Translation by Understanding: A Machine Translation System LUTE

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Abstract

This paper presents a linguistic model for language understanding and describes its application to an experimental machine translation system called LUTE. The language understanding model is an interactive model between the memory structure and a text. The memory structure is hierarchical and represented in a frame-network. Linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge is stored and the result of understanding the text is assimilated into the memory structure. The understanding process is interactive in that the text invokes knowledge and the understanding procedure interprets the text by using that knowledge. A linguistic model, called the Extended Case Structure model, is defined by adopting three kinds of information: structure, relation and concept. These three are used recursively and iteratively as the basis for memory organization. These principles are applied to the design and implementation of the LUTE which translates Japanese into English and vice versa.

1. Introduction

Since the early 1970s, a variety of approaches to language understanding have been proposed. In particular, the importance of knowledge organization has been emphasized, and linguistically structured knowledge such as Script [1] and knowledge representation frameworks such as Frame [2] and Semantic Network [3] have been proposed. At the same time, the linguistic approach has been adopted to reveal the discourse structure, the cognitive approach has attempted to explain phenomena such as focus, topic and intention, and the formal semantic approach has been used to establish semantics based on the logical model theory.

We propose an interactive model between the memory structure and the text (or utterance) as a language understanding model. In the model, knowledge stored in the memory structure plays the principal role such that the text invokes knowledge and the understanding system interprets the text using that knowledge. The knowledge consists of linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge. They are closely related each other and incorporated into the memory structure simultaneously. As a result of understanding, the system assimilates the meaning structure of the text into its memory structure. The bases for representing the knowledge are structure, relation and concept which are the fundamental components for constructing and representing the memory structure including the meaning structure of a sentence. For the purpose of clear definition of linguistic information, a linguistic model, called the Extended Case Structure model (ECS), which is capable of treating the structures of complex sentences, is provided.

These principles have been applied to the design of a new version of the experimental machine translation system called LUTE (Language Understander, Translator and Editor) [4]. This paper deals mainly with the current Japanese-English version of LUTE (LUTE-JE version-1) [5]. LUTE has following processing characteristics: 1) Not only syntactic but also semantic relations (dependencies) between modifiers and modificants are analyzed simultaneously. 2) All kinds of information such as syntactic patterns, meaning structures, lexical items, and knowledge are represented in a uniform framework, called a Frame-Network. 3) Analysis produces a 'most plausible meaning structure' based on the prediction of syntactic structures and the integration of semantic structures. 4) Transfer is realized as a general framework for manipulationg the frame network.

2. Language Understanding Model

2.1 Memory Organization

Knowledge can be organized into various memory structures depending on the type of knowledge. These structures are usually hierarchical and consist of three layers; 1) long-term memory, 2) discourse memory, and 3) episodic memory (or short-term memory). Long-term memory stores knowledge such as dictionaries, grammars, experiences, common-sense knowledge, expert knowledge, and procedural knowledge such as how to infer a fact from a collection of facts. Knowledge also contains meta-level knowledge such as knowledge about the characteristics of knowledge and the usage of it. Discourse memory stores knowledge concerning the situation as an environment of utterances, and the history of understandings such as "Who is the author?", "What is the topic?", and "What is the purpose of the discourse segment?". Episodic memory stores the meaning structure of the ongoing segment of the text and its construction is the main issue in the discussion of sentence analysis.

The memory model described above can be applied to account for a number of linguistic phenomena. For example, the difference between two Japanese anaphoric expressions "sono (その)" and "ano (あの)" (both expressions correspond to the determiner "the" in most English contexts) is explained by using the memory structure model as follows: a referent of the noun modified by "sono" is found in the discourse memory, and a referent of the noun modified by "ano" is found in the long-term memory.

2.2 Basis for Memory Organization

The memory is constructed by assembling three kinds of basic elements; 1) structure, 2) relation and 3) concept. Structure is a packet of memory organization. A variety of structures can be used to represent linguistic knowledge, the situation of utterance, and the meaning structure of a sentence. Concept is associated with structures which include all kinds of constituent structures; words, phrases, sentences, etc. Hence, this definition of concept, in a sense, is language-dependent. There are two kinds of concepts, semantic categories and word meanings. Thus a word and its meaning are strictly distinguished. Relation integrates structures to form a compound structure. Examples of compound structures are compound nouns, case structures, and complex sentences. There are several kinds of relations such as case relations, conjunctive relations and taxonomic relations between semantic categories.

2.3 Understanding Process

In the understanding process, operations such as matching, searching, deletion, replacement, integration, and generation are executed in the memory structures. For example, in a morphological analysis process, using their literal expressions as search keys, the search for words to be identified is made using lexical entries in the dictionary, and in the case analysis process, a search is made for case instances that match prototype cases in case frames.

As understanding proceeds, the essence of episodic memory is assimilated into discourse memory and the essence of discourse memory is assimilated into long-term memory. Discourse memory (long-term memory) is not simply an accumulation of the contents of episodic memory (discourse memory), but is a structured memory coherently organized from the episodic memory (discourse memory). As a preliminary model of discourse memory, we define a Local Scene Frame (LSF), which is a collection of cases and predicates in preceding sentences already analysed. LSF is partly viewed as describing a

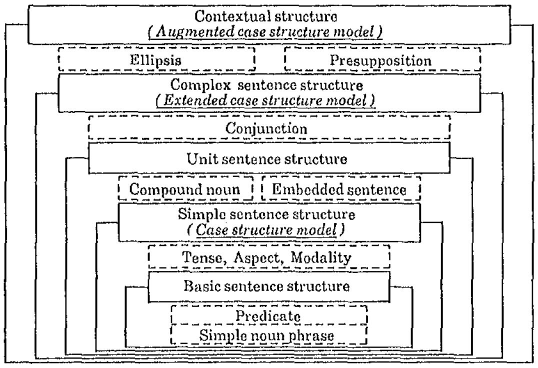

Fig. 1 Extended Case Structure Model

situation in which the utterance is carried out. Information in the LSF is used for filling in missing cases, and resolving anaphora. A discussion of the detailed procedure for the assimilation would be beyond the scope of this paper.

3. Extended Case Structure Model

3.1 General Framework

The Extended Case Structure Model (ECS) is a linguistic model for representing the meaning structures of the text. Thus the ECS presents a representation scheme for the episodic memory. Figure 1 shows its fundamental construction. The traditional case structure (Fillmorean type) is a structure for a unit sentence which consists mainly of relations between nouns and a verb. This is not sufficient to represent structures of real sentences which sometimes have complex noun phrases, compound sentences, etc. Also, the ECS has to have facilities for representing other structures involving relations between a noun and a noun, a verb and a verb, etc. The ECS has been designed to integrate those structures into one linguistic model. Its nature is hierarchical as to the compoundness of constituents, iterative as to conjunction, and recursive as to embedding. Using these formalisms, the syntactic and semantic structures of sentences can be represented uniformly and correctly.

3.2 Semantic Structure in ECS

There are two types of semantic structures, composite and primitive structures. A composite structure is made by integrating semantic structures using semantic relations. A primitive structure, by definition, cannot be divided into further substructures. In general, a single word corresponds to a primitive structure, and a phrase corresponds to a composite structure. Since syntactic information can also contribute to define meaning structures, each semantic structure simultaneously incorporates not only meaning information but also syntactic information.

We do not assume a language-independent universal semantic representation. Thus, it is necessary to define a proper ECS for each language: Japanese ECS (J-ECS) [6] for Japanese language and English ECS (E-ECS) [7] for English language. In the translation process from Japanese into English, the analysis procedure generates a J-ECS for a Japanese sentence, and the transfer procedure generates an E-ECS corresponding to the J-ECS.

3.3 Semantic Relation in ECS

Semantic relation connects semantic structures and builds a larger semantic structure, ranging from a word structure to a sentence structure. Figure 2 shows types of semantic relations, and each of them can be explained briefly as follows:

1) Noun relation: Relationship between nouns; Examples are whole-part, upper-lower, possession, material, etc.
2) Case relation: Relationship between a case element and a predicate; Examples are object, agent, instrument, place, etc.
3) Embedded relation: Relationship between an embedded sentence and a noun phrase, which can be categorized into three types; a) case relation between a modified noun phrase and the predicate in a modifier embedded sentence, b) noun relation between a modified noun phrase and a noun phrase in a modifier embedded sentence, and c) an appositive or subsidiary relation between a modified noun phrase and a modifier embedded sentence.
4) Conjunctive relation: Relationship between sentences; Examples are cause-result, time-advance, assumption, etc.

3.4 Concept in ECS

Concepts are associated with structures mentioned above. Among them, concepts associated with word structures represent word meanings which appear when the words are used in a sentence. A word meaning is represented by principal concepts, supplementary concepts, and their semantic dependencies. Principal and supplementary concepts are defined by using semantic categories, and prepared for nouns, adverbs, verbs, adjective-verbs and modalities as shown in Figure 3. Semantic dependencies are defined by using semantic relation frames and semantic structure frames. Semantic categories, semantic relation frames and semantic structure frames have the following characteristics: 1) There are two types of concepts: prototype and instance. Prototypes play a part of selectional constraint to define semantic dependency structures. Instances show an assimilated structure which satisfies the selectional constraints. 2) They shows semantic commonness and analogy between two structures. This allows the system to share information and to provide facilities for paraphrase. 3) Semantic categories make up a hierarchical structure. This provides the system with inheritance ability and information sharing.

4. Dictionaries, Knowledge and Their Representation

4.1 Dictionary

There are two types of dictionaries in LUTE. Mono-lingual dictionaries are used in analysis and generation, while bi-lingual dictionaries are used in transfer. Mono-lingual dictionaries have the following information about words and concepts: 1) How the word is expressed, 2) how the word is used in the syntax of a sentence, and 3) what concept the word corresponds to. Bi-lingual dictionaries has information on the correspondence of concepts in two different languages, and will be explained in section 6. (Note that concepts are defined here by associating structures which are generally language dependent.) Figure 4 shows the contents of a word dictionary.

A word meaning can be regarded as an entry to the conceptual knowledge description. The LUTE dictionaries contain the following semantic information:

1) Semantic category (for word meanings): Principal concepts associated with the word meaning. Those for nouns and adverbs are used as selectional constraints in semantic relation analysis. Those for predicates are used to analyse modality.
2) Case frame (for predicate word meanings): Constraints and case relations which are applied to construct unit sentence semantic structures. There are three types of case frames: intrinsic for each predicate word meaning, common for several predicate word meanings, optional for outer case relations.
3) Noun relation frame (for noun word meanings): Constraints and semantic relationships which are applied to construct semantic structures made up of two nouns. Case frames are also used as a kind of object relation frames for predicate-type nouns.
4) Event relation frame (for predicate word meanings): Constraints and semantic relationships to be applied to construct complex sentence semantic structures. An example is the relation between the verb in a main clause and the verb in a subordinate clause.
5) Heuristics (for semantic categories and relation frames): This is used for resolving ambiguity of semantic categories, semantic relations, and semantic structures by linguistic information such

Noun relation:: = *restriction | case-relation | agent-action | object-action | instrument-action | time-action | location-action | destination-action | source-action | co-object-action | manner-action | frequency-action | object-state | action-location | action-time | action-result | action-degree | state-object | property-object | possessor-object | number-object | material-object | location-object | object-property | object-element | object-number | object-location | species-object | relative-location | location-specification | time-specification | human-relation | noun-suffix | prefix-noun | parallel | others*

Case relation:: = *OBJECT-TYPE | METHOD-TYPE | DIRECTION-TYPE | TIME-SPACE-TYPE | SUPPLEMENT-TYPE | MODIFICATION-TYPE*

OBJECT-TYPE:: = *object | co-object | statement-object | compared-object | secondary-object | theme | agent | experiencer*

METHOD-TYPE:: = *method | instrument | material | element | cause*

DIRECTION-TYPE:: = *source | destination | purpose | result | giver | recipient*

TIME-SPACE-TYPE:: = *location | time*

SUPPLEMENT-TYPE:: = *ocasion | content | role | contrast | region*

MODIFICATION-TYPE:: = *manner | frequency | degree | thing | rate | number | emphasis | trueth*

Embedded relation:: = *case relation | relation that modified noun phrase modify case instance in the embedded sentence | apposition·Event-result*

Conjunctive relation:: = *condition | right-affirmative | cause | purpose | right assumption | contrary-assumption | contrary-affirmative | juxtaposition | introduction | pallarel | time-relation | before | simultaneous | after | continuation | limited-continuation | during | examplification | selection | interrogative-contents | citation | explanation | specific | minimal-limit | proportion | degree | limit*

Fig. 2 Semantic Relations

Categories for nouns and adverbs:: = *nature | material | instrument | society | organization | culture | human | action | state | number | degree | emotion | time | location | abstract | concrete | animate | plant | others*

Categories for verbs:: = *voice | active | stative | movemental | transitional | emotional | thinking | perceptual | existential | judgemental | non-willing*

voice:: = *passive | affected-passive | possible | spontaneous | causative | perfective*

cative:: = *momental | continual*

stative:: = *+teiru | −teiru*

Categories for adjectives and adjective-verbs:: = *stative | characteristic | relational | emotional*

Categories for modalities:: =

aspect:: = *beginning | just-before-beginning | just-after-beginning | continuous | repetitive | perfective | just-before-perfective | just-after-perfective | perfective-state | others*

tense:: = *past | present | future*

modal:: = *negation | possibility | necessarity | obligation | necessity | inevitability | favorability | sufficiency | guess | affirmative | confidential-guess | uncertain-affirmative | estimation | guess | uncertain-guess | hearsay | intention | willingness | plan | hope | try | causative | second-person | command | interrogative | request | permission | invitation | third-person | causative | request | passive | spontanity | benefactive | polite | respect | others*

manner:: = *limited | degree | extreme-example | stress | examplification | parallel | addition | selection | uncertainty | distinction | others*

Fig. 3 Semantic Categories

as preference over several semantic relations, semantic relation fillers, and remaining semantic relation frames not yet filled.

4.2 Knowledge

Both common-sense knowledge and expert-knowledge are constructed using basic elements such as concepts, relations and structures as well as linguistic structures. Thus the non-linguistic knowledge manipulated in LUTE is not represented in a simple database framework but rather incorporated into the memory structure. Although many language processing systems use the term "knowledge" rather vaguely, LUTE gives a concrete form to knowledge in the sense of frame-networks corresponding to word meanings. The current version of LUTE defines the following types of knowledge in terms of semantic relations:

1) Concept Relation: Relations such as hyponymy, synonymy, antonymy, whole-part, and possession. One example is "whole-part" relation between "densha (電車) (train)" and "mado (窓) (window)". (A window can be a part of a train.)
2) Event State Relation: Relations between two events or between an event and a state. One example is "subsidiary situation" relation that "nioi (臭い) (smell)" results from "yaku (焼く) (grill)".
3) Meta knowledge: This is used for reasoning, such as in traversing the concept networks, and checking semantic consistency according to concept networks.

4.3 Frame-Network

All information manipulated in LUTE is represented in a uniform framework, called a Frame-Network. Each type of dictionary information such as semantic category, case frame, noun relation frame, and event relation frame is represented by frames with corresponding frame names. These frames consist of subframes representing semantic relation information. Slots of a frame which represents semantic relation information contain information such as semantic category and case particles stipulating the semantic relation. An idiomatic expression between a noun and a verb is represented by a co-relation frame. This is the convention for sharing case slots in case frames to yield an effective processing for case analysis and selection of word meaning. These frames are also provided for each noun. Heuristics are defined as methods (daemons) in frames. The concept relation of knowledge can be represented by inheritance and semantic relation slots of noun relation frames. Event-state relation is represented by event-object relation frames, and expressed in a word meaning of the corresponding noun. Using this relation frame, semantic relations in a phrase, "Sakana wo yaku nioi (魚を焼く臭い) (Smell of fish grilling)" can be analysed. Meta-knowledge is represented as a procedure for unifying frames to select a word meaning, inheritance mechanism, and methods in frames as well as heuristics.

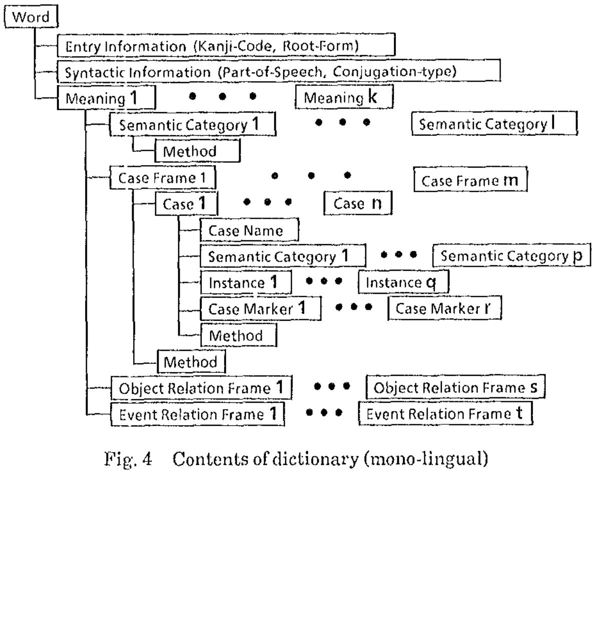

Fig. 4 Contents of dictionary (mono-lingual)

5. Extended Case Analysis

Extended Case Analysis (ECA) builds the meaning structure of a sentence which is expressed by the framework based on ECS. The ECA integrates both syntactic and semantic analysis using Structure Patterns. Analysis proceeds in a manner in which top-down structure prediction and bottom-up structure integration are intertwined. Viewing the analysis from the standpoint of the activation of knowledge, an expression activates a word, a word activates a word meaning, a word meaning activates concepts, and concepts activate concept relations. We will describe the precedure for analyzing Japanese sentences in the following sections.

5.1 Flow and Control in ECA

It is assumed here that the morphological analysis process has already segmented a sentence into a sequence of words. The ECA procedure can be explained roughly as follows. First, the ECA predicts a sentence structure in a top-down manner using Structure Patterns. Second, it analyzes semantic structures for the predicted sentence structure using Semantic Structure Frames, which describe constraints for integrating the substructures. Finally, those substructures are integrated into a bigger structure. These procedures are performed recursively for each level of constituent construction until an integrated meaning structure is obtained for the entire sentence. When information concerning semantic structure frames or knowledge is missing, the ECA does not attempt to make a unique integrated meaning structure. Rather it utilizes a variety of heuristics, thus making it possible to order multiple possible meaning structures in terms of likelihood or plausibility based on a score given to each meaning structure. A rough outline of this analysis is presented in Figure 5.

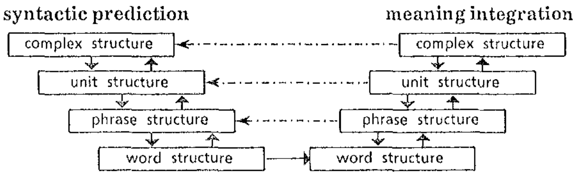

Fig. 5 Rough sketch of analysis flow

Historical information, including both the success and failure of the processing, is stored so that the ECA can avoid analyzing the same sequence of substructures in the backtracking process.

5.2 Structure Pattern

A structure pattern is a package of knowledge for predicting syntactic constructions between pairs of modifiers and modificants among the constituent structures of a sentence. Based on this prediction, an analysis procedure is invoked to analyze their semantic structures. If this analysis succeeds, the modifier/modificant pair is integrated into a new unified structure. Structure patterns are assigned to each structure type in the ECS. An example of structure patterns for a unit sentence is shown in Figure 6.

A structure pattern consists of three parts: 1) the condition for applying the pattern, 2) the procedure for semantic structure analysis, and 3) newly integrated structure type. The first part describes whether this structure pattern can be applied to the structure sequence. The second part performs a semantic relation analysis of the structure sequence which satisfy the above condition. The third part describes the structure type to be produced by the above procedure. A structure pattern might be viewed as a context free grammar (CFG) rule augmented with a semantic relation analysis. In this case, the condition part corresponds to the right hand side of the CFG rule, the integrated structure type part corresponds to the left hand side of it, and the procedure part can be seen as a procedure to derive the left hand side from the right hand side.

5.3 Semantic Structure Analysis

For each constituent construction predicted, the semantic relation between modifier and modificant in the construction is analyzed using semantic relation frames. Depending on the differences in structure types of the modifier/modificant pair, different types of semantic relations can be analyzed. In addition, the word meanings of the word structure and the categories for the integrated structure can also be analyzed.

Semantic relation analysis can be explained by the analogy of a key and key-hole. A modificant has a number of possible key-holes, and a modifier can be regarded as the key which can match it. The procedure is to search for the best matching key hole for the key. The shapes of keys and key-holes are determined by syntactic (case particles) and semantic (semantic category) information.

The score given to the integrated structure represents the degree of syntactic and semantic mismatch recognized in the integration process. It is represented by a two-dimensional vector, whose first argument is for syntantic mismatch, and second is for semantic mismatch. At each stage of analysis, if syntactic constraint is not satisfied, two points are added to the syntactic mismatch score, and if it is satisfied by modal particles, one point is added to it. As for semantic constraints, if they are not satisfied, two points are added to the semantic mismatch score, and if they are satisfied through inheritance of semantic categories, one point is added to it.

```
pattern-name:  usent-pattern-1
variables:  (case-instance  case-particle  sequence  usent)
structure:  structure-class = usent
substructures:
   substructure:  substructure-label1 = sub1
                  structure-class = case
                  patterns = (*case-instance (restrict >case-particle
                                                       case-particlep))
   substructure:  substructure-label2 = sub2
                  structure-class = usent
                  patterns = (*sequence (restrict  >usent  usentp))
semantic-analysis-function:  (case-analysis  sub1  sub2)
```

Fig. 6 Example of Structure Pattern (Unit Sentence)
The argument with the prefix symbol * can match any number of elements, and the argument with the prefix symbol > can match a single element.

5.4 Case Analysis

Case analysis is the process of matching a case instance and prototype cases in the case frame and of selecting the best matched prototype case. Then, the value of the case relation between the case instance and the predicate is determined to be the case relation of the selected prototype case.

A modifier element may have co-case slots. It is true that some modifiers are strongly associated with particular word meanings of predicate words. For example, a verb "hiku (引く)" has multiple meanings, and its exact meaning in a sentence is determined when it occurs simultaneously with object cases such as "kaze wo hiku (風邪を引く) (catch a cold)", "jisho wo hiku (辞書を引く) (consult a dictionary)" and "denwa wo hiku (電話を引く) (establish a telephone service)". When a modifier element definitely determines the word meaning of a modificant element, it is not efficient to test all possible word meanings of the modificant. Therefore, if the same case slot is shared by both a modifier and a modificant element, the meaning which shares this same case slot is selected as the word meaning of both elements without analysing another possibilities.

5.5 Modality analysis [8]

The classification of modality information and the procedure for analysing them have presented in the reference thus we will describe here only the outline. Modality analysis consists of the following three modules combined with case analysis and conjunctive analysis:

(1) Pre-case-analysis: A modality which causes a change in the case structure is analyzed at this stage. The case frame to be assigned to the predicate is modified by utilizing the result of this analysis before starting the case analysis. As for semantically ambiguous auxiliary verbs which are also related to the modification of the case structure, their role is only predicted at this stage, and after case analysis, the likelihood of the prediction is evaluated.

(2) Post-case-analysis: A modality whose analysis requires case structure information is analysed at this stage as follows :

a) If the category of the modality expression is unique, this category is assigned to the meaning structure.
b) If a daemon (a procedure to resolve ambiguities using heuristics) is attached to the modality expression, it performs the following three tasks: i) disambiguating the category of the modality word, ii) determining the operational scope of the modality, iii) adding the implicative meaning caused by the modality word.

(3) Post-conjunctive-analysis: Following the conjunctive analysis between the subordinate clause and the main clause, this module is activated to determine whether the modality in the main clause also operates on the subordinate clause. For negation in the main clause, the transfer of negation is considered. Testing whether or not the modifier event is subsidiary to the occurence of the main event is accomplished using the semantic relation frames assigned to the predicate of the main clause.

5.6 Determination of Word Meaning

Word meaning is an entry from a word to the conceptual network consisting of dictionary information and knowledge. Since a word has multiple word meanings, it is possible that the word might have multiple entries. The information available for the determination of word meaning is the accumulated situation (discourse information) and the accumulated word meanings (accumulated concepts). If no such information is available, a default value is borrowed as the most likely word meaning. In the early stage of semantic relation analysis, tentative word meanings are assumed. These word meanings may not be accurate because they have been determined solely by the local analysis. It is possible that some of the rejected meanings at this stage might be more adequete as the exact word meanings for a given word in the context of the entire sentence. Therefore, the system must retain all possible word meanings as candidates so that it can change the meanings after obtaining enough information to determine the exact meaning.

5.7 Determination of Category

At the stage of building a meaning structure for a sentence, categories for each constituent structure are also determined. Categories for a structure are usually the same as the categories of the head constituent. But if a structure is exocentric, categories for the structure can be obtained by some operation on its constituent substructures. For example, the category for "omocha no heitai (おもちゃの兵隊) (a toy soldier)" is non-animate, although the category of "heitai (兵隊) (a soldier)" is human (therefore, animate).

In order to determine the categories of a semantically ambiguous structure or a exocentric structure, an attached procedure is invoked. For example, the Japanese noun "tame (ため)" is ambiguous because it has two categories, purpose and cause. To resolve this ambiguity, a daemon is invoked after the noun phrase containing "tame" is analyzed. This daemon performs the following heuristics:

1) If "tame" is followed by both a case particle "ni (に)" and a modal particle "ha (は)" (that is, in case of "tameniha (ためには)" form), the category is determined to be "purpose".
2) If "tame"is succeeded by an embedded sentence and the predicate shows a perfective aspect (that is, the end part of the embedded sentence contains the auxiliary verb "ta (た)" or "teiru (ている)"), or the semantic category of the predicate is "state", the category is determined to be "cause".
3) Otherwise, "purpose".

6. Transfer

6.1 Transfer Functions

Discrepancies among ECS's for different languages arise for several reasons. One is essential in nature. We believe that syntactic information should be preserved as far as possible in ECS. But semantically equivalent information is often realized differently in the syntax of different languages. Conceptual systems are also different in different language communities. These differences must be reflected in ECS's.

Transfer process should fill these gaps between the ECS's of two different languages. At the transfer stage from Japanese to English, structures, relations and concepts in J-ECS are transferred into those in E-ECS. Since concepts and relations are integrated into structures, the transfer of concepts and relations is performed at the same time as the transfer of structures.

6.2 Transfer of elements of ECS

In the course of the transfer processes, ECS's in the source language are converted by recursively traversing original structures from top nodes, and creating corresponding target structures. So, the transfer process consists of transfering components of the ECS's, i.e., concepts that make up the ECS and relations which hold among them. But there are cases which don't suit this scheme well, and hence require special treatment. They are idiosyncratic to lexical items and specific procedures have to be triggered by certain concepts included in the original structures. Idiosyncratic transformations include:

1) deletion: certain structures in the source structures are deleted and no counterpart structures are embodied in target structures; for example, compound structures are transferred into primitive structures, as in the transfer from "Sakana wo tsuru (魚を釣る)" in Japanese to "fish" in English,
2) addition: certain structures that have no counterpart in the source structures are added to target structures; for example, primitive structures are transferred into compound structures, as in the transfer from "Samidare (五月雨)" in Japanese into "early summer rain" in English, and
3) modification: source structures are non-trivially changed in the process of transfer, as in the transfer from Japanese adjective sentence "Jisuu ga ooi (字数が多い)" into English "There are …" sentence structure, or types of input and output are different, as in the transfer from Japanese phrase "… suru toki (… する時)" ("time" case instance) into the English subordinate clause construction "When …".

The transfer of concepts consists of 1) transfer of semantic categories, and 2) transfer of word meanings. A transfer dictionary for a pair of languages is prepared to give information on the correspondence between concepts in both languages. An entry of the dictionary consists of a triad of frames, that is, a source concept frame, a target concept frame, and a mediating frame. Since concept correspondence is in general not one-to-one, there may be several target concepts given one source concept and vice versa. Mediating frames can provide information on conditions to make it possible to choose among alternatives. Concepts that would trigger idiosyncratic procedures have the information in the dictionary in the form of transfer rules.

Transfer of relations consists of transfer of four types of relations described in 3.3. Correspondence information is also placed in the transfer dictionary. But information on case relation transfer are stored as verbal concepts, since they might be specific to individual verbs or classes of verbs.

6.3 Transfer process

The transfer process is essentially a manipulation of frame networks. A rule-based system was devised to facilitate easy specification of the complex pattern of network manipulations. An example of the transfer rule is shown in Figure 7. Similar to structure patterns, a transfer rule consists of three parts: a matching part, execution part, and a return part. The matching part specifies the conditions under which the rule should be invoked. It also contains variables, which are bound during matching process and the information will be passed to and used in the later stage when the matching is successful. The execution part specifies the transfer of substructures and concepts, value assignment to the variables, further conditional branching, and other operations. Lisp code can be invoked in this part. The return part specifies the target structure that has to be constructed and returned on the basis of the application of the entire rule.

```
(defrule J:USENT
 (if (self   =   (J:USENT (*verb (var j-verb )) (*meaning (var j-mns )) (*modality (var j-mod )) (*cases (rest j-cases)) ))
     (j-verb =   (J:WORD (*stem-pos (optional (var j-stem-type))) ))
     then   (exec  (local r-fun (rest e-modif))
                   (LISP (cond (j-stem-type     (setq r-fun #'(lambda (t-frm) (isa* t-frm 'T:noun-verb)))  (send* j-mns 'put: '$restriction r-fun))))
                   (j-mns -> e-mns)  (j-mod -> e-mod)  (((for-all) j-cases) -> e-cases)
                   (LISP (and j-stem-type (send* j-mns 'remove: '$restriction r-fun))
                           (setq e-modi (mapcan #'(lambda (q) (and (isa* q 'E:Modifier-Clause) (ncons q))) e-cases))
                           (setq e-cases (subtract e-cases e-modif)) )
                   (if (LISP e-modif)   then (exec (return (! E:CSENT e-csent))
                                                  where  (e-csent = (E:CSENT (*main (! E:Predicate e-pred)) (*modifier-clause e-modif)))
                                                         (e-pred1 = (E:Predicate (*meaning e-mns) (*modality e-mod) (*cases e-cases))))
                                        else (exec   (return (! E:Predicate e-pred2))
                                                  where (e-pred2 = (E:Predicate (*meaning e-mns) (*modality e-mod) (*cases e-cases)))))))
```

Fig. 7 Example of transfer rule (Unit sentence)

The frame system presented here has a class-instance hierarchy, which adopts an "object-oriented" style of implementation for the frame network manipulation in the transfer process. Transfer rules specifying how the network should be handled are written for each type of structures. These are converted into executable forms, and attached to class frames of the structure as methods. When the top node of the input ECS is given a "transfer" message, corresponding methods in the class frame, to the instances of which the top node belongs, will be invoked and handle the network as is specified in the original rules.

7. LUTE Experiments

The LUTE is an experimental machine translation system between Japanese and English developed by applying the investigations mentioned above. The dictionary of each language has about 3000 entries. It has been implemented on a Symbolics Lisp-machine by using ZetaLisp. The size of the system is 850KB of programs and 4MB of dictionaries and knowledge.

LUTE was not developed for practical use but to provide a part of the computer environment, RESOLUTE (Reciprocal Environment for the Study of Language Understander, Translator & Editor), on which theoretical works concerning computational linguistics can be examined. As a result, RESOLUTE contains many facilities for man-machine interaction via a multi-window screen and consists mainly of a frame editor and facilities for conducting program executing. In this environment, it is possible to perform translation experiments such as analyzing texts, transfering the meaning structures, generating phrases and sentences, developing dictionaries, editing knowledge-base and examining programs both separately and simultaneously. For example, LUTE can regenerate a sentence of the source language, while showing the deleted parts in the source sentence, from a meaning structure produced by the analysis of a source sentence. Also, any intermediate representation can be modified to examine the transfer and generation as a whole or a part. Since all of the data are represented in a frame network, this environment system provides a general framework for frame-manipulation facilities. A snapshot of the translation experiment is shown in Figure 8.

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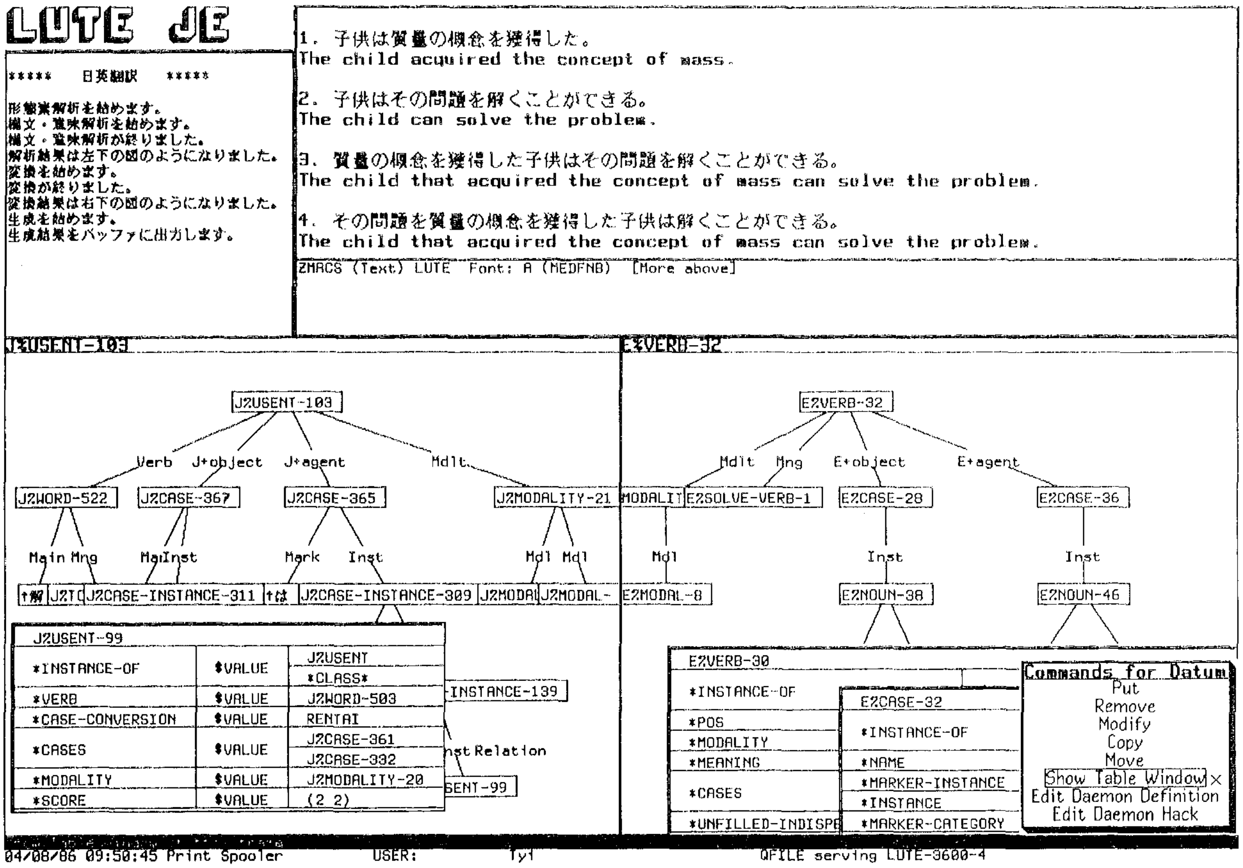

*****　日英翻訳　*****

形態素解析を始めます。
構文・意味解析を始めます。
構文・意味解析が終りました。
解析結果は左下の図のようになりました。
変換を始めます。
変換が終りました。
変換結果は右下の図のようになりました。
生成を始めます。
生成結果をバッファに出力します。

1．子供は質量の概念を獲得した。
The child acquired the concept of mass.

2．子供はその問題を解くことができる。
The child can solve the problem.

3．質量の概念を獲得した子供はその問題を解くことができる。
The child that acquired the concept of mass can solve the problem.

4．その問題を質量の概念を獲得した子供は解くことができる。
The child that acquired the concept of mass can solve the problem.

ZMACS (Text) LUTE Font: A (MEDFNB) [More above]

J%USENT-99		
*INSTANCE-OF	$VALUE	J%USENT *CLASS*
*VERB	$VALUE	J%WORD-503
*CASE-CONVERSION	$VALUE	RENTAI
*CASES	$VALUE	J%CASE-361 J%CASE-332
*MODALITY	$VALUE	J%MODALITY-20
*SCORE	$VALUE	(2 2)

E%VERB-30
*INSTANCE-OF
*POS
*MODALITY
*MEANING
*CASES
*UNFILLED-INDISPE

E%CASE-32
*INSTANCE-OF
*NAME
*MARKER-INSTANCE
*INSTANCE
*MARKER-CATEGORY

```
04/08/86 09:50:45 Print Spooler          USER:          Tyi          QFILE serving LUTE-3600-4
```

Fig. 8 Snapshot of an experiment on the LUTE