

Processing Natural Languages at Chiba University Hospital

by Marcio Biczysk do Amaral and Yoichi Satomura

Introduction

For a long time there have been many attempts to tackle the problems of international and multilingual applications. We have been working to develop medical dictionaries and natural-language processing tools to manage two languages, Japanese and English. Our research is part of a worldwide cooperative effort to construct an electronic library for multilingual representation of information. [1] The project includes the use of multiple national character sets, tools for translation between languages, the search for a language-independent representation, translation and mapping between international terminologies, and the development of a thesaurus, among other tasks. [2,3,4,5]

This article describes the characteristics, development, and use of medical dictionaries that can be applied to natural-language processing (NLP). At Chiba University Hospital in Japan, we have been using the *Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine* (SNOMED), the MEID (*Medical Intelligent Dictionary*), and additional dictionaries for NLP and indexing medical information. We will present the structures of these dictionaries, the particularities regarding their use in Japanese, and describe two applications that use these dictionaries and terminologies for medical NLP.

This article describes our approach regarding the development and structure of the medical dictionaries actually in use in our hospital, and their utilization for natural-language processing. The NLP programs tailor the analysis and indexing of medical texts to organizing the electronic medical record (EMR). The databases and programs were developed using M running on a UNIX platform. We use a Sun-4 workstations network.

Developing a Controlled Vocabulary

Representing and using concepts transmitted by natural language is complex, and it is not yet completely understood how the brain performs these cognitive phenomena. [6] The

pioneers in the field of artificial intelligence assumed that computers could simulate the representation of knowledge and manipulate symbols written in natural language. [7]

Most research in human linguistics and computational linguistics has approached language either abstractly, by analyzing formal models of linguistic structure, or concretely, by selecting a particular instance of some linguistic phenomena and studying its properties. Noam Chomsky's work in the 1950s on the grammatical analysis of natural languages influenced many researchers to concentrate on competence models and language universals and to ignore variability in performance. Other applications in natural-language processing have resulted in systems with limited grammars that function effectively in limited contexts.

For our purposes, we approach language from the viewpoint of computational linguistics. More specifically, we will address the problems of developing and using a controlled vocabulary for implementing NLP programs. Our NLP tools use computerized dictionaries and medical terminologies to analyze and organize medical texts.

Dictionary development is central to information representation for NLP. [8] There are many ongoing efforts to develop and build resources for natural-language research. There is the Text Encoding Initiative (TEI), an international project to develop guidelines for the encoding and interchange of machine-readable text. The Data Collection Initiative (DCI) sponsored by the Association for Computational Linguistics will convert the collected data into an SGML (Standard Generalized Markup Language). [9] Another effort is that of the British National Corpus Project, with collaboration of the Oxford University Press, the Longman Group, the University of Lancaster, and the British Library. In North America, Rutgers and Princeton universities are cooperating to form a Center for Machine-Readable Texts in the Humanities, a more sharply focused text-cataloging and collection effort. The European Community sponsored the Eurotra study to determine the reusability of lexical and terminological resources. One result of the Eurotra study was the Multilex project, designed to develop a standard for a European multilingual and multifunctional lexicon and accompanying use. In Japan, the Electronic Dictionary Research Project (EDR)

Continued on page 9

is developing a large multipurpose electronic dictionary composed of four dictionaries: word, concept, co-occurrence, and bilingual (Japanese-English). [10]

In the medical area, perhaps the most internationally used nomenclature is SNOMED. [11] It does not include definitions of terms but it does give useful information such as synonyms and hypernyms and organizes the terms into a multidimensional structure. (A hypernym is used in linguistics to describe a superordinating word for a group or class.) The UMLS (Unified Medical Language System) project of the National Library of Medicine (United States) is a large-scale effort to build a unified medical language—including all vocabulary from SNOMED, the *International Classification of Diseases* (ICD), *Medical Subject Headings* (MeSH), DSM, CPT, and the *Computer Stored Ambulatory Record* (COSTAR)—in its metathesaurus, together with semantic relationships linking the medical concepts. [12] (See also “Developing a Multilingual Index to Access Health-Care Terminologies,” page 32.)

Combining Dictionaries and Nomenclatures

The *Medical Intelligent Dictionary* (MEID) is a bilingual dictionary (Japanese-English) of medical and nonmedical terms, containing medical and linguistic information, with about 230,000 terms. [13] The cooperation of diverse experts (physicians, computer scientists, library and publishing professionals, pharmacists, clinical technologists, medical re-

cord administrators, and professional translators) made this dictionary possible. The components of the dictionary are shown in figure 1.

SNOMED is an international nomenclature that allows for a comprehensive patient-description vocabulary. It can be considered relatively domain-complete. Another important characteristic is its modular structure as a set of independent taxonomies for representing conceptual categories within medicine. The present version (third) has ten axes for representing clinical information: T (topography), to describe anatomical location; M (morphology), to describe structural changes; L (living), to classify the animal kingdom; C (chemical), to describe drugs; F (function), related to signs, symptoms and laboratory data; D (diagnoses/diseases); O (occupation); P (procedure), to describe medical procedures such as surgeries; A (physical agents), to describe devices and activities; and G (general), a special axis to describe modifiers, qualifiers, and syntactic linkages. See figure 2. Two implemented NLPs that use SNOMED are described in the later section on diagnostic indexing in Japanese and English.

... we had to extend [SNOMED] by building special dictionaries ... The newest version of SNOMED contains many of the terms we had to add.

```
***** MEID DICTIONARY DISPLAY TERMS AND RELATIONS *****
MEID NUMBER: 168200 * 168200
ENGLISH      : empirical formula
JAPANESE (1): 実験式
KANA       : ジ ッ ケ ン シ キ
PARSED    : 実 験 式
ABBREVIATION:
PART OF SPEECH : Noun
CLASSIFICATION: 物 理 科 学 ^PHYSICAL SCIENCE
SNOMED      :
ICD-9       *
RELATIONS

NEXT ? >
辞 英
```

Figure 1. Information in the MEID includes a numeric code; the term in English, the term in Japanese (kanji), the term in kana; the term parsed (with spaces separating the words); the abbreviation; part of speech; the class according to modified MeSH categories; the SNOMED code; the ICD code; other relations.

SNOMED, however, does not contain all extant medical terms. Because of this, we had to extend it by building special dictionaries to include the adjectival form, modifiers, and synonyms. The newest version of SNOMED contains many of the terms we had to add.

Another criticism of SNOMED is that it lacks an associated syntax for constructing statements containing complex inter-relationships. In fact, building links among its terms is required because such a structure serves to organize the medical information in a database format. Some authors have described how the theory of conceptual graphs can be applied to SNOMED to represent clinical information. [14] We use a different approach, based on semantic grammars, to identify relations in natural-language texts and represent the relevant clinical information in the Chiba University Hospital database.

not only individual words, but also the other components of the sentences, led us to define what we call "semantic patterns." These patterns are used to analyze and match the natural-language sentences into predefined templates.

The Essential Semantic Patterns

We define semantic patterns as the association of categories of terms in specific sequences to form a correct and/or meaningful statement. To understand this concept, let us draw a parallel with syntactical rules. In a grammatically correct statement, the sequence of the elements is determined by their classes and the syntactic rules. In English, for example, a typical sentence will have the form S V O (S for subject, V for verb, O for object). In Japanese, a typical sentence will have the form S O V. In our pattern, instead of using the class O (object), for example, a semantic classification will tell us

```

^TBSNMD("F","10000","1","1")="ELEMENT, PHYSIOLOGIC^生理学的要素 ^エイリカクテキ ヨソ ^28723"
^TBSNMD("F","10002","1","1")="DISORDER OF PHYSIOLOGIC ELEMENT^生理的要素障害 ^エイテキ ヨソ ヨウカ^イ ^161291"
^TBSNMD("F","10020","1","1")="ION^イ オン ^イオン ^208732"
^TBSNMD("F","10022","1","1")="DISORDER OF ION^イ オン 異常 ^イオン イョウ ^161284"
^TBSNMD("F","10022","2","1")="ELECTROLYTE IMBALANCE^電解質平衡異常 ^テツカイシツ ヘイコイョウ ^167128"
^TBSNMD("F","10024","1","1")="ION DEPLETION^イ オン 枯渴 ^イオン コカツ ^208738"
^TBSNMD("F","10030","1","1")="SIMPLE COMPOUND^単純化合物 ^タンシヨウゴ カコウワツツ ^290057"
^TBSNMD("F","10032","1","1")="DISORDER OF SIMPLE COMPOUND^単純化合物異常 ^タンシヨウゴカコウワツツ イョウ ^161299"
^TBSNMD("F","10040","1","1")="FREE RADICAL^遊離基 ^ウリキ ^182037"
^TBSNMD("F","10050","1","1")="ALUMINUM^アルミニウム ^アルミニウム ^109467"

^TBSNMD("A",70014,1,1)="PRECEREBRAL^前脳"
^TBSNMD("A",70016,1,1)="SUBLINGUAL^舌下の"
^TBSNMD("A",70017,1,1)="RETROPHARYNGEAL^後咽頭の"
^TBSNMD("A",70018,1,1)="PARAPHARYNGEAL^副咽頭の"
^TBSNMD("A",70019,1,1)="DENTOFACIAL^歯牙顔面領域"
^TBSNMD("A",70020,1,1)="MEDIAN^中央の"
^TBSNMD("A",70021,1,1)="INTERNAL^内の"
^TBSNMD("A",70022,1,1)="EXTERNAL^外の"
^TBSNMD("A",70023,1,1)="INTRAPARIETAL^壁内の"
<>

```

Figure 2. SNOMED is stored as an M global. The node is defined by the SNOMED axis, the five-digit code, plus two additional numbers to define synonyms and other related terms. The term in English, in Japanese kanji, in kana, and the related MEID code is shown at top. Below is the SNOMED extended, using the new axis A that had to be built to include modifiers and other terms not included in SNOMED II.

Analyzing complete patient reports requires other categories of words such as verbs, conjunctions, prepositions, and adverbs, to be included in the vocabulary. These terms usually are not part of medical dictionaries, so we built special vocabularies to use in our NLP computer programs. In addition to these four categories, we considered other types of information present in medical texts. For example, we use only ASCII code to identify numerals. If the numeral describes a date, hour, or laboratory result, we used additional information from the analyzed statement. This necessity to analyze

if this object is a symptom, a disease, an etiology, or something else. Semantic identification is preferred since we intend to store the information in a format in the databases that will refer to the semantic relations, not to the syntactic structure.

The SNOMED statement for a diagnostic description is a kind of semantic pattern: a disease D or morphological alteration M, in topography T, caused by etiological agent E, combined with a functional disturbance F. In regard to symptoms, one general semantic pattern would be: symptom S, in

topography T, of intensity I, and duration D, aggravated by factor A, relieved by factor R. This idea can be extended to include physical findings, laboratory data, and other parts of the medical narrative.

We use predominantly a semantic-pattern approach to analyze medical statements. More detailed explanations are described in other publications. [15,16] The methodology involves a search of words and medical terms in the dictionaries, coding using SNOMED, matching semantic patterns, and entering the medical information into the databases with a language-independent format.

Computerizing the Japanese Language

The Japanese language is peculiar in many aspects. First, it does not use spaces to separate words. Second, it uses three sets of characters, and frequently texts also contain words written with both the Latin alphabet and Japanese words. The three Japanese sets of characters are kanji, hira kana, and kata kana.

Kanji characters are the ideograms that originally came from China, and are quite similar to contemporary Chinese "hanzi." There are about two thousand kanjis used in daily Japanese, plus about three thousand used in technical-scientific Japanese. Kanjis are used mostly as roots of verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

Hira kana (or hiragana) number about fifty. These are mainly conjunctions and prepositions (called "jyoshi" in Japanese and placed after the nouns) used in the conjugation of verbs. There are about fifty kata kana characters, used mainly for foreign words.

In Japanese computers, as with any type of personal computer, the data entry for the Japanese language is made using a normal alphabetic keyboard that converts alphabetic sounds into hiragana and subsequently into kanjis.

When analyzing Latin alphabet languages, the parser can easily identify the words, since they are separated by spaces. In Japanese, however, the parser must analyze character by character, concatenate with the next character, and then look in the dictionaries to see if it is a word.

There is another method to separate and identify words. Japanese uses a two-byte character code; that means the connection of two bytes to represent one Japanese letter. But we can identify the sets of characters in kanji, katakana, hiragana, and Latin alphabets looking at the first byte only. See figure 3. One word consists of the same type of characters, for example

kanji, discriminated by other types of characters, in most cases. Therefore, if you identify a certain sequence of the same type of characters, you can identify it as a word.

| | | |
|------|------|------------------|
| カタカナ | 2520 | アアイウエエオオカガキギク |
| | 2530 | グケゲコゴサザシジスズセゼソタ |
| | 2540 | ダチヂツヅテデトドナニヌネノハ |
| | 2550 | ババヒビピフブフヘベペホボポマミ |
| | 2560 | ムメモヤユユヨヨラリルレロワ |
| | 2570 | キエヲンヴカケ |

"KATAKANA" - Complete Character Set

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ひらがな | 2420 | あ | い | う | え | お | か | が | き | ぎ | く | |
| | 2430 | ぐ | け | こ | さ | し | ず | せ | そ | ぞ | た | |
| | 2440 | だ | ち | っ | つ | て | ど | な | に | ぬ | の | は |
| | 2450 | ば | び | び | ふ | ぶ | へ | べ | ほ | ぼ | ま | み |
| | 2460 | む | め | も | や | ゆ | よ | ら | り | る | わ | わ |
| | 2470 | ゐ | ゑ | を | ん | う | | | | | | |

"HIRAGANA" - Complete Character Set

| | | |
|---|------|------------------|
| タ | 4230 | 他多 |
| | 4240 | 太汰訖唾墮妥檐打柁舵橛陀駄驢体堆 |
| | 4250 | 対耐岱帯待怠態戴替泰滞胎腿苔袋貸 |
| | 4260 | 退逮隊黛鯛代台大第醍題鷹滝凧卓啄 |
| | 4270 | 宅托拓挾沢濯琢託鐸濁諾茸胤蛸只 |
| | 4320 | 叩但達辰奪脱巽豎迥棚谷狸鱒樽誰 |
| | 4330 | 丹单嘆坦担探旦歎淡湛炭短端筭綻耽 |
| | 4340 | 胆蛋誕鍛团壇彈断暖檀段男談 |

"KANJI" - Partial Character Set

Figure 3. Japanese character sets for katakana (upper part) and hiragana (middle), plus one set of kanjis (ideograms) organized by the sound "ta" (below). The numeric codes on the left are the JIS (Japanese Industrial Standard) codes. With only about one hundred kanjis, more than fifty kanji tables would be needed to represent the complete set of kanjis in Japanese. For Chinese, there are about three hundred tables like this, since there are more than thirty thousand kanjis.

Japanese-English Diagnostic Indexing

One implemented program regards the use of dictionaries to analyze natural-language descriptions of diagnoses, index the terms using SNOMED, and find the corresponding classification in the ICD-9. [17] Natural-language processing for both the Japanese and English descriptions is performed by different parsers. There is a search for the longest consistent match in SNOMED, using dictionaries for synonyms, adjectival forms, and abbreviations. After SNOMED terms are se-

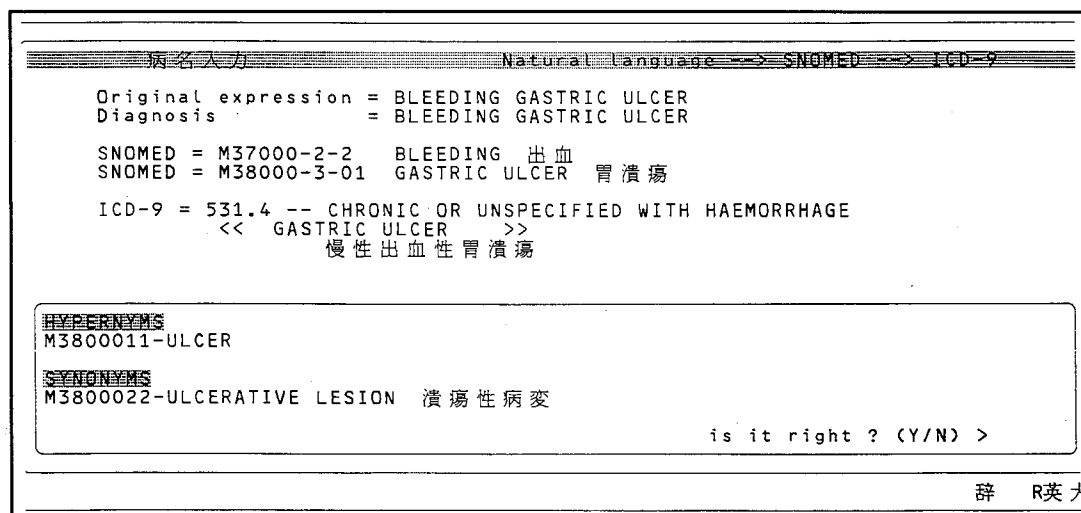


Figure 4. Screen of the program for diagnostic indexing showing SNOMED and ICD codes, synonymous terms, and hypernyms. This program is used for diagnostic encoding using natural-language, English or Japanese statements as input.

lected, they are compared with the ICD diagnostic descriptions. When one possible classification is selected, the results are displayed on the screen for the user to check. Other related information—such as synonymous descriptions for the diagnosis, SNOMED and ICD codes, and hypernyms—is also shown on the screen. The table connecting SNOMED with ICD is stored as a “couple” that contains the codes of the nomenclatures and the classification. See figure 4.

A program to analyze descriptions of symptoms uses a similar approach, except that it uses additional dictionaries for other categories of terms such as verbs, conjunctions, and prepositions. This program extensively uses semantic patterns for NLP and structuring the text. [18,19]

The procedures can be summarized as identifying terms and semantic categories, coding SNOMED, identifying semantic and structural patterns, and organizing the structured information into a language-independent database. The database is language-independent because it uses a frame-like format where the slots are the semantic categories identified during NLP. The frames' contents are also language-independent since they contain SNOMED codes instead of the original medical terms. [20] See figure 5.

Information stored in this format has many advantages. First, it permits storing further information extracted from the patients' records, perhaps temporal information in a retrievable format. Second, the electronic medical record (EMR) can be built with an international nomenclature. Another possibility is that it can be used for translations between languages that have a SNOMED version. The formulas are similar to the

ones described by Moore, but modified to use semantic categories to translate between English and Japanese. [21] See figure 6.

The Need for Language-Independent Structure

Multilingual nomenclatures such as SNOMED are essential to maintain the databases in an international code. SNOMED alone cannot account for the complexity found in natural language, however. The development of auxiliary dictionaries specifically for the applications at Chiba University Hospital helped assure efficiency of the parsers. The semantic approach to analyzing the medical information has the advantage of being more practical than the syntactical approaches, and also the semantic categories can be used as slots in a frame-like database, permitting better-organized medical information in the EMR.

The database is language-independent because it uses a frame-like format where the slots are the semantic categories identified during NLP.

We have been searching for and working on database structures in our hospital that would be the same for any spoken language. Linguists call this structure an interlingua. There have been many attempts to define and design interlinguas. In natural languages such a structure is difficult to achieve

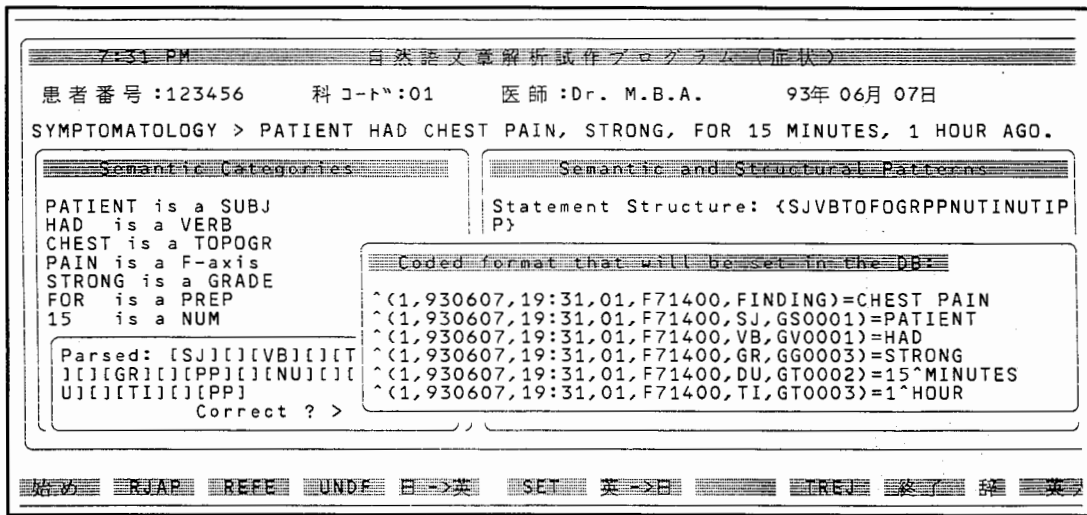


Figure 5. Screen showing some procedures performed by the natural-language processor for analysis symptoms' descriptions. The parser initially identifies individual words and attaches grammatical or semantic labels. After it checks the database for structural semantic patterns, it tries to identify semantic relations between the components of the statements. Finally, it sets the medical information into a language-independent database using the semantic labels and SNOMED codes.

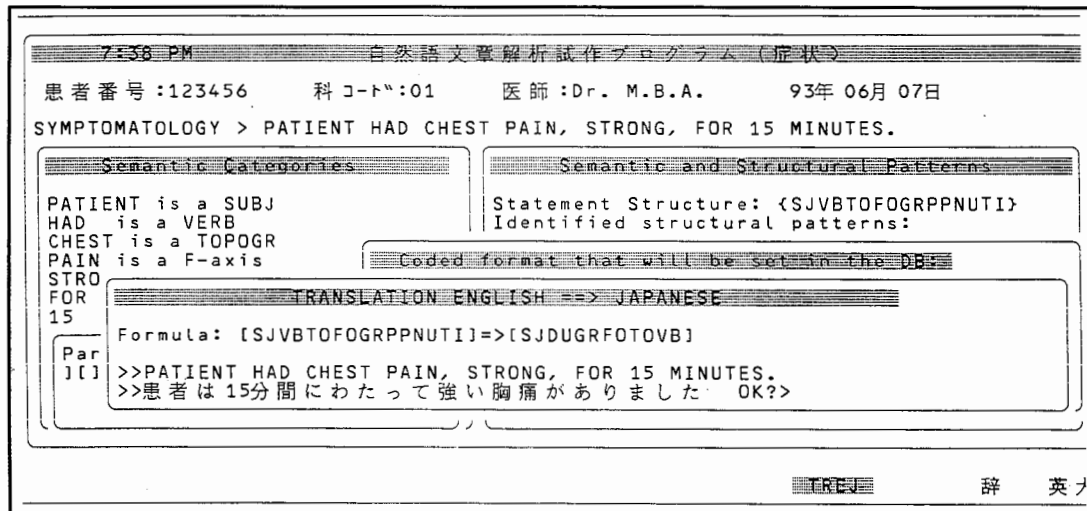


Figure 6. The semantic categories stored in the database are supposed to be the same for any language. SNOMED codes can be used for a quick translation between medical terms. This figure shows one module of the NLP program that uses the semantic categories, SNOMED codes, plus one additional database containing formulas to transform English statements into Japanese. The sequential order of the words is defined by syntactical rules.

because one word has many meanings. Even talking about similar concepts between languages raises the same problem because one concept can be described by many words, each of them with shared meanings but also with nuances. Therefore, defining a unique, general interlingua for one concept is complex. In the restricted field of scientific-medical sublanguage, there can be one interlingua because usually a

medical term has only one meaning and is restricted in its use. In this case, it is possible to attach one numeric code to these terms and translate the terms into many languages, all using the same code. This is the philosophy behind SNOMED that has permitted its multilingual versions.

Defining an interchangeable, language-independent structure required consideration of the form, content, and charac-

EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES THROUGHOUT THE U.S.

Permanent and contract positions exist for candidates with either M(MUMPS), MHS, MAGIC or NPR experience.

Programmers, Senior Programmers, Systems Analysts, Implementation Analysts, and Project Leaders needed throughout the country.

Contract positions are on the client site. Please Contact:

**HENRY
ELLIOTT
& COMPANY**

70 Walnut Street
Wellesley, MA 02181
617 239-8180
FAX 617 239-8210

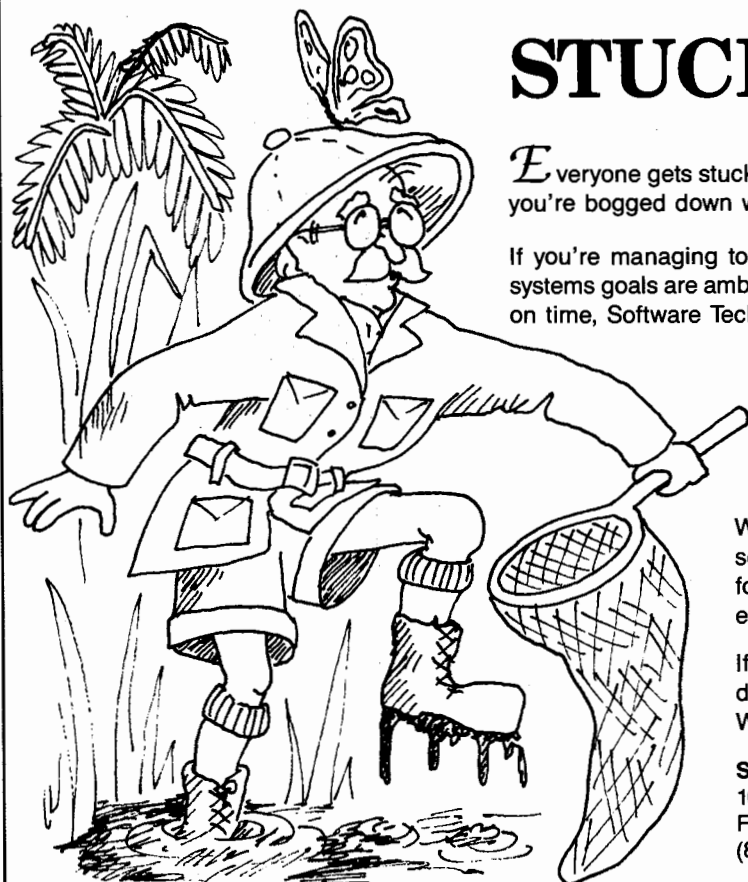
Continued from page 13

ter set to store the data. SNOMED permits indexing texts in many languages, and the databases can be coded using the international character sets such as ASCII or Unicode. Presenting medical information within this framework might solve some problems presenting multilingual and interlingual medical information.

Dictionaries and nomenclatures are an important part of any NLP project. There are presently many techniques for developing terminologies, dictionaries, thesauri, nomenclatures, classifications, etc. Each has a particular application to the field of NLP and structuring information. We regard the organization of information into a language-independent format as an essential feature for structured, multilingual EMRs. **M**

The authors have been involved in an international effort to develop a multilingual medical dictionary. They may be contacted at the Division of Medical Informatics, Chiba University Hospital, Chuoko, 1-8-1 Inohano, Chiba 280, Japan. Dr. Satomura directs the division.

See endnotes on next page.



STUCK IN THE MUD?

Everyone gets stuck from time to time. It's hard to keep an eye on your goal when you're bogged down with the challenges of daily survival.

If you're managing too many projects with too few resources, if your information systems goals are ambitious and you're worried about meeting your project deadlines on time, Software Technology Services can help carry the load with . . .

- project management
- implementation support
- systems integration
- programming
- consulting services

We specialize in delivering project-oriented information systems services to our clients. Our expert staff has a proven track record for success with MUMPS applications. We understand your environment and speak your language.

If your objectives seem out of reach and you're feeling bogged down, give us a call at **1-800-828-5940**. Ask for Bruce Schell. We can help.

SOFTWARE TECHNOLOGY SERVICES
10101 Slater Avenue, Suite 214
Fountain Valley, California 92708
(800) 828-5940



Endnotes

1. D.C. Walker, "UMIS, Universal Medical Information Service—History and Progress," in *Proceedings of MEDINFO-89*, ed. B. Barber et al. (Elsevier Science Publishers D.V., 1989), 790–794.
2. R.F. Walters, "A Bit-Mapped Workstation for Multilingual Medical Research," in *MEDINFO-89*, 906–909.
3. G.W. Moore, "TRANSOFT: MUMPS-Based Polyglot Medical Translator," in *Proceedings of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the MUMPS Users' Group-Japan*, (?), 195–219.
4. E-S. Li, "Computerized Chinese Classification of Diseases and Coding System," in *MEDINFO-89*, 848–852.
5. W. Giere, "Foundations of Clinical Data Automation in Cooperative Programs," in *Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Symposium on Computer Applications in Medical Care* (Washington, D.C., 1981), 1142–1148.
6. J.R. Anderson, *The Architecture of Cognition* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1983).
7. E.A. Feigenbaum and J.A. Feldman, eds., *Computers and Thought* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963).
8. A.T. McCray and S. Srinivasan, "Automated Access to a Large Medical Dictionary: On Line Assistance for Research and Application in NLP," *Comp Bio Research* 1990, 23:179–198.
9. M. Bryan, *SMGL: An Author's Guide to the Standard Generalized Markup Language* (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Press, 1988).
10. H. Uchida, in *Proceedings of the International Workshop on Electronic Dictionaries* (Oiso City, Japan, 1990), 23–42.
11. R.A. Côté, ed., *Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine—SNOMED International* (Skokie, Illinois: College of American Pathologists, 1993).
12. The Unified Medical Language System—UMLS, (National Library of Medicine, 1993).
13. S. Kaihara and Y. Satomura, *Medical Intelligent Dictionary—MEID*, ed. Japan International Associates, (1988).
14. K.E. Campbell and M.A. Musen, "Representation of Clinical Data Using SNOMED III and Conceptual Graphs," in *Proceedings of the Sixteenth Annual Symposium on Computer Applications in Medical Care* (Washington, D.C., 1992), 354–358.
15. Y. Satomura and M.B. do Amaral, "Automated Indexing of Medical Text Based on SNOMED," in *Proceedings of the World Congress on Medical Physics and Biomedical Engineering 1991*, 278.
16. M.B. do Amaral, M. Honda, and Y. Satomura, "Natural Language Processing Using MUMPS—Analysis of Three Implemented Programs," in *Proceedings of the Nineteenth M Technology Conference—Japan* (1992), 33–42.
17. Y. Satomura and M.B. do Amaral, "Automated Diagnostic Indexing Using Natural Language Processing," *Medical Informatics* 17:3 (1992): 149–161.
18. M.B. do Amaral, Y. Satomura, and M. Honda, "Analysis of Natural Language Described Symptomatology for Construction of a Medical Knowledge Base," in *Proceedings of the Japanese Congress on Medical Electronics and Biomedical Engineering* (1992), 233.
19. Y. Satomura and M.B. do Amaral, "Natural Language Processing of Medical Text and Construction of a Structured Database," *Japanese Journal of Medical Electronics and Biomedical Engineering* 7:5 (1993): 51–58.
20. M.B. do Amaral and Y. Satomura, "Semantic Patterns to Represent Medical Information into a Language Independent Database," in *Proceedings of the Japanese Congress on Artificial Intelligence 1993* (Tokyo), 517–520.
21. G.W. Moore et al., "Microcomputer Translator for Medical Text: Theorem Verification for Chapter 2 of Zeman's Model Logic," *Adv Math Comp Medicine* 26 (1986):176–182.

An Invitation from M Computing Editors

We welcome articles and news items submitted by our readers. If you have an idea about M application areas, new systems and installations, interfacing, programming techniques, challenges of technology, or something related to our M community, let us hear from you. Book reviews, meeting notes, product announcements, and industry news items are also of interest. All submissions are reviewed and are subject to editing. Final determination about copy submitted for publication in the magazine rests with the editors. Send a brief description of your proposed article to Marsha Ogden, Managing Editor, MTA, Suite 205, 1738 Elton Road, Silver Spring, Maryland 20903-1725. Phone 301-431-4070, fax 301-431-0017, or use FORUM.

All New for 1994 M Computing Editorial Calendar!

| Publication | Deadline for Submission |
|--|-------------------------|
| February 1994 <i>Focus: Education</i> | November 18, 1993 |
| April 1994 <i>Focus: Business and Commerce</i> | January 14, 1994 |
| June 1994 <i>Focus: Windows of Opportunity Annual Meeting Issue</i> | November 15, 1993 |
| September 1994 <i>Focus: Interoperability</i> | July 1, 1994 |
| November 1994 <i>Focus: Client/Server Technologies</i> | August 17, 1994 |

"Focus on FileMan" Returns in November!

Rick Marshall's "Programming Hooks" series will boost your FileMan programming productivity. Watch for it!