

Curse of bilinguality: Evaluating monolingual and bilingual language models on Chinese linguistic benchmarks

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Abstract

We investigate cross-lingual transfer in large language models (LLMs) trained on two high-resource languages, English and Chinese. Four monolingual Chinese and four bilingual English–Chinese models are evaluated on two Chinese linguistic benchmarks. Monolingual models consistently outperform the bilingual ones on 12 out of 55 tasks, a result indicating negative transfer from English to Chinese. Additionally, we carry out a feature attribution analysis in a monolingual and a bilingual model, showing that the differences in their performance may be explained by more predictable attribution patterns in the monolingual model. Our findings have implications for the ongoing effort of training bilingual LLMs.

1 Introduction

In multilingual NLP, cross-lingual transfer is traditionally described in positive terms. For example, a model’s performance in low-resource languages can be improved by leveraging transfer from high-resource languages. At the same time, adding low-resource languages to the training data may cause a model to perform worse in high-resource languages because of the *negative* cross-lingual transfer, a phenomenon known as the curse of multilinguality (Conneau et al., 2020). Despite the abundance of studies that address this problem (Blevins et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2020; Pfeiffer et al., 2022, etc.), they primarily focus on multilingual LLMs trained on multiple languages with very unbalanced amounts of data per language.

What happens, however, when a model is trained on exactly two high-resource languages? English and (Mandarin) Chinese are the two languages with the largest amounts of data available for training, and the recent years have seen a surge in the development of LLMs for both languages. While a few Chinese models are monolingual (e.g., Sun et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2021), most

others are bilingual (i.e., trained on a mix of English and Chinese data: Bai et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2023; Young et al., 2024) or multilingual (see an overview by Huang et al., 2025). While bilingual and multilingual models show high performance on some English benchmarks (e.g., Zeng et al., 2024), it is unclear whether in Chinese linguistic tasks they always outperform their monolingual counterparts.

In this paper, we study cross-lingual transfer effects in bilingual Chinese–English LLMs. We evaluate four monolingual Chinese models and four bilingual Chinese–English models on two commonly used Chinese linguistic benchmarks. For some of the paradigms in these benchmarks, monolingual models (including the relatively small monolingual Chinese BERT) consistently outperform bilingual models, indicating negative transfer from English to Chinese. We then present an interpretability analysis using feature attribution methods on two selected models, showing that the bilingual model may be worse at understanding the relations between words in the target sentences than the monolingual one. We are making our code publicly available in case of acceptance.

2 Method

2.1 Models

We consider a diverse set of pretrained transformer-based LLMs. Whereas many *multilingual* LLMs support both Chinese and English, we focus on the cross-language transfer specifically from English to Chinese. To eliminate possible influences from other languages, we work with bilingual (not multilingual) models. Specifically, we select four monolingual Chinese and four bilingual Chinese–English models based on their performance on common benchmarks and their number of parameters, to cover a variety of model sizes while staying within the limits of our available computational resources. The models and their number of parame-

Model	# param.	Languages
ERNIE	10B	Chinese
CPM	2.6B	Chinese
PANGU	2.6B	Chinese
BERT	0.11B	Chinese
QWEN	14B	Chinese-English
BAICHUAN	7B	Chinese-English
YI	6B	Chinese-English
CHATGLM	6B	Chinese-English

Table 1: Monolingual and bilingual models we consider.

ters are listed in Table 1. Note that the monolingual models (except ERNIE) generally have fewer parameters, giving the bilingual models a possible advantage thanks to their size. In all cases, we use HuggingFace implementations.

The monolingual Chinese models include (1) Ernie-3.0 (Sun et al., 2021), which combines masked and autoregressive training objectives and is trained on 4TB of both textual data and structured knowledge graphs, (2) CPM (Zhang et al., 2021) trained on 100GB Chinese text and tailored to Chinese NLP tasks, (3) Pangu-alpha-2.6B (Zeng et al., 2021), the smallest of the Pangu family of autoregressive models, trained on 100GB of Chinese text, and (4) Chinese BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), a much smaller model considered for reference.

The bilingual Chinese-English models include (1) Qwen (Bai et al., 2023), the base Qwen-family model trained on 3 trillion tokens, (2) Baichuan-7B (Baichuan, 2023), the smaller of the first-generation Baichuan models, trained on 1.2 trillion tokens, (3) Yi-6B (Young et al., 2024), a Yi-family model trained on a 3.1 trillion high-quality Chinese-English tokens, and (4) ChatGLM3-6B (Zeng et al., 2024), a GLM series model optimized for Chinese question answering and dialogue.

2.2 Benchmarks

We evaluate our models on two commonly used linguistic benchmarks of minimal pairs in Chinese: CLiMP (Xiang et al., 2021) and SLING (Song et al., 2022). CLiMP is the Chinese adaptation of the English BLiMP benchmark (Warstadt et al., 2020). It has been criticized for its use of translations that do not naturally reflect Chinese linguistic phenomena. To address this limitation, the second benchmark, SLING, derives its minimal pairs from naturally occurring annotated Chinese sentences and applies syntactic and lexical transformations specifically

designed for Chinese grammar, offering a more ecologically valid evaluation framework. Together, these benchmarks contain 18 Chinese linguistic phenomena sub-divided into 55 paradigms with more than 50k minimal pairs of sentences.

For most of the paradigms in the evaluation benchmarks, each minimal pair consists of one grammatical and one ungrammatical sentence. For example, in the SLING *Alternative Question* paradigm, the sentence with the 吗 (ma) particle is always ungrammatical, since this particle can only be used in yes-no (but not alternative) questions:

- (1) 她们是飞行员 还是 制片人 [吗*] ?
they be pilot or producer [Q*] ?
‘Are they pilots or producers?’

However, in eight SLING *Anaphor* paradigms (*baseline female/male*, *baseline cl female/male*, *baseline cl man female/male*, *baseline cl men female/male*), both sentences are grammatical. A model’s score in these paradigms indicates its preference towards one or the other sentence (i.e., bias) rather than accuracy, e.g., for *baseline female*:

- (2) 女队员 攻击了 [她 / 他] 。
female.team.member attacked [she / he] .
‘The female team member attacked her/him.’

2.3 Evaluation

We use the standard method of evaluating the models on minimal pairs. In each pair, sentence perplexity (or pseudo-perplexity, for masked models) values are computed, and the sentence with a lower perplexity is taken to reflect the model’s preference. This preference is then compared to the ground-truth data, and the model’s accuracy for each paradigm is computed.

For each paradigm, we then compare the accuracy values of the 4 monolingual models against those of the 4 bilingual models. In case of positive cross-lingual transfer, one could expect the bilingual models to show higher accuracy values. However, if we observe that for some of the paradigms the monolingual models (which are also generally smaller) consistently outperform the bilingual ones, this can be seen as evidence of negative cross-lingual transfer.

The evaluations and analyses were run on a single Nvidia V100 GPU with 32GB memory, with a total time of 30 hours. We provide the results below, followed by a feature attribution analysis.

Paradigm	Monolingual models				Bilingual models			
	ERNIE	CPM	PANGU	BERT	QWEN	BAICHUAN	YI	CHATGLM
Coverb								
—”— with	82.3	61.7	73.5	84.7	86.2	84.9	84.8	84.8
Verb complement								
—”— res adj	59.7	25.9	59.3	87.6	92.1	95.2	91.1	90.9
—”— res verb	92.8	96.7	90.1	96.2	61.2	65.7	64.2	61.4
Alternative Question								
haishi ma	94.6	85.8	10.0	93.1	9.8	26.6	6.5	64.0
Anaphor (Gender)								
baseline female	92.9	89.8	95.9	86.7	32.1	66.2	70.3	67.1
Anaphor (Number)								
baseline cl female	99.5	77.9	0.0	99.4	10.1	16.2	29.4	40.7
baseline cl male	99.9	75.1	0.0	99.6	26.0	42.9	47.6	45.3
baseline cl men female	99.5	88.8	0.0	99.4	5.9	9.7	25.3	34.8
baseline cl men male	100	87.6	0.0	100	17.9	38.0	38.9	43.2
baseline men female	99.3	51.8	0.0	98.0	6.7	9.4	28.7	41.4
cl men self female	98.3	96.2	0.0	100	87.5	95.4	84.0	77.9
cl self female	99.2	88.8	0.0	99.9	74.8	82.8	62.4	70.2
Definiteness Effect								
every	96.2	92.5	87.7	94.6	88.0	69.2	58.7	84.9
Polarity Item								
even wh	85.8	42.3	47.7	52.4	97.7	98.4	96.9	98.0
more or less	98.3	98.6	97.6	97.9	86.2	96.8	93.3	79.5
Relative Clause								
rc resumptive pronoun	54.8	18.6	11.8	42.7	64.3	77.8	68.1	60.8

Table 2: The models’ performance (accuracy scores, in percentages) in selected CLiMP (top part) and SLING (bottom part) paradigms. In each row (paradigm), four highest scores are highlighted in bold.

3 Results and analyses

3.1 Model performance

For the majority of paradigms in both benchmarks, we do not observe consistent differences between monolingual and bilingual models’ scores (see Tables A1–A2 in the Appendix). This result is expected, due to large variation in model architectures and the amounts of data they are trained on.

At the same time, from Table 2 we see that 3 out of 16 CLiMP paradigms and 4 out of 39 SLING paradigms yield very consistent differences between bilingual and monolingual model scores, and for 9 more SLING paradigms the differences are consistent except the inexplicably low performance of the monolingual PANGU model. Adding up these numbers, we observe reliable differences in 16 out of the 55 paradigms (29%). To compute how likely this result may occur by chance, we use bootstrapping, randomly sampling two sets of four scores (in the range between 0.00 and 100.00) 55

times to see whether we obtain the result like ours or more extreme (i.e., for at least 7 cases all scores in one set are greater than those in the other set, and for at least 9 more cases three scores from one set are greater than all scores in the other set). Having repeated this process 100k times, we estimate the probability of obtaining a result like ours (or more extreme) to be 0.069%, a very low value.

Out of the 16 paradigms with consistent differences, bilingual models show higher scores in 4 paradigms, indicating either positive cross-lingual transfer or the bilingual models’ advantage because of their larger sizes. The monolingual models are better in 12 paradigms, indicating negative transfer. In other words, these results suggest that negative cross-lingual transfer is common in bilingual language models, and having English training data in addition to Chinese is not always helpful.

We have shown that monolingual models (including the much smaller BERT) score better than bilingual models on some linguistic paradigms, and that

this result is statistically unlikely. We now turn to analyzing the profiles of models’ feature attribution to answer the question: Can the different scores of monolingual vs. bilingual models be explained by the differences in how well they understand the key relations between words in target sentences?

3.2 Feature attribution analysis

We investigate how the important words from the left context affect the generation of the target word in the sentences from the two evaluation benchmarks above. Consider again example (1) from Section 2.2. After reading the last word 制片人 (‘producer’), a human speaker should note the presence of the word 还是 (‘or’), which indicates an alternative question and calls for the end of sentence rather than the 吗 (ma) particle. Analogously, in the context of LLMs, after decoding 制片人 (‘producer’), to generate an appropriate token, the model should focus on the token 还是 (‘or’). This *keyword* suggests that the end of sentence (in this case, a question mark) is a more appropriate token to generate than the 吗 (ma) particle. Consequently, we expect a (monolingual) model with higher performance on the paradigm represented by this sentence to assign a higher importance value to the keyword (here: 还是, ‘or’) during the generation of a target token (here: question mark), compared to a (bilingual) model with lower performance.

To test this hypothesis, we use the Inseq interpretability toolkit (Sarti et al., 2023), which is well suited to analyze feature attribution using gradient-based methods. Given the left context, we force a model to decode the next target token from the grammatical sentence (the question mark in the example above). We then use the integrated gradients method to compute the distribution of importance scores for all preceding tokens and extract the (normalized) score for the keyword (还是, ‘or’, in the example above). Finally, we compare the scores for a monolingual and a bilingual model.

We focus on one monolingual (CPM) and one bilingual model (YI), thanks to their Inseq support. Furthermore, we only consider two SLING paradigms (*Anaphor gender: baseline female* and *Alternative question: haishi ma*), as the rest were either incompatible with left-to-right processing (i.e., generating the correct target token requires right sentence context) or yielded tokenization patterns of the keyword and/or the target token that were different across the two models (CPM and YI), which would generate multiple scores per word and

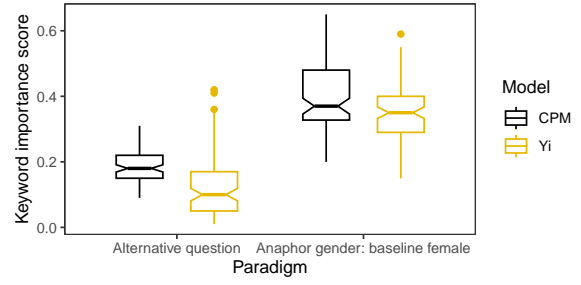


Figure 1: Keyword importance scores of the monolingual CPM and bilingual YI model in two paradigms.

possibly render the comparison unfair. For each paradigm, we consider the first 100 grammatical sentences. We extract the importance scores as described above for both models, compare their means and test whether there are statistically significant differences using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Wilcoxon, 1992) while correcting for false discovery rate (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

From Figure 1, we see that in both paradigms the monolingual model yields higher keyword importance scores than the bilingual one. Our statistical tests confirm that the differences are significant, with both $p < .001$. This suggests that, indeed, the monolingual CPM model better captures the relations between the keyword and the target token, which can explain its higher performance on some paradigms compared to the bilingual YI model.

4 Conclusion

We have evaluated four monolingual Chinese and four bilingual Chinese–English models on two Chinese linguistic benchmarks. Monolingual models, despite their smaller sizes, consistently outperform bilingual ones on a number of paradigms, a statistically unlikely result which suggests that bilingual Chinese–English models suffer from negative cross-lingual transfer. This extends the results on negative transfer generally reported for *multilingual* models (Chang et al., 2023) to a bilingual setting where a model is trained on two high-resource languages well-represented in models’ training data. Our findings have implications for the ongoing effort of training bilingual LLMs on high-resource languages (Faysse et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024; Nikolich et al., 2024, etc.). Our feature attribution analysis suggests that the higher scores of the monolingual models may have to do with their better (compared to the bilingual models) understanding of the key relations between words.

5 Limitations

This study only focuses on one language pair, English and Chinese, and only one direction of cross-lingual transfer (English to Chinese). It is unclear whether the results would generalize to other language pairs or to transfer from Chinese to English. We only consider a total of eight LLMs, all with 14B parameters or less, and the results may be different for larger models. The models we have compared differ on many dimensions, including architecture, size, objective, while ideally one would compare a monolingual and a bilingual model that only differ in their training data (one vs. two languages), to focus on the impact of bilingual training. The benchmarks we use, CLiMP and SLING, also come with limitations, namely they only evaluate the models’ linguistic knowledge. Our interpretability analysis is further limited to only two paradigms, a constraint imposed by our method’s requirement of left-to-right processing and by different tokenization schemes used in the models.

As we only evaluate existing models, we do not anticipate any risks related to misuse or negative application of the results presented in our study. However, our focus on the two languages with the highest amount of training data available contributes to underexposure of lower-resource languages.

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A Appendix A. Detailed evaluation scores

Paradigm	Monolingual models				Bilingual models			
	ERNIE	CPM	PANGU	BERT	QWEN	BAICHUAN	YI	CHATGLM
Anaphor agreement								
—”— gender	85.6	79.9	92.6	86.2	64.0	86.5	62.5	77.4
Binding								
—”— gender	54.2	51.3	61.2	50.8	50.0	58.6	51.2	81.0
ba construction								
—”—	63.0	57.8	19.3	69.0	62.4	74.3	73.5	60.7
Coverb								
—”— instrument	57.5	36.0	54.1	91.1	80.8	79.5	80.5	79.0
—”— with	82.3	61.7	73.5	84.7	86.2	84.9	84.8	84.8
NP head finality								
—”— clause	67.1	86.5	65.6	53.1	80.3	76.8	80.6	80.2
Classifier								
—”—	85.8	57.1	76.0	95.6	92.4	90.2	90.2	93.8
—”— adj	87.8	55.5	69.1	93.2	91.8	84.2	87.0	88.1
—”— clause	84.3	52.2	66.5	90.0	89.3	80.8	84.3	80.9
Filler gap								
—”— dependency	87.3	62.3	91.9	62.4	71.1	65.2	70.3	64.9
Passive								
—”— formal	60.9	47.0	61.6	67.1	53.8	50.3	49.2	60.2
Verb complement								
—”— direction	96.2	81.4	80.1	93.0	85.0	91.8	86.1	84.0
—”— duration	92.8	83.6	82.6	90.2	89.7	92.8	94.2	86.9
—”— frequency	98.4	48.8	75.6	97.8	19.9	25.4	32.6	81.3
—”— res adj	59.7	25.9	59.3	87.6	92.1	95.2	91.1	90.9
—”— res verb	92.8	96.7	90.1	96.2	61.2	65.7	61.4	64.2

Table A1: The models’ performance (accuracy scores, in percentages) on CLiMP paradigms. Four highest scores in each paradigm are highlighted in boldface.

Paradigm	Monolingual models				Bilingual models			
	ERNIE	CPM	PANGU	BERT	QWEN	BAICHUAN	YI	CHATGLM
Alternative Question								
haishi ma	94.6	85.8	10.0	93.1	9.8	26.6	6.5	64.0
Anaphor (Gender)								
baseline female	92.9	89.8	95.9	86.7	32.1	66.2	70.3	67.1
baseline male	30.4	53.8	100.0	46.1	48.9	34.7	47.7	64.5
pp female	59.1	95.2	98.6	87.0	77.3	96.3	69.6	78.3
pp male	38.8	46.3	99.9	76.0	79.8	21.0	73.8	74.2
self female	92.8	66.4	97.3	93.3	100.0	99.4	97.2	90.4
self male	70.7	86.7	100.0	88.4	0.1	75.0	21.0	47.4
Anaphor (Number)								
baseline cl female	99.5	77.9	0.0	99.4	10.1	16.2	29.4	40.7
baseline cl male	99.9	75.1	0.0	99.6	26.0	42.9	47.6	45.3
baseline cl men female	99.5	88.8	0.0	99.4	5.9	9.7	25.3	34.8
baseline cl men male	100.0	87.6	0.0	100.0	17.9	38.0	38.9	43.2
baseline men female	99.3	51.8	0.0	98.0	6.7	9.4	28.7	41.4
baseline men male	99.7	49.5	0.1	99.7	20.2	40.4	41.1	52.8
cl men self female	98.3	96.2	0.0	100.0	87.5	95.4	84.0	77.9
cl men self male	99.6	97.1	0.0	100.0	100.0	99.7	98.8	93.3
cl self female	99.2	88.8	0.0	99.9	74.8	82.8	62.4	70.2
cl self male	99.5	85.8	0.1	99.9	100.0	96.3	97.5	92.2
manself female	96.1	67.4	0.0	98.8	89.2	83.4	80.5	61.3
manself male	98.3	61.1	0.0	99.3	100.0	98.7	98.7	94.3
Aspect								
temporal guo	91.8	79.7	72.4	95.5	81.3	82.8	92.1	93.2
temporal le	59.7	78.8	73.9	65.2	63.2	64.8	70.5	74.6
zai guo	92.0	78.6	65.4	97.9	77.5	87.6	79.7	79.4
zai no le	64.8	0.8	16.1	85.2	53.8	50.0	57.0	59.4
Classifier-Noun								
cl adj comp noun	69.7	55.6	53.4	70.7	66.4	66.1	64.4	63.0
cl adj comp noun v2	85.5	46.0	50.7	87.5	70.6	71.9	76.8	62.8
cl adj simple noun	93.1	58.9	77.1	96.5	92.8	92.9	93.0	79.8
cl comp noun	65.6	51.0	53.8	69.8	62.9	68.8	59.7	67.6
cl comp noun v2	85.1	45.2	55.5	86.7	70.2	70.0	78.2	76.8
cl simple noun	96.1	61.2	85.0	98.5	96.0	95.1	94.7	88.4
dem cl swap	99.5	52.5	85.7	99.8	88.7	92.1	92.7	88.7
Definiteness Effect								
demonstrative	93.9	48.3	49.3	98.2	83.4	58.0	44.5	70.6
every	96.2	92.5	87.7	94.6	88.0	69.2	58.7	84.9
Polarity Item								
any	85.2	95.9	93.6	65.8	82.9	92.1	77.2	95.4
even wh	85.8	42.3	47.7	52.4	97.7	98.4	96.9	98.0
more or less	98.3	98.6	97.6	97.9	86.2	96.8	93.3	79.5
Relative Clause								
rc resumptive noun	15.2	82.1	16.7	25.6	37.9	25.8	31.4	24.7
rc resumptive pronoun	54.8	18.6	11.8	42.7	64.3	77.8	68.1	60.8
Wh-fronting								
bare wh	100.0	96.6	99.7	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
mod wh	100.0	90.7	88.8	99.5	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.6

Table A2: The models' performance (accuracy scores, in percentages) on SLING paradigms. Four highest scores in each paradigm are highlighted in boldface.