

⑤ Checking whether two given DFA's accept the same language

Given  $B_1, B_2$  DFA's, test whether  $L(B_1) = L(B_2)$ .

We rewrite this problem as the language

$$EQ_{DFA} = \{ \langle B_1, B_2 \rangle \mid B_1 \text{ and } B_2 \text{ are DFA's and } L(B_1) = L(B_2) \}.$$

Theorem  $EQ_{DFA}$  is a Turing-decidable language.

Proof Given two sets  $\Gamma$  and  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Gamma \neq \Sigma$  if  $\exists x \in \Gamma$  such that  $x \notin \Sigma$  (i.e.  $\Gamma \setminus \Sigma \neq \emptyset$ ) or  $\exists x \in \Sigma$  such that  $x \notin \Gamma$  (i.e.  $\Sigma \setminus \Gamma \neq \emptyset$ ).

Recall from our unit on set theory that  $\Gamma \setminus \Sigma = \Gamma \cap \bar{\Sigma}$ ,  $\Gamma$  intersect the complement of  $\Sigma$ , similarly,  $\Sigma \setminus \Gamma = \Sigma \cap \bar{\Gamma}$ . Therefore,  $\Gamma \neq \Sigma$

$\Leftrightarrow (\Gamma \cap \bar{\Sigma}) \cup (\Sigma \cap \bar{\Gamma}) \neq \emptyset$ . This expression is called the symmetric

difference of sets  $\Gamma$  and  $\Sigma$  in set theory. Now, returning to our

problem, note that  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are DFA's  $\Rightarrow L(B_1)$  and  $L(B_2)$  are regular languages. Furthermore, we showed the set of regular languages is closed under union, intersection, and the taking of complements

$\Rightarrow (L(B_1) \cap \bar{L(B_2)}) \cup (L(B_2) \cap \bar{L(B_1)})$  is a regular language  $\Rightarrow \exists C$

a DFA that recognizes the symmetric difference of  $L(B_1)$  and  $L(B_2)$

$(L(B_1) \cap \bar{L(B_2)}) \cup (L(B_2) \cap \bar{L(B_1)})$ .  $L(B_1) = L(B_2)$  if this symmetric

difference is empty  $\Rightarrow \forall \langle B_1, B_2 \rangle \in EQ_{DFA} \exists \langle C \rangle \in EDFA$ , the

language corresponding to the emptiness testing problem. Since  $EDFA$  is

Turing-decidable,  $EQ_{DFA}$  is Turing-decidable. (g.c.d.).

Next, we look at context-free grammars (CFG's) that we studied last term.

⑥  $L_{CFG} = \{ \langle G, w \rangle \mid G \text{ is a CFG and } w \text{ is a string} \}$

Theorem  $L_{CFG}$  is a Turing-decidable language.

Sketch of proof We could try to go through all possible applications of production rules allowable under  $G$  to see whether we can generate  $w$ , but infinitely many derivations may need to be tried. Therefore,

if  $G$  does not generate  $w$ , our algorithm would not halt. (70)  
 We would thus have a Turing machine that is a recognizer but not a decider. To get a decider, we have to put  $G$  into a special form called a Chomsky normal form that takes  $2n-1$  steps to generate a string  $w$  of length  $n$ . We do not need to know what a Chomsky normal form is, just that one exists in order to write down our decider  $M$ :

$M =$  on input  $\langle G, w \rangle$ , where  $G$  is a context-free grammar and  $w$  is a string.

1. Convert  $G$  to an equivalent grammar in Chomsky normal form.
2. List all derivations with  $2n-1$  steps, where  $n$  is the length of  $w$  if  $n > 0$ . If  $n = 0$ , list all derivations with one step.
3. If any of these derivations generates  $w$ , then accept; otherwise, reject.

(end)

### (7) Emptiness testing for context-free grammars

Given a context-free grammar  $G$ , figure out whether the language it generates  $L(G)$  is empty or not.

Rewrite as a language  $E_{CFG} = \{ \langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a CFG and } L(G) = \emptyset \}$

Theorem  $E_{CFG}$  is a Turing-decidable language.

Proof We use a similar marking argument as we did to show  $E_{DFA}$  was Turing-decidable. We define the Turing machine as

$M =$  on input  $\langle G \rangle$ , where  $G$  is a CFG:

1. Mark all terminal symbols in  $G$
2. Repeat until no new variables get marked:
3. Mark any nonterminal  $\langle T \rangle$  if  $G$  contains a production rule  $\langle T \rangle \rightarrow u_1 \dots u_k$ , and each symbol (terminal or non-terminal)  $u_1, \dots, u_k$  has already been marked.

4. If the start symbol  $\langle S \rangle$  is not marked, accept; otherwise, reject.

As we can see from step 4, if  $\langle S \rangle$  is marked, then the context-free grammar will end up generating at least one string as all terminals have already been marked in step 1. Therefore,  $L(G) \neq \emptyset$ , and we reject  $G$ .

(g.o.d.)

### ⑨ Equivalence problem for context-free grammars

Given two context-free grammars,  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , determine whether they generate the same language, i.e.  $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$ .

Rewrite this problem as a language:

$$EQ_{CFG} = \{ \langle G_1, G_2 \rangle \mid G_1 \text{ and } G_2 \text{ are CFG's and } L(G_1) = L(G_2) \}.$$

To solve the equivalence problem for DFA's, we used the symmetric difference and the fact that the emptiness problem for DFA's is Turing-decidable. In this case, the emptiness problem for CFG's is Turing-decidable as we just proved, but the symmetric difference argument does NOT work as the set of languages produced by context-free grammars is NOT closed under complements or intersection so the following result is true instead:

Proposition  $EQ_{CFG}$  is not a Turing-decidable language.

This proposition is proven using a technique called reducibility.