MEXA: Multilingual Evaluation of English-Centric LLMs via Cross-Lingual Alignment

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

English-centric large language models (LLMs) 003 often show strong multilingual capabilities. However, the multilingual performance of these models remains unclear and is not thoroughly evaluated for many languages. Most benchmarks for multilinguality focus on classic NLP 007 tasks or cover a minimal number of languages. We introduce MEXA, a method for assessing the multilingual capabilities of pre-trained English-centric LLMs using parallel sentences, which are available for more languages than existing downstream tasks. MEXA leverages the fact that English-centric LLMs use English 014 as a kind of pivot language in their intermediate layers. It computes the alignment between English and non-English languages using parallel 017 sentences and uses it to estimate model performance in other languages. We conduct studies using various parallel datasets (FLORES-200 and Bible), models (Llama family, Gemma family, Mistral, and OLMo), and established downstream tasks (Belebele, m-MMLU, and m-ARC). We explore different methods to compute embeddings in decoder-only models. Our results show that MEXA, in its default settings, achieves a statistically significant average Pearson correlation of 0.90 with three established downstream tasks across nine models and two parallel datasets. This suggests that MEXA is a reliable method for estimating the multilingual capabilities of English-centric LLMs, 032 providing a clearer understanding of their multilingual potential and the inner workings of LLMs.

	Leaderboard	[anonymized.url]
0	Code	[anonymized.url]

1 Introduction

037

041

Most state-of-the-art autoregressive large language models (LLMs) are "English-centric", closedsource models such as Claude 3 Opus, GPT-4, and Gemini Pro (Anthropic, 2023; OpenAI et al., 2023; Gemini Team et al., 2023); open-weight models such as Llama 3.1, Gemma 2, and Mixtral (Dubey et al., 2024; Gemma Team et al., 2024b; Jiang et al., 2024); and open-source models such as OLMo (Groeneveld et al., 2024). English-centric refers to the majority of the pretraining data for these models being in English (Zhong et al., 2024; Kew et al., 2024). Even models labeled as heavily multilingual, such as BLOOM (BigScience Workshop et al., 2023), have their major pretraining data in English (Laurençon et al., 2022). 042

043

044

047

048

053

054

056

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

070

071

072

073

074

076

078

079

081

082

Except for open-source models, where the data is available and thus the language distribution is transparent, there is confusion regarding the capabilities/language distribution of these LLMs in other languages. Primarily, the focus in evaluating LLMs has been on developing benchmarks to assess their performance in English. Most benchmarks in multilingual setups consist of classical monolingual NLP tasks such as sequence labeling (Ahuja et al., 2023; Lai et al., 2023a), the automatic translation of popular English benchmarks such as MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2021) into a limited number of languages (Lai et al., 2023b; OpenAI, 2024), or language-specific benchmarks for languages such as Persian (Ghahroodi et al., 2024), Arabic (Koto et al., 2024), Korean (Son et al., 2024), Turkish (Yüksel et al., 2024), and Chinese (Li et al., 2024c).

Most LLMs are English-centric, either by choice or due to the availability of abundant data sources in English. Either way, for these models to be effective in other languages, it is important that the other languages align with the main language, i.e., English. Given such alignment, English could act as a *"rising tide that raises all ships,"* meaning that improvements in English performance could benefit other languages, especially in tasks such as reasoning (Zhu et al., 2024). Contrarily, if a language does not align well with English, an English-centric LLM may not provide *meaningful coverage* for

that language. Indeed, Wendler et al. (2024) have found that for Llama 2 (Touvron et al., 2023b), an 084 English-centric LLM, English could be seen as a kind of "pivot" language, enabling to solve complex semantic tasks in a foreign language through a detour into English. More precisely, they show that Llama 2 was able to decode semantically correct next tokens in the middle layers, assigning higher probabilities to the English tokens than to 091 the foreign version, which is only selected in the upper layers. Zhao et al. (2024) present a hypothesis regarding the middle layers of English-centric LLMs, suggesting that these models use English as a means of reasoning while incorporating multilingual knowledge. Based on their analysis, the number of language-specific neurons in the middle layers decreases within the self-attention mechanism but remains consistent across the layers of the 100 feed-forward structure when processing multilin-101 gual queries. 102

In this paper, we introduce MEXA, a method 103 that uses the observation that English-centric LLMs 104 105 semantically use English as a kind of pivot language in their middle layers to evaluate the actual multilingual coverage of LLMs. This is done by 107 measuring how well the embeddings of parallel sentences in the middle layers of LLMs for non-109 English languages are aligned with the embedding 110 of their corresponding English. We extensively ver-111 ify the MEXA estimation of language coverage 112 for each LLM, using Pearson correlation between 113 estimated and actual scores for various tasks. We 114 use two parallel datasets: FLORES-200 (NLLB 115 Team et al., 2022) and Bible (Mayer and Cysouw, 116 2014); nine LLMs: Llama family, Gemma fam-117 ily, Mistral, and OLMo; and three tasks: Bele-118 bele (Bandarkar et al., 2024), m-MMLU, and m-119 ARC (Lai et al., 2023b). Our results show that 120 MEXA achieves a promising average Pearson cor-121 relation of 0.90 with established downstream tasks 122 across nine models and two parallel datasets. In 123 our study on the calculation of MEXA scores, we 124 conduct multiple design analyses to examine the 125 impact of token-level pooling for the embeddings 126 (i.e., using the last token versus a weighted average) 128 and layer-level pooling in computing alignment scores. While MEXA demonstrates a high corre-129 lation across most setups, we find that a weighted 130 average based on tokens, combined with mean pool-131 ing, yields the best results. 132

2 Background and Related Work

We discuss distribution of pre-training data in LLMs, and multilingual evaluation benchmarks in Appendices A.1 and A.2 while focusing on cross-lingual alignment here. Research in the cross-lingual alignment field either aims to uncover the underlying mechanisms of alignment and assess its impact on models and downstream tasks, or attempts to enhance model performance by enforcing alignment before, during, or after the pre-training phase. Most of these papers have focused on encoder-only models, such as XLM-R (Conneau et al., 2020a) and mBERT (Devlin et al., 2019), among others (Hämmerl et al., 2024). In this work, we focus primarily on decoder-only models.

Understanding Alignment. Ye et al. (2023) 148 show that English-centric models such as Llama 1 149 (Touvron et al., 2023a) not only possess multi-150 lingual transfer abilities (after fine-tuning on one 151 source language, they can be applied to other lan-152 guages) but may even surpass the multilingual 153 transfer abilities of multilingual pre-trained mod-154 els such as BLOOM (BigScience Workshop et al., 155 2023). Schäfer et al. (2024) find that GPT-2-style 156 decoder-only models show strong cross-lingual 157 generalization when trained on an imbalanced mix 158 of languages. However, when trained on a bal-159 anced language set, they do not observe increased 160 performance compared to monolingual settings. 161 Wendler et al. (2024) perform single-token analysis 162 to demonstrate that English-centered LLMs, such 163 as Llama 2, use English semantically as an internal 164 latent language in the middle layers when handling 165 multilingual queries. Zhong et al. (2024) extend 166 this analysis to multiple tokens, also showing that 167 an LLM dominated by both English and Japanese 168 uses both languages as internal latent languages. 169 Zhao et al. (2024) explore how LLMs handle mul-170 tilingualism. They hypothesize that LLMs initially 171 interpret the query, converting multilingual inputs 172 into English for task-solving. In the middle lay-173 ers, the models rely on English with self-attention 174 mechanisms for reasoning, while employing multi-175 lingual knowledge through feed-forward structures. 176 In the final layers, LLMs generate responses con-177 sistent with the original query language. Li et al. 178 (2024f) and Li et al. (2024b) are even more closely 179 related to ours. Li et al. (2024f) employs abso-180 lute cosine similarity values between last token 181 embeddings derived from parallel sentences with 182 English to predict the ranking of language perfor-183

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

mance across various models. However, as we dis-184 cuss in Section 3, relying solely on absolute cosine 185 values can be misleading, and as shown in Section 5.3, absolute cosine values are less correlated 187 with downstream tasks than MEXA score. Li et al. (2024b) uses English probing tasks and their auto-189 matic translations to construct a multilingual eval-190 uation. While they compare embedding similarity 191 scores between high- and low-resource languages 192 with corresponding evaluation results, similar to 193 Li et al. (2024f), they do not assess whether these 194 correlations hold across other downstream tasks. 195 In Section 5, we demonstrate that MEXA scores 196 align closely with a broad range of downstream 197 tasks. 198

> Boosting Alignment. The idea to enforce alignment in encoder-only models using parallel sentences dates back to Conneau and Lample (2019), and has been explored under various guises e.g., using mixed-language sentences and/or bilingual dictionaries (Huang et al., 2019; Conneau et al., 2020b; Cao et al., 2020; Kulshreshtha et al., 2020; Efimov et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023b). Recently, Li et al. (2024d) improve multilingual alignment by initializing the decoder-only models to generate similar representations of aligned words using contrastive learning and preserves this alignment using a code-switching strategy during pretraining. Liu et al. (2024a) propose a data allocation technique to select a core subset of languages for fine-tuning, better aligning the multilingual capabilities of decoder-only LLMs and making them more truthful in their responses. Li et al. (2024a) propose aligning internal sentence representations across different languages using multilingual contrastive learning and aligning outputs by following cross-lingual instructions in the target language for decoder-only models.

3 MEXA

199

201

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

226

227

228

229

233

We now describe the MEXA method for computing the alignment score of language L_1 with respect to the pivot language L_2 , given the language model m. In this paper, we use the term *crosslingual alignment*, geometric alignment, or simply alignment to refer to the semantic similarity of multilingual embeddings across languages. L_2 , for English-centric LLMs and in this paper, is English. To assess alignment, we use parallel sentences in two languages, L_1 and L_2 .

What defines semantic similarity in multilingual

embeddings across languages? The goal of semantic similarity is to ensure that parallel sentences have sufficiently high similarity, reflecting alignment between the two languages. However, considering only the absolute cosine similarity value as the alignment score does not guarantee proper alignment. For some languages, even non-parallel sentences exhibit similarity scores comparable to those of parallel sentences (see $\S5.3$). This is largely due to the anisotropy problem observed in Transformer models, which can lead to so-called hubness issues, making it difficult to distinguish between similar and dissimilar embeddings (Ethayarajh, 2019), especially in multilingual models (Hämmerl et al., 2023; Rajaee and Pilehvar, 2022). However, a direct comparative analysis of the cosine similarity between parallel and non-parallel sentence pairs across languages can help overcome these issues. Instead of using the absolute cosine similarity value for alignment, we assign binary values (1 or 0) based on whether a criterion for semantic similarity is satisfied. Our criterion imposes that (a) parallel sentences should have high cosine similarity, and (b) non-parallel pairs should also have low similarity values, ensuring the similarity is not random or biased. Specifically, if the cosine similarity for a pair of parallel sentences is higher than for any non-parallel sentences, we assign a value of 1 for this pair; otherwise, a value of 0. This approach sidesteps the hubness problem since the absolute cosine similarity values themselves are not directly used.

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

To compute MEXA, we first apply the cosine similarity function to the pairs of embeddings of parallel sentences in languages L_1 and L_2 . In Section 3.1, we describe how embeddings can be computed for each layer l of the autoregressive language model m. We generate a square matrix $C(L_1, L_2, m, l)$ representing cosine similarities of embeddings at the output of layer l for all parallel sentences in languages L_1 and L_2 . We denote $c_{ij}(l)$ the element in the *i*-th row and *j*-th column of $C(L_1, L_2, m, l)$. It represents the cosine similarity between the *i*-th sentence of L_1 and the *j*-th sentence of L_2 at layer l of language model m. The diagonal elements of C, denoted $c_{ii}(l)$, represent the cosine similarity between parallel sentence pairs from L_1 and L_2 . We define the MEXA alignment score $\mu(C(L_1, L_2, m, l))$ as follows:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{1} \bigg(c_{ii}(l) > \max_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus \{i\}} \{ c_{ij}(l), c_{ji}(l) \} \bigg),$$
 28

where n is the number of diagonal elements (i.e., the dimension of the matrix), and $\mathbf{1}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function, which equals 1 if its argument condition evaluates to true and 0 otherwise. This alignment score measures how often $c_{ii}(l)$ is the maximum value in both its row and column. The MEXA alignment score can alternatively be understood as a measure of sentence retrieval performance (Hu et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2024b; Hämmerl et al., 2024), with the metric of P@1 applied with queries in language L_1 and answers in L_2 , and vice versa. We discuss other ways to calculate semantic similarity between languages in Appendix A.3.

284

285

290

293

296

297

306

307

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

331

Layer-wise Pooling. The MEXA alignment score $\mu(C(L_1, L_2, m, l))$ is computed for language L_1 respect to pivot language L_2 for each layer l of the language model m. To compute a single MEXA alignment score given the language model m and L_1, L_2 , we use mean and max pooling strategies over multiple layers.

Sentence Embeddings 3.1

Sentence embeddings are a transformation of a sentence into a fixed-size vector that captures its meaning. The process of computing sentence embeddings can vary depending on the model architecture. Typically, sentence embeddings are used in encoder-based models such as BERT, which employ bidirectional attention. In these models, the hidden states of each token are first extracted, then aggregated, commonly by averaging the hidden states from the output layer. Since attention in these models is bidirectional, each token contributes equally to the final embedding. Alternatively one can use the output of the special [CLS] token as per the original BERT work (Devlin et al., 2019).

In this paper, we focus on autoregressive language models that use a decoder-only architecture. 321 In this architecture, attention is not bidirectional; 322 instead, it takes the form of causal attention (left-323 to-right). In bidirectional attention, each token 324 has access to every other token in the sequence. However, in causal attention, the embedding of a token at position t is only influenced by the embedding of preceding tokens at positions $0, 1, \ldots, t-1$. Therefore, simple averaging biases the embeddings 330 towards sentence-initial words. Instead, two alternative methods are considered: using only the last token and weighted averaging. We use and compare both methods to acquire the sentence embeddings needed for MEXA. 334

A standard way to compute a sentence embedding uses only the last token of that sentence. Jiang et al. (2023b) show that using the last token in the format of a prompt template for a sentence s, such as 'This sentence: {s} means in one word:', can be effective. Inspired by this, Li and Li (2024) used the prompt 'Summarize sentence {s} in one word:' to obtain the last token embedding as the sentencelevel text embedding. However, not all models are instruction-tuned; some earlier works, such as Neelakantan et al. (2022); Wang et al. (2024); Ma et al. (2024), use the last token without any prompt. Since the models studied in this paper are only pretrained and use multiple languages in the input, we decided to use the last token method without any preceding instruction. An alternative is weighted averaging. It relies on the intuition that using only the last token might not represent the entire sentence, as the influence of earlier tokens may have diminished. This suggests that tokens at the end of the sentence should contribute more to the overall embedding than those at the beginning. Another motivation is that sentence-final tokens are influenced by preceding tokens and contain more context, while the representation of sentence-initial tokens has significantly less contextual representation. To address this, Muennighoff (2022) proposes to assign weights to each token based on its position. Thus, the sentence embedding of layer l using position-weighted averaging is:

335

336

337

340

341

342

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

$$e_l = \sum_{t=1}^T w_t h_{lt} \quad \text{with} \quad w_t = \frac{t}{\sum_{k=1}^T k},$$
365

where T is the number of tokens in the given sentence, h_{lt} is the embedding of the *t*-th token at layer l, and e_l is the sentence embedding at layer l.

4 **Experiments**

We conduct experiments using various multiparallel datasets (FLORES-200 and the Bible), models (Llama family, Gemma family, Mistral, and OLMo), and existing benchmarks/tasks (Belebele, m-MMLU, m-ARC). Our objective is to assess how well the MEXA alignment score from various parallel datasets correlates with the different benchmarks/tasks for different models.

4.1 Parallel Data

We calculate the MEXA score using the parallel datasets of FLORES-200 (NLLB Team et al., 2022) and the Bible (Mayer and Cysouw, 2014). While there are other high-quality parallel datasets, such as NTREX-128 (Federmann et al., 2022), IN22 (Gala et al., 2023), OPUS-100 (Zhang et al., 2020), Europarl (Koehn, 2005), OpenSubtitles (Lison and Tiedemann, 2016), TED2020 (Reimers and Gurevych, 2020), and Tatoeba (Tatoeba Community, 2006), we specifically chose FLORES-200 due to its high quality and support for a wide range of languages, while the Bible dataset was selected for its extensive language coverage.

383

387

395

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

494

425 426

427

428

429

430

FLORES-200 is a parallel corpus, where the English subset is sourced from Wikimedia projects. Each English sentence has been translated into 204 distinct language-script combinations, these translations have been verified by humans. The dataset contains 997 sentences for development, 1012 sentences for dev-test, and 992 sentences for testing. As the FLORES-200 test set is not publicly accessible, we use the dev-test set as our FLORES parallel test corpus, in line with previous studies. For faster computation, we consider only the first 100 sentences from each language. As shown in Appendix A.4, this is sufficient to ensure MEXA's robustness, as the odds of the MEXA score randomly achieving a high value with 100 sentences are very slim. This choice also enables scaling to more languages, many of which lack enough parallel samples.

The Parallel Bible (Mayer and Cysouw, 2014) covers a very large number of languages. From this resource, we managed to create a subcorpus, a super parallel dataset of the Bible, with 1,401 language-script labels, each containing 103 sentences (i.e., Bible verses).¹ This corpus includes many low-resource languages, many of which are not covered by existing language technologies (Joshi et al., 2020), and MEXA can be adopted since only parallel data is needed. We use all the 103 sentences from each language.

4.2 Models

For our experiments, we select models with around 7B parameters, which are considered a base size in the LLM community. The state-of-the-art open-weight models in this range, as measured by performance on English-based tasks such as MMLU (Stanford CRFM, 2024), include Llama 1, 2, 3, and 3.1 (Touvron et al., 2023a,b; Meta, 2024; Dubey et al., 2024), Gemma 1 and 2 (Gemma Team et al., 2024a,b), Mistral 0.3 (Jiang et al., 2023a), and the open-source model OLMo 1.7 (Groeneveld et al., 2024). We also select a larger model, Llama 3.1 70B, to show that our findings hold even when scaling further. To apply MEXA, we need to access model weights to compute input sentence embeddings for each layer. We use three popular openweight model families: Llama, Gemma, and Mistral. As a less multilingual version of state-of-theart LLMs, we include OLMo, which is trained on a more English-centric corpus of Dolma (Soldaini et al., 2024). 431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

4.3 Benchmarks

Among the existing evaluation benchmarks in Table 4 from Appendix A.2, we chose the Belebele benchmark (Bandarkar et al., 2024), m-ARC (Lai et al., 2023b), and m-MMLU (Lai et al., 2023b), which support the highest number of high-, medium-, and low-resource languages and are directly related to natural understanding tasks, which is the primary focus of this paper.

We use the entire test set for each of these benchmarks (§A.5 for details) for more details) to evaluate the models, except in one case. For Llama 3.1 70B, we use the first 500 questions of m-MMLU instead of the whole set due to resource constraints. Since the selected LLMs used in our experiment are not instruction-tuned, we use 5-shot in-context learning with the lm-evaluation-harness framework, employing log-likelihood-based multiple-choice scoring. Other settings, such as prompt templates, are configured according to the framework's default (Gao et al., 2023; Biderman et al., 2024).

4.4 Evaluation Measures

We use Pearson correlation to assess the strength of the correlation between MEXA and downstream performance on our evaluation benchmarks. Pearson correlation is a statistical measure that calculates the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables. A high Pearson correlation would indicate that MEXA provides a reliable assessment of multilingual capabilities in English-centric LLMs.

5 Results

Table 1 presents the downstream performance of
the selected models across three benchmarks, along
with MEXA scores from two parallel datasets. No-
tably, among models with parameter sizes rang-
ing from 7 to 9 billion, both Gemma 2 and Llama474
475

¹[anonymized.url]

		Gemma 2 9B	Gemma 1 7B	Llama 3.1 70B	Llama 3.1 8B	Llama 3 8B	Llama 2 7B	Llama 1 7B	Mistral 0.3 7B	OLMo 1.7 7B	AVG
Task _{eng}	Belebele	0.9178	0.8467	0.9456	0.8767	0.8689	0.4822	0.4156	0.8389	0.7711	0.7737
	m-MMLU	0.6998	0.6138	0.7700	0.6315	0.6294	0.4523	0.3569	0.5988	0.5210	0.5859
	m-ARC	0.6775	0.5870	0.7014	0.5794	0.5836	0.5128	0.5000	0.5862	0.4872	0.5795
$Task_{L \setminus \{eng\}}$	Belebele (avg., $ L = 116$)	0.7093	0.5633	0.7684	0.5705	0.5533	0.3028	0.2755	0.4457	0.3627	0.5057
	m-MMLU (avg., $ L = 33$)	0.5582	0.4734	0.6384	0.4720	0.4664	0.3260	0.2807	0.4207	0.3390	0.4416
	m-ARC (avg., $ L = 31$)	0.4779	0.4220	0.5054	0.3941	0.3892	0.3174	0.2970	0.3662	0.2731	0.3825
FLORES Bible	$\begin{array}{l} \mu_{Mean} \; (avg., \; L = 116) \\ \mu_{Max} \; (avg., \; L = 116) \\ \mu_{Mean} \; (avg., \; L = 101) \\ \mu_{Max} \; (avg., \; L = 101) \end{array}$	0.5088 0.7194 0.3568 0.6076	0.3815 0.5872 0.2152 0.4021	0.4110 0.7725 0.3169 0.6599	0.3963 0.6538 0.2103 0.4212	0.3939 0.6520 0.2026 0.4190	0.0866 0.2464 0.1246 0.2724	0.1946 0.3579 0.0908 0.2357	0.2642 0.4716 0.1198 0.2606	0.0413 0.1965 0.0121 0.0319	0.2976 0.5175 0.1832 0.3678

Table 1: μ_{pooling} indicates the MEXA score for each corresponding pooling strategy. The embeddings are computed using weighted average based on token positions. Top values are in **bold**, with second-best <u>underlined</u>.

3.1 outperform the others in terms of non-English 479 downstream performance and MEXA scores. The 480 Llama 3.1 and Llama 3 models exhibit similar 481 alignment and downstream task performance; yet, 482 both represent substantial advancements compared 483 to Llama 2. Moreover, results for the Llama 3.1-484 70B model indicate that scaling can significantly 485 enhance alignment when compared to its smaller 486 version. Interestingly, while Mistral achieves com-487 parable results to Gemma 1 on English benchmarks, 488 it demonstrates inferior alignment, which likely ac-489 counts for its reduced performance on non-English 490 491 tasks. Furthermore, the Llama 2 model achieves higher MEXA scores than OLMo, indicating bet-492 ter alignment. However, due to Llama 2's weaker 493 performance on English tasks, it fails to transfer 494 this alignment effectively, leading to comparable 495 non-English performance between Llama 2 and 496 OLMo. This observation is further explored in 497 Section 5.2, where we normalize the expected per-498 formance based on the pivot language, namely En-499 glish. 500

5.1 MEXA Correlation Analysis

501

502

504

505

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

We compute sentence embeddings for the selected models using two methods: weighted average based on token positions and last token (see §3.1). We apply mean and max pooling on the MEXA alignment scores across all model layers to derive a single score for each language. In Table 2 (refer to Table 5 for the detailed table), we report the correlation between the MEXA scores (computed using both mean- and max-pooling, for the two embedding methods) and task performances. Across all settings, the best overall result (higher correlation) is achieved when embeddings are computed using the **weighted average**, with **mean pooling** as the pooling method. We adopt this configuration as the default setting for MEXA.

FLORES vs Bible. In the default setting, the

		Average across models
FLORES weighted average	$\begin{array}{l} \rho \ (\mu_{Mean}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Mean}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Mean}, m-ARC) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-ARC) \end{array}$	0.8994 <u>0.9098</u> <u>0.9513</u> 0.9188 0.9393 0.8856
FL(last token	$\begin{array}{l} \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Mean}}, \text{Belebele} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Max}}, \text{Belebele} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Mean}}, \text{m-MMLU} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Max}}, \text{m-MMLU} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Mean}}, \text{m-ARC} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Max}}, \text{m-ARC} \right) \end{array}$	0.9168 0.9058 0.9545 0.9134 <u>0.9195</u> 0.8685
Bible weighted average	$ \begin{array}{l} \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Mean}}, \text{Belebele} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Max}}, \text{Belebele} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Mean}}, \text{m-MMLU} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Max}}, \text{m-MMLU} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Mean}}, \text{m-ARC} \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{\text{Max}}, \text{m-ARC} \right) \end{array} $	0.8496 0.8811 0.8823 0.8210 0.9018 0.8354
B	$ \begin{array}{c} \rho \left(\mu_{Mean}, Belebele \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{Max}, Belebele \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{Mean}, m-MMLU \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{Mean}, m-ARC \right) \\ \rho \left(\mu_{Max}, m-ARC \right) \end{array} $	0.8147 0.8070 0.7572 0.6998 0.7469 0.6885

Table 2: Pearson correlation of MEXA using FLORES and Bible data across three tasks. Only average correlations across models are shown. The best averages are in **bold**, and the second bests are <u>underlined</u>.

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

average Pearson correlation score for the FLORES parallel dataset across different tasks is 0.9300, while for the Bible parallel dataset, it is 0.8779. The reason the Bible scores are generally lower than FLORES is that FLORES data is cleaner and more aligned with modern, standardized texts, whereas the Bible data is older and more specialized. For example for some languages, the orthography of Bible texts no longer matches today's orthography. In the Bible, Arabic often includes diacritics, which are typically omitted in modern writing and tasks, making the text less familiar to models trained on contemporary data. Additionally, although the Bible dataset has been made parallel, sentence alignment can still be inconsistent due to translation nuances. In contrast, FLORES is care-

540

541

543

545

546

547

552

554

556

557 558

564

568

570

572

573

574

577

fully curated to ensure high-quality, sentence-level parallelism across languages for machine translation tasks.

Weighted Average vs. Last Token Embeddings. The use of last token embeddings shows promisingly high correlations with the FLORES parallel data; however, for the Bible dataset, the correlation is low in some cases. We believe this may stem from the high occurrence of Bible sentences (especially in English), which leads models to memorize these phrases. Using the WIMBD toolkit (Elazar et al., 2024), we found that, on average, there are 92 times more documents in Dolma 1.7 containing exact Bible sentences than those in FLORES. Consequently, when using Bible examples, the last token is biased towards predicting the specific memorized next token rather than incorporating context-related signals. Therefore, one should consider the hazard of memorized data when using last token embeddings. The weightedaverage method, which takes into account the influence of multiple tokens, can mitigate the impact of a poor embedding for the last token and enable the model to capture useful information from the other tokens more robustly.

Max Pooling vs. Mean Pooling. In our comparison of mean pooling and max pooling on the Belebele benchmark, we found that mean pooling underestimates low-resource languages (resulting in more MEXA scores near 0), while max pooling correlates better with the Belebele benchmark. This can be explained by the fact that Belebele is an easier task among the three evaluated, allowing even low-resource languages to achieve good scores. Conversely, based on our experiment with m-ARC, max pooling tends to overestimate lowresource languages, making mean pooling more aligned with m-ARC. This can be attributed to m-ARC being the most challenging task among the three, where even medium-resource languages do not achieve high scores. Changing the pooling method from mean to max can be considered when dealing with different levels of understanding.

5.2 Downstream Performance Estimation

578A complete Pearson correlation (i.e. $\rho = 1.0$) in-579dicates that a linear equation perfectly describes580the relationship between MEXA and the evalua-581tion benchmarks, with all data points lying on a582line. Given the high correlation values shown in583Table 5, it is reasonable to conclude that we can fit584a line that closely approximates this linear relation-



Figure 1: The relationship between MEXA scores of Llama 3.1-8B from the Bible and FLORES, adjusted by the English task performance, for tasks in Belebele and the m-ARC benchmark.

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

ship. This line converts the MEXA scores back to downstream task performances. We employed a linear model to predict this line by minimizing the residual sum of squares between the MEXA scores (multiplied by the performance on the English task) and the task performances. We needed to adjust the MEXA scores for this purpose, as the MEXA score for language L_1 indicates how well L_1 is aligned with English but does not reflect the estimated task performance of the model for language L_1 . Of course, this does not change the Pearson correlation, as it is unaffected by linear transformations. The three tasks considered in this paper involve multiple-choice questions with four possible answers for each question, resulting in a chance of being randomly correct of $\frac{1}{4}$. However, the minimum score for MEXA scores is 0. Thus, the ideal slope for the line would be $\frac{3}{4}$ with an intercept of $\frac{1}{4}$ (X-axis: adjusted MEXA scores, Y-axis: task performance). In Figure 1, we plot this relationship for Llama 3.1-8B using the Bible and FLORES parallel datasets for Belebele and m-ARC. We chose max pooling for Belebele and mean pooling for m-ARC, since these pooling methods yield a stronger correlation (see §5.1). The pairs of (slope, intercept) from left to right in the Figure 1 are: (0.6804, 0.2477), (0.6103, 0.1838), (0.6340, 0.3408) and (0.5726, 0.2423). With data points from both highresource and low-resource languages, this line can be calculated; otherwise, the ideal line may be used as a reference.

713

714

666

667

Language Coverage. We present the adjusted MEXA score for all languages available in FLORES-200 in Table 6 from Appendix A.8 for the selected models. The languages are categorized into groups ranging from well-covered to not covered. In Table 6, we can clearly see that Llama 3.1-70B and Gemma 2-9B show a higher level of multilinguality than other models.

5.3 MEXA vs Absolute Cosine Similarity

616

617

618

619

621

622

624

We compare MEXA with the use of absolute co-625 sine similarities. We used parallel data from FLO-RES and downstream task data from the Belebele 627 benchmark, focusing on 116 common labels. For each non-English language, we computed the average absolute cosine similarity for parallel sentences with English, and the average absolute cosine similarity for non-parallel sentences with English. Fol-632 lowing the setup by Li et al. (2024f), which employs absolute cosine similarity values to predict the performance and rank of languages, we computed the embeddings using the last-token method and applied mean pooling over layers {5, 10, 15, 637 20, 25}. We report results using the Gemma 1 and Llama 1 7B models, which are commonly used in our experiments. For a fair comparison, this setup is applied to both absolute cosine similarity and MEXA. For the Gemma 1 model, MEXA 642 achieves a correlation of 0.9260 with downstream task performance, while the absolute cosine sim-644 ilarity for parallel sentences achieves a correla-645 tion of 0.7651. Additionally, the correlation between the absolute cosine similarity for parallel 647 and non-parallel sentences is 0.9232. For the Llama 1 model, MEXA achieves a correlation of 0.8365 with downstream task performance, while the absolute cosine similarity for parallel sentences achieves a correlation of 0.6473. Additionally, the correlation between the absolute cosine similarity for parallel and non-parallel sentences is 0.9064. In both models, the absolute cosine similarity method achieved significantly lower correlations with downstream tasks compared to MEXA. This discrepancy arises primarily because, for some languages, the similarity score can be high regardless of whether the sentences are parallel or nonparallel. Furthermore, a low similarity score between two languages does not necessarily indicate weak alignment, as overall similarity scores may be low while parallel sentences still exhibit much higher scores than non-parallel ones.

5.4 Visualization of Layers

See Appendix A.7 for the visualization of MEXA across layers for Llama 1-7B and Llama 3.1-8B models. High-resource languages show better alignment, while low-resource languages exhibit more language-specific embeddings.

6 Conclusion

We introduce MEXA, a method for assessing the multilingual capabilities of English-centric large language models (LLMs). MEXA builds on the observation that English-centric LLMs semantically use English as a kind of pivot language in their intermediate layers. MEXA computes the alignment between non-English languages and English using parallel sentences, estimating the transfer of language understanding capabilities from English to other languages through this alignment. This metric can be useful in estimating task performance, provided we know the English performance in the task and the alignment score between languages derived from a parallel dataset. Through different studies with two parallel datasets (FLORES-200 and the Bible); a diverse range of LLMs including the Llama family, Gemma family, Mistral, and OLMo, and three downstream tasks (Belebele, m-MMLU, and m-ARC), we demonstrated that MEXA provides a reliable estimation of multilingual performance. For MEXA score calculations, multiple design analyses are conducted to explore the impact of token-level pooling for embeddings and layer-level pooling in computing alignment scores. While MEXA shows high correlation across most configurations, a weighted average of tokens combined with mean pooling delivers the best results. The results reveal a promising average Pearson correlation of 0.90 with established downstream tasks across nine models and two parallel dataset. Overall, MEXA proves to be a valuable method for practitioners aiming to assess the multilingual capabilities of English-centric LLMs, paving the way for future efforts to expand these models to a wider range of underrepresented languages.

Limitations

Non-Generative Tasks. The scope of this paper is limited to non-generative tasks. Generation is generally more challenging than understanding, and it is unsurprising that these models for many languages may struggle to generate content in their language. While NLP has advanced toward generative capabilities, a significant portion of evaluation still focuses on non-generative tasks (e.g., Hugging Face Leaderboards)² due to their convenience in multiple-choice question evaluation and standardized metrics. Assessing generated output remains challenging, even in English benchmarks. For example, model-based approaches (e.g., "LLMas-a-judge" (Zheng et al., 2023)) require an LLM fully competent in the target language—a capability that is both questionable and the focus of our evaluation.

715

716

717

718

719

721

724

726

728

729

730

735

736

738

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

749

750

753

754

757

759

761

762

Open Science. MEXA provides a method of evaluation for open science, and only model weights are needed. Although, developers of closed-source models could use MEXA under the hood and report their multilingual results to provide insight of their model's multilingual capabilities.

We target the widely used settings where the LLM follows a decoder-only transformer architecture. For other architectures, as long as we can extract the embedding given a sentence for intermediate layers, MEXA can be calculated.

Evaluation Benchmarks. We present a selection of tasks for multilingual evaluation in Table 4. As shown, for non-generative tasks, only a few benchmarks support a high number of languages, including low-resource ones. Benchmarks limited to around 10 languages, which mostly support highresource languages, would not support our claims, as MEXA would achieve high results for all of them. Belebele includes the highest number of languages (except sequence labeling tasks), making it an ideal task to evaluate MEXA. Both m-MMLU and m-ARC are the next highest covered languages for non-generative tasks. However, since they are machine-translated tasks, they are not ideal and may bias some results for low-resource languages (or, more accurately, when the machine translation is poor). Yet, these translated versions are representative of the current state of automatic evaluation, as seen in multilingual leaderboards.³

Not a Full Replacement. MEXA provides a rough estimate of the multilingual capabilities of pre-trained English-centric LLMs. Different tasks offer diverse perspectives on the abilities of LLMs, and MEXA cannot replace all of them. Our goal is to highlight the multilingual potential of Englishcentric LLMs and propose a simple way to evaluate them. We hope this encourages the development of more multilingual LLMs, even though they are likely to contain large shares of English data. Additionally, it is important to note that answers across languages do not always need to be fully aligned (Naous et al., 2024), and for such cases, language- and culture-specific evaluation benchmarks should be developed.

References

- David Ifeoluwa Adelani, Jessica Ojo, Israel Abebe Azime, Jian Yun Zhuang, Jesujoba O. Alabi, Xuanli He, Millicent Ochieng, Sara Hooker, Andiswa Bukula, En-Shiun Annie Lee, Chiamaka Chukwuneke, Happy Buzaaba, Blessing Sibanda, Godson Kalipe, Jonathan Mukiibi, Salomon Kabongo, Foutse Yuehgoh, Mmasibidi Setaka, Lolwethu Ndolela, and 7 others. 2024. Irokobench: A new benchmark for African languages in the age of large language models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2406.03368.
- Divyanshu Aggarwal, Vivek Gupta, and Anoop Kunchukuttan. 2022. IndicXNLI: Evaluating multilingual inference for Indian languages. In Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 10994–11006, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Kabir Ahuja, Harshita Diddee, Rishav Hada, Millicent Ochieng, Krithika Ramesh, Prachi Jain, Akshay Nambi, Tanuja Ganu, Sameer Segal, Mohamed Ahmed, Kalika Bali, and Sunayana Sitaram. 2023.
 MEGA: Multilingual evaluation of generative AI. In Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 4232–4267, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Sanchit Ahuja, Divyanshu Aggarwal, Varun Gumma, Ishaan Watts, Ashutosh Sathe, Millicent Ochieng, Rishav Hada, Prachi Jain, Mohamed Ahmed, Kalika Bali, and Sunayana Sitaram. 2024. MEGAVERSE: Benchmarking large language models across languages, modalities, models and tasks. In Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 2598–2637, Mexico City, Mexico. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Anthropic. 2023. The Claude 3 model family: Opus, sonnet, haiku.
- Mikel Artetxe, Sebastian Ruder, and Dani Yogatama. 2020. On the cross-lingual transferability of monolingual representations. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 4623–4637.

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

772 773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

791

792

793

794

795

796

797

798

799

800

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813 814

815

816

²hf.co/spaces/open-llm-leaderboard/open_llm_ leaderboard

³hf.co/spaces/uonlp/open_multilingual_llm_ leaderboard

898

899

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

918

919

920

921

922

923

924

925

926

927

928

929

930

931

875

876

818 819

817

- 823
- 824 825

831

834

838

- 839
- 842 843

847

849 850 851

855

856

857

- 863

870

871

873 874

- Lucas Bandarkar, Davis Liang, Benjamin Muller, Mikel Artetxe, Satya Narayan Shukla, Donald Husa, Naman Goyal, Abhinandan Krishnan, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Madian Khabsa. 2024. The Belebele benchmark: a parallel reading comprehension dataset in 122 language variants. Preprint, arXiv:2308.16884.
- Stella Biderman, Hailey Schoelkopf, Lintang Sutawika, Leo Gao, Jonathan Tow, Baber Abbasi, Alham Fikri Aji, Pawan Sasanka Ammanamanchi, Sidney Black, Jordan Clive, Anthony DiPofi, Julen Etxaniz, Benjamin Fattori, Jessica Zosa Forde, Charles Foster, Jeffrey Hsu, Mimansa Jaiswal, Wilson Y. Lee, Haonan Li, and 11 others. 2024. Lessons from the trenches on reproducible evaluation of language models. Preprint, arXiv:2405.14782.
- BigScience Workshop, Teven Le Scao, Angela Fan, Christopher Akiki, Ellie Pavlick, Suzana Ilić, Daniel Hesslow, Roman Castagné, Alexandra Sasha Luccioni, François Yvon, Matthias Gallé, and 1 oth-BLOOM: A 176b-parameter openers. 2023. access multilingual language model. Preprint. arXiv:2211.05100.
- Piotr Bojanowski, Edouard Grave, Armand Joulin, and Tomas Mikolov. 2017. Enriching word vectors with subword information. Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics, 5:135–146.
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, and 1 others. 2020a. GPT-3 dataset language statistics.
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, and 1 others. 2020b. Language models are few-shot learners. Advances in neural information processing systems, 33:1877–1901.
- Steven Cao, Nikita Kitaev, and Dan Klein. 2020. Multilingual alignment of contextual word representations. In International Conference on Learning Representations.
- Grzegorz Chrupała and Afra Alishahi. 2019. Correlating neural and symbolic representations of language. In Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 2952-2962, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jonathan H Clark, Eunsol Choi, Michael Collins, Dan Garrette, Tom Kwiatkowski, Vitaly Nikolaev, and Jennimaria Palomaki. 2020. TyDi QA: A benchmark for information-seeking question answering in typologically diverse languages. Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics, 8:454–470.
- Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and Oyvind Tafjord. 2018. Think you have solved question answering? try ARC, the AI2 reasoning challenge. Preprint, arXiv:1803.05457.

- Common Crawl. 2024. Statistics of common crawl monthly archives.
- Alexis Conneau, Kartikay Khandelwal, Naman Goyal, Vishrav Chaudhary, Guillaume Wenzek, Francisco Guzmán, Edouard Grave, Myle Ott, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2020a. Unsupervised cross-lingual representation learning at scale. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 8440-8451, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Alexis Conneau and Guillaume Lample. 2019. Crosslingual language model pretraining. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 32, pages 7059–7069. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Alexis Conneau, Ruty Rinott, Guillaume Lample, Adina Williams, Samuel Bowman, Holger Schwenk, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2018. XNLI: Evaluating crosslingual sentence representations. In Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 2475–2485, Brussels, Belgium. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Alexis Conneau, Shijie Wu, Haoran Li, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2020b. Emerging cross-lingual structure in pretrained language models. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 6022-6034, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Marie-Catherine de Marneffe, Christopher D. Manning, Joakim Nivre, and Daniel Zeman. 2021. Universal Dependencies. Computational Linguistics, 47(2):255-308.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pages 4171-4186, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Sumanth Doddapaneni, Rahul Aralikatte, Gowtham Ramesh, Shreya Goyal, Mitesh M. Khapra, Anoop Kunchukuttan, and Pratyush Kumar. 2023. Towards leaving no Indic language behind: Building monolingual corpora, benchmark and models for Indic languages. In Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 12402-12426, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, and 1 others. 2024. The Llama 3 herd of models. Preprint, arXiv:2407.21783.

993

994

- 995 996 997 998 999
- 1000
- 1003 1004
- 1006 1007 1008 1009 1010
- 1011 1012
- 1013 1014 1015 1016 1017 1018
- 1019 1020 1021 1022 1023
- 1024
- 1027 1028 1029 1030
- 1031
- 1032 1033
- 1034 1035 1036 1037 1038 1039 1040 1041 1042 1043

Pavel Efimov, Leonid Boytsov, Elena Arslanova, and Pavel Braslavski. 2023. The impact of cross-lingual adjustment of contextual word representations on zero-shot transfer. In Advances in Information Retrieval, pages 51-67, Cham. Springer Nature Switzerland.

932

933

935

939

941

943

945

951

952

953

957

959

961

962

963

964

965

966

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

978

979

981

982

984

985

986

989

- Yanai Elazar, Akshita Bhagia, Ian Helgi Magnusson, Abhilasha Ravichander, Dustin Schwenk, Alane Suhr, Evan Pete Walsh, Dirk Groeneveld, Luca Soldaini, Sameer Singh, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Noah A. Smith, and Jesse Dodge. 2024. What's in my big data? In The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations.
- Kawin Ethayarajh. 2019. How contextual are contextualized word representations? Comparing the geometry of BERT, ELMo, and GPT-2 embeddings. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 55-65, Hong Kong, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Christian Federmann, Tom Kocmi, and Ying Xin. 2022. NTREX-128 - news test references for MT evaluation of 128 languages. In Proceedings of the First Workshop on Scaling Up Multilingual Evaluation, pages 21-24, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jay Gala, Pranjal A Chitale, AK Raghavan, Varun Gumma, Sumanth Doddapaneni, Janki Atul Nawale, Anupama Sujatha, Ratish Puduppully, Vivek Raghavan, Pratyush Kumar, and 1 others. 2023. Indictrans2: Towards high-quality and accessible machine translation models for all 22 scheduled indian languages. Transactions on Machine Learning Research.
- Leo Gao, Jonathan Tow, Baber Abbasi, Stella Biderman, Sid Black, Anthony DiPofi, Charles Foster, Laurence Golding, Jeffrey Hsu, Alain Le Noac'h, Haonan Li, Kyle McDonell, Niklas Muennighoff, Chris Ociepa, Jason Phang, Laria Reynolds, Hailey Schoelkopf, Aviya Skowron, Lintang Sutawika, and 5 others. 2023. A framework for few-shot language model evaluation.
- Gemini Team, Rohan Anil, Sebastian Borgeaud, Yonghui Wu, Jean-Baptiste Alayrac, Jiahui Yu, Radu Soricut, Johan Schalkwyk, Andrew M Dai, Anja Hauth, and 1 others. 2023. Gemini: a family of highly capable multimodal models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.11805.
- Gemma Team, Thomas Mesnard, Cassidy Hardin, Robert Dadashi, Surya Bhupatiraju, Shreya Pathak, Laurent Sifre, Morgane Rivière, Mihir Sanjay Kale, Juliette Love, and 1 others. 2024a. Gemma: Open models based on Gemini research and technology. arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.08295.
- Gemma Team, Morgane Riviere, Shreya Pathak, Pier Giuseppe Sessa, Cassidy Hardin, Surya Bhupatiraju, Léonard Hussenot, Thomas Mesnard, Bobak

Shahriari, Alexandre Ramé, and 1 others. 2024b. Gemma 2: Improving open language models at a practical size. Preprint, arXiv:2408.00118.

- Omid Ghahroodi, Marzia Nouri, Mohammad Vali Sanian, Alireza Sahebi, Doratossadat Dastgheib, Ehsaneddin Asgari, Mahdieh Soleymani Baghshah, and Mohammad Hossein Rohban. 2024. Khayyam challenge (PersianMMLU): Is your LLM truly wise to the Persian language? Preprint, arXiv:2404.06644.
- Dirk Groeneveld, Iz Beltagy, Pete Walsh, Akshita Bhagia, Rodney Kinney, Oyvind Tafjord, Ananya Harsh Jha, Hamish Ivison, Ian Magnusson, Yizhong Wang, and 1 others. 2024. OLMo: Accelerating the science of language models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.00838.
- Katharina Hämmerl, Alina Fastowski, Jindřich Libovický, and Alexander Fraser. 2023. Exploring anisotropy and outliers in multilingual language models for cross-lingual semantic sentence similarity. In Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2023, pages 7023-7037, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Katharina Hämmerl, Jindřich Libovický, and Alexander Fraser. 2024. Understanding cross-lingual Alignment—A survey. In Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics ACL 2024, pages 10922-10943, Bangkok, Thailand and virtual meeting. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tahmid Hasan, Abhik Bhattacharjee, Md. Saiful Islam, Kazi Mubasshir, Yuan-Fang Li, Yong-Bin Kang, M. Sohel Rahman, and Rifat Shahriyar. 2021. XLsum: Large-scale multilingual abstractive summarization for 44 languages. In Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL-IJCNLP 2021, pages 4693-4703, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. 2021. Measuring massive multitask language understanding. Preprint, arXiv:2009.03300.
- Junjie Hu, Sebastian Ruder, Aditya Siddhant, Graham Neubig, Orhan Firat, and Melvin Johnson. 2020. XTREME: A massively multilingual multitask benchmark for evaluating cross-lingual generalisation. In Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning, volume 119 of Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, pages 4411-4421. PMLR.
- Haoyang Huang, Yaobo Liang, Nan Duan, Ming Gong, Linjun Shou, Daxin Jiang, and Ming Zhou. 2019. Unicoder: A universal language encoder by pretraining with multiple cross-lingual tasks. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th In-1044 ternational Joint Conference on Natural Language 1045 Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 2485-2494, 1046

Hong Kong, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.

1047

1048

1049

1050

1051

1053

1054

1055

1056

1058

1059

1060

1061

1062

1063

1064

1065

1066

1067

1068

1069

1070

1071

1072

1074

1075

1076

1079

1082

1084

1088

1089

1090

1091

1092

1093

1094

1095

1096

1097

1098

1099

1100

1101

1102

- Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Arthur Mensch, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de las Casas, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Lample, Lucile Saulnier, and 1 others. 2023a. Mistral 7b. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06825*.
- Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Antoine Roux, Arthur Mensch, Blanche Savary, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de las Casas, Emma Bou Hanna, Florian Bressand, and 1 others. 2024. Mixtral of experts. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.04088*.
- Ting Jiang, Shaohan Huang, Zhongzhi Luan, Deqing Wang, and Fuzhen Zhuang. 2023b. Scaling sentence embeddings with large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.16645*.
- Pratik Joshi, Sebastin Santy, Amar Budhiraja, Kalika Bali, and Monojit Choudhury. 2020. The state and fate of linguistic diversity and inclusion in the NLP world. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 6282–6293, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Amir Hossein Kargaran, Ayyoob Imani, François Yvon, and Hinrich Schuetze. 2023. GlotLID: Language identification for low-resource languages. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2023*, pages 6155–6218, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Amir Hossein Kargaran, François Yvon, and Hinrich Schütze. 2024. GlotScript: A resource and tool for low resource writing system identification. In Proceedings of the 2024 Joint International Conference on Computational Linguistics, Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC-COLING 2024), pages 7774– 7784, Torino, Italia. ELRA and ICCL.
- Tannon Kew, Florian Schottmann, and Rico Sennrich. 2024. Turning English-centric LLMs into polyglots: How much multilinguality is needed? In *Findings* of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2024, pages 13097–13124, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Philipp Koehn. 2005. Europarl: A parallel corpus for statistical machine translation. In Proceedings of Machine Translation Summit X: Papers, pages 79–86, Phuket, Thailand.
- Simon Kornblith, Mohammad Norouzi, Honglak Lee, and Geoffrey Hinton. 2019. Similarity of neural network representations revisited. In *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 97 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 3519–3529. PMLR.
- Fajri Koto, Haonan Li, Sara Shatnawi, Jad Doughman, Abdelrahman Boda Sadallah, Aisha Alraeesi, Khalid Almubarak, Zaid Alyafeai, Neha Sengupta, Shady

Shehata, Nizar Habash, Preslav Nakov, and Timothy Baldwin. 2024. ArabicMMLU: Assessing massive multitask language understanding in arabic. *Preprint*, arXiv:2402.12840.

- Saurabh Kulshreshtha, Jose Luis Redondo Garcia, and Ching-Yun Chang. 2020. Cross-lingual alignment methods for multilingual BERT: A comparative study. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020*, pages 933–942, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Faisal Ladhak, Esin Durmus, Claire Cardie, and Kathleen McKeown. 2020. WikiLingua: A new benchmark dataset for cross-lingual abstractive summarization. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020*, pages 4034–4048, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Viet Lai, Nghia Ngo, Amir Pouran Ben Veyseh, Hieu Man, Franck Dernoncourt, Trung Bui, and Thien Nguyen. 2023a. ChatGPT beyond English: Towards a comprehensive evaluation of large language models in multilingual learning. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP* 2023, pages 13171–13189, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Viet Lai, Chien Nguyen, Nghia Ngo, Thuat Nguyen, Franck Dernoncourt, Ryan Rossi, and Thien Nguyen. 2023b. Okapi: Instruction-tuned large language models in multiple languages with reinforcement learning from human feedback. In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pages 318–327, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Hugo Laurençon, Lucile Saulnier, Thomas Wang, Christopher Akiki, Albert Villanova del Moral, Teven Le Scao, Leandro Von Werra, Chenghao Mou, Eduardo González Ponferrada, Huu Nguyen, and 1 others. 2022. The bigscience roots corpus: A 1.6 tb composite multilingual dataset. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:31809–31826.
- Patrick Lewis, Barlas Oguz, Ruty Rinott, Sebastian Riedel, and Holger Schwenk. 2020. MLQA: Evaluating cross-lingual extractive question answering. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 7315– 7330.
- Chong Li, Shaonan Wang, Jiajun Zhang, and Chengqing Zong. 2024a. Improving in-context learning of multilingual generative language models with crosslingual alignment. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 8058–8076, Mexico City, Mexico. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Daoyang Li, Mingyu Jin, Qingcheng Zeng, Haiyan Zhao, and Mengnan Du. 2024b. Exploring multi-

1216

lingual probing in large language models: A crosslanguage analysis. *Preprint*, arXiv:2409.14459.
Haonan Li, Yixuan Zhang, Fajri Koto, Yifei Yang, Hai

1163

1164

1165

1166

1167

1168

1169

1170

1171

1172

1173

1174

1175

1176

1177 1178

1179

1180

1181

1182

1183

1184

1185

1186

1187

1188

1189

1190

1191

1192

1193

1194

1195

1196

1197

1198

1199

1200

1201

1202

1203

1204

1205

1206

1207

1208

1209 1210

1211

1212

1213

1214

1215

- Zhao, Yeyun Gong, Nan Duan, and Timothy Baldwin. 2024c. CMMLU: Measuring massive multitask language understanding in Chinese. *Preprint*, arXiv:2306.09212.
- Jiahuan Li, Shujian Huang, Xinyu Dai, and Jiajun Chen. 2024d. PreAlign: Boosting cross-lingual transfer by early establishment of multilingual alignment. *Preprint*, arXiv:2407.16222.
- Xianming Li and Jing Li. 2024. AoE: Angle-optimized embeddings for semantic textual similarity. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1825–1839, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Xiaochen Li, Zheng-Xin Yong, and Stephen H Bach. 2024e. Preference tuning for toxicity mitigation generalizes across languages. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.16235*.
- Zihao Li, Yucheng Shi, Zirui Liu, Fan Yang, Ali Payani, Ninghao Liu, and Mengnan Du. 2024f. Quantifying multilingual performance of large language models across languages. *Preprint*, arXiv:2404.11553.
- Xi Victoria Lin, Todor Mihaylov, Mikel Artetxe, Tianlu Wang, Shuohui Chen, Daniel Simig, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Shruti Bhosale, Jingfei Du, Ramakanth Pasunuru, Sam Shleifer, Punit Singh Koura, Vishrav Chaudhary, Brian O'Horo, Jeff Wang, Luke Zettlemoyer, Zornitsa Kozareva, Mona Diab, and 2 others. 2022. Few-shot learning with multilingual generative language models. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 9019–9052, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Pierre Lison and Jörg Tiedemann. 2016. OpenSubtitles2016: Extracting large parallel corpora from movie and TV subtitles. In Proceedings of the Tenth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'16), pages 923–929, Portorož, Slovenia. European Language Resources Association (ELRA).
- Weihao Liu, Ning Wu, Wenbiao Ding, Shining Liang, Ming Gong, and Dongmei Zhang. 2024a. Towards truthful multilingual large language models: Benchmarking and alignment strategies. *Preprint*, arXiv:2406.14434.
- Yihong Liu, Mingyang Wang, Amir Hossein Kargaran, Ayyoob Imani, Orgest Xhelili, Haotian Ye, Chunlan Ma, François Yvon, and Hinrich Schütze. 2024b. How transliterations improve crosslingual alignment. *Preprint*, arXiv:2409.17326.
- Xueguang Ma, Liang Wang, Nan Yang, Furu Wei, and Jimmy Lin. 2024. Fine-tuning llama for multi-stage

text retrieval. In Proceedings of the 47th International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval, pages 2421– 2425.

- Kelly Marchisio, Saurabh Dash, Hongyu Chen, Dennis Aumiller, Ahmet Üstün, Sara Hooker, and Sebastian Ruder. 2024. How does quantization affect multilingual LLMs? *Preprint*, arXiv:2407.03211.
- Thomas Mayer and Michael Cysouw. 2014. Creating a massively parallel Bible corpus. In *Proceedings* of the Ninth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'14), pages 3158– 3163, Reykjavik, Iceland. European Language Resources Association (ELRA).

Meta. 2024. Llama 3.

- Niklas Muennighoff. 2022. SGPT: GPT sentence embeddings for semantic search. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.08904*.
- Niklas Muennighoff, Thomas Wang, Lintang Sutawika, Adam Roberts, Stella Biderman, Teven Le Scao, M Saiful Bari, Sheng Shen, Zheng Xin Yong, Hailey Schoelkopf, Xiangru Tang, Dragomir Radev, Alham Fikri Aji, Khalid Almubarak, Samuel Albanie, Zaid Alyafeai, Albert Webson, Edward Raff, and Colin Raffel. 2023. Crosslingual generalization through multitask finetuning. In *Proceedings* of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 15991–16111, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Benjamin Muller, Yanai Elazar, Benoît Sagot, and Djamé Seddah. 2021. First align, then predict: Understanding the cross-lingual ability of multilingual BERT. In Proceedings of the 16th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Main Volume, pages 2214–2231, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tarek Naous, Michael Ryan, Alan Ritter, and Wei Xu. 2024. Having beer after prayer? measuring cultural bias in large language models. In *Proceedings of the* 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 16366–16393, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Arvind Neelakantan, Tao Xu, Raul Puri, Alec Radford, Jesse Michael Han, Jerry Tworek, Qiming Yuan, Nikolas Tezak, Jong Wook Kim, Chris Hallacy, Johannes Heidecke, Pranav Shyam, Boris Power, Tyna Eloundou Nekoul, Girish Sastry, Gretchen Krueger, David Schnurr, Felipe Petroski Such, Kenny Hsu, and 6 others. 2022. Text and code embeddings by contrastive pre-training. *Preprint*, arXiv:2201.10005.
- NLLB Team, Marta R. Costa-jussà, James Cross, Onur
Çelebi, Maha Elbayad, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin Hef-
fernan, Elahe Kalbassi, Janice Lam, Daniel Licht,
Jean Maillard, Anna Sun, Skyler Wang, Guillaume1269
12701269
12701270

Wenzek, Al Youngblood, Bapi Akula, Loic Barrault, Gabriel Mejia Gonzalez, Prangthip Hansanti, and 20 others. 2022. No language left behind: Scaling human-centered machine translation. *Preprint*, arXiv:2207.04672.

1273

1274

1275

1276

1277

1278

1282 1283

1284

1285

1287

1291

1292

1293 1294

1295

1296

1297

1298

1299

1300

1301

1302

1303

1304

1305

1306

1307

1309 1310

1311

1312

1313

1314 1315

1316

1317

1318

1319

1320 1321

1322

1323

1324

1325

1326

1327

Odunayo Ogundepo, Tajuddeen Gwadabe, Clara Rivera, Jonathan Clark, Sebastian Ruder, David Adelani, Bonaventure Dossou, Abdou Diop, Claytone Sikasote, Gilles Hacheme, Happy Buzaaba, Ignatius Ezeani, Rooweither Mabuya, Salomey Osei, Chris Emezue, Albert Kahira, Shamsuddeen Muhammad, Akintunde Oladipo, Abraham Owodunni, and 25 others. 2023. Cross-lingual open-retrieval question answering for African languages. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP* 2023, pages 14957–14972, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.

OpenAI. 2022. Introducing ChatGPT.

- OpenAI. 2024. Multilingual massive multitask language understanding (MMMLU).
- OpenAI, Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, and 1 others. 2023. GPT-4 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*.
- Xiaoman Pan, Boliang Zhang, Jonathan May, Joel Nothman, Kevin Knight, and Heng Ji. 2017. Cross-lingual name tagging and linking for 282 languages. In *Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1946–1958.
- Edoardo Maria Ponti, Goran Glavaš, Olga Majewska, Qianchu Liu, Ivan Vulić, and Anna Korhonen. 2020.
 XCOPA: A multilingual dataset for causal commonsense reasoning. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), pages 2362–2376, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Sara Rajaee and Mohammad Taher Pilehvar. 2022. An isotropy analysis in the multilingual BERT embedding space. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2022*, pages 1309–1316, Dublin, Ireland. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Nils Reimers and Iryna Gurevych. 2020. Making monolingual sentence embeddings multilingual using knowledge distillation. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), pages 4512–4525, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
 - Anton Schäfer, Shauli Ravfogel, Thomas Hofmann, Tiago Pimentel, and Imanol Schlag. 2024. The role of language imbalance in cross-lingual generalisation: Insights from cloned language experiments. *Preprint*, arXiv:2404.07982.

Shivalika Singh, Freddie Vargus, Daniel Dsouza, Börje F. Karlsson, Abinaya Mahendiran, Wei-Yin Ko, Herumb Shandilya, Jay Patel, Deividas Mataciunas, Laura OMahony, Mike Zhang, Ramith Hettiarachchi, Joseph Wilson, Marina Machado, Luisa Souza Moura, Dominik Krzemiński, Hakimeh Fadaei, Irem Ergün, Ifeoma Okoh, and 14 others. 2024. Aya dataset: An open-access collection for multilingual instruction tuning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2402.06619.

1328

1329

1330

1332

1333

1334

1335

1336

1337

1338

1339

1340

1341

1342

1343

1345

1346

1347

1348

1349

1351

1352

1353

1354

1355

1356

1357

1358

1359

1360

1361

1362

1363

1364

1365

1366

1367

1368

1369

1370

1371

1372

1373

1374

1375

1376

1377

1378

1379

1380

1381

- Luca Soldaini, Rodney Kinney, Akshita Bhagia, Dustin Schwenk, David Atkinson, Russell Authur, Ben Bogin, Khyathi Chandu, Jennifer Dumas, Yanai Elazar, Valentin Hofmann, Ananya Harsh Jha, Sachin Kumar, Li Lucy, Xinxi Lyu, Nathan Lambert, Ian Magnusson, Jacob Morrison, Niklas Muennighoff, and 17 others. 2024. Dolma: an open corpus of three trillion tokens for language model pretraining research. *Preprint*, arXiv:2402.00159.
- Guijin Son, Hanwool Lee, Sungdong Kim, Seungone Kim, Niklas Muennighoff, Taekyoon Choi, Cheonbok Park, Kang Min Yoo, and Stella Biderman. 2024.
 KMMLU: Measuring massive multitask language understanding in Korean. *Preprint*, arXiv:2402.11548.
- Stanford CRFM. 2024. Holistic evaluation of language models MMLU leaderboard.

Tatoeba Community. 2006. Tatoeba collection.

- Atula Tejaswi, Nilesh Gupta, and Eunsol Choi. 2024. Exploring design choices for building languagespecific LLMs. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.14670*.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, and 1 others. 2023a. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971*.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, and 1 others. 2023b. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288*.
- Laurens Van der Maaten and Geoffrey Hinton. 2008. Visualizing data using t-sne. *Journal of machine learning research*, 9(11).
- W3Techs. 2024. Usage statistics of content languages for websites.
- Liang Wang, Nan Yang, Xiaolong Huang, Linjun Yang, Rangan Majumder, and Furu Wei. 2024. Improving text embeddings with large language models. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 11897–11916, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- 1382 1383
- 1384 1385
-
- 1386 1387
- 1388
- 1390
- 13
- 1392 1393
- 1394
- 1395 1396
- 1397
- 1398
- 1399 1400
- 1401 1402

- 1404 1405 1406 1407
- 1408 1409
- 1410
- 1411 1412
- 1413 1414 1415
- 1416 1417

1418

1421

1419 1420

- 1422 1423 1424
- 1425 1426
- 1427
- 1429 1430
- 1431

1432 1433 1434

1435

1436 1437 Chris Wendler, Veniamin Veselovsky, Giovanni Monea, and Robert West. 2024. Do Llamas work in English? on the latent language of multilingual transformers. *Preprint*, arXiv:2402.10588.

- Yinfei Yang, Yuan Zhang, Chris Tar, and Jason Baldridge. 2019. PAWS-X: A cross-lingual adversarial dataset for paraphrase identification. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 3687–3692, Hong Kong, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jiacheng Ye, Xijia Tao, and Lingpeng Kong. 2023. Language versatilists vs. specialists: An empirical revisiting on multilingual transfer ability. *Preprint*, arXiv:2306.06688.
- Arda Yüksel, Abdullatif Köksal, Lütfi Kerem Şenel, Anna Korhonen, and Hinrich Schütze. 2024. Turkish-MMLU: Measuring massive multitask language understanding in Turkish. *Preprint*, arXiv:2407.12402.
- Biao Zhang, Philip Williams, Ivan Titov, and Rico Sennrich. 2020. Improving massively multilingual neural machine translation and zero-shot translation. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 1628–1639, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Wenxuan Zhang, Mahani Aljunied, Chang Gao, Yew Ken Chia, and Lidong Bing. 2023a. M3Exam: A multilingual, multimodal, multilevel benchmark for examining large language models. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 36, pages 5484–5505. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Zhen-Ru Zhang, Chuanqi Tan, Songfang Huang, and Fei Huang. 2023b. VECO 2.0: Cross-lingual language model pre-training with multi-granularity contrastive learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2304.08205.
- Yiran Zhao, Wenxuan Zhang, Guizhen Chen, Kenji Kawaguchi, and Lidong Bing. 2024. How do large language models handle multilingualism? In *The Thirty-eighth Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*.
- Lianmin Zheng, Wei-Lin Chiang, Ying Sheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Zhanghao Wu, Yonghao Zhuang, Zi Lin, Zhuohan Li, Dacheng Li, Eric Xing, and 1 others. 2023. Judging llm-as-a-judge with mt-bench and chatbot arena. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:46595–46623.
- Chengzhi Zhong, Fei Cheng, Qianying Liu, Junfeng Jiang, Zhen Wan, Chenhui Chu, Yugo Murawaki, and Sadao Kurohashi. 2024. Beyond english-centric LLMs: What language do multilingual language models think in? *Preprint*, arXiv:2408.10811.
- Wenhao Zhu, Shujian Huang, Fei Yuan, Shuaijie She, Jiajun Chen, and Alexandra Birch. 2024. Question

translation training for better multilingual reasoning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2401.07817.

1438

1439

1440

1441

1442

1443

1444

1445

1446

1447

1448

1449

1450

1451

1452

1453

1454

1455

1456

1457

1458

1459

1460

1461

1462

1463

1464

1465

1466

1467

1468

1469

1470

1471

1472

1473

1474

1475

1476

1477

1478

1479

1480

1481

1482

1483

1484

1485

1487

A Appendix

A.1 Distribution of Pre-training Data in LLMs

The distribution of languages in the training data of state-of-the-art LLMs is rarely fully documented. Llama 2 (Touvron et al., 2023b) is a counter-example and its authors have disclosed the language distribution use in pretraining. Their analysis uses the FastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017) language identification tool and a threshold of 0.5 for the language detection. We reproduce Touvron et al. (2023b, Table 10), which lists 27 languages with percentages greater than 0.005% in the Llama 2 pre-training data, in Table 3. English, with 89.70%, constitutes the vast majority of the training data.

All the languages listed in Table 3 have a presence of more than 0.10% (top 35 languages) on the web according to the W3Techs report (W3Techs, 2024) or more than 0.15% (top 36 languages) according to CommonCrawl (first three snapshots of 2024) (Common Crawl, 2024). However, not all of the most prevalent languages on the web appear in Table 3. The following 9 languages are missing, most of which use non-Latin writing systems: Turkish (tur_Latn), Persian (pes_Arab), Arabic (ara_Arab), Greek (ell_Grek), Hebrew (heb_Hebr), Thai (tha_Thai), Hindi (hin_Deva), Slovak (slk_Latn), and Lithuanian (lit_Latn).

The distribution of data in the training of Englishcentric LLMs is not the same as on the web, but it does have some correlation. The amount of English in LLM pre-training data is significantly larger than for other languages. This is also observable for GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020b), where more than 92% of the training texts was in English (Brown et al., 2020a). The rest of the top languages in the data of such models are mostly high-resource languages, which have the most available data on the web (top 36 languages). However, in some models, this could be adjusted by design, for example, to make writing systems with non-Latin languages less prominent (as seen in Llama 2). This weakens the correlation between LLMs' pretraining data and the web.

A.2 Multilingual Evaluation Benchmarks

Multilingual evaluation methods and the development of benchmarks not only facilitate the assessment of diverse language representations in

Language	Script	Percent	Language	Script	Percent
English (eng)	Latn	89.70%	Ukrainian (ukr)	Cyrl	0.07%
Unknown (unk)	-	8.38%	Korean (kor)	Hang	0.06%
German (deu)	Latn	0.17%	Catalan (cat)	Latn	0.04%
French (fra)	Latn	0.16%	Serbian (srp)	Cyrl/Latn	0.04%
Swedish (swe)	Latn	0.15%	Indonesian (ind)	Latn	0.03%
Chinese (zho)	Hans/Hant	0.13%	Czech (ces)	Latn	0.03%
Spanish (spa)	Latn	0.13%	Finnish (fin)	Latn	0.03%
Russian (rus)	Cyrl	0.13%	Hungarian (hun)	Latn	0.03%
Dutch (nld)	Latn	0.12%	Norwegian (nor)	Latn	0.03%
Italian (ita)	Latn	0.11%	Romanian (ron)	Latn	0.03%
Japanese (jpn)	Jpan	0.10%	Bulgarian (bul)	Cyrl	0.02%
Polish (pol)	Latn	0.09%	Danish (dan)	Latn	0.02%
Portuguese (por)	Latn	0.09%	Slovenian (slv)	Latn	0.01%
Vietnamese (vie)	Latn	0.08%	Croatian (hrv)	Latn	0.01%

Table 3: Language distribution in the pretraining data for Llama 2. The large "Unknown" category is partially composed of programming code data. Common scripts are sourced from the GlotScript resource (Kargaran et al., 2024).

1489

1490

1492

1493

1494

1495

1496

1497

1498 1499

1501

1502

1503

1504

1505

1506

1507

1509

1510

1511

1512

1513

1514

1515

1516

1518

1519

1520

1521

1523

LLMs but also help in monitoring cross-lingual generalization, to assess the effect of quantization across multiple languages (Marchisio et al., 2024), the development of language-specific models (Tejaswi et al., 2024), and the optimization of safety preferences (Li et al., 2024e), among others. In Table 4, we list benchmarks with the largest language coverage. This list includes benchmarks referenced by MEGA (Ahuja et al., 2023), MEGAVERSE (Ahuja et al., 2024), xP3 (Muennighoff et al., 2023), the Aya collection (Singh et al., 2024), the lm-evaluation-harness framework (Gao et al., 2023; Biderman et al., 2024), and inter alia. These datasets comprise a mix of translated datasets, some human-translated or verified by native speakers such as AfriXNLI (Adelani et al., 2024) and some relying only on machine translation Lai et al. (2023b). Additionally, there are datasets created independently for each language, such as XLSum (Hasan et al., 2021), where the data is not parallel and the size of the data varies between languages. Despite the efforts reflected in Table 4, the community is still lacking highly multilingual benchmarks for tasks such as natural language understanding or text generation.

A.3 Semantic Similarity in Multilingual Embeddings

There are other ways to compute similarity between languages, such as Representational Similarity Analysis (RSA) (Chrupała and Alishahi, 2019) and Central Kernel Alignment (CKA) (Kornblith et al., 2019). RSA involves first computing the cosine similarity for sentence embeddings within each language, then correlating these in-language similarities with those in other languages. CKA, another metric, is adopted by Conneau et al. (2020b)

Dataset	Task	# L
XNLI (Conneau et al., 2018)	Natural Language Inference	15
IndicXNLI (Aggarwal et al., 2022)	Natural Language Inference	11
AfriXNLI (Adelani et al., 2024)	Natural Language Inference	15
m_HellaSwag (Lai et al., 2023b)	Natural Language Inference	31
PAWS-X (Yang et al., 2019)	Paraphrase Identification	7
XCOPA (Ponti et al., 2020)	Commonsense Reasoning	11
XStoryCloze (Lin et al., 2022)	Commonsense Reasoning	11
m-ARC (Lai et al., 2023b)	Common Sense Reasoning	31
TyDiQA (Clark et al., 2020)	Question Answering	11
MLQA (Lewis et al., 2020)	Question Answering	7
XQuAD (Artetxe et al., 2020)	Question Answering	11
IndicQA (Doddapaneni et al., 2023)	Question Answering	10
AfriQA (Ogundepo et al., 2023)	Question Answering	10
m_TruthfulQA (Lai et al., 2023b)	MC General Question Answering	31
UDPOS 2.7 (de Marneffe et al., 2021)	Part of Speech Tagging	104
WikiANN (Pan et al., 2017)	Name Entity Recognition	282
XLSum (Hasan et al., 2021)	Summarization	44
WikiLingua (Ladhak et al., 2020)	Summarization	18
Belebele (Bandarkar et al., 2024)	MC Reading Comprehension	115
AfriMMLU (Adelani et al., 2024)	MC Knowledge Question Answering	17
m-MMLU (Lai et al., 2023b)	MC Knowledge Question Answering	31
MMMLU (OpenAI, 2024)	MC Knowledge Question Answering	15
M3Exam (Zhang et al., 2023a)	MC Multimodal Question Answering	9

Table 4: Multilingual evaluation benchmarks: MC stands for multiple-choice. # L shows the number of languages supported by each dataset.

and Muller et al. (2021). Conneau et al. (2020b) show that the CKA similarity is highly correlated with sentence retrieval scores for four languages. In this paper, our focus is not on finding different ways to calculate similarity between languages, but on how helpful a properly defined alignment score can be in estimating the multilingual capabilities of LLMs across multiple languages.

1524

1525

1526

1527

1528

1529

1530

1531

1532

1533

1534

1535

1536

1537

1538

1539

1540

1541

1542

1543

1545

1546

1547

A.4 Robustness of MEXA

We show that the MEXA alignment score $(\mu(.))$ is very robust, and the odds of this score randomly achieving a high value are very slim. Recall that $\mu(C(L_1, L_2, m, l))$ measures the fraction of diagonal elements in matrix $C(L_1, L_2, m, l)$ that have the maximum value in their respective rows and columns. If this condition is met k times out of n diagonal elements, then $\mu(C(L_1, L_2, m, l))$ is $\frac{k}{n}$. In an $n \times n$ random matrix, the probability of a diagonal element being the maximum in its row and column (a total of 2n - 1 elements) is $p = \frac{1}{2n-1}$. The probability that at least k out of n independent variables are satisfied, given that the diagonal element is the maximum in its row and column, can be computed using the binomial distribution:

$$P(X \ge \frac{k}{n}) = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}$$
 1548

In Figure 2, we plot $P(X \ge \frac{k}{n})$. This plot illustrates that, given a sufficient number of parallel sentences (n), the probability of achieving a high score by chance is very low. For example, with n = 100, the chance of obtaining MEXA alignment score 1553



Figure 2: The probability that at least k out of n diagonal elements in an $n \times n$ random matrix are the maximum elements in their respective rows and columns.

larger than 0.05 (k = 5) from a 100 × 100 random matrix is $P(X \ge 0.05) = 0.00016$.

A.5 Benchmark Details

1554

1555

1557

1559

1562

1563

1565

1568

1569

1570

1571

1573

1574

1575

1578

1579

1580

1583

1586

1588

1590

Belebele is a multiple-choice reading comprehension task designed to assess language models across a range of high-, medium-, and low-resource languages. Each question in the dataset is accompanied by four possible answers and is linked to a brief passage from the FLORES-200 dataset (NLLB Team et al., 2022). The human annotation process was carefully curated to generate questions that effectively differentiate between various levels of language comprehension, supported by rigorous quality checks. Belebele supports 122 distinct labels (language-script combinations) corresponding to 115 distinct languages. However, FLORES-200 does not support 5 of these labels, corresponding to Romanized versions of 5 Indic languages. Therefore, we conducted our analysis between the FLORES-200 and Belebele benchmarks on 117 common labels. Additionally, there are 102 common labels between the Bible parallel data and Belebele benchmark.

Both ARC Challenge (Clark et al., 2018) and MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2021) are also set up as multiple-choice question-answering tasks, but they focus on different types of knowledge and reasoning skills. ARC Challenge is classified as a common-sense reasoning task, consisting of gradeschool level science questions, while MMLU consists of questions across a wide range of subjects, including humanities, social sciences, and more. Lai et al. (2023b) used GPT-3.5-turbo (OpenAI, 2022) and a translation prompt to translate examples from both datasets and create m-ARC and m-MMLU in 31 languages (excluding English). Later, m-MMLU was expanded to also include Icelandic



Llama 3.1 8B

Figure 3: Llama 1 vs. Llama 3.1 MEXA alignment score for different languages across all layers. Best performance markers in order: \triangle , \Box , \star , \times , \circ , _

(isl_Latn) and Norwegian (nob_Latn). The Icelandic portion was translated using the Mideind.is, while Norwegian was generated with DeepL.com.⁴ m-MMLU consists of 277 questions in its training set, 13,258 in the test set and 1,433 in the validation set. m-ARC consists of 1,116 questions in the training set, 1,169 in the test set, and 298 in the validation set. 1591

1592

1593

1594

1595

1596

1597

1598

1599

1601

A.6 Detailed Results

We show the detailed per model results of Table 2 in Table 5.

A.7 Visualization of Layers

In Figure 3, we show the results of applying 1603 MEXA to 20 pairs of language_script from FLO-1604 RES parallel dataset for Llama 1-7B and Llama 1605 3.1-8B across all 32 layers. We selected these languages from different families, writing systems, and both high- and low-resource categories. The embeddings are computed using weighted aver-1609 age based on token positions. Figure 3 shows that 1610 high-resource languages (with more prevalence 1611 on the web; see §A.1) achieve higher alignment 1612

⁴hf.co/datasets/alexandrainst/m_mmlu

		Gemma 2 9B	Gemma 1 7B	Llama 3.1 70B	Llama 3.1 8B	Llama 3 8B	Llama 2 7B	Llama 1 7B	Mistral 0.3 7B	OLMo 1.7 7B	AVG
FLORES last token weighted average	$\begin{array}{l} \rho \ (\mu_{Mean}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Mean}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-ARC) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Mean}, m-ARC) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-ARC) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-ARC) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-ARC) \\ \end{array}$	0.9247 0.9623 0.9342 0.9060 0.9741 0.9187 0.9225 0.9086 0.8448 0.9190 0.8569	0.9421 0.9676 0.9697 0.9596 0.9706 0.9499 0.9326 0.9309 0.9637 0.9297 0.9541 0.9147	0.8291 0.9211 0.9362 0.8946 0.9374 0.8736 0.8491 0.9127 0.9370 0.8645 0.9524 0.9005	$\begin{array}{c} 0.9478\\ 0.9392\\ 0.9689\\ 0.9003\\ 0.9515\\ 0.8582\\ \hline\\ 0.9494\\ 0.9244\\ 0.9687\\ 0.9224\\ 0.9536\\ 0.8944\\ \end{array}$	0.9588 0.9326 0.9647 0.8892 0.9562 0.8663 0.9581 0.9123 0.9690 0.9177 0.9617 0.8879	0.8364 0.8362 0.9223 0.9386 0.9052 0.9297 0.9141 0.9125 0.9771 0.9699 0.9390 0.9464	0.8404 0.7649 0.9406 0.8936 0.9268 0.8439 0.8340 0.7693 0.9301 0.8902 0.9146 0.8263	0.9732 0.9448 0.9857 0.9311 0.9693 0.9001 0.9679 0.9460 0.9659 0.9161 0.9451 0.8859	0.8425 0.9198 0.9393 0.9565 0.8630 0.8298 0.9467 0.9218 0.9700 0.9649 0.7356 0.7037	0.8994 0.9098 0.9513 0.9188 0.9393 0.8856 0.9168 0.958 0.9545 0.9134 0.9195 0.8685
Bible weighted average	$\begin{array}{l} \rho \ (\mu_{Mean}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MRC) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-ARC) \\ \hline \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-ARC) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, Belebele) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MMLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MRLU) \\ \rho \ (\mu_{Max}, m-MRLU) \\ \end{array}$	0.8360 0.8863 0.8051 0.5501 0.8505 0.6070 0.7656 0.7844 0.7194 0.7075 0.7411	0.8530 0.9001 0.8886 0.8831 0.8998 0.8803 0.8005 0.8299 0.7646 0.6886 0.7754	0.7909 0.8851 0.8958 0.7748 0.9188 0.8030 0.5944 0.5264 0.6472 0.5037** 0.6592	0.8781 0.9242 0.9096 0.8683 0.9267 0.8769 0.7934 0.8000 0.6068 0.5228** 0.5976	0.8974 0.9302 0.8964 0.8364 0.9116 0.8552 0.8396 0.8100 0.6516 0.4461** 0.6494	0.8982 0.8926 0.9252 0.9180 0.8940 0.8684 0.9046 0.9047 0.8827 0.9079 0.8537	0.8404 0.8230 0.9159 0.9085 0.9208 0.8879 0.8299 0.8048 0.8692 0.8576 0.8537	0.9118 0.9337 0.9093 0.9107 0.9317 0.9178 0.9177 0.9235 0.8672 0.8643 0.8927	0.7410 0.7549 0.7944 0.7388 0.8623 0.8220 0.8866 0.8796 0.8060 0.7994 0.6997	0.8496 0.8811 0.8823 0.8210 0.9018 0.8354 0.8147 0.8070 0.7572 0.6998 0.7469

Table 5: Pearson correlation of MEXA using FLORES and Bible data across three tasks. ρ ($\mu_{Pooling}$, Task) is the correlation of MEXA for the corresponding pooling strategy and benchmark. In all settings except **, the p-value is p < 0.001. The best average correlations for each task are in **bold**, and the second bests are <u>underlined</u>.



Figure 4: Llama 3.1 t-SNE plots for 3 different layers. As shown, in the mid-layers, the embeddings become more language-neutral. The numbers shown in the mid-layers are the IDs of English sentences that are scattered.

scores across different layers, while low-resource languages achieve lower scores. In the initial layers, embeddings are more in-language, resulting in lower alignment scores. As embeddings progress to the mid-layers, they become more aligned with the main language of the LLM, i.e., English.

1613

1614

1615

1616

1617

1618

1619

1620

MEXA is comparable between models as long as the same parallel dataset and setting is used to

obtain the MEXA scores. Figure 3 shows that in many languages, particularly high-resource languages, Llama 3.1 achieves a significantly higher alignment score than its predecessor, Llama 1. Although Llama 3.1 exhibits better alignment scores with English for medium and low-resource languages, there is still significant room for improvement. Comparing Arabic (arb_Arab) with its romanized version (arb_Latn), we see that both Llama 1 and Llama 3.1 models perform better in the native script than in the Latin script, even though Llama 1's tokenizer for Arabic is essentially a character-based tokenizer. In general, for very low-resource languages, those in Latin script tend to have higher alignment scores, likely because the tokenization is more favorable for Latin characters.

1621

1622

1623

1624

1625

1626

1627

1628

1629

1630

1631

1632

1633

1636

In Figure 4, we display the t-SNE (Van der 1637 Maaten and Hinton, 2008) plots of the embeddings 1638 of Figure 3 from 3 different layers of Llama 3.1: embedding layer 0, mid-layer 13, and last layer 32. 1640 We assign a different color to each language. For 1641 layers 0 and 32, the embeddings are more language-1642 specific, while in the mid-layer, they become more 1643 language-neutral. Languages that maintain their 1644 language-specific embeddings in the mid-layer are 1645 clustered separately and, notably, correspond to the 1646 very low-resource languages that receive the worst alignment scores from MEXA. 1648

A.8 MEXA for FLORES-200

1649

We compute MEXA with weighted average em-1650 bedding and max pooling for the FLORES parallel 1651 data for 203 language labels, multiplied by the per-1652 formance of Belebele for each model in English. 1653 We show the results in Table 6, and color the cells 1654 based on 0.2 intervals from green (well-covered) to red (not covered): (1.0-0.8), (0.8-0.6), (0.6-0.4), 1656 1657 (0.4-0.2), (0.2-0). Note that although FLORES is a high-quality, human-translated dataset, we ad-1658 dressed two major issues before proceeding, as 1659 noted by Kargaran et al. (2023). First, the data labeled as Cantonese (Yue Chinese) is not actually 1661 Cantonese, so we removed it. Second, the code 1662 for Central Atlas Tamazight (tzm), which actually 1663 refers to Standard Moroccan Tamazight (zgh), was 1664 1665 renamed accordingly. As Belebele is relatively an easy task since the models get good scores in En-1666 glish, and we are using max pooling, this gives a 1667 high estimate of the coverage the LLMs have. If 1668 1669 the score for a language is not very high, it likely indicates that for more challenging tasks, it will 1670 remain low. In Table 6, we can clearly see that 1671 Llama 3.1-70B and Gemma 2-9B show a higher level of multilinguality than other models. 1673

	Gemma 2 9B	Gemma 1 7B	Llama 3.1 70B	Llama 3.1 8B	Llama 3 8B	Llama 2 7B	Llama 1 7B	Mistral 7B	OLMo 7B	AVG
eng_Latn	0.92	0.85	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.48	0.42	0.84	0.77	0.77
fra_Latn por_Latn	0.92 0.92	0.84 0.84	0.94 0.94	$\begin{array}{c} 0.88\\ 0.88\end{array}$	$0.87 \\ 0.87$	0.37 0.41	0.41 0.41	$\begin{array}{c} 0.84\\ 0.84\end{array}$	0.70 0.63	0.75 0.75
deu_Latn	0.92	0.84	0.94	0.88	0.87	0.41	0.41	0.84	0.65	0.73
spa_Latn	0.92	0.83	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.37	0.42	0.84	0.56	0.74
ita_Latn	0.92	0.83	0.92	0.88	0.87	0.35	0.42	0.84	0.56	0.73
cat_Latn nld Latn	0.92 0.92	0.82 0.82	0.94 0.95	$\begin{array}{c} 0.88\\ 0.88 \end{array}$	$0.87 \\ 0.87$	0.39 0.34	0.42 0.42	$\begin{array}{c} 0.84\\ 0.84 \end{array}$	0.50 0.52	0.73 0.73
rus_Cyrl	0.91	0.82	0.94	0.88	0.87	0.34	0.41	0.83	0.51	0.72
zho_Hans	0.91	0.80	0.94	0.88	0.87	0.32	0.34	0.81	0.62	0.72
glg_Latn swe_Latn	0.92 0.92	0.83 0.83	0.91 0.95	$\begin{array}{c} 0.88\\ 0.88 \end{array}$	$0.87 \\ 0.87$	0.31 0.38	0.41 0.42	0.82 0.84	0.52 0.37	0.72 0.72
dan_Latn	0.92	0.83	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.38	0.42	0.84	0.37	0.72
ces_Latn	0.92	0.82	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.26	0.42	0.84	0.43	0.71
ron_Latn	0.92	0.82	0.94	0.88	0.87	0.23	0.41	0.83	0.48	0.71
nob_Latn zho_Hant	0.91 0.91	0.82 0.81	0.95 0.94	$\begin{array}{c} 0.88\\ 0.88 \end{array}$	$0.87 \\ 0.87$	0.34 0.31	0.39 0.32	0.81 0.79	0.39 0.52	0.71 0.71
pol_Latn	0.91	0.81	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.22	0.32	0.84	0.32	0.70
ast_Latn	0.90	0.80	0.91	0.88	0.86	0.21	0.40	0.77	0.49	0.69
ind_Latn oci_Latn	0.92 0.89	0.83 0.75	0.93 0.95	$0.87 \\ 0.88$	$0.87 \\ 0.87$	0.22 0.22	0.30 0.39	0.82 0.81	0.42 0.40	0.69 0.68
bos_Latn	0.89	0.75	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.22	0.39	0.81	0.40	0.68
nno_Latn	0.92	0.82	0.92	0.84	0.84	0.26	0.36	0.78	0.38	0.68
ukr_Cyrl	0.92	0.81	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.22	0.42	0.84	0.15	0.67
zsm_Latn hrv_Latn	0.92 0.91	0.83 0.81	0.93 0.90	0.88 0.86	0.87 0.86	0.17 0.18	0.25 0.41	0.81 0.83	0.36 0.23	0.67 0.67
slv_Latn	0.91	0.79	0.93	0.86	0.86	0.20	0.40	0.84	0.23	0.66
afr_Latn	0.91	0.81	0.93	0.87	0.87	0.20	0.37	0.79	0.21	0.66
slk_Latn	0.91	0.80	0.93	0.86	0.85	0.12	0.38	0.82	0.25	0.66
bul_Cyrl jpn_Jpan	0.91 0.90	0.80 0.80	0.90 0.93	0.86 0.83	$0.86 \\ 0.82$	0.12 0.29	0.42 0.25	0.84 0.76	0.14 0.24	0.65 0.65
hun_Latn	0.91	0.78	0.92	0.84	0.82	0.13	0.39	0.81	0.18	0.64
vec_Latn	0.87	0.74	0.93	0.84	0.83	0.16	0.35	0.76	0.28	0.64
srp_Cyrl tgl_Latn	0.91 0.91	0.79 0.74	0.90 0.94	0.86 0.82	0.86 0.82	0.10 0.16	0.42 0.20	0.84 0.77	0.06 0.36	0.64 0.64
fin_Latn	0.91	0.74	0.94	0.82	0.82	0.10	0.20	0.77	0.30	0.64
mkd_Cyrl	0.90	0.77	0.94	0.87	0.86	0.07	0.38	0.80	0.11	0.63
vie_Latn	0.91	0.81	0.95	0.88	0.87	0.22	0.08	0.79	0.16	0.63
epo_Latn kor_Hang	0.87 0.88	0.76 0.74	0.95 0.91	0.86 0.84	0.85 0.83	0.14 0.22	0.26 0.15	0.67 0.71	0.11 0.15	0.61 0.60
arb_Arab	0.00	0.80	0.94	0.86	0.85	0.05	0.15	0.70	0.10	0.60
ars_Arab	0.91	0.80	0.93	0.86	0.85	0.04	0.17	0.69	0.08	0.59
lim_Latn	0.76	0.65	0.89	0.83	0.83	0.21	0.25	0.59	0.21	0.58
acq_Arab acm_Arab	0.91 0.90	0.78 0.76	0.92 0.90	0.83 0.86	0.82 0.82	0.04 0.04	0.13 0.14	0.67 0.67	0.09 0.09	0.58 0.57
fur_Latn	0.73	0.60	0.91	0.81	0.77	0.16	0.27	0.59	0.26	0.57
pes_Arab	0.91	0.79	0.88	0.85	0.85	0.05	0.08	0.59	0.07	0.56
arz_Arab ajp_Arab	0.88 0.88	0.74 0.76	0.90 0.86	0.84 0.85	0.83 0.83	0.03 0.03	0.10 0.12	0.63 0.60	0.09 0.09	0.56 0.56
lit_Latn	0.88	0.76	0.80	0.85	0.85	0.05	0.12	0.00	0.09	0.50
apc_Arab	0.89	0.76	0.86	0.82	0.83	0.03	0.11	0.64	0.09	0.56
ell_Grek	0.90	0.78	0.87	0.87	0.86	0.02	0.09	0.58	0.05	0.56
tur_Latn est_Latn	0.89 0.90	0.78 0.77	0.90 0.90	0.82 0.82	0.81 0.83	0.04 0.12	0.09 0.09	0.61 0.45	0.04 0.10	0.55 0.55
pap_Latn	0.79	0.60	0.90	0.32	0.85	0.12	0.09	0.45	0.10	0.55
lmo_Latn	0.73	0.56	0.87	0.75	0.74	0.17	0.26	0.60	0.26	0.55
szl_Latn	0.77	0.59	0.87	0.73	0.74	0.11	0.26	0.64	0.21	0.55
prs_Arab scn_Latn	0.90 0.77	0.78 0.59	0.92 0.88	0.84 0.79	0.84 0.77	0.01 0.15	0.06 0.22	0.46 0.57	0.08 0.15	0.54 0.54
heb_Hebr	0.91	0.81	0.88	0.83	0.83	0.15	0.22	0.37	0.15	0.54
lvs_Latn	0.90	0.75	0.90	0.81	0.79	0.05	0.05	0.55	0.08	0.54
als_Latn	0.87	0.67	0.93	0.79	0.80	0.09	0.08	0.53	0.10	0.54
lij_Latn ceb_Latn	0.74 0.83	0.58 0.59	0.88 0.89	0.72 0.73	0.70 0.72	0.16 0.16	0.25 0.15	0.53 0.49	0.30 0.24	0.54 0.53
srd_Latn	0.03	0.59	0.85	0.75	0.72	0.16	0.13	0.55	0.24	0.53
									l on next	

	Gemma 2 9B	Gemma 1 7B	Llama 3.1 70B	Llama 3.1 8B	Llama 3 8B	Llama 2 7B	Llama 1 7B	Mistral 7B	OLMo 7B	AVG
hin_Deva	0.90	0.74	0.91	0.80	0.79	0.03	0.05	0.44	0.06	0.53
ltz_Latn	0.79	0.59	0.84	0.75	0.74	0.15	0.18	0.44	0.18	0.52
tha_Thai aeb_Arab	0.90 0.82	0.76 0.67	0.87 0.86	0.83 0.78	0.83 0.75	0.02 0.04	0.02 0.10	0.32 0.55	0.10 0.08	0.52 0.52
bel_Cyrl	0.88	0.65	0.88	0.79	0.79	0.02	0.09	0.50	0.02	0.51
isl_Latn	0.83	0.62	0.88	0.77	0.78	0.09	0.10	0.48	0.06	0.51
swh_Latn mlt Latn	0.90 0.88	0.74 0.63	0.86 0.87	0.73 0.74	0.80 0.74	0.11 0.12	0.09	0.27	0.08 0.12	0.51
mit_Lath war_Lath	0.88	0.63	0.87	0.74 0.65	0.74 0.61	0.12	0.11 0.20	0.38 0.35	0.12	0.51 0.49
cym_Latn	0.87	0.59	0.88	0.75	0.76	0.11	0.10	0.28	0.08	0.49
fao_Latn	0.71	0.53	0.86	0.71	0.69	0.12	0.13	0.53	0.08	0.48
urd_Arab	0.83	0.66	0.88	0.76	0.73	0.02	0.02	0.31	0.03	0.47
jav_Latn eus_Latn	0.75 0.82	0.54 0.66	0.84 0.84	0.69 0.74	0.67 0.71	0.16 0.10	0.12 0.08	0.29 0.18	0.16 0.05	0.47 0.47
sun_Latn	0.62	0.00	0.84	0.68	0.64	0.10	0.08	0.18	0.03	0.47
kea_Latn	0.64	0.51	0.78	0.60	0.64	0.16	0.19	0.45	0.18	0.46
ary_Arab	0.71	0.60	0.80	0.68	0.68	0.03	0.09	0.44	0.10	0.46
hat_Latn	0.74	0.47	0.86	0.65	0.61	0.15	0.12	0.36	0.09	0.4
mag_Deva min_Latn	0.75 0.56	0.52 0.45	0.88 0.81	0.75 0.68	$0.70 \\ 0.68$	0.02 0.16	0.05 0.12	0.29 0.34	0.07 0.17	0.45 0.44
ban_Latn	0.30	0.43	0.81	0.68	0.63	0.10	0.12	0.34	0.17	0.43
bjn_Latn	0.60	0.51	0.78	0.62	0.60	0.14	0.12	0.31	0.21	0.43
azj_Latn	0.75	0.53	0.86	0.68	0.66	0.01	0.03	0.29	0.02	0.43
npi_Deva	0.81	0.59	0.82	0.62	0.64	0.02	0.02	0.20	0.05	0.42
mar_Deva awa_Deva	0.82 0.73	0.58 0.53	0.87 0.83	0.68 0.65	0.63 0.65	0.02 0.02	0.01 0.05	0.12 0.21	0.03 0.08	0.42 0.42
ben_Beng	0.73	0.55	0.83	0.60	0.60	0.02	0.05	0.21	0.08	0.42
uzn_Latn	0.70	0.47	0.84	0.60	0.62	0.04	0.05	0.23	0.05	0.4
bho_Deva	0.51	0.46	0.89	0.68	0.65	0.02	0.03	0.26	0.08	0.40
gle_Latn	0.68	0.31	0.82	0.64	0.64	0.09	0.08	0.22	0.09	0.40
hye_Armn	0.85	0.59	0.79	0.60	0.58	0.01	0.02	0.10	0.01	0.40
hne_Deva kaz_Cyrl	0.67 0.62	0.44 0.47	0.80 0.87	0.65 0.61	0.63 0.60	0.01 0.02	0.02 0.06	0.24 0.27	0.08 0.03	0.40
tpi_Latn	0.69	0.38	0.69	0.46	0.00	0.19	0.00	0.33	0.05	0.39
hau_Latn	0.68	0.41	0.77	0.58	0.54	0.12	0.11	0.17	0.06	0.38
mai_Deva	0.61	0.43	0.86	0.61	0.59	0.02	0.03	0.16	0.08	0.3
crh_Latn	0.58 0.61	0.42	0.77 0.74	0.56	0.51	0.03	0.07	0.35	0.05	0.3'
ilo_Latn tat_Cyrl	0.61	0.32 0.38	0.74	0.47 0.58	0.46 0.55	0.17 0.03	0.15 0.04	0.24 0.21	0.13 0.02	0.3 0.3
kat_Geor	0.73	0.36	0.03	0.53	0.50	0.05	0.04	0.18	0.02	0.3
ydd_Hebr	0.74	0.45	0.78	0.48	0.47	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.34
kir_Cyrl	0.53	0.33	0.81	0.58	0.57	0.01	0.04	0.13	0.02	0.34
pag_Latn	0.33	0.23	0.63	0.35	0.39	0.25	0.21	0.36	0.24	0.3
pan_Guru bak_Cyrl	0.78 0.56	0.50 0.36	0.75 0.82	0.47 0.51	0.40 0.51	0.01 0.01	0.00 0.04	0.03 0.13	0.05 0.02	0.3
guj_Gujr	0.79	0.50	0.67	0.42	0.39	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.3
tam_Taml	0.78	0.54	0.72	0.38	0.38	0.02	0.01	0.08	0.03	0.3
pbt_Arab	0.50	0.23	0.82	0.57	0.57	0.02	0.03	0.10	0.07	0.32
tgk_Cyrl	0.62	0.27	0.78	0.51	0.52	0.02	0.03	0.10	0.05	0.32
tel_Telu snd_Arab	0.77 0.59	0.52 0.30	0.67 0.78	0.38 0.53	0.43 0.50	0.01 0.02	0.01 0.01	0.05 0.06	0.04 0.04	0.32
kan_Knda	0.74	0.30	0.78	0.33	0.30	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.3
nal_Mlym	0.76	0.50	0.68	0.32	0.30	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.29
ckb_Arab	0.51	0.20	0.78	0.54	0.50	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.02	0.29
gla_Latn	0.46	0.14	0.71	0.46	0.45	0.08	0.07	0.13	0.07	0.2
asm_Beng	0.63 0.49	0.35 0.31	0.70 0.63	0.39 0.43	0.36	$0.00 \\ 0.05$	0.01 0.04	0.08 0.14	0.04 0.02	0.2
tuk_Latn san_Deva	0.49	0.31	0.63	0.43	0.41 0.45	0.05	0.04 0.01	0.14 0.12	0.02	0.2
kmr_Latn	0.38	0.20	0.69	0.40	0.45	0.00	0.01	0.12	0.02	0.2
lus_Latn	0.53	0.09	0.56	0.34	0.33	0.14	0.10	0.24	0.11	0.2
khk_Cyrl	0.44	0.18	0.73	0.42	0.43	0.01	0.02	0.08	0.03	0.2
ltg_Latn	0.31	0.23	0.61	0.38	0.35	0.08	0.06	0.22	0.06	0.20
azb_Arab plt_Latn	0.37 0.52	0.28 0.17	0.60 0.59	0.44 0.25	0.44 0.25	0.00 0.14	0.01 0.12	0.11 0.18	0.02 0.05	0.2
ibo_Latn	0.32	0.17	0.59	0.23	0.23	0.14	0.12	0.18	0.05	0.2

	Gemma 2 9B	Gemma 1 7B	Llama 3.1 70B	Llama 3.1 8B	Llama 3 8B	Llama 2 7B	Llama 1 7B	Mistral 7B	OLMo 7B	AVG
mri_Latn	0.35	0.11	0.60	0.38	0.35	0.12	0.10	0.18	0.07	0.25
som_Latn	0.42	0.14	0.60	0.24	0.24	0.11	0.08	0.18	0.09	0.23
ace_Latn	0.22 0.49	0.13 0.19	0.49 0.47	0.32 0.20	0.31 0.20	0.14 0.12	0.10	0.21 0.13	0.15 0.05	0.23 0.22
xho_Latn nso_Latn	0.49	0.19	0.47	0.20	0.20	0.12	0.10 0.13	0.15	0.05	0.22
sot_Latn	0.34	0.12	0.53	0.20	0.20	0.14	0.10	0.18	0.05	0.21
zul_Latn	0.55	0.19	0.44	0.19	0.17	0.11	0.06	0.10	0.05	0.21
kin_Latn	0.37	0.10	0.53	0.20	0.23	0.11	0.09	0.15	0.06	0.21
sin_Sinh	0.56	0.27	0.49	0.26	0.18	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.20
smo_Latn nya_Latn	0.28 0.36	0.09 0.13	0.66 0.41	0.20 0.19	0.20 0.19	0.10 0.13	0.08 0.10	0.13 0.17	0.06 0.06	0.20 0.19
twi_Latn	0.30	0.13	0.41	0.19	0.19	0.13	0.10	0.17	0.00	0.19
sna_Latn	0.41	0.17	0.40	0.19	0.20	0.10	0.08	0.12	0.07	0.19
uig_Arab	0.21	0.09	0.71	0.29	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.18
bug_Latn	0.14	0.12	0.35	0.22	0.22	0.14	0.11	0.20	0.12	0.18
luo_Latn	0.07	0.07	0.40	0.25	0.24	0.15	0.12	0.21	0.09	0.18
tsn_Latn arb_Latn	0.24 0.29	0.10 0.07	0.42 0.46	0.18 0.24	0.18	0.12 0.05	0.11	0.20 0.17	0.06 0.08	0.18 0.18
arb_Lath khm_Khmr	0.29 0.34	0.07	0.46 0.59	0.24	0.20 0.16	0.05	0.05 0.02	0.17	0.08	0.18
lua_Latn	0.09	0.15	0.33	0.15	0.10	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.00	0.17
lug_Latn	0.17	0.07	0.41	0.18	0.19	0.14	0.09	0.19	0.06	0.17
grn_Latn	0.17	0.09	0.44	0.16	0.17	0.12	0.09	0.13	0.10	0.16
ssw_Latn	0.27	0.10	0.37	0.17	0.17	0.11	0.08	0.14	0.05	0.16
lin_Latn ory Orva	0.11 0.28	0.08	0.43 0.66	0.16 0.18	0.18 0.19	0.12 0.01	0.11	0.16 0.03	0.08 0.03	0.16 0.16
fij_Latn	0.28	0.03 0.06	0.00	0.18	0.19	0.01	$\begin{array}{c} 0.01 \\ 0.11 \end{array}$	0.05	0.03	0.10
fuv_Latn	0.07	0.08	0.30	0.20	0.20	0.13	0.10	0.18	0.10	0.15
kas_Arab	0.16	0.10	0.50	0.20	0.21	0.02	0.02	0.10	0.05	0.15
quy_Latn	0.10	0.06	0.42	0.21	0.22	0.10	0.06	0.13	0.05	0.15
aka_Latn	0.17	0.06	0.37	0.14	0.17	0.11	0.08	0.12	0.10	0.15
mya_Mymr run_Latn	0.36 0.25	0.13 0.07	0.46 0.37	0.14 0.16	0.16 0.17	$\begin{array}{c} 0.00\\ 0.08 \end{array}$	0.00 0.06	0.02 0.10	0.02 0.04	0.15 0.14
bem_Latn	0.14	0.07	0.29	0.16	0.17	0.08	0.00	0.15	0.04	0.14
kas_Deva	0.14	0.09	0.37	0.20	0.21	0.02	0.03	0.11	0.08	0.14
wol_Latn	0.09	0.07	0.30	0.18	0.16	0.12	0.10	0.17	0.07	0.14
kam_Latn	0.09	0.08	0.26	0.18	0.16	0.13	0.10	0.15	0.08	0.14
tso_Latn kon_Latn	0.14 0.07	0.06 0.08	0.35 0.27	0.14 0.15	0.13 0.17	0.11 0.09	$0.08 \\ 0.07$	0.13 0.13	0.06 0.09	0.13 0.13
tum_Latn	0.07	0.08	0.27	0.13	0.17	0.09	0.07	0.13	0.09	0.13
kik_Latn	0.07	0.04	0.32	0.12	0.13	0.10	0.09	0.13	0.12	0.12
taq_Latn	0.06	0.06	0.28	0.14	0.12	0.11	0.08	0.14	0.05	0.12
mos_Latn	0.04	0.04	0.25	0.16	0.14	0.11	0.09	0.15	0.07	
yor_Latn	0.13	0.04	0.30	0.14	0.14	0.08	0.06	0.10	0.04	0.11
amh_Ethi sag_Latn	0.48 0.05	0.16 0.07	0.24 0.22	0.04 0.17	0.03 0.17	0.01 0.07	0.02 0.07	0.03 0.09	0.02 0.06	0.11 0.11
cjk_Latn	0.05	0.07	0.22	0.17	0.17	0.10	0.07	0.09	0.00	0.11
umb_Latn	0.05	0.05	0.20	0.15	0.14	0.10	0.08	0.11	0.05	0.10
dyu_Latn	0.04	0.04	0.22	0.13	0.12	0.06	0.07	0.10	0.08	0.10
kac_Latn	0.02	0.03	0.22	0.12	0.14	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.08	0.09
kmb_Latn	0.05	0.06	0.20	0.11 0.11	0.10	0.10	0.07	0.09	0.05	0.09
bam_Latn ayr_Latn	0.05 0.04	0.05 0.04	0.18 0.20	0.11	0.09 0.10	0.08 0.06	$0.08 \\ 0.05$	0.12 0.10	0.04 0.06	0.09 0.08
lao_Laoo	0.17	0.04	0.20	0.07	0.10	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.00	0.08
dik_Latn	0.05	0.06	0.18	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.10	0.05	0.08
ewe_Latn	0.04	0.03	0.18	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.04	0.08
knc_Latn	0.05	0.06	0.15	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.05	0.08
kab_Latn	0.04	0.02	0.17	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.11	0.04	0.07
sat_Olck gaz_Latn	0.19 0.05	0.02 0.03	0.32 0.20	0.05 0.06	0.05 0.06	$\begin{array}{c} 0.00\\ 0.05 \end{array}$	0.00 0.04	$\begin{array}{c} 0.01 \\ 0.08 \end{array}$	0.01 0.03	0.07 0.07
bod_Tibt	0.05	0.03	0.20	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.04	0.08	0.03	0.07
fon_Latn	0.03	0.02	0.14	0.06	0.06	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.00
shn_Mymr	0.02	0.01	0.21	0.06	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.05
kbp_Latn	0.03	0.02	0.14	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.08	0.05	0.05
mni_Beng ace_Arab	0.03 0.03	0.02 0.02	0.12 0.15	0.05 0.07	0.06 0.07	0.01 0.00	0.02 0.00	0.08 0.03	0.02 0.01	0.05 0.04
acc_Arab	0.05	0.02	0.15	0.07	0.07	0.00				
							С	ontinued	d on next	t page

	Gemma 2 9B	Gemma 1 7B	Llama 3.1 70B	Llama 3.1 8B	Llama 3 8B	Llama 2 7B	Llama 1 7B	Mistral 7B	OLMo 7B	AVG
knc_Arab	0.01	0.01	0.13	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.04
bjn_Arab	0.03	0.02	0.11	0.05	0.08	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.04
nus_Latn	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.03
min_Arab	0.02	0.01	0.13	0.05	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.03
tir_Ethi	0.10	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.03
dzo_Tibt	0.01	0.00	0.08	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02
taq_Tfng	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.01
zgh_Tfng	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01

Table 6: Adjusted performance of MEXA using max pooling with the English performance of models on the Belebele benchmark.