

# Logic Programming: Parsing. Difference Lists, DCGs

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- Context Free Grammars (review)
- Parsing in Prolog
- ▶ Definite Clause Grammars (DCGs)



### A simple CFG:

```
S -> NP VP
NP -> DET N
VP -> VI | VT NP
DET -> the
N -> cat | dog | food
VI -> meows | barks
VT -> bites | eats
```

## Recognising grammatical sentences



- Yes:
  - "the cat meows"
  - "the cat bites the dog"
  - "the dog eats the food"
- ▶ No
  - "cat the cat cat"
  - "dog bites meows"



This uses a proof tree, rather than a search tree.

S -> NP VP

NP -> DET N

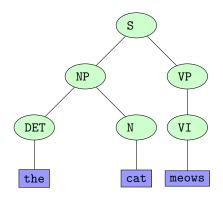
VP -> VI | VT NP

DET -> the

N -> cat | dog | food

VI -> meows | barks

VT -> bites | eats



# A simpler CFG



```
T -> c
T -> aTb
```

In Prolog, with lists of characters:



```
s(L) := np(L1), vp(L2), append(L1,L2,L).
np(L) := det(L1), n(L2), append(L1,L2,L).
vp(L) := vi(L);
         vt(L1), np(L2), append(L1,L2,L).
det([the]). det([a]).
n([cat]). n([dog]). n([food]).
vi([meows]). vi([barks]).
vt([bites]). vt([eats]).
```



- ▶ Clearly, we need to guess when we're generating
  - but also guess when we're parsing an unknown sequence
- ▶ This is inefficient lots of backtracking!
  - ▶ Reordering goals doesn't help much

# An even simpler CFG (again)



In Prolog, with accumulators:

$$t([a|L1],M) := t(L1,[b|M])$$



```
?- t(L,[]).

L = [c].

L = [a,c,b].

L = [a,a,c,b,b].
```



A difference list is a pair (t,X), where

- t is a list term with the shape [t1,t2,..tn|X], and
- X is a variable.

Difference lists correspond to normal lists as follows:

$$\frac{\text{normal list}}{[\mathtt{t_1},\mathtt{t_2},\ldots,\mathtt{t_n}]} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{difference list} \\ ([\mathtt{t_1},\mathtt{t_2},\ldots,\mathtt{t_n}|\mathtt{X}],\mathtt{X}) \end{array}$$

Here we need to be careful that different difference lists use different Prolog variables!

Difference lists are important because they allow much more efficient list operations.



## Some examples:

- Empty difference list: (X,X)
- n-element difference list: ([a1,a2,..an|X],X),
- Appending difference lists (t,X) and (u,Y):
  - simply unify X and u
  - yields (t[u/X],Y)

```
eg, append ([1,2|X],X) to ([3,4|Y],Y); unify X=[3,4|Y], and obtain ([1,2,3,4|Y],Y).
```



Sometimes, people work with just the first part of the difference list (above, [t1,t2,..tn|X]); need to be careful that the variable really is a variable when called.

We can write append of difference lists simply by using a different representation. Let's take Z/X for a difference list (where Z=[t1,t2,..tn]) above; here / is already available as an infix operator. Then difference list append is simply:

dl\_append( X/Y, Y/Z, X/Z ).



This is correct and efficient when we really are dealing with difference lists, and the first and second are inputs.

Because there is a single clause, there can only be one solution, if there is any solution;

so this will not give all solutions in mode dl\_append(-,-,+).

```
?- dl_append( [1,2|Y]/Y,[3,4|Z]/Z,Ans).
Y = [3,4|Z],
Ans = [1,2,3,4|Z]/Z;
no
?- dl_append( A, B, [1,2,3]/Z ).
A = [1,2,3]/_A,
B = _A/Z ?;
no
```



#### Compare:

```
%% basic reverse, no optimisation
naive_reverse([],[]).
naive_reverse([X|Xs],Ys) :- naive_reverse(Xs,Rs),
                            append(Rs,[X],Ys).
%% difference lists used in second argument
%% of reverse_dl
reverse_dl([],T\T).
reverse_dl([X|Xs],Rs\T) :- reverse_dl(Xs,Rs\[X|T]).
```

# An even simpler CFG (again)



In Prolog, with difference lists:

$$t(L,M) := L = [c|M].$$
  
 $t(L,M) := L = [a|L1],$   
 $t(L1,M1),$   
 $M1 = [b|M]$ 



Parsing using DCGs is so useful that Prolog has built-in syntax for it:

translates to:

$$t(L,M) :- L = [c|M].$$

$$t(L,M) :- L = [a|L1],$$
  
 $t(L1,M1),$   
 $M1 = [b|M].$ 



- ▶ Rules have the form nonterm --> body
- ▶ Body terms are:
  - terminal lists [t1,...,tn] (may be [])
  - nonterminals s,t,u...
  - sequential composition body1,body2
  - ▶ alternative choice body1; body2



DCG is translated to difference lists version, so used in the same way.

```
?- t(L,[]).

L = [c].

L = [a,c,b].

L = [a,a,c,b,b]
```



We can also use the built-ins phrase/2, phrase/3: when the first argument is a non-terminal from the grammar, this generates corresponding examples (in difference list form in the second case).

```
?- phrase(t,L).
L = [c].
L = [a,c,b].
?- phrase(t,L,M).
L = [c|M].
L = [a,c,b|M].
```



```
s --> np, vp.
np --> det, n.
vp --> vi; vt, np.

det --> [the]; [a].
n --> [cat]; [dog]; [food].
vi --> [meows]; [barks].
vt --> [bites]; [eats].
```



DCG clause bodies can also contain **tests**, written as an arbitrary Prolog goal in curly brackets: {Goal} Example:

```
n --> [Word], {noun(Word)}.
```

noun(dog). noun(cat).



▶ Left recursion, as usual, leads to non-termination:

Avoid by using right recursion and fall-through



Non-terminals in DCGs can have parameters:

$$t(0) \longrightarrow [c].$$

$$t(succ(N)) \longrightarrow [a], t(N), [b]$$

▶ Can keep track of depth of nesting in terms.



With parameters, we go outside the expressiveness of CFGs.

This characterises a set of expressions that has no CFG description. (what set?)



- "the cat meows"
- "the cat bites the dog"
- Can build parse trees using parameters
  - look for this as a tutorial exercise.



▶ LPN, chs 7–8: more difference list examples and translation of DCGs to Prolog

#### Next time:

- search techniques:
- depth-first, iterative deepening, breadth-first, best-first.