

**Rule-based morphological parser for Shughni language:
nouns, verbs and adjectives**

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Project Proposal

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Testing page

Русский текст ёмаёюж

Consonant = б в w г ғ ӕ ӓ д δ ж з з й к қ л м н п р с т θ ф х ӡ ӣ ц ч ш ч ;

Vowel = а ā е ê и й о у ū ū ;

Abstract

Automatic morphological analysis is a crucial task of computational linguistics. In this work I propose a rule-based morphological analysis tool for Shughni language (ISO: sgh; glottolog: shug1248) based on Helsinki Finite-State Technology (HFST). The tool set is planned to contain two types of tools: a morphological parser that breaks word-forms into stems and morphemes and assigns morphological tags to each one of them; a morphological generator that outputs word-forms taking stems and morphological tags as an input. This project aims to cover at least three main parts of speech: nouns, verbs and adjectives. **TODO: Extend the abstract and review it later**

1 Introduction

1.1 Shughni

The Shughni language (ISO: sgh; glottolog: shug1248) is a low-resource language. It belongs to the Iranian branch of the Indo-European family (Plungian, 2022, p. 12), and it is spoken by circa 80 000 - 100 000 people (Edelman & Dodykhudoeva, 2009) in two regions: Mountainous Badakhshan Autonomous Region (Tajikistan) and Badakhshan Province (Afghanistan). Both regions have a subregion, where Shughni language is the most spoken native language, the subregions are called 'Shughnon' in Tajikistan and 'Shughnan' in Afghanistan (Parker, 2023, p. 2), see Figure 1 for details. Shughni has a mixed morphological typology type (Parker, 2023, p. 94), which means that grammatical meanings can be carried by morphemes, words or clitics. There are three scripts for Shughni language: Latin, Cyrillic and Arabic. The Arabic script is used on the territory of Badakhshan Province of Afghanistan, and Cyrillic and Latin scripts are used in the Mountainous Badakhshan Autonomous Region of Tajikistan. The Latin script was created and gained popularity in 1930s, after it was set as the primary script for teaching in schools on the Shughni-speaking territory of Tajikistan. Later in 1980s a Cyrillic script was created (Edelman & Dodykhudoeva, 2009, p. 788).



Figure 1: Mountainous Badakhshan Autonomous Province of Tajikistan and Badakhshan Province of Afghanistan, (Parker, 2023, Fig 1.1)

Morphology analysis tools in question will focus on the variation of Shughni that is spoken in

Tajikistan. Cyrillic and Latin script will be supported: the core analysis tool will be implemented in Cyrillic script, and Latin script support will be implemented via transliteration.

1.2 Morphology parsing

Morphological parser is a fundamental tool, a wide range of computational linguistics' tasks rely on some form of morphological model. For morphologically rich languages it is close to impossible to list and manually define all the possible word-forms. The only reasonable way to approach such problem is to model a language's morphology.

For high-resource languages morphology modeling today is usually approached using deep learning (DL) models, which are trained on large amounts of data. This method is not always available for low-resource languages that lack digital textual data, for such languages linguists apply rule-based approach. Shughni is a low-resource language with very few data available, which leaves us the rule-based option.

The morphological parser will be developed using Helsinki Finite-State Technology (HFST) (Lindén et al., 2009), which is a tool set for working with rule-based morphology models in a form of transducers. Finite-state transducer (FST) is a finite-state machine that works with two tapes: reads strings of text from the input tape and writes strings of text to the output tape. When FST receives an input string, it walks along its characters from one state to another as long as there is a valid transition from the current state with an upcoming letter, see Figure 2 for visualization.

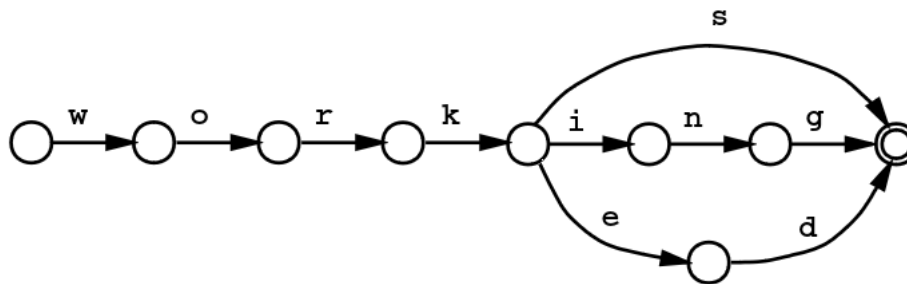


Figure 2: An example of FST for a language where only three words exist: *works*, *working* and *worked*. The word *worker*, for example will not be recognized as a valid word by this FST, since there is no 'd' transition at state *worke*. The only way from *worke* state is via 'd' transition, which corresponds to the *worked* word. (Beesley & Karttunen, 2002)

As FST walks through states (on Fig.2 states are graph's nodes) on each transition (on Fig.2 transitions are graph's edges) it can read an input tape and/or write to the output tape. A syntax for transitions is 'x:y', which means "read x from input, write y to output". Transition will happen only if input matches. With this in mind we can turn FST from Figure 2 into a morphological analyser by modifying some transitions (See Fig. 3). Syntax 'x:' means that FST must write nothing to the output tape while still making a transition to the next state if input matches.

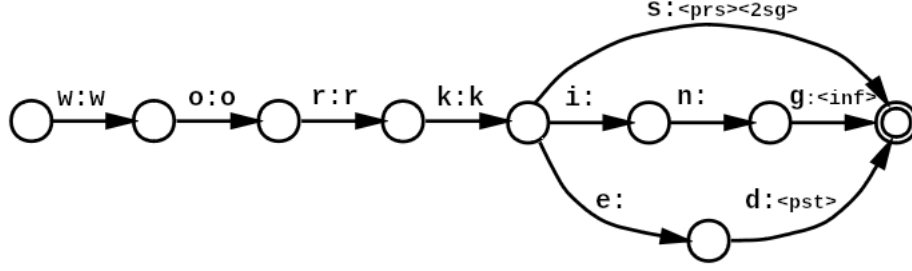


Figure 3: A modified version of Figure 2 which takes as input *works*, *working*, *worked* and outputs *work<prs><2sg>*, *work<inf>*, *work<pst>* respectively.

2 Literature review

2.1 Shughni

Shughni is one of 'Pamiri' languages, which is an areal group of languages spoken in the Pamir Mountains, primarily along the Panj river. According to Edelman and Dodykhudoeva (2009) estimates, approximately 80 000 - 100 000 people speak Shughni. There are two regions that speak Shughni: one on the territory of Afghanistan's Badakhshan Province - 'Shughnan', and the other on the territory of Tajikistan's Mountainous Badakhshan Autonomous Province - 'Shughnon' (Parker, 2023, p. 2) (see Figure 1).

There are two main dictionaries of the Shughni language: one by Zarubin (1960) and one by Karamshoev (1988–1999), both are written using Cyrillic script and include Russian translations. Some early dictionaries are 'Brief grammar and dictionary of Shughni' (Tumanovich, 1906), that is also using Cyrillic and translates to Russian, and 'Shughni dictionary by D. L. Ivanov' (Salemman, 1895), that translates to Russian but uses Arabic script alongside Cyrillic transcriptions for Shughhi word-forms.

Several Shughni grammar descriptions were written throughout the years, starting from basic grammar description done by D. L. Ivanov (Salemman, 1895, pp. 274–281). An important mention is a work by Karamshoev (1963), which was the most detailed Shughni grammar description of its time. Latest significant works were 'Shughni language' (Edelman & Yusufbekov, 1999, pp. 225–242), 'Comparative Grammar of Eastern Iranian Languages' (Edelman, 2009) and 'A grammar of the Shughhi language' by Parker (2023). The latter grammar by Parker will be the main theoretical source for the development of the morphology analysis tool since it is the biggest existing grammar, the most detailed and the most recent one.

A significant contribution to the Shughni NLP field is 'Digital Resources for the Shughni language' (Makarov et al., 2022). The authors, among other tools and resources, developed a rule-based morphological analysis tool for the Shughni language. The parser proposed in this work, while also being rule-based, differs in its implementation through the use of Helsinki

Finite-State Technology (HFST).

2.2 Morphology modeling

2.2.1 Neural approach

One of the most recent and widely adopted approaches to morphology modeling involves the use of the Transformer-based deep learning models. This approach usually requires large amounts of training data in form of manually tagged word-forms, which is not available for Shughni. There are texts available to me, that were manually tagged as part of 'Digital Resources for the Shughni Language' project (Makarov et al., 2022), which consist of 3453 tokens in total. While this amount of training data is small, it is worth mentioning that it is possible to train a Transformer-based model with such small datasets, as shown by Kondratyuk and Straka, 2019. Their approach includes fine-tuning a pre-trained multilingual BERT model, authors conclude, that multilingual learning is most beneficial for low-resource languages, even ones that do not possess a training set.

2.2.2 Rule-based approach

Finite-state technology (FST) is a finite-state machine with two tapes, one for input strings and one for output strings. The machine maps the alphabet of the first string to the alphabet of the second string, this concept was first proposed by Mealy (1955) and Moore (1956). Eventually linguists noticed this technology and started applying it to model natural languages' grammar. Woods (1970) suggested Recursive Transition Networks (RTN) for sentence structure parsing, RTN essentially is a finite-state machine applied to syntax.

Koskenniemi (1983) created a model, which introduced an explicit formalism named Two-level morphology (TWOL) for describing morphological and morphonological paradigms. This model was capable of word-form recognition and production, but it was not yet compilable into finite-state machines, it was working at runtime and was known for being slow. Then Karttunen et al. (1987) at Xerox Research Center developed a Two-level rule Compiler (TWOLC), which compiled TWOL rules into a finite-state machine. Later a separate compiler for lexicon definitions was introduced named LEXC (**Lexicon Compiler**) (Karttunen, 1993), it came with its own formalism language for describing lexicon and morphotactics. The standard approach to modeling a language at that point was using LEXC to describe lexicon and morphology and TWOLC to describe morphonology, which stayed almost the same to this day.

HFST is a set of tools for creating and working with languages' morphology models in form of transducers (Lindén et al., 2009). It includes both LEXC and TWOLC compilers, as well as command line interface commands for mathematical and other miscellaneous operations with transducers.

TODO: efficiency and speed of fst models

FST is widely applied when it comes to creating rule-based tools. Some of the examples of FST-based morphological tools are: morphological parser for the Tamil language by Sarveswaran et al. (2021), a morphological transducer for Kyrgyz by Washington et al. (2012), a morphological analyzer and generator for Sakha by Ivanova et al. (2022) and a morphological analyser for the Laz language by Onal and Tyers (2019).

3 Methods

4 Expected outcomes

5 Conclusions

6 Discussion and future

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