Equivalence

See section 4.4 of the text

Our algorithm for converting a regular expression into a DFA produces a correct but overly complex automaton. We will now look at some technique for simplifying automata.

First, we'll say that a state P in a DFA is *reachable* if there is some string that takes the automaton from the start state to P.

Note that

- The start state is reachable.
- If state P is reachable and there is a transition $\delta(P,a)=Q$, then state Q is also reachable.

Here is a marking algorithm for finding reachable states:

- Mark the start state.
- Repeat the following until nothing new can be marked:
 - If P is marked and there is a transition $\delta(P,a)=Q$, then mark Q.

In the end, any state that is marked is reachable.

Example:



We mark state S, then T, then U and X, then W. There are no transitions from any of these states to any new state, so the algorithm ends. This leaves V and Y unmarked, so they are unreachable. Since there is no reachable final state, the automaton accepts no strings. We say states p and q are *equivalent* if every string that takes p to a final state also takes q to a final state, and vice-versa.

Example:



States B and D are equivalent because from either we can get to a final state with strings 01 and 11. Similarly, states C, E, and G are all equivalent.



Since B and D are equivalent, and so are C,E, and G, we can rewrite this automaton as

$$(A) \xrightarrow{0,1} (BD) \xrightarrow{0,1} (CEG) \xrightarrow{1} (F)$$

Algorithm for finding equivalent states: Make a table of all (unordered) pairs of states. We will mark all pairs that are *not* equivalent, so at the end any unmarked pairs are equivalent.

- A. If state p is final and q is not, mark (p,q).
- B. If (p,q) is marked and (p_1,q_1) is another pair of states so that for some a $\delta(p_1,a)=p$ and $\delta(q_1,a)=q$, then mark (p_1,q_1) .

Continue this until nothing more can be marked.

Example:



Initially we mark every pair containing F. (C,F) => (B,E), (B,G), (B,C) (G,F) => (D,G), (D,C), (D,E) (D,F) => (A,E), (A,C), (A,G) (B,E) => (A,D)(D,C) => (A,B)



Example:



Initially mark every pair containing U. (T,U) => (S,V),(X,V) (W,U) => (Y,T),(Y,Z) (X,U) => (S,T),(W,T),(W,Z) (S,Z) (Y,U) => (T,V),(Z,V),(X,T), (X,Z), (V,Y) (Z,U) => (W,V) (Y,T) => (X,Y),(S,Y) (X,Y) => (S,X), (W,X)(W,X) => (W,Y)







So (S,W) and (T,Z) are equivalent and V is unreachable. We can simplify the automaton to the one at right:



We can use this to test whether two DFAs accept the same language. This will be true if their start states are equivalent.





So {A,C,D} are equivalent and so are {E,B} In particular the two start states are equivalent, so the DFAs accept the same language. Here's an algorithm for finding a DFA with a minimum number of states equivalent to a given DFA:

- 1. Eliminate any state that can't be reached from the start state.
- 2. Partition the remaining states into blocks of equivalent states.
- 3. Rebuild the automaton using these blocks as the states. Note that if states P and Q are in the same block then for any a $\delta(P,a)$ and $\delta(Q,a)$ must be equivalent or else P and Q would not be equivalent. This lets us expand the transition function as a function between blocks.

Suppose we start with DFA \mathcal{L} for some language and we use this algorithm to construct a "minimal" DFA $\mathcal{M}=(\Sigma, Q, \delta, s, F)$. Let \mathcal{O} =(Σ ,Q', δ ',s',F')be any other DFA for the language. The start states s and s' of \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{O} must be equivalent because the two DFAs accept the same languages. Similarly, for any a in Σ , $s_1 = \delta(s,a)$ and $s_1' = \delta'(s',a)$ must be equivalent, $s_2 = \delta(s_1, a)$ and $s_2' = \delta'(s_1', a)$ are equivalent, and so forth. Since all of the states of \mathcal{M} are reachable, each is equivalent to some state of \mathcal{O} . If \mathcal{O} had fewer states than \mathcal{M} we would have to have two states of \mathcal{M} equivalent to the same state of \mathcal{O} , and so they would be equivalent to each other. This is impossible; we construct \mathcal{M} to group together all equivalent states so two different states of \mathcal{M} must be distinguishable. This means that \mathcal{O} can't have fewer states than \mathcal{M} , and \mathcal{M} really is minimal.

Here is a last fun fact about regular languages. Start with a fixed alphabet Σ and a language \mathcal{L} over Σ . We say that strings x and y (not necessarily in \mathcal{L}) are \mathcal{L} -equivalent if for every string z either xz and yz are both in \mathcal{L} or are both not in \mathcal{L} . (If you find this confusing, think of \mathcal{L} -equivalent strings as strings that take an automaton for the language to the same state.)

We can then talk about \mathcal{L} -equivalence classes -- the sets of strings that are all mutually \mathcal{L} -equivalent.

For example, consider $\mathcal{L} = 0^{*}1^{*}$. This divides all strings of 0's and 1's into 3 classes:

- a) All strings in 0*
- b) All strings in 0*1⁺
- c) All other strings

For instance, 000 and 001 are in different classes since 000 can be followed by a 0 to get a string in \mathcal{L} and 001 can't.

The Myhill-Nerode Theorem say that a language \mathcal{L} is regular if and only if it divides Σ^* into a finite number of \mathcal{L} -equivalence classes.

The proof uses the equivalence classes as states to build a DFA for the language.