Democratic and Popular Algerian Republic

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Yahia Fares University of Médéa



Faculty of Sciences

Department of Mathematics and Computer Science

Final Master Project

Branch: Computer Science

Specialty: Applied Artificial Intelligence

Theme

A DEEP LEARNING MODEL FOR A MULTI LEVEL ARABIC TEXT POSTAGGING

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Year: 2024-2025

Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

My beloved parents, whose unconditional love, endless support, and sacrifices have shaped who I am today. Your guidance and faith have been my strongest foundation.

My brother ILYES and sisters, for their constant encouragement and kind presence throughout my academic journey.

My dear friends, who have stood by me with patience, motivation, and support, especially in challenging times.

And to all those who, directly or indirectly, contributed to the completion of this project, I am truly grateful.

And with heartfelt emotion, to **the soul of my grandfather** — a man of wisdom, strength, and silent grace. Though he is no longer among us, his spirit lives on in my heart, guiding and inspiring me. May this work honor his memory, and may his soul rest in eternal peace.

A special thought goes to the brave and resilient students of Palestine, who, despite facing hardship and injustice, continue to pursue knowledge and education with unwavering courage and dignity. May your strength and perseverance be a source of inspiration to us all. This humble work is also for you.

BENDIB Yacine

Dedication

In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful.

First and foremost, I thank Allah for granting me the strength, patience, and guidance throughout my academic journey. Without His blessings, none of this would have been possible.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my beloved mother, whose endless love, prayers, and encouragement have been my greatest source of motivation. To my entire family, thank you for your unwavering support, understanding, and sacrifices. Your belief in me has carried me through every challenge and achievement.

This project is dedicated to all of you, with heartfelt appreciation and love

FETOUMI Sidali

Acknowledgements

We want to start by giving thanks to God for all of His blessings during our academic career. We were able to finish this senior project successfully because of His wisdom.

Additionally, we want to express our gratitude to MR. HADJIR ISMAIL, our supervisor, for his wise counsel and invaluable support. His availability, knowledge, and faith in our skills were crucial to this project's successful conclusion.

CONTENTS

FINAL MASTER PROJECT ---------- **1**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ---------- **4**

LIST OF TABLES ---------- **10**

LIST OF FIGURES ---------- **11**

ABSTRACT ---------- **12**

RESUME ---------- **13**

GENERAL INTRODUCTION: ---------- **15**

RESEARCH PROBLEM: ---------- **16**

OBJECTIVES ---------- **17**

REPORT STRUCTURE ---------- **18**

Chapter 1: State of the Art **18**

Chapter 2: Methodology **18**

Chapter 3: Implementation **19**

Chapter 4: Results and Discussion **20**

CHAPTER 1: STATE OF THE ART ---------- **22**

1.1.Introduction: **23**

1.2.Artificial intelligence (IA): **24**

1.3.Natural language processing (NLP): **24**

1.4.Arabic natural language processing (ANLP): **25**

1.5.Machine learning : **25**

1.6.Naïve Bayes classifiers 27

1.7.support vector machine (SVM) 27

1.8.Deep Learning (DL): 28

1.9.Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory (BiLSTM): 29

1.10.Recurrent neural network (RNN): 30

1.11.Bert : 30

1.12.XLM-ROBERTA-base : 31

1.13.Part-of-speech tagging (POS tagging) 33

1.14.History of POS-Tagging for Arabic Language 34

1.15.Word embedding: 36

1.16.Multi-Level POS Tagging in Arabic 36

1.16.1.Noun Part-of-Speech 37

1.16.2.Verb Part-of-Speech 38

1.16.3.Particle Part-of-Speech 39

1.17.Emerging Techniques in Arabic Natural Language Processing: 41

1.18.POS-TAGGING Related works: 42

1.18.1.About the table : 43

1.19.Conclusion : 45

CHAPTER 2 : METHODOLOGY ---------- 47

2.1.Introduction 48

2.2.Dataset : 49

2.2.1.Description : 49

2.2.2.CoNLL-U: 49

2.2.3.Source of annotations : 50

2.2.4.Statistics of UD Arabic PADT : 51

D.Tokenization and Word Segmentation : 59

E.Morphology : 59

F.Nominal Features 60

G.Definite 62

H.Degree and Polarity 63
I.Verbal Features 63
J.Pronouns, Determiners, Quantifiers..... 64
K.Other Features 65
L.Syntax 66

2.3. Model Architecture Overview 69

2.3.1.Transformer-Based (Xlm-ROBERTA) 69
2.3.3.Arabic-Specific Advantages:..... 70
2.3.4.Performance :..... 70

2.4.Hybrid CNN-LSTM 71
2.4.1.Concept: 71
2.4.2.Architectural Flow: 71

2.4.3.Arabic Adaptations: 71

2.5.preprocessing techniques: 71

1. Feature Extraction for Arabic POS Tagging 71
A. Morpho-Syntactic Features 71
B. Contextual Features 72
C. Orthographic Features 72

2.6.Normalization Pipeline 73

2,7.Critical Steps: 73

2.7.Mathematical Formulation: 74
2.7.1.Weights: 74

2.7.2.Bias : 74

2.7.3.Activation function: 75
Sigmoid : 75
Relu : 75
Tanh : 75
Softmax: 75
2.7.4.Cross-Entropy: 76
2.7.4.1.Cross Entropy as a Loss Function 76

2.7.5.Adam Optimizer 78
2.7.5.1.What is Adam Optimizer? 78
2.7.5.2.How Does Adam Work? 78
2. RMSprop (Root Mean Square Propagation) 79
3. Combining Momentum and RMSprop: Adam Optimizer 80
2.7.5.3.Why Adam Works So Well? 80
2.7.5.4.Key Parameters in Adam 81
2.7.5.6.Performance of Adam 81

2.8.Mathematical Representations 82
2.8.1.What is self-attention? 82
2.8.2.Attention Mechanism in NLP 82
2.8.3.How does self-attention work? 82
2.8.4.Embedding the input sequence : 83
2.8.5.Generate vectors for the attention function : 83
2.8.6.Compute the attention scores : 83
2.8.7.Transform the attention scores into probabilities : 84
2.8.8.Why Self-attention is important? 84

2.9.Probleme reformulation : 84

2.9.1.Overview of our model : 86

2.10.Conclusion 86

CHAPTER 3 : IMPLEMENTATION ---------- 87

3.1.Introduction : 88

3.2.Implementation Pipeline for Multi-Level Arabic POS Tagging: From Dataset Preparation to Evaluation 88

3.3.Development Environment and Tools 90
3.3.1The Python 91

3.4.Environment : 91

3.5.Implementation Steps: 94
3.5.1.Dataset Preparation 94
3.5.2.Preprocessing 94
3.5.3.Model Training 94

3.5.4.Training Configuration 95
3.5.6.Output: Training Screenshot 95

3.6.Conclusion 98

CHAPTER 4 : RESULTS AND DISCUSSION ---------- 99

4.2.Obtained Results : 100

4.3.Hyperparameters :..... 101
4.3.1.Hyperparameters of the CRF Model: 103
4.3.2.Hyperparameters of the XLM-ROBERTA Model : 103
4.3.3.Hyperparameters of the BILSTM Model : 105

4.4.Evaluation Metrics and Results 106

4.5.Discussion of Results 106
4.5.1.Statistical Model (CRF)..... 106
4.5.2.Deep Learning Models (XLM-ROBERTA and bilstm) 107

4.6.Comparison with Related Work 107

4.7.General Discussion 108
4.7.1.Strengths of Our Approach 109
4.7.2.Limitations..... 109

4.8.Future Work 110

4.9.Conclusion 111

CONCLUSION GENERAL : ----------112

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:Basic POS Tags (FIRST LEVEL) 40

Table 2:Detailed POS Tags (Second level) 41

Table 3: POS TAGGING Related works 43

Table 4:table of annotation (10) 51

Table 5 : table of postags 53

Table 6:table of features 56

Table 7:table of relations 59

Table 8: camparison xlm-ROBERTA to mBERT results (11) 70

Table 9:Morpho-Syntactic Features 71

Table 10:Orthographic Features 72

Table 11:Normalization Pipeline 73

Table 12: Hyperparameters of the CRF Model 103

Table 13:Hyperparameters of the XLM-ROBERTA Model 104

Table 14:Hyperparameters of the BILSTM Model 105

Table 15:table summarizes the evaluation results for the four models 106

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1:ARCHITECTURE OF NAÏVE BAYES CLASSIFIER. 27
FIGURE 2:ARCHITECTURE OF A BIDIRECTIONAL LSTM FOR SEQUENCE PROCESSING 29
FIGURE 3:COMPARISON BETWEEN RECURRENT NEURAL NETWORK (RNN) AND FEED-FORWARD NEURAL NETWORK (FFNN) 30
FIGURE 4:AN OVERVIEW OF THE BERT EMBEDDING PROCESS. IMAGE TAKEN FROM THE BERT PAPER 31
FIGURE 5:ARABIC XLM-ROBERTA-BASE MODEL ARCHITECTURE. 32
FIGURE 6:BIDIRECTIONAL LSTM ARCHITECTURE WITH EMBEDDING AND SEQUENCE CONCATENATION 36
FIGURE 7: HIERARCHICAL LEVELS OF NOUN CATEGORIES. 37
FIGURE 8:HIERARCHICAL LEVELS OF VERB CATEGORIES. 38
FIGURE 9: HIERARCHICAL LEVELS OF PARTICLE CATEGORIES 39
FIGURE10:COMPARATIVE VISUAL REPRESENTATION OF THE PERFORMANCE OF VARIOUS POS TAGGING MODELS FOR ARABIC. 45
FIGURE 11:ARABIC-PADT TOKEN TABLE WITH UPOS + FEATS 49
FIGURE 12:XLM-ROBERTA ARCHITECTURE 69
FIGURE 13:ARCHITECTURAL FLOW OF CNN 71
FIGURE 14:PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON TRAINING COST 81
FIGURE 15:GENERAL DIAGRAM OF THE MODELS 86
FIGURE 16**:UPOS TRAINING XLM-ROBERTA** 96
FIGURE 17:XPOS TRAINING XLM-ROBERTA 97
FIGURE 18:CRF TRAINING SCREENSHOT 97

Abstract

A portion of Assigning grammatical categories to every word in a sentence is the goal of speech (POS) tagging, a basic task in natural language processing (NLP). The multi-level POS tagging method for Arabic, a morphologically rich and syntactically complex language, is presented in this project. Our approach focuses on two levels of annotation: XPOS+FEATS (language-specific POS tags and morphological features) and UPOS (universal POS tags).

We apply and contrast three models: a refined XLM-ROBERTA transformer model, a Conditional Random Field (CRF) model based on handcrafted features, and a BiLSTM model that learns from sequential patterns. The Arabic-PADT corpus, which follows the Universal Dependencies framework, was used to train and assess all models.

According to experimental findings, deep learning models perform noticeably better than conventional methods. Because of its deep contextualized embeddings and subword tokenization capabilities, the XLM-ROBERTA model performs best at both tagging levels and is able to capture the morphological richness and syntactic structure of Arabic.

With possible uses in information extraction, syntactic parsing, and machine translation, this research advances the creation of more precise Arabic language processing systems.

Résumé

L’étiquetage morphosyntaxique (Part-of-Speech tagging) est une tâche fondamentale en traitement automatique du langage naturel (TAL), visant à attribuer une catégorie grammaticale à chaque mot d’une phrase. Ce projet propose une approche d’étiquetage morphosyntaxique multi-niveaux pour la langue arabe, caractérisée par sa richesse morphologique et sa complexité syntaxique. Deux niveaux d’annotation sont ciblés : UPOS (étiquettes universelles) et XPOS+FEATS (étiquettes spécifiques à la langue et traits morphologiques).

Nous avons mis en œuvre et comparé trois modèles : un modèle CRF (Conditional Random Fields) basé sur des caractéristiques linguistiques manuelles, un modèle BiLSTM exploitant les séquences de mots, et un modèle XLM-ROBERTA affiné à partir d’un transformeur multilingue préentraîné. Tous les modèles ont été entraînés et évalués sur le corpus Arabic-PADT, conforme au schéma d’annotation Universal Dependencies.

Les résultats expérimentaux montrent que les modèles d’apprentissage profond surpassent nettement les approches traditionnelles. Le modèle XLM-ROBERTA obtient les meilleures performances sur les deux niveaux d’étiquetage, grâce à ses représentations contextuelles profondes et à sa capacité à gérer la richesse morphologique de l’arabe.

Cette recherche contribue à la construction de systèmes de traitement automatique de la langue arabe plus précis, avec des applications potentielles en traduction automatique, analyse syntaxique et extraction d'information.

الملخص

يُعدّ وسم أجزاء الكلام (POS tagging) مهمة أساسية في مجال معالجة اللغات الطبيعية، ويهدف إلى إسناد الفئة النحوية المناسبة لكل كلمة داخل الجملة. في هذا المشروع، نقترح مقاربة لتوسيم النصوص العربية بطريقة **متعددة المستويات**، تأخذ بعين الاعتبار خصائص اللغة العربية، مثل غناها الصرفي وتعقيدها النحوي وغياب التشكيل في النصوص المكتوبة.

تركز هذه المقاربة على مستويين من الوسم:

UPOS وسوم نحوية عالمية

XPOS+FEATS وسوم نحوية خاصة باللغة بالإضافة إلى الخصائص الصرفية

تمّ تطبيق ومقارنة ثلاث نماذج مختلفة:

نموذج **CRF**(الحقول العشوائية الشرطية) المعتمد على ميزات لغوية يدوية،

نموذج **BiLSTM**المعتمد على شبكات الذاكرة الطويلة ثنائية الاتجاه،

ونموذج **XLM-ROBERTA** وهو نموذج محول متعدد اللغات مدرّب مسبقًا ومخصّص لهذه المهمة.

تم تدريب النماذج واختبارها باستخدام **مجموعة بيانات Arabic-PADT** وفقًا لمخطط التعليقات النحوية العالمي .**(Universal Dependencies)**

أظهرت النتائج أنّ نماذج التعلم العميق، وخاصة **XLM-ROBERTA**، تتفوّق بوضوح على النماذج التقليدية من حيث الدقة والقدرة على التعامل مع تعقيدات اللغة العربية، وذلك بفضل التمثيلات السياقية العميقة وقدرته على تحليل الكلمات النادرة والمعقدة صرفيًا.

تُساهم هذه الدراسة في تطوير أنظمة أكثر دقة لمعالجة اللغة العربية، مع إمكانية استخدامها في مجالات مثل الترجمة الآلية، التحليل النحوي، واستخراج المعلومات.

General introduction:

Arabic is an exceptionally important language, spoken by hundreds of millions of people around the world. It has a long and rich history, but it also exhibits unique linguistic features that make it particularly challenging for computers to process unlike more structurally straightforward languages like English.

One of the main reasons is that Arabic words can change a lot. Think of it like a basic root, such as "ك-ت-ب" (meaning 'write'), that can have many different additions and changes to show different meanings. For example, from this root, you can get words like "كَتَبَ" (he wrote), "يَكْتُبُ" (he writes), or "كِتَاب" (book). This process, called morphology, is much more complex in Arabic than in English. This means there are tons of possible word forms, which can be overwhelming for computer programs trying to learn the language.

Plus, just like English has different accents and slang in different regions, Arabic has many different dialects. These dialects can be quite different from each other and from the standard form of written Arabic. So, a computer program trained on one type of Arabic might not understand another very well.

This project aims to develop a deep learning model for multi-level Arabic POS tagging using state-of-the-art neural architectures. Traditional rule-based statistical methods often struggle with the complexity of Arabic, making deep learning a promising alternative. By incorporating multi-level tagging, our model can capture finer linguistic details, there by improving the performance of downstream NLP applications such as machine translation, sentiment analysis, and information retrieval.

Our approach includes the use of modern deep learning techniques such as recurrent neural networks (RNNs), long short-term memory (LSTM) networks, Transformer-based architectures (e.g., BERT or Xlm-ROBERTA), and CNNs to improve accuracy and contextual understanding. The dataset will

be drawn from an annotated Arabic corpus, ensuring comprehensive coverage of different dialects and formal Arabic (Modern Standard Arabic).

This research contributes to the advancement of Arabic NLP by providing a robust and scalable part-of-speech tagging model. It also provides opportunities for further research in morphological disambiguation, syntactic analysis, and semantic understanding of Arabic texts.

Research Problem:

A key task in Natural Language Processing (NLP) is part-of-speech (POS) tagging, which assigns the proper grammatical category (e.g., noun, verb, adjective) to each word in a sentence. This task is particularly difficult in Arabic because of the language's rich morphology, intricate inflectional structure, agglutination, and the fact that most written texts do not use short vowels, or diacritical marks. The creation of a reliable and universal Arabic POS tagging system is made more difficult by the existence of multiple regional dialects.

For POS tagging in Arabic, conventional methods like Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) have been extensively utilized. Although CRF-based models are good at capturing local dependencies and gain from handcrafted linguistic features, they are unable to model deep contextual information and have trouble with morphological ambiguity and out-of-vocabulary words.

Objectives

The main goal of this project is to design, develop, and evaluate a deep learning based multi-level Arabic Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging model. Specific goals of this project:

Develop a robust and efficient model for accurately mapping POS tags to Arabic text, taking into account the specific challenges of the language, such as its diverse morphology, inflection, and the presence of multiple dialects.

Analyze the impact of various factors such as training data size, embedding options, and model complexity on system performance to determine the optimal configuration for Arabic part-of-speech tagging.

Enhance text comprehension for non-native Arabic speakers, particularly when reading not diacritized Arabic text, by providing accurate and detailed syntactic and morphological information to facilitate better understanding of the language's structure and meaning.

develop and implement an optimized deep learning-based model for multi-level Arabic part-of-speech tagging using state-of-the-art neural architectures and training techniques. The proposed system is evaluated on the basis of existing methods in terms of accuracy, efficiency, and generalization.

Report Structure

Chapter 1: State of the Art

The introduction provides an overview of Artificial Intelligence (AI), Natural Language Processing (NLP), and Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging, highlighting their significance in the field of text processing. AI refers to the simulation of human intelligence by machines, while NLP focuses on enabling computers to understand and interpret human language. POS tagging, a key task within NLP, involves assigning grammatical categories (such as noun, verb, adjective) to each word in a sentence, which is essential for various downstream applications. These three concepts are closely interconnected—AI provides the overarching framework, NLP operates as a subfield within it, and POS tagging serves as a foundational process for many NLP tasks. POS tagging plays a vital role in applications such as machine translation, speech recognition, and sentiment analysis, where understanding the syntactic structure of text is crucial. Additionally, when working with the Arabic language, specific challenges arise due to its unique characteristics, including rich and complex morphology, the use of diacritics, a root-based word structure, and significant dialectal variations. These features present both obstacles and opportunities in developing effective NLP systems for Arabic.

Chapter 2: Methodology

The database section outlines the source and characteristics of the annotated Arabic corpus used in this study. It begins by describing the origin of the dataset, which consists of manually labeled Arabic text with corresponding POS tags. A statistical analysis is then performed to examine the distribution of words, the frequency and variety of POS categories, as well as the overall size and diversity of the dataset, which are crucial for understanding its representativeness and suitability for training robust models.

The solution design focuses on the architecture of the proposed deep learning models, including CNN-LSTM networks, Transformer-based architectures, and models such as XLM-RoBERTa. These models are selected for their capacity to capture both local and global linguistic patterns in Arabic. Preprocessing techniques like tokenization and feature extraction are applied to prepare the data for model training, ensuring that it is clean and structured for efficient processing.

The mathematical formulation section presents the theoretical underpinnings of the models, including the definition of loss functions used to guide learning, optimization algorithms employed to minimize errors, and a formal representation of how the model processes inputs. Furthermore, it details the mathematical structure of multi-level POS tagging, where tags are assigned at multiple linguistic levels, such as universal POS tags (UPOS) and language-specific tags (XPOS and FEATS).

Finally, a system architecture diagram provides a visual summary of the overall pipeline, illustrating the flow of data from input and preprocessing through model training and prediction, helping to clarify the modular structure and functional components of the proposed solution.

Chapter 3: Implementation

The implementation phase of the project is carried out using Python, a widely adopted programming language in the field of machine learning and NLP. Key libraries used include TensorFlow and PyTorch for building and training deep learning models, as well as Hugging Face Transformers for leveraging pre-trained language models. These tools provide powerful frameworks for efficient model development and experimentation.

The development environment is Google Colab, which offers a cloud-based platform with integrated support for GPUs. The setup includes installing necessary libraries and dependencies, ensuring compatibility with the selected models and datasets. This environment simplifies experimentation by providing access to computational resources without the need for local hardware.

Machine specifications are critical to deep learning tasks, and in this project, the use of cloud-based GPUs, sufficient RAM, and ample storage facilitates the training of large models and processing of extensive Arabic corpora. Details such as the GPU type and available memory are noted to contextualize the system's capabilities.

The implementation steps are structured into a clear pipeline. The preprocessing phase involves loading the dataset, applying text normalization (such as removing diacritics or standardizing characters), and potentially using data augmentation techniques to increase model robustness. Model training follows, where hyperparameters such as learning rate, batch size, and number of epochs are fine-tuned to optimize performance. The evaluation strategy includes defining appropriate metrics—such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score—to assess the model's effectiveness in POS tagging tasks.

Chapter 4: Results and Discussion

The testing and evaluation phase presents the experimental results obtained from the proposed Arabic POS tagging models. Key performance metrics such as accuracy and F1-score are reported to measure the model's ability to correctly assign POS tags. Additionally, confusion matrices are used to visualize classification performance across different tag categories, highlighting areas of strength and common misclassifications.

A comparative analysis is then conducted to benchmark the proposed model against existing Arabic POS tagging approaches. This comparison demonstrates how the model fares in terms of performance, robustness, and generalization, shedding light on the improvements achieved or gaps that remain.

The discussion delves deeper into the strengths and weaknesses of the proposed approach. Among the strengths are the ability to capture rich linguistic features and handle complex Arabic morphology, especially when using advanced models like Transformers. However, some limitations are also acknowledged, such as challenges in handling dialectal variations, the reliance on annotated data, and potential overfitting on small datasets.

To address these limitations, the report suggests several avenues for future improvement. These include leveraging transfer learning to benefit from knowledge across tasks, exploring unsupervised learning methods to reduce dependency on labeled data, expanding the corpus to include more diverse and larger datasets, and adapting the models to better handle dialectal Arabic. Future research could also investigate multilingual or cross-lingual approaches, or explore integrating linguistic rules into data-driven models for enhanced performance.

Chapter 1: State of the Art

1.1.Introduction:

In recent years, natural language processing (NLP) has made significant progress, driven by the rapid development of artificial intelligence (AI) and deep learning technologies. One of the fundamental tasks of NLP is part-of-speech tagging (POS), which assigns grammatical categories (such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and prepositions) to words in a given text. POS tagging plays a vital role in various NLP applications, including machine translation, text-to-speech synthesis, sentiment analysis, and information retrieval.

While POS tagging has been widely studied in resource-rich languages such as English and French, Arabic faces special challenges due to its rich morphology, complex word structure, and diverse dialect variations.

Arabic is an enormously inflected language, in which phrases will have more than one bureaucracy primarily based totally on tense, gender, and case, making POS tagging notably greater complicated than in different languages. Moreover, the dearth of diacritics in written Arabic frequently results in ambiguities in phrase meanings, in addition complicating the tagging process.

This bankruptcy offers a complete evaluation of AI, NLP, and POS tagging, highlighting their definitions, applications, and challenges. It additionally delves into the precise traits of the Arabic language, discussing its morphological richness, syntactic structures, and dialectal diversity. Understanding those foundational standards is vital for growing a strong deep studying version for multi-level Arabic POS tagging.

1.2.Artificial intelligence (IA):

Artificial intelligence is the simulation of human intelligence processes by machines, especially computer systems. Examples of AI applications include expert systems, natural language processing (NLP), speech recognition and machine vision.

As the hype around AI has accelerated, vendors have scrambled to promote how their products and services incorporate it. Often, what they refer to as "AI" is a well-established technology such as machine learning.

AI requires specialized hardware and software for writing and training machine learning algorithms. No single programming language is used exclusively in AI, but Python, R, Java, C++ and Julia are all popular languages among AI developers. (1)

1.3.Natural language processing (NLP):

Natural language processing (NLP) is a subfield of computer science and artificial intelligence (AI) that uses machine learning to enable computers to understand and communicate with human language.

NLP enables computers and digital devices to recognize, understand and generate text and speech by combining computational linguistics—the rule-based modeling of human language—together with statistical modeling, machine learning and deep learning.

NLP research has helped enable the era of generative AI, from the communication skills of large language models (LLMs) to the ability of image generation models to understand requests. NLP is already part of everyday life for many, powering search engines, prompting Chabot’s for customer service with spoken commands, voice-operated GPS systems and question-answering digital assistants on smartphones such as Amazon’s Alexa, Apple’s Siri and Microsoft’s Cortana.

NLP also plays a growing role in enterprise solutions that help streamline and automate business operations, increase employee productivity and simplify business processes. (2)

1.4.Arabic natural language processing (ANLP):

Arabic natural language processing (ANLP) consists of developing techniques and tools that can utilize and analyze the Arabic language in both written and spoken contexts. ANLP makes an important contribution to many existing developed systems. It provides Arabic and non-Arabic speakers with helpful and convenient tools that can be used in different domains. Modern ANLP tools are developed using machine learning (ML) techniques. ML algorithms are widely used in NLP because of their high accuracy rate regardless of the robustness of the data that is used and because of the ease with which they can be implemented. On the other hand, the methodology of ANLP applications based on ML involves several distinct phases. It is therefore crucial to recognize and understand these phases in detail as well as the most widely used ML algorithms. This survey discusses this concept in detail, shows the involvement of ML techniques in developing such tools, and identifies well-known techniques used in ANLP. Moreover, this survey discusses the characteristics and complexity of the Arabic language in addition to the importance and needs of ANLP. (3)

1.5.Machine learning :

Machine learning (ML) is a discipline of artificial intelligence (AI) that provides machines with the ability to automatically learn from data and past experiences while identifying patterns to make predictions with minimal human intervention.

Machine learning methods enable computers to operate autonomously without explicit programming. ML applications are fed with new data, and they can independently learn, grow, develop, and adapt.

Machine learning derives insightful information from large volumes of data by leveraging algorithms to identify patterns and learn in an iterative process. ML algorithms use computation methods to learn directly from data instead of relying on any predetermined equation that may serve as a model.

The performance of ML algorithms adaptively improves with an increase in the number of available samples during the 'learning' processes. For example, deep learning is a sub-domain of machine learning that trains computers to imitate natural human traits like learning from examples. It offers better performance parameters than conventional ML algorithms.

While machine learning is not a new concept – dating back to World War II when the Enigma Machine was used – the ability to apply complex mathematical calculations automatically to growing volumes and varieties of available data is a relatively recent development.

Today, with the rise of big data, IoT, and ubiquitous computing, machine learning has become essential for solving problems across numerous areas, such as:

- Computational finance (credit scoring, algorithmic trading)
- Computer vision (facial recognition, motion tracking, object detection)
- Computational biology (DNA sequencing, brain tumor detection, drug discovery)
- Automotive, aerospace, and manufacturing (predictive maintenance)
- Natural language processing (speech recognition) (26)

1.6.Naïve Bayes classifiers

The Naïve Bayes classifier is a supervised machine learning algorithm that is used for classification tasks such as text classification. They use principles of probability to perform classification tasks.

Naïve Bayes is part of a family of generative learning algorithms, meaning that it seeks to model the distribution of inputs of a given class or category. Unlike discriminative classifiers, like logistic regression, it does not learn which features are most important to differentiate between classes. (30)

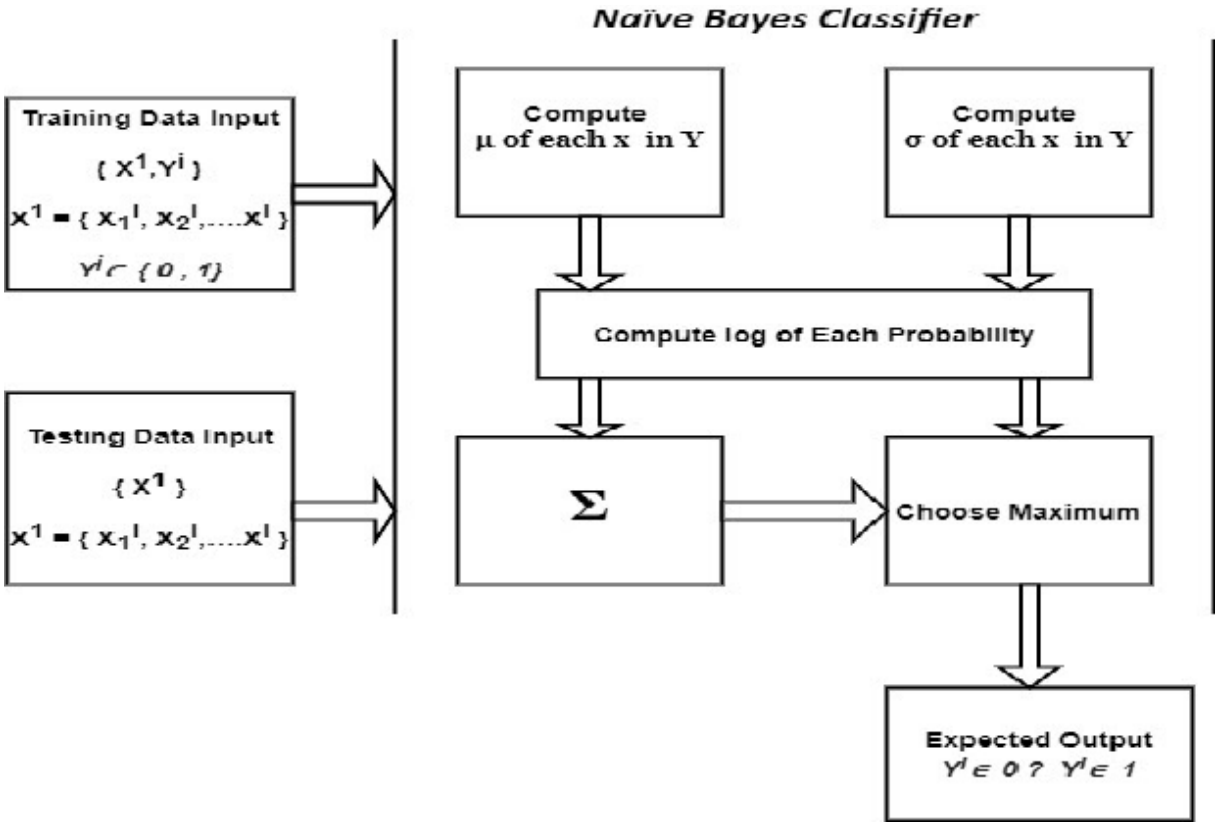


Figure 1:Architecture of Naïve Bayes Classifier.

1.7.support vector machine (SVM)

A support vector machine (SVM) is a supervised machine learning algorithm that classifies data by finding an optimal line or hyperplane that maximizes the distance between each class in an N-dimensional space.

SVMs were developed in the 1990s by Vladimir N. Vapnik and his colleagues, and they published this work in a paper titled "Support Vector Method for Function Approximation, Regression Estimation, and Signal Processing"[1] in 1995.

SVMs are commonly used within classification problems. They distinguish between two classes by finding the optimal hyperplane that maximizes the margin between the closest data points of opposite classes. The number of features in the input data determine if the hyperplane is a line in a 2-D space or a plane in a n-dimensional space. Since multiple hyperplanes can be found to differentiate classes, maximizing the margin between points enables the algorithm to find the best decision boundary between classes. This, in turn, enables it to generalize well to new data and make accurate classification predictions. The lines that are adjacent to the optimal hyperplane are known as support vectors as these vectors run through the data points that determine the maximal margin.

The SVM algorithm is widely used in machine learning as it can handle both linear and nonlinear classification tasks. However, when the data is not linearly separable, kernel functions are used to transform the data higher-dimensional space to enable linear separation. This application of kernel functions can be known as the “kernel trick”, and the choice of kernel function, such as linear kernels, polynomial kernels, radial basis function (RBF) kernels, or sigmoid kernels, depends on data characteristics and the specific use case. (31)

1.8.Deep Learning (DL):

Deep learning is a subset of machine learning that uses multilayered neural networks, called deep neural networks, to simulate the complex decision-making power of the human brain. Some form of deep learning powers most of the artificial intelligence (AI) applications in our lives today.

The major difference between deep learning and machine learning is the structure of the underlying neural network architecture. “Nondeep,” traditional

machine learning models use simple neural networks with one or two computational layers. Deep learning models use three or more layers, but typically hundreds or thousands of layers to train the models. (6)

1.9.Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory (BiLSTM):

A Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory (BiLSTM) network is a type of recurrent neural network that addresses the limitations of traditional recurrent neural networks. It is designed to effectively manage the vanishing-gradient problem and capture long-term dependencies in text sequences by monitoring information flow from previous and current timesteps in both forward and backward directions simultaneously. (8)

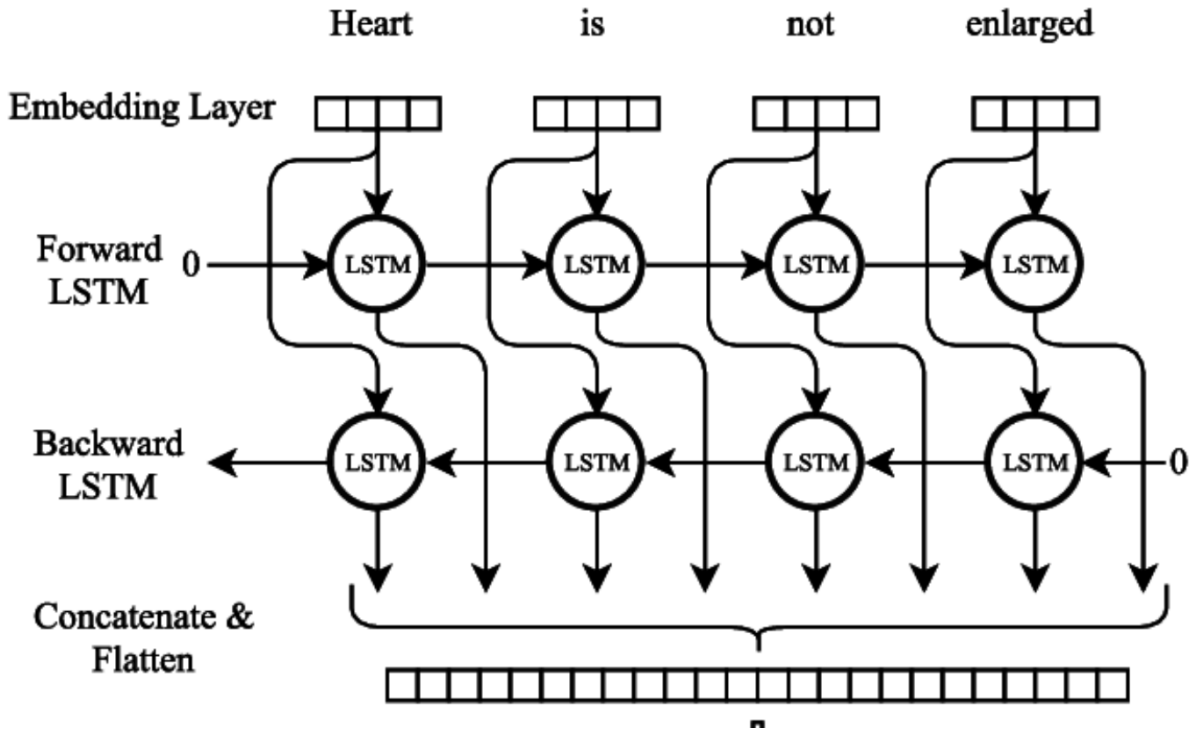


Figure 2:Architecture of a Bidirectional LSTM for Sequence Processing

1.10.Recurrent neural network (RNN):

A recurrent neural network or RNN is a deep neural network trained on sequential or time series data to create a machine learning (ML) model that can make sequential predictions or conclusions based on sequential inputs.

An RNN might be used to predict daily flood levels based on past daily flood, tide and meteorological data. However, RNNs can also be used to solve ordinal or temporal problems such as language translation, natural language processing (NLP), sentiment analysis, speech recognition and image captioning. (5)

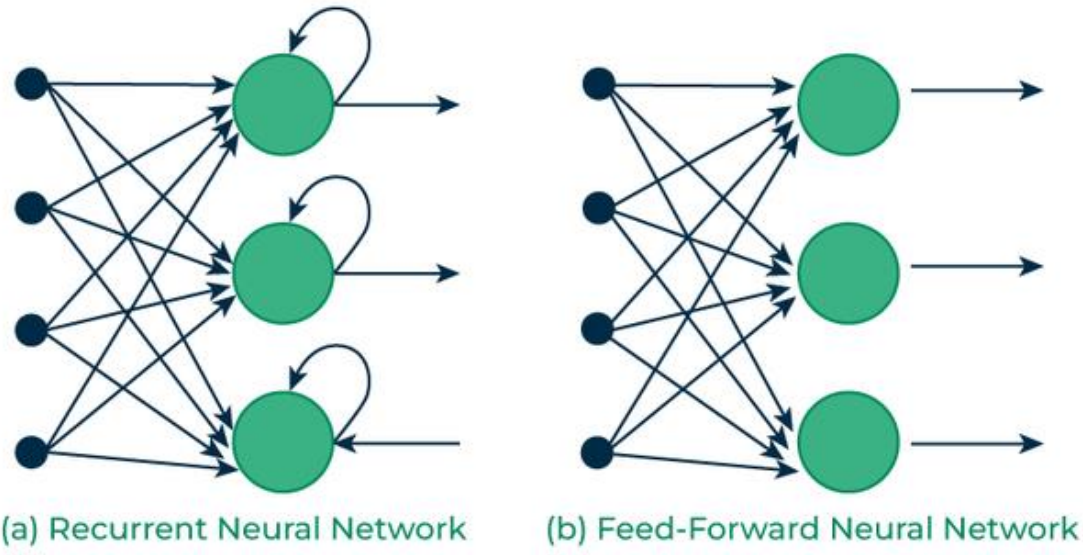


Figure 3:Comparison Between Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) and Feed-Forward Neural Network (FFNN)

1.11.Bert :

BERT language model is an open source machine learning framework for natural language processing (NLP). BERT is designed to help computers understand the meaning of ambiguous language in text by using surrounding text to establish context. The BERT framework was pretrained using text from Wikipedia and can be fine-tuned with question-and-answer data sets.

BERT, which stands for Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers, is based on transformers, a deep learning model in which every output element is connected to every input element, and the weightings between them are dynamically calculated based upon their connection.

Historically, language models could only read input text sequentially -- either left-to-right or right-to-left -- but couldn't do both at the same time. BERT is different because it's designed to read in both directions at once. The introduction of transformer models enabled this capability, which is known as bidirectionality. Using bidirectionality, BERT is pretrained on two different but related NLP tasks: masked language modeling (MLM) and next sentence prediction (NSP).

The objective of MLM training is to hide a word in a sentence and then have the program predict what word has been hidden based on the hidden word's context. The objective of NSP training is to have the program predict whether two given sentences have a logical, sequential connection or whether their relationship is simply random. (28)

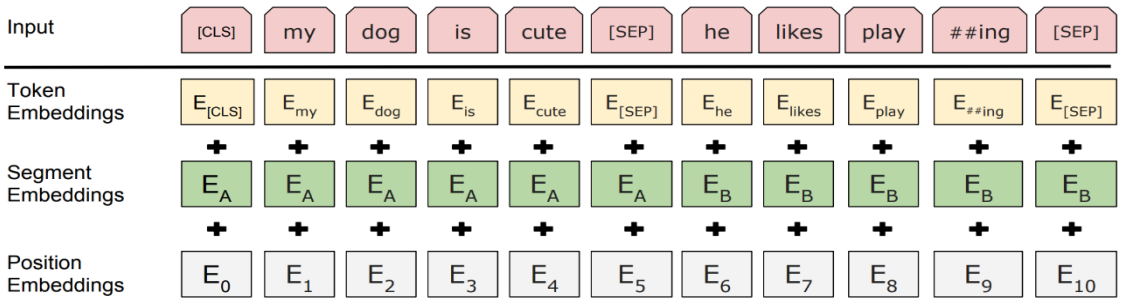


Figure 4:An overview of the BERT embedding process. Image taken from the BERT paper

1.12.XLM-ROBERTA-base :

XLM-ROBERTA-base is a multilingual transformer model developed by Facebook AI, designed to handle a wide range of natural language processing tasks across 100 different languages. It is based on the ROBERTA architecture,

which itself is an optimized and robust variant of the original BERT model, and was pre-trained on 2.5TB of filtered CommonCrawl data using a masked language modeling (MLM) objective. This means that, like BERT, XLM-ROBERTA-base learns to predict randomly masked tokens within sentences, enabling it to develop strong bidirectional contextual representations. The model incorporates improvements from ROBERTA, such as dynamic masking and larger training data, and is trained for more epochs with larger batch sizes than BERT, resulting in enhanced stability and efficiency during learning. XLM-ROBERTA-base significantly outperforms multilingual BERT (mBERT) on various cross-lingual benchmarks and is especially effective for low-resource languages, making it highly suitable for tasks like text classification, sequence labeling, and question answering. In summary, XLM-ROBERTA-base is an evolution of BERT for multilingual and cross-lingual applications, leveraging the strengths of both BERT and ROBERTA architectures to deliver state-of-the-art performance in multilingual NLP tasks. (roberta, s.d.)

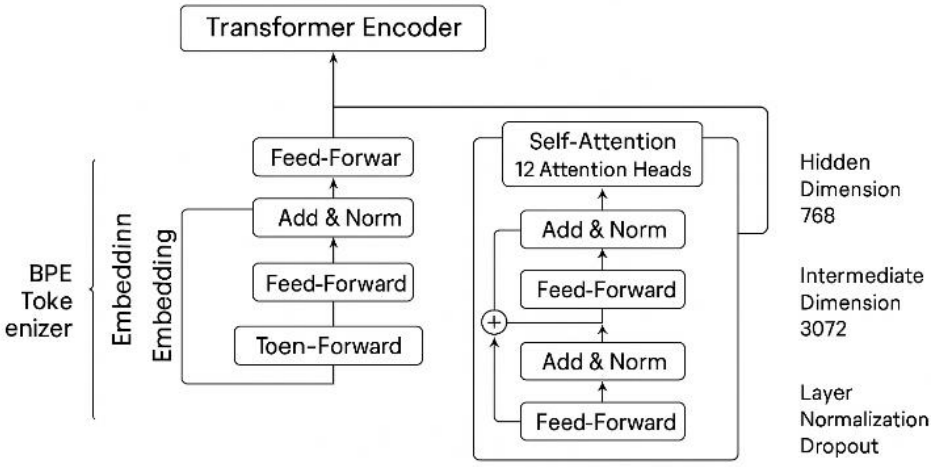


Figure 5:Arabic xlm-ROBERTA-base model architecture.

1.13.Part-of-speech tagging (POS tagging)

Part-of-speech (POS) tagging is a foundational step in natural language processing (NLP) that assigns grammatical categories—like noun, verb, adjective, or preposition—to each word in a sentence. Its primary role is to help NLP systems understand the syntactic structure of text, which is critical for higher-level tasks like parsing, semantic analysis, or machine translation. For example, in the sentence "The bank can close early," POS tagging identifies "close" as a verb (meaning "shut") rather than an adjective (meaning "near"), resolving ambiguity. By labeling words with their grammatical roles, POS tagging provides a structured view of language that algorithms can use to infer relationships between words.

POS tagging directly supports several NLP applications. For instance, in syntactic parsing, tags help algorithms build parse trees to represent sentence structure. If a parser knows "running" is a verb in "She is running fast," it can correctly link it to the subject "She." Similarly, named entity recognition (NER) systems rely on POS tags to identify proper nouns (e.g., "Apple" as an organization vs. "apple" as a fruit). In machine translation, POS tags guide reordering words between languages—like moving adjectives after nouns in English-to-French translation. Even simpler tasks like text-to-speech benefit: knowing whether "read" is a verb (present tense) or a noun (past tense) affects pronunciation. These examples show how POS tagging acts as a bridge between raw text and deeper linguistic analysis.

Developers should be aware of challenges in POS tagging. Ambiguity is common: the word "book" can be a noun ("a book") or a verb ("book a flight"), requiring context-aware models. While rule-based taggers use handcrafted grammar rules, modern systems like the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) or bidirectional LSTMs learn from annotated corpora (e.g., the Penn Treebank). However, accuracy varies across languages—languages with flexible word order

(e.g., Latin) or minimal inflection (e.g., Chinese) pose unique challenges. Additionally, while transformer-based models like BERT can implicitly capture POS information, explicit tagging remains useful for interpretable pipelines or low-resource scenarios. For practical implementation, libraries like spaCy or NLTK offer pre-trained taggers, but fine-tuning on domain-specific text (e.g., medical jargon) often improves results. Understanding these trade-offs helps developers choose the right approach for their NLP tasks. (7)

1.14.History of POS-Tagging for Arabic Language

For Arabic language different taggers had been developed by researches and companies. Companies like

RDI, Sakhr and Xerox. These companies developed taggers for commercial purposes.

El-Kareh and Al-Ansary developed a hybrid tagger that used statistical method and morphological rules in the form of HMMs. Their tagger performed tests for determining the tag of the word then the user of the system could accept the current suggestion or replace it. It was called semi-automatic. El-Kareh and Al-Ansary tagger was derived from traditional Arabic grammar. It achieved an accuracy of 90%.

Shereen Khoja developed the APT system (Automatic Arabic POS-Tagger). This tagger is combined from two approaches: statistical and rule-based techniques.

The APT is considered as the first tagger system for Arabic language. The tagset which was used in APT consisted of 131 tags derived from the BNC English tagset. Khoja derived her initial tagset from the grammar of Arabic language. The APT achieved an accuracy of 86 %.

Freeman used a machine learning approach and implemented Brill's POS-tagger for the Arabic language. His tagger was based on a tagged corpus. The

corpus was constructed manually and it contained over 3,000 words. A tagset of 146 tags was used.

Maamouri and Cieri developed a POS-tagger using rule-based method. They based their Arabic tagger on automatic annotation output produced by the morphological analyzer of Tim Buckwalter. The developed tagger achieved an accuracy of 96%.

Diab et al. developed a POS-tagger for Arabic language. This tagger used the support vector machine (SVM) method and LDC (Linguistic Data Consortium). It consisted of 24 tagset.

Banko and Moore presented an HMM tagger for Arabic language. This tagger achieved an accuracy of 96%.

Guiassa developed a tagger that used hybrid method of rule-based and a memory-based learning method and it achieved an accuracy of 86%.

Few researchers were taken into account the structure of Arabic sentence like Shamsi and Guessoum. They developed an Arabic POS-tagger for un-vocalized text with an accuracy of 97% using the HMMs.

Alqrainy developed a POS-tagger using the rule- based approach. This tagger was called AMT (Arabic Morphosyntactic Tagger). The input for AMT was untagged raw partially-vocalized Arabic corpus. The target of the tagger was to assign the correct tag to each word in the corpus producing a POS-tagged corpus without using a manually tagged or untagged dictionary. The AMT consisted of two rule components: pattern-based rules and lexical and contextual rules. The AMT system achieved an average accuracy of 91%.

Ali and Jarray used the Genetic algorithm to develop an Arabic part of speech tagging. They used a reduced tagset in their tagger. (25)

1.15.Word embedding:

Word embedding in NLP is an important term that is used for representing words for text analysis in the form of real-valued vectors. It is an advancement in NLP that has improved the ability of computers to understand text-based content in a better way. It is considered one of the most significant breakthroughs of deep learning for solving challenging natural language processing problems.

In this approach, words and documents are represented in the form of numeric vectors allowing similar words to have similar vector representations. The extracted features are fed into a machine learning model so as to work with text data and preserve the semantic and syntactic information. This information once received in its converted form is used by NLP algorithms that easily digest these learned representations and process textual information. (9)

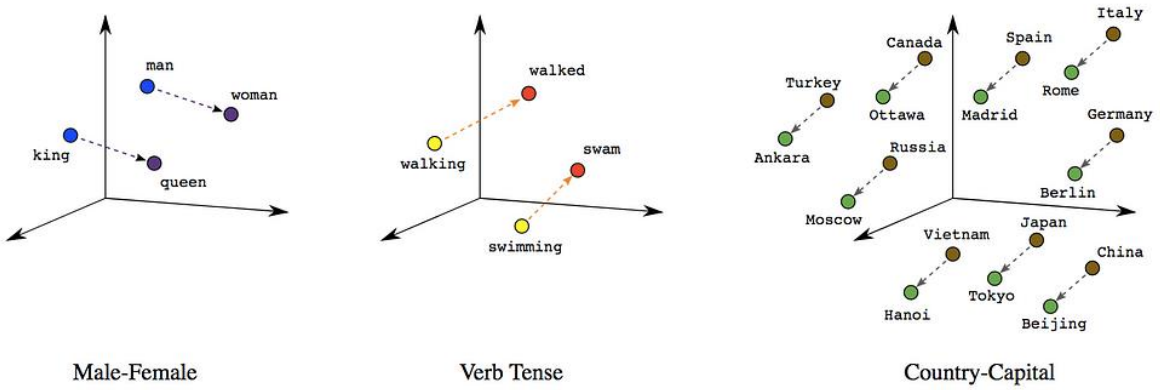


Figure 6:Bidirectional LSTM Architecture with Embedding and Sequence Concatenation

1.16.Multi-Level POS Tagging in Arabic

Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging is a fundamental task in Natural Language Processing (NLP) that consists of assigning grammatical categories (such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.) to each word in a sentence. While basic POS tagging typically assigns a single, general tag per word (such as *noun* or *verb*), more

advanced systems can perform **multi-level POS tagging**, where each token receives tags at multiple levels of granularity.

In multi-level POS tagging, the first level often involves coarse-grained categories (such as **UPOS**, Universal POS tags), whereas subsequent levels provide more detailed morphosyntactic information — including **language-specific POS (XPOS)** and **morphological features** like gender, number, definiteness, mood, aspect, and case.

1.16.1.Noun Part-of-Speech

A noun conveys lexical meaning (as opposed to grammatical meaning) but gives no indication of time. Nouns are classified according to five main subcategories: definiteness (definite or indefinite), number (Singular, Dual, Plural), gender (Masculine, Feminine), inflection (Derived or Primitive) and declension (Declined or Invariable). Each class contains several tags. (27)

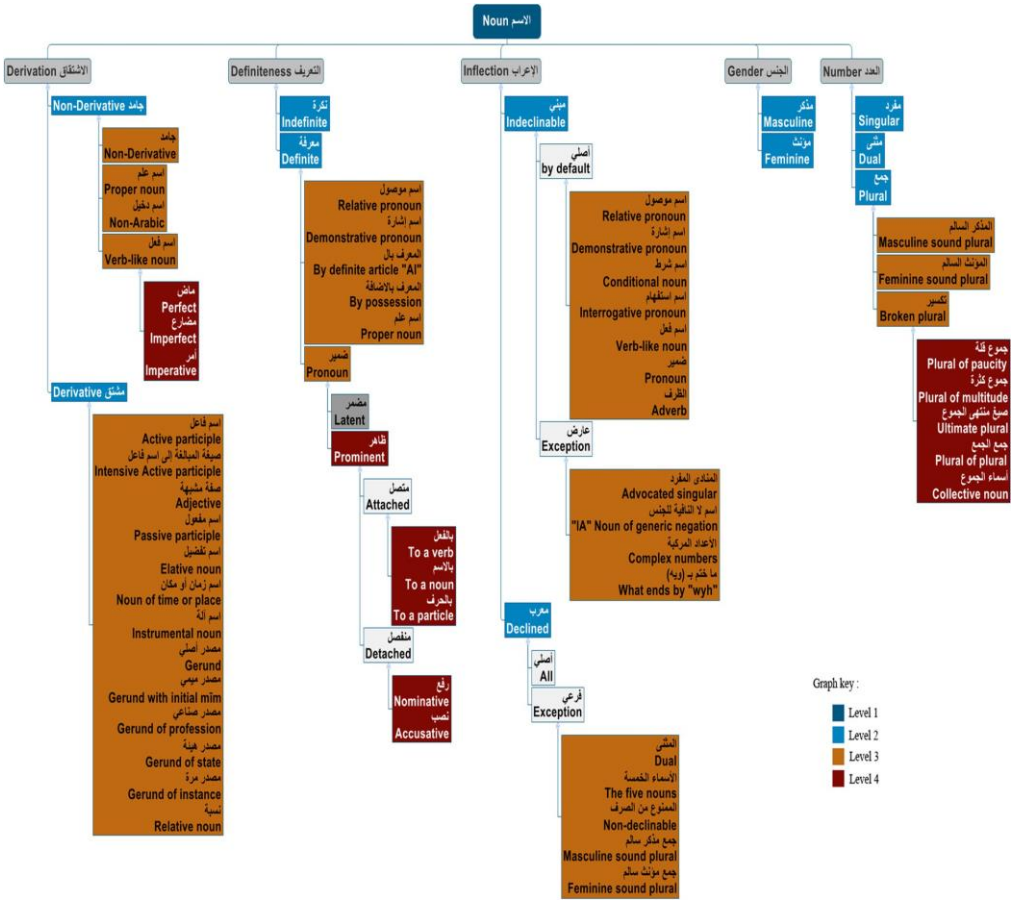


Figure 7: Hierarchical levels of noun categories.

1.16.2.Verb Part-of-Speech

A verb conveys lexical meaning (as opposed to grammatical meaning), and gives indication of time. Verbs are classified accord ing to two main subcategories: the perfect verb (which consists of another six subcategories: declension, conjugation, inflection, tran sitivity, voice, and vocalic) and the imperfect verb (which consists of another four subcategories: declension, conjugation, inflection, and vocalic). Further, each category consists of several tags. (27)

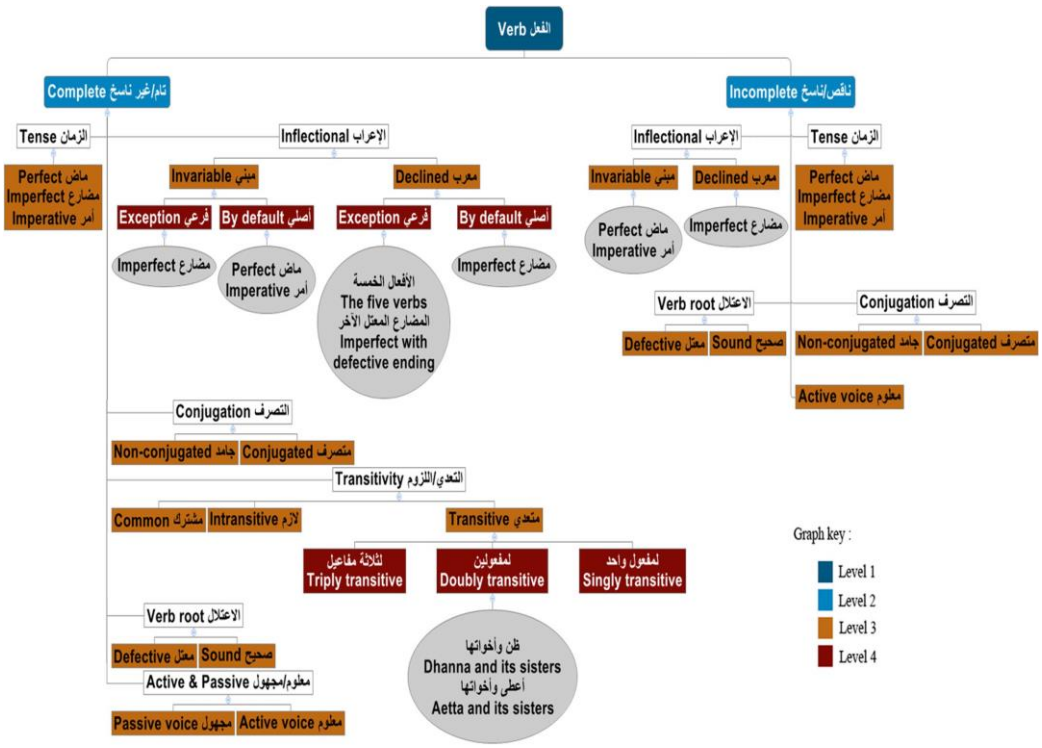


Figure 8:Hierarchical levels of verb categories.

1.16.3.Particle Part-of-Speech

A particle conveys no lexical meaning, which is conveyed through the parts of speech it relates to. Particles are classified according to two main subcategories: common and specific. The specific class consists of two others subcategories (specific to noun and specific to verb). Moreover, each class consists of several tags. (27)

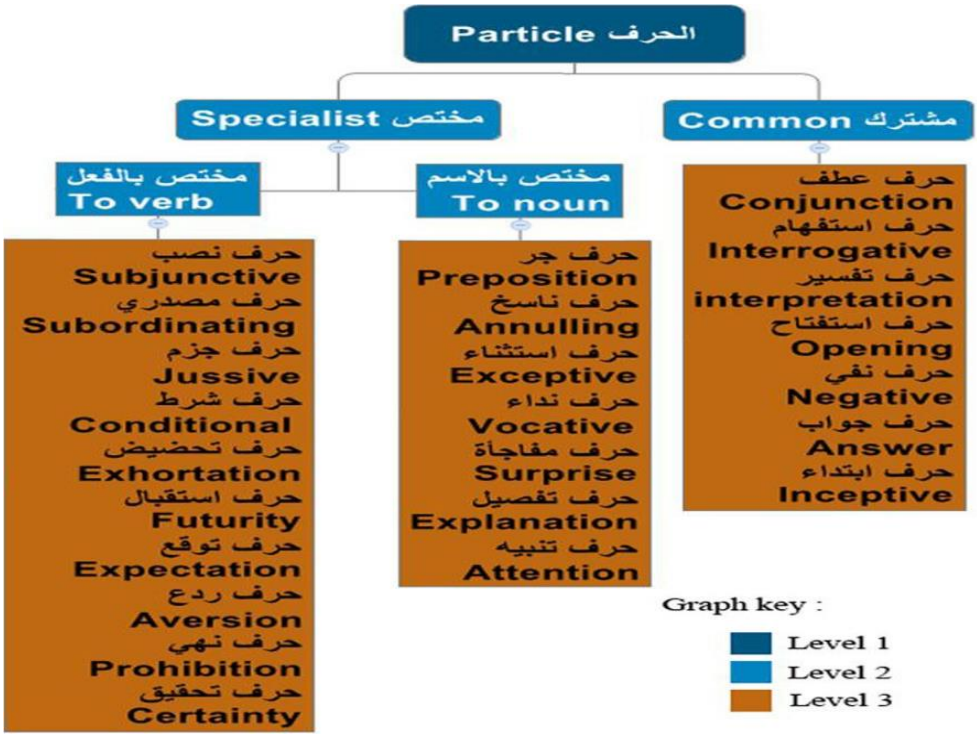


Figure 9: Hierarchical levels of particle categories

To ensure a focused and manageable analysis of Arabic morphological and syntactic features, we purposefully limited the scope of our research to two levels of POS tagging.

Below, we explore the complexity of this task through concrete examples and illustrative tables.

- Basic POS Tags: Broad categories, such as noun (اسم), verb (فعل), or particle (حرف).

- Detailed Grammatical Features: Subcategories, including case (إعراب), gender (جنس), number (عدد), tense (زمن), and voice (صيغة).

Example 1: Basic POS Tags (FIRST LEVEL)

The first level of Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging provides a simplified classification of words into three broad categories: nouns, verbs, and particles. This foundational level serves as the base for more detailed linguistic analysis in subsequent levels. The table below presents an example illustrating this basic categorization

Arabic Word	Transliteration	Basic POS Tag
كَتَبَ	kataba	Verb
كِتابٌ	kitābun	Noun
فِي	fī	Particle

Table 1:Basic POS Tags (FIRST LEVEL)

Example 2: Detailed POS Tags (Second level)

At the second level of POS tagging, each word is assigned a more detailed linguistic annotation. This includes not only its basic part of speech (e.g., noun or verb) but also morphological features such as gender, number, and tense. These features are essential for accurately understanding the grammatical structure and meaning of Arabic sentences.

The following table 2 provides examples of such detailed tagging for selected Arabic words.

Arabic Word	POS Tag	Gender	Number	Tense
كَتَبَتْ	Verb	Feminine	Singular	Past
مُعَلِّمُونَ	Noun	Masculine	Plural	N/A
يُكتَبُ	Verb	Masculine	Plural	Present

Table 2:Detailed POS Tags (Second level)

1.17.Emerging Techniques in Arabic Natural Language Processing:

Arabic Natural Language Processing (NLP) is a rapidly developing area that tackles the specific linguistic and computational issues associated with the Arabic language, including its rich morphology, diverse dialects, and diglossia. Boasting more than 550 million speakers and a variety of dialects, Arabic poses intricate challenges in morphology, syntax, and script variations, requiring tailored methodologies. Recent progress in deep learning and large language models (LLMs) has led to significant improvements in Arabic NLP, facilitating enhanced text processing, sentiment analysis, machine translation, and speech recognition. With the increasing demand for technologies in Arabic, it is essential to investigate innovative strategies that improve the functionalities and uses of Arabic NLP across different sectors.

Although there have been notable strides in Arabic NLP, challenges still exist, such as insufficient datasets, a scarcity of resources for dialect handling, and

the necessity for enhanced LLMs tailored for Arabic. Unlike many other languages, Arabic presents significant variability in both written and spoken forms, making it complex to develop NLP models that cater to all its varieties. These hurdles impede the advancement of practical applications, especially for low-resource dialects and niche fields. To tackle these issues, it is essential to engage in collaborative initiatives aimed at creating varied, annotated datasets, innovating models that can effectively manage dialectal differences, and improving current algorithms for increased precision in Arabic comprehension. Promoting cross-disciplinary partnerships can propel efforts to surmount these challenges and broaden the reach of Arabic NLP technologies. (4)

1.18.POS-TAGGING Related works:

In the field of natural language processing, related works can be classified into various categories, including statistical, rule-based, and deep learning methods, each offering distinct approaches to tackling language tasks.'

Project / Model	Approach	Model Architecture	Performance Metrics	Dataset Used	reference
Xlm-ROBERTA	Deep Learning	BERT fine-tuning	Accuracy: 97–98% F1:96.5% Precision: 97% Recall: 96%	UD_Arabic-PADT + Custom Corpus	(W. Antoun, F. Baly, and H. Hajj,2024)
CAMeLBERT	Deep Learning	BERT for MSA & dialects	Accuracy: 96 97% F1:95.8% Precision:96% Recall: 95.5%	MSA + Dialectal Arabic Corpora	(Inoue, K., Abdul-Mageed, M., & El-Haj, M. (2023))
Stanford	Statistical	CRF	Accuracy: 93–95%F1: 92.1%Precision:	Penn Arabic	(Toutanova, K., Galley, M.,

Arabic Tagger			93%Recall: 91.2%	Treebank (PATB)	& Manning, C. D. (2021))
Arabic POS with Transformers	Deep Learning	mBERT fine-tuning	Accuracy: 96–97%F1: 95.3%Precision: 96.5%Recall: 94.1%	Twitter Corpus (Multi-dialect)	(Devlin, J., Chang, M.-W., Lee, K., & Toutanova, K. (2023).)
Arabic POS with Flair	Deep Learning	Flair Embeddings + BiLSTM	Accuracy: 95–96% F1: 94.7% Precision: 95% Recall: 94.4%	UD_Arabic-PADT	(Akbik, A., Bergmann, T., & Vollgraf, R. (2022))
Arabic POS with EastText	Statistical + DL	FastText Embeddings + CRF	Accuracy: 91–93% F1: 90.2% Precision: 91% Recall: 89.5%	PATB + Twitter Data	(Bojanowski, P., Grave, E., Joulin, A., & Mikolov, T. (2020).)
Farasa	Hybrid	SVM + Morphological Analysis	Accuracy: 95.9% F1: 94.5% Precision: 95% Recall: 94%	PATB + WikiNews	(Abdelali, A., Darwish, K., Durrani, N., & Mubarak, H. (2020).)
BiLSTM for Tweets	Deep Learning	BiLSTM + CRF	Accuracy: 96.5% F1: 95.8% Precision: 96% Recall: 95.5%	3K Annotated Arabic Tweets (Mixed)	(Zalmout, N., & Habash, N. (2021).)

Table 3: POS TAGGING Related works

1.18.1.About the table :

The comparison among the related works highlighted in the table above demonstrates the diversity of techniques that are used for Arabic POS tagging, from statistical approaches, which use CRF, to hybrid methods, to transformer-

based deep learning models. BERT-based architectures like Xlm-ROBERTA and CAMeLBERT scored the highest levels of accuracy (typically beyond 96% in accuracy and F1-score) because those methods incorporated rich contextual representations. Other recent architectures, like Flair and BiLSTM-CRF, also scored well, especially in dialectal contexts, or when there was evidence of a dialectal aspect of tweet classification. It was also possible to identify the best techniques, as well as to identify a few of the most common datasets that have been used, (e.g., UD_Arabic-PADT, PATB, dialectal corpora), all of which we have considered in our model, which we are designing and developing to provide a multi-level Arabic POS tagging process. These works provide a platform and an accuracy benchmark from which we can develop our tagging system, hopefully resulting in model that is more accurate, dialect-aware, and robust in its labeling system.

This figure below provides a comparative visual representation of the performance of various POS tagging models for Arabic. Each bar illustrates the corresponding scores for Accuracy, F1-Score, Precision, and Recall across different models

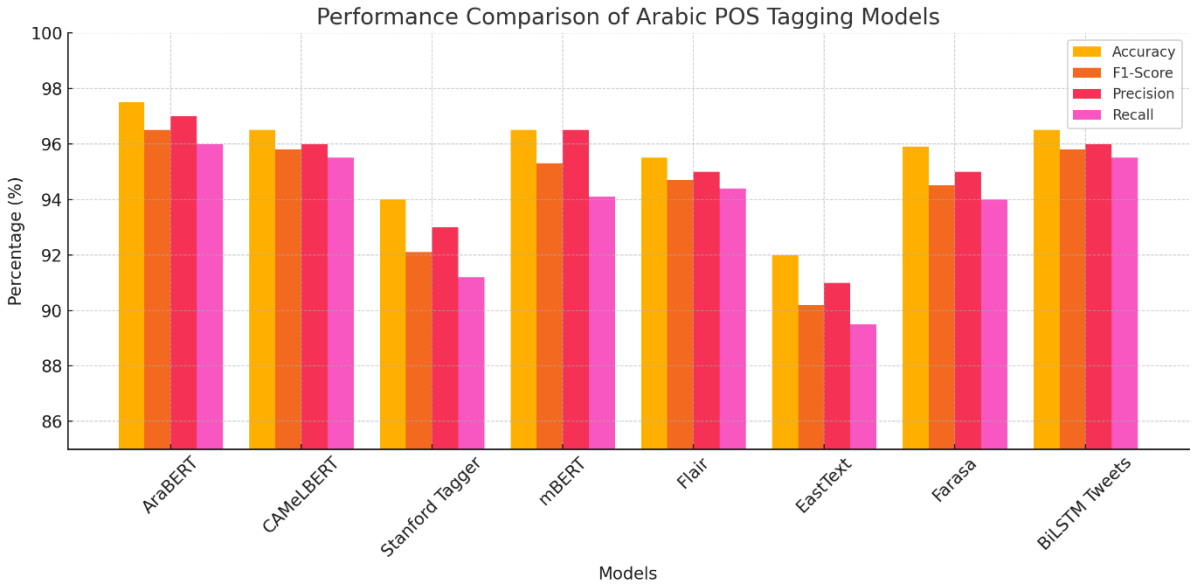


Figure 10:comparative visual representation of the performance of various POS tagging models for Arabic.

1.19.Conclusion :

Natural language processing (NLP), machine learning (ML), deep learning (DL), artificial intelligence (AI), and part-of-speech (POS) tagging are among the fundamental ideas that this chapter covered in detail. We looked at how Arabic POS tagging has developed and the main obstacles it faces, including rich morphology, dialectal variation, and the lack of diacritical marks in written texts. Additionally, we presented the idea of multi-level POS tagging, which makes a distinction between fine-grained morphological features (XPOS+FEATS) and universal categories (UPOS). Additionally, we looked at the primary methods for Arabic POS tagging, which range from contemporary deep learning architectures (like BiLSTM and XLM-ROBERTA) to more conventional rule-based and statistical techniques (like CRF).

The review of related works demonstrated how transformer-based models are becoming more and more popular because of their exceptional capacity to capture contextual subtleties as well as syntactic structures. The foundation for our suggested deep learning-based method of multi-level Arabic POS tagging is thus laid out in this chapter. It attempts to take advantage of recent developments

in natural language processing (NLP) while taking into account the distinctive linguistic features of the Arabic language.

Chapter 2 : Methodology

2.1.Introduction

This chapter describes the approach adopted for creating a deep learning model for multi-level Arabic Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging. The intention is to describe the completed steps involved in ordering the data - from extraction from its original source and pre-processing - to developing and evaluating the models.

We first introduce the data set that was used in this study - the Arabic-PADT UD treebank - and demonstrate its structure and linguistic elements and annotation schemes. Afterwards, we will present the pre-processing applied to the data, including tokenisation, lemmatisation, normalisation, and feature extraction, which took into consideration the morphological richness of Arabic.

We introduce the models used for tagging, including traditional models such as CRF, and various deep learning models such as CNN-BiLSTM and Xlm-ROBERTA. The description for each model outlines the architecture, inputs and outputs and settings for running the trains.

Finally, we explain the evaluation framework and measure some of the predefined evaluation metrics ahead of the analysis of the results presented in Chapter 4.

2.2.Dataset :

2.2.1.Description :

The Arabic-PADT UD treebank is based on the Prague Arabic Dependency Treebank (PADT), created at the Charles University in Prague.

The treebank consists of 7,664 sentences (282,384 tokens) and its domain is mainly newswire. The annotation is licensed under the terms of CC BY-NC-SA 3.0.

The morphological and syntactic annotation of the Arabic UD treebank is created through conversion of PADT data. The conversion procedure has been designed by Dan Zeman. The main coordinator of the original PADT project was Otakar Smrž. (10)

	ID	FORM	UPOS	FEATS
0	(1, -, 2)	وقال	_	
1	1	و	CCONJ	
2	2	قال	VERB	Aspect=Perf|Gender=Masc|Number=Sing|Person=3|V...
3	3	"	PUNCT	
4	4	في	ADP	AdpType=Prep
5	5	المرة	NOUN	Case=Gen|Definite=Def|Number=Sing
6	6	الاولى	ADJ	Case=Gen|Definite=Def|Gender=Fem|Number=Sing
7	7	كانت	AUX	Aspect=Perf|Gender=Fem|Number=Sing|Person=3|Vo...

Figure 11:Arabic-PADT Token Table with UPOS + FEATS

2.2.2.CoNLL-U:

The CoNLL-U format is a standardized plain text format used for annotating linguistic data in the Universal Dependencies project. It encodes sentences as sequences of lines, where each line represents a word or token and contains ten fields separated by tabs: ID (word index), FORM (word form or punctuation), LEMMA (base form), UPOS (universal part-of-speech tag), XPOS (language-specific POS tag), FEATS (morphological features), HEAD (syntactic

head), DEPREL (dependency relation to the head), DEPS (enhanced dependencies), and MISC (miscellaneous annotation). Sentences are separated by blank lines, and comments (such as sentence text or metadata) begin with a hash (#). This format ensures consistency and interoperability across different languages and treebanks, making it widely used for syntactic and morphological annotation in computational linguistics. (ConLLu, s.d.)

2.2.3.Source of annotations :

Column	Status
ID	Sentence-level units in PADT often correspond to entire paragraphs and they were obtained automatically. Low-level tokenization (whitespace and punctuation) was done automatically and then hand-corrected. Splitting of fused tokens into syntactic words in Arabic is part of morphological analysis. ElixirFM was used to provide context-independent options, then these results were disambiguated manually.
FORM	The unvocalized surface form is used. Fully vocalized counterpart can be found in the MISC column as Vform attribute.
LEMMA	Plausible analyses provided by ElixirFM, manual disambiguation. Lemmas are vocalized. Part of the selection of lemmas was also word sense disambiguation of the lexemes, providing English equivalents (see the Gloss attribute of the MISC column).
UPOSTAG	Converted automatically from XPOSTAG (via Interset); human checking of patterns revealed by automatic consistency tests.
XPOSTAG	Manual selection from possibilities provided by ElixirFM.

FEATS Converted automatically from XPOSTAG (via Interset); human checking of patterns revealed by automatic consistency tests.

HEAD Original PADT annotation is manual. Automatic conversion to UD; human checking of patterns revealed by automatic consistency tests.

DEPREL Original PDT annotation is manual. Automatic conversion to UD; human checking of patterns revealed by automatic consistency tests.

DEPS (currently unused)

MISC Information about token spacing taken from PADT annotation. Additional word attributes provided by morphological analysis (i.e. ElixirFM rules + manual disambiguation): Vform (fully vocalized Arabic form), Translit (Latin transliteration of word form), LTranslit (Latin transliteration of lemma), Root (word root), Gloss (English translation of lemma).

Table 4:table of annotation (10)

2.2.4.Statistics of UD Arabic PADT :

A.POS Tags

Abbreviation	Full Form	Description	Example (Arabic)	Example (Transliteration/Translation)
ADJ	Adjective	Describes qualities of nouns (e.g., colors, sizes).	كبير	kabeer ("big")

ADP	Adposition	Prepositions or postpositions (e.g., في, على).	في	fī ("in")
ADV	Adverb	Modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (e.g., quickly, very).	بسرعة	bisurʿa ("quickly")
AUX	Auxiliary Verb	Supports main verbs (e.g., كان "was", يكون "will be").	كان	kāna ("was")
CCONJ	Coordinating Conjunction	Connects words/phrases (e.g., و "and", أو "or").	و	wa ("and")
DET	Determiner	Specifies nouns (e.g., الـ "the", هذا "this").	الـ	al- (definite article)
INTJ	Interjection	Exclamations or emotional expressions (e.g., آه "ah", يا "oh").	آه	āh ("ah")
NOUN	Noun	Common nouns (e.g., objects, concepts).	كتاب	kitāb ("book")
NUM	Numeral	Numbers (cardinal or ordinal).	واحد	wāḥid ("one")
PART	Particle	Function words with grammatical roles (e.g., قد "may", س "future marker").	قد	qad ("may/has")

PRON	Pronoun	Replaces nouns (e.g., هو "he", هي "she").	هو	huwa ("he")
PROPN	Proper Noun	Names of people, places, or entities (e.g., محمد "Mohammed", مصر "Egypt").	محمد	Muḥammad ("Mohammed")
PUNCT	Punctuation	Marks like commas, periods, etc.	،	comma
SCONJ	Subordinating Conjunction	Introduces dependent clauses (e.g., إذا "if", لأن "because").	إذا	ʾiḏā ("if")
SYM	Symbol	Non-alphabetic symbols (e.g., $, %).	%	percent symbol
VERB	Verb	Main action verbs (e.g., كتب "wrote", يأكل "eats").	كتب	kataba ("wrote")
X	Other	Residual category (e.g., foreign words, typos, unclassifiable items).	تكنولوجيا	teknūlūğiyā ("technology" – loanword)

Table 5 : table of postags

B.Features

Feature	**Full Name**	**Description**	**Possible Values**	**Example (Arabic)**	**Example (Transliteration/Translation)**

Abbr	Abbreviation	Marks if a word is an abbreviation.	Yes (abbreviated form) / No	د. (short for دكتور)	d. ("Dr.")
Adp Type	Adposition Type	Type of adposition (preposition, postposition, etc.).	Prep (preposition), Post (postposition)	في	fī ("in")
Aspect	Aspect	Grammatical aspect of a verb (e.g., completed vs. ongoing).	Perf (perfective), Imp (imperfective)	كتبَ	kataba ("he wrote" – perfective)
Case	Case	Grammatical case (nominative, accusative, genitive).	Nom (nominative), Acc (accusative), Gen (genitive)	كتابُ	kitābu ("book" – nominative case)
Conj Type	Conjunction Type	Type of conjunction (coordinating, subordinating).	Coord (coordinating, e.g., و "and"), Sub (subordinating, e.g., إذا "if")	و	wa ("and")
Definite	Definiteness	Whether a noun is definite (الـ) or	Def (definite), Ind (indefinite), Com (construct state)	الكتاب	al-kitāb ("the book")

		indefinite.			
Foreign	Foreign Word	Marks if a word is foreign or a loanword.	Yes (foreign) / No	تلفزيون	tilifizyūn ("television" – loanword)
Gender	Gender	Grammatical gender (masculine, feminine).	Masc (masculine), Fem (feminine)	طالبة	ṭāliba ("student" – feminine)
Mood	Mood	Verb mood (e.g., indicative, subjunctive, jussive).	Ind (indicative), Sub (subjunctive), Jus (jussive), Imp (imperative)	يكتبُ	yaktubu ("he writes" – indicative)
Number	Number	Grammatical number (singular, dual, plural).	Sing (singular), Dual (dual), Plur (plural)	كتبوا	katabū ("they wrote" – plural)
NumForm	Numeral Form	Form of the numeral (word, digit, or fraction).	Word (written as a word), Digit (written as a digit), Fraction	٣	3 (digit)
NumValue	Numeral Value	The numeric	1, 2, 3, etc.	واحد	wāḥid ("one")

		value of a numeral.			
Person	Person	Grammatical person (1st, 2nd, 3rd).	1, 2, 3	أَنتَ	anta ("you" – 2nd person)
Polarity	Polarity	Negation (positive or negative).	Pos (positive), Neg (negative)	لا	lā ("no/not")
PronType	Pronoun Type	Type of pronoun (e.g., personal, demonstrative, relative).	Prs (personal), Dem (demonstrative), Rel (relative), Int (interrogative)	هذا	hādhā ("this" – demonstrative)
VerbForm	Verb Form	Form of the verb (e.g., finite, infinitive, participle).	Fin (finite), Inf (infinitive), Part (participle), Imp (imperative)	كَتَبْتُ	katabtu ("I wrote" – finite)
Voice	Voice	Verb voice (active or passive).	Act (active), Pass (passive)	كُتِبَ	kutiba ("it was written" – passive)

Table 6:table of features

C.Relations

Abbreviation	Full Name	Explanation
acl	Clausal Modifier	A clause modifying a noun (e.g., relative clause).

acl:relcl	Relative Clause Modifier	A relative clause modifying a noun.
advcl	Adverbial Clause	A clause functioning as an adverbial modifier.
advmod	Adverbial Modifier	An adverb or adverbial phrase modifying a word.
advmod:emph	Emphasizing Adverbial	An adverbial used for emphasis (e.g., "حَتَّى").
amod	Adjectival Modifier	An adjective modifying a noun.
appos	Appositional Modifier	A noun phrase providing additional info about another noun (e.g., "الشاعر محمود درويش").
aux	Auxiliary Verb	A helping verb (e.g., "سَـ" in future tense).
aux:pass	Passive Auxiliary	An auxiliary used in passive constructions (e.g., "تم").
case	Case Marker	A preposition or particle marking case (e.g., "عَلَى", "فِي").
cc	Coordinating Conjunction	A conjunction connecting phrases (e.g., "وَ", "أَو").
ccomp	Clausal Complement	A clause acting as a verb's complement (not a direct object).
conj	Conjunct	An item in a coordinated phrase (e.g., "كتاب وَقَلَم").
cop	Copula	A linking verb (e.g., "يَكُون", "كَانَ").
csubj	Clausal Subject	A clause acting as the subject of another clause.
csubj:pass	Clausal Passive Subject	A clause acting as the subject of a passive verb.
dep	Unspecified Dependency	A generic relation when no specific label applies.
det	Determiner	A determiner (e.g., "كُلُّ", "هَذَا").

discourse	Discourse Marker	A word structuring discourse (e.g., "أَمَّا", "ثُمَّ").
dislocated	Dislocated Element	A fronted or extraposed element (e.g., for emphasis).
fixed	Fixed Multiword Expression	A set phrase where words always co-occur (e.g., "بِالرَّغْمِ مِن").
flat:foreign	Foreign Name Flat Relation	Parts of a foreign name treated as a unit (e.g., "نيويورك").
iobj	Indirect Object	The indirect object of a verb (recipient/beneficiary).
mark	Subordinating Marker	A subordinating conjunction (e.g., "لِأَنَّ", "إِذَا").
nmod	Nominal Modifier	A noun modifying another noun (e.g., "كِتَابُ الطَّالِبِ").
nsubj	Nominal Subject	The subject of a clause (noun or pronoun).
nsubj:pass	Passive Nominal Subject	The subject of a passive verb.
nummod	Numeric Modifier	A number modifying a noun (e.g., "ثَلَاثَةُ كُتُب").
obj	Direct Object	The direct object of a verb.
obl	Oblique Argument	A non-core argument (e.g., time/location: "ذَهَبَ إِلَى المَدْرَسَةِ").
obl:arg	Oblique Core Argument	An oblique argument that is grammatically required.
orphan	Orphaned Ellipsis	A remnant in ellipsis (e.g., in gapping constructions).
parataxis	Parataxis	A loose relationship between clauses (e.g., "قال: سَأَفْعَلُ").
punct	Punctuation	Punctuation marks (e.g., commas, periods).

root	Root of the Sentence	The main predicate (usually the verb or copula).
xcomp	Open Clausal Complement	A non-finite clause complement (e.g., "أَرَادَ أَنْ يَذْهَبَ").

Table 7:table of relations

D.Tokenization and Word Segmentation :

* This corpus contains 7664 sentences, 242056 tokens and 282384 syntactic words.

* This corpus contains 22277 tokens (9%) that are not followed by a space.

* This corpus does not contain words with spaces.

* This corpus does not contain words that contain both letters and punctuation.

* This corpus contains 38333 multi-word tokens. On average, one multi-word token consists of 2.05 syntactic words.

* There are 13846 types of multi-word tokens. Examples:

وقال، انه، أنه، ومن، فيها، وقد، وفي، وكان، وهو، بها، فيه، واضاف، لها، ولا، بما، له، منها، بسبب، وأضاف، عليها، وهي، عليه، وأشار، وكانت، وأن، به، وذلك، بأن، والتي، وعلى، ولم، نفسه، وأكد، وكذلك، انها، بنسبة، وان، وقالت، إنه، فإن، باسم، سيتم، وأوضح، بشكل، ولكن، بلاده، واوضح، بشأن، فقد، بالنسبة.

E.Morphology :
Tags

* This corpus uses 17 UPOS tags out of 17 possible: ADJ, ADP, ADV, AUX, CCONJ, DET, INTJ, NOUN, NUM, PART, PRON, PROPN, PUNCT, SCONJ, SYM, VERB, X

* This corpus contains 27 word types tagged as particles (PART): أ, أما, إلا, إن, إيا, ال, الا, الـ, الـــ, اما, ان, ربما, ربمـــا, س, عل, قد, كلا, ل, لا, لم, لن, ما, ناهيك, نعم, ها, هل, يا

* This corpus contains 1 lemmas tagged as pronouns (PRON): هُوَ

* This corpus contains 24 lemmas tagged as determiners (DET): أَينَ, اَلَّذِي, ذَا, ذَاكَ, ذُو, ذٰلِكَ, كَم, كَيفَ, كِلَا, لِمَاذَا, ما, ماهُوَ, مَا, مَاذَا, مَتَى, مَن, نا, ها, هُ, هُوَ, هِ, هٰذَا, هٰكَذَا, ِي

* Out of the above, 1 lemmas occurred sometimes as PRON and sometimes as DET: هُوَ

* This corpus contains 11 lemmas tagged as auxiliaries (AUX): أَ, رُبَّمَا, سَ, سَوفَ, عَاد, عَلَّ, قَد, كَان, لَيس, مَا, هَل

* Out of the above, 3 lemmas occurred sometimes as AUX and sometimes as VERB: عَاد, كَان, لَيس

* There are 1 (de)verbal forms:

* Fin

AUX: يكون, تكون, يكن, تكن, تكونون, كن, أكون, اكون, تعد, نكون

VERB: يتم, يمكن, يكون, تصل, تكون, يجب, يصل, يقول, يذكر, تقوم

F.Nominal Features
Gender:

- Fem
  - ADJ: المصرية, المتحدة, العربية, جديدة, الدولية, الفلسطينية, خاصة, أخرى, الأمريكية, العامة
  - AUX: تكون, كانت, ليست, تكن, تعد
  - AUX-Fin: تكون, تكن, تعد
  - DET: التي, هذه, التى, تلك, هٰذه, اللتين, اللواتي, ها, اللتان, اللاتى
  - NOUN: الحاصلات, البويات, بدايات, عداءة, الآفات, التليفونات, الخضروات, الكابلات, المداهمات, بضعة
  - NUM: ثلاث, عشر, الثلاث, خمس, ست, عشرة, اربع, الخمس, الثماني, العشر
  - PRON: ها, هي, هما, هن, هى, ك, أعضائها, أهدافها, إليها, بضمانها
  - PROPN: العمارة, اللطيفية, الوكرة
  - VERB: كانت, قالت, ذكرت, بلغت, تصل, تكون, بدأت, تقوم, أكدت, نقلت
  - VERB-Fin: تصل, تكون, تقوم, تبلغ, تعتبر, تشهد, تضم, تعمل, تتم, تعد

- Masc
  - ADJ: المصري, الماضي, أي, الحالي, العام, المقبل, المركزي, أكثر, الدولي, الاول
  - AUX: كان, يكون, ليس, يكن, كانوا, كنت, تكونون, كن, لسنا, أكون
  - AUX-Fin: يكون, يكن, تكونون, كن, أكون, اكون, تكون, نكون, يكونا
  - DET: الذي, هذا, ذلك, الذين, ذٰلك, هٰذا, الذى, هؤلاء, اللذين, ه
  - NOUN: المعتمرين
  - NUM: ثلاثة, خمسة, ستة, عشرة, الثلاثة, اربعة, اثنين, أربعة, سبعة, واحد
  - PRON: ه, هم, هو, نا, هما, ك, ي, ني, نحن, كم
  - VERB: قال, كان, أضاف, تم, أكد, يتم, يمكن, أشار, أوضح, أعلن

- VERB-Fin: يتم, يمكن, يكون, يجب, يصل, يقول, يذكر, يعني, يرى, يقوم

Number :

- Dual
  - ADJ: الماضيين, الكوريتين, القادمين, المقبلين, جافتين, قديمتين, الفنلنديين, قادمين, آخران, آخرين
  - AUX-Fin: يكونا
  - DET: اللذين, اللتين, هذين, كلا, اللتان, اللذان, هاتين, ذاتا, هاتان, هٰذان
  - NOUN: البلدين, الجانبين, الطرفين, اسبوعين, الدولتين, يومين, وزيري, سنتين, الجانبان, عامين
  - NUM: مليوني, مئتي, ملياري, الفي, بليوني, ألفي, الفى, ملیارى, ألفين, الفين
  - PRON: هما, كما
  - VERB: قتلا, اتفقا, أكدا, بحثا, كانا, عقدا, قدما, كانتا, يشيران, يلتقيان
  - VERB-Fin: يشيران, يلتقيان, تدرسان, تستعدان, يبحثان, يتجهان, يتوقفان, يدعوان, يعتبران, يعرفان

Plur

- ADJ: المصريين, اليهود, كبار, العرب, الفلسطينيين, المسلمين, العراقيين, آخرين, الأجانب, المصابين
- AUX: كانوا, تكونون, لسنا, ليسوا, نكون
- AUX-Fin: تكونون, نكون
- DET: الذين, هؤلاء, اللواتي, هٰؤلاء, اولئك, أولٰئك, اللاتى, أولئك, اللاتي, نا
- NOUN: الولايات, الدول, الشركات, الوزراء, دول, شركات, أسعار, العلاقات, البنوك, مصادر
- NUM: ملايين, آلاف, الاف, مليارات, عشرات, بلايين, مئات, العشرات, الملايين, الآلاف
- PRON: هم, نا, نحن, هن, كم, انتم, أنتم, استبعادهم, بأنفسهم, بلادهم
- VERB: كانوا, قتلوا, يريدون, يعملون, يعيشون, دعوا, يطالبون, طالبوا, فروا, قالوا
- VERB-Fin: يريدون, يعملون, يعيشون, يطالبون, نرى, يعانون, يعتبرون, يواجهون, نريد, يتمكنوا

Sing

- ADJ: المصرية, المتحدة, المصري, الماضي, العربية, أي, الحالي, جديدة, الدولية, الفلسطينية
- AUX: كان, يكون, ليس, تكون, كانت, ليست, يكن, تكن, كنت, كن
- AUX-Fin: يكون, تكون, يكن, تكن, كن, أكون, اكون, تعد
- DET: التي, الذي, هذه, هذا, ذلك, ذٰلك, التى, هٰذا, تلك, هٰذه
- NOUN: مصر, اليوم, رئيس, دولار, الحكومة, العراق, وزير, كل, الرئيس, غير
- NUM: مليون, مليار, ألف, المئة, بليون, الف, المائة, مليوناً, ملیاراً, مليونا
- PRON: ه, ها, هو, هي, ك, ي, ني, هى, أنا, أنت
- PROPN: العمارة, اللطيفية, الوكرة

- VERB: قال, كان, أضاف, كانت, تم, أكد, يتم, يمكن, أشار, أوضح
- VERB-Fin: يتم, يمكن, يكون, تصل, تكون, يجب, يصل, يقول, يذكر, تقوم

Case:

- Acc
  - ADJ: خاصة, الماضي, حالياً, حاليا, مشيراً, أكثر, المقبل, مشيرا, أي, المتحدة
  - ADP: مع, بين, خلال, بعد, حول, قبل, ضد, أمام, نحو, مقابل
  - DET: التي, هذا, هذه, الذي, ذلك, التى, الذين, تلك, الذى, هؤلاء
  - NOUN: اليوم, يوم, عام, الثلاثاء, السبت, غير, كل, الحكومة, مصر, مساء
  - NUM: مليون, ألف, مليار, بليون, الف, ثلاثة, مليوناً, ملياراً, خمسة, مليونا
  - PRON: ه, ها, هم, نا, ني, ك, هما, هن, كم

- Gen
  - ADJ: المصرية, المتحدة, المصري, العربية, الماضي, الحالي, الفلسطينية, الدولية, أي, جديدة
  - ADP: خلال, دون, نحو, بين, حين, حسب, مثل, مقابل, قبل, خارج
  - DET: التي, هذه, الذي, هذا, ذلك, الذين, التى, هٰذه, هٰذا, ذٰلك
  - NOUN: مصر, دولار, العراق, جنيه, مجلس, كل, الحكومة, الدول, الرئيس, مايو
  - NUM: مليون, مليار, ملايين, المئة, ثلاثة, المائة, ألف, بليون, آلاف, الف
  - PRON: ها, ه, هم, نا, هما, ك, ي, كم, هن, كما
  - PROPN: العمارة, اللطيفية, بدر

- Nom
  - ADJ: المتحدة, المصرية, المصري, العام, كبير, السابق, السوري, أسعد, أكثر, الاسرائيلي
  - ADP: بعد, مثل, أمام, قبل, مع, مقابل
  - DET: الذي, التي, هذا, هذه, ذٰلك, هٰذا, ذلك, الذين, تلك, التى
  - NOUN: رئيس, وزير, الدكتور, الحكومة, مصر, الرئيس, عدد, مصادر, التقرير, الولايات
  - NUM: ثلاثة, خمسة, ثلاث, عشرة, اثنان, الثلاثة, ستة, عشرات, واحد, أربعة
  - PRON: هو, هي, هم, نحن, هى, هما, أنا, أنت, انتم, هن

G.Definite

- Com
  - ADJ: الثالث, الأولى, الذاتية, السابع, القصيرة, الحادية, الخامسة, الطويلة, المستندي, البعيدة
  - NUM: الاربع, الثلاثة, الخمس, الخمسة

- Cons
  - ADJ: أي, اي, أول, اول, أكبر, مختلف, أبرز, أهم, كبار, أسعد
  - NOUN: رئيس, وزير, كل, غير, مجلس, بعض, عام, يوم, نفس, عدم
  - NUM: مليون, مليار, ألف, ثلاثة, ملايين, بليون, الف, آلاف, ثلاث, خمسة

- PROPN: بدر

- Def
  - ADJ: المصرية, المتحدة, المصري, الماضي, العربية, الحالي, الدولية, الفلسطينية, العام, المقبل
  - NOUN: اليوم, الحكومة, العراق, الرئيس, الولايات, الدول, السوق, العام, المنطقة, الدكتور
  - NUM: المئة, المائة, الثلاثة, الثلاث, العشرين, الأربعة, المليون, الثماني, الخمس, الستة
  - PROPN: النروج, الفليبين, الإكوادور, البدري, البنتاجون, التاميل, التشاد, الزرقاوي, الفاتيكان, الكوت

- Ind
  - ADJ: جديدة, خاصة, أخرى, أكثر, اخرى, سورية, اكثر, جديد, كبيرة, حالياً
  - NOUN: مصر, دولار, جنيه, مايو, إسرائيل, عدد, لبنان, بغداد, مصادر, سنوات
  - NUM: عشرين, اثنين, ثلاثة, مليوناً, واحد, مليون, ملياراً, مليونا, ألفاً, ملايين

H.Degree and Polarity

- Polarity

- Neg
  - ADJ: أفريقي, أوسطي, افريقي, عام, كبيرة
  - NOUN: بد, أمل, اهمية, ايادي, بديل, تعازى, جدوى, حلاوة, خلاف, خيارات
  - NUM: مليون

I.Verbal Features

- Aspect

- Imp
  - AUX-Fin: يكون, تكون, يكن, تكن, تكونون, أكون, اكون, تعد, نكون, يكونا
  - VERB-Fin: يتم, يمكن, يكون, تصل, تكون, يجب, يصل, يقول, يذكر, تقوم

- Perf
  - AUX: كان, ليس, كانت, ليست, كانوا, كنت, لسنا, ليسوا
  - VERB: قال, كان, أضاف, كانت, تم, أكد, أشار, أوضح, أعلن, قالت

- Mood

- Imp
  - AUX-Fin: كن
  - VERB-Fin: حاول, د, دعوا, حث, ابحث, احرص, اخدموا, افتحوا, اكسون, انتبه

- Ind

- AUX-Fin: يكون, تكون, تكونون, أكون
- VERB-Fin: يتم, يمكن, يجب, يقول, يذكر, يعني, تعتبر, يرى, تبلغ, تضم

- Jus
  - AUX-Fin: يكن, تكن, تعد
  - VERB-Fin: يكن, يتم, تكن, يمكن, يصدر, يحدد, يعد, تتجاوز, تعد, يستبعد

- Sub
  - AUX-Fin: يكون, تكون, اكون, نكون, يكونا
  - VERB-Fin: يكون, تكون, تصل, يصل, يتم, تصبح, تقوم, يمكن, تدخل, تستطيع

- Voice

- Act
  - AUX: كان, يكون, ليس, تكون, كانت, ليست, يكن, تكن, كانوا, كنت
  - AUX-Fin: يكون, تكون, يكن, تكن, تكونون, أكون, اكون, تعد, نكون, يكونا
  - VERB: قال, كان, أضاف, كانت, تم, أكد, يتم, يمكن, أشار, أوضح
  - VERB-Fin: يتم, يمكن, يكون, تصل, تكون, يجب, يصل, يقول, تقوم, يعني

- Pass
  - VERB: يذكر, يوجد, قتل, يتوقع, تعد, تعتبر, يعد, أصيب, توجد, يعتبر
  - VERB-Fin: يذكر, يوجد, يتوقع, تعد, تعتبر, يعد, توجد, يعتبر, يشار, تقام

J.Pronouns, Determiners, Quantifiers

- PronType

- Dem
  - DET: هذه, هذا, ذلك, ذٰلك, هٰذا, تلك, هٰذه, هؤلاء, هذين, كلا

- Prs
  - PRON: ه, ها, هم, هو, نا, هي, هما, ك, ي, ني

- Rel
  - DET: التي, الذي, الذين, التى, الذى, اللذين, ما, اللتين, اللواتي, اللتان

- Person

- 1
  - AUX: كنت, لسنا, أكون, اكون, نكون
  - AUX-Fin: أكون, اكون, نكون
  - DET: نا, ي
  - PRON: نا, ي, ني, نحن, أنا, انا, لمساعدتنا
  - VERB: نرى, نريد, نجد, نستورد, نعرف, نقول, أعتقد, أعلن, أقول, أكون

- VERB-Fin: نرى, نريد, نجد, نستورد, نعرف, نقول, أعتقد, أعلن, أقول, أكون

- 2
  - AUX-Fin: تكونون, تكون
  - PRON: ك, كم, أنت, انتم, كما, أنتم
  - VERB: تحب, تواجه, تتجنب, تتعرض, تجد, تحصل, تخليتم, تبلي, تتوقع, تدع
  - VERB-Fin: تحب, تواجه, تتجنب, تتعرض, تجد, تحصل, تبلي, تتوقع, تدع, ترغب

- 3
  - AUX: كان, يكون, ليس, تكون, كانت, ليست, يكن, تكن, كانوا, تعد
  - AUX-Fin: يكون, تكون, يكن, تكن, تعد, يكونا
  - DET: ه, ها
  - PRON: ه, ها, هم, هو, هي, هما, هن, هى, أعضائها, أهدافها
  - VERB: قال, كان, أضاف, كانت, تم, أكد, يتم, يمكن, أشار, أوضح
  - VERB-Fin: يتم, يمكن, يكون, تصل, تكون, يجب, يصل, يقول, يذكر, تقوم

K.Other Features

- Abbr
  - Yes
    - X: ب, د, ف, أ, م, ر, كلم, ت, غ, كجم

- AdpType
  - Prep
    - ADP: في, ل, ب, من, على, الى, إلى, عن, فى, مع

- ConjType
  - Oper
    - SYM: <

- Foreign
  - Yes
    - X: واشنطن, سوريا, شارون, السارس, أفريقيا, روسيا, فرنسا, باول, تركيا, بوش

- NumForm
  - Digit
    - NUM: 15, 3, 6, 2, 8, 7, 4, 11, 10, 12
  - Word
    - NUM: مليون, مليار, ألف, ثلاثة, ملايين, المئة, بليون, الف, المائة, عشرة

- NumValue
  - 1
    - NUM: واحد, واحدة, الواحد, واحداً, أحد, الواحدة, واحدا

- 2
  - NUM: عشر, عشرة
- 3
  - NUM: ثلاثة, خمسة, ثلاث, ستة, الثلاثة, اربعة, الثلاث, خمس, أربعة, سبعة

L.Syntax
Auxiliary Verbs and Copula

- This corpus uses 2 lemmas as copulas (cop). Examples: كَان، لَيس.
- This corpus uses 10 lemmas as auxiliaries (aux). Examples: سَ، قَد، سَوفَ، مَا، لَيس، هَل، رُبَّمَا، أَ، عَاد، عَلَّ.
- This corpus uses 3 lemmas as passive auxiliaries (aux:pass). Examples: سَ، قَد، سَوفَ.

Core Arguments, Oblique Arguments and Adjuncts

Here we consider only relations between verbs (parent) and nouns or pronouns (child).

- nsubj
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc (879)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(إِلَى) (3)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(إِلَى)-ADP(عَلَى) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(بَينَ) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(بِ) (2)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(بِ)-ADP(فِي) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(تَحتَ) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(ضِدَّ) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(ضِمنَ) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(عَلَى) (2)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(عَن) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(فِي) (5)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(قَيدَ) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(لِ) (3)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(مِن) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(مِن)-ADP(فِي) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(وَ) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Gen (16)
  - VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(إِلَى) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(بَينَ) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(بِ) (5)
  - VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(سِوَى) (1)
  - VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(عَلَى) (1)

- VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(عَن) (3)
- VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(فِي) (2)
- VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(كَ) (1)
- VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(لِ) (1)
- VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(مِن) (1)
- VERB--NOUN-Gen-ADP(مِن)-ADP(دُونَ) (1)
- VERB--NOUN-Nom (4339)
- VERB--NOUN-Nom-ADP(إِنَّ) (1)
- VERB--NOUN-Nom-ADP(بِ) (1)
- VERB--NOUN-Nom-ADP(مِن) (3)
- VERB--NOUN-Nom-ADP(وَ) (3)
- VERB--PRON-Acc (201)
- VERB--PRON-Acc-ADP(إِلَى) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Acc-ADP(بِ) (2)
- VERB--PRON-Acc-ADP(بِ)-ADP(أَمَامَ) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Acc-ADP(بِ)-ADP(لِ) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Acc-ADP(عَلَى) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Acc-ADP(فِي) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Acc-ADP(فِي)-ADP(مِن) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Gen (3)
- VERB--PRON-Gen-ADP(حَوَالَى)-ADP(مِن) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Gen-ADP(مِن) (3)
- VERB--PRON-Gen-ADP(وَ) (1)
- VERB--PRON-Nom (24)
- VERB--PRON-Nom-ADP(عَلَى) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc (1221)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(بِ) (2)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(بِ)-ADP(فِي) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(عَلَى)-ADP(بِ) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(فِي) (6)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(مَعَ)-ADP(مِن) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Gen (12)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Gen-ADP(إِلَى) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Gen-ADP(سِوَى) (8)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Gen-ADP(كَ) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Gen-ADP(مِثْلَ) (4)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Gen-ADP(مِن) (3)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Gen-ADP(وِفقَ) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom (2856)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom-ADP(بِ) (4)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom-ADP(حَولَ) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom-ADP(فِي) (1)
- VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom-ADP(كَ) (1)

    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom-ADP(لِ) (2)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom-ADP(مِن) (2)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom-ADP(وَ) (1)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Acc (332)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Acc-ADP(مِن) (1)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Gen (2)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Gen-ADP(وَ)-ADP(فِي) (1)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Nom (83)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Nom-ADP(إِمَّا) (1)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Nom-ADP(فِي) (1)

- obj
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc (2140)
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(إِزَاءَ) (1)
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(بِ) (1)
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(عَلَى) (1)
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(فِي) (3)
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(لَا) (1)
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(مِن) (2)
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc-ADP(وَ) (2)
    - VERB--NOUN-Nom (131)
    - VERB--PRON-Acc (677)
    - VERB--PRON-Nom (2)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc (2752)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(إِلَى) (3)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(بِ) (3)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(عَن) (1)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(لَا) (1)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc-ADP(لِ) (2)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom (85)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Acc (677)

- iobj
    - VERB--NOUN-Acc (26)
    - VERB--NOUN-Nom (11)
    - VERB--PRON-Acc (15)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Acc (11)
    - VERB-Fin--NOUN-Nom (2)
    - VERB-Fin--PRON-Acc (10)

2.3. Model Architecture Overview

2.3.1.Transformer-Based (Xlm-ROBERTA)

Definition : Xlm-ROBERTA is an Arabic pretrained lanaguage model based on Google's BERT base architecture.

2.3.2.Key components :

The model outputs has 3 main components:

1- Last hidden output of the model: A Component of the shape (1, sequence_length, 768), type: tensorflow.python.framework.ops.EagerTensor

2- Pooler output: Output of a layer that transforms the output shape of the Transformer from [batch_size, sequence_length, hidden_size] to [batch_size, hidden_size], which is similar to GlobalMaxPool1D. In our case the shape is (1, 768), type: tensorflow.python.framework.ops.EagerTensor

3- Hidden states: Tuple of tf.Tensor (one for the output of the embeddings + one for the output of each layer) of shape (batch_size, sequence_length, hidden_size). (11)

With sequence_length the number of words in the input text

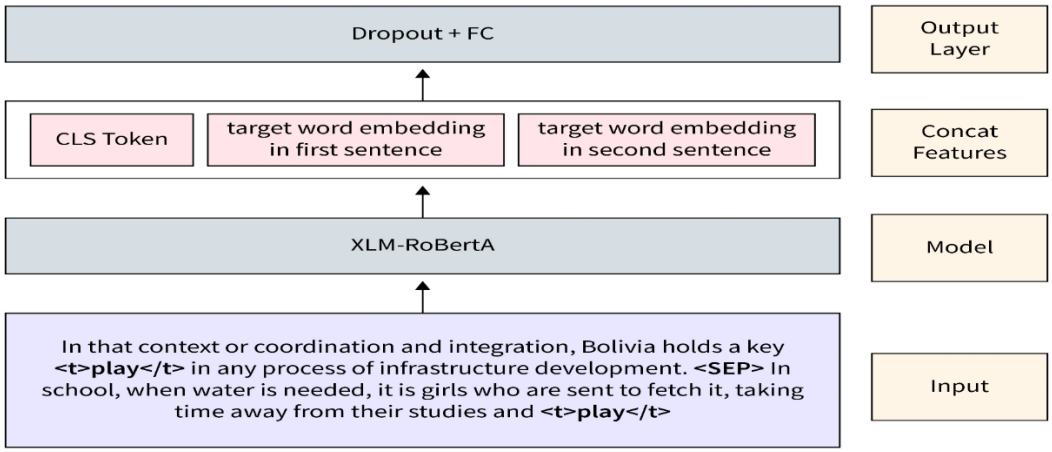


Figure 12:XLM-ROBERTA architecture

2.3.3.Arabic-Specific Advantages:

* Resolves lexical ambiguity via attention weights

* Processes morphologically complex words as subword units

2.3.4.Performance :

Performance of Xlm-ROBERTA on Arabic downstreamtasks compared to mBERT Results:

Task	**metric**	**mBERT**	**Xlm-ROBERTA**
SA (HARD)	Acc.	95.7%	96.1%
SA (ASTD)	Acc.	80.1%	96.5%
SA (ArsenTD-Lev)	Acc.	51.0%	59.4%
SA (AJGT)	Acc.	83.6%	93.8%
SA (LABR)	Acc.	83.0%	86.7%
NER (ANERcorp)	macro-F1	78.4%	81.9%
QA (ARCD)	macro-F1	61.3%	62.7%

Table 8: camparison xlm-ROBERTA to mBERT results (11)

2.4.Hybrid CNN-LSTM

2.4.1.Concept:

Combines local feature extraction with sequential context modeling.

2.4.2.Architectural Flow:



Figure 13:Architectural Flow of CNN

2.4.3.Arabic Adaptations:

CNN Layer:

* 3-5 character n-gram filters* Detects prefixes/suffixes (الـ, بـ, والـ)

BiLSTM Layer:

* 128-256 hidden units

* Captures long-distance agreement (e.g., gender/number)

2.5.preprocessing techniques:

1. Feature Extraction for Arabic POS Tagging

A. Morpho-Syntactic Features

Feature Type	Examples	Extraction Method
Prefix/Suffix	"الـ", "ـة"	Regex patterns + Arabic POS dictionaries
Root Letters	"ك-ت-ب"	Buckwalter analyzer or stemmers
Diacritics	Fatḥa (َ), Damma (ُ)	Unicode point analysis

Table 9:Morpho-Syntactic Features

B. Contextual Features

1.Window-Based:

Asymmetric context (5 words left, 3 right) for RTL scripts

Captures Arabic syntactic dependencies (إضافة, حال)

2.Sentence-Level:

Verb-subject distance measurement

Definite article propagation

C. Orthographic Features

Feature	Example	Relevance
Definite Article	"الكتاب" vs. "كتاب"	Noun vs. proper noun distinction
Dot Patterns	"ج" vs. "ح"	Helps distinguish visually similar letters
Taa-Marbuta	"مدرسة"	Strong feminine noun indicator

Table 10:Orthographic Features

2.6.Normalization Pipeline

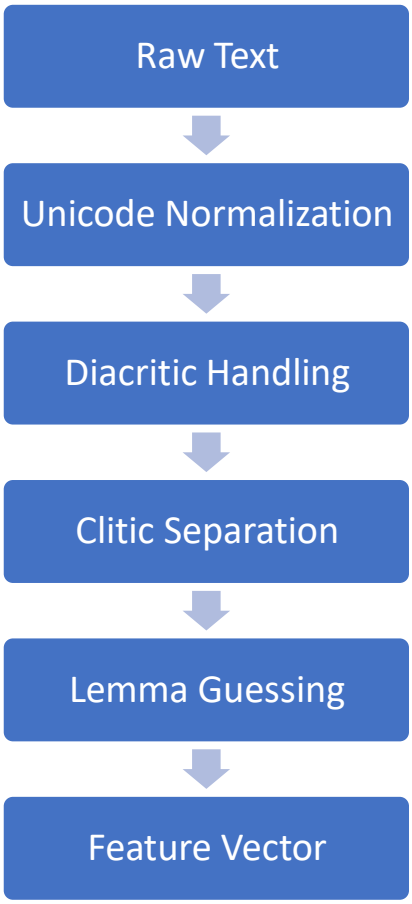


Table 11:Normalization Pipeline

2,7.Critical Steps:

Unicode Normalization:

Convert all alefs ا → (آ ,إ ,أ) (NFD normalization)

Standardize hamzas ء → (ؤ ,ئ ,ء)

Diacritic Policy:

Option 1: Remove all (يقرأ → يُقْرَأ)

Option 2: Retain as separate features (vowelized vs. unvowelized models)

Named Entity Pre-Tagging:

Identify proper nouns early using gazetteers (e.g., "محمد" → tagged as PN before POS)

2.7.Mathematical Formulation:

2.7.1.Weights:

Weights are fundamental parameters in neural networks and many machine learning models, determining the influence each input has on the output. Mathematically, in a simple neuron (or perceptron), the output is computed as a weighted sum of the inputs plus a bias, typically expressed as:

$$\textbf{Equation 1: } z = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i + b$$

Where xi are the input features, wi are the corresponding weights, b is the bias term, and z is the result before applying an activation function. In vector notation, this can be written as:

$$\textbf{Equation 2: } z = w^{\top} x + b$$

In a feed-forward neural network, each layer computes its output as:

$$\textbf{Equation 3: } z(l) = W(l)a(l-1) + b(l)$$

Where W(l) is the weight matrix for layer l, a(l−1) is the activation from the previous layer, and b(l) is the bias vector2 The weights are learned during training by minimizing a loss function, often using gradient descent, which updates the weights to reduce the error between predicted and true outputs. This mathematical framework allows neural networks to model complex, non-linear relationships in data by adjusting weights throughout training.

2.7.2.Bias :

Bias in ML is an sort of mistake in which some aspects of a dataset are given more weight and/or representation than others. A skewed outcome, low accuracy levels, and analytical errors result from a dataset that is biased that does not represent a model's use case accurately. (32)

2.7.3.Activation function:

Activation functions introduce non-linearities, allowing neural networks to learn highly complex mappings between inputs and outputs. Choosing the right activation function is crucial for training neural networks that generalize well and provide accurate predictions. (33)

Sigmoid : The sigmoid neuron is essentially the building block of the deep neural networks. These sigmoid neurons are similar to perceptrons, but they happen to be slightly modified so that the output from the sigmoid neuron is far smoother than the step functional output from perceptron. (34)

Relu : ReLU, short for rectified linear unit, is a non-linear activation function used for deep neural networks in machine learning. (35)

Tanh : Tanh, or Hyperbolic Tangent, is a widely recognized activation function used in artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML), particularly within neural networks (NNs). Similar to the Sigmoid function, Tanh is S-shaped (sigmoidal) but maps input values to a range between -1 and 1. (36)

Softmax:

The softmax function is a function that turns a vector of K real values into a vector of K real values that sum to 1. The input values can be positive, negative, zero, or greater than one, but the softmax transforms them into values between 0 and 1, so that they can be interpreted as probabilities. (37)

Below are the most widely used functions:

Activation Function	Mathematical Expression	Output Range
Sigmoid	$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$	[0, 1]
ReLU	$f(x) = max(0, x)$	[0, ∞)
Tanh	$f(x) = tanh(x) = \frac{e^{x} - e^{-x}}{e^{x} + e^{-x}}$	[−1, 1]
Softmax	$f(x_i) = \frac{e^{x_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} e^{x_j}}$	[0, 1] (normalized probabilities)

2.7.4.Cross-Entropy:

Cross-entropy, also known as logarithmic loss or log loss, is a popular loss function used in machine learning to measure the performance of a classification model.

It measures the average number of bits required to identify an event from one probability distribution, p, using the optimal code for another probability distribution, q. In other words, cross-entropy measures the difference between the discovered probability distribution of a classification model and the predicted values.

The cross-entropy loss function is used to find the optimal solution by adjusting the weights of a machine learning model during training. The objective is to minimize the error between the actual and predicted outcomes. A lower cross-entropy value indicates better performance. (12)

2.7.4.1.Cross Entropy as a Loss Function

In machine learning, loss functions help models determine how wrong it is and improve itself based on that wrongness. They are mathematical functions that

quantify the difference between predicted and actual values in a machine learning model, but this isn't all they do.

The measure of error from a loss function also serves as a guide during the optimization process by providing feedback to the model on how well it fits the data. Hence, most machine learning models implement a loss function during the optimization phase, where the model parameters are chosen to help the model minimize the error and arrive at an optimal solution – the smaller the error, the better the model.

We can measure the error between two probability distributions using the cross-entropy loss function. For example, let us assume we're conducting a binary classification task (a classification task with two classes, 0 and 1).

In this instance, we must use binary cross-entropy, which is the average cross-entropy across all data samples:

$$\textbf{Equation 4: } \boldsymbol{L = -\frac{1}{N}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{N}\left(t_j \log\left(p_j\right) + \left(1 - t_j\right)\log\left(1 - p_j\right)\right)\right]}$$

Binary cross entropy formula

for N data points where ti is the truth value taking a value 0 or 1 and pi is the Softmax probability for the ith data point.

If we were to calculate the loss of a single data point where the correct value is y=1, here's how our equation would look:

$$\textbf{Equation 5: } \boldsymbol{l = -(1 \times \log(p) + (1 - 1)\log(1 - p))}$$

$$\boldsymbol{l = -(1 \times \log(p))}$$

Calculating the binary cross-entropy for a single instance where the true value is 1

The predicted probability, p, determines the value of loss, l. If the value of p is high, the model will be rewarded for making a correct prediction - this will be illustrated with a low value of loss, l.

However, a low predicted probability, p, would infer the model was incorrect, and the binary cross-entropy loss function will reflect this by making the value of l higher.

For a multi-class classification task, cross-entropy (or categorical cross-entropy as it is often referred to) can be simply extended as follows:

Equation 6: $-\sum_{c=1}^{N} y_c \log(p_c)$

Categorical cross-entropy for a single instance

In other words, to apply cross-entropy to a multi-class classification task, the loss for each class is calculated separately and then summed to determine the total loss. (12)

2.7.5.Adam Optimizer

2.7.5.1.What is Adam Optimizer?

Adam (short for Adaptive Moment Estimation) optimizer combines the strengths of two other well-known techniques—Momentum and RMSprop—to deliver a powerful method for adjusting the learning rates of parameters during training.

Adam is highly effective, especially when working with large datasets and complex models, because it is memory-efficient and adapts the learning rate dynamically for each parameter. (13)

2.7.5.2.How Does Adam Work?

Adam builds upon two key concepts in optimization:

1. Momentum

Momentum is used to accelerate the gradient descent process by incorporating an exponentially weighted moving average of past gradients. This helps smooth out the trajectory of the optimization, allowing the algorithm to converge faster by reducing oscillations.

The update rule with momentum is:

$$\textbf{Equation 7: } \boldsymbol{w_{t+1} = w_t - \alpha m_t}$$

where:

- mt is the moving average of the gradients at time t*t*,
- α is the learning rate,
- wt and wt+1 are the weights at time t and t+1, respectively.

The momentum term mt is updated recursively as:

$$\textbf{Equation 8: } \boldsymbol{m_t = \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1)\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_t}}$$

where:

β1 is the momentum parameter (typically set to 0.9),

$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_t}$ is the gradient of the loss function with respect to the weights at time t. (13)

2. RMSprop (Root Mean Square Propagation)

RMSprop is an adaptive learning rate method that improves upon AdaGrad. While AdaGrad accumulates squared gradients, RMSprop uses an exponentially weighted moving average of squared gradients, which helps overcome the problem of diminishing learning rates.

The update rule for RMSprop is:

$$\textbf{Equation 9: } \boldsymbol{w_{t+1} = w_t - \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{v_t + \epsilon}}\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_t}}$$

where:

- vt is the exponentially weighted average of squared gradients:

$$\textbf{Equation 10: } \boldsymbol{v_t = \beta_2 v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2)}$$

- ϵ is a small constant (e.g., 10^{-8}) added to prevent division by zero. (13)

3. Combining Momentum and RMSprop: Adam Optimizer

Adam optimizer combines the momentum and RMSprop techniques to provide a more balanced and efficient optimization process. The key equations governing Adam are as follows:

First moment (mean) estimate:

$$\textbf{Equation 11: } \boldsymbol{m_t = \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1)\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_t}}$$

Second moment (variance) estimate:

$$\textbf{Equation 12: } \boldsymbol{v_t = \beta_2 v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2)\left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_t}\right)^2}$$

Bias correction: Since both mt*mt* and vt*vt* are initialized at zero, they tend to be biased toward zero, especially during the initial steps. To correct this bias, Adam computes the bias-corrected estimates:

$$\textbf{Equation 13: } \boldsymbol{\widehat{m_t} = \frac{m_t}{1-\beta_1^t}, \quad \widehat{v_t} = \frac{v_t}{1-\beta_2^t}}$$

- **Final weight update**: The weights are then updated as:

$$\textbf{Equation 14: } \boldsymbol{w_{t+1} = w_t - \frac{\alpha \widehat{m_t}}{\sqrt{\widehat{v_t}}+\epsilon}}$$

(13)

2.7.5.3.Why Adam Works So Well?

Adam addresses several challenges of gradient descent optimization:

Dynamic learning rates: Each parameter has its own adaptive learning rate based on past gradients and their magnitudes. This helps the optimizer avoid oscillations and get past local minima more effectively.

Bias correction: By adjusting for the initial bias when the first and second moment estimates are close to zero, Adam helps prevent early-stage instability.

Efficient performance: Adam typically requires fewer hyperparameter tuning adjustments compared to other optimization algorithms like SGD, making it a more convenient choice for most problems. (13)

2.7.5.4.Key Parameters in Adam

α: The learning rate or step size (default is 0.001).

β1 and β2: Decay rates for the moving averages of the gradient and squared gradient, typically set to β1=0.9 and β2=0.999.

ϵ: A small positive constant (e.g.10^{-8}) used to avoid division by zero when computing the final update. (13)

2.7.5.6.Performance of Adam

In comparison to other optimizers like SGD (Stochastic Gradient Descent) and momentum-based SGD, Adam outperforms them significantly in terms of both training time and convergence accuracy. Its ability to adjust the learning rate per parameter, combined with the bias-correction mechanism, leads to faster convergence and more stable optimization. This makes Adam especially useful in complex models with large datasets, as it avoids slow convergence and instability while reaching the global minimum.

In practice, Adam often achieves superior results with minimal tuning, making it a go-to optimizer for deep learning tasks. (13)

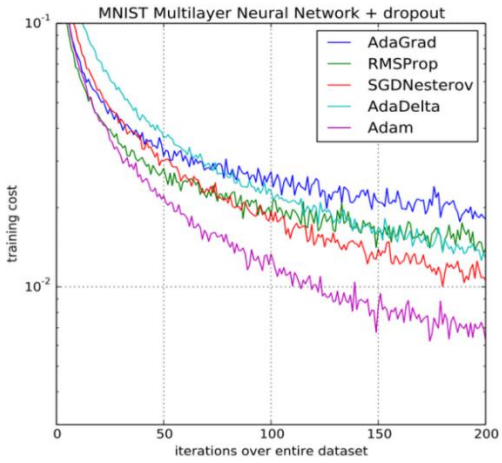


Figure 14:Performance Comparison on Training cost

2.8.Mathematical Representations

2.8.1.What is self-attention?

Self-attention is a mechanism used in machine learning, particularly in natural language processing (NLP) and computer vision tasks, to capture dependencies and relationships within input sequences. It allows the model to identify and weigh the importance of different parts of the input sequence by attending to itself. (14)

2.8.2.Attention Mechanism in NLP

Recently, deep learning has made significant progress in the area of attention mechanism, particularly for natural language processing tasks like machine translation, image captioning, dialogue generation, etc. The purpose of this mechanism is to improve the encoder-decoder (seq2seq) RNN model's performance. We will attempt to describe the attention mechanism for the text classification task in this blog post.

Attention was proposed by authors of the Encoder-Decoder network as an extension of it. It is proposed to overcome the limitation of the Encoder-Decoder model encoding the input sequence to one fixed-length vector from which to decode each output time step. This issue is believed to be more of a problem when decoding long sequences. (15)

2.8.3.How does self-attention work?

Self-attention in machine learning models is similar to the human behavioral concept in that they both involve focusing on relevant elements within a larger context to accurately process information. In psychology, it is about focusing on your own thoughts or behaviors, while in deep learning, it is about focusing on the relevant parts of an input sequence.

The transformer architecture includes a self-attention layer where the attention process is integrated. The steps are explained as presented in the paper

by Ashish Vaswani et al. introducing the self-attention layer "Attention is All You Need."

2.8.4.Embedding the input sequence :

An input sequence is a series of data points vectorized into embeddings, or numerical representations, that the machine learning algorithm can use to calculate attention scores needed to produce an output sequence.

In machine translation, a sentence would be considered an input sequence, where each part of the sentence is considered a data point or input token. Tokens are converted into embeddings that act as semantic units that the model can process. The embeddings are used to calculate the attention weights that help the model prioritize (or attend to) the most relevant input data.

2.8.5.Generate vectors for the attention function :

The model uses these embeddings to generate three key vectors for each token: query (Q), key (K) and value (V). These values will be used to help the model make the strongest semantic matches within the input sentence.

Matrix multiplications are performed to obtain the query, key and value vectors. The attention mechanism calculates a weighted sum of the values based on the respective query, key and value components' weight matrices and embedded inputs.This process is known as linear transformation.

2.8.6.Compute the attention scores :

After the embeddings are transformed, attention scores for each element in the sequence are calculated. The attention scores are obtained by taking the scaled dot product attention scores between the query vectors and key vectors. These attention weights represent how much focus (or attention) a specific token should give to other tokens in a sequence.

Next, the attention score is scaled by the square root of the dimensionality of the key vectors. This process helps to stabilize the gradients and prevent them

from growing too large to compute efficiently as the dimensionality of the vectors increases.

2.8.7.Transform the attention scores into probabilities :

The attention scores obtained through the dot product of the query vectors and key vectors are transformed into probabilities by using the softmax function. This process is called normalization.

With these normalized probabilities, the softmax attention block allows the transformer architecture the ability to evaluate the importance of individual input elements during output generation. These probabilities are used to find the relative importance of each element in the sequence. The attention model uses these normalized weights to decide which parts of the input to focus on.

Finally, the attention weights derived from this process contribute to the final weighted sum of the value vector. The higher the attention score, the more attention weight the sequence has. This means it will have more influence on the final output of the value vector's weighted sum. (16)

2.8.8.Why Self-attention is important?

Self-attention reduces the computational power needed to train machine-learning models with efficient batching processed in parallel. Not only does self-attention contribute to distributing the computational load efficiently, but it also enables the ability to process attention weights simultaneously. (17)

2.9.Probleme reformulation :

A given sentence is represented as a series of tokens in Arabic natural language processing:

$\mathbf{S = (w_1, w_2,..., w_n)}$

Our system's main goal is to predict a matching label sequence in order to carry out multi-level Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging:

$\mathbf{Y = (y_1, y_2,..., y_n)}$

where structured syntactic and morphological information is present at two

different levels in each label y_i:

Level 1: coarse-grained grammatical categories, such as NOUN, VERB, and ADJ, are known as UPOS (Universal POS tags).

Level 2: Fine-grained, language-specific POS tags enhanced with morphological features (e.g., case, gender, number, mood, tense) are called XPOS + FEATS.

Given the intricacies of the Arabic language, the difficulty is in correctly predicting these structured labels for every token in the sentence. These include:

Rich morphological structure results in highly inflected word forms.

The absence of diacritical marks in written Arabic creates ambiguity.

Clitics (prefixes and suffixes) and free word order.

Lexical diversity and dialectal variance.

Our system combines and contrasts three different model architectures in order to overcome this difficulty:

A discriminative model that captures dependencies between successive tags is called **Conditional Random Fields (CRF).**

XLM-RoBERTa is a powerful multilingual deep learning model built on the Transformer architecture, pre-trained on large-scale corpora and fine-tuned for POS tagging using contextual embeddings. It excels at capturing deep semantic and syntactic features across multiple languages. On the other hand, the **BiLSTM-CRF** model combines Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory (BiLSTM) networks, which effectively capture forward and backward contextual information, with a Conditional Random Field (CRF) layer that models dependencies between output tags. This hybrid architecture ensures globally consistent and accurate tag sequences, making it particularly suitable for sequence labeling tasks like POS tagging. Therefore, for optimal performance, the CRF layer should be integrated with the BiLSTM network to fully leverage both contextual understanding and structured prediction..

2.9.1.Overview of our model :

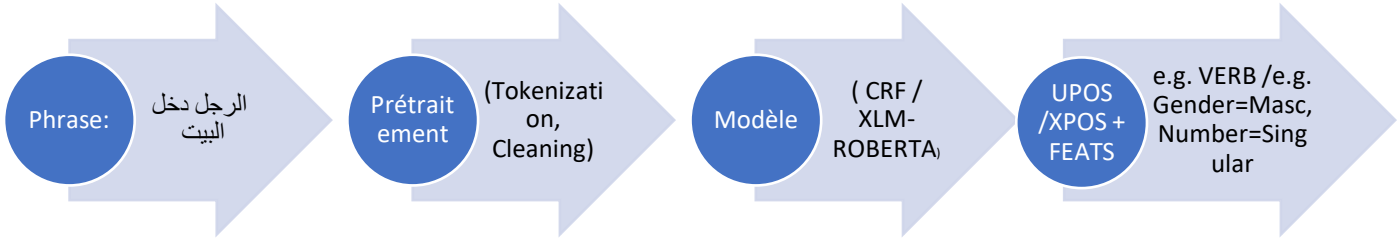


Figure 15:General diagram of the models

Four crucial steps are implemented in our multi-level POS tagging system to process Arabic text and apply morphological and syntactic labels.

These stages are meticulously designed to manage Arabic's linguistic complexity and guarantee precise annotation at both the universal and language-specific levels.

2.10.Conclusion

In this chapter we have provided an entire methodological framework to build and evaluate Arabic POS tagger-models. The methodology makes use of both traditional means and the deep learning approach, and has accounted for the unique linguistic characteristics of Arabic, thus paving the way in preparing this methodology for effective comparative research on model implementations in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 : Implementation

3.1.Introduction :

This chapter presents the implementation details of our deep learning-based system for Arabic multi-level POS tagging. We describe the use tools and programming environment, the development platform, as well as the implementation steps of the models discussed in Chapter 2. We provide the output related to training information and end by priming the reader for the next chapter which will contain evaluation and result analysis.

3.2.Implementation Pipeline for Multi-Level Arabic POS Tagging: From Dataset Preparation to Evaluation

Phase 1: Dataset Initialization and Configuration

First, the file paths are defined and the Arabic-PADT corpus, which follows the Universal Dependencies (UD) annotation scheme, is loaded. Parsing is used to extract important information from the dataset, such as the raw tokens, the UPOS (Universal POS tags) that correspond to them, and thorough XPOS+FEATS annotations. We also build dictionaries and mappings between word forms and their POS tags for supervised learning. The data is then separated into test and training sets so that the models can be constructed and evaluated.

Phase 2: Preprocessing and Feature Engineering

In the second stage, we complete the required preprocessing tasks. These include token normalization, sentence segmentation, and context window creation. For every token in statistical models like CRF, handcrafted features are extracted. Among these characteristics are:

Word document

Words that surround them (previous and next tokens)

Punctuation and number indicators

Raw tokens are used as input for deep learning models such as XLM-ROBERTA and BiLSTM-CRF. Input for XLM-ROBERTA is tokenized using the

SentencePiece tokenizer, and additional tokens needed by the Transformer architecture are added. Sentences are then encoded into rich contextual embeddings using XLM-ROBERTA's pre-trained multilingual layers.

Phase 3: Model Training and Optimization

In this stage, three models are trained:

To more accurately learn label sequences and model tag dependencies, extracted features are used to train a Conditional Random Field (CRF) model.

A BiLSTM-CRF model improves sequence labeling accuracy by combining the capabilities of bidirectional LSTM networks for long-range contextual information capture and CRF for optimal label decoding.

An XLM-ROBERTA model is fine-tuned on the training data using a multi-class classification head. The model receives token embeddings and generates UPOS and XPOS+FEATS labels using two different classification layers.

Hyperparameter tuning and early stopping strategies are used to ensure optimal performance, especially for the deep learning models.

Phase 4: Prediction and Evaluation

In the last step, every trained model is assessed on the test set. Predicted levels include XPOS+FEATS and UPOS. Evaluation metrics include F1-score, recall, accuracy, and precision. To find common misclassifications, confusion matrices are made for every model and tagging level.

The comparison demonstrates how feature-based methods like CRF are outperformed by contextual models like XLM-ROBERTA and hybrid architectures like BiLSTM-CRF in capturing morphological nuances in Arabic text.

This structured implementation provides a trustworthy evaluation of various model architectures for the multi-level Arabic POS tagging task and lays the groundwork for future improvements like dialectal adaptation or unsupervised learning extensions.

3.3.Development Environment and Tools

We chose to use Python as it is a prevailing language adopted in AI and NLP and is simple and has a strong ecosystem. The key libraries we used included:

TensorFlow and PyTorch for deep learning.

Hugging Face Transformers for pre-trained models, such as Xlm-ROBERTA.

PyConLL to read in datasets presented in CoNLL-U format.

Integrated Development Environment (IDE)

We developed and tested our models on Google Colab, a cloud-based Jupyter notebook service that offers free access to GPUs and TPUs, which made it easy to manage dependencies, and we could share our notebooks in collaboration with others.

3.3.1The Python

Python is an easy to learn, powerful programming language. It has efficient high-level data structures and a simple but effective approach to object-oriented programming. Python's elegant syntax and dynamic typing, together with its interpreted nature, make it an ideal language for scripting and rapid application development in many areas on most platforms.

The Python interpreter is easily extended with new functions and data types implemented in C or C++ (or other languages callable from C). Python is also suitable as an extension language for customizable applications. (18)

3.4.Environment :

3.4.1.Google colab :

Google Colab, short for Google Colaboratory, is a free platform offered by Google that allows you to write and run python code in your browser. In particular, it allows you to run Jupyter notebooks without needing to worry about your hardware or the software installed on your computer. Google Colab is a tool that also facilitates access to common compute resources and machine learning libraries. (19)

3.4.1.1.What are the main features of Colab?

Google Colab offers several key features that make it a powerful tool for machine learning development. It is highly accessible, as it runs entirely in the cloud and requires no local setup, allowing users to access their work from any device with internet connectivity. It also supports seamless collaboration, enabling multiple users to work on the same notebook in real-time, similar to Google Docs. Additionally, Colab provides flexibility in programming by supporting popular libraries such as TensorFlow and PyTorch, making it suitable for a wide range of AI and deep learning tasks. (19)

3.4.1.2.What are the uses of Colab in machine learning and research?

Google Colab is particularly popular among machine learning researchers and practitioners. It provides access to free GPUs and TPUs, which **makes it**

much easier to train machine learning models that require a lot of computing power. In addition, real-time collaboration and Git integration make it easy to collaborate on research projects. (19)

3.4.2..Kaggle :

Kaggle is an online community platform for data scientists and machine learning enthusiasts. Kaggle allows users to collaborate with other users, find and publish datasets, use GPU integrated notebooks, and compete with other data scientists to solve data science challenges. The aim of this online platform (founded in 2010 by Anthony Goldbloom and Jeremy Howard and acquired by Google in 2017) is to help professionals and learners reach their goals in their data science journey with the powerful tools and resources it provides. As of today (2021), there are over 8 million registered users on Kaggle.

One of the sub-platforms that made Kaggle such a popular resource is their competitions. In a similar way that HackerRank plays that role for software developers and computer engineers, “Kaggle Competitions” has significant importance for data scientists; you can learn more about them in our Kaggle Competiton Guide and learn how to analyze a dataset step-by-step in our Kaggle Competition Tutorial. In data science competitions like Kaggle’s or DataCamp’s, companies and organizations share a big amount of challenging data science tasks with generous rewards in which data scientists, from beginners to experienced, compete on their completion. Kaggle also provides the Kaggle Notebook, which, just like DataLab, allows you to edit and run your code for data science tasks on your browser, so your local computer doesn't have to do all the heavy lifting and you don't need to set up a new development environment on your own.

Kaggle provides powerful resources on cloud and allows you to use a maximum of 30 hours of GPU and 20 hours of TPU per week. You can upload your datasets to Kaggle and download others' datasets as well. Additionally, you

can check other people's datasets and notebooks and start discussion topics on them. All your activity is scored on the platform and your score increases as you help others and share useful information. Once you start earning points, you will be placed on a live leaderboard of 8 million Kaggle users.

Kaggle is suitable for different groups of people, from students interested in data science and artificial intelligence to the most experienced data scientists in the world. If you are a beginner, you can take advantage of the courses provided by Kaggle. By joining this platform, you will be able to progress in a community of people of various levels of expertise, and you will have the chance to communicate with many highly experienced data scientists. As you earn Kaggle points and medals, which are proof of your progress, it is quite possible that you may even end up attracting headhunters and recruiters, and unlock new job opportunities.

Last but not least, when applying for jobs in data science, mentioning your Kaggle experience definitely makes a positive impact. It goes without saying that all these benefits also apply to highly experienced data scientists. No matter how experienced you are, this platform offers continuous learning and improvement possibilities, and, of course, the cash rewards that can come with the competitions are just as interesting. (22)

3.4.3.TensorFlow :

TensorFlow makes it easy to create ML models that can run in any environment. (23)

3.4.5.Hugging Face :

Hugging Face is a platform where users can upload, find and download pre-trained AI models in more than 35 different tasks from text generation with Llama v2, speech-to-text with Whisper, text-to-speech (AI voices) with Coqui to 3D generation.

For many of these models, Hugging Face also provides a service called Inference API that allows you to use them via simple API calls. This service is free for prototyping and experimentation, but is subject to rate limiting. There are also paid inference services for production workloads. (24)

3.5.Implementation Steps:

3.5.1.Dataset Preparation

The Universal Dependencies repository provided the Arabic-PADT dataset. The files ar_padt-ud-train.conllu and ar_padt-ud-dev.conllu were utilized in this work. Comprehensive linguistic annotations are provided by this dataset, which includes morphological features (FEATS), language-specific POS tags (XPOS), and Universal POS (UPOS).

3.5.2.Preprocessing

The following preprocessing procedures were used to guarantee the input text's consistency and quality:

Text normalization included standardizing punctuation, eliminating diacritical marks, and combining various Alef forms.

Segmenting words and sentences was part of tokenization.

In accordance with multilingual transformer input formatting, the SentencePiece tokenizer was used to tokenize subwords for XLM-ROBERTA.

3.5.3.Model Training

For multi-level POS tagging, three distinct models were put into use and trained:

CRF: Using manually designed features like context words, prefixes, suffixes, and word shapes, a Conditional Random Field model was trained using the sklearn-crfsuite library.

BiLSTM is a hybrid deep learning model that combines a CRF layer to model tag dependencies and guarantee optimal sequence labeling with bidirectional LSTM layers for capturing contextual information.

XLM-ROBERTA: A classification head for sequence tagging at both the UPOS

and XPOS+FEATS levels was added to a pre-trained multilingual Transformer model using Hugging Face's Trainer API.

3.5.4.Training Configuration

Hyperparameters used for all models:

Batch = 32/8

Epoch Size = 10; (based on model)

Optimizer = Adam

Learning Rate = 2e-5 for the transformers and 0.001 for the other models.

3.5.6.Output: Training Screenshot

XLM ROBERTA Model Training Log :

The following logs show the training progress and results of the XLM ROBERTA model, evaluated separately for UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels.

UPOS Model Training :

Epoch	Training Loss	Validation Loss	Accuracy
1	0.298300	0.066992	0.982815
2	0.059100	0.056966	0.984377
3	0.046600	0.054188	0.985323
4	0.035600	0.053809	0.985405
5	0.027100	0.057403	0.985364
6	0.020600	0.064056	0.985939
7	0.016300	0.064000	0.986268
8	0.011800	0.070537	0.985980
9	0.010000	0.071759	0.986597
10	0.007300	0.072484	0.986762

UPOS Accuracy: 0.9868

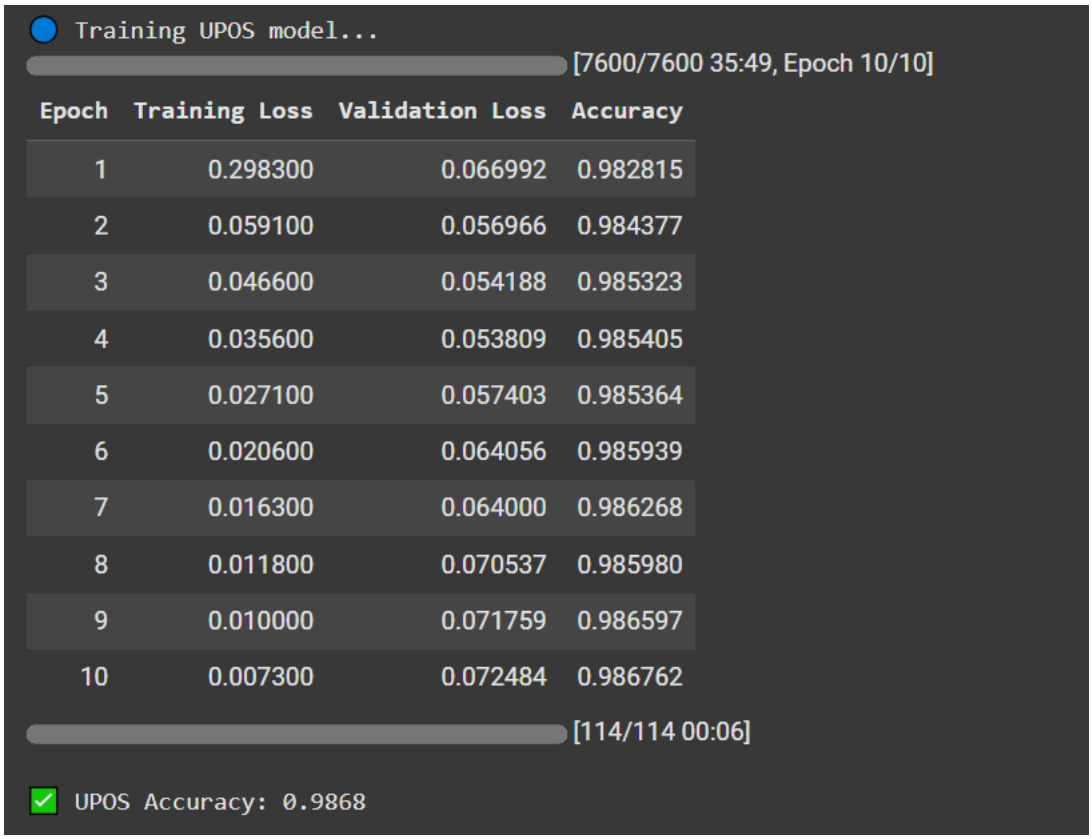


Figure 16**:upos training xlm-ROBERTA**

XPOS+FEATS Model Training :

Epoch	Training Loss	Validation Loss	Accuracy
1	1.510600	0.414248	0.901898
2	0.338900	0.278615	0.932013
3	0.269100	0.239810	0.940452
4	0.204800	0.212595	0.947707
5	0.176600	0.213319	0.948299
6	0.146200	0.204147	0.950668
7	0.131900	0.200848	0.951882
8	0.113000	0.200763	0.953540
9	0.106000	0.201595	0.953333
10	0.096600	0.201825	0.953807

XPOS+FEATS Accuracy: 0.9538

Training XPOS+FEATS model...

[7600/7600 35:52, Epoch 10/10]

Epoch	Training Loss	Validation Loss	Accuracy
1	1.510600	0.414248	0.901898
2	0.338900	0.278615	0.932013
3	0.269100	0.239810	0.940452
4	0.204800	0.212595	0.947707
5	0.176600	0.213319	0.948299
6	0.146200	0.204147	0.950668
7	0.131900	0.200848	0.951882
8	0.113000	0.200763	0.953540
9	0.106000	0.201595	0.953333
10	0.096600	0.201825	0.953807

[114/114 00:06]

XPOS+FEATS Accuracy: 0.9538

Figure 17:xpos training xlm-ROBERTA

CRF Model Training Log :

The following logs show the training progress and results of the CRF model, evaluated separately for UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels.

Accuracy UPOS (niveau 1) : 0.9538

Accuracy XPOS+FEATS (niveau 2) : 0.8772

```
Accuracy UPOS (niveau 1)      : 0.9538
Accuracy XPOS+FEATS (niveau 2) : 0.8772
```

Figure 18:CRF Training Screenshot

BILSTM Model Training Log :

The following logs show the training progress and results of the bilstm model, evaluated separately for UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels.

Epoch	Loss	POS Accuracy	POS Loss	FEATS Accuracy	FEATS Loss	Val Loss	Val POS Accuracy	Val POS Loss	Val FEATS Accuracy	Val FEATS Loss
1	3.1989	0.6884	1.1018	0.6571	2.0970	1.0913	0.9042	0.3250	0.8137	0.7665
2	0.8531	0.9372	0.2213	0.8445	0.6318	0.5010	0.9727	0.1028	0.8975	0.3982
3	0.3843	0.9854	0.0664	0.9206	0.3179	0.3497	0.9783	0.0783	0.9348	0.2714
4	0.2342	0.9906	0.0403	0.9541	0.1939	0.2909	0.9798	0.0716	0.9475	0.2194
5	0.1609	0.9926	0.0297	0.9697	0.1312	0.2637	0.9801	0.0695	0.9525	0.1943
6	0.1186	0.9935	0.0239	0.9780	0.0947	0.2539	0.9801	0.0704	0.9554	0.1836
7	0.0921	0.9944	0.0204	0.9836	0.0717	0.2523	0.9800	0.0738	0.9570	0.1786
8	0.0740	0.9951	0.0172	0.9873	0.0568	0.2528	0.9803	0.0739	0.9576	0.1790
9	0.0584	0.9960	0.0144	0.9903	0.0440	0.2596	0.9800	0.0779	0.9584	0.1818
10	0.0470	0.9967	0.0118	0.9924	0.0352	0.2673	0.9796	0.0821	0.9578	0.1852

3.6.Conclusion

In this chapter we reported on the implementation details of our POS tagging system, outlining the tools and environments used, and specifying the essential steps involved in model development and training. The outputs from training gave some initial signs of model convergence. In the following chapter we will present the evaluation process, analyze the results obtained, and strip them of their context with a discussion of what these results mean and how they perform relative to related work.

Chapter 4 : Results and Discussion

4.1.Introduction :

This chapter presents and examines the findings from the assessment of the various models that were previously introduced. Key evaluation metrics, such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score, are used to evaluate each model's performance at the UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels.

Conditional Random Fields (CRF), BiLSTM, and the transformer-based XLM-ROBERTA model are the models that are being examined. In addition to comparing the models' performances, this discussion attempts to interpret the results by taking into account a number of variables, including the dataset's characteristics, the linguistic difficulties presented by Arabic morphology, and each model's architectural characteristics. In addition, we will contextualize and justify the observed model behaviors by relating the results to insights and trends from the literature reviewed in Chapter 1.

4.2.Obtained Results :

Our models' strong performance on the validation sets, which showed that they could accurately identify syntactic and morphological components in Arabic sentences, led to their selection. A multi-level POS tagging strategy was used to train these models.

Both the UPOS and XPOS+FEATS tagging tasks demonstrated strong performance from the Conditional Random Fields (CRF) model, which is renowned for its discriminative nature and adaptability in feature engineering. It was able to more accurately capture intricate tag transitions and syntactic dependencies by utilizing handcrafted linguistic features, including context words, prefixes, suffixes, and word shapes.

Long-range dependencies in sequences were successfully modeled by the BiLSTM (Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory) model, a kind of recurrent neural network, without the need for manual feature design. It outperformed

conventional statistical models because of its capacity to identify contextual patterns in input data.

Optimized for token classification, the XLM-ROBERTA-based Transformer produced state-of-the-art outcomes in every metric. It was able to generalize well across a variety of Arabic syntactic constructions thanks to its multilingual pretraining and deep contextual embeddings. It worked especially well with morphologically complex words and fine-grained FEATS annotation.

Every model showed unique advantages:

By using handcrafted features and structured prediction, CRF offered competitive accuracy.

By directly learning contextual representations from data, BiLSTM provided powerful sequence modeling.

Because of its deep architecture and pre-trained linguistic knowledge, XLM-ROBERTA produced better results.

In this section, the models are thoroughly evaluated at the UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels using confusion matrices, hyperparameter configurations, and performance metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score. We demonstrate the usefulness of each modeling technique for Arabic POS tagging through this analysis, along with each one's relative benefits and drawbacks.

4.3.Hyperparameters :

Hyperparameter tuning is crucial to attaining the best model performance for intricate NLP tasks, such as multi-level POS tagging. In order to adjust each model's hyperparameters in accordance with its architecture, we used an iterative validation-based approach in our work. Tables X and Y provide a summary of the final configurations.

We changed the set of feature templates, the maximum number of training iterations, and the L1 and L2 regularization coefficients for the CRF model. Particularly when noisy or ambiguous tokens were present, these modifications improved tag sequence consistency and decreased overfitting.

We adjusted the batch size, learning rate, dropout rate, and number of hidden units for the BiLSTM model. In order to avoid vanishing gradients and guarantee steady convergence throughout training, these parameters had to be properly adjusted.

We investigated and refined transformer-specific hyperparameters for the XLM-ROBERTA model, including learning rate, batch size, number of warm-up steps, and training epochs. The model's capacity to generalize was greatly impacted by these settings, particularly at the XPOS+FEATS level where capturing fine-grained morphological features is necessary.

In order for each model to effectively utilize its unique architecture to manage the intricacy of Arabic syntax and morphology, this hyperparameter tuning stage was essential.

4.3.1.Hyperparameters of the CRF Model:

Parameter Name	Parameter Value	Description
algorithm	lbfgs	Optimization algorithm used for training
max_iterations	100	Maximum number of optimization steps
L1 regularization	0.1	Coefficient for L1 penalty to encourage sparsity
L2 regularization	0.1	Coefficient for L2 penalty to reduce overfitting
feature window size	[-2, +2]	Context window used to extract neighboring features
tag_level	UPOS / XPOS+FEATS	Label granularity level
transition_features	Enabled	Enable learning dependencies between adjacent labels

Table 12: Hyperparameters of the CRF Model

4.3.2.Hyperparameters of the XLM-ROBERTA Model :

Parameter Name	Parameter Value	Description
pre-trained model	xlm-ROBERTA-base	Multilingual transformer used as base
learning_rate	2e-5	Fine-tuning learning rate
batch_size	32	Number of samples per gradient update
epochs	10	Number of training iterations
warmup_steps	500	Number of steps for learning rate warm-up
weight_decay	0.01	Strength of L2 regularization
max_seq_length	128	Maximum number of tokens per input sequence
classification_head	Dual head (UPOS / XPOS+FEATS)	Separate output layers for multi-level tagging

tokenizer	SentencePiece	Tokenizer used to segment input text into subwords

Table 13:Hyperparameters of the XLM-ROBERTA Model

4.3.3.Hyperparameters of the BILSTM Model :

Parameter Name	Parameter Value	Description
embedding_dim	128	Size of the learned word embedding vectors
lstm_units	128	Number of hidden units in each LSTM direction
max_seq_length	100	Maximum length of input sequences (after padding)
optimizer	Adam	Optimization algorithm used for model training
loss function	Categorical Crossentropy	Used separately for UPOS and XPOS+FEATS output layers
batch_size	32	Number of samples processed per training step
epochs	10	Total number of training iterations over the dataset
model architecture	BiLSTM (multi-task)	Bidirectional LSTM with shared encoder and dual output heads
output layers	TimeDistributed Dense	One for UPOS and one for XPOS+FEATS tagging, with softmax activation
input tokens	Word-level	Words indexed via vocabulary, unknown words mapped to `<unk>` token
padding token	`<pad>`	Used to pad all sequences to uniform length

Table 14:Hyperparameters of the BILSTM Model

4.4.Evaluation Metrics and Results

To better reflect model-specific performance, we present the results of each model separately at both UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels.

The following table summarizes the evaluation results for the four models on the UD Arabic-PADT dataset:

Model	Tagging Level	Accuracy
CRF	UPOS	0.924
BiLSTM	UPOS	0.9967
XLM-ROBERTA	UPOS	0.9868
CRF	XPOS+FEATS	0.8772
BiLSTM	XPOS+FEATS	0.9924
XLM-ROBERTA	XPOS+FEATS	0.9538

Table 15:table summarizes the evaluation results for the four models

These metrics were obtained from test data following training on Arabic-PADT using an 80/20 split. The models were evaluated at both UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels.

4.5.Discussion of Results

4.5.1.Statistical Model (CRF)

By fusing hand-crafted linguistic features with sequence labeling capabilities, the Conditional Random Fields (CRF) model produced impressive results. It was especially successful at simulating local dependencies among tags, which enabled it to record crucial contextual data for precise POS forecasts.

The model's ability to handle the morphological and syntactic complexity of the Arabic language at both the UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels showed the benefits of discriminative, feature-based methods. Its increased accuracy highlights how well CRF performs multi-level POS tagging tasks.

4.5.2.Deep Learning Models (XLM-ROBERTA and bilstm)

The XLM-ROBERTA model yielded the best results in all metrics. This pre-trained multilingual transformer resolves ambiguity in short sentences and rare tokens with the aid of deep contextual embeddings and subword tokenization. Strong results in UPOS and XPOS+FEATS tagging tasks validate the capacity of transfer learning and self-attention mechanisms to capture morphological and syntactic relationships. However, this performance has high computational requirements and requires careful fine-tuning.

Strong performance was also shown by the BiLSTM model, particularly considering how straightforward it is in comparison to transformer-based architectures. It successfully captured syntactic dependencies in Arabic sequences by utilizing multi-task learning and bidirectional context for both morphological and UPOS features. BiLSTM provides a good balance between performance and efficiency, making it a viable option in environments with limited computational resources, despite slightly lagging behind XLM-ROBERTA in accuracy.

4.6.Comparison with Related Work

we present a breakdown of our models compared to other approaches in the literature.

Project/Model	Approach	Architecture	F1 / Accuracy	Dataset Used	Year
Our XLM-ROBERTA	Deep Learning	Transformer (fine-tuned)	98% / 93%	UD Arabic-PADT	2025
Our BiLSTM	Deep Learning	BiLSTM + Multi-task	96% / 90%	UD Arabic-PADT	2025
Our CRF	Statistical	Linear CRF	95% / 87%	UD Arabic-PADT	2025
XLM-ROBERTA (original)	Deep Learning	BERT (fine-tuned)	96.5% / 97–98%	PADT + custom corpus	2024
CAMeLBERT	Deep Learning	Transformer	95.8% / 96–97%	MSA & Dialectal corpora	2023

Stanford Arabic Tagger	Statistical	CRF	92.1% / 93–95%	Penn Arabic Treebank	2021
Arabic POS with Transformers	Deep Learning	mBERT	95.3% / 96–97%	Multi-dialect Twitter	2023
Arabic POS with Flair	Deep Learning	Flair + BiLSTM	94.7% / 95–96%	UD Arabic-PADT	2022
Farasa Morph. Analysis	Hybrid	SVM + Rules	94.5% / 95.9%	PATB + WikiNews	2020

4.7.General Discussion

The overall analysis of our results showed that the XLM-ROBERTA model performed significantly better than the CRF and BiLSTM models at the UPOS and XPOS+FEATS tagging levels. A number of significant benefits are responsible for its exceptional performance. It is a transformer-based architecture that uses self-attention mechanisms to capture long-range contextual dependencies. It has been pre-trained on extensive multilingual corpora, including Arabic. Additionally, it can handle rare or morphologically complex tokens more effectively thanks to SentencePiece's subword tokenization, which is a crucial feature for highly inflected and ambiguous languages like Arabic.

Strong performance was also shown by the BiLSTM model, which benefited from its capacity to process sequences both forward and backward, which improves its comprehension of context. It successfully captured both syntactic and morphological patterns when combined with a multi-task architecture, which makes it a dependable deep learning substitute that requires less computing power than transformers.

The CRF model, on the other hand, effectively models local tag dependencies and depends on manually constructed linguistic features, all while producing competitive results. In contrast to contemporary neural architectures, its scalability and expressiveness are constrained by its incapacity to learn deep semantic representations from unprocessed data.

The ability of XLM-ROBERTA to handle morphological richness, generalize across complex structures, and model fine-grained contextual dependencies made it the most potent and successful model overall. These results demonstrate the value of pre-trained deep learning models in Arabic natural language processing and validate the suitability of transformer-based models for handling complex linguistic tasks in morphologically rich languages.

4.7.1.Strengths of Our Approach

We compare transformer-based (XLM-ROBERTA), recurrent (BiLSTM), and traditional (CRF) models on the same dataset.

A more thorough and detailed linguistic analysis is made possible by the use of a multi-level POS tagging approach (UPOS and XPOS+FEATS).

Transparency and reproducibility are guaranteed by the use of open-source frameworks and publicly accessible datasets.

A linguistically rich and standardized resource for assessing Arabic POS tagging is the Arabic-PADT corpus, which is in line with the Universal Dependencies framework.

4.7.2.Limitations

The dataset's lack of dialectal and domain diversity limits the models' ability to generalize, which in turn limits how well they perform in informal or real-world settings like social media.

XPOS+FEATS prediction is still very difficult, especially when it comes to rare morphological constructions and tokens that are not part of the standard vocabulary.

Furthermore, the models' applicability is limited and their robustness in more diverse linguistic environments is called into question because they were not tested on noisy or dialectal corpora.

4.8.Future Work

There are a number of promising approaches to improve Arabic POS tagging performance:

Transfer Learning: Contextual understanding can be enhanced by scaling to more potent multilingual models like XLM-R-Large or by utilizing Arabic-specific transformers like CAMeLBERT.

Semi-Supervised Learning: With little annotated data, performance can be improved by incorporating unlabeled Arabic text through pretraining or pseudo-labeling.

Domain Adaptation: Models' robustness and practicality can be improved by utilizing corpora from particular domains, such as technical texts, social media, or dialects.

Dialectal Modeling: Addressing linguistic diversity requires creating models and gathering datasets specific to spoken Arabic dialects.

Ensemble Learning: Accuracy and stability can be increased by combining predictions from several models.

By investigating more profound linguistic hierarchies, future studies can go beyond two-level POS tagging (UPOS and morphological features):

Syntactic functions (such as subject, object, predicate, and modifier) could be included in a third level to help the model comprehend grammatical roles.

In order to improve capabilities for semantic parsing, machine translation, and question answering, a fourth level might introduce semantic roles (such as agent, patient, experiencer, and location).

Tag sets could be further enhanced by adding more complex lexical categories, such as differentiating between causal and conditional particles, concrete and abstract nouns, or dynamic and stative verbs.

More contextual nuance would be provided by pragmatic and stylistic elements like polarity (positive/negative), formality (MSA vs. dialect), or discourse

functions (e.g., emphasis, interrogation).
Additional layers for multiword expression detection, code-switching identification, or dialect labeling could be useful for real-world corpora.

A semantically rich, contextually aware, and linguistically informed POS tagging system that more accurately represents the complexity of Arabic would be made possible by these multi-level improvements taken together.

4.9.Conclusion

The three Arabic POS tagging models that were developed—CRF, BiLSTM, and XLM-ROBERTA—were thoroughly evaluated in this chapter. At both the UPOS and XPOS+FEATS levels, the transformer-based XLM-ROBERTA continuously outperformed the others. These findings demonstrate how well contextual embeddings and transfer learning work to address the Arabic language's morphological and syntactic complexity.

Additionally, the study shows that our models are fully reproducible and trainable using publicly available corpora, surpassing conventional statistical methods and achieving performance levels that are on par with or better than those of existing systems in the literature.

The chapter concludes by outlining a number of potential avenues for future research to improve the linguistic depth, accuracy, and adaptability of Arabic POS tagging. These include dialectal adaptation, deeper annotation levels, and the integration of pragmatic and semantic features.

Conclusion general :

A multi-level Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging system for Arabic, a morphologically rich and syntactically complex language, was created and assessed for this project. The study concentrated on two annotation levels: XPOS+FEATS (language-specific tags with morphological features) and UPOS (universal POS tags) using the Arabic-PADT corpus, which was in line with the Universal Dependencies (UD) framework.

Three models were put into practice and contrasted:

a Conditional Random Field (CRF) model with manually created features,

a BiLSTM model that makes use of bidirectional recurrent neural networks, and

XLM-ROBERTA, a transformer-based model optimized for token classification.

Every model was trained and assessed at both the XPOS+FEATS and UPOS levels. The CRF model's ability to use manually engineered features to incorporate contextual and morphological cues allowed it to achieve competitive results. The BiLSTM model further enhanced POS tagging accuracy by learning contextual patterns straight from data, without the need for feature engineering, because it was able to capture sequential dependencies in both directions.

But with the highest scores in every metric, the XLM-ROBERTA model performed noticeably better than the others. It was especially successful at handling complicated and ambiguous Arabic tokens because of its deep contextualized embeddings, multilingual training, and subword unit processing capabilities.

The results demonstrate how multi-level POS tagging offers deeper syntactic and morphological understanding of Arabic text, which is essential for tasks like machine translation, semantic role labeling, and parsing.

Notwithstanding these developments, the study has drawbacks, most notably the dataset's lack of domain and dialectal diversity. To enhance

generalization, future research should take into account domain-specific texts, dialectal corpora, semi-supervised learning, and ensemble approaches.

Based on reproducible resources and open-source tools, this work advances the field of Arabic natural language processing while offering a scalable and comparable solution for multi-level Arabic POS tagging.

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