Building Finite Automata From Regular Expressions

We make an FA from a regular expression in two steps:

- Transform the regular expression into an NFA.
- Transform the NFA into a deterministic FA.

The first step is easy.

Regular expressions are all built out of the atomic regular expressions \( a \) (where \( a \) is a character in \( \Sigma \)) and \( \lambda \) by using the three operations

\[ A \cdot B \] and \( A \mid B \) and \( A^* \).
Other operations (like $A^+$) are just abbreviations for combinations of these.

NFAs for $a$ and $\lambda$ are trivial:

Suppose we have NFAs for $A$ and $B$ and want one for $A \mid B$. We construct the NFA shown below:
The states labeled A and B were the accepting states of the automata for A and B; we create a new accepting state for the combined automaton.

A path through the top automaton accepts strings in A, and a path through the bottom automation accepts strings in B, so the whole automaton matches \( A \mid B \).

The construction for \( AB \) is even easier. The accepting state of the combined automaton is the same state that was the accepting state of B. We must follow a path through A’s automaton, then through B’s automaton, so overall \( AB \) is matched.

We could also just merge the accepting state of A with the initial state of B. We chose not to
only because the picture would be more difficult to draw.
Finally, let’s look at the NFA for $A^*$. The start state reaches an accepting state via $\lambda$, so $\lambda$ is accepted. Alternatively, we can follow a path through the FA for $A$ one or more times, so zero or more strings that belong to $A$ are matched.
Creating Deterministic Automata

The transformation from an NFA \( N \) to an equivalent DFA \( D \) works by what is sometimes called the *subset construction*.

Each state of \( D \) corresponds to a set of states of \( N \).

The idea is that \( D \) will be in state \( \{x, y, z\} \) after reading a given input string if and only if \( N \) could be in *any* one of the states \( x, y, \) or \( z \), depending on the transitions it chooses. Thus \( D \) keeps track of *all* the possible routes \( N \) might take and runs them simultaneously.

Because \( N \) is a *finite* automaton, it has only a finite number of states. The number of subsets of \( N \)'s states is also finite, which makes
tracking various sets of states feasible.

An accepting state of D will be any set containing an accepting state of N, reflecting the convention that N accepts if there is *any* way it could get to its accepting state by choosing the “right” transitions.

The start state of D is the set of all states that N could be in without reading any input characters—that is, the set of states reachable from the start state of N following only $\lambda$ transitions. Algorithm `close` computes those states that can be reached following only $\lambda$ transitions.

Once the start state of D is built, we begin to create successor states:
We take each state $S$ of $D$, and each character $c$, and compute $S$’s successor under $c$.

$S$ is identified with some set of $N$’s states, \{n_1, n_2, \ldots\}.

We find all the possible successor states to \{n_1, n_2, \ldots\} under $c$, obtaining a set \{m_1, m_2, \ldots\}.

Finally, we compute
\[ T = \text{CLOSE}(\{ m_1, m_2, \ldots \}). \]

$T$ becomes a state in $D$, and a transition from $S$ to $T$ labeled with $c$ is added to $D$.

We continue adding states and transitions to $D$ until all possible successors to existing states are added.

Because each state corresponds to a finite subset of $N$’s states, the
process of adding new states to D must eventually terminate. Here is the algorithm for \( \lambda \)-closure, called \texttt{close}. It starts with a set of NFA states, S, and adds to S all states reachable from S using only \( \lambda \) transitions.

\begin{verbatim}
void close(NFASet S) {
    while (x in S and x \( \rightarrow \lambda \) y and y notin S) {
        S = S U \{y\}
    }
}
\end{verbatim}

Using \texttt{close}, we can define the construction of a DFA, D, from an NFA, \( N \):
DFA MakeDeterministic(NFA N) {
    DFA  D ; NFASet  T
    D.StartState = { N.StartState }
close(D.StartState)
    D.States = { D.StartState } 
    while (states or transitions can be added to D) {
        Choose any state S in D.States 
        and any character c in Alphabet
        T = {y in N.States such that
             x →\text{c} y for some x in S}
close(T);
        if (T notin D.States) {
            D.States = D.States \cup \{T\}
            D.Transitions =
            D.Transitions \cup
            \{the transition S \text{c} \rightarrow T\}
        } 
    } 
    D.AcceptingStates =
    \{ S in D.States such that an 
    accepting state of N in S} 
}
To see how the subset construction operates, consider the following NFA:

We start with state 1, the start state of N, and add state 2 its $\lambda$-successor. D’s start state is \{1,2\}. Under a, \{1,2\}’s successor is \{3,4,5\}. 
State 1 has itself as a successor under b. When state 1’s \( \lambda \)-successor, 2, is included, \{1,2\}’s successor is \{1,2\}. \{3,4,5\}’s successors under a and b are \{5\} and \{4,5\}.

\{4,5\}’s successor under b is \{5\}.

Accepting states of D are those state sets that contain N’s accepting state which is 5.

The resulting DFA is:
It is not too difficult to establish that the DFA constructed by \texttt{MakeDeterministic} is equivalent to the original NFA.

The idea is that each path to an accepting state in the original NFA has a corresponding path in the DFA. Similarly, all paths through the constructed DFA correspond to paths in the original NFA.

What is less obvious is the fact that the DFA that is built can sometimes be \textit{much larger} than the original NFA. States of the DFA are identified with sets of NFA states.

If the NFA has \( n \) states, there are \( 2^n \) distinct sets of NFA states, and hence the DFA may have as many as \( 2^n \) states. Certain NFAs actually
exhibit this exponential blowup in size when made deterministic. Fortunately, the NFAs built from the kind of regular expressions used to specify programming language tokens do not exhibit this problem when they are made deterministic.

As a rule, DFAs used for scanning are simple and compact. If creating a DFA is impractical (because of size or speed-of-generation concerns), we can scan using an NFA. Each possible path through an NFA is tracked, and reachable accepting states are identified. Scanning is slower using this approach, so it is used only when construction of a DFA is not practical.
Optimizing Finite Automata

We can improve the DFA created by $\text{MakeDeterministic}$. Sometimes a DFA will have more states than necessary. For every DFA there is a unique $\text{smallest}$ equivalent DFA (fewest states possible).

Some DFA’s contain $\text{unreachable states}$ that cannot be reached from the start state.

Other DFA’s may contain $\text{dead states}$ that cannot reach any accepting state.

It is clear that neither unreachable states nor dead states can participate in scanning any valid token. We therefore eliminate all such states as part of our optimization process.
We optimize a DFA by merging together states we know to be equivalent.

For example, two accepting states that have no transitions at all out of them are equivalent. Why? Because they behave exactly the same way—they accept the string read so far, but will accept no additional characters.

If two states, \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \), are equivalent, then all transitions to \( s_2 \) can be replaced with transitions to \( s_1 \). In effect, the two states are merged together into one common state.

How do we decide what states to merge together?
We take a greedy approach and try the most optimistic merger of states. By definition, accepting and non-accepting states are distinct, so we initially try to create only two states: one representing the merger of all accepting states and the other representing the merger of all non-accepting states.

This merger into only two states is almost certainly too optimistic. In particular, all the constituents of a merged state must agree on the same transition for each possible character. That is, for character $c$ all the merged states must have no successor under $c$ or they must all go to a single (possibly merged) state.

If all constituents of a merged state do not agree on the
transition to follow for some character, the merged state is *split* into two or more smaller states that do agree.

As an example, assume we start with the following automaton:

Initially we have a merged non-accepting state \(\{1, 2, 3, 5, 6\}\) and a merged accepting state \(\{4, 7\}\).

A merger is legal if and only if all constituent states agree on the same successor state for all characters. For example, states 3 and 6 would go to an accepting state given character c; states 1, 2, 5 would not, so a split must occur.
We will add an error state $s_E$ to the original DFA that is the successor state under any illegal character. (Thus reaching $s_E$ becomes equivalent to detecting an illegal token.) $s_E$ is not a real state; rather it allows us to assume every state has a successor under every character. $s_E$ is never merged with any real state.

Algorithm `split`, shown below, splits merged states whose constituents do not agree on a common successor state for all characters. When `split` terminates, we know that the states that remain merged are equivalent in that they always agree on common successors.
Split(FASet StateSet) {
    repeat
        for(each merged state S in StateSet) {
            Let S correspond to \{s_1, ..., s_n\}
            for(each char c in Alphabet){
                Let t_1, ..., t_n be the successor states to s_1, ..., s_n under c
                if(t_1, ..., t_n do not all belong to the same merged state){
                    Split S into two or more new states such that s_i and s_j remain in the same merged state if and only if t_i and t_j are in the same merged state
                }
            }
        }
        until no more splits are possible
    }
}
Returning to our example, we initially have states \{1,2,3,5,6\} and \{4,7\}. Invoking \texttt{Split}, we first observe that states 3 and 6 have a common successor under c, and states 1, 2, and 5 have no successor under c (equivalently, have the error state \(s_E\) as a successor).

This forces a split, yielding \{1,2,5\}, \{3,6\} and \{4,7\}.

Now, for character b, states 2 and 5 would go to the merged state \{3,6\}, but state 1 would not, so another split occurs.

We now have: \{1\}, \{2,5\}, \{3,6\} and \{4,7\}.

At this point we are done, as all constituents of merged states agree on the same successor for each input symbol.
Once `split` is executed, we are essentially done.

Transitions between merged states are the same as the transitions between states in the original DFA.

Thus, if there was a transition between state $s_i$ and $s_j$ under character $c$, there is now a transition under $c$ from the merged state containing $s_i$ to the merged state containing $s_j$. The start state is that merged state containing the original start state.

Accepting states are those merged states containing accepting states (recall that accepting and non-accepting states are never merged).
Returning to our example, the minimum state automaton we obtain is