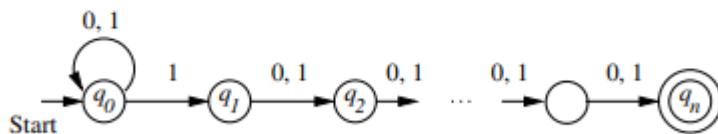


Example 2.13: Consider the NFA N of Fig 2.15. $L(N)$ is the set of all strings of 0's and 1's such that the n th symbol from the end is 1. Intuitively a DFA D that accepts this language must remember the last n symbols it has read. Since any of 2^n subsets of the last n symbols could have been 1 if D has fewer

than 2^n states then there would be some state q such that D can be in state q after reading two different sequences of n bits say $a_8 a_7 \dots a_1$ and $b_8 b_7 \dots b_1$

Since the sequences are different they must differ in some position say $a_i = b_i$. Suppose (by symmetry) that $a_i = 1$ and $b_i = 0$. If $i = 1$ then q must be both an accepting state and a nonaccepting state since $a_8 a_7 \dots a_1$ is accepted (the n th symbol from the end is 1) and $b_8 b_7 \dots b_1$ is not. If $i > 1$ then consider the state p that D enters after reading $i-1$ 0's. Then p must be both accepting and nonaccepting since $a_8 a_7 \dots a_1 00 \dots 0$ is accepted and $b_8 b_7 \dots b_1 00 \dots 0$ is not.



The Pigeonhole Principle

In Example 2.13 we used an important reasoning technique called the *pigeonhole principle*. Colloquially, if you have more pigeons than pigeonholes and each pigeon flies into some pigeonhole, then there must be at least one hole that has more than one pigeon. In our example, the "pigeons" are the sequences of n bits and the "pigeonholes" are the states. Since there are fewer states than sequences, one state must be assigned two sequences.

The pigeonhole principle may appear obvious, but it actually depends on the number of pigeonholes being finite. Thus, it works for finite-state automata with the states as pigeonholes, but does not apply to other kinds of automata that have an infinite number of states.

To see why the finiteness of the number of pigeonholes is essential, consider the infinite situation where the pigeonholes correspond to integers $1, 2, 3, \dots$. Number the pigeons $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ so there is one more pigeon than there are pigeonholes. However, we can send pigeon i to hole $i + 1$ for all $i \geq 0$. Then each of the infinite number of pigeons gets a pigeonhole, and no two pigeons have to share a pigeonhole.

Example 2.10: Let N be the automaton of Fig. 2.9 that accepts all strings that end in 01. Since N 's set of states is $\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}$, the subset construction produces a DFA with $2^3 = 8$ states corresponding to all the subsets of these three states. Figure 2.12 shows the transition table for these eight states; we shall show shortly the details of how some of these entries are computed.

Notice that this transition table belongs to a deterministic finite automaton. Even though the entries in the table are sets, the states of the constructed DFA are sets. To make the point clearer, we can invent new names for these states, e.g. ΣA for $\{q_0\}$, ΣB for $\{q_0, q_1\}$, and so on. The DFA transition table of Fig. 2.13 defines exactly the same automaton as Fig. 2.12, but makes clear the point that the entries in the table are single states of the DFA.

Of the eight states in Fig. 2.13, starting in the start state B , we can only reach states B, E , and F . The other five states are inaccessible from the start state and may as well not be there. We often can avoid the exponential-time step of constructing transition-table entries for every subset of states if we perform "lazy evaluation" on the subsets as follows.

BASIS: We know for certain that the singleton set consisting only of N 's start state is accessible.

	0	1
A	A	A
B	E	B
C	A	D
D	A	A
E	E	F
F	E	B
G	A	D
H	E	F

Figure 2 13: Renaming the states of Fig 2 12

INDUCTION: Suppose we have determined that set S of states is accessible. Then for each input symbol $a \Sigma$ compute the set of states (Saa) ; we know that these sets of states will also be accessible.

For the example at hand Σ we know that q_0 is a state of the DFA D . We find that $(q_0 a0) = q_0 aq_8$ and $(q_0 a1) = q_0$. Both these facts are established by looking at the transition diagram of Fig 2 9 and observing that on 0 there are arcs out of q_0 to both q_0 and q_8 while on 1 there is an arc only to q_0 . We thus have one row of the transition table for the DFA: the second row in Fig 2 12.

One of the two sets we computed is "old"; q_0 has already been considered. However the other — $q_0 aq_8$ — is new and its transitions must be computed. We find $(q_0 aq_8 a0) = q_0 aq_8$ and $(q_0 aq_8 a1) = q_0 aq_1$. For instance to see the latter calculation we know that

$$(q_0 aq_8 a1) = N(q_0 a1) \quad N(q_8 a1) = q_0 \quad q_1 = q_0 aq_1$$

We now have the fifth row of Fig 2 12 Σ and we have discovered one new state of $D \Sigma$ which is $q_0 aq_1$. A similar calculation tells us

$$\begin{aligned} (q_0 aq_1 a0) &= N(q_0 a0) \quad N(q_1 a0) = q_0 aq_8 &= q_0 aq_8 \\ (q_0 aq_1 a1) &= N(q_0 a1) \quad N(q_1 a1) = q_0 &= q_0 \end{aligned}$$

These calculations give us the sixth row of Fig 2 12 Σ but it gives us only sets of states that we have already seen.

Thus the subset construction has converged; we know all the accessible states and their transitions. The entire DFA is shown in Fig 2 14. Notice that it has only three states which is by coincidence exactly the same number of states as the NFA of Fig 2 9 Σ from which it was constructed. However the DFA of Fig 2 14 has six transitions compared with the four transitions in Fig 2 9. \square

Theorem 2.11: If $D = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ is the DFA constructed from NFA $N = (Q_N, \Sigma, \delta_N, q_0, F_N)$ by the subset construction then $L(D) = L(N)$

PROOF: What we actually prove first by induction on $w \in \Sigma^*$ is that

$$(\underline{q_0 \alpha w}) = \underline{N(q_0 \alpha w)}$$

Notice that each of the $\underline{\quad}$ functions returns a set of states from Q_N but interprets this set as one of the states of Q (which is the power set of Q_N) while \underline{N} interprets this set as a subset of Q_N .

Basis: Let $w = \epsilon$; that is $\Sigma^w = \{\epsilon\}$. By the basis definitions of $\underline{\quad}$ for DFA's and NFA's both $(\underline{q_0 \alpha})$ and $\underline{N(q_0 \alpha)}$ are $\underline{q_0}$.

Induction: Let w be of length $n+1$ and assume the statement for length n . Break w up as $w = xa$ where a is the final symbol of w . By the inductive hypothesis $\underline{(\underline{q_0 \alpha x})} = \underline{N(q_0 \alpha x)}$. Let both these sets of N 's states be $p_8 \alpha p_1 \alpha \delta \delta \delta \alpha p$.

The inductive part of the definition of $\underline{\quad}$ for NFA's tells us

$$\underline{N(q_0 \alpha w)} = \underline{\underline{N(p \alpha)}} \quad (2.2)$$

The subset construction Σ on the other hand tells us that

$$(\underline{p_8 \alpha p_1 \alpha \delta \delta \delta \alpha p} \quad \alpha) = \underline{\underline{N(p \alpha)}} \quad (2.3)$$

Now let us use (2.3) and the fact that $(\underline{q_0 \alpha x}) = \underline{p_8 \alpha p_1 \alpha \delta \delta \delta \alpha p}$ in the inductive part of the definition of $\underline{\quad}$ for DFA's:

$$(\underline{q_0 \alpha w}) = (\underline{q_0 \alpha x}) \alpha a = (\underline{p_8 \alpha p_1 \alpha \delta \delta \delta \alpha p} \quad \alpha a) = \underline{\underline{N(p \alpha)}} \quad (2.4)$$

Thus Equations (2.2) and (2.4) demonstrate that $(\underline{q_0 \alpha w}) = \underline{N(q_0 \alpha w)}$. When we observe that D and N both accept w if and only if $(\underline{q_0 \alpha w})$ or $\underline{N(q_0 \alpha w)}$ contain a state in F_N we have a complete proof that $L(D) = L(N)$. \square

Exercise:

* **Exercise 2.3.1:** Convert to a DFA the following NFA:

	0	1
p	pq	p
q	r	r
r	s	
s	s	s

Exercise 2.3.2: Convert to a DFA the following NFA:

	0	1
p	qas	q
q	r	qar
r	s	p
s		p

Example 2.20: Let us compute $(q_0\alpha 5)$ for the Σ -NFA of Fig. 2.18. A summary of the steps needed are as follows:

- $(q_0\alpha) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_0) = q_0\alpha q_8$

- Compute $(q_0\alpha)$ as follows:

- 1 First compute the transitions on input 5 from the states q_0 and q_8 that we obtained in the calculation of $(q_0\alpha)\Sigma$ above. That is we compute $(q_0\alpha) = (q_8\alpha) = q_8\alpha q_6$

- 2 Next Σ -close the members of the set computed in step (1). We get $\text{ECLOSE}(q_8) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_6) = q_8 \cup q_6 = q_8\alpha q_6$. That set is $(q_0\alpha)$. This two-step pattern repeats for the next two symbols.

- Compute $(q_0\alpha 5)$ as follows:

- 1 First compute $(q_8\alpha 5) = (q_6\alpha 5) = q_1 \cup q_7 = q_1\alpha q_7$

- 2 Then compute

$$(q_0\alpha 5) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_1) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_7) = q_1 \cup q_7 = q_1\alpha q_7$$

- Compute $(q_0\alpha 5)$ as follows:

- 1 First compute $(q_1\alpha) = (q_7\alpha) = (q_7\alpha) = q_1 \cup q_7 = q_1\alpha q_7$

- 2 Then compute $(q_0\alpha 5) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_1) = q_1\alpha q_7$

□

Example 2.21: Let us eliminate α -transitions from the Σ -NFA of Fig. 2.18 Σ which we shall call E in what follows. From $E\Sigma$ we construct an DFA $D\Sigma$ which is shown in Fig. 2.22. However to avoid clutter we omitted from Fig. 2.22 the dead state and all transitions to the dead state. You should imagine that for each state shown in Fig. 2.22 there are additional transitions from any state to α on any input symbols for which a transition is not indicated. Also the state has transitions to itself on all input symbols.

Since the start state of E is q_0 the start state of D is $\text{ECLOSE}(q_0)\Sigma$ which is $q_0\alpha q_8$. Our first job is to find the successors of q_0 and q_8 on the various symbols in Σ ; note that these symbols are the plus and minus signs, the dot, and the digits 0 through 9. On $+$ and $-$ q_8 goes nowhere in Fig. 2.18 Σ while q_0 goes to q_8 . Thus to compute $(q_0\alpha q_8 \alpha^+)$ we start with q_8 and α -close it. Since there are no α -transitions out of q_8 we have $(q_0\alpha q_8 \alpha^+) = q_8$. Similarly $(q_0\alpha q_8 \alpha^-) = q_8$. These two transitions are shown by one arc in Fig. 2.22.

Theorem 2.22: A language L is accepted by some Σ -NFA if and only if L is accepted by some DFA

PROOF: (If) This direction is easy. Suppose $L = L(D)$ for some DFA D . Turn D into an Σ -NFA E by adding transitions $(q\alpha) = \emptyset$ for all states q of D . Technically we must also convert the transitions of D on input symbols Σ to $(q\alpha) = p$ into an NFA-transition to the set containing only $p\Sigma$ that is $(q\alpha) = p$. Thus the transitions of E and D are the same but E explicitly states that there are no transitions out of any state on \emptyset .

(Only-if) Let $E = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be an Σ -NFA. Apply the modified subset construction described above to produce the DFA

$$D = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$$

We need to show that $L(D) = L(E)$ and we do so by showing that the extended transition functions of E and D are the same. Formally we show $(q_0\alpha w) = (q\alpha w)$ by induction on the length of w .

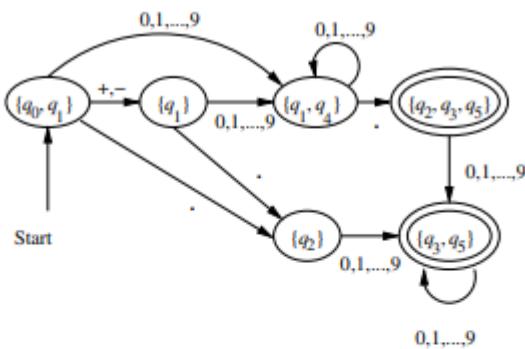


Figure 2.22: The DFA D that eliminates \emptyset -transitions from Fig. 2.18

Next we need to compute $(q_0\alpha q_8 \alpha 5)$. Since q_0 goes nowhere on the dot Σ and q_8 goes to q_1 in Fig. 2.18 we must \emptyset -close q_1 . As there are no \emptyset -transitions out of q_1 this state is its own closure Σ so $(q_0\alpha q_8 \alpha 5) = q_1$.

Finally we must compute $(q_0\alpha q_8 \alpha 0)$ as an example of the transitions from $q_0\alpha q_8$ on all the digits. We find that q_0 goes nowhere on the digits Σ but q_8 goes to both q_8 and q_6 . Since neither of those states have \emptyset -transitions out we conclude $(q_0\alpha q_8 \alpha 0) = q_8\alpha q_6$ and likewise for the other digits.

We have now explained the arcs out of $q_0\alpha q_8$ in Fig. 2.22. The other transitions are computed similarly and we leave them for you to check. Since q_7 is the only accepting state of E the accepting states of D are those accessible states that contain q_7 . We see these two sets $q_1\alpha q_7$ and $q_1\alpha q_7$ indicated by double circles in Fig. 2.22. \square

BASIS: If $w = 0\Sigma$ then $w =$. We know $(q_0\alpha) = \text{CLOSE}(q_0)$. We also know that $q = \text{CLOSE}(q_0)\Sigma$ because that is how the start state of D is defined. Finally for a DFA Σ we know that $(p\alpha) = p$ for any state $p \in \Sigma$ so in particular Σ $(q\alpha) = \text{CLOSE}(q_0)$. We have thus proved that $(q_0\alpha) = (q\alpha)$.

INDUCTION: Suppose $w = xa\Sigma$ where a is the final symbol of w and assume that the statement holds for x . That is $\Sigma (q_0\alpha x) = (q\alpha x)$. Let both these sets of states be $p_8\alpha p(\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p)$.

By the definition of Σ -NFA $s\Sigma$ we compute $(q_0\alpha w)$ by:

1. Let $r_8\alpha p(\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p)$ be $\bigcup_{p \in p_8} (p\alpha)$
2. Then $(q_0\alpha w) = \text{CLOSE}(r_8\alpha p(\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p))$

If we examine the construction of DFA D in the modified subset construction above Σ we see that $(p_8\alpha p(\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p))$ is constructed by the same two steps (1) and (2) above. Thus $\Sigma (q\alpha w)$ which is $(p_8\alpha p(\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p))$ is the same set as $(q_0\alpha w)$. We have now proved that $(q_0\alpha w) = (q\alpha w)$ and completed the inductive part. \square