Determining Case in Arabic:
Learning Complex Linguistic Behavior
Requires Complex Linguistic Features

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Abstract

This paper discusses automatic determination of case in Arabic. This task is a major source of errors in full diacritization of Arabic. We use a gold-standard syntactic tree, and obtain an error rate of about 4.2%, with a machine learning based system outperforming a system using hand-written rules. A careful error analysis suggests that when we account for annotation errors in the gold standard, the error rate drops to 0.8%, with the hand-written rules outperforming the machine learning-based system.

1 Introduction

In Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), all nouns and adjectives have one of three cases: nominative (NOM), accusative (ACC), or genitive (GEN). What sets case in MSA apart from case in other languages is most saliently the fact that it is usually not marked in the orthography, as it is written using diacritics which are normally omitted. In fact, in a recent paper on diacritization, Habash and Rambow (2007) report that word error rate drops 9.4% absolute (to 5.5%) if the word-final diacritics (which include case) need not be predicted. Similar drops have been observed by other researchers (Nelken and Shieber, 2005; Zitouni et al., 2006). Thus, we can deduce that tagging-based approaches to case identification are limited in their usefulness, and if we need full diacritization for subsequent processing in a natural language processing (NLP) application (say, language modeling for automatic speech recognition (Vergyri and Kirchhoff, 2004)), we need to perform more complex syntactic processing to restore case diacritics. Options include using the output of a parser in determining case.

An additional motivation for investigating case in Arabic comes from treebanking. Native speakers of Arabic in fact are native speakers of one of the Arabic dialects, all of which have lost case (Holes, 2004). They learn MSA in school, and have no native-speaker intuition about case. Thus, determining case in MSA is a hard problem for everyone, including treebank annotators. A tool to catch case-related errors in treebanking would be useful.

In this paper, we investigate the problem of determining case of nouns and adjectives in syntactic trees. We use gold standard trees from the Arabic Treebank (ATB). We see our work using gold standard trees as a first step towards developing a system for restoring case to the output of a parser. The complexity of the task justifies an initial investigation based on gold standard trees. And of course, the use of gold standard trees is justified for our other objective, helping quality control for treebanking.

The study presented in this paper shows the importance of what has been called “feature engineering” and the issue of representation for machine learning. Our initial machine learning experiments use features that can be read off the ATB phrase structure trees in a straightforward manner. The literature on case in MSA (descriptive and prescriptive sources) reveals that case assignment in Arabic does not always follow standard assumptions about predicate-argument structure, which is what
2 Linguistic Facts

All Arabic nominals (common nouns, proper nouns, adjectives and adverbs) are inflected for case, which has three values in Arabic: nominative (NOM), accusative (ACC) or genitive (GEN). We know this from case agreement facts, even though the morphology and/or orthography do not necessarily always make the case realization overt. We discuss morphological and syntactic aspects of case in MSA in turn.

2.1 Morphological Realization of Case

The realization of nominal case in Arabic is complicated by its orthography, which uses optional diacritics to indicate short vowel case morphemes, and by its morphology, which does not always distinguish between all cases. Additionally, case realization in Arabic interacts heavily with the realization of definiteness, leading to different realizations depending on whether the nominal is indefinite, i.e., receiving nunation (تونين), definite through the determiner Al+ (+ال) or definite through being the governor of an idafa possessive construction (إضافة). Most details of this interaction are outside the scope of this paper, but we discuss it as much as it helps clarify issues of case.

Buckley (2004) describes eight different classes of nominal case expression, which we briefly review. We first discuss the realization of case in morphologically singular nouns (including broken, i.e., irregular, plurals). Triptotes are the basic class which expresses the three cases in the singular using the three short vowels of Arabic: NOM is ز+ع، ACC is ز+ا، and GEN is ز+i. The corresponding nunated forms for these three diacritics are: ز+ع for NOM, ز+ام for ACC, and ز+i for GEN. Nominals not ending with Ta Marbuta (ة) or Alif Hamza (اَ) receive an extra Alif in the accusative indefinite case (e.g.,كتاباً kitAbAَ‘book’ versus كتابة kitAbahِ‘writing’).

Diptotes are like triptotes except that when they are indefinite, they do not express nunation and they use the ز+ا suffix for both ACC and GEN. The class of diptotes is lexically specific. It includes nominals with specific meanings or morphological patterns (colors, elatives, specific broken plurals, some proper names with Ta Marbuta ending or location names devoid of the definite article). Examples include

> bayruwt ‘Beirut’ and أَزْرَقُ أَزْرَقَ أَزْرَقٌ أَزْرَقً(یَ) لِيَزْرَقُ أَزْرَقَ أَزْرَقٌ أَزْرَقً
‘blue’. The next three classes are less common. The in-
variables show no case in the singular (e.g. nomi-
nals ending in long vowels: العربية السَّوْرِيَا ‘Syria’ or عَذَرِي ‘memoir’). The indeclinables always 
use the $+a$ suffix to express case in the singular and 
allow for nunation (معنى ‘meaning’). The defective 
nominals, which are derived from roots with a 
final radical glide ($w$ or $w$), look like triptotes 
except that they collapse NOM and GEN into the 
GEN form, which also includes loosing their final 
glide: $qADi$ (NOM,GEN) versus $qADiyAa$ 
(ACC) ‘a judge’.

For the dual and sound plural, the situa-
tion is simpler, as there are no lexical ex-
ceptions. The duals and masculine sound plurals 
express number, case and gender jointly in sin-
gle morphemes that are identifiable even if undia-
critized: $kAtib+uwna ‘writers_{masc,pl}$’ (NOM), 
$MAkAtib+Ani ‘writers_{masc,du}$’ (NOM). The ACC and 
GEN forms are identical, e.g., $kAtib+iyha ‘writers_{masc,pl}$’ (ACC,GEN). Finally, the dual and 
mASCine sound plural do not express nunation. 
On the other hand, the feminine sound plural 
marks nunation explicitly, and all of its case mor-
phemes are written only as diacritics, e.g., $kAtib+iyna ‘writers_{fem,pl}$’ (NOM).  

2.2 Syntax of Case

Traditional Arabic grammar makes a distinction 
between verbal clauses (جمل فعلية) and nominal 
clauses (جمل أسمية). Verbal clauses are verb-initial 
sentences, and we (counter to the Arabic grammat-
cal tradition) include copula-initial clauses in this 
group. The copula is كان $kAn ‘to be’ or one of her 
sisters. Nominal clauses begin with a topic (which is 
always a nominal), and continue with a complement 
which is either a verbal clause, a nominal predicate, 
or a prepositional predicate. If the complement of a 
topic is a verbal clause, an inflectional subject mor-
pheme or a resumptive object clitic pronoun replace 
the argument which has become the topic.

Arabic case system falls within the class of 
nominative-accusative languages (as opposed to 
ergative-absolutive languages). Some of the com-
mon behavior of case in Arabic with other languages 
includes: 

- NOM is assigned to subjects of verbal clauses, 
as well as other nominals in headings, titles and 
quotes.
- ACC is assigned to (direct and indirect) objects 
of verbal clauses, verbal nouns, or active par-
ticiples; to subjects of small clauses governed 
by other verbs (i.e., “exceptional case marking” 
or “raising to object” contexts; we remain ag-
nostic on the proper analysis); adverbs; and cer-
tain interjections, such as شكرا ‘Thank you’.
- GEN is assigned to objects of prepositions and 
to possessors in idafa (possessive) construction.
- There is a distinction between case-by-
assignment and case-by-agreement. In case-
by-assignment, a specific case is assigned to 
a nominal by its case assigner; whereas in case-by-agreement, the modifying or conjoined 
nominal copies the case of its governor.

Arabic case differs from case in other languages 
in the following conditions, which relate to nominal 
clauses and numbers.

- The topic (independently of its grammatical 
function) is ACC if it follows the subordinating 
conjunction $A$ (or any of her “sisters”: 
أَنْ لُكَنَ $liAn~a$, لُكَنَ $kaAn~a$, لُكَنَ $lakin~a$, etc.). Otherwise, the topic is NOM.
- Nominal predicates are ACC if they are gov-
erned by the overt copula. They are also ACC if 
they are objects of verbs that take small clause complements (such as ‘to consider’), unless the 
predicate is introduced by a subordinating con-
junction. In all other cases, they are NOM.
- In constructions involving a nominal and a 
number (عشرون كتابة $Ei$rwnna $kAtibAa$ ‘twenty writers’), the head of the phrase for 
case assignment is the number, which receives 
whichever case the context assigns. The case 
of the nominal depends on the number. If the 
number is between 11 and 99, the nominal is 

$^{2}$Buckley (2004) describes in detail the conditions for each 
of the three cases in Arabic. He considers NOM to be the de-
fault case. He specifies seven conditions for NOM, 25 for ACC 
and two for GEN. Our summary covers the same ground as his 
description except that we omit the vocative use of nominals.
The ATB annotation in principle indicates for each nominal its case and the corresponding realization (including diacritics). The only systematic exception is that invariables are not marked at all with their unrealized case, and are marked as having NO-CASE. We exclude all nominals marked NOCASE from our evaluations, as we believe that these nominals actually do have case, it is just not marked in the treebank, and we do not wish to predict the morphological realization, only the underlying case. In reporting results, we use accuracy on the number of nominals whose case is given in the treebank.

While the ATB does not contain explicit information about headedness in its phrase structure, we can say that the syntactic annotations in the ATB are roughly based on predicate-argument structure. For example, for the structure shown in Figure 1, the “natural” interpretation is that the head is 

\[
\text{AHtrAqu} \quad \text{‘burning’}, \quad \text{with a modifier} \quad \text{mnzlAã} \quad \text{‘house’}, \quad \text{which in turn is modified by a QP whose head is} \quad \text{(presumably) the number} 20, \quad \text{which is modified by} \quad \text{Akθri} \quad \text{‘more’} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{mn} \quad \text{‘than’}. \quad \text{This dependency structure is shown on the left in Figure 2. Another annotation detail relevant to this paper is that the ATB marks the topic of a nominal clause as “SBJ” (i.e., as a subject) except when the predicate is a verbal clause; then it is marked as TPC. We consider these two cases to be the same case and relabel all such cases as TPC.}
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Figure 1: The representation of numbers in the Arabic Treebank, for a subject NP meaning ‘the burning of more than 20 houses’

4 Determining the Case Assigner

Case assignment is a relationship between two words: one word (the case governor or assigner) assigns case to the other word (the case assignee). Because case assignment is a relationship between words, we switch to a dependency-based version of the treebank. There are many possible ways to transform a phrase structure representation into a dependency representation; we explore two such conversions in the context of this paper. Note that if we had used the Prague Arabic Dependency Treebank (Smrž and Hajic, 2006) instead of the ATB, we would not have had to convert to dependency, but we still would have had to analyze whether the dependencies are the ones we need for modeling case assignment, possibly having to restructure the dependencies.

For determining the dependency relations that determine case assignment, we start out by using a standard head percolation algorithm with the following parameters: Verbs head all the arguments in VPs; prepositions head the PP arguments; and the first nominal in an NP or ADJP heads those structures. Non-verbal predicates (NPs, ADJPs or PPs) head their subjects (topics). The subordinating conjunction \(\text{Ain-a}\) is governed by what follows it. The overt copula \(\text{kAn}\) governs both topic and

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predicates. Conjunctions are headed by what they follow and head what they precede (with the exception of the common sentence initial conjunction +w+ ‘and’, which is headed by the sentence it introduces). We will call the result of this algorithm the **Basic Case Assigner Identification Algorithm**, or **Basic Representation** for short.

After initial experiments with both hand-written rules and machine learning, we extend the Basic Representation in order to account for the special case assigning properties of numbers in Arabic by adding additional head percolation parameters and restructuring rules to handle the structure of NPs in the ATB. This is because the current ATB representation is not useful in some cases for representing case assignment. Consider the structure in Figure 1. Here, the head of the NP is the noun $\text{AHtrAqu} ‘burning$, which has NOM because the NP is a subject (the verb is not shown). The QP’s first member, $\text{Akθri} ‘more’ is GEN because it is in an idafa construction with the noun $\text{AHtrAqu}$. $\text{Akθri}$ is modified by the preposition $\text{mn} ‘than’$ which assigns GEN to the number 20 (which is written in Arabic numerals and thus does not show any case at all). The noun $\text{mnzlAã} ‘house’$ is in a tamyiz relation with the number 20 which governs it, and thus it is ACC. It is clear that the phrase structure chosen for the ATB does not represent these case-assignment relations in a direct manner.

To create the appropriate head relations for case determination, we flatten all QPs and use a set of simple deterministic rules to create the more appropriate structure which expresses the chain of case assignments. In our development set, 5.8% of words get a new head using this new head assignment. We call this new representation the **Revised Representation**. Figure 2 shows the dependency representation corresponding to the phrase structure in Figure 1.

We make use of all dash-tags provided by the ATB as arc labels and we extend the label set to explicitly mark objects of prepositions (POBJ), possessors in idafa construction (IDAFA), conjuncts (CONJ) and conjunctions (CC), and the accusative specifier, tamyiz (TMZ). All other modifications receive the label (MOD).

5 **Hand Written Rules**

Our first system is based on hand-written rules (henceforth, we refer to this system as the rule-based system). We add two features to nominals in the tree: (1) we identify if a word governs a subordinating conjunction $\text{Áin—a}$ or any of its sisters; and (2) we also identify if a topic of a nominal sentence has an $\text{Áin—a}$ sibling.

The following are the simple hand written rules we use:

- **RULE 1**: The default case assigned is ACC for all words.
- **RULE 2**: Assign NOM to nominals heading the tree and those labeled HLN (headline) or TTL (title).
- **RULE 3**: Assign GEN to nominals with the labels POBJ or IDAFA.
- **RULE 4**: Assign NOM to nominals with the label PRD if NOT headed by a verbal (verb or deverbal noun) or if it has an $\text{Áin—a}$ child.
- **RULE 5**: Assign NOM to nominal topics that do not have an $\text{Áin—a}$ sibling.
- **RULE 6**: All case-unassigned children of nominal parents (and conjunctions), whose label is MOD, CONJ or CC, copy the case of their parent. Conjunctions carry the case temporarily to pass on agreement. Verbs do not pass on agreement.

The first rule is applied to all nodes. The second to fifth rules are case-by-assignment rules applied in an if-else fashion (no overwriting is done). The last rule is a case-by-agreement rule. All non-nominals receive the case NA.

6 **Machine Learning Experiments: The Statistical System**

Our second system uses statistical machine learning. This system consists of a core model and an agreement model, both of which are linear classifiers trained using the maximum entropy technique. We implement this system using the MALLET toolbox (McCallum, 2002). The core model is used to classify all words whose label in the dependency representation is not MOD (case-by-assignment); whereas, the agreement model is used to classify all words
Figure 2: Two possible dependency trees for the phrase structure tree in Figure 1, meaning ‘burning of more than 20 houses’; the tree on the left, our Basic Representation, represents a standard predicate-argument-modification style tree, while the tree on the right represents the chain of case assignment and is our Revised Representation.

whose label is \textit{MOD} (case-by-agreement). We handle conjunctions in the statistical system differently from the rule-based system: we resolve conjunctions so that conjoined words are labeled exactly the same. For example, in \textit{John and Mary went to the store}, both \textit{John} and \textit{Mary} would have the subject label, even though \textit{Mary} has a conjunction label in the raw dependency tree. Both models are trained only on those words which are marked for case in the treebank.

6.1 The Core Model

The core model uses the following features of a word:

- the word’s \textit{POS} tag;
- the conjunction of the word’s \textit{POS} tag and its arc label;
- the word’s last length-one and length-two suffixes (to model written case morphemes);
- the conjunction of the word’s arc label, its \textit{POS} tag, and its parent’s \textit{POS} tag;
- if the word is the object of a preposition, the preposition it is the object of;
- whether the word is a PRD child of a verb (with the identity of that verb conjoined if so);
- if the word has a sister which is a subordinating conjunction, and if so, that conjunction conjoined with its arc label;
- whether the word is in an embedded clause conjoined with its arc label under the verb of the embedded clause;
- if the word is a PRD child of a verb, the verb;
- the word’s left sister’s \textit{POS} tag conjoined with this word’s arc label and its sister’s arc label;
- whether the word’s sister depends on the word or something else;
- and the left sister’s terminal symbol.

Arabic words which do not overtly show case are still determined for purposes of resolving agreement. The classifier is applied to these cases at run-time anyway.

6.2 The Agreement Model

The agreement model uses the following features of a word:

- the word itself;
- the word’s last length-one and length-two suffixes;
- and the conjunction of the word’s \textit{POS} tag and the case of what it agrees with.

Since words may get their case by agreement with other words which themselves get their case by agreement, the agreement model is applied repeatedly until case has been determined for all words.
Table 1: Accuracies of various approaches on the test set in both basic and revised dependency representations.

| System       | Basic | Revised |
|--------------|-------|---------|
| Rule-based   | 93.5  | 94.4    |
| Statistical  | 94.0  | 95.8    |

7 Results

The performance of our two systems on the test data set is shown in table 1. There are three points to note: first, even in the basic representation, the statistical system reduces error over the rule-based system by 7.7%. Second, the revised representation helps tremendously, resulting in a 13.8% reduction in error for the rule-based system and 30% for the statistical system. Finally, the statistical system gains much more than the rule-based system from the improved representation, increasing the gap between them to a 25% reduction in error.

8 Error Analysis

We took a sample of 105 sentences (around 10%) from our development data prepared in the revised representation. Our rule-based system accuracy for the sample is about 94.1% and our statistical system accuracy is 96.2%. Table 2 classifies the different types of errors found. The first and second rows list the errors made by the statistical and rule-based systems, respectively. The third row lists errors made by the statistical system only. The fourth row lists errors made by the rule-based system only. And the fifth row lists errors made by both. The second column indicates the count of all errors. The rest of the columns specify the error types as: system errors, gold POS errors or gold tree errors. The gold POS and tree errors are treebank errors that misguide our systems. They represent 69% of all statistical system errors and 86% of all rule-based system errors. Gold POS errors represent around 35-40% of all gold errors. They most commonly include the wrong POS tag or the wrong case. One example of such errors is the mis-annotation of the ACC case to a GEN for a diptote nominal (which are indistinguishable out of context). Gold tree errors are primarily errors in the dash-tags used (or missing) in the treebank or attachment errors that are inconsistent with the gold POS tag.

The rule-based system errors involve various constructions that were not addressed in our study, e.g. flat adjectival phrases or non S constructions at the highest level in a tree (e.g. FRAG or NP). The majority of the statistical system errors involve agreement decisions and incorrect choice of case despite the presence of the dash-tags. The ratio of system errors for the statistical system is 31% (twice as much as those of the rule-based system’s 14%). Thus, it seems that the statistical system manages to learn some of the erroneous noise in the treebank.

9 Discussion

9.1 Accomplishments

We have developed a system that determines case for nominals in MSA. This task is a major source of errors in full diacritization of Arabic. We use a gold-standard syntactic tree, and obtain an error rate of about 4.2%, with a machine learning based system outperforming a system using hand-written rules. A careful error analysis suggests that when we account for annotation errors in the gold standard, the error rate drops to 0.8%, with the hand-written rules outperforming the machine learning-based system.

9.2 Lessons Learned

We can draw several general conclusions from our experiments.

- The features relevant for the prediction of complex linguistic phenomena cannot necessarily be easily read off from the given representation of the data. Sometimes, due to data sparseness and/or limitations in the machine learning paradigm used, we need to extract features from the available representation in a manner that profoundly changes the representation (as is done in bilexical parsing (Collins, 1997)). Such transformations require a deep understanding of the linguistic phenomena on the part of the researchers.
- Researchers developing hand-written rules may follow an empirical methodology in natural language processing if they use data sets to develop and test the rules — the only true methodological difference between machine learning and this kind of hand-writing of rules.
| ERRORS                   | COUNT | SYSTEM | GOLD POS | GOLD TREE |
|-------------------------|-------|--------|----------|-----------|
| All Statistical         | 45    | 14     | 11       | 20        |
| All Rule-based          | 70    | 10     | 24       | 36        |
| Statistical only        | 13    | 11     | 0        | 2         |
| Rule-based only         | 38    | 7      | 13       | 18        |
| Statistical ∩ Rule-based| 32    | 3      | 11       | 18        |

Table 2: Results of Error Analysis

is the type of learning (human or machine). For certain phenomena, machine learning may result in only a small or no improvement in performance over hand-written rules.

- Error analysis remains a crucial part of any empirical work in natural language processing. Not only does it contribute insight into how the system can be improved, it also reveals problems with the underlying data. Sometimes the problems are just part of the noise in the data, but sometimes the problems can be fixed. Annotations on data are not themselves naturally occurring data and thus may be subject to critique. Note that an error analysis requires a good understanding of the linguistic phenomena and of the data.

9.3 Outlook

Our work was motivated in two ways: to help treebanking, and to develop tools for automatic case determination from unannotated text. For the first goal, our error analysis has shown that 86% of the errors found by our hand-written rules are in fact treebank errors. Furthermore, we suspect that the hand-written rules have very few false positives (i.e., cases in which the treebank has been annotated in error but our rules predict exactly that error). Thus we believe that our tool can serve an important function in improving the treebank annotation.

For our second motivation, the next step will be to adapt our feature extraction to work on the output of parsers, which typically exclude dash-tags. We note that for many contexts, we do not currently rely on dash-tags but rather identify the relevant structures on our own (such as idafa, tamyiz, and so on). We suspect that the machine learning-based approach will outperform the hand-written rules, as it can learn typical errors the parser makes. As the treebank will soon be revised and hand-checked, we will postpone this work until the new release of the treebank, which will allow us to train better parsers as the data will be more consistent.

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