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GLÀFF, a Large Versatile French Lexicon

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Abstract

This paper introduces GLÀFF, a large-scale versatile French lexicon extracted from Wiktionnaire, the collaborative online dictionary. GLÀFF contains, for each entry, inflectional features and phonemic transcriptions. It distinguishes itself from the other available French lexicons by its size, its potential for constant updating and its copylefted license. We explain how we have built GLÀFF and compare it to other known resources in terms of coverage and quality of the phonemic transcriptions. We show that its size and quality are strong assets that could allow GLÀFF to become a reference lexicon for French NLP and linguistics. Moreover, other derived lexicons can easily be based on GLÀFF to satisfy specific needs of various fields such as psycholinguistics.

Keywords: Inflectional and phonological lexicon, free lexical resources, French Wiktionary

1. Introduction

This article introduces GLÀFF, a large versatile French lexicon extracted from Wiktionnaire, the French edition of Wiktionary. Wiktionnaire contains more than 2 million articles, each including definitions, pronunciations, translations and semantic relations. GLÀFF aims to make this resource available for NLP systems and linguistic research in a workable format.

Some French morphological lexicons, such as Leff (Clément et al., 2004) and Morphalou (Romary et al., 2004), are freely available. These resources contain inflected forms, lemmas and morphosyntactic tags. They do not include, however, phonemic transcriptions that are necessary in phonology and in the design of tools such as phonetizers. Lexique (New, 2006), another free lexicon, contains phonemic transcriptions but has a restricted coverage. While this lexicon is popular in psycholinguistics, its sparsity in terms of inflected forms prevents its use in NLP. Resources that have both exploitable coverage and phonemic transcriptions, such as BDLex (Péremou and de Calmes, 1987), II.Pho (Boula De Mareuil et al., 2000) or GlobalPhone (Schultz et al., 2013) are not free. Besides the cost, derivative works cannot be redistributed, which constitutes an impediment for collaborative research.

As of today, no French lexicon meets all following requirements: free license, wide coverage, and phonemic transcriptions. Wiktionnaire may be a candidate resource for the creation of such a lexicon. Wiktionnaire was first used for NLP by Zesch et al. (2008) to compute semantic relatedness. Its potential as an electronic lexicon was first studied for NLP by Navarro et al. (2009). Other works tackled data extraction from other language editions. Anton Pérez et al. (2011) describe the integration of the Portuguese Wiktionary and Onto.PT (Gonçalo Oliveira and Gomes, 2010). Séraasset (2012) built Dbnary, a multilingual network containing “easily extractable” entries. For French, the resulting graph includes 260,467 nodes. OntoWiktionary (Meyer and Gurevych, 2012), an ontology based on Wiktionary, and UBY (Gurevych et al., 2012), an alignment of 7 resources including WordNet, Germanet and Wiktionary, constitute the most complete resources based on Wiktionary. A detailed characterization of the English and French editions of Wiktionary is given in Sajous et al., 2010; Sajous et al., 2013b). These papers also present the extraction process of WiktionaryX, an XML-structured lexicon containing definitions, semantic relations and translations. GLÀFF is a new step focusing on the extraction of inflected forms and phonemic transcriptions that were absent from the previous resource.

Wiktionary’s language editions are released as “XML dumps”, where only the macrostructure is marked by XML tags. The microstructure is encoded in a format called wi-kicode, whose syntax is not formally defined, evolves over time, and is not stable from one language edition to another. Due to this underspecified syntax, a parser has to expect multiple deviations from the “prototypical article” and must handle missing information, redundancy and inconsistency. For example, the gender or pronunciation may be missing in an inflected form’s article, but occur in the one dedicated to its lemma. Sometimes, contradictory information may occur in both articles. To build GLÀFF, we designed an extractor that collects the maximum amount of information from Wiktionary’s articles (lemmas, inflected forms and conjugation tables) and applies a set of rules to output a structured and (as much as possible) consistent inflectional and phonological lexicon.

2. Resource description

GLÀFF contains more than 1.4 million entries including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and function words. As illustrated in Figure 1, each entry contains a wordform, a tag in GRACE format (Rajman et al., 1997), a lemma and an IPA transcription, when present in Wiktionnaire. Entries also contain word frequencies computed over different corpora. Sajous et al. (2013a) give a first description of GLÀFF. We characterize GLÀFF below in terms of coverage (section 2.1.), and phonemic transcriptions (section 2.2.). In section 2.3., we present newly added features.

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1GLÀFF is freely available at http://redac.univ-tlse2.fr/lexicons/glaff_en.html

2WiktionaryX is freely available at: http://redac.univ-tlse2.fr/lexicons/wiktionaryx_en.html
2.1. Coverage

GLAFF differs from the lexicons currently used in NLP and psycholinguistics by its exceptional size. Table 1 shows the number of lemmas and inflected forms, simple (letters only) and non-simple (containing spaces, dashes or digits). GLAFF contains 3 to 4 times more tokens and 3 to 9 times more forms. This size is an important asset when the lexicon is used for research in derivational or inflectional morphology. It is also an advantage for the development of NLP tools as morphosyntactic taggers and parsers. The table also shows that GLAFF contains numerous multi-word expressions (MWE) that can improve text segmentation and subsequent processing.

The following comparisons only concern nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. They were carried out on simple inflected forms and lemmas in order to ignore differences in the treatment of MWEs and corpora segmentation. MWEs (i.e. the 24 270 non simple forms –resp. 13 466 non simple lemmas–) have been discarded from the version of GLAFF presented in this paper and will be added in a future version.

We first study the intersection of GLAFF and other lexicons. We observe in Table 2 that the size of the intersections directly depends on that of the lexicons: the bigger a lexicon, the larger its intersection with the other ones. The five lexicons fall into three groups. BDLex, Lefff and Morphalou have a quite close coverage. Lexique has the smallest coverage up to the 100 threshold. GLAFF has the largest coverage for all corpora, except for LM10 at the 1000 threshold where it is surpassed by Lefff by 0.2%.

The second corpus, containing 260 million word, consists of articles from the French Wikipedia. Finally, FrWaC (Baroni et al., 2009) is a 1.6 billion word corpus of French web pages (spidered from the .fr domain).

Table 3 shows the coverage of the five lexicons with respect to the three corpora. The vocabulary is restricted to the forms of frequency greater than or equal to 1, 2, 5, 10, 100 and 1000. The ranking of the corpora by coverage is the same for the five lexicons. Although their size affects the order, their nature is also crucial. For example, FrWaC being a collection of web pages, it contains a large number of “noisy” forms (foreign words, missing or extra spaces, missing diacritics, random spelling, etc.). Again, we see the division of lexicons into three groups. BDLex, Lefff and Morphalou have a quite close coverage. Lexique has the smallest coverage up to the 100 threshold. GLAFF has the largest coverage for all corpora, except for LM10 at the 1000 threshold where it is surpassed by Lefff by 0.2%. For the other corpora and up to the 100 threshold, the size of GLAFF explains its larger coverage with respect to the other lexicons (at the threshold 1, 14% to 53% larger for LM10 and 15% to 47% for FrWaC). NLP tools that integrate GLAFF should therefore offer an improved performance in the treatment of these corpora.

Figure 1 compares the lexicons’ coverage from another perspective: for each lexicon, it represents the number of forms having a corpus frequency within a given interval. We still see the division of lexicons into three groups. BDLex, Lefff and Morphalou have a quite close coverage. Lexique has the smallest coverage up to the 100 threshold. GLAFF has the largest coverage for all corpora, except for LM10 at the 1000 threshold where it is surpassed by Lefff by 0.2%.

Table 2: Coverage w.r.t. the other lexicons (% of categorized inflected forms).
Table 3: Lexicon/corpus coverage (% of non-categorized inflected forms).

| Threshold: frequency ≥ | 1 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 100 | 1000 |
|------------------------|---|---|---|----|-----|------|
| # forms                | 300,606 | 172,036 | 106,470 | 77,936 | 29,388 | 7,838 |
| Lexique                | 29.59 | 47.28 | 65.23 | 76.31 | 93.81 | 98.58 |
| BDLex                  | 37.77 | 55.79 | 71.76 | 80.93 | 95.53 | 98.69 |
| Lefff                   | 39.64 | 58.22 | 74.33 | 83.20 | 95.99 | 98.90 |
| Morphalou              | 39.06 | 56.82 | 71.92 | 80.32 | 93.27 | 97.48 |
| GLÀFF                  | 45.24 | 63.83 | 78.63 | 86.23 | 96.46 | 98.68 |

| # forms                | 953,920 | 435,031 | 216,210 | 136,531 | 35,621 | 7,956 |
| Lexique                | 9.13 | 18.27 | 31.52 | 43.03 | 78.58 | 95.72 |
| BDLex                  | 12.29 | 22.89 | 36.80 | 48.04 | 79.39 | 95.33 |
| Lefff                   | 12.88 | 23.94 | 38.26 | 49.65 | 80.57 | 95.71 |
| Morphalou              | 13.05 | 23.96 | 37.87 | 48.87 | 78.74 | 94.16 |
| GLÀFF                  | 16.42 | 29.00 | 44.13 | 55.45 | 83.21 | 96.10 |

| # forms                | 1,624,620 | 846,019 | 410,382 | 255,718 | 74,745 | 22,100 |
| Lexique                | 5.83 | 10.85 | 20.84 | 30.81 | 66.00 | 89.47 |
| BDLex                  | 9.36 | 15.85 | 27.28 | 37.48 | 69.61 | 90.03 |
| Lefff                   | 9.85 | 16.67 | 28.57 | 39.16 | 71.61 | 91.16 |
| Morphalou              | 10.09 | 16.89 | 28.53 | 38.68 | 69.36 | 88.51 |
| GLÀFF                  | 13.13 | 21.13 | 34.29 | 45.35 | 76.39 | 92.76 |

Table 4: Attestation of the lexicons’ specific vocabulary in the corpora.
Table 5: The 10 most frequent differences in transcription.
Operations: r = replacement; i = insertion; d = deletion.

| Oper. | Phonemes | % | ∑ % | Oper. | Phonemes | % | ∑ % | Oper. | Phonemes | % | ∑ % |
|-------|----------|---|-----|-------|----------|---|-----|-------|----------|---|-----|
| r     | /e/     | 48.18 | 48.18 | i     | /a/     | 60.03 | 60.03 | r     | /e/     | 6.90  | 81.11 |
| r     | /o/     | 32.17 | 80.36 | r     | /e/     | 4.98  | 86.09 | i     | /a/     | 14.18 | 74.21 |
| r     | /o/     | 11.02 | 91.37 | r     | /o/     | 4.92  | 91.01 | r     | /a/     | 1.25  | 92.26 |
| r     | /q/     | 1.83  | 93.21 | r     | /z/     | 0.91  | 93.17 | i     | /u/     | 0.42  | 94.06 |
| r     | /u/     | 0.84  | 96.87 | r     | /s/     | 0.38  | 94.44 | r     | /o/     | 0.38  | 94.44 |
| r     | /p/     | 0.73  | 97.61 | r     | /a/     | 0.38  | 94.44 | r     | /w/     | 0.79  | 96.38 |
| r     | /z/     | 0.51  | 98.12 |  |        |       |      |  |        |       |      |
| r     | /j/     | 0.25  | 98.37 |  |        |       |      |  |        |       |      |

(d) Examples of inter-lexicons differences of phonemic transcription.

Réel [Martinet and Walter, 1973], or DPF. This dictionary stems from a study of French pronunciation carried out in 1968–1973 involving 17 French speakers in order to test differences in production for individual words.

The differences in transcriptions between GLÅFF and the other two lexicons are comparable to the differences observed between BDLex and Lexique. In particular, these differences are mostly due to the distinctions between the mid vowels, i.e. the front-mid vowels: [e] (close-mid) vs. [r] (open-mid) and the back-mid vowels: [o] (close-mid) vs. [ɔ] (open-mid). This alternation is a well known aspect of French phonology resulting from diatopic variations (North vs. South), as described in [Detey et al., 2010]. Such expected oppositions accounts for about 91% of the divergences between BDLex and Lexique.

Table 6 reports the percentage of identical phonological transcriptions shared by the lexicons and the percentage of the ‘comparable’ phonological transcriptions, i.e. disregarding the distinction between close-mid and open-mid vowels. GLÅFF and Lexique give identical transcriptions for 79.5% of entries whereas the percentage between GLÅFF and BDLex is lower, at 61.7%. Table 6 also reports the results of the comparison of syllabification in the three lexicons (performed on the basis of identical transcriptions only). This comparison shows that the three lexicons are quite similar with respect to syllabification (98%).

A crowdsourced resource like Wiktionary may reveal some amateurs. However, crowdsourcing is interesting from a linguistic point of view because it reflects the language perception of speakers rather than of linguists. For example, word-medial consonant clusters like /s/ + C are treated in GLÅFF sometimes as heterosyllabic clusters, as in minis-tère /mi.nis.tru/ ‘ministry’, with the /s/ and the following consonant assigned to distinct syllables (corresponding to the canonical analysis in French phonological tradition), and sometimes as tautosyllabic clusters, as in monis-tique /mɔ.ni.stik/ ‘monistic’. Such examples can reveal areas of non-deterministic variation that standard lexicographic
2.3. Additional features

Version 1.2 of GLÁFF comes with form and lemma frequencies (absolute and relative) computed over different corpora including LM10 and FrWaC (cf. Figure 3). Another novelty is the possibility of browsing GLÁFF online thanks to the GLÁFF OnLine Interface (GLÁFFOLI) as illustrated in Figure 3. This interface enables any user to build a multicriteria query. Request fields may include wordform, lemma, part of speech and/or pronunciation written in IPA or SAMPA. These fields are matched against GLÁFF entries through regular expressions or operators such as is, contains, starts with, ends with, etc. depending on the user’s choice. Display is customizable and, when corpora frequencies are visible, the wordforms attested in FrWaC are linked to the NoSketchEngine (Rychlý, 2007) concordancer.

3. Conclusion

We presented a new French lexicon built automatically from Wiktionary. This lexicon is remarkable for its size. It provides morphosyntactic descriptions for 1.4 million entries and phonemic transcriptions for 1.3 million of them. Despite its very large size, the overall quality of GLÁFF is very good as shown by various comparisons with similar resources including Lexique, Lefff and BDLex.

Among the directions for future research, we plan an evaluation of the contribution of GLÁFF to syntactic parsing using the Talismane parser (Urieli, 2013). In the near future, we also plan to unify GLÁFF and WiktionaryX to give access to definitions and semantic relations in addition to inflectional and phonological information. Such a resource will be useful for NLP but also for linguistic descriptions. More generally, multiple specific lexicons may be derived from GLÁFF, depending on the needs. For example, we illustrated in (Calderone et al., 2014) how we have built a psycholinguistics-oriented lexicon from GLÁFF by adding an extended set of features that are used to set up experimental material in this field.

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