Dialectal Arabic to English Machine Translation:  
Pivoting through Modern Standard Arabic

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Abstract
Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) has a wealth of natural language processing (NLP) tools and resources. In comparison, resources for dialectal Arabic (DA), the unstandardized spoken varieties of Arabic, are still lacking. We present ELISSA, a machine translation (MT) system for DA to MSA. ELISSA employs a rule-based approach that relies on morphological analysis, transfer rules and dictionaries in addition to language models to produce MSA paraphrases of DA sentences. ELISSA can be employed as a general preprocessor for DA when using MSA NLP tools. A manual error analysis of ELISSA’s output shows that it produces correct MSA translations over 93% of the time. Using ELISSA to produce MSA versions of DA sentences as part of an MSA-pivoting DA-to-English MT solution, improves BLEU scores on multiple blind test sets between 0.6% and 1.4%.

1 Introduction
Much work has been done on Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) natural language processing (NLP) and machine translation (MT), especially Statistical MT (SMT). MSA has a wealth of resources in terms of morphological analyzers, disambiguation systems, and parallel corpora. In comparison, research on dialectal Arabic (DA), the unstandardized spoken varieties of Arabic, is still lacking in NLP in general and MT in particular. In this paper we present ELISSA, our DA-to-MSA MT system, and show how it can help improve the translation of highly dialectal Arabic text into English by pivoting on MSA.

The ELISSA approach can be summarized as follows. First, ELISSA uses different techniques to identify dialectal words and multi-word constructions (phrases) in a source sentence. Then, ELISSA produces MSA paraphrases for the selected words and phrase using a rule-based component that depends on the existence of a dialectal morphological analyzer, a list of morphosyntactic transfer rules, and DA-MSA dictionaries. The resulting MSA is in a lattice form that we pass to a language model for n-best decoding. The output of ELISSA, whether a top-1 choice sentence or n-best sentences, is passed to an MSA-English SMT system to produce the English translation sentence. ELISSA-based MSA-pivoting for DA-to-English SMT improves BLEU scores (Papineni et al., 2002) on three blind test sets between 0.6% and 1.4%. A manual error analysis of translated words shows that ELISSA produces correct MSA translations over 93% of the time.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 motivates the use of ELISSA to improve DA-English SMT with an example. Section 3 discusses some of the challenges associated with processing Arabic and its dialects. Section 4 presents related work. Section 5 details ELISSA and its approach and Section 6 presents results evaluating ELISSA under a variety of conditions.

2 Motivating Example
Table 1 shows a motivating example of how pivoting on MSA can dramatically improve the translation quality of a statistical MT system that is trained on mostly MSA-to-English parallel corpora. In this example, we use Google Translate’s online Arabic-English SMT system. The table is divided into two parts. The top part shows a dialectal (Levantine) sentence, its reference translation to English, and its Google Translate translation. The Google Translate translation clearly struggles with most of the DA words, which were probably unseen in the training data (i.e., out-of-vocabulary – OOV) and were con-

1The system was used on February 21, 2013.
considered proper nouns (transliterated and capitalized).

The lack of DA-English parallel corpora suggests pivoting on MSA can improve the translation quality. In the bottom part of the table, we show a human MSA translation of the DA sentence above and its Google translation. We see that the results are quite promising. The goal of ELISSA is to model this DA-MSA translation automatically. In Section 5.4, we revisit this example to discuss ELISSA’s performance on it. We show its output and its corresponding Google translation in Table 3.

3 Challenges for Processing Arabic and its Dialects

Contemporary Arabic is in fact a collection of varieties: MSA, the official language of the Arab World, which has a standard orthography and is used in formal settings; and DAs, the commonly used informal native varieties, which have no standard orthographies but have an increasing presence on the web. Arabic, in general, is a morphologically complex language which has rich inflectional morphology, expressed both templatically and affixationally, and several classes of attachable clitics. For example, the Arabic word 

\[ \text{wasayaktubunahA} \]

‘and they will write it’ has two proclitics (+υ w+ ‘and’ and +σ s+ ‘will’), one prefix -υ ‘3rd person’, one suffix -υ ‘masculine plural’ and one pronominal enclitic υ +hA ‘it/ her’. DAs differ from MSA phonologically, morphologically and to a lesser degree syntactically. The morphological differences are most noticeably expressed in the use of clitics and affixes that do not exist in MSA. For instance, the Levantine Arabic equivalent of the MSA example above is 

\[ \text{w+H+y-ktb-w+hA} \]

‘and they will write it’. The optionality of vocalic diacritics helps hide some of the differences resulting from vowel changes; compare the diacritized forms: Levantine wHayikitbuwhA and MSA wasayaktubuwhA.

All of the NLP challenges of MSA (e.g., optional diacritics and spelling inconsistency) are shared by DA. However, the lack of standard orthographies for the dialects and their numerous varieties pose new challenges. Additionally, DAs are rather impoverished in terms of available tools and resources compared to MSA, e.g., there is very little parallel DA-English corpora and almost no MSA-DA parallel corpora. The number and sophistication of morphological analysis and disambiguation tools in DA is very limited in comparison to MSA (Duh and Kirchoff, 2005; Habash and Rambow, 2006; Abo Bakr et al., 2008; Habash, 2010; Salloum and Habash, 2011; Habash et al., 2012; Habash et al., 2013). MSA tools cannot be effectively used to handle DA, e.g., Habash and Rambow (2006) report that over one-third of Levantine verbs cannot be analyzed using an MSA morphological analyzer.

Table 1: A motivating example for DA-to-English MT by pivoting (bridging) on MSA. The top half of the table displays a DA sentence, its human reference translation and the output of Google Translate. The bottom half of the table shows the result of human translation into MSA of the DA sentence before sending it to Google Translate.

| DA source | \text{bhAlAlh hA y} mAh \text{Hyktbwbu} \varsigma \text{HyT AI}s\text{Syh} tbcw \text{wbA bdn yAh ybc}tln kwmYntAt \text{l}Anw m\text{Abxbr}w\text{m} A\text{ym}tA rH yr\text{wH} \varsigma \text{Albd}. |
| --- | --- |
| Human Reference | In this case, they will not write on his profile wall and they do not want him to send them comments because he did not tell them when he will go to the country. |
| Google Translate | Bhalhalhi Hictpoulo Ahat Profile Thau not hull Weah Abatln Comintat Anu Mabarhun Qamta welcomed calls them Aalbuld. |
| Human DA-to-MSA | في هذه الحالة لن يكتبوا له على حاليات صفحته الشخصية ولا يريدون أن يرسلي لهم تعليقات لأنه لم يخبرهم حتى يذهب إلى البلد. |
| Google Translate | In this case it would not write to him on the wall of his own and do not want him to send their comments because he did not tell them when going to the country. |

2Arabic transliteration throughout the paper is presented in the Habash-Soudi-Buckwalter scheme (Habash et al., 2007): (in alphabetical order) \(\text{AbtOhXsdhörzsdTTDx}/\text{fykmlmnh}w\) and the additional symbols: \(\varsigma, \text{Å} \text{b}, \text{Å} \text{d}, \text{Å} \text{w}, \text{w} \text{u}, \text{y} \text{u}, \text{h} \text{u}, \text{y} \text{u}, \text{y} \text{u}.\)
4 Related Work

Dialectal Arabic NLP. Several researchers have explored the idea of exploiting existing MSA rich resources to build tools for DA NLP (Chiang et al., 2006). Such approaches typically expect the presence of tools/resources to relate DA words to their MSA variants or translations. Given that DA and MSA do not have much in terms of parallel corpora, rule-based methods to translate DA-to-MSA or other methods to collect word-pair lists have been explored. For example, Abo Bakr et al. (2008) introduced a hybrid approach to transfer a sentence from Egyptian Arabic into MSA. This hybrid system consisted of a statistical system for tokenizing and tagging, and a rule-based system for constructing diariticized MSA sentences. Moreover, Al-Sabbagh and Girju (2010) described an approach of mining the web to build a DA-to-MSA lexicon. In the context of DA-to-English SMT, Riesa and Yarowsky (2006) presented a supervised algorithm for online morpheme segmentation on DA that cut the OOV words by half.

Machine Translation for Closely Related Languages. Using closely related languages has been shown to improve MT quality when resources are limited. Hajič et al. (2000) argued that for very close languages, e.g., Czech and Slovak, it is possible to obtain a better translation quality by using simple methods such as morphological disambiguation, transfer-based MT and word-for-word MT. Zhang (1998) introduced a Cantonese-Mandarin MT that uses transformational grammar rules. In the context of Arabic dialect translation, Sawaf (2010) built a hybrid MT system that uses both statistical and rule-based approaches for DA-to-English MT. In his approach, DA is normalized into MSA using a dialectal morphological analyzer. In previous work, we presented a rule-based DA-MSA system to improve DA-to-English MT (Salloum and Habash, 2011; Salloum and Habash, 2012). Our approach used a DA morphological analyzer (ADAM) and a list of hand-written morphosyntactic transfer rules. This use of “resource-rich” related languages is a specific variant of the more general approach of using pivot/bridge languages (Utiyama and Isahara, 2007; Kumar et al., 2007). In the case of MSA and DA variants, it is plausible to consider the MSA variants of a DA phrase as monolingual paraphrases (Callison-Burch et al., 2006; Du et al., 2010). Also related is the work by Nakov and Ng (2011), who use morphological knowledge to generate paraphrases for a morphologically rich language, Malay, to extend the phrase table in a Malay-to-English SMT system.

Pivoting on MSA or acquiring more DA-English data? Zbib et al. (2012) demonstrated an approach to cheaply obtaining DA-English data. They used Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to create a DA-English parallel corpus of 1.5M words and added it to a 150M MSA-English parallel corpus to create the training corpus of their SMT system. They also used MTurk to translate their dialectal test set to MSA in order to compare the MSA-pivoting approach to the direct translation from DA to English approach. They showed that even though pivoting on MSA (produced by Human translators in an oracle experiment) can reduce OOV rate to 0.98% from 2.27% for direct translation (without pivoting), it improves by 4.91% BLEU while direct translation improves by 6.81% BLEU over their 12.29% BLEU baseline (direct translation using the 150M MSA system). They concluded that simple vocabulary coverage is not sufficient and the domain mismatch is a more important problem. The approach we take in this paper is orthogonal to such efforts to build parallel data. We plan to study interactions between the two types of solutions in the future.

Our work is most similar to Sawaf (2010)’s MSA-pivoting approach. In his approach, DA is normalized into MSA using character-based DA normalization rules, a DA morphological analyzer, a DA normalization decoder that relies on language models, and a lexicon. Similarly, we use some character normalization rules, a DA morphological analyzer, and DA-MSA dictionaries. In contrast, we use hand-written morphosyntactic transfer rules that focus on translating DA morphemes and lemmas to their MSA equivalents.

In our previous work (Salloum and Habash, 2011; Salloum and Habash, 2012), we applied our approach to tokenized Arabic and our DA-MSA transfer component used feature transfer rules only. We did not use a language model to pick the best path; instead we kept the ambiguity in the lattice and passed it to our SMT system. In contrast, in this paper, we run ELISSA on untokenized Arabic, we use
feature, lemma, and surface form transfer rules, and we pick the best path of the generated MSA lattice through a language model.

Certain aspects of our approach are similar to Riesa and Yarowsky (2006)’s, in that we use morphological analysis for DA to help DA-English MT; but unlike them, we use a rule-based approach to model DA morphology.

5 E LISSA

ELISSA is a DA-to-MSA MT System. ELISSA uses a rule-based approach (with some statistical components) that relies on the existence of a DA morphological analyzer, a list of hand-written transfer rules, and DA-MSA dictionaries to create a mapping of DA to MSA words and construct a lattice of possible sentences. ELISSA uses a language model to rank and select the generated sentences.

ELISSA supports untokenized (raw) input only. ELISSA supports three types of output: top-1 choice, an n-best list or a map file that maps source words/phrases to target phrases. The top-1 and n-best lists are determined using an untokenized MSA language model to rank the paths in the MSA translation output lattice. This variety of output types makes it easy to plug ELISSA with other systems and to use it as a DA preprocessing tool for other MSA systems, e.g., MADA (Habash and Rambow, 2005) or AMIRA (Diab et al., 2007).

ELISSA’s approach consists of three major steps preceded by a preprocessing and normalization step, that prepares the input text to be handled (e.g., UTF-8 cleaning, Alif/Ya normalization, word-lengthening normalization), and followed by a post-processing step, that produces the output in the desired form (e.g., encoding choice). The three major steps are Selection, Translation, and Language Modeling.

5.1 Selection

In the first step, ELISSA identifies which words or phrases to paraphrase and which words or phrases to leave as is. ELISSA provides different methods (techniques) for selection, and can be configured to use different subsets of them. In Section 6 we use the term "selection mode" to denote a subset of selection methods. Selection methods are classified into Word-based selection and Phrase-based selection.

Word-based selection. Methods of this type fall in the following categories:

a. User token-based selection: The user can mark specific words for selection using the tag ‘/DIA’ (stands for ‘dialect’) after each word to select.

b. User type-based selection: The user can specify a list of words to select from, e.g., OOVs. Also the user can provide a list of words and their frequencies and specify a cut-off threshold to prevent selecting a frequent word.

c. Morphology-based word selection: ELISSA uses ADAM (Salloum and Habash, 2011) to select words that have DA analyses only (DIAONLY) or DA/MSA analyses (DIAMSA).

d. Dictionary-based selection: ELISSA selects words based on their existence in the DA side of our DA-MSA dictionaries.

e. All: ELISSA selects every word in an input sentence.

Phrase-based selection. This selection type uses hand-written rules to identify dialectal multi-word constructions that are mappable to single or multi-word MSA constructions. The current count of these rules is 25. Table 2 presents some rule categories and related examples.

In the current version of ELISSA, words can be selected using either the phrase-based selection method or a word-based selection method, but not both. Phrase-based selection has precedence. We evaluate different settings for selection step in Section 6.

5.2 Translation

In this step, ELISSA translates the selected words and phrases to their MSA equivalent paraphrases. The specific type of selection determines the type of the translation, e.g., phrase-based selected words are translated using phrase-based translation rules. The MSA paraphrases are then used to form an MSA lattice.

Word-based translation. This category has two types of translation techniques: surface translation that uses DA-to-MSA surface-to-surface (S2S) transfer rules (TRs) and deep (morphological) translation that uses the classic rule-based machine translation flow: analysis, transfer and generation. The
Table 2: Examples of some types of phrase-based selection and translation rules.

| Rule Category                  | Selection Examples | Translation Examples |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| **Dialectal Idafa**           | جيش الوطنی بنعانا | جيش الوطنی fyšna AlwTny |
| **Verb + flipped direct and indirect objects** | حضر لها ياهن | حضرهم لها |
|                               | HDrilha yAhn     | HDrhm lhA           |
|                               | ‘he-prepared-for-her’ | ‘he-prepared-them-for-her’ |
| **Special dialectal expressions** | بدأ يأهأ | بدأ يأهأ |
|                               | bdy AyAhA    | bdy AyAhA           |
|                               | ‘his-desire her’ | ‘his-desire her’ |
| **Negation + verb**           | خذل يكتبلا   | خذل يكتبلا |
|                               | wmA Hyktbwlw | wmA Hyktbwlw |
|                               | ‘and-not they-will-write-to-him’ | ‘and-will-not they-write-to-him’ |
| **Negation + agent noun**     | لف مل آكح | لف مل آكح |
|                               | fms lAqyh | bdy AyAhA |
|                               | ‘so-not finding’ | ‘so-not finding’ |
| **Negation + closed-class words** | ما عدامک | ما عدامک |
|                               | mSA zdkm    | mSA zdkm           |
|                               | ‘not with-you’ | ‘not with-you’ |

Table 2: Examples of some types of phrase-based selection and translation rules.

| DA Phrase | Word 1 | Word 2 |
|-----------|--------|--------|
| **Analysis** |        |        |
| Proclitics | Lemma & Features | Lemma & Features |
| w+        | mA     | rAhw   |
| conj+     | [neg]  | [+l]   |
| and+      | not    | +prepp |
|           |        | +pronfS |

| DA Phrase | Word 1 | Word 2 | Word 3 |
|-----------|--------|--------|--------|
| **Transfer** |        |        |        |
| Proclitics | Lemma & Features | Lemma & Features | Lemma & Features |
| conj+     | [lam]  | [ydhbIV subj:3MP] | [Aly] |
| and+      | did not | they go | to |
|           |        |        | +pronfS |
|           |        |        | +her  |

| DA Phrase | Word 1 |
|-----------|--------|
| **Generation** |        |
| Proclitics | Lemma & Features |
| w+        | lm     |
| conj+     | did not |
| and+      | [ydhbIV subj:3MP] |
|           |        |

| DA Phrase | Word 1 | Word 2 |
|-----------|--------|--------|
| **MSA Phrase** |        |        |
| Proclitics | Lemma & Features | Lemma & Features |
| w+        | lm     | ydhbWAl |
| conj+     | did not | they go |
| and+      | [ydhbIV subj:3MP] | to |
|           |        | +pronfS |
|           |        | +her |

Figure 1: An example illustrating the analysis-transfer-generation steps to translate a dialectal multi-word expression into its MSA equivalent phrase.

dialectal morphological analysis step uses ADAM (Salloum and Habash, 2011) to get a list of dialectal analyses. The morphosyntactic transfer step uses lemma-to-lemma (L2L) and features-to-features (F2F) transfer rules to change lemmas, clitics or features, and even split up the dialectal word into multiple MSA word analyses (such as splitting negation words and indirect objects). The MSA morphological generation step uses the general tokenizer/generator TOKAN (Habash, 2007) to generate untokenized surface form words. For more details, see Salloum and Habash (2011).

### Phrase-based translation

Unlike the word-based translation techniques which map single DA words to single or multi-word MSA constructions, this technique uses hand-written multi-word transfer rules that map multi-word DA constructions to single or multi-word MSA constructions. In the current system, there are 47 phrase-based transfer rules. Many of the word-based morphosyntactic transfer rules are re-used for phrase-based translation. Figure 1 shows an example of a phrase-based morphological translation of the two-word DA sequence وما راحولا وما راحولا ‘And they did not go to her’. If these two words were spelled as a single word, وما راحولا وما راحولا, we would still get the same result using the word-based translation technique only. Table 2 shows some rule categories along with selection and translation examples.

#### 5.3 Language Modeling

The language model (LM) component uses the SRILM lattice-tool for weight assignment and n-best decoding (Stolcke, 2002). ELISSA comes with a default 5-gram LM file trained on ~200M untok-
6.1 REVISITING OUR MOTIVATING EXAMPLE

We revisit our motivating example in Section 2 and show automatic MSA-pivoting through ELISSA. Table 3 is divided into two parts. The first part is copied from Table 1 for convenience. The second part shows ELISSA’s output on the dialectal sentence and its Google Translate translation. The produced MSA is not perfect, but is clearly an improvement over doing nothing as far as usability for MT into English.

6 EVALUATION

In this section, we present two evaluations of ELISSA. The first is an extrinsic evaluation of ELISSA as part of MSA-pivoting for DA-to-English SMT. The second is an intrinsic evaluation of the quality of ELISSA’s MSA output.

6.1 DA-ENGLISH MT EVALUATION

6.1.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

We use the open-source Moses toolkit (Koehn et al., 2007) to build a phrase-based SMT system trained on mostly MSA data (64M words on the Arabic side) obtained from several LDC corpora including some limited DA data. Our system uses a standard phrase-based architecture. The parallel corpus is word-aligned using GIZA++ (Och and Ney, 2003). Phrase translations of up to 10 words are extracted in the Moses phrase table. The language model for our system is trained on the English side of the bitext augmented with English Gigaword (Graff and Cieri, 2003). We use a 5-gram language model with modified Kneser-Ney smoothing. Feature weights are tuned to maximize BLEU on the NIST MTEval 2006 test set using Minimum Error Rate Training (Och, 2003). This is only done on the baseline systems. The English data is tokenized using simple punctuation-based rules. The Arabic side is segmented according to the Arabic Treebank (ATB) tokenization scheme (Maamouri et al., 2004) using the MADA+TOKAN morphological analyzer and tokenizer v3.1 (Habash and Rambow, 2005; Roth et al., 2008). The Arabic text is also Alif/Ya normalized. MADA-produced Arabic lemmas are used for word alignment.

We use the same development (dev) and test sets used by Salloum and Habash (2011) (we will call them speech-dev and speech-test, respectively) and we compare to them in the next sections. We also evaluate on two web-crawled blind test sets: the Levantine test set presented in Zbib et al. (2012) (we will call it web-lev-test) and the Egyptian Dev-MT-v2 development data of the DARPA BOLT program (we will call it web-egy-test). The speech-dev set has 1,496 sentences with 32,047 untokenized Arabic words. The speech-test set has 1,568 sentences with 32,076 untokenized Arabic words.
32,492 untokenized Arabic words. The web-lev-test set has 2,728 sentences with 21,179 untokenized Arabic words. The web-egy-test set has 1,553 sentences with 21,495 untokenized Arabic words. The two speech test sets contain multi-dialect (e.g., Iraqi, Levantine, Gulf, and Egyptian) broadcast conversational (BC) segments (with three reference translations), and broadcast news (BN) segments (with only one reference, replicated three times). The web-egy-test has two references while the web-lev-test has only one reference. Results are presented in terms of BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002). All evaluation results are case insensitive.

### 6.1.2 Results on the Development Set

We experimented with different method combinations in the selection and translation components in ELISSA. We use the term selection mode and translation mode to denote a certain combination of methods in selection or translation, respectively. Due to limited space, we only present the best selection mode variation experiments. Other selection modes were tried but they proved to be consistently lower than the rest. The ‘F2F+L2L; S2S’ word-based translation mode (using morphological transfer of features and lemmas along with surface form transfer) showed to be consistently better than other method combinations across all selection modes. In this paper we only use ‘F2F+L2L; S2S’ word-based translation mode. Phrase-based translation mode is used when phrase-based selection mode is used.

To rank paraphrases in the generated MSA lattice, we combine two 5-gram untokenized Arabic language models: one is trained on Arabic Gigaword data and the other is trained the Arabic side of our SMT training data. The use of the latter LM gave frequent dialectal phrases a higher chance to appear in ELISSA’s output; thus, making the output "more dialectal" but adapting it to our SMT input. Experiments showed that using both LMs is better than using each one alone.

In all the experiments, we run the DA sentence through ELISSA to generate a top-1 MSA translation, which we then tokenize through MADA before sending to the MSA-English SMT system. Our baseline is to not run ELISSA at all; instead, we send the DA sentence through MADA before applying the MSA-English MT system.

Table 4 summarizes the experiments and results on the dev set. The rows of the table are the different systems (baseline and ELISSA’s experiments). All differences in BLEU scores from the baseline are statistically significant above the 95% level. Statistical significance is computed using paired bootstrap re-sampling (Koehn, 2004). The name of the system in ELISSA’s experiments denotes the combination of selection method. ELISSA’s experiments are grouped into three groups: simple selection, frequency-based selection, and phrase-based selection. Simple selection group consists of five systems: OOV, ADAM, OOV U ADAM, DICT, and OOV U ADAM U DICT. The OOV selection mode identifies the untokenized OOV words. In the ADAM selection mode, or the morphological selection mode, we use ADAM to identify dialectal words. Experiments showed that ADAM’s DIA-MSA mode (selecting words that have at least one dialectal analysis) is slightly better than ADAM’s DIAONLY mode (selecting words that have only dialectal analyses and no MSA ones). The OOV U ADAM selection mode is the union of the OOVs and ADAM selection modes. In DICT selection mode, we select dialectal words that exist in our DA-MSA dictionaries. The OOV U ADAM U DICT selection mode is the union of the OOVs, ADAM, and DICT selection modes. The results show that combining the output of OOV selection method and ADAM selection method is the best. DICT selection method hurts the performance of the system when used because dictionaries usually have frequent dialectal words that the SMT system already knows how to handle.

In the frequency-based selection group, we exclude from word selection all words with number of occurrences in the training data that is above a certain threshold. This threshold was determined empirically to be 50. The string ‘- (Freq >= 50)’ means that all words with frequencies of 50 or more should not be selected. The results show that excluding frequent dialectal words improves the best simple selection system. It also shows that using DICT selection improves the best system if frequent words are excluded.

In the last system group, phrase-word-based selection, phrase-based selection is used to select phrases and add them on top of the best performers of the previous two groups. Phrase-based trans-
Table 4: Results for the speech-dev set in terms of BLEU. The ‘Diff.’ column shows result differences from the baseline. The rows of the table are the different systems (baseline and ELISSA’s experiments). The name of the system in ELISSA’s experiments denotes the combination of selection method. In all ELISSA’s experiments, all word-based translation methods are tried. Phrase-based translation methods are used when phrase-based selection is used (i.e., the last three rows). The best system is in bold.

6.1.3 Results on the Blind Test Sets

We run the system settings that performed best on the dev set along with the OOV selection mode system on the three blind test set. Results and their differences from the baseline are reported in Table 5. We see that OOV selection mode system always improves over the baseline for all test sets. Also, the best performer on the dev is the best performer for all test sets. The improvements of the best performer over the OOV selection mode system on all test sets confirm that translating low frequency in-vocabulary dialectal words and phrases to their MSA paraphrases can improve the English translation. This is a similar conclusion to our previous work in Salloum and Habash (2011).

6.1.4 A Case Study

We next examine an example in some detail. Table 6 shows a dialectal sentence along with its ELISSA’s translation, English references, the output of the baseline system and the output of our best system. The example shows a dialectal word 

| Test Set | speech-dev | BLEU | Diff. |
|----------|-------------|------|-------|
| Baseline |             | 37.20| 0.00  |
| Select: OOV |            | 37.75| 0.55  |
| Select: ADAM |           | 37.88| 0.68  |
| Select: OOV U ADAM |         | 37.89| 0.69  |
| Select: DICT |           | 37.06| -0.14 |
| Select: OOV U ADAM U DICT |       | 37.53| 0.33  |
| Select: (OOV U ADAM) - (Freq >= 50) |   | 37.96| 0.76  |
| Select: (OOV U ADAM U DICT) - (Freq >= 50) | | 38.00| 0.80  |
| Select: Phrase; (OOV U ADAM) |       | 37.99| 0.79  |
| Select: Phrase; ((OOV U ADAM) - (Freq >= 50)) | | 38.05| 0.85  |
| Select: Phrase; ((OOV U ADAM U DICT) - (Freq >= 50)) | | 38.10| 0.90  |
Table 5: Results for the three blind test sets (table columns) in terms of BLEU. The ‘Diff.’ columns show result differences from the baselines. The rows of the table are the different systems (baselines and ELISSA’s experiments). The best systems are in bold.

| Test Set | speech-test | web-lev-test | web-egy-test |
|----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|          | BLEU | Diff. | BLEU | Diff. | BLEU | Diff. |
| Baseline | 38.18 | 0.00 | 9.13 | 0.00 | 18.98 | 0.00 |
| Select: OOV | 38.76 | 0.58 | 9.65 | 0.62 | 19.19 | 0.21 |
| Select: Phrase; ((OOV U ADAM U DICT) - (Freq >= 50)) | 39.13 | 0.95 | 10.54 | 1.41 | 19.59 | 0.61 |

For more on Arabic morpho-syntactic agreement patterns, see Alkuhlani and Habash (2011).

Finally, the best system translation for the selected phrase is ‘this sum’. We can see how both the accuracy and fluency of the sentence have improved.

Using ELISSA to produce MSA versions of dialectal sentences as part of an MSA-pivoting DA-to-English MT solution, improves BLEU scores on three blind test sets by: 0.95% absolute BLEU (or 2.5% relative) for a speech multi-dialect (Iraqi, Levantine, Gulf, Egyptian) test set, 1.41% absolute BLEU (or 15.4% relative) for a web-crawled Levantine test set, and 0.61% absolute BLEU (or 3.2% relative) for a web-crawled Egyptian test set. A manual error analysis of translated selected words shows that our system produces correct MSA translations over 93% of the time.

### 6.2 DA-to-MSA Translation Quality

We conducted a manual error analysis comparing ELISSA’s input (the original dev set) to its output using our best system settings from the experiments above. Out of 708 affected sentences, we randomly selected 300 sentences (42%). Out of the 482 handled tokens, 449 (93.15%) tokens have good MSA translations, and 33 (6.85%) tokens have wrong MSA translations. Most of the wrong translations are due to spelling errors, proper nouns, and weak input sentence fluency (especially due to speech effect). This analysis clearly validates ELISSA’s MSA output. Of course, a correct MSA output can still be mistranslated by the MT system we used above if it is not in the vocabulary of the MT system.

### 7 Conclusion and Future Work

We presented ELISSA, a tool for DA-MSA translation. ELISSA employs a rule-based MT approach that relies on morphological analysis, transfer rules and dictionaries in addition to language models to produce MSA paraphrases of dialectal sentences.

In the future, we plan to extend ELISSA’s coverage of phenomena in the handled dialects and to new dialects. We also plan to automatically learn additional rules from limited available data (DA-MSA or DA-English). We also would like to do additional MT experiments where we use ELISSA to preprocess the training data, comparable to experiments done by Sawaf (2010). We are interested in studying how our approach can be combined with solutions that simply add more dialectal training data since the two directions are complementary in that they address linguistic normalization and domain coverage. Finally, we look forward to experimenting with ELISSA as a preprocessing system for a variety of dialect NLP applications similar to Chiang et al. (2006)’s work on dialect parsing, for example.

ELISSA will be publicly available. Please contact the authors for more information.

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