# Ambiguity in a certain context-free grammar

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August 27, 2010

## outline of the talk

- introduction
- 2 one-parameter families of trees
- a two-parameter family
- general families
- reducing a pair of trees

# the context-free grammar G

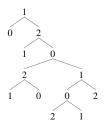
start symbols: 0, 1, 2

formation rules:  $0 \rightarrow 12$ ,  $0 \rightarrow 21$ ,  $1 \rightarrow 02$ ,  $1 \rightarrow 20$ ,  $2 \rightarrow 01$ ,  $2 \rightarrow 10$ 

An *n*-leaf tree T parses a length-n word w on  $\{0, 1, 2\}$  if T is a valid derivation tree for w under G.

For example, the tree parses 0110212:





The set of possible derivation trees under G is the set of binary trees.

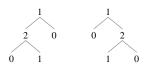
# ambiguity

The grammar *G* is ambiguous; there exist distinct trees that parse a common word.

The trees



both parse 010:



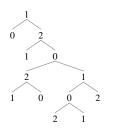
# another example

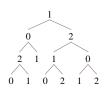
#### The trees





#### both parse 0110212:

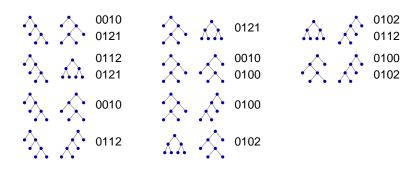




# a much stronger statement

#### **Theorem**

Let  $n \ge 1$ , and let  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  be n-leaf binary trees. Then  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  parse a common word under G.



#### motivation

#### Theorem (Louis Kauffman, 1990)

The following are equivalent.

- Every pair of n-leaf binary trees parses a common word under G.
- Every planar map is four-colorable.

The four color theorem was proved in 1976 by Appel, Haken, and Koch and employed a case analysis carried out by machine.

Perhaps a word-theoretic proof of the four color theorem will be shorter than known proofs.

#### a word invariant

#### **Proposition**

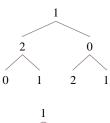
Let w be a word of length n on  $\{0,1,2\}$  and T an n-leaf binary tree that parses w. Then for some permutation (i,j,k) of (0,1,2),

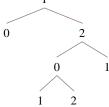
$$|w|_i \equiv |w|_j \not\equiv |w|_k \equiv |w| \mod 2.$$

Moreover, the root of T receives the label k when parsing w.

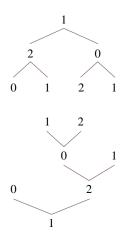
*Proof.* The congruence holds for words of length 1, and the formation rules  $0 \to 12$ ,  $0 \to 21$ ,  $1 \to 02$ ,  $1 \to 20$ ,  $2 \to 01$ ,  $2 \to 10$  preserve it because all four terms change parity with each rule application.

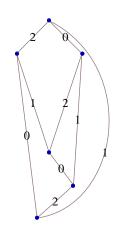
# sketch of correspondence

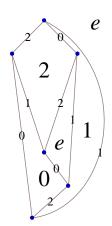




# sketch of correspondence

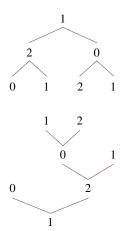


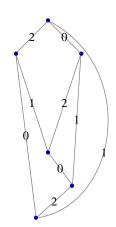


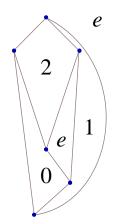


 $\{e,0,1,2\}$  is the Klein 4-group.

# sketch of correspondence







# equivalence classes of parse words

Let ParseWords( $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ) be the set of equivalence classes of words parsed by both trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .

We abuse notation slightly by writing a representative of each class.

For example, ParseWords(
$$\bigwedge$$
,  $\bigwedge$ ) = {0121}.

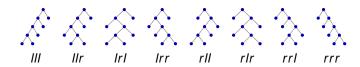
The four color theorem is equivalent to the statement that for every pair of n-leaf binary trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  we have ParseWords $(T_1, T_2) \neq \{\}$ .

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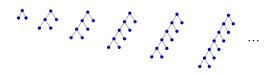
## path trees

A path tree is a binary tree with at most two vertices on each level.

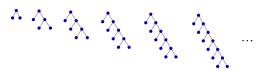


#### comb trees

Let LeftCombTree(n) be the n-leaf path tree corresponding to  $I^{n-2}$ .



Let RightCombTree(n) be the n-leaf path tree corresponding to  $r^{n-2}$ .



## a pair of comb trees

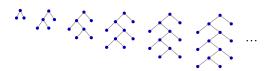
#### **Theorem**

ParseWords(LeftCombTree(n), RightCombTree(n)) =

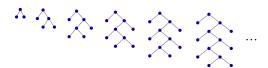
$$\begin{cases} \{01^{n-2}2\} & \text{if } n \ge 2 \text{ is even} \\ \{01^{n-2}0\} & \text{if } n \ge 3 \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

#### crooked trees

Let LeftCrookedTree(n) be the path tree corresponding to  $(Ir)^{(n-2)/2}$ .



Let RightCrookedTree(n) be the path tree corresponding to  $(rl)^{(n-2)/2}$ .



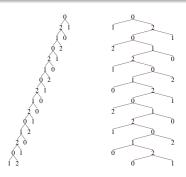
#### a comb tree and a crooked tree

#### Theorem

ParseWords(LeftCombTree(n), RightCrookedTree(n)) =

$$\begin{cases} \left\{ \bmod(1-n,3) \left( (012)^{n/6} \right)^R (012)^{(n-2)/6} \right\} & \text{if } n \ge 2 \text{ is even} \\ \left\{ \bmod(1-n,3) \left( (012)^{(n-3)/6} \right)^R (012)^{(n+1)/6} \right\} & \text{if } n \ge 3 \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

if  $n \ge 2$  is even



## a pair of crooked trees

The number of parse words is generally not constant.

#### **Theorem**

For  $n \geq 2$ ,

 $|ParseWords(LeftCrookedTree(n), RightCrookedTree(n))| = 2^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1}$ 

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## trees with one turn

Let LeftTurnTree(m, n) and RightTurnTree(m, n) be the (m + n)-leaf path trees corresponding to  $I^m r^{n-2}$  and  $r^m I^{n-2}$ .

For example, LeftTurnTree(2,3) =.

The next three theorems collectively enumerate parse words of LeftTurnTree(m, n) and RightTurnTree(k, m + n - k).

#### **Theorem**

For  $m \ge 1$ ,  $k \ge 1$ , and  $\max(2, k - m + 2) \le n \le k$ ,

|ParseWords(LeftTurnTree(m, n), RightTurnTree(k, m + n - k))| = 1.

## trees with one turn

Let

$$a(m, k) = |ParseWords(LeftTurnTree(m, k+1), RightTurnTree(k, m+1))|.$$

By symmetry, a(m, k) = a(k, m).

#### **Theorem**

For 
$$m \ge 1$$
,  $k \ge 1$ , and  $n \ge k + 2$ ,

$$|ParseWords(LeftTurnTree(m, n), RightTurnTree(k, m + n - k))|$$
  
=  $2a(m, k)$ .

# recurrence satisfied by a(m, k)

#### Theorem

For  $m \ge 1$  and  $k \ge 1$ ,

$$a(m+3,k)-2a(m+2,k)-a(m+1,k)+2a(m,k)=0.$$

No simple combinatorial proof known.

This recurrence can be written

$$(M-2)(M-1)(M+1) a(m,k) = 0.$$

For fixed k, the solution a(m, k) is a linear combination of  $2^m, 1, (-1)^m$ .

# main component of proof

Consider the labels of the internal vertices rather than of the leaves.

If the internal vertices of a path tree are labeled with v, the labeling can be extended to a parse word precisely when v is alternating — no two consecutive letters are equal.

Let  $A_m$  be the set of alternating words of the form  $0v_2v_3\cdots v_{m-1}(1|2)$ . Let  $B_m$  be the set of alternating words of the form  $0v_2v_3\cdots v_{m-1}(0|2)$ .

#### **Proposition**

For 
$$m \ge 2$$
,  $|A_m| = (2^m + 2(-1)^m)/3$  and  $|B_m| = (2^m - (-1)^m)/3$ .

## outline of the talk

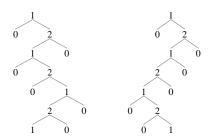
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# trees sharing a bottom leaf

## Proposition

Let  $n \ge 3$ . If leaf i is a bottom leaf in two n-leaf path trees, then the trees both parse the word  $0^{k-1}10^{n-k}$  for some  $2 \le k \le n-1$ .

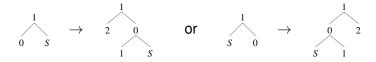
Proof by example.



# extending a pair of binary trees

Suppose  $T_1'$  and  $T_2'$  are n-leaf binary trees parsing w. Fix  $1 \le i \le n$ . We may assume  $w_i = 0$  and that the parent of leaf i in  $T_2'$  receives 1.

Obtain  $T_2$  by duplicating leaf i in  $T_2'$  by performing the replacement



depending on whether leaf i is a left leaf or right leaf in  $T'_2$ .

Then  $T_2$  parses the word obtained by replacing  $w_i$  by 21 or 12.

# extending a pair of binary trees

Extend  $T'_1$  by attaching  $\Lambda$  to leaf i, obtaining  $T_1$ . Clearly  $T_1$  parses both of these words.

Moreover, every parse word of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  arises uniquely in this way.

#### **Proposition**

$$|\mathsf{ParseWords}(T_1, T_2)| = |\mathsf{ParseWords}(T_1', T_2')|.$$

In particular,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  have a common parse word.

#### corollaries

#### Theorem

Let  $n \ge 2$ , and let T be an n-leaf binary tree. Let I be the level of leaf 1 in T. Then  $|\mathsf{ParseWords}(T,\mathsf{LeftCombTree}(n))| = 2^{l-1}$ .

For example, ParseWords(
$$(1,0,0)$$
) = 
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0100120, \\ 0102102, \\ 0111021, \\ 0112012 \end{array} \right\}.$$

#### **Theorem**

Let  $n \ge 4$ . Let  $T_1$  be an n-leaf binary tree and  $T_2$  an n-leaf left turn tree. Then  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  have a common parse word.

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# decomposable pairs

If two trees have a common branch system in the same position, we can decompose the pair into two smaller pairs. For example,

$$T_1 =$$
  $T_2 =$ 

share the branch system

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^{n}$$

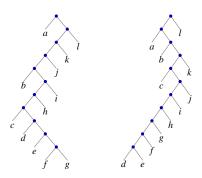
which we remove to obtain the 5-leaf trees



We can find a parse word for the original pair from a parse word for this smaller pair and any valid labeling of *S*.

# decomposable pairs — general trees

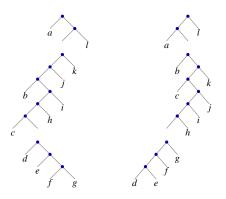
#### Consider the pair



More generally, we only require dangling subtrees  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  with the same set of leaves.

# decomposable pairs — general trees

Breaking the trees at levels 2 and 8 as

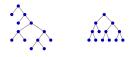


produces the same partition  $\{\{a,l\},\{b,c,h,i,j,k\},\{d,e,f,g\}\}$  of the leaves in both trees.

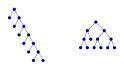
#### mutual crookedness

A pair of n-leaf trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  is mutually crooked if it cannot be obtained by duplicating some leaf i in a pair of (n-1)-leaf trees.

For example,



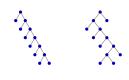
are mutually crooked, while the following are not.



#### weak mutual crookedness

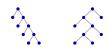
A pair of *n*-leaf trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  is weakly mutually crooked if it cannot be obtained by triplicating some leaf i in a pair of (n-2)-leaf trees.

Each tree in the pair





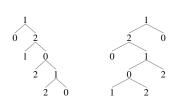
Shortening this comb by two leaves produces the pair

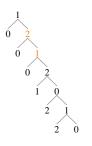


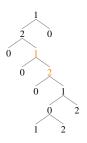
which parses 01220.

#### weak mutual crookedness

We can re-insert the two leaves and obtain a parse word for the original pair by alternating the internal vertex labels.







#### **Theorem**

A pair of trees that is not weakly mutually crooked is reducible.

#### mutual crookedness

However, it appears that something stronger is true.

## Conjecture

A pair of trees that is not mutually crooked is reducible.

The two consecutive leaves conjecturally receive the same label. But there is no obvious relationship between the parse words.

## summary

- The parse words of simple parameterized families can often be determined/enumerated.
- The number of parse words of LeftTurnTree(m, n) and RightTurnTree(k, m + n - k) is given by a simple recurrence of order 3.
- To prove the "four color theorem for path trees" it suffices to consider indecomposable, weakly mutually crooked pairs of path trees that do not share a bottom leaf!