

THE REPRESENTATION OF AN EVOLVING SYSTEM OF LEGAL CONCEPTS

II. PHOTOTYPES AND DEFORMATIONS

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ABSTRACT

One of the principal goals of the TAXMAN project is to develop a theory about the structure and dynamics of legal concepts, using corporate tax law as an experimental problem domain. In this paper we describe the "prototype* plus-deformation" model of legal conceptual structure: a concept is represented here by a prototypical description plus a sequence of deformations of the prototype, where the deformations are selected from among the possible "mappings" of one concrete description into another. The paper focuses on the set of mappings, which is the most important component of the model because it makes manifest the basic coherence of the conceptual space. The syntax and semantics of the mappings are described, and their role in the process of legal argument is suggested. The formal model is then illustrated by examples drawn from *Eisner v Macomber*, an early stock dividend case.

I INTRODUCTION

In an earlier paper on the TAXMAN project [1], we outlined our basic representation of the corporate tax domain [2], using a *frame-based* language [3] with extended facilities for the description of states, events, actions and expectations [4]. A principal feature of this representation is its abstraction/expansion hierarchy: a relatively abstract conceptual structure is given an "expanded" representation in terms of an assemblage of more concrete conceptual structures, and a recursive pattern-matching procedure is used to "generate" the expansions when given the abstractions, and to "recognize" the abstractions when given the expansions. We have referred to this model of a conceptual hierarchy as a *logical template* model, and we have demonstrated that it is adequate for representing the facts of an actual corporate tax case, such as *United States v. Phettis*, 257 US 156 (1921), and adequate also for representing the statutory rules and concepts which classify such cases as tax-free reorganizations under Sections 368(a)(1)(B), (C) and (D) of the Internal Revenue Code [2] [1] [5]. In addition, we have concluded that the model is adequate for certain practical applications in the legal field, as long as the domain of application is carefully chosen [6].

Lawyers would object, however, that the logical template model is theoretically inadequate as a representation of a system of legal concepts. First, a lawyer might say, the most important legal concepts are

"open-textured" (see [7], pp. 121-50) their structure is never logical and precise, but amorphous and poorly defined. Second, legal concepts are not static structures, but dynamic ones (see [8]): they are typically constructed and reconstructed as they are applied to a particular set of facts. In this paper we will describe a representation of a system of legal concepts which attempts to capture some of these characteristics. In place of the logical template model, we will represent an abstract concept by a *prototype* and a sequence of *deformations* of the prototype: the prototype is a relatively concrete description selected from the lower-level factual network itself, and the deformations are selected from among the possible mappings of one concrete description into another. We have suggested in our earlier papers that these "prototype-plus-deformation" structures play a crucial role in the process of legal argument, and that they contribute a degree of stability and flexibility to an emerging system of concepts that would not exist with the logical template structures alone [9] [1].

The idea of representing an abstract concept by a prototype and a sequence of deformations of the prototype has numerous antecedents in the literature. In the philosophical literature, the idea is suggested in the "family resemblances" of Wittgenstein [10], the "paradigms" of Kuhn [11] [12], and the recent work by several authors on the logic of "natural kinds" [13]. In cognitive psychology, the idea has emerged recently in the experimental work of Rosch and others [14] [15] on the coding of natural categories. There have been several attempts to formalize these notions in the artificial intelligence literature: for example, the suggestion by Minsky [16] that a collection of "frames" could be connected by pairwise "difference descriptions" into a similarity network; or the work of Winston on the construction of "transfer frames" [17] and the understanding of analogies [18]. However, since the notion of a "prototype" has generated a great deal of controversy and confusion in the recent literature (see, eg, [19]), it would appear that the prototype-plus-deformation model, taken as a whole, is not yet fully understood.

In this paper we will focus our attention on the mappings in the space of descriptions, since this is the element of the prototype-plus-deformation model which gives the conceptual representation its coherence. In Section II we will outline the basic formalism and introduce two important devices: the MAP, which expresses a relationship between two concrete descriptions; and the

XDN, which defines a general transformation on the space of concrete descriptions. In Section III, we will illustrate these formalisms with some examples drawn from an early corporate tax case, and we will suggest the ways in which the MAPs and the XDNs play a role in the process of legal argument.

II THE MODEL: A STRUCTURED SPACE OF DESCRIPTIONS

We have described the basic representational mechanisms of the TAXMAN II system in our previous papers [1] [5], but it may be helpful to review the essential points here. To set up a domain of discourse in TAXMAN II (see generally [3]) we first construct a system of *templates* to describe the classes of objects in the domain, and a system of *relations* to express the possible relationships between these objects. To describe the facts of a particular case, we generate *instances* of the templates and their associated relations in a particular *context*. The main work of the TAXMAN II system is then performed by a collection of pattern-matching procedures which operate on *descriptions*, or, as they are frequently called, DDNs. A DDN has three components: a template - list a constraint-list and a bindings-Mat, where

```

<template-list>
  ::= ((tname tvar
        (tname svar)
        ...
        )
        ...
        )

and tvar ::= <variable-name>
  svar ::= <variable-name>
  or (tname tvar
      (tname svar)
      ...
      )

<constraint-list>
  ::= <logical-expr>
  or <arithmetical-expr>

<bindings-list>
  ::= ((var (inst
            [(var (inst)
                ...
                ])
            ...
            )
        ...
        )

```

For example, the following DDN would represent the ownership of more than 80 percent of the common stock of a corporation, with the corporation in question bound either to "DuPont" or to "StandardOil":

```

(DDN:
 D-80PerCentOwnership
 ((OWN O1
  (OWNER A1)
  (OWNED (SHARE P1
         (QUANTITY N1)
         (SHAREOF (STOCK S1
                  (QUANTITY N2)
                  (COMMON YES)
                  (VOTING YES)
                  (ISSUER C1))
                 ))))
 ((GREATERP N1 (TIMES 0.80 N2)))
 ((C1 (DuPont) (StandardOil))))

```

In this example, we have assumed that the domain already contains a definition of the template OWN, with relations "owner" and "owned"; the template SHARE, with relations "quantity" and "shareof"; and the template STOCK, with the relations as indicated.

Now suppose we wished to use the preceding DDN. but minus the bindings for the CORPORATION C1, as a representation of the *expansion* of the concept of corporate control", as defined in Section 368(c) of the Internal Revenue Code. We would do this by defining a new template called CONTROL, with relations "controller" and "controlled":

```

(TDN: ((CONTROL REL)
       ((CONTROLLER FN) ACTOR)
       ((CONTROLLED FN) CORPORATION)))

```

and then linking up the "80PerCentOwnership" description with the following *adst recti on*

```

((CONTROL CON1
 (CONTROLLER A1)
 (CONTROLLED C1)))

```

In other words, "A1 controls C1" if "A1 owns more than 80 percent of the common stock of C1. The example is a simple one, but for a discussion of several more complicated forms of the abstraction/expansion hierarchy, and an analysis of the procedures RMATCH and GMAKE which operate upon them, see [1] and [5]. As an indication of the level of complexity that we can presently handle, consider the following definition of a "B-Reorganization" in Section 368(a)(1)(B) of the Internal Revenue Code

the acquisition by one corporation, in exchange solely for all or a part of its voting stock (or in exchange solely for all or a part of the voting stock of a corporation which is in control of the acquiring corporation), of stock of another corporation if, immediately after the acquisition, the acquiring corporation has control of such other corporation (whether or not such acquiring corporation had control immediately before the acquisition)

This example, and others like it, are discussed in detail in [2]

Even with a substantial elaboration of the

abstraction/expansion pairs, of course, the preceding formalism captures only the 'logical template' version of a conceptual hierarchy. To generalize this representation to a system of "prototypes' and deformations", we will replace the single DDN expression in the abstraction/expansion hierarchy with a *structured space* of DON expressions. The expansion will thus have three components: (1.) an "invariant" component, consisting of a single DON, to handle the case of a concept like CONTROL, which can be represented with a simple logical template expansion, (2) a set of exemplars, each of which is a DDN, to handle the case of a concept which cannot be represented with a simple logical template expansion, and (3) a set of transformations, each of which is a MAP, to tie the set of exemplars together into a coherent whole. The set of exemplars by itself provides only a disjunctive specification of a conceptual expansion, without giving any indication of how the various exemplars are related to one another, but the set of transformations is intended to supplement this disjunctive specification by expressing certain relationships among the exemplars, and thus imposing an order and a structure on the conceptual space. In this way we hope to capture one of the more important characteristics of the prototype-plus-deformation model: the fact that we can designate one or more of the exemplars as the prototype, and then arrange the remaining exemplars in the order of their prototypicality.

Obviously, the critical component of this definition is the MAP structure, which was discussed informally in [9]. As a first approximation, a MAP has the following form

```
(MAP <name>
  <etemplate1> ::= DDN
  <structure2> ::= DON
  invariant> ::= DDN
  <transformation> ::= MAP)
```

and it expresses the fact that the DDN in the etemplate slot can be mapped into the DDN in the structure2 slot, with a specified DDN as the invariant and a specified MAP as the residual transformation. For simplicity, we will assume that the MAP operates only on the template-let component of the DDN, leaving the constraint-let and the bindings-list unchanged. With this simplification, then, we could write out a sample mapping as follows

```
(MAP M-ShareOwnership>CashOwnership
  <structure1>
    = ((OWN O1
        {OWNER A1}
        {OWNED (SHARE P1)}))
  <structure2>
    = ((OWN O1
        {OWNER A1}
        {OWNED (CASH P1)}))
  <invariant>
    = ((OWN O1
        {OWNER A1}
        {OWNED P1})))
```

```
<transformation>
  = (MAP M-Share>Cash
      ((SHARE P1))
      ((CASH P1)))
```

which expresses the fairly obvious fact that the "Ownership-of-a-SHARE" can be mapped into the "Ownership-of-a-CASH", by simply mapping SHARE to CASH. For an extensive discussion of mappings of this sort, see [20].

Notice, however, that the MAP formalism, as described so far, adds nothing of substance to the domain: it merely restates the relationships that exist implicitly by virtue of the structure of the DDN space and the definition of the pattern-matcher. We often refer to the relationship between the invariant slot and the two structure slots here as an *implicit vertical mapping*, since it corresponds to the vertical generalization-specialization hierarchy in the space of DDN expressions. (Compare here the "version spaces" of Mitchell [21]). Analogously, we often refer to the relationship in the transformation slot as an *implicit horizontal mapping*. In the preceding example, the horizontal mapping from SHARE to CASH reveals no structure of any importance, but there are numerous mappings in the corporate tax domain which depend on a continuous parameter (eg. the quantity of stock outstanding, the proportionality of a stockholder's ownership interest, the risk or the liquidity of an investment), and these other horizontal mappings impose a partial order on the DDN space which is orthogonal to the partial order of the generalization/specialization hierarchy. It turns out that the implicit mappings of the DDN space can all be defined in terms of a small set of primitive syntactic operations — operations which add and delete templates and relations; operations which move up and down the AKO hierarchies; operations which mark variables as identical or distinct; etc — and these operations can be arranged in a preference ordering which preserves several important aspects of the simplicity and the compactness of the DDN expressions. For details, see [22].

However, these implicit MAPs are not enough. In order to construct a useful system of prototypes and deformations, it is necessary to have available a set of explicit mappings of the DON space, i.e. a set of mappings between DDN structures which are not mappable by virtue of their syntactic structure alone. What does this mean? As a first approximation, we could simply stipulate that a certain MAP, such as the "Share>Cash" mapping illustrated above, had been previously defined in our domain and was therefore available whenever it turned out to be useful. But we can often say more than this. Frequently, we can explain a mapping between two dissimilar DON structures by pointing to a related mapping with a known invariant and a known transformation in a different dimension of the DDN space. For example, we might be able to describe the relationship between two events by describing the relationship between the two corresponding sequences of state descriptions. Or we might be able to describe the relationship between a "Share" and a "Cash" by describing the relationship between the rights and the obligations associated with each. Sometimes these new mappings will be used to construct invariant relationships in the DDN space, in which case we will call them *explicit*

vertical mappings, and sometimes they will be used to construct *ordered* transformations in the DDN space, in which case we will call them *explicit horizontal* mappings, by analogy to the implicit mappings discussed previously. The important point, though, is that these new mappings are not just syntactic mappings. Instead they impose an explicit semantic structure on the space of DDN expressions.

To carry out these constructions, it is clear that we need a general facility for defining new MAPs in terms of old ones, and with the appropriate expressive power. These considerations lead us to the following definitional form:

```
(XDN: <name>
  (arg1 arg2)
  (SCOPE <DDN-pattern> arg1)
  (SCOPE <DDN-pattern> arg2)
  <body> ::= <elementary-transform>
           or <(XDNAPPLY
              <xdn>
              <structure1>
              <structure2>)
           ...    >)
```

As suggested, the XDN is a *defined transformation* which takes two arguments, *arg1* and *arg2*, and expresses the mapping between them in terms of the complex of related transformations listed in its body. Because the arguments are usually complex DDN expressions, the SCOPE specification is provided to decompose them into their component parts; the given DDN-patterns are matched to the arguments, first to determine the potential applicability of the transformation itself, but also to bind the internal variables of the XDN to the components of the DDN expressions, in whatever detail is needed. The body of the XDN can then take several forms. There would be certain *elementary* transformations to provide the building blocks for the entire system: for example, one important elementary transformation would represent the implicit syntactic mapping described earlier, in which the invariant is a matching DDN expression and the transformation is a residual MAP, another set of elementary transformations would represent the arithmetical relationships in the domain, and so on. The compound transformations would then be written as the result of *applying* an XDN to the components of *arg1* and *arg2* in this case, *structure1* and *structure2* refer to the sub-structures of the DDN-patterns, as extracted by means of the SCOPE specification. A number of variations of XDN APPLY are possible, but the most important variant for our present purposes is the transformation defined in a related "dimension" of the DDN space. We represent this transformation by filling in the structure slots with an expression of the form

```
(PROJECTION <Projected-Dimension
            Of DDN-Space>
  arg)
```

which, by assumption, produces the *projection* of the arguments in the specified DDN space. In this case, the XDN expresses the following fact: *arg1* and *arg2* can be *mapped* together because the *projections* of *arg1* and *arg2*

in the specified DDN space can be *mapped* together under the application of a known *xdn*.

We will provide illustrations of these constructions in the following section of this paper. At the same time, we will suggest how the XDN formalism and the MAP formalism play a role in the construction and modification of legal concepts. Since the XDN is basically a lambda-expression, and since the MAP expresses the result of applying an XDN to a particular pair of DDN expressions, we can explain some of the procedures for conceptual construction in the prototype-plus-deformation model in terms of a directed interaction between lambda-abstraction and lambda-application. We will not develop this point in the present paper, but there will be hints of it in the discussion of the corporate tax case which follows.

III ILLUSTRATIONS: THE MAPPINGS OF EISNER V. MACOMBER

We will draw our illustrations from *Eisner v. Macomber*, 252 US 189 (1920), one of the landmark decisions of the early corporate tax code. The case involved the distribution of a 50 percent stock dividend. Myrtle H. Macomber, who originally owned 2200 shares of the common stock of Standard Oil, received a dividend consisting of 1100 additional shares of the same stock, and the Collector of Internal Revenue, as required by the Revenue Act of 1916, imposed a tax on the distribution. The Supreme Court, however, in an opinion by Justice Pitney, held that a stock dividend of this sort was not "income" within the meaning of the Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution, and thus the tax could not constitutionally be imposed. Justice Brandeis, in an elaborate opinion, dissented. Several other cases were discussed as precedents in the course of the argument. The distribution of a corporation's cash, as in *Lynch v. Hornby*, 247 US 339 (1918), and the distribution of the stock of an unrelated corporation, as in *Peabody v. Eisner*, 247 US 347 (1918), were situations that all parties *agreed* should be taxable. On the other hand, the appreciation in the value of a stock without the actual transfer of stock certificates, a purely hypothetical case, was a situation that all parties *agreed* should be nontaxable. The task for Justice Pitney and Justice Brandeis, then, as outlined in [9], was to construct a concept of taxable income consistent with these *agreed* precedents, and in such a way that the *Macomber* case itself would be classified as nontaxable (Pitney) or taxable (Brandeis).

We have discussed the details of the *Macomber* arguments in an earlier paper [23], and we will not repeat them here. However, an important step in the analysis, for both parties, was the construction of a sequence of mappings between the decided and the undecided cases, and these mappings provide an interesting illustration of the formalisms set forth in the previous section of this paper. For example, one of the more important points in Justice Pitney's argument was the construction of a mapping between the *Macomber* case and the unrealized appreciation case: the taxpayer in *Macomber* now owns 3300 shares of common stock out of 75,000,000 outstanding, the argument goes, but that's the same as owning 2200 shares out of 50,000,000 outstanding, which is the situation that would have existed had there been no actual transfer of stock certificates. As Justice Pitney puts it in his opinion, 252 US 189, 211 (1920), the stock dividend "does not

alter the pre-existing proportionate interest of any stockholder" The point is a simple one. but how would we formalize it?

First let us assume that there exists the following XDM in our domain:

```
(XDM: X-EndStateMapping
  (d1 d2)
  (SCOPE ((STATE TA varA)
          (STATE TB varB))
    d1)
  (SCOPE ((STATE TX varX)
          <segment>
          (STATE TY varY))
    d2)
  (BODY (XDNAPPLY xdn1 varA varX)
        (XDNAPPLY xdn2 varB varY)))
```

which expresses the fact that an ordered pair of state descriptions can be mapped into an indefinite sequence of state descriptions if the initial state descriptions, varA and varX, can be mapped together by some known mapping xdn1 and the final state descriptions, varB and varY, can be mapped together by some known mapping xdn2. Although this mapping might not be considered an invariant mapping in all contexts, in the corporate tax domain there are strong reasons for treating it as such. Two sequences of transactions which reach the same and result ought not to be treated differently just because one of them follows a different path. Let us therefore attempt to apply the "EndStateMapping" to our problem, binding a description of the unrealized appreciation case to d1 and a description of the Macomber case to d2. Because of the definition of the unrealized appreciation case, the pattern-match inside the first SCOPE specification will bind the identical state description to varA and varB: 2200 shares out of 50,000,000. However, the pattern-match of the Macomber case, expanded backwards in time to a point just before the issuance of the new stock, will bind this same state description to varX, and a different state description to varY: 3300 shares out of 75,000,000. It follows, then, that the "EndStateMapping" can be fully applied if xdn1 is the identity transformation, and if xdn2 is a transformation of the following sort

```
(XDM: X-ConstantStockRatio
  (d3 d4)
  (SCOPE (<Ownership
          of NQ1 SHARES
          of STOCK S1,
          NS1 SHARES
          outstanding>)
    d3)
  (SCOPE (<Ownership
          of NQ2 SHARES
          of STOCK S1,
          NS2 SHARES
          outstanding>)
    d4)
```

```
(BODY (EQUAL (QUOTIENT NQ1 NS1)
             (QUOTIENT NQ2 NS2))))
```

Now it is conceivable that the XonstantStockRatio" mapping has already been defined in our domain, since it is an invariant transformation of broad applicability, and if this is the case then our analysis is done

However, the force of this mapping can be strengthened substantially if we project it onto a more detailed representation of the space of security interests. The ownership of common stock carries with it certain rights to the "earnings", the assets" and the "control" of a corporation, and these rights can be represented by a system of permission and obligation schemata [9]. For simplicity, let us focus our attention on the right to earnings: we represent this with a pair of descriptions expressing the fact that when a certain situation is satisfied the corporation is permitted to carry out the action of distributing earnings prorata to the common stockholders. Suppose we now ask what earnings would be distributed to the owners of the shares in the structural and the structure2 slots of the XonstantStockRatio mapping above. It is not too difficult to construct a procedure which gives us the answer we trace along the path from the permission structure, to the embedded distribution, and then to the expansion of the distribution in terms of a sequence of transfers to each stockholder. The result simplified slightly, is

```
(DDN:
  D-PermittedTransferOfEarnings
  ((TRANS TR1
    (AGENT (CORPORATION C1))
    (OBJECT
      (CASH P2
        (QUANTITY (TIMES
          <fraction>
          <earnings>))
        ))
    (OLDOWNER (CORPORATION C1))
    (NEOWNER A1))
  (OWN O1
    (OWNER A1)
    (OWNED (SHARE P1
      (QUANTITY NQ1)
      (SHAREOF (STOCK S1
        (QUANTITY NS1)
        (COMMON YES)
        (ISSUER C1))))))
    ((EQUAL <fraction> (QUOTIENT NQ1 NS1)))
  NIL)
```

which gives us the "projection" of the original description onto the space of "permitted transfers of earnings". But notice now that this projection is identical for both the structure1 and the structure2 slots of the XonstantStockRatio" mapping, and thus the mapping has been shown to preserve an invariant in the security interest space. Furthermore, the invariant works only for common stock, not for preferred stock, since the

distribution to preferred stockholders is normally stated in terms of the number of shares owned, instead of the fraction of ownership. Having discovered this invariant mapping, of course, we can now use it to construct an explicit invariant XDN in our domain, following the notation in the previous section of this *paper*.

A more difficult mapping to represent is the one constructed by Justice Brandeis to demonstrate that it is impossible to draw a coherent line of distinction between the stock distribution of *Eisner v. Macomber* and the cash distribution of *Lynch v. Hornby*. In his argument Justice Brandeis posits a sequence of hypothetical cases first the distribution of common stock, then *preferred* stock, then bonds; then the distribution of long-term notes, then short-term notes; and finally the distribution of cash. This is basically an elaboration of the "Share>Cash" mapping introduced in the previous section of this *paper*, but for the mapping to have any force it must be projected onto a detailed representation of the security interest space. For simplicity, let us concentrate on a portion of the mapping: from common stock, to preferred stock, to bonds. A direct projection of these securities onto the space of permissions and obligations, which worked well in our previous example, fails to give us the result we want in this case, since the permission and obligation structures are not directly mappable. The common stockholders receive a permitted distribution of residual earnings, but conditional on a prior permitted distribution to the preferred stockholders, while the bondholders receive an obligatory distribution of a fixed amount, and there appears to be no way to compare these various structures except by listing all of their pairwise differences. However, a further projection, onto a space of *expectations*, reveals both a common pattern and a systematic difference.

To see this, let us analyze how the corporation is expected to behave, given a capital structure with common stock, preferred stock and bonds outstanding. The basic behavioral assumption is that the corporation seeks to maximize the benefits to its common stockholders, since the common stockholders hold the ultimate voting power over the corporation's affairs. In the case of the distribution of earnings, however, there are, by virtue of the system of permission and obligation schemata, two groups of claimants standing ahead of the common stockholders: the bondholders and the preferred stockholders. A relatively straightforward exercise in plan generation (see, e.g. [4]) will therefore demonstrate that the expected cash dividend for each class of securityholders depends on the earnings available for distribution: unless the corporation is near bankruptcy, the bondholders will receive a fixed amount; beyond that, if the available earnings exceed the bond obligation, then the preferred stockholders will receive a dividend, but only up to the limit of the preferred stock obligation; and beyond that if earnings are still available, then the common stockholders will receive the rest. We can summarize this analysis with the following *expectation* structure

```
(ODN:
D-ExpectedDistributionOfEarnings
((DISTRIBUTE D1
  (AGENT (CORPORATION C1))
  (OBJECT {CASH P1
    (QUANTITY (<function>
      <earnings>))
    })
  (OLDOWNER (CORPORATION C1))
  (RECIPIENT (SECURITY S1))))
NIL
NIL)
```

in which the function applied to the earnings depends in a systematic way on the identity of the "recipient security". But now, if we work with this projection of a security interest onto the space of expectation schemata, instead of the projection onto the space of permission and obligation schemata, we can define a mapping of the following sort

```
(XDN: X-Equity>Debt
(d1 d2)
(SCOPE ((STOCK S1
  (COMMON YES)))
  d1)
(SCOPE ((STOCK S1
  (PREFERRED YES)))
  d2)
(BODY (XDNAPPLY
  <xdn>
  (PROJECTION <Expected
    Distribution
    Of Earnings>
    d1)
  (PROJECTION <Expected
    Distribution
    Of Earnings>
    d2))))
```

where the xdn embedded inside the BODY is an elementary syntactic transformation with the DISTRIBUTION of CASH as the invariant and the mapping from (<function:COMMON> <earnings>) to (<function:PREFERRED> <earnings>) as the residual transformation. The "Equity>Debt" mapping thus expresses the fact that the only difference between common stock and preferred stock in the space of expectation structures is the difference between the two functions which translate earnings into expected quantities of CASH. Another mapping is possible if we assume a reasonable probability distribution on the space of future earnings. The quantities of CASH would then inherit a probability distribution, too, and it would be apparent that the common stock has a high expected return and a high risk, while the *preferred* stock has a lower expected return and a lower risk. This is the traditional way of describing the mapping between "Equity" and "Debt". For a discussion of the importance of this mapping in the arguments of *Eisner v. Macomber*, and its importance in the later corporate tax cases, see [9] and [23].

IV CONCLUSION

Although this *paper* has emphasized the differences between the "logical template" model of conceptual structure and the "prototype-plus-deformation" model, it is clear that both representations coexist in the corporate tax domain. The patterns of reasoning observed in *Eisner v Macomber* persist throughout the later cases (see [24]). There are strong pressures to formulate legal concepts as logical templates, if possible, but there are also strong countervailing tendencies to construct mappings from prototypes, and the tension between these two modes of representation provides the foundation for some of the major strategies of legal argument. We believe that the key to understanding this process is a further exploration of the structure of MAPs and XDNs, as set forth in the present *paper*.

Our implementation of the TAXMAN theory has proceeded in several stages. In the first stage, we developed the logical template representations and the associated pattern-matching procedures described in [1] and [5]. As a step toward the implementation of the prototype-plus-deformation representation, we have extended the pattern-matching procedures to deal with partial matches, and we have added several heuristics to produce a plausible version of a "best match" result. We are now working on an implementation of the XDN formalism as an interpreter for the elementary transformations has been written (see [22]), and an initial implementation of XONAPPLY has been tested out on the examples in the text. The major work left to be done, then, is to define a search procedure in the space of MAPs which matches the observed procedures of Justice Pitney and Justice Brandeis in *Eisner v Macomber*. Once this step is completed, we should be able to model the major components of legal reasoning in the corporate tax domain. We expect our results to be of interest to workers in several areas of artificial intelligence research, and of general utility in various areas of application.

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