

# Decidability

**Recall:** A language  $L$  is *decidable* if there exists a TM  $M$  such that  $M$  recognizes  $L$  and  $M$  is a decider (always halts).

# Encoding Objects as Strings

Many of our examples of computational problems will themselves concern computational devices (such as DFAs or TMs), as well as other structured objects.

- We need a notation for encoding such structured objects as strings.
- For example, a DFA  $A$  can be encoded by listing the tuples that define its transition function, with suitable “punctuation”:

$$(q_1 \# a_1 \# b_1)(q_2 \# a_2 \# b_2) \dots (q_n \# a_n \# b_n)$$

- We want a standard notation that can encode arbitrarily large DFAs using a single tape alphabet. One way to do this is to represent states and input symbols by binary numerals:

(0000#00#0001)(0001#01#0000)...(1101#00#1000)

An input to the DFA can similarly be represented:

(00#01#10#00#00#11)

- We will write  $\langle x \rangle$  for the string that encodes object  $x$ .
- For decidability theory, the specific details are pretty unimportant, other than that a TM can “understand” the encoding.
- For complexity theory, we will sometimes have to pay closer attention.

# Examples of Decidable Problems

## The “Acceptance Problem” for DFAs:

$$A_{\text{DFA}} = \{\langle A, w \rangle \mid A \text{ is a DFA that accepts } w\}$$

**Theorem 4.1:**  $A_{\text{DFA}}$  is decidable.

**Proof:** We construct a TM  $M$  that operates as follows:

- On input  $\langle A, w \rangle$ , simulate DFA  $A$  on input  $w$ . If  $A$  accepts,  $M$  accepts. If  $A$  does not accept,  $M$  rejects.

It is important that the simulation of  $A$  always terminates, otherwise  $M$  would not be a decider.

If the input string to  $M$  is not of the form  $\langle A, w \rangle$ , then  $M$  rejects. We will generally not mention this detail.

## The “Acceptance Problem” for NFAs:

$$A_{\text{NFA}} = \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a NFA that accepts } w\}$$

**Theorem 4.2:**  $A_{\text{NFA}}$  is decidable.

**Proof:** (*Book version*) We construct a TM  $M$  that operates as follows:

- On input  $\langle B, w \rangle$ :
  - Convert  $A$  to an equivalent DFA  $A$  (how?).
  - Run the TM  $M$  from Th. 4.1 on input  $\langle A, w \rangle$ .
  - If  $M$  accepts, accept, otherwise reject.

The book points out that “run the TM  $M$  from Th. 4.1” implies incorporating  $M$  into the design of the present TM.

How else could this theorem have been proved?

## The “Acceptance Problem” for Regular Expressions:

$$A_{\text{REX}} = \{\langle R, w \rangle \mid R \text{ is a regular expression with } w \in L(R)\}$$

**Theorem 4.3:**  $A_{\text{REX}}$  is decidable.

**Proof:** Similar to Th. 4.2.

How else could this be proved?



## The “Emptiness Problem” for DFAs:

$$E_{\text{DFA}} = \{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a DFA with } L(A) = \emptyset\}$$

**Theorem 4.4:**  $E_{\text{DFA}}$  is decidable.

**Proof:** We construct a TM  $M$  that operates as follows:

- On input  $\langle A \rangle$ :
  - Determine the set of states  $S$  of  $A$  that are reachable from the start state (how?).
  - If any accept state of  $A$  is in  $S$ , then accept, otherwise reject.

## The “Equivalence Problem” for DFAs:

$$\text{EQ}_{\text{DFA}} = \{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs with } L(A) = L(B)\}$$

**Theorem 4.5:**  $\text{EQ}_{\text{DFA}}$  is decidable.

**Proof:** Construct a DFA  $C$  such that  $L(C)$  is the *symmetric difference* of  $L(A)$  and  $L(B)$ . Then run the TM  $M$  of Th. 4.4 on  $C$ . If  $M$  accepts, accept, otherwise reject.

What is the idea for constructing  $C$ ?

# Decidability and Regular Languages

**Moral:** Pretty much every decision problem you can think of for DFAs and regular languages is decidable.

# Decision Problems involving Context-Free Grammars

## The “Acceptance Problem” for CFGs:

$$A_{\text{CFG}} = \{\langle G, w \rangle \mid G \text{ is a CFG that generates } w\}$$

**Theorem 4.7:**  $A_{\text{CFG}}$  is decidable.

**Proof:** On input  $\langle G, w \rangle$ , convert  $G$  to Chomsky normal form, then systematically enumerate all derivations with  $2|w| - 1$  steps, where  $|w|$  is the length of string  $w$ . If any derivation generates  $w$ , then accept, otherwise reject.

The point of converting to Chomsky normal form is to be able to bound the length of a derivation of  $w$ .

**Alternative Proof:** On input  $\langle G, w \rangle$ , convert to Chomsky normal form and then apply the Cocke-Younger-Kasami algorithm to determine if  $G$  derives  $w$ . The CYK algorithm is much more efficient than a brute-force enumeration of derivations.

## The “Emptiness Problem” for CFGs:

$$E_{CFG} = \{\langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a CFG with } L(G) = \emptyset\}$$

**Theorem 4.8:**  $E_{CFG}$  is decidable.

**Proof:** Construct a TM  $M$  that implements the following “fixed-point iteration” algorithm:

**Stage 0:** Mark each terminal symbol of  $G$ .

**Stage  $n$ :** If  $G$  contains a rule  $A \rightarrow \gamma$ , where all symbols in  $\gamma$  are already marked, then mark  $A$ .

Repeat until no new symbols are marked.

*If the start symbol of  $G$  is not marked, then accept, otherwise reject.*

Note that the loop never runs for more than  $|V|$  iterations, where  $|V|$  is the number of variables (*why?*).

We can prove (*how?*) that symbol  $A$  is eventually marked if and only if  $A$  derives some sentence.

**Prove by induction:** For all  $n \geq 1$ , and all variables  $A$ ,  $A$  derives some sentence via a parse tree of height at most  $n$ , if and only if  $A$  is marked by stage  $n$ .

- Fix  $n \geq 1$  and suppose the result has been shown true for all  $m < n$ .

Then  $A$  derives some sentence via a parse tree of height at most  $n$  if and only if there is some rule  $A \rightarrow \gamma$  such that each variable in  $\gamma$  derives some sentence via a parse tree of height at most  $m$ , where  $m < n$ .

This is true if and only if every variable in  $\gamma$  is marked by some stage  $m < n$ .

This is true if and only if  $A$  is marked by stage  $n$ .

(Recall: all terminals are already marked by stage 1).



**Theorem 4.9:** Every context-free language is decidable.

How is this different than Th. 4.7?

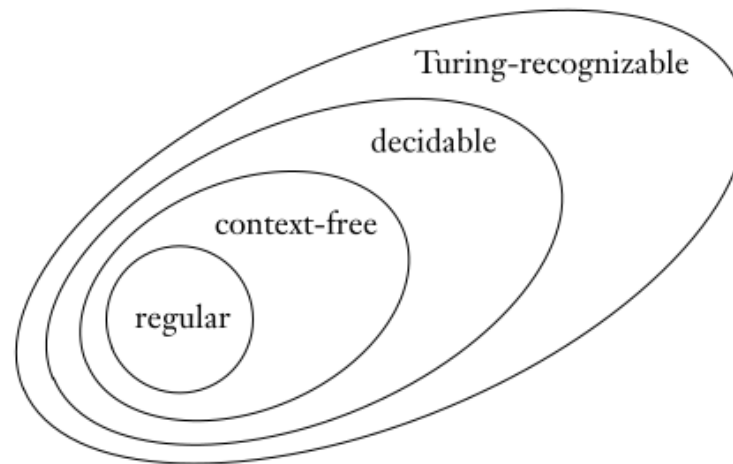
**Proof:** Suppose  $L = L(G)$  for some CFG  $G$ . Construct a TM  $M$  that operates as follows:

- On input  $w$ , run the TM for  $A_{CFG}$  on input  $w$ . If this computation accepts, then accept, otherwise reject.

Here “run the TM for  $A_{CFG}$ ” means that this TM is built in as a subroutine of  $M$ .

# Relationship between Classes of Languages

(from Sipser)



**FIGURE 4.10**  
The relationship among classes of languages

## The “Equivalence Problem” for CFGs:

$$\text{EQ}_{\text{CFG}} = \{\langle G, H \rangle \mid G \text{ and } H \text{ are CFGs with } L(G) = L(H)\}$$

### Note:

- We can't determine if  $L(G) = L(H)$  by enumerating strings; there are infinitely many.
- We can't use the symmetric difference trick we used for DFAs, because the class of CFLs is *not* closed under symmetric difference (it is closed under union, but not under intersection and complementation).

In fact,  $\text{EQ}_{\text{CFG}}$  is *undecidable* (to be shown later).