

# Complexity of Proper Prefix-Convex Regular Languages\*

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**Abstract.** A language  $L$  over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is prefix-convex if, for any words  $x, y, z \in \Sigma^*$ , whenever  $x$  and  $xyz$  are in  $L$ , then so is  $xy$ . Prefix-convex languages include right-ideal, prefix-closed, and prefix-free languages, which were studied elsewhere. Here we concentrate on prefix-convex languages that do not belong to any one of these classes; we call such languages *proper*. We exhibit most complex proper prefix-convex languages, which meet the bounds for the size of the syntactic semigroup, reversal, complexity of atoms, star, product, and boolean operations.

**Keywords:** atom, most complex, prefix-convex, proper, quotient complexity, regular language, state complexity, syntactic semigroup

## 1 Introduction

**Prefix-Convex Languages** We examine the complexity properties of a class of regular languages that has never been studied before: the class of proper prefix-convex languages [7]. Let  $\Sigma$  be a finite alphabet; if  $w = xy$ , for  $x, y \in \Sigma^*$ , then  $x$  is a prefix of  $w$ . A language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is *prefix-convex* [1, 16] if whenever  $x$  and  $xyz$  are in  $L$ , then so is  $xy$ . Prefix-convex languages include three special cases:

1. A language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is a *right ideal* if it is non-empty and satisfies  $L = L\Sigma^*$ . Right ideals appear in pattern matching [11]:  $L\Sigma^*$  is the set of all words in some text (word in  $\Sigma^*$ ) beginning with words in  $L$ .
2. A language is *prefix-closed* [6] if whenever  $w$  is in  $L$ , then so is every prefix of  $w$ . The set of allowed sequences to any system is prefix-closed. Every prefix-closed language other than  $\Sigma^*$  is the complement of a right ideal [1].
3. A language is *prefix-free* if  $w \in L$  implies that no prefix of  $w$  other than  $w$  is in  $L$ . Prefix-free languages other than  $\{\varepsilon\}$ , where  $\varepsilon$  is the empty word, are prefix codes and are of considerable importance in coding theory [2].

The complexities of these three special prefix-convex languages were studied in [8]. We now turn to the “real” prefix-convex languages that do not belong to any of the three special classes.

Omitted proofs can be found in [7].

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**Complexities of Operations** If  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is a language, the (*left*) *quotient* of  $L$  by a word  $w \in \Sigma^*$  is  $w^{-1}L = \{x \mid wx \in L\}$ . A language is regular if and only if it has a finite number of distinct quotients. So the number of quotients of  $L$ , the *quotient complexity* [3]  $\kappa(L)$  of  $L$ , is a natural measure of complexity for  $L$ . An equivalent concept is the *state complexity* [15, 17, 18] of  $L$ , which is the number of states in a complete minimal deterministic finite automaton (DFA) over  $\Sigma$  recognizing  $L$ . We refer to quotient/state complexity simply as *complexity*.

If  $L_n$  is a regular language of complexity  $n$ , and  $\circ$  is a unary operation, the *complexity of*  $\circ$  is the maximal value of  $\kappa(L_n^\circ)$ , expressed as a function of  $n$ , as  $L_n$  ranges over all languages of complexity  $n$ . If  $L'_m$  and  $L_n$  are regular languages of complexities  $m$  and  $n$  respectively, and  $\circ$  is a binary operation, the *complexity of*  $\circ$  is the maximal value of  $\kappa(L'_m \circ L_n)$ , expressed as a function of  $m$  and  $n$ , as  $L'_m$  and  $L_n$  range over all languages of complexities  $m$  and  $n$ . The complexity of an operation is a lower bound on its time and space complexities. The operations reversal, (Kleene) star, product (concatenation), and binary boolean operations are considered “common”, and their complexities are known; see [4, 17, 18].

**Witnesses** To find the complexity of a unary operation we find an upper bound on this complexity, and languages that meet this bound. We require a language  $L_n$  for each  $n$ , that is, a sequence,  $(L_k, L_{k+1}, \dots)$ , called a *stream* of languages, where  $k$  is a small integer, because the bound may not hold for small values of  $n$ . For a binary operation we need two streams. The same stream cannot always be used for both operands, but for all common binary operations the second stream can be a “dialect” of the first, that is it can “differ only slightly” from the first [4]. Let  $\Sigma = \{a_1, \dots, a_k\}$  be an alphabet ordered as shown; if  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ , we denote it by  $L(a_1, \dots, a_k)$ . A *dialect* of  $L$  is obtained by deleting letters of  $\Sigma$  in the words of  $L$ , or replacing them by letters of another alphabet  $\Sigma'$ . More precisely, for an injective partial map  $\pi: \Sigma \mapsto \Sigma'$ , we get a dialect of  $L$  by replacing each letter  $a \in \Sigma$  by  $\pi(a)$  in every word of  $L$ , or deleting the word if  $\pi(a)$  is undefined. We write  $L(\pi(a_1), \dots, \pi(a_k))$  to denote the dialect of  $L(a_1, \dots, a_k)$  given by  $\pi$ , and we denote undefined values of  $\pi$  by “-”. Undefined values for letters at the end of the alphabet are omitted; for example,  $L(a, c, -, -)$  is written as  $L(a, c)$ . Our definition of dialect is more general than that of [5], where only the case  $\Sigma' = \Sigma$  was allowed.

**Finite Automata** A *deterministic finite automaton (DFA)* is a quintuple  $\mathcal{D} = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ , where  $Q$  is a finite non-empty set of *states*,  $\Sigma$  is a finite non-empty *alphabet*,  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$  is the *transition function*,  $q_0 \in Q$  is the *initial state*, and  $F \subseteq Q$  is the set of *final states*. We extend  $\delta$  to a function  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma^* \rightarrow Q$  as usual. A DFA  $\mathcal{D}$  *accepts* a word  $w \in \Sigma^*$  if  $\delta(q_0, w) \in F$ . The set of all words accepted by  $\mathcal{D}$  is the *language of*  $\mathcal{D}$ . If  $q \in Q$ , then the *language*  $L_q$  of  $q$  is the language accepted by the DFA  $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q, F)$ . A state is *empty or dead or a sink* if its language is empty. Two states  $p$  and  $q$  of  $\mathcal{D}$  are *equivalent* if  $L_p = L_q$ . A state  $q$  is *reachable* if there exists  $w \in \Sigma^*$  such that  $\delta(q_0, w) = q$ . A DFA is *minimal* if all of its states are reachable and no two states are equivalent. A *nondeterministic finite automaton (NFA)* is a quintuple  $\mathcal{D} = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, I, F)$ , where  $Q$ ,  $\Sigma$  and  $F$  are defined as in a DFA,  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow 2^Q$  is the *transition*

function, and  $I \subseteq Q$  is the set of initial states. An  $\varepsilon$ -NFA is an NFA in which transitions under the empty word  $\varepsilon$  are also permitted.

**Transformations** We use  $Q_n = \{0, \dots, n-1\}$  as the set of states of every DFA with  $n$  states. A transformation of  $Q_n$  is a mapping  $t: Q_n \rightarrow Q_n$ . The image of  $q \in Q_n$  under  $t$  is  $qt$ . In any DFA, each letter  $a \in \Sigma$  induces a transformation  $\delta_a$  of the set  $Q_n$  defined by  $q\delta_a = \delta(q, a)$ ; we denote this by  $a: \delta_a$ . Often we use the letter  $a$  to denote the transformation it induces; thus we write  $qa$  instead of  $q\delta_a$ . We extend the notation to sets: if  $P \subseteq Q_n$ , then  $Pa = \{pa \mid p \in P\}$ . We also write  $P \xrightarrow{a} Pa$  to indicate that the image of  $P$  under  $a$  is  $Pa$ . If  $s, t$  are transformations of  $Q_n$ , their composition is  $(qs)t$ .

For  $k \geq 2$ , a transformation (permutation)  $t$  of a set  $P = \{q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{k-1}\} \subseteq Q_n$  is a  $k$ -cycle if  $q_0t = q_1, q_1t = q_2, \dots, q_{k-2}t = q_{k-1}, q_{k-1}t = q_0$ . This  $k$ -cycle is denoted by  $(q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{k-1})$ . A 2-cycle  $(q_0, q_1)$  is called a *transposition*. A transformation that sends all the states of  $P$  to  $q$  and acts as the identity on the other states is denoted by  $(P \rightarrow q)$ , and  $(Q_n \rightarrow p)$  is called a *constant* transformation. If  $P = \{p\}$  we write  $(p \rightarrow q)$  for  $(\{p\} \rightarrow q)$ . The identity transformation is denoted by  $\mathbb{1}$ . Also,  $\binom{j}{i} q \rightarrow q+1$  is a transformation that sends  $q$  to  $q+1$  for  $i \leq q \leq j$  and is the identity for the remaining states;  $\binom{j}{i} q \rightarrow q-1$  is defined similarly.

**Semigroups** The *syntactic congruence* of  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is defined on  $\Sigma^+$ : For  $x, y \in \Sigma^+$ ,  $x \approx_L y$  if and only if  $wxz \in L \Leftrightarrow wyz \in L$  for all  $w, z \in \Sigma^*$ . The quotient set  $\Sigma^+ / \approx_L$  of equivalence classes of  $\approx_L$  is the *syntactic semigroup* of  $L$ . Let  $\mathcal{D}_n = (Q_n, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  be a DFA, and let  $L_n = L(\mathcal{D}_n)$ . For each word  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , the transition function induces a transformation  $\delta_w$  of  $Q_n$  by  $w$ : for all  $q \in Q_n$ ,  $q\delta_w = \delta(q, w)$ . The set  $T_{\mathcal{D}_n}$  of all such transformations by non-empty words is a semigroup under composition called the *transition semigroup* of  $\mathcal{D}_n$ . If  $\mathcal{D}_n$  is a minimal DFA of  $L_n$ , then  $T_{\mathcal{D}_n}$  is isomorphic to the syntactic semigroup  $T_{L_n}$  of  $L_n$ , and we represent elements of  $T_{L_n}$  by transformations in  $T_{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . The size of the syntactic semigroup has been used as a measure of complexity for regular languages [4, 10, 12, 14].

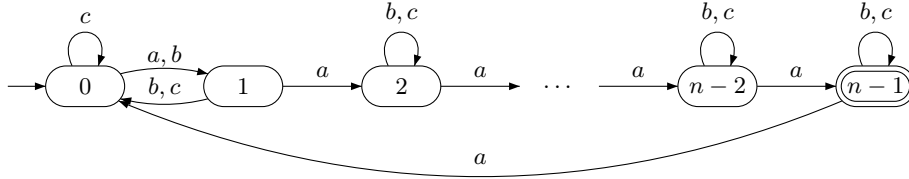
**Atoms** are defined by a left congruence, where two words  $x$  and  $y$  are equivalent if  $ux \in L$  if and only if  $uy \in L$  for all  $u \in \Sigma^*$ . Thus  $x$  and  $y$  are equivalent if  $x \in u^{-1}L$  if and only if  $y \in u^{-1}L$ . An equivalence class of this relation is an *atom* of  $L$  [9, 13].

One can conclude that an atom is a non-empty intersection of complemented and uncomplemented quotients of  $L$ . That is, every atom of a language with quotients  $K_0, K_1, \dots, K_{n-1}$  can be written as  $A_S = \bigcap_{i \in S} K_i \cap \bigcap_{i \in \bar{S}} \overline{K_i}$  for some set  $S \subseteq Q_n$ . The number of atoms and their complexities were suggested as possible measures of complexity [4], because all the quotients of a language and the quotients of its atoms are unions of atoms [9].

**Most Complex Regular Stream** The stream  $(\mathcal{D}_n(a, b, c) \mid n \geq 3)$  of Definition 1 and Figure 1 will be used as a component in the class of proper prefix-convex languages. This stream together with some dialects meets the complexity bounds for reversal, star, product, and all binary boolean operations [7, 8]. More-

over, it has the maximal syntactic semigroup and most complex atoms, making it a most complex regular stream.

**Definition 1.** For  $n \geq 3$ , let  $\mathcal{D}_n = \mathcal{D}_n(a, b, c) = (Q_n, \Sigma, \delta_n, 0, \{n-1\})$ , where  $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$ , and  $\delta_n$  is defined by  $a: (0, \dots, n-1)$ ,  $b: (0, 1)$ ,  $c: (1 \rightarrow 0)$ .



**Fig. 1.** Minimal DFA of a most complex regular language.

Most complex streams are useful in systems dealing with regular languages and finite automata. To know the maximal sizes of automata that can be handled by a system it suffices to use the most complex stream to test all the operations.

## 2 Proper Prefix-Convex Languages

We begin with some properties of prefix-convex languages that will be used frequently in this section. The following lemma and propositions characterize the classes of prefix-convex languages in terms of their minimal DFAs.

**Lemma 1.** Let  $L$  be a prefix-convex language over  $\Sigma$ . Either  $L$  is a right ideal or  $L$  has an empty quotient.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $L_n$  be a regular language of complexity  $n$ , and let  $\mathcal{D}_n = (Q_n, \Sigma, \delta, 0, F)$  be a minimal DFA recognizing  $L_n$ . The following are equivalent:

1.  $L_n$  is prefix-convex.
2. For all  $p, q, r \in Q_n$ , if  $p$  and  $r$  are final,  $q$  is reachable from  $p$ , and  $r$  is reachable from  $q$ , then  $q$  is final.
3. Every state reachable in  $\mathcal{D}_n$  from any final state is either final or empty.

**Proposition 2.** Let  $L_n$  be a non-empty prefix-convex language of complexity  $n$ , and let  $\mathcal{D}_n = (Q_n, \Sigma, \delta, 0, F)$  be a minimal DFA recognizing  $L_n$ .

1.  $L_n$  is prefix-closed if and only if  $0 \in F$ .
2.  $L_n$  is prefix-free if and only if  $\mathcal{D}_n$  has a unique final state  $p$  and an empty state  $p'$  such that  $\delta(p, a) = p'$  for all  $a \in \Sigma$ .
3.  $L_n$  is a right ideal if and only if  $\mathcal{D}_n$  has a unique final state  $p$  and  $\delta(p, a) = p$  for all  $a \in \Sigma$ .

A prefix-convex language  $L$  is *proper* if it is not a right ideal and it is neither prefix-closed nor prefix-free. We say it is *k-proper* if it has  $k$  final states,  $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$ . Every minimal DFA for a  $k$ -proper language with complexity  $n$  has the same general structure: there are  $n - 1 - k$  non-final, non-empty states,  $k$  final states, and one empty state. Every letter fixes the empty state and, by Proposition 1, no letter sends a final state to a non-final, non-empty state.

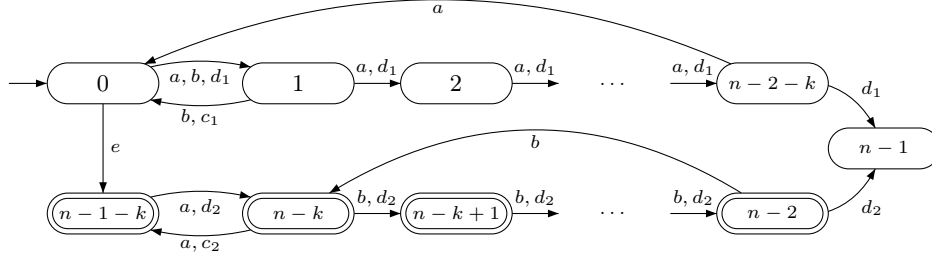
Next we define a stream of  $k$ -proper DFAs and languages, which we will show to be most complex.

**Definition 2.** For  $n \geq 3$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$ , let  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(\Sigma) = (Q_n, \Sigma, \delta_{n,k}, 0, F_{n,k})$  where  $\Sigma = \{a, b, c_1, c_2, d_1, d_2, e\}$ ,  $F_{n,k} = \{n - 1 - k, \dots, n - 2\}$ , and  $\delta_{n,k}$  is given by the transformations

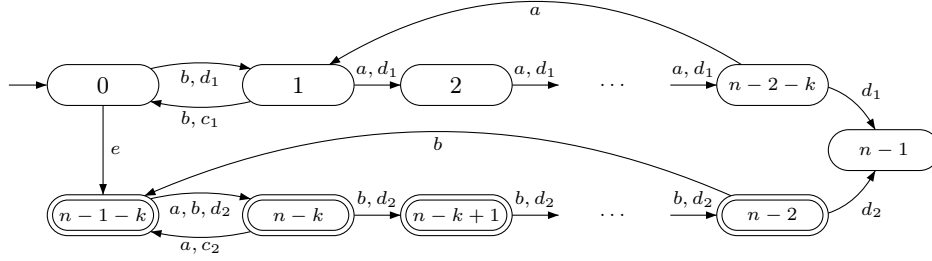
$$\begin{aligned}
a: & \begin{cases} (1, \dots, n - 2 - k)(n - 1 - k, n - k), & \text{if } n - 1 - k \text{ is even and } k \geq 2; \\ (0, \dots, n - 2 - k)(n - 1 - k, n - k), & \text{if } n - 1 - k \text{ is odd and } k \geq 2; \\ (1, \dots, n - 2 - k), & \text{if } n - 1 - k \text{ is even and } k = 1; \\ (0, \dots, n - 2 - k), & \text{if } n - 1 - k \text{ is odd and } k = 1. \end{cases} \\
b: & \begin{cases} (n - k, \dots, n - 2)(0, 1), & \text{if } k \text{ is even and } n - 1 - k \geq 2; \\ (n - 1 - k, \dots, n - 2)(0, 1), & \text{if } k \text{ is odd and } n - 1 - k \geq 2; \\ (n - k, \dots, n - 2), & \text{if } k \text{ is even and } n - 1 - k = 1; \\ (n - 1 - k, \dots, n - 2), & \text{if } k \text{ is odd and } n - 1 - k = 1. \end{cases} \\
c_1: & \begin{cases} (1 \rightarrow 0), & \text{if } n - 1 - k \geq 2; \\ \mathbb{1}, & \text{if } n - 1 - k = 1. \end{cases} \\
c_2: & \begin{cases} (n - k \rightarrow n - 1 - k), & \text{if } k \geq 2; \\ \mathbb{1}, & \text{if } k = 1. \end{cases} \\
d_1: & (n - 2 - k \rightarrow n - 1) \binom{n-3-k}{0} q \rightarrow q + 1. \\
d_2: & \binom{n-2}{n-1-k} q \rightarrow q + 1. \\
e: & (0 \rightarrow n - 1 - k).
\end{aligned}$$

Also, let  $E_{n,k} = \{0, \dots, n - 2 - k\}$ ; it is useful to partition  $Q_n$  into  $E_{n,k}$ ,  $F_{n,k}$ , and  $\{n - 1\}$ . Letters  $a$  and  $b$  have complementary behaviours on  $E_{n,k}$  and  $F_{n,k}$ , depending on the parities of  $n$  and  $k$ . Letters  $c_1$  and  $d_1$  act on  $E_{n,k}$  in exactly the same way as  $c_2$  and  $d_2$  act on  $F_{n,k}$ . In addition,  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  send states  $n - 2 - k$  and  $n - 2$ , respectively, to state  $n - 1$ , and letter  $e$  connects the two parts of the DFA. The structure of  $\mathcal{D}_n(\Sigma)$  is shown in Figures 2 and 3 for certain parities of  $n - 1 - k$  and  $k$ . Let  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  be the language recognized by  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(\Sigma)$ .

**Theorem 1 (Proper Prefix-Convex Languages).** For  $n \geq 3$  and  $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$ , the DFA  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  of Definition 2 is minimal and  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  is a  $k$ -proper language of complexity  $n$ . The bounds below are maximal for  $k$ -proper prefix-convex languages. At least seven letters are required to meet these bounds.



**Fig. 2.** DFA  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(a, b, c_1, c_2, d_1, d_2, e)$  of Definition 2 when  $n - 1 - k$  is odd,  $k$  is even, and both are at least 2; missing transitions are self-loops.



**Fig. 3.** DFA  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(a, b, c_1, c_2, d_1, d_2, e)$  of Definition 2 when  $n - 1 - k$  is even,  $k$  is odd, and both are at least 2; missing transitions are self-loops.

1. The syntactic semigroup of  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  has cardinality  $n^{n-1-k}(k+1)^k$ ; the maximal value  $n(n-1)^{n-2}$  is reached only when  $k = n - 2$ .
2. The non-empty, non-final quotients of  $L_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_2, e)$  have complexity  $n$ , the final quotients have complexity  $k + 1$ , and  $\emptyset$  has complexity 1.
3. The reverse of  $L_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_2, e)$  has complexity  $2^{n-1}$ ; moreover, the language  $L_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_2, e)$  has  $2^{n-1}$  atoms for all  $k$ .
4. For each atom  $A_S$  of  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$ , write  $S = X_1 \cup X_2$ , where  $X_1 \subseteq E_{n,k}$  and  $X_2 \subseteq F_{n,k}$ . Let  $\overline{X}_1 = E_{n,k} \setminus X_1$  and  $\overline{X}_2 = F_{n,k} \setminus X_2$ . If  $X_2 \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\kappa(A_S) =$

$$1 + \sum_{x_1=0}^{|\overline{X}_1|} \sum_{x_2=1}^{|\overline{X}_1|+|\overline{X}_2|-x_1} \sum_{y_1=0}^{|\overline{X}_1|} \sum_{y_2=0}^{|\overline{X}_1|+|\overline{X}_2|-y_1} \binom{n-1-k}{x_1} \binom{k}{x_2} \binom{n-1-k-x_1}{y_1} \binom{k-x_2}{y_2}.$$

If  $X_1 \neq \emptyset$  and  $X_2 = \emptyset$ , then  $\kappa(A_S) =$

$$1 + \sum_{x_1=0}^{|\overline{X}_1|} \sum_{x_2=0}^{|\overline{X}_1|-x_1} \sum_{y_1=0}^{|\overline{X}_1|} \sum_{y_2=0}^k \binom{n-1-k}{x_1} \binom{k}{x_2} \binom{n-1-k-x_1}{y_1} \binom{k-x_2}{y_2} - 2^k \sum_{y=0}^{|\overline{X}_1|} \binom{n-1-k}{y}.$$

Otherwise,  $S = \emptyset$  and  $\kappa(A_S) = 2^{n-1}$ .

5. The star of  $L_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_1, d_2, e)$  has complexity  $2^{n-2} + 2^{n-2-k} + 1$ . The maximal value  $2^{n-2} + 2^{n-3} + 1$  is reached only when  $k = 1$ .

6.  $L'_{m,j}(a, b, c_1, -, d_1, d_2, e)L_{n,k}(a, d_2, c_1, -, d_1, b, e)$  has complexity  $m - 1 - j + j2^{n-2} + 2^{n-1}$ . The maximal value  $m2^{n-2} + 1$  is reached only when  $j = m - 2$ .
7. For  $m, n \geq 3$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq m - 2$ , and  $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$ , define the languages  $L'_{m,j} = L'_{m,j}(a, b, c_1, -, d_1, d_2, e)$  and  $L_{n,k} = L_{n,k}(a, b, e, -, d_2, d_1, c_1)$ . For any proper binary boolean function  $\circ$ , the complexity of  $L'_{m,j} \circ L_{n,k}$  is maximal. In particular,
  - (a)  $L'_{m,j} \cup L_{n,k}$  and  $L'_{m,j} \oplus L_{n,k}$  have complexity  $mn$ .
  - (b)  $L'_{m,j} \setminus L_{n,k}$  has complexity  $mn - (n - 1)$ .
  - (c)  $L'_{m,j} \cap L_{n,k}$  has complexity  $mn - (m + n - 2)$ .

*Proof.* The remainder of this paper is an outline of the proof of this theorem. The longer parts of the proof are separated into individual propositions and lemmas.

DFA  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_2, e)$  is easily seen to be minimal. Language  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  is  $k$ -proper by Propositions 1 and 2.

1. See Lemma 2 and Proposition 3.
2. If the initial state of  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_2, e)$  is changed to  $q \in E_{n,k}$ , the new DFA accepts a quotient of  $L_{n,k}$  and is still minimal; hence the complexity of that quotient is  $n$ . If the initial state is changed to  $q \in F_{n,k}$  then states in  $E_{n,k}$  are unreachable, but the DFA on  $\{n - 1 - k, \dots, n - 1\}$  is minimal; hence the complexity of that quotient is  $k + 1$ . The remaining quotient is empty, and hence has complexity 1. By Proposition 1, these are maximal.
3. See Proposition 4 for the reverse. It was shown in [9] that the number of atoms is equal to the complexity of the reverse.
4. See [7].
5. See Proposition 5.
6. See [7].
7. By [3, Theorem 2], all boolean operations on regular languages have the upper bound  $mn$ , which gives the bound for (a). The bounds for (b) and (c) follow from [3, Theorem 5]. The proof that all these bounds are tight for  $L'_{m,j} \circ L_{n,k}$  can be found in [7].  $\square$

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $n \geq 1$  and  $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$ . For any permutation  $t$  of  $Q_n$  such that  $E_{n,k}t = E_{n,k}$ ,  $F_{n,k}t = F_{n,k}$ , and  $(n - 1)t = n - 1$ , there is a word  $w \in \{a, b\}^*$  that induces  $t$  on  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}$ .*

*Proof.* Only  $a$  and  $b$  induce permutations of  $Q_n$ ; every other letter induces a properly injective map. Furthermore,  $a$  and  $b$  permute  $E_{n,k}$  and  $F_{n,k}$  separately, and both fix  $n - 1$ . Hence every  $w \in \{a, b\}^*$  induces a permutation on  $Q_n$  such that  $E_{n,k}w = E_{n,k}$ ,  $F_{n,k}w = F_{n,k}$ , and  $(n - 1)w = n - 1$ . Each such permutation naturally corresponds to an element of  $S_{n-1-k} \times S_k$ , where  $S_m$  denotes the symmetric group on  $m$  elements. To be consistent with the DFA, assume  $S_{n-1-k}$  contains permutations of  $\{0, \dots, n - 2 - k\}$  and  $S_k$  contains permutations of  $\{n - 1 - k, \dots, n - 2\}$ . Let  $s_a$  and  $s_b$  denote the group elements corresponding to the transformations induced by  $a$  and  $b$  respectively. We show that  $s_a$  and  $s_b$  generate  $S_{n-1-k} \times S_k$ .

It is well known that  $(0, \dots, m-1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$  generate the symmetric group on  $\{0, \dots, m-1\}$  for any  $m \geq 2$ . Note that  $(1, \dots, m-1)$  and  $(0, 1)$  are also generators, since  $(0, 1)(1, \dots, m-1) = (0, \dots, m-1)$ .

If  $n-1-k = 1$  and  $k = 1$ , then  $S_{n-1-k} \times S_k$  is the trivial group. If  $n-1-k = 1$  and  $k \geq 2$ , then  $s_a = (\mathbb{1}, (n-1-k, n-k))$  and  $s_b$  is either  $(\mathbb{1}, (n-1-k, \dots, n-2))$  or  $(\mathbb{1}, (n-k, \dots, n-2))$ , and either pair generates the group. There is a similar argument when  $k = 1$ .

Assume now  $n-1-k \geq 2$  and  $k \geq 2$ . If  $n-1-k$  is odd then  $s_a = ((0, \dots, n-2-k), (n-1-k, n-k))$ , and hence  $s_a^{n-1-k} = ((0, \dots, n-2-k)^{n-1-k}, (n-1-k, n-k)^{n-1-k}) = (\mathbb{1}, (n-1-k, n-k))$ . Similarly if  $n-1-k$  is even then  $s_a = ((1, \dots, n-2-k), (n-1-k, n-k))$ , and hence  $s_a^{n-2-k} = (\mathbb{1}, (n-1-k, n-k))$ . Therefore  $(\mathbb{1}, (n-1-k, n-k))$  is always generated by  $s_a$ . By symmetry,  $((0, 1), \mathbb{1})$  is always generated by  $s_b$  regardless of the parity of  $k$ .

Since we can isolate the transposition component of  $s_a$ , we can isolate the other component as well:  $(\mathbb{1}, (n-1-k, n-k))s_a$  is either  $((0, \dots, n-2-k), \mathbb{1})$  or  $((1, \dots, n-2-k), \mathbb{1})$ . Paired with  $((0, 1), \mathbb{1})$ , either element is sufficient to generate  $S_{n-1-k} \times \{\mathbb{1}\}$ . Similarly,  $s_a$  and  $s_b$  generate  $\{\mathbb{1}\} \times S_k$ . Therefore  $s_a$  and  $s_b$  generate  $S_{n-1-k} \times S_k$ . It follows that  $a$  and  $b$  generate all permutations  $t$  of  $Q_n$  such that  $E_{n,k}t = E_{n,k}$ ,  $F_{n,k}t = F_{n,k}$ , and  $(n-1)t = n-1$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 3 (Syntactic Semigroup).** *The syntactic semigroup of  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  has cardinality  $n^{n-1-k}(k+1)^k$ , which is maximal for a  $k$ -proper language. Furthermore, seven letters are required to meet this bound. The maximum value  $n(n-1)^{n-2}$  is reached only when  $k = n-2$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $L$  be a  $k$ -proper language of complexity  $n$  and let  $\mathcal{D}$  be a minimal DFA recognizing  $L$ . By Lemma 1,  $\mathcal{D}$  has an empty state. By Proposition 1, the only states that can be reached from one of the  $k$  final states are either final or empty. Thus, a transformation in the transition semigroup of  $\mathcal{D}$  may map each final state to one of  $k+1$  possible states, while each non-final, non-empty state may be mapped to any of the  $n$  states. Since the empty state can only be mapped to itself, we are left with  $n^{n-1-k}(k+1)^k$  possible transformations in the transition semigroup. Therefore the syntactic semigroup of any  $k$ -proper language has size at most  $n^{n-1-k}(k+1)^k$ .

Now consider the transition semigroup of  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(\Sigma)$ . Every transformation  $t$  in the semigroup must satisfy  $F_{n,k}t \subseteq F_{n,k} \cup \{n-1\}$  and  $(n-1)t = n-1$ , since any other transformation would violate prefix-convexity. We show that the semigroup contains every such transformation, and hence the syntactic semigroup of  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  is maximal.

First, consider the transformations  $t$  such that  $E_{n,k}t \subseteq E_{n,k} \cup \{n-1\}$  and  $qt = q$  for all  $q \in F_{n,k} \cup \{n-1\}$ . By Lemma 2,  $a$  and  $b$  generate every permutation of  $E_{n,k}$ . When  $t$  is not a permutation, we can use  $c_1$  to combine any states  $p$  and  $q$ : apply a permutation on  $E_{n,k}$  so that  $p \rightarrow 0$  and  $q \rightarrow 1$ , and then apply  $c_1$  so that  $1 \rightarrow 0$ . Repeat this method to combine any set of states, and further apply permutations to induce the desired transformation while leaving the states of  $F_{n,k} \cup \{n-1\}$  in place. The same idea applies with  $d_1$ ; apply permutations



and  $d_1$  to send any states of  $E_{n,k}$  to  $n - 1$ . Hence  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c_1$ , and  $d_1$  generate every transformation  $t$  such that  $E_{n,k}t \subseteq E_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$  and  $qt = q$  for all  $q \in F_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$ .

We can make the same argument for transformations that act only on  $F_{n,k}$  and fix every other state. Since  $c_2$  and  $d_2$  act on  $F_{n,k}$  exactly as  $c_1$  and  $d_1$  act on  $E_{n,k}$ , the letters  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c_2$ , and  $d_2$  generate every transformation  $t$  such that  $F_{n,k}t \subseteq F_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$  and  $qt = q$  for all  $q \in E_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$ . It follows that  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $d_1$ , and  $d_2$  generate every transformation  $t$  such that  $E_{n,k}t \subseteq E_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$ ,  $F_{n,k}t \subseteq F_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$ , and  $(n - 1)t = n - 1$ .

Note the similarity between this DFA restricted to the states  $E_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$  (or  $F_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$ ) and the witness for right ideals introduced in [7]. The argument for the size of the syntactic semigroup of right ideals is similar to this; see [10].

Finally, consider an arbitrary transformation  $t$  such that  $F_{n,k}t \subseteq F_{n,k} \cup \{n - 1\}$  and  $(n - 1)t = n - 1$ . Let  $j_t$  be the number of states  $p \in E_{n,k}$  such that  $pt \in F_{n,k}$ . We show by induction on  $j_t$  that  $t$  is in the transition semigroup of  $\mathcal{D}$ . If  $j_t = 0$ , then  $t$  is generated by  $\Sigma \setminus \{e\}$ . If  $j_t \geq 1$ , there exist  $p, q \in E_{n,k}$  such that  $pt \in F_{n,k}$  and  $q$  is not in the image of  $t$ . Consider the transformations  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  defined by  $qs_1 = pt$  and  $rs_1 = r$  for  $r \neq q$ , and  $ps_2 = q$  and  $rs_2 = rt$  for  $r \neq p$ . Then  $(rs_2)s_1 = rt$  for all  $r \in Q_n$ . Notice that  $j_{s_2} = j_t - 1$ , and hence  $\Sigma$  generates  $s_2$  by inductive assumption. One can verify that  $s_1 = (n - 1 - k, pt)(0, q)(0 \rightarrow n - 1 - k)(0, q)(n - 1 - k, pt)$ . From this expression, we see that  $s_1$  is the composition of transpositions induced by words in  $\{a, b\}^*$  and the transformation  $(0 \rightarrow n - 1 - k)$  induced by  $e$ , and hence  $s_1$  is generated by  $\Sigma$ . Thus,  $t$  is in the transition semigroup. By induction on  $j_t$ , it follows that the syntactic semigroup of  $L_{n,k}$  is maximal.

Now we show that seven letters are required to meet this bound. Two letters (like  $a$  and  $b$ ) are required to generate the permutations, since clearly one letter is not sufficient. Every other letter will induce a properly injective map. A letter (like  $c_1$ ) that induces a properly injective map on  $E_{n,k}$  and permutes  $F_{n,k}$  is required. Similarly, a letter (like  $c_2$ ) that permutes  $E_{n,k}$  and induces a properly injective map on  $F_{n,k}$  is required. A letter (like  $d_1$ ) that sends a state in  $E_{n,k}$  to  $n - 1$  and permutes  $F_{n,k}$  is required. Similarly, a letter (like  $d_2$ ) that sends a state in  $F_{n,k}$  to  $n - 1$  and permutes  $E_{n,k}$  is required. Finally, a letter (like  $e$ ) that connects  $E_{n,k}$  and  $F_{n,k}$  is required.

For a fixed  $n$ , we may want to know which  $k \in \{1, \dots, n - 2\}$  maximizes  $s_n(k) = n^{n-1-k}(k+1)^k$ ; this corresponds to the largest syntactic semigroup of a proper prefix-convex language with  $n$  quotients. We show that  $s_n(k)$  is largest at  $k = n - 2$ . Consider the ratio  $\frac{s_n(k+1)}{s_n(k)} = \frac{(k+2)^{k+1}}{n(k+1)^k}$ . Notice this ratio is increasing with  $k$ , and hence  $s_n$  is a convex function on  $\{1, \dots, n - 2\}$ . It follows that the maximum value of  $s_n$  must occur at one of the endpoints, 1 and  $n - 2$ .

Now we show that  $s_n(n - 2) \geq s_n(1)$  for all  $n \geq 3$ . We can check this explicitly for  $n = 3, 4, 5$ . When  $n \geq 6$ ,  $s_n(n - 2)/s_n(1) = \frac{n}{2} \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{n-2} \geq 3(1/e) > 1$ ; so the largest syntactic semigroup of  $L_{n,k}(\Sigma)$  occurs only at  $k = n - 2$  for all  $n \geq 3$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 4 (Reverse).** *For any regular language  $L$  of complexity  $n$  with an empty quotient, the reversal has complexity at most  $2^{n-1}$ . Moreover, the reverse of  $L_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_2, e)$  has complexity  $2^{n-1}$  for  $n \geq 3$  and  $1 \leq k \leq n-2$ .*

*Proof.* The first claim is left for the reader to verify. For the second claim, let  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k} = (Q_n, \{a, b, d_2, e\}, \delta_{n,k}, 0, F_{n,k})$  denote the DFA  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, -, d_2, e)$  in Definition 2 and let  $L_{n,k} = L(\mathcal{D}_{n,k})$ . Construct an NFA  $\mathcal{N}$  recognizing the reverse of  $L_{n,k}$  by reversing each transition, letting the initial state 0 be the unique final state, and letting the final states in  $F_{n,k}$  be the initial states. Applying the subset construction to  $\mathcal{N}$  yields a DFA  $\mathcal{D}^R$  whose states are subsets of  $Q_{n-1}$ , with initial state  $F_{n,k}$  and final states  $\{U \subseteq Q_{n-1} \mid 0 \in U\}$ . We show that  $\mathcal{D}^R$  is minimal, and hence the reverse of  $L_{n,k}$  has complexity  $2^{n-1}$ .

Recall from Lemma 2 that  $a$  and  $b$  generate all permutations of  $E_{n,k}$  and  $F_{n,k}$  in  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}$  and, although the transitions are reversed in  $\mathcal{D}^R$ , they still generate all such permutations. Let  $u_1, u_2 \in \{a, b\}^*$  be such that  $u_1$  induces  $(0, \dots, n-2-k)$  and  $u_2$  induces  $(n-1-k, \dots, n-2)$  in  $\mathcal{D}^R$ .

Consider a state  $U = \{q_1, \dots, q_h, n-1-k, \dots, n-2\}$  where  $0 \leq q_1 < q_2 < \dots < q_h \leq n-2-k$ . If  $h = 0$ , then  $U$  is the initial state. When  $h \geq 1$ ,  $\{q_2 - q_1, q_3 - q_1, \dots, q_h - q_1, n-1-k, \dots, n-2\}e u_1^{q_1} = U$ . By induction, all such states are reachable.

Now we show that any state  $U = \{q_1, \dots, q_h, p_1, \dots, p_i\}$  where  $0 \leq q_1 < q_2 < \dots < q_h \leq n-2-k$  and  $n-1-k \leq p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_i \leq n-2$  is reachable. If  $i = k$ , then  $U = \{q_1, \dots, q_h, n-1-k, \dots, n-2\}$  is reachable by the argument above. When  $0 \leq i < k$ , choose  $p \in F_{n,k} \setminus U$  and see that  $U$  is reached from  $U \cup \{p\}$  by  $u_2^{n-1-p} d_2 u_2^{p-(n-2-k)}$ . By induction, every state is reachable.

To prove distinguishability, consider distinct states  $U$  and  $V$ . Choose  $q \in U \oplus V$ . If  $q \in E_{n,k}$ , then  $U$  and  $V$  are distinguished by  $u_1^{n-1-k-q}$ . When  $q \in F_{n,k}$ , they are distinguished by  $u_2^{n-1-q}e$ . So  $\mathcal{D}^R$  is minimal.  $\square$

**Proposition 5 (Star).** *Let  $L$  be a regular language with  $n \geq 2$  quotients, including  $k \geq 1$  final quotients and one empty quotient. Then  $\kappa(L^*) \leq 2^{n-2} + 2^{n-2-k} + 1$ . This bound is tight for prefix-convex languages; in particular, the language  $(L_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, d_1, d_2, e))^*$  meets this bound for  $n \geq 3$  and  $1 \leq k \leq n-2$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $L$  has an empty quotient, let  $n-1$  be the empty state of its minimal DFA  $\mathcal{D}$ . To obtain an  $\varepsilon$ -NFA for  $L^*$ , we add a new initial state  $0'$  which is final and has the same transitions as 0. We then add an  $\varepsilon$ -transition from every state in  $F$  to 0. Applying the subset construction to this  $\varepsilon$ -NFA yields a DFA  $\mathcal{D}' = (Q', \Sigma, \delta', \{0'\}, F')$  recognizing  $L^*$ , in which  $Q'$  contains non-empty subsets of  $Q_n \cup \{0'\}$ .

Many of the states of  $Q'$  are unreachable or indistinguishable from other states. Since there is no transition in the  $\varepsilon$ -NFA to  $0'$ , the only reachable state in  $Q'$  containing  $0'$  is  $\{0'\}$ . As well, any reachable final state  $U \neq \{0'\}$  must contain 0 because of the  $\varepsilon$ -transitions. Finally, for any  $U \in Q'$ , we have  $U \in F'$  if and only if  $U \cup \{n-1\} \in F'$ , and since  $\delta'(U \cup \{n-1\}, w) = \delta'(U, w) \cup \{n-1\}$  for all  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , the states  $U$  and  $U \cup \{n-1\}$  are equivalent in  $\mathcal{D}'$ .

Hence  $\mathcal{D}'$  is equivalent to a DFA with the states  $\{\{0'\}\} \cup \{U \subseteq Q_{n-1} \mid U \cap F = \emptyset\} \cup \{U \subseteq Q_{n-1} \mid 0 \in U \text{ and } U \cap F \neq \emptyset\}$ . This DFA has  $1 + 2^{n-1-k} + (2^{n-2} - 2^{n-2-k}) = 2^{n-2} + 2^{n-2-k} + 1$  states. Thus,  $\kappa(L^*) \leq 2^{n-2} + 2^{n-2-k} + 1$ .

This bound applies when  $L$  is a prefix-convex language and  $n \geq 3$ . By Lemma 1,  $L$  is either a right ideal or has an empty state. If  $L$  is a right ideal, then  $\kappa(L^*) \leq n + 1$ , which is at most  $2^{n-2} + 2^{n-2-k} + 1$  for  $n \geq 3$ .

For the last claim, let  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}(a, b, -, -, d_1, d_2, e)$  of Definition 2 be denoted by  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k} = (Q_n, \{a, b, d_1, d_2, e\}, \delta_{n,k}, 0, F_{n,k})$  and let  $L_{n,k} = L(\mathcal{D}_{n,k})$ . We apply the same construction and reduction as before to obtain a DFA  $\mathcal{D}'_{n,k}$  recognizing  $L_{n,k}^*$  with states  $Q' = \{\{0'\}\} \cup \{U \subseteq E_{n,k}\} \cup \{U \subseteq Q_{n-1} \mid 0 \in U \text{ and } U \cap F_{n,k} \neq \emptyset\}$ . We show that the states of  $Q'$  are reachable and pairwise distinguishable.

By Lemma 2,  $a$  and  $b$  generate all permutations of  $E_{n,k}$  and  $F_{n,k}$  in  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}$ . Choose  $u_1, u_2 \in \{a, b\}^*$  such that  $u_1$  induces  $(0, \dots, n-2-k)$  and  $u_2$  induces  $(n-1-k, \dots, n-2)$  in  $\mathcal{D}_{n,k}$ .

For reachability, we consider three cases. (1) State  $\{0'\}$  is reachable by  $\varepsilon$ . (2) Let  $U \subseteq E_{n,k}$ . For any  $q \in E_{n,k}$ , we can reach  $U \setminus \{q\}$  by  $u_1^{n-2-k-q} d_1 u_1^q$ ; hence if  $U$  is reachable, then every subset of  $U$  is reachable. Observe that state  $E_{n,k}$  is reachable by  $e u_1^{n-2-k} d_2^k$ , and we can reach any subset of this state. Therefore, all non-final states are reachable. (3) If  $U \cap F_{n,k} \neq \emptyset$ , then  $U = \{0, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_h, r_1, \dots, r_i\}$  where  $0 < q_1 < \dots < q_h \leq n-2-k$  and  $n-1-k \leq r_1 < \dots < r_i < n-1$  and  $i \geq 1$ . We prove that  $U$  is reachable by induction on  $i$ . If  $i = 0$ , then  $U$  is reachable by (2). For any  $i \geq 1$ , we can reach  $U$  from  $\{0, q_1, \dots, q_h, r_2 - (r_1 - (n-1-k)), \dots, r_i - (r_1 - (n-1-k))\}$  by  $e u_2^{r_1 - (n-1-k)}$ . Therefore, all states of this form are reachable.

Now we show that the states are pairwise distinguishable. (1) The initial state  $\{0'\}$  is distinguishable from any other final state  $U$  since  $\{0'\}u_1$  is non-final and  $Uu_1$  is final. (2) If  $U$  and  $V$  are distinct subsets of  $E_{n,k}$ , then there is some  $q \in U \oplus V$ . We distinguish  $U$  and  $V$  by  $u_1^{n-1-k-q} e$ . (3) If  $U$  and  $V$  are distinct and final and neither one is  $\{0'\}$ , then there is some  $q \in U \oplus V$ . If  $q \in E_{n,k}$ , then  $U d_2^k = U \setminus F_{n,k}$  and  $V d_2^k = V \setminus F_{n,k}$  are distinct, non-final states as in (2). Otherwise,  $q \in F_{n,k}$  and we distinguish  $U$  and  $V$  by  $u_2^{n-1-q} d_2^{k-1}$ .  $\square$

### 3 Conclusions

The bounds for prefix-convex languages (see also [8]) are summarized in Table 1. The largest bounds are shown in boldface type, and they are reached either in the class of right-ideal languages or the class of proper languages. Recall that for regular languages we have the following results: semigroup  $n^n$ , reverse  $2^n$ , star  $2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2}$ , product  $m2^n - 2^{n-1}$ , boolean operations  $mn$ .

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**Table 1.** Complexities of prefix-convex languages

	Right-Ideal	Prefix-Closed	Prefix-Free	Proper
SeGr	$\mathbf{n}^{n-1}$	$\mathbf{n}^{n-1}$	$n^{n-2}$	$n^{n-1-k}(k+1)^k$
Rev	$\mathbf{2}^{n-1}$	$\mathbf{2}^{n-1}$	$2^{n-2} + 1$	$\mathbf{2}^{n-1}$
Star	$n + 1$	$2^{n-2} + 1$	$n$	$\mathbf{2}^{n-2} + \mathbf{2}^{n-2-k} + 1$
Prod	$m + 2^{n-2}$	$(m+1)2^{n-2}$	$m + n - 2$	$\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{j}2^{n-2} + \mathbf{2}^{n-1}$
$\cup$	$mn - (m + n - 2)$	$\mathbf{mn}$	$mn - 2$	$\mathbf{mn}$
$\oplus$	$\mathbf{mn}$	$\mathbf{mn}$	$mn - 2$	$\mathbf{mn}$
$\setminus$	$\mathbf{mn} - (\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{1})$	$\mathbf{mn} - (\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{1})$	$mn - (m + 2n - 4)$	$\mathbf{mn} - (\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{1})$
$\cap$	$\mathbf{mn}$	$mn - (m + n - 2)$	$mn - 2(m + n - 3)$	$mn - (m + n - 2)$

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