

MODULE 2

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1

FINITE STATE MACHINES WITH OUTPUT

MOORE MACHINE AND MEALY MACHINE

➤These machines can be described by $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, \Delta, \lambda)$

Q – Finite set of states

Σ – Input alphabet

δ - Transition function $(Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q)$

q_0 - Initial state

Δ - Output alphabet

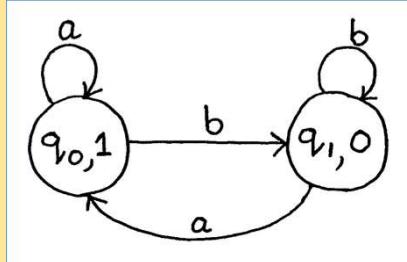
λ – Output function

➤The only difference between Moore and Mealy is in λ

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MOORE MACHINE



$$\lambda : Q \rightarrow \Delta$$

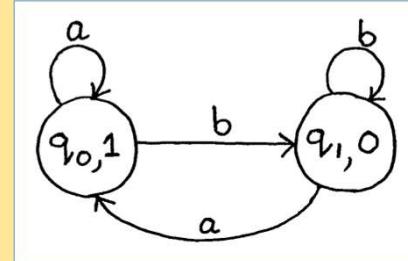
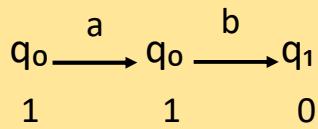
- Here for every state an output is associated
- Δ is a symbol which will be outputted by the machine.
- The state q_0 produce an output 1
- The state q_1 produce an output 0

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MOORE MACHINE (WORKING)

- If we give input ab

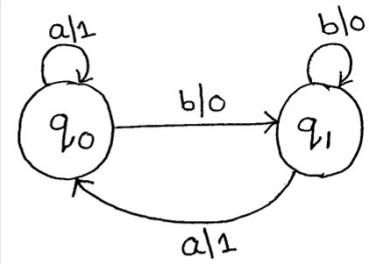


- Without seeing anything, q_0 will produce some output
- On seeing the input **ab**, this moore machine produce the output **110**
- In general, if the string of length **n** is input, then output produced is string of **n+1** length.

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MEALY MACHINE



$$\lambda : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow \Delta$$

$$(q_0, a) \rightarrow 1$$

$$(q_0, b) \rightarrow 0$$

$$(q_1, b) \rightarrow 0$$

$$(q_1, a) \rightarrow 1$$

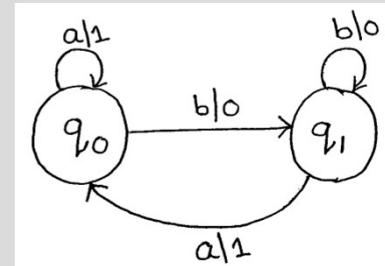
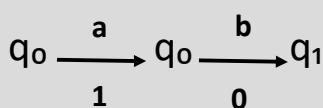
- For a state and a given input , there will be some output
- For state q_0 , if input is a, then output is 1

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MEALY MACHINE (WORKING)

- Let the input is ab



- The output is associated with input
- If we give n bit input, the output will be n bit

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MYHILL – NERODE THEOREM

- It implies that there is a unique minimal DFA with minimum number of states
- Minimization of DFA - DFA minimization stands for converting a given DFA to its equivalent DFA with minimum number of states.

Here

Input – DFA

Output – Minimized DFA

- **Table filling method** is also called, **Myhill - Nerode theorem**.

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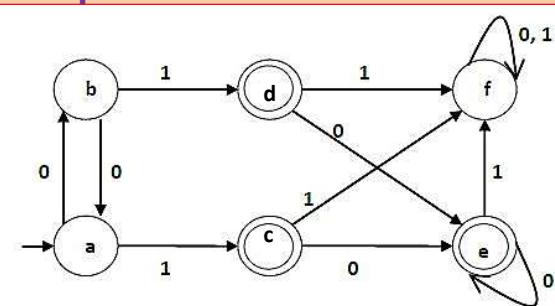
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STEP

1. Draw a table for all pairs of states (P, Q)
2. Mark all pairs where $P \in F$ and $Q \notin F$
3. If there are many unmarked pairs (P, Q) such that $[\delta(P,x), \delta(Q,x)]$ is marked , then mark [P, Q] (where x is an input symbol) . Repeat this until no more markings can be made.
4. Combine all the unmarked pairs and make them a single state in the minimized DFA.

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Example

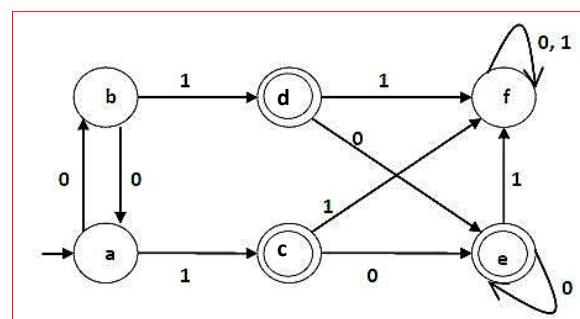
| A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | | | | | |
| B | | | | | |
| C | | | | | |
| D | | | | | |
| E | | | | | |
| F | | | | | |

Step 1: Draw a table for all pairs of states (P, Q)

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| A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | | | | | |
| B | | | | | |
| C | X | X | | | |
| D | X | X | | | |
| E | X | X | | | |
| F | | | X | X | X |



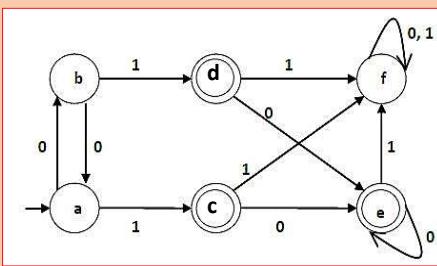
Step 2: Mark all pairs where $P \in F$ and $Q \notin F$ (One state should be final and other should be non final state)

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Step 3

| | A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | | | | | | |
| B | | | | | | |
| C | X | X | | | | |
| D | X | X | | | | |
| E | X | X | | | | |
| F | | | X | X | X | |

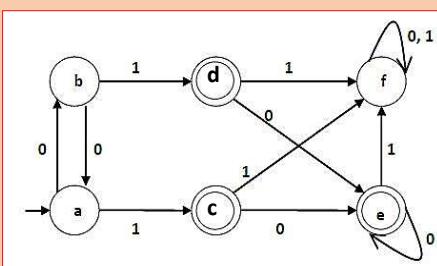
 $(B,A) - \delta(B, 0) - A$ $\delta(A, 0) - B$ unmarked $\delta(B, 1) - D$ $\delta(A, 1) - C$ unmarked $(D,C) - \delta(D, 0) - E$ $\delta(C, 0) - E$ no such column $\delta(D, 1) - F$ $\delta(C, 1) - F$ no such column

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Step 3 continuation

| | A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | | | | | | |
| B | | | | | | |
| C | X | X | | | | |
| D | X | X | | | | |
| E | X | X | | | | |
| F | | | X | X | X | |

 $(E,C) - \delta(E, 0) - E$ $\delta(C, 0) - E$ no such column $\delta(E, 1) - F$ $\delta(C, 1) - F$ no such column $(E,D) - \delta(E, 0) - E$ $\delta(D, 0) - E$ no such column $\delta(E, 1) - F$ $\delta(D, 1) - F$ no such column

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Step 3 continuation

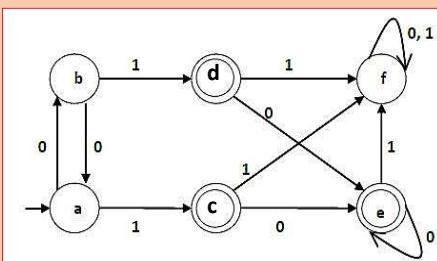
| | A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | | | | | | |
| B | | | | | | |
| C | X | X | | | | |
| D | X | X | | | | |
| E | X | X | | | | |
| F | | | X | X | X | X |

(F, A) - $\delta(F, 0)$ - F

$\delta(A, 0)$ - B unmarked

$\delta(F, 1)$ - F

$\delta(A, 1)$ - C marked. So we should mark FA



(F, B) - $\delta(F, 0)$ - F

$\delta(B, 0)$ - A FA is marked so we should mark FB also.

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Final table

| | A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | | | | | | |
| B | | | | | | |
| C | X | X | | | | |
| D | X | X | | | | |
| E | X | X | | | | |
| F | X | X | | X | X | X |

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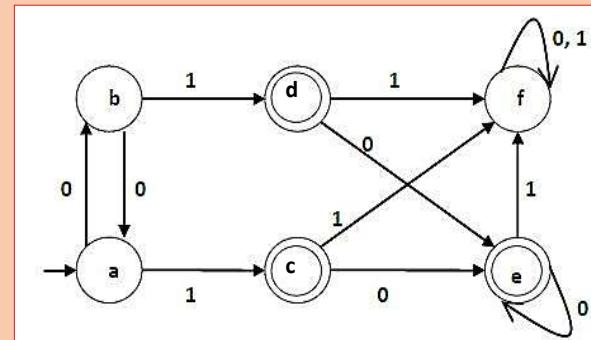
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Step 4

| | A | B | C | D | E | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | | | | | | |
| B | | | | | | |
| C | X | X | | | | |
| D | X | X | | | | |
| E | X | X | | | | |
| F | X | X | X | X | X | |

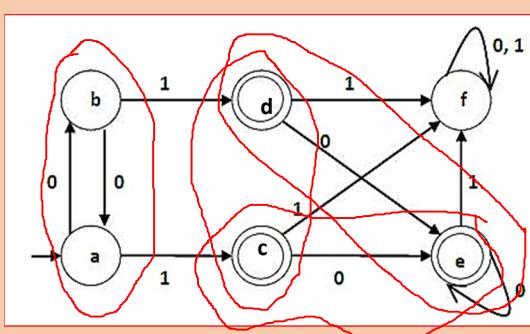
Combine the unmarked pairs

(A,B), (D,C), (E,C), (E,D)

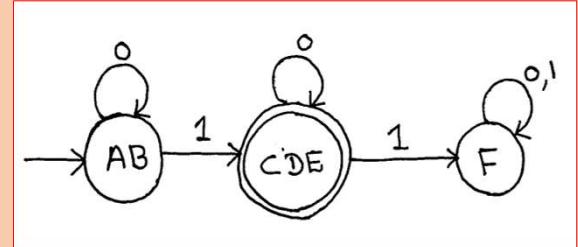


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Minimal DFA



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DFA MINIMIZATION USING EQUIVALENCE THEOREM

- Suppose we have 2 states (P, Q)
- We can say that P and Q are equivalent , when

$$\delta(P, w) \in F \Rightarrow \delta(Q, w) \in F$$

$$\delta(P, w) \notin F \Rightarrow \delta(Q, w) \notin F$$

- If the above condition is satisfied, we can combine the states P and Q in to one state.
- The above condition can be used for combine the two states in to a single state.

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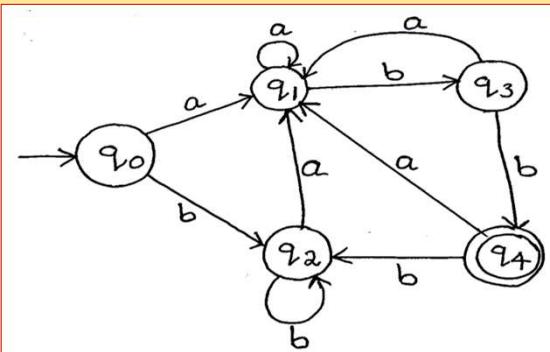
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- If $|w|=0$, then states P and Q are called 0 equivalent
- If $|w|=1$, then states P and Q are called 1 equivalent
- If $|w|=2$, then states P and Q are called 2 equivalent
- In general,
- If $|w|=n$, then states P and Q are called n equivalent

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Q: Minimize the following DFA



- Here the start state is q_0 and final state is q_4 .
- Step 1 - Identify the unreachable states (The states which are not reachable from initial state). If such state exist, delete it.
- Step 2 – Draw state transition table

State Transition Table

| | a | b |
|-------------------|-------|--------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_1 | q_1 | q_3 |
| q_2 | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_3 | q_1 | $*q_4$ |
| $*q_4$ | q_1 | q_2 |

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➤ Step 3 - Find 0 equivalent states (ie, separate non final and final states)

$[q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3]$ $[q_4]$

➤ Find 1 equivalent states.

- Check 1 equivalent of (q_0, q_1)
- Check 1 equivalent of (q_0, q_2)
- Check 1 equivalent of (q_2, q_3)

1 equivalent states

q_0 q_1 q_2

q_3

q_4

| | a | b |
|-------------------|-------|--------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_1 | q_1 | q_3 |
| q_2 | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_3 | q_1 | $*q_4$ |
| $*q_4$ | q_1 | q_2 |

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➤ Find 2 equivalent states

- 2 equivalent state is find using 1 equivalent states. ie,

$[q_0, q_1, q_2]$ $[q_3]$ $[q_4]$

- Check 2 equivalent of (q_0, q_1)
- Check 2 equivalent of (q_0, q_2)

2 equivalent states

q_0

q_1

q_3

q_4

| | a | b |
|-------------------|-------|---------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_1 | q_1 | q_3 |
| q_2 | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_3 | q_1 | * q_4 |
| * q_4 | q_1 | q_2 |

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➤ Find 3 equivalent states

- 3 equivalent state can be find using 2 equivalent states. ie,

$[q_0, q_2]$ $[q_1]$ $[q_3]$ $[q_4]$

- Check 3 equivalent of (q_0, q_2)

3 equivalent states

$[q_0, q_2]$ $[q_1]$ $[q_3]$ $[q_4]$

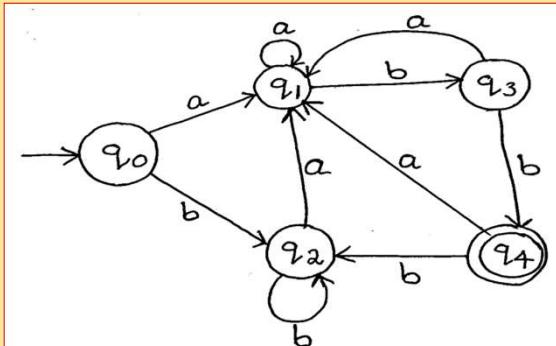
ie, No further division is possible

| | a | b |
|-------------------|-------|---------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_1 | q_1 | q_3 |
| q_2 | q_1 | q_2 |
| q_3 | q_1 | * q_4 |
| * q_4 | q_1 | q_2 |

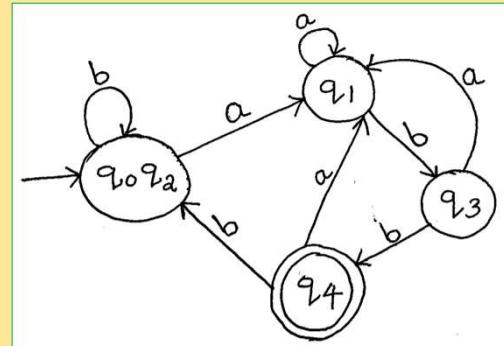
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➤ Step 4- Draw minimal DFA using the states



(This is our question)

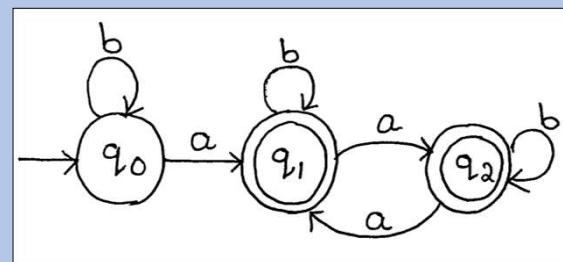
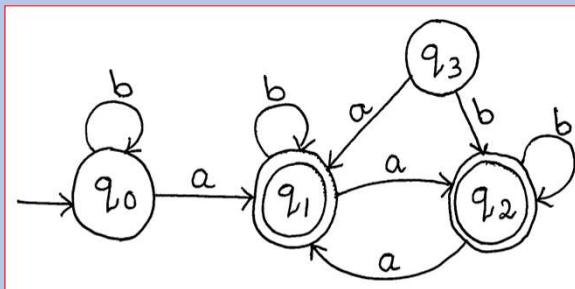


(minimized DFA - Answer)

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Q: Minimize the following DFA using equivalence theorem



➤ q_3 is not reachable from starting state. Then we should delete q_3

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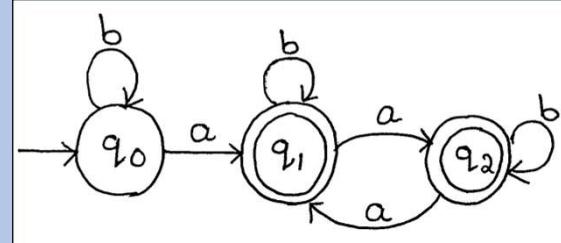
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➤ Find 0 equivalent states

[q_0] [$q_1 \ q_2$]

➤ Find 1 equivalent states

- Check 1 equivalent of ($q_1 \ q_2$)



1 equivalent states

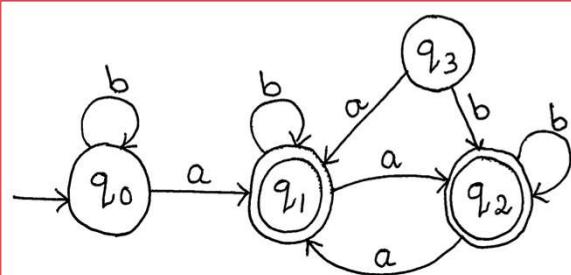
[$q_1 \ q_2$] [q_0]

No further division is possible

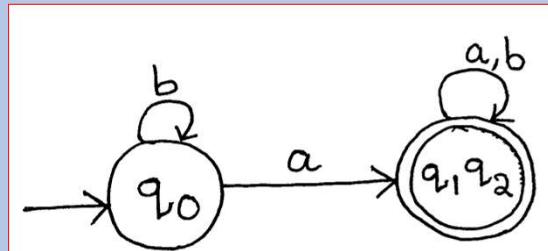
| | a | b |
|-------------------|--------------------|---------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | * q_1 , q_0 | |
| * q_1 | * q_2 | * q_1 |
| * q_2 | * q_1 | * q_2 |

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Given DFA –Question

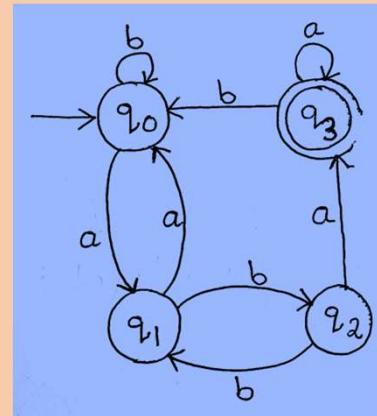
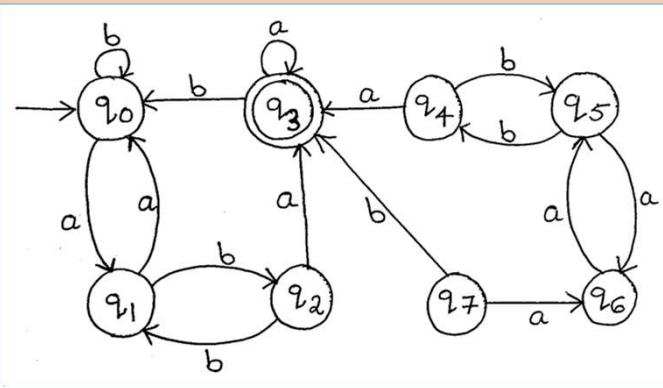


Minimized DFA - Answer

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❖ Minimization of DFA (Example 3)



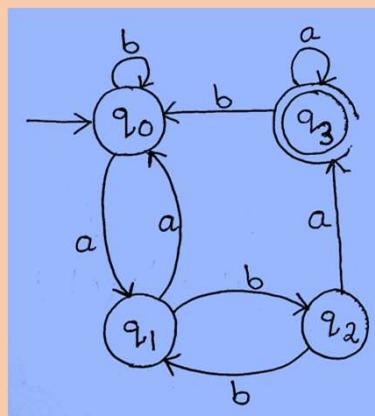
➤ Step 1 - Identify the unreachable states

➤ Step 2- Draw state transition table

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➤ Step 2- Draw state transition table



| | a | b |
|-------------------|--------|-------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | q_1 | q_0 |
| q_1 | q_0 | q_2 |
| q_2 | $*q_3$ | q_1 |
| $*q_3$ | $*q_3$ | q_0 |

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➤Step 3 - Find equivalent states

0 equivalent

[$q_0 q_1 q_2$] [q_3]

1 equivalent

- Check 1 equivalent of ($q_0 q_1$)
- Check 1 equivalent of ($q_0 q_2$)

1 equivalent states

$q_0 \ q_1$ q_2 q_3

| | a | b |
|-------------------|---------|-------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | q_1 | q_0 |
| q_1 | q_0 | q_2 |
| q_2 | * q_3 | q_1 |
| * q_3 | * q_3 | q_0 |

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2 equivalent

- To find 2 equivalent states, we use 1 equivalent states. ie,

[$q_0 q_1$] [q_2] [q_3]

- Check 2 equivalent of ($q_0 q_1$)

2 equivalent states

q_0 q_1 q_2 q_3

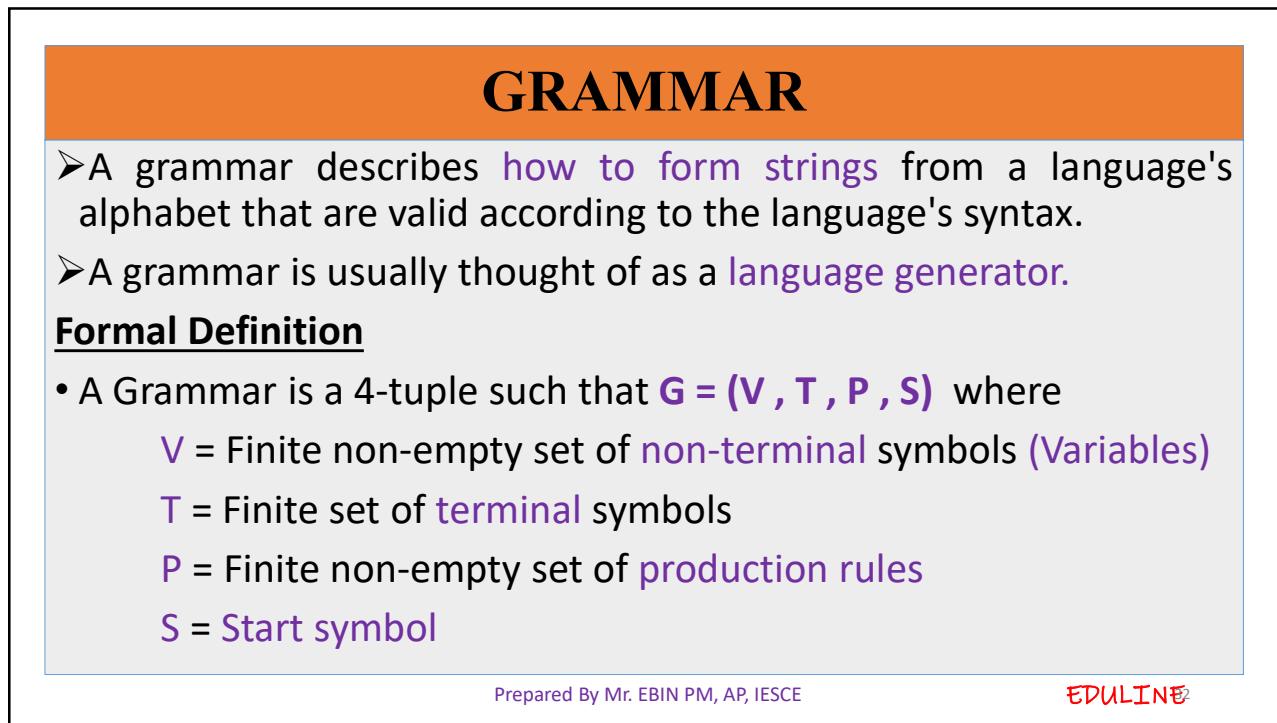
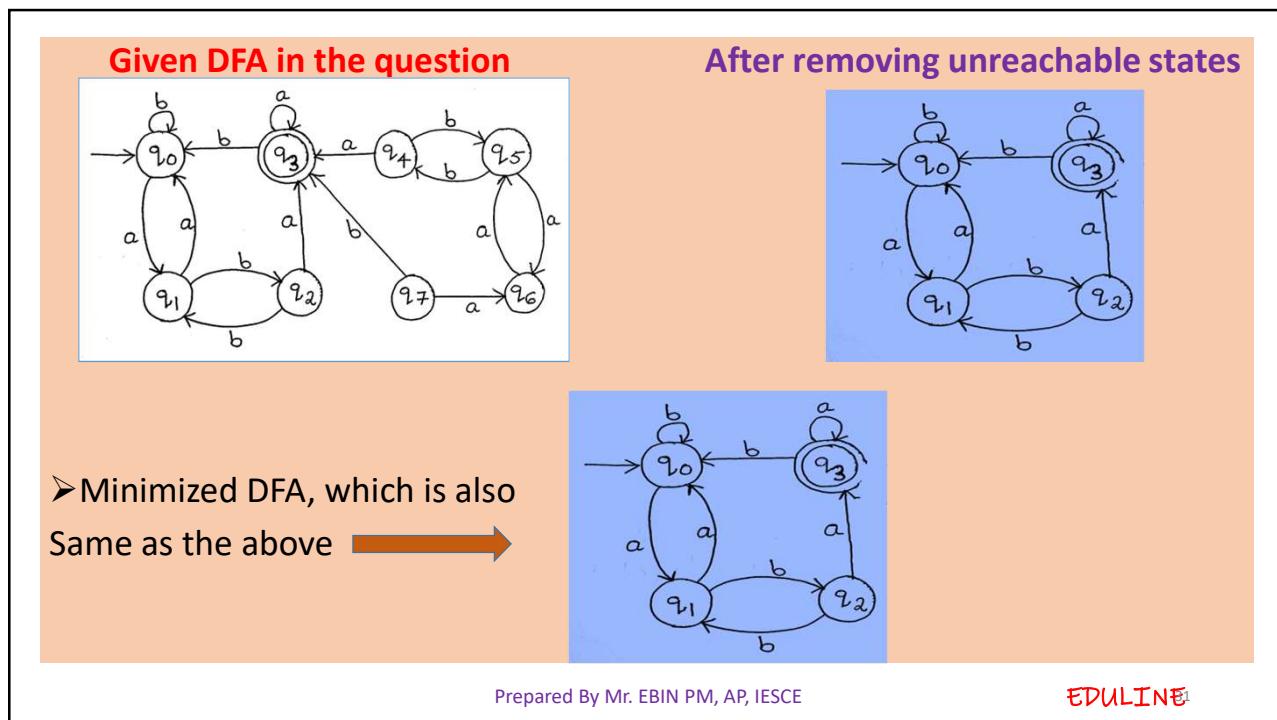
So, 2 equivalent states are

[q_0] [q_1] [q_2] [q_3]

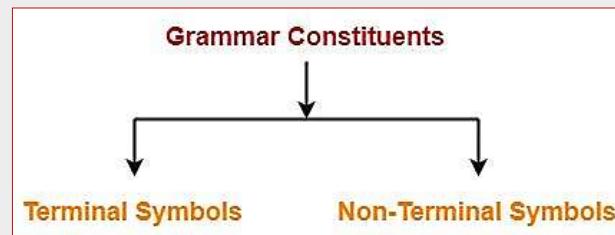
| | a | b |
|-------------------|---------|-------|
| $\rightarrow q_0$ | q_1 | q_0 |
| q_1 | q_0 | q_2 |
| q_2 | * q_3 | q_1 |
| * q_3 | * q_3 | q_0 |

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➤ A Grammar is mainly composed of two basic elements



- Terminal Symbols - are denoted by using small case letters such as a, b, c etc.
- Non-Terminal Symbols - are denoted by using capital letters such as A, B, C etc. It is also called variables.

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➤ Example 1 of Grammar

- Consider a grammar $G = (V, T, P, S)$ where-

$V = \{ S \}$ // Set of Non-Terminal symbols

$T = \{ a, b \}$ // Set of Terminal symbols

$P = \{ S \rightarrow aSbS, S \rightarrow bSaS, S \rightarrow \epsilon \}$ // Set of production rules

$S = \{ S \}$ // Start symbol

This grammar generates the strings having equal number of a's and b's

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➤ Example 2 of Grammar

Consider a grammar $G = (V, T, P, S)$ where-

$V = \{ S, A, B \}$ // Set of Non-Terminal symbols

$T = \{ a, b \}$ // Set of Terminal symbols

$P = \{ S \rightarrow ABa, A \rightarrow BB, B \rightarrow ab, AA \rightarrow b \}$ // Set of production rules

$S = \{ S \}$ // Start symbol

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❖ Chomsky Hierarchy

➤ Noam Chomsky gave a mathematical model of grammar in 1956 which is effective for writing computer languages.

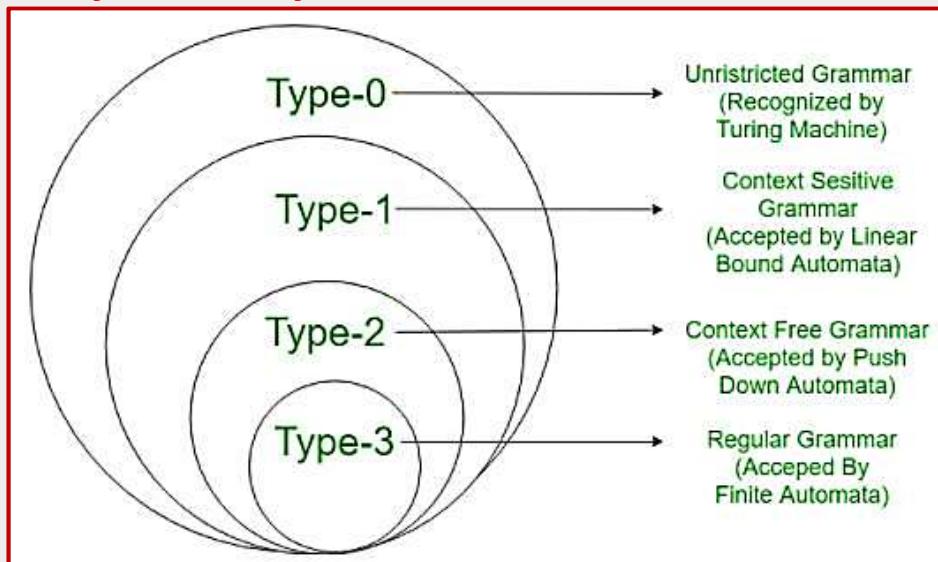
➤ According to Chomsky hierarchy, grammars are divided of 4 types:

- ❖ **Type 0** known as **unrestricted grammar**
- ❖ **Type 1** known as **context sensitive grammar**
- ❖ **Type 2** known as **context free grammar**
- ❖ **Type 3** Known as **Regular Grammar**

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❖ Chomsky Hierarchy



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❖ Type 3: Regular Grammar

- Regular grammars generate regular languages.
- These languages are exactly all languages that can be accepted by a finite state automaton.
- Type 3 is most restricted form of grammar.
- Regular grammar contains the production of the form $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ where $|\alpha| \leq |\beta|$, $\alpha \in v$ and β has the form aB or a .

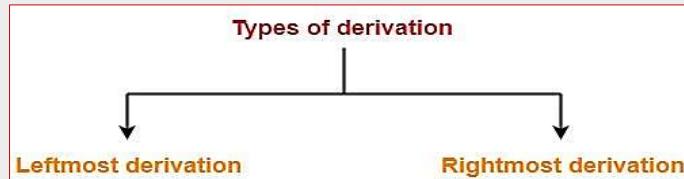
Eg : $S \rightarrow aS$, $S \rightarrow b$

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❖ Derivations

- The process of deriving a string is called as **derivation**.
- The geometrical representation of a derivation is called as a **parse tree** or **derivation tree**.



- **Leftmost Derivation** – It is the process of deriving a string by expanding the **leftmost non-terminal** at each step
- **Rightmost Derivation** – It is the process of deriving a string by expanding the **rightmost non-terminal** at each step

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❖ Leftmost Derivation

- Find Leftmost derivation of the Following Grammar ?

$$S \rightarrow AB \mid \epsilon$$

$$A \rightarrow aB$$

$$B \rightarrow Sb$$

Derive the string abb

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &\rightarrow AB \\
 &\rightarrow aBB \\
 &\rightarrow aSbB \\
 &\rightarrow a\epsilon bB \\
 &\rightarrow abB \\
 &\rightarrow abSb \\
 &\rightarrow ab\epsilon b \\
 &\rightarrow abb
 \end{aligned}$$

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❖ Rightmost Derivation

➤ Find Rightmost derivation of the
Following Grammar ?

$$S \rightarrow AB \mid \epsilon$$

$$A \rightarrow aB$$

$$B \rightarrow Sb$$

Derive the string abb

$$S \rightarrow AB$$

$$\rightarrow ASb$$

$$\rightarrow A\epsilon b$$

$$\rightarrow aBb$$

$$\rightarrow aSbb$$

$$\rightarrow a\epsilon bb$$

$$\rightarrow abb$$

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REGULAR EXPRESSIONS

- The language accepted by finite automata can be easily described by simple expressions called Regular Expressions.
- It is the **most effective way to represent any language**.
- The languages accepted by some regular expression are referred to as Regular languages.
- A regular expression can also be described as a **sequence of pattern that defines a string**.
- Regular expressions are used to match character combinations in strings.

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➤ Regular Expressions are used to denote regular languages. An expression is regular if

- ϕ is a regular expression for regular language ϕ .
- ϵ is a regular expression for regular language $\{\epsilon\}$
- If $a \in \Sigma$ (Σ represents the input alphabet), a is regular expression with language $\{a\}$.
- If a and b are regular expression, $a + b$ is also a regular expression with language $\{a,b\}$.
- If a and b are regular expression, ab (concatenation of a and b) is also regular.
- If a is regular expression, a^* (0 or more times a) is also regular.

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➤ **Regular Languages :** A language is regular if it can be expressed in terms of regular expression.

- In a regular expression, x^* means zero or more occurrence of x . It can generate $\{\epsilon, x, xx, xxx, xxxx, \dots\}$
- In a regular expression, x^+ means one or more occurrence of x . It can generate $\{x, xx, xxx, xxxx, \dots\}$

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Example 1:

Write the regular expression for the language accepting all combinations of a's, over the set $\Sigma = \{a\}$

Solution:

- All combinations of a's means a may be zero, single, double and so on.
- If a is appearing zero times, that means a null string. That is we expect the set of $\{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa, \dots\}$.
- So we give a regular expression for this as:

$$RE = a^*$$

Example 2:

Write the regular expression for the language accepting all combinations of a's except the null string, over the set $\Sigma = \{a\}$

Solution:

- The regular expression has to be built for the language $L = \{a, aa, aaa, \dots\}$
- This set indicates that there is no null string. So we can denote regular expression as:

$$RE = a^+$$

Example 3:

Write the regular expression for the language accepting all the string containing any number of a's and b's.

Solution:

The regular expression will be:

$$RE = (a + b)^*$$

- This will give the set as $L = \{\epsilon, a, aa, b, bb, ab, ba, aba, bab, \dots\}$, any combination of a and b.
- The $(a + b)^*$ shows any combination with a and b even a null string.

Example 4:

Write the regular expression for the language accepting all the string which are starting with 1 and ending with 0, over $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$

Solution:

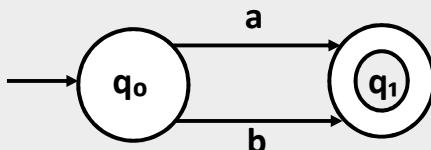
- In a regular expression, the first symbol should be 1, and the last symbol should be 0.

$$RE = 1 (0+1)^* 0$$

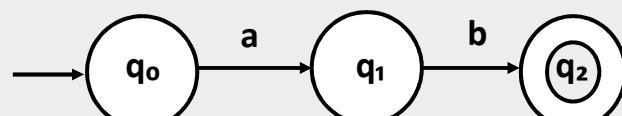
Conversion of RE to FA

Rules:

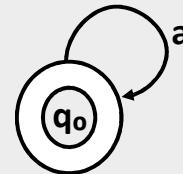
1. $a+b$ (a or b , $a|b$)



2. (ab)



3. a^* (Repetition / a closure)



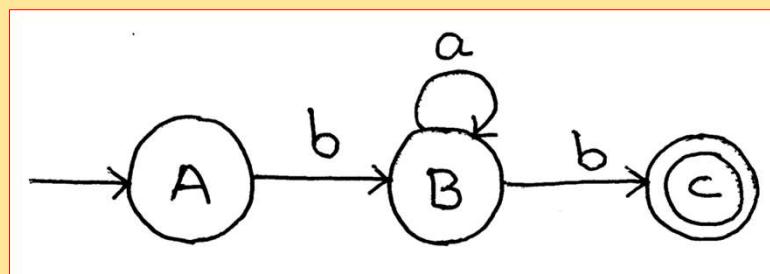
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Example: 1

Convert the regular expression ba^*b to Finite Automata

$L = \{bb, bab, baab, \dots\}$



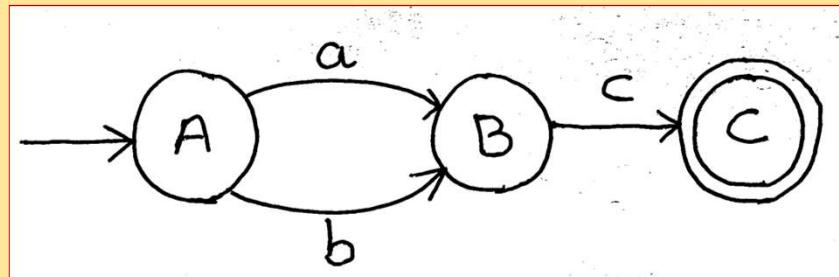
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Example: 2

Convert the regular expression $(a+b)c$ to Finite Automata

$$L = \{ac, bc\}$$



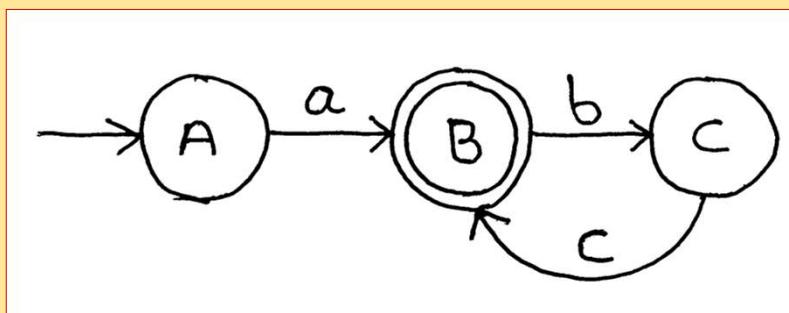
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Example: 3

Convert the regular expression $a(bc)^*$ to Finite Automata

$$L = \{a, abc, abcbc, abcbcabc, \dots\}$$

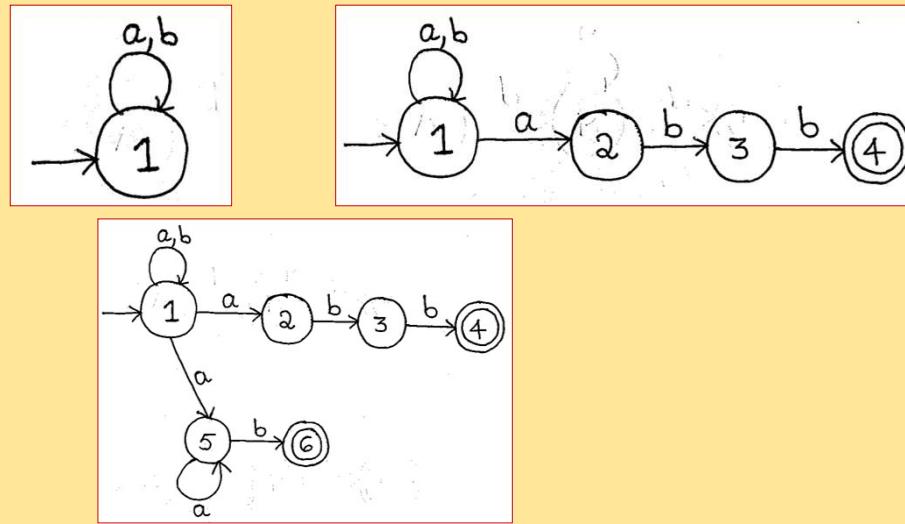


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Example: 3

Convert the regular expression $(a|b)^* (abb|a^+b)$ to Finite Automata



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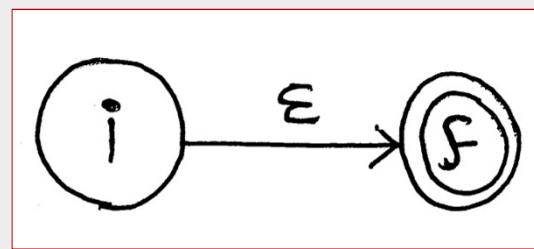
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REGULAR EXPRESSION TO NFA

➤ The following are the rules to convert a RE to NFA. They are called Thompson's Rule

Rule: 1

- Let i be the initial state and f be the final state. The NFA for the regular expression (RE) that accept null string (ϵ) is given by

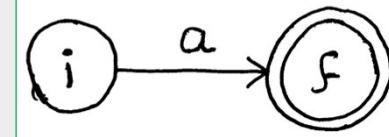


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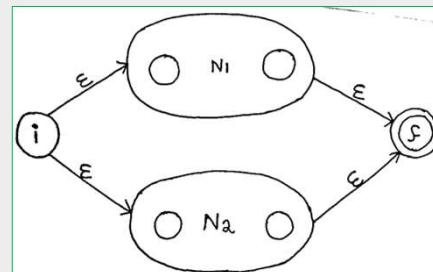
Rule: 2

- The NFA for the regular expression (RE) that accept an input symbol **a** is given by

**Rule : 3**

- If N_1 and N_2 are NFA for the regular Expression R_1 and R_2 ,then

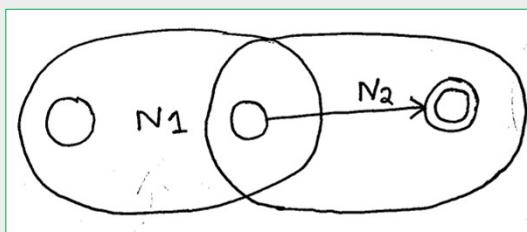
(i) NFA for $R_1 + R_2$ ($R_1 | R_2$)



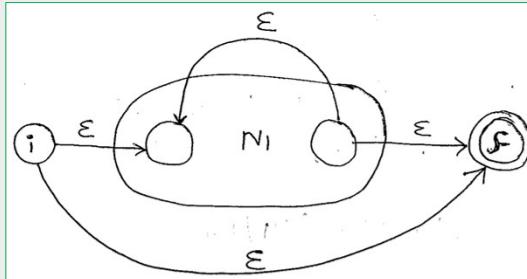
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(i) NFA for $R_1 R_2$



(ii) NFA for R^*



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Example : 1

Construct NFA for the RE $(a|b)^*a$

W can split the RE like

R1 = a

R2 = b

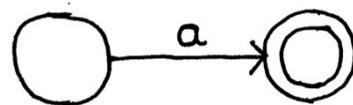
R3 = R1 | R2

R4 = R3*

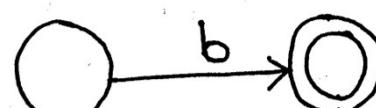
R5 = R4.R1

We can construct NFA for each one

for a



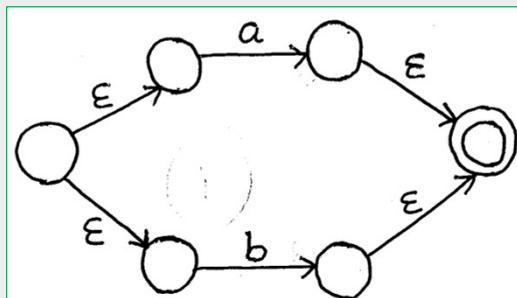
for b



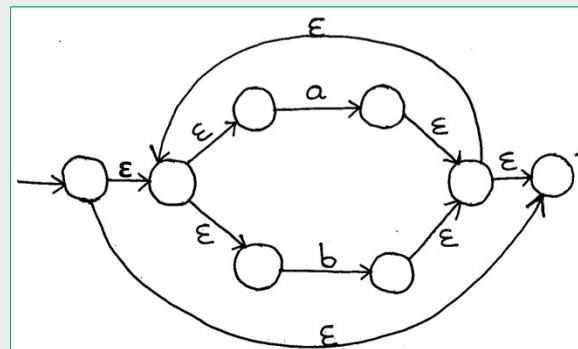
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for $a|b$



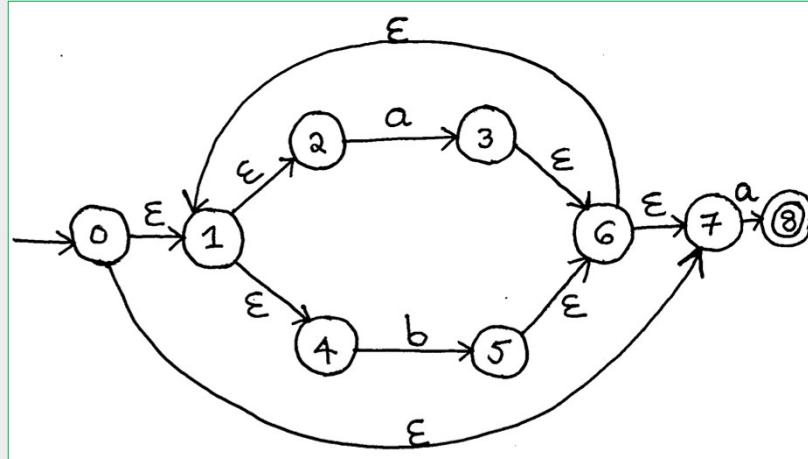
for $(a|b)^*$



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for $(a|b)^*a$



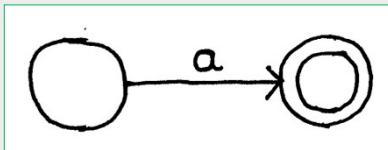
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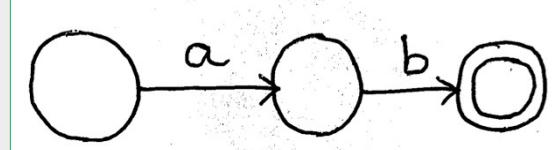
Example 2

- Draw NFA to represent the regular expression $ab|(a|b)a$

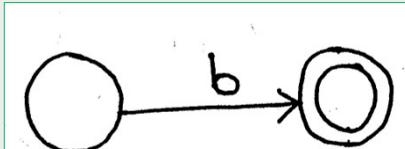
for a



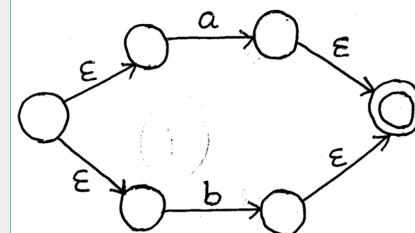
for ab



for b



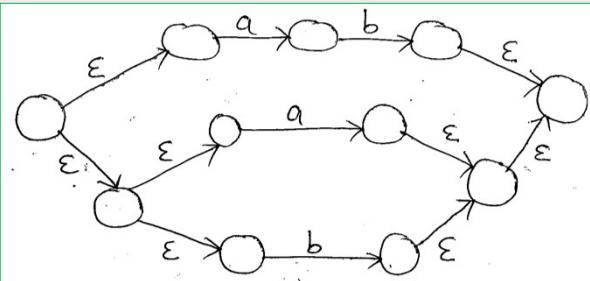
for $a|b$



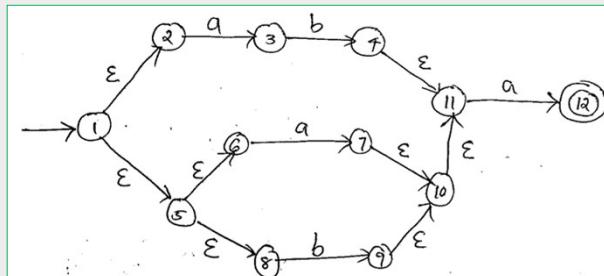
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for $ab|(a|b)$



for $ab|(a|b)a$



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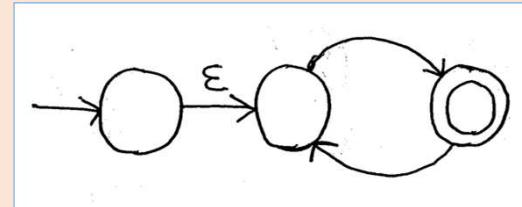
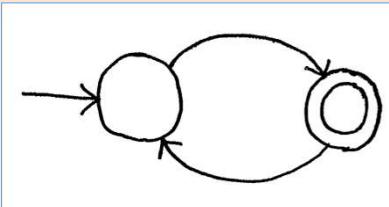
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Conversion of FA to RE

➤ Here we are using state elimination method

Rule 1

➤ Initial state should not have any incoming edge from other state.
If incoming edge is present, then create new initial state

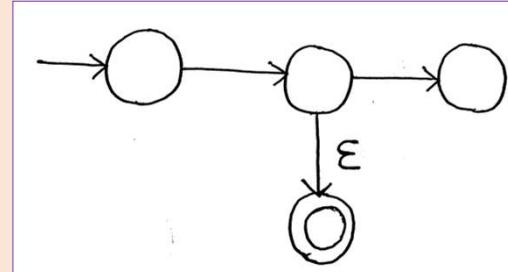
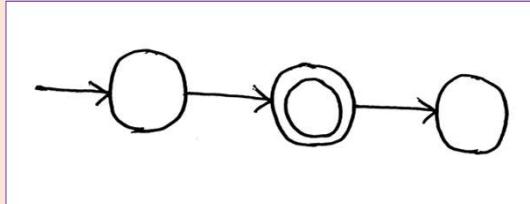


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Rule 2a

- Final state should not have any outgoing edge. If outgoing edge is present, then create new final state

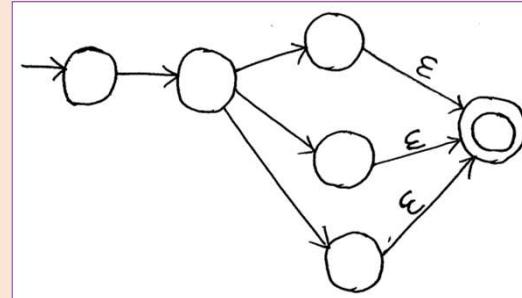
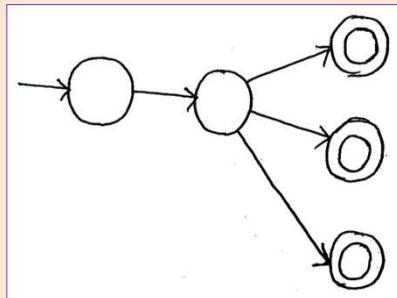


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Rule 2b

- If more than one Final state is present, then convert it into one state

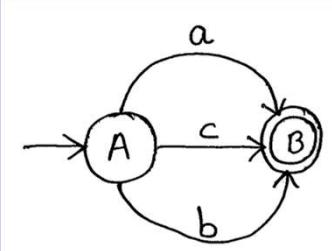


Rule 3

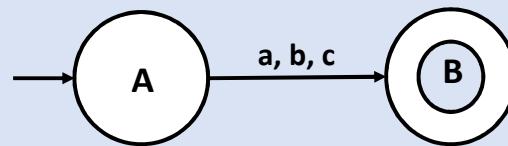
- Eliminate the state one by one other than the initial & final state

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Example 1

No incoming edge from other state to initial state
No outgoing edges from final state.



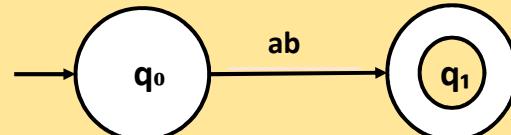
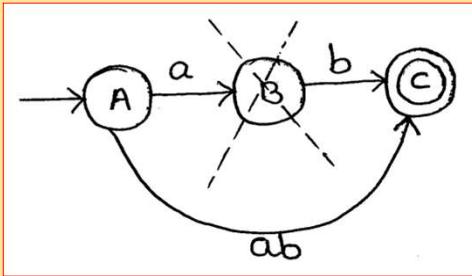
$$RE = (a+b+c)$$

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Example 2

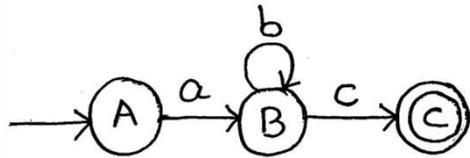
No incoming edge from other state to initial state
No outgoing edges from final state.



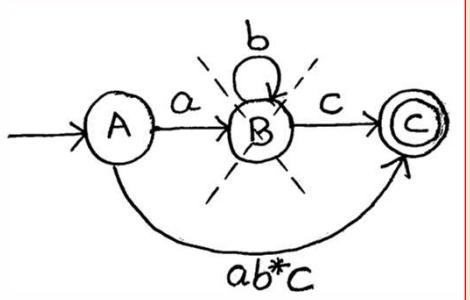
$$RE = ab$$

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Example 3

No incoming edge from other state to initial state
No outgoing edges from final state.



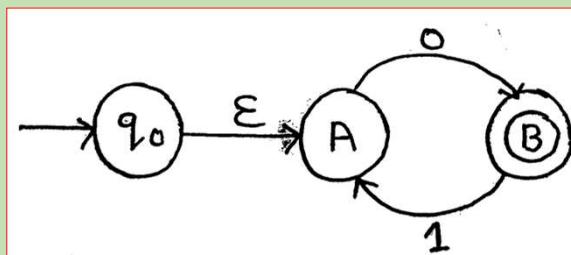
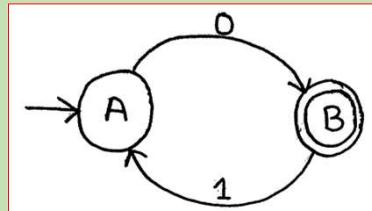
$$RE = ab^*c$$

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Example 4**Step - 1**

Incoming edge is present from other state to initial state . So , create new initial state

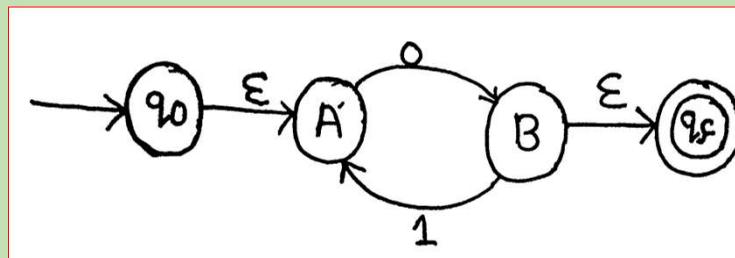
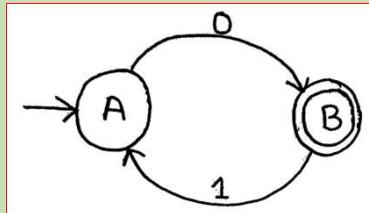


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Step - 2

Outgoing edge is present from final state
So , create new final state

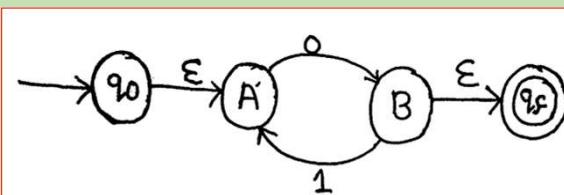


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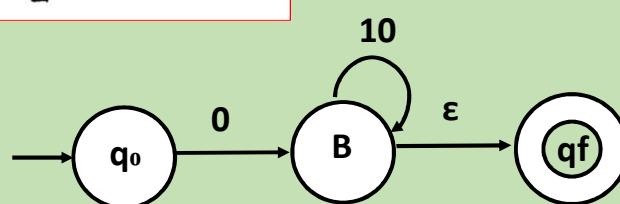
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Step - 3

Delete all intermediate states one by one



Eliminate the state A

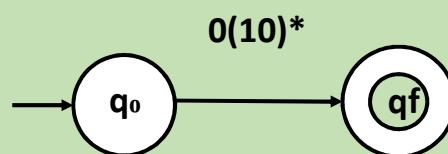
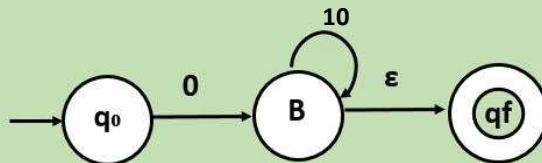


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Step - 3

Eliminate the state B



$$RE = 0(10)^*$$

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