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3.1 Finite Automata

The finite automata are the machines which recognize regular languages, i.e., languages represented by regular expressions (RE). Hence, there is relation of implication like this, $FA \rightarrow REGLANG \rightarrow RExp \rightarrow FA$, in other words, it is a bijection between all three entities. Let us consider that, talk or sound of a sheep (sheep-talk language) can be represented by strings *baa*, *baaa*, *baaa*, etc., depending on the length of sound. This can be represented by a RE *baa*⁺!, however, we will prefer it to be represented by /baa+!/, using a format of pronunciation. This sound can be recognized by a FA shown in the figure 3.1.

Formally, a FA is represented by $M = (Q, \Sigma, q_0, \delta, F)$, where $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \to Q$, $\Sigma = \{a, b, !\}, F = \{q_4\}, L(M) = \{baa!, baaa!, baaaa!, \ldots\}$. The recognition process for the language string through FA, is represented by the algorithm 1. The FA's tape is divided into squares, called *index* positions, each position holding one symbol from alphabet Σ , for *n* positions, where n = |w|, and *w* is input string.

The recognition of a string is search of a tree. Considering a the recognition of



Figure 3.1: Finite Automata.

some string of say length 5, for alphabet set $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, one needs to perform a worst case search of $O(2^5)$ in space and time, when breadth-first search (BFS) is performed. In general, if size of alphabet $|\Sigma| = m$, and length of string (word) is h, then space and time both have complexities equal $O(h^n)$.

However, in case of depth-first search (DFS) case, space is $O(2 \times 5)$ (general case O(hn)), and time complexity remains the same (figure 3.2). Since, the ordinary brute force algorithms, like DFS and BFS are highly inefficient, better algorithms like best-free search, A^* , and simulated annealing are considered superior. However, due to combinatorial explosion of number of states generated, even shorter length strings, makes it difficult to efficiently process the input



Figure 3.2: Search-tree.

Algorithm 1 : function dfa-recognize(tape, machine) return accept/reject;

$index \leftarrow initial state$
while True do
if end of input then
if current state == accept state then
return accept
else
return <i>reject</i>
end if
else
$\mathbf{if} \text{ transition-table}[\text{current-state, tape}[\text{index}]] == \text{empty then}$
return <i>reject</i>
else
current-state \leftarrow transition-table[current-state, tape[index]]
index++
end if
end if
end while

for recognition.

3.2 English Language Morphology

Morphology is study of, how the words are constructed. Construction of English language words through attachment of prefixes and suffixes (both together called affix) are called *concatenative morphology*, because a word is composed of number of morphemes concatenated together. A word may have more than one affix, for example rewrites (re+write+s), unlikely (un+like+ly), etc. There are broadly two ways to form words using morphemes:

- 1. *Inflection:* Inflectional morphology form the words using the same group word stem, e.g., write+s, word+ed, etc. The table 3.1 shows the words constructed using inflective morphology.
- 2. *Derivation:* Derivations morphology produces a word of different stem, for example computerization (noun) from computerize (verb).

Type	Regular nouns	Irregular nouns		
Singular	$\operatorname{cat} \mid \operatorname{thrush}$	mouse ox		
Plural	cats thrushes	mice oxen		

Table 3.1: Inflectional Morphology.

The examples of *regular verbs* are walk, walks, walking, walked. Similarly, *irregularly inflected* verbs are eat, eats, eating, ate, eaten, catch, catches, cut, cuts, cutting, caught, etc.

The derivation is a combination of word stem with *grammatical morpheme*, usually resulting in a word of different class. For example, formation of nouns from verbs and adjectives. The table 3.2 shows the examples of derivational morphology.

3.3 Morphology and Finite-state Transducers

Table 3.2 :	Derivational	Morp	hology
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Suffix	Base verb/adjective	Derived Noun
-action	computerize (V)	Computerization
-ee	appoint (V)	appointee
-er	kill (V)	killer
-ness	fuzzy (A)	fuzziness

guage. For example,

fox: has single morpheme, fox and,

cats: has two morphemes, cat, -s.

Similarly, eat, eats, eating, ate, eaten have different morphemes.

Some examples of mapping of some of certain words and corresponding morphemes are given in the table 3.3. The mapping of input and output correspond to the input and output of finite state machines.

In speech recognition, when a word has been identified, like cats, dogs, it becomes necessary to produce its morphological parsing, to find out its true meaning, in the form of its structure, as well to know how it is organized.

The features, like N (noun), V (verb), specify additional information about the word stem, e.g., +N means that word is noun, +SG means singular, etc.

We require following databases for building morphological parser:

- 1. Lexicon: list of stems, and affixes, plus additional information about them, like +N, +V.
- 2. Morphotactics: Rules about ordering of morphemes in a word, e.g. -ed follows a verb (e.g., worked, studied), un (undo) precede a verb, for example, unlock, untie, etc.
- 3. Orthographic rules (spelling): For combining morphemes, e.g., city+ -s gives cities and not citys.

We can use the *lexicons* together with *morphotectics* (rules) to recognize the words with the help of finite automata in the form of stem+affix+part-of-speech (N, V, etc). The figure 3.3 shows the basic concept of morphological parsing of nouns. Recognition of nouns by FA is subject to reaching to final state (marked by double circle in figure) of FA. Table 3.4 shows some examples of regular and irregular nouns.

To know the structure of a word we perform the *morphological parsing* for that word. Given a *surface form* (input form), e.g., "going" we might produce the parsed form: *verb-go* + *gerund-ing*. Morphological parsing can be done with the help of *finite-state transducer*. It is called transducer, because, unlike a finite automaton, which produces yes/no (accept/reject) output, the finite state transducer produces longer output, one output symbol for each input symbol.

A morpheme is a meaning bearing unit of any lan-

Table 3.3: Morphemes.

Input	Morphological
Words	parsed output
cats	$\operatorname{cat} + N + PL$
cat	$\operatorname{cat} + N + SG$
cities	city + N + PL
geese	goose $+N + SG$
gooses	goose + V + 3SG
caught	$\operatorname{catch} + V + \operatorname{PAST}$



Figure 3.3: Morphological Parsing of nouns.

A similar arrangement is possible for verb morphological parsing (see figure 3.4, and table 3.5). The lexicon for verbal inflection have three stem classes (reg-verb stem, irreg-verb stem, and irreg-past-verb), with affix classes as: -ed for past and participle, -ing for continuous, and 3rd singular has -s.



Figure 3.4: Morphological Parsing of verbs.

Adjectives can be parsed in the similar manner like, the nouns and verbs. Some of the adjectives of English language are: big, bigger, biggest, clean, cleaner, cleanest, happy, unhappy, happier, happiest, real, really, unreal, etc. The finite automata in figure 3.5 is showing the morphological parsing for adjective words.

At the next stage, the lexicon can be expanded to sub-lexicons, i.e, individual letters, to be recognized by the finite automata. For example, regular-noun in figure 3.3 can be expanded to

Table 3.4: Regular and Irregular nouns.

Reg-noun	Plural	Irreg-noun	Irreg-sg-noun
fox	-es	goose	geese
cat	-S	sheep	sheep
dog	-S	mouse	mice

Table 3.5: Regular and Irregular verbs.

Reg-verb	Past	Irreg-verb	Irreg-past-v	Cont.	3sg
walk	-ed	cut	caught	-ing	-S
fry	-ed	speak	ate	-ing	-s
talk	-ed	sing	eaten	-ing	-S

letters "f o x" connected by three states in a transition diagram, regular verb stem in figure 3.4 can be expanded by letters " $w \ a \ l \ k$ ", and so on, as shown in figure 3.6.



Figure 3.5: Morphological Parsing for adjectives.

Exercises

- 1. Write the algorithms for following:
- (a) Parsing of regular nouns.
- (b) Parsing of irregular nouns.
- (c) Parsing of regular verbs.
- (d) Parsing of irregular verbs.
- (e) Parsing of adjectives.
- 2. What are the databases required for morphological parsing? Describe each, with its possible structure.
- 3. Perform the study of information available in any English dictionary, and list the information content in that, particularly that which is helpful for morphological parsing.

References



Figure 3.6: Morphological Parsing for noun words in details.

[1] D. JURAFSKY AND J. MARTIN, "Speech and Language Processing," Pearson India, 2002, Chapter 2, 3.