Recognition of the Coherence Relation between *Te*-linked Clauses

Akira Oishi School of Information Science JAIST 1-1 Asahidai, Tatsunokuchi, Ishikawa 923-1292, Japan oishi@jaist.ac.jp

Abstract

This paper describes a method for recognizing coherence relations between clauses which are linked by tein Japanese — a translational equivalent of English and. We consider that the coherence relations are categories each of which has a prototype structure as well as the relationships among them. By utilizing this organization of the relations, we can infer an appropriate relation from the semantic structures of the clauses between which that relation holds. We carried out an experiment and obtained the correct recognition ratio of 82% for the 280 sentences.

1 Introduction

One of the basic requirements for understanding discourse is recognizing how each clause coheres with its predecessor. Our linguistic and pragmatic competence enables us to read in conceivable relations even when two clauses are copresent without any overt cues, i.e., in parataxis.

There has been a variety of definitions for coherence relations (see (Hovy and Maier, 1993) for a survey). However, the definitions are rather vague and they are often recognized to be underspecified (Moore and Pollack, 1992; Fukumoto and Tsujii, 1994). This paper attempts to explicate how such coherence relations arise between segments of discourse. We focus on te-linkage in Japanese — a translational equivalent of English and-linkage, since mere parataxis ranges over too widely to capture the underlying principles on the coherence relations.

We consider that coherence relations are categories each of which has its prototypical instances and marginal ones. As with all instances of categorizations, the prototypical cases of each relation are clearly distinguishable from one another. In some cases, however, it is often hard to make clear argument for a relation being one rather than another. In addition, these relations themselves are hierarchically organized according to their specificity. By

Yuji Matsumoto Graduate School of Information Science NAIST 8916-5 Takayama, Ikoma, Nara 630-0101, Japan matsu@is.aist-nara.ac.jp

considering the prototype of each relation, we can infer an appropriate relation from the semantic structures of the segments between which that relation holds.

2 Categorization of Te-linkage

Traditionally, te-constructions have been divided into three categories according to the function of te: (i) as a non-productive derivational suffix; (ii) as a linker joining a main verb with a so-called auxiliary to form a complex predicate; and (iii) as a linker connecting two phrases or clauses. Since the derivatives and the auxiliaries are relatively fixed compared with the third category, we concentrate on the third category in this paper.

Japanese te, like English and, is used to express a diverse range of coherence relations as shown below¹.

- (2) Additive
 zyoon-wa akarukute kinben-da.
 Joan-TOP be-cheerful-te diligent COPULA PRES
 "Joan is cheerful and diligent."
- (3) Temporal Sequence gogo-wa tegami-wo kaite, ronbun-wo yonda. afternoon-TOP letter-ACC write-te thesis-ACC read-PAST "In the afternoon, (I) wrote letters and read the thesis."
- (4) Cause-Effect
 taihuu-ga kite, ie-ga hakai-sareta.
 typhoon-NOM come-te houses-NOM destroy PASSIVE-PAST
 "A typhoon came, and houses were destroyed."

¹The examples are borrowed from (Hasegawa, 1996).

- (5) Means-End
 - okane-wo karite, atarasii kuruma-wo kau. money-ACC borrow-te new car-ACC buy-PRES

"(I) will borrow money and buy a car."

(6) Contrast

zyoon-wa syuusyoku-site tomu-wa kekkon-sita. Joan-TOP get-a-job-*te* Tom-TOP marry-PAST "Joan got a job, and Tom got married."

- (7) Concession
 - kare-wa okane-ga atte kasanai.

he-TOP money-NOM there-be-te lend-NEG-PRES

"Although he has money, (he) won't lend (it to anyone)."

When such a relation is understood to be intended by the speaker, it is always inferable solely from the conjuncts themselves.

Although te-linkage exhibits an extreme degree of semantic nonspecificity, it is nonetheless very common in actual usage² and does not cause problem in communication. We will see how such diversity of relations arise in the next section.

3 Organization of the Coherence Relations

Although the semantic relations between the telinked constituents are diverse, not all relations implicated by parataxis can be expressed by te-linkage (Hasegawa, 1996). For example, if the clauses equivalent to I sat down and The door opened are presented paratactically in Japanese, the interpreter naturally reads in a Temporal Sequence relation, just as in English. But this relation is not an available interpretation when the clauses are linked by te. That is, among the relations potentially implicated by two copresent clauses, some are filtered out by te-linkage.

We presume that the inherent meaning of te is "togetherness." The only relations that fit with this meaning are possible to arise within te-linkage. The notion of "togetherness" can be divided into two categories according to the temporal properties of relations. One in parallel and the other in series. In the former, two events occur simultaneously or two states hold at the same time, while in the latter, two events occur successively.

These two categories are further divided into smaller categories according to the event structures of conjuncts. The category of sequential relations contains both Cause-Effect and Temporal Sequence. When two events which are linked solely by temporal sequentiality are expressed via *te*-linkage, the conjuncts must share an agentive subject. Thus, causation and one person's volitional acts are sufficient to be recognized as togetherness.

On the other hand, in order for the category of parallel occurrence of events to be compatible with te-linkage, they must be homogeneous in some sense. One such example is the case where a thing has two different properties (Additive) and another is the cases where two different things have similar properties or are engaged in similar events (Contrast). As for the Additive relation, the subject of the second conjunct is often omitted since it is the same as that of the first. In addition, both predicates of the conjuncts are stative - adjectives or stative verbs - because they have no temporal boundaries as opposed to events and can easily hold at the same time within one person. As for the Contrast relation, the subjects of the conjuncts must be different from each other and hence both of them are explicitly mentioned (often marked with the contrastive wa). In general, the similarities of the predicates appear as the syntactic parallelism as the example (6) shows.

The other sub-category of the parallel occurrence of events is "accompaniment," where the second clause is foregrounded and the first backgrounded. The prototypical instance of this category is the case where the first clause denotes a state and the second an event, since we have a tendency to focus on a changing event rather than stable state. Thus, the Circumstance relation composes this category. The cases where the first clause denotes some manner of event are also contained in this category, since a manner accompanies an event.

The notion of the manner is continuous to the means since the means and manner of an event are often coextensive in that the means of an event often determines the manner of the event. This is exemplified by English with as well as Japanese de, which are used both as an instrumental or means marker and as a marker of manner (How is similarly polysemous) (Goldberg, 1996).

The Means-End relation is also continuous to causation, since the means can be interpreted as a kind of causation. This is exemplified by Japanese *doosite* (why/how) as follows:

- (18) doo-site kitano? "Why/How did you come?" Answer:
- (18a) densya-de (means) "by train"
- (18b) aitakatta-kara (reason)

²On the basis of a corpus of 3,330 multi-predicate sentences sampled from various types of text, Saeki (Saeki, 1975) reports a total of 26 connectives (1,047 tokens altogether), of which te holds the foremost rank: it occurs 512 times, while the second most frequent connective, ga, occurs only 141 times. According to Inoue (Inoue, 1983), te appears most frequently in spontaneous speech (34.5% of all connectives) and in informal writing (27%). In formal writing such as newspaper editorials, te ranks second (17.2%) after ren'yoo linkage (36.9%). The actual occurrence of te is much more frequent than these numbers suggest, because these data do not include cases in which the second predicate is a so-called auxiliary.

"since (I) want to meet (you)"

(18b) expresses the reason why the speaker came to the hearer — "the wish to meet the hearer caused him/her to come." Thus, this relation associates the two extremes i.e., parallelism and sequentiality.

Finally, the Concession is closely related to both Cause and Contrast. In the Concession relation, the first clause implies something and the second clause denys it. The implied states or events are often those to be caused by the events or states denoted by the first clause, and then denied and contrast with the second clause.

The whole organization is shown in Figure 1. Note



Figure 1: The organization of the relations with te-linkage

that this organization of the relations are viewed from the perspective of *te*-linkage. The different organizations may emerge via the other linkages.

4 Recognizing the Coherence Relations

4.1 Overview

Theoretically, it is more likely that when we have heard/read the first clause and te, we narrow down the possible relations by inferring the content of the second clause. For example, if the first clause denotes an action, we will infer what is caused by the action or another action which may follow the action — that is, Cause or Temporal Sequence will be expected. On the other hand, if the first clause denotes a state, Circumstance or Additive will be expected. In practice, however, we have both clauses at hand. Therefore, we adopt the following algorithm:

- STEP1 Assume part of semantic structures of the conjuncts by reverse linking
- **STEP2** Unify them with a verb's semantic structures
- **STEP3** Infer the most feasible relation between them

In STEP1, part of the semantic structure of each clause is abductively assumed by applying linking rules backward. The linking rules are regular ways of

$$\begin{array}{l} (\forall w, e, g, p)go(e, y, p) \land locational(e) \land goal(g) \\ \supset pp(``w - ni", g) \land place(g) \end{array} \\ (\forall w, e, g, p)go(e, y, p) \land posessional(e) \land goal(g) \\ \supset pp(``w - ni", g) \land thing(g) \\ (\forall w, s, y, p)be(s, y, l) \land locational(e) \land at(l, p) \\ \supset pp(``w - ni", p) \land place(p) \end{array} \\ (\forall w, e, x, y)act(e, x, y) \supset pp(``w - ga", x) \land animate(x) \\ (\forall w, e, y, s)become(e, y, s) \supset pp(``w - ga", y) \\ (\forall w, s, y, l)be(s, y, l) \supset pp(``w - ga", y) \\ (\forall w, e, x, y)act(e, x, y) \supset pp(``w - ga", y) \\ (\forall w, e, x, y)act(e, x, y) \land pp(``w - ga", y) \\ (\forall w, e, x, y)act(e, x, y) \land become(e, y, s) \\ \supset pp(``w - o", y) \end{array}$$



 $(\forall s, y, z, l)be(s, y, l) \land at(l, z) \supset State(s)$ $(\forall e, x, y)act(e, x, y) \supset TransAct(e)$ $(\forall e, x)act(e, x) \supset IntransAct(e)$ $(\forall e, y, p)go(e, y, p) \land path(p) \supset Move(e)$ $(\forall e, y, s, l, z) become(e, y, s) \land be(s, y, l) \land at(l, z)$ \supset Achievement(e) $(\forall e, e_1, e_2, x, y) act(e_1, x, y) \land cause(e, e_1, e_2)$ $\land become(e_2, y, s) \land be(s, y, l) \land at(l, z)$ \supset Accomplishment(e) $(\forall s)State(s) \land thing(y) \land place(z) \supset verb("aru", e)$ $(\forall s)State(s) \land animate(y) \land place(z) \supset verb("iru", e)$ $(\forall e) Move(e) \land manner1 \supset verb("hashiru", e)$ $(\forall e) Move(e) \land manner 2 \supset verb("aruku", e)$ $(\forall e) Accomplishment(e) \land manner3 \supset verb("nuru", e)$ $(\forall e) Accomplishment(e) \land manner4 \land locational(e)$ $\supset verb("sosogu", e)$ $(\forall e) Accomplishment(e) \land state1 \land$ $identificational(e) \supset verb("mitasu", e)$



mapping open arguments — i.e., variables of semantic structures whose referents can be expressed syntactically by a phrase within the same clause as the predicate — onto grammatical functions or underlying syntactic configurations by virtue of thematic roles (thematic roles are positions in a structured semantic representation). In the case of Japanese, they are triggered by case particles. In STEP2, the verb's semantic structures are invoked and unified with the outputs of STEP1. The examples of the linking rules and verbs' semantic structures are shown in Figure 2 and 3 respectively.

However, since the real texts contain far more complexity and ambiguity than the examples given in this paper, we have to correct the outputs of the processes manually (the gapped arguments are filled by hand). We now focus on the processes that calculate the coherence relations.

4.2 The Properties Relevant to the Coherence Relations

What is essential for recognizing the coherence relation between clauses is that the constituents of one clause bear certain kind of structural relationship to those of the other. Although there are an infinite number of situations, there seems to be only a small number of properties relevant to the coherence relations that can hold between them. They are:

- 1) the identity and agentivity of the subjects in the two clauses
- 2) the thematic and aspectual properties of the event denoted by each clause
- 3) canonical events associated with the noun that is relevant to both clauses

Before going through the use of these properties, let's consider the other information which affects our construal of the relations.

There are some adverbials or fixed expressions which coerce the interpretation into the specific relation. In addition, there are narrow-range verb classes which specialize the implicated relation by virtue of their inherent meaning. For example, verbs that take a temporal NP as the subject and means "the passage of time" such as sugiru(passaway), tatu(go by), keikasuru(elapse), etc., imply the Temporal Sequence relation when followed by te. Verbs that express "using" such as tukau(use), siyousuru(make use of), katuyousuru(apply), etc., imply the Means-End relation. They are summarized in Table 1. In Table 1, [TE] means temporal expressions such as days, months, years, centuries, etc. The verbs and fixed expressions appear in the first clause, while the adverbials in the second. These fixed expressions should be listed as a unit in the lexicon.

When these expressions appear in the test sentences, we can identify the relation regardless of the procedure described below. Otherwise, we have recourse to the aforementioned properties.

4.3 The Prototypes and the Extensions

In the previous study, We have classified verbs into 30 semantic categories, and for each category we have given a lexical conceptual structure (LCS) representation (Oishi and Matsumoto, 1997). Since the LCS representation involves lexical decomposition (Jackendoff, 1990), we can utilize the verb internal semantic structure so as to calculate coherence relations in a farely principled way.

As mentioned in the introduction, we consider each relation as a category. Categories cannot be defined in terms of necessary and sufficient conditions, but rather each instance is categorized according to its similarity to the prototypes of the categories (Rosch, 1973; Lakoff, 1987; Taylor, 1989).

We define a prototypical structure for each relation by means of the predicates used in the LCSs as follows:

• Circumstance

[x ACT]₂ WITH [x BE z]₁

• Additive

```
[x BE z_1]_1 AND [x BE z_2]_2
```

• Temporal Sequence

 $[x \text{ GO TO } z_1]_1$ THEN $[x \text{ GO (FROM } z_1) \text{ TO } z_2]_2$

relations	categories	examples
Temporal Sequence	passage verbs ending verbs continuing verbs adverbials fixed expressions	sugiru(pass away), keikasuru(elapse) owaru(end), oeru(finish) tuzuku(continue), hikituzuku(follow) sonogo(after that), imadeha(nowadays) [TE]ni-natte(set in), [TE]hodo-site(after)
Means-End	using verbs fixed expressions	tukau(use), siyousuru(make use of) ni-yotte(by means of)
Cause-Effect	fixed expressions	dake-atte(on account of), wo-ukete(given)
Circumstance	static relation verbs	sou(be parallel to), motozuku(be based)

Table 1: The expressions that specialize the relations

• Cause-Effect

[x ACT ON y]1 CAUSE [y BECOME z]2

Means-End

[x ACT]₂ BY [x ACT]₁

• Contrast

• Concession

[x ACT ON y]₁ BUT [y NOT BECOME z]₂

Here, WITH, AND, THEN, etc., are mnemonic names for the relations and each can be considered as a function that takes two events or states as its arguments and returns a coherent event or state. We use the infix notation for each function rather than prefix. The square brackets identify the semantic structure of a clause and their subscripts denotes the surface ordering of the clauses linked by te. ACT, BE, GO, and BECOME are also functions and they correspond to actions, states, movement, and inchoatives respectively. They express broad-range classes of the events which are constructed by the previous steps (see Figure 3). The whole structures incorporate the identity between the subjects of two clauses by the variables x and y. Agentivity of each subject is implied by the types of the events: ACT > GO > BECOME > BE.

Often, these prototypical structures are lexicalized and expressed by a single clause. For example, the Cause-Effect relation is lexicalized into accomplishment verbs (Talmy, 1985) and the Means-End relation can be expressed by an adjunct event noun followed by the case particle de. They must be extended so that they can cover wider range of instances of te-linkage. The result of the extension is shown in Table 2 (for cases each of which shares a subject) and Table 3 (for cases each of which has distinct subjects), where each column corresponds to the type of the event in the first clause and each row to the second. The prototypes are boldfaced and they are extended to the other boxes with some directions and constraints.

For example, the Temporal Sequence relation has a prototype structure, which is roughly read as "someone goes to somewhere, and then he/she goes (from there) to elsewhere." This expresses our common sense that one person cannot move along two different paths at the same time, which implys that the two movements by a person must be sequential. This prototype is extended so as to cover such situations as "someone goes to somewhere, and then he/she does something/becomes something/stays there" or "someone does something/become something/stays somewhere, and then he/she goes to elsewhere." They are expressed by vertical and horizontal extensions of the prototype in Table 2. The

Table 2: The combinations of event types (identical subjects)

	1st clause				
2nd clause	ACT	GO	BECOME	BE	
ACT	Means Cir(manner) TempSeq	TempSeq		Circum	
GO	TempSeq Cir(manner) Means	TempSeq	TempSeq Cause	TempSeq Circum	
BECOME	Cause Means Cir(manner)	Cause TempSeq	Cause	Circum Cause	
BE	Cir(manner)	TempSeq		Additive Cause Circum	

Table 3: The combinations of event types (distinct subjects)

	lst clause				
2nd clause	ACT	GO	BECOME	BE	
ACT	Contrast	1		Circum	
GO		Contrast		Circum	
BECOME	Cause	Cause	Contrast Cause	Cause Circum	
BE	Concession			Contrast Circum	

movements involved in these situations are locational and the other events must be done volitionally by the same person. Another extension covers situations where "someone does something, and then he/she does something else." This is based on the fact that one person cannot generally engage in two actions at the same time. Of course, any type of events may occur sequentially. However, there exists the constraint on the fitness with *te*-linkage as mentioned in the previous section.

The explanation for the other relations is detailed in (Oishi, 1998).

As a result of the extensions, many boxes have two or more relations. Notice that the nearer relations in the organization tend to be in the same boxes. To discriminate among them, we specify for each combination of event types such algorithm as follows (below, I(i,j) means that two clauses share an subject and D(i,j) means that two clauses have distinct subjects, where *i* is the event type of the first clause and *j* the second):

• I(ACT,ACT), I(ACT,GO)

If either clause contains the expressions which fix the temporal boundary, then *Temporal Sequence*; else if the verb of the first clause involves a manner component, then *Circumstance*; otherwise, *Means-End*.

• I(ACT,BECOME) If the second event is psychological, then Cause-Effect; else if the verb of the first clause involves a manner component, then *Circumstance*; otherwise, *Means-End*.

- I(GO,BECOME) If the second event is psychological, then Cause-Effect; otherwise, Temporal Sequence.
- I(BECOME,GO) If the first event is perceptual, then Cause-Effect; otherwise, Temporal Sequence.
- I(BE,GO) If either clause contains the expressions which fix the temporal boundary, then Temporal Sequence;

otherwise, Circumstance.

- I(BE,BECOME) If the second event is psychological, then Cause-Effect; otherwise, Circumstance.
- I(BE,BE) If the second state is psychological, then Cause-Effect;

else if the both predicates are propertydenoting adjectives or nouns, then Additive; otherwise, Circumstance.

- D(BECOME, BECOME) If the both subjects are marked with wa, then Contrast; otherwise, Cause-Effect.
- I(BE,BECOME) If the first state is relational, then Circumstance; otherwise, Cause-Effect.
- D(BE,BE) If the both subjects are marked with wa, then Contrast; otherwise, Circumstance.

On the other hand, there remain so

On the other hand, there remain some boxes blank. They should be resolved by using the third property — the canonical events associated with the noun that is relevant to both clauses. The generative lexicon will serve the purpose (Pustejovsky, 1995). At present, however, we have not yet fully implemented the lexicon for nouns. Therefore, we give the Circumstance relation as a default.

5 Experiment and Discussion

An experiment of recognizing coherence relations of te-linkage were done for 280 sentences which were randomly extracted from EDR Corpus (EDR, 1995). The analysis results are shown in Table 4, where the coherence relations in the sentences were classified into 7 categories by authors and compared with the outputs of the program.

The relations are not balanced in number. This seems to be due to the genre of texts from which the test sentences were picked up (most of them were news articles). The numbers in parentheses show those of test sentences that matched with the fixed expressions in Table 1.

The precision on the whole is 82%. This shows that to a large extent we can cope with the problem to recognize the coherence relations between clauses (at least when linked by te), given the event types of the clauses and the fixed expressions in the lexicon.

Most of errors are caused by ambiguity of the relation. There were many examples which were difficult even for humans to make clear judgements. This reflects the fact that the coherence relations do not have definite borders.

However, there were some errors which show a crucial limitation of our method. This appears as the bad marks in both precision and recall for the Concession relation, even though the number is small. For example, there is a test sentence such as follows:

(19) ano hito-wa 82sai-ni natte, annani koukisin ippai-da.

that person-TOP 82-years-old-DAT become-*te*, so curiosity be-full-PRES

"Although that person is 82 years old, (he/she) is full of curiosity."

coherence	judgement	output of	number of	recall(%)	precision(%)
relations	by human(a)	program(b)	agreements(c)	c/a×100	c/b×100
Temporal Sequence	89	81(46)	79	89	98
Circumstance	75	83(22)	63	84	76
Cause-Effect	64	58(13)	48	75	82
Means-End	45	48(12)	34	76	71
Additive	3	3	3	100	100
Concession	3	5	1	33	20
Contrast	1	2	1	100	50
Total	280	280(92)	229	82	82

Table 4: The results of the experiment

Since the combination of the event type here is I(BECOME, BE), our program gave it the Circumstance relation as a default. However, we know that in general the person who is 82 years old is not so curious, therefore the Concession relation arises. Thus, our common sense knowledge is crucial to our recognition of the coherence relations. In (Hovy and Maier, 1993), they classified the Concession relation as interpersonal (i.e., author-and/or addresseerelated) rather than ideational (i.e., semantic), since they defined it as "one of the text segments raises expectations which are contradicted/violated by the other." The use of interpersonal relations is predicated mainly on the interests, beliefs, and attitudes of addressee and/or author. To deal with this problem, we must incorporate the notion of intentional structure and focus space structure (Grosz and Sidner, 1986).

Since we have focused on *te*-linkage in this paper, we need not to consider how clauses are combined. However, to detect the discourse structure, we need to extend the method so as to deal with the relations between sentences. We must estimate some kind of reliable scores among possible segments and choose the relation having the maximum score (Kurohashi and Nagao, 1994). These issues remain to be studied in the future.

6 Summary

Since the semantic relations exhibited by *te*-linkage vary so diversely, it has been claimed that the interpreter must infer the intended relationship on the basis of extralinguistic knowledge. The particulars of individual common sense knowledge are crucial to understanding any discourse (Hobbs et al., 1993; Asher and Lascarides, 1995). Nevertheless, one can, through the use of the relevant structures of events, eliminate a very large number of rules for calculating the plausible relations.

Although we have concentrated on te-linkage in this paper, we consider that the method can be applied to pure parataxis with necessary modifications. For the relations we have examined are not attributable to the meaning of te itself (though it restricts the range of them), but are implicated by the linked conjuncts. The same is true of English and. In both and- and te-linkage, the perceived coherence relations are present even if the linked constitutes are in pure parataxis without and or te. Thus, this approach can be extended so as to detect the whole discourse structure, though further study must be done to examine all relations.

References

N. Asher and A. Lascarides. 1995. Lexical disambiguation in a discourse context. Journal of Semantics, 12(1):69-108.

- EDR. 1995. The EDR Electronic Dictionary Technical Guide. Japan Electronic Dictionary Research Institute Ltd. (in Japanese).
- J. Fukumoto and J. Tsujii. 1994. Breaking down rhetorical relations for the purpose of analysing discourse structures. In *Proceedings of the 15th COLING*, volume 2, pages 1177-1183.
- A. E. Goldberg. 1996. Making one's way through the data. In M. Shibatani and S. A. Thompson, editors, *Grammatical Constructions*, chapter 2, pages 29-53. Oxford University Press.
- B. J. Grosz and C. L. Sidner. 1986. Attention, intentions, and the structure of discourse. Computational Linguistics, 12(3):175-204.
- Y. Hasegawa. 1996. Toward a description of te-linkage in japanese. In M. Shibatani and S. A. Thompson, editors, Grammatical Constructions, chapter 3, pages 55-75. Oxford University Press.
- J. R. Hobbs, M. Stickel, P. Martin, and D. Edwards. 1993. Interpretation as abduction. Artificial Intelligence, 63(1-2):69-142.
- E. Hovy and E. Maier. 1993. Parsimonious or profligate: How many and which discourse structure relations. http://www.isi.edu/naturallanguage/discourse/text-planning.html.
- K. Inoue. 1983. Bun no setuzoku. In K. Inoue, editor, Nihongo no kihon koozoo, volume 1 of Kooza gendai no gengo, pages 127–151. Sanseido. (in Japanese).
- R. Jackendoff. 1990. Semantic Structure. MIT Press.
- S. Kurohashi and M. Nagao. 1994. Automatic detection of discourse structure by checking surface information in sentences. In *Proceedings of the 15th COLING*, volume 2, pages 1123-1127.
- G. Lakoff. 1987. Women Fire, and Dangerous Things : What Categories Reveal about the Mind. The University of Chicago press.
- J. D. Moore and M. E. Pollack. 1992. A problem for RST: The need for multi-level discourse analysis. *Computational Linguistics*, 18(4):537-544.
- A. Oishi and Y. Matsumoto. 1997. Detecting the organization of semantic subclasses of Japanese verbs. International Journal of Corpus Linguistics, 2(1):65-89.
- A. Oishi. 1998. Semantic Structures of Japanese Verb Phrases: — Acquisition, Representation and Use —. Ph.D. thesis, Nara Institute of Sience and Technology. (to appear).
- J. Pustejovsky. 1995. The Generative Lexicon. The MIT Press.
- E. Rosch. 1973. Natural categories. Cognitive Psychology, 4:328-350.
- T. Saeki. 1975. Gendai nihongo no gojun. Kasama Shobo. (in Japanese).
- L. Talmy. 1985. Lexicalization patterns: semantic structure in lexical forms. In T. Shopen, editor, Language Typology and Syntactic Description, volume 3, chapter 2, pages 57-308. Cambridge University Press.
- J. R. Taylor. 1989. Linguistic Categorization *Prototypes in Linguistic Theory. Clarendon Paperbacks.