#### **Discrete Mathematics**

Chapter 2, Basic Structures: Sets, Functions, Sequences, Sums, and Matrices Part 2

# Sequences and Summations

Section 2.4

## Sequences<sub>1</sub>

**Definition**: A *sequence*( $\not \rightarrow \not \cong$ ) is a function from a subset of the integers (usually either the set  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, ....\}$ ) or  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, ....\}$ ) to a set S.

The notation  $a_n$  is used to denote the image of the integer n. We can think of  $a_n$  as the equivalent of f(n) where f is a function from  $\{0,1,2,....\}$  to S. We call  $a_n$  a *term* of the sequence.

## **Sequences**<sub>2</sub>

**Example:** Consider the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  where

$$a_{n} = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\{a_{n}\} = \{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}...\}$$

$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}$$

## **Geometric Progression**

**Definition**: A *geometric progression* is a sequence of the form:  $a, ar^2, ..., ar^n, ...$ 

where the *initial term* **a** and the *common ratio* **r** are real numbers.

#### **Examples:**

1. Let 
$$a = 1$$
 and  $r = -1$ . Then:  
 $\{b_n\} = \{b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, \dots\} = \{1, -1, 1, -1, 1, \dots\}$ 

2. Let 
$$a = 2$$
 and  $r = 5$ . Then:  
 $\{c_n\} = \{c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, \dots\} = \{2,10,50,250,1250,\dots\}$ 

3. Let 
$$a = 6$$
 and  $r = 1/3$ . Then:

$$\{d_n\} = \{d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4, \dots\} = \left\{6, 2, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{9}, \frac{2}{27}, \dots\right\}$$

## **Arithmetic Progression**

**Definition:** A *arithmetic progression* is a sequence of the

form: a, a+d, a+2d, ..., a+nd, ...

where the *initial term* **a** and the *common difference* **d** are real numbers.

#### **Examples:**

1. Let 
$$a = -1$$
 and  $d = 4$ :  
 $\{s_n\} = \{s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, \dots\} = \{-1, 3, 7, 11, 15\dots\}$ 

2. Let 
$$a = 7$$
 and  $d = -3$ :  $\{t_n\} = \{t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, \dots\} = \{7,4,1,-2,-5,\dots\}$ 

3. Let 
$$a = 1$$
 and  $d = 2$ :  
 $\{u_n\} = \{u_0, u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4, \dots\} = \{1,3,5,7,9,\dots\}$ 

## **Strings**<sub>1</sub>

**Definition**: A *string* is a finite sequence of characters from a finite set (an alphabet).

Sequences of characters or bits are important in computer science.

The *empty string* is represented by  $\lambda$ .

The string abcde has length 5.

#### Recurrence Relations

**Definition:** A *recurrence relation* for the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is an equation that expresses  $a_n$  in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely,  $a_0$ ,  $a_1$ , ...,  $a_{n-1}$ , for all integers n with  $n \ge n_0$ , where  $n_0$  is a nonnegative integer.

A sequence is called a *solution* of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation.

The *initial conditions* for a sequence specify the terms that precede the first term where the recurrence relation takes effect.

#### Questions about Recurrence Relations 1

**Example** 1: Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$  for n = 1,2,3,4,... and suppose that  $a_0 = 2$ . What are  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$  and  $a_3$ ?

[Here  $a_0 = 2$  is the initial condition.]

**Solution**: We see from the recurrence relation that

$$a_1 = a_0 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$$
  
 $a_2 = 5 + 3 = 8$   
 $a_3 = 8 + 3 = 11$ 

#### Questions about Recurrence Relations<sup>2</sup>

**Example** 2: Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation  $a_n = a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$  for n = 2,3,4,... and suppose that  $a_0 = 3$  and  $a_1 = 5$ . What are  $a_2$  and  $a_3$ ?

[Here the initial conditions are  $a_0 = 3$  and  $a_1 = 5$ .]

**Solution**: We see from the recurrence relation that

$$a_2 = a_1 - a_0 = 5 - 3 = 2$$
  
 $a_3 = a_2 - a_1 = 2 - 5 = -3$ 

## Fibonacci Sequence

**Definition:** Define the *Fibonacci sequence*,  $f_0$ ,  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$ , ..., by:

- Initial Conditions:  $f_0 = 0$ ,  $f_1 = 1$
- Recurrence Relation:  $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$

**Example**: Find  $f_2$ ,  $f_3$ ,  $f_4$ ,  $f_5$  and  $f_6$ .

#### Answer:

$$f_2 = f_1 + f_0 = 1 + 0 = 1,$$
  
 $f_3 = f_2 + f_1 = 1 + 1 = 2,$   
 $f_4 = f_3 + f_2 = 2 + 1 = 3,$   
 $f_5 = f_4 + f_3 = 3 + 2 = 5,$   
 $f_6 = f_5 + f_4 = 5 + 3 = 8.$ 

## Solving Recurrence Relations

Finding a formula for the *n*th term of the sequence generated by a recurrence relation is called *solving the* recurrence relation.

Such a formula is called a *closed formula*.

## Iterative Solution Example 1

**Method 1**: Working upward, forward substitution Let  $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$  for n = 2,3,4,... and suppose that  $a_1 = 2$ .  $a_2 = 2 + 3$  $a_3 = (2+3)+3=2+3\cdot 2$  $a_A = (2 + 2 \cdot 3) + 3 = 2 + 3 \cdot 3$ 

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + 3 = (2 + 3 \cdot (n-2)) + 3 = 2 + 3(n-1)$$

## Iterative Solution Example 2

**Method 2**: Working downward, backward substitution Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$  for n = 2,3,4,... and suppose that  $a_1 = 2$ .

## Special Integer Sequences (opt)

Given a few terms of a sequence, try to identify the sequence. Conjecture a formula, recurrence relation, or some other rule.

#### Some questions to ask?

- Are there repeated terms of the same value?
- Can you obtain a term from the previous term by adding an amount or multiplying by an amount?
- Can you obtain a term by combining the previous terms in some way?
- Are they cycles among the terms?
- Do the terms match those of a well known sequence?

# Questions on Special Integer Sequences (opt)<sub>1</sub>

**Example 1**: Find formulae for the sequences with the following first five terms:  $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}$ 

**Solution:** Note that the denominators are powers of 2. The sequence with  $a_n = 1/2^n$  is a possible match. This is a geometric progression with a = 1 and  $r = \frac{1}{2}$ .

**Example 2**: Consider 1,3,5,7,9

**Solution:** Note that each term is obtained by adding 2 to the previous term. A possible formula is  $a_n = 2n + 1$ . This is an arithmetic progression with a = 1 and d = 2.

**Example 3**: 1, -1, 1, -1,1

**Solution:** The terms alternate between 1 and -1. A possible sequence is  $a_n = (-1)^n$ . This is a geometric progression with a = 1 and r = -1.

# Questions on Special Integer Sequences (opt)<sub>2</sub>

TABLE 1 Some Useful Sequences.		
nth Term	First 10 Terms	
n <sup>2</sup>	1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100,	
n³	1, 8, 27, 64, 125, 216, 343, 512, 729, 1000,	
$n^4$	1, 16, 81, 256, 625, 1296, 2401, 4096, 6561, 10000,	
$f_n$	1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89,	
2 <sup>n</sup>	2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024,	
3 <sup>n</sup>	3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729, 2187, 6561, 19683, 59049,	
n!	1, 2, 6, 24, 120, 720, 5040, 40320, 362880, 3628800,	

#### **Summations**<sub>1</sub>

Sum of the terms  $a_m, a_m + 1, ..., a_n$ from the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ 

The notation:

$$\sum_{j=m}^{n} a_{j} \qquad \sum_{j=m}^{n} a_{j} \qquad \sum_{m \leq j \leq n} a_{j}$$

represents

$$a_m + a_{m+1} + \cdots + a_n$$

The variable *j* is called the *index of summation*. It runs through all the integers starting with its *lower limit m* and ending with its *upper limit n*.

#### **Summations**<sub>2</sub>

More generally for a set *S*:

$$\sum_{j \in s} a_j$$

**Examples:** 

$$r^{0} + r^{1} + r^{2} + r^{3} + \dots + r^{n} = \sum_{j=0}^{n} r^{j}$$

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i}$$

If 
$$S = \{2, 5, 7, 10\}$$
 then  $\sum_{j \in s} a_j = a_2 + a_5 + a_7 + a_{10}$ 

## Product Notation (optional)

Product of the terms  $a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n$  from the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ 

The notation:

$$\prod_{j=m}^{n} a_j \qquad \prod_{j=m}^{n} a_j \qquad \prod_{m \le j \le n} a_j$$

represents

$$a_m \times a_{m+1} \times \cdots \times a_n$$

#### Some Useful Summation Formulae

#### **TABLE 2** Some Useful Summation Formulae.

Sum	Closed From
$\sum_{k=0}^{n} ar^{k} \left( r \neq 0 \right)$	$\frac{ar^{n+1}-a}{r-1}, \ r\neq 1$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k$	$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2$	$\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^3$	$\frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$
$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k,  x  < 1$	$\frac{1}{1-x}$
$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^{k-1},  x  < 1$	$\frac{1}{\left(1-x\right)^2}$

# **Cardinality of Sets**

Section 2.5

## Cardinality<sub>1</sub>

**Definition**: The *cardinality* of a set A is equal to the cardinality of a set B, denoted |A| = |B|, if and only if there is a one-to-one correspondence (*i.e.*, a bijection) from A to B.

If there is a one-to-one function (i.e., an injection) from A to B, the cardinality of A is less than or the same as the cardinality of B and we write  $|A| \le |B|$ .

When  $|A| \le |B|$  and A and B have different cardinality, we say that the cardinality of A is less than the cardinality of B and write |A| < |B|.

## **Cardinality**<sub>2</sub>

**Definition**: A set that is either finite or has the same cardinality as the set of positive integers (**Z**<sup>+</sup>) is called *countable*. A set that is not countable is *uncountable*.

The set of real numbers R is an uncountable set.

When an infinite set is countable (*countably infinite*) its cardinality is  $\aleph_0$  (where  $\aleph$  is aleph, the 1<sup>st</sup> letter of the Hebrew alphabet).

We write  $|S| = \aleph_0$  and say that S has cardinality "aleph null."

## Showing that a Set is Countable

An infinite set is countable if and only if it is possible to list the elements of the set in a sequence (indexed by the positive integers).

The reason for this is that a one-to-one correspondence f from the set of positive integers to a set S can be expressed in terms of a sequence  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n, ...$  where  $a_1 = f(1), a_2 = f(2), ..., a_n = f(n), ...$ 

## Showing that a Set is Countable 1

**Example 1:** Show that the set of positive even integers *E* is countable set.

**Solution**: Let 
$$f(x) = 2x$$
.

Then f is a bijection from  $\mathbb{N}$  to E since f is both one-to-one and onto. To show that it is one-to-one, suppose that f(n) = f(m). Then 2n = 2m, and so n = m. To see that it is onto, suppose that t is an even positive integer. Then t = 2k for some positive integer k and f(k) = t.

## Showing that a Set is Countable 2

**Example 2:** Show that the set of integers **Z** is countable.

**Solution**: Can list in a sequence:

$$0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots$$

Or can define a bijection from **N** to **Z**:

- When n is even: f(n) = n/2
- When *n* is odd: f(n) = -(n-1)/2

# The Positive Rational Numbers are Countable 1

**Definition**: A rational number can be expressed as the ratio of two integers p and q such that  $q \neq 0$ .

- ¾ is a rational number
- V2 is not a rational number.

**Example 3**: Show that the positive rational numbers are countable.

**Solution**: The positive rational numbers are countable since they can be arranged in a sequence:

$$r_1, r_2, r_3, ...$$

The next slide shows how this is done.

# The Positive Rational Numbers are Countable 2

#### **Constructing the List**

First list p/q with p + q = 2.

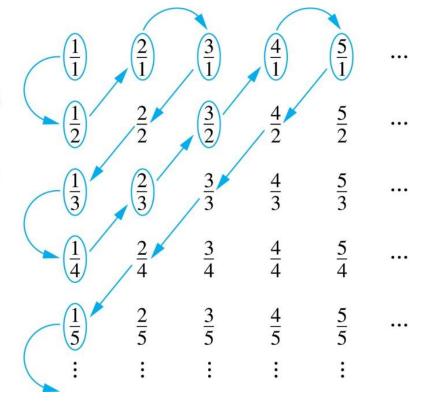
Next list p/q with p + q = 3

And so on.

Terms not circled are not listed because they repeat previously listed terms

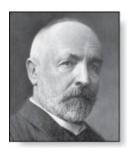
1, ½, 2, 3, 1/3,1/4, 2/3, ...

First row q = 1. Second row q = 2. etc.



# The Real Numbers are Uncountable

Georg Cantor (1845-1918)



**Example**: Show that the set of real numbers is uncountable.

**Solution**: The method is called the Cantor diagonalization argument, and is a proof by contradiction.

- 1. Suppose **R** is countable. Then the real numbers between 0 and 1 are also countable (any subset of a countable set is countable an exercise in the text).
- 2. The real numbers between 0 and 1 can be listed in order  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$ ,  $r_3$ ,...
- 3. Let the decimal representation of this listing be  $r_1 = 0.d_{11}d_{12}d_{13}d_{14}d_{15}d_{16}...$   $r_2 = 0.d_{21}d_{22}d_{23}d_{24}d_{25}d_{26}...$
- 4. Form a new real number with the decimal expansion  $r = d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4 \dots$  where  $d_i = 3$  if  $d_{ii} \neq 3$  and  $d_i = 4$  if  $d_{ii} = 3$  .
- 5. r is not equal to any of the  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$ ,  $r_3$ ,... Because it differs from  $r_i$  in its ith position after the decimal point. Therefore there is a real number between 0 and 1 that is not on the list since every real number has a unique decimal expansion. Hence, all the real numbers between 0 and 1 cannot be listed, so the set of real numbers between 0 and 1 is uncountable.
- 6. Since a set with an uncountable subset is uncountable (an exercise), the set of real numbers is uncountable.

# Matrices

Section 2.6

#### **Matrix**

**Definition**: A *matrix* is a rectangular array of numbers. A matrix with m rows and n columns is called an  $m \times n$  matrix.

- The plural of matrix is matrices.
- A matrix with the same number of rows as columns is called square.
- Two matrices are *equal* if they have the same number of rows and the same number of columns and the corresponding entries in every  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  position are equal.

 $3 \times 2$  matrix

#### **Notation**

Let *m* and *n* be positive integers and let

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

The *i*th row of **A** is the  $1 \times n$  matrix  $[a_{i1}, a_{i2},...,a_{in}]$ . The *j*th column of **A** is the  $m \times 1$  matrix:  $[a_{i1}, a_{i2},...,a_{in}]$ 

 $\begin{bmatrix} a_{2j} \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ a_{mj} \end{bmatrix}$ 

The (i,j)th element or entry of **A** is the element  $a_{ij}$ . We can use **A** =  $[a_{ij}]$  to denote the matrix with its (i,j)th element equal to  $a_{ij}$ .

#### Matrix Arithmetic: Addition

**Definition**: Let  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  and  $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}]$  be  $m \times n$  matrices. The sum of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , denoted by  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ , is the  $m \times n$  matrix that has  $a_{ij} + b_{ij}$  as its (i,j)th element. In other words,  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]$ .

#### **Example:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & -3 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & -1 \\ 1 & -3 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 & -2 \\ 3 & -1 & -3 \\ 2 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that matrices of different sizes can not be added.

## Matrix Multiplication

**Definition**: Let **A** be an  $m \times k$  matrix and **B** be a  $k \times n$  matrix. The product of **A** and **B**, denoted by **AB**, is the  $m \times n$  matrix that has its (i,j)th element equal to the sum of the products of the corresponding elements from the ith row of **A** and the jth column of **B**. In other words, if  $AB = [c_{ij}]$  then  $c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + ... + a_{kj}b_{2j}$ .

#### **Example:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 4 \\ 8 & 9 \\ 7 & 13 \\ 8 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The product of two matrices is undefined when the number of columns in the first matrix is not the same as the number of rows in the second.

## Illustration of Matrix Multiplication

The Product of  $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_{ij}]$  and  $\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{b}_{ij}]$ 

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mk} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{ik}b_{kj}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & b_{1j} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2j} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{kj} & \dots & b_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1n} \\ c_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & c_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{m1} & c_{m2} & \dots & c_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Identity Matrix and Powers of Matrices

**Definition**: The *identity matrix of order n* is the  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{I}_n = [\delta_{ij}]$ , where  $\delta_{ij} = 1$  if i = j and  $\delta_{ij} = 0$  if  $i \neq j$ .

$$\mathbf{I}_{n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ & & \ddots & & \ddots \\ & & \ddots & & \ddots \\ & & \ddots & & \ddots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AI_n = I_m A = A$$

when **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix

Powers of square matrices can be defined. When A is an  $n \times n$  matrix, we have:

$$\mathbf{A}^0 = \mathbf{I}_n \qquad \qquad \mathbf{A}^r = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}\cdots\mathbf{A}}_{\text{r times}}$$

## Transposes of Matrices 1

**Definition**: Let  $A = [a_{ij}]$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix. The *transpose* of A, denoted by  $A^t$ , is the  $n \times m$  matrix obtained by interchanging the rows and columns of A.

If 
$$A^t = [b_{ij}]$$
, then  $b_{ij} = a_{ji}$  for  $i = 1, 2, ..., n$  and  $j = 1, 2, ..., m$ .

The transpose of the matrix 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ 

### Transposes of Matrices 2

**Definition**: A square matrix **A** is called symmetric if  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{t}$ . Thus  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  is symmetric if  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$  for i and j with  $1 \le i \le n$  and  $1 \le j \le n$ .

The matrix 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is square.  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Square matrices do not change when their rows and columns are interchanged.

#### Zero-One Matrices 1

**Definition**: A matrix all of whose entries are either 0 or 1 is called a *zero-one matrix*. (These will be used in Chapters 9 and 10.)

Algorithms operating on discrete structures represented by zero-one matrices are based on Boolean arithmetic defined by the following Boolean operations:

$$b_1 \wedge b_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b_1 = b_2 = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \qquad b_1 \vee b_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b_1 = 1 \text{ or } b_2 = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Zero-One Matrices 2

**Definition**: Let  $A = [a_{ij}]$  and  $B = [b_{ij}]$  be an  $m \times n$  zero-one matrices.

- The *join* of **A** and **B** is the zero-one matrix with (i,j)th entry  $a_{ij} \vee b_{ij}$ . The *join* of **A** and **B** is denoted by **A**  $\vee$  **B**.
- The meet of A and B is the zero-one matrix with
   (i,j)th entry a<sub>ij</sub> ^ b<sub>ij</sub>. The meet of A and B is denoted by A ^ B.

#### Joins and Meets of Zero-One Matrices

**Example**: Find the join and meet of the zero-one matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

**Solution**: The join of **A** and **B** is

$$A \lor B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \lor & 0 & & 0 & \lor & 1 & & 1 & \lor & 0 \\ 0 & \lor & 1 & & 1 & \lor & 1 & & 0 & \lor & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The meet of **A** and **B** is

$$A \wedge B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \wedge & 0 & & 0 & \wedge & 1 & & 1 & \wedge & 0 \\ 0 & \wedge & 1 & & 1 & \wedge & 1 & & 0 & \wedge & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

#### Boolean Product of Zero-One Matrices

**Definition**: Let  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  be an  $m \times k$  zero-one matrix and  $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}]$  be a  $k \times n$  zero-one matrix. The *Boolean* product of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , denoted by  $\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B}$ , is the  $m \times n$  zero-one matrix with (i,j)th entry

$$c_{ij} = (a_{i1} \wedge b_{1j}) \vee (a_{i2} \wedge b_{2j}) \vee ... \vee (a_{ik} \wedge b_{kj}).$$

#### Boolean Product of Zero-One Matrices,

**Example**: Find the Boolean product of **A** and **B**,

where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$A \odot B = \begin{bmatrix} (1 \land 1) & \lor & (0 \land 0) & (1 \land 1) & \lor & (0 \land 1) & (1 \land 0) & \lor & (0 \land 1) \\ (0 \land 1) & \lor & (1 \land 0) & (0 \land 1) & \lor & (1 \land 1) & (0 \land 0) & \lor & (1 \land 1) \\ (1 \land 1) & \lor & (0 \land 0) & (1 \land 1) & \lor & (0 \land 1) & (1 \land 0) & \lor & (0 \land 1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \vee & 0 & 1 & \vee & 0 & 0 & \vee & 0 \\ 0 & \vee & 0 & 0 & \vee & 1 & 0 & \vee & 1 \\ 1 & \vee & 0 & 1 & \vee & 0 & 0 & \vee & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

#### Boolean Powers of Zero-One Matrices

**Definition**: Let **A** be a square zero-one matrix and let r be a positive integer. The rth Boolean power of **A** is the Boolean product of r factors of **A**, denoted by  $\mathbf{A}^{[r]}$ . Hence,

$$A^{[r]} = \underbrace{A \odot A \odot \cdots \odot A}_{r \text{ times}}.$$

We define  $\mathbf{A}^{[0]}$  to be  $\mathbf{I}_n$ .

(The Boolean product is well defined because the Boolean product of matrices is associative.)

#### Boolean Powers of Zero-One Matrices 2

Example: Let

$$A = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Find  $\mathbf{A}^n$  for all positive integers n.

**Solution:** 

$$A^{[2]} = A \odot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{[2]} = A \odot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{[3]} = A^{[2]} \odot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{[4]} = A^{[3]} \odot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{[5]} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $A^{[5]} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$   $A^{[n]} = A^5 \text{ for all positive integers } n \text{ with } n \ge 5$