# Sprees, a Finite-State Orthographic Learning System that Recognizes and Generates Phonologically Similar Spellings 

by<br>Latanya Sweeney

ALB Computer Science
Harvard University

## SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING AND COMPUTER SCIENCE IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF <br> MASTER OF SCIENCE IN ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING AND COMPUTER SCIENCE AT THE <br> MASSACHUSETTTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

MAY 1997
© 1997 Latanya Sweeney. All rights reserved.
The author hereby grants to MIT permission to reproduce and to distribute publicly paper and electronic copies of this thesis document in whole or in part.

Signature of Author: $\qquad$
Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science May 15, 1997

Certified by:


Professor of Computer Science and Engineering

Accepted by:
$\qquad$


Arthur C. Smith Chairman, Departmental Committee on Graduate Students

JUL 241997
sng.

# Sprees, a Finite-State Orthographic Learning System that Recognizes and Generates Phonologically Similar Spellings 

by

Latanya Sweeney

Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science on May 15, 1997 in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Electrical Engineering and Computer Science


#### Abstract

We present a computer learning program named Sprees that "learns" by building a deterministic finite state automaton that represents orthographic generalizations of the spellings it encounters. It then uses the automaton to recognize and generate phonologically similar spellings beyond those in the initial training set. The saying, "i before e except after c," demonstrates the kind of spelling regularity Sprees would learn after being exposed to words like "receive" and "thief."

Given a list of common female first names, for example, Sprees can generate additional names like "Erisa" and "Kathel" that were not included in the training words but were identified by all the native English speakers we tested as sounding like female names. In commercial advertising, Sprees can help produce new words to use as company and product names; these words would suggest meaning while still matching spelling to common pronunciation. As a recognizer, Sprees has already proven itself invaluable in maintaining patient confidentiality in medical records (Sweeney, 1996). Sprees helped to locate personally-identifying information in unrestricted text by detecting likely spellings without requiring all recognizable words be listed beforehand.


Thesis Supervisor: Peter Szolovits
Title: Professor of Computer Science and Engineering

In loving memory of
Carrie Sweeney
and dedicated to Sylvia Barrett

## Acknowledgments

I thank Professor Peter Szolovits for providing an environment that made it possible for me to learn about and explore the world of computing through my own eyes, with little financial concern and with no lack of quality time. So many times in life I found myself wanting to have the time to follow this project or that idea through to fruition but the constant demands of school, work and life thwarted my efforts. Working in Professor Szolovits' group at the Laboratory for Computer Science, in many ways, was a dream come true, though admittedly the shackles of graduate school life remained. I also thank Professor Szolovits for discussions and mentoring that extended far beyond this academic text.

Let me also take this opportunity for a more personal note. It is easy to see and then appreciate polished gold, but we are blessed to have among us those who can see value in the roughest of ordinary looking rocks. They behold beauty where we see nothing of interest, and by their faith alone they transform stone into gold for us all to see. I gratefully acknowledge ChangSook Barrett for motivating and inspiring this work. Her commitment and belief in education continue to inspire and influence all who know her, and her unwavering belief in me will never be forgotten. I also thank Henry Leitner and Harvard University DCE for their continued support and commitment to providing educational opportunities to all. Finally, but not least, I humbly thank Carrie Sweeney, SylviaBarrett, Joyce Johnson and Joseph Barrett for giving me love for a lifetime. This work has been supported by a Medical Informatics Training Grant (1 T15 LM07092) from the National Library of Medicine.

## Contents

Figures ..... 5
1 Introduction ..... 6
2 Background ..... 8
2.1 Grapheme-to-Phoneme Conversion ..... 9
2.2 Finite-State Devices ..... 10
3 Methods ..... 11
3.1 Basic Idea Behind Sprees ..... 12
3.2 Implementation ..... 14
4 Results ..... 22
4.1 Experiment: Humans Categorize New Words ..... 24
5 Discussion ..... 26
5.1 Phonemes and Graphemes ..... 26
5.2 Humans Recognize and Generate Words ..... 28
5.3 Learning Automata. ..... 29
References ..... 31
Appendix A ..... 33
Appendix B ..... 39
Appendix C ..... 42

## Figures

Table 1. Spelling and Pronunciation ..... 10
Table 2. Cluster Decomposition. ..... 12
Table 3. Sprees decomposition of "neutral". ..... 13
Table 4. Learn 5 words, generate 15. ..... 14
Definition 1. A Sprees automaton is a deterministic finite automaton ..... 15
Diagram 1. A Sprees transition graph. ..... 16
Diagram 2a. Transition sub-graph for clusters that begin a word. ..... 17
Diagram 2 b . Transition sub-graph for clusters in the middle of a word ..... 18
Diagram 2c. Transition sub-graph for clusters that end a word. ..... 18
Algorithm 1. Constructs a Sprees Automaton from training words. ..... 19
Diagram 3. Transition graph with a cycle ..... 20
Definition 2. The grammar of a Sprees automaton is a regular grammar ..... 21
Table 5. Size measurements for different Sprees automata. ..... 23
Table 6. Plot of size measurements for different Sprees automata. ..... 24
Table 7. Number of newly created spellings ..... 24
Table 8. Results of human experiment. ..... 26
Table 9. Phoneme to grapheme mapping ..... 28

## 1 Introduction

Traditionally we use a list of stored words when determining whether a sequence of letters constitute an acceptable spelling. Spell correctors pose a common example where the word in question is compared against a stored dictionary of spellings to determine membership. In this view, we treat English spellings as random sequences of characters where successful membership of a test string can only be determined by listing all the members (or non-members). However, this approach denies the phonological basis of our words -- that is, written spelling stems from the spoken word. Understanding their phonological roots and orthographic patterns provides more powerful ways to recognize possible words and to generate new spellings.

We have built a computer program named Sprees that learns how spellings are formed, and then uses its acquired knowledge to identify and produce words. Sprees uses no dictionary. Instead it builds a finite-state automaton to store the spelling patterns it observes. The old adage, "i before e except after c, " demonstrates the kind of spelling knowledge Sprees would acquire if trained on words such as "receive" and "thief." After sampling a small subset of English words, the program builds an automaton that in turn allows it to recognize and generate thousands of words not included in the learning sample.

Consider the problem of sharing medical records while maintaining a commitment to patient confidentiality. In medical records, letters between physicians and notes written by clinicians often contain nicknames and unusual words. Sprees was used in conjunction with stored lists to determine whether words "sounded" like medical terms, family names, first names, and so forth,
and the overall system performed extremely well in locating all references to personallyidentifying information (Sweeney, 1996).

Sprees also extrapolates nonsense words, which are words that look and sound like English words but in reality have no meaning. For example, "throck" which comes from exposure to words like "throw" and "rock" is a nonsense word. In spell checking the inability of Sprees to distinguish nonsense words from meaningful words is an insurmountable weakness. Nevertheless the recognition of plausible words and the generation of new words has many uses.

In the patient confidentiality application described earlier, Sprees not only helped to locate identifying terms, but also generated fictitious names that sounded like reasonable names but were not included in any lists of known, common or uncommon names. By replacing real names with these made-up alternatives the readability of the document remained intact while the patient's real identity remained private.

In advertising and marketing the most popular method of naming products and companies is to create new words to use as names since these spellings can be registered and protected as trademarks (Nilsen, 1994). Sprees can recommend new product and company names after training on a list of words that suggest the desired connotations. The resulting words would be easy to say and remember since their spelling would match common pronunciation. Given that the United States Trademark Office has more than 800,000 active registrations with another 100,000 applications. Sprees could be quite useful in this area.

## 2 Background

There has been substantial research related to spell correcting (Durham, et. al., 1983) and to inference on handling errors in spelling (Carbonell and Hayes, 1983). The aims of those works however are not the same as the goals of Sprees. A spell checker should reliably identify misspellings, but one objective of Sprees is to recognize spellings that sound like words whether they are actually known English words or not. Sprees' second objective is to generate new spellings and this too lies outside the focus of work done on spell checkers.

The first spelling-to-sound data were obtained by Venezky (1963) through computer-aided analysis of the spelling-to-sound correspondences in approximately 20,000 different English words. The program produced a complete tabulation of spelling-to-sound correspondences for this corpus along with the word lists for each correspondence. This data was used in research studies to help with the teaching of spelling and reading. Venezky's system mapped graphemes, or letters and combinations of letters, to each phoneme (the basic sounds of a language). Though Sprees generates and recognizes words that "sound" similar to its list of training words, Sprees does not break words into phonemes or syllables per se. Instead Sprees uses orthographic patterns found in its training words to group letters into chunks that maintain pronunciation relationships and the chunks often fall across syllable and phoneme boundaries.

### 2.1 Grapheme-to-Phoneme Conversion

As part of an electronic system to convert unrestricted text to speech, Hunnicutt (1976) used a letter-to-sound approach. Decomposing words into their constituent morphemes was not sufficient for unrestricted text. It was necessary to develop a scheme for dealing with unrecognizable words. When a word could not be decomposed into its constituent morphemes, or when it appeared too infrequently in the English language to be included in the morph lexicon, the letter-to-sound system was invoked. These transcription rules were hand-crafted using extensive statistical and manual analysis of English words. In contrast, Sprees automatically deduces its own spelling patterns in a one-pass, instant learning system.

Of course Hunnicutt's goal was to produce a phonetic stream from the spelling so a computer could then speak the word. Sprees' goal in contrast, is to recognize and produce words that are believed to be pronounceable given the orthographic knowledge it extracts. In alphabetic writing systems, systematic relationships exists between letters or groups of letters in particular positions within a word and their pronunciation. Consider the words "book" and "womb." Word-initial b_ is always pronounced $/ \mathrm{b} /$ and word-final _ mb is always pronounced $/ \mathrm{m} /$.

Relying on pronunciation regularities alone, we could produce a pronunciation for any letter string by assigning standard pronunciations to its orthographic constituents and concatenating. By definition, a pronunciation assembled this way will be correct for a word with regular spellingsound correspondence, like "mint;" reasonable for a nonsense work like "rint;" and incorrect for a pronunciation exception word like "pint." See Table 1 for a summary. Pronunciation exception
words pose virtually no problem for Sprees since their spelling is regular and the human reader has the task of mapping sound utterances to the spelling. Hunnicutt's system on the other hand, was responsible for generating the proper phonemic translation in all these settings and so the resulting knowledge base was far more complex. Later, we will talk more about the relationship between phonemes and Sprees' orthographic knowledge, but first we will discuss the use of finite-state devices in language processing.

| Spelling | Pronunciation | Description |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mint | /m In t/ | regular spelling-to-sound |
| rint | /r In t/ | nonsense word, but regular spelling-to-sound |
| pint | /p aint/ | pronunciation exception |

Table 1. Spelling and Pronunciation.
Sprees can easily generate and recognize these three sample spellings, but a letter-to-sound system must have knowledge of pronunciation changes as is the case with "mint" and "pint."

### 2.2 Finite-State Devices

Finite-state automata, like that used in Sprees, as well as finite-state transducers are not new. The promotion of context-free or recursively enumerable grammars as the major formalisms in language modeling is due in part to the recursive linguistic phenomena that are not finite-state (Chomsky, 1959). However, Gross (1989) reminds us that many of the known linguistic phenomena in syntax and in phonology are finite-state. So it is not surprising to find many new uses of finite-state devices emerging.

[^0]Roche and Schabes (1995) used a finite-state transducer to build a part-of-speech tagger that operates in optimal time - out performing even the rule-based tagger that inspired it. Bird and Ellison (1994) presented a finite-state model of phonology in which automata are the descriptions and strings are the objects being described. And Roche and Schabes (1997) used a finite-state transducer to tackle a grapheme-to-phoneme conversion similar to Hunnicutt's letter-to-sound system except their version used French words. In the next sections we will describe the details of how Sprees builds and uses a finite-state automaton and then provide some run-time results.

## 3 Methods

Consider the following overview. During a learning phase, Sprees constructs a finite state automaton that records orthographic adjacency relationships found in the training words. Once the automaton is built, it can be used to recognize and generate spellings that were not included in the initial training set. Recognizing spellings simply involves using the automaton as an acceptor. Generating new spellings is basically a random walk on the transition graph associated with the automaton. In the next subsections we will explain the basic idea behind Sprees and then provide details for implementing Sprees as an automaton.

### 3.1 Basic Idea Behind Sprees

Sprees works with groups of letters called clusters. A consonant cluster is a series of one or more consonant letters, and similarly, vowel clusters consist of only vowels (a, e, i, $o, u$ and sometimes y). An English word must contain at least one consonant cluster and one or more vowel clusters. Within a word, vowel and consonant clusters alternate. Either may start or end a spelling. The words "a" and "I" are an exception since they consist of vowels alone. No word is made from only consonants. In Sprees the letter " $y$ " is considered a consonant, but if a spelling does not appear to have a vowel cluster and it contains the letter " $y$ " then " $y$ " is considered a vowel. The words "by" and "myth" are examples. Table 2 divides some sample words into their corresponding clusters.

| shock | $s h+0+c k$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| neutral | $n+e u+t r+a+1$ |
| switch | $s w+i+t c h$ |

Table 2. Cluster Decomposition.
Sample words divided into their corresponding vowel and consonant clusters.

Based on cluster decomposition like those in Table 2, Sprees generates a set of linked sequences that describe the relationships between adjacent clusters. These bigram-like sequences are specific to whether a cluster appears at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the word. The sequences generated by observing the word "neutral" are shown in Table 3 as an example.


Table 3. Sprees decomposition of "neutral".
Spelling sequences deduced by Sprees when the word "neutral" was presented as a training word.

From the words: "shock," "neutral," and "switch," the program's learning was based on 3 words and the program can only recognize and generate 3 words. That is not so useful. The system gains power when the clusters overlap since the program can then generalize beyond the words in the learning sample. For example, if Sprees is given the words "race" and "late" on which to train, it will record several bigram-like sequences including the following four.


Learning from only those 2 words, the program can recognize and generate the 4 words: race, late, lace and rate. We continue the training of Sprees by introducing the word "may." Now, the program will recognize and generate 9 words. Likewise, adding the word "lake" to the training set allows the system to recognize and generate 12 words. The system's knowledge continues to grow in this fashion as new words are introduced. As a final example, if we add the word "map"
then the program was given only 5 words but can recognize and generate 15 spellings. See Table 4 for a summary.

| race | late | may | lake | map |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | lace <br> rate | mace <br> mate <br> ray <br> lay | rake <br> make | rap <br> lap |

Table 4. Learn 5 words, generate 15.
Given the 5 training words on the top row, the system can then recognize and generate 15 words. Each column shows the additional words possible when its training word is included.

We have now presented an idea of how Sprees works. It breaks words into sequences of vowel and consonant clusters that record adjacency information. These linked sequences are general enough that Sprees can use them to recognize and generate words not previously seen. In the next subsection, we will explain how Sprees is implemented.

### 3.2 Implementation

In computational theoretic terms, Sprees can be constructed as a deterministic finite state automaton that represents orthographic generalizations of spellings. Definition 1 contains a description of a Sprees automaton. ${ }^{2}$ Before we look at how a Sprees automaton recognizes a spelling, it is important to realize first that the input to a Sprees automaton is not the actual spelling. Instead the original text string is pre-processed to decompose the spelling into an

[^1]ordered list of ( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}$ ) cluster tuples where the first member of each tuple is a vowel or consonant cluster and the second is a position flag, "b", " $m$ " or " $e$ " which denotes whether the cluster appears at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the original spelling. For example, the spelling "map" is preprocessed to produce " $(\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{b})(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{m})(\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{e})$ " since " m " appears at the beginning, " a " in the middle and " p " at the end of the word. The results from preprocessing serves as input to a Sprees automaton, which operates in the following manner to recognize a preprocessed spelling.

```
A Sprees automaton is a deterministic finite state automaton defined by the quintuple:
\(\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{s}}=\left(\mathrm{Q}, \Sigma, \delta, \mathrm{q}_{0}, \mathrm{~F}\right)\), where
    Q is a finite set of internal states,
    \(\Sigma:\{(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) \mid \mathrm{x}\) is a consonant or vowel cluster and
        \(y \in\{b, m, e\}\) indicating \(x\) appears at the
        beginning, in the middle, or at the end
        of a spelling),
    \(\delta: \mathrm{Q} \times \Sigma \rightarrow \mathrm{Q}\) is the transition function,
    \(\mathrm{q}_{0} \in \mathrm{Q}\) is the start state,
    \(\mathrm{F} \subseteq \mathrm{Q}\) is a set of final states.
```


## Definition 1. A Sprees automaton is a deterministic finite automaton.

At the initial time, the Sprees automaton is assumed to be at the start state $\mathrm{q}_{0}$, reading the leftmost cluster tuple of the input spelling. During each move of the automaton, the input mechanism advances one tuple to the right, so each move consumes one cluster. When the end of the spelling is reached, the spelling is recognized if the automaton is in one of its final states; otherwise, the spelling is rejected.

Diagram 1 provides a visual representation of a Sprees automaton using a transition graph. The vertices represent states and the edges represent transitions based on clusters and their positions in the spelling. Each path from the start state to each final state composes a spelling. Traversing the graph from the start state to each final state using every arc, while writing down the clusters as they are encountered on each arc, provides a listing of all the spellings recognized by a Sprees automaton.


## Diagram 1. A Sprees transition graph.

The transition graph above shows a Spree automaton formed from the training words "race," "late," "may," "lake" and "map." The shaded vertices are final states. There are 15 distinct paths through the graph representing the program's ability to recognize and generate 15 spellings.

If the Sprees automaton depicted in Diagram 1 also included the word "mat", then "rat" and "lat" would be additional spellings recognized by the machine. The first is an English word and the latter is not. This exemplifies the nature of generalization in the system. A Sprees automaton maintains a linear relationship between adjacent pairs of clusters. From Diagram 1, we see that " $m$ " and " $a$ " as well as " $l$ " and " $a$ " are adjacent clusters since there exists a sub-path that uses the " $m$ " then the " $a$ " arc and another sub-path that uses the "l" then the "a" arc. If the word "mat" was included in Diagram 1, then there would be a new arc labeled " $(\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{e})$ " that goes to a new final state. Since there is no restriction on getting to the new " t " arc by going first on the " m " arc, we
could use the "l" then "a" arcs. This gives a complete path that spells "lat." When a new cluster pair is incorporated into a Sprees automaton, it may add more than one path through the graph and these new paths are spellings that were not given to the automaton during training. These new spellings may be English words or nonsense words.

So, whenever a cluster appears in more than one training word, Sprees generalizes the linear relationship across all the spellings containing the cluster. At first glance this may seem allinclusive but to understand its restrictions we must first consider how orthographic transitions are interpreted from the automaton. There are three different kinds of transitions as depicted in Diagrams $2 \mathrm{a}, 2 \mathrm{~b}$ and 2c. One kind of transition is for clusters that begin a spelling, another for clusters in the middle of a spelling, and yet another transition for clusters at the end of a spelling.

The begin, middle and end spelling specifications limit where clusters can appear, making cluster placements consistent with witnessed locations in training words, and thus maintain systematic pronunciation relationships. For example, recall the word-initial b__ and word-final __mb pronunciations we discussed earlier. Another example is the cluster "ng." No English word begins ng__ but many end __ng due to the common suffix 'ing."


## Diagram 2a. Transition sub-graph for clusters that begin a word.

The transition graph above shows how to read a transition for a cluster that begins a spelling: "a" at the beginning of a word is followed by: "'my, tt , sk, or w."


Diagram 2b. Transition sub-graph for clusters in the middle of a word.
The transition graph above shows how to read a transition for a cluster that appears in the middle of a spelling: "a" in the middle of a word is preceded by: "wh, sn, or tr;" and is followed by: "mp, g, or t."


## Diagram 2c. Transition sub-graph for clusters that end a word.

The transition graph above shows how to read a transition for a cluster that ends a spelling: "a" at the end of a word is preceded by: "br, $r$ or $n$."

A Sprees automaton can be modified to include weights on each arc that reflect the frequency of each cluster's positional appearance during training. New spellings can then be generated that better reflect pronunciation patterns common to the training words. Since there is no "unlearning," the weights also provide a means for rating acquired knowledge.

Consider all the spellings recognized by a Sprees automaton. We consider the language of a Sprees automaton to be all the spellings it recognizes. Such languages are considered regular languages. Let $L(E)$ be the set of commonly used English spellings. Let the Sprees automaton that recognizes the spellings of $L(E)$ be $M_{s}$ and the language of $M_{s}$ be $L\left(M_{s}\right)$. Clearly $L(E) \subseteq$ $L\left(M_{s}\right)$ and the difference, $L\left(M_{s}\right)-L(E)$ is the set of nonsense words. Later in the results section, we will provide some relative measurements for the sizes of these sets.

We have seen how a Sprees automaton recognizes spellings. Now we will look at how a Sprees automaton is constructed and then reflect on its generative power. A Sprees automaton is constructed using the algorithm presented as Algorithm 1.

Let $\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{s}}$ be the Sprees Automaton we are to build. $\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{s}}$ begins with only the start state.
Let T be the set of preprocessed training words from which we are to build a Sprees automaton. For each word, $w \in T$, do the following:
a. Let the current state be the start state.
b. The tuples of $w$ are ordered $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}$.

Start with $c_{1}$ and proceed in order through $c_{n}$. For each $c_{i}$, do the following:

- If $c_{i}$ is already a transition from the current state, advance the current state to be the state after the transition and then process $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}+1}$;
- else if $c_{i}$ is $c_{n}$ then make a new final state for the transition $c_{i}$, and then process the next w;
- else if there exists a transition anywhere in $\mathbf{M}_{\mathrm{s}}$ based on $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}+1}$, then make a transition from the current state to the state from which $c_{i+1}$ is the source and advance the current state be the state at the $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}+1}$ transition, and then, process $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}+1}$;
- else make a new state based on the transition $c_{i}$ and then advance the current state be the newly created state, and then, process $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{i}+1}$.


## Algorithm 1. Constructs a Sprees Automaton from training words.

The language of a Sprees automaton is infinite whenever the automaton contains a cycle and from Algorithm 1 this happens whenever a cluster repeats within a spelling. Consider the Sprees automaton in Diagram 3 that recognizes the spelling "gigabit" where the "i" cluster repeats. The recognized spellings are $\{$ "git", "gigabit", "gigabigabit", "gigabigabigabit", ...\}. If any one spelling contains an inner cluster that repeats, the language of the Sprees automaton that recognizes that spelling is infinite. This is an orthographic parallel to the infinite scope of language found at the syntactic level. We could never exhaustively list all the sentences of a natural language, because no matter how many sentences appear on the list, we could always
produce a longer one. Further, since the semantics of traversing adjacent transitions in a Sprees graph involve the ability to pronounce the result, the compositional property found at the syntactic level is present here also. All spellings produced by Sprees, including the longer ones, are pronounceable consistent with the pronunciation found in the original training words.

Recall our earlier discussion of bigram-like sequences which recorded the order in which two adjacent clusters appeared. Every two arcs on an automaton that share a common vertex form a bigram-like sequence and we consider their arcs to be adjacent. Diagram 3 contains five sequences including " $i$ in the middle of a word is followed by $g$ " and " $t$ at the end of a word is preceded by i ." Care is taken so that each pair of adjacent arcs count as only one sequence.


Diagram 3. Transition graph with a cycle.
The transition graph above shows a Spree automaton formed from the training word "gigabit." The language recognized by this automaton is infinite.

Beyond the number of spellings an automaton can recognize lies its generative power, which is based on the set of languages it can represent. The grammar of Sprees is described in Definition
2. It is a regular grammar that is right-linear and right-linear grammars generate regular
languages, which we already know is the language of a Sprees automaton. Regular grammars are the most restricted class of Chomsky's grammatical formalisms. Their generative capacity is considered the least powerful (Chomsky, 1957). The generalizations possible in a Sprees automaton are of the form $a * b^{*}$ which is a sequence of any number of $a$ followed by any number of $b$. Knowing this helps explain further limitations on how spellings are generalized by a Sprees automaton. It is actually a least-general approach.

The grammar of a Sprees automaton $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{s}}$ is defined as a quadruple, $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{s}}=(\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{P})$, where
V is a finite set of objects called variables,
T is a finite set of objects called clusters,
$S \in V$ is a special symbol called the start variable,
$P$ is a finite set of productions such that all productions are of the form:
$\mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{xB}$,
$\mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{x}, \quad$ where $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B} \in \mathrm{V}$, and $\mathrm{x} \in \mathrm{T}^{*}$.
V and T are non-empty and disjoint.

## Definition 2. The grammar of a Sprees automaton is a regular grammar.

Generalization in Sprees is tightly bounded. Clusters and the transitions from cluster to cluster are limited to those actually experienced in the training words and are not decided on beforehand. English words have alternating vowel and consonant clusters and a Sprees automaton maintains this invariant by using vowel and consonant clusters. The begin, middle and end spelling rules limit where clusters can appear in a spelling and this preserves systematic pronunciation relationships such as word-initial and word-final pronunciation. On the other hand, there are three forms of generalization. The first happens when a cluster appears in more than one word; the second happens when a cluster recurs in the middle of a spelling; and, the third involves
allowing transitions to clusters at the beginning of a word when the cluster actually appears in the middle of a training word. In this last case, rather than the transitions requiring consistent positions within words (such as beginning, middle or end), the beginning and middle positions collapse into one position. Word final positioning is still maintained; the end result allows generalizations to include word concatenations. Since the generalization remains restrictive to positioning and clusters actually observed, we term this a least-general approach.

As for computational time, a Sprees automaton can recognize a spelling in optimal $\mathbf{O}(\mathrm{n})$ time, where n is the number of clusters in the spelling. This is small in English and as a result Sprees is quite fast. A graph traversal algorithm can be modified to print regular expressions for all spellings generated by a Sprees automaton. Regular expressions use parenthesis and asterisks to denote which characters can recur. Generating all possible spelling paths takes $O\left(\mathrm{c}^{2}\right)$ time where c is the number of cluster tuples in the graph. Storage requirements for a Sprees automaton is also $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{c}^{2}\right)$. So recognizing a given spelling is very fast and generating a single word is also fast since it is a random walk on the graph.

## 4 Results

We ran the Sprees program on three dictionary word lists. The first dictionary list was from Macmillan Very First Dictionary (1983) and contains words for children ages 5-8. The second dictionary list was included with the Unix ISPELL program, and the third dictionary list was from Webster's Unabridged Dictionary (1983). Sprees automata were built for each of these lists. The results are listed in Table 5. Notice that the number of words increase an order of magnitude with
each list yet the clusters do not grow rapidly. We certainly expect the number of cluster tuples and bigram-like sequences to converge since given the immense number of theoretically possible spellings, only a small number actually occur, and the majority of these recur in patterns common to many words. See Table 6 for a relative plot of these values. Notice how a ratio of two sequences per cluster tuple is constant, independent of the size of the list. This means that most cluster tuples are not included in a begin, middle and an end sequence. They are only in about two of them.

| Source | \#Words | \#Clusters. | \#Bigram-like sequences |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1. Children's Dictionary | 1,408 | 249 | 551 |
| 2. Spell Checker Dictionary | 25,145 | 1633 | 3383 |
| 3. Webster's Unabridged | 213,556 | 4200 |  |

Table 5. Size measurements for different Sprees automata.
The number of cluster tuples and bigram-like sequences are counted after building a Sprees automaton using only the indicated source list. On the transition graph, a bigram-like sequence reflects the transition between two arcs incident to a common vertex.

We have already seen that the number of spellings for a Sprees automaton is infinite whenever a cluster repeats in a single spelling. Yet we will provide some measure of the number of nonsense words. We can detect cycles in the automaton and we can count the number of distinct paths by carefully not repeating cycles. This provides a measure from which we can subtract the number of legal spellings and get the number of nonsense words. This number was so large it was not tractable on the dictionary lists we used earlier. Instead, we used tiny lists; see Appendix A for a complete list training words and the spellings they generated. Table 7 provides a summary.


Table 6. Plot of size measurements for different Sprees automata.
Based on the lists in Table 5.

Clearly, the number of nonsense words is tremendous. In the next section we will report on an experiment where subjects classify some new words created by a Sprees automaton. The objective is to determine how much of the sound that characterizes the training set remains in the newly created words.

| Source | \#Words | \#Clusters | \#Bigram-like sequences | \#Generate |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| female names | 12 | 18 | 43 | 346 |
| family names | 12 | 26 | 48 | 232 |

Table 7. Number of newly created spellings.
The number of different spellings a Sprees automaton can generate and recognize given a small number of the training words. The actual number of words the Sprees automaton can generate is infinite, so spellings containing cycles are counted only once.

### 4.1 Experiment: Humans Categorize New Words

We conducted an experiment to determine how humans would categorize new words generated by the Sprees program. The subjects were 6 adults, all native English speakers. Each of the
adults were given five (5) printed pages. Each page had a list of about 20 words on top and the bottom of the page had five boxes. The subjects were to mark a box depending on whether the words sounded more like: (a) female first names, (b) male first names, (c) family names, or (d) medical terms. There was a box for each of these options and an additional box (e) to select if they could not decide. Appendix B contains samples of these pages.

The words that appeared at the top of each page were generated by the Sprees program using the following training words: (1) a list of 12 common female names; (2) a list of 15 common male names; (3) a list of 15 common family names; (4) a list of 15 common medical terms; and, (5) a list that contained all 60 spellings from (1) through (4). Appendix $C$ contains a list of these training words. Each subject received samples of about 20 nonsense words generated by the Sprees program after it trained on each of these six training sets. We generated a separate list from each training set. The subjects matched the lists almost perfectly to their source. See Table 8 for a summary.

A perfect match by the subjects would have all 6's along the diagonal. Though the results are not perfect, they clearly show that new words created by Sprees maintain the "sound" of the original training words from which those spellings were generated.

| Sources |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | (1) | (2) | (3) | - (4) | (5) | errors |
| Wexama (a) | 6 |  |  |  |  | 0 |
| T- (b) |  | 5 | 1 |  |  | 1 |
| $\cdots$ |  |  | 5 |  | 1 | 1 |
| - |  |  |  | 6 |  | 0 |
| Wemene |  |  |  |  | 6 | 0 |
| errors |  | 0 | 1 |  | 1 | 2 |

Table 8. Results of human experiment.
Each column represents the source that generated the list and each row represents the box that was marked by the subjects. The values for (1)-(5) and (a)-(e) are presented in the text.

## 5 Discussion

In concluding, we will discuss some of the phonological issues surrounding Sprees and its ability to capture pronunciation in spelling. Then, we will contrast and compare the learning of automata using the Sprees algorithm with algorithms found in machine learning.

### 5.1 Phonemes and Graphemes.

There is a special relationship between the phonology and orthography of the English language. The letters in the English alphabet correspond roughly to phonemes, which are the basic speech sounds of a language. Rough is the operant word here. Some linguists may view English orthography as a faulty phonetic system and consequently believe that much of the graphemic patterning in the orthography should be ignored.

It is true that the phonemes of a language are not determined by the letters we write but by the sounds we speak. In this sense, vowels are not "a, e, $i, o, u$ and sometimes $y$," but are those sounds in which the stream of air coming from the lungs passes through the mouth and nose with no audible friction. Vowel sounds may further be classified according to the position in which the tongue is held in the mouth during their pronunciation. Chomsky and Halle (1968) provide a complete set of features that describe English phonemes. Under the phonetic feature set, there are more than eleven vowel phonemes in English.

There has been research that maps graphemes to phonemes. Robert Hall (1961) did so by hand in his work on sound and spelling in English. A grapheme is a sequence of letters that appear in a spelling and phonologically operate as a single unit like "ch" and "ed." A Sprees automaton does not break a spelling into the same grapheme units used by Hall; instead Sprees uses vowel and consonant clusters as the atomic units. The grapheme "ed" for example would be two adjacent clusters in a Sprees automaton but is usually considered a single grapheme, and in the spelling "stopped," the grapheme "ed" is pronounced as a single phoneme /t/. Table 9 maps some sample phonemes to graphemes. In closing, we reflect on how people recognize new spellings.

| Sound | Phoneme | Grapheme | Samples |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| beat | li/ | ee | meet |
|  |  | ea | sea |
|  |  | i | machine |
| bit | I/ | i | hit |
|  |  | o | women |
|  |  | y | myth |
| hot | la/ | a | father |
|  |  | ea | heart |
|  |  | e | sergeant |
| tight | I/ | ed | stopped |
|  |  | t | hunter |

Table 9. Phoneme to grapheme mapping.
Some sample sounds mapped to their corresponding phoneme and some example graphemes.

### 5.2 Humans Recognize and Generate Words

Learning to read a foreign language differs radically from learning to read one's native language. In learning to read a foreign language, we often have no prior knowledge of the language and so we tend to translate directly from writing to meaning. Learning to read our native language is different. Usually we already have the ability to speak the language, so reading in this situation requires primarily translating written symbols to sound.

In the sense of Sprees, we are a good reader if we cannot only pronounce all the words which we were taught to read, but also if we can pronounce a high percentage of new words we encounter. Certainly if we cannot pronounce words we have not seen before we are a deficient reader. Good readers therefore must form some spelling-to-sound generalizations. What these generalizations are, how they develop, and how they differ among people has been the topic of many experimental psychology studies. We do not assert that Sprees is a model of how people
generalize spellings, only that like people, Sprees generalizes spellings consistent with sound-tospelling correspondences previously learned.

### 5.3 Learning Automata

Recall Algorithm 1 presented earlier which constructs a Sprees automaton from training words. There are several algorithms in the field of machine learning that also "learn" by building a deterministic finite state automaton, in particular consider Probably Approximately Correct or PAC learning (Valiant, 1984) and Angluin's L* algorithm (1987). There are distinctive differences in the goals and assumptions made in these learning environments from those made in the Sprees environment. First, the teacher in the machine learning environment typically provides negative as well as positive examples. This is not done in the Sprees environment. Instead, all training words are positive examples of membership.

Second, Algorithm 1 does not infer beyond the transitions actually witnessed; therefore, it has no internal hypotheses nor does it pose membership questions. The learning is passive and rote. The $L^{*}$ algorithm, on the other hand, gets more information than just a list of examples; it utilizes a "teacher" that answers membership questions ("is $s$ acceptable?") and equivalence queries ("are automata $A$ and $B$ equivalent?"). The algorithm poses experiments to distinguish the states. Its goal is to get the DFA exactly right, while PAC learning gets the DFA correct within some given error bound. In Sprees, the notion of an exact solution is quite different; the exact solution to Sprees is the one directly deduced from its training words.

Third, the $\mathrm{L}^{*}$ algorithm requires knowledge of the complete alphabet beforehand and the alphabet is not expected to change. In the Sprees environment, new clusters can be encountered after, as well as, during the learning process. Suppose we want to build the automaton that recognizes only the 15 words in Table 4. The transition graph for the resulting Sprees automaton is in Diagram 1; it was built by providing Algorithm 1 with 5 example words which are also included in Table 4. The result of the $L^{*}$ algorithm produces the same transition graph as Algorithm 1, but the complete cluster alphabet had to be provided beforehand and a teacher had to answer queries that required complete knowledge of all acceptable spellings. The $L^{*}$ algorithm and Sprees both learn finite automata, but the Sprees Algorithm 1 generalizes its observations while the $L^{*}$ algorithm can offer solutions to more refined problems. However, the Sprees algorithm is more efficient at its specified task since its alphabet can be determined during operation. It also spends no time trying to unearth an "exact" solution since its specified goal is not usually based on a known set of spellings beforehand but actually involves a discovery process for the algorithm as well as the "teacher".

In concluding, we have presented a system that captures phonological information found in training words and can be used to generate words that sound similar to its training words and to recognize words that "sound" as though they belong in the training words even though they were not part of the original training set. The system was used to recognize personallyidentifying information in unrestricted text and to replace such words with made-up alternatives. The power of the system resides in its representation of words as a sequence of vowel and consonant clusters and its ways of generalizing the relationships between clusters.

## References

American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1970.

Angluin, D., Learning Regular Sets from Queries and Counterexample. Information and Computation. 1987:(75):87-106.

Bird, E. and Ellison, T., One-level Phonology: Autosegemental Representations and Rules as Finite Automata Computational Linguistics. 1994:20(1):55-90.

Carbonell, J. and Hayes, P., Recovery Strategies for Parsing Extragrammatical Language. Computational Linguistics. 1983:9(3-4):123-146.

Chomsky, N., Syntactic structures. Mouton: The Hague and Paris. 1957.
Chomsky, N. and Halle, M., The sound pattern of English. Cambridge: The MIT Press. 1968.
Durham, I., Lamb, D. and Saxe, J., Spelling Correction in User Interfaces. Communications of the ACM. 1983:26.

Gross, M., The use of finite automata in the lexical representation of natural language. Electronic Dictionaries and Automata in Computational Linguistics. LITP Spring School on Theoretical Computer Science, Proceedings. Berlin. Springer-Verlag. 1989

Hall, R., Sound and spelling in English. New York: Chilton Books. 1961.
Hunnicutt, S., Phonological Rules for a Text-to-Speech System. American Journal of Computational Linguistics. 1976.

Macmillan Very First Dictionary. New York Macmillan Publishing Company 1983.
Nilsen, A., Why Big Businesses Break Spelling RulesEnglish Journal 1994;83(5):48-53.
Roche, E. and Schabes, Y., Deterministic Part-of-Speech Tagging with Finite-State Transducers. Computational Linguistics. 1995:21(2).

Roche, E. and Schabes, Y. Finite-State Language Processing. Cambridge. MIT Press. 1997.
Sipser, M., Introduction to the Theory of Computation. New York: PWS Publishers 1996.
Sweeney, L., Replacing Personally-Identifying Information in Medical Records, the Scrub System. In: Cimino, JJ, ed. Proceedings, Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association. Washington, DC: Hanley \& Belfus, Inc, 1996:333-337.

Valiant, L., A Theory of the Learnable Communications of the ACM. 1984:27(11):1134-1142.
Venezky, R., A computer program for deriving spelling to sound correlations, Masters thesis, Cornell University, 1962. Published in part in Harry Levin, et.al. A basic research program on reading. Ithaca, 1963.

Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. New York Simon and Schuster. 1983.

## Appendix A

Below are 12 female names used to build a Sprees automaton and a list of the 346 spellings the automaton generated. Following that is a list of 12 family names used to build another Sprees automaton and a list of the 232 spellings that automaton generated. Of course, the actual number of spellings these automata can generate is infinite, so spellings containing cycles are counted only once and the recurring characters are printed within parenthesis.

## 12 Female Names for Training:

Nicole
Lauren
Heather
Laura
Rachel
Amy
Erin
Sara
Amber
Kimberly
Katherine
Lisa

## 346 Female Names Generated:

| amberly | ambe(rache)* | erara |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ambel | amberachen | er(ar)* |
| amber | ambererly | erarerly |
| amberisa | amberel | erarel |
| amberisatherly | amberer | erarer |
| amberisathel | ambe(re)* | erarerisa |
| amberisather | amberen | erarerisatherly |
| ambe(risathe)* | amben | erarerisathel |
| amberisathen | amy | erarerisather |
| amber(isar)*... | er | erare(risathe)* |
| ambera | erisa | erarerisathen |
| amberatherly | erisatherly | era(rerisa)*... |
| amberathel | erisathel | eracherly |
| amberather | erisather | erachel |
| ambe(rathe)* | er(isather)*... | eracher |
| amberathen | era | eracherisa |
| amberarisa | eratherly | eracherisatherly |
| amberarisatherly | erathel | eracherisathel |
| amberarisathel | erather | eracherisather |
| amberarisather | eratherisa | erache(risathe)* |
| ambe(rarisathe)* | era(therisa)*... | eracherisathen |
| amberarisathen | erarisa | eracher(isar)*... |
| ambera(risa)*... | erarisatherly | erachera |
| amberacherly | erarisathel | er(acher)* |
| amberachel | erarisather | erachererly |
| amberacher | erar(isather)*... | eracherel |


| eracherer | kacherisatherly | kin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| erache(re)* | kacherisathel | kine |
| eracheren | kacherisather | kicole |
| erachen | kache(risathe)* | lisa |
| ererly | kacherisathen | lisatherly |
| erel | kacher(isar)*... | lisathel |
| erer | kachera | lisather |
| ererisa | kacheratherly | l (satheri) ${ }^{*}$... |
| ererisatherly | kacherathel | limberly |
| ererisathel | kacherather | limbel |
| ererisather | kache(rathe)* | limber |
| ere(risathe)* | kacherathen | limberisa |
| ererisathen | kacherarisa | limberisatherly |
| erer(isar)*... | kacherarisatherly | limberisathel |
| erera | kacherarisathel | limberisather |
| ereratherly | kacherarisather | limbe(risathe)* |
| ererathel | kache(rarisathe)* | limberisathen |
| ererather | kacherarisathen | limber(isar)*... |
| ere(rathe)* | kachera(risa)*... | limbera |
| ererathen | ka(chera)*... | limberatherly |
| ererarisa | kisa | limberathel |
| ererarisatherly | kisatherly | limberather |
| ererarisathel | kisathel | limbe(rathe)* |
| ererarisather | kisather | limberathen |
| ere(rarisathe)* | ki(satheri)*... | limberarisa |
| ererarisathen | kimberly | limberarisatherly |
| erera(risa)*... | kimbel | limberarisathel |
| ereracherly | kimber | limberarisather |
| ererachel | kimberisa | limbe(rarisathe)* |
| ereracher | kimberisatherly | limberarisathen |
| ere(rache)* | kimberisathel | limbera(risa)*... |
| ererachen | kimberisather | limberacherly |
| er(er)*... | kimbe(risathe)* | limberachel |
| heatherly | kimberisathen | limberacher |
| heathel | kimber(isar)*... | limbe(rache)* |
| heather | kimbera | limberachen |
| heatherisa | kimberatherly | limbererly |
| heath(erisath)*... | kimberathel | limberel |
| katherly | kimberather | limberer |
| kathel | kimbe(rathe)* | limbe(re)* |
| kather | kimberathen | limberen |
| katherisa | kimberarisa | limben |
| ka(therisa)*... | kimberarisatherly | lin |
| karisa | kimberarisathel | line |
| karisatherly | kimberarisather | licole |
| karisathel | kimbe(rarisathe)* | laurisa |
| karisather | kimberarisathen | laurisatherly |
| $\mathbf{k a r ( i s a t h e r ) * . . . ~}$ | kimbera(risa)*... | laurisathel |
| kara | kimberacherly | laurisather |
| karatherly | kimberachel | laur(isather)*... |
| karathel | kimberacher | laura |
| karather | kimbe(rache)* | lauratherly |
| karatherisa | kimberachen | laurathel |
| kara(therisa)*... | kimbererly | laurather |
| ka(ra)*... | kimberel | lauratherisa |
| kacherly | kimberer | laura(therisa)**.. |
| kachel | kimbe(re)* | laurarisa |
| kacher | kimberen | laurarisatherly |
| kacherisa | kimben | laurarisathel |


| laurarisather | laurerachen | raratherisa |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| laurar(isather)*... | laur(er)*... | rara(therisa)*... |
| laurara | nisa | ra(ra)*... |
| laur(ar)* | nisatherly | racherly |
| laurarerly | nisathel | rachel |
| laurarel | nisather | racher |
| laurarer | ni(satheri)*... | racherisa |
| laurarerisa | nimberly | racherisatherly |
| laurarerisatherly | nimbel | racherisathel |
| laurarerisathel | nimber | racherisather |
| laurarerisather | nimberisa | rache(risathe)* |
| laurare(risathe)* | nimberisatherly | racherisathen |
| laurarerisathen | nimberisathel | racher(isar)*... |
| laura(rerisa)*... | nimberisather | rachera |
| lauracherly | nimbe(risathe)* | racheratherly |
| laurachel | nimberisathen | racherathel |
| lauracher | nimber(isar)*... | racherather |
| lauracherisa | nimbera | rache(rathe)* |
| lauracherisatherly | nimberatherly | racherathen |
| lauracherisathel | nimberathel | racherarisa |
| lauracherisather | nimberather | racherarisatherly |
| laurache(risathe)* | nimbe(rathe)* | racherarisathel |
| lauracherisathen | nimberathen | racherarisather |
| lauracher(isar)*... | nimberarisa | rache(rarisathe)* |
| laurachera | nimberarisatherly | racherarisathen |
| laur(acher)* | nimberarisathel | rachera(risa)*... |
| laurachererly | nimberarisather | ra(chera)*... |
| lauracherel | nimbe(rarisathe)* | sa |
| lauracherer | nimberarisathen | satherly |
| laurache(re)* | nimbera(risa)*... | sathel |
| lauracheren | nimberacherly | sather |
| laurachen | nimberachel | satherisa |
| laurerly | nimberacher | sa(therisa)*... |
| laurel | nimbe(rache)* | sarisa |
| laurer | nimberachen | sarisatherly |
| laurerisa | nimbererly | sarisathel |
| laurerisatherly | nimberel | sarisather |
| laurerisathel | nimberer | sar(isather)*... |
| laurerisather | nimbe(re)* | sara |
| laure(risathe)* | nimberen | saratherly |
| laurerisathen | nimben | sarathel |
| laurer(isar)*... | nin | sarather |
| laurera | nine | saratherisa |
| laureratherly | nicole | sara(therisa)*... |
| laurerathel | ra | sa(ra)*... |
| laurerather | ratherly | sacherly |
| laure(rathe)* | rathel | sachel |
| laurerathen | rather | sacher |
| laurerarisa | ratherisa | sacherisa |
| laurerarisatherly | ra(therisa) ${ }^{*}$... | sacherisatherly |
| laurerarisathel | rarisa | sacherisathel |
| laurerarisather | rarisatherly | sacherisather |
| laure(rarisathe)* | rarisathel | sache(risathe)* |
| laurerarisathen | rarisather | sacherisathen |
| laurera(risa)*... | rar(isather)*... | sacher(isar)*... |
| laureracherly | rara | sachera |
| laurerachel | raratherly | sacheratherly |
| laureracher | rarathel | sacherathel |
| laure(rache)* | rarather | sacherather |


| sache(rathe)* | sacherarisathel | sachera(risa)* $\ldots$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sacherathen | sacherarisather | sa(chera)* $\ldots$ |
| sacherarisa | sache(rarisathe) $^{*}$ |  |
| sacherarisatherly | sacherarisathen |  |

## 12 Family Names for Training:

Smith
Johnson
Williams
Brown
Jones
Miller
Davis
Wilson
Anderson
Taylor
Moore
Thomas

## 232 Family Names Generated:

andersomas
anderso(maylo)*...
andersor
andersown
anderson
ande(rsone)*...
ander
andes
bromas
bro(maylo)*...
bror
brown
bron
bronersomas
bronerso(maylo)*...
bronersor
bronersown
bronerson
bro(nerso)*
bronersohnsomas
bronersohnso(maylo)*...
bronersohnsor
bronersohnsown
bronersohnson
bro(nersohnso)*
bronerso(hnso)*...
broner
brones
brohnsomas
brohnso(maylo)*...
brohnsor
brohnsown
brohnson
brohnsonersomas
brohnsonerso(maylo)*...
brohnsonersor
brohnsonersown
brohnsonerson
brohnso(nerso)*
bro(hnsonerso)*...
das
daylomas
da(yloma)*...
davilsomas
davilso(maylo)*...
davilsor
davilsown
davilson
davilsonersomas
davilsonerso(maylo)*...
davilsonersor
davilsonersown
davilsonerson
davilso(nerso)*
davilsonersohnsomas
davilsonersohnso(maylo)*...
davilsonersohnsor
davilsonersohnsown
davilsonersohnson
davilso(nersohnso)*
davilsonerso(hnso)*...
davilsoner
davilsones
davilsohnsomas
davilsohnso(maylo)*...
davilsohnsor
davilsohnsown
davilsohnson
davilsohnsonersomas
davilsohnsonerso(maylo)*...
davilsohnsonersor
davilsohnsonersown
davilsohnsonerson
davilsohnso(nerso)*
davilso(hnsonerso)*...
davis
davillersomas
davillerso(maylo)*...
davillersor
davillersown
davillerson
daville(rsone)*...
daviller
davilles
davilliams
davith
jomas
jo(maylo)*...
jor
jown
jon
jonersomas
jonerso(maylo) ${ }^{*}$...

| jonersor |
| :--- |
| jonersown |
| jonerson |
| jo(nerso)* |
| jonersohnsomas |
| jonersohnso(maylo)*... |
| jonersohnsor |
| jonersohnsown |
| jonersohnson |
| jo(nersohnso)* |
| jonerso(hnso)*... |
| joner |
| jones |
| johnsomas |
| johnso(maylo)*... |
| johnsor |
| johnsown |
| johnson |
| johnsonersomas |
| johnsonerso(maylo)*... |
| johnsonersor |
| johnsonersown |
| johnsonerson |
| johnso(nerso)* |
| jo(hnsonerso)*... |
| moore |
| milsomas |
| milso(maylo)*... |
| milsor |
| milsown |
| milson |
| milsonersomas |
| milsonerso(maylo)*... |
| milsonersor |
| milsonersown |
| milsonerson |
| milso(nerso)* |
| milsonersohnsomas |
| milsonersohnso(maylo)*... |
| milsonersohnsor |
| milsonersohnsown |
| milsonersohnson |
| milso(nersohnso)* |
| milsonerso(hnso)*... |
| milsoner |
| milsones |
| milsohnsomas |
| milsohnso(maylo)*... |
| milsohnsor |
| milsohnsown |
| milsohnson |
| milsohnsonersomas |
| milsohnsonerso(maylo)*... |
| milsohnsonersor |
| milsohnsonersown |
| milsohnsonerson |
| milsohnso(nerso)* |
| milso(hnsonerso)*... |
| mis |


| millersomas | tavilsown |
| :---: | :---: |
| millerso(maylo)*... | tavilson |
| millersor | tavilsonersomas |
| millersown | tavilsonerso(maylo)*... |
| millerson | tavilsonersor |
| mille(rsone)*... | tavilsonersown |
| miller | tavilsonerson |
| milles | tavilso(nerso)* |
| milliams | tavilsonersohnsomas |
| mith | tavilsonersohnso(maylo)*... |
| smilsomas | tavilsonersohnsor |
| smilso(maylo)*... | tavilsonersohnsown |
| smilsor | tavilsonersohnson |
| smilsown | tavilso(nersohnso)* |
| smilson | tavilsonerso(hnso)*... |
| smilsonersomas | tavilsoner |
| smilsonerso(maylo)*... | tavilsones |
| smilsonersor | tavilsohnsomas |
| smilsonersown | tavilsohnso(maylo)*... |
| smilsonerson | tavilsohnsor |
| smilso(nerso)* | tavilsohnsown |
| smilsonersohnsomas | tavilsohnson |
| smilsonersohnso(maylo)*... | tavilsohnsonersomas |
| smilsonersohnsor | tavilsohnsonerso(maylo)*... |
| smilsonersohnsown | tavilsohnsonersor |
| smilsonersohnson | tavilsohnsonersown |
| smilso(nersohnso)* | tavilsohnsonerson |
| smilsonerso(hnso)*... | tavilsohnso(nerso)* |
| smilsoner | tavilso(hnsonerso)*... |
| smilsones | tavis |
| smilsohnsomas | tavillersomas |
| smilsohnso(maylo)*... | tavillerso(maylo)*... |
| smilsohnsor | tavillersor |
| smilsohnsown | tavillersown |
| smilsohnson | tavillerson |
| smilsohnsonersomas | taville(rsone)*... |
| smilsohnsonerso(maylo)*... | taviller |
| smilsohnsonersor | tavilles |
| smilsohnsonersown | tavilliams |
| smilsohnsonerson | tavith |
| smilsohnso(nerso)* | thomas |
| smilso(hnsonerso)*... | tho(maylo)*... |
| smis | thor |
| smillersomas | thown |
| smillerso(maylo)*... | thon |
| smillersor | thonersomas |
| smillersown | thonerso(maylo)*... |
| smillerson | thonersor |
| smille(rsone)*... | thonersown |
| smiller | thonerson |
| smilles | tho(nerso)* |
| smilliams | thonersohnsomas |
| smith | thonersohnso(maylo)*... |
| tas | thonersohnsor |
| taylomas | thonersohnsown |
| ta(yloma)*... | thonersohnson |
| tavilsomas | tho(nersohnso)* |
| tavilso(maylo)*... | thonerso(hnso)*... |
| tavilsor | thoner |


| thones | wilsonerso(maylo)*... <br> wilsonersor | wilsohnsonersomas |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| thohnsomas | wilsonersown | wilsohnsonerso(maylo)*... |
| thohnso(maylo)*... | wilsonerson |  |
| wilso(nerso)* | wilsohnsonersor |  |
| thohnsor | wilsonersohnsomas | wilsohnsonersown |
| thohnsown | wilsonersohnso(maylo)*... | wilsohnsonerson |
| thohnson | wilsonersohnsor | wilsohnso(nerso)* |
| thohnsonersomas | wilsonersohnsown | wilso(hnsonerso)*... |
| thohnsonerso(maylo)*... | wilsonersohnson | wis |
| thohnsonersor | wilso(nersohnso)* | willersomas |
| thohnsonersown | wilsonerso(hnso)*... | willerso(maylo)*... |
| thohnsonerson | wilsoner | willersor |
| thohnso(nerso)* | wilsones | willersown |
| tho(hnsonerso)*... | wilsohnsomas | willerson |
| wilsomas | wilsohnso(maylo)*... | wille(rsone)*... |
| wilso(maylo)*... | wilsohnsor | willer |
| wilsor | wilsohnsown | willes |
| wilsown | wilsohnson | williams |
| wilson |  | with |
| wilsonersomas |  |  |

## Appendix B

Below are copies of five (5) lists of spellings that humans were asked to categorize. Each list of spellings was generated from a Sprees automata that learned on a list of either female or male first names, family names, or medical terms. One list was generated from the combination of all these lists. See Appendix C for a list of words on which the Sprees automata were built. The order in which the word lists appear in this Appendix are female names, male names, family names, medical terms and random spellings.

Look at the list of words below. Most likely they are words you've never seen before. Check the box at the bottom that best classifies these words. Select only one box.

| amberly | kathel | licole |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ambel | karisa | laurisa |
| amberisa | kara | nisa |
| ambera | kachera | ratherly |
| erisa | kisa | rachera |
| era | kimbel | satherly |
| erel | kimber |  |
| heathel | kimbera |  |

a. female first names
b. male first names
c. family names
d. medical terms
e. cannot decide

Look at the list of words below. Most likely they are words you've never seen before. Check the box at the bottom that best classifies these words. Select only one box.

| anthon | corillis | dorey |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bennis | chrillip | doric |
| bip | dandon | mandon |
| billis | dert | phid |
| bratthew | dennill | robey |
| coben | dobert | roric |
| coris | dony |  |

a. female first names
b. male first names
c. family names
d. medical terms
e. cannot decide

Look at the list of words below. Most likely they are words you've never seen before. Check the box at the bottom that best classifies these words. Select only one box.
broner
davilson
jonerson milsor milson millerson milliams
smilsoner
smilsones
smis
tavilsown
tavilson
tavis
taviller
thones
wilsor
wilsown
willerson
willer
willes
a. female first names
b. male first names
c. family names
d. medical terms
e. cannot decide

Look at the list of words below. Most likely they are words you've never seen before. Check the box at the bottom that best classifies these words. Select only one box.

| arthris | hedage | hemonary |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| arthric | hemorrhache | pediac |
| diseadiac | herve | cancepage |
| arthrisease | tulmonage | pulmor |
| cardiatric | hespitis | syndromorrhache |
| catorrhage | headardiatric | syndromonary |
| diseadiatric | headage |  |

a. female first names
b. male first names
c. family names
d. medical terms
e. cannot decide

Look at the list of words below. Most likely they are words you've never seen before. Check the box at the bottom that best classifies these words. Select only one box.

| coric | perve | ererly |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| chrill | reme | bron |
| erid | pedage | mith |
| dob | erel | tas |
| coren | kine | thones |
| ditic | lin | wis |
| ner | amben |  |

a. female first names
b. male first names
c. family names
d. medical terms
e. cannot decide

## Appendix C

Below are lists of spellings on which Sprees automata were built. A subset of nonsense words were then generated from each automaton; see Appendix B. Human subjects were asked to categorize the nonsense words in order to determine whether the nonsense words resembled their source.

| Female Names: |
| :--- |
| nicole |
| lauren |
| heather |
| laura |
| rachel |
| amy |
| erin |
| sara |
| amber |
| kimberly |
| katherine |
| lisa |
| jane |
| susan |
| sylvia |

Family Names:
smith
johnson
williams
brown
jones
miller
davis
wilson
anderson
taylor
moore
thomas
robinson
nelson
stevens

Male Names:

## bill

phillip
eric corey don dennis ben matthew brandon anthony david mark chris robert joe

Medical terms:
cancer
arthritis respiratory disease nerve pulse headache syndrome hemorrhage cardiac pediatric bandage tumor hepatitis pulmonary


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ All pronunciations in this paper are from The American Heritage Dictionary using the International Phonetic Alphabet.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ See $\operatorname{Sipser}(1996)$ for a thorough coverage of computational automata theory.

