Revisiting zero-shot cross-lingual topic identification: baselines, languages and evaluation

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

In this paper, we revisit cross-lingual topic identification (ID) in zero-shot settings by taking a deeper dive into current datasets, baseline systems and the languages covered. We identify shortcomings in the existing MLDoc evaluation protocol and propose a robust alternative scheme, while also extending the 800 cross-lingual experimental setup to 17 languages. We benchmark several systems that are based on existing multilingual models such as LASER, XLM-R, mUSE, and LaBSE on 011 012 the new evaluation protocol covering 17 languages. Further, we present a novel Bayesian multilingual document model (MBay) for 014 learning language-independent document em-015 beddings. The model learns to represent the 017 document embeddings in the form of Gaussian distributions, thereby encoding the uncertainty in its covariance. We propagate the learned uncertainties through linear classifiers that benefit in zero-shot cross-lingual topic ID. Our experiments on 17 languages show that the proposed multilingual Bayesian document model performs competitively as compared to other systems based on LASER, XLM-R and mUSE on 8 high resource languages, and outperforms these systems on 9 mid-resource languages. Fi-027 nally, we consolidate the observations from all our experiments, and discuss points that can potentially benefit the future research works in the area of cross-lingual topic ID.

1 Introduction

033The zero-shot cross-lingual topic identification (ID)034or document classification aims to classify doc-035uments from target languages using a classifier036trained on examples from one or more source lan-037guage(s). This is mainly useful in scenarios where038the data from target language(s) have little or no039labels to train an in-language classifier. The cross-040lingual transfer experiments can also help to anal-041yse and test the capabilities of an underlying multi-042lingual language model.

The common approach is to first train a multilingual language model that aims to capture the semantic relations of words in context, independent of the language (Ammar et al., 2016; Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019; Huang et al., 2019; Conneau et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2020). Such a multilingual model can then later be either (i) fine-tuned for classification (Siddhant et al., 2020) task using labelled examples from source language(s), or (ii) used to extract low-dimensional embeddings (representations) for documents from both source and target languages (Reimers and Gurevych, 2020); the embeddings from source language(s) together with annotated labels are then used for training a light-weight independent classifier for crosslingual topic ID, which is then used to classify embeddings from target languages.

043

044

045

046

050

051

052

057

058

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

069

070

071

072

073

074

075

076

077

078

079

081

The former approach relying on fine-tuning is not efficient as it would require to keep a copy of the entire multilingual model for every source language, and every down-stream task. The latter approach of extracting language-agnostic document (sentence) embeddings is more practical as it would require only one model, and several light-weight downstream classifiers. This paper entirely focuses on models, experiments and analysis related to the latter scheme relying on language agnostic document embeddings, followed by a light-weight classifier.

1.1 Training multilingual models

Majority, if not all, of the recent works in multilingual representations for cross-lingual transfers have relied on training LSTMs (Schwenk and Douze, 2017; Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019) or transformers (Wu and Dredze, 2019; Conneau et al., 2020) with huge amounts of data (e.g. 227M - 25B sentences) (Wu and Dredze, 2019; Siddhant et al., 2020). The pre-training objectives vary depending on the kind of resources used for training such models. In brief, some require parallel translations

of sentences across multiple languages, while others rely on bilingual dictionaries (Ammar et al., 084 2016) or just monolingual texts covering several languages. Training these large multilingual language models requires enormous computational resources (Strubell et al., 2019), there is a need for alternatives that are computationally efficient. A majority of the large multilingual models share a vocabulary of sub-word units across several (100) seed languages. One needs to take care so that all the languages are equally represented in the shared (sub-)word vocabulary to avoid any language bias from the high resource languages. Additionally, such a design choice makes it challenging to extend these models to newer languages having a different orthography. A fair comparison among these language models is nearly impossible as no two models are trained on exactly the same data. 100 The comparisons are only on the downstream tasks 101 while ignoring the affect of the quality and quan-102 tity of pre-training data. When training on large 103 amounts of web-data it is possible that some of the down-stream data could have been seen during 105 pre-training. Extensive survey on the aforemen-106 107 tioned models/approaches can be found in (Ruder et al., 2019; Doddapaneni et al., 2021). In contrast

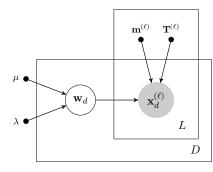


Figure 1: Graphical representation of the proposed multilingual Bayesian model, where *L* represents number of languages and *D* denotes number of *L*-way parallel documents (translations). $\{\mathbf{m}^{(\ell)}, \mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}\} \forall \ell$ are document-independent, language-specific model parameters, whereas \mathbf{w}_d is document-specific but language-independent random variable (embedding), and $\mathbf{x}_d^{(\ell)}$ is the observed vector of word counts representing document *d* from language ℓ .

to the neural models, there is also work on classical multilingual topic models (Mimno et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2019), which are suitable for topic ID and document clustering. While these models are budget-friendly in terms of computation, the downstream evaluation datasets and tasks (Schwenk and Li, 2018; Kakwani et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2020) do not overlap between neural and classical models,

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

hence it is difficult to ascertain the advantages of the latter over former.

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

160

161

1.2 Contributions of the paper

- We propose a simple, yet efficient multilingual Bayesian (MBay) model for learning language-agnostic document (sentence) embeddings, that enables to train robust downstream linear classifiers for zero-shot crosslingual topic ID.
- The proposed model can be easily extended to newer languages without requiring to retrain from scratch (continual learning), while constraining only on a subset of existing parameters, thus making it computation-budgetfriendly.
- We re-visit the zero-shot cross-lingual document classification task, and make the following contributions: (i) we identify the shortcomings in evaluation, and propose a robust alternative, (ii) we setup and evaluate zeroshot transfer systems on a new set of 9 languages from IndicNLP suite (Kakwani et al., 2020), in addition to the existing 8 from ML-Doc (Schwenk and Li, 2018), (iii) we benchmark several pre-trained models, and also the proposed model on the revised datasets covering 17 languages (128 transfer directions¹, and (iv) we provide an in depth analysis of the downstream classification systems, that can best make use of the language-agnostic document (sentence) embeddings from various models.

2 MBay: Multilingual Bayesian Model

Like majority of the probabilistic topic and document models (Blei, 2012; Miao et al., 2016), the presented model also relies on *bag-of-words* representation of documents. Let $V^{(\ell)}$ represent the vocabulary size in language $\ell \in \mathcal{M}$, where $L = |\mathcal{M}|$ denotes the number of languages. Let $\{\mathbf{m}^{(\ell)}, \mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}\} \forall \ell$ represent the language-specific model parameters, where $\mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}$ is a low-rank matrix of size $V^{(\ell)} \times K$ ($K \ll V^{(\ell)}$) that defines the subspace of document specific unigram distributions, and $\mathbf{m}^{(\ell)} \in \mathbb{R}^{V^{(\ell)}}$ represents bias or offset. The multilingual model assumes that the *L*-way

¹9 languages from IndicNLP news articles dataset resulting in $9 \times 8 = 72$, and 8 languages from MLDoc resulting in $8 \times 7 = 56$ transfer directions (72 + 56 = 128).

211

212

215

216

217

218

219

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

$$\mathcal{L}(q_d) \approx \sum_{\forall \ell \in \mathcal{M}} \sum_{i=1}^{V^{(\ell)}} x_{di}^{(\ell)} \left[\left(m_i^{(\ell)} + \mathbf{t}_i^{(\ell)} \, \boldsymbol{\nu}_d \right) \right]$$

which appears in the lower-bound (Kesiraju et al.,

2020). The resulting lower-bound for a single set

of L-way parallel documents is

$$-\frac{1}{R}\sum_{r=1}^{R}\log\left(\sum_{j=1}^{V}\exp\{m_{j}^{(\ell)}+\mathbf{t}_{j}^{(\ell)}g(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{dr})\}\right)\right]$$
 21

$$-D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q_d \mid\mid p), \quad (3)$$

where $D_{\text{KL}}(q_d \mid\mid p)$ is the Kullback-Leibler divergence from variational distribution $q(\mathbf{w})$ to the prior (1) and, $g(\epsilon_{dr}) = \boldsymbol{\nu} + \boldsymbol{\gamma} \odot \tilde{\epsilon}_{dr}$, with $\tilde{\epsilon}_{dr} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \mid \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. *R* are the number of Monte Carlo samples used for empirically approximating the expectation over log-sum-exp.

The complete lower-bound is just the summation over all the documents. Additionally, we use ℓ_2 regularization term with weight ω for languagespecific model parameters $\{\mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}\} \forall \ell$. Thus, the final objective is

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{d=1}^{D} \mathcal{L}(q_d) - \omega \sum_{\forall \ell \in \mathcal{M}} \sum_{i=1}^{V^{(\ell)}} || \mathbf{t}_i^{(\ell)} ||_2. \quad (4)$$

In practice, we follow batch-wise stochastic optimization of (4) using ADAM (Kingma and Ba, 2015). For a batch of documents $d \in \mathcal{B}$ covering a subset of languages $\mathcal{M}_B \subseteq \mathcal{M}$, we update the all model parameters $\{\mathbf{m}^{(\ell)}, \mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}\} \forall \ell \in \mathcal{M}_B$ and the variational posterior distribution of document embeddings $q(\mathbf{w}_d) \forall d \in \mathcal{B}$.

2.2 Extending to newer languages

Since the model uses language-specific parameters and vocabulary, it is possible to extend the model to a new set languages (denoted by $\overline{\mathcal{M}}$) without retraining from scratch. The necessary conditions are that every new language ($\overline{\ell}$) should have parallel text with at least one other language from $\mathcal{M} \cup \overline{\mathcal{M}}$ subject to the constraint that there exists at least one parallel pair between \mathcal{M} and $\overline{\mathcal{M}}$. This can be seen as continual learning, and requires only to learn the parameters corresponding to the newer languages $\{\mathbf{m}^{(\overline{\ell})}, \mathbf{T}^{(\overline{\ell})}\} \forall \overline{\ell} \in \overline{\mathcal{M}}$. It also means that the performance on existing seed languages is unaffected with the addition of newer languages. In this paper, we show the results from experiments where we start with a seed model covering 6 languages,

parallel data (translations of *bag-of-words*) are generated according to the following process:

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171 172

173

174

176

177

178

179

180

181

183

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

197

198

199

200

201

206

208

First, a *K*-dimensional language-independent, document-specific embedding is sampled from an isotropic Gaussian distribution with precision λ

$$\mathbf{w}_d \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{0}, (\lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}). \tag{1}$$

 \mathbf{w}_d can be interpreted as vector representing higherlevel semantic concepts (such as topic) of a document, independent of any language. For each language $\ell \in \mathcal{M}$, a vector of word counts $\mathbf{x}_d^{(\ell)}$ is generated by the following two steps: The documentspecific unigram distribution $\phi_d^{(\ell)}$ is computed using the language-specific parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}_{d}^{(\ell)} = \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{m}^{(\ell)} + \mathbf{T}^{(\ell)} \mathbf{w}_{d}), \qquad (2)$$

and the vector of word counts $\mathbf{x}_d^{(\ell)}$ is sampled $\mathbf{x}_d^{(\ell)} \sim \text{Multinomial}(\phi_d^{(\ell)}, N_d^{(\ell)})$, where $N_d^{(\ell)}$ are the number of word tokens in document d. $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} \dots \mathbf{x}^{(L)}$ represent L-way parallel *bag-of-words* statistics.

The above steps describe the generative process of the proposed multilingual document model. However, in reality, we do not generate any data, instead we invert the generative process: given the training (observed) data $\mathbf{x}_d^{(\ell)} \forall \ell \in \mathcal{M}, \forall d =$ $1 \dots D$, we estimate the language-specific model parameters $\{\mathbf{m}^{(\ell)}, \mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}\}$ and also the posterior distributions of language-independent document embeddings $p(\mathbf{w}_d | \mathbf{x}_d^{(1)} \dots \mathbf{x}_d^{(L)}) \forall d$. Moreover, given an unseen document $\mathbf{x}_u^{(\ell)}$ from any of the *L* languages, we infer the corresponding posterior distribution of the document embedding $p(\mathbf{w}_u | \mathbf{x}_u^{(\ell)})$. Note that such a posterior distribution also carries the uncertainty about the estimate.

Although we describe the model assuming *L*way parallel data, in practice the model can be trained with parallel text (translations) between language pairs (bi-texts) covering all the *L* languages.

2.1 Variational Bayes training

The proposed model is trained using the variational Bayes framework, i.e., we approximate the intractable true posterior with the variational distribution $q(\mathbf{w}_d) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}_d \mid \boldsymbol{\nu}_d, \operatorname{diag}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_d)^{-1})$ and optimize the evidence lower-bound (Bishop, 2006). Further, we use Monte Carlo samples via the reparametrization trick (Kingma and Welling, 2014; Rezende et al., 2014) to approximate the expectation over log-sum-exp (log normalizer) term

254

256

260

261 262

265

268

3

271

273

274 275

276

278

281

279

282

287

290

291

294

295

296

2

Generative classifier 3.1

with uncertainty (MCLRU).

In generative classifiers, the posterior probability of class label (C_k) given a feature vector (embedding) w is computed from the joint distribution

which is then extended to 11 newer languages. Sim-

ilar approaches are also explored for multilingual

Given a bag-of-word statistics from an unseen doc-

ument from any of the $\ell \in \mathcal{M} \cup \overline{\mathcal{M}}$ languages,

we can infer (extract) the corresponding document

embedding along with its uncertainty. This is done

by keeping the language-specific model parameters

 $\{\mathbf{m}^{(\ell)}, \mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}\}\$ constant, and iteratively optimizing

the objective in (3) with respect to the parameters

of the variational distribution. In the resulting vari-

ational posterior $q(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} \mid \boldsymbol{\nu}, \operatorname{diag}(\boldsymbol{\gamma})^{-1}),$

the mean ν represents the (most likely) document

embedding, and variance $\operatorname{diag}(\gamma)^{-1}$ encodes the

uncertainty around the mean ν . Since all the docu-

ments and language-specific model parameters are independent (Fig. 1), inferring the embeddings can

Classification exploiting uncertainties

In a typical setting where we have only point esti-

mates of embeddings, all the embeddings are con-

sidered equally important by a classifier. This may

not be true all the time. For example, shorter and

documents with many rare words can result in poor

estimates of the embeddings; which can affect pa-

rameters of the classifier during training, and also

the performance during prediction. Additionally,

there might be noise while projecting embeddings

from multiple languages into the same semantically aligned latent space. The proposed model yields

document embeddings represented by Gaussian

distributions, with the uncertainty about the embed-

ding encoded in the covariance. These uncertainties

are specific to each example and can be seen as het-

eroscedastic aleatoric uncertainties (Kendall and

Gal, 2017). We present two linear classifiers that

can exploit this uncertainty. The first one is the gen-

erative Gaussian linear classifier with uncertainty (GLCU) (Kesiraju et al., 2020). The second one

is the discriminative multi-class logistic regression

be parallelized and is computationally cheaper.

neural machine translation (Bérard, 2021).

2.3 Inferring embeddings

97
$$p(\mathcal{C}_k \mid \mathbf{w}) = \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathcal{C}_k) p(\mathcal{C}_k)}{\sum_j p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathcal{C}_j) p(\mathcal{C}_j)}$$
(5)

where, $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w} \mid C_k)$ is the likelihood function parametrized by θ , and $p(\mathcal{C}_k)$ is the class prior. In generative classifiers, the likelihood function is assumed to have a known parametric form (e.g. Gaussian, Multinomial). For Gaussian linear classifier (GLC), the likelihood function is $p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{w} \mid C_k) =$ $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{w} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \mathbf{S}^{-1})$, where \boldsymbol{w} is the input feature (point estimate of the embedding), μ_k is the mean of class C_k , and **S** is the precision matrix shared across all the classes.

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

Given that the input features come in the form of Gaussian distributions, i.e., $q(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} \mid$ ν , diag $(\gamma)^{-1}$), we can integrate out (exploit) the uncertainty in the input while evaluating the likelihood function. In the case of GLC, where the likelihood function is also Gaussian, the expected likelihood has an analytical form:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q}[p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathcal{C}_{k})] = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\nu} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \mathbf{S}^{-1} + \operatorname{diag}(\boldsymbol{\gamma})^{-1}).$$
(6)

GLC with likelihood function replaced by (6) is called GLCU. Both are essentially the same classifiers, i.e., they have the same assumptions about the underlying data and hence the same model parameters. The only difference lies in the evaluation of likelihood function.

3.2 **Discriminative classifier**

For discriminative classifier such as multi-class logistic regression (LR), the posterior probability of a class (\mathcal{C}_k) given an input feature vector w is

$$p(\mathcal{C}_k \mid \mathbf{w}) = \frac{\exp\{\mathbf{h}_k^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{w} + b_k\}}{\sum_j \exp\{\mathbf{h}_j^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{w} + b_j\}}, \qquad (7)$$

where $\{b_k, \mathbf{h}_k\} \forall k$ are the parameters of the classifier. Unlike in GLC, we cannot analytically compute the expectation over (7) with-respect-to the input embeddings (Gaussian distributions). Instead we approximate the expectation using Monte Carlo samples (Xiao and Wang, 2019):

$$p(\mathcal{C}_k \mid \mathbf{w}) \approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{\exp\{\mathbf{h}_k^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_m + b_k\}}{\sum_j \exp\{\mathbf{h}_j^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_m + b_j\}}, \quad (8)$$

 $\varepsilon_m \sim q(\mathbf{w}) \,\forall m$. Eq. (8) represents the posterior probability computation for logistic regression with uncertainty (LRU).

Theoretically, given the true uncertainties in the training examples, GLCU and LRU can better estimate the model parameters of the classifier. Similarly, it can also exploit the uncertainties in the test

examples during prediction. However, in our case, the uncertainties are estimated using the Bayesian multilingual document model as described in Section 2.3. The underlying assumption here is that uncertainties extracted using the model are close enough to the true uncertainties as expected by the classifiers, which is empirically supported through our experimental results presented in Section 5.

4 Experimental setup

This section presents the details on data for multilingual training of MBay model and dataset preparation for downstream classification (topic ID) task. We also discuss the details of various pre-trained multilingual models and downstream classifiers that are used in our experiments.

4.1 Data for multilingual training

358

367

373

374

375

379

384

386

The following datasets were used for training the proposed MBay model. Europarl(v7) (Koehn, 2005), UNPC(v1) (Ziemski et al., 2016), MultiUN(v1) (Eisele and Chen, 2010), Global-Voices(v2018q4) (Tiedemann, 2012), News-Commentary(v16) (Akhbardeh et al., 2021), CVIT(PIBv1.3, MKB) (Siripragada et al., 2020), Samanantar(indic2indic) (Ramesh et al., 2022), Japanese-English Wikipedia, and CCAligned(EN-JA) (El-Kishky et al., 2020). The total number of sentences used are 17.89M covering 17 languages. All the words were lower-cased and punctuation was stripped. Further, words that do not occur in at least two sentences were removed. We used scikitlearn (Pedregosa et al., 2011) for pre-processing. More details are given in Appendix A.

4.2 Dataset preparation for topic ID

The MLDoc corpus original was prepared (Schwenk and Li, 2018) in order to have a standard training, development (dev) and test sets across 8 languages². The usual setup contains 1000 samples each or training and dev, and 4000 for test, across 4 classes (topics). The aim was to create a class balanced sets (uniform class prior), which gives us 250 samples per topic in both training and dev, and 1000 samples per topic in the test. However, not every language in the original Reuters Multilingual Corpus (RCV) has enough examples, hence the class prior is not uniform (Schwenk and Li, 2018). Moreover, it only covers a small subset (6000 samples in total)

²DE, EN, ES FR, IT, JA, RU, ZH

of the actual RCV corpus, and results from such as smaller subset tend be less certain. To address this, we use the MLDoc data preparation scripts, and create 5 different splits of the data, where each split contains the same aforementioned number of training, dev and test samples. This is analogous to a 5-fold cross-validation scheme. The mean and standard deviations across 5 splits are reported during evaluation. The experimental results show that such a robust evaluation is needed as the standard deviation across 5 splits is noticeable (see Section 5 and Appendix E). 388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

IndicNLP-suite (Kakwani et al., 2020) contains several resources for NLP in Indian languages. From this suite, we take the IndicNLP news articles (INA for short) classification dataset, and prepare a cross-lingual setup similar to that of ML-Doc. The INA comprises of 9 languages³ covering 7 classes (topics). However, not all the 7 topics are present in the news articles across all the 9 languages. In order to make cross-lingual experiments across multiple languages, we consider two setups: A two-class setup covering all 9 languages, and a three-class setup covering 5 languages. We keep at most of 250 samples per topic in both training and dev, and 1000 samples per topic in the test. Finally, we create 5 such splits, which allows us to report mean and standard deviations.

As we re-processed both MLDoc and INA datasets, we call the newer versions as MLDoc5x and INA5x respectively, where 5 represents the five different splits. Details in Appendix B.

							Avg. (s.d.)
5e-02	85.34	88.82	89.28	78.74	88.32	77.38	84.65 (4.84) 86.04 (4.34) 85.82 (4.58)
5e-03	85.88	90.72	89.70	80.78	89.36	79.78	86.04 (4.34)
5e-04	86.50	90.88	89.68	79.88	88.62	79.34	85.82 (4.58)

Table 1: In language classification accuracy (in %) on the dev sets of MLDoc5x for various hyper-parameters of MBay-6L seed model. The embedding dimension is fixed to 256 and the classifier is GLCU.

4.3 MBay configurations

The proposed Bayesian multilingual document model has two important hyper-parameters, i.e., latent (embedding) dimension K and ℓ_2 regularization weight ω corresponding to the model parameters $\{\mathbf{T}^{(\ell)}\} \forall \ell$. We fixed the embedding dimension to 256 and explored $\omega \in \{5e - 02, 5e - 03, 5e - 04\}$. The prior distribution (1) was set

³BN, GU, KN, ML, MR, OR, PA, TE, TA

to $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{0}, (0.1)\mathbf{I})$ and the variational distribu-428 tion $q(\mathbf{w})$ was initialized to be the same as prior. 429 This enabled us to use same learning rate for both 430 mean and variance parameters. The number of 431 Monte Carlo samples R for approximating the ob-432 jective function (4) was set to 8, which we found 433 to be a reasonable trade-off between computation 434 complexity and convergence speed. A maximum 435 batch size of 4096 was used during training. A con-436 stant learning rate of 5e - 02 was used both during 437 training and inference. The model is trained for 438 a maximum of 100 epochs and inference is done 439 fora maximum of 50 iterations. Our models are 440 implemented using PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2017) 441 and will be made public. 442

4.4 Topic ID systems for MBay

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

474

475

476

477

In total we trained 4 different linear classifiers on the embeddings extracted from MBay model. The first two linear classifiers, GLC and LR are trained using only the point estimates of the embeddings, i.e., using only the mean parameter (ν). The next two classifiers, GLCU and LRU are trained with the full posterior distributions of embeddings, $q(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} \mid \boldsymbol{\nu}, \operatorname{diag}(\boldsymbol{\gamma})^{-1})$, as described in Section 3. To better illustrate the importance of uncertainties during the test (prediction) time, we used the trained GLC and LR models, but during the prediction, we evaluate likelihood using the full posterior distributions (along with uncertainties) of the test document embeddings. This is valid because both GLC and GLCU have exactly the same model parameters (Section 3.1). Similarly LR and LRU have exactly the same model parameters (Section 3.2). We represent these two classifiers as GLCU-P and LRU-P, where -P denotes uncertainty exploited only during prediction.

The generative classifiers (GLC, GLCU) have no hyper-parameters to tune. We added ℓ_2 regularization term with weight $\alpha \in \{1e - 4, \dots 5e + 1\}$ for the parameters of LR, LRU. This classifier was trained for a maximum 100 epochs using ADAM with a constant learning rate of 5e-2. For LRU, we used M = 32 for the empirical approximation (8). M > 32 did not affect the classification performance significantly but, lower values degraded the performance about 5%.

Initially three MBay models were trained on 6 languages (DE, EN, ES, FR, IT, RU) with different hyper-parameters. We performed in-language classification on MLDoc5x using GLCU on these 6 languages and picked the MBay model configuration that gave the best performance on dev set. These results are presented in Table 1. We denote this seed model as MBay-6L. This model with the same hyper-parameter ($\omega = 5e - 03$) is then extended independently to {JA, ZH}, and to 9 Indian languages using EN as pivot (bridge). More details are in Appendix C.

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

503

504

505

506

507

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

521

522

523

524

525

4.5 Pre-trained multilingual models

There are numerous pre-trained multilingual models from which we picked the following⁴ based on their diversity in architecture, training criterion and overall performance.

LASER (Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019) is based on seq2seq BiLSTM trained in 223M parallel sentence covering 93 languages, sharing a common subword vocabulary. The language-agnostic embeddings are obtained by forward propagating through the encoder followed by a pooling layer.

XLM-R-stsb (Reimers and Gurevych, 2020) is based on sentence transformers (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) and XLM-R (Conneau et al., 2020), where knowledge distillation is used to adapt the the multilingual student model XLM-R to align the representations from BERT.

LaBSE (Feng et al., 2020) is based on dualencoder architecture and is trained on 17B monolingual sentences for MLM, and on 6B translation pairs for translation ranking task, covering 109 languages. The pre-trained model is available for public, whereas the exact training data is not.

Distill-mUSE is multilingual knowledge distilled version of mUSE (Yang et al., 2020). While the original was trained on 15 languages, this version supports 50 languages (Reimers and Gurevych, 2020).

We trained two different classifiers on the embeddings extracted pre-trained multilingual language models. The first one is a two layer perceptron (MLP) widely used in prior works (Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019). The second one is the LR.

5 Results and discussion

Here we present only the main zero-shot transfer results, while the detailed results are given in the Appendix E (Tables 9, 10, 11). The mean and std. deviation across 5 splits for MLDoc and INA are only presented in the Appendix. For LASER + MLP system, we observed around 14 points of std.

⁴More details are given in Table 8 from Appendix.

			Zero-s	hot trans	fer (sou	rce langu	age to tl	he rest)		ZS*	IL*
Model	Classifier	EN	DE	FR	IT	ES	RU	JA	ZH	Avg.	Avg.
LASER ^{ag}	MLP	73.28	73.47	71.98	70.84	68.13	69.08	66.29	72.53	70.70	88.46
LASER ^a	MLP	71.43	72.57	74.73	70.02	71.25	68.27	54.82	68.35	68.93	88.91
$LASER^{a}$	LR	70.52	73.12	75.80	70.56	74.99	66.27	48.37	68.46	65.81	88.65
$LASER^{p}$	MLP	74.76	75.02	75.93	69.55	69.41	69.32	60.95	68.00	70.37	87.81
LASER ^p	LR	73.97	75.19	75.75	70.22	73.93	68.68	61.70	69.34	71.10	87.87
$XLM-R-stsb^t$	MLP	74.29	72.48	74.02	70.84	70.24	69.08	72.06	70.28	71.66	87.09
XLM-R-stsb ^t	LR	72.87	70.87	72.61	68.49	68.31	65.76	70.75	69.47	69.89	85.78
$XLM-R-stsb^m$	MLP	68.11	68.10	69.80	66.22	65.92	66.98	64.03	63.94	66.64	85.80
$XLM-R-stsb^m$	LR	67.18	67.79	68.10	64.47	64.17	64.35	63.17	62.17	65.17	84.63
Distil-mUSE ^t	MLP	75.92	74.86	75.90	72.51	74.01	69.84	69.77	71.40	73.03	88.14
Distil-mUSE ^t	LR	77.02	76.41	76.98	76.04	74.80	71.28	72.02	74.08	74.83	88.33
$Distil-mUSE^m$	MLP	73.34	73.33	73.81	71.72	74.66	69.85	68.05	71.29	72.01	87.92
Distil-mUSE^m	LR	74.55	75.30	75.57	74.17	74.57	71.07	68.51	73.75	73.44	88.14
$LaBSE^{t}$	MLP	80.02	79.29	79.11	78.70	79.93	77.16	78.42	76.90	78.69	89.93
$LaBSE^{t}$	LR	80.48	79.91	80.00	79.08	80.02	76.71	78.60	78.04	79.13	89.85
$LaBSE^m$	MLP	79.29	80.07	80.36	78.76	79.07	76.05	78.49	76.17	78.53	89.84
$LaBSE^m$	LR	80.27	80.22	79.81	78.72	79.66	75.92	78.95	77.47	78.88	89.77
MBay	GLC	65.04	64.71	65.39	61.65	62.28	57.05	54.02	59.99	61.27	83.70
MBay	GLCU	74.14	70.07	72.40	73.20	72.64	67.57	64.48	66.03	70.06	85.30
MBay	GLCU-P	74.08	70.46	72.59	73.07	72.62	67.66	64.35	66.49	70.16	86.05
MBay	LR	70.33	70.43	71.18	67.30	68.45	62.35	59.81	65.69	66.94	86.35
MBay	LRU	72.59	71.02	71.87	72.04	71.31	65.11	63.21	65.17	69.04	86.08
MBay	LRU-P	72.92	70.83	71.67	71.89	69.57	64.30	63.42	65.59	68.77	86.02

Table 2: Results on MLDoc5x. a: Averaging sentence embeddings. g: Results taken from official GitHub repository. p: Max-pooling over encoder outputs. t: Input trimmed to 128 tokens. m: Input trimmed to maximum sequence length. ZS*: Zero-shot. IL*: In-language.

deviation across 5 splits in MLDoc5x when trans-526 ferring from IT \rightarrow DE (Table 9). Higher (> 5) std. 527 deviations are also observed for other pre-trained models in different transfer directions. This sug-529 gests that one needs to have a robust evaluation scheme in order to study and compare the performance of multilingual models across various lan-532 guages and tasks. Further, when reporting average 533 results, care should be taken to separate them into in-language vs (zero-shot) transfer directions. A simple way to summarize the results is to compute average only across transfer directions for every 537 language (excluding the source language). This 538 gives us an idea of how well the model can transfer 539 to other languages on an average. The in-language 540 classification accuracy across various languages 541 should be reported separately. 542

The first row from Table 2 show the results with 543 LASER on the original single MLDoc split. We 544 tried to replicate the results, but observed signif-545 icant variance for JA and ZH (see Table 7 in Ap-546 pendix D). All the subsequent rows are the average results on MLDoc5x for systems based on various 548 549 pre-trained models and the proposed MBay model. For most of the pre-trained models we can see that 550 LR performs slightly better than MLP in zero-shot transfer setting. The results from MBay are comparable to LASER and XLM-R-stsb, while LaBSE outperforms all the other systems. Moreover, in case of MBay, we can see that generative classifier exploiting uncertainty outperforms the discriminative classifiers. This suggests that in the common embedding space, our classifiers are able to exploit the estimated uncertainty from the MBay model. 553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

The Tables 3 and 4 show average results in INA5x under 2-class and 3-class settings respectively. Here we can see that MBay outperforms other pre-trained models except LaBSE; and XLM-R-stsb in 3-class setting. The poor performance of LASER and XLM-R could be attributed to less and low-quality training data for these (midresource) Indian languages. The objective function of mUSE and LaBSE are similar where as the quality and quantity of the training data is much different. LaBSE was trained on large amounts of high-quality (manually verified, and filtered) data, which could explain its superior performance. Unfortunately, the exact training data used for LaBSE is not available for public.

6 Conclusions

In this paper, we revisited zero-shot cross-lingual topic identification. We identified shortcomings in the evaluation protocol of MLDoc corpus. We

			Z	ERO-SH	OT TRAN	ISFER (F	ROM LA	NGUAG	E)		ZS*	IL*
Model	CLF.	BN	GU	KN	ML	MR	OR	PA	TA	TE	Avg.	Avg.
$LASER^{p}$	MLP	76.41	-	-	77.26	77.19	-	-	74.52	77.46	76.57	92.77
$LASER^{p}$	LR	76.70	-	-	77.86	74.85	-	-	74.22	77.15	76.16	90.90
$XLM-R-stsb^t$	MLP	90.77	89.38	94.13	91.92	91.78	92.29	89.88	91.95	92.72	91.65	95.52
XLM-R-stsb ^t	LR	90.84	88.82	93.32	92.40	90.78	91.43	89.00	91.88	91.03	91.08	96.09
$XLM-R-stsb^m$	MLP	85.60	88.57	91.95	89.42	87.58	91.39	88.62	86.75	90.37	88.92	95.66
$XLM-R-stsb^m$	LR	87.69	87.68	92.74	90.98	87.61	91.83	88.61	85.41	90.99	89.28	95.48
Distil-mUSE ^t	MLP	-	84.80	-	-	82.14	-	-	-	-	83.47	93.65
Distil-mUSE ^t	LR	-	83.24	-	-	86.39	-	-	-	-	84.81	93.50
Distil-mUSE ^m	MLP	-	77.65	-	-	72.53	-	-	-	-	75.09	92.98
${\sf Distil-mUSE}^m$	LR	-	83.79	-	-	76.51	-	-	-	-	80.15	92.55
LaBSE ^t	MLP	96.41	96.91	97.18	97.31	97.43	96.83	96.41	97.43	97.13	97.00	98.03
$LaBSE^{t}$	LR	96.62	96.71	97.78	97.21	97.31	97.37	96.40	97.34	97.63	97.15	98.06
$LaBSE^m$	MLP	95.92	96.98	97.48	97.37	97.54	96.46	96.90	96.93	97.19	96.97	97.95
$LaBSE^m$	LR	96.60	96.69	97.56	97.23	97.56	97.47	96.87	97.38	97.75	97.23	97.98
MBay	GLC	67.22	50.86	82.83	50.47	50.71	82.20	49.54	83.64	85.38	66.98	73.48
MBay	GLCU	91.89	93.54	94.69	93.72	94.01	94.67	93.93	93.47	94.43	93.82	96.67
MBay	GLCU-P	92.67	93.24	94.96	94.38	95.48	94.70	93.65	93.86	94.66	94.18	97.03
MBay	LR	91.59	90.76	93.41	93.14	93.34	92.91	91.54	90.96	92.91	92.28	96.44
MBay	LRU	92.50	91.95	94.49	93.56	94.67	94.17	92.27	92.16	94.24	93.34	96.80
MBay	LRU-P	92.36	91.97	94.45	93.37	94.58	93.26	91.34	92.28	94.09	93.08	96.67

Table 3: Results on INA5x 2-class setup.

		ZERO-	SHOT ТІ	RANSFEI	R (FROM	LANGUAGE)	ZS*	IL*
Model	CLF.	GU	ML	OR	PA	TE	Avg.	Avg.
$LASER^{p}$	MLP	-	72.83	-	-	83.90	78.37	93.51
$LASER^{p}$	LR	-	73.97	-	-	83.39	78.68	93.38
XLM-R-stsb ^t	MLP	90.57	91.91	91.79	89.43	93.05	91.35	95.22
XLM-R-stsb ^t	LR	88.94	90.99	90.68	86.41	91.38	89.68	93.79
$XLM-R-stsb^m$	MLP	86.99	87.86	90.16	87.23	90.09	88.47	95.39
$XLM\text{-}R\text{-}stsb^m$	LR	82.62	87.95	88.77	83.78	90.12	86.65	93.78
LaBSE ^t	MLP	97.43	97.41	97.11	96.52	97.14	97.12	98.21
$LaBSE^{t}$	LR	95.91	96.86	96.69	95.28	97.01	96.35	97.64
$LaBSE^m$	MLP	97.45	97.47	96.65	96.92	97.18	97.13	98.09
$LaBSE^m$	LR	95.62	96.79	96.59	95.25	97.00	96.25	97.47
MBay	GLC	32.40	33.87	82.01	32.68	84.89	53.17	57.82
MBay	GLCU	89.21	89.92	91.12	88.63	90.58	89.89	95.29
MBay	GLCU-P	89.42	90.89	91.19	88.97	90.97	90.29	95.78
MBay	LR	87.16	87.18	89.18	85.84	88.84	87.64	94.95
MBay	LRU	87.87	89.91	89.84	86.64	90.22	88.90	95.26
MBay	LRU-P	87.00	90.09	89.92	86.76	90.22	88.80	95.16

Table 4: Results on INA5x 3-class setup.

proposed a simple robust alternative by creating 5 579 different splits and reporting the mean and std.dev. 580 of the results. The same protocol was extended to 581 Indic news articles dataset covering 9 languages. 582 We benchmarked some of the diverse and popular 583 pre-trained models on the new evaluation protocol covering 17 languages (128 transfer directions). 585 We also presented a Bayesian multilingual docu-586 ment model, which learns language-independent 587 588 document embeddings along with their uncertainties. We propagated the uncertainties into a gener-589 ative and discriminative linear classifier for zeroshot cross-lingual topic ID. Our proposed system in budget friendly in terms of computation, while 592 593 at the same time performs competitively to other

large scale pre-trained models such as LASER, and XLM-R. We belive our MBay model can act as a strong baseline for future research works in the direction of cross-lingual topic ID. We observe that there is a need for creating a larger and diverse dataset covering several topics and languages.

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

7 Limitations

While we aimed to cover 17 languages, the number of topics in classification experiments are at most 4. There is a need to benchmark these systems on a diverse and large multi-label cross-lingual dataset. The proposed MBay model is build on bagof-words simplification and may not be a suitable choice for fine-grained semantic similarity tasks.

References

- Farhad Akhbardeh, Arkady Arkhangorodsky, Magdalena Biesialska, Ondřej Bojar, Rajen Chatterjee, Vishrav Chaudhary, Marta R. Costa-jussa, 611 Cristina España-Bonet, Angela Fan, Christian Fe-612 dermann, Markus Freitag, Yvette Graham, Ro-613 man Grundkiewicz, Barry Haddow, Leonie Harter, 614 Kenneth Heafield, Christopher Homan, Matthias 615 Huck, Kwabena Amponsah-Kaakyire, Jungo Ka-616 sai, Daniel Khashabi, Kevin Knight, Tom Kocmi, 617 Philipp Koehn, Nicholas Lourie, Christof Monz, Makoto Morishita, Masaaki Nagata, Ajay Nagesh, 619 Toshiaki Nakazawa, Matteo Negri, Santanu Pal, Allahsera Auguste Tapo, Marco Turchi, Valentin Vydrin, and Marcos Zampieri. 2021. Findings of the 623 2021 conference on machine translation (WMT21). 624 In Proceedings of the Sixth Conference on Machine Translation, pages 1-88, Online. Association for 625 Computational Linguistics.
 - Waleed Ammar, George Mulcaire, Yulia Tsvetkov,
 Guillaume Lample, Chris Dyer, and Noah A. Smith.
 2016. Massively multilingual word embeddings.
 CoRR, abs/1602.01925.
 - Mikel Artetxe and Holger Schwenk. 2019. Massively multilingual sentence embeddings for zeroshot cross-lingual transfer and beyond. *Transactions of the ACL*, 7:597–610.
 - Christopher M. Bishop. 2006. Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning (Information Science and Statistics). Springer-Verlag New York, Inc., Secaucus, NJ, USA.
 - David M. Blei. 2012. Probabilistic topic models. *Commun. ACM*, 55(4):77–84.
 - Alexandre Bérard. 2021. Continual Learning in Multilingual NMT via Language-Specific Embeddings. In Proc. of the Sixth Conference on Machine Translation (WMT), pages 542–565. ACL.
 - Alexis Conneau, Kartikay Khandelwal, Naman Goyal, Vishrav Chaudhary, Guillaume Wenzek, Francisco Guzmán, Edouard Grave, Myle Ott, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2020. 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.
 - Sumanth Doddapaneni, Gowtham Ramesh, Anoop Kunchukuttan, Pratyush Kumar, and Mitesh M. Khapra. 2021. A primer on pretrained multilingual language models. *CoRR*, abs/2107.00676.
 - Andreas Eisele and Yu Chen. 2010. Multiun: A multilingual corpus from united nation documents. In Proceedings of the International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation, LREC 2010, 17-23
 May 2010, Valletta, Malta. European Language Resources Association.

- Ahmed El-Kishky, Vishrav Chaudhary, Francisco Guzmán, and Philipp Koehn. 2020. CCAligned: A massive collection of cross-lingual web-document pairs. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, pages 5960–5969, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Fangxiaoyu Feng, Yinfei Yang, Daniel Cer, Naveen Arivazhagan, and Wei Wang. 2020. Languageagnostic BERT sentence embedding. *CoRR*, abs/2007.01852.
- Junjie Hu, Sebastian Ruder, Aditya Siddhant, Graham Neubig, Orhan Firat, and Melvin Johnson. 2020. XTREME: A Massively Multilingual Multitask Benchmark for Evaluating Cross-lingual Generalization. In Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML).
- 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 EMNLP 9th IJCNLP, 2019, Hong Kong, China, November 3-7, 2019, pages 2485–2494. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Divyanshu Kakwani, Anoop Kunchukuttan, Satish Golla, Gokul N. C., Avik Bhattacharyya, Mitesh M. Khapra, and Pratyush Kumar. 2020. Indicnlpsuite: Monolingual corpora, evaluation benchmarks and pre-trained multilingual language models for indian languages. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020, Online Event,* 16-20 November 2020, volume EMNLP 2020 of *Findings of ACL*, pages 4948–4961. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Alex Kendall and Yarin Gal. 2017. What Uncertainties Do We Need in Bayesian Deep Learning for Computer Vision? In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 30, pages 5574–5584. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Santosh Kesiraju, Oldřich Plchot, Lukaš Burget, and Suryakanth V. Gangashetty. 2020. Learning Document Embeddings Along With Their Uncertainties. *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 28:2319–2332.
- Diederik P. Kingma and Jimmy Ba. 2015. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In 3rd International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2015, San Diego, CA, USA, May 7-9, 2015, Conference Track Proceedings.
- Diederik P Kingma and Max Welling. 2014. Auto-Encoding Variational Bayes. In 2nd International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR Conference Track Proceedings, Banff, AB, Canada.
- Philipp Koehn. 2005. Europarl: A Parallel Corpus for Statistical Machine Translation. In *Conference* 719

697

698

699

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

664

665

667

668

608

630

634

640

641 642

644

647

655

826

827

828

829

830

831

832

- 733 734 735 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752 753 754 756 758 759 766 767 768 769 771
- 725 727 729

720

721

722 723

724

- 765

775

China. PMLR. 776

Proceedings: the tenth Machine Translation Summit, pages 79-86, Phuket, Thailand. AAMT, AAMT.

- Yishu Miao, Lei Yu, and Phil Blunsom. 2016. Neural variational inference for text processing. In Proceedings of the 33rd International Conference on International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML'16, pages 1727–1736, New York, NY, USA. JMLR.org.
- David Mimno, Hanna M. Wallach, Jason Naradowsky, David A. Smith, and Andrew McCallum. 2009. Polylingual topic models. In Proceedings of the 2009 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 880-889, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Soumith Chintala, Gregory Chanan, Edward Yang, Zachary DeVito, Zeming Lin, Alban Desmaison, Luca Antiga, and Adam Lerer. 2017. Automatic differentiation in PyTorch. In NIPS Workshop.
- F. Pedregosa, G. Varoquaux, A. Gramfort, V. Michel, B. Thirion, O. Grisel, M. Blondel, P. Prettenhofer, R. Weiss, V. Dubourg, J. Vanderplas, A. Passos, D. Cournapeau, M. Brucher, M. Perrot, and E. Duchesnay. 2011. Scikit-learn: Machine learning in Python. Journal of Machine Learning Research, 12:2825-2830.
- Gowtham Ramesh, Sumanth Doddapaneni, Aravinth Bheemaraj, Mayank Jobanputra, Raghavan AK, Ajitesh Sharma, Sujit Sahoo, Harshita Diddee, Mahalakshmi J, Divyanshu Kakwani, Navneet Kumar, Aswin Pradeep, Srihari Nagaraj, Kumar Deepak, Vivek Raghavan, Anoop Kunchukuttan, Pratyush Kumar, and Mitesh Shantadevi Khapra. 2022. Samanantar: The Largest Publicly Available Parallel Corpora Collection for 11 Indic Languages. Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics, 10:145-162.
 - Nils Reimers and Iryna Gurevych. 2019. Sentence-BERT: Sentence embeddings using Siamese BERTnetworks. 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 3982-3992, Hong Kong, China. 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.
 - Danilo Jimenez Rezende, Shakir Mohamed, and Daan Wierstra. 2014. Stochastic backpropagation and approximate inference in deep generative models. In Proceedings of the 31st International Conference on Machine Learning, volume 32 of Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, pages 1278–1286, Bejing,

- Sebastian Ruder, Ivan Vulić, and Anders Søgaard. 2019. A survey of cross-lingual word embedding models. J. Artif. Int. Res., 65(1):569-630.
- Holger Schwenk and Matthijs Douze. 2017. Learning Joint Multilingual Sentence Representations with Neural Machine Translation. In Proceedings of the 2nd Workshop on Representation Learning for NLP, Rep4NLP@ACL 2017, Vancouver, Canada, August 3, 2017, pages 157–167.
- Holger Schwenk and Xian Li. 2018. A Corpus for Multilingual Document Classification in Eight Languages. In Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation, LREC 2018, Miyazaki, Japan, May 7-12, 2018.
- Aditya Siddhant, Melvin Johnson, Henry Tsai, Naveen Ari, Jason Riesa, Ankur Bapna, Orhan Firat, and Karthik Raman. 2020. Evaluating the Cross-Lingual Effectiveness of Massively Multilingual Neural Machine Translation. In The Thirty-Fourth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AAAI NY, USA, February 7-12, 2020, pages 8854-8861. AAAI Press.
- Shashank Siripragada, Jerin Philip, Vinay P. Namboodiri, and C V Jawahar. 2020. A multilingual parallel corpora collection effort for Indian languages. In Proceedings of the 12th Language Resources and Evaluation Conference, pages 3743-3751, Marseille, France. European Language Resources Association.
- Emma Strubell, Ananya Ganesh, and Andrew McCallum. 2019. Energy and Policy Considerations for Deep Learning in NLP. In Proceedings of the 57th Conference of the Association for Computational Linguistics, ACL 2019, Florence, Italy, July 28- August 2, 2019, Volume 1: Long Papers, pages 3645-3650. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jörg Tiedemann. 2012. Parallel data, tools and interfaces in OPUS. In Proceedings of the Eighth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation, LREC 2012, Istanbul, Turkey, May 23-25, 2012, pages 2214–2218. European Language Resources Association (ELRA).
- Shijie Wu and Mark Dredze. 2019. Beto, Bentz, Becas: The Surprising Cross-Lingual Effectiveness of BERT. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on EMNLP and the 9th IJCNLP, pages 833-844, Hong Kong, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Yijun Xiao and William Yang Wang. 2019. Quantifying Uncertainties in Natural Language Processing Tasks. In The Thirty-Third AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AAAI, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA, January 27 - February 1, 2019, pages 7322-7329.
- Weiwei Yang, Jordan Boyd-Graber, and Philip Resnik. 2019. A multilingual topic model for learning

- 833 834

- 841

- 851 852

- 854
- 855

- 871

878

879

- 875

876

Commentary datasets. From these datasets, we considered only those sentences that are at

• The Table 5 shows the detailed statistics of the number of sentences and their parallel languages across all the 17 languages.

B **Data for Topic ID**

This section presents the statistics of MLDoc5x and INA5x topic ID datasets created for the experiments reported in this paper. We attempted to keep about 250 examples per topic in each training and development sets, and 1000 examples per topic in the test set. We created 5 such splits and the average number of examples per language-set-topic are illustrated in Tables 6. The original data for languages GU, ML, PA, were smaller, hence they have smaller number of examples per set.

С **MBay models**

- The initial (seed) MBay models were trained on 6 languages (DE, EN, ES, FR, IT, RU) using the parallel data (7.48M sentences) described in Appendix A. The training took about 25 hrs on a single NVIDIA RTX A6000 with 48 GB of memory. The trained model has 154M parameters. This model trained on 6 languages is referred as MBay-6L.
- The MBay-6L seed model was extended to JA, ZH using EN as pivot. It was trained on 3.3M parallel sentences, and took about 11 hrs on a similar GPU. This extended training added 51.4M additional parameters for JA and ZH. During training, the parameters of EN were frozen and the parameters of other languages (DE, ES, FR, IT, RU) were not loaded as they are not required.
- The MBay-6L seed model was extended to 9 Indian languages using EN as pivot. It was trained on 7.29M parallel sentences, and took about 21hrs to train on a similar GPU. This added 96.2M additional parameters to represent 9 Indian languages. As the vocabulary sizes for these languages is not as big as other high-resources languages (Table 5, the number of additional parameters were also relatively less.

⁵https://alaginrc.nict.go.jp/ WikiCorpus/index_E.html

least 10 words long.

weighted topic links across corpora with low compa-

rability. 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

1243-1248, Hong Kong, China. Association for

Yinfei Yang, Daniel Cer, Amin Ahmad, Mandy

Guo, Jax Law, Noah Constant, Gustavo Hernan-

dez Abrego, Steve Yuan, Chris Tar, Yun-hsuan Sung,

Brian Strope, and Ray Kurzweil. 2020. Multilingual

universal sentence encoder for semantic retrieval.

In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the

Association for Computational Linguistics: System

Demonstrations, pages 87–94, Online. Association

Michal Ziemski, Marcin Junczys-Dowmunt, and Bruno Pouliquen. 2016. The united nations parallel cor-

pus v1. 0. In Proceedings of the Tenth International

Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation

• We considered only top 450k sentence from

EN-JA pair from CCAligned corpus, which

was further filtered based on heuristics, result-

• From UNPC(v1), we considered only top 2

• The initial seed model (MBay-6L) was trained

on 6 languages (DE, EN, ES, FR, IT, RU) us-

ing the data from Europarl, UNPC, MultiUN,

Global-Voices, and News-Commentary. From

these datasets, we considered only those sen-

• The seed model (MBay-6L) is extended to JA

and ZH languages with the help of parallel

data from UNPC, MultiUN, Wikipedia (EN-

JA)⁵, filtered CCAligned (EN-JA), Global-

• The seed model (MBay-6L) is extended to 9

Indian languages (BN, GU, ML, MR, KN,

OR, PA, TA, TE) with the help of paral-

lel data from CVIT (PIB, MKB), Samanan-

tar (indic2indic), Global-Voices and News-

tences that are at least 30 words long.

Voices and News-Commentary.

Computational Linguistics.

for Computational Linguistics.

A Data for multilingual training

ing in 185k parallel sentences.

million sentences.

LREC 2016.

882 883

880

881

884

886 887

888

889

890

891

892

893

894

895

897

898

899

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

918

919

920

921

Group	Language	ISO code	Parallel pairs	Sentences (M)	Tokens (M)	Vocabulary size
ε	English	EN	$\mathcal{E} \cup \mathcal{U} \cup \mathcal{I} \setminus \{KN\}$	3.89	154.46	100k
${\mathcal E}$	French	FR	ε	1.62	73.38	100k
${\mathcal E}$	German	DE	ε	0.85	33.02	100k
${\mathcal E}$	Italian	IT	ε	0.67	25.18	100k
${\mathcal E}$	Russian	RU	${\mathcal E}$	1.11	37.01	100k
${\mathcal E}$	Spanish	ES	ε	1.64	74.03	100k
\mathcal{U}	Chinese	ZH	{EN, JA}	1.19	54.84	100k
\mathcal{U}	Japanese	JA	$\{EN, ZH\}$	0.37	21.15	100k
\mathcal{I}	Kannada	KN	${\mathcal I}$	0.36	7.92	25521
\mathcal{I}	Bengali	BN	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{\mathrm{EN}\}$	0.95	20.05	36925
\mathcal{I}	Gujarati	GU	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{\mathrm{EN}\}$	0.75	15.92	28268
\mathcal{I}	Malayalam	ML	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{\mathrm{EN}\}$	0.57	13.89	36877
\mathcal{I}	Marathi	MR	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{\mathrm{EN}\}$	0.86	18.43	30557
\mathcal{I}	Odia	OR	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{\mathrm{EN}\}$	0.50	11.36	25450
\mathcal{I}	Punjabi	PA	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{\mathrm{EN}\}$	0.95	15.34	24209
\mathcal{I}	Tamil	TA	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{\mathrm{EN}\}$	0.93	21.21	33960
\mathcal{I}	Telugu	TE	$\mathcal{I} \cup \{ EN \}$	0.68	11.96	32548
	Total			17.89	609.16	

Table 5: Statistics of the data used in training and extending the MBay model. Sentences and tokens are in millions (M).

Lang.	MLDoc5x Topics												
	CCAT				ECAT	•		GCAT	•		MCAT		
DE	257	270	1019	245	259	936	251	259	1022	247	237	1023	
EN	257	270	1019	245	259	936	251	259	1022	247	237	1023	
ES	305	310	1186	198	197	782	205	214	816	292	279	1216	
FR	257	270	1019	245	259	936	251	259	1022	247	237	1023	
IT	257	270	1019	245	259	936	251	259	1022	247	237	1023	
JA	257	270	1019	245	259	936	251	259	1022	247	237	1023	
RU	274	283	1081	255	265	1023	204	256	819	267	256	1077	
ZH	306	313	1193	282	312	1187	118	93	401	294	282	1219	
	INA5x Topics												
	En	tertainr	nent	Sports			Business						
BN	250	250	1001	250	249	999	-	-	-				
GU	34	37	149	37	36	147	40	38	160				
KN	233	237	931	235	231	938	-	-	-				
ML	78	81	319	83	80	328	75	76	302				
MR	121	122	494	120	123	494	-	-	-				
OR	237	232	928	236	233	948	237	237	959				
PA	40	41	163	40	39	165	43	44	170				
TA	236	232	928	231	235	935	-	-	-				
TE	248	249	988	252	253	997	250	247	1015				

Table 6: Number of examples in each *topic* for every *language* in RCV (MLDoc5x) and IndicNLP news articles (INA5x) datasets. Under each topic, the three columns represent training, development and test *sets* respectively. Each number represents the average number (rounded to nearest integer) of examples across 5 splits for the respective *language-set-topic*.

D MLDoc results with LASER

We tried to replicate the MLDoc results using LASER, however we found significant differences is few language directions. The Table 7 shows the absolute differences in the results we obtained as compared the ones reported in the official github repository: https: //github.com/facebookresearch/

LASER/tree/main/tasks/mldoc.

In Table 7, a positive value indicates that we obtained a better result, while a negative value indicates the opposite.

930

931

932

933

				Test la	NGUAGE	3		
	EN	DE	FR	IT	ES	RU	JA	ZH
EN	-0.42	-1.70	-4.72	-0.23	3.05	0.13	-1.67	-3.30
DE	0.93	-0.68	0.65	-2.18	-1.83	0.30	-7.17	-0.78
FR	-1.60	-2.40	-0.58	-2.22	-1.98	-0.17	-6.87	-13.31
IT	-2.38	-2.59	-2.25	2.78	3.20	5.86	-6.47	-10.72
ES	-0.24	-2.70	-2.85	-1.58	-4.93	7.80	-4.05	8.95
RU	0.53	-2.76	0.35	2.55	2.25	-1.00	-2.05	2.17
JA	10.70	14.37	10.28	6.23	11.87	9.53	-0.07	15.32
ZH	2.02	0.20	1.01	0.38	5.85	0.17	4.15	0.51

Table 7: Discrepancy in replicating the results of LASER + MLP system.

Model	URL
LASER	https://github.com/facebookresearch/LASER
XLM-R-stsb	https://huggingface.co/sentence-transformers/stsb-xlm-r-multilingual
LaBSE	https://huggingface.co/sentence-transformers/LaBSE
Distil-mUSE	https://huggingface.co/sentence-transformers/distiluse-base-multilingual-cased-v2

Table 8: Pre-trained models and their download URL.

E Detailed results

Here we present the detailed results i.e., mean and std.dev. across 5-splits in all the transfer directions. For each pre-trained multilingual model, we only show the results of the system that yielded best downstream performance. Notice in Tables 9, 10 and 11 that the high std.dev. indicates that the choosing a different training / dev / test split could result in different performance of the system. The original MLDoc is sampled from RCV multilingual corpus and had only one such split and hence couldn't capture the variance in the results.

The first two parts in Table 9 show LASER^p + MLP and LASER^p + LR. Notice that for LR the variance across 5 splits is much lower as compared to MLP.

				TEST LA				
	EN	DE	FR	IT	ES	RU	JA	ZH
				LASER ^p	+ MLP			
EN	87.0 (0.7)	85.5 (1.4)	83.0 (3.8)	68.4 (4.6)	77.8 (2.2)	67.4 (2.7)	67.1 (3.8)	74.1 (0.7)
DE	73.7 (4.9)	92.1 (0.1)	83.9 (0.7)	73.4 (1.4)	81.0 (1.9)	66.9 (5.7)	71.6 (4.9)	74.6 (9.5)
FR	76.2 (0.5)	88.0 (0.4)	90.5 (0.5)	72.3 (1.2)	79.9 (2.0)	68.0 (0.9)	69.8 (0.5)	77.2 (1.0)
IT	61.3 (12.5)	78.8 (14.1)	77.1 (8.3)	84.2 (0.7)	76.0 (2.6)	63.4 (4.6)	61.2 (7.6) (4.1 (7.6)	69.1 (6.5)
ES RU	64.4 (0.3) 64.9 (2.3)	81.9 (1.9) 78.1 (5.5)	78.8 (3.1) 70.2 (7.3)	74.4 (2.5) 66.7 (3.1)	92.5 (0.1) 70.2 (5.4)	57.7 (3.3) 83.4 (0.3)	64.1 (7.6) 67.5 (6.3)	64.5 (12.2) 67.5 (11.3)
JA	58.6 (1.1)	70.7 (3.5)	62.8 (2.7)	57.3 (1.3)	59.8 (1.9)	51.7 (2.9)	85.9 (0.1)	65.8 (8.1)
ZH	63.7 (7.9)	76.3 (5.2)	70.5 (7.9)	64.8 (6.7)	68.5 (3.9)	61.0 (1.9)	71.2 (2.5)	86.9 (0.7)
				LASER	p^{p} + LR			
EN	87.3 (0.5)	86.2 (1.1)	81.9 (1.2)	67.2 (2.1)	76.8 (2.0)	66.0 (2.0)	66.3 (2.3)	73.5 (2.1)
DE	73.0 (1.4)	92.4 (0.3)	83.0 (0.8)	73.5 (1.1)	81.1 (1.2)	68.0 (0.8)	71.3 (0.9)	76.4 (2.0)
FR	75.1 (0.3)	88.2 (1.0)	90.3 (0.5)	72.8 (1.1)	79.3 (1.0)	67.9 (2.0)	69.3 (1.9)	77.6 (2.4)
IT ES	61.1 (1.8) 68.5 (0.5)	80.4 (2.6) 84.1 (0.8)	77.1 (2.0) 81.6 (1.3)	84.5 (0.7) 76.0 (1.3)	76.6 (1.7) 92.7 (0.4)	64.4 (1.0) 64.9 (1.2)	61.9 (3.6) 69.5 (1.5)	70.1 (3.5) 72.9 (2.3)
RU	64.8 (0.8)	76.9 (1.4)	69.3 (2.4)	66.6 (1.3)	69.1 (1.8)	83.1 (0.4)	67.0 (1.2)	66.9 (3.6)
JA	60.3 (1.4)	72.9 (1.1)	64.1 (1.9)	56.4 (1.5)	60.4 (1.6)	50.1 (1.2)	85.7 (0.4)	67.6 (1.7)
ZH	64.2 (2.4)	77.5 (1.2)	71.6 (2.2)	66.8 (0.9)	68.4 (1.5)	64.0 (1.7)	73.1 (0.4)	87.0 (0.7)
				XLM-R-sts	$b^t + MLP$			
EN	88.0 (0.7)	85.1 (1.2)	79.4 (1.7)	69.4 (1.0)	78.8 (0.8)	66.3 (3.7)	68.8 (1.6)	72.2 (2.7)
DE	75.1 (0.7)	92.5 (0.4)	83.0 (0.5)	71.5 (2.4)	77.9 (0.9)	61.7 (0.5)	69.5 (2.6)	68.7 (4.1)
FR	77.3 (1.2)	87.8 (1.4)	89.7 (0.8)	72.9 (2.0)	78.6 (2.2)	63.7 (2.7)	69.0 (2.9)	68.9 (3.3)
IT	69.0 (1.2)	82.6 (1.2)	79.1 (1.6)	83.0 (0.6)	77.9 (1.7)	56.5 (3.1)	67.6 (1.8)	63.2 (1.7)
ES RU	71.3 (1.5) 69.3 (0.7)	78.7 (2.6) 76.9 (2.8)	78.4 (1.8) 75.3 (1.2)	72.4 (2.6) 65.0 (2.8)	92.3 (0.3) 70.9 (2.1)	57.8 (6.1) 82.9 (0.2)	68.4 (1.5) 63.6 (1.6)	64.7 (2.1) 62.4 (3.8)
JA	71.6 (1.4)	83.0 (0.7)	75.5 (1.2)	66.4 (1.6)	70.9 (2.1) 73.7 (1.0)	61.7 (4.1)	83.7 (0.7)	70.9 (1.2)
ZH	70.1 (2.8)	79.4 (2.7)	75.1 (2.5)	64.3 (2.5)	69.3 (3.1)	62.6 (2.2)	71.2 (1.3)	84.7 (0.4)
	<u>.</u>			Distil-mU	$SE^t + LR$			
EN	89.3 (0.3)	85.9 (1.4)	82.4 (1.3)	69.1 (1.9)	77.7 (1.5)	62.3 (2.4)	65.2 (3.3)	79.3 (1.3)
DE	77.7 (1.0)	93.1 (0.4)	84.9 (0.3)	73.0 (0.6)	79.6 (1.5)	66.4 (1.0)	65.5 (4.2)	80.1 (1.0)
FR	78.7 (0.6)	89.4 (0.4)	90.7 (0.4)	73.1 (1.0)	80.0 (1.7)	64.4 (1.7)	63.3 (1.1)	80.1 (1.3)
IT	72.1 (2.2)	83.4 (1.2)	81.4 (0.9)	83.7 (0.6)	79.8 (1.9)	64.5 (1.8)	60.7 (3.7)	77.2 (1.1)
ES	77.7 (1.1) 70.8 (2.6)	85.7 (1.3)	82.5 (1.1)	75.4 (0.7)	92.7 (0.4)	63.9 (3.1)	60.8 (1.8) 64.1 (0.8)	76.1 (1.8)
RU JA	70.8 (2.0) 70.4 (2.1)	82.0 (1.9) 76.6 (1.9)	74.3 (2.3) 71.9 (1.9)	66.5 (1.0) 62.7 (1.3)	68.8 (2.4) 66.3 (2.7)	83.2 (0.4) 56.0 (2.4)	85.0 (0.6)	71.1 (2.1) 75.6 (1.3)
ZH	76.1 (2.2)	83.6 (2.1)	77.9 (2.1)	71.2 (2.0)	75.5 (1.6)	67.0 (2.2)	65.0 (2.2)	87.4 (0.4)
				LaBSE				
EN	90.6 (0.4)	89.0 (0.9)	87.8 (0.6)	76.2 (1.3)	82.7 (1.0)	69.6 (3.4)	75.8 (1.1)	82.2 (0.6)
DE	77.8 (1.5)	93.8 (0.3)	88.2 (0.7)	76.2 (0.8)	84.9 (2.2)	72.0 (2.9)	76.5 (1.5)	83.7 (0.7)
FR	81.4 (0.4)	91.1 (0.6)	92.1 (0.4)	76.3 (1.2)	83.6 (1.4)	71.0 (3.2)	73.7 (1.1)	82.9 (1.3)
IT	73.3 (1.2)	87.0 (0.6)	84.2 (1.1)	86.6 (0.2)	85.2 (0.7)	71.6 (1.1)	71.7 (1.2)	80.6 (1.3)
ES	77.9 (1.5)	89.9 (0.6)	86.9 (1.3)	81.0 (0.9)	93.9 (0.3)	68.9 (3.0)	75.4 (1.5)	81.6 (1.0)
RU	73.3 (1.1)	86.1 (1.8)	80.7 (2.2)	74.1 (1.3)	72.8 (3.4)	86.0 (0.5)	71.2 (1.8)	78.8 (1.5)
JA ZH	76.8 (0.5) 76.8 (0.6)	87.1 (1.3) 86.6 (2.4)	83.7 (1.4) 83.4 (2.7)	72.8 (0.5) 74.2 (2.5)	79.5 (1.1) 79.2 (1.5)	67.6 (2.7) 69.4 (3.8)	86.2 (0.5) 76.7 (1.9)	82.8 (1.8) 89.6 (0.6)
		()		MBay + (
EN	86.8 (0.3)	85.6 (0.3)	82.4 (1.0)	70.3 (1.1)	78.5 (0.6)	65.0 (1.7)	66.8 (1.6)	70.1 (1.5)
DE	75.2 (0.9)	91.1 (0.5)	85.6 (0.5)	70.6 (1.0)	79.8 (1.1)	54.9 (1.7)	57.9 (2.7)	69.3 (1.3)
FR	75.3 (0.6)	87.0 (0.7)	89.8 (0.4)	74.1 (0.4)	80.9 (0.6)	65.7 (1.3)	51.9 (1.1)	73.2 (1.3)
IT	73.8 (1.0)	84.6 (0.9)	83.9 (0.5)	82.1 (0.7)	82.9 (0.9)	58.3 (2.4)	59.5 (1.8)	68.4 (0.9)
ES	74.1 (0.6)	84.6 (1.1)	82.5 (0.7)	75.3 (0.7)	89.1 (0.2)	58.5 (1.8)	64.7 (1.6)	68.6(1.2)
RU JA	66.8 (1.7) 67.5 (0.9)	74.9 (1.6) 76.6 (1.2)	75.3 (1.7) 68.1 (1.5)	67.6 (1.3) 59.9 (0.8)	73.6 (1.2) 67.4 (0.8)	81.2 (0.5) 51.6 (1.5)	55.3 (1.5) 84.7 (0.7)	60.1 (2.8) 59.4 (1.2)
ZH	69.1 (0.9)	77.9 (1.8)	73.5 (1.9)	63.5 (1.2)	66.9 (1.5)	50.8 (1.9)	63.7 (1.1)	83.7 (0.6)
	1	()	()		()	()		(0.0)

Table 9: Detailed classification results on the MLDoc5x test sets using various models with best downstream classification performance. Values in the parenthesis indicate the std.dev. across 5 splits. Bold values indicate the numbers with std.dev > 3. p: Max-pooling over encoder outputs. t: Input trimmed to 128 tokens. m: Input trimmed to maximum sequence length.

				Т	EST LANGUA	GE			
	BN	GU	KN	ML	MR	OR	PA	TA	TE
-				L	$ASER^{t} + ML$	_P			
BN	95.4 (0.5)	-	-	90.8 (0.5)	85.4 (2.5)	-	-	57.4 (8.1)	72.0 (5.5)
ML	86.2 (1.6)	-	-	93.4 (1.8)	86.3 (2.8)	-	-	63.7 (5.2)	72.8 (2.2)
MR	89.2 (3.0)	-	-	88.8 (2.4)	93.4 (1.0)	-	-	59.8 (7.0)	70.9 (2.3)
TA	80.6 (2.3)	-	-	77.8 (2.2)	76.9 (5.1)	-	-	88.1 (0.7)	62.8 (5.1)
TE	83.6 (3.9)	-	-	83.9 (3.3)	86.0 (1.9)	-	-	56.3 (2.9)	93.7 (0.5)
				XL	$M-R-stsb^{t} +$	LR			
BN	95.0 (0.3)	92.4 (0.9)	87.4 (2.2)	93.6 (1.1)	93.6 (1.2)	91.3 (1.7)	91.5 (3.0)	93.7 (1.4)	83.2 (3.1)
GU	84.7 (1.9)	93.4 (2.0)	84.0 (1.7)	91.5 (1.0)	92.7 (1.2)	90.6 (3.5)	89.3 (4.0)	91.9 (1.4)	85.8 (1.9)
KN	88.5 (3.3)	94.3 (0.7)	93.7 (0.7)	95.6 (0.6)	95.0 (0.5)	93.0 (1.0)	94.1 (1.6)	96.6 (0.3)	89.5 (1.1)
ML	88.3 (2.4)	93.6 (1.2)	89.6 (2.1)	95.3 (0.9)	95.6 (0.8)	94.5 (0.5)	94.8 (0.7)	95.6 (1.0)	87.2 (0.5)
MR	86.7 (2.1)	94.8 (0.7)	83.9 (2.3)	94.4 (0.7)	96.4 (0.3)	94.5 (0.7)	93.8 (2.0)	94.1 (0.4)	84.1 (1.3)
OR	90.1 (3.4)	93.4 (1.8)	86.6 (1.4)	93.0 (2.9)	95.3 (1.0)	96.3 (0.4)	92.8 (2.8)	94.1 (1.5)	86.0 (2.5)
PA	87.3 (1.9)	91.9 (1.3)	84.8 (1.3)	90.7 (2.0)	91.7 (1.9)	91.7 (1.4)	94.5 (2.0)	92.7 (1.8)	81.3 (2.3)
TA	90.6 (2.0)	92.9 (2.0)	89.7 (1.4)	95.0 (1.0)	95.6 (0.6)	90.0 (3.4)	91.5 (2.4)	97.9 (0.4)	89.7 (0.3)
TE	87.2 (2.6)	91.9 (1.5)	89.0 (1.8)	92.0 (2.6)	93.5 (2.0)	89.8 (4.4)	90.1 (3.7)	94.8 (1.9)	94.7 (0.7)
				Ι	$LaBSE^m + Ll$	R			
BN	97.0 (0.4)	95.5 (2.1)	95.0 (0.7)	97.3 (0.8)	96.1 (1.7)	97.6 (0.4)	97.6 (1.2)	97.5 (2.2)	96.2 (1.1)
GU	95.4 (0.7)	96.9 (1.2)	95.6 (0.5)	97.3 (0.3)	96.5 (0.6)	97.3 (0.5)	97.4 (1.0)	97.2 (1.0)	96.7 (0.4)
KN	95.7 (1.1)	96.7 (0.8)	96.9 (0.2)	98.8 (0.6)	97.9 (0.3)	97.3 (0.4)	98.1 (0.4)	98.6 (0.3)	97.5 (0.6)
ML	95.2 (1.1)	97.0 (1.1)	96.2 (0.3)	98.4 (0.3)	98.0 (0.3)	97.6 (0.6)	97.8 (0.7)	98.6 (0.4)	97.4 (0.4)
MR	96.5 (0.3)	97.2 (1.0)	96.5 (0.2)	98.4 (0.6)	98.1 (0.2)	98.1 (0.2)	98.4 (0.5)	98.6 (0.2)	97.0 (0.3)
OR	96.5 (0.6)	96.6 (0.7)	96.2 (0.2)	98.0 (0.6)	98.0 (0.2)	98.4 (0.2)	98.5 (0.8)	98.6 (0.4)	97.4 (0.3)
PA	96.4 (0.3)	95.6 (0.9)	95.5 (0.2)	97.7 (0.4)	97.5 (0.3)	97.9 (0.2)	98.5 (0.5)	98.1 (0.4)	96.3 (0.3)
TA	96.6 (0.4)	96.5 (1.2)	96.5 (0.3)	98.1 (0.2)	97.6 (0.6)	98.0 (0.2)	98.0 (0.9)	99.2 (0.1)	97.7 (0.2)
TE	96.7 (0.4)	97.4 (0.9)	96.9 (0.3)	98.3 (0.5)	97.9 (0.2)	97.4 (0.5)	98.3 (0.9)	99.1 (0.2)	98.5 (0.2)
				М	Bay + GLCU	J-P			
BN	96.2 (0.6)	91.8 (2.4)	91.5 (0.7)	90.0 (0.8)	94.5 (0.4)	93.6 (0.4)	91.8 (1.1)	96.4 (0.5)	92.0 (0.9)
GU	94.4 (0.9)	97.0 (0.9)	91.6 (0.7)	92.0 (0.3)	94.3 (1.0)	94.8 (0.5)	91.2 (0.9)	96.7 (0.6)	90.8 (1.6)
KN	91.4 (1.4)	94.4 (1.9)	95.6 (0.5)	94.6 (1.1)	95.9 (0.4)	95.8 (0.6)	95.1 (1.3)	98.0 (0.3)	94.5 (0.5)
ML	93.1 (1.9)	94.0 (2.3)	93.5 (0.5)	97.2 (0.6)	94.9 (1.2)	94.6 (1.6)	93.8 (2.3)	98.0 (0.4)	93.2 (0.3)
MR	94.4 (1.2)	95.0 (1.4)	94.3 (0.5)	96.0 (0.3)	96.7 (0.3)	96.5 (0.5)	96.1 (1.1)	98.2 (0.4)	93.4 (0.7)
OR	93.9 (0.7)	95.0 (0.9)	93.1 (0.6)	95.8 (0.7)	96.5 (0.6)	97.9 (0.2)	94.5 (1.4)	96.9 (0.3)	91.8 (0.5)
PA	92.2 (3.6)	93.4 (1.9)	92.2 (0.8)	93.9 (0.8)	95.1 (0.6)	94.0 (0.9)	97.2 (0.8)	97.1 (0.6)	91.2 (0.6)
TA	93.4 (0.4)	94.3 (1.4)	93.0 (0.8)	94.4 (1.4)	94.8 (0.9)	93.5 (0.4)	93.4 (0.7)	98.7 (0.1)	94.1 (0.5)
TE	91.9 (1.2)	95.3 (0.7)	94.2 (0.6)	94.2 (1.1)	95.4 (0.6)	94.7 (0.3)	93.4 (1.6)	98.1 (0.2)	96.7 (0.4)

Table 10: Detailed classification results on the 2-class setup from INA5x test sets using various models with best downstream classification performance. Values in the parenthesis indicate the std.dev. across 5 splits. Bold values indicate the numbers with std.dev > 3. p: Max-pooling over encoder outputs. t: Input trimmed to 128 tokens. m: Input trimmed to maximum sequence length.

		TE	EST LANGUA	GE								
	GU	ML	OR	PA	TE							
	$XLM-R-stsb^{t} + MLP$											
GU	94.2 (1.5)	92.6 (1.1)	92.6 (1.0)	91.3 (1.8)	85.8 (2.9)							
ML	93.2 (1.5)	95.2 (0.7)	93.8 (0.5)	94.0 (1.6)	86.7 (1.8)							
OR	94.0 (1.1)	94.3 (0.9)	96.4 (0.4)	93.1 (2.6)	85.8 (2.0)							
PA	91.6 (1.6)	91.5 (1.4)	92.3 (2.4)	95.3 (1.2)	82.3 (2.9)							
TE	93.5 (0.9)	93.4 (1.0)	92.9 (1.8)	92.3 (1.0)	94.9 (0.7)							
		La	$aBSE^m + MI$	_P								
GU	97.0 (1.0)	97.7 (0.4)	97.6 (0.3)	97.6 (1.1)	97.0 (0.3)							
ML	97.1 (0.8)	98.3 (0.4)	97.5 (0.8)	97.8 (0.6)	97.4 (0.4)							
OR	95.4 (1.7)	97.5 (0.3)	98.3 (0.3)	97.4 (0.6)	96.3 (1.1)							
PA	95.9 (0.9)	97.4 (0.3)	97.9 (0.3)	98.5 (0.5)	96.4 (0.2)							
TE	97.0 (1.0)	97.8 (0.5)	96.8 (0.9)	97.1 (1.2)	98.4 (0.3)							
		М	Bay + GLCU	I-P								
GU	96.0 (0.3)	90.6 (0.9)	88.4 (0.9)	89.2 (1.6)	89.5 (1.3)							
ML	92.6 (1.6)	94.9 (0.7)	88.9 (1.3)	91.3 (1.4)	90.8 (0.6)							
OR	91.6 (0.5)	92.3 (0.6)	96.5 (0.3)	91.0 (1.2)	89.8 (0.7)							
PA	91.1 (1.3)	90.2 (1.1)	85.0 (2.0)	95.3 (1.1)	89.5 (0.7)							
TE	93.2 (1.3)	90.9 (0.6)	87.5 (0.7)	92.3 (1.4)	96.1 (0.3)							

Table 11: Detailed classification results on the 2-class setup from INA5x test sets using various models with best downstream classification performance. Values in the parenthesis indicate the std.dev. across 5 splits. Bold values indicate the numbers with std.dev > 3. p: Max-pooling over encoder outputs. t: Input trimmed to 128 tokens. m: Input trimmed to maximum sequence length.