- Cramer's rule for solving linear systems
- Cross products

• Determinants give an explicit expression for the solution to a linear system

$$Ax = b$$

 $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes m}, x, b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, A non-singular with columns $a_1, ..., a_m \in \mathbb{R}^m$

• Note that the solution can be expressed as $x = A^{-1}b$, and the inverse has the property

$$A^{-1}A = A^{-1}(a_1 a_2 \dots a_m) = I = (e_1 e_2 \dots e_m)$$

• Consider now the effect of multiplying A^{-1} with a modification of the matrix A in which the first column is replaced by b

$$A^{-1}(b \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_m) = (x \ e_2 \ \dots \ e_m)$$

The determinant of the resulting product is

$$\Delta_1 = \det(\ \boldsymbol{x} \ \boldsymbol{e}_2 \ \dots \ \boldsymbol{e}_m \) = \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & 0 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \dots & \ddots \\ x_m & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = x_1$$

Cramer's rule

- When replacing column i in A by b we obtain a matrix whose determinant is x_i
- Cramer's rule sues the above facts to express the solution components as

$$x_i = \frac{\Delta_i}{\Delta} \tag{1}$$

with Δ the determinant of A, and Δ_i the determinant of the matrix obtained by replacing column i of A by b

- Cramer's rule involves computation of m + 1 determinants. Since the efficient way of computing each determinant is to use row operations to obtain reduction to a triangular form, applying Cramer's rule is roughly equivalent to m + 1 triangularizations (as in Gaussian elimination)
- From the above we see that though (1) is a closed-form formula, it is not practical for numerical evaluations since it involves more computation than Gaussian elimination
- Cramer's rule is however useful in various analytical evaluations of the solution to a linear system

• Consider $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^3$. We've introduced the idea of a scalar product

$$u \cdot v = u^T v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + u_3 v_3$$

in which from two vectors one obtains a scalar

• We've also introduced the idea of an exterior product

$$uv^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1} \\ u_{2} \\ u_{3} \end{pmatrix} (v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}) = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1}v_{1} & u_{1}v_{2} & u_{1}v_{3} \\ u_{2}v_{1} & u_{2}v_{2} & u_{2}v_{3} \\ u_{3}v_{1} & u_{3}v_{2} & u_{3}v_{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

in which a matrix is obtained from two vectors

 Another product of two vectors is also useful, the cross product, most conveniently expressed in determinant-like form

$$u \times v = \begin{vmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} = (u_2v_3 - v_2u_3)e_1 + (u_3v_1 - v_3u_1)e_2 + (u_1v_2 - v_1u_2)e_3$$

• The cross product often arises in physics. An example is the computation of a rotational velocity as

 $v = \omega \times r$

with ω the rotation vector, and r the position vector from the center of rotation to the point at which the velocity v is computed

• The cross product vector is orthogonal to the factor vectors

 $u \perp u \times v, v \perp u \times v$

• Verify by computing the mixed product

 $(u \times v) \cdot u = (u_2v_3 - v_2u_3)u_1 + (u_3v_1 - v_3u_1)u_2 + (u_1v_2 - v_1u_2)u_3 = 0$