

# **Section Summary**

- Cardinality
- Countable Sets
- Computability

# Cardinality

**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**

- **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  $a_1 = f(1), a_2 = f(2), ..., a_n = f(n), ...$

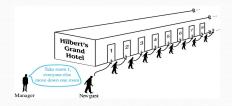
### Hilbert's Grand Hotel



David Hilbert

The Grand Hotel (example due to David Hilbert) has countably infinite number of rooms, each occupied by a guest. We can always accommodate a new guest at this hotel. How is this possible?

**Explanation**: Because the rooms of Grand Hotel are countable, we can list them as Room 1, Room 2, Room 3, and so on. When a new guest arrives, we move the guest in Room 1 to Room 2, the guest in Room 2 to Room 3, and in general the guest in Room n to Room n+1, for all positive integers n. This frees up Room 1, which we assign to the new guest, and all the current guests still have rooms.



The hotel can also accommodate a countable number of new guests, all the guests on a countable number of buses where each bus contains a countable number of guests (see exercises).

# Showing that a Set is Countable

**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 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

**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 properties of Cardinality of infinite set

For every sets A and B, the following equivalence Are held:

(a) |A| = |B|; |A| < |B|; |A| > |B|

(b) If  $|A| \le |B|$  and  $|B| \le |A|$ , then |A| = |B| (Benstien theorem)

If we want to prove |A| = |B|, we usually first prove  $|A| \le |B|$  and then prove  $|B| \le |A|$ 

The following example is interesting.

#### ordered pairs of integers are countably infinite 0 0 0 0 0 0 A one-to-one 0 0 0 0 0 correspondence 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 00 0 0 0 0 0 0000 0 0 0 0-0-0 0

# The Positive Rational Numbers are Countable

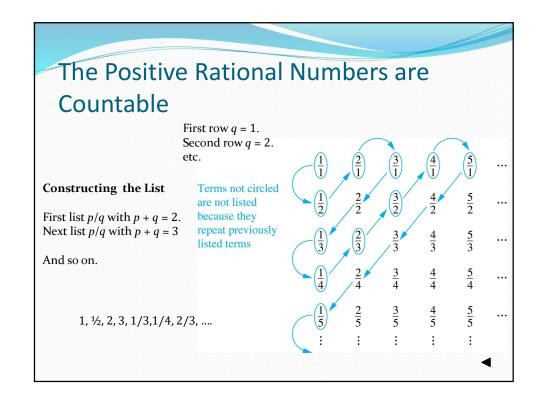
- **Definition**: A rational number can be expressed as the ratio of two integers p and q such that  $q \neq 0$ .
  - <sup>3</sup>/<sub>4</sub> is a rational number
  - $\sqrt{2}$  is not a rational number.

**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:

$$r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots$$

The next slide shows how this is done.



The set of positive rational numbers Q<sup>+</sup> (another solution)

- Let  $S=\{(p,q)|p,q\in Z^+\}=Z^+\times Z^+$ .
- •

$$|Q^{+}| \leq |S| |S| = |Z^{+}| |Z^{+}| \leq |Q^{+}|$$
  $\Rightarrow$   $|Q^{+}| = |Z^{+}|$ 

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#### 2.5 Cardinality of Sets

$$(1) \mid Q^+ \mid \leq \mid S \mid$$

Suppose that 
$$r = \frac{p}{q} \in Q^+$$

$$\frac{p}{q} \rightarrow (p,q)$$
 is injective

$$|Q^+| \leq |S|$$

2.5 Cardinality of Sets

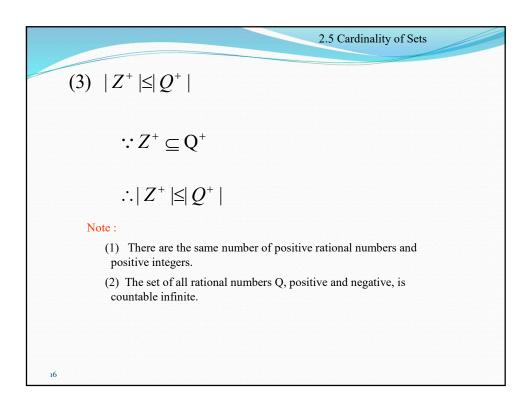
2) 
$$|S| = |Z^{+}|$$
 An infinite set is countable iff it is possible to list all the elements of the set in a sequence

1 2 3 ... p ...

1 (1,1) (2,1) (3,1) ... (p,1) ...
(1,2) (2,2) (3,2) ... (p,2) ...
(1,3) (2,3) (3,3) ... (p,3) ...

1 (1,q) (2,q) (3,q) ... (p,q) ...

1 + 2 + ... + (p + q - 2) =  $\frac{\nu(p+q-2)(p+q-1)}{2}$ 
 $n = \frac{1}{2}(p+q-2)(p+q-1)+q$ 



# **Strings**

**Example 4**: Show that the set of finite strings *S* over a finite alphabet *A* is countably infinite.

Assume an alphabetical ordering of symbols in A

**Solution**: Show that the strings can be listed in a sequence. First list

- 1. All the strings of length 0 in alphabetical order.
- 2. Then all the strings of length 1 in lexicographic (as in a dictionary) order.
- 3. Then all the strings of length 2 in lexicographic order.
- 4. And so on.

This implies a bijection from **N** to *S* and hence it is a countably infinite set.

# The set of all Java programs is countable.

**Example 5**: Show that the set of all Java programs is countable. **Solution**: Let *S* be the set of strings constructed from the characters which can appear in a Java program. Use the ordering from the previous example. Take each string in turn:

- Feed the string into a Java compiler. (A Java compiler will determine if the input program is a syntactically correct Java program.)
- If the compiler says YES, this is a syntactically correct Java program, we add the program to the list.
- We move on to the next string.

In this way we construct an implied bijection from **N** to the set of Java programs. Hence, the set of Java programs is countable. ◀

#### The properties of the countable sets:

- 1) No infinite set has a smaller cardinality than a countable set.
- 2) The union of two countable sets is countable.
- 3) The union of finite number of countable sets is countable.
- 4) The union of a countable number of countable sets is countable.

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#### 2.5 Cardinality of Sets

#### 3. Cantor Diagonalization Argument

---- An important technique used to construct an object which is not a member of a countable set of objects

# **Theorem** The set of real numbers between 0 and 1 is uncountable.

**Proof:** 

$$A = \{x \mid x \in (0,1) \land x \in R\}$$

$$(1) \mid Z^+ \mid \leq \mid A \mid$$

$$A = \{x \mid x \in (0,1) \land x \in R\}$$

$$B = \{\frac{1}{n+1} | n \in Z^+\}$$

$$|B| = |Z^+|$$
  $B \subseteq A$ 

$$|Z| \leq A$$

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#### 2.5 Cardinality of Sets

#### $(2)|Z^{\pm}|\neq |A|$

Assume A is countable, then let  $A=\{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_n, \dots\}$ 

Represent each real number in the list using its decimal expansion.

THE LIST....

$$\mathbf{r}_1 = \mathbf{0.d_{11}} \mathbf{d}_{12} \mathbf{d}_{13} \mathbf{d}_{14} \mathbf{d}_{15} \mathbf{d}_{16} \dots$$

$$r_2 = 0.d_{21}d_{22}d_{23}d_{24}d_{25}d_{26}...$$

$$r_3 = 0.d_{31}d_{32}d_{33}d_{34}d_{35}d_{36}...$$

Georg Cantor (1845-1918)



Now construct the number  $x = 0.x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5x_6x_7...$ 

$$x_i = 3$$
 if  $d_{ii} \neq 3$ 

$$x_i = 4$$
 if  $d_{ii} = 3$ 

Then x is not equal to any number in the list.

Hence, no such list can exist and hence the interval (0,1) is uncountable.

**Theorem** The set of real numbers  $R = (-\infty, +\infty)$  has the same cardinality as the set (0,1).

#### **Proof:**

Let f(x) = tg(x).

f(x) is a bijection from  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  to  $R = (-\infty, +\infty)$ .

$$\left| \left( -\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2} \right) \right| = |(0,1)| \qquad \therefore |R| = |(0,1)|$$

 $|\mathbf{R}| = \aleph_1$ 

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#### 2.5 Cardinality of Sets

[[Example]] Suppose that  $[0,1] = \{x \mid x \in R, 0 \le x \le 1\}$ . Show that the cardinality of this set is  $\aleph_1$ .

#### **Proof:**

$$A = [0,1] = \{x \mid x \in R, 0 \le x \le 1\}$$

$$B = (0,1) = \{x \mid x \in R, 0 < x < 1\}$$

$$(1)B \subseteq A \Rightarrow \mid B \mid \leq \mid A \mid$$

(2) Let 
$$g(x) = \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{4}, x \in [0,1]$$

Hence, g(x) is a bijection from [0,1] to [1/4,3/4].

Thus  $|A| \leq |B|$ 

**Schröder-Bernstein** Theorem If A and B are sets with  $|A| \le |B|$  and  $|B| \le |A|$  then |A| = |B|. In other words, if there are one-to-one functions f from A to B and g from B to A, then there is a one to –one correspondence between a A and B.

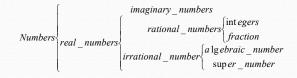
**Theorem** The cardinality of the power set of an arbitrary set has a greater cardinality than the original arbitrary set.

The Continuum Hypothesis

The continuum hypothesis (CH) asserts that there is no cardinal number a such that  $\aleph_0 < a < \aleph_1$ .

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### Classification of numbers

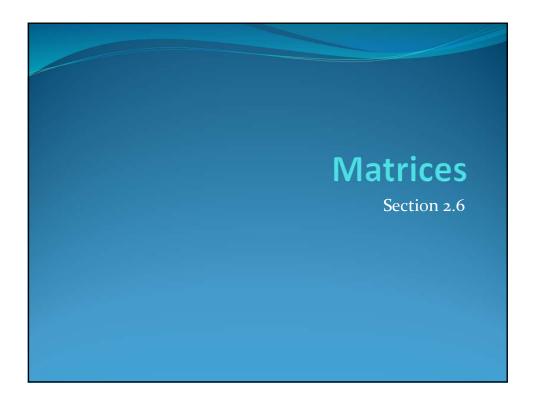


# Computability (Optional)

- **Definition**: We say that a function is **computable** if there is a computer program in some programming language that finds the values of this function. If a function is not computable we say it is **uncomputable**.
- There are uncomputable functions. We have shown that the set of Java programs is countable. Exercise 38 in the text shows that there are uncountably many different functions from a particular countably infinite set (i.e., the positive integers) to itself. Therefore (Exercise 39) there must be uncomputable functions.

### Homework

Sec. 2.5 4(c,d), 28, 36, 38



# **Section Summary**

- Definition of a Matrix
- Matrix Arithmetic
- Transposes and Powers of Arithmetic
- Zero-One matrices

### **Matrices**

- Matrices are useful discrete structures that can be used in many ways. For example, they are used to:
  - describe certain types of functions known as linear transformations.
  - Express which vertices of a graph are connected by edges (see Chapter 10).
- In later chapters, we will see matrices used to build models of:
  - Transportation systems.
  - Communication networks.
- Algorithms based on matrix models will be presented in later chapters.
- Here we cover the aspect of matrix arithmetic that will be needed later.

### 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 position are equal.

$$3 \times 2 \text{ matrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 2 \\
1 & 3
\end{bmatrix}$$

### **Notation**

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

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

- The *i*th row of **A** is the  $1 \times n$  matrix  $[a_{ii}, a_{i2},...,a_{in}]$ . The *j*th column of **A** is the  $m \times 1$  *matrix:*  $\begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ \end{bmatrix}$
- The (i,j)th element or entry of **A** is the element  $a_{ij}$ . We can use  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  to denote the matrix with its (i,j)th element equal to  $a_{ij}$ .

### Matrix Arithmetic: Addition

**Defintion**: 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,  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = [a_{ii} + b_{ii}]$ .

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

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  $\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{b}_{ij}]$ 

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{ik} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mk} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & b_{1j} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2j} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{kj} & \dots & b_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

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

### Matrix Multiplication is not Commutative

**Example**: Let

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Does AB = BA?

**Solution:** 

$$\mathbf{AB} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 2 & 2 \\ 5 & 3 \end{array} \right] \qquad \mathbf{BA} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

 $AB \neq BA$ 

### **Identity Matrix and Powers of Matrices**

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

$$\mathbf{I_n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{AI_n} = \mathbf{I_m A} = \mathbf{A}$$
when **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix

$$AI_n = I_m A = A$$
  
A is an  $m \times n$  matrix

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

$$\mathbf{A}^0 = \mathbf{I}_n \qquad \mathbf{A}^r = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}\cdots\mathbf{A}$$

# **Transposes of Matrices**

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

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**

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

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

### **Zero-One Matrices**

**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:

$$b_1 \wedge b_2 = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if } b_1 = b_2 = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right. \quad b_1 \vee b_2 = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if } b_1 = 1 \text{ or } b_2 = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

### **Zero-One Matrices**

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

- The *join* of **A** and **B** is the zero-one matrix with (i,j)th entry  $a_{ii} \lor b_{ii}$ . The *join* of **A** and **B** is denoted by **A**  $\lor$  **B**.
- The meet of 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

$$\mathbf{A} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right], \qquad \mathbf{B} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

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

$$\mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 \vee 0 & 0 \vee 1 & 1 \vee 0 \\ 0 \vee 1 & 1 \vee 1 & 0 \vee 0 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

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

$$\mathbf{A} \wedge \mathbf{B} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 \wedge 0 & 0 \wedge 1 & 1 \wedge 0 \\ 0 \wedge 1 & 1 \wedge 1 & 0 \wedge 0 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

#### **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

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

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

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

Continued on next slide →

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

**Solution**: The Boolean product **A** ⊙ **B** is given by

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

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

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

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

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

We define  $A^{[o]}$  to be  $I_n$ .

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

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

**Example:** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Find  $A^n$  for all positive integers n.

**Solution**:

**Solution:** 
$$\mathbf{A}^{[2]} = \mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
  $\mathbf{A}^{[3]} = \mathbf{A}^{[2]} \odot \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

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

$$\mathbf{A}^{[5]} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{A^{[n]}} = \mathbf{A^5} \quad \text{for all positive integers $n$ with $n \geq 5$.}$$

### Homework

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