

COMP1600, week 7:

Deterministic Finite Automata (DFAs)

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lecturer: Pascal Bercher

slides based on those by: Dirk Pattinson
(with contributions by Victor Rivera and previous colleagues)

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Australian
National
University

Overview of Week 7

- ▶ Motivation
- ▶ Introduction to Automata and Formal Languages
- ▶ Deterministic Finite Automata — Formally —
- ▶ Language of an Automaton
- ▶ Minimisation of DFAs
- ▶ Limitations of FSAs



Motivation



The Story So Far . . .

Logic.

- ▶ language and proofs to speak about systems *precisely*
- ▶ useful to *express properties* and *do proofs*

Establish *properties of programs*.

- ▶ *Functional Programs*. Main tool: (structural) induction / Dafny
- ▶ *Imperative Programs*. Main tool: Hoare Logic / Dafny

Q. Is there a *general* notion of computation that encompasses *both*?



First Shot: Your Laptop



Abstract Characteristics.

- ▶ can do computation
- ▶ has memory – a finite amount
- ▶ has (lots of) internal states



From Laptops to Formal Models

Concrete (your laptop)

- ▶ realistic (it exists!)
- ▶ complex
- ▶ hard to analyse

Abstract (mathematical model)

- ▶ exists only as a model
- ▶ simple
- ▶ easy to analyse

Q. What is a “*good*” simple model of computation?

- ▶ should be able to differentiate different problem solving capabilities
- ▶ should match what really exists (possibly by a long shot)
- ▶ should be *conceptually simple*



First Answer: Finite State Automata

Basic Components.

- ▶ internal states – finitely many
- ▶ state transitions – triggered by reading input
- ▶ simplifying assumption: just *one* output: yes/no

Data.

- ▶ basic input: strings (what you type in, text/XML/JSON file etc.)
- ▶ characters: drawn from *finite* set (alphabet, e.g., letters, numbers)

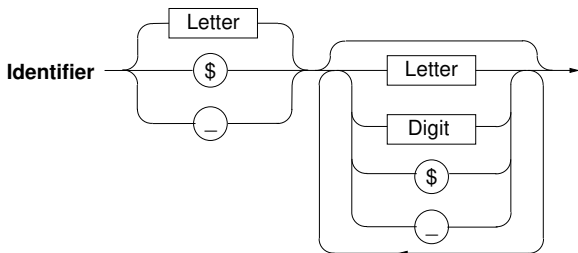


Example: Java Identifiers

From Oracle's Java Language Specification.

An identifier is a sequence of one or more characters. The first character must be a valid first character (letter, \$, _) in an identifier of the Java programming language, hereafter in this chapter called simply "Java". Each subsequent character in the sequence must be a valid nonfirst character (letter, digit, \$, _) in a Java identifier.

Graphical Specification

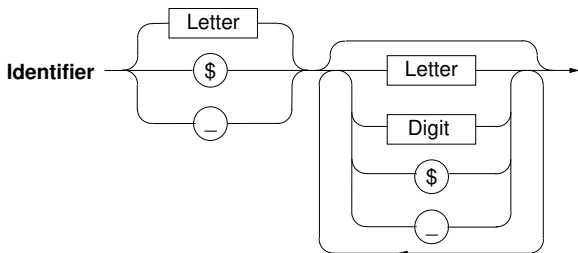


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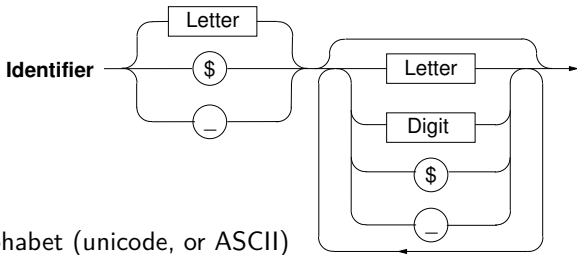


Q. Can you see a “machine” that *recognises* Java? identifiers?



Java Identifiers

Example: Main Components



Data.

- ▶ drawn from a finite alphabet (unicode, or ASCII)

Control.

- ▶ “yes” if I can get from the left to the right, “no” otherwise
- ▶ have *states* after taking a transition (implicit in diagram)

Computational Problem with yes/no answer:

- ▶ is a given sequence of characters a valid Java identifier?



Preview.

Next two weeks. Finite Automata

- ▶ start with simplest model: finite automata
- ▶ relate to regular languages, non-determinism
- ▶ conclusion: finite automata “too simple”

The week after. Pushdown automata

- ▶ like finite automata, but some more memory
- ▶ useful for e.g. specifying syntax of programming languages
- ▶ still “too simple” for general computation

Then. Turing machines

- ▶ *The* most widely accepted model of computation
- ▶ *infinite* memory
- ▶ idea: buy another hard disk whenever your computation runs out of memory
- ▶ *limits* of what can be computed



Introduction to Automata and Formal Languages

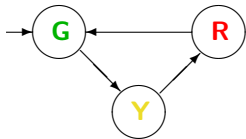


Finite State Automata: First Example

The simplest useful abstraction of a “**computing machine**” consists of:

- ▶ A fixed, finite set of **states**
- ▶ A **transition relation** over the states

Example: a traffic light Finite State Automaton (FSA) has 3 states:



G names state in which light is **green**.
Y names state in which light is **yellow**.
R names state in which light is **red**.

System designs are often in terms of state machines.

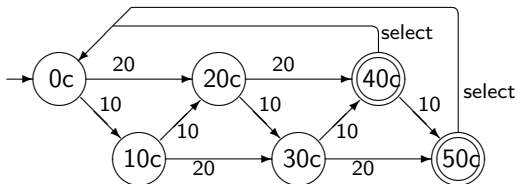
There are many extensions, e.g., how long does it stay red, how long green, etc.



Second Example: Vending Machine

Operation

- ▶ accept 10c and 20c coins
- ▶ delivers if it has received at least 40c and selection is made



Note.

- ▶ transitions are *labelled*
- ▶ new ingredient: *final states* (doubly circled)

Computation. Sequences of actions (labels) from initial to final state.



Language Examples

Main Idea.

- ▶ input: a string over a fixed character set
- ▶ operation: transitions labelled with characters
- ▶ output: yes if in final state after reading the input

More Generally.

- ▶ Setup: Fix a finite set of characters (an alphabet)
- ▶ Problem: A set of strings (called *language*) that are “valid” or “good”
- ▶ Task: decide computationally which strings are “good”

Example Languages.

1. A finite set: $\{a, aa, ab, aaa, aab, aba, abb\}$



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Languages in this sense are called *formal* languages.



Terminology

Alphabet.

A finite set (of symbols). Usually denoted by Σ .

Strings over an alphabet Σ

finite sequence of characters (elements of Σ), can be the empty sequence.

E.g. for $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$, $ababc$ is a string over Σ , and so is ε .

Languages over alphabet Σ

are just sets of strings over Σ .

(The language of an automaton is the set of strings accepted by it.)

Words of the language

just another name for the elements (strings) of the language.

Notation:

- ▶ Σ^* is the set of all strings over Σ .
- ▶ Therefore, every language with alphabet Σ is some **subset** of Σ^* .



Automata

First Model of Computation. Deterministic Finite Automata

- ▶ solve computational problem: given string (word) w , is w accepted?

Basic Ingredients. (see e.g. traffic light and vending machine example)

- ▶ The **alphabet** of a DFA is a finite set of *input tokens* that an automaton acts on.



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Q. What's the difference between a DFA and an FSA?

Disclaimer: We often use FSA when a specific FSA is meant (like a DFA), because it should be clear from context which is meant.



Recurring Theme

Diagrammatic Notation.

- ▶ useful for humans
- ▶ e.g. the transition diagram of the vending machine

Mathematical Notation.

- ▶ useful for formal manipulation (e.g. proving theorems)
- ▶ useful for computer implementation

Glue between Diagrams and Maths

- ▶ both notions convey *precisely* the same information
- ▶ crucial: being able to switch back and forth!



Deterministic Finite Automata — Formally —



Formal Definition of DFA

A Deterministic Finite State Automaton (DFA) consists of five parts:

$$A = (\Sigma, S, s_0, F, N)$$

- ▶ a finite input **alphabet** Σ , the set of tokens
- ▶ a finite set of **states** S
- ▶ an **initial** state $s_0 \in S$ (we start here)
- ▶ a set of **final** states $F \subseteq S$ (helps defining which strings are accepted)
- ▶ a **transition function** $N : S \times \Sigma \rightarrow S$



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Aside. Having a transition *function* is what makes the automaton deterministic.

- ▶ It requires a unique successor for each state-token pair
- ▶ (Also, we have a successor for each state-token pair)



Finite State Automata as String Acceptors

Idea. A finite state automaton

- ▶ works on *strings* over an alphabet Σ
- ▶ determines which strings in Σ^* are “good” (accepted) and which strings are “bad” (rejected). (Recall our two initial examples)

Acceptance Informally. Let $A = (\Sigma, S, s_0, F, N)$ be a DFA. Then A *accepts* the string $w = x_1x_2 \dots x_n$ iff there is a sequence of states

$$s_0 \xrightarrow{x_1} s_1 \xrightarrow{x_2} \dots \xrightarrow{x_{n-1}} s_{n-1} \xrightarrow{x_n} s_n$$

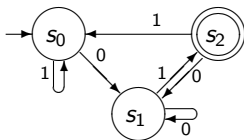
where s_0 is the starting state, $s_n \in F$ is an accepting state, and $s_i \xrightarrow{x} s_j$ if $N(s_i, x) = s_j$.

Informally. Run the automaton from the starting state, move states according to the individual letters of the word, and accept iff you end up in a final state.



Example 1

As a diagram.



In Mathematical Notation.

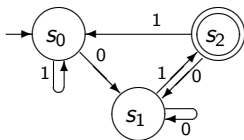
- ▶ Alphabet –
- ▶ States –
- ▶ Initial state –
- ▶ Final states –
- ▶ Transition function (as a table) – on the right:

	0	1
s_0		
s_1		
s_2		



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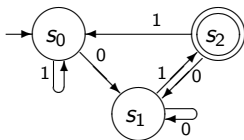
- ▶ Alphabet – $\{0, 1\}$
- ▶ States – $\{s_0, s_1, s_2\}$
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s_2	s_1	s_0



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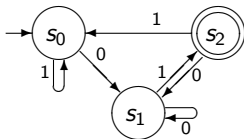
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Q1. Which strings are accepted by this automaton?



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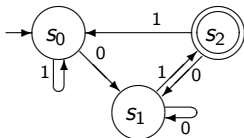
Q2. What changes if we re-name the states?



Example 1, cont'd

Recall. $N : S \times \Sigma \rightarrow S$ is the transition function.

	0	1
s_0	s_1	s_0
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Single Steps of the automaton

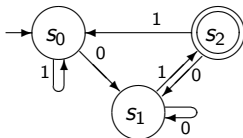
- ▶ $N(s_0, 0)$ is the state that the automation transitions to from state s_0 reading letter 0. Here: $N(s_0, 0) = s_1$.



Example 1, cont'd

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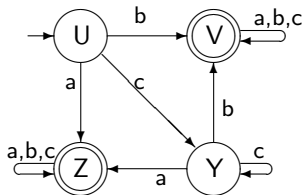
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Multiple Steps of the automaton

- ▶ $N(N(s_0, 0), 1)$ is the state of the automation when starting in s_0 and reading first 0, then 1. Here: $N(N(s_0, 0), 1) = s_2$.
- ▶ Later, we will simplify this using the *Eventual State Function*. Then, $N^*(s_0, 01) = s_2$.



Example 2



	a	b	c
→ U	Z	V	Y
⊙ V	V	V	V
Y	Z	V	Y
⊙ Z	Z	Z	Z

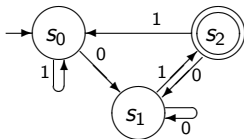
(the table carries the same information as the diagram)

Q. What is the language of this automaton?



Eventual State Function

Revisit example 1:



- ▶ Input 0101 takes the DFA from s_0 to s_2 ,
Input 1011 takes the DFA from s_1 to s_0 , etc.
- ▶ A complete list of such possibilities is a function from a given state and a string to an 'eventual state.'

This is the idea of **Eventual State Function**.
(Called N^* rather than N to reflect the transitive closure.)



Eventual State Function — Definition

Definition.

Let A be a DFA with states S , alphabet Σ , and transition function N .

The *eventual state function* for A is of type

$$N^* : S \times \Sigma^* \rightarrow S$$

and is defined inductively by:

$$N^*(s, \epsilon) = s \tag{N1}$$

$$N^*(s, x\alpha) = N^*(N(s, x), \alpha) \tag{N2}$$

(where $x \in \Sigma$)

Informally.

$N^*(s, w)$ is the state A reached by starting in state s and reading string w .



An Important (but Unsurprising) Theorem about N^*

The “Append Theorem”. For all states $s \in S$ and for all strings $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma^*$

$$N^*(s, \alpha\beta) = N^*(N^*(s, \alpha), \beta)$$

Informally: In other words, appending string β to a string α can be understood as first reaching the state after processing α , and then continuing from there to process β . (Instead of processing $\alpha\beta$ directly.)



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Proof by induction on the length of α (and arbitrary β).

Base case: $\alpha = \epsilon$

$$\text{LHS} = N^*(s, \epsilon\beta) = N^*(s, \beta)$$

$$\text{RHS} = N^*(N^*(s, \epsilon), \beta)$$

$$= N^*(s, \beta) = \text{LHS}$$

(by (N1))



Proof cont'd: Step case:

Recall that we want to show:

For all $s \in S$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma^*$ holds $N^*(s, \alpha\beta) = N^*(N^*(s, \alpha), \beta)$

Step Case. Show that $N^*(s, (x\alpha)\beta) = N^*(N^*(s, x\alpha), \beta)$



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Proof cont'd: Step case:

Recall that we want to show:

For all $s \in S$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma^*$ holds $N^*(s, \alpha\beta) = N^*(N^*(s, \alpha), \beta)$

Step Case. Show that $N^*(s, (x\alpha)\beta) = N^*(N^*(s, x\alpha), \beta)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= N^*(s, (x\alpha)\beta) \\ &= N^*(s, x(\alpha\beta)) \\ &= N^*(N(s, x), \alpha\beta) && \text{(by (N2))} \\ &= N^*(N^*(N(s, x), \alpha), \beta) && \text{(by IH)} \end{aligned}$$



Proof cont'd: Step case:

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$$\text{RHS} = N^*(N^*(s, x\alpha), \beta)$$



Proof cont'd: Step case:

Recall that we want to show:

For all $s \in S$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma^*$ holds $N^*(s, \alpha\beta) = N^*(N^*(s, \alpha), \beta)$

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Proof cont'd: Step case:

Recall that we want to show:

For all $s \in S$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma^*$ holds $N^*(s, \alpha\beta) = N^*(N^*(s, \alpha), \beta)$

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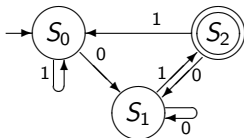
$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS} &= N^*(N^*(s, x\alpha), \beta) \\ &= N^*(N^*(N(s, x), \alpha), \beta) && \text{(by (N2))} \end{aligned}$$

Corollary — when β is a single token

$$N^*(s, \alpha y) = N(N^*(s, \alpha), y)$$



Example



$$\begin{aligned} N^*(S_1, 1011) &= N^*(N(S_1, 1), 011) \\ &= N^*(S_2, 011) \\ &= N^*(S_1, 11) \\ &= N^*(S_2, 1) \\ &= N^*(S_0, \epsilon) \\ &= S_0 \end{aligned}$$



Language of an Automaton



Language of an Automaton, Revisited

Recall:

The language of an automaton is the set of strings accepted by it.

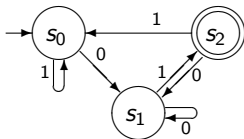
Acceptance, formally:

Let $A = (\Sigma, S, s_0, F, N)$ be a DFA and w be a string in Σ^* . Then,

- ▶ w is *accepted* by A iff $N^*(s_0, w) \in F$
- ▶ Thus, $L(A) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid N^*(s_0, w) \in F\}$



Example 1 again

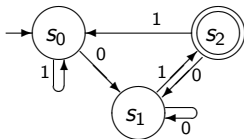


Q. Which strings are accepted?

- ▶ e.g. 0011101 takes the machine from state s_0 through states $s_1, s_1, s_2, s_0, s_0, s_1$ to s_2 (a final state).
- ▶ $N^*(s_0, 0011101) = N^*(s_1, 011101) = N^*(s_1, 11101) = \dots N^*(s_1, 1) = s_2$
- ▶ others: 01, 001, 101, 0001, 0101, 00101101 ...
- ▶ Thus, $L(A) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w = \alpha 01, \alpha \in \Sigma^*\}$ (where A is our DFA)



Example 1 (cont'd)



Accepted Strings.

01, 001, 101, 0001, 0101, 00101101 ...

Strings that are not accepted.

ϵ , 0, 1, 00, 10, 11, 100 ...

Q. What do the accepted strings have in common? How do we justify this?



Proving an Acceptance Predicate — in General

Our Claim. The automaton A accepts precisely the strings that are elements of the language $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid P(w)\}$.

(P is sometimes called an *acceptance predicate*.)

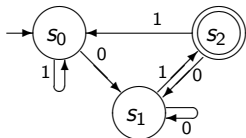
Proof Obligations.

1. Show that any string satisfying P is accepted by A .
2. Show any string accepted by A satisfies P .

Q. Do we really need both? Isn't the first obligation enough?



Proving an Acceptance Predicate for A_1



Proof obligation 1:

If a string ends in 01, then it is accepted by A_1 . That is:

$$\text{For all } \alpha \in \Sigma^*, N^*(s_0, \alpha 01) \in F$$

Proof obligation 2:

If a string is accepted by A_1 , then it ends in 01. That is:

$$\text{For all } w \in \Sigma^*, \text{ if } N^*(s_0, w) \in F \text{ then } \exists \alpha \in \Sigma^*. w = \alpha 01$$



Part 1: $\forall \alpha \in \Sigma^*, N^*(s_0, \alpha 01) \in F$

Lemma:

$$\forall s \in S. N^*(s, 01) = s_2$$

Proof by cases:

$$N^*(s_0, 01) = N^*(s_1, 1) = s_2$$

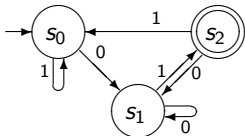
$$N^*(s_1, 01) = N^*(s_1, 1) = s_2$$

$$N^*(s_2, 01) = N^*(s_1, 1) = s_2$$

So, by the Append Theorem above, we get

$$N^*(s_0, \alpha 01) = N^*(N^*(s_0, \alpha), 01) = s_2$$

Why? Because we covered all possible cases for $N^*(s_0, \alpha)$



□



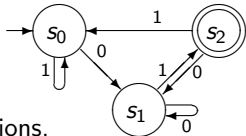
Part 2: $N^*(s_0, w) = s_2 \Rightarrow \exists \alpha. w = \alpha 01$

Proof. Suppose $N^*(s_0, w) = s_2$.

The shortest path in the DFA from s_0 to s_2 has two transitions.

Thus, we can assume that $w = \alpha xy$ for some $\alpha \in \Sigma^*$.

Thus, suppose $N^*(s_0, \alpha xy) = s_2$.



Part 2: $N^*(s_0, w) = s_2 \Rightarrow \exists \alpha. w = \alpha 01$

Proof. Suppose $N^*(s_0, w) = s_2$.

The shortest path in the DFA from s_0 to s_2 has two transitions.

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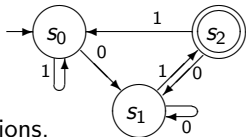
Thus, suppose $N^*(s_0, \alpha xy) = s_2$.

By corollary to the Append Theorem (case of single token):

$$N^*(s_0, \alpha xy) = N(N^*(s_0, \alpha x), y) = s_2$$

By the definition of N , y must be 1 and $N^*(s_0, \alpha x)$ must be s_1 .

Thus, $s_2 = N^*(s_0, \alpha xy) = N(N^*(s_0, \alpha x), y) = N(s_1, 1)$, so w ends on 1.



Part 2: $N^*(s_0, w) = s_2 \Rightarrow \exists \alpha. w = \alpha 01$

Proof. Suppose $N^*(s_0, w) = s_2$.

The shortest path in the DFA from s_0 to s_2 has two transitions.

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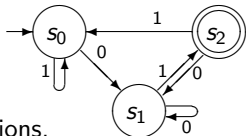
By the definition of N , y must be 1 and $N^*(s_0, \alpha x)$ must be s_1 .

Thus, $s_2 = N^*(s_0, \alpha xy) = N(N^*(s_0, \alpha x), y) = N(s_1, 1)$, so w ends on 1.

Similarly,

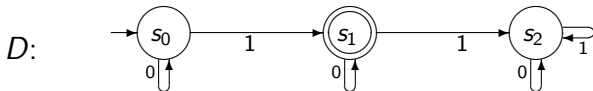
$$N(N^*(s_0, \alpha), x) = s_1$$

and x is 0 (again by the definition of N), so w ends on 01.



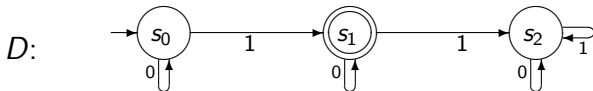
Another Example

Which language does D accept?



Another Example

Which language does D accept?



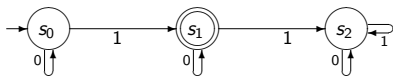
D accepts the language of bitstrings containing **exactly one 1-bit**.

Proof obligations:

- ▶ Show that if a bitstring contains exactly one 1-bit then it is accepted by D .
- ▶ Show that if a string is accepted by D it contains exactly one 1-bit.



Mapping to Mathematics



Expressed mathematically, the main conclusion is

$$L(D) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w = 0^n 1 0^m, n, m \geq 0\}$$

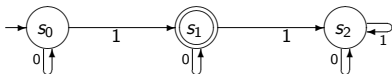
The two subgoals are

1. If $w = 0^n 1 0^m$ then $N^*(s_0, w) = s_1$.
2. If $N^*(s_0, w) = s_1$ then $w = 0^n 1 0^m$.

For this DFA the phrase “ w is accepted by D ” is captured by the expression $N^*(s_0, w) = s_1$.



Proving these subgoals



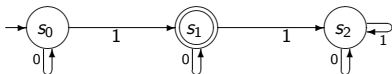
The first subgoal (“If $w = 0^n 1 0^m$ then $N^*(s_0, w) = s_1$ ”) can be shown using the following two lemmas, which are easily proved by induction:

Lemma 1: $\forall n \geq 0. N^*(s_0, 0^n) = s_0$

Lemma 2: $\forall n \geq 0. N^*(s_1, 0^n) = s_1$



Proving these subgoals



The first subgoal (“If $w = 0^n 10^m$ then $N^*(s_0, w) = s_1$ ”) can be shown using the following two lemmas, which are easily proved by induction:

Lemma 1: $\forall n \geq 0. N^*(s_0, 0^n) = s_0$

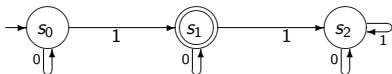
Lemma 2: $\forall n \geq 0. N^*(s_1, 0^n) = s_1$

Therefore $N^*(s_0, 0^n 10^m)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= N^*(N^*(s_0, 0^n), 10^m) && \text{(by Append Theorem)} \\ &= N^*(s_0, 10^m) && \text{(by Lemma 1)} \\ &= N^*(N(s_0, 1), 0^m) && \text{(by Def. of } N^*) \\ &= N^*(s_1, 0^m) && \text{(by Def. of } N) \\ &= s_1 && \text{(by Lemma 2)} \end{aligned}$$



Proving these subgoals



The first subgoal (“If $w = 0^n 10^m$ then $N^*(s_0, w) = s_1$ ”) can be shown using the following two lemmas, which are easily proved by induction:

Lemma 1: $\forall n \geq 0. N^*(s_0, 0^n) = s_0$

Lemma 2: $\forall n \geq 0. N^*(s_1, 0^n) = s_1$

Therefore $N^*(s_0, 0^n 10^m)$

$= N^*(N^*(s_0, 0^n), 10^m)$	(by Append Theorem)
$= N^*(s_0, 10^m)$	(by Lemma 1)
$= N^*(N(s_0, 1), 0^m)$	(by Def. of N^*)
$= N^*(s_1, 0^m)$	(by Def. of N)
$= s_1$	(by Lemma 2)

The second subgoal (“ $N^*(s_0, w) = s_1$ then $w = 0^n 10^m$ ”), more formally:

$$\forall w : N^*(s_0, w) = s_1 \implies \exists n, m \geq 0. w = 0^n 10^m$$

can be proved in a similar fashion to Example 1 on earlier slides.



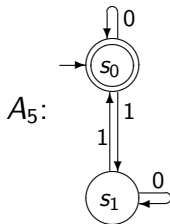
Minimisation of DFAs



Equivalence of Automata

Two automata are said to be **equivalent** if they accept the same language.

Example:



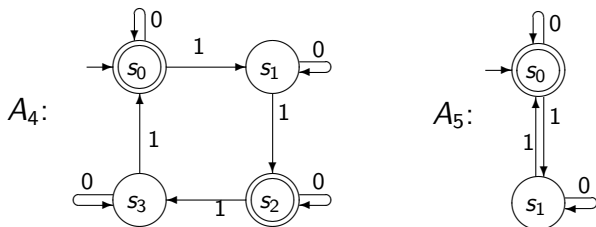
Q1. What language does A_5 accept?



Equivalence of Automata

Two automata are said to be **equivalent** if they accept the same language.

Example:



Q1. What language does A_5 accept?

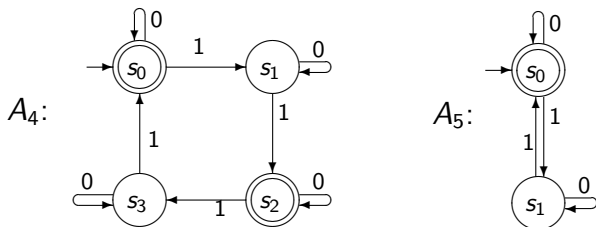
Q2. What language does A_4 accept? Can A_4 be simplified?



Equivalence of Automata

Two automata are said to be **equivalent** if they accept the same language.

Example:



Q1. What language does A_5 accept?

Q2. What language does A_4 accept? Can A_4 be simplified?

Q3. When are two states equivalent?



Equivalence of States

Two states s_j and s_k of an FSA are equivalent if for all input strings w

$$N^*(s_j, w) \in F \text{ if and only if } N^*(s_k, w) \in F$$

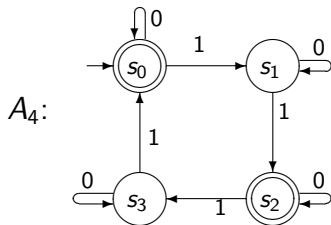


Equivalence of States

Two states s_j and s_k of an FSA are equivalent if for all input strings w

$$N^*(s_j, w) \in F \text{ if and only if } N^*(s_k, w) \in F$$

Example. In A_4 , s_2 is equivalent to s_0 and s_1 is equivalent to s_3 .

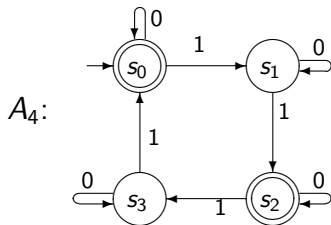


Equivalence of States

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$$N^*(s_j, w) \in F \text{ if and only if } N^*(s_k, w) \in F$$

Example. In A_4 , s_2 is equivalent to s_0 and s_1 is equivalent to s_3 .



Q. Can we use this to define when/whether two DFAs are equivalent?

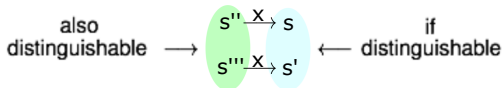


DFA State Minimization

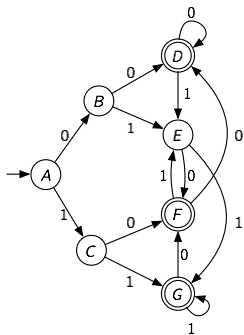
The *Table Filling Algorithm* identifies equivalent and non-equivalent (called distinguishable) pairs of states.

- ▶ Any final state can't be equivalent to a non-final state (they are distinguishable).
- ▶ If s and s' are distinguishable and there exist states s'' , s''' , and symbol x such that
 - ▶ $N^*(s'', x) = s$
 - ▶ $N^*(s''', x) = s'$

then s'' and s''' are also distinguishable:



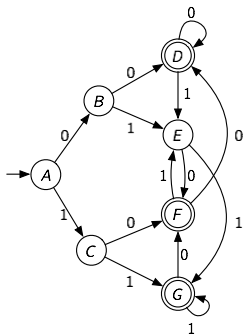
Identifying pairs of (In)distinguishable States: An Example



	G	F	E	D	C	B	A
A							
B							
C							
D							
E							
F							
G							



Identifying pairs of (In)distinguishable States: An Example

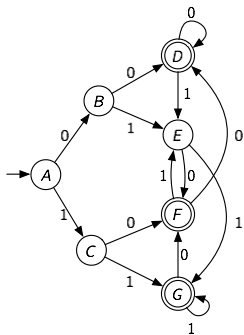


	G	F	E	D	C	B	A
A							
B							
C							
D							
E							
F							
G							

- Fill in × (black) whenever one component of pair is final, and other is not.



Identifying pairs of (In)distinguishable States: An Example

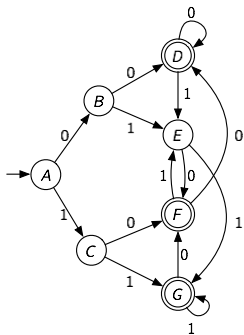


	G	F	E	D	C	B	A
A							
B							
C							
D							
E							
F							
G							

- ▶ Fill in \times (black) whenever one component of pair is final, and other is not.
- ▶ Fill in \times (blue) if 1 moves the pair of states to a distinguishable pair



Identifying pairs of (In)distinguishable States: An Example

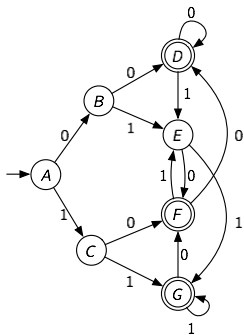


	G	F	E	D	C	B	A
A							
B							
C							
D							
E							
F							
G							

- ▶ Fill in \times (black) whenever one component of pair is final, and other is not.
- ▶ Fill in \times (blue) if 1 moves the pair of states to a distinguishable pair
- ▶ Fill in \times (red) if 0 moves the pair of states to a distinguishable pair



Identifying pairs of (In)distinguishable States: An Example

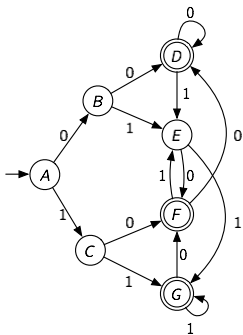


	G	F	E	D	C	B	A
A							
B							
C							
D							
E							
F							
G							

- ▶ Fill in \times (black) whenever one component of pair is final, and other is not.
- ▶ Fill in \times (blue) if 1 moves the pair of states to a distinguishable pair
- ▶ Fill in \times (red) if 0 moves the pair of states to a distinguishable pair
- ▶ Repeat until no progress (any two states without a \times sign are equivalent!)



Identifying pairs of (In)distinguishable States: An Example



	G	F	E	D	C	B	A
A	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
B	×	×	×	×	×		
C	×	×		×			
D	×		×				
E	×	×					
F	×						
G							

- ▶ Fill in × (black) whenever one component of pair is final, and other is not.
- ▶ Fill in × (blue) if 1 moves the pair of states to a distinguishable pair
- ▶ Fill in × (red) if 0 moves the pair of states to a distinguishable pair
- ▶ Repeat until no progress (any two states without a × sign are equivalent!)



Table-filling Algorithm

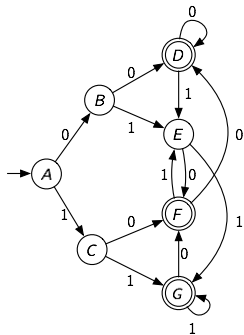
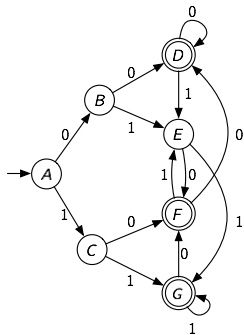


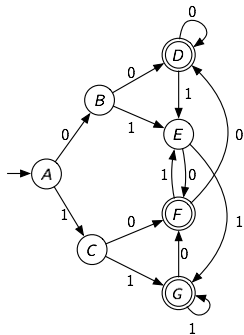
Table-filling Algorithm



- Delete states not reachable from start states.



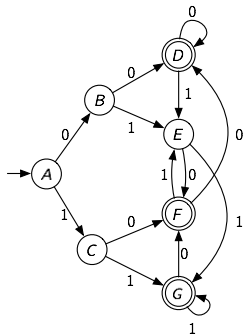
Table-filling Algorithm



- ▶ Delete states not reachable from start states.
- ▶ Find distinguishable and equivalent pairs of states as described on the previous slide.



Table-filling Algorithm



- ▶ Delete states not reachable from start states.
- ▶ Find distinguishable and equivalent pairs of states as described on the previous slide.
- ▶ Identify equivalence classes of equivalent states. In this example:

$\{A\}, \{B\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, F\}, \{G\}$

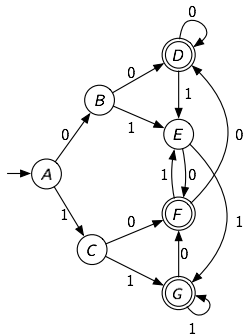
	G	F	E	D	C	B	A
A	x	x	x	x	x	x	
B	x	x	x	x	x		
C	x	x		x			
D	x		x				
E	x	x					
F	x						
G							

Color-blind?

red: A/B,
 blue: A/E, A/C,
 B/E, B/C,
 D/G, F/G



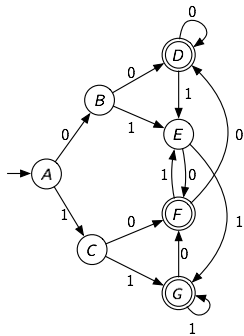
Table-filling Algorithm



- ▶ Delete states not reachable from start states.
- ▶ Find distinguishable and equivalent pairs of states as described on the previous slide.
- ▶ Identify equivalence classes of equivalent states. In this example:
 $\{A\}, \{B\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, F\}, \{G\}$
- ▶ Collapse each equivalence class of states to a single state.



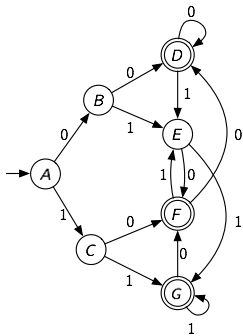
Table-filling Algorithm



- ▶ Delete states not reachable from start states.
- ▶ Find distinguishable and equivalent pairs of states as described on the previous slide.
- ▶ Identify equivalence classes of equivalent states. In this example:
 $\{A\}, \{B\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, F\}, \{G\}$
- ▶ Collapse each equivalence class of states to a single state.
- ▶ Delete parallel transitions with same label.



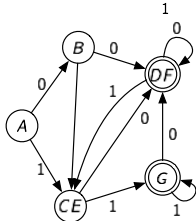
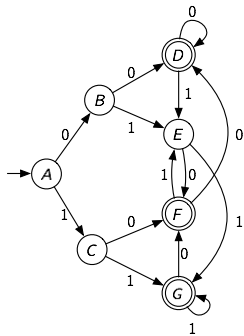
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- ▶ Identify equivalence classes of equivalent states. In this example:
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- ▶ Minimality test: Suppose a DFA A cannot be minimised further by table-filling. Then, A has the least number of states among all DFAs that accept $L(A)$



Limitations of FSAs



What is not acceptable for an FSA?

Q. Is an FSA a sufficiently “powerful” model of computation?

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A very important example:

- ▶ $L = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}_0 \}$
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Claim. There is no FSA that recognises this language.
(because an FSA’s memory is limited.)

Q. How do you answer the question above now?



Proof of Claim

Proof by contradiction.

Suppose A is an FSA that accepts L . That is, $L = L(A)$.

Then each of the following are states of A :

$$N^*(s_0, a), N^*(s_0, a^2), N^*(s_0, a^3) \dots$$

But A only has finitely many states, so some state must repeat:

There are distinct i and j such that $N^*(s_0, a^i) = N^*(s_0, a^j)$.

- ▶ That is, the automaton *cannot* tell those a^i and a^j apart.
- ▶ But then how can it tell whether b^i or b^j follow?



Proof by Contradiction (cont'd)

Since $a^i b^i$ is accepted, we know

$$N^*(s_0, a^i b^i) \in F$$

By the *append theorem*

$$N^*(N^*(s_0, a^i), b^i) = N^*(s_0, a^i b^i) \in F$$

Now, since $N^*(s_0, a^i) = N^*(s_0, a^j)$

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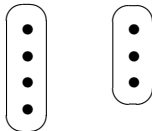
So $a^j b^i$ is accepted by A but $a^j b^i$ is not in L , contradicting the initial assumption.



Pigeonhole Principle

The proof used the *pigeonhole principle*:

No function from one set to a smaller finite set can be one-to-one.



(Finiteness is not really necessary — no function from one set to another with smaller *cardinality* can be one-to-one.)

“You cannot fit $n + 1$ pigeons into n holes”

