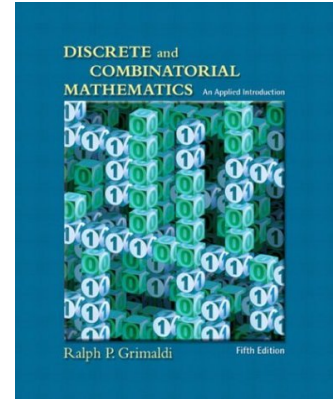
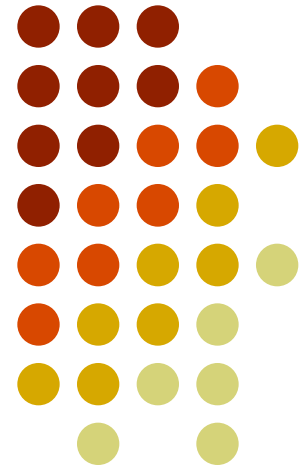


Discrete Mathematics

-- Chapter 7: Relations: The Second Time Round



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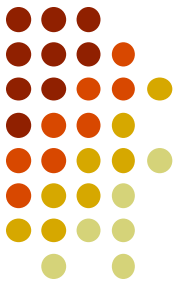




Outline

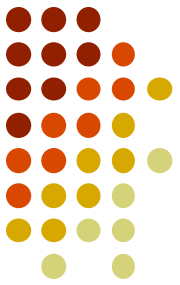
- Relations Revisited: Properties of Relations
- Computer Recognition: Zero-One Matrices and Directed Graphs
- **Partial Orders:** Hasse Diagrams
- **Equivalence Relations** and Partitions
- Finite State Machine: The Minimization Process
 - Application of equivalence relation
 - Minimization process: find a machine with the same function but fewer internal states

7.1 Relations Revisited: Properties of Relations



- Definition 7.1: For sets A, B , any subset of $A \times B$ is called a (binary) relation from A to B . Any subset of $A \times A$ is called a (binary) relation on A .
- Ex 7.1
 - Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on the set Z by $a\mathfrak{R}b$, if $a \leq b$.
 - For $x, y \in Z$ and $n \in Z^+$, the modulo n relation \mathfrak{R} is defined by $x\mathfrak{R}y$ if $x - y$ is a multiple of n , e.g., with $n=7$, $9\mathfrak{R}2$, $-3\mathfrak{R}11$, but $3 \not\mathfrak{R} 7$
- Ex 7.2 : Language $A \subseteq \Sigma^*$. For $x, y \in A$, define $x\mathfrak{R}y$ if x is a prefix of y .

Relations Revisited: Properties of Relations

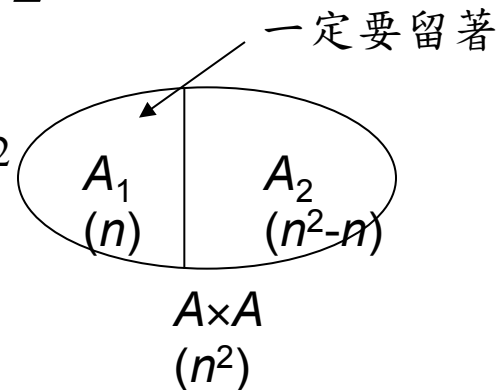


- Finite state machine $M = (S, I, O, v, w)$
 - Reachability
 - $s_1 \mathfrak{R} s_2$ if $v(s_1, x) = s_2, x \in I$. \mathfrak{R} denotes the first level of reachability.
 - $s_1 \mathfrak{R} s_2$ if $v(s_1, x_1 x_2) = s_2, x_1 x_2 \in I^2$. \mathfrak{R} denotes the second level of reachability.
 - Equivalence
 - 1-equivalence relation: $s_1 E_1 s_2$ if $w(s_1, x) = w(s_2, x)$ for $x \in I$.
 - k -equivalence relation: $s_1 E_k s_2$ if $w(s_1, y) = w(s_2, y)$ for $y \in I^k$.
 - If two states are k -equivalent for **all** $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, they are called equivalent.



Reflexive

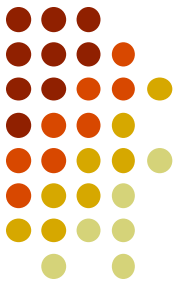
- Definition 7.2: A relation \mathfrak{R} on a set A is called **reflexive** if $(x, x) \in \mathfrak{R}$, for **all** $x \in A$.
- **Ex 7.4** : For $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, a relation $\mathfrak{R} \subseteq A \times A$ will be reflexive if and only if $\mathfrak{R} \subseteq \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (4, 4)\}$. But $\mathfrak{R}_1 = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$ is not reflexive, $\mathfrak{R}_2 = \{(x, y) \mid x \leq y, x, y \in A\}$ is reflexive.
- **Ex 7.5** : Given a finite set A with $|A| = n$, we have $|A \times A| = n^2$, so there are 2^{n^2} relations on A . Among them $2^{(n^2-n)}$ are reflexive.
 - $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$
 - $A \times A = \{(a_i, a_j) \mid 1 \leq i, j \leq n\} = A_1 \cup A_2$
 - $A_1 = \{(a_i, a_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$
 - $A_2 = \{(a_i, a_j) \mid i \neq j, 1 \leq i, j \leq n\}$





Symmetric

- Definition 7.3: A relation \mathfrak{R} on a set A is called symmetric if for all $x, y \in A$, if $(x, y) \in \mathfrak{R} \Rightarrow (y, x) \in \mathfrak{R}$.
- Ex 7.6 : $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$
 - $\mathfrak{R}_1 = \{(1, 2), (2, 1), (1, 3), (3, 1)\}$, symmetric, but not reflexive.
 - $\mathfrak{R}_2 = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (2, 3)\}$, reflexive, but not symmetric.
 - $\mathfrak{R}_3 = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$ and $\mathfrak{R}_4 = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (2, 3), (3, 2)\}$, both reflexive and symmetric.
 - $\mathfrak{R}_5 = \{(1, 1), (2, 3), (3, 3)\}$, neither reflexive nor symmetric.

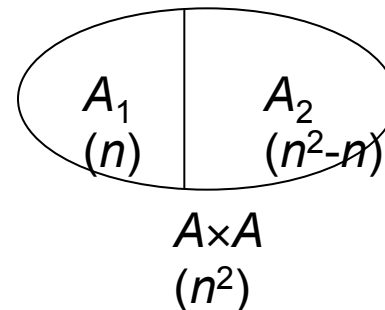


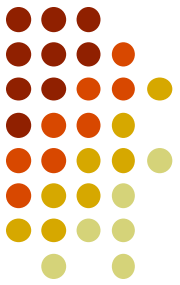
Symmetric

- To count the symmetric relations on $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$.
 - $A \times A = A_1 \cup A_2$, $A_1 = \{(a_i, a_i) | 1 \leq i \leq n\}$, $A_2 = \{(a_i, a_j) | i \neq j, 1 \leq i, j \leq n\}$
 - A_1 contains n pairs, and A_2 contains $n^2 - n$ pairs.
 - A_2 contains $(n^2 - n)/2$ subsets $S_{i,j}$ of the form $\{(a_i, a_j), (a_j, a_i) | i < j\}$.
 - So, we have totally $2^n \times 2^{(1/2)(n^2 - n)}$ symmetric relations on A .
- If the relations are both reflexive and symmetric, we have $2^{(1/2)(n^2 - n)}$ choices.



1





Transitive

- Definition 7.4: A relation \mathfrak{R} on a set A is called transitive **if** $(x, y), (y, z) \in \mathfrak{R} \Rightarrow (x, z) \in \mathfrak{R}$ for all $x, y, z \in A$.
- Ex 7.8 : Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on the set \mathbb{Z}^+ by $a\mathfrak{R}b$ if a divides b . This is a transitive and reflexive relation but not symmetric.
- Ex 7.9 : Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on the set \mathbb{Z} by $a\mathfrak{R}b$ if $a \times b \geq 0$. What properties do they have?
 - Reflexive, symmetric
 - Not transitive, e.g., $(3, 0), (0, -7) \in \mathfrak{R}$, but $(3, -7)$ not



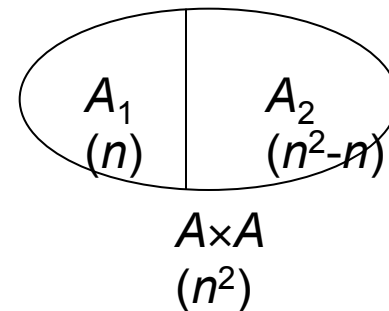
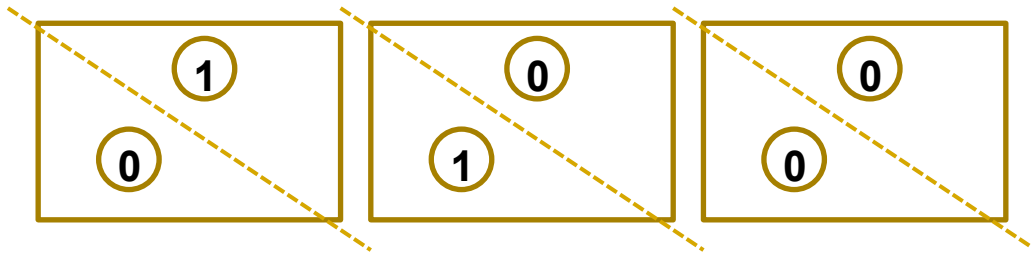
Antisymmetric

- Definition 7.5: A relation \mathfrak{R} on a set A is called **antisymmetric** if $(x, y) \in \mathfrak{R}$ and $(y, x) \in \mathfrak{R} \Rightarrow x = y$ for all $x, y \in A$.
 - Both **a** related to **b** and **b** related to **a**, if **a** and **b** are one and the same element from A
- **Ex 7.11** : Define the relation $(A, B) \in \mathfrak{R}$ if $A \subseteq B$. Then it is an anti-symmetric relation.
- Note that “*not symmetric*” is different from anti-symmetric.
- **Ex 7.12** : $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$, what properties do the following relations on A have?
 - $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 3)\}$ (not symmetric, not antisymmetric)
 - $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1, 1), (2, 2)\}$ (symmetric and antisymmetric)



Antisymmetric

- To count the antisymmetric relations on $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$.
 - $A \times A = A_1 \cup A_2$, $A_1 = \{(a_i, a_i) | 1 \leq i \leq n\}$, $A_2 = \{(a_i, a_j) | i \neq j, 1 \leq i, j \leq n\}$
 - A_1 contains n pairs, and A_2 contains $n^2 - n$ pairs.
 - A_2 contains $(n^2 - n)/2$ subsets $S_{i,j}$ of the form $\{(a_i, a_j), (a_j, a_i) | i < j\}$.
 - Each element in A_1 can be selected or not.
 - Each element in $S_{i,j}$ can be selected **in three alternatives**: *either (a_i, a_j) , or (a_j, a_i) , or none*.
 - So, we have totally $2^n \times 3^{(1/2)(n^2 - n)}$ anti-symmetric relations on A .





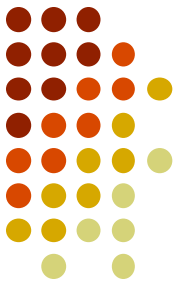
Antisymmetric

- **Ex 7.13** : Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on the functions by $f \mathfrak{R} g$ if f is dominated by g (or $f \in O(g)$). What are their properties?
 - Reflexive
 - Transitive
 - not symmetric (e.g., $g=n$, $f=n^2$, $g=O(f)$, but $f \neq O(g)$)
 - not antisymmetric (e.g., $g(n)=n$, $f(n)=n+5$, $f \mathfrak{R} g$ and $g \mathfrak{R} f$, but $f \neq g$)



Example

- $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$, students in class discrete math.
- a relation R on a set A , if $(a_i, a_j) \in R$, the midterm score $(a_i) \geq$ midterm score (a_j)
 - No equal score
- R is reflexive
- R is transitive
- R is not symmetric
- R is antisymmetric



Partial Order

- Definition 7.6: A relation \mathfrak{R} is called a partial order (partial ordering relation), if \mathfrak{R} is *reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive*.
- (A, R) is a **partially ordered set / poset** if R is a partial ordering on A . Typical notation: (A, \leq) ;
 - “**no loops**”
- If $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$, the elements a and b are **comparable**.
- If all pairs are comparable, \leq is a **total ordering** or **chain**.



Partial Order

- Ex 7.15 : Let A be the set of positive integers divisors of n , the relation \mathfrak{R} on A by $a\mathfrak{R}b$ if a divides b , it defines a *partial order*. How many ordered pairs does it occur in \mathfrak{R} .
- E.g. $n=12$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12\}$, $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (1, 6), (1, 12), (2, 2), (2, 4), (2, 6), (2, 12), (3, 3), (3, 6), (3, 12), (4, 4), (4, 12), (6, 6), (6, 12), (12, 12)\}$
- If $(a, b) \in \mathfrak{R}$, then $a = 2^m \cdot 3^n$ and $b = 2^p \cdot 3^q$ with $0 \leq m \leq p \leq 2, 0 \leq n \leq q \leq 1$.
- Selection of size 2 from a set of size 3, with **repetition**.

$$\binom{3+2-1}{2} = \binom{4}{2} = 6 \text{ for } m, p; \quad \binom{2+2-1}{2} = \binom{3}{2} = 3 \text{ for } n, q$$

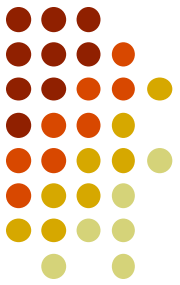
$$\therefore \text{total} = 6 \cdot 3 = 18 \text{ ordered pairs}$$

- For $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k} \Rightarrow$ the number of ordered pairs $= \prod_{i=1}^k \binom{(e_i+1)+2-1}{2} = \prod_{i=1}^k \binom{e_i+2}{2}$
↑
Maximal element



Equivalence relation

- Definition 7.7. A relation \mathfrak{R} is called an equivalence relation, if \mathfrak{R} is *reflexive, symmetric and transitive*.
- Given an equivalence relation R on A , for each $a \in A$ the **equivalence class** $[a]$ is defined by $\{x \mid (x,a) \in R\}$.
 - E.g., Modulo 3 equivalences on \mathbb{Z} , such that $[0] = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\}$ and $[1] = \{\dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots\}$
- **Ex 7.16** (b): If $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$, the following are all equivalence relations
 - $\mathfrak{R}_1 = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$
 - $\mathfrak{R}_2 = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (2, 3), (3, 2)\}$
 - $\mathfrak{R}_3 = \{(1, 1), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (3, 3)\}$
 - $\mathfrak{R}_4 = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3)\}$



Examples

- **Ex 7.16** (c): For a finite set A , $A \times A$ is the largest equivalence relation on A . If $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$, then the equality relation $\mathfrak{R} = \{(a_i, a_i) | 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ is the smallest equivalence relation on A .
- **Ex 7.16** (d): Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$, $B = \{x, y, z\}$, and $f: A \rightarrow B$ be the onto function. $f = \{(1, x), (2, z), (3, x), (4, y), (5, z), (6, y), (7, x)\}$. Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on A by $a\mathfrak{R}b$ if $f(a) = f(b)$. \mathfrak{R} is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive, so it is an equivalence relation. (e.g., $f(a)=f(b), f(b)=f(c) \Rightarrow f(a)=f(c)$)
- **Ex 7.16** (e): If \mathfrak{R} is a relation on A , then \mathfrak{R} is both an equivalence relation and a partial order relation iff \mathfrak{R} is the equality relation on A .
 - **equality relation** $\{(a_i, a_i) | a_i \in A\}$

7.2 Computer Recognition: Zero-One Matrices and Directed Graphs



- Definition 7.8: Let relations $\mathfrak{R}_1 \subseteq A \times B$ and $\mathfrak{R}_2 \subseteq B \times C$. The composite relation $\mathfrak{R}_1 \circ \mathfrak{R}_2$ is a relation defined by $\mathfrak{R}_1 \circ \mathfrak{R}_2 = \{(x, z) \mid \exists y \in B \text{ such that } (x, y) \in \mathfrak{R}_1 \text{ and } (y, z) \in \mathfrak{R}_2\}$.

(Note the different ordering with function composition.)

$$f: A \rightarrow B, \quad g: B \rightarrow C, \quad g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$$

- **Ex 7.17** : Consider $\mathfrak{R}_1 = \{(1, x), (2, x), (3, y), (3, z)\}$ and $\mathfrak{R}_2 = \{(w, 5), (x, 6)\}$, and $\mathfrak{R}_3 = \{(w, 5), (w, 6)\}$. $\mathfrak{R}_1 \circ \mathfrak{R}_2 = \{(1, 6), (2, 6)\}$, and $\mathfrak{R}_1 \circ \mathfrak{R}_3 \neq ?$
- **Ex 7.18** : Let A be the set of employees $\{L. Alldredge, \dots\}$ at a computer center, while B denotes a set of programming language $\{C++, Java, \dots\}$, and C is a set of projects $\{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$, consider $\mathfrak{R}_1 \subseteq A \times B$, $\mathfrak{R}_2 \subseteq B \times C$. What is the means of $\mathfrak{R}_1 \circ \mathfrak{R}_2$?

join operation in database



Composite Relation

- Theorem 7.1: $\mathfrak{R}_1 \subseteq A \times B$, $\mathfrak{R}_2 \subseteq B \times C$, and $\mathfrak{R}_3 \subseteq C \times D \Rightarrow \mathfrak{R}_1 \circ (\mathfrak{R}_2 \circ \mathfrak{R}_3) = (\mathfrak{R}_1 \circ \mathfrak{R}_2) \circ \mathfrak{R}_3$
- Definition 7.9. We define the powers of relation \mathfrak{R} by (a) $\mathfrak{R}^1 = \mathfrak{R}$; (b) $\mathfrak{R}^{n+1} = \mathfrak{R} \circ \mathfrak{R}^n$.
- **Ex 7.19** : If $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 4), (3, 2)\}$, then $\mathfrak{R}^2 = \{(1, 4), (1, 2), (3, 4)\}$, $\mathfrak{R}^3 = ?$ and $\mathfrak{R}^4 = ?$

$\mathfrak{R}^3 = \{(1, 4)\}$
and for $n \geq 4$, $\mathfrak{R}^n = \emptyset$



Relation Matrix

- Definition 7.10: An $m \times n$ zero-one matrix $E = (e_{ij})_{m \times n}$ is a rectangular array of numbers arranged in m rows and n columns, where each e_{ij} denotes the entry in the i th row and j th column of E , and each such entry is 0 or 1.
- **Relation matrix**: A relation can be represented by an $m \times n$ zero-one matrix.
- **Ex 7.21**: Consider $\mathcal{R}_1 = \{(1, x), (2, x), (3, y), (3, z)\}$, $\mathcal{R}_2 = \{(w, 5), (x, 6)\}$, and $\mathcal{R}_1 \circ \mathcal{R}_2$ to be represented by relation matrices?

$$M(\mathcal{R}_1) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} (w) & (x) & (y) & (z) \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} (1) \\ (2) \\ (3) \\ (4) \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix},$$

$$M(\mathcal{R}_2) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} (5) & (6) & (7) \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} (w) \\ (x) \\ (y) \\ (z) \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$$M(\mathcal{R}_1) \cdot M(\mathcal{R}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} (5) & (6) & (7) \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} (1) \\ (2) \\ (3) \\ (4) \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix} = M(\mathcal{R}_1 \circ \mathcal{R}_2).$$

Boolean addition' with $1+1=1$



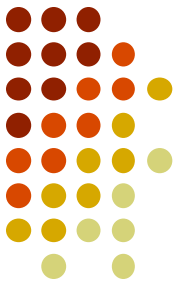
Relation Matrix

- **Ex 7.22:** If $\mathcal{R} = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 4), (3, 2)\}$, then what are the relation matrices of \mathcal{R}^2 , \mathcal{R}^3 and \mathcal{R}^4 ?

$$M(\mathcal{R}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(M(\mathcal{R}))^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(M(\mathcal{R}))^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



Relation Matrix

- Let A be a set with $|A| = n$ and \mathfrak{R} be a relation on A . If $M(\mathfrak{R})$ is the relation matrix for \mathfrak{R} , then
 - $M(\mathfrak{R}) = \mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathfrak{R} = \phi$.
 - $M(\mathfrak{R}) = \mathbf{1}$ if and only if $\mathfrak{R} = A \times A$.
 - $M(\mathfrak{R}^m) = [M(\mathfrak{R})]^m$
- Definition 7.11: Let $E = (e_{ij})_{m \times n}$, $F = (f_{ij})_{m \times n}$ be two $m \times n$ zero-one matrices. We say that E precedes, or is less than, F , written as $E \leq F$, if $e_{ij} \leq f_{ij}$ for all i, j .
- Ex 7.23** : $E \leq F$. How many zero-one matrices G do have the results of $E \leq G$?

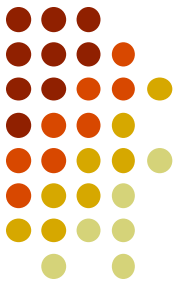
$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad F = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$2^3 = 8$



Relation Matrix

- Definition 7.12: $I_n = (\delta_{ij})_{n \times n}$ is the $n \times n$ zero-one matrix, where
$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0, & \text{if } i \neq j, \end{cases}$$
- Definition 7.13: $A = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ is a zero-one matrix, the transpose of A , written A^{tr} , is the matrix $(a_{ji}^*)_{n \times m}$ where $a_{ji}^* = a_{ij}$
- Ex 7.24 :
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^{\text{tr}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
- **Theorem 7.2**: If M denote the relation matrix for \mathfrak{R} on A , then
 - (A) \mathfrak{R} is reflexive if and only if $I_n \leq M$.
 - (B) \mathfrak{R} is symmetric if and only if $M = M^{\text{tr}}$.
 - (C) \mathfrak{R} is transitive if and only if $M^2 \leq M$.
 - (D) \mathfrak{R} is anti-symmetric if and only if $M \cap M^{\text{tr}} \leq I_n$.



Directed Graph

- Definition 7.14. A directed graph can be denoted as $G = (V, E)$, where V is the vertex set and E is the edge set.
 - (a, b) : if $a, b \in V$ $(a, b) \in E$, then there is a edge from a to b . Vertex a is called source (origin) of the edge, and b is terminating vertex.
 - (a, a) : is called a loop.
- $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $E = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 4), (3, 2)\}$
 - Isolated vertex: vertex 5 in Fig. 7.1.
- **Single undirected edge** $\{a, b\} = \{b, a\}$ in Fig. 7.2 (b) is used to represent the two directed edges shown in Fig. 7.2 (a).

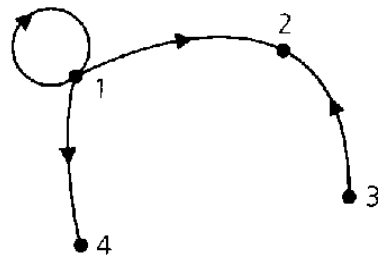


Figure 7.1

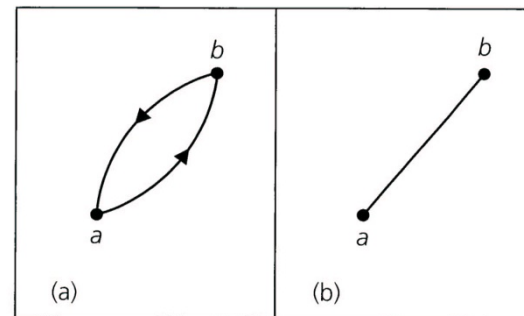


Figure 7.2



Directed Graph

- Ex 7.26 precedence graph

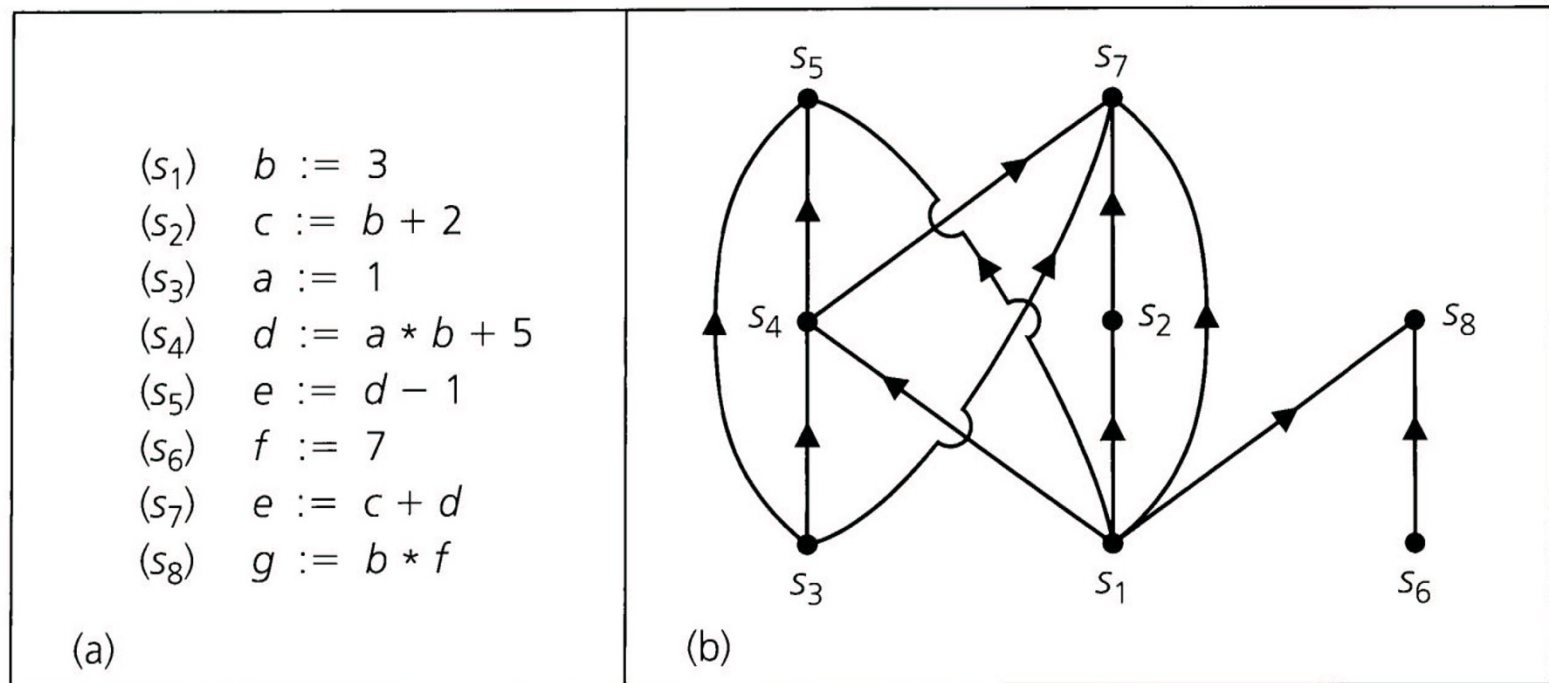


Figure 7.3



Directed Graph

- **Ex 7.27** : $R = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,3), (3,2), (3,3), (3,4), (4,2)\}$
 - directed graph in Fig. 7.4 (a)
 - (associated) undirected graph in Fig. 7.4 (b)
 - **path**: In the connected graph, any two vertices x, y , with $x \neq y$, there is a path starting at x and ending at y .
 - **cycle**: a closed path starts and terminates at the same vertex, containing at least three edges.
 - E.g.: $\{3, 4\}$, $\{4, 2\}$, and $\{2, 3\}$

No repeated vertex

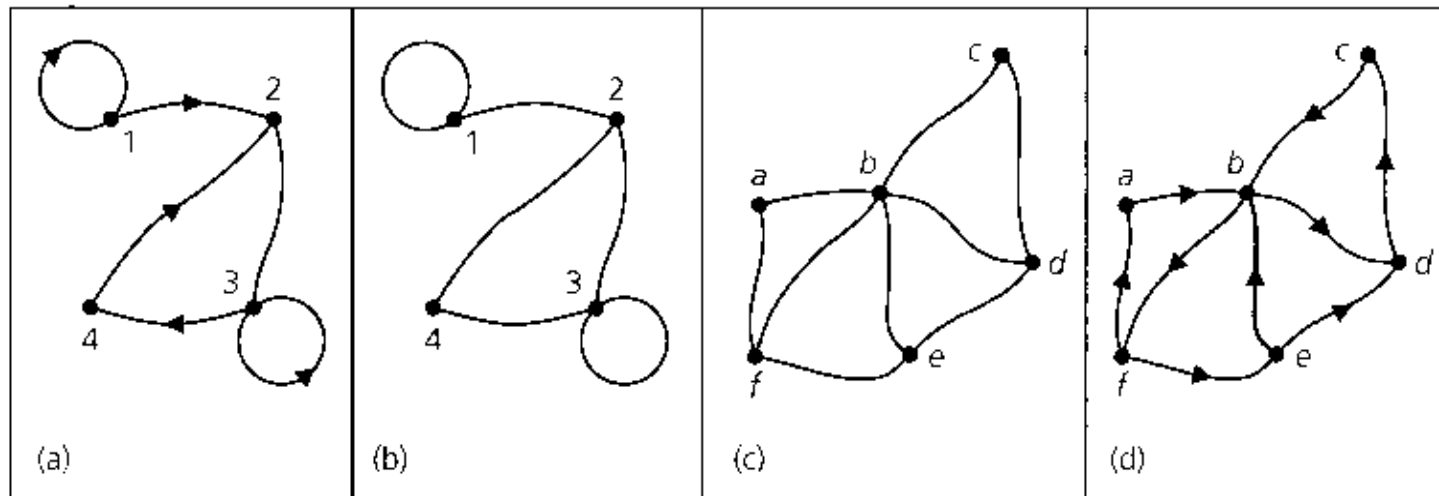


Figure 7.4



Directed Graph

- Definition 7.15: A directed graph G on V is called **strongly connected**, if for all $x, y \in V$, where $x \neq y$, there is a path (in G) of directed edges from x to y .
 - e.g., Fig. 7.5
- **Disconnected graph**: is the union of two connected pieces called the components of the graph.
 - e.g., Fig. 7.6

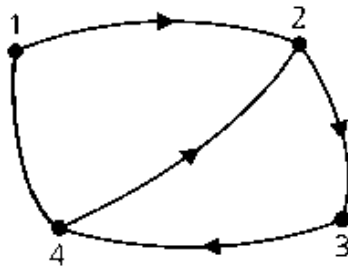


Figure 7.5

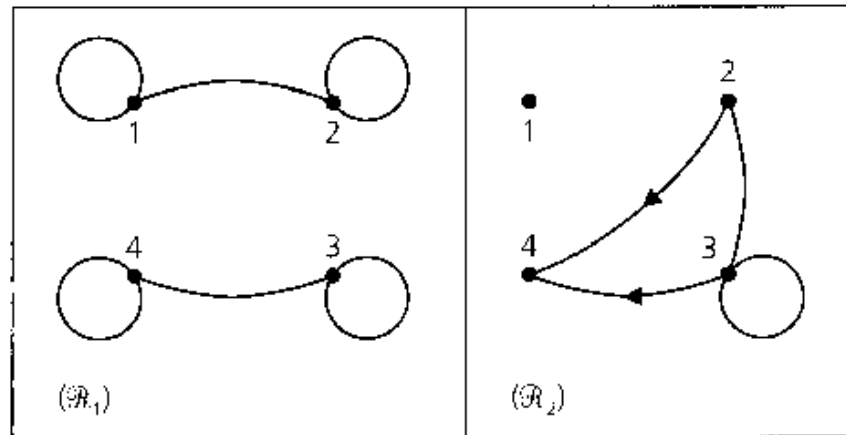


Figure 7.6



Directed Graph

- **Complete graph**: the graphs of **undirected** graphs that are **loop-free** and have an edge for every pair of distinct vertices, which are denoted by K_n .
- e.g., Fig. 7.7

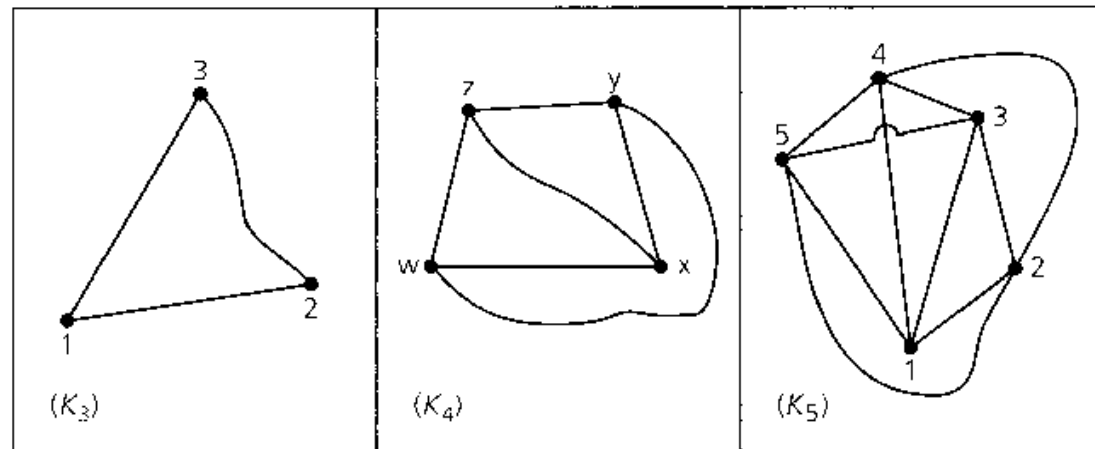
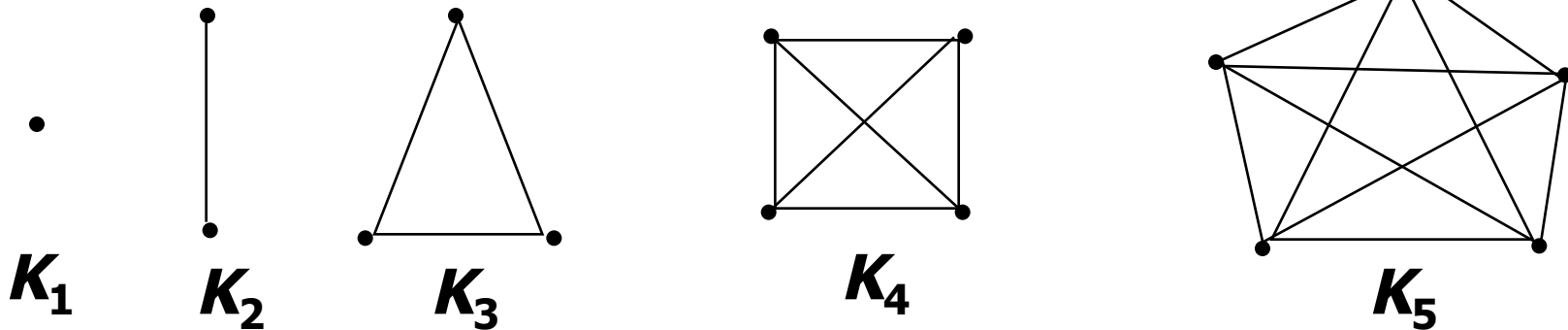


Figure 7.7





Directed Graph

- **Ex 7.30** : \mathfrak{R} is reflexive if and only if its directed graph contains a loop at each vertex.
 - e.g., Fig 7.8, $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1,1), (1, 2), (2, 2), (3, 3), (3, 1)\}$
- **Ex 7.31** : \mathfrak{R} is symmetric if and only if its directed graph may be drawn only by loops and undirected edges.
 - e.g., Fig 7.9, $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1,1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 3), (3, 2)\}$
- **Ex 7.32** : \mathfrak{R} is anti-symmetric if and only if for any $x \neq y$ the graph contains at most one of the edges (x, y) or (y, x)
 - e.g., Fig 7.10, $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1,1), (1, 2), (2, 3), (1, 3)\}$

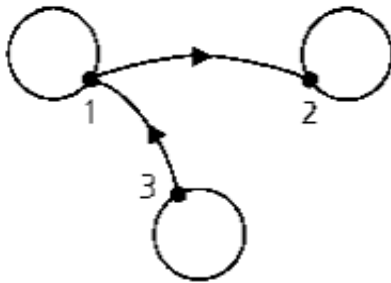


Figure 7.8

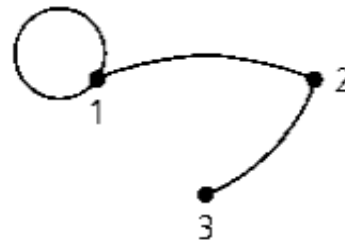


Figure 7.9

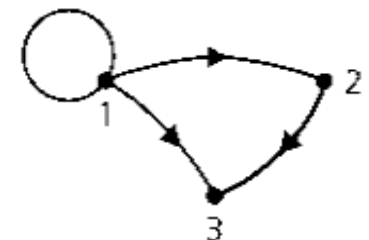
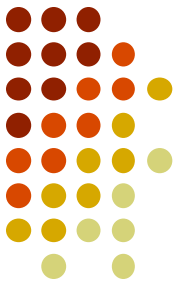


Figure 7.10



Directed Graph

- **Ex 7.32** : \mathfrak{R} is transitive if and only if for all $x, y \in A$, if there is a **path** from x to y in the associated graph, then there is an **edge** (x, y) also.
 - e.g., Fig 7.10, $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 3), (1, 3)\}$
- **Ex 7.33** : Fig 7.11, a relation is an equivalence relation if and only if its graph is one **complete graph** augmented by loops at every vertex or consists of disjoint union of complete graphs augmented by loops at each vertex.
 - e.g., Fig 7.11, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $\mathfrak{R}_1 = \{(1,1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (3, 4), (4, 3), (4, 4), (5, 5)\}$, $\mathfrak{R}_2 = \{(1,1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3), (4, 4), (4, 5), (5, 4) (5, 5)\}$.

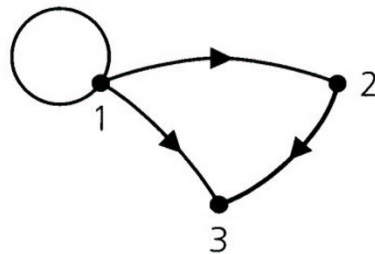


Figure 7.10

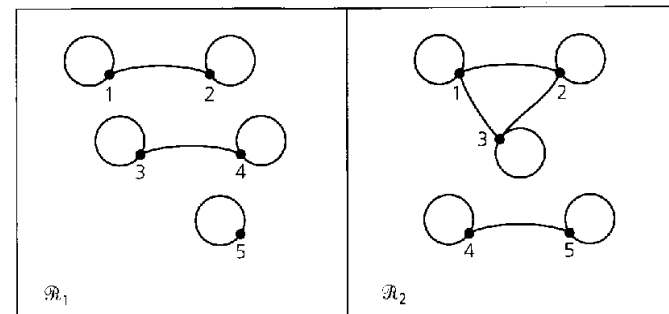


Figure 7.11



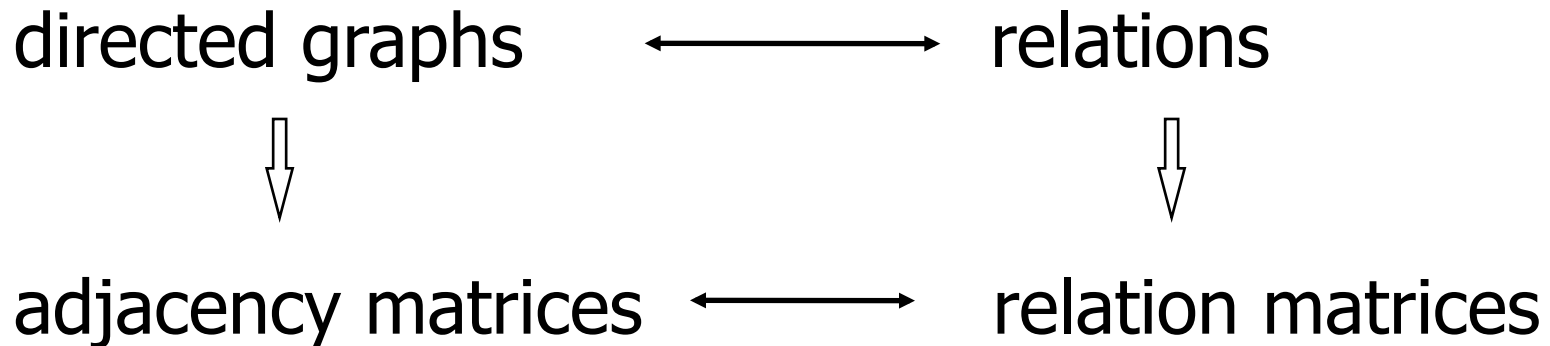
Directed Graph

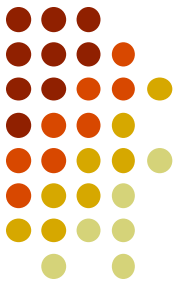
reflexive: loop on each vertex

symmetric: undirected edge + loops

transitive: one path \rightarrow one edge

equivalence: disjoint union of complete graphs + loops at every vertex





7.3 Partial Orders: Hasse Diagrams

- Definition: Let A be a set with \mathfrak{R} a relation on A . The pair (A, \mathfrak{R}) is called a **partially ordered set**, or poset, if relation \mathfrak{R} on A is partially ordered.
 - If A is called a poset, we understand that there is a partially order \mathfrak{R} on A that makes A into this set.

natural counting: \mathbf{N}

$$x+5=2 \quad : \mathbf{Z}$$

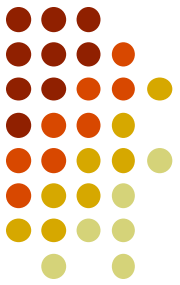
$$2x+3=4 \quad : \mathbf{Q}$$

$$x^2-2=0 \quad : \mathbf{R}$$

$$x^2+1=0 \quad : \mathbf{C}$$

Something was lost when we went from \mathbf{R} to \mathbf{C} . We have lost **the ability to "order"** the elements in \mathbf{C} .

$$2+i < 1+2i ?$$



7.3 Partial Orders: Hasse Diagrams

- **Ex 7.34** : Let A be the set of courses offered at a college. Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on A by $x\mathfrak{R}y$ if x, y are the same course or if x is a prerequisite for y .
- **Ex 7.35** : Define \mathfrak{R} on $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ by $x\mathfrak{R}y$ if x divide y . Then $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (4, 4), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 4)\}$ is a partial order, and (A, \mathfrak{R}) is a poset.
- **Ex 7.36** : PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) network is first used by U.S. Navy in 1950.
 - E.g., Let A be the set of tasks that must be performed to build a house. Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on A by $x\mathfrak{R}y$ if x, y are the same task or if x must be performed before y .



Partial Orders: Hasse Diagrams

- **Ex 7.37** : Figure 7.17 (b) illustrates a simpler diagram for (a), called the **Hasse diagram**. The directions are assumed to go **from the bottom to the top**.

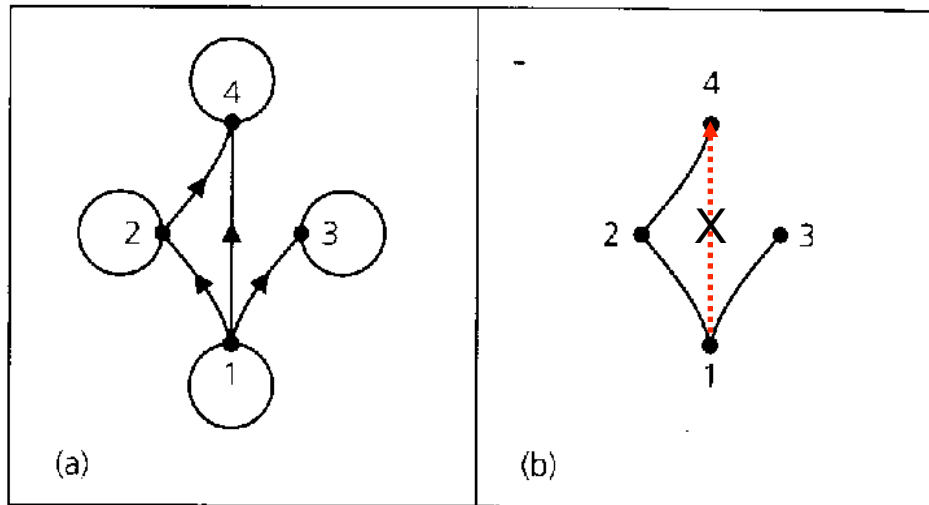
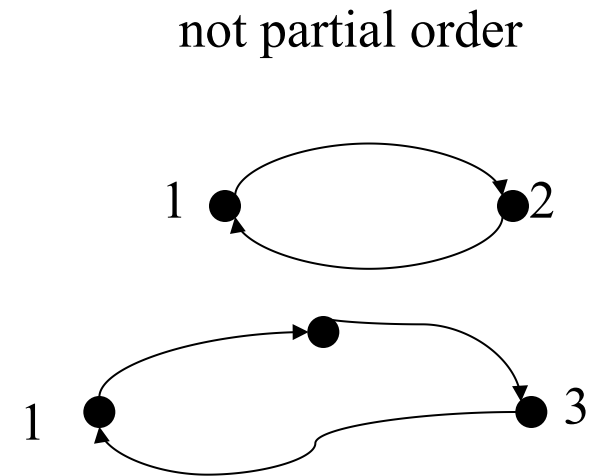


Figure 7.17





Hasse Diagram

- If (A, \mathcal{R}) is a poset, we construct a Hasse diagram for \mathcal{R} on A by drawing a line segment from x up to y , if
 - $x\mathcal{R}y$
 - there is no other z such that $x\mathcal{R}z$ and $z\mathcal{R}y$. (*in between x and y*)
- **Ex 7.38** : In Fig. 7.18 we have the Hasse diagrams for the following four posets.
 - (a) \mathcal{R} is the subset relation on A is the power set of \mathcal{U} with $\mathcal{U} = \{1, 2, 3\}$
 - (b), (c), and (d) are the divide relations.

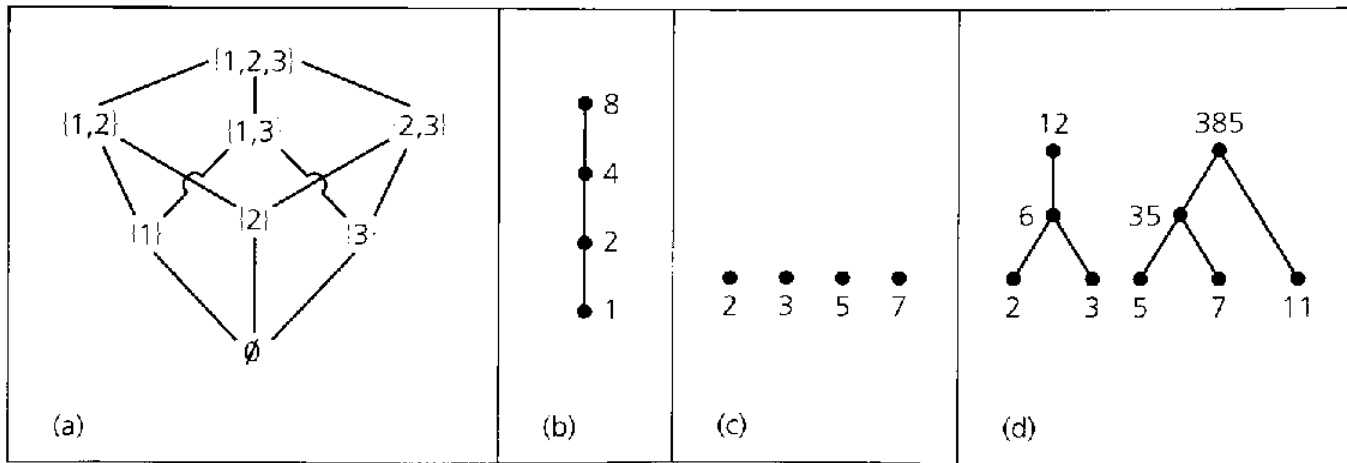


Figure 7.18



Totally Ordered

- Definition 7.16. If (A, \mathfrak{R}) is a poset, we say that A is **totally ordered** (linearly ordered) if for all $x, y \in A$ either $x\mathfrak{R}y$ or $y\mathfrak{R}x$. In this case, \mathfrak{R} is called a total order.
- **Ex 7.40**
 - a) On the set \mathbf{N} , the relation \mathfrak{R} defined by $x\mathfrak{R}y$ if $x \leq y$ is a total order.
 - b) The subset relation is a partial order but not total order, e.g., $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\} \in A$, but $\{1, 2\} \not\subseteq \{1, 3\}$ or $\{1, 3\} \not\subseteq \{1, 2\}$.
 - c) Fig 7.19 is a total order.

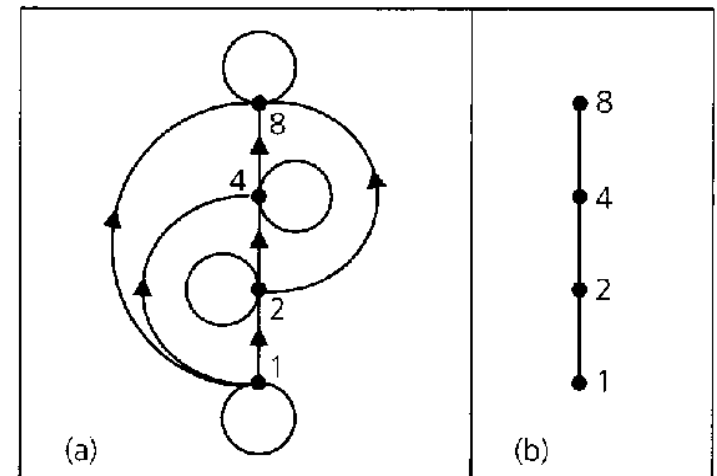


Figure 7.19



Topological Sorting

- Given a Hasse diagram for a partial order relation \mathfrak{R} , how to find a total order \mathfrak{S} for which $\mathfrak{R} \subseteq \mathfrak{S}$.

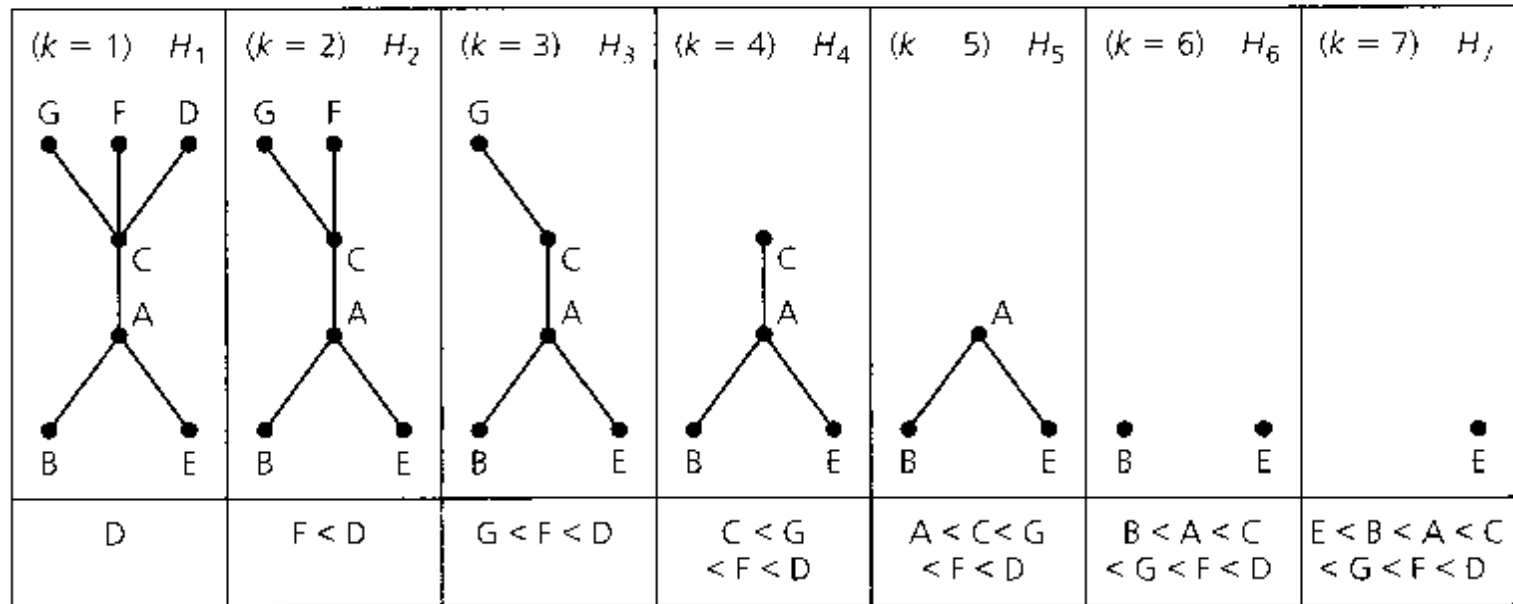
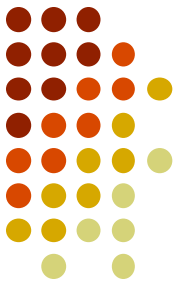


Figure 7.21

Not unique, 12 answers



Topological Sorting

- For a partial order \mathfrak{R} on a set A with $|A| = n$
 - Step 1: Set $k = 1$. Let H_1 be the Hasse diagram of the partial order.
 - Step 2: Select a vertex v_k in H_k such that no edge in H_k starts at v_k .
 - Step 3: If $k = n$, the process is completed and we have a total order

$$\mathfrak{S} : v_n < v_{n-1} < \dots < v_1$$

that contains \mathfrak{R} .

- If $k < n$, then remove from H_k the vertex v_k and all edges of H_k that terminate at v_k . Call the result H_{k+1} . Increase k by 1 and return to step (2).



Topological Sorting

• Ex 7.41

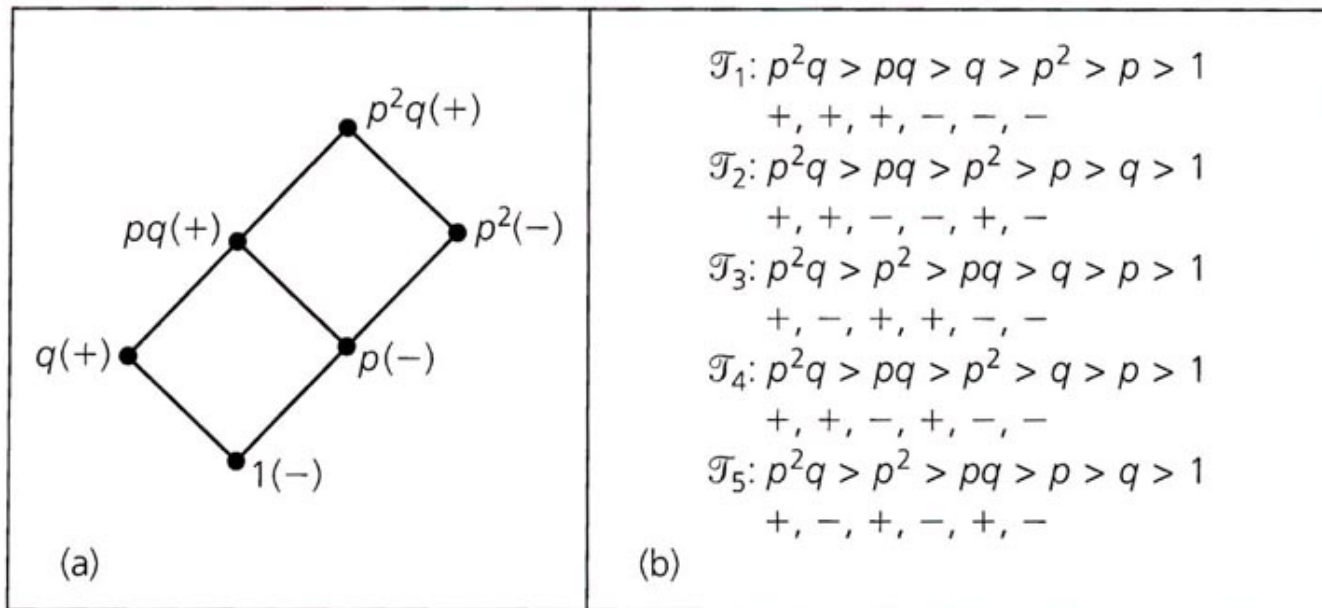
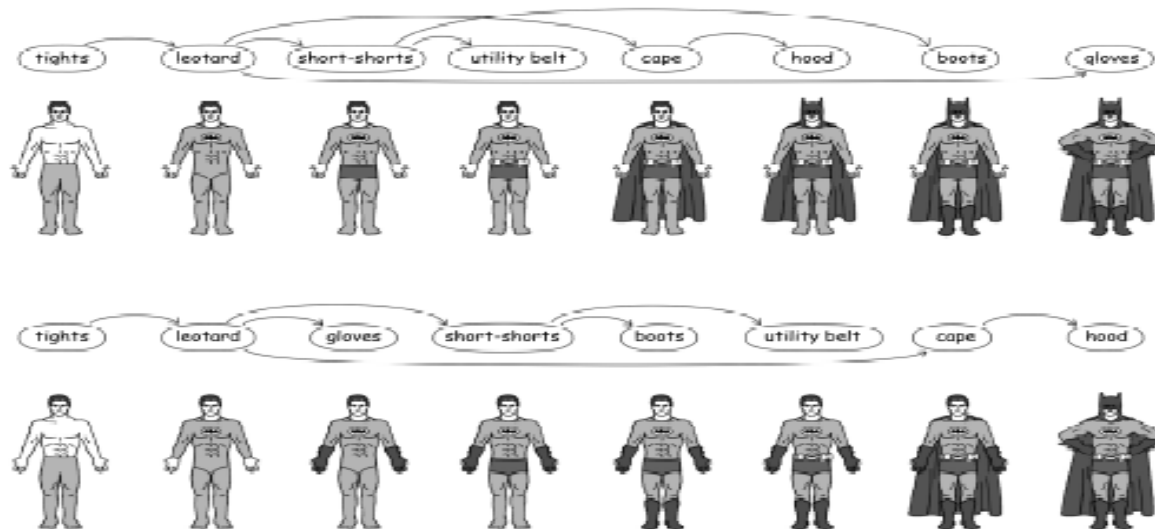
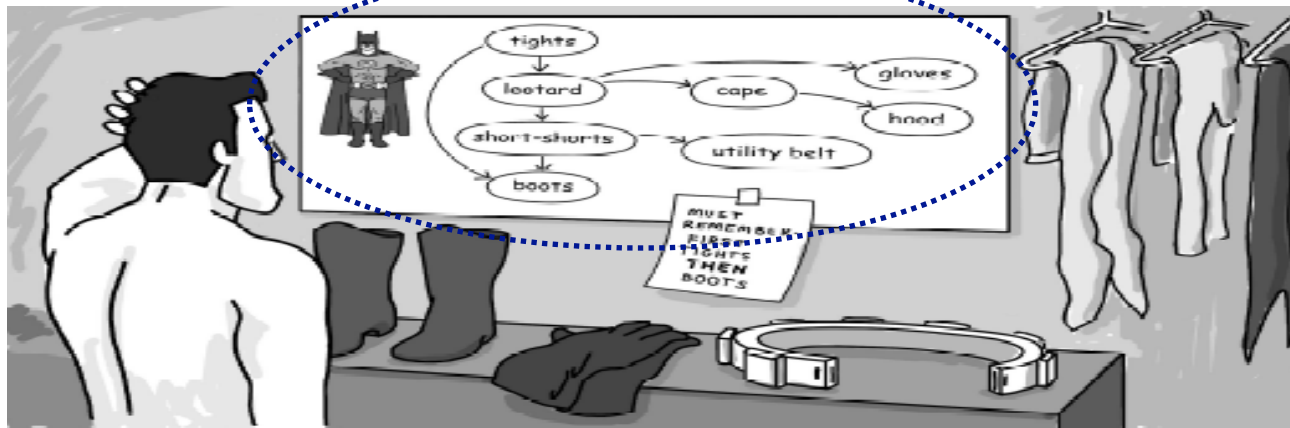


Figure 7.22

More practices, exercise 7.27

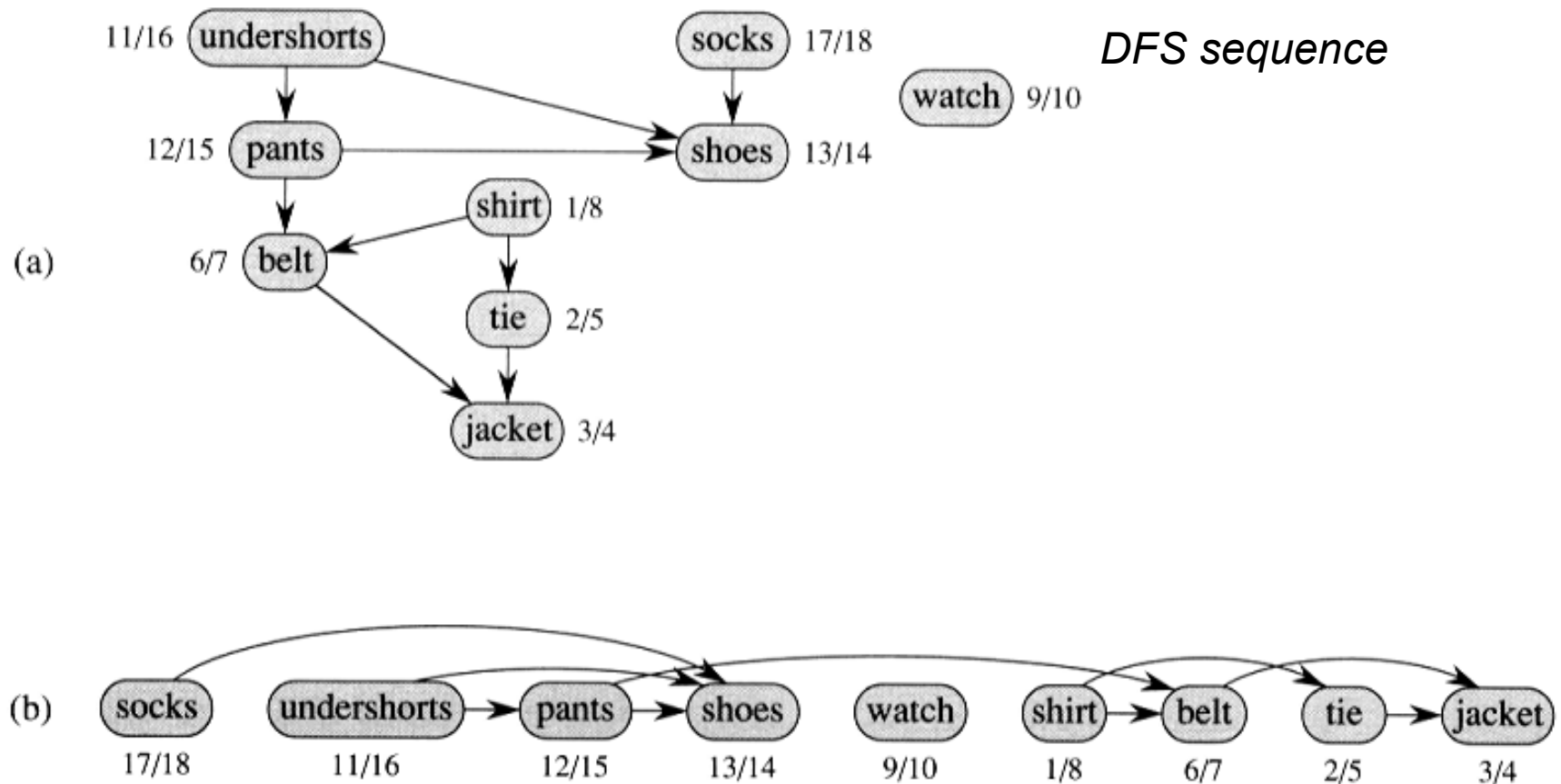
EX: Dressing in the morning

Topological Sort





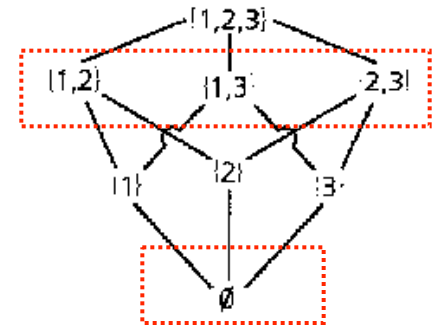
DFS sequence





Maximal and Minimal

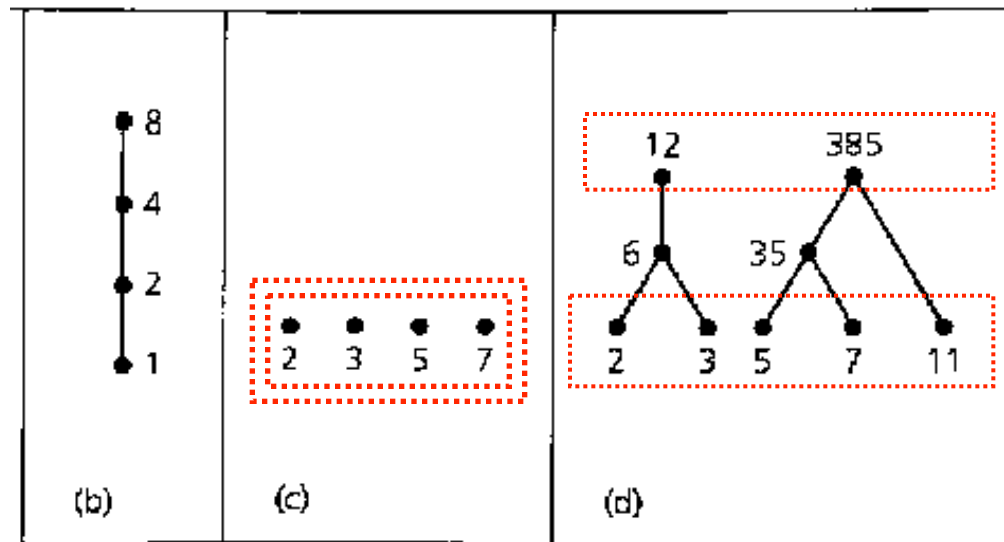
- Definition 7.17: If (A, \mathfrak{R}) is a poset, then x is a maximal element of A if for all $a \in A$, $a \neq x \Rightarrow x \mathfrak{R} a$. Similarly, y is a minimal element of A if for all $b \in A$, $b \neq y \Rightarrow b \mathfrak{R} y$.
- **Ex 7.42** : $\mathcal{U} = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $A = P(\mathcal{U})$.
 - For the poset (A, \subseteq) , \mathcal{U} is the maximal and \emptyset is the minimal.
 - Let B be the proper subsets of $\{1, 2, 3\}$. Then we have multiple maximal elements $\{1, 2\}$, $\{1, 3\}$, and $\{2, 3\}$ for the poset (B, \subseteq) , and \emptyset is still the only minimal element.
- **Ex 7.43** : For the poset (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) , we have neither a maximal nor a minimal element. The poset (\mathbb{N}, \leq) , has no maximal element but a minimal element 0.





Maximal and Minimal

- **Ex 7.44** : How about the poset in (b), (c), and (d) of Fig. 7.18? Do they have maximal or minimal elements?
- Theorem 7.3: If (A, \mathfrak{R}) is a poset and A is finite, then A has both a maximal and a minimal element.





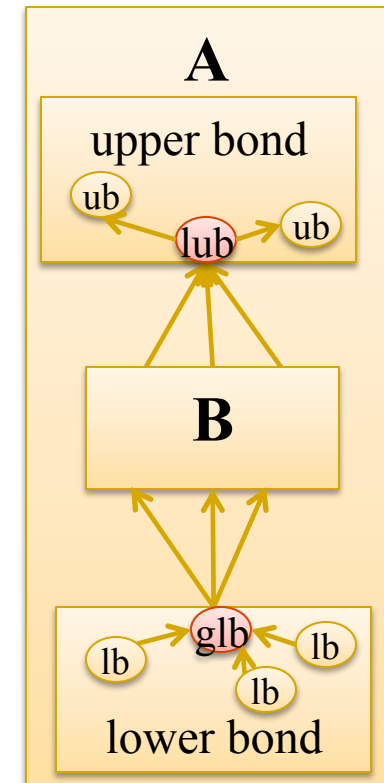
Least and Greatest

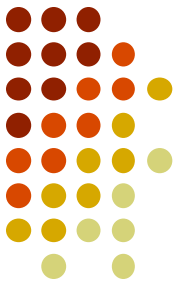
- Definition 7.18: If (A, \mathfrak{R}) is a poset, then x is a **least** element of A if for all $a \in A$, $x \mathfrak{R} a$. Similarly, y is a **greatest** element of A if for all $a \in A$, $a \mathfrak{R} y$.
- **Ex 7.45** : $\mathcal{U} = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $A = P(\mathcal{U})$.
 - For the poset (A, \subseteq) , \mathcal{U} is the greatest and \emptyset is the least.
 - Let B be the nonempty subsets of \mathcal{U} . Then we have \mathcal{U} as the greatest element and three minimal elements for the poset (B, \subseteq) , but no least element.
- Theorem 7.4: If poset (A, \mathfrak{R}) has a greatest **or** a least element, then that element is unique.
 - **Proof:** Assume x and y are both greatest elements.
Since x is a greatest element, $y \mathfrak{R} x$. Likewise, $x \mathfrak{R} y$ while y is a greatest element. As \mathfrak{R} is antisymmetric, it follows $x = y$.



Lower and Upper Bound

- Definition 7.19: If (A, \mathfrak{R}) is a poset with $B \subseteq A$, then
 - $x \in A$ is called a **lower bound** of B if $x \mathfrak{R} b$ for all $b \in B$
 - $y \in A$ is called an **upper bound** of B if $b \mathfrak{R} y$ for all $b \in B$
- An element $x' \in A$ is called a *greatest lower bound* (**glb**) of B if for all other lower bounds x'' of B we have $x'' \mathfrak{R} x'$. Similarly, an element $x' \in A$ is called a *least upper bound* (**lub**) of B if for all other upper bounds x'' of B we have $x' \mathfrak{R} x''$.
- Theorem 7.5: If (A, \mathfrak{R}) is a poset and $B \subseteq A$, then B has **at most one** lub (glb).





Lower and Upper Bound

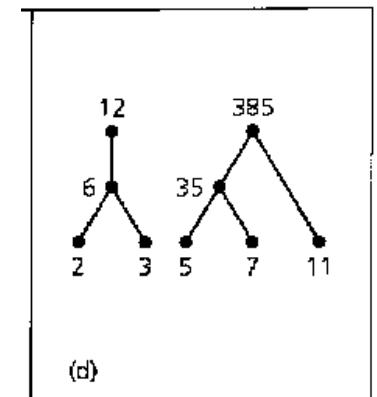
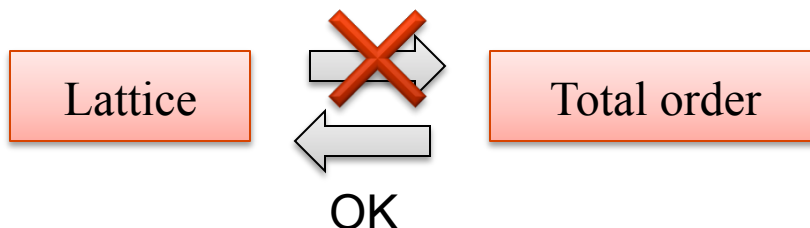
- **Ex 7.47** : Let $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with $A = P(U)$ and let \mathfrak{R} be the **subset relation** on B . If $B = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\}$, then what are the upper bounds of B , lower bounds of B , the greatest lower bound and the least upper bound?
 - Upper bounds: $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 4\}$, and $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
 - lub: $\{1, 2\}$
 - glb = ϕ

$\{2, 3, 4\}$ is not.
- **Ex 7.48** : Let \mathfrak{R} be the “ \leq ” relation on A . What are the results for the following cases?
 - $A = \mathbf{R}$ and $B = [0, 1] \Rightarrow$ lub:1, glb:0
 - $A = \mathbf{R}$ and $B = \{q \in \mathbf{Q} \mid q^2 < 2\} \Rightarrow$ lub: $\sqrt{2}$, glb: $-\sqrt{2}$
 - $A = \mathbf{Q}$ and $B = \{q \in \mathbf{Q} \mid q^2 < 2\} \Rightarrow ?$ *No lub and glb*



Lattice

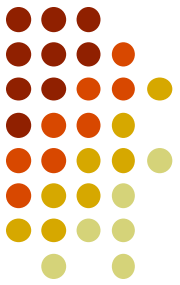
- Definition 7.20. The poset (A, \mathfrak{R}) is called a **lattice** if for *all* $x, y \in A$ the elements $\text{lub}\{x, y\}$ and $\text{glb}\{x, y\}$ both exist in A .
- **Ex 7.49** : For $A = \mathbf{N}$ and $x, y \in \mathbf{N}$, define $x \mathfrak{R} y$ by $x \leq y$. Then $\text{lub}\{x, y\} = \max\{x, y\}$, $\text{glb}\{x, y\} = \min\{x, y\}$, and (\mathbf{N}, \leq) is a lattice.
- **Ex 7.50** : For the poset $(P(\mathbf{U}), \subseteq)$, if $S, T \subseteq \mathbf{U}$, we have $\text{lub}\{S, T\} = S \cup T$ and $\text{glb}\{S, T\} = S \cap T$ and it is a lattice.
- **Ex 7.51**: consider the poset in Example 7.38(d). Here we find that $\text{lub}\{2, 3\} = 6$ exists, but there is no glb for the elements 2 and 3.
 - This partial order is not a lattice.



7.4 Equivalence Relations and Partitions



- Equivalence relation: reflexive, symmetric, and transitive
- Examples:
 - For any set $A \neq \emptyset$, the relation of equality is an equivalence relation on A .
 - “**sameness**” among the elements of A
 - Let the relation on \mathbf{Z} defined by $x\mathfrak{R}y$ if $x-y$ is a multiple of 2, then \mathfrak{R} is an equivalence relation on \mathbf{Z} , where all even integers are related, as are all odd integers.
 - The above relation **splits** \mathbf{Z} into two subsets:
 $\{\dots, -3, -1, 1, 3, \dots\} \cup \{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\}$



Partition

- Definition 7.21. Given a set A and index set I , let $\phi \neq A_i \subseteq A$ for $i \in I$.
 - Then $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a **partition** of A if (a) $A = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ and (b) $A_i \cap A_j = \phi$ for $i \neq j$.
 - Each subset A_i is called a cell (block) of the partition.
- **Ex 7.52** : $A = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$
 - $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, A_2 = \{6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$.
 - $A_i = \{i, i+5\}, 1 \leq i \leq 5$.
- **Ex 7.53** : Let $A = \mathbf{R}$, for each $i \in \mathbf{Z}$, let $A_i = [i, i+1)$. Then $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbf{Z}}$ is a partition of \mathbf{R} .



Equivalence Class

- Definition 7.22: Let \mathfrak{R} be an equivalence relation on a set A . For each $x \in A$, the **equivalence class** of x , denoted $[x]$, is defined by $[x] = \{y \in A \mid y \mathfrak{R} x\}$



(1) $x \mathfrak{R} y$?

(2) $[x] = [y]$?

- **Ex 7.54** : Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on \mathbf{Z} by $x \mathfrak{R} y$ if $4 \mid (x-y)$.
 - $[0] = \{\dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, \dots\} = \{4k \mid k \in \mathbf{Z}\}$
 - $[1] = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, \dots\} = \{4k+1 \mid k \in \mathbf{Z}\}$
 - $[2] = \{\dots, -6, -2, 2, 6, \dots\} = \{4k+2 \mid k \in \mathbf{Z}\}$
 - $[3] = \{\dots, -5, -1, 3, 7, \dots\} = \{4k+3 \mid k \in \mathbf{Z}\}$
- **Ex 7.55** : Define the relation \mathfrak{R} on \mathbf{Z} by $a \mathfrak{R} b$ if $a^2 = b^2$, \mathfrak{R} is an equivalence relation.
 - $[n] = [-n] = \{-n, n\}$
$$\mathbf{Z} = \{0\} \cup \left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbf{Z}^+} \{-n, n\} \right)$$



Equivalence Class

- Theorem 7.6:** If \mathfrak{R} is an equivalence relation on a set A and $x, y \in A$, then
 - (a) $x \in [x]$
 - (b) $x \mathfrak{R} y$ if and only if $[x] = [y]$
 - (c) $[x] = [y]$ or $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$. (*identical or disjoint*)
- Ex 7.56 :**
 - Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $\mathfrak{R} = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 3), (4, 4), (4, 5), (5, 4), (5, 5)\}$. $[1] = \{1\}$, $[2] = \{2, 3\} = [3]$, $[4] = \{4, 5\} = [5]$. Then, we have $A = [1] \cup [2] \cup [4]$.
 - Consider an onto function $f: A \rightarrow B$. $f(\{1, 3, 7\}) = x$; $f(\{4, 6\}) = y$; $f(\{2, 5\}) = z$. The relation \mathfrak{R} defined on A by $a \mathfrak{R} b$ if $f(a) = f(b)$.
 - $A = [1] \cup [4] \cup [2] = f^{-1}(x) \cup f^{-1}(y) \cup f^{-1}(z)$.
- Ex 7.58 :** If an equivalence relation \mathfrak{R} on $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ induces the partition $A = \{1, 2\} \cup \{3\} \cup \{4, 5, 7\} \cup \{6\}$, what is \mathfrak{R} ? [2007台大資工]
 - $[1] = \{1, 2\} = [2] = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (1, 2), (2, 1)\}$
 - $\mathfrak{R} = (\{1, 2\} \times \{1, 2\}) \cup (\{3\} \times \{3\}) \cup (\{4, 5, 7\} \times \{4, 5, 7\}) \cup (\{6\} \times \{6\})$
 - $|\mathfrak{R}| = 2^2 + 1^2 + 3^2 + 1^2 = 15$

$\{(1, 1), (2, 2)\}$ v.s. $\{1, 2\} \times \{1, 2\}$



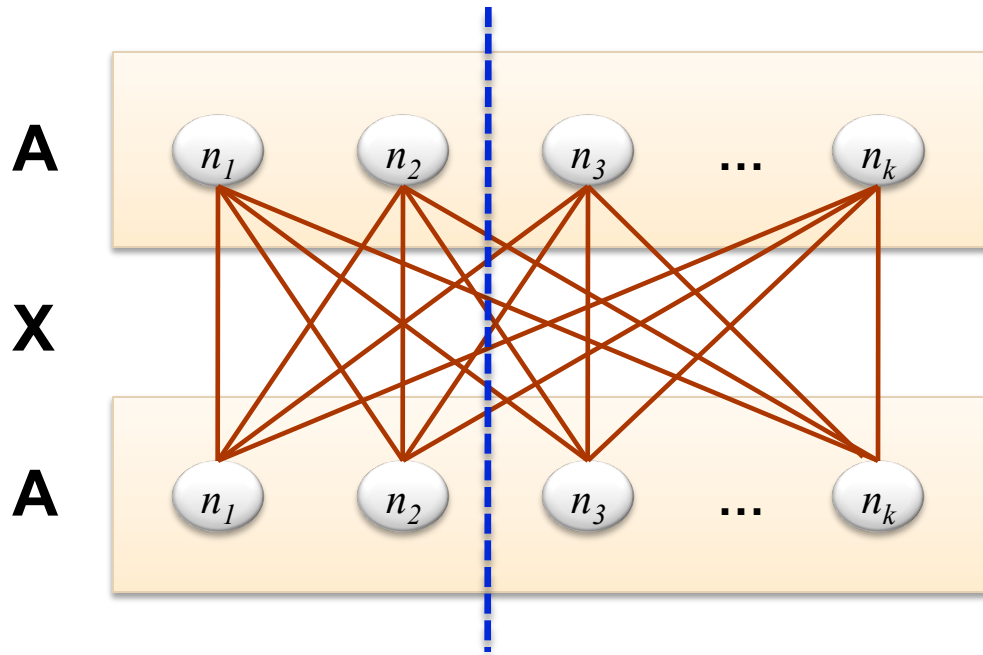
Equivalence and Partition

- **Theorem 7.7:** If A is a set, then
 - (a) any equivalence relation \mathfrak{R} on A induces a partition of A ; and
 - (b) any partition of A gives rise to an equivalence relation \mathfrak{R} on A .
- **Theorem 7.8:** For any set A , there is one-to-one correspondence between the set of equivalence relations on A and the set of partitions of A .
- **Ex 7.59 :**
 - (a) If $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, how many relations on A are equivalence relations? (identical containers)
 - *a partition of A : a distribution of the (distinct) elements of A into identical containers with no container left empty*
 - (b) How many of the equivalence relations in part (a) satisfy $1, 2 \in [4]$?

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 S(4, i) = 15$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^6 S(6, i) = 203$$

Equivalence and Partition



$$k=10$$

$$k^2$$

$$100$$

$$2^2 + (k-2)^2 = 4 + 64 = 68$$

r partitions?

7.5 Finite State Machines: The Minimization Process



- Two finite state machines of the same function may have different number of internal states.
 - Some of these states are redundant.
- A process of transforming a given machine into one that has *no redundant internal states* is called the minimization process.
 - Rely on the concepts of *equivalence relation* and *partition*.

Finite State Machines: The Minimization Process



- 1-Equivalence: Given the finite state machine $M = \{S, I, O, v, w\}$, we define the **relation E_1** on S by $s_1 E_1 s_2$ if $w(s_1, x) = w(s_2, x)$ for all $x \in I$.
- The relation E_1 is an equivalence relation on S , and it partitions S into subsets such that two states are in the same subset if they produce the same output for each $x \in I$.
- Here s_1 and s_2 are called 1-equivlent.

Finite State Machines: The Minimization Process

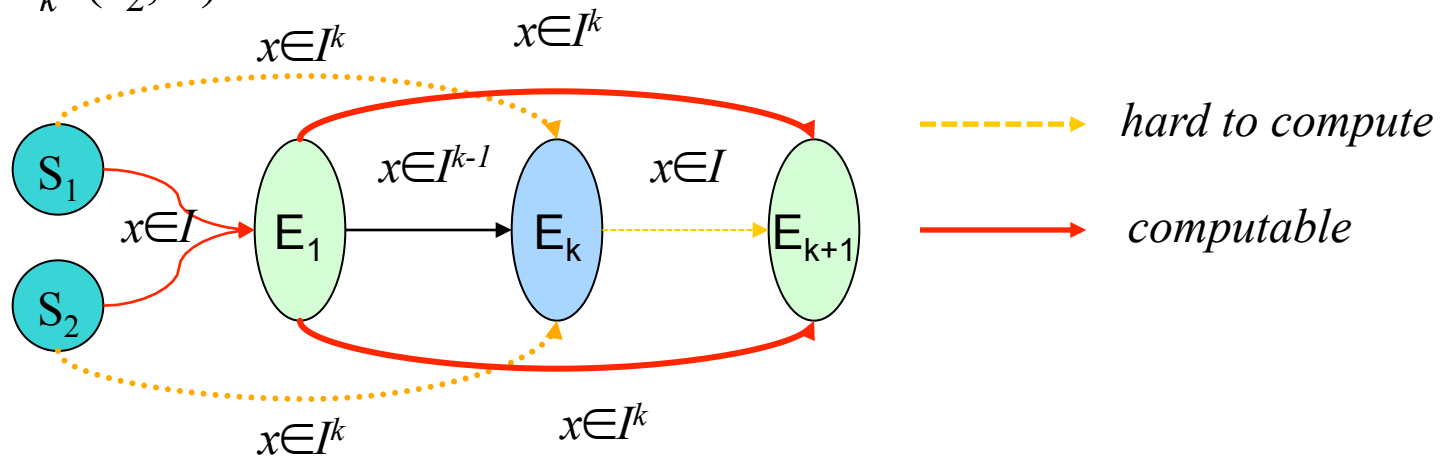


- For the states S , we define the k -equivalence relation E_k on S by $s_1 E_k s_2$ if $w(s_1, x) = w(s_2, x)$ for all $x \in I^k$.
- The relation E_k is an equivalence relation on S , and it partitions S into subsets such that two states are in the same subset if they produce the same output for each $x \in I^k$.
- We call two states s_1 and s_2 equivalent if they are k -equivalent for all $k \geq 1$.

Finite State Machines: The Minimization Process



- Goal: *Determine the partition of S induced by E and select one state for each equivalent class.*
- Observations:
 - If two states are not 2-equivalent, they can not be 3-equivalent.
 - For $s_1, s_2 \in S$, where $s_1 E_k s_2$, we find that $s_1 E_{k+1} s_2$ if and only if $v(s_1, x) E_k v(s_2, x)$ for all $x \in I$.



An Algorithm for the Minimization of a Finite State Machine



1. Set $k = 1$. $s_1 E_1 s_2$ when s_1 and s_2 have the same output rows. (P_i be the partitions of S induced by E_i)
2. Having determined P_k , we want to obtain P_{k+1} . Determine the states that are $(k+1)$ -equivalent. Note that if $s_1 E_k s_2$, then $s_1 E_{k+1} s_2$ if and only if $v(s_1, x) E_k v(s_2, x)$ for all $x \in I$.
3. If $P_{k+1} = P_k$, the process is completed.
If $P_{k+1} \neq P_k$, $k = k+1$, goto step 2.



-

	\mathbf{v}		ω	
	0	1	0	1
s_1	s_4	s_3	0	1
s_2	s_5	s_2	1	0
s_3	s_2	s_4	0	0
s_4	s_5	s_3	0	0
s_5	s_2	s_5	1	0
s_6	s_1	s_6	1	0

	ν		ω	
	0	1	0	1
s_1	s_3	s_3	0	1
s_2	s_2	s_2	1	0
s_3	s_2	s_3	0	0
s_6	s_1	s_6	1	0

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More Minimization example

- In Ex 6.20 : Construct a machine that recognizes each occurrence of the sequence 111.

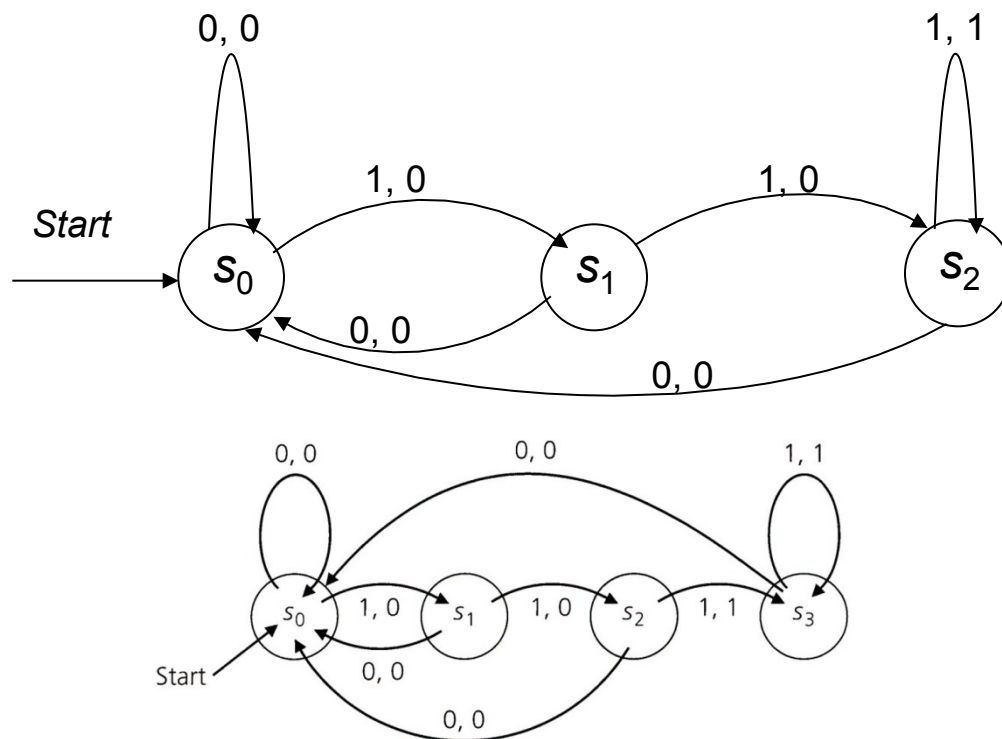


Figure 6.10

	v		w	
	0	1	0	1
s_0	s_0	s_1	0	0
s_1	s_0	s_2	0	0
s_2	s_0	s_3	0	1
s_3	s_0	s_3	0	1

$$P_1: \{s_0, s_1\}, \{s_2, s_3\}$$

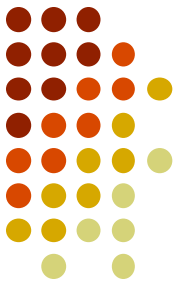
$$P_2: \{s_0\}, \{s_1\}, \{s_2, s_3\}$$

$$P_3: \{s_0\}, \{s_1\}, \{s_2, s_3\}$$



Refinement

- Definition 7.23: If P_1 and P_2 are partitions of set A , then P_2 is called a refinement of P_1 , denoted as $P_2 \leq P_1$, if every cell of P_2 is contained in a cell of P_1 .
- When $P_2 \leq P_1$ and $P_2 \neq P_1$, we write $P_2 < P_1$.
 - In Example 7.60, $P_3 = P_2 < P_1$
- Theorem 7.9: In the minimization process, if $P_{k+1} = P_k$, then $P_{r+1} = P_r$ for all $r \geq k+1$.



Distinguishing String

- If $s_1 E_k s_2$ but $s_1 \not E_{k+1} s_2$, then we have a string $x = x_1 x_2 \dots x_k x_{k+1} \in I^{k+1}$ such that $w(s_1, x) \neq w(s_2, x)$ but $w(s_1, x_1 x_2 \dots x_k) = w(s_2, x_1 x_2 \dots x_k)$. We call this string x as **distinguishing string**.
- $s_1 \not E_{k+1} s_2 \Rightarrow \exists x_1 \in I, [v(s_1, x_1) \not E_k v(s_2, x_1)]$



Distinguishing String

- **Ex 7.61** : From Example 7.60, $s_2 E_1 s_6$ but $s_2 \not E_2 s_6$, so we seek a distinguishing string of length 2.
- $x = 00$ is the minimal distinguishing string for s_2 and s_6
 - $w(s_2, 00) = 11 \neq 10 = w(s_6, 00)$

$P_2: \{s_1\}, \{s_2, s_5\}, \{s_3, s_4\}, \{s_6\}$

0, 1 0, 1

$P_1: \{s_1\}, \{s_2, s_5, s_6\}, \{s_3, s_4\}$

0, 0 0, 1

Table 7.1

	v		w	
	0	1	0	1
s_1	s_4	s_3	0	1
s_2	s_5	s_2	1	0
s_3	s_2	s_4	0	0
s_4	s_5	s_3	0	0
s_5	s_2	s_5	1	0
s_6	s_1	s_6	1	0



Distinguishing String

- **Ex 7.62** : s_1 and s_4 are 2-equivalent but are not 3-equivalent.
- $x = 111$ is the minimal distinguishing string for s_1 and s_4
- $w(s_1, 111) = 100 \neq 101 = w(s_4, 111)$

Table 7.3

	v		w		
	0	1	0	1	
s_1	s_4	s_2	0	1	<div> $P_3: \{s_1, s_3\}, \{s_2\}, \{s_4\}, \{s_5\}$ $1, 1 \swarrow \searrow 1, 1$ $P_2: \{s_1, s_3, s_4\}, \{s_2\}, \{s_5\}$ $1, 0 \swarrow \searrow 1, 0$ $P_1: \{s_1, s_3, s_4\}, \{s_2, s_5\}$ $1, 1 \downarrow \downarrow 1, 0$ </div>
s_2	s_5	s_2	0	0	
s_3	s_4	s_2	0	1	
s_4	s_3	s_5	0	1	
s_5	s_2	s_3	0	0	

can't choose '0'

(a)

(b)

X=11 to distinguish s_2 and s_5

typo

2) Then $v(s_1, 1) \not\equiv_2 v(s_4, 1) \Rightarrow \exists x_2 \in \mathcal{F}$ (here $x_2 = 1$) with $(v(s_1, 1), 1) \not\equiv_1 (v(s_4, 1), 1)$, or $v(s_1, 11) \not\equiv_1 v(s_4, 11)$. We used the partitions P_2 and P_1 to obtain $x_2 = 1$.

3) Now we use the partition P_1 where we find that for $x_3 = 1 \in \mathcal{F}$,