

## Lecture 18

### 2DFAs and Regular Sets

In this lecture we show that 2DFAs are no more powerful than ordinary DFAs. Here is the idea. Consider a long input string broken up in an arbitrary place into two substrings  $xz$ . How much information about  $x$  can the machine carry across the boundary from  $x$  into  $z$ ? Since the machine is two-way, it can cross the boundary between  $x$  and  $z$  several times. Each time it crosses the boundary moving from right to left, that is, from  $z$  into  $x$ , it does so in some state  $q$ . When it crosses the boundary again moving from left to right (if ever), it comes out of  $x$  in some state, say  $p$ . Now if it ever goes into  $x$  in the future in state  $q$  again, it will emerge again in state  $p$ , because its future action is completely determined by its current configuration (state and head position). Moreover, the state  $p$  depends only on  $q$  and  $x$ . We will write  $T_x(q) = p$  to denote this relationship. We can keep track of all such information by means of a finite table

$$T_x : (Q \cup \{\bullet\}) \rightarrow (Q \cup \{\perp\}),$$

where  $Q$  is the set of states of the 2DFA  $M$ , and  $\bullet$  and  $\perp$  are two other objects not in  $Q$  whose purpose is described below.

On input  $xz$ , the machine  $M$  starts in its start state scanning the left endmarker. As it computes, it moves its read head. The head may eventually cross the boundary moving left to right from  $x$  into  $z$ . The first time it does so (if ever), it is in some state, which we will call  $T_x(\bullet)$  (this is the purpose of  $\bullet$ ). The machine may *never* emerge from  $x$ ; in this case we write  $T_x(\bullet) = \perp$ .

(this is the purpose of  $\perp$ ). The state  $T_x(\bullet)$  gives some information about  $x$ , but only a finite amount of information, since there are only finitely many possibilities for  $T_x(\bullet)$ . Note also that  $T_x(\bullet)$  depends only on  $x$  and not on  $z$ : if the input were  $xw$  instead of  $xz$ , the first time the machine passed the boundary from  $x$  into  $w$ , it would also be in state  $T_x(\bullet)$ , because its action up to that point is determined only by  $x$ ; it hasn't seen anything to the right of the boundary yet.

If  $T_x(\bullet) = \perp$ ,  $M$  must be in an infinite loop inside  $x$  and will never accept or reject, by our assumption about moving all the way to the right endmarker whenever it accepts or rejects.

Suppose that the machine does emerge from  $x$  into  $z$ . It may wander around in  $z$  for a while, then later may move back into  $x$  from right to left in state  $q$ . If this happens, then it will either

- eventually emerge from  $x$  again in some state  $p$ , in which case we define  $T_x(q) = p$ ; or
- never emerge, in which case we define  $T_x(q) = \perp$ .

Again, note that  $T_x(q)$  depends only on  $x$  and  $q$  and not on  $z$ . If the machine entered  $x$  from the right on input  $xw$  in state  $q$ , then it would emerge again in state  $T_x(q)$  (or never emerge, if  $T_x(q) = \perp$ ), because  $M$  is deterministic, and its behavior while inside  $x$  is completely determined by  $x$  and the state it entered  $x$  in.

If we write down  $T_x(q)$  for every state  $q$  along with  $T_x(\bullet)$ , this gives all the information about  $x$  one could ever hope to carry across the boundary from  $x$  to  $z$ . One can imagine an agent sitting to the right of the boundary between  $x$  and  $z$ , trying to obtain information about  $x$ . All it is allowed to do is observe the state  $T_x(\bullet)$  the first time the machine emerges from  $x$  (if ever) and later send probes into  $x$  in various states  $q$  to see what state  $T_x(q)$  the machine comes out in (if at all). If  $y$  is another string such that  $T_y = T_x$ , then  $x$  and  $y$  will be indistinguishable from the agent's point of view.

Now note that there are only finitely many possible tables

$$T : (Q \cup \{\bullet\}) \rightarrow (Q \cup \{\perp\}),$$

namely  $(k + 1)^{k+1}$ , where  $k$  is the size of  $Q$ . Thus there is only a finite amount of information about  $x$  that can be passed across the boundary to the right of  $x$ , and it is all encoded in the table  $T_x$ .

Note also that if  $T_x = T_y$  and  $M$  accepts  $xz$ , then  $M$  accepts  $yz$ . This is because the sequence of states the machine is in as it passes the boundary between  $x$  and  $z$  (or between  $y$  and  $z$ ) in either direction is completely

determined by the table  $T_x = T_y$  and  $z$ . To accept  $xz$ , the machine must at some point be scanning the right endmarker in its accept state  $t$ . Since the sequence of states along the boundary is the same and the action when the machine is scanning  $z$  is the same, this also must happen on input  $yz$ .

Now we can use the Myhill–Nerode theorem to show that  $L(M)$  is regular. We have just argued that

$$\begin{aligned} T_x = T_y &\Rightarrow \forall z (M \text{ accepts } xz \iff M \text{ accepts } yz) \\ &\iff \forall z (xz \in L(M) \iff yz \in L(M)) \\ &\iff x \equiv_{L(M)} y, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\equiv_{L(M)}$  is the relation first defined in Eq. (16.1) of Lecture 16. Thus if two strings have the same table, then they are equivalent under  $\equiv_{L(M)}$ . Since there are only finitely many tables, the relation  $\equiv_{L(M)}$  has only finitely many equivalence classes, at most one for each table; therefore,  $\equiv_{L(M)}$  is of finite index. By the Myhill–Nerode theorem,  $L(M)$  is a regular set.

## Constructing a DFA

The argument above may be a bit unsatisfying, since it does not explicitly construct a DFA equivalent to a given 2DFA  $M$ . We can easily do so, however. Intuitively, we can build a DFA whose states correspond to the tables.

Formally, define

$$x \equiv y \stackrel{\text{def}}{\iff} T_x = T_y.$$

That is, call two strings in  $\Sigma^*$  equivalent if they have the same table. There are only finitely many equivalence classes, at most one for each table; thus  $\equiv$  is of finite index. We can also show the following:

- (i) The table  $T_{xa}$  is uniquely determined by  $T_x$  and  $a$ ; that is, if  $T_x = T_y$ , then  $T_{xa} = T_{ya}$ . This says that  $\equiv$  is a right congruence.
- (ii) Whether or not  $x$  is accepted by  $M$  is completely determined by  $T_x$ ; that is, if  $T_x = T_y$ , then either both  $x$  and  $y$  are accepted by  $M$  or neither is. This says that  $\equiv$  refines  $L(M)$ .

These observations together say that  $\equiv$  is a Myhill–Nerode relation for  $L(M)$ . Using the construction  $\equiv \mapsto M_{\equiv}$  described in Lecture 15, we can obtain a DFA for  $L(M)$  explicitly.

To show (i), we show how to construct  $T_{xa}$  from  $T_x$  and  $a$ .

- If  $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_k, q_0, q_1, \dots, q_k \in Q$  such that  $\delta(p_i, a) = (q_i, L)$  and  $T_x(q_i) = p_{i+1}$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq k-1$ , and  $\delta(p_k, a) = (q_k, R)$ , then  $T_{xa}(p_0) = q_k$ .
- If  $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_k, q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{k-1} \in Q$  such that  $\delta(p_i, a) = (q_i, L)$  and  $T_x(q_i) = p_{i+1}$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq k-1$ , and  $p_k = p_i$ ,  $i < k$ , then  $T_{xa}(p_0) = \perp$ .
- If  $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_k, q_0, q_1, \dots, q_k \in Q$  such that  $\delta(p_i, a) = (q_i, L)$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $T_x(q_i) = p_{i+1}$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq k-1$ , and  $T_x(q_k) = \perp$ , then  $T_{xa}(p_0) = \perp$ .
- If  $T_x(\bullet) = \perp$ , then  $T_{xa}(\bullet) = \perp$ .
- If  $T_x(\bullet) = p$ , then  $T_{xa}(\bullet) = T_{xa}(p)$ .

For (ii), suppose  $T_x = T_y$  and consider the sequence of states  $M$  is in as it crosses the boundary in either direction between the input string and the right endmarker  $\dashv$ . This sequence is the same on input  $x$  as it is on input  $y$ , since it is completely determined by the table. Both strings  $x$  and  $y$  are accepted iff this sequence contains the accept state  $t$ .

We have shown that the relation  $\equiv$  is a Myhill–Nerode relation for  $L(M)$ , where  $M$  is an arbitrary 2DFA. The construction  $\equiv \mapsto M_{\equiv}$  of Lecture 15 gives a DFA equivalent to  $M$ . Recall that in that construction, the states of the DFA correspond in a one-to-one fashion with the  $\equiv$ -classes; and here, each  $\equiv$ -class  $[x]$  corresponds to a table  $T_x : (Q \cup \{\bullet\}) \rightarrow (Q \cup \{\perp\})$ .

If we wanted to, we could build a DFA  $M'$  directly from the tables:

$$\begin{aligned} Q' &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{T : (Q \cup \{\bullet\}) \rightarrow (Q \cup \{\perp\})\}, \\ s' &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} T_\epsilon, \\ \delta'(T_x, a) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} T_{xa}, \\ F' &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{T_x \mid x \in L(M)\}. \end{aligned}$$

The transition function  $\delta'$  is well defined because of property (i), and  $T_x \in F'$  iff  $x \in L(M)$  by property (ii). As usual, one can prove by induction on  $|y|$  that

$$\widehat{\delta}'(T_x, y) = T_{xy};$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} x \in L(M') &\iff \widehat{\delta}'(s', x) \in F' \\ &\iff \widehat{\delta}'(T_\epsilon, x) \in F' \\ &\iff T_x \in F' \\ &\iff x \in L(M). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $L(M') = L(M)$ .

Another proof, due to Vardi [122], is given in Miscellaneous Exercise 61.

### Historical Notes

Two-way finite automata were first studied by Rabin and Scott [102] and Shepherdson [114]. Vardi [122] gave a shorter proof of equivalence to DFAs (Miscellaneous Exercise 61).