Theoretical Computer Science

# Tree-based generation of languages of fractals ${ }^{\text {is }}$ 

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#### Abstract

The notion of $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted top-down tree generators is introduced, combining the nondeterministic nature of grammars as known from formal language theory with the infinite refinement of pictures studied in fractal geometry. (c) 2001 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.


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## 1. Introduction

This paper introduces an approach to generate languages of fractals, thus combining fractal geometry with one of the main ideas of formal language theory, namely to consider infinite sets of objects related by a common grammatical description.

The theory of formal languages is normally concerned with the grammatical generation of sets of discrete objects, these sets being called languages. Traditional questions ask for the properties of these languages and their recognition by various sorts of automata. While the objects of interest had initially been words, the ideas were soon taken up by researchers interested in more complex data structures like arrays, trees, and graphs (see [25] for a representative overview of the field). Fractal geometry, on the other hand, usually focuses on single objects with an infinitely fine-grained structure, called fractals (see, e.g., $[2,9,18,20]$ ).

[^0]The connections between fractal geometry and formal languages are manyfold. Just to mention a few examples, the approximation sequences of several fractals (especially curves like the Hilbert, dragon, or Koch curve) can be obtained by graphically interpreted Lindenmayer systems [21], the study of cellular automata is an important part of fractal geometry (see, e.g., [20, Ch. 8]), and a suitable class of collage grammars [8] yields the approximation sequences of iterated function systems [17]. However, until now no one seems to have made a serious attempt to study devices which allow to generate languages of fractals, thus combining the views of fractal geometry and formal languages.
To some extent, the motivation to study fractals arose (and still arises) from the observation that the means of traditional Euclidean geometry are insufficient to describe the complex geometry of natural objects like plants, clouds, crystals, mountains, etc. This is because, as argued by Mandelbrot [18], these objects show details on any arbitrary scale (or at least on so many scales that they are "infinite in practice"), which prevents a faithful description by means of polygons, circles, etc. Fractal geometry can be used to model such objects in a more appropriate way. For example, in [2] Barnsley uses an iterated function system in order to model a maple leaf. However, every iterated function system yields one particular fractal, which in this case means that it models a particular leaf. Depending on the application one may sometimes rather wish to model a whole variety of objects of a similar nature, like the set of all maple leaves - a language of fractals. From the point of view of formal language theory it is an obvious idea to achieve this by adding certain points of nondeterministic choice to the generation process, thus obtaining an infinity of generated fractals while retaining the finiteness of the generating device. As a matter of experience, the process of developing such a device for a particular set of objects will usually lead to a deeper understanding of the structure of these objects as it requires to find and express their common characteristics as well as the variation parameters.
Given a (device generating a) language of fractals, there immediately arise interesting theoretical questions which cannot sensibly be asked for single fractals. First, there are all the traditional questions of formal language theory: Is it possible to decide whether a given fractal (described by some iterated function system, say) is a member of the language? Do all the fractals in the language have a certain property? Is one type of generating device more powerful than the other? Which structural properties do the generated languages have, and which languages cannot be generated?
The approach presented in this paper is based on the notion of top-down tree generators (td generators, for short), continuing the work presented in [7]. A td generator generates a language of trees - a tree being a term over some single-sorted signature $\Sigma$. By associating with such a td generator a $\Sigma$-algebra over pictures one obtains a language of pictures, given by the set of all values of trees in the generated tree language. Since every picture in the resulting language has a finite description, namely the tree whose value it is, this does not yield the desired language of fractals yet. In order to accomplish this, we turn from finite trees to infinite ones: The value of an infinite tree will be called a syntactic fractal. The attribute "syntactic" emphasizes the
deviation from the traditional "semantic" attempts to define the notion of fractals. The latter are usually based on semantic properties of the pictures in question, such as fractal dimension (see, e.g., the discussion in [18, pp. 361-362]). In contrast, the present paper focusses on the way in which a picture is generated - the language theoretic point of view.
A td generator is composed of a regular tree grammar $g$ and a finite sequence $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ of top-down tree transducers (td transducers), as introduced by Rounds and Thatcher [22,26] (see also [15] and the recent book [14]). It generates the set of trees obtained by applying $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ in succession to the language generated by $g$. So, the class of tree languages obtained is the closure of the class of regular tree languages under (the considered type of) td transductions. For the case of finite trees, this class was studied in many papers (see, for example, $[1,12,13]$ ).

The advantage of using td generators for picture generation is that many properties and proofs can be formulated on the level of trees and tree languages without having to deal with the conceptually more complicated pictures all the time. In this respect it turns out to be very convenient that the evaluation of trees yields a continuous mapping from (possibly infinite) trees to pictures. The fact that an arbitrary number of td transducers can be used yields rather powerful devices, while proofs can usually be done by induction on the number of td transducers, so that their complexity remains limited.

The main results of this paper can be summarised as follows:
(1) The language of all pictures generated by a so-called approximating td generator, which is a language of fractals and finitely generated approximations, is the closure of the set of finitely generated approximations.
(2) The fractals can be approximated by so-called refinement sequences, which yields a simple method to construct sequences converging to the fractals in the language.
(3) The languages containing only one fractal $p$ are those for which $p$ is rational. Moreover, $p$ is rational if and only if it can be generated by a mutually recursive function system $[4,5]$ (or, equivalently, a hierarchical IFS [20]) with condensation sets.
(4) In general, for every fractal in such a language, there is a sequence of rational fractals converging to the given one. In particular, if the generated language of fractals is finite, then it consists entirely of rational fractals.

In the next section some basic notions are recalled. Section 3 is devoted to regular tree grammars and top-down tree transducers, including their generalisation to the case of infinite trees. Top-down tree generators are introduced in Section 4, and Section 5 shows how to use them in order to generate picture languages. Some examples are presented in Section 6. In Section 7 the results concerning rational fractals are presented, and Section 8 contains some concluding remarks.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section the basic notions and notations used throughout the paper are compiled. Mainly, these stem from the fields of term rewriting and metric spaces. Readers who are familiar with only one of these fields (or none of them) will hopefully find it convenient that I have tried to explain the standard notions as well. Others may perhaps prefer to have only a short glance at the main notations rather than reading everything in detail.

### 2.1. Basic mathematical notation

The sets of all natural numbers (including 0 ) and of all real numbers are denoted by $\mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{R}$, respectively. $\mathbb{N}_{\infty}$ denotes $\mathbb{N} \cup\{\infty\}$. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, [n] denotes the set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. The cardinality of a set $S$ is denoted by $|S|$. If $f: S \rightarrow T$ is a function then the canonical extension of $f$ to the powerset of $S$ is denoted by $f$, too: $f\left(S^{\prime}\right)=\left\{f(s) \mid s \in S^{\prime}\right\}$ for all $S^{\prime} \subseteq S$. The set of all finite sequences (also called strings or words) over a set $S$, including the empty string $\lambda$, is denoted by $S^{*}$, and $S^{+}=S^{*} \backslash\{\lambda\}$. The length of a word $w$ is denoted by $|w|$. An infinite sequence $\left(b_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a subsequence of $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ if it equals $\left(a_{j_{i}}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ for a sequence $\left(j_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of indices such that $j_{i}<j_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$.
If convenient, a binary relation $r \subseteq S \times T$ is considered as a function mapping $S$ into the powerset of $T$, i.e., $r(s)=\{t \in T \mid(s, t) \in r\}$ for all $s \in S$. In this case, for every subset $S^{\prime}$ of $S, r\left(S^{\prime}\right)$ denotes the union of all $r(s)$ for which $s \in S^{\prime}$. The composition of $r$ with another binary relation $r^{\prime} \subseteq T \times U$ is given by $r^{\prime} \circ r$, where $\left(r^{\prime} \circ r\right)(s)=r^{\prime}(r(s))$ for all $s \in S$.

### 2.2. Trees

A (ranked) symbol is a pair $(f, n)$ consisting of a symbol $f$ and a number $n \in \mathbb{N}$, its rank. Instead of $(f, n)$ we usually write $f^{(n)}$ or just $f$. The reader should keep in mind, however, that $f^{(m)}$ and $f^{(n)}$ are different for $m \neq n$, even though both may be denoted by $f$. A signature is a set $\Sigma$ of symbols. By $\Sigma^{(n)}(n \in \mathbb{N})$ we denote the set of all symbols in $\Sigma$ whose rank equals $n$.
A (rooted, ordered, and node labelled) tree is a mapping $t: V(t) \rightarrow \Sigma$, where $\Sigma$ is a signature and $V(t)$, the set of nodes or vertices, is a prefix-closed nonempty subset of $(\mathbb{N} \backslash\{0\})^{*}$ such that, for all $v \in V(t), t(v) \in \Sigma^{(n)}$ implies $\{i \in \mathbb{N} \mid v i \in V(t)\}=[n]$. Thus, every node labelled with a symbol of rank $n$ has exactly $n$ children. A tree $t$ is finite if $V(t)$ is finite; otherwise, it is infinite. The depth of $t$ is given by $\operatorname{depth}(t)=\sup \{|v| \mid v \in V(t)\}$ (which equals $\infty$ if $t$ is infinite).
For any label $f$ and all trees $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}, f\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right]$ denotes the tree $t$ such that $V(t)=\{\lambda\} \cup \bigcup_{i \in[n]}\left\{i v \mid v \in V\left(t_{i}\right)\right\}, t(\lambda)=f$ and $t(i v)=t_{i}(v)$ for all $i \in[n]$ and $v \in V\left(t_{i}\right)$. If $n=0$ then we shall usually write $f$ instead of $f[]$, thus identifying single-node trees with the symbol its root is labelled with. For $v \in V(t)$ the subtree of $t$ rooted at $v$ is denoted by $t / v$, i.e., $V(t / v)=\{w \mid v w \in V(t)\}$ where $t / v(w)=t(v w)$ for all $w \in V(t / v)$.

Given a signature $\Sigma$ and a set $T$ of trees, $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}(T)$ denotes the set of trees over $\Sigma$ with subtrees in $T$. A tree $t$ is in $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}(T)$ if $t(v) \in \Sigma$ or $t / v \in T$ for all $v \in V(t)$. $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}(\emptyset)$ is abbreviated by $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$. Thus, $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ is simply the set of all trees of the form $t: V(t) \rightarrow \Sigma$. We shall furthermore use the notation $\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}(T)$ in order to denote the set of all finite trees in $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}(T)$. Finally, $\Sigma(T)$ denotes the set of all trees $f\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right]$ such that $f \in \Sigma^{(n)}$ and $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \in T$ for all $i \in[n]$.

### 2.3. Substitution

For the remainder of the paper, fix a countably infinite signature $X=\left\{x_{1}^{(0)}, x_{2}^{(0)}, \ldots\right\}$ of pairwise distinct variables $x_{i}$. Variables are reserved for a special purpose and are not allowed to occur in ordinary signatures. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}, X_{n}$ denotes $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$.

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and consider trees $t, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ such that (a) $\{t(v) \in X \mid v \in V(t)\}=X_{n}$ and (b) $t(u)=t(v) \in X_{n}$ implies $u=v$ for all $u, v \in V(t)$ (in other words, $t$ contains each variable in $X_{n}$ exactly once, and it does not contain any variable not in $X_{n}$ ). Then, we denote by $t \llbracket t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \rrbracket$ the tree obtained from $t$ by replacing the unique node labelled with $x_{i}$ by $t_{i}$, for all $i \in[n]$. Formally, let $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n} \in V(t)$ be the nodes such that $t\left(u_{i}\right)=x_{i}$ for every $i \in[n]$. Then $t \llbracket t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \rrbracket$ yields the tree $t^{\prime}$ such that $V\left(t^{\prime}\right)=V(t) \cup \bigcup_{i \in[n]}\left\{u_{i} v \mid v \in V\left(t_{i}\right)\right\}$ and, for all $u \in V\left(t^{\prime}\right)$,

$$
t^{\prime}(u)= \begin{cases}t(u) & \text { if } u \in V(t) \backslash\left\{u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\} \\ t_{i}(v) & \text { if } u=u_{i} v, \text { where } i \in[n] \text { and } v \in V\left(t_{i}\right) .\end{cases}
$$

In the following, the use of the notation $t \llbracket t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \rrbracket$ is always meant to imply assumptions (a) and (b), even if they are not mentioned explicitly.

### 2.4. Metric spaces

A distance function or metric on a set $\mathbb{A}$ is a function $d: \mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that, for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{A}$,
(i) $d(a, b)=d(b, a) \geqslant 0$,
(ii) $d(a, b)=0$ if and only if $a=b$, and
(iii) $d(a, c) \leqslant d(a, b)+d(b, c)$.

If $d$ is a metric on $\mathbb{A}$ then the pair $(\mathbb{A}, d)$ is a metric space (which may be identified with $\mathbb{A}$ if $d$ is clear from the context). The elements of $\mathbb{A}$ are called the points of the space. As usual, a sequence $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of points in $\mathbb{A}$ is a Cauchy sequence if for every $\varepsilon>0$ there is some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right) \leqslant \varepsilon$ for all $i, j \geqslant n$. A sequence converges to $a \in \mathbb{A}$ if for all $\varepsilon>0$ there is some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $i \geqslant n$ implies $d\left(a_{i}, a\right) \leqslant \varepsilon$. In this case, $a$ is the limit of the sequence, denoted by $\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{i}$, or just $\lim a_{i}$ if the index in question is clear from the context. The metric space is complete if every Cauchy sequence $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $\mathbb{A}$ converges to some point in $\mathbb{A}$. Thus, for a complete metric space a sequence is Cauchy if and only if it converges (as it is easy to see that every
converging sequence is Cauchy), which means that the two terms can be understood as synonyms in this case.
$A \subseteq \mathbb{A}$ is closed if it contains every point $a$ in $\mathbb{A}$ which is the limit of some converging sequence in $A$. $A$ is bounded if $\sup \{d(a, b) \mid a, b \in A\} \neq \infty$, and compact if it is bounded and closed. The closure $\operatorname{cl}(A)$ of $A \subseteq \mathbb{A}$ is the smallest closed subset of A containing $A$ (i.e., $\operatorname{cl}(A)$ is the set of all points $\lim a_{i}$ such that $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a converging sequence in $A$ ). A transformation of $\mathbb{A}$ is a continuous mapping $f: \mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$. A function $f: \mathbb{A}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$ is a contraction if there exists some $c<1$, called a contraction factor, such that $d\left(f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right) \leqslant c \max \left\{d\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right) \mid i \in[n]\right\}$ for all $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in \mathbb{A}$. Notice that every contraction is automatically continuous.
The set of all trees can be turned into a complete metric space in a well-known way (see, e.g., [3]): For all trees $s, t$, let $e q(s, t) \in \mathbb{N}_{\infty}$ be the supremum of all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the restrictions of $s$ and $t$ to $\{v \in V(s)||v|<n\}$ and $\{v \in V(t)||v|<n\}$, respectively, are equal. Intuitively, $e q(s, t)$ is the maximum depth up to which the two trees coincide; in particular, $e q(s, t)=\infty$ if (and only if) $s=t$. Now, define $d(s, t)=2^{-e q(s, t)}$ (where, by convention, $2^{-\infty}=0$ ). It is easy to show that $d$ is a metric on the set of all trees. In fact, $d$ is even a bounded ultrametric: we have $d(s, t) \leqslant 1$ and $d(r, t) \leqslant \max (d(r, s), d(s, t))$ for all trees $r, s, t$.

Most of the time we are going to deal with sets of trees over finite signatures. This is why the following lemma turns out to be quite useful.

Lemma 2.1. Every sequence $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of trees in $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$, where $\Sigma$ is a finite signature, contains a subsequence $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ which is Cauchy.

Proof. The assertion is trivial if the given sequence contains only finitely many pairwise distinct trees. Therefore, it may be assumed, without loss of generality, that the trees $s_{i}$ are pairwise distinct (because repeated occurrences of a particular tree may be cancelled).
For a tree $s \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ and a natural number $i$, denote by $[s]_{i}$ the equivalence class of all trees $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ such that $e q(s, t) \geqslant i$. Since $\Sigma$ is finite, for every $i \in \mathbb{N}$ there are only finitely many pairwise distinct equivalence classes $[t]_{i}$ with $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$. This observation can be used to construct a sequence $T_{0} \supseteq T_{1} \supseteq T_{2} \supseteq \cdots$ of infinite sets of trees in $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $e q\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \geqslant i$ for all $t, t^{\prime} \in T_{i}$, as follows. To start with, let $T_{0}=\left\{s_{i} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$. By the assumption in the beginning, $T_{0}$ is infinite. Now, for $i \in \mathbb{N}$, define $T_{i+1}=T_{i} \cap[t]_{i+1}$, where $t \in T_{i}$ is some arbitrary tree such that $T_{i} \cap[t]_{i+1}$ is infinite. Since $T_{i}$ is infinite and there are only finitely many equivalence classes $[t]_{i+1}$ such a tree must exist.
Now, the sequence $\left(T_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ can be used to define the trees $t_{i}$ sought: $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}=\left(s_{j_{i}}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ where $j_{0}=0$ and, for every $i \geqslant 1, j_{i}$ is the smallest index greater than $j_{i-1}$ such that $s_{j_{i}} \in T_{i}$ (which must exist because $T_{i}$ is infinite). Clearly, $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy because $t_{i}, t_{j} \in T_{i}$ for all $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ with $i \leqslant j$, which implies $e q\left(t_{i}, t_{j}\right) \geqslant i$.

Another useful property is the following one.

Lemma 2.2. Let $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a converging sequence of trees. If $t=\lim t_{i}$ is a finite tree, then there is some $i_{0} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $t_{i}=t$ for all $i \geqslant i_{0}$.

Proof. Let $\varepsilon=2^{-\delta}$ where $\delta=\max \{|v| \mid v \in V(t)\}$. For every tree $t^{\prime} \neq t$ we must necessarily have $e q\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \leqslant \delta$, and thus $d\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \geqslant \varepsilon$. On the other hand, since $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges there exists some $i_{0} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d\left(t, t_{i}\right)<\varepsilon$, and therefore $t_{i}=t$, for all $i \geqslant i_{0}$.

## 3. Generation and transformation of trees

In this section, the concepts of a regular tree grammar and a top-down tree transducer are recalled (and generalised to the case of infinite trees), and some of their basic properties are shown.

Definition 3.1 (Regular tree grammar). A regular tree grammar is a quadruple $g=$ ( $N, \Sigma, P, S$ ) consisting of a finite signature $N$ of nonterminals of rank 0 , a finite output signature $\Sigma$ disjoint with $N$, a finite set $P$ of productions (or rules) $A \rightarrow t$ such that $A \in N$ and $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}(N) \backslash N$, and an initial nonterminal $S \in N$.
Let $s, s^{\prime} \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}(N)$. There is a derivation step from $s$ to $s^{\prime}$, denoted by $s \Rightarrow{ }_{g} s^{\prime}$, if $V(s) \subseteq V\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ and for all $v \in V(s)$ either $s^{\prime}(v)=s(v) \in \Sigma$ or $s(v)=A \in N$ and $s^{\prime} / v=t$ for some production $A \rightarrow t$ in $P$.
The regular tree language generated by $g$ is given by

$$
\mathrm{L}(g)=\left\{\lim t_{i} \mid t_{0} \Rightarrow_{g} t_{1} \Rightarrow_{g} \cdots \text { where } t_{0}=S\right\}
$$

Furthermore, $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(g)=\{t \in \mathrm{~L}(g) \mid t$ finite $\}$ and $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(g)=\{t \in \mathrm{~L}(g) \mid t$ infinite $\}$ denote the sets of finite, respectively infinite trees generated by $g$.

As usual, the two parts $A$ and $t$ of a production $A \rightarrow t$ are said to be its leftand right-hand side, respectively. Sequences of derivation steps are called derivations (including infinite ones). A finite derivation $t_{0} \Rightarrow_{g} t_{1} \Rightarrow_{g} \cdots \Rightarrow_{g} t_{n}$ may, for the sake of brevity, be denoted by $t_{0} \Rightarrow_{g}^{*} t_{n}$ or, if the number of steps matters, $t_{0} \Rightarrow_{g}^{n} t_{n}$. Similarly, if $t_{0} \Rightarrow_{g} t_{1} \Rightarrow_{g} \cdots$ is an infinite derivation one may write $t_{0} \Rightarrow_{g}^{\infty} t$ where $t=\lim t_{i}$.

Concerning the definition of regular tree grammars, there are some subtle points which should be noticed. First, for every tree $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ it holds that $t \Rightarrow_{g} t$. Second, the right-hand side $t$ of a production $A \rightarrow t$ is not allowed to be a single nonterminal (which is a well-known normal form in the case of finite trees, but is important if infinite trees are considered as well). Finally, derivations are maximum parallel in the sense that every derivation step is required to replace all nonterminals of a tree. The latter properties ensure that every infinite derivation $t_{0} \Rightarrow_{g} t_{1} \Rightarrow_{g} \cdots$ as in the definition of $\mathrm{L}(g)$ yields a sequence $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of trees such that $v \in V\left(t_{i}\right)$ and $t_{i}(v) \in N$ implies $|v| \geqslant i$ (which in particular yields $e q\left(t_{i}, t_{i+1}\right) \geqslant i$ ) for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. As a consequence, $\mathrm{L}(g)$ is a well-defined subset of $\mathscr{T}$. Moreover, by the first property, $\mathrm{L}(g)$ consists of all the terminal trees that can be derived, not only the infinite ones. Clearly, $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(g)$ is the


Fig. 1. A derivation by a regular tree grammar.
set of all trees $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ such that there is a derivation $S \Rightarrow_{g}^{*} t$. Thus, for finite trees the definition does not deviate from those found in the literature.
A regular tree grammar $g=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ is said to be one-producing if $P \subseteq N \times \Sigma(N)$ and approximating if there is at least one production $A \rightarrow t$ with $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$ for every $A \in N$.

Example 3.2 (Regular tree grammar). Consider the (approximating and one-producing) regular tree grammar $g=(\{A, B\}, \Sigma, P, A)$, where $\Sigma=\left\{a^{(2)}, b^{(2)}, \perp^{(0)}\right\}$, and

$$
P=\{A \rightarrow a[A, B], A \rightarrow a[B, A], A \rightarrow \perp, B \rightarrow b[B, B], B \rightarrow \perp\} .
$$

$\mathrm{L}(g)$ consists of all trees in $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ containing a unique $a$-labelled path. More precisely, a tree is in $\mathrm{L}(g)$ if and only if it equals $\perp$ or reads $a\left[t_{1}, t_{2}\right]$, where one of $t_{1}, t_{2}$ is in $\mathrm{L}(g)$ and the other one is a tree over $\left\{b^{(2)}, \perp^{(0)}\right\}$. A sample derivation is shown in Fig. 1. If we delete the production $A \rightarrow \perp$, the grammar is not approximating any more, and the generated language consists entirely of infinite trees, namely all those where an infinite path is labelled by $a$ 's and the remaining binary nodes are labelled by $b$ 's.

Now, let us consider top-down tree transducers.
Definition 3.3 (Top-down tree transducer). A top-down tree transducer ( td transducer) is a quintuple $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$, where $\Sigma$ and $\Sigma^{\prime}$ are finite signatures, the input and the output signature, $Q$ is a finite signature of states of rank 1 with $Q \cap\left(\Sigma \cup \Sigma^{\prime}\right)=\emptyset$, $R$ is a finite set of rules, and $q_{0} \in Q$ is the initial state. Every rule in $R$ has the form

$$
q\left[f\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\right] \rightarrow t \llbracket q_{1}\left[x_{i_{1}}\right], \ldots, q_{l}\left[x_{i_{l}}\right] \rrbracket,
$$

where $q, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{l} \in Q, f \in \Sigma^{(n)}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}, t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}\left(X_{n}\right) \backslash X_{n}$, and $x_{i_{1}}, \ldots, x_{i_{l}} \in X_{n}$. Consider two trees $s, s^{\prime} \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}\left(Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)\right)$ and let $V=\left\{v \in V(s) \mid s\left(v^{\prime}\right) \notin Q\right.$ for all proper prefixes $v^{\prime}$ of $\left.v\right\} .{ }^{1}$ There is a derivation step $s \not{ }_{t d} s^{\prime}$ if $V \subseteq V\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ and for all $v \in V$ either $s^{\prime}(v)=s(v) \in \Sigma$ or $s^{\prime}(v)=q\left[f\left[s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right]\right] \in Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)$, and there is a rule as above such that $s^{\prime} / v=t \llbracket q_{1}\left[s_{i_{1}}\right], \ldots, q_{l}\left[s_{i_{l}}\right] \rrbracket$.

[^1]The set of output trees of $t d$ on input $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$, denoted by $t d(t)$, is the set of all trees $\lim t_{i}$ such that $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence with $t_{0}=q_{0}[t]$ and $t_{i} \Rightarrow_{t d} t_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$.

Thus, a top-down tree transducer $t d$ as in the definition determines a binary relation between $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ and $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}$, which is denoted by $t d$ as well, in the following. Henceforth, such a relation will be called a top-down tree transduction.

As in the case of regular tree grammars, only maximum parallel derivations are considered. Furthermore, deviating from the usual definition of td transducers, the one employed here forbids the use of rules whose right-hand sides are elements of $Q(X)$. This is important because a rule like $q\left[a\left[x_{1}\right]\right] \rightarrow q\left[x_{1}\right]$ would turn a tree $t$ consisting of an infinite chain of $a$ 's into itself: $q[t] \Rightarrow_{t d} q[t]$. The mentioned restriction prevents a behaviour like this. More precisely, for all trees $s, s^{\prime} \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}\left(Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)\right)$ such that $s \Rightarrow_{t d} s^{\prime}$, it holds that $\min \{|v| \mid v \in V(s), s(v) \in Q\}<\min \left\{|v| \mid v \in V\left(s^{\prime}\right), s^{\prime}(v) \in Q\right\}$ (if $s^{\prime}$ contains a state at all). Therefore, $\operatorname{td}(t)$ is a subset of $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}$ for every tree $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$. Of course, for finite trees $t$ we have $t d(t)=\left\{t^{\prime} \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma} \mid q_{0}[t] \Rightarrow_{t d} \cdots \Rightarrow_{t d} t^{\prime}\right\}$, which is the definition of $t d(t)$ one usually finds in the literature.

As before, derivations (i.e., sequences of derivation steps) can be denoted as $s \Rightarrow_{t d}^{*} t$ or $s \Rightarrow{ }_{t d}^{n} t$ if they consist of a finite number $n$ of steps, and as $s \Rightarrow{ }_{t d}^{\infty} t$ if $s=s_{0} \Rightarrow{ }_{t d} s_{1} \Rightarrow{ }_{t d}$ $\cdots$ and $t=\lim s_{i}$. Notice that $t \Rightarrow_{t d} t$ is a valid derivation step for $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$. This turns out to be convenient because it means that, for $s \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}, \operatorname{td}(s)$ is the set of all trees such that there exists a derivation $q_{0}[s] \Rightarrow{ }_{t d}^{\infty} t$. Thus, it is often not necessary to mention the finite case separately. A similar statement holds for every regular tree grammars $g=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$, of course: $L(g)$ is the set of all trees $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ such that $S \Rightarrow_{g}^{\infty} t$.

In order to simplify the denotation of trees and rules in connection with td transducers, the following conventions will be employed throughout the rest of this paper:

1. A tree of the form $q[t]$, where $q$ is a state, is denoted by $q t$.
2. The left-hand side $q f\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ of a rule is denoted by $q f$.
3. If the td transducer in question has a monadic input signature, the variable $x_{1}$ (the only one occurring in the rules) is omitted in the right-hand sides as well. Thus, in this case the rule $q f \rightarrow g\left[h\left[q^{\prime} x_{1}, q^{\prime \prime} x_{1}\right], q^{\prime} x_{1}\right]$ reads $q f \rightarrow g\left[h\left[q^{\prime}, q^{\prime \prime}\right], q^{\prime}\right]$, for example. (This is slightly ambiguous when there is a symbol $q^{(0)} \in \Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $q^{(1)} \in Q$. Therefore, such a situation should be avoided.)

There are a few special cases of td transducers which turn out to be of interest in the context of this paper. A td transducer as in the definition is

- total (resp. deterministic) if $R$ contains at least (resp. at most) one rule whose lefthand side is $q f\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, for every state $q \in Q$ and every input symbol $f \in \Sigma^{(n)}$ $(n \in \mathbb{N})$,
- nondeleting (resp. linear) if for every rule $q f \rightarrow t$ in $R$ and every $i \in[n]$ there is at least (resp. at most) one node $v \in V(t)$ such that $t(v)=x_{i}$,
- one-producing if all right-hand sides of rules in $R$ are elements of $\Sigma^{\prime}(Q(X))$, and
- a (linear and nondeleting) tree homomorphism if it is total, deterministic, linear and nondeleting, and $|Q|=\left\{q_{0}\right\}$.
Notice that, in contrast to the definition of tree homomorphisms in [10], the definition above requires them to be linear and nondeleting.
To see that the term tree homomorphism is indeed justified, observe that, for every symbol $f \in \Sigma^{(n)}$, the unique rule having $f$ in its left-hand side has the form $q f \rightarrow t_{f} \llbracket q x_{1}, \ldots, q x_{n} \rrbracket$, where $t_{f} \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}\left(X_{n}\right)$. In other words, $t d$ is uniquely determined by a mapping $h: \Sigma \rightarrow \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}(X)$ associating with every $f \in \Sigma^{(n)}$ a tree $h(f) \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}\left(X_{n}\right)$, so that every variable in $X_{n}$ occurs in $h(f)$ exactly once. Then, $t d(t)=h(f) \llbracket t d\left(t_{1}\right), \ldots$, $\operatorname{td}\left(t_{n}\right) \rrbracket$ for every tree $t=f\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right] \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$. This means that the tree transduction $t d$ is the canonical extension of $h$ to trees in $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$. In the following, if it is not of particular importance to emphasise that the tree homomorphism is realised by a top-down tree transducer, we shall therefore simply view it as the canonical extension of $h$ to $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ and denote it by $h$ as well.

Example 3.4 ( $t d$ transducer). Consider the td transducer $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime},\left\{q_{0}, q_{1}, q_{1}^{\prime}\right\}, R\right.$, $q_{0}$ ), where $\Sigma=\left\{a^{(2)}, b^{(2)}, \perp^{(0)}\right\}$ is as in Example 3.2, $\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma \cup\left\{0^{(2)}\right\}$, and $R$ consists of the rules

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
q_{0} \perp \rightarrow \circ[\perp, \perp], & \\
q_{0} c \rightarrow \circ\left[c\left[q_{1} x_{1}, q_{1} x_{2}\right], c\left[q_{1}^{\prime} x_{2}, q_{1}^{\prime} x_{1}\right]\right] & \text { for } c \in\{a, b\}, \\
q_{0} c \rightarrow \circ\left[c\left[q_{1}^{\prime} x_{2}, q_{1}^{\prime} x_{1}\right], c\left[q_{1} x_{1}, q_{1} x_{2}\right]\right] & \text { for } c \in\{a, b\}, \\
q \perp \rightarrow \perp & \text { for } q \in\left\{q_{1}, q_{1}^{\prime}\right\}, \\
q_{1} c \rightarrow c\left[q_{1} x_{1}, q_{1} x_{2}\right] & \\
\text { and } c \in\{a, b\} \\
q_{1}^{\prime} c \rightarrow c\left[q_{1}^{\prime} x_{2}, q_{1}^{\prime} x_{1}\right] & \text { for } c \in\{a, b\} .
\end{array}
$$

In effect, $t d$ transforms every tree $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ into the trees $\circ\left[t, t^{\prime}\right]$ and $\circ\left[t^{\prime}, t\right]$, such that, intuitively, $t^{\prime}$ is obtained by "mirroring" $t$ at the vertical axis (where $q_{1}$ is the state producing $t$ in the output by just copying it, and $q_{1}^{\prime}$ produces the mirror image of $t$ by reversing the order of the two subtrees of every node which is not a leaf). Fig. 2 shows a sample derivation on a small input tree.

Finally, let us discuss derivation trees. It should not come as a big surprise that the derivations of regular tree grammars and top-down tree transducers can be represented by derivation trees in a convenient way. In fact, these derivation trees can even be generated by regular tree grammars or top-down tree transducers, respectively. For this, let us assume from now on that every rule $s \rightarrow t$ (of a regular tree grammar or top-down tree transducer) is given a unique name $r$, denoted by $r: s \rightarrow t$, such that the names of distinct rules are distinct as well. One could, for example, use every rule as its own name. Therefore, in the following we usually do not distinguish between rules and their names.
For a regular tree grammar $g=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ let $d-g=\left(N, \Sigma_{P}, P^{\prime}, S\right)$ be defined as follows. For every production $p: A \rightarrow t \llbracket A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \rrbracket$ in $P$ (where $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}\left(X_{n}\right)$ ), $\Sigma_{P}$ contains


Fig. 2. A derivation by a $t d$ transducer.
the symbol $p^{(n)}$ and $P^{\prime}$ contains the production $A \rightarrow p\left[A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}\right]$. Neither $\Sigma_{P}$ nor $P^{\prime}$ contain any further elements. For $A \in N$, the trees $d t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{P}}$ with $A \Rightarrow_{d-g}^{\infty} d t$ are the $A$-derivation trees of $g$. An $S$-derivation tree of $g$ is called a derivation tree of $g$. The result of $d t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{P}}(N)$ is given by $r e s(d t)=d t$ if $d t \in N$ and $r e s(d t)=$ $t \llbracket \operatorname{res}\left(d t_{1}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{res}\left(d t_{n}\right) \rrbracket$ if $d t=p\left[d t_{1}, \ldots, d t_{n}\right]$ for some production $p: A \rightarrow t\left[A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}\right]$ in $P$.

The respective definitions for top-down tree transducers are similar. Given a topdown tree transducer $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right), d-t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma_{R}, Q, R^{\prime}, q_{0}\right)$ is defined as follows. For every rule $r: q f \rightarrow t \llbracket q_{1} x_{i_{1}}, \ldots, q_{m} x_{i_{m}} \rrbracket$ in $R$ (where $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}\left(X_{m}\right)$ ), $\Sigma_{R}$ contains the symbol $r^{(m)}$ and $R^{\prime}$ contains the rule $q f \rightarrow r\left[q_{1} x_{i_{1}}, \ldots, q_{m} x_{i_{m}}\right]$. Again, no further rules are included in $\Sigma_{R}$ or $R^{\prime}$. For $q \in Q$ and $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$, the trees $d t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{R}}$ with $q t \Rightarrow{ }_{d-t d}^{\infty} d t$ are the $q t$-derivation trees of $t d$. A $q_{0} t$-derivation tree of $t d$ is called a $t$-derivation tree of $t d$. The result of $d t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{R}}\left(Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)\right)$ is given by $\operatorname{res}(d t)=d t$ if $d t \in Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)$ and $\operatorname{res}(d t)=t \llbracket r e s\left(d t_{1}\right), \ldots, r e s\left(d t_{m}\right) \rrbracket$ if $d t=r\left[d t_{1}, \ldots, d t_{m}\right]$ for some rule $r: q f \rightarrow t \llbracket q_{1} x_{i_{1}}, \ldots, q_{m} x_{i_{m}} \rrbracket$ in $R$.
The following lemma proves that derivation trees are a faithful representation of derivations. Furthermore, res is compatible with taking limits. The proof is omitted because it is very straightforward.

Lemma 3.5. (1) Let $g=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ be a regular tree grammar and $s \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{P}}(N)$. If $s \Rightarrow_{d-g} t$ for some tree $t$ then $\operatorname{res}(s) \Rightarrow_{g} \operatorname{res}(t)$. Conversely, if $\operatorname{res}(s) \Rightarrow_{g} t^{\prime}$ for some tree $t^{\prime}$ then $t^{\prime}=$ res $(t)$ for a tree $t$ such that $s \Rightarrow_{d-g} t$.

In particular, the equations $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(g)=\operatorname{res}\left(\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(d-g)\right), \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(g)=r e s\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(d-g)\right)$, and $\mathrm{L}(g)=\operatorname{res}(\mathrm{L}(d-g))$ are valid.
(2) Let $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$ be a top-down tree transducer and $s \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{R}}\left(Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)\right)$. If $s \Rightarrow_{d-t d} t$ for some tree $t$ then $\operatorname{res}(s) \Rightarrow_{t d}$ res $(t)$. Conversely, if res $(s) \Rightarrow_{t d} t^{\prime}$ for some tree $t^{\prime}$ then $t^{\prime}=r e s(t)$ for a tree $t$ such that $s \Rightarrow_{d-t d} t$.
In particular, $t d(t)=\operatorname{res}(d-t d(t))$ for all trees $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$.
(3) In both cases, if $\left(d t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of derivation trees converging to $d t$, then $d t$ is a derivation tree and $\left(r e s\left(d t_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to res $(d t)$.

Consider a top-down tree transducer $t d$ and suppose we are given two trees $s$ and $t$ which are equal up to depth $i+1$, a derivation of length $i$ by $d$-td on input $s$, yielding a tree $s^{\prime}$, and a $t$-derivation tree $d t$ which coincides with $s^{\prime}$ up to depth $i$. Intuitively, the latter means that the derivation represented by $d t$ and the given one (yielding $s^{\prime}$ ) coincide for the first $i$ steps. However, since their respective input trees $s$ and $t$ coincide up to depth $i+1$, the input symbols for the next step coincide as well. Therefore, the considered derivation can be extended by another step in the same way as the one represented by $d t$. In other words, we obtain a tree $s^{\prime \prime}$ such that $e q\left(s^{\prime \prime}, d t\right) \geqslant i+1$. This intuition is formalised by the following lemma, which will afterwards be used in order to construct infinite derivations from infinitely many finite ones.

Lemma 3.6. Let $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$ be a top-down tree transducer, $s, t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ such that eq $(s, t) \geqslant i+1$ (where $i \in \mathbb{N}), s^{\prime}$ a tree such that $q s \Rightarrow_{d-t d}^{i} s^{\prime}$ for some $q \in Q$, and $d t$ a qt-derivation tree such that eq(s',dt) $\geqslant i$. Then there is a tree $s^{\prime \prime}$ with eq $\left(s^{\prime \prime}, d t\right) \geqslant i+1$ and $s^{\prime} \Rightarrow_{d-t d} s^{\prime \prime}$.

Proof. Proceed by induction on $i$. Due to the assumption $e q(s, t) \geqslant i+1, s$ and $t$ must have the form $s=f\left[s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right]$ and $t=f\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right]$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f \in \Sigma^{(n)}$, where $e q\left(s_{j}, t_{j}\right) \geqslant i$ for all $j \in[n]$. Let $d t=r\left[d t_{1}, \ldots, d t_{m}\right]$ for some rule $r: q f \rightarrow u \llbracket q_{1} x_{i_{1}}, \ldots$, $\left.q_{m} x_{i_{m}}\right]$. For $i=0$ one can immediately define $s^{\prime \prime}=r\left[q_{1} s_{i_{1}}, \ldots, q_{m} s_{i_{m}}\right]$ in order to obtain $e q\left(s^{\prime \prime}, d t\right) \geqslant 1$ and $s^{\prime}=q s \Rightarrow_{d-t d} s^{\prime \prime}$. For $i>0$ the assumption $e q\left(s^{\prime}, d t\right) \geqslant i$ implies that the derivation $q s \Rightarrow{ }_{d-t d}^{i} s^{\prime}$ has the form

$$
q s \Rightarrow_{d-t d} r\left[q_{1} s_{i}, \ldots, q_{m} s_{i_{m}}\right] \Rightarrow^{i-1} r\left[s_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, s_{m}^{\prime}\right]=s^{\prime}
$$

where $e q\left(s_{j}^{\prime}, d t_{j}\right) \geqslant i-1$ for all $i \in[m]$. Therefore, the induction hypothesis yields trees $s_{j}^{\prime \prime}(j \in[m])$ with $e q\left(s_{j}^{\prime \prime}, d t_{j}\right) \geqslant i$ such that $s_{j}^{\prime} \Rightarrow_{d-t d}^{*} s_{j}^{\prime \prime}$, which means that we have $e q\left(s^{\prime \prime}, d t\right) \geqslant i+1$ and $s^{\prime} \Rightarrow_{d-t d} s^{\prime \prime}$ for $s^{\prime \prime}=r\left[s_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, s_{m}^{\prime \prime}\right]$.

Lemma 3.7. Let $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$ be a top-down tree transducer and $t_{i} \in \operatorname{td}\left(s_{i}\right)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, where $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is any sequence of trees in $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$. If $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to a tree $t$, then there is a subsequence $\left(s_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converging to a tree $s$ such that $t \in t d(s)$.

Proof. For every $i \in \mathbb{N}$, let $d t_{i}$ be an $s_{i}$-derivation tree such that $r e s\left(d t_{i}\right)=t_{i}$. By Lemma 2.1 there is a subsequence $\left(s_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ which converges to some tree $s$. Let $\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ be the corresponding subsequence of $\left(d t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$. Since $\left(\operatorname{res}\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a subsequence of $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$, it still converges to $t$. By a second application of Lemma 2.1, now to the derivation trees $d t_{i}^{\prime}$ themselves, it may additionally be assumed that $\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges (for if it does not, it can be replaced by a subsequence that does).
Let $d t=\lim d t_{i}^{\prime}$ and $u_{0}=q_{0} s$. We are going to use Lemma 3.6 in order to construct a derivation $u_{0} \Rightarrow_{d-t d} u_{1} \Rightarrow_{d-t d} \cdots$ such that $e q\left(u_{i}, d t\right) \geqslant i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, which means that $\lim u_{i}=d t$, showing that $t=r e s(d t) \in t d(s)$. Suppose $u_{0} \Rightarrow_{d-t d}^{i} u_{i}$ with $e q\left(u_{i}, d t\right) \geqslant i$ (which clearly holds for the induction basis $i=0$ ). Then there is some $j \in \mathbb{N}$ satisfying
$e q\left(s_{j}^{\prime}, s\right) \geqslant i+1$ and $e q\left(d t_{j}, d t\right) \geqslant i+1$. Since $e q\left(u_{i}, d t\right) \geqslant i$ the latter implies $e q\left(u_{i}, d t_{j}\right) \geqslant i$, which by Lemma 3.6 means that $u_{i} \Rightarrow_{d-t d} u_{i+1}$ for some tree $u_{i+1}$ with $e q\left(u_{i+1}, d t_{j}\right)$ $\geqslant i+1$. Together with the fact that $e q\left(d t_{j}, d t\right) \geqslant i+1$ this yields $e q\left(u_{i+1}, d t\right) \geqslant i+1$, as required.

From the previous lemma the main result of this section is obtained.
Theorem 3.8. For every top-down tree transducer $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$ and every set $T \subseteq \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ the set $\operatorname{td}(c l(T))$ is closed, and if $t d$ is total then $\operatorname{td}(c l(T))=\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{td}(T))$.

Proof. The first assertion is a consequence of Lemma 3.7. Suppose $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to a tree $t$, where $t_{i} \in \operatorname{td}(c l(T))$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $s_{i} \in \operatorname{cl}(T)$ be such that $t_{i} \in \operatorname{td}\left(s_{i}\right)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. By Lemma 3.7 there is a converging subsequence $\left(s_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $t \in \operatorname{td}\left(\lim s_{i}^{\prime}\right)$. Since $s_{i}^{\prime} \in \operatorname{cl}(T)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $\lim s_{i} \in \operatorname{cl}(T)$, i.e., $t \in \operatorname{td}(c l(T))$, showing that $\operatorname{td}(c l(T))$ is closed.

Now, suppose $t d$ is total. The proof of the inclusion $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{td}(T)) \subseteq \operatorname{td}(\operatorname{cl}(T))$ is quite the same as the one above: If $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to a tree $t$, where $t_{i} \in \operatorname{td}(T)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, then by Lemma 3.7 there is a converging sequence $\left(s_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $T$ such that $t \in \operatorname{td}\left(\lim s_{i}^{\prime}\right)$, which yields $t \in \operatorname{td}(c l(T))$.

It remains to check the inclusion $\operatorname{td}(c l(T)) \subseteq c l(t d(T))$, assuming that $t d$ is total. Let $s=\lim s_{i}$ and $t \in \operatorname{td}(s)$ for some Cauchy sequence $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $T$, and let $d t$ be an $s$-derivation tree of $t d$ with $r e s(d t)=t$. For every $i \in \mathbb{N}$, by the totality of $t d$, $e q\left(s_{i}, s\right) \geqslant n$ means that there is an $s_{i}$-derivation tree $d t_{i}$ of $t d$ such that $e q\left(d t_{i}, d t\right) \geqslant n$. This observation yields a sequence $\left(d t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converging to $d t$, where each $d t_{i}$ is an $s_{i}$-derivation tree $(i \in \mathbb{N})$. Thus, $\left(\operatorname{res}\left(d t_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence in $t d(T)$ converging to $t$.

Observe that, due to this theorem, the range of a total td transducer $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R\right.$, $\left.q_{0}\right)$ is nothing but the closure of $t d\left(\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}\right)$, except for the pathological case of a nonempty input signature containing only symbols of rank strictly greater than 0 (which is the only case in which $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma} \neq \operatorname{cl}\left(\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}\right)$ ). If $t d$ is not total, then its range is still closed (even in the mentioned pathological case), but it may not be the closure of $\operatorname{td}\left(\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}\right)$. In particular, $\operatorname{td}\left(\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}\right)$ may be empty while $\operatorname{td}\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)$ is not.

## 4. Top-down tree generators

It is now possible to define the notion of top-down tree generators, the type of tree-generating device which will be considered throughout the rest of this paper. A top-down generator consists of a regular tree grammar and a finite sequence of top-down tree transducers. It generates the language of trees which is obtained by taking the language generated by the regular tree grammar, and then transforming it by applying the tree transducers one after another.

Definition 4.1 (Top-down tree generator). A top-down tree generator (td generator) is a pair $G=\left(g, t d_{1} \cdots t d_{n}\right)$ consisting of a regular tree grammar and a finite sequence of td transducers $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ (for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) such that
(i) $g$ and $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ are one-producing and
(ii) for all $i \in[n]$, the input signature of $t d_{i}$ coincides with the output signature of $t d_{i-1}$ for $i>1$ and of $g$ for $i=1$.
$G$ generates the languages

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{L}(G)=t d_{n}\left(\cdots\left(t d_{1}(\mathrm{~L}(g))\right) \cdots\right), \\
& \mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(G)=\{t \in L(G) \mid t \text { finite }\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(G)=\{t \in \mathrm{~L}(G) \mid t \text { infinite }\} .
$$

In the following, the regular tree grammar $g$ of a $t d$ generator $G=\left(g, t d_{1} \cdots t d_{n}\right)$ is denoted by $g_{G}$ if it is not explicitly named, and the composition of $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ is denoted by $\tau_{G}$, i.e., $\tau_{G}=t d_{n} \circ \cdots \circ t d_{1}$ (if $n=0$ then $\tau_{G}$ is the identity on $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$, where $\Sigma$ is the output signature of $g$ ). The output signature of $G$ is the output signature of $t d_{n} . G$ is called approximating if $g$ is approximating and all of $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ are total.

Example 4.2 ( $t d$ generator). Let $G=(g, t d)$, where $g$ is the regular tree grammar discussed in Example 3.2 and $t d$ is the td transducer of Example 3.4. Then, $\mathrm{L}(G)$ is the set of all trees $\circ\left[t, t^{\prime}\right]$ such that $t$ contains one path of $a$ 's from the root to some leaf (labelled $\perp$ ), all other binary nodes of $t$ being labelled by $b$ 's, and $t^{\prime}$ is $t$ mirrored at the vertical axis. Notice that this is something which cannot be achieved by a regular tree grammar because regular tree grammars do not provide any means to "synchronise" the derivation of distinct occurrences of nonterminals.

By definition, the class of tree languages which can be generated by td generators is the closure of the regular tree languages under one-producing td transductions. For the case of finite trees, this class of tree languages (without the restriction to one-producing td transducers) has been studied before by several authors (see, e.g., [1, 12, 13]). In [12] a hierarchy result is shown which proves that the language generating power strictly increases with the number of td transducers used. As one can easily see, this result remains valid for one-producing td transducers, and also if approximating td generators are considered. More precisely, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 4.3 (Engelfriet [12]). For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ let $\mathscr{T}_{n}$ denote the class of all tree languages $T$ such that $T=\mathrm{L}(G)$ for some $t d$ generator $G=\left(g, t d_{1} \cdots t d_{n}\right)$. Then $\mathscr{T}_{n}$ is properly contained in $\mathscr{T}_{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The following lemma shows that, intuitively, the regular tree grammar in a td generator could be replaced by an additional top-down tree transducer. For this, and for future use as well, let $\Sigma_{\text {succ }}$ be the signature consisting of a symbol $s$ of rank 1 and
a symbol 0 of rank 0 . Furthermore, let $s^{0}[0]=0$ and $s^{n+1}[0]=s\left[s^{n}[0]\right]$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and denote by $s^{\infty}$ the unique infinite tree in $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {sucec }}}$.

Lemma 4.4. For every regular tree grammar $g=(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ there is a top-down tree transducer $t d=\left(\Sigma_{\text {succ }}, \Sigma, N, R, S\right)$ such that $t d\left(\mathscr{F}_{\text {sutce }}\right)=\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(g)$ and $t d\left(s^{\infty}\right)=t d\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {suce }}}\right)$ $=\mathrm{L}(g)$. If $g$ is approximating then $t d$ is total and if $g$ is one-producing, so is $t d$.

Proof. The construction is straightforward. For every production $A \rightarrow t \llbracket A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \rrbracket$ in $P$, where $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}\left(X_{n}\right), R$ contains the rule $A s \rightarrow t \llbracket A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \rrbracket$. Furthermore, if $n=0$ then $R$ also contains the rule $A 0 \rightarrow t$.
Since $g$ is approximating, $t d$ is total. Furthermore, if $g$ is one-producing, so is $t d$. It follows by a straightforward induction on $i$ that, for $A, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \in N$ and $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}\left(X_{n}\right)$, we have $A \Rightarrow{ }_{g}^{i} t \llbracket A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \rrbracket$ if and only if $A s^{i+j}[0] \Rightarrow{ }_{t d}^{i} t \llbracket A_{1} s^{j}[0], \ldots, A_{n} s^{j}[0] \rrbracket$, for all $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$. This implies $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(g)=t d\left(\mathscr{F}_{S_{\text {suce }}}\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(g)=t d\left(s^{\infty}\right)$, which completes the proof.

The most interesting td generators are the approximating ones. This is because it turns out that $\mathrm{L}(G)$ is simply the closure of $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(G)$, which is mainly a consequence of Theorem 3.8. Furthermore, despite the fact that $\tau_{G}$ may transform infinite trees into finite ones by deleting infinite subtrees of its input, $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(G)$ equals $\tau_{G}\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}\left(g_{G}\right)\right)$. For td generators which are not approximating both statements do not generally hold, but one can at least say that $\mathrm{L}(G)$ is always closed.

Theorem 4.5. For every $t d$ generator $G, \mathrm{~L}(G)$ is closed. Furthermore, if $G$ is approximating then $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(G)=\tau_{G}\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{fin}}\left(g_{G}\right)\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}(G)=c l\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(G)\right)$.

Proof. Let $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}^{0}=\mathscr{F}_{\text {sutec }}$ and $\mathrm{L}^{0}=\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {stuc }}}$. Lemma 4.4 states that there are td transducers $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ such that $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(G)=\tau\left(\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}^{0}\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}(G)=\tau\left(\mathrm{L}^{0}\right)$, where $\tau=t d_{n} \circ \cdots \circ t d_{1}$. Moreover, if $G$ is approximating then it may be assumed that $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ are total.
Let $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}^{i}=t d_{i}\left(\cdots t d_{1}\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{0}\right) \cdots\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}^{i}=t d_{i}\left(\cdots t d_{1}\left(\mathrm{~L}^{0}\right) \cdots\right)$ for all $i \in[n]$. The closedness of $\mathrm{L}^{i}$ follows by induction on $i$, using Theorem 3.8 and the fact that $\mathrm{L}^{0}$ is closed. Thus, in order to complete the proof it suffices to show by induction on $i$ that $\left\{t \in \mathrm{~L}^{i} \mid t\right.$ finite $\} \subseteq \mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}^{i}$ and $\mathrm{L}^{i}=c l\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{i}\right)$ (which yields the claimed equations by taking $i=n$ ).

For $i=0$ both equations obviously hold. Now, consider some $i \geqslant 1$ and suppose the equations are correct with respect to $i-1$. In order to verify the first equation, let $s$ be an infinite tree in $\mathrm{L}^{i-1}$ such that there is a finite tree $t \in t d_{i}(s)$. By the second part of the induction hypothesis, $s \in c l\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{fin}}^{i-1}\right)$, which yields $t \in \operatorname{td}_{i}\left(c l\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{i-1}\right)\right)$ and thus, by Theorem 3.8, $t \in \operatorname{cl}\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{i}\right)$. However, since $t$ is finite this implies $t \in \mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{i}$, using Lemma 2.2. The second equation follows directly from Theorem 3.8 and the induction hypothesis: $\mathrm{L}^{i}=t d_{i}\left(\mathrm{~L}^{i-1}\right)=t d_{i}\left(c l\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{i-1}\right)\right)=c l\left(t d_{i}\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{i-1}\right)\right)=c l\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}^{i}\right)$.

For approximating td generators, Theorem 4.5 tells us that the infinite trees in $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(G)$ can be approximated by considering converging sequences in $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(G)$. However, is there a simple way to find a set of converging sequences which is sufficient in order to get all the elements of $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(G)$ ? It is shown below that there is indeed a rather natural procedure to obtain approximations of all trees in $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(G)$. For this, the following definition is needed.

Definition 4.6. Let $G=\left(g, t d_{1} \cdots t d_{n}\right)$ be an approximating td generator:

1. A tuple $D=\left(d t_{0}, \ldots, d t_{n}\right)$ is a derivation in $G$ if $d t_{0}$ is a derivation tree of $g$ and $d t_{i}$ is a $r e s\left(d t_{i-1}\right)$-derivation tree of $t d_{i}$ for every $i \in[n]$. The $\operatorname{result} \operatorname{res}(D)$ of $D$ is $\operatorname{res}\left(d t_{n}\right)$ and its depth is $\operatorname{depth}(D)=\operatorname{depth}\left(d t_{0}\right)$.
2. Let $D=\left(d t_{0}, \ldots, d t_{n}\right)$ be a derivation in $G$, where $\operatorname{depth}(D)=m \in \mathbb{N}$. A derivation $D^{\prime}=\left(d t_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, d t_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ extends $D$ if $\operatorname{depth}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=m+1$ and eq $\left(d t_{i}, d t_{i}^{\prime}\right)=m$ for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, m\}$.
If $\left(D_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of derivations such that $\operatorname{depth}\left(D_{0}\right)=0$ and $D_{i+1}$ extends $D_{i}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\left(\operatorname{res}\left(D_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a refinement sequence in $G$.

Obviously, due to Lemma $3.5, \mathrm{~L}(G)$ is the set of all trees $\operatorname{res}(D)$ such that $D$ is a derivation in $G$. We can now show that it is sufficient to concentrate on refinement sequences if one wants to approximate the elements of $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(G)$.

Theorem 4.7. For every approximating $t d$ generator $G$,

$$
L_{\text {inf }}(G)=\left\{\lim t_{i} \mid\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \text { is a refinement sequence in } G\right\} .
$$

Proof. $(\Leftarrow)$ It follows directly from Definition 4.6 that, given a refinement sequence $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $G$, we have $t_{i} \in \mathrm{~L}_{\text {fin }}(G)$ and $e q\left(t_{i}, t_{i+1}\right)=i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Consequently, $t=$ $\lim t_{i}$ exists and is infinite (since $e q\left(t_{i}, t_{i+1}\right)=i$ implies $\left.\operatorname{depth}\left(t_{i}\right) \geqslant i\right)$. By Theorem 4.5 this means $t \in \mathrm{~L}_{\text {inf }}(G)$.
$(\Rightarrow)$ Let $G=\left(g, t d_{1} \cdots t d_{n}\right)$ and proceed by induction on $n$. In order to prove the statement for $n=0$, let $t \in \mathrm{~L}_{\text {inf }}(g)$ and consider a derivation $d t_{0} \Rightarrow_{d-g} d t_{1} \Rightarrow_{d-g} d t_{2} \ldots$ such that $\operatorname{res}(d t)=t$, where $d t=\lim d t_{i}$. By assumption, $g$ is approximating. Therefore, for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ there is some $d t_{i}^{\prime} \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma_{P}}$ such that $d t_{i} \Rightarrow_{d-g} d t_{i}^{\prime}$ (where $P$ is the set of productions of $g$ ). Since $t$ is infinite, so is $d t$, which means that depth $\left(d t_{i}\right)=i$ and thus depth $\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}\right)=i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. This implies eq( $\left.d t_{i}^{\prime}, d t_{i+1}^{\prime}\right) \leqslant i$. On the other hand, by construction we have $e q\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}, d t_{i+1}^{\prime}\right) \geqslant i$, yielding the required equation $e q\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}, d t_{i+1}^{\prime}\right)=i$. This shows that $d t_{i+1}^{\prime}$ extends $d t_{i}^{\prime}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Furthermore, $\left(\operatorname{res}\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $t$ as $\left(d t_{i}^{\prime}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $d t$.

Now, suppose $n>0$, let $t d_{n}=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$, and assume that the statement is valid for the td generator $G^{\prime}=\left(g, t d_{1} \cdots t d_{n-1}\right)$. The proof is mainly based on the following observation, which is an obvious consequence of the fact that $t d_{n}$ is total (by the definition of $t d$ generators).

Let $s, s^{\prime} \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ and let $d t$ be an $s$-derivation tree of $t d_{n}$. For all $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $e q\left(s, s^{\prime}\right) \geqslant m$, there is an $s^{\prime}$-derivation tree $d t^{\prime}$ of $t d_{n}$ such that $e q\left(d t, d t^{\prime}\right) \geqslant m$.

Now, let $t \in \mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(G)$ and consider an $s$-derivation tree $d t$ of $t d_{n}$ such that $s \in \mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ and $\operatorname{res}(d t)=t$. By the induction hypothesis there exists a refinement sequence $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $G^{\prime}$ such that $s=\lim s_{i}$. Furthermore, $\operatorname{depth}\left(s_{i}\right)=i=e q\left(s_{i}, s\right)$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, by the definition of refinement sequences and the fact that $g, t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n-1}$ are one-producing. Consequently, by the observation above, for every $i \in \mathbb{N}$ there is an $s_{i}$-derivation tree $d t_{i}$ of $t d_{n}$ such that $e q\left(d t_{i}, d t\right) \geqslant i$. Since we have $\operatorname{depth}\left(d t_{i}\right) \leqslant \operatorname{depth}\left(s_{i}\right)=i$ the inequality $e q\left(d t_{i}, d t\right)>i$ would imply $d t_{i}=d t$, which is impossible since $s$ is infinite. Therefore, $e q\left(d t_{i}, d t\right)=i$ and thus $e q\left(d t_{i}, d t_{i+1}\right)=i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, which proves that $\left(r e s\left(d t_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a refinement sequence in $G$ (that converges to $t$, as required, since $\left(d t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $d t$ and $\operatorname{res}(d t)=t)$.

## 5. Languages of pictures and fractals

In this section the results on td generators are applied in order to obtain devices that generate languages of pictures and fractals. The basic idea is to consider algebras over pictures and to use td generators in order to generate tree languages which are then evaluated in such an algebra. This way of generating sets is of course applicable to any sort of domain, not just to pictures. Therefore, the basic definition is not at all restricted to the case of pictures.

Let us first make precise what an algebra is. For this, let $\Sigma$ be a signature such that $\Sigma^{(0)} \neq \emptyset$. A $\Sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{A}$ (which we shall just call an algebra if $\Sigma$ is of minor importance) is a pair $\left(\mathbb{A},\left(f_{\mathscr{A}}\right)_{f \in \Sigma}\right)$ such that $\mathbb{A}$ is a set, the domain of $\mathscr{A}$, and $f_{\mathscr{A}}: \mathbb{A}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$ is a function for every $f \in \Sigma^{(n)}(n \in \mathbb{N})$. The functions $f_{\mathscr{A}}$ are called the operations of $\mathscr{A}$. Trees in $\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$ are evaluated by the homomorphism val $\mathscr{A}$ in the usual way: val $\mathscr{A}\left(f\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right]\right)=f_{\mathscr{A}}\left(\right.$ val $_{\mathscr{A}}\left(t_{1}\right), \ldots$, val $\left._{\mathscr{A}}\left(t_{n}\right)\right)$ for all trees $f\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right] \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$. We shall consider val $_{\mathscr{A}}$ as a partial function from $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ to $\mathbb{A}$ (which is total on $\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$ ). This turns out to be useful because sometimes infinite trees can be assigned a value in a meaningful way, too -a fact that will soon be exploited. In this respect it is important to be aware of the general requirement $\Sigma^{(0)} \neq \emptyset$. Obviously, this ensures that $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ is the closure of $\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$, so that every infinite tree can be approximated by a sequence of finite ones. In the following, whenever a signature $\Sigma$ appears in connection with a $\Sigma$-algebra, $\Sigma^{(0)} \neq \emptyset$ is assumed without mentioning this fact explicitly.

As remarked above, the idea developed in this section is to consider td generators whose generated trees are interpreted in an algebra $\mathscr{A}$ in order to obtain a subset of $\mathbb{A}$. However, in order to increase the flexibility of such devices, a slight generalisation turns out to be useful: Rather than interpreting trees in $\mathscr{A}$ itself, one may choose an algebra derived from $\mathscr{A}$. For this, the following definitions are necessary.

Let $\mathscr{A}$ be a $\Sigma$-algebra. Then every tree $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\mathscr{A}}\left(X_{n}\right)($ where $n \in \mathbb{N})$ defines a function $o p_{\mathscr{A}}(t): \mathbb{A}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$ which, applied to $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathbb{A}$, simply evaluates $t$ while interpreting
$x_{i}$ as $a_{i}$. Formally, for $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathbb{A}$ let $\mathscr{A}\left[a_{1} \cdots a_{n}\right]$ be the $\Sigma \cup X_{n}$-algebra with domain A such that $f_{\mathscr{A}\left[a_{1} \cdots a_{n}\right]}=f_{\mathscr{A}}$ for all $f \in \Sigma$ and $x_{i \mathscr{A}\left[a_{1} \cdots a_{n}\right]}=a_{i}$ for all $i \in[n]$. Now, $o p_{\mathscr{A}}(t)$ is the function $g: \mathbb{A}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$ such that $g\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{S}\left[a_{1} \cdots a_{n}\right]}(t)$ for all $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathbb{A}$.

A $\Sigma^{\prime}$-algebra $\mathscr{B}$ is said to be derived from $\mathscr{A}$ if $\mathbb{B}=\mathbb{A}$ and there is a tree homomorphism $h$ such that $f_{\mathscr{B}}=o p_{\mathscr{A}}(h(f))$ for all $f \in \Sigma^{\prime}$. The operations of $\mathscr{B}$ are said to be derived from the operations of $\mathscr{A}$. Notice that, intuitively, according to the definition of tree homomorphisms a derived operation can neither delete nor copy its arguments since each of the variables in $X_{n}$ must occur exactly once in the tree $h(f)$ defining $f_{\mathscr{B}}$ for $f \in \Sigma^{\prime(n)}$. As mentioned above, we shall also consider algebras in which certain infinite trees have a defined value. If $\mathscr{A}$ is such an algebra then the definedness of values carries over to $\mathscr{B}$ via $h$ : For all infinite trees $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}$ such that $\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(h(t))$ is defined, we set $\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(t)=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(h(t))$. (Notice that this is compatible with the finite case, since we obviously have val $_{\mathscr{B}}(t)=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(h(t))$ for all $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}$.)

Now, the central definition of this paper can be given.

Definition 5.1 ( $\mathscr{A}$-interpreted td generator). Let $\mathscr{A}$ be an algebra. An $\mathscr{A}$-interpreted td generator is a pair $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{B})$ consisting of a $t d$ generator $G$ and a $\Sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{B}$ derived from $\mathscr{A}$, such that $\Sigma$ is the output signature of $G$.
$\mathscr{G}$ defines the language $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(\mathscr{G})=v a l_{\mathscr{B}}\left(\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(G)\right)$. Moreover, if $v a l_{\mathscr{B}}(t)$ is defined for all $t \in \mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(G)$ then $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{B}}\left(\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(G)\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}(\mathscr{G})=v a l_{\mathscr{B}}(\mathrm{L}(G))=\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(\mathscr{G}) \cup \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$.

The following lemma is an immediate consequence of these definitions.

Lemma 5.2. Let $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{B})$ be an $\mathscr{A}$-interpreted td generator, for some $\Sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{A}$, where $\mathscr{B}$ is a $\Sigma^{\prime}$-algebra given by a tree homomorphism $h: \mathscr{T}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$. Then $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(\mathscr{G})=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}\left(h\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(G)\right)\right)$ and, if $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ is defined, $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}\left(h\left(\mathrm{~L}_{\text {inf }}(G)\right)\right)$.

Regarding the previous lemma, it seems worth mentioning that a tree language is of the form $h(\mathrm{~L}(G))$ for some td generator $G$ and a tree homomorphism $h$ if and only if it has the form $t d_{n}\left(\cdots t d_{1}(\mathrm{~L}(g)) \cdots\right)$ for some regular tree grammar $g$ and td transducers $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$. In other words, when designing a td generator to be interpreted in an algebra $\mathscr{A}$, one can use regular tree grammars and td transducers which are not necessarily one-producing. The reason is that $t d_{i}(i \in[n])$ can be written as $r e s \circ d-t d_{i}$, which yields a decomposition of $t d_{i}$ into a one-producing $t d$ transducer and a tree homomorphism. Similarly, $\mathrm{L}(g)=r e s(\mathrm{~L}(d-g))$ and $d-g$ is one-producing, too. For a td transducer $t d$ and a homomorphism $h, t d \circ h$ is again a td transducer (see [10]). Furthermore, the composition of tree homomorphisms is a tree homomorphism, which yields the claimed equivalence by induction on the number of td transducers involved, as all the homomorphisms can be shifted to the left. Moreover, if $g$ is approximating and $t d_{1}, \ldots, t d_{n}$ are total, then the resulting td generator $G$ is approximating. This follows from the known fact that $t d \circ h$ can be realised by a total td transducer if $t d$ is total.

In the following, we shall be interested in the case where $\mathscr{A}$ is a certain algebra over pictures. There are, in fact, several such algebras one may consider, dealing with
different sorts of pictures. For example, it is shown in [7] that Lindenmayer systems with turtle interpretation [21] and context-free chain-code grammars [6,19] are special cases of $\mathscr{A}$-interpreted td generators, where $\mathscr{A}$ is an algebra over line drawings, its central operation being the concatenation of line drawings. Another possibility (also studied in [7]) is to view subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ as pictures and use operations which are based on the geometric transformation of such pictures. This yields a generalisation of iterated function systems [2, 9, 20] and collage grammars [8, 16].
The second case is the one studied in the remainder of this paper. In order to define the respective algebra, let us fix an arbitrary complete metric space $(\mathbb{S}, d)$ such as the Euclidean plane. A picture is a nonempty compact subset of $\mathbb{S}$. The set of all pictures is henceforth denoted by $\mathbb{P}$. It is well known (see, e.g., [2]) that $\mathbb{P}$ can be turned into a complete metric space $\left(\mathbb{P}, d_{\mathrm{H}}\right)$ by means of the Hausdorff metric $d_{\mathrm{H}}$, which is obtained from $d$ as follows. For every point $x \in \mathbb{S}$ and every picture $p$ let $d_{1}(x, p)=\min \{d(x, y) \mid y \in p\}$. Then, for $p, p^{\prime} \in \mathbb{P}$,

$$
d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p, p^{\prime}\right)=\max \left(\left\{d_{1}\left(x, p^{\prime}\right) \mid x \in p\right\} \cup\left\{d_{1}(x, p) \mid x \in p^{\prime}\right\}\right) .
$$

Intuitively, $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p, p^{\prime}\right)$ is the maximum distance of a point in one of the pictures to the nearest point in the other picture. It should be clear that every transformation $f$ of $\mathbb{S}$, remains continuous (i.e., a transformation) if it is viewed as a mapping $f: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}$ (which can be done because $f$ is continuous and, therefore, maps compact sets to compact sets). Furthermore, if $f$ is contracting as a mapping on $\mathbb{S}$ then it is also contracting as a mapping on $\mathbb{P}$, with the same contraction factor.
If we are given $n$ transformations $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}$ of $\mathbb{S}$, we can turn them into a picture operation $\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle: \mathbb{P}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}$ by defining

$$
\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right)=f_{1}\left(p_{1}\right) \cup \cdots \cup f_{n}\left(p_{n}\right)
$$

for all pictures $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n} \in \mathbb{P}$. These picture operations are the main operations of the algebra $\mathscr{P}$ considered in the remainder of this paper. All other operations are constants - operations of arity 0 denoting pictures.

Let us fix an arbitrary nonempty subset $\mathbb{P}_{0}$ of $\mathbb{P}$ (not necessarily finite or countable) whose elements are called the primitive pictures. Now, $\mathscr{P}$ is the $\Sigma_{\mathscr{P}}$-algebra with domain $\mathbb{P}$, such that $\Sigma_{\mathscr{P}}$ consists of

- all symbols $p^{(0)}$, where $p \in \mathbb{P}_{0}$ and $p_{\mathscr{R}}=p$ (i.e., every primitive picture is a constant of the algebra, and it denotes itself) and
- all symbols $\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle^{(n)}$, where $n \geqslant 1, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}$ are contracting transformations of $\mathbb{S}$, and $\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle_{\mathscr{A}}=\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle$ (i.e., every picture operation consisting of $n \geqslant 1$ contracting transformations is an operation of $\mathscr{P}$ and is denoted by itself).

Remark. Notice that it is intentionally left unspecified what a primitive picture is. In fact, the results in this paper do not depend on the choice of $\mathbb{P}_{0}$. One can even choose $\mathbb{P}_{0}=\mathbb{P}$, but this seems to be somewhat inappropriate from the point of view of formal language theory, as in this case there are $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generators which do not
have a finite description．Another somewhat unnatural effect of this choice would be that every picture could be derived by an appropriate $\mathscr{P}$－interpreted td generator in one step，just by using the picture in question as a constant．Therefore，one should preferably think of $\mathbb{P}_{0}$ as a set of pictures with finite descriptions in classical geometry （if（ $\mathbb{S}, d$ ）is the Euclidean plane，for example），like finite unions of polygons，circles， parabola sections，etc．

According to the definition of $\mathscr{P}$ ，every operation $\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle$ is required to consist of contracting transformations．In the theory of iterated function systems there exists a well－known basic result saying that an iterated function system consisting of contracting transformations is itself a continuous contraction．Using similar arguments，we obtain the following lemma saying that the operations of $\mathscr{P}$ are continuous contractions．

Lemma 5．3．Let $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}$ be contracting transformations of $\mathbb{S}$ for some $n \geqslant 1$ ，and let $c_{i}$ be the contractivity factor of $f_{i}$ for every $i \in[n]$ ．Then $\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle$ is a continuous contraction with contraction factor $\max \left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}\right\}$ ．

Proof．Let $F=\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle$ and $c=\max \left\{c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}\right\}$ ．It is well known that the inequality $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p_{1} \cup p_{2}, p_{1}^{\prime} \cup p_{2}^{\prime}\right) \leqslant \max \left(d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p_{1}, p_{1}^{\prime}\right), d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p_{2}, p_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ holds for all pictures $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{1}^{\prime}, p_{2}^{\prime}$ $\in \mathbb{P}$（see，e．g．，［2，Lemma 7．4］）．Using this，we obtain the inequality required by the definition of contractivity，for all $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}, p_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, p_{n}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{P}$ ：

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(F\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right), F\left(p_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, p_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right) & =d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(\bigcup_{i \in[n]} f_{i}\left(p_{i}\right), \bigcup_{i \in[n]} f_{i}\left(p_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& \leqslant \max _{i \in[n]} d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(f_{i}\left(p_{i}\right), f_{i}\left(p_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& \leqslant \max _{i \in[n]} c_{i} d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p_{i}, p_{i}^{\prime}\right) \\
& \leqslant c \max _{i \in[n]} d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p_{i}, p_{i}^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The claimed continuity of $F$ follows directly from the continuity of $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}$ ．
Hence，all operations of $\mathscr{P}$ are contractions．This enables us to prove the following lemma，which makes it possible to extend val⿻尸禸 to suitable infinite trees．

Lemma 5．4．For every finite signature $\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma_{\mathscr{P}}$ there are $c, C_{0} \in \mathbb{R}, 0 \leqslant c<1$ ，such that eq $(s, t) \geqslant n$ implies $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(s)\right.$ ，val $\left.\mathscr{P}_{\mathcal{P}}(t)\right) \leqslant c^{n} C_{0}$ for all $s, t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ．

Proof．Let $p_{0}=\bigcup \Sigma^{(0)}$（which，by the finiteness of $\Sigma$ ，is compact），and let $\Theta$ be the set of all transformations which appear in the remaining operations of $\Sigma$ ，i．e．， $\Theta=\bigcup\left\{\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right\} \mid\left\langle f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right\rangle \in \Sigma\right\}$ ．Define $c$ to be the maximum of the contraction factors of transformations in $\Theta$ ．Banach＇s famous fixed－point theorem（also called the contraction mapping principle，see e．g．［2，Section III．6］）states that every contraction on a complete metric space posseses a unique fixed point．In other words，for every
$f \in \Theta$ there is a unique point $x_{f} \in \mathbb{S}$ such that $f\left(x_{f}\right)=x_{f}$ (as $f$ is contracting). Let $B \supseteq p_{0}$ be any closed ball such that $x_{f} \in B$ for all $f \in \Theta$. Clearly, such a ball exists because $\Theta$ is finite. Let $z$ be the centre of $B$ and $r$ its radius, and consider some $f \in \Theta$. Let $\Delta=d\left(z, x_{f}\right)$. Then, for every point $x \in B$ we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
d(f(x), z) & \leqslant d\left(f(x), x_{f}\right)+\Delta \\
& =d\left(f(x), f\left(x_{f}\right)\right)+\Delta \\
& \leqslant c d\left(x, x_{f}\right)+\Delta \\
& \leqslant c\left(d(x, z)+d\left(z, x_{f}\right)\right)+\Delta \\
& \leqslant c(r+\Delta)+\Delta
\end{aligned}
$$

In other words, if we choose $r$ large enough to satisfy $r \geqslant c(r+\Delta)+\Delta$, i.e., $r \geqslant \Delta(1+$ $c) /(1-c)$, then $f(B) \subseteq B$. As $\Theta$ is finite, this proves the following claim.

Claim. There is a closed ball $B \subseteq \mathbb{S}$ such that val $\mathscr{P D}(t) \subseteq B$ for all $t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$.
Let $B$ be a ball as in the claim and define $C_{0}$ to be the diameter of $B: C_{0}=$ $\max \{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in B\}$. By Lemma 5.3 every operation $F_{\mathscr{P}}, F \in \Sigma$, is contracting, with contraction factor $\leqslant c$. Using this, it follows by induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that $e q(s, t) \geqslant n$ implies $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(s), \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(t)\right) \leqslant c^{n} C_{0}$ for all trees $s, t \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$, as claimed in the lemma. This is because, for $n=0$, by the choice of $C_{0}$ and the fact that $\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(s), v a l_{\mathscr{P}}(t) \subseteq B$, we have $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(s), \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(t)\right) \leqslant C_{0}$. For $n>0$, let $s=F\left[s_{1}, \ldots, s_{k}\right]$ and $t=F\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right]$. By the induction hypothesis the inequality $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(s_{i}\right), \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(t_{i}\right)\right) \leqslant c^{n-1} C_{0}$ holds for all $i \in[k]$, which yields $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(s), \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(t)\right) \leqslant c^{n} C_{0}$, due to the contractivity of $F_{\mathscr{P}}$. This completes the proof of the lemma.

Using Lemma 5.4, we can now define the value of those infinite trees over $\Sigma_{\mathscr{P}}$ which contain only finitely many pairwise distinct symbols. Let $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ be infinite, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma_{\mathscr{P}}$ is finite, and consider a Cauchy sequence $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$ with $\lim t_{i}=t$ (without loss of generality, we may assume that $\Sigma^{(0)} \neq \emptyset$, which ensures that such a sequence exists). By Lemma 5.4 the sequence $\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(t_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy in $\left(\mathbb{P}, d_{\mathrm{H}}\right)$. Since $\left(\mathbb{P}, d_{\mathrm{H}}\right)$ is complete, $\lim \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(t_{i}\right)$ is a picture in $\mathbb{P}$ as well. We can thus define $\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(t)=\lim \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(t_{i}\right)$.
In order to see that this definition is sound, it suffices to notice that any other sequence $\left(s_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$ which converges to $t$ satisfies $\lim \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(s_{i}\right)=\lim \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(t_{i}\right)$ because, according to Lemma 5.4, $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(s_{i}\right), \operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(t_{i}\right)\right)$ converges to 0 .
As a consequence of this definition, for every $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{A})$ the mapping val $_{\mathscr{A}}$ is now total. This is because, by definition, $\mathscr{A}$ is a $\Sigma$-algebra, where $\Sigma$ is the finite output signature of $G$. It is furthermore worthwhile to notice that, since $\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}(t)=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(h(t))$ for a tree homomorphism $h$ (by definition) and tree homomorphisms are continuous, it follows that val $_{\mathscr{A}}$ is continuous as well.
Due to the totality of val $\mathscr{A}$, the language $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ is defined for every $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{A})$. The elements of $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ will be called the syntactic fractals
(or just fractals, for short) generated by $\mathscr{G}$. The attribute "syntactic" is used because this notion of fractals depends on $\mathscr{G}$, i.e., on the way a picture is generated by the particular td generator at hand. By contrast, in the literature most (if not all) attempts to provide a formal definition for the term "fractal" are semantic ones which are based, for example, on the fractal dimension of a picture. The syntactic variant proposed here focuses on the finiteness or infinity of the description of a picture. Of course, there may sometimes be pictures in $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(\mathscr{G}) \cap \mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(\mathscr{G})$. According to the definition above, these are called fractals as well, but it is certainly a matter of taste how to decide this question.
Let us call a $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{A})$ approximating if $G$ is approximating. Making use of the continuity of val $_{\mathscr{A}}$, the results of the previous section carry over to $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(\mathscr{G})$ and $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(\mathscr{G})$. This is stated in the following theorem, where a sequence of pictures is called a refinement sequence in $\mathscr{G}$ if it has the form $\left(\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{A}}\left(t_{i}\right)\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ for some refinement sequence $\left(t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $G$.

Theorem 5.5. For every $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator $\mathscr{G}$ the language $\mathrm{L}(\mathscr{G})$ is closed. Furthermore, if $\mathscr{G}$ is approximating then
(1) $\mathrm{L}(\mathscr{G})$ is the closure of $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{fin}}(\mathscr{G})$ and
(2) a picture $p \in \mathbb{P}$ is an element of $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ if and only if $p=\lim p_{i}$ for some refinement sequence $\left(p_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $\mathrm{L}_{\text {fin }}(\mathscr{G})$.

Proof. This follows directly from Theorems 4.5 and 4.7, and the fact that val $_{\mathscr{A}}$ is continuous for every $\Sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{A}$ derived from $\mathscr{P}$ (where $\Sigma$ is finite).

## 6. Examples

The purpose of this section is to present some examples, all of which having as their underlying space the Euclidean plane. Furthermore, all operations which appear in the examples are derived from constants which are polygons or filled polygons, and picture operations which consist of affine transformations. As a convenient side effect of the latter, operations can be suitably represented in a graphical way, which is probably easier to grasp than an explicit numerical definition.
Recall that an affine transformation $f$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is uniquely determined by any three pairs $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right),\left(x_{3}, y_{3}\right)$ such that $y_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right)$ for $i=\{1,2,3\}$, provided that the $x_{i}$ do not lie on the same straight line (or, equivalently, that $x_{2}-x_{1}$ and $x_{3}-x_{1}$ are linearly independent). Therefore, $f$ can be described by fixing the image of some geometric object $p$ which is not a subset of a straight line (a polygon, say) under $f$. In fact, to be precise we must also say which point in $p$ is mapped to which one in $f(p)$. If $p$ is a polygon, this can be done by saying which of its vertices is the first, which one is the second, etc. In the following such a geometric object $p$, whose sole purpose is to visualise transformations, is called a sample. Like the constants, all samples in this section are polygons. The order of the vertices of a sample is indicated by an arrow.


Fig. 3. Graphical representation of operations used in the first example.
As an example, Fig. 3 depicts the operations of a $\Sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{H}$ derived from $\mathscr{P}$, where $\Sigma=\left\{F^{(3)}, F^{\prime(3)}, G^{(1)}, H^{(0)}\right\}$, the sample being the hexagon shown at the top. It should be rather obvious how to interpret the bottom row of Fig. 3. The first picture indicates that $F_{\mathscr{H}}$ is given by $\left\langle f_{1} f_{2} f_{3}\right\rangle$, where $f_{1}$ is the unique affine transformation mapping the sample to the topmost one of the three small hexagons (without any rotation or reflexion). Similarly, $f_{2}$ and $f_{3}$ map the sample to the two remaining hexagons. The derived operation $F_{\mathscr{H}}^{\prime}$ makes use of the same transformations, but in addition its definition involves a constant of $\mathscr{P}$. More precisely, $F_{\mathscr{H}}^{\prime}\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}\right)=p_{0} \cup\left\langle f_{1} f_{2} f_{3}\right\rangle\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right.$, $p_{3}$ ) for all $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3} \in \mathbb{P}$, where $p_{0}$ is the outermost hexagonal polygon. Notice that $F_{\mathscr{H}}^{\prime}$ is indeed an allowed operation as it can be defined by $\left\langle f_{0} f_{1} f_{2} f_{3}\right\rangle\left[p_{0}^{\prime}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right] \in$ $\mathscr{F}_{\Sigma_{\rho}}$, where $f_{0}$ is any injective affine contraction such that $p_{0}^{\prime}=f_{0}^{-1}\left(p_{0}\right) \in \mathbb{P}_{0}$ (assuming that $\mathbb{P}_{0}$ is rich enough).
The operation $G_{\mathscr{H}}$ is the unary derived operation such that $G_{\mathscr{H}}(p)=p_{0} \cup g_{1}(p)$ for all $p \in \mathbb{P}$, where $p_{0}$ is as before and $g_{1}$ is the transformation indicated in the figure, involving a slight scaling and a rotation about the centre of the sample. Finally, $H_{\mathscr{H}}$ is the filled hexagon whose dimensions are those of the sample.

Now, let HEXAGONS ${ }_{1}$ be the td generator $(g, \lambda)$ simply consisting of the regular tree grammar $g=(\{S, A\}, \Sigma, P, S)$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
P=\{ & \rightarrow F[S, S, S], S \rightarrow G[A], S \rightarrow H, \\
& \left.\rightarrow F^{\prime}[S, S, S], A \rightarrow G[A], A \rightarrow H\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator $\mathscr{G}_{\text {HEXAGONS }}=\left(\operatorname{HEXAGONS}_{1}, \mathscr{H}\right)$ yields fractals like those in Fig. 4. ${ }^{2}$ An initial segment of a refinement sequence is depicted in Fig. 5.

[^2]

Fig. 4. Fractals generated by $\mathscr{G}_{\text {HEXAGONS }}^{1}$.


Fig. 5. A refinement sequence in $\mathscr{G}_{\text {HEXAGONS }}^{1}$.

It was shown in [7] that $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generators of this kind, i.e., those which just consist of a regular tree grammar, are equivalent to collage grammars, as introduced by Habel and Kreowski in [16] (see also [8]). To be precise, it must be mentioned that the usual definition of collage grammars neither contains the restriction to contracting transformations and compact pictures, nor does it define $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(\mathscr{G})$. Thus, in this paper we obtain a notion of fractals generated by collage grammars at the expense of imposing the restriction to contracting transformations and compactness.

Using a td generator which consists of a regular tree grammar and a td transducer, a language of more symmetric pictures can be obtained. For this, let $\Sigma_{0}=\left\{a^{(1)}, b^{(1)}, c^{(0)}\right\}$ and define $\operatorname{HEXAGONS}_{2}=\left(g^{\prime}, t d\right)$ where $g^{\prime}=\left(\{S\}, \Sigma_{0}, P^{\prime}, S\right)$ and $t d=\left(\Sigma_{0}, \Sigma,\left\{q, q^{\prime}\right\}\right.$, $R, q)$. Here, $\Sigma$ is as before and the productions of $g^{\prime}$ and rules of $t d$ are the following
ones: ${ }^{3}$

$$
P^{\prime}=\{S \rightarrow a[S], S \rightarrow b[S], S \rightarrow c\}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R=\left\{q a \rightarrow F[q, q, q], q b \rightarrow G\left[q^{\prime}\right], q c \rightarrow H,\right. \\
&\left.q^{\prime} a \rightarrow F^{\prime}[q, q, q], q^{\prime} b \rightarrow G\left[q^{\prime}\right], q^{\prime} c \rightarrow H\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice the similarity between the productions of $g$ above and the rules of $t d$. The states $q$ and $q^{\prime}$ correspond to the nonterminals $S$ and $A$, respectively, the only difference being that the formerly nondeterministic choice of rules is now determined by the input symbols read. In fact, it was shown in [13] that, for a td transducer having a monadic input signature, the input symbols determine a partition of the set of rules into "tables" in the sense of TOL- or ETOL-systems [23,24]. Rules having the same input symbol in their left-hand sides belong to the same table. Since the input tree is monadic, in each step all states process the same input symbol, which ensures that rules from the same table are chosen.
As for the present example, this means that every tree $t$ generated by $H E X A G O N S_{2}$ has a rather special form. For all nodes $v, v^{\prime} \in V(t)$ such that $|v|=\left|v^{\prime}\right|$ it holds that $t(v)=t\left(v^{\prime}\right)$. Regarding $\mathrm{L}\left(\mathscr{G}_{\text {HEXAGONS }_{2}}\right)$ (where $\mathscr{G}_{\text {HEXAGONS }_{2}}=\left(\right.$ HEXAGONS $\left._{2}, \mathscr{H}\right)$ ) this guarantees a high degree of symmetry, as shown in Fig. 6. Part of the refinement sequence of the first fractal in Fig. 6 can be seen in Fig. 7.
To discuss another example, let $\Sigma=\left\{F^{(2)}, F^{\prime(1)}, F^{\prime \prime(1)}, G^{(2)}, G^{\prime(1)}, G^{\prime \prime(1)}, C^{(0)}\right\}$ and consider the $\Sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{S}$ whose operations are depicted (in a similar way as before) in Fig. 8. Notice that, intuitively, $F_{\mathscr{\mathscr { L }}}^{\prime}$ and $F_{\mathscr{\mathscr { L }}}^{\prime \prime}$ ( $G_{\mathscr{\mathscr { L }}}^{\prime}$ and $G_{\mathscr{\mathscr { L }}}^{\prime \prime}$ ) are the left and right part of $F_{\mathscr{S}}$ ( $G_{\mathscr{S}}$ resp.). The rotation angles used in $F_{\mathscr{S}}$ are $25^{\circ}$ and $-15^{\circ}$. Conversely, in $G_{\mathscr{L}}$ the angles are $15^{\circ}$ and $-25^{\circ}$.
Let $\operatorname{SEAWEED}=\left(g^{\prime}, t d\right)$, where $g^{\prime}$ is as in the previous example, generating all trees over $\Sigma_{0}=\left\{a^{(1)}, b^{(1)}, c^{(0)}\right\}$, and $t d=\left(\Sigma_{0}, \Sigma,\{q, r, l\}, R, q\right)$ where

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
R=\{q a & \rightarrow F[q, r], q b \rightarrow G[l, q], \\
r a & q c \rightarrow C, \\
& \rightarrow F^{\prime}[r], \\
& l a \rightarrow G^{\prime}[l], \\
l a \rightarrow F^{\prime \prime}[r], & r c \rightarrow C \\
& l c \rightarrow C\} .
\end{array}
$$

Some of the generated fractals and a refinement sequence are shown in Figs. 9 and 10. Intuitively, the state $q$ of $t d$ produces the main branch of each generated picture, turning to the left if the input symbol $b$ is encountered, and to the right otherwise. In both cases it produces a smaller side-branch (which is not ramifying any further) at the opposite side. Left side-branches are produced by means of the state $l$ whereas right ones are produced by means of $r$. Both of them generally behave like the main branch, but $l$ uses the smaller one of the two rotation angles whenever it turns left. Similarly, $r$ uses the small angle when turning right.

[^3]

Fig. 6. Fractals generated by $\mathscr{G}_{\mathrm{HEXAGONS}_{2}}$.

The next example shows how one can make use of a td generator consisting, as in the two examples before, of a regular tree grammar and a td transducer, but where the trees generated by the regular tree grammar are not monadic. Let $\Sigma=\left\{O^{(8)}, T^{(4)}, P^{(0)}\right\}$ and let $\mathscr{M}$ be the $\Sigma$-algebra whose operations are depicted in Fig. 11. Consider the td generator $\mathscr{G}_{\text {MOSAIC }}=($ MOSAIC, $\mathscr{M})$, where MOSAIC $=(g, t d)$ is given by $g=\left(\{S, A\}, \Sigma_{0}, P, S\right)$ and $t d=\left(\Sigma_{0}, \Sigma,\left\{q, q^{\prime}\right\}, R, q\right)$ with

$$
\begin{aligned}
P= & \{S \rightarrow \text { init }[A], S \rightarrow b, A \rightarrow a[A, A], A \rightarrow b\} \text { and } \\
R= & \left\{q \text { init } \rightarrow O\left[q x_{1}, q x_{1}, q x_{1}, q x_{1}, q x_{1}, q x_{1}, q x_{1}, q x_{1}\right],\right. \\
& q a \rightarrow T\left[q x_{1}, q x_{2}, q^{\prime} x_{2}, q x_{2}\right], \\
& q^{\prime} a \rightarrow T\left[q^{\prime} x_{2}, q^{\prime} x_{1}, q x_{1}, q^{\prime} x_{1}\right], \\
& q b \rightarrow P, \\
& \left.q^{\prime} b \rightarrow P\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$



Fig. 7. A refinement sequence in $\mathscr{G}_{\text {HEXAGONS }}^{2}$.


Fig. 8. The operations of $\mathscr{S}$.


Fig. 9. Fractals generated by $\mathscr{G}_{\text {SEAWEED }}$.


Fig. 10. A refinement sequence in $\mathscr{G}_{\text {SEAWEED }}$.


Fig. 11. The operations of $\mathscr{M}$.


Fig. 12. Fractals generated by $\mathscr{G}_{\text {MOSAIC }}$.

Fig. 12 shows some of the fractals generated by $\mathscr{G}_{\text {MOSAIC }}$; a refinement sequence is pictured in Fig. 13. Intuitively, the octagon is divided into concentric rings of triangles using $T_{\mathcal{M}}$. The input tree processed by $t d$ determines whether or not a ring is subdivided. In order to see how this works, consider a derivation of $t d$ on input $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{0}}$. After some derivation steps, every state in the derived tree corresponds to a triangle on one of the mentioned rings. What is more, all states referring to the same ring process the same subtree of $t$. In the next step, if the input in state $q$ is $a\left[t_{1}, t_{2}\right]$, the


Fig. 13. A refinement sequence in $G_{M O S A I C}$ (the first picture, $P_{\mathscr{M}}$, being omitted).
triangle is replaced with four smaller ones: an inner triangle whose further refinement is determined by $t_{1}$, and three outer triangles refined along $t_{2}$. Because of the fact that one of the triangles is mirrored, we need a second state in order to keep track of the orientation. The refinement of a ring stops if the input symbol $b$ is encountered.

Finally, let us consider an example which demonstrates the benefit of using more than just one td transducer. The previous examples should have made clear that a single nonlinear td transducer can be employed in order to create certain dependencies between different parts of a generated picture. The simplest case is a td transducer whose input signature is $\Sigma_{\text {succ }}$ (or a similar one). Here, the input $s^{n}[0]$ can be used as a kind of counter in order to ensure that all parts of the picture are refined to the same degree. This cannot be achieved by a regular tree grammar (provided that the output trees are not essentially monadic ones) because the latter allows to replace nonterminal symbols independently from each other (see the pictures generated by $\mathscr{G}_{\text {HEXAGONS }}$ in the beginning of this section). However, a td transducer can also use nondeterminism. If this is combined with nonlinearity, two copies of a subtree of the input tree may yield output trees which show certain similarities (by taking advantage of the fact that the same input is processed), yet they are different because of the nondeterministic choice of rules. Now, a second td transducer can be used in order to repeat this game on the next level: By copying subtrees of its input (which the first td transducer produced in a nondeterministic way) it can use them to produce dependencies between different parts of a picture.

Here is an example, using the $\Sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{L}$ whose operations are shown in Fig. 14 (in the way the reader should by now be familiar with). Thus, $\Sigma=\left\{E^{(3)}, F^{(2)}, G^{(1)}, G^{\prime(1)}\right.$, $\left.T^{(0)}\right\}$. The aim is to construct a $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator $\mathscr{G}_{\text {LEAVES }}=($ LEAVES, $\mathscr{L})$ such that $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}\left(\mathscr{G}_{\text {LEAVES }}\right)$ consists of "leaves" like those shown in Fig. 15. Every such


Fig. 14. The operations of $\mathscr{L}$.


Fig. 15. Fractals generated by $\mathscr{G}_{\text {LEAVES }}$.
leaf consists of a stem with several leaflets on either side. Each pair of opposite leaflets is exactly symmetric: The leaflet on the right is the mirror image of its counterpart on the left. On the other hand, the individual leaflets themselves are not in general symmetric with respect to their middle axis. Intuitively, this is achieved by generating the two halves of a leaflet in a nondeterministic way using a td transducer, and then duplicating the resulting leaflets by another td transducer in order to obtain two copies


Fig. 16. A refinement sequence in $\mathscr{G}_{\text {LEAVES }}$.
of each. For this, let $L E A V E S=\left(g_{\text {succ }}, t d_{0} t d_{1}\right)$, where $g_{\text {succ }}$ is as in Lemma 4.4 and

$$
t d_{0}=\left(\Sigma_{\text {succ }}, \Sigma_{0},\left\{q_{0}, q, q^{\prime}\right\}, R_{0}, q_{0}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad t d_{1}=\left(\Sigma_{0}, \Sigma,\{q\}, R, q\right) .
$$

Here, $\Sigma_{0}=\left\{E^{(2)}, F^{(2)}, G^{(1)}, G^{\prime(1)}, T^{(0)}\right\}$ (which deviates from $\Sigma$ only with respect to the rank of $E$ ) and

$$
\left.\left.\begin{array}{rl}
R_{0}=\left\{q_{0} s\right. & \rightarrow E\left[q_{0}, q\right], q s \rightarrow F\left[q^{\prime}, q^{\prime}\right], q^{\prime} s \rightarrow G\left[q^{\prime}\right], q^{\prime} s \rightarrow G^{\prime}\left[q^{\prime}\right], \\
& q_{0} 0
\end{array}\right) T, q 0 \rightarrow T, q^{\prime} 0 \rightarrow T\right\} \text {, }
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
R=\{q E & \rightarrow E\left[q x_{1}, q x_{2}, q x_{2}\right], q F \rightarrow F\left[q x_{1}, q x_{2}\right], \\
& q G \rightarrow G\left[q x_{1}\right], q G^{\prime} \rightarrow G^{\prime}\left[q x_{1}\right], \\
& q T \rightarrow T\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $t d_{1}$ simply copies its input tree, except that the second subtree of every $E$ labelled node is duplicated. In Fig. 16 one of the refinement sequences in $\mathscr{G}_{\text {LEAVES }}$ is depicted.

## 7. Rational fractals

$\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generators can simulate the so-called mutually recursive function systems (MRFSs), which generalise the well-known iterated function systems. In the literature, MRFSs can be found under different names, with slightly different but obviously equivalent definitions regarding their picture generating capabilities. They are called MRFSs by Cǔlik and Dube [4,5] and hierarchical IFS's by Peitgen, Jürgens, and Saupe [20]. As a slight extension, one may allow an MRFS to make use of the condensation sets known from Barnsley's famous book [2], which yields MRFSS with condensation sets (cMRFSs).

The following definition of cMRFSs in terms of td generators is taken from [7] (where they are called tree-based IFSs).

Definition 7.1 (Tree-based cMRFS). A tree-based cMRFS is a $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator $(G, \mathscr{A})$ such that $G=\left(t d, g_{\text {succ }}\right)$ for a total, deterministic, and nondeleting td transducer $t d$.

Notice that every tree-based cMRFS as in the definition is approximating. Since the regular tree grammar $g_{\text {succ }}$ just generates $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {succ }}}, \mathrm{L}(G)$ is simply the range of the td transducer $t d$. As the latter is required to be total, deterministic, and nondeleting, it is clear that $\operatorname{td}\left(s^{n}[0]\right)$ consists of a single tree of depth $n$, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Consequently, $t d\left(s^{\infty}\right)=\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(G)$ is a singleton, i.e., $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ consists of a single fractal.

It was shown in [7] that tree-based cMRFSs generate the same fractals as cMRFSs, provided the latter use only condensation sets which can be expressed using the constants in $\mathbb{P}_{0}$. Intuitively, the condensation sets are the constants used in the definition of the derived operations in $\mathscr{A}$. Thus, if we restrict ourselves to the case where $\mathscr{A}$ contains only operations of $\mathscr{P}$ (rather than derived ones), tree-based MRFSs are obtained which are equal in power to MRFSs. Finally, if the state set of $t d$ is required to be a singleton, then we get tree-based IFSs (with or without condensation, the difference being the same as above).
As, in general, a $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator yields a whole language of fractals, one may immediately expect that some of its fractals can be generated by cMRFSs whereas others cannot. The study of this relationship is the purpose of the present section.

The next definition, together with Theorem 7.4, provides a name for the sort of fractals generated by cMRFSs.

Definition 7.2 (Rational fractal). A tree $t$ is rational if it has only finitely many subtrees, i.e., if the set $\{t / v \mid v \in V(t)\}$ is finite. A picture $p$ is a $\mathbb{P}_{0}$-rational fractal (rational fractal, for short) if $p=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(t)$ for some infinite rational tree $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma \rho}$.

Let us call a tree or fractal irrational if it is not rational. (Notice that irrational trees must necessarily be infinite.) The following lemma states that a td transducer cannot derive any irrational tree from a rational one without deriving a rational tree from this input tree, too. Furthermore, if the irrational output tree is taken from a regular tree language $L$, then the rational one can also be taken from $L$.

Lemma 7.3. Let $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$ be a $t d$ transducer, $L \subseteq \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}$ a regular tree language, and $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ a rational tree. If $t d(t) \cap L \neq \emptyset$ then it contains a rational tree.

Proof. It is well known that the regularity of $L$ implies the existence of a td transducer $t d^{\prime}=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q^{\prime}, R^{\prime}, q_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ such that $t d^{\prime}(s)=t d(s) \cap L$ for all $s \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ (see, e.g., [12, Lemma 2.2]). Therefore, it suffices to prove the following claim.

Claim. For every rational tree $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$ such that $\operatorname{td}(t) \neq \emptyset, \operatorname{td}(t)$ contains a rational tree.

The claim is proved by constructing a rational $t$-derivation tree. For this, if $d t$ is a $t$-derivation tree of $t d$, denote the tree in $Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)$ from which $d t / v$ is derived by $\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v)$ : if $|v|=l$ and $q_{0} t \Rightarrow{ }_{d-t d}^{l} t^{\prime} \Rightarrow{ }_{d-t d}^{\infty} d t$ is the unique derivation yielding $d t$, then $\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v)=t^{\prime} / v$.

The rational $t$-derivation tree $d t$ to be constructed will be obtained as the limit of a converging sequence $\left(d t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $t$-derivation trees. For this, associate with every tree $s \in Q\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}\right)$ an arbitrary but fixed tree $\delta(s)$ such that $s \Rightarrow_{d-t d}^{\infty} \delta(s)$, if such a tree exists.

The sequence $\left(d t_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is constructed inductively. To start with, let $d t_{0}=\delta\left(q_{0} t\right)$ (which is defined, by the assumption that $t d(t) \neq \emptyset$ ). For $i \geqslant 1, d t_{i}$ is the unique tree such that
(1) $d t_{i}(v)=d t_{i-1}(v)$ for all $v \in V\left(d t_{i-1}\right)$ with $|v|<i$, and
(2) $d t_{i} / v=\delta\left(\right.$ orig $\left._{d t_{i-1}}(v)\right)$ for all $v \in V\left(d t_{i-1}\right)$ with $|v|=i$.

The tree $\delta\left(\right.$ orig $\left._{d t_{i-1}}(v)\right)$ in (2) exists since the derivation orig $_{d t_{i-1}}(v) \Rightarrow_{d-t d}^{*} d t_{i-1} / v$ exists. Therefore, each $d t_{i}$ is indeed a $t$-derivation tree of $t d$. Furthermore, $\lim d t_{i}$ (which, by the fact that $e q\left(d t_{i}, d t_{i+1}\right)>i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, is defined) yields an infinite $t$-derivation tree $d t$. It remains to be shown that $d t$ is rational. Due to (1) and (2), for all $v \in V\left(d t_{i}\right)$ with $|v| \leqslant i$ it holds that $d t_{i}(v)=\delta\left(\operatorname{orig}_{d t_{i}}(v)\right)(\lambda)$ (i.e., $d t_{i}(v)$ is the root symbol of $\left.\delta\left(\operatorname{orig}_{d t_{i}}(v)\right)\right)$. Consequently, $d t(v)=\delta\left(\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v)\right)(\lambda)$ for all $v \in V(d t)$. However, by the definition of derivation trees, $\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v)$ and $d t(v)$ together uniquely determine $\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v j)$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $v j \in V(t d)$, which means that $d t / v$ is uniquely determined by $\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v)$. Therefore, $d t / u=d t / v$ for all $u, v \in V(d t)$ satisfying $\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(u)=\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v)$. This shows that $d t$ is rational, because $t$ is rational and every tree $\operatorname{orig}_{d t}(v)(v \in V(d t))$ has the form $q t^{\prime}$, where $q \in Q$ and $t^{\prime}=t / v^{\prime}$ for some $v^{\prime} \in V(t)$. Of course, the rationality of $d t$ implies that $r e s(d t)$ is rational, which completes the proof of the claim and, hence, the proof of the lemma.

We can now show that rationality of a fractal means that it is generated by a treebased cMRFS, and vice versa.

Theorem 7.4. A picture $p$ is a rational fractal if and only if there is a tree-based $c M R F S \mathscr{G}$ such that $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})=\{p\}$.

Proof. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let $t \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\mathscr{P}}}$ be an infinite rational tree such that $p=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}(t)$, and let $\left\{t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right\}=\left\{t^{\prime} \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{p}} \backslash \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma_{s}} \mid t^{\prime}=t / v\right.$ for some $\left.v \in V(t)\right\}$, where $t_{1}=t$. In order to construct an appropriate tree-based cMRFS $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{A})$, define a signature $\Sigma$ and a $\Sigma$ algebra $\mathscr{A}$ as follows. $\Sigma^{(0)}=\{a\}$ where $a_{\mathscr{A}}=p_{0}$ for some arbitrary element $p_{0}$ of $\mathbb{P}_{0}$. Furthermore, for every $i \in[k], \Sigma$ contains a symbol $F_{i}$ whose rank and interpretation in $\mathscr{A}$ are determined as follows. Obviously, $t_{i}$ can be written in the form $t_{i}^{0} \llbracket t_{\mu_{i}(1), \ldots, \mu_{\mu_{i}\left(l_{i}\right)} \rrbracket}$ for some tree $t_{i}^{0} \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma_{s,}}\left(X_{l_{i}}\right)$, where $l_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mu_{i}(j) \in[k]$ for all $j \in\left[l_{i}\right]$. (Notice that $l_{i} \geqslant 1$ since $t_{i}$ is infinite.) Now, let the rank of $F_{i}$ be $l_{i}$ and define $F_{i \mathscr{A}}=o p_{\mathscr{P}}\left(t_{i}^{0}\right)$.

Let $t d=\left(\Sigma_{\text {succ }}, \Sigma,\left\{q_{1}, \ldots, q_{k}\right\}, R, q_{1}\right)$ where $R$ contains the rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
& q_{i} 0 \rightarrow a \\
& q_{i} s \rightarrow F_{i}\left[q_{\mu_{i}(1)}, \ldots, q_{\mu_{i}\left(l_{i}\right)}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $i \in[k]$. It follows immediately from this construction that $t d\left(s^{\infty}\right)=\left\{t^{\prime}\right\}$ for some tree $t^{\prime} \in \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$ satisfying $h\left(t^{\prime}\right)=t$, where $h$ is the homomorphism defining $\mathscr{A}$, i.e., the one given by $h\left(F_{i}\right)=t_{i}^{0}$ and $h(a)=p_{0}$. Consequently, $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{A})$ with $G=\left(t d, g_{\text {succ }}\right)$ satisfies $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(\mathscr{G})=\{p\}$. Furthermore, $t d$ is deterministic. It is also nondeleting since $l_{i} \geqslant 1$ (as mentioned above), which proves that $\mathscr{G}$ is a tree-based cMRFS, as required.
$(\Leftarrow)$ Let $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})=\{p\}$ for some tree-based cMRFS $\mathscr{G}$. By definition, this means $p=\operatorname{val}_{\mathscr{P}}\left(h\left(t d\left(s^{\infty}\right)\right)\right)$ for some total, deterministic, and nondeleting td transducer $t d$ and a tree homomorphism $h$ (which, by the very definition of tree homomorphisms, is also a total, deterministic, and nondeleting td transduction). By the nondeleting property of $t d$ and $h, h\left(t d\left(s^{\infty}\right)\right)$ is infinite since $s^{\infty}$ is, and by Lemma 7.3 (applied twice, where $L$ is the set of all trees over the relevant output signature) $h\left(t d\left(s^{\infty}\right)\right)$ is rational, so $p$ is a rational fractal, as claimed.

The next lemma directly leads to the main theorem of this section. The lemma states that every fractal in $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(\mathscr{G})$ (where $\mathscr{G}$ is a $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator) lies near to a rational fractal.

Lemma 7.5. Let $\mathscr{G}$ be a $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generator and let $p \in \mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$. For every $\varepsilon>0$ there is a rational fractal $p^{\prime} \in \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ such that $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p, p^{\prime}\right) \leqslant \varepsilon$.

Proof. The proof of the lemma consists mainly of the verification of two claims. The first claim states that the inverse image of a regular tree language under a td transduction is regular (see also [11, Lemma 1.2] and the remark following its proof).

Claim 1. Let $t d=\left(\Sigma, \Sigma^{\prime}, Q, R, q_{0}\right)$ be a td transducer and $L \subseteq \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma^{\prime}}$ a regular tree language. Then the tree language

$$
t d^{-1}(L)=\left\{s \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma} \mid t d(s) \cap L \neq \emptyset\right\}
$$

is regular.
In order to prove Claim 1 it suffices to note the following well-known facts (the first one of which was already used in the proof of Lemma 7.3):
(1) There is a td transducer $t d^{\prime}$ such that $t d^{\prime}(s)=t d(s) \cap L$ for all $s \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma}$.
(2) For every td transducer $t d^{\prime}$, the set $\operatorname{dom}\left(t d^{\prime}\right)$ of all trees $s$ such that $t d^{\prime}(s) \neq \emptyset$, is regular.
By (1) and (2) $\operatorname{dom}\left(t d^{\prime}\right)=t d^{-1}(L)$ is regular, as claimed.
The second claim is already almost everything which is needed in order to prove the lemma itself.

Claim 2. Let $\tau$ be a composition of finitely many td transductions, and let $L$ be a regular tree language. If $\tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\text {succ }}\right) \cap L \neq \emptyset$ then $\tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {succ }}}\right) \cap L$ contains a rational tree.

In order to prove Claim 2, proceed by induction on the number $n$ of td transductions $\tau$ is composed of. For $n=0$ there is nothing to show because $\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {suce }}}$ contains only rational trees. Now, let $\tau=t d \circ \tau^{\prime}$ for some $t d$ transducer $t d$ and assume that the claim is known to hold for $\tau^{\prime}$. If $\tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {suce }}}\right) \cap L \neq \emptyset$ then there is a tree $t_{0} \in \tau^{\prime}\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {suce }}}\right)$ such that $t d\left(t_{0}\right) \cap L \neq \emptyset$. By Claim 1 the tree language $t d^{-1}(L)$ is regular. Since $t_{0} \in t d^{-1}(L)$, the induction hypothesis yields a rational tree $t_{0}^{\prime} \in \tau^{\prime}\left(\mathscr{T}_{\text {succe }}\right) \cap t d^{-1}(L)$. This implies that $t d\left(t_{0}^{\prime}\right) \cap L \neq \emptyset$. As $t_{0}^{\prime}$ is rational, Lemma 7.3 says that $t d\left(t_{0}^{\prime}\right) \cap L$ contains a rational tree. This finishes the proof of Claim 2 because $\operatorname{td}\left(t_{0}^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\text {suce }}\right)$.

Now, in order to prove the lemma, let $\mathscr{G}=(G, \mathscr{A})$ for some td generator $G$ and a $\sum$-algebra $\mathscr{A}$. By the continuity of val $_{\mathscr{A}}$ (see Lemma 5.4) it suffices to show that, for every tree $t \in \mathrm{~L}_{\text {inf }}(G)$ and every $m \in \mathbb{N}$, there is an infinite rational tree $t^{\prime} \in \mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(G)$ satisfying $e q\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \geqslant m$. By Lemma 4.4 it holds that $\mathrm{L}(G)=\tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {suce }}}\right)$ for a composition $\tau$ of finitely many td transducers. In other words, we have $t \in \tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {succ }}}\right) \cap I$, where $I=\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma} \backslash \mathscr{F}_{\Sigma}$. The set $I$ is in fact regular: it is generated by the regular tree grammar $g=(\{S, A\}, \Sigma, P, S)$, where $P$ contains, for every $f \in \Sigma^{(n)}(n \in \mathbb{N})$, all rules

$$
S \rightarrow f[\underbrace{A, \ldots, A}_{i-1}, S, \underbrace{A, \ldots, A}_{n-i}]
$$

such that $i \in[n]$, as well as the rule $A \rightarrow f[A, \ldots, A]$. Another regular tree language is $L_{t, m}=\left\{t^{\prime} \in \mathscr{T}_{\Sigma} \mid e q\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \geqslant m\right\}$. To see this, decompose $t$ into $t_{0} \llbracket t_{1}, \ldots, t_{l} \rrbracket$, where $V\left(t_{0}\right)=\{v \in V(t)| | v \mid \leqslant m\}$ and $t_{0}(v) \in X \Leftrightarrow|v|=m$ for all $v \in V\left(t_{0}\right)$ (i.e., $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{l}$ are the subtrees of $t$ rooted at depth $m$ ). Then, $L_{t, m}$ is generated by the regular tree grammar $g_{t, m}=\left(\{S, A\}, \Sigma,\left\{S \rightarrow t_{0} \llbracket A, \ldots, A \rrbracket\right\} \cup\{A \rightarrow f[A, \ldots, A] \mid f \in \Sigma\}, S\right)$.

Due to the regularity of $I$ and $L_{t, m}$ their intersection is regular as well. Furthermore, $t \in \tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {succ }}}\right) \cap I \cap L_{t, m}$, which by Claim 2 implies that $\tau\left(\mathscr{T}_{\Sigma_{\text {succ }}}\right) \cap I \cap L_{t, m}$ contains a rational tree $t^{\prime}$. In other words, $t^{\prime}$ is a rational tree in $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(G)$ such that $e q\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \geqslant m$, as required.

As a direct consequence of Lemma 7.5 the main theorem of this section, which extends Theorem 7.4, is obtained.

Theorem 7.6. Let $\mathscr{G}$ be a $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted $t d$ generator. For every irrational fractal $p \in \mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ there is a converging sequence $\left(p_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathrm{~N}}$ of rational fractals $p_{i} \in \mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ such that $\lim p_{i}=p$. In particular, if $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ is finite then every picture $p \in \mathrm{~L}_{\mathrm{inf}}(\mathscr{G})$ is a rational fractal.

Proof. The main statement is an immediate consequence of Lemma 7.5. Furthermore, if $p=\lim p_{i}$ is irrational for a converging sequence $\left(p_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of rational fractals, then $\left\{p_{i} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ must necessarily be infinite (since $p \neq p_{i}$ implies $d_{\mathrm{H}}\left(p, p_{i}\right)>0$ for all
$i \in \mathbb{N}$, yet $\left(p_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $\left.p\right)$. Therefore, $\mathrm{L}_{\text {inf }}(\mathscr{G})$ cannot contain an irrational fractal unless it is infinite.

## 8. Conclusion

In this paper, an approach has been proposed which combines formal language theory and fractal geometry through the notion of $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted top-down tree generators. These devices generate languages of fractals by deriving infinite trees and interpreting them as expressions which denote pictures.

It was shown in [7] that $\mathscr{P}$-interpreted td generators are able to simulate collage grammars $[8,16]$ and mutually recursive function systems ([4,5], see also the previous section). However, while collage grammars generate pictures with finite derivation trees (i.e., they do not contain fractals), a mutually recursive function system is a deterministic device which generates just a single fractal by an infinite process. The approach presented here combines the nondeterministic nature of grammars with the fractal detailedness of generated objects.

The so-called approximating td generators turned out to be particularly well behaved as the fractals they generate are the limits of refinement sequences - converging sequences in the generated language which can be constructed by a simple syntactic procedure. As a consequence, the generated fractals can be approximated by pictures which are themselves elements of the generated language.
It remains to be mentioned that the examples shown in this paper were produced using Treebag, a Java implementation of the ideas presented here, which can be downloaded from http://www.informatik.uni-bremen.de//drewes/treebag. The distribution contains many examples, including those presented in Section 6 of this paper.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ If $\Sigma \cap \Sigma^{\prime}=\emptyset$ one can just say $V=\{v \in V(s) \mid s(v) \in \Sigma \cup Q\}$.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ Of course, strictly speaking, these are only good approximations instead of "real" fractals.

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ Recall the convention that, since $\Sigma_{0}$ is monadic, the variable $x_{1}$ is omitted in the right-hand sides of the rules in $R$.

