VERB SEMANTICS AND LEXICAL SELECTION

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Abstract

This paper will focus on the semantic representation of verbs in computer systems and its impact on lexical selection problems in machine translation (MT). Two groups of English and Chinese verbs are examined to show that lexical selection must be based on interpretation of the sentence as well as selection restrictions placed on the verb arguments. A novel representation scheme is suggested, and is compared to representations with selection restrictions used in transfer-based MT. We see our approach as closely aligned with knowledge-based MT approaches (KBMT), and as a separate component that could be incorporated into existing systems. Examples and experimental results will show that, using this scheme, inexact matches can achieve correct lexical selection.

Introduction

The task of lexical selection in machine translation (MT) is choosing the target lexical item which most closely carries the same meaning as the corresponding item in the source text. Information sources that support this decision making process are the source text, dictionaries, and knowledge bases in MT systems. In the early direct replacement approaches, very little data was used for verb selection. The source verb was directly replaced by a target verb with the help of a bilingual dictionary. In transfer-based approaches, more information is involved in the verb selection process. In particular, the verb argument structure is used for selecting the target verb. This requires that each translation verb pair and the selection restrictions on the verb arguments be exhaustively listed in the bilingual dictionary. In this way, a verb sense is defined with a target verb and a set of selection restrictions on its arguments. Our questions are: Is the exhaustive listing of translation verb pairs feasible? Is this verb representation scheme sufficient for solving the verb selection problem? Our study of a particular MT system shows that when English verbs are translated into Chinese, it is dif-

ficult to achieve large coverage by listing translation pairs. We will show that a set of rigid selection restrictions on verb arguments can at best define a default situation for the verb usage. The translations from English verbs to Chinese verb compounds that we present here provide evidence of the reference to the context and to a fine-grained level of semantic representation. Therefore, we propose a novel verb semantic representation that defines each verb by a set of concepts in different conceptual domains. Based on this conceptual representation, a similarity measure can be defined that allows correct lexical choice to be achieved, even when there is no exact lexical match from the source language to the target language.

We see this approach as compatible with other interlingua verb representation methods, such as verb representations in KBMT (Nirenburg, 1992) and UNITRAN (Dorr, 1990). Since these methods do not currently employ a multi-domain approach, they cannot address the fine-tuned meaning differences among verbs and the correspondence between semantics and syntax. Our approach could be adapted to either of these systems and incorporated into them.

The limitations of direct transfer

In a transfer-based MT system, pairs of verbs are exhaustively listed in a bilingual dictionary. The translation of a source verb is limited by the number of entries in the dictionary. For some source verbs with just a few translations, this method is direct and efficient. However, some source verbs are very active and have a lot of different translations in the target language. As illustrated by the following test of a commercial English to Chinese MT system, TranStar, using sentences from the Brown corpus, current transfer-based approaches have no alternative to listing every translation pair.

In the Brown corpus, 246 sentences take *break* as the main verb. After removing most idiomatic

usages and verb particle constructions, there are 157 sentences left. We used these sentences to test TranStar. The translation results are shown below:

打碎 107	破坏 22	间断 14
dasui	pohui	jianxie
to break into pieces	to make damage to	to have a break
决裂 5	违反 2	爆发 0
juelie	weifan	baofa
to break (a relation)	to against	to break out
发生故障 0	闯入 0	打断 0
fashengushang	chuanlu	daduan
to break down	to break into	to break a continuity
突破 0	得失相当 0	违背 0
tupo	deshixiandan	weibei
to break through	to break even with	to break (a promise)
完成绝大部分 0		
wanchenjuedabufen		
to break with		

In the TranStar system, English *break* only has 13 Chinese verb entries. The numbers above are the frequencies with which the 157 sentences translated into a particular Chinese expression. Most of the zero frequencies represent Chinese verbs that correspond to English *break* idiomatic usages or verb particle constructions which were removed. The accuracy rate of the translation is not high. Only 30 (19.1%) words were correctly translated. The Chinese verb 打碎 (dasui) acts like a default translation when no other choice matches.

The same 157 sentences were translated by one of the authors into 68 Chinese verb expressions. These expressions can be listed according to the frequency with which they occurred, in decreasing order. The verb which has the highest rank is the verb which has the highest frequency. In this way, the frequency distribution of the two different translations can be shown below:

Figure 1. Frequency distribution of translations

It seems that the nature of the lexical selection task in translation obeys Zipf's law. It means that, for all possible verb usages, a large portion is translated into a few target verbs, while a small portion might be translated into many different target verbs. Any approach that has a fixed number of target candidate verbs and provides no way to measure the meaning similarity among verbs, is not able to handle the new verb usages, i.e., the small portion outside the dictionary coverage. However, a native speaker has an unrestricted number of verbs for lexical selection. By measuring the similarities among target verbs, the most similar one can be chosen for the new verb usage. The challenge of verb representation is to capture

the fluid nature of verb meanings that allows human speakers to contrive new usages in every sentence.

Translating English into Chinese serial verb compounds

Translating the English verb *break* into Chinese (Mandarin) poses unusual difficulties for two reasons. One is that in English *break* can be thought of as a very general verb indicating an entire set of breaking events that can be distinguished by the resulting state of the object being broken. *Shatter*, *snap*, *split*, etc., can all be seen as more specialized versions of the general breaking event. Chinese has no equivalent verb for indicating the class of breaking events, and each usage of *break* has to be mapped on to a more specialized lexical item. This is the equivalent of having to first interpret the English expression into its more semantically precise situation. For instance this would probably result in mapping, *John broke the crystal vase*, and *John broke the stick* onto *John shattered the crystal vase* and *John snapped the stick*. Also, English specializations of *break* do not cover all the ways in which Chinese can express a breaking event.

But that is only part of the difficulty in translation. In addition to requiring more semantically precise lexemes, Mandarin also requires a serial verb construction. The action by which force is exerted to violate the integrity of the object being broken must be specified, as well as the description of the resulting state of the broken object itself.

Serial verb compounds in Chinese - Chinese serial verb compounds are composed of two Chinese characters, with the first character being a verb, and the second character being a verb or adjective. The grammatical analysis can be found in (Wu, 1991). The following is an example:

约翰 打碎 了 花瓶
Yuehan da-sui le huapin.
John hit-broken Asp. vase.
John broke the vase. (VA)

Here, *da* is the action of John, *sui* is the resulting state of the vase after the action. These two Chinese characters are composed to form a verb compound. Chinese verb compounds are productive. Different verbs and adjectives can be composed to form new verb compounds, as in 击碎, *ji-sui*, hit-being-in-pieces; or 击断, *ji-duan*, hit-being-in-line-shape. Many of these verb compounds have not been listed in the human dictionary. However, they must still be listed individually in a machine dictionary. Not any single character verb or single character adjective can be composed to form a VA type verb compound. The productive applications must be semantically sound, and therefore have to be treated individually.

Inadequacy of selection restrictions for choosing actions - By looking at specific examples, it soon becomes clear that shallow selection restrictions give very little information about the choice of the action. An understanding of the context is necessary.

For the sentence *John broke the vase*, a correct translation is:

约翰	打碎	了	花瓶。
Yuehan	da-sui	le	huapin.
John	hit-in-pieces	Asp.	vase.

Here *break* is translated into a VA type verb compound. The action is specified clearly in the translation sentence. The following sentences which do not specify the action clearly are anomalous.

* 约翰	碎	了	花瓶。
Yuehan	sui	le	huapin.
John	in-pieces	Asp.	vase.

A translation with a causation verb is also anomalous:

* 约翰	使	花瓶	碎	了。
Yuehan	shi	huapin	sui	le.
John	let	vase	in-pieces	Asp.

The following example shows that the translation must depend on an understanding of the surrounding context.

*The earthquake shook the room violently, and the more fragile pieces did not hold up well.
The dishes shattered, and the glass table was smashed into many pieces.*

Translation of last clause:

那	玻璃	桌子	被	震成	了	碎片
na	boli	zhuozi	bei	zhenchen	le	sui pian
That	glass	table	Pass.	shake-become	Asp.	pieces

Selection restrictions reliably choose result states - Selection restrictions are more reliable when they are used for specifying the result state. For example, *break* in *the vase broke* is translated into *dasui* (hit and broken into pieces), since the vase is brittle and easily broken into pieces. *Break* in *the stick broke* is translated into *zheduan* (bend and separated into line-segment shape) which is a default situation for breaking a line-segment shape object. However, even here, sometimes the context can override the selection restrictions on a particular noun. In *John broke the stick into pieces*, the obvious translation would be *da sui* instead. These examples illustrate that achieving correct lexical choice requires more than a simple matching of selection restrictions. A fine-grained semantic representation of the interpretation of the entire sentence is required. This can indicate the contextually implied action as well as the resulting state of the object involved. An explicit representation of the context is beyond the state of the art for current machine translation. When the context is not available, We need an algorithm

for selecting the action verb. Following is a decision tree for translating English Change-of-state verbs into Chinese:

Figure 2. Decision tree for translation

A multi-domain approach

We suggest that to achieve accurate lexical selection, it is necessary to have fine-grained selection restrictions that can be matched in a flexible fashion, and which can be augmented when necessary by context-dependent knowledge-based understanding. The underlying framework for both the selection restrictions on the verb arguments and the knowledge base should be a verb taxonomy that relates verbs with similar meanings by associating them with the same conceptual domains.

We view a verb meaning as a lexicalized concept which is undecomposable. However, this semantic form can be projected onto a set of concepts in different conceptual domains. Langacker (Langacker, 1988) presents a set of basic domains used for defining a *knife*. It is possible to define an entity by using the *size*, *shape*, *color*, *weight*, *functionality* etc. We think it is also possible to identify a compatible set of conceptual domains for characterizing events and therefore, defining verbs as well. Initially we are relying on the semantic domains suggested by Levin as relevant to syntactic alternations, such as *motion*, *force*, *contact*, *change-of-state* and *action*, etc, (Levin, 1992). We will augment these domains as needed to distinguish between different senses for the achievement of accurate lexical selection.

If words can be defined with concepts in a hierarchical structure, it is possible to measure the meaning similarity between words with an information measure based on WordNet (Resnik, 1993), or structure level information based on a thesaurus (Kurohashi and Nagao, 1992). However, verb meanings are difficult to organize in a

hierarchical structure. One reason is that many verb meanings are involved in several different conceptual domains. For example, *break* identifies a *change-of-state* event with an optional *causation* conception, while *hit* identifies a complex event involving *motion*, *force* and *contact* domains. Those Chinese verb compounds with *V + A* constructions always identify complex events which involve *action* and *change-of-state* domains. Levin has demonstrated that in English a verb's syntactic behavior has a close relation to semantic components of the verb. Our lexical selection study shows that these semantic domains are also important for accurate lexical selection. For example, in the above decision tree for action selection, a Chinese verb compound *dasui* can be defined with a concept %hit-action in an *action* domain and a concept %separate-into-pieces in a *change-of-state* domain. The *action* domain can be further divided into *motion*, *force*, *contact* domains, etc. A related discussion about defining complex concepts with simple concepts can be found in (Ravin, 1990). The semantic relations of verbs that are relevant to syntactic behavior and that capture part of the similarity between verbs can be more closely realized with a conceptual multi-domain approach than with a paraphrase approach. Therefore we propose the following representation method for verbs, which makes use of several different concept domains for verb representation.

Defining verb projections - Following is a representation of a *break* sense.

LEXEME	BREAK-1
EXAMPLE	I dropped my cup and it broke.
CONSTRAINT	(is-a physical-object E1) (is-a animate-object E0) (is-a instrument E2)
OBL	[ch-of-state (%change-of-integrity E1)]
OPT	[causation (%cause E0 *) instrument (%with-instrument E0 E2)]
IMP	[time (%around-time @t0 *) space (%at-location @l0 E0) (%at-location @l1 E1) (%at-location @l2 E2) action @ functionality @]

The CONSTRAINT slot encodes the selection information on verb arguments, but the meaning itself is not a paraphrase. The meaning representation is divided into three parts. It identifies a %change-of-integrity concept in the change-of-state domain which is OBLIGATORY to the verb meaning. The *causation* and *instrument* domains are OPTIONAL and may be realized by syntactic alternations. Other *time*, *space*, *action* and *functionality* domains are IMPLICIT, and are necessary for all events of this type.

In each conceptual domain, lexicalized con-

cepts can be organized in a hierarchical structure. The conceptual domains for English and Chinese are merged to form interlingua conceptual domains used for similarity measures. Following is part of the *change-of-state* domain containing English and Chinese lexicalized concepts.

Figure 3. Change-of-state domain for English and Chinese

Within one conceptual domain, the similarity of two concepts is defined by how closely they are related in the hierarchy, i.e., their structural relations.

Figure 4. The concept similarity measure

The conceptual similarity between C1 and C2 is:

$$ConSim(C1, C2) = \frac{2 \cdot N3}{N1 + N2 + 2 \cdot N3}$$

C3 is the least common superconcept of C1 and C2. N1 is the number of nodes on the path from C1 to C3. N2 is the number of nodes on the path from C2 to C3. N3 is the number of nodes on the path from C3 to root.

After defining the similarity measure in one domain, the similarity between two verb meanings, e. g., a target verb and a source verb, can be defined as a summation of weighted similarities between pairs of simpler concepts in each of the domains the two verbs are projected onto.

$$WordSim(V_1, V_2) = \sum_i W_i * ConSim(C_{i,1}, C_{i,2})$$

UNICON: An implementation

We have implemented a prototype lexical selection system UNICON where the representations of both the English and Chinese verbs are based on a set of shared semantic domains. The selection information is also included in these representations, but does not have to match exactly. We then organize these concepts into hierarchical structures to form an interlingua conceptual base. The names of our concept domain constitute the artificial language on which an interlingua must be based, thus place us firmly in the knowledge based understanding MT camp. (Goodman and Nirenburg, 1991).

The input to the system is the source verb argument structure. After sense disambiguation, the internal sentence representation can be formed. The system then tries to find the target verb realization for the internal representation. If the concepts in the representation do not have any target verb realization, the system takes nearby concepts as candidates to see whether they have target verb realizations. If a target verb is found, an inexact match is performed with the target verb meaning and the internal representation, with the selection restrictions associated with the target verb being imposed on the input arguments. Therefore, the system has two measurements in this inexact match. One is the conceptual similarity of the internal representation and the target verb meaning, and the other is the degree of satisfaction of the selection restrictions on the verb arguments. We take the conceptual similarity, i.e., the meaning, as having first priority over the selection restrictions.

A running example - For the English sentence *The branch broke*, after disambiguation, the internal meaning representation of the sentence can be:

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[ INTER-REP  sentence-1
  ch-of-state  (change-of-integrity branch-1) ]
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Since there is no Chinese lexicalized concept having an exact match for the concept *change-of-integrity*, the system looks at the similar concepts in the lattice around it. They are:

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(%SEPARATE-IN-PIECES-STATE
 %SEPARATE-IN-NEEDLE-LIKE-STATE
 %SEPARATE-IN-DUAN-STATE
 %SEPARATE-IN-PO-STATE
 %SEPARATE-IN-SHANG-STATE
 %SEPARATE-IN-FENSUI-STATE)
```

For one concept %SEPARATE-IN-DUAN-STATE, there is a set of Chinese realizations:

- 断了 duan la (to separate in line-segment shape).
- 打断 da duan (to hit and separate the object in line-segment shape).
- 断成 duan cheng (to separate in line-segment shape into).

- 折断 zhe duan (to bend and separate in line-segment shape with human hands)
- 刮断 gua duan (to separate in line-segment shape by wind blowing).

After filling the argument of each verb representation and doing an inexact match with the internal representation, the result is as follows:

	断了	打断-1	断成	折断	刮断
conceptions	6/7	0	0	0	0
constraints	3/14	0	3/7	0	0

The system then chooses the verb 断了 (duan la) as the target realization.

Handling metaphorical usages - One test of our approach was its ability to match metaphorical usages, relying on a handcrafted ontology for the objects involved. We include it here to illustrate the flexibility and power of the similarity measure for handling new usages. In these examples the system effectively performs coercion of the verb arguments (Hobbs, 1986).

The system was able to translate the following metaphorical usage from the Brown corpus correctly.

cf09:86:No believer in the traditional devotion of royal servitors, the plump Pulley broke the language barrier and lured her to Cairo where she waited for nine months, vainly hoping to see Farouk.

In our system, *break* has one sense which means *loss of functionality*. Its selection restriction is that the patient should be a mechanical device which fails to match *language barrier*. However, in our ontology, a *language barrier* is supposed to be an entity having functionality which has been placed in the nominal hierarchy near the concept of mechanical-device. So the system can choose the *break* sense *loss of functionality* over all the other *break* senses as the most probable one. Based on this interpretation, the system can correctly select the Chinese verb 打破 *da-po* as the target realization. The correct selection becomes possible because the system has a measurement for the degree of satisfaction of the selection restrictions. In another example,

ca43:10:Other tax-exempt bonds of State and local governments hit a price peak on February 21, according to Standard & Poor's average.

hit is defined with the concepts %move-toward-in-space %contact-in-space %receive-force. Since *tax-exempt bonds* and *a price peak* are not physical objects, the argument structure is excluded from the HIT usage type. If the system has the knowledge that price can be changed in value and fixed at some value, and these concepts of *change-in-value*

and *fix-at-value* are near the concepts *%move-toward-in-space* *%contact-in-space*, the system can interpret the meaning as *change-in-value* and *fix-at-value*. In this case, the correct lexical selection can be made as 达到 *da-dao*. This result is predicated on the definition of *hit* as having concepts in three domains that are all structurally related, i.e., nearby in the hierarchy, the concepts related to prices.

Methodology and experimental results

Our UNICON system translates a subset (the more concrete usages) of the English *break* verbs from the Brown corpus into Chinese with larger freedom to choose the target verbs and more accuracy than the TranStar system. Our coverage has been extended to include verbs from the semantically similar *hit*, *touch*, *break* and *cut* classes as defined by Beth Levin. Twenty-one English verbs from these classes have been encoded in the system. Four hundred Brown corpus sentences which contain these 21 English verbs have been selected. Among them, 100 sentences with concrete objects are used as training samples. The verbs were translated into Chinese verbs. The other 300 sentences are divided into two test sets. Test set one contains 154 sentences that are carefully chosen to make sure the verb takes a concrete object as its patient. For test set one, the lexical selection of the system got a correct rate 57.8% before encoding the meaning of the unknown verb arguments; and a correct rate 99.45% after giving the unknown English words conceptual meanings in the system's conceptual hierarchy. The second test set contains 116 sentences including sentences with non-concrete objects, metaphors, etc. The lexical selection of the system got a correct rate of 31% before encoding the unknown verb arguments, a 75% correct rate after adding meanings and a 88.8% correct rate after extended selection process applied. The extended selection process relaxes the constraints and attempts to find out the best possible target verb with the similarity measure.

From these tests, we can see the benefit of defining the verbs on several cognitive domains. The conceptual hierarchical structure provides a way of measuring the similarities among different verb senses; with relaxation, metaphorical processing becomes possible. The correct rate is improved by 13.8% by using this extended selection process.

Discussion

With examples from the translation of English to Chinese we have shown that verb semantic repre-

sentation has great impact on the quality of lexical selection. Selection restrictions on verb arguments can only define default situations for verb events, and are often overridden by context information. Therefore, we propose a novel method for defining verbs based on a set of shared semantic domains. This representation scheme not only takes care of the semantic-syntactic correspondence, but also provides similarity measures for the system for the performance of inexact matches based on verb meanings. The conceptual similarity has priority over selection constraints on the verb arguments. We leave scaling up the system to future work.

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