Identifying Universal Laws of Text Translation

Ido Kanter¹, Haggai Kfir¹, Brenda Malkiel² & Miriam Shlesinger³*

¹Department of Physics, Bar-Ilan University, Ramat-Gan 52900, Israel
²School for Multidisciplinary Studies, Beit Berl College, Kfar Sava 44905, Israel
³Department of Translation and Interpreting Studies, Bar-Ilan University, Ramat-Gan 52900, Israel

Straightforward quantitative analyses of authentic texts have allowed linguists and translation scholars to discern patterns in individual languages as well as features which set translations apart from originals¹². A language can also be studied statistically, an approach epitomized by the application of Zipf's Law³, which states that word-frequency distributions follow an almost identical curve regardless of language. To date, no universal law governing the joint probability distribution of words in two or more languages has been either proposed or observed. This study identifies new universal behaviours which characterize the mutual overlaps between a corpus of original English and three corpora of translated English. Specifically, it suggests a remarkable similarity in (a) the number of types unique to each translated corpus, and (b) the number of types common to the original-English corpus and each of the translated corpora. We argue that these universal behaviours can be used both to determine the ontological status of an unidentified
language (whether it is an original or a translation) and to identify the source language of a translation.

Corpus-based Linguistics and Corpus-based Translation Studies have used corpora – large bodies of authentic texts in machine-readable format – to arrive at generalizations about language in use rather than language systems in the abstract, and to discern universals of translation – features that are independent of any particular language pair, text type, translator, or historical period\(^2\). Proposed universals of translation include lexical, syntactic and stylistic simplification\(^4,5\); a high degree of explicitness\(^6\); unusual patterns of co-occurrence\(^7,8\); and over- or under-representation of typical features and lexical items\(^9,11\).

A language or corpus may also be studied statistically, on the assumption that statistical analysis will reveal certain global patterns, such as word-frequency distributions. This approach is epitomized in the application of Zipf’s Law, which states that the frequency of a particular event – e.g. of a specific word – \((P)\) as a function of its rank \((m)\) is a power-law function \(P_m \sim 1/m^\alpha\), with the exponent \(\alpha\) close to unity\(^3,12-17\) (Figure 1a).

Zipf's Law was later found to apply to other domains as well, including urban populations\(^12\) and biological sequences\(^13,14\).

The remarkable feature of Zipf’s Law is its ability to predict the shape of a language, regardless of language family or language size. Every natural language examined has
been found to follow Zipf’s Law, including the three that figure as source languages for
the corpora discussed below: Greek\textsuperscript{15}, Hebrew\textsuperscript{16} and Korean\textsuperscript{17} (see Method.)

When viewed individually, each translated corpus appears to follow Zipf’s Law, though
containing a different set of types (different words) and ranking them differently. The
highest-frequency types appear in all three translated corpora examined, with a similar
ranking; slightly less frequent words typically appear in all three translated corpora but differ
somewhat in ranking; infrequent words do not necessarily appear in all three, and have a
markedly different ranking in each.

Notwithstanding its role in describing the
universal properties of individual languages,
however, Zipf’s Law is a rather blunt tool
when it comes to comparing languages, since
differences are masked by the highest
frequency words (often function words) that
dominate all natural texts, such as ‘the’, ‘of’ and ‘to’ in the case of English. To date, no
universal law governing the joint probability distribution of words in two or more

\textbf{Figure 1} Zipf’s Law for word frequency distributions. \textbf{a}, The types in a 230,000-
word original-English corpus [E] are ordered according to their probability of
occurrence. Plotted on a log-log scale, the curve is approximated by a straight line
with a slope of -1. The same behaviour is observed in the corpora translated from
Greek [G], Hebrew [H] and Korean [K]. (Since the lines are extremely close, only a
few representative words are marked for each corpus). \textbf{b}, The probability of
occurrence of words in a 115,000-word original-English corpus [E1], a 115,000-
word corpus of English translated from Hebrew [H] and a second original-English
corpus [E2], plotted on a log-log scale, according to the ranking of [E1].
languages has been either proposed or observed. A universal law would be all the more useful if it were able to point to differences between original texts and translations. The present paper identifies two such laws, and proposes a means of discerning statistical differences between languages, as opposed to those stemming from the subject matter typical of a particular language or other culture-specific factors.

Both original and translated corpora follow Zipf’s Law, and their word-frequency distributions follow an almost identical curve (Figure 1a). Typically, we find greater fluctuation between original English and a translated corpus than between two original-English corpora (Figure 1b), but Zipf’s Law does not seem capable of pinpointing differences between translations and originals or of determining the source language. To do so, we propose an alternative approach, using Vann diagrams, as shown in Figure 2.

The words in the three comparable corpora were divided into seven groups: the ‘core’, consisting of words common to all three corpora; three groups comprising words common to two corpora; and three comprising words unique to each specific corpus. The size of each subgroup can be measured in terms of its types, and the analysis is based on comparing the size of the subgroups, thereby bypassing the need...
to focus on specific lexical items.

As shown in Figure 3a, the relationships between the original-English [E] corpus and the one translated from Greek [G] and from Hebrew [H] are similar: in terms of types, the overlap between [E] and [G] is almost identical to that between [E] and [H] (2,175 types and 2173, respectively), and the number of words unique to [G] is very close to the number of words unique to [H] (5,185 and 5,113, respectively). When we substitute a corpus of translations from Korean [K] for [H], moreover, the pattern is preserved (Figure 3b). Extending this method to a larger number of corpora is a straightforward operation.

This observation points to the following two laws: (1) the number of words unique to a given translated corpus is similar to that contained by any other matched translated corpus; (2) the number of words unique to an original corpus in a given language and a matched corpus translated into that language is independent of the source language.

A remarkable similarity was also observed with regard to tokens (the total number of appearances of the types) in a subgroup. There are 13,200 tokens unique to [G] and 13,153 unique to [H]. The 2,175 types that [E] shares with [G] and the 2173 types that [E] shares with [H] account for 6,142 and 6,125 tokens, respectively.

One may approach the subject from the reverse direction as well: Can we predict whether an unidentified corpus [U] is original or translated and can we determine its source
language? Assuming we know that a given database is either original English or [G] or [H], we could adopt the following naïve procedure:

- Calculate the Vann diagrams for [U]-[G]-[H], [E]-[U]-[H] and [E]-[G]-[U], using the known-source training databases for [E], [H] and [G].

- Identify the language of [U] based on its similarity to the Vann diagrams, by comparing the fraction and/or the content of the seven different sections or the overlaps of the sections.

Figure 4a presents the dependence of the seven sections as a function of the size of the databases – 57,500, 115,000 and 230,000 words – and points to the similarities between any two translated corpora and the relationship between these corpora and [E]. In contrast to Zipf's Law, which is predicated on the frequency of a very large number of types, the method proposed here is based on the analysis of a limited number of subgroups, and thus affords the possibility of developing possible applications using far smaller databases.

Another noteworthy result lies in the fraction of the core (the centre section E, H, G), which grows as a function of the size of the database: the observed increase is expected to converge.
asymptotically to 1. Hence, the yellow and the red circles of Figure 2 are absorbed into the blue circle (original English), but the process is symmetrical, in keeping with our universal laws.

The regularity we observed with respect to types and tokens is also expressed in the relationship between them. Figure 4b presents the type/token ratio (TTR) for the four corpora examined. For a given database size, the TTR is similar in all translated corpora and is expected to converge to zero asymptotically for large databases, but this ratio remains higher (by around 20%) for original English, independent of corpus size, pointing to greater linguistic richness.

The Vann diagram then appears to be helpful in pointing to differences between languages, by providing a statistical means of enhancing our fundamental understanding of language(s), both in isolation and in contact. As a statistical measure of relationships between databases, it may be used to distinguish an original corpus from a translated one.

Further research is required to test the potential for generalizing the Vann diagram to higher dimensions. Will the relations hold, for instance, for English and several translated languages? If so, what changes will occur in the scaling of the core? Another possibility is to analyze the dependence of the seven sections as a function of the size of the databases, and write a set of rate equations for the likelihood of assigning a new word to a particular section. There are numerous possible directions for future studies. The
interface of statistical physics, corpus linguistics and Translation Studies opens a new
field for analysis, one whose applications transcend the three disciplines.

Method

The data for the present study consists of four
corpora: one comprising articles written in
English, referred to here as the ‘English’ [E]
corpus, and three of articles translated into
English from Greek, Hebrew, and Korean,
referred to here as the ‘from-Greek’ [G],
‘from-Hebrew’ [H] and ‘from-Korean’ [K]
corpora. Each corpus represents the collective
output of teams of professional translators.
The data was downloaded from the on-line
edition of the International Herald Tribune
and three local supplements to the IHT: the
Kathimerini English Edition (translated from
Greek), Ha’aretz (translated from Hebrew),
and the JoongAng Daily (translated from Korean). The study was limited to English-
language editions of the IHT in order to guarantee a high degree of comparability among
the corpora.

![Figure 4](image-url)

**Figure 4** Universal behaviours as independent of database size. **a**, The
number of types in each group, displayed as a fraction of the total number of types,
for corpora of different sizes. **b**, The
type/token ratio (TTR) of each corpus vs
database size. The TTR is expected to be
somewhat higher for original language
than for a translation, and to decay to
zero as database size increases.
The composition of all four corpora was the same: news (80,000 words), arts and leisure (50,000), business and finance (50,000) and opinion (50,000). The smaller data sets (57,500 and 115,000 words) had the same proportion of news to arts, business, and opinion. We used a lexical analysis software, WordSmith Tools (http://www.lexically.net/wordsmith) to analyze the corpora and determine word frequencies and rankings. Proper nouns were counted as words and the data was not lemmatized; thus, for example, ‘study’, ‘studies’, ‘studied’ and ‘studying’ were counted as four types (different words).
References


