#### Parse Trees

• If  $w \in L(G)$ , for some CFG, then w has a parse tree, which tells us the (syntactic) structure of w

• w could be a program, a SQL-query, an XMLdocument, etc.

• Parse trees are an alternative representation to derivations and recursive inferences.

• There can be several parse trees for the same string

• Ideally there should be only one parse tree (the "true" structure) for each string, i.e. the language should be *unambiguous*.

• Unfortunately, we cannot always remove the ambiguity.

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### **Constructing Parse Trees**

Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG. A tree is a *parse* tree for G if:

- 1. Each interior node is labelled by a variable in V.
- 2. Each leaf is labelled by a symbol in  $V \cup T \cup \{\epsilon\}$ . Any  $\epsilon$ -labelled leaf is the only child of its parent.
- 3. If an interior node is lablelled A, and its children (from left to right) labelled

$$X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k,$$

then  $A \to X_1 X_2 \dots X_k \in P$ .

Example: In the grammar

1. 
$$E \rightarrow I$$
  
2.  $E \rightarrow E + E$   
3.  $E \rightarrow E * E$   
4.  $E \rightarrow (E)$   
 $\vdots$ 

the following is a parse tree:



This parse tree shows the derivation  $E \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} I + E$ 

Example: In the grammar

1. 
$$P \rightarrow \epsilon$$
  
2.  $P \rightarrow 0$   
3.  $P \rightarrow 1$   
4.  $P \rightarrow 0P0$   
5.  $P \rightarrow 1P1$ 

the following is a parse tree:



It shows the derivation of  $P \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} 0110$ .

### The Yield of a Parse Tree

The *yield* of a parse tree is the string of leaves from left to right.

Important are those parse trees where:

- 1. The yield is a terminal string.
- 2. The root is labelled by the start symbol

We shall see the the set of yields of these important parse trees is the language of the grammar.

#### Example: Below is an important parse tree



The yield is a \* (a + b00).

Compare the parse tree with the derivation on slide 141.

Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG, and  $A \in V$ . We are going to show that the following are equivalent:

- 1. We can determine by recursive inference that w is in the language of A
- 2.  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$
- 3.  $A \stackrel{*}{\underset{lm}{\Rightarrow}} w$ , and  $A \stackrel{*}{\underset{rm}{\Rightarrow}} w$
- 4. There is a parse tree of G with root A and yield w.

To prove the equivalences, we use the following plan.



#### From Inferences to Trees

**Theorem 5.12:** Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG, and suppose we can <u>show</u> w to be in the language of a variable A. Then there is a parse tree for G with root A and yield w.



**Proof:** We do an induction of the length of the inference.

**Basis:** One step. Then we must have used a production  $A \rightarrow w$ . The desired parse tree is then



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**Induction:** w is inferred in n + 1 steps. Suppose the last step was based on a production

$$A \to X_1 X_2 \cdots X_k,$$

where  $X_i \in V \cup T$ . We break w up as

$$w_1w_2\cdots w_k$$
,

where  $w_i = X_i$ , when  $X_i \in T$ , and when  $X_i \in V$ , then  $w_i$  was previously inferred being in  $X_i$ , in at most n steps.

By the IH there are parse trees i with root  $X_i$ and yield  $w_i$ . Then the following is a parse tree for G with root A and yield w:



#### From trees to derivations

We'll show how to construct a leftmost derivation from a parse tree.

Example: In the grammar of slide 6 there clearly is a derivation

 $E \Rightarrow I \Rightarrow Ib \Rightarrow ab.$ 

Then, for any  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  there is a derivation

$$\alpha E\beta \Rightarrow \alpha I\beta \Rightarrow \alpha Ib\beta \Rightarrow \alpha ab\beta.$$

For example, suppose we have a derivation

$$E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + (E).$$

The we can choose  $\alpha = E + ($  and  $\beta = )$  and continue the derivation as

$$E + (E) \Rightarrow E + (I) \Rightarrow E + (Ib) \Rightarrow E + (ab).$$

This is why CFG's are called context-free.

**Theorem 5.14:** Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG, and suppose there is a parse tree with root labelled A and yield w. Then  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$  in G.

**Proof:** We do an induction on the height of the parse tree.

Basis: Height is 1. The tree must look like



Consequently  $A \to w \in P$ , and  $A \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} w$ .

**Induction:** Height is n + 1. The tree must look like



Then  $w = w_1 w_2 \cdots w_k$ , where

1. If  $X_i \in T$ , then  $w_i = X_i$ .

2. If  $X_i \in V$ , then  $X_i \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_{lm} w_i$  in G by the IH.

Now we construct  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$  by an (inner) induction by showing that

$$\forall i : A \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} w_1 w_2 \cdots w_i X_{i+1} X_{i+2} \cdots X_k.$$

**Basis:** Let i = 0. We already know that  $A \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} X_1 X_{i+2} \cdots X_k$ .

Induction: Make the IH that

$$A \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} w_1 w_2 \cdots w_{i-1} X_i X_{i+1} \cdots X_k.$$

(*Case 1:*)  $X_i \in T$ . Do nothing, since  $X_i = w_i$  gives us

$$A \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} w_1 w_2 \cdots w_i X_{i+1} \cdots X_k.$$

(*Case 2:*)  $X_i \in V$ . By the IH there is a derivation  $X_i \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} \alpha_1 \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} \alpha_2 \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} \cdots \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} w_i$ . By the contexfree property of derivations we can proceed with

 $A \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow}_{lm}$ 

$$w_1 w_2 \cdots w_{i-1} X_i X_{i+1} \cdots X_k \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow}$$
$$w_1 w_2 \cdots w_{i-1} \alpha_1 X_{i+1} \cdots X_k \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow}$$
$$w_1 w_2 \cdots w_{i-1} \alpha_2 X_{i+1} \cdots X_k \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow}$$

$$w_1w_2\cdots w_{i-1}w_iX_{i+1}\cdots X_k$$

. . .

Example: Let's construct the leftmost derivation for the tree



Suppose we have inductively constructed the leftmost derivation

$$E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} I \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a$$

corresponding to the leftmost subtree, and the leftmost derivation

$$E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} (E) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} (E+E) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} (I+E) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} (a+E) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow}$$
$$(a+I) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} (a+I0) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} (a+I00) \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} (a+b00)$$

corresponding to the righmost subtree.

For the derivation corresponding to the whole tree we start with  $E \Rightarrow E * E$  and expand the first E with the first derivation and the second E with the second derivation:

$$E \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$E * E \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$I * E \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * E \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (E) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (E + E) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (E + E) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (A + E) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (a + E) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (a + I) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (a + I0) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (a + I00) \Longrightarrow_{lm}$$

$$a * (a + b00)$$

#### From Derivations to Recursive Inferences

Observation: Suppose that  $A \Rightarrow X_1 X_2 \cdots X_k \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$ . Then  $w = w_1 w_2 \cdots w_k$ , where  $X_i \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w_i$ 

The factor  $w_i$  can be extracted from  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$  by looking at the expansion of  $X_i$  only.

Example:  $E \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} a * b + a$ , and

$$E \Rightarrow \underbrace{E}_{X_1} \underbrace{*}_{X_2} \underbrace{E}_{X_3} \underbrace{+}_{X_4} \underbrace{E}_{X_5}$$

We have

 $E \Rightarrow \qquad E * E + E \Rightarrow I * E + E \Rightarrow I * I + E \Rightarrow$  $I * I + I \Rightarrow a * I + I \Rightarrow a * b + I \Rightarrow a * b + a$ 

By looking at the expansion of  $X_3 = E$  only, we can extract

$$E \Rightarrow I \Rightarrow b.$$

**Theorem 5.18:** Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG. Suppose  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$ , and that w is a string of terminals. Then we can infer that w is in the language of variable A.

**Proof:** We do an induction on the length of the derivation  $A \stackrel{*}{\xrightarrow[c]{\rightarrow}} w$ .

**Basis:** One step. If  $A \Rightarrow w$  there must be a production  $A \rightarrow w$  in P. The we can infer that w is in the language of A.

**Induction:** Suppose  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_{G} w$  in n + 1 steps. Write the derivation as

$$A \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} X_1 X_2 \cdots X_k \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} w$$

The as noted on the previous slide we can break w as  $w_1w_2\cdots w_k$  where  $X_i \stackrel{*}{\xrightarrow[]{G}} w_i$ . Furthermore,  $X_i \stackrel{*}{\xrightarrow[]{G}} w_i$  can use at most n steps.

Now we have a production  $A \to X_1 X_2 \cdots X_k$ , and we know by the IH that we can infer  $w_i$  to be in the language of  $X_i$ .

Therefore we can infer  $w_1w_2\cdots w_k$  to be in the language of A.

Gram Matic (Paul Cernea):

https://itunes.apple.com/ca/app/gram-matic/id914302373?mt=8

#### **Ambiguity in Grammars and Languages**

In the grammar

1. 
$$E \rightarrow I$$
  
2.  $E \rightarrow E + E$   
3.  $E \rightarrow E * E$   
4.  $E \rightarrow (E)$ 

the sentential form E + E \* E has two derivations:

$$E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + E * E$$

and

 $E \Rightarrow E * E \Rightarrow E + E * E$ 

This gives us two parse trees:



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The mere existence of several *derivations* is not dangerous, it is the existence of several parse trees that ruins a grammar. But, multiple left-most (or right-most)

But, multiple left-most (or right-most) derivations do cause ambiguity.

Example: In the same grammar

5.  $I \rightarrow a$ 6.  $I \rightarrow b$ 7.  $I \rightarrow Ia$ 8.  $I \rightarrow Ib$ 9.  $I \rightarrow I0$ 10.  $I \rightarrow I1$ 

the string a + b has several derivations, e.g.

 $E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow I + E \Rightarrow a + E \Rightarrow a + I \Rightarrow a + b$  and

$$E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + I \Rightarrow I + I \Rightarrow I + b \Rightarrow a + b$$

However, their parse trees are the same, and the structure of a + b is unambiguous. **Definition:** Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG. We say that G is *ambiguous* is there is a string in  $T^*$  that has more than one parse tree.

If every string in L(G) has at most one parse tree, G is said to be *unambiguous*.

Example: The terminal string a + a \* a has two parse trees:





# Example: Unambiguous Grammar

 $B \rightarrow (RB | \epsilon R \rightarrow) | (RR)$ 

Construct a unique leftmost derivation for a given balanced string of parentheses by scanning the string from left to right.

- If we need to expand B, then use B -> (RB if the next symbol is "(" and ε if at the end.
- If we need to expand R, use R -> ) if the next symbol is ")" and (RR if it is "(".

# Remaining Input: (())() Next symbol

Steps of leftmost derivation:

В

# Remaining Input: ())() Next symbol

Steps of leftmost derivation: B (RB

Remaining Input: ))() Next
symbol Steps of leftmost derivation: B (RB ((RRB

Remaining Input: )() Next symbol Steps of leftmost derivation: B (RB ((RRB ()RB

Remaining Input: () Next symbol Steps of leftmost derivation: B (RB ((RRB (()RB (())B

(
F
(
F

Steps of leftmost derivation: (())(RB B (RB ((RRB (()RB (())B R -> ) | (RR

Steps of leftmost **Remaining Input:** derivation: (())(RB B (RB (())()B Next ((RRB symbol (()RB (())B R -> ) | (RR  $B \rightarrow (RB | \epsilon)$ 

Steps of leftmost **Remaining Input:** derivation: (())(RB B (())()B (RB Next ((RRB (())()symbol (()RB (())B R -> ) | (RR  $B \rightarrow (RB | \epsilon)$ 

# LL(1) Grammars

♦ As an aside, a grammar such B -> (RB | ∈ R -> ) | (RR, where you can always figure out the production to use in a leftmost derivation by scanning the given string left-to-right and looking only at the next one symbol is called LL(1).

 "Leftmost derivation, left-to-right scan, one symbol of lookahead."

# LL(1) Grammars – (2)

- Most programming languages have LL(1) grammars.
- LL(1) grammars are never ambiguous.

#### **Removing Ambiguity From Grammars**

Good news: Sometimes we can remove ambiguity "by hand" (without changing the language)

Bad news: There is no algorithm to do it

More bad news: Some CFL's have only ambiguous CFG's

We are studying the grammar

$$E \rightarrow I \mid E + E \mid E * E \mid (E)$$
$$I \rightarrow a \mid b \mid Ia \mid Ib \mid I0 \mid I1$$

There are two problems:

- 1. There is no precedence between \* and +
- 2. There is no grouping of sequences of operators, e.g. is E + E + E meant to be E + (E + E) or (E + E) + E.

Solution: We introduce more variables, each representing expressions of same "binding strength."

- A *factor* is an expression that cannot be broken apart by an adjacent \* or +. Our factors are
  - (a) Identifiers
  - (b) A parenthesized expression.
- 2. A *term* is an expression that cannot be broken ken by +. For instance a \* b can be broken by a1\* or \*a1. It cannot be broken by +, since e.g. a1 + a \* b is (by precedence rules) same as a1 + (a \* b), and a \* b + a1 is same as (a \* b) + a1.
- 3. The rest are *expressions*, i.e. they can be broken apart with \* or +.

We'll let F stand for factors, T for terms, and E for expressions. Consider the following grammar:

1. 
$$I \rightarrow a \mid b \mid Ia \mid Ib \mid I0 \mid I1$$
  
2.  $F \rightarrow I \mid (E)$   
3.  $T \rightarrow F \mid T * F$   
4.  $E \rightarrow T \mid E + T$ 

Now the only parse tree for a + a \* a will be



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Why is the new grammar unambiguous?

Intuitive explanation:

- A factor is either an identifier or (E), for some expression E.
- The only parse tree for a sequence

$$f_1 * f_2 * \cdots * f_{n-1} * f_n$$

of factors is the one that gives  $f_1 * f_2 * \cdots * f_{n-1}$ as a term and  $f_n$  as a factor, as in the parse tree on the next slide. IOW, consecutive multiplications are calculated from left to right.

• An expression is a sequence

$$t_1 + t_2 + \dots + t_{n-1} + t_n$$

of terms  $t_i$ . It can only be parsed with  $t_1 + t_2 + \cdots + t_{n-1}$  as an expression and  $t_n$  as a term.



### Leftmost derivations and Ambiguity



(a)

(b)

give rise to two derivations:

$$E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} E + E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} I + E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + E * E$$
  
$$\underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + I * E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + a * E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + a * I \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + a * a$$
  
and  
$$E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} E * E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} E + E * E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} I + E * E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + E * E$$
  
$$\underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + I * E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + a * E \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + a * I \underset{lm}{\Rightarrow} a + a * a$$

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In General:

- One parse tree, but many derivations
- Many *leftmost* derivation implies many parse trees.

• Many *rightmost* derivation implies many parse trees.

**Theorem 5.29:** For any CFG G, a terminal string w has two distinct parse trees if and only if w has two distinct leftmost derivations from the start symbol.

**Sketch of Proof:** (Only If.) If the two parse trees differ, they have a node with different productions, say  $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 \cdots X_k$  and  $A \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \cdots Y_m$ . The corresponding leftmost derivations will use derivations based on these two different productions and will thus be distinct.

(*If.*) Let's look at how we construct a parse tree from a leftmost derivation. It should now be clear that two distinct derivations gives rise to two different parse trees.

#### Inherent Ambiguity

A CFL L is *inherently ambiguous* if *all* grammars for L are ambiguous.

Example: Consider L =

 $\{a^{n}b^{n}c^{m}d^{m}: n \ge 1, m \ge 1\} \cup \{a^{n}b^{m}c^{m}d^{n}: n \ge 1, m \ge 1\}.$ 

A grammar for L is

$$S \rightarrow AB \mid C$$

$$A \rightarrow aAb \mid ab$$

$$B \rightarrow cBd \mid cd$$

$$C \rightarrow aCd \mid aDd$$

$$D \rightarrow bDc \mid bc$$





From this we see that there are two leftmost derivations:

 $S \underset{_{lm}}{\Rightarrow} AB \underset{_{lm}}{\Rightarrow} aAbB \underset{_{lm}}{\Rightarrow} aabbB \underset{_{lm}}{\Rightarrow} aabbcBd \underset{_{lm}}{\Rightarrow} aabbccdd$  and

$$S \underset{\scriptstyle lm}{\Rightarrow} C \underset{\scriptstyle lm}{\Rightarrow} aCd \underset{\scriptstyle lm}{\Rightarrow} aaDdd \underset{\scriptstyle lm}{\Rightarrow} aabDcdd \underset{\scriptstyle lm}{\Rightarrow} aabbccdd$$

It can be shown that *every* grammar for L behaves like the one above. The language L is inherently ambiguous.

There is no algorithm to determine if a CFL is inherently ambiguous. There is no algorithm to determine if a CFG is ambiguous.