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WHY COMPUTERS DO NOT TRANSLATE BETTER

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ABSTRACT

The linguistic and computational complexities of machine translation are not always apparent to all users or potential purchasers of systems. As a consequence, they are sometimes unable to distinguish between the failings of particular systems and the problems which the best system would have. In this paper I shall attempt to outline the difficulties encountered by computers in translating from one natural language into another. This is an introductory presentation for those unfamiliar with what computers can and cannot achieve in this field.

INTRODUCTION

My intention in this paper is to provide some explanation for the difficulties encountered by present computer systems which attempt to produce partial or complete translations of texts from one natural language into another. The emphasis will be on what can or cannot be achieved automatically at present.

I shall not be concerned with the relative merits of different approaches to translation problems, for example, whether systems which switch between languages through some kind of interlingual representation are better than those which do not, or whether systems which employ methods from artificial intelligence are better than those which use more familiar methods of computational linguistics. Furthermore, I shall not be describing any particular system of whatever kind, past or present, nor shall I be giving details of methods of computation analysis or processing, or of methods of compiling and updating dictionaries, whether monolingual or bilingual.

My aim is to give an introduction, for those unfamiliar with machine translation (MT), to the main phenomena which must be taken into consideration, even if designers of particular systems have opted deliberately to ignore some of them. The aim is to highlight in the broadest terms those areas of translation which are relatively easy for computerised handling and those areas which are relatively difficult, and I am describing the present situation and make no predictions about the future. The purpose, therefore, is not to describe the inherent limitations of machine translation, but to give a rather simplified explanation of what may be expected from systems at the present time, whatever the particular methodology. For more details about the way MT systems work see Hutchins & Somers 1992.

Finally, it should be clear that I am not providing a methodology for evaluating systems. Evaluation involves much more than the quality of translation, although that is obviously a most important aspect. It involves also, for example, the operational environment of the system: transmission and receipt of texts, formatting, dictionary updating, editing, and printing; the examination of the compatibility of systems with other computer facilities; and in particular the assessment of how the system might integrate into the working patterns, practices and attitudes of existing personnel in the organisation as a whole.

SYSTEM TYPES

Although my object is not to describe the different types of systems available, a brief outline is in order. In broad terms, we may distinguish between ‘batch’ systems which attempt to translate whole texts without intervention by human operators and ‘interactive’ systems which require assistance during the translation process to resolve problems of ambiguity in the source text or to select the most appropriate word or phrase in the target language. In batch systems, so called because the whole text is processed as one task, the output produced generally requires revision by a human translator to a greater or lesser extent. This revision (or post-editing) may be well be substantial if the text is intended for publication, but it may be minimal, or even absent, if the text is intended only for information-scanning purposes within an organisation. As alternative modes of operation with such systems input texts can be pre-edited to reduce ambiguities and complexities of structure, or can be composed in a controlled language, in which words are as far as possible used in a single meaning only and in which sentence structures are kept to simple forms which computer programs are able to handle.

Why are some problems more difficult for computers to deal with than others? With this knowledge, users should be able to understand why when post-editing certain types of errors need to be constantly corrected, why when pre-editing texts or composing in controlled languages certain types of ambiguity and constructions should be avoided, and why in interactive systems certain types of questions recur again and again.

The methods for dealing with translation difficulties vary from system to system. In many cases, the ambiguities specific to the source language are tackled in operations separate from the treatment of differences between languages. Commonly three basic operations are recognised: the analysis of the source text, the bilingual transfer of lexical items and structures and the generation of the target text. Questions of ambiguity and choice occur at every stage. For example, resolving the ambiguity of English *cry* (meaning either ‘weep’ or ‘shout’) would be part of a program for the analysis of English. On the other hand, the selection of *connaître* or *savoir* in French for the English verb *know* would be a matter for a separate transfer program. Analysis involves also the identification and disambiguation of structures, e.g. whether *He saw her shaking hands* means that he saw someone who was welcoming a visitor or he saw someone who was nervous or suffering from the cold weather. Transfer likewise can involve changes of structure, e.g. from an English infinitival construction *He likes to swim* to a German adverbial construction *Er schwimmt gern.* Generation is often incorporated in transfer operations, but when a separate component it might include procedures to distinguish between English *big, large* and *great* (about which more later) and to produce correct morphology and word order in the target languages *(ses mains tremblantes, er soll heute kommen).*

	Lexicon		Structure
Analysis	cry	weep shout	morph: laughs/laughing syntax: he saw her shaking hands
Transfer	know	savoir connaître	he likes to swim er schwimmt gern
Generation	[grand]	big large	ses mains tremblantes er soll heute kommen

In some earlier systems and still some present-day microcomputer systems, all these operations are incorporated into single complex programs. Obviously, such systems, often called direct translation systems, can only be designed for two particular languages and in only one particular direction. Many present systems, particularly if intended to be multilingual, have separate programs for each of these components; a procedure which in addition allows for easier amendment, expansion and upgrading. Such systems are commonly referred to as transfer-based systems.

A further difference between systems may be made at this point. It concerns the use of interlingual elements. The basic idea is that rather than formulating changes between languages in terms of transfer operations, translation takes place from and into an interlingua, i.e. elements or structures which are in some sense neutral for the languages concerned. At its extreme, the whole system is interlingual, that is all analysis is aimed towards an interlingual representation, and all generation is from interlingual representations. Less extreme is the common use of interlingual elements or features in systems which are otherwise of the transfer type. Whichever approach is adopted, however, the operations mentioned above have to be handled and it is the treatment of these problems that I shall be describing.

METHODS OF ANALYSIS AND TRANSFER

All translation is a problem-solving activity, choices have to be made continually. The assumption in MT systems, whether fully or partially automatic, is that there are sufficiently large areas of natural language and of translation processes that can be formalised for treatment by computer programs. In this paper I shall discuss the following types or levels of decision-making:

(a) the use of other specific words in the same phrase or sentence
(b) the use of morphological information
(c) the use of information about syntactic functions and relations
(d) the use of semantic features and relations
(e) the use of knowledge about the subject domain
(f) the use of stylistic preferences.

Specific words

Decisions baaed on specific words are the easiest to apply and are capable of the highest degree of precision, but at the cost of some inflexibility. I shall illustrate with three types of problem: compound nouns, idioms, and metaphors.

All translators are familiar with the need to treat compounds as units to be translated. In many cases an attempt to translate each component of a compound noun would lead to ridiculous results: French *pomme de terre* is not *apple of earth* but *potato*. If there is a standard equivalent for a particular technical compound, then translators are obliged to use it. Many potential problems of homonymy can be averted by the entry of the relevant words in combination with others in dictionaries.

Take the word *light* for example, which can modify another noun in at least three different senses: as an adjective meaning ‘not heavy’, as an adjective meaning ‘not dark’, and as a noun meaning ‘luminescence’ or ‘illumination’. In theory, every occurrence could have any one of these senses, but if there are certain words which regularly occur with it, it would seem perverse not to make use of this fact. Thus many MT systems include entries for compounds such as *light bulb;* and indicate directly the target language equivalent (French *ampoule,* German *Glühbirne).* In this way the system can avoid a perhaps lengthy disambiguation process to determine which of the two senses of *bulb* is intended (plant bulb or pear-shaped glass) and in combination with which of three senses of *light;* a process which would have to be repeated every time the compound is encountered.

For the lay observer, it might seem that the most difficult area for MT must be the apparently unclassifiable variety of idiomatic constructions. It is a view which has support in the apocryphal stores of early MT systems which translated *out of sight out of mind* as ‘invisible idiot’ and which made such a mess of *The spirit is willing but the flesh is weak* (cf. Hutchins 1986).

The perceived difficulty of idioms is that the individual words take on meanings and connotations which they do not have in their literal usages. However, it is precisely because most idioms are relatively fixed expressions, consisting of the same words in the same sequence, that they can easily translated into comparable idioms or, if none exist, into literal equivalents.

Idioms can in fact be treated very much like any compound. For example collocations of *cry,* as we have seen a homonym meaning either ‘weep’ or ‘shout’, can constitute idioms of various lengths and complexities: *cry baby, cry out, cry off, cry wolf, hue and cry, at full cry, cry over spill milk.* Such collocations are sufficient to distinguish the two senses, and at the same time to deal with the idiomatic usages. Hence, however idiosyncratic such idioms as the following (1) may appear, it is a relatively simple matter to enter them as units, as fixed phrases in the source dictionary, with their target language equivalents whether those equivalents are themselves idioms or not.

(1) (a) bring to heel → mettre au pas
(b) to curry favour → chercher à plaire
(c) to cry wolf → crier au loup
(d) to hit the nail on the head → frapper juste
(e) to oil the wheels → faciliter les choses.

The same approach can be taken with many metaphorical usages, e.g. *mouth of river, branch of a bank, flow of ideas, channel of communication, tide of opinion, foot of the mountain, leg of the table.* Like idioms, metaphors of this kind can be treated as fixed compound expressions. We may note that among the European languages there is a common thread of similar formations, so that even if a metaphorical usage is not recorded in the dictionary, it may be possible to produce a literal translation which has a similar metaphorical impact. However, it would be a weakness in any MT system if it did not account easily for many metaphors which have become standard expressions of the language.

The advantage of treating certain word combinations as fixed expressions and translating them as units is the considerable saving in processing, particularly in the analysis of syntactic structure, and the assurance that the target output will be guaranteed to be correct. There are disadvantages also, however, since idioms can vary in structure (2). In other words the identification of idiomatic expressions must often involve morphological and syntactic analysis.

(2) (a) They had reached the point of no return

(b) The point of no return had been reached long ago
(c) They were always crying wolf.

The need for syntactic analysis is highlighted by one of the dangers of treating word groups as units. Consider the noun phrase *water pressure.* It would seem reasonable to treat this as a technical term with a fixed translation, i.e. *pression d'eau.* While there would clearly be no problem in a sentence such as:

(3a) The water pressure is low → La pression d’eau est basse

there would be unfortunate consequences in a sentence such as:

(3b) To lift the well water pressure is obtained from the pump.

Here the two words *water* and *pressure* occur in different clauses, and the desired translation is not (3c) but (3d).

(3c) Pour faire monter le puits la pression d’eau est obtenue à 1’aide de la pompe
(3d) Pour faire monter 1’eau du puits la pression est obtenue à 1’aide de la pompe.

What is needed is some kind of syntactic analysis which identifies phrase boundaries before attempts are made to locate compounds in the dictionary. It is reasonable to suppose that if a MT system produces mistakes of this nature, then syntactic analysis is being treated as subsidiary to compound identification, and not (as it probably should be) vice versa.

A relatively minor complication is that occasionally idioms and metaphorical expressions can be interpreted literally, e.g. *to oil the wheels* could be metaphorically *faciliter les choses* or literally *graisser les roues.* If there is only one translation given in the dictionary then the literal interpretation will be missed. It is not a problem to be exaggerated, since it is an easy manner for translators to make the appropriate revision. Indeed this comment applies to nearly all translations of fixed expressions. They are both easy for the MT system to translate and easy for the reviser to change.

Morphological analysis

It is a truism to say that one of the most straightforward operations of any MT system should be the identification and generation of morphological variants of nouns and verbs. There are basically two types of morphology in question: inflectional morphology, as illustrated by the familiar verb and noun paradigms (French *marcher, marche, marchons, marchait, est marché,* etc.), and derivational morphology, which is concerned with the formation of nouns from verb bases, verbs from noun forms, adjectives from nouns, and so forth, e.g. *nation, nationalism, nationalise, nationalisation,* and equivalents in other languages.

As a minimum, any MT system should be capable of recognising morphological forms and of generating them correctly. It should recognise for example that *were walking* is a third person plural past durative form of the verb *walk*, and it should generate *marchaient* as the third person plural past imperfect form of *marcher.* The alignment of English past durative and French past imperfect is however another matter involving the greater complexities of tense and aspect and their equivalents across languages – an area which few MT systems can deal with fully satisfactorily.

An MT system which cannot go beyond morphological analysis will generally produce little more than word for word translations. It may cope well with compounds and other fixed expressions, it may deal adequately with noun and verb forms in certain cases, but the lack of any treatment of word order will give poor results. Nevertheless, the output of such programs can serve useful purposes in certain circumstances. A specialist in a particular subject area who knows something of the grammatical characteristics of the source language could well find that comprehension of the gist of texts may not be impossible. There is in fact evidence that scientists have found the crude output of some of the early Russian-English systems to be of considerable assistance in keeping up with research developments. Another use for such crude output can be as pre-translation versions for experienced translators. They have the assurance that the technical vocabulary has been correctly translated, and there is sufficient indication of the original sentence structure for them to rework output into good quality translation.

Syntactic structures

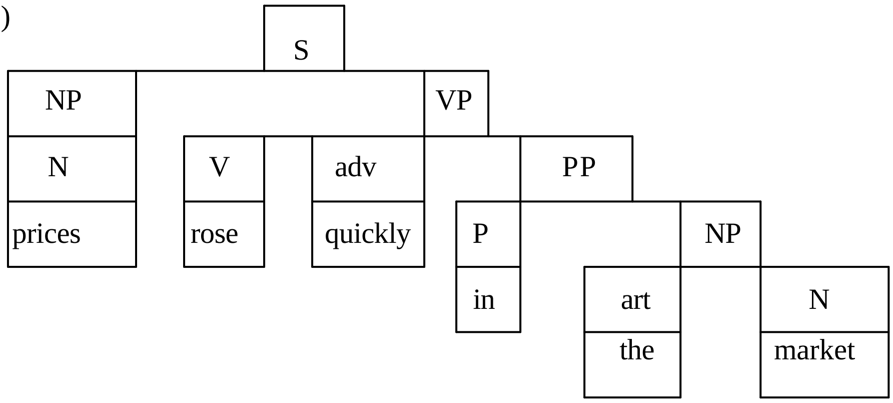
To go beyond crude word for word substitution demands at least some kind of syntactic analysis. I shall not attempt to describe the various approaches to syntactic analysis, and the complexities of structural transfer and generation. What I shall do is simply point out some of the major areas of difficulty, and the chief reasons for those difficulties.

Syntactic analysis is based largely on the identification of grammatical categories: nouns, verbs, adjectives. For English, the major problem is the categorial ambiguity of so many words, as already illustrated with the word *light.* In essence, the solution is to look for words which are unambiguous as to category and to test all possible syntactic structures. In the case of a sentence such as:

(4) Prices rose quickly in the market

each of the words *prices, rose,* and *market* can be either nouns or verbs; however, *quickly* is unambiguously an adverb and *the* is unambiguously a definite article, and these facts may be enough to ensure its unambiguous analysis as a phrase structure (5), where *prices* is identified as a subject noun phrase, *in the market* as a prepositional phrase, and *rose quickly* as part of a verb phrase. Note that this particular analysis is not one necessarily found in any MT system and would not be adopted by many syntax theories.

(5)



The example demonstrates that without using any semantic information it is in fact possible for some homonyms *(rose* and *market)* to be disambiguated by syntactic analysis. As another example, the word *return* can mean either ‘go back’ or ‘give back’ (with correspondingly different translations in other languages: *retourner, rendre, zurückgehen, zurückgeben).* The two meanings can often be distinguished by the simple presence or absence of a direct object (6):

(6a) She returned to the office → Sie ging in das Büro zurück
(6b) She returned the book → Sie gab das Buch zurück.

The identification of structural context can also be sufficient for translation of words which are not homonymic in the source language but which have more than one possible equivalent in the target language. A familiar example is the verb *know* (7). Although there are other factors involved, the identification of the structures in which *know* occurs can be enough to choose between *savoir* and *connaître* and between *wissen* and *kennen,* shown in (7a) and (7b)

(7a) I know his brother → je connais son frère; ich kenne seinen Bruder
(7b) I know what he is called → je sais ce qu’il s’appelle; ich weiß wie er heißt.

Structural changes are so common when translating from one language into another that the low-level ordering of basic elements – nouns, verbs, object nouns, adverbs, adjectives – should be expected from any MT system. In French output for example, the pre-nominal pronouns *(me, vous, le, lui, leur,* etc.) should be in the correct order and discontinuous *ne...plus, ne...rien,* etc. should be correctly placed. In German, the system should generate the correct placement of verbal elements in main clauses *(er hat es gestern empfangen)* and in subordinate clauses *(...daß er es gestern nicht empfangen hatte),* and so forth. This must be regarded as the minimum requirement, and any MT system which fails in this respect must be suspected of deficiencies elsewhere, probably of a graver nature.

Many structural changes are linked with specific lexical items, such as the *know* examples above and the following examples with *like* (in various meanings)

(8a) Young people like this music → Cette musique plaît aux jeunes gens
(8b) The boy likes to play tennis → Der Junge spielt Tennis gern
(8c) The boy was like his sister → Le garçon resemblait à sa soeur
→ Der Junge ähnelte seine Schwester.

Such structural changes should be within the capabilities of most MT systems, but more complex restructuring may well be beyond the capacity of the cheaper systems. An example might be the treatment of complex German pre-nominal modifying phrases and clauses (9). For translation into English post-nominal structures, (9c) or (9d), the system must be capable, in effect, of recognising the equivalence of the structure (9a) to a full relative clause (9b). In addition, the system should also know, when generating the English structure (9d), which parts of the relative clauses in (9c) can be omitted without loss.

(9a) Die in den letzten Jahren entwickelten Technologien ...
(9b) Die Technologien, die in den letzten Jahren entwickelt worden sind,...
(9c) The technologies, which have been developed in recent years,...
(9d) The technologies developed in recent years ...

The example demonstrates the need for syntactic analysis and transfer to operate at a deeper level than surface relationships (such as those in (5) above.) What is often meant by deeper analysis is the extraction of implicit functional relationships. In the following examples (10) the subjects of the subordinate infinitival clauses are implicit. Whereas in (10a) it is *Mary* who does the visiting, in (10b) it is *John* who is the visitor.

(10a) John persuaded Mary to visit his father
(10b) John promised Mary to visit his father.

Semantic roles and features

The recognition of implicit relations may well require access to semantic information. It is common to identify two types: semantic roles and semantic features.

By semantic roles in a structure are meant the relationships of essentially nominal elements (entities) to basically verbal elements (actions or states): a particular noun may be the agent of an action, another may be the instrument (or means), another may be recipient, and another may refer to the location, and so forth. Such roles can apply both to full sentences and to phrases (11):

(11a) In Europe the rivers are polluted by chemicals from industry
loc rec [action] agent source
(11b) the pollution of rivers by chemicals in Europe
[action] rec agent loc
(11c) the industrial pollution of European rivers
source [action] loc rec

Unfortunately, there is no universally agreed set of semantic roles which can be applied without difficulty to any language. Developers of MT systems are usually obliged to draw up their own lists. But, despite the difficulties, analyses of case relations are almost essential when translating between languages of widely diverging structures, such as Japanese and English; compare, for example (12a) and (12b):

(12a) The earthquake destroyed the buildings
inst [action] obj

(12b) jishin de kenbutsu ga kowareta
earthquake by-means-of buildings (subj) collapsed

The instrumental role of the subject noun *earthquake* in English (12a) must be recognised if the appropriate Japanese structure is to be generated with *de* (by-means-of) following *jishin* and *ga* (subject marker) following *kenbutsu.* Similarly, the treatment of the *like* example in (8a) above can be assisted by aligning the semantic roles of the languages, i.e. both *young people* and *jeunes gens* are recipients and both *this music* and *cette musique* are sources.

Semantic features refer to labels such as ‘human’, ‘animate’, ‘liquid’, ‘young’, etc. assigned to lexical elements. They can be used either in conjunction with semantic roles or independently. For example, in order to translate English *eat* into German (either *essen* or *fressen)* it might be considered useful to distinguish between ‘human’ agents (13a) and ‘non-human’ (13b):

(13a) The boy ate the banana → Der Junge hat die Banane gegessen
(13b) The monkey ate the banana → Der Affe hat die Banane gefressen.

Such features will have to be assigned to all relevant nouns (i.e., all that could be subjects of the verb *eat);* and they could then also be used in other sentences where choices between 'human' and 'non-human' subjects have to be made. As with semantic roles, however, there is no established set of features which can be applied to every language, and there are the two dangers of inconsistency and over-specification. The more semantic features available, the greater risk that compilers of dictionaries (whether the original developers or the subsequent users) apply them inconsistently. The dangers of over-specification can be illustrated by a somewhat trivial example. If it were held that the subjects of the verbs *drink* and *die* could only ever be animate, then the unfortunate consequence would be that the system would automatically reject *The car drinks petrol,* and *The secret died with him.*

The application of semantic roles and features in the analysis of noun compounds is no easy matter. As is well know, English nouns can be modified by other nouns functioning as quasi-adjectives, e.g. *water company.* The lack of explicit markers of the relationships can cause problems, because in many other languages these relationships have to be expressed, e.g., by case endings, or by prepositions. Consider the English sequence adjective-noun-noun: the adjective can modify either the first noun (14a) or the second noun (14b), and in theory, each of these groupings is possible for every such adjective-noun-noun sequence since syntactic analysis alone cannot isolate the intended modification.

(14a) private company legislation → legislation for private company
(adj n) n
hydraulic brake fluid → fluid for hydraulic brake(s)
(adj n) n
(14b) private water company → water company which is private
adj (n n)
diluted brake fluid → brake fluid which is diluted
adj (n n)

The application of semantic features and roles would be one option, but it would require the detailed specification of what types of adjectives and nouns can modify which particular types of nouns and noun phrases (whether derived from verb forms or not). Not surprisingly, MT systems adopt easier solutions, namely either to leave the decision to a human assistant during or after translation, or to include noun compounds in the dictionary, i.e., *water company* and *hydraulic brake* are treated as fixed expressions, with the potential consequences of incorrect analysis already mentioned.

There is a further possibility, and this is to make reference to a knowledge bank containing data about the subject domain.

Real world knowledge

While semantic features and roles in combination with syntactic information can go a long way in resolving ambiguities in the source language and in choosing translation variants, there are numerous instances where what is apparently needed is knowledge about the things and events being referred to. Take some simple problems of coordination. In the case of *black hat and shoes* it is likely that *black* modifies both *hat* and *shoes*; but in *red wine and cheese* the adjective is likely to refer only to *wine*. In fact, out of context, both phrases are ambiguous, just as out of context we do not know whether *old men and women* should be translated as *les vieux et les vieilles* or *les vieux et les femmes*. However, in the case of *pregnant women and children* we do know that *pregnant* cannot apply to *children*, so the only possible translation is: *des femmes enceintes et des enfants*. This knowledge could be incorporated in the dictionary, e.g. by limiting the use of *pregnant* to nouns with the features 'female' and 'mature'. Elsewhere morphological and syntactic information may be available, e.g. for the ambiguous phrase *smog and pollution control* in the following sentences:

(15a) Smog and pollution control are important factors
Smog and pollution control is under consideration.

However, to resolve the ambiguity in the case of (15b) we need non-linguistic knowledge:

(15b) The authorities encouraged smog and pollution control.

We know that what is more likely to be encouraged is the control of smog and not its creation. However, this kind of knowledge about human behaviour cannot be easily captured by semantic features in dictionaries.

More complex yet are examples such as the following, which have implications for the correct generation of French and German translations:

(16a) Having solved the problem, he went to bed
(16b) Having forgotten his book, he went back to fetch it.

The relationship between the two clauses is implicit, and differs in each case: in (16a) it is a temporal relationship, in (16b) it is a causal relationship. Since French and German do not permit constructions of this kind, the relationships must be made explicit:

(17a) After he had solved ...
→ Nachdem er das Problem gelöst hat, ...
Après qu'il a résolu le problème, ...
(17b) As he had forgotten ...
→ Da er das Buch vergessen hat, ...
Puisqu'il a oubli le livre,...

Probably all MT systems have difficulties with this kind of construction. An examination of the semantic features of the verbs may suffice on occasions, but in many cases it will not. What seems to be involved, as in the *smog and pollution control* example, is knowledge about human behaviour; the system needs to have some kind of human-like understanding.

It leads to the argument that good quality translation is not possible without understanding the reality behind what is being expressed, i.e. translation goes beyond the familiar linguistic information: morphology, syntax and semantics. The need is particularly striking in the treatment of pronouns. Human translators have virtually no problems with pronouns, and it must seem strange to many that while MT systems can deal quite well with complex idioms and certain complex structures they all seem to have great difficulties with pronouns. Why do we get such errors as *die Europäische Gemeinschaft und ihre Mitglieder*, rendered as *the European Community and her members?* The problem is that the antecedent of pronouns must be identified; the default translation of *ihr* as *her* does not work. The antecedent is often the immediately preceding noun, but certainly not always. Consider the following:

(18a) The soldiers shot at the women and some of them fell
(18b) The soldiers shot at the women and some of them missed.

We can identify the antecedents of *them* from our knowledge of what happens in the "real world". It is knowledge which is very difficult to formulate in computer programs but it is essential if the correct translations are to be made:

(19a) Les soldats ont tiré sur les femmes et quelques-unes sont tombées
(19b) Les soldats ont tiré sur les femmes et quelques-uns ont râté.

The clear implication is that what is required for the translation of the more intractable problems of analysis and transfer is the availability of a knowledge bank of information which can be referred to during the translation process. For example, given a sentence such as the following occurring in documents relating to computer hardware:

(20) Remove the tape from the disk drive.

The word *tape* can potentially refer to a magnetic tape or an adhesive tape. A knowledge-based system would check in its database which is most plausible in this context, i.e. it would seek to answer the question whether magnetic tapes can be removed from disk drives, or whether disk drives can contain or have as parts items which are magnetic tapes. If not, then it may check whether adhesive tape is plausible, i.e., whether disk drives are things which can be packaged using this item.

As far as MT is concerned, the knowledge-based approach is to be found in only a few experimental systems. The principal reasons are probably obvious enough. Coverage of documents other than those within a narrow subject range would clearly require databases of massive proportions. While the computer hardware and the computer software for fast access may well both be already available, the databases are not. These would demand many years of difficult and complex work by many researchers. Therefore, it is not surprising that most MT systems are based exclusively on well known and well tested techniques of syntactic and semantic analysis and transfer.

Stylistic matters

One of the most distinctive features of texts produced by MT systems is their unnatural literalness. In general, they adhere too closely to the structures of source texts. Of course, human translators can be guilty of this fault as well, although Newmark (1991) considers literalness to be desirable in literary and authoritative texts, as long as the result is in the appropriate style. However, the aim in technical translation is generally to produce texts which read as if they were originally written in the target language. It is quite evident that MT systems do not achieve this goal. Indeed, it can be argued that they should not aim for idiomaticity of this order, if only because recipients of MT output may be led to assume complete accuracy and fidelity in the translation. It does not need stressing that readability and fidelity do not go hand in hand: a readable translation may be inaccurate, and a faithful translation may be difficult to read.

Nevertheless, it is reasonable to aspire to some degree of idiomaticity in MT output. It would certainly help MT to become more acceptable. Consider some of the possible translations of French *grand* and German *gross* into English.

(21)	grand succès/grosser Erfolg	great success
	grosses Tier	large animal
	grosse Hände	large hands
	grand chef/grosser Führer	great leader
	grande question/grosse Frage	big question
	grand espoir/grosse Hoffnung	great hope
	grande vitesse/grosse Geschwindigkeit	high speed.

It is difficult to suppose that French and German speakers consider *grand* or *gross* to be polysemous (apart from recognising a distinction between its literal use, referring to size, and its metaphorical extension, referring to achievement.) It is more plausible to see the choice of *big, large* and *great* as a matter of stylistic variety to be handled in the generation of English. Even more so in the case of French *rapide* which can be *fast, quick, rapid, swift,* etc. according to the specific English noun concerned *(rapid development, swift progress, fast memory, quick response, swift action, fast access,* etc.). If there are any definable semantic differences among the English adjectives they are elusive.

In recent years MT researchers have paid increasing attention to methods for producing idiomatic output. A popular approach at present is the introduction of various kinds of statistical or probabilistic weighting of target language structures and lexical items based on large databases of examples of actual translations. In the case of *grand* and *rapide,* for example, a database of noun phrases in English and French translations (e.g., a greatly expanded list of examples as in (21) above) would enable appropriate renditions to be either extracted directly or derived by probabilistic pattern matching procedures. Statistical and example-based approaches have been made possible by the growing numbers of large textual databases, of all kinds of documents, and by improvements in computer analysis and processing of large databases.

Until such research advances much further however, current MT systems are unlikely to do more, as far as the production of idiomatic output is concerned, than certain minimal kinds of transposition. In English, indirect objects can occur before direct objects (22a), particularly if they are pronouns (22b), but not if they are longer or more complex (22c). In the latter case, only the inverted form is acceptable (22d).

(22a) He gave the assistant the money
(22b) He gave her the money
(22c) He gave the assistant in the flower shop on the corner of the street the money
(22d) He gave the money to the assistant in the flower shop on the corner of the street.

Stylistic preferences of this nature are easily handled. Others are not. For example, there is a tendency in many English document types towards a nominal style which is not shared in other languages. Whereas an English author might write (23a), the preference in many other languages would be something more like (23b).

(23a) The possibility of rectification of the fault by the insertion of a valve is discussed.
(23b) We discuss whether it is possible to rectify the fault by inserting a valve.

Changes to take account of such stylistic preferences are likely to remain beyond the capacity of most MT systems for the foreseeable future.

CONCLUSIONS

This account has, of course, by no means exhausted all the areas in which MT systems may have difficulties. For example, I have said nothing about the complexities of preposition selection, the correct choice of verbal tenses and aspect, or of the treatment of complex sentence structures. There are, in addition, failures of MT systems which have nothing to do with the problems of translation as such: gaps in dictionaries and simple mistakes of spelling and of grammar. Both can lead to systems failing completely to produce any version or to producing something which is incomprehensible. However, even here researchers are developing systems which can cope with common spelling and grammar mistakes, e.g., *supercede, procedings, incidently, none of them were present, he did not here them, you must try and see the exhibition*, etc.

Since the major problems of MT systems concern ambiguity, homonymy and alternative structures, it has long been recognised that one of the best ways of ensuring good MT output is to limit the amount of variation in the actual texts submitted to the system or to limit the system itself to specific text types or subject areas. The latter is exemplified by the well known Météo system, which was designed for meteorological texts and for nothing else (Chandioux 1989). The former is being adopted increasingly: texts are written to conform to certain restrictions of vocabulary and syntax; certain words are to be used in one meaning only, and complex structures are to be avoided. For example, the word *replace* can mean either 'put back' or 'exchange' (24); the ambiguity can be avoided by using it only in the first sense, and using *substitute* for the second sense.

(24a) Remove part A and replace it after cleaning
(24b) Remove part A and replace with part B.

Complex sentences may also be avoided, in order to ease problems of MT analysis. Thus (25a) may be rephrased as (25b):

(25a) Loosen the main motor and drive shaft and slide back until touching back plate.
(25b) Loosen the main motor. Loosen the drive shaft. Slide both parts until they touch the back plate.

I shall say no more here about this approach, since it is clearly a way of avoiding problems rather than tackling them (e.g. Pym 1990), and my topic in this paper has been the difficulties encountered by MT systems when they do tackle them.

There are well-tested and familiar methods for word recognition, for morphological segmentation and for syntactic analysis. The use of semantic features and roles is also well researched and reliable. With these techniques it is possible to deal with a wide range of linguistic phenomena with reasonable success – but not always without problems. As I have briefly illustrated, among phenomena which can be relatively easily handled are: idioms and fixed expressions, phrasal verbs, basic word order (both in analysis and in generation), metaphors (when identifiable by specific words), the morphological and the syntactic disambiguation of homonyms, and the resolution of ambiguities by the use of simple semantic features.

There remain, however, many phenomena of greater difficulty. Some may not occur often in certain text types and some may not be critical for certain users (i.e., they can be handled easily in post-editing or in interactive modes of operation); how much practical difficulty they cause depends largely on local circumstances. Among these relatively more difficult phenomena are: prepositions, pronouns, complex sentences, and stylistic variants (both lexical and structural). Various methods and techniques are currently being researched which may provide solutions; here I have mentioned knowledge-based approaches (Nirenburg et al. 1992), statistical methods (Brown et al. 1990), and the use of text corpora of example translations (Sadler 1989). At the same time there are new approaches to linguistic formalisms of many kinds, and translators should note the increasing (if belated) attention being paid to the practical experiences and insights of professional translators.

I have attempted in this paper to outline the nature of problems faced by designers of MT systems, and why these problems are relatively easy or difficult to tackle. Some difficult problems may prove to be inherently unsolvable. Some are certainly intractable with present methods and at the present stage of knowledge. For others there are good prospects of viable approaches; research continues and we can hope for gradual if not dramatic improvements in the future.

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