Slides to Accompany $Programming\ Languages$ and Methodologies

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Chapter 5, Part 1: Parsing Using Prolog

Parsing and the Prolog LGN Preprocessor

- There are a number of possible approaches to developing parsers for grammar recognition. These include:
 - The CYK Algorithm
 - The use of ('cc') tools like Bison
- Prolog provides a very important and useful preprocessor (the LGN) which greatly facilitates parser development.

Logic Grammar Notation (LGN)

- Entering grammar productions directly in Prolog is facilitated by the use of a preprocessor for Logic Grammar Notation (LGN).
- This is also referred to as the Definite Clause Grammar (DCG).
- This is not part of the Prolog standard, but most Prolog implementations provide it.
- Grammar rules in the LGN/DCG format look like ordinary clauses, but use --> for separating the head and tail, rather than :-.
- Expanding grammar rules is done by an internal predicate expand_term, which adds two additional arguments to each predicate.

• The expand_term predicate is normally invoked by the compiler/interpreter as a preprocessing step in the consulting of a file.

Using Grammar Rule Notation

It is assumed that the strings to be parser are represented in Prolog as Prolog lists, i.e.,

$$x = aabac$$

is represented in Prolog as the list

Recall our ultimate objective is to represent our programs as lists, e.g.,

First, consider a simple example. Suppose we had a very minimal set of productions:

$$S \to AB$$

$$A \rightarrow terma$$

$$B \rightarrow termb$$

where $S, A, B \in V_N$ and $terma, termb \in V_T$.

This could be entered *directly* in Prolog LGN as:

Notice in Prolog the *predicates* are s, a and b. Consider the following translation and application in Prolog:

logicgr1.pro compiled, 0.00 sec, 784 bytes.

Yes

Here we see Prolog has done all the work in converting the notation to actual predicates. What is even more important is that Prolog has built a parser for us. We will adopt a "consumption-based" interpretation of the parser operation. For example, the LGN-generated clause:

```
s(A, B) :-
a(A, C),
b(C, B).
```

may be interpreted as:

A is an s with B leftover if A is an a, with C leftover and C is a b with B leftover.

Notice the shared variables and that typically B is the empty list (to require the parser to use all of the input string (list)). Similarly,

Yes

?- listing(b).

```
b([termb|A], A).
Yes
More importantly, we can show that the string "terma termb", i.e.,
the list [terma, termb] is \in L(G):
?- s(All, []).
All = [terma, termb] ;
No
?- s([terma, termb], []).
Yes
```

Prolog and Grammars: The Summary So Far

| productions | in Prolog LGN | translation |
|-----------------------|---------------|------------------|
| | s> a, b. | s(A, B) :- |
| S 	o AB | | a(A, C), |
| | a> [terma]. | b(C, B). |
| | | a([terma A], A). |
| $A \rightarrow terma$ | | |
| | | |

More on Grammar Rule Notation

Suppose we had a slightly more complex^a set of productions:

$$S \to AB$$

$$S \to C$$

$$A \to C$$

$$A \rightarrow a$$

$$B \to b$$

$$B \to c$$

$$C \to d$$

Recall that the logic grammar representation in Prolog (below)

^aAside: can you determine L(G)?

looks slightly different due to the Prolog requirement that predicates must begin with a lowercase symbol.

This is represented in Prolog as:

```
s --> a, b.
s --> c.
a --> c.
a --> [terma].
b --> [termb].
b --> [termc].
```

Now watch what Prolog does:

```
6 ?- ['logicgr2.pro'].
logicgr2.pro compiled, 0.00 sec, 60 bytes.
```

```
Yes
```

a(A, C),

b(C, B).

c(A, B).

Yes

8 ?- listing(a).

c(A, B).

a([terma|A], A).

```
Yes
9 ?- listing(b).
b([termb|A], A).
b([termc|A], A).
Yes
10 ?- listing(c).
c([termd|A], A).
```

Yes

Here we see again Prolog has done all the work in converting the logic grammar notation to actual predicates. As noted, you should be able to generate L(G) for this example. Here are some examples:

```
No
12 ?- s([terma, termb], []).
Yes
14 ?- s([termd], []).
Yes
15 ?- s([termd, termb], []).
Yes
16 ?- s([termb, termb], []).
No
```

Another Translation

Consider:

with translation:

```
?- listing(s).
s(A, E) :-
a(A, B),
B=[b|C],
```

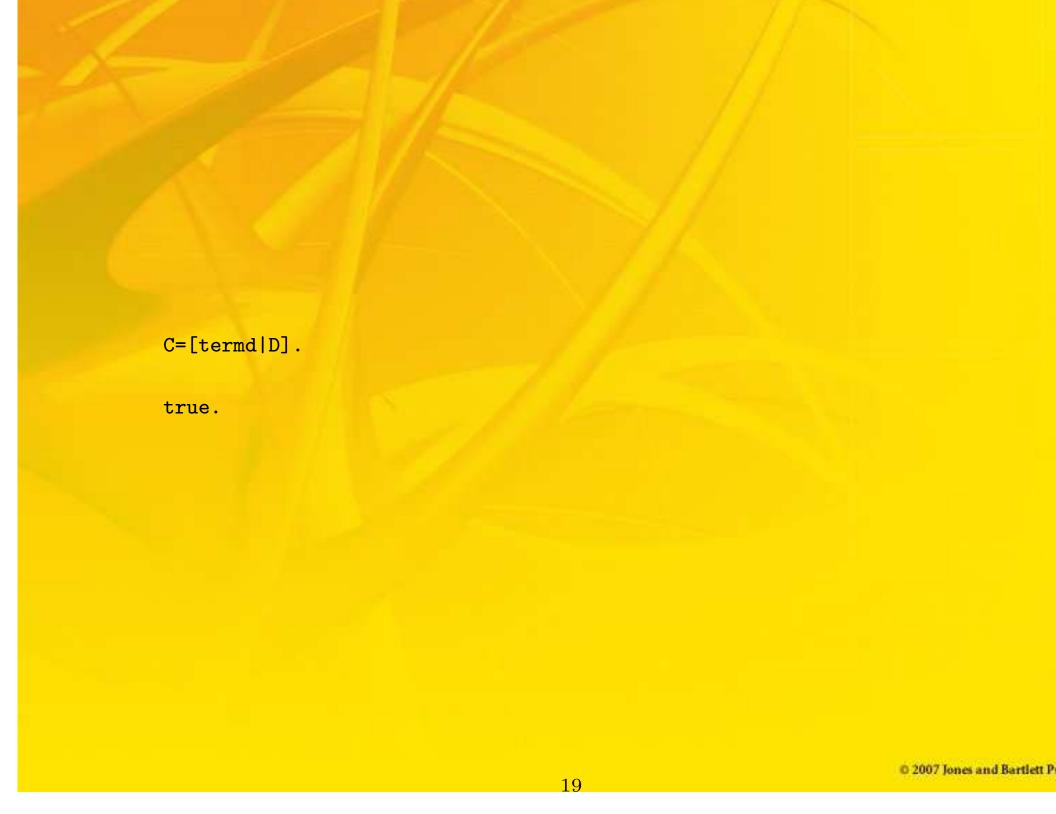
$$D=[d|E]$$
.

More LGN Production Examples

Consider:

```
/* another set of lgn examples */
s1 --> a,[termb],c,[termd].
s2 --> [terma],b,[termc],d.
s3 --> [terma], [termb], [termc], [termd].
a --> [terma].
b --> [termb].
c --> [termc].
d --> [termd].
with associated translations:
```

```
?- listing(s1).
s1(A, E) :-
a(A, B),
B=[termb|C],
c(C, D),
D=[termd|E].
true.
?- listing(s2).
s2([terma|A], D) :-
b(A, B),
B=[termc|C],
d(C, D).
true.
?- listing(s3).
s3([terma|A], D) :-
A=[termb|B],
B=[termc|C],
```



```
Here's a few uses:
/* straightforward -- generation */
?- s1(What,[]).
What = [terma, termb, termc, termd].
?- s2(What,[]).
What = [terma, termb, termc, termd].
?- s3(What,[]).
What = [terma, termb, termc, termd].
/* straightforward -- parsing */
?- s1([terma, termb, termc],[]).
false.
?- s1([terma, termb, termc, termd],[]).
true.
```

```
?- s1([termf,termb,termc,termd],[]).
false.
/* relax constraint on empty list as second argument */
?- s1(Rev,_).
Rev = [terma, termb, termc, termd|_G222].
?- s2(Rev,_).
Rev = [terma, termb, termc, termd|_G222].
?-s3(Rev,_).
Rev = [terma, termb, termc, termd|_G222].
/* and in parsing: */
?- s1([terma, termb, termc],_).
false.
?- s1([terma,termb,termc,termd,terme,termf],_).
```

true. ?- s1([terma,termb,termc,termd,terme,termf],Leftover). Leftover = [terme, termf].

Adding Variables in the LGN

Suppose we need to add another variable to the automatically translated LGN rule above, e.g., what we we really want after LGN translation is:

```
sentence(N, A, B) :-
    nounphrase(N, A, C),
    verbphrase(N, C, B).

Here is how we do it in Prolog's LGN:
sentence(N) --> nounphrase(N), verbphrase(N).
which translates<sup>a</sup> into:
sentence(A, B, C) :-
    nounphrase(A, B, D),
    verbphrase(A, D, C).
```

^aThe reader should verify this.

What's Left?

- Convert minic productions into LGN (see text)
- Build a scanner in Prolog (see text)
- Parse using Prolog (see text)