Introduction

Dilemma is intended to enhance quality and increase productivity of expert human translators by presenting to the writer relevant lexical information mechanically extracted from comparable existing translations, thus replacing - or compensating for the absence of - a lexicographer and stand-by terminologist rather than the translator. Using statistics and crude surface analysis and a minimum of prior information, Dilemma identifies instances and suggests their counterparts in parallel source and target texts, on all levels down to individual words.

Dilemma forms part of a tool kit for translation where focus is on text structure and over-all consistency in large text volumes rather than on framing sentences, on interaction between many actors in a large project rather than on retrieval of machine-stored data and on decision making rather than on application of given rules.

In particular, the system has been tuned to the needs of the ongoing translation of European Community legislation into the languages of candidate member countries. The system has been demonstrated to and used by professional translators with promising results.

Instant Lexicographer

The design of translation aids beyond ordinary text processing and database access and maintenance tools is mostly based on the same simplified view which - for compelling reasons - has been the working hypothesis of machine translation: that the source text has a well-determined meaning and that there exists in the target language at least one correct and adequate way of expressing that meaning.

When these assumptions are reasonably well justified, translation is relatively easy, fast and cheap with traditional methods and mechanization not rarely feasible with methods now known or envisaged. Typically, however, the translator must do more than retrieve and operate on pre-established and in principle pre-storable correspondences. Thus, lexical correspondences do not exist for all items; it is an essential part of translation to establish them. Legal texts, factual and stereotype though they may seem, regularly represent thoughts, attitudes and arguments which do not have any counterparts in the target language prior to translation. This is particularly true in the huge project to translate the European Community legislation into the languages of countries which are not yet members of the Community and which currently have a partly different legal conceptual framework.

What human translators need is decision support. The most important tools are telephones, electronic conferencing systems and good and relevant dictionaries. Unfortunately, there are not always at every point of time knowledgeable and cooperative colleagues or other experts to call, electronic networks are only recently being established in some domains, and the intelligent and comprehensive dictionaries, which can serve as a writer's digest to the cumulative literature in a field are few and far between. Answers are often to be found in a text translated late at night the day before - or in the preceding sections of the text at hand. Rather than an automated writer, we need an instant lexicographer.

Recycling Translations

In practice, existing translations are being used as a major source (Sägvall Hein et al., 1990; Merkel 1993). Often in the hope to be able to avoid duplication of costs - or of getting paid twice for the same effort - by finding identical or near-identical texts or passages, but, more importantly, to ensure consistency or getting good suggestions, to follow or argue against. Synonymy variation for the same concept is not appreciated in technical and legal prose and avoided as anxiously as homonymy. The ideal is 1:1 correspondences between expressions at least within one pair of documents and to eliminate "forks", i.e., one expression being translated into or being the translation of more than one counterpart in the other language (Karlgren, 1988).

We shall call a coupled pair of source and target text a bitext (Isabelle, 1992). What is said here about bitexts can be generalized to n-tuples of parallel texts, claimed to differ "only" in language. Such n-tuples exist: in the European Community, a major part of the legislation is available in 9 "authentic" versions, which in (legal and political) theory are equivalent, and according to plans the number of "authentic" will soon rise to 12 or more. Little efforts have previously been made to systematically exploit this redundancy by means of po-
tent multi-lingual procedures for retrieving facts or expressions, even when surprisingly simple methods show promise of surprisingly useful results (Dalbyqvist, 1994).

Steps in the Translation Process

Producing target language text is only a small proportion of the translation process. Empirically, good economy is achieved if about the same proportion of work is put into each of the stages Preparation, Text production and Verification, a trichotomy reminiscent of the classical person-time breakdown of software development (Brooks, 1975). The Dilemma tool is useful for some tasks in each of the three stages.

Functionality

A typical question for translators while actually writing is how a word or phrase has been used or translated in previously processed texts. Conversely, they may ask for the source languages counterparts of given target language expression, to make sure that homonymy is not introduced. Similarly, during the preparation and verification phases, a translator or editor scans through the text for words and phrases that need to be resolved or treated specially.

Text Production Phase

Navigating in Bitexts

The first service is to enable the translator to browse through the bitext and look at text elements pairwise, to check for conventions of usage that are unfamiliar or unexpected.

Pointing at a shorter or longer string in either language the user can find successively larger contexts and their counterparts or countercontext in the other language version. This service is available to the user from within a word processor, the answer presented in a separate window.

Counterwords

The second service is to assess the word-level counterparts or "counterwords" so far used for a given word. Here the system performs, crudely but instantly, the job of a terminologist or lexicographer. It uses a statistical matching process which offers the translator a list of candidate counterparts.

Verification phase

Translation Verification

In this phase a revisor reads the text to detect inadequacies and inconsistencies. Often, there is no true answer to a terminological question: either one of a few options may be equally good or per se but unintended variation is disturbing and may be misleading. Verification, therefore, is not a matter of local correctness or of compliance with a given dictionary or other norm, and reading one passage at a time will not reveal the deficiency of the translation (Karlgren, 1988).

One way of resolving or detecting dubious cases is to compare how a word or phrase has been used in a multitude of previous contexts and how it was rendered in their respective countercontexts.

Preparation phase

Text-and Domain-specific Phrase Lists

In the preparation phase the translator or editor has to establish text- and domain-specific word and phrase lists. In a batch mode, Dilemma produces draft lists on the basis of previously translated material in the same domain.

Structuring Bitexts

For bitexts to be exploitable as information sources, text constituents in the two versions must be paired on some hierarchical levels - phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph, etc. We must create a structured bitext, with links from each constituent not only to its predecessor and successor but also to its counterpart in the other language version. This cross-language structure can be rather easily captured when the translation is being typed, but we need to be able to derive the pairs from two given complete texts. Dilemma does so automatically.

We make three linguistic assumptions:
1. The two texts can be segmented into hierarchical constituents so that most constituents in one text have a counterpart in the other.
2. For all levels, except the lowest level, counterparts occur in the same mutual order.
3. The counterparts on the lowest level, "counterwords", appear approximately in the same mutual order.

We do not assume every constituent on any level to have a counterpart, nor constituents to be separated by unique delimiters. Thus, if paragraphs are separated by a blank line and sentences by a full stop followed by a space, we do not exclude that, say, a paragraph in one language is sometimes rendered as an enumeration, separated by blank lines and that "1.5" is now and then typed as "1.5". The procedure is robust in that it tolerates gaps and none too frequent deviations from the prevalent pattern.

We apply two statistical procedures, one of alignment for higher levels and one of assignment for the lowest, "phrase", level.

Alignment

The general problem of order-preserving alignment on one linguistic level reduces to the string correction problem (Wagner and Fischer, 1974). The practical solution is not trivial, however, due to the extremely large search space even for small texts. We use an algorithm with
Word Assignment

When the two texts have been aligned on higher levels, correspondences are established between counterwords, which do not necessarily appear in the same order in the two language versions. For this purpose Dilemma uses an association function which is a weighted sum of measures of agreement of word position within the phrase, relative frequency of occurrence, and, optionally, some other properties. The weighting of the parameters is set after text genre specific experimentation. Pairs of terms with a high association value are candidate counterwords (Nordström and Petterson, 1993).

The procedure is self-evaluating since uncertainty is reflected by a low maximum association value. Only items which have a score above a cut-off threshold are presented to the user. The procedure yields some 90 per cent successful assignments among those presented on the basis of as little material as a single 10 page document, but for rare words the assignment becomes less certain. In a material of 10 000 pages of legal documents related to the European Economic Space as much as 50 per cent of the word tokens were hapax legomena and 75 per cent occurred less than 5 times, providing a meagre basis for statistical analysis. These results can be improved if other properties are taken into account. When a word length was included as a parameter in the association evaluation, the results became marginally more adequate: Syntactical tagging, vide infra, is expected to affect assignment more.

Tagging

In the first release of Dilemma, alignment and assignment was performed on unmodified typographical strings but naturally the procedures were intended to be applied after monolingual preprocessing. Trivially, results become practically much more adequate and the statistical analysis more effective if, say, making and the infinitive make are subsumed under one item and the infinitive and the noun make are kept separate. Without any change of method, the procedure can be applied to strings of words tagged morphologically and syntactically. The tools chosen for this purpose are the parsers for English, French and Swedish developed at Helsinki University (Voutilainen et al, 1993).

Implementational Status

Dilemma has been implemented in C++ and runs under Microsoft Windows on a regular-size personal computer. Dilemma is currently being evaluated and tested by translators currently involved in the translation of large amounts of legal documents into Scandinavian languages in the context of the proposed accession to the European Economic Community.

References

Frederick Phillips Brooks, 1975. The mythical man-month: essays on software engineering, Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Bengt Dahlquist, 1994. TSSA 2.0 A PC Program for Text Segmentation and Sorting, Department of Linguistics, Uppsala University, Uppsala.

Gale, W.A. and K.W. Church. 1991. "Identifying Word Correspondences in Parallel Texts", in Proceedings of the 4th Speech and Natural Language Workshop, DARPA, Morgan Kaufmann.

Brian Harris, 1992. "Bitext", in Proceedings of "Translation and the European Communities", Hikosaka-Arui, Stockholmn: FAT (The Swedish Association for Authorized Translators).

Pierre Isabelle, 1992. "Bitext: Aids for Translators", Screening Words: User Interface for Text, 8th Annual Conference of the UW centre of the New OED and Text Research, Waterloo, Canada: Waterloo University.

Hans Karlsgren. 1987. "Making Good Use of Poor Translations", in International Forum on Information and Documentation, 12:4, Moscow: FID.

Hans Karlsgren. 1988. "Term-Tuning, a Method for the Computer-Aided Revision of Multi-Lingual Texts", in International Forum on Information and Documentation, 13:2, Moscow: FID.

Hans Karlsgren. 1981. "Computer Aids in Translation" with the Hauzinelle Declaration, in Sigurd and Svartvik (eds.), AILA Proceedings, pp 86-101, Lund: AILA.

Martin Kay. 1980. "The Proper Place of Men and Machines in Language Translation", Xerox report CSL-80-11, Palo Alto: Xerox Palo Alto Research Center.

Magnus Merkel 1993. "When and Why Should Translations be Renosed?", Papers from the 18th UAAKI Symposium on LSP, Theory of Translation and Computers, Växjö.

Magnus Nordström and Paul Petterson. 1993. "A Tool for Rapid Manual Translation", Master's Thesis at the University of Uppsala, Uppsala:University of Uppsala.

Anna Sägvald Heim Anna Östling, Eva Wikholm. 1990. "Phrases in the Core Vocabulary", A Report from The Project Multilingual Support for Translation and Writing, Report no. UCOL-R-90-1, Center for Computational Linguistics, Uppsala University.

Atro Voutilainen and Pasi Tapanainen, 1993. "Ambiguity Resolution in a Reductionistic Parser", Proceedings of the 6th Conference of the European Chapter of the ACL, pp. 394-403, Utrecht:ACL.

Robert A. Wagner and M. J. Fischer. 1974. "The String-to-String Correction Problem", Journal of the ACM, 21:1, pp 168-173, New York:ACM.