# Finite-automaton aperiodicity is PSPACE-complete* 

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#### Abstract

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In this paper, we solve an open problem raised by Stern (1985) - "Is finite-automaton aperiodicity PSPACE-complete?" - by providing an affirmative answer. We also characterize the exact complexity of two other problems considered by Stern: (1) dot-depth-one language recognition and (2) piecewise testable language recognition. We show that these two problems are logspacecomplete for NL (the class of languages accepted by nondeterministic logspace-bounded Turing machines.


## 0. Introduction

In a paper [9] entitled "Complexity of some problems from the theory of automata," Stern investigated the complexity of three problems: (1) finite-automaton aperiodicity, (2) dot-depth-one language recognition and (3) piecewise testable language recognition. In that paper, one can find polynomial-time algorithms for (2), (3), a polynomial-space algorithm for (1), and a proof that (1) is CoNP-hard. Since there is a gap between the upper and lower bounds of finite-automaton aperiodicity, the author raised the question "Is finite-automaton aperiodicity PSPACE-complete?". We will show that finite-automaton aperiodicity is indeed PSPACE-complete. We will also characterize the exact complexity of (2) and (3) by showing that these two problems are logspace-complete for NL. (The reader is assumed to be familiar with basic complexity-theoretic notions that can be found in [3].)

[^0]In the sequel we provide the necessary definitions. Given a finite alphabet $\Sigma$, the regular languages over $\Sigma$ are those accepted by a finite-state automata. Regular languages can be constructed from the finite sets of strings by Boolean operations (union and complement) together with concatenation and *-operation. Star-free languages are constructed like regular languages from the finite sets of strings but with the restriction that the $*$-operation is not allowed; languages of dot-depth-one and piecewise testable languages are star-free of a simple form and are defined as follows.

A language is of dot-depth one if it is a Boolean combination of languages

$$
w_{0} \Sigma^{*} w_{1} \Sigma^{*} \ldots w_{n-1} \Sigma^{*} w_{n}
$$

where $w_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}$ are strings over $\Sigma$.
A language is piecewise testable if it is a Boolean combination of languages

$$
\Sigma^{*} a_{1} \Sigma^{*} a_{2} \ldots \Sigma^{*} a_{n} \Sigma^{*}
$$

where $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ are elements of $\Sigma$.
We now introduce the formal definitions of the three problems (1), (2) and (3) mentioned above. Finite-automaton aperiodicity is defined as follows:

Instance. A minimum-state deterministic finite-state automaton DFA $M$ with input alphabet $\Sigma$.
Question. Does $M$ recognize a star-free event?
Dot-depth-one language recognition is defined as follows:
Instance. A minimum-state DFA $M$ with input alphabet $\Sigma$.
Question. Does $M$ recognize a language of dot-depth one?
Piecewise testable language recognition is defined as follows:
Instance. A minimum-state DFA $M$ with input alphabet $\Sigma$.
Question. Does $M$ recognize a piecewise testable language?

## 1. Finite-automaton aperiodicity is PSPACE-complete

In this section we will show the main result of this paper; namely, that finiteautomaton aperiodicity is PSPACE-complete. We first introduce a condition that characterizes the star-free languages.

Proposition 1.1(a) (Schützenberger [7]). A regular language $W \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is star-free iff $W$ is aperiodic, i.e. for all element $x$ of the syntactic monoid there is some integer $n$ such that $x^{n+1}=x^{n}$.

Thus, a regular language $W$ is not star-free iff some element $x$ of the syntactic monoid has a nontrivial period, i.e. for all $n, x^{n+1} \neq x^{n}$. This condition can be stated in terms of minimum-state DFAs as follows.

Proposition 1.1(b). A regular language accepted by a minimum-state DFA $M$ is not star-free iff there is a word $u \in \Sigma^{*}$ and a state $p$ such that $u$ defines a nontrivial cycle starting at $p$, i.e. (1) $\delta(p, u) \neq p$ and (2) for some positive integer $r, \delta\left(p, u^{r}\right)=p$.

The following problem is the complement of finite-automaton aperiodicity.
Definition 1.2. Finite-automaton cycle existence is defined as follows:
Instance. A minimum-state DFA $M$ with input alphabet $\Sigma$.
Question. Is there a word $u$ of $\Sigma^{*}$ that defines a nontrivial cycle of $M$ ?
Next we introduce a PSPACE-complete problem which we use to prove the PSPACE-hardness of finite-automaton cycle existence.

Definition 1.3. Finite-state automata intersection is the following problem:
Instance. A sequence $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ of DFAs having the same input alphabet $\Sigma$.
Question. Is there a string $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ accepted by each of $A_{i}, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ ?
It was shown in [5] that finite-state automata intersection is PSPACE-complete. Since the details of the construction will be needed later in our proof of the PSPACEhardness of finite-automaton cycle existence, we reproduce them here.

Lemma 1.4. [5] Finite-state automata intersection is PSPACE-complete.
Proof. It is easy to see that finite-state automata intersection is in nondeterministic linear space. Thus, by Savitch's result [6], the problem is in PSPACE. Next we reduce an arbitrary problem in PSPACE to finite-state automata intersection. To this end, let $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_{0}, B, F\right)$ be a single-tape deterministic $p(n)$ space bounded Turing machine, where $p$ is some fixed polynomial and $B \in \Gamma$ denotes the blank symbol. Let $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ be an input string and let $n=|x|$. Let $\Delta=(Q \cup\{\varepsilon\}) \times(\Sigma \cup \Gamma)$. A string $\operatorname{VALCOMP}_{x}=\# \mathrm{ID}_{0} \# \mathrm{ID}_{1} \# \cdots \# \mathrm{ID}_{m} \# \# \in(\Delta \cup\{\#\})^{*}$ represents a valid computation of $M$ on input $x$ if the following conditions are satisfied:
(1) each $\mathrm{ID}_{i}$ is an instantaneous description of $M$ consisting of $M$ 's tape content (padded out to length $p(n)$ with $B$ 's), the position of $M$ 's head, and the state of $M$;
(2) each $\mathrm{ID}_{i+1}$ follows from $\mathrm{ID}_{i}$ in one step according to the transition rules of $M$;
(3) $\mathrm{ID}_{0}$ is the start configuration of $M$ on input $x$ and $\mathrm{ID}_{m}$ is an accepting configuration.

Clearly, $M$ accepts $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ if and only if there is a valid computation $\operatorname{VALCOMP}_{x}=\# \mathrm{ID}_{0} \# \mathrm{ID}_{1} \# \cdots$ ID $_{m} \# \# \in(\Delta \cup\{\#\})^{*}$ of $M$ on input $x$. We can construct a collection of DFAs with input alphabet $\Delta \cup\{\#\}$ so that the intersection of the languages accepted by these DFAs will be the singleton set consisting of the string VALCOMP $_{x}$ if it exists, and $\emptyset$ otherwise.

Without loss of generality, assume that $M$ always takes an even number of steps, and has a unique accepting state $q_{\text {acc }}$. Further, $M$ erases its tape before accepting and has the head at the left end of the tape in an accepting configuration. We construct a DFA $A_{\mathrm{ID}}$ which checks that each $\mathrm{ID}_{i}$ is indeed an instantaneous description, i.e. $A_{\mathrm{ID}}$ accepts the set of strings in $\left(\# \Delta^{p(n)} \# \Delta^{p(n)}\right)^{*} \# \#$, so that each string $\Delta^{p(n)}$ is of the form $\left[\varepsilon, X_{1}\right]\left[\varepsilon, X_{2}\right] \ldots\left[\varepsilon, X_{i-1}\right]\left[q, X_{i}\right]\left[\varepsilon, X_{i+1}\right] \ldots\left[\varepsilon, X_{p(n)}\right]$, where $X_{i} \in \Sigma \cup \Gamma$, $1 \leqslant i \leqslant p(n)$ and $q \in Q$. In other words, $A_{\text {ID }}$ checks that there are an even number of ID's each of length $p(n)$ and that there is exactly one cell which contains the position of the head and the current state of $M$ among the $p(n)$ cells for each ID.

Next we construct two groups of DFAs to check that each $\mathrm{ID}_{j+1}$ follows from $\mathrm{ID}_{j}$ in one step according to the transition rules of $M$. Recall that given the ( $i-1$ ) st, $i$ th and $(i+1)$ st symbols of $\mathrm{ID}_{j}$ the $i$ th symbol of $\mathrm{ID}_{j+1}$ can be determined from the transition rules of $M$. We construct a DFA $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$ which accepts strings in sets of the form ( \# $\left.\Delta^{i-2} a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} \Delta^{p(n)-i-1} \# \Delta^{i-2} b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} \Delta^{p(n)-i-1}\right)^{*} \# \#$ so that $b_{2}$ follow from $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}$ according to the transition rule of $M$, where $a_{k}, b_{k} \in \Delta, 1 \leqslant k \leqslant 3$. $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$ checks whether the $i$ th symbol of $\mathrm{ID}_{j+1}$ follows from the $(i-1)$ st, $i$ th and $(i+1)$ st symbols of $\mathrm{ID}_{j}$ for even $j$ 's. For $i=2, A_{2}^{\text {even }}$ checks that the 1 st and 2 nd symbols of $\mathrm{ID}_{j+1}$ follow from the 1 st, 2 nd and 3 rd symbols of $\mathrm{ID}_{j}$ for even $j$ 's. For $i=p(n)-1, A_{p(n)-1}^{\text {even }}$ checks that the $(p(n)-1)$ st and $p(n)$ th symbols of $\mathrm{ID}_{j+1}$ follow from the $(p(n)-2)$ nd, $(p(n)-1)$ st and $p(n)$ th symbols of $\mathrm{ID}_{j}$ for even $j$ 's. The structure of $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$ is illustrated in Fig. 1, where the states of $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$ are numbered in such a way that the number assigned to a state indicates its "distance" from state $s_{i}$. Further, $d_{i}$ denotes the dead state and $f_{i}$ the final state of $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$. (Note that only states with the same distance can be equivalent.) From the simple structure of $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$, one can easily see that the minimumstate DFA $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$ can be constructed by a deterministic logspace-bounded Turing machine.

Similarly, we construct a DFA $A_{i}^{\text {odd }}$ which accepts strings in sets of the form $\# \Delta^{p(n)}\left(\# \Delta^{i-2} a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} \Delta^{p(n)-i-1} \# \Delta^{i-2} b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} \Delta^{p(n)-i-1}\right)^{*} \# \Delta^{p(n)} \# \#$, so that $b_{2}$


Fig. 1
follows from $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}$ according to the transition rules of $M$, i.e. the $A_{i}^{\text {odd }}$ do the same as the $A_{i}^{\text {even }}$, except that they check the even ID's following from the odd ID's immediately preceding them. The structure of $A_{i}^{\text {odd }}$ is illustrated in Fig. 2, where the states are numbered in such a way that the number assigned to a state indicates its "distance" $\bmod 2 p(n)+1$ from $s_{i}$. Note again that we can easily construct a minimum-state DFA for $A_{i}^{\text {odd }}$ by a deterministic logspace-bounded Turing machine because of the simple structure of $A_{i}^{\text {udd }}$.

Finally, we construct a DFA $A_{\text {ends }}$ which checks that $\mathrm{ID}_{0}$ is the start configuration of the machine $M$ and the last instantaneous description $\mathrm{ID}_{m}$ is an accepting configuration of $M$ which is of the form $\left[q_{\text {acc }}, B\right][\varepsilon, B] \ldots[\varepsilon, B]$. It is not hard to see that $L\left(A_{\mathrm{lD}}\right) \cap L\left(A_{\text {ends }}\right) \cap \bigcap_{i=2}^{P^{(n)}-1}\left(L\left(A_{i}^{\text {even }}\right) \cap L\left(A_{i}^{\text {odd }}\right)\right)$ is nonempty iff $M$ accepts $x$. Note that the above reduction can be easily carried out by a deterministic logspace-bounded Turing machine. This completes the proof of Lemma 1.4.

As observed in [9], it is straightforward to see that finite-automaton cycle existence is in PSPACE.

Lemma 1.5 (Stern [9]). Finite-automaton cycle existence in in PSPACE.
We now proceed to prove that finite-automaton cycle existence is PSPACE-hard by reducing finite-state automata intersection to finite-automaton cycle existence. More precisely, we will reduce the outputs of the logspace-reduction of Lemma 1.4 to


Fig. 2
finite-automaton cycle existence. To this end, we reconsider the DFAs constructed in the proof of Lemma 1.4. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{1}=A_{\mathrm{ends}}=\left(Q_{1}, \Sigma, \delta_{1}, s_{1},\left\{f_{1}\right\}\right), \\
& A_{2}=A_{\mathrm{ID}}=\left(Q_{2}, \Sigma, \delta_{2}, s_{2},\left\{f_{2}\right\}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant p(n)-1$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{2 i-1}=A_{i}^{\text {odd }}=\left(Q_{2 i-1}, \Sigma, \delta_{2 i-1}, s_{2 i-1},\left\{f_{2 i-1}\right\}\right), \\
& A_{2 i}=A_{i}^{\text {even }}=\left(Q_{2 i}, \Sigma, \delta_{2 i}, s_{2 i},\left\{f_{2 i}\right\}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Without loss of generality, assume that $Q_{i} \cap Q_{j}=\emptyset$ if $i \neq j$ and all $A_{i}$ 's are minimumstate DFAs. We construct a DFA $A=(Q, \Sigma, \delta, s,\{f\})$ as follows:

$$
Q=\{d\} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{2 p(n)-2}\left(Q_{i}-\left\{d_{i}\right\}\right),
$$

where $d_{i}$ is the unique dead state of $A_{i}$,

$$
s=s_{1}, f=f_{1}, \Sigma=\Delta \cup\{\#\},
$$

and $\delta$ is defined by
(1) $\delta(q, a)=\delta_{i}(q, a)$ for $q \in Q_{i}-\left\{r_{i}\right\}, \quad a \in \Sigma$ except when defined by (2),
(2) $\delta\left(f_{i}, \#\right)=s_{i+1}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 2 p(n)-3, \quad \delta\left(f_{2 p(n)-2}, \#\right)=s_{1}$,
(3) $\delta(q, a)=d$ for all ( $q, a)$ not defined by (1) and (2),
where $d$ is the dead state of $A$. The structure of $A$ is depicted in Fig. 3.


Fig. 3

Recall that in the DFA $A$, two states $p, q$ are inequivalent iff there is a string $w$ so that exactly one of $\delta(p, w), \delta(q, w)$ is the final state $f$. We can easily verify that every pair of states in $A$ are inequivalent. Thus, the DFA $A$ is a minimum-state DFA.

Now observe that if there is a string $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ accepted by $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{2 p(n)-2}$ simultaneously, then the string $x$ \# defines a nontrivial cycle for $A$. However, the converse is not necessarily true. In fact, if there is a string $w$ that defines a nontrivial cycle for $A$, we cannot conclude that there is some string accepted by all $A_{i}$ 's. Indeed any one of $A_{i}$ may have nontrivial cycle by itself. The problem is how to eliminate nontrivial cycle from each component $A_{i}$. The solution is quite simple. To illustrate the idea, let us consider the following example.

Example 1.6. Consider a DFA $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{1},\left\{q_{1}\right\}\right)$, where $Q=\left\{q_{1}, q_{2}, q_{3}, q_{4}, q_{5}\right\}$, $\Sigma=\{a, b\}$ and $\delta$ is defined as

$$
\delta\left(q_{1}, a\right)=q_{2}, \quad \delta\left(q_{2}, b\right)=q_{3}, \quad \delta\left(q_{3}, a\right)=q_{4}, \quad \delta\left(q_{4}, b\right)=q_{1},
$$

$\delta(q, c)=q_{5}$ for all $(q, c)$ not defined above, where $q_{5}$ is the dead state.
Clearly, $M$ is a minimum-state DFA and the string $a b$ defines a nontrivial cycle for $M$. However, we can modify $M$ by expanding its input alphabet so that there is no nontrivial cycle for the modified DFA.

Let $M^{\prime}=\left(Q, \Sigma^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}, q_{1},\left\{q_{1}\right\}\right)$ where $\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma \times\{0,1,2,3\}$ and $\delta^{\prime}$ is defined by $\delta^{\prime}(q,\langle c, i\rangle)=p$, where $\delta(q, c)=p$ and $i$ is the distance of $q$ from $q_{1}$, i.e. $i$ is the length of some shortest string $x$ such that $\delta\left(q_{1}, x\right)=q$; otherwise, $\delta^{\prime}(q,\langle c, i\rangle)=q_{5}$. Then, clearly, $M^{\prime}$ is a minimum-state DFA and there is no nontrivial cycle for $M^{\prime}$. (The construction of $M^{\prime}$ is illustrated in Fig. 4.)

We apply the above idea to eliminate nontrivial cycles from each DFA $A_{i}$. Note that all the cycles in $A_{i}$ are of length $2 p(n)+2$ except loops at the dead states $d_{i}$ 's. Therefore, we expand the alphabet $\Sigma$ to $\Sigma \times\{0, \ldots, 2 p(n)+1\}$. Before modifying $A_{i}$ 's we need the following definition.

The distance of a state $q$ in the DFA $A_{i}$ is defined to be $|x| \bmod 2 p(n)+2$, where $x$ is a shortest string such that $\delta_{i}\left(s_{i}, x\right)=q$.


Fig. 4

For the minimum-state DFA $A_{i}=\left(Q_{i}, \Sigma, \delta_{i}, s_{i},\left\{f_{i}\right\}\right)$, we construct a minimum-state DFA $B_{i}=\left(Q_{i}, \Sigma^{\prime}, \delta_{i}^{\prime}, s_{i},\left\{f_{i}\right\}\right)$ as follows:

$$
\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma \times\{0, \ldots, 2 p(n)+1\}
$$

and $\delta_{i}^{\prime}$ is defined by

$$
\delta_{i}^{\prime}(q,\langle a, j\rangle)= \begin{cases}p & \text { if } \delta_{i}(q, a)=p \text { and } j \text { is the distance of } q \\ d_{i} & \text { otherwise, where } d_{i} \text { is the dead state of } B_{i} .\end{cases}
$$

Before proving that there is no nontrivial cycle within $B_{i}$, for technical convenience, we want to classify $B_{i}$ 's into two classes. The first class contains exactly all $B_{i}$ 's with even $i$ and is called the even class. The second class contains all $B_{i}$ 's with odd $i$ and is called the odd class. We can easily verify the following facts.

Fact 1.7. If $B_{i}$ belongs to the even class, then $s_{i}$ is the only state with distance 0 .

Fact 1.8. If $B_{i}$ belongs to the odd class, then there is only one state $t_{i}$ with distance $p(n)+1$.

We now show that there is no nontrivial cycle within $B_{i}$.
Lemma 1.9. There is no nontrivial cycle within $B_{i}$.
Proof. Suppose there is a nontrivial cycle within $B_{i}$. Let $\delta_{i}^{\prime}(p, x)=q, p \neq q$ and $\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(p, x^{r}\right)=p$. By construction of $B_{i}$ from $A_{i}$ using the extension of $\Sigma$, the distance of $p$ and the distance of $q$ are identical. Thus, $|x| \bmod 2 p(n)+2=0$. If $B_{i}$ belongs to the even class, then there are strings $x_{1}, x_{2}$ so that $x=x_{1} x_{2}$ and $\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(p, x_{1}\right)=s_{i}, \delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(s_{i}, x_{2}\right)=q$ since $|x|>0$. Clearly, $\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(q, x_{1}\right)=s_{i}$ and $\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(s_{i}, x_{2} x_{1}\right)=s_{i}$. Then, $\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(p, x^{r}\right)=\delta_{i}^{\prime}(p$, $\left.x_{1}\left(x_{2} x_{1}\right)^{r-1} x_{2}\right)=\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(s_{i},\left(x_{2} x_{1}\right)^{r-1} x_{2}\right)=\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(s_{i}, x_{2}\right)=q$, which is a contradiction. Similarly, if $B_{i}$ belongs to the odd class, then there are strings $x_{1}, x_{2}$ so that $x=x_{1} x_{2}$ and $\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(p, x_{1}\right)=t_{i}, \quad \delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(t_{i}, x_{2}\right)=q$. Clearly, $\quad \delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(q, x_{1}\right)=t_{i} \quad$ and $\quad \delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(t_{i}, x_{2} x_{1}\right)=t_{i}$. Then, $\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(p, x^{r}\right)=\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(p, x_{1}\left(x_{2} x_{1}\right)^{r-1} x_{2}\right)=\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(t_{i},\left(x_{2} x_{1}\right)^{r-1} x_{2}\right)=\delta_{i}^{\prime}\left(t_{i}, x_{2}\right)=q$, which is again a contradiction. Thus, there is no nontrivial cycle for $B_{i}$.

The outline of the proof of Lemma 1.11 follows the argument in [9]. Let $B_{i}=\left(Q_{i}, \Sigma^{\prime}, \delta_{i}^{\prime}, s_{i},\left\{f_{i}\right\}\right)$ and $d_{i}$ be the unique dead state of $B_{i}, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 2 p(n)-2$. Let PRIME be the smallest prime number which is greater than $2 p(n)-2$. The following proposition is well known.

Proposition 1.10 (Hardy [2]). For any positive integer $n$ there is at least one prime number $p$ such that $n<p \leqslant 2 n$. Furthermore, $p$ can be computed in $\log n$ space.

Now for each $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 2 p(n)-2$, let $B_{2 p(n)-2+i}$ be a new copy of $B_{i}$ such that the sets of states are all pairwise disjoint. We construct a new DFA $B=\left(Q, \Sigma^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}, s,\{f\}\right)$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Q=(d\} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{\text {PRIME }}\left(Q_{i}-\left\{d_{i}\right\}\right), \quad s=s_{1}, \quad f=f_{1}, \\
& \Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma \times\{0, \ldots, 2 p(n)+1\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\delta^{\prime}$ is defined as follows:
(1) $\delta^{\prime}(q,\langle a, j\rangle)=\delta_{i}^{\prime}(q,\langle a, j\rangle)$ for all $a \in \Sigma$,
where $q \in Q_{i}-\left\{d_{i}\right\}$ except when defined by (2);
(2) $\quad \delta^{\prime}\left(f_{i},\langle \#, 2\rangle\right)=s_{i+1}, \quad 1 \leqslant i \leqslant$ PRIME-1,

$$
\delta^{\prime}\left(f_{\text {PRIME }},\langle \#, 2\rangle\right)=s_{1} ;
$$

(3) $\quad \delta^{\prime}(q,\langle a, j\rangle)=d \quad$ if not defined by (1) and (2),
where $d$ is the dead state of $B$.
Clearly, the DFA $B$ is a minimum-state DFA. We now prove the following lemma.
Lemma 1.11. If $B$ has a nontrivial cycle, then there is a string $x$ accepted by all $B_{i}$ 's and, hence, a string $y$ accepted by all $A_{i}$ 's.

Proof. Suppose there is a nontrivial cycle for $B$. By Lemma 1.9, this cannot be a cycle within any $B_{i}$. Let $\delta^{\prime}(p, u)=q, p \neq q$ and $\delta^{\prime}\left(p, u^{r}\right)=p$. Further, let $r$ be the smallest number satisfying the condition. Let

$$
p \in Q_{i}-\left\{d_{i}\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad q \in Q_{j}-\left\{d_{j}\right\}
$$

Fact 1.12. $i \neq j$ and the distance of $p$ in $B_{i}$ and the distance of $q$ in $B_{j}$ are the same.
Proof of Fact 1.12. Clearly, the distance of $p$ in $B_{i}$ and that of $q$ in $B_{j}$ are equal. Now assume, by way of contradiction, that $i=j$. If the computation path of $u$ from $p$ to $q$ does not leave $B_{i}$, then the computation path of $u^{r-1}$ from $q$ to $p$ cannot leave $B_{i}$ either. This cannot happen by Lemma 1.9. Thus, the computation path of $u$ from $p$ to $q$ must leave $B_{i}$ and reenter through $s_{i}$. By the same reason, the computation path of $u^{r-1}$ from $q$ to $p$ must leave $B_{i}$ and reenter through $s_{i}$. First consider the case $i$ is even. Let $v$ be the shortest suffix of $u$ such that $\delta^{\prime}\left(s_{i}, v\right)=q$. Let $w$ be the shortest suffix of $u^{r-1}$ such that $\delta^{\prime}\left(s_{i}, w\right)=p$. Then $|v|=|w|$ and $q=p$, which is a contradiction. If $i$ is odd, we can select the shortest suffix which starts at $t_{i}$ instead, and argue as before.

Let DELTA $=(j-i) \bmod$ PRIME, $0<$ DELTA $<$ PRIME. Let $p_{0}=p$ and $p_{k+1}=$ $\delta^{\prime}\left(p_{k}, u\right)$ for $0 \leqslant k \leqslant r-1$. Thus, $q=p_{1}$ and $p=p_{r}$. Let $p_{k} \in Q_{i_{k}}-\left\{r_{i_{k}}\right\}$ for $0 \leqslant k \leqslant r$.

Claim 1.13. For all $0 \leqslant k \leqslant r-1$, DELTA $=\left(i_{k+1}-i_{k}\right) \bmod$ PRIME.
Proof of Claim 1.13. Actually, we have that DELTA $=$ (the number of substring $\langle \#, 0\rangle\langle \#, 1\rangle\langle \#, 2\rangle$ in $u) \bmod$ PRIME, and by $\langle \#, 0\rangle\langle \#, 1\rangle\langle \#, 2\rangle$ we can move in $B$ from $B_{i}$ to $B_{i+1}$.

Claim 1.14. $r=$ PRIME.
Proof of Claim 1.14. If $r<$ PRIME, then $r \times$ DELTA mod PRIME $\neq 0$. Thus $i_{0} \neq i_{k}$, i.e. $p=p_{0} \neq p_{k}$ for all $1 \leqslant k<$ PRIME. Since $r$ is the least number satisfying the condition, we conclude that $r=$ PRIME.

Proof of Lemma 1.11 (conclusion). Observe that DELTA is a generator of the cyclic group $Z_{\text {PRIME }}$. Therefore, the sequence $i_{0}, i_{1}, \ldots, i_{\text {PRIME }-1}$ is a cyclic permutation of $1,2, \ldots$, PRIME. Now, let $u_{1}$ be the shortest prefix of $u$ such that $\delta^{\prime}\left(p_{k}, u_{1}\right)=s_{i_{k}+1}$, and $u_{3}$ be the shortest suffix of $u$ such that $\delta^{\prime}\left(s_{i_{k+1}}, u_{3}\right)=p_{k+1}$

$$
\rightarrow s_{i_{k}}-u_{3} \rightarrow p_{k}-u_{1} \rightarrow s_{i_{k}+1}-u_{2} \rightarrow s_{i_{k+1}}-u_{3} \rightarrow p_{k+1}-u_{1} \rightarrow s_{i_{k+1}+1} \rightarrow
$$

Then $u=u_{1} u_{2} u_{3}$ for some $u_{2}$ and it holds that $\delta^{\prime}\left(s_{i_{k}+1}, u_{2}\right)=s_{i_{k+1}}$. Consider $u_{3} u_{1}$. Clearly, $\delta^{\prime}\left(s_{i}, u_{3} u_{1}\right)=s_{i+1}$ for all $i=1, \ldots$, PRIME -1 . Further, $\delta^{\prime}\left(s_{\text {PRIME }}, u_{3} u_{1}\right)=s_{1}$. Let $x$ be such that $u_{3} u_{1}=x\langle \#, 2\rangle$. Then, $x$ is accepted by all $B_{i}$ 's. Let $x=\left\langle a_{1}, 0\right\rangle\left\langle a_{2}, 1\right\rangle \cdots\left\langle a_{m}, 2 p(n)+1\right\rangle\langle \#, 0\rangle\langle \#, 1\rangle$ and define $y=a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{m} \# \#$. Then, clearly, $y$ is accepted by all $A_{i}$ 's. This completes the proof of Lemma 1.11.

The remaining problem is that we have a variable-size input alphabet instead of a fixed-size alphabet. The idea is to encode such input symbols by binary strings of the same length that depends on the size of the input alphabet. Let $B=\left(Q, \Sigma^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}, s,\{f\}\right)$ be the DFA constructed above. We construct a DFA $B^{\prime}=\left(Q^{\prime},\{0,1\}, \delta^{\prime \prime}, s^{\prime},\left\{f^{\prime}\right\}\right)$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Q^{\prime}=Q \times\{0,1\}^{\leqslant k-1}, \text { where } k=\left\lceil\log _{2}\left|\Sigma^{\prime}\right|\right\rceil, \\
& s^{\prime}=\langle s, \varepsilon\rangle, \quad f^{\prime}=\langle f, \varepsilon\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\delta^{\prime \prime}$ is so defined that

$$
\delta^{\prime \prime}\left(\langle q, \varepsilon\rangle, x_{a}\right)=\langle p, \varepsilon\rangle,
$$

where $\delta^{\prime}(q, a)=p$ and $x_{a}=a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{k} \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ is a binary string which encodes the symbol $a \in \Sigma^{\prime}$. Therefore, all intermediate transitions are defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \delta^{\prime \prime}\left(\langle q, \varepsilon\rangle, a_{1}\right)=\left\langle q, a_{1}\right\rangle, \\
& \delta^{\prime \prime}\left(\left\langle q, a_{1}\right\rangle, a_{2}\right)=\left\langle q, a_{1} a_{2}\right\rangle, \\
& \ldots \\
& \delta^{\prime \prime}\left(\left\langle q, a_{1} \ldots a_{k-2}\right\rangle, a_{k-1}\right)=\left\langle q, a_{1} \ldots a_{k-1}\right\rangle, \\
& \delta^{\prime \prime}\left(\left\langle q, a_{1} \ldots a_{k-1}\right\rangle, a_{k}\right)=\langle p, \varepsilon\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

For all ( $\langle q, x\rangle, b$ ) not defined by the above rule, we set

$$
\delta^{\prime \prime}(\langle q, x\rangle, b)=\langle d, \varepsilon\rangle
$$

where $d$ is the dead state of $B^{\prime}$. Now, we can easily see that if there is a nontrivial cycle within $B$, then there is a nontrivial cycle within $B^{\prime}$. However, the converse is not necessarily true, as shown in the following example.

Example 1.15. Let us consider a cycle $q_{0} a_{1} q_{5} a_{2} q_{10} a_{3} q_{0}$ in the DFA in Example 1.6, where all $q_{i}$ 's and $a_{j}$ 's are distinct. Let us encode $a_{1}$ as 00100, $a_{2}$ as 10010, $a_{3}$ as 01001 . The cycle in the modified DFA becomes: $q_{0} 0 q_{1} 0 q_{2} 1 q_{3} 0 q_{4} 0 q_{5} 1 q_{6} 0 q_{7} 0 q_{8} 1 q_{9} 0 q_{10}$ $0 q_{11} 1 q_{12} 0 q_{13} 0 q_{14} 1 q_{0}$, where all $q_{i}$ 's are distinct, and all $q_{i}$ 's except $q_{0}, q_{5}$ and $q_{10}$ are intermediate states. Obviously, $q_{0}, 001$ and $(001)^{5}$ define a nontrivial cycle in the modified DFA, whereas there is no nontrivial cycle in the original DFA.

We need the following encoding schema to avoid the above possibility. We encode 0 by 01 and 1 by 10 . Thus, 00100 becomes $y=0101100101$. We also concatenate $x=111111111100$ with $y$ which gives $x y=1111111111000101100101$, where the number of 1's in $x$ is equal to $|y|$. Let $q, u, r$ define a nontrivial cycle in the modified DFA. Then, $|u|$ must be a multiple of $|x y|$, and $u$ can be written as $u=v w x$ such that $w$ is a concatenation of encodings of $a_{i}$ 's. Then $u^{\prime}=w x v$ is a concatenation of encodings of $a_{i}$ 's and $\delta(q, v), u^{\prime}$ and $r$ defines a nontrivial cycle. Now it is not hard to see that if there is a nontrivial cycle in the modified DFA, then there is a nontrivial cycle in the original DFA.

We apply the above idea as follows. The form of the encodings of $a_{i}$ 's is $1^{2 k} 00\{01,10\}^{k}$, where $k$ is the length of the binary encodings of symbols in the original DFA $B^{\prime}$. By an argument similar to the one in Example 1.12, the length of $u$ must be a multiple of $4 k+2$, and for $u$ there is $u^{\prime}$ which is a concatenation of encodings of $a_{i}$ 's and defines a nontrivial cycle. Thus, if there is a nontrivial cycle in $B^{\prime}$, then there is a nontrivial cycle in $B$.

Thus, we have proved the following lemma.
Lemma 1.16. Finite-automaton cycle existence with input alphabet $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$ is $\log$ -space-complete for PSPACE.

From Lemma 1.16, we obtain the following theorem as a corollary.
Theorem 1.17. Finite-automaton aperiodicity is logspace-complete for PSPACE.

## 2. The complexity of dot-depth-one language recognition and piecewise testable language recognition

In this section we characterize the complexity of two other problems; namely, dot-depth-one language recognition and piecewise testable language recognition. We
show that these two problems are logspace-complete for NL, where NL is the class of languages accepted by nondeterministic logspace-bounded Turing machines. The following result is used.

Proposition 2.1. (Immerman [4]). NL is closed under complement.
We now introduce a condition which characterizes piecewise testable languages.

Definition 2.2. Given a DFA $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{0}, F\right)$, we denote its transition diagram by $G(M)$. We also define $G(M, \Gamma)$ by considering only transitions labeled by symbols in $\Gamma$, where $\Gamma \subseteq \Sigma$. Let $p$ be a vertex of $G$. The component defined by $p$, written $C(p)$, is

$$
C(p)=\{p\} \cup\{q \mid \text { there is a path from } p \text { to } q\} .
$$

Proposition 2.3(a) (Simon [8]). Let $W$ be a regular language and $M$ be the minimumstate DFA accepting $W$. $W$ is piecewise testable iff (1) $G(M)$ is acyclic and (2) for any subset $\Gamma$ of $\Sigma$, each component of $G(M, \Gamma)$ has a unique maximal state, where a state is said to be maximal if from that state there is no outgoing transition labeled by $\Gamma$.

Thus, $W$ is not piecewise testable iff either (1) $G(M)$ is cyclic or (2) there is one component of $G(M, \Gamma)$ having two distinct maximal states.

Observation (Stern [9]). If $G(M)$ is acyclic, then $q$ is a maximal state of a component $C$ of $G(M, \Gamma)$ iff (1) $q \in C$ and (2) $\Gamma \subseteq \Sigma(q)=\{a \in \Sigma \mid \delta(q, a)=q\}$.

From the above observation if $q, q^{\prime}$ are distinct maximal states of $C$, then they are also distinct maximal states of some component of $G\left(M, \Sigma(q) \cap \Sigma\left(q^{\prime}\right)\right)$. Hence, Proposition 2.3(a) can be restated as follows.

Proposition 2.3(b). W is not piecewise testable iff either (1) $G(M)$ is cyclic or (2) there are 3 distinct states $p, q, q^{\prime}$ so that there are paths from $p$ to $q$ and $p$ to $q^{\prime}$ in the graph $G\left(M, \Sigma(q) \cap \Sigma\left(q^{\prime}\right)\right)$.

From Proposition 2.3(b) we have the following NL-algorithm which solves the piecewise testable language recognition probiem.

Lemma 2.4. Piecewise testable language recognition is in NL.
Proof. Let $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{0}, F\right)$ be a minimum state DFA.
(1) if there is a cycle in $G(M)$ then return ('yes');
(2) guess $p, q, q^{\prime}$;

$$
s_{1}:=p ; \quad s_{2}:=p ;
$$

repeat guess $a, b \in \Sigma(q) \cap \Sigma\left(q^{\prime}\right)$;

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{1}:=\delta\left(s_{1}, a\right) ; \\
& s_{2}:=\delta\left(s_{2}, b\right) ; \\
& \text { until } s_{1}=q \text { and } s_{2}=q^{\prime} ; \\
& \text { return ('yes'); }
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously, the above algorithm is in NL and gives a positive answer when $M$ does not accept a piecewise testable language. Since NL is closed under complement [4], piecewise testable language recognition is in NL.

Lemma 2.5. Piecewise testable language recognition is NL-hard.
Proof. We reduce graph accessibility (GAP for short), a well-known NL-complete problem, to piecewise testable language recognition. A special case of GAP is monotone 2GAP where out-degree of each vertex is bounded by 2 and for all edges $e=\langle u, v\rangle, v$ is greater than $u$ (the vertices are linearly ordered). It is not hard to see that monotone 2GAP is also logspace-complete for NL. Let $(G, s, g)$ be an instance of monotone 2 GAP , where $G=(V, E), V=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}, s=1$ and $g=n$.

We construct a minimum-state DFA $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, p_{1},\{f\}\right)$, where $Q=V \cup\{f\} \cup$ $\left\{p_{i} \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\right\} \cup\left\{q_{i} \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\right\}, \Sigma=\{0,1,2\}$ and $\delta$ is defined as follows (see Fig. 5):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \delta\left(p_{i}, 2\right)=i \text { for } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n, \\
& \delta\left(p_{i}, a\right)=p_{i+1} \text { for all } a \in\{0,1\} \text { and } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1, \\
& \delta\left(p_{n}, a\right)=n \text { for } a \in\{0,1\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For all $i \in V-\{n\}$ we have the following cases:
outdegree $(i)=2$ : let $j, k(j<k)$ be two vertices adjacent to $i$. In this case

$$
\delta(i, 0)=j, \quad \delta(i, 1)=k, \quad \delta(i, 2)=q_{i} ;
$$

outdegree $(i)=1$ : let $j$ be the vertex adjacent to $i$. In this case

$$
\delta(i, a)=j \text { for } a \in\{0,1\}, \quad \delta(i, 2)=q_{i}
$$



Fig. 5

```
outdegree \((i)=0\) :
\(\delta(i, a)=f\) for \(a \in\{0,1\}, \quad \delta(i, 2)=q_{i}\),
\(\delta(n, 0)=1, \quad \delta(n, 1)=f, \quad \delta(n, 2)=q_{n}\).
```

For all $a \in \sum$ and $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$

$$
\delta\left(q_{i}, a\right)=q_{i+1}, \quad \delta\left(q_{n}, a\right)=f, \quad \delta(f, a)=f .
$$

(Note that the states $p_{i}$ 's and $q_{i}$ 's are introduced in order to obtain the minimality of the resulting DFA.)

Observe that if there is a path from $s$ to $g$, then there is a cycle in $G(M)$. Further, $f$ is the only state $q$ such that $\Sigma(q) \neq \emptyset$. Therefore, if we can show that $M$ is a minimum-state DFA, then we can conclude that ( $G, s, g$ ) belongs to monotone 2 GAP iff $L(M)$ is not a piecewise testable language.

Claim. $M$ is a minimum-state $D F A$.
Proof of Claim. First, observe that all $p_{i}$ 's are pairwise inequivalent since if $i<j$, then $\delta\left(p_{i}, 0^{n-j} 2^{3}\right) \neq f$ and $\delta\left(p_{j}, 0^{n-j} 2^{3}\right)=f$. Next, one can easily see that all $q_{i}$ 's are pairwise inequivalent by a similar argument. Also, all states $i=1, \ldots, n$ are pairwise inequivalent since if $i<j$, then $\delta\left(i, 20^{n-j+1}\right) \neq f$ and $\delta\left(j, 20^{n-j+1}\right)=f$.

Note that for all $1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant n \delta\left(p_{i}, 0^{n-i+2} 20^{n-1}\right) \neq f$, but $\delta\left(q_{j}, 0^{n-i+2} 20^{n-1}\right)=f$. Thus, all pairs $p_{i}$ 's and $q_{j}$ 's are pairwise inequivalent. Also, all the pairs $p_{i}$ 's and $j$ 's are pairwise inequivalent since if $i \geqslant j+1$, then $\delta\left(p_{i}, 21^{n-j}\right)=f$, but $\delta\left(j, 21^{n-j}\right) \neq f$; if $i<j+1$, then $\delta\left(j, 2^{n-j+2}\right)=f$, but $\delta\left(p_{i}, 2^{n-j+2}\right) \neq f$. By a similar argument, all the pairs $q_{i}$ 's and $j$ 's are pairwise inequivalent. Thus, we conclude that $M$ is minimal.

Proof of Lemma 2.5 (conclusion). From the above claim, it follows that $M$ does not recognize a piecewisc testable language iff there is a path from $s$ to $g$ in $G$. The above reduction can be easily carried out by a deterministic logspace-bounded Turing machine. This completes the proof of Lemma 2.5.

From Lemmas 2.4 and 2.5, we obtain the following theorem.
Theorem 2.6. Piecewise testable language recognition is logspace-complete for NL.
Next we introduce a condition that characterizes the dot-depth-one languages.
Definition 2.7. Let $k$ be an integer. A DFA $M$ is $k$-stable if for any two states $p, q$ and any word $w$ of length $k$, whenever $p, q, \delta(p, w), \delta(q, w)$ belong to the same strongly connected component, then $\delta(p, w)=\delta(q, w)$.

Thus, a DFA $M$ is not $k$-stable if there are states $p, q$ and a word $w$ of length $k$ such that $p, q, \delta(p, w)$ and $\delta(q, w)$ belong to the same strongly connected component and $\delta(p, w) \neq \delta(q, w)$.

Definition 2.8. Two words $u, v$ are $k$-coinitial if they have the same first $k$ letters; we write $c_{k}(u, v)$ if $u$ and $v$ are $k$-coinitial.

A fork $(k)$ of type $I$ is a diagram of the form described by Fig. 6, where $u, v$ are $k$-coinitial words and $A, A^{\prime}$ are two distinct strongly connected components.

A fork $(k)$ of type $I I$ is defined as in Fig. 7 , with $c_{k}(u, x), c_{k}(v, y)$ and $A \neq A^{\prime}$ are two distinct strongly connected components.

Proposition 2.9 (Stern [9]). A regular language is of dot-depth one iff for some $k$, its minimum-state DFA $M$ is $k$-stable and admits no fork $(k)$ of type I and type II. Further, $k$ can be taken to be $|Q|^{3}$, where $Q$ is the set of states of $M$.

Thus, a regular language is not of dot-depth one iff its minimum state DFA $M$ is not $k$-stable or admits fork $(k)$ of type I or type II, where $k=|Q|^{3}$ and $Q$ is the set of states of $M$. From Proposition 2.9, we have the following NL algorithm for dot-depth-one language recognition.

Lemma 2.10. Dot-depth-one language recognition is in NL.
Proof. Let $M=\left(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_{0}, F\right)$ be a minimum-state DFA.
(1) $/^{*}$ Test whether $M$ is not $k$-stable for $k=|Q|^{3 *} \mid$
guess $p, q$;
if $p, q$ belong to the same strongly connected component then


Fig. 6


Fig. 7

```
begin
    \(s_{1}:=p ; \quad s_{2}:=q ;\)
    for \(i:=1\) to \(k\) do
        begin
            guess \(a \in \Sigma\);
            \(s_{1}:=\delta\left(s_{1}, a\right) ;\)
            \(s_{2}:=\delta\left(s_{2}, a\right) ;\)
        end;
    if \(s_{1} \neq s_{2}\) then return ('yes');
end
    (2) /* Test whether \(M\) admits fork \((k)\) of type \(I^{*} /\)
guess \(p, q, r, s, t\);
if \(q, r\) and \(s, t\) constitute two different strongly connected components then
begin
    \(s_{1}:=p ; \quad s_{2}:=r ; \quad s_{3}:=s ;\)
    for \(i:=1\) to \(k\) do
        begin
            guess \(a \in \Sigma\);
            \(s_{1}:=\delta\left(s_{1}, a\right) ;\)
            \(s_{2}:=\delta\left(s_{2}, a\right) ;\)
            \(s_{3}:=\delta\left(s_{3}, a\right) ;\)
        end;
    if \(s_{1}=q\) and \(s_{2}=q\) and \(s_{3}=t\) then
        begin
            \(s_{1}:=p ; \quad s_{2}:=t ; \quad s_{3}:=q ;\)
            for \(i:=1\) to \(k\) do
                    begin
                        guess \(a \in \Sigma\);
                        \(s_{1}:=\delta\left(s_{1}, a\right) ;\)
                        \(s_{2}:=\delta\left(s_{2}, a\right) ;\)
                                \(s_{3}:=\delta\left(s_{3}, a\right) ;\)
            end;
            if \(s_{1}=s\) and \(s_{2}=s\) and \(s_{3}=r\) then
                return ('yes');
        end
    end
    (3) /* Test whether \(M\) admits fork ( \(k\) ) of type II*/
    Similar to that of fork ( \(k\) ) of type I.
```

Note that computing strongly connected components and checking that the connected components are distinct are both in NL. Therefore, the above algorithm is in NL and gives a positive answer when $M$ does not accept a dot-depth-one language. Since NL is closed under complement [4], dot-depth-one language recognition is in NL.

Lemma 2.11. Dot-depth-one language recognition is NL-hard.
Proof. The proof is essentially similar to that of Lemma 2.5. We reduce monotone 2GAP to dot-depth-one language recognition. Actually, we reduce monotone 2GAP to the problem of checking whether a given minimum-state DFA $M$ is $k$-stable or not. The details are left to the reader as an exercise.

From Lemmas 2.10 and 2.11 we obtain the following theorem.
Theorem 2.12. Dot-depth-one language recognition is logspace-complete for NL.

## 3. Conclusions

In this paper we have characterized the exact complexity of three problems: (1) finite-automaton aperiodicity, (2) dot-depth-one language recognition and (3) piecewise testable language recognition. For all the three problems, the DFAs in the input are assumed to be minimum-state DFAs. Since testing whether a given DFA is minimal is known to be in P , finite-automaton aperiodicity remains PSPACEcomplete even without the minimality assumption. In [1] we showed that minimization of DFAs is NL-complete. Therefore, dot-depth-one language recognition and piecewise testable language recognition remain NL-complete even when the DFAs in the input are not assumed to be minimal.

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