
A database-based rather than a language model-based natural language processing method

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Abstract

1 Language models applied to NLP tasks take natural language as the direct model-
2 ing object. But we believe that natural language is essentially a way of encoding
3 information, therefore, the object of study for natural language should be the infor-
4 mation encoded in language, and the organizational and compositional structure of
5 the information described in language. Based on this understanding, we propose
6 a database-based natural language processing method that changes the modeling
7 object from natural language to the information encoded in natural language. On
8 this basis, the sentence generation task is transformed into read operations imple-
9 mented on the database and some sentence encoding rules to be followed; The
10 sentence understanding task is transformed into sentence decoding rules and a se-
11 ries of Boolean operations implemented on the database. Our method is closer
12 to the information processing mechanism of the human brain and has excellent
13 interpretability and scalability.

14 1 Introduction

15 Enabling machines to understand and use natural language as humans do is the ultimate goal of
16 NLP. Many language models have been developed for related NLP tasks. For example: Word2Vec
17 [2] and GloVe [3] models the correlations between words by constructing numerical representation
18 of words (i.e., word vector) and expect to obtain a word-level understanding by computing the simi-
19 larities between the word vectors. Seq2seq [6] and Transformer [7] are used for machine translation
20 tasks, they model the mapping relations between words and the mapping relations between sentence
21 structures in different languages. ELMo [4], GPT [5] and Bert [1] that pre-train language models on
22 a large-scale corpus, are aimed at modeling the sequence features in corpus.

23 All these approaches of language models are modeling the surface features of language, while ig-
24 noring the fact that natural language is only a way of encoding information. We believe that the
25 information described in natural language and the structural relations between these information
26 do not change depending on the choice of different encoding methods. Therefore, we propose a
27 database-based NLP method, which models the information represented by language and its organi-
28 zational and compositional structure described in language, and provides methods for various NLP
29 tasks, such as sentence generation and sentence understanding based on this model.

30 To summarize the contribution of this work:

- 31 • Our method changes the modeling object from language to the information represented by lan-
32 guage, which makes the model we construct has excellent interpretability and scalability.
- 33 • We propose a brand new NLP approach that is different from rule-based and statistical model-
34 based (i.e., language model) approaches, and it is more closer to the way the human brain processes
35 information.

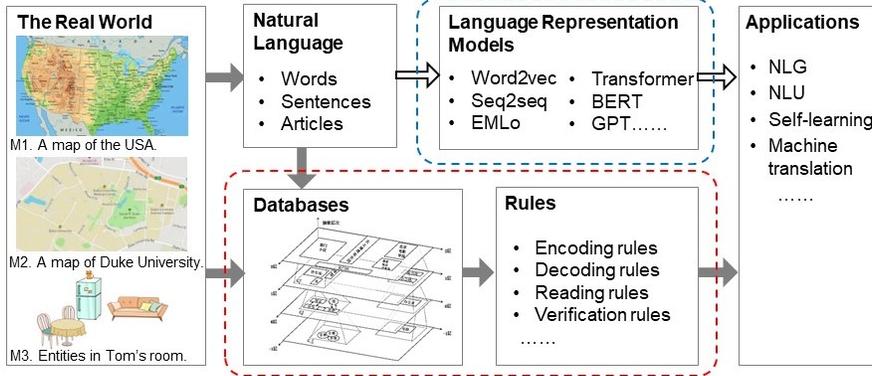


Figure 1: Differences in modeling objects. Language model-based methods take natural language as the object to construct the model. Database-based methods take both the information in the real world and the organizational and compositional structure of the information described in natural language as the objects to construct the model.

The United States <i>is south of</i> Canada.	Duke University <i>is in</i> North Carolina.
The cat <i>is in</i> Tom’s room.	The table <i>is in front of</i> the fridge.
The cat <i>is on top of</i> the fridge.	The sofa <i>is next to</i> the fridge.

Table 1: Examples of sentences that describe the spatial position of target entities in the real world

- 36 • Our method directly confronts the challenge of “What is understanding ?” and “How to under-
37 stand ?” and provides a convincing solution to the challenge.

38 2 Background

39 There are many kinds of information encoded in natural language, which need to be modeled and
40 processed according to their different nature and characteristics. In this paper, we only take the
41 spatial position information of entities as the object, and construct a model accordingly by learning
42 how it is described and encoded in the language. People encode the spatial position information of
43 entities in the real world into sentences, as shown in Table 1, and communicate them to each other.

44 Looking at the sentences in Table 1, we see that these sentences have the same structure: (Entity 1)
45 + (...) + (Spatial relation) + (Entity 2), where “Entity 1” is the target entity whose spatial position
46 we want to describe by the sentence, “Entity 2” is a helper entity that helps to locate the target
47 entity, and “Spatial relation” describes the spatial relation between the target entity and the helper
48 entity. As shown in Table 2, there are three types of spatial relations commonly used in languages: 1)
49 spatial range relations, 2) spatial directional relations, and 3) spatial distance relations. the spatial
50 directional relations can be further divided into 2.1) absolute directional relations and 2.2) relative
51 directional relations according to the different reference systems.

52 The above findings in language reveal how people organize and store the spatial position information
53 of entities in the real world. We can also see that people are used to using entities with a relatively
54 stable spatial position as helper entities. We refer to entities with a relatively stable spatial position
55 as immovable entities and entities whose spatial position is constantly changing as movable entities.
56 The immovable entities and the spatial relations between them form a stable system that we will use
57 to construct our model.

58 3 Model Architecture

59 We construct a tree-graph hybrid model to describe and store entities and the relative spatial relations
60 between them. In a tree-graph hybrid model, the immovable entities are abstracted as square nodes
61 and the movable entities are abstracted as round nodes. The spatial relations between the entities are
62 abstracted as directed edges E . There are three steps to build our model:

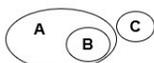
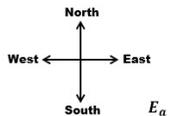
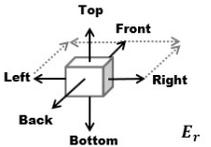
Spatial relations	Lexical representations	Reference system
1.Range relations	Inside: in, at... Outside: outside of...	
2. Directional relations	2.1 Absolute directional relations East: east of... West: west of... North: the north side of ... South: the south side of...	
	2.2 Relative directional relations Top: on, above, over, on top of... Bottom: below, under, beneath... Left: left of... Right: the right side of... Front: before, in front of... Back: behind, back of...	
3.Distance relations	by, near, next to, beside...	

Table 2: Classification of the relative spatial relations between entities, and lexical representations of the relative spatial relations.

63 3.1 Tree Model

64 First, we use a tree model to describe the spatial range relations between entities. The spatial range
65 relations E_s is consist of two opposite directions, i.e., $E_s = \{\overleftarrow{\text{inside}}, \overrightarrow{\text{outside}}\}$. For example, we
66 use the tree in Figure 2 to describe the spatial range relations between entities “North Carolina”,
67 “Duke University”, “Tom’s room”, “Classroom 15”, “Table”, “Sofa”, “Fridge”, “Cat”, “Tom” and
68 “Blackboard”. The tree in Figure 2 can also be written in tabular form as shown in Table 3. In a
69 tree, the child nodes with the same parent node should be spatially independent of each other, which
70 means, there is no spatial range inclusion relation between them, if not, the child node must be
71 moved up or down until all the child nodes are spatially independent of each other.

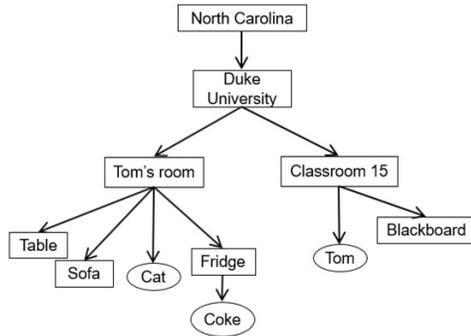


Figure 2: A tree that describe the spatial range relations between entities “North Carolina”, “Duke University”, “Tom’s room”, “Cat”, etc.

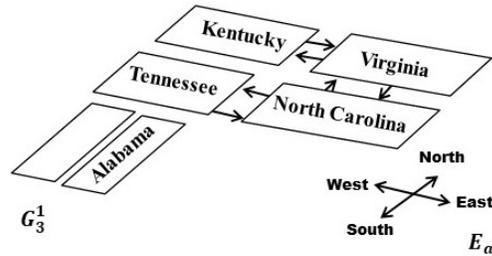


Figure 3: A graph that describe the absolute spatial directional relations between some entities in M1 in Figure 1.

72 3.2 Graph Model

73 Then, We use graph models to describe the spatial directional relations between entities. The spatial
74 directional relations can be future divided into 1) absolute directional relations E_a , which consists
75 of four fixed directions, i.e., $E_a = \{\overrightarrow{\text{east}}, \overrightarrow{\text{west}}, \overrightarrow{\text{North}}, \overrightarrow{\text{South}}\}$, and 2) relative directional relations
76 E_r , which consists of six fixed directions, i.e., $E_r = \{\overrightarrow{\text{left}}, \overrightarrow{\text{right}}, \overrightarrow{\text{front}}, \overrightarrow{\text{back}}, \overrightarrow{\text{top}}, \overrightarrow{\text{bottom}}\}$. Now, we
77 can use the graph in Figure 3 to describe the absolute directional relations between some entities in
78 M1 in Figure 1, and use the graph in Figure 4 to describe the relative directional relations between

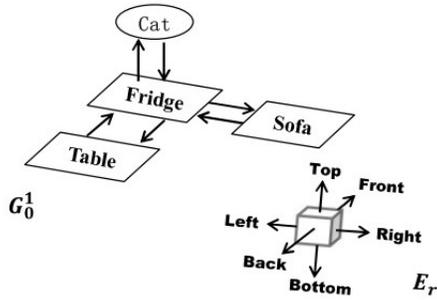
$E_s \backslash V$	North Carolina	Duke University	Tom's room	Classroom 15	Fridge
\xrightarrow{inside}	Duke University	Tom's room, Classroom 15	Table, Sofa, Cat, Fridge	Blackboard, Tom	Coke
$\xleftarrow{outside}$	\emptyset	North Carolina	Duke University	Duke University	Tom's room

Table 3: The tabular form of the tree in Figure 2

$E_a \backslash V$	Kentucky	Virginia	Tennessee	North Carolina	Alabama
\xrightarrow{east}	Virginia	\emptyset	North Carolina	\emptyset	\emptyset
\xrightarrow{west}	\emptyset	Kentucky	\emptyset	Tennessee	\emptyset
\xrightarrow{north}	\emptyset	\emptyset	Kentucky	Virginia	Tennessee
\xrightarrow{south}	Tennessee	North Carolina	Alabama	\emptyset	\emptyset

Table 5: The tabular form of the graph in Figure 3.

79 the entities in M3 in Figure 1. These two graphs can also be written in tabular forms as shown in
80 Table 4 and Table 5.



$E_r \backslash V$	Table	Fridge	Sofa
\xrightarrow{left}	\emptyset	\emptyset	Fridge
\xrightarrow{right}	\emptyset	Sofa	\emptyset
\xrightarrow{front}	Fridge	\emptyset	\emptyset
\xrightarrow{back}	\emptyset	Table	\emptyset
\xrightarrow{top}	\emptyset	Cat	\emptyset
\xrightarrow{bottom}	\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset

Figure 4: A graph to describe the relative spatial directional relations between entities in M3 in Figure 1
Table 4: The tabular form of the graph in Figure 4

81 3.3 Tree-graph Hybrid Model

82 At last, Take the nodes common to the tree and the graphs in Figures 2, 3 and 4 as connection points,
83 then we can integrate the tree and graphs into a tree-graph hybrid model as shown in Figure 5. The
84 tree-graph hybrid model describes spatial range relations between entities on the vertical structure
85 (i.e., the inter-layer structure) and describes the spatial directional relations between entities on the
86 horizontal structure (i.e., the intralayer structure). In a tree-graph hybrid model, the immovable
87 entities and the stable spatial relations between them form a coordinate system, which can be used
88 to locate the entities in the model (or database). A tree-graph hybrid model can be continuously
89 extended upwards and downwards in the vertical structures to add new nodes, and continuously
90 subdivided in the horizontal structure to add new nodes. Therefore, the tree-graph hybrid model
91 could satisfy people's need to describe and store the spatial position of numerous entities in the real
92 world. If the spatial position of one entity changes, just modified the related data accordingly in the
93 model. In addition, we can also build datasets to store the spatial position information of movable

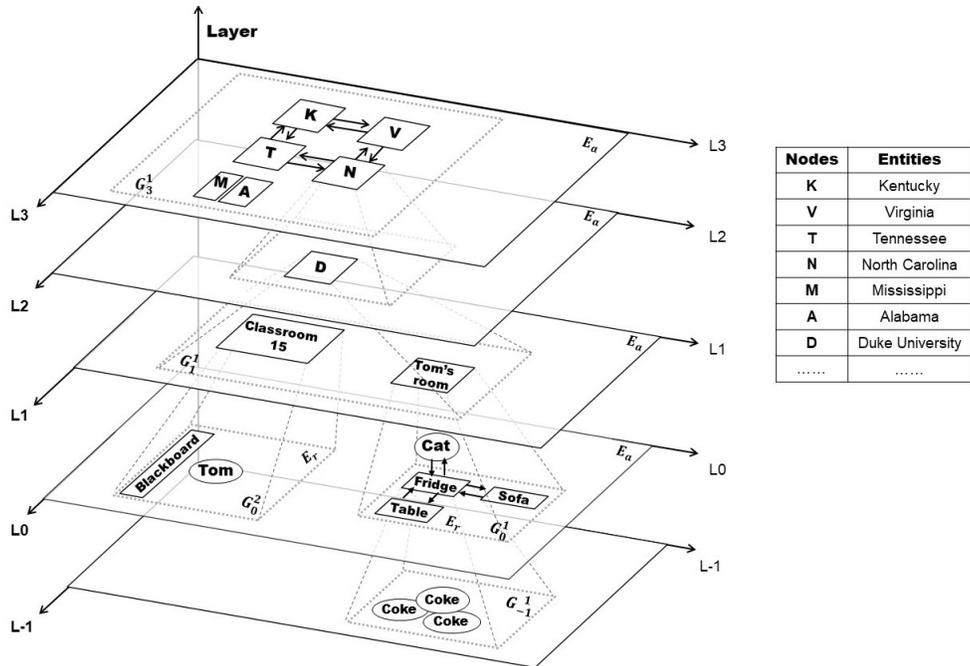


Figure 5: An example of a tree-graph hybrid model, which describes the spatial relations between entities in the vertical structure (inter-layer structure), and describes the spatial directional relations between entities in the horizontal structure (intralayer structure)

94 entities to record their footprint. In deed, the tree-graph hybrid model build a information exchange
 95 bridge between language and the widely used numerical positioning systems, as shown in Figure 6.

96 Each layer of a tree-graph hybrid model can accommodate multiple subgraphs. Usually, the E_a
 97 (absolute directional relations) is used as the reference system of the whole layer, and the E_r (relative
 98 directional relations) is used as the reference system in each subgraph. As shown in Figure 5, the
 99 subgraph G_0^2 and G_0^1 take E_r as their reference system, and the layer L0 is using E_a as its reference
 100 system. In practice, when describing the spatial relation between two entities, lots of factors will
 101 affect our choice, such as the distance situation between the entities, the scale situation of these
 102 entities, etc. All of these factors can be summarized from practice and establish related rules, this
 103 part will be discussed in the following application section.

104 4 Application

105 Based on the tree-graph hybrid model, we can now generate a database to describe and store the
 106 spatial position of entities in the real world. This database can be used for many purposes. In this
 107 paper, we only present its use in NLG and NLU tasks.

108 4.1 Natural Language Generation

109 The purpose of the sentence generation task is to encode the information that needs to be conveyed
 110 into sentences. It consists of two subtasks: a) determining the information that needs to be conveyed
 111 and b) encoding that information into sentences.

112 4.1.1 Read Data From the Database

113 In this paper, the information to be conveyed is the spatial position of the target entity. Following the
 114 language expression, we will use a helper entity and the spatial relations between the helper and the
 115 target entity to describe the spatial position of the target entity. For example, if we want to describe
 116 the spatial position of the entity "Cat", we first need to find the corresponding node (target node) of
 117 the entity "Cat" in the database in Figure 5, then find the helper nodes that have a spatial relation with

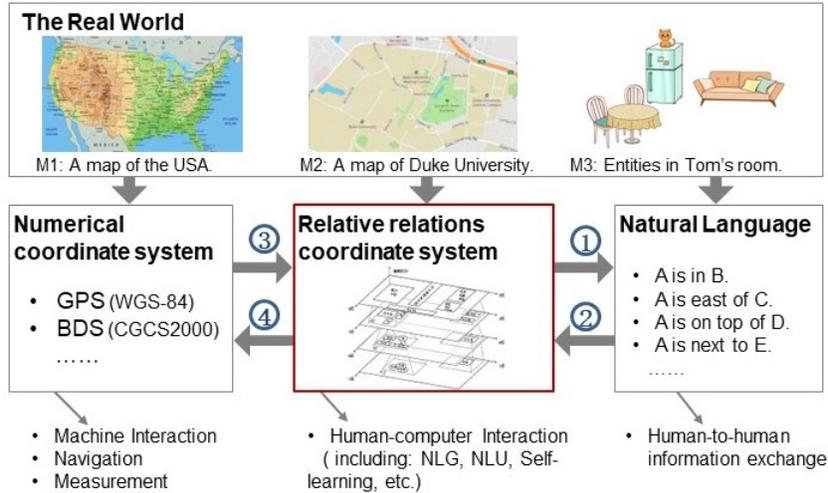


Figure 6: Three ways to describing (or encoding) the spatial position information of entities in the real world. And the routes of information exchange between different systems: ① sentences generation. ② sentences understanding. ③ search for neighboring entities. ④ get the numerical position information of target entities.

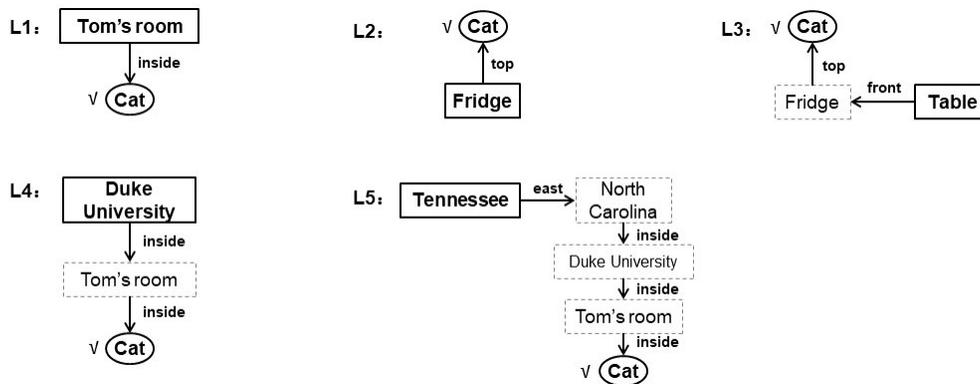


Figure 7: If we take the entity “Cat” as the target, then we can find the above 5 data chains in the database to help locate the entity “Cat”. The nodes marked with “✓” are the target nodes.

118 the target node, such as the nodes “Tom’s room”, “Fridge”, “Table”, “Duke University”, “Tennessee”
 119 and so on, then we can get 5 corresponding data chains as shown in Figure 7, which are composed of
 120 the target node, the helper node, and the spatial relations between them. Each of these 5 data chains
 121 can describe the spatial position of the entity “Cat”, but their precision is different. If we sort these 5
 122 data chains by precision, we can get the following result: $L2 > L3 > L1 > L4 > L5$. However, the
 123 precision is not the only goal we are pursuing. If we want to describe the spatial position of the entity
 124 “Cat” to a particular person, we also need to know how much this person knows about the spatial
 125 position of the 5 candidate helper nodes mentioned above, and what is the person’s requirement for
 126 descriptive precision, so that we can filter out the appropriate one accordingly. Here, we will skip
 127 this part and go straight to the sentence encoding part.

128 4.1.2 Encoding Rules for Data Chain

129 Although the rules for encoding a data chain into a sentence vary slightly from language to language,
 130 but the following parts are mandatory: 1) the target and the helper nodes in a data chain, 2) the
 131 spatial relations between the target node and helper nodes in the data chain, and 3) the particular
 132 spatial correlation between the target node and helper nodes.

Main parts		Data Chain			
		L1	L1*	L2	L2*
1	Target node	The cat	The cat	The cat	The cat
2	Helper node	Tom's room	Tom's room	the fridge	the fridge
3	Spatial relations	in	<i>on top of</i>	on top of	<i>in</i>
4	Particular spatial correlation • True • False	is	<i>is not</i>	is	<i>is not</i>

Table 6: Examples of the mandatory parts for encoding a data chain.

Data chain	Target node	Particular spatial correlation	Spatial relation	Helper node
L1	The cat	is	in	Tom's room
L2	The cat	is	on top of	the fridge
L3	The cat	is	in front of (next to)	the table
L4	The cat	is	in	Duke University
L5	The cat	is	on the ease side of	Tennessee
L1*	The cat	<i>is not</i>	<i>on top of</i>	Tom's room
L2*	The cat	<i>is not</i>	<i>in</i>	the fridge

Table 7: Examples of sentence encoding for the data chains in Figure 7. All the above sentences are 100% correct, but some of them might be regarded as the right nonsense, and won't be adopted in practice due to their low precision in locating the target entity.

133 **Particular spatial correlation:** A data chain can describe both “true information” and “false infor-
134 mation”. Therefore, when encoding a data chain, speakers also need to give their opinion on whether
135 the information described in the data chain is true or false. The speaker’s opinion is described by a
136 particular spatial correlation. For example, the particular spatial correlations that are listed in row 4
137 of Table 6 are the speaker’s opinions on the information described in the data chains in Table 6.

138 **Operation rules for spatial relations:** If there is only one directed edge in a data chain, we can
139 encode it directly, such as the data chains L1 and L2. If there is more than one directed edge in a
140 data chain, e.g., the data chains L3, L4 and L5, we should first operate the directed edges in the data
141 chain, then encode the result of the operation. Here, we summarize some operation rules as follows:

- 142 • Elimination operation: e.g., $\xrightarrow{inside} + \xleftarrow{outside} = \emptyset$, $\xrightarrow{left} + \xrightarrow{right} = \emptyset$, $\xrightarrow{north} + \xrightarrow{south} = \emptyset$...
- 143 • Union operation: e.g., $\xrightarrow{inside} + \xrightarrow{inside} = \xrightarrow{inside}$, $\xrightarrow{east} + \xrightarrow{east} + \xrightarrow{north} = \xrightarrow{northeast}$...
- 144 • Hybrid operation: when a data chain contains both spatial range relations and spatial directional
145 relations, the relations in the upstream of the data chain is dominant, e.g., $\xrightarrow{inside} + \xrightarrow{top} = \xrightarrow{inside}$,
146 $\xrightarrow{east} + \xrightarrow{inside} = \xrightarrow{east}$...

147 Applying the operation rules to the spatial relations on data chains L3, L4, and L5 yields the results
148 below. Based on these operation results, we can encode the data chains L3, L4, and L5 into the
149 sentences listed in Table 7.

- 150 • L3: $\xrightarrow{front} + \xrightarrow{top} = \xrightarrow{upfront}$; L4: $\xrightarrow{inside} + \xrightarrow{inside} = \xrightarrow{inside}$; L5: $\xrightarrow{east} + \xrightarrow{inside} *3 = \xrightarrow{east}$.

151 **Distance relations:** In some cases, e.g.: 1) the spatial distance between the target entity and the
152 helper entity is very close, or 2) it is not necessary to provide the exact position of the target entity,
153 then we can use the spatial distance relations as an alternative, just like the sentence L3 in Table 7

154 You may argue that the sentences we generated are too simple. However, at the initial stage of
155 language appearance, it is just some simple words and short sentences. With the development of
156 human beings, more and more information is encoded in language, then sophisticated words and
157 long sentences emerged. Therefore, it is a good start to launch our research with some simple words
158 and sentences.

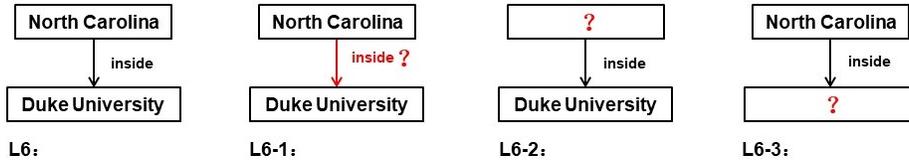


Figure 8: The data chain L6 and its three different cases.

Data chain		Target node		Helper node	
L6		Duke University	is	in	North Carolina .
L6-1	Is	Duke University		in	North Carolina ?
L6-2	Which state is	Duke University		in	?
L6-3		Which University	is	in	North Carolina ?

Table 8: Comparison of sentence structures that encode different information processing requests.

159 4.1.3 Encoding Rules for Processing Requests

160 Sentences encode not only the specific information to be conveyed, but also the processing requests
 161 for that information. According to the implicit processing requests in the sentences, we divided
 162 sentences into following three categories: 1) data description sentence (i.e., declarative sentence),
 163 2) data verification sentence (i.e., the yes-no question sentence), 3) data searching sentence (i.e.,
 164 WH-question sentence).

165 **Data description sentence:** The processing requirement implicit in a data description sentence is
 166 that listeners are expected to store the information in their databases. For example, teachers expect
 167 the students to remember what was taught in the class, and authors expect the readers to understand
 168 and remember the ideas shared in the book, and so on.

169 **Data verification sentence:** For a data verification sentence, listeners are expected to help verify
 170 whether the particular spatial correlations described in the sentence exist in their database, and then
 171 return the verification result as the response. For example, if speakers are not sure whether the spatial
 172 relation “inside” between the node (Duke University) and the node (North Carolina) exists, as shown
 173 in data chain L6-1 in Figure 8, they could express the processing request that ask listeners to help
 174 verify whether the “inside” edge exists by moving the word “Is” to the beginning of the sentence and
 175 adding a question mark at the end of the sentence, as shown in Table 8.

176 **Data searching sentence:** For a data searching sentence, listeners are expected to search for the
 177 missing information replaced by WH words in their databases and return the search result as the
 178 response. Take data chains L6-2 and L6-3 in Figure 8 as examples, speakers can use the word
 179 “which” to replace the missing parts and adjust the structure of the sentences, as shown in rows L6-2
 180 and L6-3 in Table8, to express their expectation that the listener can help to search for the missing
 181 parts and return the search results.

182 4.2 Natural Language Understanding

183 In this paper, we only need to understand the spatial position information of the entities described
 184 in the sentences, the understanding of the other parts of the entities requires other databases, these
 185 databases will be published in other papers. The sentence understanding task consists of two parts:
 186 a) understanding of the processing requests of the specific information implicit in a sentence, and b)
 187 understanding of the specific information conveyed in the sentence.

188 4.2.1 Understanding of the Processing Requests

189 The specific processing requests are expressed by the specific sentence structures, specific feature
 190 words and specific punctuation. These can be used to classify the sentences and extract the process-
 191 ing requests accordingly.

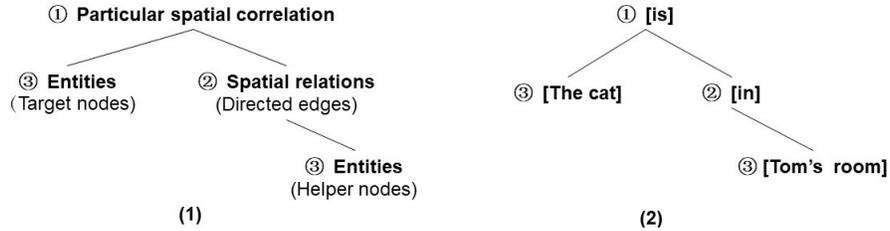


Figure 9: (1) General tree structure of sentences. (2) The sentence tree of sentence L1 in Table 7.

192 4.2.2 Understanding of the Specific Information

193 First, listeners need to chunk the sentence and extract components of the specific information. Con-
 194 sidering the difference in the number of words and phrases used to represent each class of the com-
 195 ponents, the most efficient way is to chunk the sentences according to the order in Figure 9 (1). For
 196 example, listeners can chunk the sentence L1 in Table 7 into the sentence tree shown in Figure 9
 197 (2). Then, listeners need to verify each parts of the sentence tree in their databases according to
 198 the flowchart shown in Figure 10. In the case of the sentence tree in Figure 9, listeners should first
 199 verify whether the helper entity “Tom’s room” exists in their database, if the helper entity exists,
 200 go ahead; if not, it means that the listeners cannot get the position information of the target entity
 201 “The cat” through the helper entity “Tom’s room”, so the understanding mission fails. If the helper
 202 entity “Tom’s room” exists, the listeners needs to verify whether the target entity “The cat” exists at
 203 the other end of the directed edge (i.e., “Inside” edge), if the target entity “The cat” exists, it means
 204 that the listeners understand the information conveyed in the sentence tree, although the information
 205 conveyed in the sentence tree is known to the listeners; If not, the listeners can create a target node
 206 at the other end of the “Inside” edge, to store the spatial position information of “The cat” in their
 207 database.

208 4.2.3 Responding to the Processing Requests

209 Strictly speaking, responding to the processing requests implicit in a sentence is not the sentence
 210 understanding task, but the sentence generation task. Here, we briefly introduce the responses to the
 211 different processing requests. **In a data description sentence**, the response is to store the specific
 212 information conveyed in the sentence, just as the step marked with a star in Figure 10. **For a data**
 213 **verification sentence**, the response is to return the verification results to the speakers. Take the
 214 sentence L6-1 in Table 8 as an example, in the listeners database, if the directed edge represented
 215 by the word “in” can be found between the node “Duke University” and node “North Carolina”, the
 216 listener can reply “Yes, it is” as feedback to the speaker. If not, the listener can reply “No, it is not”
 217 as feedback to the speaker. **For a data searching sentence**, the response is to return the searching
 218 results to the speakers. Take the sentence L6-2 in Table 8 as an example, in the listener’s database, if
 219 there is a node on the other end of the directed edge (which represented by the word “in”), the search
 220 mission succeeded, and the listener can give the lexical representation of that node to the speaker. If
 221 not, the listener can reply “I don’t know” or “I don’t have a clue” to the speaker, to let him or her
 222 know that the search mission failed.

223 5 Conclusion

224 We demonstrate the feasibility of the database-based method for NLG and NLU tasks, which takes
 225 information encoded in natural language as the object of study. So, what exactly are we study
 226 about natural language? As we have learned in neuroscience, humans receive information through
 227 neural pathways such as eyes, ears, mouth, nose, etc., and then send this received information to
 228 the brain for hierarchical processing and storage. Although we cannot explore how this information
 229 is processed and stored in human brains, but a small proportion of this information is encoded as
 230 natural language for external output. Thus, by studying natural language, we can investigate the
 231 mechanisms by which information is stored and processed in the human brain.

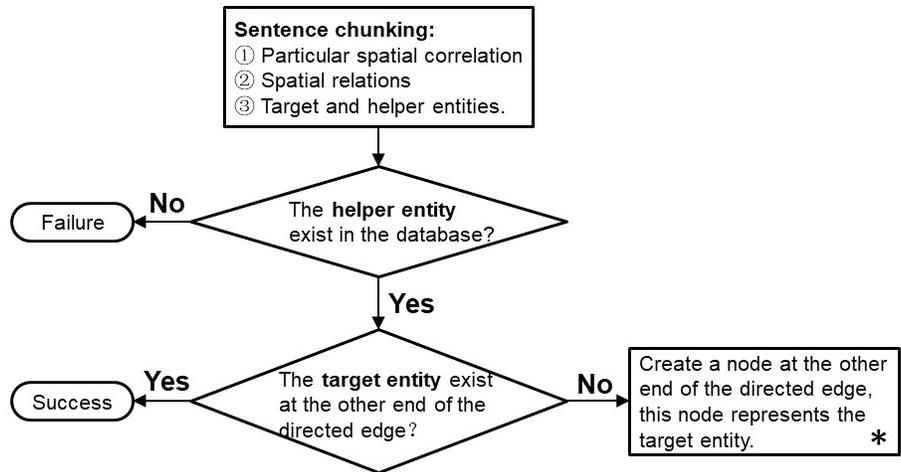


Figure 10: Understanding flowchart of data description sentences.

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