

## Grammar Rules in Prolog

Based on Chapter 9 in Clocksin & Mellish

G-1

### A Simple Grammar in BNF

$\langle s \rangle ::= a \ b$

$\langle s \rangle ::= a \ \langle s \rangle \ b$

- ◇ S is enclosed by  $\langle \rangle$  which indicates s is a non-terminal
- ◇ A and b are terminal symbols
- ◇ Terminal symbols can never be rewritten

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### BNF

- ◇ One popular grammar notation is BNF (Backus-Naur Form)
- ◇ BNF is commonly used in the definition of programming languages
- ◇ A grammar comprises production rules

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### Generating Sentences

- ◇ A grammar can be used to generate a string of symbols called a sentence
- ◇ Start with a non-terminal
- ◇ Make substitutions using production rules
- ◇ Terminate when the current sequence doesn't contain any non-terminal symbols

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## Generating Sentences - 2

$\langle s \rangle ::= a b$

$\langle s \rangle ::= a \langle s \rangle b$

- ◇ Our grammar (given above) can generate sentences (strings) of what form???

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## Generating Sentences - 3

$\langle s \rangle ::= a b$

$\langle s \rangle ::= a \langle s \rangle b$

- ◇ Our grammar (given above) can generate sentences (strings) of what form???

Answer:  $a^n b^n$   $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

- ◇ The set of sentences generated by the grammar is called the language defined by the grammar

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## Another Example Grammar

- ◇ A robot arm can be sent sequences of commands:
  - » up: move 1 step upward
  - » down: move 1 step downward
- ◇ What is a grammar to capture the robot's possible movements??

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## Another Example Grammar - 2

- ◇ A robot arm can be sent sequences of commands:
  - » up: move 1 step upward
  - » down: move 1 step downward
- ◇ What is a grammar to capture the robot's possible movements??

$\langle \text{move} \rangle ::= \langle \text{step} \rangle$

$\langle \text{move} \rangle ::= \langle \text{step} \rangle \langle \text{move} \rangle$

$\langle \text{step} \rangle ::= \text{up}$

$\langle \text{step} \rangle ::= \text{down}$

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## Parsing in Prolog

- ◇ A grammar generates sentences
- ◇ A grammar can also be used to recognize a given sentence
- ◇ Recognition is really the opposite of generation (ie determine whether a sentence is part of a language as opposed to generating a sentence that is part of a language)
- ◇ Sometimes it is called parsing

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## Parsing in Prolog - 2

- ◇ In Prolog it is easy to write a parsing program using special grammar rule notation called DCG (definite clause grammar)
- ◇ Most Prolog implementations support this special notation for grammars
- ◇ Very easy to change BNF to DCG

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## From BNF to DCG - 1

- ◇ Starting with our simple example in BNF
  - `< s > ::= a b`
  - `< s > ::= a < s > b`
- ◇ Converting it to DCG

`s --> [ a ], [ b ].`

`s --> [ a ], s, [ b ].`

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## From BNF to DCG - 2

- ◇ Note the differences between BNF and DCG notations:
  - » `::=` is replaced by `-->`
  - » Non-terminals are not in brackets any more
  - » Terminals are in square brackets (making them Prolog lists)
  - » Symbols are separated by commas
  - » Each rule is terminated by a full stop (like every other Prolog clause)

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## From BNF to DCG - 3

- ◇ Starting with our robot are example in BNF
  - `< move > ::= < step >`
  - `< move > ::= < step > < move >`
  - `< step > ::= up`
  - `< step > ::= down`
- ◇ Converting it to DCG

?????

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## From BNF to DCG - 4

- ◇ Starting with our robot are example in BNF
  - `< move > ::= < step >`
  - `< move > ::= < step > < move >`
  - `< step > ::= up`
  - `< step > ::= down`
- ◇ Converting it to DCG

```
move --> step.  
move --> step, move.  
step --> [ up ].  
step --> [ down ].
```

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## DCG Notation

- ◇ Each sentence is represented by 2 lists
- ◇ Difference lists of terminal symbols
- ◇ Can think of first list as the sentence you are parsing and the second list as the part of the sentence that is left-over after the parsing is done

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## Back to our First Example

```
s --> [ a ], [ b ].  
s --> [ a ], s, [ b ].
```

```
?- s( [ a, a, b, b ], [ ] ).
```

yes

```
?- s( [ a, b, b ], [ ] ).
```

no

```
?- s( [ a, a, b, b, c ], [ c ] ).
```

yes

```
?- s( [ a, a, c, b, b ], [ c ] ).
```

no

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## Back to our Second Example - 1

**move --> step.**  
**move --> step, move.**  
**step --> [ up ].**  
**step --> [ down ].**

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## Back to our Second Example - 2

?- move( [ up, up, down ], [ ] ).  
yes  
?- move( [ up, up, down ], [ down ] ).  
yes  
?- move( [ up, up, left ], [ ] ).  
no  
?- move( [ up, up, left ], [ left ] ).  
yes  
?- move( [ up, X, up ], [ ] ).  
X = up ;  
X = down ;  
no

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## How Does Prolog DCGs Work? - 1

- ◇ When Prolog consults grammar rules it turns them into normal Prolog clauses
- ◇ Uses simple rules to turn grammar rules into clauses depending on whether the symbols on the right-hand side of the rules are
  - » **All non-terminals**
  - » **A mix of terminals and non-terminals**
  - » **All terminals**

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## How Does Prolog DCGs Work? - 2

- ◇ If the DCG rule is
  - » **n --> n1, n2, ... , nn.**
- ◇ If all the n1, n2, ... nn are non-terminals then the rule is translated into the clause:
  - » **n( List1, Rest ) :-**  
**n1( List1, List2 ),**  
**n2( List2, List3 ),**  
**...**  
**nn( Listn, Rest ).**

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## How Does Prolog DCGs Work? - 3

- ◇ If the DCG rule is
  - » `n --> n1, [t2], n3, [t4].`
  - » Where `n1` and `n3` are non-terminals and `t2` and `t4` are terminals
- ◇ Then the DCG rule is translated into the following clause:
  - » `n( List1, Rest ) :-`  
    `n1( List1, [ t2 | List3 ] ),`  
    `n3( List3, [ t4 | Rest ] ).`

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## How Does Prolog DCGs Work? - 4

- ◇ If the DCG rule is
  - » `n --> [ t1 ], [t2].`
  - » Where `t1` and `t2` are terminals
- ◇ Then the DCG rule is translated into the following clause:
  - » `n( [ t1, t2 | Rest ], Rest ).`

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## Translating Example 1

- ◇ Translate the following DCG grammar into Prolog clauses:  
  
`s --> [ a ], [ b ].`  
  
`s --> [ a ], s, [ b ].`

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## Translating Example 1 - 2

- ◇ Translate the following DCG grammar into Prolog clauses:  
  
`s --> [ a ], [ b ].`  
  
`s --> [ a ], s, [ b ].`  
  
`s( [ a, b | Rest ], Rest ).`  
  
`s( [ a | List1 ], Rest ) :-`  
    `s( List1, [ b | Rest ] ).`

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## Translating Example 2

- ◇ Translate the following DCG grammar into Prolog clauses:

```
move --> step.  
move --> step, move.  
step --> [ up ].  
step --> [ down ].
```

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## Translating Example 2 - 2

- ◇ Translate the following DCG grammar into Prolog clauses:

```
move --> step.  
move --> step, move.  
step --> [ up ].  
step --> [ down ].  
  
move( List, Rest ) :-  
    step( List, Rest ).  
move( List1, Rest ) :-  
    step( List1, List2 ),  
    move( List2, Rest ).  
step( [ up | Rest ], Rest ).  
step( [ down | Rest ], Rest ).
```

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## A More Interesting Example

- ◇ More interesting examples of grammars come from programming languages and natural languages
- ◇ Here is an example grammar for a simple subset of English:

```
sentence --> noun_phrase, verb_phrase.  
verb_phrase --> verb, noun_phrase.  
noun_phrase --> determiner, noun.  
determiner --> [ a ].  
determiner --> [ the ].  
noun --> [ cat ].  
noun --> [ mouse ].  
verb --> [ scares ].  
verb --> [ hates ].
```

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## A More Interesting Example - 2

```
sentence --> noun_phrase, verb_phrase.  
verb_phrase --> verb, noun_phrase.  
noun_phrase --> determiner, noun.  
determiner --> [ a ].  
determiner --> [ the ].  
noun --> [ cat ].  
noun --> [ mouse ].  
verb --> [ scares ].  
verb --> [ hates ].
```

Example sentences generated by this grammar are:

```
[ the, cat, scares, a, mouse ]  
[ the, mouse, hates, the, cat ]  
[ the, mouse, scares, the, mouse ]
```

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### Adding Extra Arguments - 1

- ◇ May want to have extra arguments in our parser apart from the ones dealing with consumption of the input series
- ◇ For example, let us look at the problem of agreement between the subject and the verb in a sentence
- ◇ We can add nouns and verbs in plural

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### Adding Extra Arguments - 2

- ◇ The following rules could be added to our grammar:  
**noun --> [ cats ]**  
**noun --> [ mice ]**  
**verb --> [ scare ]**  
**verb --> [ hate ]**
- ◇ Now we can generate sentences like:  
**[ the, mice, hate, the, cats ]**
- ◇ Unfortunately, it will also generate sentences like:  
**[ the, mouse, hate, the, cat ]**

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### Adding Extra Arguments - 3

- ◇ The problem lies in the rule:  
**sentence --> noun\_phrase, verb\_phrase.**
- ◇ This states that any noun phrase and verb phrase can be put together to form a sentence
- ◇ But in English the noun phrase and verb phrase in a sentence must agree in number
- ◇ Both must be singular or both must be plural

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### Adding Extra Arguments - 4

- ◇ Context dependencies cannot be directly handled by BNF grammars, but they can be handled by DCG grammars by adding arguments to non-terminal symbols
- ◇ So, we add Number as an argument and modify our grammar

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## Adding Extra Arguments - 5

```
sentence( Number ) --> noun_phrase( Number), verb_phrase
( Number ).
verb_phrase( Number ) --> verb( Number ), noun_phrase
( Number1).
noun_phrase( Number ) --> determiner( Number ), noun
( Number ).
determiner( singular ) --> [ a ].
determiner( Number ) --> [ the ].
noun( singular ) --> [ cat ].
noun( plural ) --> [ cats ].
noun( singular ) --> [ mouse ].
noun( plural ) --> [ mice ].
verb( singular ) --> [ scares ].
verb( plural ) --> [ scare ].
verb( singular ) --> [ hates ].
verb( plural ) --> [ hate ].
```

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## Adding Extra Arguments - 6

- ◇ Converting DCG rules with arguments into Prolog clauses
- ◇ When DCG rules are converted to Prolog clauses, the arguments on non-terminals are simply added to the usual two list arguments, with the two lists coming last.
- ◇ For example:  

```
sentence( Number ) --> noun_phrase( Number ),
verb_phrase( Number ).
```
- ◇ Is converted into:  

```
sentence( Number, List1, Rest ):-
noun_phrase( Number, List1, List2 ),
verb_phrase( Number, List2, Rest ).
```

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## Examples with an Extra Argument

```
?- sentence( plural, [ the, mice, hate, the, cats ], [ ] ).
yes
?- sentence( plural, [ the, mouse, hates, the, cat ], [ ] ).
no
?- sentence( Number, [ the, mouse, hates, the, cat ], [ ] ).
Number = singular
?- sentence( singular, [ the, What, hates, the, cat ], [ ] ).
What = cat ;
What = mouse ;
no
?- sentence( plural, [ the, mice, hate, the, cat, a, lot ], [ a, lot ] ).
yes
```

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## Parse Trees

- ◇ The parse tree of a phrase is a tree with the following properties:
  - » All the leaves of the tree are labelled by terminal symbols of the grammar
  - » All the internal nodes of the tree are labelled by non-terminal symbols; the root of the tree is labelled by the non-terminal that corresponds to the phrase
  - » The parent-children relation in the tree is as specified by the rules of the grammar

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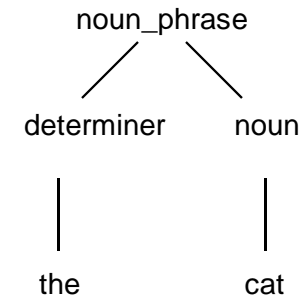
## Parse Trees - 2

- ◇ Sometimes it is useful to have the parse tree explicitly represented in the program to perform some computation on it. For example to extract the meaning of a sentence.
- ◇ The parse tree for the noun phrase “the cat” would be represented as
  - » **noun\_phrase( determiner( the ), noun( cat ) )**
- ◇ To generate a parse tree, add to each non-terminal the parse tree as an argument

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## Parse Trees - 3

- ◇ The parse tree of a noun phrase in our grammar has the form
  - » **noun\_phrase( determiner( the ), noun( cat ) )**
- ◇ This represents the tree



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## Parse Trees - 4

- ◇ Adding the parse trees as arguments into our noun phase grammar rule
  - noun\_phrase --> determiner, noun.**
- ◇ Results in the modified rule
  - noun\_phrase( noun\_phrase( DetTree, NounTree ) --> determiner( DetTree ), noun( NounTree ).**
- ◇ This rule can be read as
  - » **A noun phrase whose parse tree is noun\_phrase ( DetTree, NounTree) consists of:**
    - > **A determiner whose parse tree is DetTree, and**
    - > **A noun whose parse tree is NounTree**

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## Modified Grammar

```

sentence( Number, sentence( NP, VP )) -->
    noun_phrase( Number, NP ), verb_phrase( Number, VP ).
verb_phrase( Number, verb_phrase( Verb, NP )) -->
    verb( Number, Verb ), noun_phrase( Number1, NP ).
noun_phrase( Number, noun_phrase( Det, Noun)) -->
    determiner( Det ), noun( Number, Noun ).
determiner( determiner( the ) ) --> [ the ].
noun( singular, noun( cat ) ) --> [ cat ].
noun( plural, noun( cats ) ) --> [ cats ].
etc. etc.
  
```

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## Modified Grammar - 2

- ◇ When this grammar is read by Prolog it is automatically translated into a standard Prolog program.

- ◇ The first grammar rule:

```
sentence( Number, sentence( NP, VP )) -->
    noun_phrase( Number, NP ),
    verb_phrase( Number, VP ).
```

- ◇ Is translated into:

```
sentence( Number, sentence( NP, VP ), List, Rest ) :-
    noun_phrase( Number, NP, List, Rest0 ),
    verb_phrase( Number, VP, Rest0, Rest ).
```

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## Modified Grammar - Example

```
?- sentence( Number, ParseTree, [ the, mice, hate, the,
    cat ], [ ] ).
```

Number = plural

```
ParseTree = sentence( noun_phrase( determiner( the ),
    noun( mice ) ), verb_phrase( verb( hate ), noun_phrase
    ( determiner( the ), noun( cat ) ) ) )
```

```
?- noun_phrase( plural, ParseTree, [ the, mice, hate, the,
    cat ], Leftover ).
```

ParseTree = noun\_phrase( determiner( the ), noun( mice ) )

Leftover = [ hate, the, cat ]

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## Adding Extra Tests

- ◇ So far, everything mentioned in the grammar rules has had to do with how the input sequence is consumed
- ◇ Every goal in the resulting Prolog clause has been involved with consuming some amount of input
- ◇ Sometimes we want to specify goals not of this type
- ◇ Any goals enclosed in curly brackets { } are to be left unchanged by the translator

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## Example – Extra Tests

- ◇ Consider the robot arm example again:

```
move --> step.
```

```
move --> step, move.
```

```
step --> [ up ].
```

```
step --> [ down ].
```

- ◇ Now, we want to define the distance the robot has moved as the difference between the robot's position before the move and after the move.
- ◇ Let each step be 1mm in either the positive or negative direction
- ◇ So, the program [ up, up, down, up ] would be equivalent to a distance of 2 mm

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## Example – Extra Tests - 2

- ◇ To accomplish our goal we have to add the move's distance as an argument
- ◇ To the old grammar

```
move --> step.  
move --> step, move.  
step --> [ up ].  
step --> [ down ].
```
- ◇ So, we get a revised grammar

????

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## Example – Extra Tests - 3

- ◇ To accomplish our goal we have to add the move's distance as an argument
- ◇ To the old grammar

```
move --> step.  
move --> step, move.  
step --> [ up ].  
step --> [ down ].
```
- ◇ So, we get a revised grammar

```
move( D ) --> step( D ).  
move( D ) --> step( D1 ), move( D2 ), { D is D1 + D2 }.  
step( 1 ) --> [ up ].  
step( -1 ) --> [ down ].
```

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## A Final Example

- ◇ Lets make our robot arm example more interesting. Suppose the robot can be in 1 of 2 gears: g1 or g2. When a step command is received in gear g1 the robot will move by 1 mm up or down. In gear, g2 it will move by 2 mm. The program for the robot should consist of gear commands, step commands and a stop command (ending the program)

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## A Final Example - 2

- ◇ Example programs are:  
stop  
□ Returns a distance of 0  
g1 up up stop  
□ Returns a distance of 2  
g1 up up g2 down up stop  
□ Returns a distance of  $1 + 1 + 2 * (-1 + 1) = 2$   
g1 g1 g2 up up g1 up down up g2 stop  
□ Returns a distance of  $2 * (1 + 1) + 1 - 1 + 1 = 5$

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### A Final Example - 3

- ◇ Here is our grammar with distance but without gears:  
    `move( D ) --> step( D ).`  
    `move( D ) --> step( D1 ), move( D2 ), { D is D1 + D2 }.`  
    `step( 1 ) --> [ up ].`  
    `step( -1 ) --> [ down ].`
- ◇ We need to extend it with new rules to handle the gears

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### A Final Example - 4

- ◇ Here is our grammar with distance but without gears:  
    `move( D ) --> step( D ).`  
    `move( D ) --> step( D1 ), move( D2 ), { D is D1 + D2 }.`  
    `step( 1 ) --> [ up ].`  
    `step( -1 ) --> [ down ].`
- ◇ Extend it with the following new rules to handle the gears  
    `prog( 0 ) --> [ stop ].`  
    `prog( Dist ) --> gear( _ ), prog( Dist ).`  
    `prog( Dist ) --> gear( G ), move( D ), prog( Dist1 ),`  
        `{ Dist is G * D + Dist1 }.`  
    `gear( 1 ) --> [ g1 ].`  
    `gear( 2 ) --> [ g2 ].`

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