.

Before the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the denomination “Vandermonde determinant” can hardly be found in textbooks. Among the early treatises on determinants, [Brioschi 1854] p. 75 mentions “an important relation due to Vandermonde”, and [Gohierre 1883] devotes a section to “Vandermonde’s theorem”. These attributions may have had some influence on the naming practice, but they are not *actual namings* of the VD as a mathematical object. Ernesto Pascal (1865–1940) seems to be the first one to actually name the VD. His hesitations are very revealing. The running head of [Pascal 1897] p. 166 is indeed “Vandermonde determinant”. But the title of the section is “Vandermonde or Cauchy determinant”. Pascal cites [Jacobi 1841] and mentions:

It is usually called also Cauchy determinant, this last author having considered it in general, whereas Vandermonde studied it in a particular case.

Many authors, although quite aware of Vandermonde’s contributions, remain very cautious regarding the naming. Siegmund Günther (1848–1923) devotes

the first chapter of his treatise to a careful historical exposition, where Vandermonde's role is thoroughly analyzed. Yet later on, the VD is named "Differenzenprodukt" and attributed to Vandermonde for  $n = 3$  and to Cauchy for the general case ([Günther 1875], p. 66). Leopold Kronecker (1823–1891) cannot be suspected of downplaying Vandermonde's achievements (see [Lebesgue 1937]). However, when he writes his "Lessons on the theory of determinants", he attributes the VD to Cauchy ([Kronecker 1903], p. 304) and does not name it. In his "Lessons on number theory", the VD is named "Differenzenprodukt" ([Kronecker 1901] p. 396). Joseph Bertrand (1822–1900) has known Cauchy, and he is among the rare authors to follow Cauchy's definition of determinants. His "Traité élémentaire d'algèbre" had several editions since 1851. The determinants appear in the 1859 Italian edition ([Bertrand 1859] p. 333) but no name is given to the VD.

### 3.3 Research papers

In order to evaluate the penetration of the expression "Vandermonde determinant" in the mathematical literature, we have searched through several databases: Gallica, Google Books, Göttinger Digitalisierungszentrum, Internet Archive, Jstor, Mathematical Reviews (or "MathSciNet"), Numdam, and Zentralblatt Math<sup>2</sup>. Here are the earliest traces of the naming that we could find in articles.

1. [Prouhet 1856], p. 87: "According to a theorem due to Vandermonde"
2. [Un Professeur 1860], p. 181: "This theorem, ordinarily attributed to Vandermonde, [...]"
3. [Neuberg 1866], p. 517: "This last determinant, by virtue of the theorem known as *Vandermonde's*, [...]"
4. [Marchand 1886], p. 164: "The numerator is a Vandermonde determinant."
5. [Weill 1888] : "On a form of Vandermonde determinant" (title of the paper).

We cannot be sure that earlier appearances do not exist elsewhere, and in particular outside France. However we find it significant that the earliest references were found in pedagogy rather than research journals. They come from professors at the undergraduate level, sharing their solutions to particular problems. In quotations 2 and 3, some hesitation can be felt in the expressions "ordinarily attributed to" or "known as". As we have already seen, [Prouhet 1856] cites [V2] to support the naming, whereas [Un Professeur 1860] clearly resists it; both implicitly admit that the attribution to Vandermonde is already a usual practice. After 1886, maybe under the influence of [Gohierre 1883], the attributions become more assertive. The first occurrence of the naming in a research journal was found through Jstor: [Bennett 1914]. This indicates that the denomination

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<sup>2</sup><http://gallica.bnf.fr/> <http://books.google.com/> <http://gdz.sub.uni-goettingen.de/> <http://www.archive.org>, <http://www.jstor.org>, <http://www.ams.org/mathscinet/>, <http://www.zentralblatt-math.org/zblmath/>

was already in use both among researchers and outside France, before World War One.

For our quantitative study, we chose to focus on MathSciNet, that seemed to give more easily interpretable results. As an example of the difficulties encountered with other bases, Zentralblatt has references to which the keyword “Vandermonde determinant” is associated, whereas it does not appear in the article: an example is [de Jonquières 1895] whose denomination for the VD is “déterminant potentiel”; these false detections were difficult to sort. However we believe that searching in another database would give similar results (compare Figure 1 below with those of Annex 1.2 in [Brechenmacher 2010]). We are aware of the limits to our quantitative approach. The MathSciNet database does not contain all published articles; moreover, we could not check each reference to make sure it was relevant. Nevertheless, we consider that MathSciNet is a representative sample of the total mathematical production (foreign titles being literally translated). Since our conclusions are based on comparisons within the same base, we believe they can be extrapolated.

We first searched for the other historical denominations, “alternant”, “difference-product” and “power determinant”. No publication could be found for “power determinant”, which seems to have disappeared (maybe for ambiguity reasons). Similarly, only two non ambiguous occurrences were found for “difference-product”. The name “alternant” is also ambiguous: it appears in “alternant code” and “alternant group”. After disambiguation, here are the occurrences per decade.

dates	< 1940	40's	50's	60's	70's	80's	90's	> 2000
alternant occurrences	10	7	8	12	4	9	5	4

The occurrence of “alternant” (as a determinant) did not completely disappear, but it has remained sporadic, and has not increased with the total mathematical production. Let us now turn to the Vandermonde denomination. It can be found under different forms.

- Vandermonde determinant or matrix,
- Vandermonde’s determinant or matrix,
- Vandermondian.

The second one has 16 occurrences before 2011, the third one only 7. The first occurrence of “Vandermondian” was found in [Farrel 1950]; however, the term seems to be more current in the physical literature than in the mathematical one: see [Vein & Dale 1999], section 4.1 p. 51. It may be the case that the use of the Vandermonde determinant in the modelling of the quantum Hall effect (see [Scharf *et al.* 1994]) boosted its popularity among physicists. This would match the effect that quantum mechanics had on the development of matrix theory, as described by [Brechenmacher 2010].

The query “Vandermonde determinant” includes “Vandermonde’s determinant” (and determinants); it returns 273 occurrences. The query “Vandermonde matrix” (including plural) returns 363 occurrences. Our query was the disjunction of these two, and it returned 623 occurrences (less than the sum of the

previous two because “determinant” and “matrix” together are found in 13 references). The first occurrence appears in 1929. We have made the same query for each year from 1929 to 2010. The corresponding numbers will be referred to as “Vandermonde data”. They remain quite sporadic during the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (0, 1, 2, or 3 occurrences per year before 1958); then they gradually increase. Of course that increase was expected, since the total mathematical production grows exponentially: the increase in the output of any given query should be considered only relatively to the increase of the total production in the field. For the same years (1929–2010), we have made the query “determinant or matrix”. The corresponding series will be referred to as “global data”. The total number was 202219. In order to compare both series, we have plotted on the same graphic (figure 1), the Vandermonde and the global data, after dividing each by its sum. Of course the Vandermonde data are more irregular; however, both curves seem to grow exponentially, with a higher rate for the Vandermonde data.

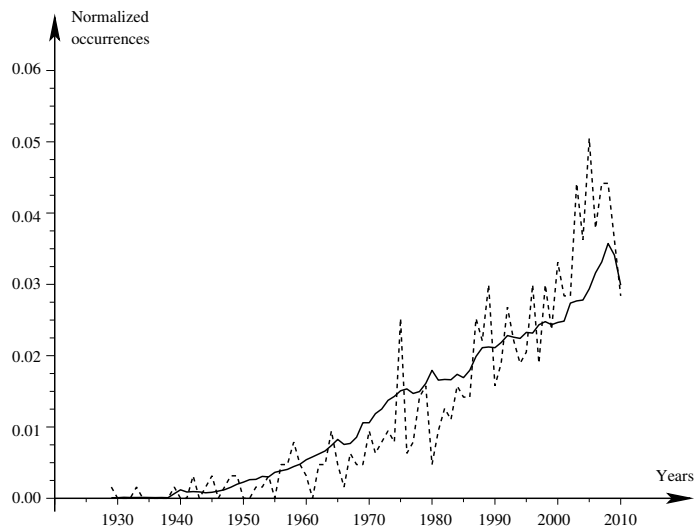


Figure 1: Occurrences of “Vandermonde determinant” or “Vandermonde matrix” (dashed) compared to “determinant” or “matrix” (solid) in the MathSciNet database. For each curve, the data per year have been divided by their sum.

In order to provide a statistical justification to the previous assertions, our treatment was the following. Firstly, the last two years (2009 and 2010) were truncated: they show a decrease that we do not consider as significant; it is probably due to the delay in entering new publications in the base. Then the data were binned over periods of 5 years (to account for sporadicity at the beginning of the Vandermonde series). Saying that the data grow exponentially means that they can be adjusted by a function of the type  $y = \exp(ax + b)$  where  $x$  is a year,  $y$  a number of publication, and  $a$  is the exponential growth rate. Equivalently, the logarithm of the data can be adjusted by a linear function of the years:  $ax + b$ . The parameters  $a$  and  $b$  were estimated by a least-squares linear regres-

sion of the log-data over the years (see *e.g.* chap. 14 of [Utts & Heckard 2004] as a general reference). Figure 2 displays the graphical results of the two linear regressions. Both regressions were found to be significant, with respective p-values of  $3.6 \cdot 10^{-12}$  and  $3.1 \cdot 10^{-7}$ . The exponential growth rate (*i.e.* the slope of the regression line) was found to be 0.0079 for the global data, and 0.0131 for the Vandermonde data. In other words, the global number of publications is multiplied by  $e^a \simeq 1.0079$ , or else increases by 0.79% per year on average, whereas the Vandermonde data increase by 1.31%. To test whether the 0.52% observed difference between growth rates was significant, we used another linear regression, that time on the logarithm or the *ratios*, *i.e.* on the difference of the two previous sets. The new slope is of course the difference of the two previous ones, and it was found to be significantly positive, with a p-value of  $6.9 \cdot 10^{-4}$ .

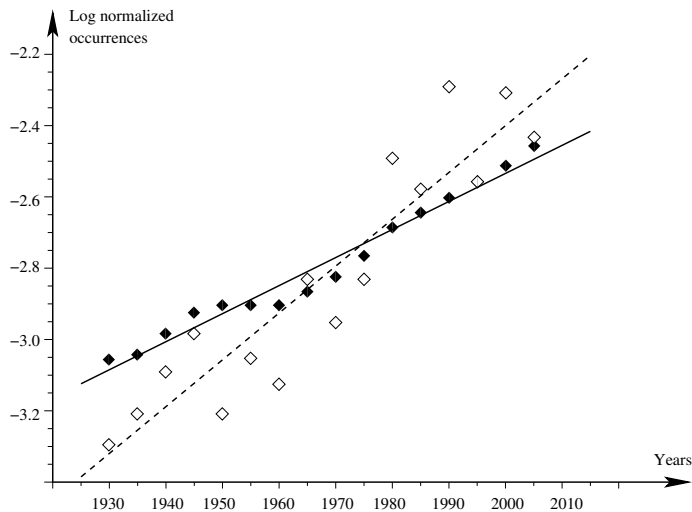


Figure 2: Linear regressions for the logarithms of occurrences of “Vandermonde determinant” or “Vandermonde matrix” (dashed line, empty diamonds) and “determinant” or “matrix” (solid line and diamonds) in the MathSciNet database. The data are binned by 5-year periods over the 80 years 1929–2008.

Having shown that the denomination “Vandermonde determinant or matrix” has a higher growth rate than “determinant or matrix” alone, the question of the interpretation arises. Comparing exponential growth rates may be a way of measuring the scientific dynamism of a research field. A field with a faster growth than the global production could be considered as booming; on the contrary a field with a lower growth rate would be seen as slowing down; among two fields, the more dynamic would be the one with a significantly higher growth rate. Here, the problem is different. The hypothesis of a higher dynamics of research on the VD compared to the rest of linear algebra can be ruled out: the VD has long been an undergraduate-level basic tool rather than a subject of research of its own. There remains two possible explanations.

1. The fields of research using the Vandermonde determinant or matrix as a

tool, are more fertile than those using other determinants or matrices.

2. Mathematicians using a Vandermonde determinant or matrix tend more and more to give it its usual name.

We could not find any evidence supporting the first hypothesis, and we believe that the occurrence of the VD as an object is no more frequent in today's mathematical research than it was some decades ago. The only explanation we find plausible is that when mathematicians encounter a VD, they tend more and more to use the standard denomination, which has become a universally accepted shortcut.

## 4 Conclusion

In our study of the historical process that led to the worldwide adoption, throughout mathematical research papers and textbooks, of the denomination "Vandermonde determinant", we have established the following points. Although Vandermonde is not the first discover of the object, although he never expressed it in full generality, there still exist two connections between his writings and the VD: he has written down and developed the difference-product of 3 variables, and he has observed that changing indices into exponents in a general determinant gave an alternating function. Even if Vandermonde's calculation of the 3 variables difference-product was the only one eventually retained by historians, his second observation about changing exponents into indices probably inspired Cauchy's definition of determinants, and was quoted by Jacobi. Both may have sparked off the naming process. It started during the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, essentially as a pedagogical practice. For quite a long time, textbook and research paper authors resisted the naming, for which no sufficient justification existed in their view. The naming process eventually gained momentum during the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and from then on, its penetration of the mathematical community has been increasing. This was proved by a statistical treatment of numerical data from the MathSciNet database, that consisted in comparing the exponential growth rates of the naming to that of the global production.

Thus we believe that we have brought answers to the questions where?, when?, and how? The most important question may be the one we did not address: why? As the computation of the VD became a classical exercise or example, did the pressure to name it increase? More generally, do students prefer a mathematician's name rather than an impersonal one? When do mathematicians choose to designate an object by a name that others know, whether the attribution is justified or not? Is it easier to find a non-ambiguous denomination for a new object by looking for a rarely cited mathematician? Does a mathematician necessarily transmit as a researcher the denominations he has learned as a student? Many questions remain to be asked, but we do not think that they are proper to mathematics, nor that can be answered by mathematicians alone: maybe the time has come for a collaboration between historians of mathematics and specialists of onomastics (see *e.g.* [Nuessel 2011]). . .

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