Černý's conjecture and the road coloring problem

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5 1 Synchronizing automata, their origins and importance

- A complete deterministic finite automaton (DFA) ${\cal A}$ with input alphabet A and state set
- Q is called *synchronizing* if there exists a word $w \in A^*$ whose action resets A, that is,
- w leaves the automaton in one particular state no matter at which state in Q it is applied:
- $q \cdot w = q' \cdot w$ for all $q, q' \in Q$. Any word w with this property is said to be a *reset* word
- 20 for the automaton.

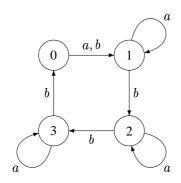


Figure 1. A synchronizing automaton

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Needs 27 double- 28 checking! 29

Figure II shows an example of a synchronizing automaton with 4 states. The reader can easily verify that the word ab^3ab^3a resets the automaton leaving it in the state 1. With somewhat more effort one can also check that ab^3ab^3a is the shortest reset word for this automaton. The example in Figure II required to Černý, a Slovak computer scientist, in whose pioneering paper [22] the notion of a synchronizing automaton explicitly appeared for the first time. (Černý called such automata *directable*. The word *synchronizing* in this context was probably introduced by Hennie [13].) Implicitly, however, this concept has been around since the earliest days of automata theory. The very first synchronizing automaton that we were able to trace back in the literature appeared in Ashby's classic book [1, pp. 60–61].

In [22] the notion of a synchronizing automaton arose within the classic framework of Moore's "Gedanken-experiments" [14]. For Moore and his followers finite automata served as a mathematical model of devices working in discrete mode, such as computers or relay control systems. This leads to the following natural problem: how can we restore control over such a device if we do not know its current state but can observe outputs produced by the device under various actions? Moore [14] has shown that under certain conditions one can uniquely determine the state at which the automaton arrives after a suitable sequence of actions (called an *experiment*). Moore's experiments were adaptive, that is, each next action was selected on the basis of the outputs caused by the previous actions. Ginsburg [11] considered more restricted experiments that he called uniform. A uniform experiment is just a fixed sequence of actions, that is, a word over the input alphabet; thus, in Ginsburg's experiments outputs were only used for calculating the resulting state at the end of an experiment. From this, just one further step was needed to come to the setting in which outputs were not used at all. It should be noted that this setting is by no means artificial—there exist many practical situations when it is technically impossible to observe output signals. (Think of a satellite which loops around the Moon and cannot be controlled from the Earth while "behind" the Moon.)

The original "Gedanken-experiments" motivation for studying synchronizing automata is still of importance, and reset words are frequently applied in model-based testing of reactive systems. See [6, 3] as typical samples of technical contributions to the area and

¹After [10], the name *homing sequence* has become standard for the notion.

[20] for a recent survey.

Another stong motivation comes from the coding theory. We refer to [2, Chapters 3 52 and 10] for a detailed account of profound connections between codes and automata; here 53 we restrict ourselves to a brief introduction into a special (but still very important) case of maximal prefix codes. Recall that a prefix code over a finite alphabet A is a set X of words 55 in A^* such that no word of X is a prefix of another word of X. A prefix code is maximal 56 if it is not contained in another prefix code over the same alphabet. A maximal prefix 57 code X over A is synchronized if there is a word $x \in X^*$ such that for any word $w \in A^*$, 58 one has $wx \in X^*$. Such a word x is called a synchronizing word for X. The advantage of 59 synchronized codes is that they are able to recover after a loss of synchronization between 60 the decoder and the coder caused by channel errors: in the case of such a loss, it suffices 61 to transmit a synchronizing word and the following symbols will be decoded correctly. Moreover, since the probability that a word $v \in A^*$ contains a fixed word x as a factor 63 tends to 1 when the length of v increases, synchronized codes eventually resynchronize by 64 themselves, after sufficiently many symbols being sent. (As shown in [4], the latter prop-65 erty in fact characterizes synchronized codes.) The following simple example illustrates these ideas: let $A = \{0, 1\}$ and $X = \{000, 0010, 0011, 010, 0110, 0111, 10, 110, 111\}$. 67 Then X is a maximal prefix code and one can easily check that each of the words 010, 68 011110, 011111110, ... is a synchronizing word for X. For instance, if the code word 000 has been sent but, due to a channel error, the word 100 has been received, the decoder interprets 10 as a code word, and thus, loses synchronization. However, with a 71 high probability this synchronization loss only propagates for a short while; in particu-72 lar, the decoder definitely resynchronizes as soon as it encounters one of the segments 73 010, 011110, 011111110, ... in the received stream of symbols. A few samples of such streams are shown in Figure 2 in which vertical lines show the partition of each stream into code words and the boldfaced code words indicate the position at which the decoder resynchronizes.

Sent	$000\mid 0010\mid 0111\mid \dots$
Received	$1\ 0\ \ 0\ 0\ 0\ \ 1\ 0\ \ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ \ \dots$
Sent	000 0111 110 0011 000 10 110
Received	$10 \mid 0011 \mid 111 \mid 000 \mid 110 \mid 0010 \mid 110 \mid \dots$
Sent	000 000 111 10
Received	10 000 0111 10

Figure 2. Restoring synchronization

ig:decoding

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If X is a finite prefix code over a finite alphabet A, then its decoding can be implemented by a deterministic automaton that is defined as follows. Let Q be the set of all proper prefixes of the words in X (including the empty word ε). For $q \in Q$ and $a \in A$, define

$$q \cdot a = \begin{cases} qa & \text{if } qa \text{ is a proper prefix of a word of } X \text{ ,} \\ \varepsilon & \text{if } qa \in X \text{ .} \end{cases}$$

The resulting automaton A_X is complete whenever the code X is maximal and it is easy to see that A_X is a synchronizing automaton if and only if X is a synchronized

code. Moreover, a word x is synchronizing for X if and only if x is a reset word for \mathcal{A}_X and sends all states in Q to the state ε . Figure G illustrates this construction for the code $X = \{000, 0010, 0011, 010, 0111, 10, 111, 10, 111\}$ considered above. The solid/dashed lines correspond to (the action of) O/1.

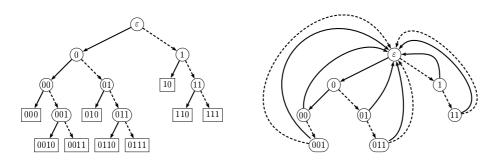


Figure 3. A synchronized code (on the left) and its automaton (on the right)

Thus, (to be continued and supplied by some historical references).

An additional source of problems related to synchronizing automata has come from *robotics* or, more precisely, from part handling problems in industrial automation such as part feeding, fixturing, loading, assembly and packing. Within this framework, the concept of a synchronizing automaton was again rediscovered in the mid-1980s by Natarajan [15, 16] who showed how synchronizing automata can be used to design sensor-free orienters for polygonal parts, see [23, Section 1] for a transparent example illustrating Natarajan's approach in a nutshell. Since the 1990s synchronizing automata usage in the area of robotic manipulation has grown into a prolific research direction but it is fair to say that publications in this area deal mostly with implementation technicalities. However, amongst them there are papers of significant theoretical importance such as [8, 12, 5].

2 Algorithmic and complexity issues

It should be clear that not every DFA is synchronizing. Therefore, the very first question that we should address is the following one: given an automaton A, how to determine whether or not A is synchronizing?

This question is in fact quite easy, and the most straightforward solution to it can be achieved via the classic subset construction by Rabin and Scott [18]. Given a DFA $\mathcal A$ with input alphabet A and state set Q, we define its *subset automaton* $\mathcal P(\mathcal A)$ on the set of the non-empty subsets of Q by setting $P \cdot a = \{p \cdot a \mid p \in P\}$ for each non-empty subset $P \cdot A$ of $Q \cdot A$ and each $A \cdot A$. (Since we start with a deterministic automaton, we do not need adding the empty set to the state set of $\mathcal P(\mathcal A)$.) Figure $A \cdot A \cdot A$ presents the subset automaton for the DFA $\mathcal C_A$ shown in Figure $A \cdot A \cdot A$.

Now it is obvious that a word $w \in A^*$ is a reset word for the DFA \mathcal{A} if and only if w labels a path in $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{A})$ starting at Q and ending at a singleton. (For instance, the bold

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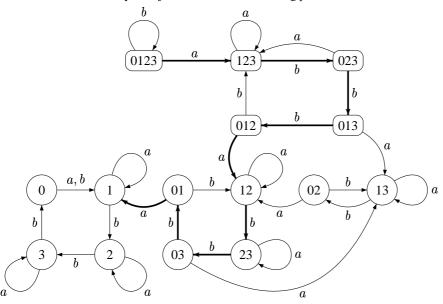
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automaton

Figure 4. The power automaton $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{C}_4)$

path in Figure A represents the shortest reset word ab^3ab^3a of the automaton \mathcal{C}_4 .) Thus, the question of whether or not a given DFA \mathcal{A} is synchronizing reduces to the following reachability question in the underlying digraph of the subset automaton $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{A})$: is there a path from Q to a singleton? The latter question can be easily answered by breadth-first search, see, e.g., [7, Section 22.2].

The described procedure is conceptually very simple but rather inefficient because the power automaton $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{A})$ is exponentially larger than \mathcal{A} . However, the following criterion of synchronizability [22, Theorem 2] gives rise to a polynomial algorithm.

op:quadratiz

Proposition 2.1. A DFA \mathcal{A} with input alphabet A and state set Q is synchronizing if and only if for every $q, q' \in Q$ there exists a word $w \in A^*$ such that $q \cdot w = q' \cdot w$.

One can treat Proposition $\frac{[\mathsf{KV}:\mathtt{prop}:\mathtt{quadratic}}{2.1}$ as a reduction of the synchronizability problem to a reachability problem in the subautomaton $\mathcal{P}^{[2]}(\mathcal{A})$ of $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{A})$ whose states are 2-element and 1-element subsets of Q. Since the subautomaton has $\frac{|Q|(|Q|+1)}{2}$ states, breadth-first search solves this problem in $O(|Q|^2 \cdot |A|)$ time. This complexity bound assumes that no reset word is explicitly calculated. If one requires that, whenever \mathcal{A} turns out to be synchronizing, a reset word is produced, then the best of the known algorithms (which is basically due to Eppstein [8, Theorem 6], see also [20, Theorem 1.15]) has an implementation that consumes $O(|Q|^3 + |Q|^2 \cdot |A|)$ time and $O(|Q|^2 + |Q| \cdot |A|)$ working space, not counting the space for the output which is $O(|Q|^3)$.

For a synchronizing automaton, the subset automaton can be used to construct shortest reset words which correspond to shortest paths from the whole state set to a singleton. Of

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course, this requires exponential (of |Q|) time in the worst case. Nevertheless, there were attempts to implement this approach, see, e.g., [19, 21]. One may hope that, as above, a suitable calculation in the "polynomial" subautomaton $\mathcal{P}^{[2]}(\mathcal{A})$ may yield a polynomial algorithm. However, it is not the case, and moreover, as we will see, it is very unlikely that any reasonable algorithm may exist for finding shortest reset words in general synchronizing automata. In the following discussion we assume the reader's acquaintance with some basics of computational complexity (such as the definitions of the complexity classes NP, coNP and PSPACE) that can be found, e.g., in [9, 17].

3 The Černý conjecture

4 The road coloring problem

5 Generalizations

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