A NEW DESIGN OF PROLOG-BASED BOTTOM-UP PARSING SYSTEM WITH GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY

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abstract

This paper addresses the problems of movement transformation in Prolog-based bottom-up parsing system. Three principles of Government-Binding theory are employed to deal with these problems. They are Empty Category Principle, C-command Principle, and Subjacency Principle. A formalism based upon them is proposed. Translation algorithms are given to add these linguistic principles to the general grammar rules, the leftward movement grammar rules, and the rightward movement grammar rules respectively. This approach has the following specific features: the uniform treatments of leftward and rightward movements, the arbitrary number of movement non-terminals in the rule body, and automatic detection of grammar errors before parsing. An example in Chinese demonstrates all the concepts.

1. Introduction

The movement transformation is one of the major problems encountered in natural language processing. It has relation to the empty constituents (traces) that exist at various levels of representation in natural language statements. Consider the following example in Chinese:

(2) The empty constituent may exist at many possible positions from which the moved constituent may originate. That is, for a moved constituent (if there is any), there are so many possible empty constituents to co-index. This is because many ungrammatical sentences will be accepted. Thus, we must provide some mechanisms in the grammar to capture them. It is still a hard work to do. Several difficulties are listed as follows:

(1) The determination of movement is difficult. That is, an element may be in a topicalization position, but it is not moved from some other place in the sentence. For example,

Fruit, I like.

(As for fruit, I like banana.)

the first can be considered to be a movement phenomenon, but the second cannot.

(2) The empty constituent may exist at many possible positions. For example, given an n-word sentence such as

w1 w2 w3 ... wn where w1 is the first word and w1 is an empty constituent, there are (n+1) possible positions from which the moved constituent may originate. That is, for a moved constituent (if there is any), there are so many possible empty constituents to co-index.

(3) Since the gap in between the moved constituent and its corresponding trace is arbitrary, it is implausible to list all the possible movements exhaustively, and specify each movement constraint explicitly in the grammars.

The Government-Binding (GB) theory [1] provides universal principles to explain the movements. Some of them are shown as follows:

(1) Empty Category Principle [7] -
A trace must be properly governed.

(2) C-command Principle [7] -
\( \alpha \) c-commands \( \beta \) iff every branching node dominating \( \alpha \) dominates \( \beta \).

(3) Subjacency Principle [7] -
Any application of move - \( \alpha \) may not cross more than one bounding node.

Summing up the above principles, we have to find a moved constituent to c-command a trace. The constituent can neither relate to a trace out of its c-command domain, nor match a trace when more than one bounding node is crossed. Such principles narrow down the searching space to some extent. For example,

(E1) 那個人看見了 t1的學生來了。
(The student that the man saw t1 came.)

(E2) * t2 看見 t2的學生來了的 那個人。
("The man that the student who saw t2 came.")

There is a trace t1 in the example (E1). Two NPs, i.e. "學生" (the student) and "那個人" (the man), may co-index with it, but only the former is acceptable. The reason is specified as below:

\[ \begin{align*}
(\text{E1'}) & \text{ ~~~ (the man)~~~ (saw)~~~ (the student)~~~ (came) } \end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
(\text{E2'}) & \text{ ~~~ (the student)~~~ (saw)~~~ (the man)~~~ (came) } \end{align*} \]

The (E1') interpretation violates the subjacency principle (assuming that \( x \) and \( n' \) are two bounding nodes). Two traces exist in the example (E2). The traces \( t2 \) and \( t3 \) may co-index with the two NPs "學生" (the student) and "那個人" (the man), and vice versa. However, both are wrong because of the subjacency principle:

\[ \begin{align*}
(\text{E1'}) & \text{ ~~~ (the student)~~~ (saw)~~~ (the man)~~~ (came) } \end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
(\text{E2'}) & \text{ ~~~ (the man)~~~ (saw)~~~ (the student)~~~ (came) } \end{align*} \]

2. A Government-Binding based Logic Grammar Formalism

2.1 The specifications of grammar formalism

The Government-Binding based Logic Grammar (GBLG) formalism is specified informally as follows:

(a) the general grammar rules -
\[ \begin{align*}
& c\text{(Arg)} \rightarrow c1\text{(Arg1)}c2\text{(Arg2)}...c\text{n(Argn)}.
\end{align*} \]

where \( c\text{(Arg)} \) is a phrasal non-terminal, and may be also a bounding non-terminal, \( c\text{j(Argj)}(1 \leq j \leq n) \) is a lexical terminal or a phrasal non-terminal.
(b) \(\text{c(Arg)} \rightarrow \text{c}_1\text{Arg}\}_{1}\text{c}_2\text{Arg}_{2},...,\text{c}_n\text{Arg}_n\),
\(\text{trace}(\text{TraceArg})\text{c}_{1+i}\text{Arg}_{1+i},...,\text{c}_n\text{Arg}_n\),
where the definitions of \(\text{c(Arg)}\) and
\(\text{c}_i\text{Arg}_{i}\) \((1 \leq i \leq n)\) are the same as above,
\(\text{trace}(\text{TraceArg})\) is a virtual non-terminal.
The special case \(i=0\) is common. For example, a noun phrase is topicalized from a subject position. It is represented as \(\rightarrow \text{trace}^{\text{Arg}}\).

The formalism: leftward and the rightward movements. It is apparent because of the uniform treatments of the definitions are the same as those in the leftward movement rules. Among these grammar rules, (r1) deals with the leftward movement grammar rules -
\(\text{c(Arg)} \rightarrow \text{c}_1\text{Arg},...\text{c}_n\text{Arg}_n\),
\(\text{m(Arg}_m^{\text{left}}<<\text{trace}^{\text{TraceArg}}\text{Arg}_n\),
where the definitions of \(\text{c(Arg)}\) and \(\text{c}_i\text{Arg}_{i}\) \((1 \leq i \leq n)\) are the same as above,
\(\text{m(Arg}_m^{\text{left}}<<\text{trace}^{\text{TraceArg}}\) is a movement non-terminal.

When \(i=0\), the movement non-terminal is the first element in the rule body.

(3) the rightward movement grammar rules -
\(\text{c(Arg)} \rightarrow \text{c}_1\text{Arg},...\text{c}_n\text{Arg}_n\),
\(\text{m(Arg}_m^{\text{right}}<<\text{trace}^{\text{TraceArg}}\text{Arg}_n\),
\(\text{c}_{i+1}\text{Arg}_{i+1},...,\text{c}_n\text{Arg}_n\),
Except that the operator ‘\(>>\)’ is used, the other definitions are the same as those in the leftward movement rules. It is apparent because of the uniform treatments of the leftward and the rightward movements.

2.2 A sample grammar
A sample grammar GBLGI for Chinese shown below introduces the uses of the formalism:

\[(r1) \text{slbarr} (\text{slbar(Topic,S)}) \rightarrow \text{topic(Topic)}<<\text{traceT(Topic),s(S)}.\]
\[(r2) \text{slbarr} (\text{slbar(S)}) \rightarrow \text{s(S)}.\]
\[(r3) \text{s(n(N2bar,V2bar,Part))} \rightarrow \text{n2bar(V2bar),* part(Part)}.\]
\[(r4) \text{s(n(N2bar,V2bar))} \rightarrow n2bar(V2bar),v2bar(V2bar).\]
\[(r5) \text{s(s(TraceT(Trace),V2bar))} \rightarrow \text{traceT(Trace),v2bar(V2bar)}.\]
\[(r6) \text{topic(topic(N2bar))} \rightarrow n2bar(N2bar).\]
\[(r7) n2bar(n2bar(Det,CL,N1bar)) \rightarrow \text{* det(Det),* cl(CL),n1bar(N1bar).}\]
\[(r8) n2bar(n2bar(N1bar)) \rightarrow n1bar(N1bar).\]
\[(r9) n1bar(n1bar(Re,CL,N2bar)) \rightarrow \text{rel(Re),traceK(N2bar)>>n2bar(N2bar)}.\]
\[(r10) n1bar(n1bar(N)) \rightarrow \text{* n(N).}\]
\[(r11) \text{rel(Re)(N,De))} \rightarrow \text{s(S),* det(De)}.\]
\[(r12) v2bar(v2bar(Adv,V1bar,Part)) \rightarrow \text{* adv(Adv),v1bar(V1bar).}\]
\[(r13) v2bar(v2bar(V1bar)) \rightarrow v1bar(V1bar).\]
\[(r14) v1bar(v1bar(TV,N2bar)) \rightarrow \text{* tv(TV),n2bar(N2bar).}\]
\[(r15) v1bar(v1bar(TV,TraceT(Trace))) \rightarrow \text* tv(TV),traceT(Trace).\]
\[(r16) v1bar(v1bar(TV,TraceT(Trace))) \rightarrow \text* tv(TV),traceT(Trace).\]
\[(r17) v1bar(v1bar(TV)) \rightarrow \text* tv(TV).\]

A sample grammar GBLGI for Chinese shown below introduces the uses of the formalism:

\[(r1) \text{slbar} (\text{slbar(Topic,S)}) \rightarrow \text{topic(Topic)}<<\text{traceT(Topic),s(S)}.\]
\[(r2) \text{slbar} (\text{slbar(S)}) \rightarrow \text{s(S)}.\]
\[(r3) \text{s(n(N2bar,V2bar,Part))} \rightarrow \text{n2bar(V2bar),* part(Part)}.\]
\[(r4) \text{s(n(N2bar,V2bar))} \rightarrow n2bar(V2bar),v2bar(V2bar).\]
\[(r5) \text{s(s(TraceT(Trace),V2bar))} \rightarrow \text{traceT(Trace),v2bar(V2bar)}.\]
\[(r6) \text{topic(topic(N2bar))} \rightarrow n2bar(N2bar).\]
\[(r7) n2bar(n2bar(Det,CL,N1bar)) \rightarrow \text{* det(Det),* cl(CL),n1bar(N1bar).}\]
\[(r8) n2bar(n2bar(N1bar)) \rightarrow n1bar(N1bar).\]
\[(r9) n1bar(n1bar(Re,CL,N2bar)) \rightarrow \text{rel(Re),traceK(N2bar)>>n2bar(N2bar)}.\]
\[(r10) n1bar(n1bar(N)) \rightarrow \text{* n(N).}\]
\[(r11) \text{rel(Re)(N,De))} \rightarrow \text{s(S),* det(De)}.\]
\[(r12) v2bar(v2bar(Adv,V1bar,Part)) \rightarrow \text{* adv(Adv),v1bar(V1bar).}\]
\[(r13) v2bar(v2bar(V1bar)) \rightarrow v1bar(V1bar).\]
\[(r14) v1bar(v1bar(TV,N2bar)) \rightarrow \text{* tv(TV),n2bar(N2bar).}\]
\[(r15) v1bar(v1bar(TV,TraceT(Trace))) \rightarrow \text* tv(TV),traceT(Trace).\]
\[(r16) v1bar(v1bar(TV,TraceT(Trace))) \rightarrow \text* tv(TV),traceT(Trace).\]
\[(r17) v1bar(v1bar(TV)) \rightarrow \text* tv(TV).\]

2.3 Transitive relation of c-command theory
For a phrase non-terminal X, a virtual non-terminal Y and a transitive relation TR, X TR Y if:
(1) \(X\) is the rule head of a grammar rule, and \(Y\) is an element in its rule body, or
(2) \(X\) is the rule head of a grammar rule, a phrase non-terminal I in its rule body, and TR Y, or
(3) there exists a sequence of phrasal non-terminals \(I_1, I_2, ..., I_m\), such that X TR I_1 TR I_2 TR ... TR I_m.

The transitive relation TR is also a dominate relation.

The c-command theory is embedded implicitly in the GBLGIs if every grammar rules satisfy the following property:
for a rule \(X_0 \rightarrow X_1, X_2, ..., X_m\) where \(X_j\) is a terminal or a non-terminal, \(1 \leq j \leq m\), if \(X_j = (A <<< B)\) then there must exist some \(X_i (i < j \leq m)\) such that \(X_i\) dominates the virtual non-terminal \(B\) in other grammar rule. That is, \(X_j \text{ TR B}\). The phrasal non-terminal \(X_0\) is the first branching node that dominates A and \(X_i\), and thus also dominates B. Therefore, A c-commands B. \(X_i = (B >>> A)\) has the similar behavior. Rules (r1) and (r9) in grammar GBLGI show these <<< and >>> relations respectively.

2.4 Comparison with other logic programming approaches
Compared with other logic programming approaches, especially the RLGs [8,9], the GBLGIs have the following features:
(1) the uniform treatments of leftward movement and the rightward movement -

The direction of movement is expressed in terms of movement operators ‘<<<’ or ‘>>>’. The interpretation of movement non-terminals A ‘<<< B’ or B ‘>>> A’ is

If \(A\) is a left moved constituent (or a right moved constituent), then the corresponding trace denoted by B should be found after (or before) A ‘<<< B’ (or B ‘>>> A’). It is illustrated in the Fig. 1. The two trees are symmetric and the corresponding rules are similar. However, the rules are not similar in RLGs. That is, the two types of movements are not treated in the same way. For the rightward movement, a concept of adjunct node is introduced. It says that the right moved constituent is found if the rule hung on the adjunct node is satisfied. The operation semantics is enforced on the writing of the logic grammars. It destroys the declarative semantics of logic grammars to some extent.

(2) the arbitrary number of movement non-terminals in the rule body -

In our logic grammars, the number of movement non-terminals in a rule is not restrictive if the rule satisfies the property specified in the last section. The RLGs allow at most one movement non-terminal in their rules. The position of movement non-terminal is declared in the rule head. It is difficult for a translator to tell out the position if different types of elements are interleaved in the rule body. Thus, our formalism is more clear and flexible than RLGs.

(3) automatic detection of grammar errors before parsing
For significant grammar rules, a transitive relation TR must be satisfied. The violation of the transitive relation can be found beforehand during rule translation. Thus, this feature can help grammar writers detect the grammar errors before parsing.
3. A Bottom-up Parser in Prolog

3.1 Problem specifications
The Bottom-Up Parsing system (BUP) [2,3,4] uses the left-corner bottom-up algorithm to implement Definite Clause Grammars (DCGs) [5]. It overcomes the problems of top-down parsing, e.g. the left-recursive invocation, and provides an efficient way as Earley’s and Pratt’s algorithms [3]. However, it does not deal with the important syntactic problem - movement transformation. Extrapolation Grammars (XGs) [6] propose extrapolation lists (x-lists) to attack the movement problem, but when to extract traces from x-lists becomes a new obstacle [8,9]. Restricted Logic Grammars (RLGs) [8,9] based upon GB try to tackle the unrestricted extraction from the x-list. They emphasize the importance of the c-command and the subjacency principles during parsing. The extraction must obey these two principles. The parsing strategies of XGs and RLGs are all depth-first and left-to-right, thus they have the same drawbacks as DCGs do [4]. If the parsing strategy is left-corner bottom-up, the following issues have to be considered in the translation of GBLGs:

(1) the empty constituent problem -

The first element in the rule body, which acts as a left-corner, should not be empty in left-corner bottom-up algorithm. However, the type l(b) of rules is common.

(2) the transfer of trace information -

From Fig. 1, we know that the positions of empty constituents are usually lower than those of moved constituents. Because the parsing style is bottom-up, the trace information must be transferred up from the bottom. The conventional different list cannot be applied here. Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 illustrates the differences of data flow between top-down parsing and bottom-up parsing.

3.2 Data structure
The transfer of trace information is through a list called *extraposition list (x-list)* and denoted by a symbol H. The transformation of x-list is bottom-up. Fig. 3 sketches the concept. A special data structure shown below is proposed to carry the information:

\[ H = \{X, Y, \cdots, Z\} \]

Note a tail variable X is introduced. Based upon this notation, an empty list is represented as \([Z,Z]\). An algorithm that merges arbitrary number of lists in linear time is designed:

\[ \text{merge}(X,Y) \rightarrow \text{merge}(Y,X) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[Z,W]) \rightarrow \text{merge}(X,Y,Z,W) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[]) \rightarrow X \]

\[ \text{merge}([X],[Y]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y],[X]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[Z,W]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,Z],[X,W]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,X],[]) \]

In the conventional list structure such as

\[ \{A,B\} \rightarrow \{Y,A,B\} \]

even though the difference list concept is adopted, the computation time is still in proportion to \(m_1 + m_2 + \cdots + m_n\), where \(m_1 \leq i \leq n\) is the number of elements in the i-th list.

Although our merge algorithm is the fastest, it is still a burden on the parsing. In most cases, the predicate merges empty lists. That is nonsense. To enhance the parsing speed, the merge predicate is added in which is needed. Observing the merge operation, we can find that it is needed only when the number of lists to be merged is greater than one. The following method can decrease the number of x-lists during rule translation, and thus delete most of the unnecessary merges:

Partition the basic elements in the logic grammars into two mutually exclusive sets: carry-H set and non-carry-H set. The elements in the carry-H set may contribute trace information during parsing, and those in the non-carry-H set do not introduce trace information absolutely. The transitive relation TR defined in the section 2.3 tells us which phrasal non-terminals constitute the carry-H set.

3.3 The translation of grammar rules

The translation of basic elements in the GBLGs are similar to BUPs. Only one difference is that an extra argument that carries trace information may be added to phrasal non-terminal if it belongs to carry-H set. Appendix lists the translated results of the grammar GBLG1.

3.3.1 The general grammar rules

The general grammar rules are divided into two types according as a virtual non-terminal disappears or appears in the rule body:

(1) \(c(Arg) \rightarrow c(Arg_1),c(Arg_2),\cdots,c(Arg_i)\)

(2) \(c(Arg) \rightarrow e_1(Arg_1),e_2(Arg_2),\cdots,e_i(Arg_i)\)

(3) \(c(Arg) \rightarrow \{X, Bound, Direction\}\)

When \(c\) is not a bounding node, e.g. rule (r2), the translation is the same as that in BUP [2,3,4], except that an extra argument \(H\) (if necessary) for x-list and a built-in predicate merge are added in the new translation algorithm. This predicate is used to merge all the x-lists on the same level. The transformation of x-lists is bottom-up (only one direction) as shown in Fig. 3. Thus, the rule (a) is translated into:

\[ c(G,Arg,H,X) \rightarrow c(G,Arg,H,Xn) \]

where \(i = 0\), the grammar rule considers a trace (an empty constituent) to be the first element in the frame body. When a bounding node is crossed, this variable is checked to avoid the illegal operation.

\[ c(Arg) \rightarrow c(Arg_1),c(Arg_2),\cdots,c(Arg_i) \]

\[ \text{trace}(TraceArg) \rightarrow \text{trace}(TraceArg) \]

\[ \text{merge}(H1,H2,\cdots,Hn,H) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[Z,W]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,Z],[X,W]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X],[Y]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y],[X]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,X],[]) \]

\[ \text{merge(}[X,Y],[]) \rightarrow \text{merge(}[Y,X],[]) \]

A variable \(Bound\) which records the cross information is reserved for each element in the list. When a bounding node is crossed, this variable is checked to avoid the illegal operation.

\[ c(Arg) \rightarrow c(Arg_1),c(Arg_2),\cdots,c(Arg_i) \]

\[ \text{trace}(TraceArg) \rightarrow \text{trace}(TraceArg) \]

\[ \text{merge}(H1,H2,\cdots,Hn,H) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[Z,W]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,Z],[X,W]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X],[Y]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y],[X]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,X],[]) \]

\[ \text{merge(}[X,Y],[]) \rightarrow \text{merge(}[Y,X],[]) \]

A variable \(Bound\) which records the cross information is reserved for each element in the list. When a bounding node is crossed, this variable is checked to avoid the illegal operation.

(2) \(c(Arg) \rightarrow e_1(Arg_1),e_2(Arg_2),\cdots,e_i(Arg_i)\)

(3) \(c(Arg) \rightarrow Bound\)

If the left-corner bottom-up parsing algorithm is used, the grammar rules should free of empty constituents. When \(i=0\), the grammar rule considers a trace (an empty constituent) to be the first element in the rule body. It overrides the principle of the algorithm, but we can always select the first element \(c(i+1)\) that satisfies the following criterion:

(1) a lexical terminal, or

(2) a phrasal non-terminal, or

(3) a phrasal non-terminal in a movement non-terminal, to be the left-corner and put the trace information into an x-list before this non-terminal. Thus, the translation is generalized as follows (assume that \(c(i)\) is a left-corner).

\[ c(G,Arg,H,X) \rightarrow c(G,Arg,H,Xn) \]

where \(i = 0\), the grammar rule considers a trace (an empty constituent) to be the first element in the frame body. When a bounding node is crossed, this variable is checked to avoid the illegal operation.

\[ c(Arg) \rightarrow c(Arg_1),c(Arg_2),\cdots,c(Arg_i) \]

\[ \text{trace}(TraceArg) \rightarrow \text{trace}(TraceArg) \]

\[ \text{merge}(H1,H2,\cdots,Hn,H) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[Z,W]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,Z],[X,W]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X],[Y]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y],[X]) \]

\[ \text{merge}([X,Y],[]) \rightarrow \text{merge}([Y,X],[]) \]

\[ \text{merge(}[X,Y],[]) \rightarrow \text{merge(}[Y,X],[]) \]
3.3.2 The leftward movement grammar rules

The leftward movement grammar rules can be generalized as below:

c(Arg) --> c1(Arg1), c2(Arg2), ...
c(Arg) --> c<(trace(TraceArg)), c(i+1)(Arg(i+1)), ...
c(Arg) --> c0(Arg0).

The rule (9) is an example. Its translation is shown as follows:

c(G,Arg,H1,X1,X) :- goal(c2,Arg2,H2,X1,X2),
....
goal(ci,Argi,Hi,X(i-1),Xi),
goal(c(i+1),Arg(i+1),H(i+1),Xi,X(i+1)),
....
goal(cn,Argn,Hn,X(n-1),Xn),
merge([H1,H2,...,H(i-1)],T1),
cut_trace(x(trace(TraceArg),Bound,left)),
T1,T2),
c(G,Arg,H,Xn,X).

Comparing this translation with that of general grammar rules, we can find a new predicate cut_trace is added. The cut_trace implements the c-command principle, and its definition is:

cut_trace(Trace, [Y,X],[Y1,X1]) :-
(var(Y) !, (Trace=x(TraceInfo,Bound,left), fail));
cut_traceaux(Trace,Y,Y1)).
cut_traceaux(Trace, [X],X).

The cut_trace tries to retract a trace from x-list if a movement exists. Mandarin Chinese has many specific features that other languages do not have. For example, topic-comment structure does not always involve movement transformation. The first cut_traceaux class matches the trace information with the x-list transferred from the bottom on its right part. The second cut_traceaux tells us that if the expected leftward trace cannot match one of the elements in the x-list, then it will be drop out. The x-list is not changed and transferred up. The concept is demonstrated in Fig. 4. It also explains why we can detect grammar errors before parsing. In summary, each movement non-terminal is decomposed into a phrasal non-terminal and a virtual non-terminal. The phrasal non-terminal is translated the same as before. The virtual non-terminal is represented as

x(trace(TraceArg),Bound,Direction)

and placed into x-list via merge operation. The position in x-list is reflected from the original rule.

3.3.3 The rightward movement grammar rules

Because we treat the leftward and the rightward movement grammar rules in a uniform way, the translation algorithms of both are similar. The rightward movement grammar rules are with the following format:

c(Arg) --> c1(Arg1), c2(Arg2),...
trace(TraceArg) --> c(Arg).

c(i+1)(Arg(i+1)) --> c0(Arg0).

The rule (9) is an example. The corresponding translated result is:

c(G,Arg,H1,X1,X) :- goal(c2,Arg2,H2,X1,X2),
....
goal(ci,Argi,Hi,X(i-1),Xi),
goal(c(i+1),Arg(i+1),H(i+1),Xi,X(i+1)),
....
goal(cn,Argn,Hn,X(n-1),Xn),
merge([H1,H2,...,H(i-1)],T1),
cut_trace(x(trace(TraceArg),Bound,right)),
T1,T2),
goal(ci,Argi,Hi,X(i-1),Xi),
....
goal(cn,Argn,Hn,X(n-1),Xn),
merge([T2,H1,...,Hn],T1),
c(G,Arg,H,Xn,X).

The translation is very apparent for the symmetric property of the leftward and the rightward grammar rules illustrated in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5. A slight difference appears in the definition of the predicate cut_trace. It shows an important linguistic phenomenon in Mandarin Chinese: "Relativization is always a movement transformation." Thus, if we expect a trace and cannot find a corresponding one, failure is issued. The direction information in x(trace(TraceArg),Bound, right), i.e. right, tells out the difference between the leftward and the rightward movements. In general, we allow both leftward movement and rightward movement to appear in the same rule. A new predicate intersection is introduced to couple these two translations.

3.4 Invocation of the parsing system

The parsing system is triggered in the following way:

golo(a start non-terminal, [a sequence of arguments],
an empty x-list, [a sequence of input string],[1]).

In GBLG1, the invocation is shown as follows:

golo(s1bar,[ParseTree],[Z1],[input sentence],[1]),

Because an empty x-list is represented as [Z1] (Z: a variable) in our special data structure shown in Section 3.2, var(Z) verifies its correctness. For example, to parse the Chinese sentence "那個人看見的學生來了" (the student that that man saw came), we trigger the parser by calling:

? golo(s1bar,[S1bar],[Z2],[that',man','saw',
de',student','came','aspect','[1]),var(Z).

/*
4. Conclusion

This paper addresses the problems of movement transformation in Prolog-based bottom-up parser. Three principles of Government-Binding theory are considered to deal with these problems. They are Empty Category Principle, C-command Principle and Subjacency Principle. A sequence of translation rules is given to add these linguistic principles to the grammar rules, the leftward movement rules, and the rightward movement rules respectively. The empty constituent problem is solved in this paper to allow the trace to be the first element in the grammar rule body. A special data structure for extraposition list is proposed to transfer the movement information from the bottom to the top. Based upon this structure, the fastest merge algorithm is designed. Those unnecessary merge predicates can be eliminated with the help of transitive relation. Thus, this new design not only extends the original bottom-up parsing system with the movement facility, but also preserves the parsing efficiency.

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Appendix

Based upon the translation algorithms specified in Section 3, the logic grammar GBLG1 is translated as below. The clause (t5) is the relevant translated result of the grammar rule (t1). Note the codes have been optimized. Those unnecessary merge operations are deleted from the translated results.

(t5) v2bar(G,[V2bar],[H1],[X1],[X]) :-
merge([H1],[![](traceR(Trace),Bound,right)],Z),Z),
bound(s,H),
s(G,[s(traceR(Trace),V2bar)],[H1],[X1],[X]).

(t6) n2bar(G,[N2bar],[H1],[X1],[X]) :-
topic(G,[topic(N2bar)],[H1],[X1],[X]).

(t7) def(G,[Def],[X1],[X2]) :-
lookup,[[X1],[X2]],
goal([n1bar,N1bar],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
bound([n2bar,H1],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
n2bar(G,[n1bar([Def],[CL],[N1bar])],[H1],[X1],[X2]).

(t8) n1bar(G,[N1bar],[H1],[X1],[X]) :-
bound([n2bar,H1],[H1],[X1],[X2]);

(t9) rel(G,[Rel],[H1],[X1],[X]) :-
cut_trace(x(traceR(N2bar),Bound,right),[H1],T1),
goal([n1bar,N2bar],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
merge([T1],[H1],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
n1bar(G,[n1bar([Rel],[N2bar])],[H1],[X1],[X2]).

(t10) n(G,[N],[X1],[X]) :-
n1bar(G,[n1bar(N)],[Z],[Z],[X1],[X]).

(t11) s(G,[S],[H],[X1],[X]) :-
lookup(de,[De],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
rel(G,[rel(S),De],[H1],[X1],[X2]).

(t12) adv(G,[Adv],[X1],[X]) :-
goal([v1bar,N1bar],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
v2bar(G,[v2bar(Adv,V1bar)],[H1],[X1],[X2]).

(t13) v1bar(G,[V1bar],[H1],[X1],[X]) :-
v2bar(G,[v2bar(V1bar)],[H1],[X1],[X2]).

(t14) tv(G,[TV],[X1],[X]) :-
goal([n2bar],[N2bar],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
v1bar(G,[v1bar(TV),N2bar],[H1],[X1],[X2]).

(t15) tv(G,[TV],[X1],[X]) :-
v1bar(G,[v1bar(TV,traceR(Trace))],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
lookup(de,[De],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
rel(G,[rel(S),De],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
iv(G,[IV],[X1],[X]) :-
v1bar(G,[v1bar(TV,traceR(Trace))],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
lookup(de,[De],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
rel(G,[rel(S),De],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
iv(G,[IV],[X1],[X]) :-
v1bar(G,[v1bar(TV,traceR(Trace))],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
lookup(de,[De],[H1],[X1],[X2]),
rel(G,[rel(S),De],[H1],[X1],[X2]).