DCG <-> BNF verbcalc semantic grammar

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mapping BNF to DCG

♦ rules to recognize numerical constants in C constant -->

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grammars as declarative statements

- ◆ note the *denotational* character of a grammar rule:
 - it can be interpreted directly as stating what a sequence of a certain type is made of.

A constant is a (sequence of) dotted_digits or a floating_constant or a character_constant or a string_constant.

but grammar rules have a procedural aspect:

digits --> digit; digits, digit. doesn't work.

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semantics in the syntax

- ◆ DCG grammars can combine *semantic* with syntactic features:
 - i. e., rules can compute on syntactic constituents to check a constraint or compute a result
- ◆ use { any goal} as a subgoal in a DCG rule
- ♦ if not in {}, a goal in a DCG rule must be the goal (head) of grammar rule.

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semantic goal

```
\begin{aligned} & \text{digit --> [D], \{is\_dec\_digit(D)\}.} \\ & \text{is\_dec\_digit(D) :-} \\ & \text{member(D, "0123456789").} \end{aligned}
```

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=

cleaner output

- | ?- X = "a". X = [97]
- ♦ to avoid the ASCII codes in the output, when working with character strings, convert using string_to_list:

• or use *atoms* rather than strings (as in verbcalc)

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an 'easy' example

```
?- trace, constant("12", []).
 Call: (9) constant([49, 50], [])?
 Call: (10) digits([49, 50], [])?
 Call: (11) digit([49, 50], [])?
 Call: (12) 'C'([49, 50], _L287, _L288) ?
 Exit: (12) 'C'([49, 50], 49, [50])?
 Call: (12) is_dec_digit(49) ?
 Exit: (12) is_dec_digit(49) ?
 Call: (12) []=[50]?
 Fail: (12) []=[50]?
 Call: (11) digits([50], []) ?
 Call: (12) digit([50], []) ?
 Call: (13) 'C'([50], _L375, _L376) ?
 Exit: (13) 'C'([50], 50, []) ?
 Exit: (11) digits([50], []) ?
 Exit: (10) digits([49, 50], [])?
 Exit: (9) constant([49, 50], [])?
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```

lots of steps

```
[debug] ?- trace, constant("2.7e-11",[]).

Call: (9) constant([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Call: (10) digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Fail: (10) digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Call: (10) dotted_digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Fail: (10) dotted_digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Call: (10) floating_constant([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Call: (11) digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], _L255) ?

...

Exit: (11) digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], [46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49]) ?

Call: (11) exponent([46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

...

Fail: (11) digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], _L255) ?

Call: (11) dotted_digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], _L256) ?

Exit: (11) dotted_digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], _S, 101, 45, 49, 49]) ?
```

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and more steps

```
Call: (11) exponent([55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Fail: (11) exponent([55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Call: (11) [55, 101, 45, 49, 49]=[] ?

Fail: (11) [55, 101, 45, 49, 49]=[] ?

Exit: (11) dotted_digits([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], [101, 45, 49, 49]) ?

Call: (11) exponent([101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Exit: (10) floating_constant([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?

Exit: (9) constant([50, 46, 55, 101, 45, 49, 49], []) ?
```

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a

extracting information

• mere recognition is usually not enough; to operate on the pieces, extend the rule with extra arguments:

```
dotted_digits(Integer, []) -->
    digits(Integer), ".".
dotted_digits(Integer, Fraction) -->
    digits(Integer), ".", digits(Fraction).
dotted_digits([], Fraction) -->
    ".", digits(Fraction).
```

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parsing a decimal number

```
digits([Integer]) --> digit(Integer).
digits([D | Rest]) --> digit(D), digits(Rest).

digit([D]) --> [D], {is_digit(D)}.

| ?- digits(V, "12 - a number", Rest).
V = "1",
Rest = "2 - a number"
?- digits(V, "12 - a number", [" "|_]).
V = "12"
```

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. .

special vs. general tools

- ◆ compilers use specialized parsers which are heavily optimized
- ◆ Prolog parsers are easier to construct for a wider variety of tasks formatting, e. g. dates, parsing "small languages", parsing natural language input;
- ♦ little optimization (often not needed)
- ◆ can be integrated with procedural C,
 C++ code

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a "verbal calculator"

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a small example

- high quality response to natural language input requires large syntactic component complex semantic analysis
- ♦ we look at a "toy" example:
 - a 'verbal calculator'

input: an English question
 imagine it converted from speech input
output: a number (= 'meaning' of input)

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sample input/output

♦ | ?- calc.

|: What is 123 and 12345?

12468

|: add up 4 and -1234.

-1230

?- read_sent(S).

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a useful library routine

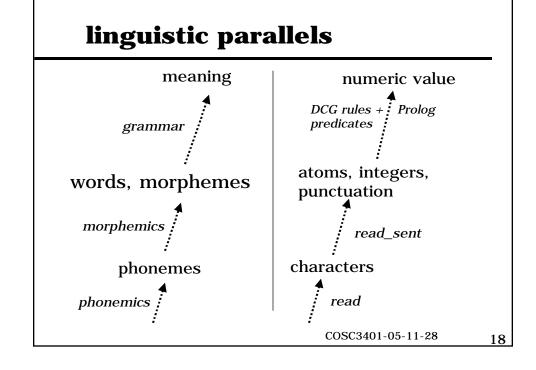
use read_sent to simplify processing

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what's useful about read_sent?

- standarizes case
- extracts words removes "white space"
- distinguishes between words and numbers
- ♦ simplifies processing of punctuation

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some code

◆ the basic loop

```
:- consult('/cs/course.3401/read_sent.pl').
calc :-
   read_sent(Sentence),
   phrase(parse(Answer), Sentence),
   nl, write(Answer), nl, nl,
   calc. % terminate with ^D.
```

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the phrase predicate

```
phrase(Goal(A1, . . ), Sequence) =
   Goal(A1, . . . , Sequence, []).
for a grammatical goal Goal.

Main advantage is separating the grammatical information
   Goal(A1, . . )
from the data to which the rule is to be applied:
   Sequence, []
```

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a small beginning

```
parse(Answer) --> intro, number(N1), sumop,
   number(N2), ['?'],
   {Answer is N1 + N2}.

parse(Answer) --> diff(N1, N2), {Answer is N1 - N2}.

intro --> [atom(what), atom(is)]; [atom(what), aposts].

diff(N1, N2) -->
   [atom(give), atom(me), atom(the), atom(difference),
   atom(between)], number(N1), [atom(and)],
   number(N2), ['.'].
```

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integers only

```
sum(N1, N2) -->
    number(N1), sumop, number(N2).
% why isn't this number confused with built-in number
    predicate?
number(N) -->
    [integer(N)];
    ['-', integer(I)], {N is -I}.
sumop -->
    [atom(plus)]; [atom(and)]; ['+'].

(Note: read_sent can't handle decimal numbers.)
```

parsing a period

ordinary notation can be subtle and ambiguous:

"The number of errors is 2.

"The cost is \$2.10."

"2. and 3. is 5."

"Dr. Smith lives on Airdrie Dr."

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look for patterns

- ♦ no small grammar can encompass variety of English numerical expressions but you can find lots of patterns: use them to
 - -- reduce the number of rules
 - --increase domain of the rules
- heuristic: write one rule and then see if you can find alternative phrasings for parts of it.
- ◆ Notice that we don't need surface grammar: verb, noun, etc.

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semantic grammar

- ◆ a semantic grammar for a fragment of English based on example from Covington, *Natural Language Processing for Prolog Programmers*, Prentice-Hall: 1994
- ◆ maps surface grammar of declarative sentence into a term (fact).

"John runs."-> runs('John').

here, meaning = a data structure;cf. meaning in *verbcalc* = numeric value

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grammar fragment

```
s(Term) --> noun(Subject), verbPhrase(Subject^Term).
verbPhrase(Subject^Term) -->
    verb(Object^ (Subject^Term)), noun(Object).
verbPhrase(Subject^Term) --> verb(Subject^Term).
verb(Y^ (X^Term)) --> trans(Y^ (X^Term)).
verb(X^Term) --> intrans(X^Term).

trans(Y^ (X^Term)) --> transDict(V),
    {Term = .. [V, X, Y]}.
intrans(X^Term) -->
    intransDict(V), {Term = .. [V, X]}.
```

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the dictionary

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toy examples

```
?- s(Meaning, ['Fido', chased, 'Felix'],[]).
Meaning = chased(Fido,Felix)
?- s(Meaning, [cars, chased,'Fido',],[]).
Meaning = chased(cars, Fido)
```

?- s(Meaning, ['Felix', slept],[]).
Meaning = slept(Felix)

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