2.2. Parsing trees

In this section, we make precise the ideas of Section 2.1.

We will define the formulas of LP(0) in terms of their parsing trees.

A (planar) tree is an ordered fair (N, D) where

- (a) N is a finite non-empty set whose elements are called <u>nodes</u>;
- (b) D is a function that takes each node μ in N to a sequence (possibly empty) of distinct nodes

 $\mathcal{D}(\mu) = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n),$

the nodes y,..., on are called the daughters of pe, and pe is called the mother of 1,..., Vn ;

- (C) every node except one has exactly one mother; the exception is a node called a root, in symbols V, which has no mother;
- (d) thre are no cycles, that is sequences

 $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k \quad (k>1)$ (2.18)

where $V_R = 7$ and each v_i , $1 \le i < k$, has mother v_{i+1} .

To draw or tree (N,D), we first draw a node for its root V. If D(V) = (M,,...,Mn), then below the root we draw nodes $\mu_{\lambda}, ..., \mu_{n}$ from left to right, joined to V by lines. Then we put the daughters of My below my, the daughters of Me below Me, etc., and we carry on downwards until all the nodes are included. This will happen because N is finite; and if we start from any node and go to its mother, the mother of its mother and so on, then by (d) we must eventually reach a node with no mother, which by

the route from a node to the root is unique, since a node has at most one mother.

(a) In a tree, an edge is an ordered pair of nodes (µ, v), where µ is the mother of µ. (So the lines in a tree diagram represent the edges.) We describe a node as a leaf of a tree if it has no daughters.

(b) The number of daughters of a node is called its arity.

(So the leaves are the nodes of arity 0.)

(c) We define a height for each node of a tree as follows. If μ is a node with daughters $\gamma_1, ..., \gamma_n$, then the height of μ is

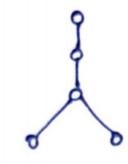
(2.19) max { height(v,), ..., height(vn)}+1.

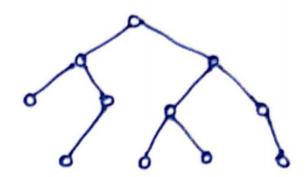
The height of a tree is the height of its root.

(d) A tath from node v to node μ is a set of nodes $\{v_0, ..., v_k\}$ where v_0 is v, v_k is μ and for each ick, v_i is the mother of v_{i+1} . A fath from the root to a leaf μ is called a <u>branch</u> (to μ).

Here are three examples of trees:

(2.20)





· The left-hand tree has one leaf and no non-leaves.

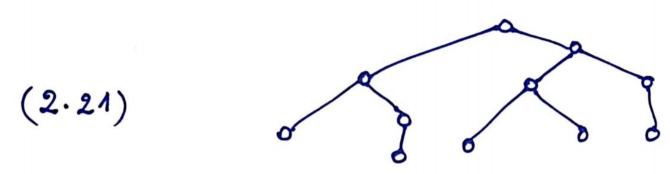
Its height is o.

• The centre tree has two leaves, two nodes of arity 1 and one node of arity 2; the root has height 3, so the height of the tree is 3.

The right-hand tree has five leaves, two nodes of arity 1 and four nodes of arity 2. The height of the tree is 3.

I dentifying two trees

The tree



is strictly not the same tree as the third tree in (2.20), because the two trees on different pages; also the angles are different in the two diagrams. But there is a unique correspondence between the nodes of one tree and the nodes of the other, and between the edges of one tree and those of the others. So, we will 'identify' the two trees, that is, count them as the same tree. (See exercise 2.2.6.)

A labelling of a tree is a function of defined on the set of nodes. We make it a night labelling by writing f(v) to the right of each node v, and a left labelling by writing f(v) to the left of v. A labelled tree is a tree together with a labelling; likewise we talk of left-labelled trees, and right-labelled trees.

A parsing tree for LP(6) is a right-labelled tree where

- · every node has arity < 2;
- every leaf is labelled with either I or a symbol from 5;
- · every node of arity 1 is labelled with -;
- every node of arity 2 is labelled with one of \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow .

Now, we can easily check that all the parsing trees of Section 2.1 are parsing trees in the sense of Definition 2.2.4.

So we can define the formulas of LP(6) by saying how they are constructed from parsing trees. The method that we use, working up from leaves to the root as in Section 2.1, will have many applications. For example, we use it to set up alternative notations, and to define properties of fermulas, and to assign meanings to formulas. To make it precise, we make the following definition.

A compositional definition & is a set of rules that tell us how to put a left labelling on any parsing tree, in such a way that the left label on any node μ - write it $\delta(\mu)$ - is determined by just two things:

• the right-hand label on μ , and • the sequence of values ($S(Y_1), ..., S(Y_n)$), where μ has daughters $Y_1, ..., Y_n$ from left to right.

the rules must always determine $\delta(\mu)$ uniquely from this data, so that they define a unique left labelling for any passing tree to; the label on the root of T is called the root lakel, in symbols

Example 2.2.6

The rules that we used in Section 2.1 for recoving a formula from its parsing tree form a compositional definition. We can write it

(70) (70)

where X is I or a propositional symbol in o, and II is a truth function symbol 1, V, -> or <>.

This is three instructions. The first says: at a leaf, copy the right-hand label on the left. The second says: at a node with right-hand label -1, write (-10) where & is the left label on the daughter. The third tells you what to do at a node with two daughters.

- (a) If π is a pansing tree for LP(σ), then the formula associated to π is $\delta(\pi)$, where $\delta(\pi)$ is the Compositional definition (2.22). We say that π is a parsing tree for $\delta(\pi)$. The formulas of LP(σ) are the formulas associated to pansing trees of LP(σ). A formula of LP is a formula of LP(σ) for some signature σ .
- (b) The formula I and propositional symbols are called atomic formulas. (These have parsing trees with just one node.) All other formulas are said to be complex.
- (c) A formula has complexity k if it is associated to a passing tree of height k. (So atomic formulas are those with complexity o.)

For example, using the default signature, the following are atomic formulas:

On the other hand the following expressions $(\neg P_1)$ $(P_2 \rightarrow P_3)$ $((P_1 \land (\neg P_1)) \leftrightarrow P_3)$

are complex formulas. (draw their passing trees)

Remark. We will see in Section 2.3 that the notion of complexity is well defined.

Remark 2.2.8

Let to be a parsing tree and v a node of to. Then removing all the nodes of x which are not v and cannot be reached from v by going downwards along edges, we get a smaller parsing tree. The left label on v given by (2.22) is the label on the root of this smaller tree, 55 it is itself a formula. Thus all the left labels on nødes of a parsing tree given by (2.22) are formulas.

Imagine we are travelling up a parsing tree using (2.22) It attach formulas on the left sides of nodes. Nothing gets thrown away: if we write a formula of against a node, the observance in the label of its mother nodes. In fact we can say what part of the label on the mother node is this of, and we call this the trace of p. Take, for example, a part of a parsing tree:

(pro) ar

(2.23)

We labelled both of the two lower nodes of. Then the upper node gets the label (\$\psi\phi). The left-hand of is the trace of the \$p\$ on the bottom left node, and the right-hand of is the trace of the \$p\$ on the bottom right node. We say in this case that there are two occurrences of \$p\$ in the formula (\$p\$\psi\phi); each trace is a separate occurrence.

Let & be the associated formula of a paising tree P. Then the subformulas of & are the traces in ϕ of the left labels of all the nodes in P.

For example, the formula $((\neg(P_1 \rightarrow (\neg P_0))) \rightarrow P_0)$ has the parsing tree $((\neg(P_1 \rightarrow (\neg P_0))) \rightarrow P_0)$

(2.24)

$$\neg (P_{A} \rightarrow (\neg P_{0}))) \qquad \neg \qquad P_{0} \qquad$$

as we calculated in (2.14).

the tree has seven nodes in its parsing tree, and hence the formula has seven sufformulas, illustrated as follows:

$$((\neg (P \rightarrow (\neg P))) \rightarrow P)$$

(2.25)

Note that the last two subformulas are the same formula, namely po, but occurring in different places.