

**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's, 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  $a_1a_2 \dots a_n$  and  $b_1b_2 \dots b_n$ .

Since the sequences are different, they must differ in some position. Say  $a_i \neq b_i$ . Suppose (by symmetry) that  $a_i = 1$  and  $b_i = 0$ . If  $i = n$ , then  $q$  must be both an accepting state and a nonaccepting state, since  $a_1a_2 \dots a_n$  is accepted (the  $n$ th symbol from the end is 1) and  $b_1b_2 \dots b_n$  is not. If  $i < n$ , then consider the state  $p$  that  $D$  enters after reading  $i-1$  0's. Then  $p$  must be both accepting and nonaccepting, since  $a_1a_2 \dots a_{i-1}0 \dots 0$  is accepted and  $b_1b_2 \dots b_{i-1}0 \dots 0$  is not.

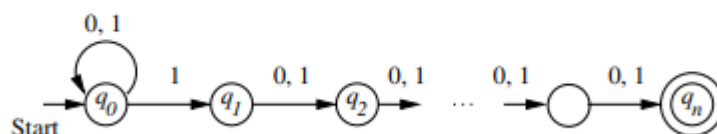


Figure 2.15: This NFA has no equivalent DFA with fewer than  $2^n$  states.

Now let us see how the NFA  $N$  of Fig. 2.15 works. There is a state  $q_0$  that the NFA is always in, regardless of what inputs have been read. If the next input is 1,  $N$  may also “guess” that this 1 will be the  $n$ th symbol from the end, so it goes to state  $q_n$  as well as  $q_0$ . From state  $q_n$ , any input takes  $N$  to  $q_1$ ; the next input takes it to  $q_2$ , and so on, until  $n-1$  inputs later, it is in the accepting state  $q_n$ . The formal statement of what the states of  $N$  do is:

1.  $N$  is in state  $q_0$  after reading any sequence of inputs  $w$ .
2.  $N$  is in state  $q_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  after reading input sequence  $w$  if and only if the  $i$ th symbol from the end of  $w$  is 1; that is,  $w$  is of the form  $x1a_1a_2 \dots a_{i-1}$  where the  $a$ 's are each input symbols.

We shall not prove these statements formally; the proof is an easy induction on  $w$ , mimicking Example 2.9. To complete the proof that the automaton accepts exactly those strings with a 1 in the  $n$ th position from the end, we consider statement (2) with  $i = n$ . That says  $N$  is in state  $q_n$  if and only if the  $n$ th symbol from the end is 1. But  $q_n$  is the only accepting state, so that condition also characterizes exactly the set of strings accepted by  $N$ .  $\square$

## Pigeonhole principle

## 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  $1, 2, \dots$ . Number the pigeons  $0, 1, 2, \dots$ , 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.,  $A$  for  $\{q_0\}$ ,  $B$  for  $\{q_1\}$ , 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  $B, E, F$ . 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  $a \in \Sigma$  compute the set of states  $\delta(S, a)$ ; we know that these sets of states will also be accessible.

For the example at hand we know that  $q_0$  is a state of the DFA  $D$ . We find that  $\delta(q_0, 0) = q_0$  and  $\delta(q_0, 1) = q_8$ . 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  $q_8$ . 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 —  $q_8$  — is new and its transitions must be computed. We find  $\delta(q_8, 0) = q_8$  and  $\delta(q_8, 1) = q_4$ . For instance we know that

$$\delta(q_8, 0) = \delta(q_0, 0) = q_0 \quad \delta(q_8, 1) = q_4 \quad q_4 = \delta(q_0, 1)$$

We now have the fifth row of Fig. 2.12 and we have discovered one new state of  $D$  which is  $q_4$ . A similar calculation tells us

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(q_4, 0) &= \delta(q_0, 0) = q_0 & \delta(q_4, 1) &= q_8 &= \delta(q_8, 1) \\ \delta(q_4, 0) &= \delta(q_0, 0) & \delta(q_4, 1) &= q_0 &= q_0 \end{aligned}$$

These calculations give us the sixth row of Fig. 2.12 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 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  $D = (Q, \alpha, q_0, \alpha F)$  is the DFA constructed from NFA  $N = (Q_N, \alpha_N, q_0, \alpha F_N)$  by the subset construction then  $L(D) = L(N)$

**PROOF:** What we actually prove first is by induction on  $w$  is that

$$(\delta_{q_0}^D(w)) = \delta_{q_0}^N(w)$$

Notice that each of the  $\delta$  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  $\delta_N$  interprets this set as a subset of  $Q_N$

**BASIS:** Let  $w = \epsilon$ ; that is  $\delta_{q_0}^D(\epsilon) = \{q_0\}$ . By the basis definitions of  $\delta$  for DFA's and NFA's both  $\delta_{q_0}^D(\epsilon) = \{q_0\}$  and  $\delta_{q_0}^N(\epsilon) = \{q_0\}$

**INDUCTION:** Let  $w$  be of length  $n+1$  and assume the statement for length  $n$ . Break  $w$  up as  $w = x\alpha$  where  $\alpha$  is the final symbol of  $w$ . By the inductive hypothesis  $\delta_{q_0}^D(x) = \delta_{q_0}^N(x)$ . Let both these sets of  $N$ 's states be  $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$

The inductive part of the definition of  $\delta$  for NFA's tells us

$$\delta_{q_0}^N(x\alpha) = \bigcup_{p \in \delta_{q_0}^N(x)} \delta_p^N(\alpha) \quad (2.2)$$

The subset construction on the other hand tells us that

$$(\delta_{q_0}^D(x\alpha)) = \delta_{\delta_{q_0}^D(x)}^D(\alpha) = \delta_{\delta_{q_0}^N(x)}^D(\alpha) \quad (2.3)$$

Now let us use (2.3) and the fact that  $\delta_{\delta_{q_0}^D(x)}^D(\alpha) = \delta_{\delta_{q_0}^N(x)}^D(\alpha)$  in the inductive part of the definition of  $\delta$  for DFA's:

$$(\delta_{q_0}^D(x\alpha)) = (\delta_{\delta_{q_0}^D(x)}^D(\alpha)) = (\delta_{\delta_{q_0}^N(x)}^D(\alpha)) = \delta_{\delta_{q_0}^N(x)}^D(\alpha) \quad (2.4)$$

Thus Equations (2.2) and (2.4) demonstrate that  $\delta_{q_0}^D(w) = \delta_{q_0}^N(w)$ . When we observe that  $D$  and  $N$  both accept  $w$  if and only if  $(\delta_{q_0}^D(w))$  or  $\delta_{q_0}^N(w)$  respectively 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   | qa |
| r | s   | p  |
| s |     | p  |

**Example 2.20:** Let us compute  $(q_0 \alpha 5)$  for the  $\epsilon$ -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  $(q_0 \alpha)$  above. That is, we compute  $(q_0 \alpha) (q_8 \alpha) = q_8 \alpha q_6$ .
  - 2 Next  $\Sigma$ -close the members of the set computed in step (1). We get  $\text{ECLOSE}(q_8) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_6) = q_8$ ,  $q_6 = q_8 \alpha q_6$ . 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  $(q_8 \alpha 5) = (q_8 \alpha) (q_6 \alpha) = (q_8 \alpha q_6) (q_6 \alpha q_7) = q_8 \alpha q_7$ .
  - 2 Then compute  $(q_0 \alpha 5) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_8 \alpha 5) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_8 \alpha q_7) = q_8 \alpha q_7$ .
- Compute  $(q_0 \alpha 5)$  as follows:
  - 1 First compute  $(q_7 \alpha) = (q_7 \alpha) (q_7 \alpha) = (q_7 \alpha q_7) (q_7 \alpha q_7) = q_7$ .
  - 2 Then compute  $(q_0 \alpha 5) = \text{ECLOSE}(q_7) = q_7$ .

□

**Example 2.21:** Let us eliminate  $\epsilon$ -transitions from the  $\epsilon$ -NFA of Fig. 2.18, which we shall call  $E$  in what follows. From  $E$  we construct an DFA  $D$  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 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  $\text{ECLOSE}(q_0)$  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  $\Sigma$ ; note that these symbols are the plus and minus signs, the dot, and the digits 0 through 9. On  $+$  and  $\Sigma$ ,  $q_8$  goes nowhere in Fig. 2.18, while  $q_0$  goes to  $q_8$ . Thus, to compute  $(q_0 \alpha q_8 \alpha +)$  we start with  $q_8$  and  $\Sigma$ -close it. Since there are no  $\epsilon$ -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  $\epsilon$ -NFA if and only if  $L$  is accepted by some DFA

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

(Only-if) Let  $E = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  be an  $\epsilon$ -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  $\delta_D(q_0', aw) = \delta_E(q_0, aw)$  by induction on the length of  $w$ .

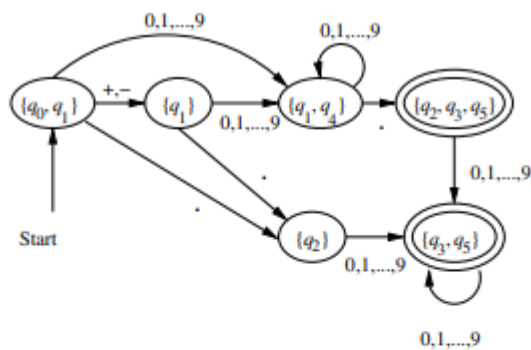


Figure 2.22: The DFA  $D$  that eliminates  $\epsilon$ -transitions from Fig. 2.18

Next, we need to compute  $\delta(q_0, a_8 \alpha 5)$ . Since  $q_0$  goes nowhere on the dot and  $q_8$  goes to  $q_1$  in Fig. 2.18, we must close  $q_1$ . As there are no  $\epsilon$ -transitions out of  $q_1$ , this state is its own closure, so  $\delta(q_0, a_8 \alpha 5) = \{q_1\}$ .

Finally, we must compute  $\delta(q_0, a_8 \alpha 0)$  as an example of the transitions from  $q_0, a_8$  on all the digits. We find that  $q_0$  goes nowhere on the digits, but  $q_8$  goes to both  $q_8$  and  $q_6$ . Since neither of those states have  $\epsilon$ -transitions out, we conclude  $\delta(q_0, a_8 \alpha 0) = \{q_8, q_6\}$ , and likewise for the other digits.

We have now explained the arcs out of  $q_0, a_8$  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,  $\{q_1, q_7\}$  and  $\{q_1, q_7, q_8\}$ , indicated by double circles in Fig. 2.22.  $\square$

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

**INDUCTION:** Suppose  $w = x\alpha$  where  $\alpha$  is the final symbol of  $w$ .  $\Sigma$  and assume that the statement holds for  $x$ . That is  $\Sigma(q_0x) = \Sigma(q_0x)$ . Let both these sets of states be  $\Sigma(p_8\alpha p_1\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p)$ .

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

1. Let  $\Sigma(p_8\alpha p_1\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p)$  be  $\bigcup_{p \in \Sigma} \Sigma(p\alpha)$ .
2. Then  $\Sigma(q_0\alpha w) = \text{ECL}(\text{CLOSE}(\Sigma(p_8\alpha p_1\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p)))$ .

If we examine the construction of DFA  $D$  in the modified subset construction above, we see that  $\Sigma(p_8\alpha p_1\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p)$  is constructed by the same two steps (1) and (2) above. Thus  $\Sigma(q_0\alpha w)$  which is  $\Sigma(p_8\alpha p_1\alpha\delta\delta\delta\alpha p)$  is the same set as  $\Sigma(q_0\alpha w)$ . We have now proved that  $\Sigma(q_0\alpha w) = \Sigma(q_0\alpha w)$  and completed the inductive part.  $\square$