

Multilingual dictionary construction and services case study with the Fe* projects

Mathieu Lafourcade

GETA - CLIPS - IMAG Campus
B.P. 53 — 38040 Grenoble cedex 9
Tél. : 04.76.51.43.80 - Fax : 04.76.51.44.05
email: Mathieu.Lafourcade@imag.fr

UTMK-USM
11800 Penang - Malaysia
email: lafourca@cs.usm.my

(submission to PACLING'97 - September 2/5 1997 - Meisei University - Ohme, Tokyo, Japan)

Summary

This paper focuses on the building methodology for multilingual dictionaries and electronic distribution issues. Two projects of French-English-Malay and French-English-Thai dictionaries are presented and analyzed under these aspects. We describe how lexicographer works can be done with a low technological profile and how distribution can be made through different categories of dictionary services and tools. We make the distinction between dedicated dictionary tools and generic approaches, but we also point out the implication of local versus remote databases on both the technical level and user experience.

Keywords

multilingual dictionaries, dictionary construction, dictionary services, tools and servers

Introduction

Two multilingual dictionary construction projects — containing respectively French-English-Malay (FeM project, achieved) and French-English-Thai (FeT project, in progress) — are the occasion to present and analyze (1) the methodology of their construction and (2) possible strategies for their electronic distribution. This task is undertaken beside the aspects concerning the printed format production and distribution. The printed FeM dictionary has been officially launched in July 1997 in Kuala Lumpur [2].

In both projects, we are targeting two kinds of dictionaries. The first one is a general dictionary of about 20.000 entries (around 50.000 word senses), containing information about the pronunciation, the word category, the gender, some meaning refinement, some phrases and locutions (more than 11.000) and some sentence examples (more than 3.000). Novice learners (Malay, Thai and even French) should be able to use these dictionaries with ease and profit. The second type of dictionary [4] is a lexicon in computer science terminology (also trilingual). It contains roughly 5.000 entries in each language, with category and pronunciation but without examples, nor locutions.

This paper first presents the methodology we adopted for the construction of these dictionaries. As (1) dictionary building is a complex collaborative project and (2) computer resources were scarce, we have deliberately taken a low technical level approach by not using specialized tools. On the other side, for the electronic distribution, we investigated (quite) high technical solutions. For this second project phase, we present different kinds of dictionary services we developed to make lexical resources accessible and exploitable to end-users.

1. Multilingual dictionary construction

a. English Centered Multilingual Fork dictionaries

The inclusion of English equivalents, as a second source language, among the source language (French in our case) and the other target languages (Malay, Thai, etc.), is crucial for lexicographers and linguists. It reduces the level of ambiguity or error risks when looking for and producing equivalent translations in target languages. Moreover, it is often quite difficult to find lexicographers having a very deep knowledge of French in countries which have not been during their history especially exposed to French (contrary to Vietnam, for instance). The presence of English translation is thus a worthy mine of information.

A fork dictionary associates to each work meaning (also called « word acceptance ») of the source language, one or several meanings in the target language. It is the usual structure of bilingual dictionary, but it is in our case extended for several target languages.

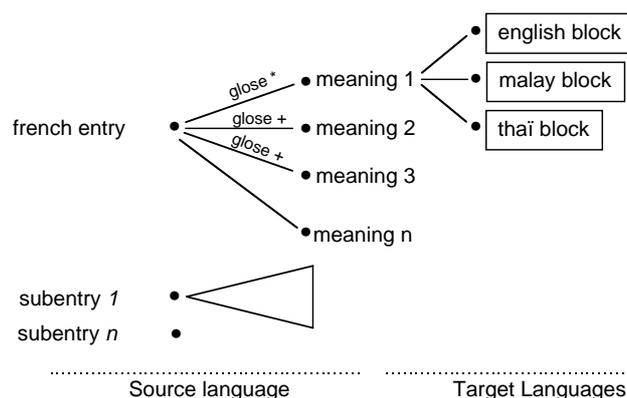


Figure 1. Fork multilingual dictionary structure. The first meaning is the more general and may not be linked to one or several glosses. Other meaning correspond to glosses, labels or different categories.

As a general schema, a French entry (the source language) is divided into several meanings by the help of glosses, labels or categories. A given entry can contain subentries (generally pronominal verbs). For a given meaning, several equivalents for each target languages and optionally some sentence examples. or locutions. In annex (figure 3), we give a sample for a French-English-Malay-Thai dictionary, with the type of each field.

For each target language, equivalents are grouped into independent blocks. We consider for each French meaning, an equivalent block for English, Malay and Thai. Each of these blocks, can refine their meaning by the use of glosses or labels in target languages. Target languages glosses are to be opposed to source language glosses which fork meaning for target languages. Target language glosses do not interfere among each other. Thus, by keeping blocks independent, we can read the dictionary from the source language to one target language (by filtering out alternative target languages).

b. Word meanings and glosses

When there are several acceptations for one French word, we tend to associate one entry to one acceptation. In fact, it is basically a lexicographer choice to split (or not) a given word into several entries if more than one meanings are recognized. Inside one given acceptation, we use glosses for refinement in the source language and in target languages.

In case of contrastive phenomena, a gloss allows one to differentiate the meaning in the target language. For example, there are three possible equivalents for « rice » in Malay : *padi* (the rice still in the field), *beras* (not husked rice) et *nasi* (cooked rice). There is only one word in French, *abats* which groups the English meanings of *offal* and *giblets*.

Labels do not directly participate to meaning refinement, but instead indicate some usage context (*asagric.* for agriculture) — or added information (as *abrév.* for abbreviation or as *vx.* for old). Labels take their values into a finite set, contrary to glosses which are open.

c. Construction methodology

A large amount of the French-English-Malay data has been created by crossing of French-English and English-Malay lexical resources. This rough material has then been corrected, completed and refined. Many word meanings have been revised, especially for many subentries which have been promoted as entries. For example, « kilométrage » (mileage) was a subentry of « kilomètre » (kilometer). We mainly kept pronominal verbs as subentries of the their non pronominal form.

Lexicographers used standard word processors (as Microsoft Word™) to complete dictionary entries. For each field type, we associate a unique typographic style. This allows us both to ease the lexicographer work and to make possible the data conversion between various formats without losing the entry structure. Also worth noting, the use of typographic attributes reduces risks of logical type confusion compared to a labeled plain text approaches.

In the case of the FeT project, Thai equivalent blocks are added next to Malay equivalent blocks. Moreover, for each Thai equivalent, we add a phonetic transcription readable for French speakers). Such transcriptions exist, but not one seems to be (1) either complete (2) nor adapted to our needs (3) nor easily readable. We are currently specifying such a transcription that will be readable for a French reader. It must also include word separators, as Thai writing does not provide for something equivalent to space character. In the working files, we will keep Malay in parallel with Thai, which is often useful for coherence checking. In the printed version, Malay will not be included, nor English, but both will still be accessible in computer versions.

During the building phase of the dictionary, we use a transcription free of all special characters and no special formatting. This allows us to freely exchange data between various systems and codings (MacOS, Windows and UNIX) through networks. For instance, the French word « dictionnaire » (dictionary) will be transcribed “^phot_ja-na=^nou-krom”. This transcription is readable for French speakers and relatively faithful to Thai pronunciation (it includes tones). We are also currently designing other non ambiguous transcriptions more adapted to English speakers (and others) and tools for automatic conversion among various transcriptions.

The primary work is done on styled Microsoft Word™ files where each logical elements (entry, basic pronunciation and variants, category, label, gloss, locutions, sentence examples, and their respective Thai equivalents, ...) is associated to one logical paragraph style. File structure is nearly identical to the one used in the FeM project.

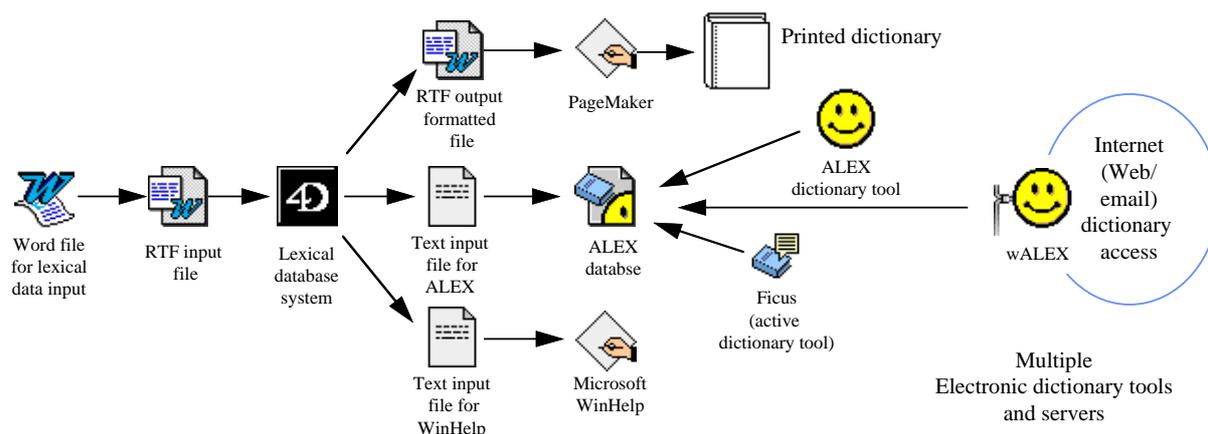


Figure 2. Major processing stages in the Fe* dictionary production.

Saved as RTF (Rich Text Format), the working files are imported in a database system (Fourth Dimension), where some checking and counting can be easily undertaken. This project phase is done and controlled by computer scientists (such a task would not likely be taken over by lexicographers). From the database various output formats can be produced. For instance:

- a Microsoft Word™ source, dully formatted and compacted which feeds a PageMaker™ document for the printed version production (with a professional page layout);
- a Microsoft Help™ source, allowing us to produce a (very basic) electronic version of the dictionary on Windows. This dictionary can be viewed with the Microsoft Help Viewer™;
- an ALEX source allowing us to obtain an advanced electronic version of the dictionary on MacOS. This tool (see thereafter) allows the user to filter out information, to sort and count them, ...). The same ALEX database can be used for making the dictionary available through the Internet (either by the Web or by e-mail).

During this project, several observations have been made. First, lexicographers prefer to work with standard software packages widely available like word processors more than Databases. Basic operations (like cutting, pasting, printing, word counting, ...) seem more versatile in word processors than database engines. Also, word processors offer a high visibility of entry contexts. With or without reasons, database systems do not constitute the privileged tool of linguists. Secondly, for technical, management and relational reasons, version management packages are generally not suited to large lexicographic projects. One person should be clearly identified as the repository of the reference state of the development of dictionaries.

d. Construction costs

The global investment for the building of the FeM dictionary was of 9 man-year (108 man-month). The working experience and the data issued from this project is a good starting point for the FeT project.

The estimated work for the building of the FeT dictionary is of 2 man-years for the production of Thai equivalents. But we should not forget other task such as: (1) the production of the Thai phonetic information by automatic transcription, (2) the checking processes, (3) the lexical database production, (4) the production of the various output formats (Microsoft Word™, PageMaker™, Microsoft Help™ and ALEX), and (5) the production of the final version (printed and CD-ROM). All these tasks are estimated to one man-year. This delay can be kept relatively short thanks to the tools and procedures developed during the FeM project.

2. Electronic Dictionary Services

Services offered by computer dictionaries go well beyond what is usually expected: more or less extended cut and paste possibilities, very beneficial logical size; (entry number) vs. physical size (file size) ratio, etc. In effect, it is possible and desirable to offer services one cannot find close equivalents for unless electronically. We can already mention some of such possibilities: (1) colors and graphics, (2) hypertext links, (3) multimedia information, (4) very large amounts of information, (5) personal filtering, formatting and adaptation to user needs and desires.

a. Data formatting for end users and autonomous agent

We can consider all dictionary information which is not directly linked to either the source language or the target languages: categories, cross references, glosses, labels, etc. This is what is usually called the « dictionary metalanguage ».

It is possible to design dictionary tools and data where these information is in the native language of the reader (whatever this language could be). We can thus have a French-English dictionary with glosses in English, or a Japanese-French dictionary with a French metalanguage. In a more general way, the user can configure the dictionary tool so that that it will output the metalanguage into the language he desires irrespective of the source or target languages. To this respect, the user should be able to change these settings in a working session midcourse and to have access simultaneously to several views of the same data.

We can also consider, for a monolingual dictionary (definition dictionary), the possibility to have the definition in the language of the reader irrespective of the dictionary source language (for example, French definitions of Japanese words).

All that we considered above is related to end user experiences. But we are also investigating how to make our data available to complex NLP tasks (such as Machine Translation). We are currently evaluating some DBMT (Dialog Based MT) software architectures where autonomous agents are in charge for retrieving lexical knowledge among various remote large scale lexical databases.

For such autonomous agents, explicit labeled formats are definitely more appropriate. Such formats are more verbose than what can be produced either for printed dictionary or to end users, but it is not ambiguous and easily parsable. In that case size restriction (which is the main constraint for printed dictionary editors) is not a primary concern.

b. Dedicated dictionary reader with local and remote database.

It is possible to distribute lexical data under a compact and protected (by encryption) format and to make them exploitable by a « reader » (in the same spirit of Portable Digital Documents (PDF) and associated readers distributed by Adobe). From this point, we can consider two research and development directions.

First, data are available locally (on the end-user computer) and a dictionary tool (the reader) allows one to navigate among dictionary entries. The user can open several dictionaries, create and modify personal dictionaries, copy and paste (formatted) data in other applications, etc. We actually developed such a tool — ALEX. The ALEX format dictionary may be encrypted, making the reverse engineering of distributed dictionaries a difficult job.

Secondly, it is also possible to consider a dictionary tool which remotely fetches data on remote bases. The user has only the dictionary tool (and not the bases) to install on his computer. It is possible to have access to a virtually unlimited number of dictionaries without cobbling the computer resources. Dictionary updates become transparent to the user. We also developed such a tool, as a new version of ALEX (“ALEX remote”). Experience shows that, the functionality number and complexity should be kept reduced compared to locally based dictionary tools. This is practically due to bandwidth and server response time which has nothing to be compared with local computation.

We consider this second solution more adapted to autonomous agents dealing with no real time tasks (such a updates of local lexical database or merging of lexical information issued from multiple sources — as general dictionaries, specialized terminology banks, etc.).

c. Generic dictionary readers: Web access and e-mail

The FeM dictionary is available through the Web. The main advantage compared to a local dictionary tool, is the use of a Web browser (as Internet Explorer™ or Netscape Navigator™ for instance) as a generic application widely available. Request results are generated by the dictionary server and are not pre-computed. The form presented to the user through the Web browser interface can offer (or hide) several parameters allowing one to control the formatting, the range of information detail, information level, the languages (interface, metalanguage, sources, targets), the number and nature of dictionaries looked upon, and so on.

One striking feature of the Web is not only the ease of use, but also the reduced time of development needed to achieve query interfaces. The investment in time and effort (at least for rapid prototyping) is tremendously reduced comparatively to classical database systems. Moreover, this solution is reasonably portable among OSes — which is a very crucial aspect for research laboratories.

Web approach seems to be well accepted by end users but (1) people having access to the Internet, while increasing, do still represent a privileged minority. There is many more people having only email access ; (2) we desire also to make our dictionaries accessible and exploitable to unsupervised computer tasks (or to use a more hyped term, to « autonomous agents »). For example, email access to large scale lexical resources allows the regular batch updating of smaller linguistic local bases. Such an approach, although asynchronous, offers numerous advantages among which robustness. An email based request allows to specify with

a very fine granularity what is looked for — but generally it goes well beyond what an end user would accept to do.

d. Passive and active dictionary tools

Approaches presented above, means that the user has to « go and fetch » the data. In effect, he has to activate the dictionary tool and key in the word to look up (at least). These tools are passive. Active tools initiate by themselves the lookup upon the monitoring of the user activity. For example, such a tool (as the « FICUS » prototype we implemented) will scrutinize selected words on the current application (cf. figure 8) and make the lookup. If the word candidate is found in the open dictionaries, the corresponding information is formatted and proposed to the user in a no intrusive way. The user is then free to consider this information and to manipulate it. As the user is not solicited, this kind of approach leaves the user free to concentrate on his work. This last aspect is crucial for usability.

From a technical point of view, a preprocessing (such a lemmatization, or morphological analysis) is needed before the lookup. Furthermore, the potential ambiguity (several lemmas issued from the word candidate) should be handled. For instance, in French « avoir » (to have) et « avion » (plane) pour « avions » (we had/planes). In English, we can find the noun « book » and the verb « to book » from « books ».

e. Unique engine and common database

ALEX is a simple dictionary tool with a « plug in » mechanism allowing one to convert it as a Web/Email dictionary server. ALEX is used as a dictionary engine, which retrieves information associated to a given entry and formats it. The multiple format architecture is extensible. Thus for each dictionary it is possible to dynamically manage several types of representation.

Conclusion

It is valuable to produce multilingual dictionaries and to be able to successfully distribute them. We consider that a low technical level approach for the building of multilingual dictionaries can be a main success factor. The systematic inclusion of English equivalents is made necessary for their building and for the sake of their quality. Production methodology should integrate computer tools mastered by lexicographers, which are essentially word processors. It is thus possible to have a precise management of project which does not disrupt lexicographer work. Whatever, the approach taken, a dictionary project cannot be considered as a small and easy task.

Beside the printed distribution, we have presented in this paper several dictionary services. Contrary to the construction task, dictionary services can be highly technical (but should remain simple to use). The typology of such services can be divided among the following criteria: local or remote database dictionary, dedicated or specific dictionary reader and tools, passive or active dictionary tools.

We hope that this work will inspire new dictionary projects and make flourish such services and tools, both usable for autonomous agents and end users.

References

- [1] Gaschler, J. and M. Lafourcade (1994) *Manipulating human-oriented dictionaries with very simple tools*. Proc. COLING-94, August 5-9 1994, Makoto Nagao & ICCL, vol. 1/2, pp 283-286.
- [2] Gut Y (1996)., R. Puteri, Z. Yusoff, C. K. Choy, S. A. Samat, Ch. Boitet, N. Nedeau, M. Lafourcade, J. Gaschler, D. Levenbach (1996) *Kamus Perancis Melayu Dewan - dictionnaire français-malais*. Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka, Kuala Lumpur, 667 p
- [3] Lafourcade, M. and G. Sérasset (1993) *DOP (Dictionary Object Protocol)*. GETA-IMAG, Grenoble, Common Lisp Object System (MCL - CLOS), Apple Macintosh, version 2.0.
- [4] Unit Terjemahan Melalui Komputer (1996) *Lexique de terminologie informatique français-anglais-malais*. 166 p.

Annexes — Figures

<p>abandonner /ABAN-DONE-/ v.tr. (laisser) to leave meninggalkan É ŌY É</p> <p><i>cette mère a abandonné ses enfants</i> this mother left her children ibu ini telah meninggalkan anak-anaknya · j š ʒaŌY É YÉcŌŋi Ō</p> <p>(désert) (milit.) to desert meninggalkan tugas À ' Á</p> <p>(renoncer à) to give up to abandon melepaskan membiarkan -° † ° â† ° - É</p> <p><i>il a abandonné son projet</i> he had gave up his project dia telah membiarkan proyeknya †c°Wâ†† °, S B°° cŌŋ†c°</p> <p>(céder) to give in to mengalah menyerah -Ōj</p> <p>s'abandonner /SABAN-DONE-/ v.pr. s'abandonner à to give oneself up to menyerah kpd -Ōj, ÅA- -Ōj -</p> <p><i>elle s'est abandonnée au désespoir</i> she has given up to despair dia telah menyerah kpd kekecewaan † Ō-Ōj -S°°i °YÅ°B-</p>	<p>entrée prononciation catégorie (verbe transitif) • glose (1er sens) équivalent anglais équivalent malais équivalent thaï équivalent thaï</p> <p>phrase exemple française phrase exemple traduction anglaise phrase exemple traduction malaise phrase exemple traduction thaï</p> <p>• glose (2eme sens) étiquette équivalent anglais équivalent malais équivalent thaï</p> <p>• glose (3eme sens) équivalent anglais équivalent anglais équivalent malais équivalent malais équivalent thaï équivalent thaï équivalent thaï</p> <p>phrase exemple française phrase exemple traduction anglaise phrase exemple traduction malaise phrase exemple traduction thaï</p> <p>• glose (4eme sens) équivalent anglais équivalent malais équivalent malais équivalent thaï</p> <p>• sous-entrée (forme pronominale) prononciation catégorie locution locution équivalente en anglais locution équivalente en malais locution équivalente en thaï locution équivalente en thaï phrase exemple française phrase exemple traduction anglaise phrase exemple traduction malaise phrase exemple traduction thaï</p>
--	--

Figure 3. Entry sample of the French-English-Malay-Thai dictionary.

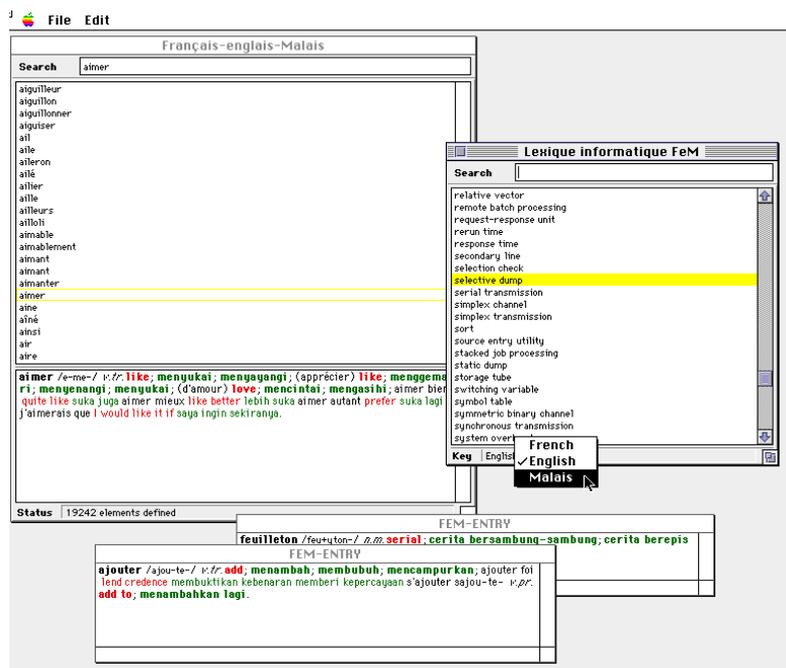


Figure 4. User interface of the ALEX dictionary tool. The user can look for a word and navigate through the entry list. Data cannot be modified for distributed dictionaries, but only copied as a formatted text. One can filter out some fields.

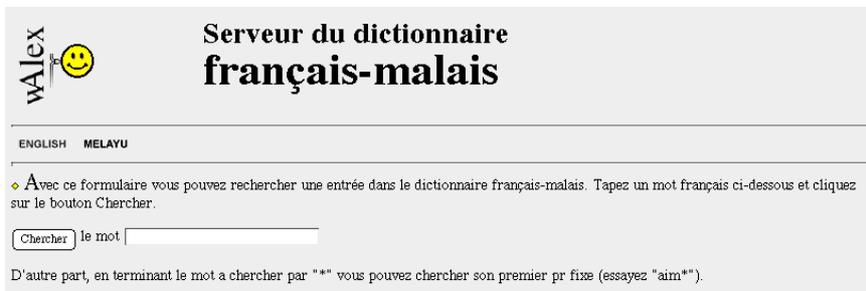


Figure 5. A specific Web form for the French-English-Malay dictionary (with French interface)

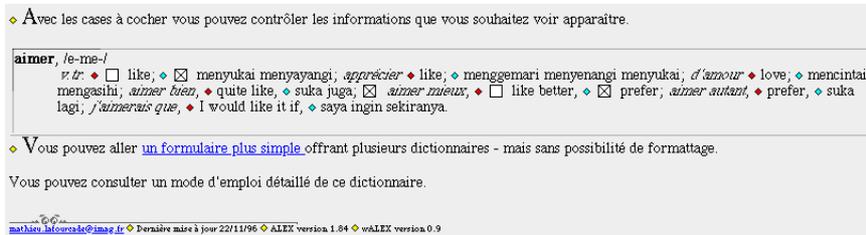


Figure 6. The user can select the kind of information he needs.

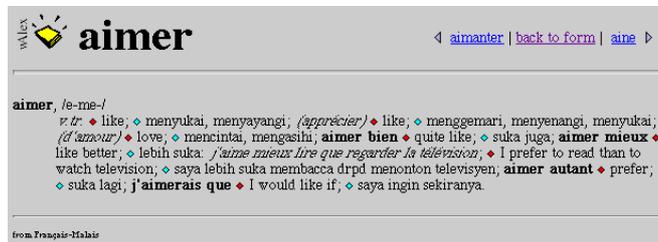


Figure 7. A Web query answer for the French word « aimer » (like, love) with English equivalents. Here, glosses are in French, but the interface is in English.

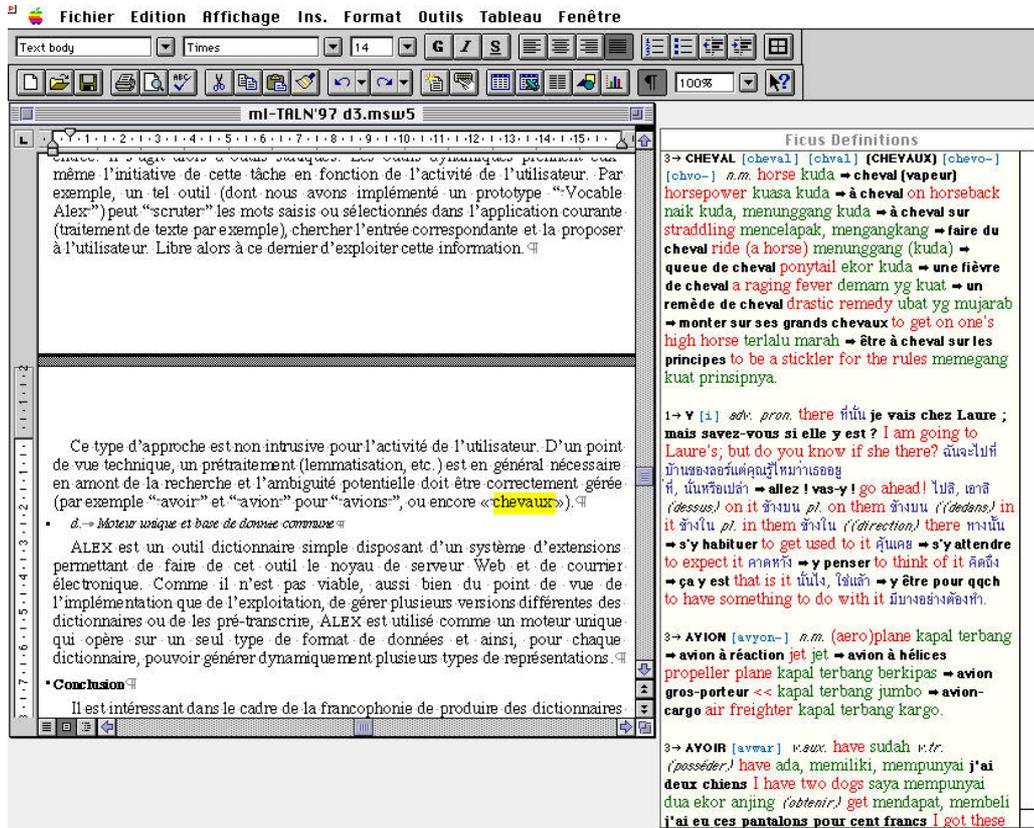


Figure 8. A Ficus window (on the right) window behind a common word processor. The user just select words and some dictionary lookup is automatically undertaken. The information found is then proposed to the user in a non intrusive way. Ficus is a generic dictionary service which can cooperate with various applications.