From Surveys to Narratives: Rethinking Cultural Value Adaptation in LLMs

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Adapting cultural values in Large Language Models (LLMs) presents significant challenges, particularly due to biases and limited training data. Prior work primarily aligns LLMs with different cultural values using World Values Survey (WVS) data. However, it remains unclear whether this approach effectively captures cultural nuances or produces distinct cul-009 tural representations for various downstream tasks. In this paper, we systematically investigate WVS-based training for cultural value adaptation and find that relying solely on survey data can homogenize cultural norms and interfere with factual knowledge. To investigate these issues, we augment WVS with encyclopedic and scenario-based cultural narratives from Wikipedia and NormAd. While these narra-017 tives may have variable effects on downstream tasks, they consistently improve cultural distinctiveness than survey data alone. Our work 021 highlights the inherent complexity of aligning cultural values with the goal of guiding taskspecific behavior.

1 Introduction

024

037

Recent research in Large Language Models (LLMs) suggest LLMs align closely with the cultural values of Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic (WEIRD, Henrich et al. 2010) societies without adaptations (Johnson et al., 2022; Ramezani and Xu, 2023; Cao et al., 2023, among others). The WEIRD-centric bias can harm specific groups and limit the model's usefulness to a diverse global audience. Indeed, culture is a distinct and vital aspect of human society, influencing behavior, norms, and worldviews (Geertz, 2017). However, current research lacks robust mechanisms to adapt LLMs outputs in ways that reflect different cultural value systems (i.e., culturally adapt LLMs).¹

WVS Data Clustering: UMAP and KDE Visualization

Figure 1: UMAP-KDE visualization of cultural value distributions from WVS data reveals significant homogenization. While Arabic (lower right) and Chinese (left) cultures form distinct clusters, many others converge in the upper right. This suggests that current WVS-based training may be insufficient to capture cultural nuances.

039

040

041

043

045

047

051

052

054

057

Existing work often adapts LLMs to cultural values by leveraging self-reported survey data (Li et al., 2024a; Xu et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024b) such as the World Values Survey (WVS, Haerpfer et al. 2022). Although WVS offers a quantitative glimpse into cultural attitudes (e.g., "How important is family in your life?" on a scale from 1 to 4), it remains unclear how to best translate these numeric indications into concrete behavior in downstream tasks (e.g., classification of offensiveness in different linguistic-cultural settings). Beyond survey responses on values and opinions, culture also includes social norms, historical contexts, and nuanced beliefs (Liu et al., 2024) that may not be fully captured through self-reported questionnaires. As shown in Figure 1, even WVS data for distinct cultures may converge into overlapping clusters in latent space (showing semantic similarities), potentially homogenizing nuanced cultural dimensions.

¹For this paper, we focus on "culture" at a linguisticregional level (e.g., Iraq and Jordan represent **Arab** culture vs. Argentina and Mexico that represent **Spanish** culture),

but we acknowledge that culture is more nuanced, including sub-cultures within a group and intersectional factors such as ethnicity and religion (Adilazuarda et al., 2024).

Ideally, cultural value adaptation should also enhance downstream tasks within each culture. However, several challenges emerge. First, adapting multiple cultural values may create interference similar to that seen in multilingual models (Conneau et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020), given language-culture interconnections (Adilazuarda et al., 2024; Hershcovich et al., 2022; Hovy and Yang, 2021). Second, the reliability of cultural value training data is uncertain. Studies show discrepancies between attitude and actual behavior in human (Gross and Niman, 1975; Fazio, 1981), raising concerns about the WVS's ability to accurately reflect cultural behavior for LLM training, necessitating further investigation.

059

060

063

064

067

097

100

102

104

105

106

107

In this work, we tackle these challenges through a critical evaluation of current cultural value adaptation methods. Through a series of experiments, we reveal the key limitations of using WVS as training data: while WVS provides insights into cultural values, it lacks the contextual depth needed to inform value-driven behavior in downstream tasks. Given these limitations of survey data, we investigate whether augmenting WVS with richer narrative sources like encyclopedic descriptions (Wikipedia) and scenario-based norms (NormAd; Rao et al. 2024) yields more culturally distinct and effective LLM adaptations. We assess the impact on preserving cultural distinctiveness, downstream task performance, and factual knowledge.

To summarize, our contributions are: 1) We identify *cultural interference* in adaptation using WVS, showing that it improves tasks like offensiveness classification but tends to homogenize cultural behaviors rather than preserve their differences. 2) We demonstrate *knowledge interference* from adaptation, where adaptation can degrade factual knowledge understanding. 3) We investigate the impact of augmenting WVS with context-rich narratives (Wikipedia, NormAd) and find that, while their effects on downstream tasks can vary, they help preserve cultural distinctiveness. Our analysis showcased the challenge of aligning cultural values to influence task-specific behavior and highlighted the need for further research into which types of *data* best support effective cultural adaptation.

2 Methodology

We systematically designed experiments to investigate our research question. This section details our methodologies for cultural adaptation and performance evaluation. We begin with zero-shot prompting, followed by single-culture adapter finetuning, and conclude with an analysis of crosscultural interference using auxiliary tasks such as MMLU (Massive Multitask Language Understanding; Hendrycks et al. 2021). We describe datasets, models, and evaluation metrics in §3.

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

2.1 Zero-Shot Prompting

Zero-shot prompting leverages a pre-trained LLM without additional fine-tuning. To adapt the model for a specific target culture, we use simple instructions that reference the culture. For instance, for an OFFENSEVAL-style task, we use the following prompt in Table 1:

You	are	а	{country}	chatbot	that	understands				
{cour	ntry}	's ci	ultural context	t.						
Question: Is the following sentence offensive according to										
{cour	{country}'s cultural norms?									
Inpu	<pre>Input: {input_txt}</pre>									
Ansv	Answer: [Select one: 1. Offensive, 2. Not offensive]									

Table 1: Zero-shot prompt template for offensiveness classification. We list the full prompts used in our study in Appendix E.

Here, the model's responses rely entirely on cultural or multilingual knowledge that was encoded during pre-training. This can create systematic biases when the training data is skewed toward dominant cultural paradigms, which may disadvantage underrepresented groups (Guo et al., 2024).

2.2 Cultural Value Adaptation via Fine-tuning

Beyond zero-shot prompts, we explore explicit finetuning with culture-specific data, referred to as *single-culture adaptation* in our paper. Following Li et al. (2024a), we train a separate LoRA adapter (Hu et al., 2022) for each cultural context using data from a single or a combination of data sources. Each adapter is specialized to reflect the norms, attitudes, or knowledge of that specific culture. However, data sparsity and overfitting are risks, particularly for cultures with limited samples.

In single-culture adaptation, each LoRA adapter is trained to reflect the high-level cultural values present in the training dataset. During inference, the appropriate adapter is activated based on the test target culture specified.

148

149

150

151

152

153

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

189

- 147
- 3 Experimental Setup

We base our experiments on the CultureLLM (Li et al., 2024a) framework, one of the earliest popular adaptation frameworks for cultural values. We design our experimental setup to evaluate across multiple LLMs and languages. Below, we briefly describe datasets used for training and evaluation, model and training hyperparameters, and evaluation metrics.

3.1 Linguistic-Cultural Settings

We conduct experiments on ten distinct linguisticcultural settings. Here, we use the ISO 693-3 code for simplicity: Arabic (ara, Iraq and Jordan), Bengali (ben, Bangladesh), Chinese (zho, China), English (eng, United States), German (deu, Germany), Greek (ell, Greece), Korean (kor, South Korea), Portuguese (por, Brazil), Spanish (spa, Argentina and Mexico), and Turkish (tur, Turkey).

3.2 Training Dataset

We established training scenarios with data drawnfrom three different sources:

WVS. In this setting, we use the WVS and semantically augmented data based on Li et al. (2024a).
WVS is a survey data commonly used in social sciences, as well as a proxy for cultural values in NLP (Adilazuarda et al., 2024). The dataset consists of question-and-answer pairs that provide quantitative indicators of societal beliefs and attitudes (e.g., questions on family importance or religion).

Wikipedia. We select Wikipedia articles with detailed knowledge, region-specific norms, social
practices, and historical contexts of our defined
cultures. These articles can enrich the numeric
survey data with qualitative background.²

NormAd. NormAd (Rao et al., 2024) offers a structured collection of cultural norms and situational examples, demonstrating how abstract values materialize in everyday interactions. Unlike WVS, which provides broad statistical insights, and Wikipedia, which offers descriptive knowledge, NormAd emphasizes behavioral and contextual applications of cultural principles.

3.3 Evaluation Dataset

We use two sets of tasks for evaluations:

Multicultural Multilingual Offensiveness. To
assess the effectiveness of adaptation in models'
behavior on downstream tasks, we evaluate the

adapted models using a combination of datasets (such as OffenseEval2020, Zampieri et al. 2020a) following Li et al. (2024a,b, see original publications or Appendix F.2 for the complete list, which consists of 59 datasets). The test data contains a total of 68607 multilingual, culturally sensitive texts annotated for offensiveness.

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

227

228

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

MMLU. To evaluate the model's general knowledge retention capabilities after cultural adaptation, we assess each adapter's performance on factual question-answering tasks using MMLU (Mukherjee et al., 2024). The MMLU dataset focuses on factual knowledge such as mathematics, biology, chemistry etc., which contains minimal cultural sensitivity. The deviations in MMLU accuracy following cultural fine-tuning would suggest unintended interference, implying the cultural adapter alters the model's underlying knowledge representations.

Using these two datasets, we enable a systematic evaluation of how effectively language models can integrate cultural perspectives into downstream tasks while preserving their factual knowledge.

3.4 Models and Training

In this work, we evaluate three variants of LLMs, including Llama-3.1-8B (base and instructiontuned, Touvron et al. 2023; Dubey et al. 2024), Gemma-2-9B (instruction-tuned, Rivière et al. 2024), and Qwen-2.5-7B (instruction-tuned, Team 2024). In our experiments, all instruction-tuned models are suffixed with "-IT". We perform LoRA adaptation (Hu et al., 2022) on each model using rank-64 LoRA matrices, a batch size of 32, a learning rate of 2×10^{-4} , and six training epochs. Other details on training are in Appendix B.

3.5 Evaluation Metrics

In our main paper, we evaluate each model's performance using freeform generation, assessing its ability to provide culturally relevant justifications or context. Our Appendix includes additional probability-based evaluations, using token-level likelihood scores to measure the model's confidence in classifying offensive content across cultures. Further, we use F1 score as the primary metric for evaluating classification performance on both probability and freeform-based evaluations.

We propose a *cultural distinctiveness* metric, C-DIST score, to further quantify a model's ability to preserve cultural distinctiveness. For *n* cultures, we define a performance matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, where

²See Table 17 for the Wikipedia pages used.

268

 $M_{i,j}$ is the F1-score when a model adapted to culture *i* is evaluated on test data for culture *j*. We compute:

243

244

245

247

248

249

250

251

252

255

259

260

263

264

265

- 1. Extract the diagonal entries³ $\vec{d} = [M_{i,i}]_{i=1}^n$.
- 2. Normalize each $M_{i,i}$ by the maximum value
 - in its column: $\vec{n}_i = M_{i,i} / \max_j M_{j,i}$.
- 3. Average these normalized diagonal entries:

 $D = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \vec{n}_i.$ (1)

In the formula above, we normalize by column (i.e., by the test culture) since each test culture set may have different difficulty and scales. This normalization also helps identify which adapter performs best for a given culture.

In an ideal scenario, the best performing adapted model for a particular culture should be based on its own culture, resulting in a C-DIST score of 1.0. A lower score suggests interference or homogenization, as illustrated in Figure 2. This metric thus quantifies the extent to which each model preserves distinct cultural representations after adaptation.



Figure 2: Single-culture adaptation using WVS data with Llama-3.1-8B-IT, evaluating cross-cultural offensiveness classification tasks. Minimal diagonal pattern is observed in this setting, with a C-DIST score of **0.76**.

4 Adaptation with WVS: Findings and Observed Interferences

In this section, we focus on Llama-3.1-8B models (both base and instruction-tuned) to establish a clear understanding of their performance and the impact of adaptation using WVS data, including cultural and knowledge-based interferences.

4.1 Performance Gains Driven by Enhanced Instruction Following

General Observations. Table 2 compares the approaches for downstream tasks using Llama-3.1-8B models: (i) zero-shot prompting, (ii) single-culture adaptation. Our results show that training using WVS is more effective in improving downstream tasks for the base model when using the single-culture adaptation strategy. Particularly, WVS training is beneficial for underrepresented cultures such as ara and kor. Surprisingly, this positive effect is not seen in the instruction-tuned model, which instead shows a decline in performance.

Performance Gain by Better Instruction Following. To understand why the instruction-tuned model did not benefit from training with WVS, we analyze its downstream task predictions by examining the ratio of invalid responses⁴ before and after adaptation in Table 3 (completed results in Appendix D.3). Compared to zero-shot prompting, both the base model and instruction-tuned model have significantly improved invalid response ratios after adaptation. This suggests that WVS finetuning enhances the model's general instructionfollowing ability but does not necessarily improve its understanding of cultural values.

The high zero-shot invalid response ratio in models shows that achieving strong performance on relevant tasks requires improvements in *both* instruction-following ability and cultural value understanding.

4.2 Observed Cultural Interference Across Models

To further investigate the effect of adaptation, we examine the single-culture adaptation results in a cross-cultural setting (i.e., training on one culture and evaluating on others). Ideally, performance should be highest when the adaptation matches the test culture, forming a diagonal pattern in a heatmap of cross-cultural evaluations. However, as shown in Figure 2, no such diagonal is observed for the instruction-tuned Llama model (with a similar pattern seen for the base model in Figure 10 in the Appendix). The cross-cultural improvements show

³We define "diagonal entries" as the corresponding performance of an adapter on its corresponding culture, e.g. Korean Adapter evaluated on Korean Culture test set, hence we define this as $M_{i,i}$

⁴An invalid response contains nonsensical outputs, fails to follow instructions or lacks a meaningful or relevant answer to the prompt. Appendix 14 shows example responses.

Model	ara	ben	zho	eng	deu	ell	kor	por	spa	tur	Avg.		
Zero-Shot Prompting													
Llama-3.1-8B Llama-3.1-8B-IT	11.96 19.14	17.12 23.10	32.77 30.49	14.85 26.63	23.81 34.36	38.16 37.56	26.14 38.72	19.93 20.92	30.96 39.14	21.95 32.95	23.77 30.00		
Single-Culture Adaptation - WVS													
Llama-3.1-8B Llama-3.1-8B-IT	17.22 19.50	22.01 23.51	38.28 32.69	19.92 22.35	29.30 34.78	36.08 36.98	32.65 37.61	20.15 17.75	27.93 25.85	28.57 28.78	27.21 27.98		

Table 2: Culture adaptation results (F1 scores) under three training scenarios: zero-shot prompting, single-culture adaptation training on Llama-3.1-8B models using WVS training data. The adaptation is evaluated using a multilingual offensiveness dataset (§3.3) reported with averaged F1 scores.

Methods		Invalid (%)
Llama-3.1-8B	Zero-Shot Single-Culture-WVS	20.12 14.68
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	Zero-Shot Single-Culture-WVS	21.20 10.82
Gemma	Zero-Shot Single-Culture-WVS	11.75 0
Qwen	Zero-Shot Single-Culture-WVS	6.8 0

Table 3: Comparison of invalid response rates across different models and scenarios. The Invalid Ratio represents the percentage of responses flagged as invalid across all culture test sets. We provide the complete invalid ratio table in Appendix C.2.

no clear trends, and all adapters enhance performance on the Spanish test data in Figure 2. The C-DIST score (introduced in §3) remains below 0.80 for both models.

314

315

317

318

319

321

322

323

325

326

327

330

332

333

334

335

The results further suggest that WVS is not necessarily the best data source for improving cultural values, as the adapted models fail to preserve their own culture's perspectives, leading to compromised cross-cultural result improvements (i.e., *cultural interference*).

4.3 Factual Knowledge Interference

Fine-tuning improves cultural alignment but may unintentionally impact factual knowledge (Mukherjee et al., 2024). Ideally, cultural value adaptation should not affect objective QA performance.

Table 4 presents the results of single-culture adaptation on MMLU. Both Llama-3.1-8B and Llama-3.1-8B-IT exhibit significant variability when trained under two conditions: standard (using English WVS data) and translated (WVS values in their respective languages). Additionally, the base model shows a decline in performance compared to zero-shot prompting, while the instruction-tuned

Model	Culture	Std.	Transl.
Llama-3.1-8B	ara	32.24	32.83
	ben	48.67	51.81
	zho	38.21	41.08
	eng	23.00	29.58
	deu	33.55	39.68
	ell	30.75	31.55
	kor	27.59	27.57
	por	46.41	28.77
	spa	35.53	35.27
	tur	19.74	18.02
	Avg.	33.57	33.62
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	ara	41.99	37.81
	ben	45.45	42.77
	zho	41.35	46.28
	eng	42.81	49.18
	deu	40.40	41.92
	ell	46.05	36.34
	kor	41.80	44.63
	por	40.11	38.08
	spa	43.77	38.60
	tur	43.93	40.46
	Avg.	42.78	41.61

Table 4: MMLU evaluation after single-culture adaptation with WVS data (F1 Score %). Performance variation is evident across cultural adapters, with observed factual knowledge retention and potential cultural biases. The zero-shot performance is **35.05** for Llama-3.1-8B and **45.38** for Llama-3.1-8B-IT.

model shows performance improvements.

These fluctuations in the results show that adapting to WVS data can change factual knowledge accuracy, depending on language and dataset characteristics. Furthermore, the inconsistencies in probability-based scoring (Appendix 13) also strengthen the observation of *factual knowledge interference*. This underscores the challenge of balancing cultural distinctiveness with factual integrity with the appropriate training data. 337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344



Figure 3: Heatmaps of culture-specific classification performance (Llama-3.1-8B-IT) based on the ranks of the adaptation results. Darker diagonal elements indicate stronger cultural distinctiveness and better C-DIST scores.

Model	Data	C-DIST	F1 Cult. (%)	F1 MMLU (%)
	WVS	0.76	29.61	42.78
	Wiki	0.81	35.39	26.33
	NormAd	0.85	38.42	19.63
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	WVS+Wiki	0.78	31.19	49.02
	WVS+NormAd	0.89	40.94	50.43
	WVS+Wiki+NormAd	0.76	38.21	52.61
	WVS	0.81	39.22	45.31
	Wiki	0.83	36.67	8.23
	NormAd	0.79	37.10	8.07
Gemma-2-9B-IT	WVS+Wiki	0.80	37.25	47.05
	WVS+NormAd	0.83	40.01	55.19
	WVS+Wiki+NormAd	0.73	37.90	64.94
	WVS	0.92	48.05	68.32
	Wiki	0.89	44.21	58.32
	NormAd	0.91	48.31	65.57
Qwen2.5-7B-IT	WVS+Wiki	0.90	46.00	68.22
-	WVS+NormAd	0.94	47.67	67.51
	WVS+Wiki+NormAd	0.86	44.13	67.33

Table 5: Averaged performances on the multilingual multicultural offensiveness classifications (F1-Cult.), MMLU evaluations (F1-MMLU), and C-DIST for various instruction-tuned models and data configurations. Augmenting training with NormAd consistently improves C-DIST, but degrades MMLU performance in Llama-3.1-8B-IT and Gemma-2-9B-IT (likely due to reduced instruction-following ability, see Appendix C.2). The results highlight the complexity of adapting cultural values while maintaining cultural distinctiveness, culture-related task performance, and knowledge retention.

350

357

5 Adaptation with Additional Narratives

While WVS-based training provides a great foundation for cultural value adaptation, our results in Section 4 show that this seldom produces strong diagonal patterns, indicating limited cultural specialization. A critical question is *what additional data could enhance cultural value adaptation and preserving cultural distinctiveness?*

Humans exhibit gaps in what they "think", and how they "behave" (Gross and Niman, 1975; Fazio, 1981, inter alia). This suggests that self-reported value data, such as the WVS, may be insufficient for improving tasks that require behavioral changes based on cultural values (also evident in our analysis in §4.1). Hence, we incorporate two additional data sources, Wikipedia and NormAd, hypothesizing that introducing data containing more objective *narratives of culture* could enhance the model's performance and understanding of cultural values.

Here, we focus our evaluation on instructiontuned models to better reflect real-world use and extend it beyond Llama to include Gemma and Qwen, demonstrating the generality.

Improved C-DIST with Wikipedia and Nor-mAd. The addition of Wikipedia and NormAd significantly enhances cultural distinctiveness (i.e.,

6

360

361



Figure 4: Kernel Density Estimation (KDE) plots of UMAP embeddings using LaBSE (Feng et al., 2022) for Wikipedia and NormAd datasets. These visualizations show the density distributions of the data in the reduced-dimensional space.

C-DIST). Table 5 shows that integrating these datasets consistently improves C-DIST scores across all three models, indicating more culturally distinct behavior. For instance, Llama-3.1-8B-IT's C-DIST improves from 0.76 (WVS-only) to 0.89 (WVS+NormAd). Figure 3 illustrates this shift, as the heatmaps become more diagonal and show reduced cross-cultural interference. *Incorporating additional cultural narratives retains cultural distinctiveness*.

374

377

379

390

391

394

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

Improve over WVS alone in many cases. The addition of Wikipedia and NormAd data leads to notable gains in offensive classifications compared to training with WVS data alone. For instance, Llama-3.1-8B-IT's performance on the offensiveness classification tasks (denoted as **F1 Cult**. in Table 5) rises from 29.61% (WVS-only) to 40.94% (WVS+NormAd), reflecting the value of richer, context-laden cultural information. However, Gemma-2-9B-IT and Qwen2.5-7B-IT see a marginal change in F1 Cult., when WVS is augmented with NormAd. This highlights that while Llama-3.1-8B-IT showed clear benefits on this downstream task from narrative augmentation, the effect on tasks is model-dependent.

For MMLU, combining WVS with Wikipedia and NormAd (WVS+Wiki+NormAd) yields the best results for both Llama-3.1-8B-IT and Gemma-2-9B-IT. However, our results show anomalies, indicating the ongoing challenge of achieving robust cultural adaptation without compromising general knowledge retention. Further, the general trend indicates that context-rich data, *when added to WVS*, effectively helps offset the knowledge interference introduced by survey data alone. Overall, our findings suggest that *curated narratives are crucial for* retaining the model's foundational understanding of cultural knowledge during adaptation.

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

6 Further Analysis

Our empirical results suggest that adding objective cultural descriptions and context-specific examples improves cultural distinctiveness and performance on downstream tasks. In this section, we analyze the data further to understand why.

Overlapping Embeddings versus Distinct Adaptations. We first embed each data source using LaBSE (Feng et al. 2022, a multilingual embedding model that compresses texts into a shared semantic space), then project the embedding with kernel density estimation (KDE). The results for WVS, Wikipedia and NormAd are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 4 respectively. It is interesting to note that there is no distinct separation between cultures within a dataset. This suggests that semantic differences in the data are not the primary factor influencing downstream differences after training.

This discrepancy likely occurs because Wikipedia and NormAd differ in how they encode cultural details, even if their embeddings are not sharply separated (see Table 6 in Appendix for data examples). Wikipedia provides broad encyclopedic summaries, covering historical contexts and traditions, while NormAd provides scenario-specific norms that directly inform cultural behaviors (e.g., respecting elders in formal gatherings). These nuanced differences at the domain level do not necessarily create distinct embedding clusters. Nevertheless, the descriptive, scenario-based NormAd dataset enhances fine-tuning by providing more targeted cultural cues. As a result, the model can better isolate culture-specific behaviors, yielding higherC-DIST scores.

6.1 Summary of Findings

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

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

Fine-tuning on WVS data alone is ineffective for cultural value adaptation, as shown by low C-DIST scores, weaker downstream task performance, and reduced factual knowledge retention. While overall performance may vary across tasks, augmenting survey data with more descriptive sources enables a model to *retain cultural distinctiveness* and *retain factual knowledge* better. Combining WVS survey data with NormAd situational norms consistently yields clearer cultural separation, as evidenced by improved C-DIST score (Table 5). Wikipedia data offers moderate gains through structured knowledge, but NormAd's scenario-based behavioral cues drive stronger cultural differentiation when paired with WVS.

Our findings suggest that combining scenariobased narratives (e.g., NormAd) with survey patterns (WVS) better preserve cultural distinctiveness and should be investigated further.

7 Related Work

General Adaptation to Cultural Values. Several existing work approaches cultural value adaptations in LLMs through prompting (AlKhamissi et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024; Tao et al., 2024), continual pre-training on diverse multilingual data (Wang et al., 2024; Choenni et al., 2024) or direct tuning on survey data or synthetic data based on survey (Li et al., 2024a; Xu et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024b). In particular, the basis of our investigation, CultureLLM (Li et al., 2024a), employs semantically augmented data from the World Values Survey (WVS) to represent the average opinion of a culture. In this paper, we extend the investigation using descriptive cultural principles and provide a comprehensive analysis.

Recent research also explored value prediction with In-Context Learning (ICL)-based adaptation methods (Choenni and Shutova, 2024; Jiang et al., 2024; Myung et al., 2025). Particularly, Jiang et al. (2024) showed a mild inconsistency when models adapted using individual data from one continent were evaluated using data from another (e.g., training data for other continents generally improves alignment to Oceania people). While related to our work, we focus on the impact at the country level rather than the broader continent level. **Pluralistic Alignment.** Related to cultural value adaptation, recent studies advocate for pluralistic alignment (Sorensen et al., 2024), wherein a model should reflect the values of multiple stakeholders or sub-groups. Feng et al. (2024) proposed a modular pluralistic alignment method, which primarily focuses on integrating diverse opinions. This research direction differs from typical existing cultural value adaptation work, which mainly focuses on reflecting the averaged value of a culture (Li et al., 2024a,b; Tao et al., 2024; AlKhamissi et al., 2024; Choenni et al., 2024, inter alia). 494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

Cultural Inconsistencies in LLMs. Recent work highlights the challenges LLMs face in maintaining consistent cultural values across different linguistic and social contexts (Adilazuarda et al., 2024; Beck et al., 2024). One of the reasons why these inconsistencies arise is due to biases in training data (Mihalcea et al., 2024; Sorensen et al., 2022), which often prioritize Western or English-centric perspectives, leading to misalignment when applied to non-WEIRD cultures (Mihalcea et al., 2024). Additionally, Mukherjee et al. (2024), shows that even the current LLMs are prone to a slight cultural and noncultural perturbation even on factual questions such as MMLU. This work builds upon the findings on how existing adaptation strategies address cultural disparities in downstream tasks.

8 Conclusion

In this paper, we investigated the limitations of using World Values Survey (WVS) data for cultural value adaptation in LLMs and explored the potential of augmenting it with scenario-based cultural narratives. Our findings reveal that relying solely on WVS can lead to homogenized cultural representations and interfere with factual knowledge. We demonstrate that incorporating encyclopedic (Wikipedia) and scenario-based (NormAd) narratives, particularly the latter, significantly enhances the cultural distinctiveness of adapted models. While some variations in results were observed, we found that the augmentation could still improve nuanced cultural representations and preserve factual knowledge in models. Our findings reveal a complex trade-off between cultural distinctiveness, task performance, and knowledge retention, highlighting the need for further research on optimal data combinations and adaptation strategies to balance these competing objectives.

545

550

551

554

557

558

576

581

582

583

584

587

588

589

Limitations

In this work, we focus on a select set of data as the source data for adaptation, including the World Values Survey (WVS), Wikipedia, and NormAd. While these datasets offer diverse cultural signals, they each come with inherent biases. For instance, WVS could be subject to self-reporting biases, Wikipedia reflects editorial biases, and NormAd consists of curated examples that may not fully represent all cultural variations.

Furthermore, our evaluation is limited to selected culturally sensitive tasks, which may not fully capture the broader range of tasks needed to assess how cultural value adaptation influences behavior. However, such an investigation requires careful task design and is beyond the scope of this work.

Ethics Statement

Our work aims to enhance cultural value adaptations in NLP systems while carefully considering 561 potential societal impacts. While this research may 562 help reduce Western-centric bias and improve offensive content classification by incorporating diverse cultural values, we acknowledge the risks 565 of potential misuse, including cultural stereotyp-566 ing and demographic profiling. We emphasize that 567 568 our findings should be applied thoughtfully, with continuous consideration of cultural context, while being careful not to anthropomorphize LLMs by 570 attributing to them true cultural understanding or 571 awareness. Additionally, we encourage future research to develop more nuanced methodologies and 573 evaluation frameworks that better represent cultural 574 diversity in NLP systems.

References

- 2019. Turkish Spam V01. UCI Machine Learning Repository. DOI: https://doi.org/10.24432/C5WG7F.
- Muhammad Farid Adilazuarda, Sagnik Mukherjee, Pradhyumna Lavania, Siddhant Shivdutt Singh, Alham Fikri Aji, Jacki O'Neill, Ashutosh Modi, and Monojit Choudhury. 2024. Towards measuring and modeling "culture" in LLMs: A survey. In Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 15763–15784, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- aimansnigdha. 2018. Bangla-abusive-commentdataset. https://github.com/aimansnigdha/Bangla-Abusive-Comment-Dataset.

Badr AlKhamissi, Muhammad ElNokrashy, Mai Alkhamissi, and Mona Diab. 2024. Investigating cultural alignment of large language models. In Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 12404–12422, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics. 591

592

594

595

596

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

- Miguel Á Álvarez-Carmona, Estefania Guzmán-Falcón, Manuel Montes-y Gómez, Hugo Jair Escalante, Luis Villasenor-Pineda, Verónica Reyes-Meza, and Antonio Rico-Sulayes. 2018. Overview of mex-a3t at ibereval 2018: Authorship and aggressiveness analysis in mexican spanish tweets. In Notebook papers of 3rd sepln workshop on evaluation of human language technologies for iberian languages (ibereval), seville, spain, volume 6.
- Valerio Basile, Cristina Bosco, Elisabetta Fersini, Debora Nozza, Viviana Patti, Francisco Manuel Rangel Pardo, Paolo Rosso, and Manuela Sanguinetti. 2019. Semeval-2019 task 5: Multilingual detection of hate speech against immigrants and women in twitter. In *Proceedings of the 13th international workshop on semantic evaluation*, pages 54–63.
- Tilman Beck, Hendrik Schuff, Anne Lauscher, and Iryna Gurevych. 2024. Sensitivity, performance, robustness: Deconstructing the effect of sociodemographic prompting. In Proceedings of the 18th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 2589–2615, St. Julian's, Malta. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Shiladitya Bhattacharya, Siddharth Singh, Ritesh Kumar, Akanksha Bansal, Akash Bhagat, Yogesh Dawer, Bornini Lahiri, and Atul Kr. Ojha. 2020. Developing a multilingual annotated corpus of misogyny and aggression. In *Proceedings of the Second Workshop on Trolling, Aggression and Cyberbullying*, pages 158–168, Marseille, France. European Language Resources Association (ELRA).
- Yong Cao, Li Zhou, Seolhwa Lee, Laura Cabello, Min Chen, and Daniel Hershcovich. 2023. Assessing cross-cultural alignment between ChatGPT and human societies: An empirical study. In *Proceedings of the First Workshop on Cross-Cultural Considerations in NLP (C3NLP)*, pages 53–67, Dubrovnik, Croatia. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tommaso Caselli, Valerio Basile, Jelena Mitrović, Inga Kartoziya, and Michael Granitzer. 2020. I feel offended, don't be abusive! implicit/explicit messages in offensive and abusive language. In *Proceedings* of the Twelfth Language Resources and Evaluation Conference, pages 6193–6202.
- Çağrı Çöltekin. 2020. A corpus of turkish offensive language on social media. In *Proceedings of The 12th Language Resources and Evaluation Conference*, pages 6174–6184, Marseille, France.
- 9

Rochelle Choenni, Anne Lauscher, and Ekaterina Shutova. 2024. The echoes of multilinguality: Tracing cultural value shifts during language model finetuning. In Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 15042–15058, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.

647

654

663

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

679

680

684

685

702

- Rochelle Choenni and Ekaterina Shutova. 2024. Selfalignment: Improving alignment of cultural values in llms via in-context learning. *CoRR*, abs/2408.16482.
- Shammur Absar Chowdhury, Hamdy Mubarak, Ahmed Abdelali, Soon-gyo Jung, Bernard J Jansen, and Joni Salminen. 2020. A multi-platform arabic news comment dataset for offensive language detection. In *Proceedings of the Twelfth Language Resources and Evaluation Conference*, pages 6203–6212.
 - 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.
- daanVeer. 2020. Korean hatespeech dataset. https://github.com/daanVeer/HateSpeech_dataset.
- Thomas Davidson, Dana Warmsley, Michael Macy, and Ingmar Weber. 2017. Automated hate speech detection and the problem of offensive language. In *Proceedings of the 11th International AAAI Conference on Web and Social Media*, ICWSM '17, pages 512–515.
- Angel Felipe Magnossao de Paula and Ipek Baris Schlicht. 2021. Ai-upv at iberlef-2021 detoxis task: Toxicity detection in immigration-related web news comments using transformers and statistical models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2111.04530*.
- Rogers P. de Pelle and Viviane P. Moreira. 2017. Offensive comments in the brazilian web: a dataset and baseline results.
- Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, Anirudh Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Aobo Yang, Archi Mitra, Archie Sravankumar, Artem Korenev, Arthur Hinsvark, Arun Rao, Aston Zhang, Aurélien Rodriguez, Austen Gregerson, Ava Spataru, Baptiste Rozière, Bethany Biron, Binh Tang, Bobbie Chern, Charlotte Caucheteux, Chaya Nayak, Chloe Bi, Chris Marra, Chris McConnell, Christian Keller, Christophe Touret, Chunyang Wu, Corinne Wong, Cristian Canton Ferrer, Cyrus Nikolaidis, Damien Allonsius, Daniel Song, Danielle Pintz, Danny Livshits, David Esiobu, Dhruv Choudhary, Dhruv Mahajan, Diego Garcia-Olano, Diego Perino, Dieuwke Hupkes, Egor Lakomkin, Ehab AlBadawy, Elina Lobanova,

Emily Dinan, Eric Michael Smith, Filip Radenovic, Frank Zhang, Gabriel Synnaeve, Gabrielle Lee, Georgia Lewis Anderson, Graeme Nail, Grégoire Mialon, Guan Pang, Guillem Cucurell, Hailey Nguyen, Hannah Korevaar, Hu Xu, Hugo Touvron, Iliyan Zarov, Imanol Arrieta Ibarra, Isabel M. Kloumann, Ishan Misra, Ivan Evtimov, Jade Copet, Jaewon Lee, Jan Geffert, Jana Vranes, Jason Park, Jay Mahadeokar, Jeet Shah, Jelmer van der Linde, Jennifer Billock, Jenny Hong, Jenya Lee, Jeremy Fu, Jianfeng Chi, Jianyu Huang, Jiawen Liu, Jie Wang, Jiecao Yu, Joanna Bitton, Joe Spisak, Jongsoo Park, Joseph Rocca, Joshua Johnstun, Joshua Saxe, Junteng Jia, Kalyan Vasuden Alwala, Kartikeya Upasani, Kate Plawiak, Ke Li, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin Stone, and et al. 2024. The llama 3 herd of models. CoRR, abs/2407.21783.

704

705

708

711

712

713

714

715

716

719

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

756

757

759

760

- RH Fazio. 1981. Direct experience and attitude behavior consistency. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, 14.
- Fangxiaoyu Feng, Yinfei Yang, Daniel Cer, Naveen Arivazhagan, and Wei Wang. 2022. Language-agnostic bert sentence embedding.
- Shangbin Feng, Taylor Sorensen, Yuhan Liu, Jillian Fisher, Chan Young Park, Yejin Choi, and Yulia Tsvetkov. 2024. Modular pluralism: Pluralistic alignment via multi-LLM collaboration. In *Proceedings* of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 4151–4171, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Elisabetta Fersini, Paolo Rosso, Maria Anzovino, et al. 2018. Overview of the task on automatic misogyny identification at ibereval 2018. *Ibereval@ sepln*, 2150:214–228.
- Clifford Geertz. 2017. *The interpretation of cultures*. Basic books.
- Steven Jay Gross and C Michael Niman. 1975. Attitudebehavior consistency: A review. *Public opinion quarterly*, 39(3):358–368.
- Yufei Guo, Muzhe Guo, Juntao Su, Zhou Yang, Mengqiu Zhu, Hongfei Li, Mengyang Qiu, and Shuo Shuo Liu. 2024. Bias in large language models: Origin, evaluation, and mitigation. *CoRR*, abs/2411.10915.
- Christian Haerpfer, Alejandro Moreno Ronald Inglehart, Christian Welzel, Jaime Diez-Medrano Kseniya Kizilova, Milena Lagos, Pippa Norris, Eduard Ponarin, and Bianca Puranen. 2022. World values survey: Round seven.

HASOC. 2020. Hasoc2020. https://hasocfire.github.io/hasoc/2020/index.html.

Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. 2021. Measuring massive multitask language understanding. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.

- https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/kbulutozler/5kturkish-tweets-with-incivil-content. Kaggle. 2022. turkish offensive language detection. https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/toygarr/turkishoffensive-language-detection. Habibe Karayiğit, Çiğdem İnan Acı, and Ali Akdağlı. 2021. Detecting abusive instagram comments in turkish using convolutional neural network and machine learning methods. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 174:114802. Jean Lee, Taejun Lim, Heejun Lee, Bogeun Jo, Yangsok Kim, Heegeun Yoon, and Soyeon Caren Han. 2022. K-MHaS: A multi-label hate speech detection dataset in Korean online news comment. In Proceedings of the 29th International Conference on Computational Linguistics, pages 3530–3538, Gyeongju, Republic of Korea. International Committee on Computational Linguistics. Joao A Leite, Diego F Silva, Kalina Bontcheva, and Carolina Scarton. 2020. Toxic language detection in social media for brazilian portuguese: New dataset and multilingual analysis. arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.04543. Cheng Li, Mengzhou Chen, Jindong Wang, Sunayana Sitaram, and Xing Xie. 2024a. CultureLLM: Incorporating cultural differences into large language models. In The Thirty-eighth Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems. arXiv preprint Cheng Li, Damien Teney, Linyi Yang, Qingsong Wen, Xing Xie, and Jindong Wang. 2024b. CulturePark: Boosting cross-cultural understanding in large language models. In The Thirty-eighth Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems. Chen Cecilia Liu, Iryna Gurevych, and Anna Korhonen. 2024. Culturally aware and adapted NLP: A taxonomy and a survey of the state of the art. CoRR, abs/2406.03930. Rada Mihalcea, Oana Ignat, Longju Bai, Angana Borah,
 - Luis Chiruzzo, Zhijing Jin, Claude Kwizera, Joan Nwatu, Soujanya Poria, and Thamar Solorio. 2024. Why ai is weird and should not be this way: Towards ai for everyone, with everyone, by everyone. CoRR, abs/2410.16315.
 - BEEP! Korean corpus of online news comments for toxic speech detection. In Proceedings of the Eighth International Workshop on Natural Language Processing for Social Media, pages 25-31, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
 - Hamdy Mubarak, Hend Al-Khalifa, and AbdulMohsen Al-Thubaity. 2022. Overview of osact5 shared task on arabic offensive language and hate speech detection. In Proceedinsg of the 5th Workshop on Open-Source Arabic Corpora and Processing Tools with Shared Tasks on Qur'an QA and Fine-Grained Hate Speech Detection, pages 162–166.

Joseph Henrich, Steven J Heine, and Ara Norenzayan. 2010. The weirdest people in the world? Behavioral and brain sciences, 33(2-3):61-83.

761

762

770

771

772

786

791

811

812

813

814

815

- Daniel Hershcovich, Stella Frank, Heather Lent, Miryam de Lhoneux, Mostafa Abdou, Stephanie Brandl, Emanuele Bugliarello, Laura Cabello Piqueras, Ilias Chalkidis, Ruixiang Cui, Constanza Fierro, Katerina Margatina, Phillip Rust, and Anders Søgaard. 2022. Challenges and strategies in crosscultural NLP. In Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 6997–7013, Dublin, Ireland. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Dirk Hovy and Diyi Yang. 2021. The importance of modeling social factors of language: Theory and practice. In Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 588-602, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
 - Edward J. Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang, and Weizhu Chen. 2022. LoRA: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. In The Tenth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2022, Virtual Event, April 25-29, 2022.
- F Husain. 2020. Osact4 shared task on offensive language detection: Intensive preprocessingbased approach. arxiv 2020. arXiv:2005.07297.
- Liwei Jiang, Taylor Sorensen, Sydney Levine, and Yejin Choi. 2024. Can language models reason about individualistic human values and preferences? CoRR, abs/2410.03868.
- Zhuoren Jiang, Zhe Gao, Guoxiu He, Yangyang Kang, Changlong Sun, Qiong Zhang, Luo Si, and Xiaozhong Liu. 2019. Detect camouflaged spam content via stoneskipping: Graph and text joint embedding for chinese character variation representation. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP2019). ACM.
- Rebecca L. Johnson, Giada Pistilli, Natalia Menédez-González, Leslye Denisse Dias Duran, Enrico Panai, Julija Kalpokiene, and Donald Jay Bertulfo. 2022. The ghost in the machine has an american accent: value conflict in GPT-3. ArXiv preprint, abs/2203.07785.
- Sanaa Kaddoura and Safaa Henno. 2024. Dataset of arabic spam and ham tweets. Data in Brief, 52(10990):4.
- Kaggle. 2019. Jigsaw-multilingual-toxicity. https://www.kaggle.com/code/tarunpaparaju/jigsawmultilingual-toxicity-eda-models.

Kaggle. 2021. 5k turkish tweets with incivil content.

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

831

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

847

848

849

850

851

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

863

864

865

866

867

868

870

871

872

Jihyung Moon, Won Ik Cho, and Junbum Lee. 2020.

Sagnik Mukherjee, Muhammad Farid Adilazuarda, Sunayana Sitaram, Kalika Bali, Alham Fikri Aji, and Monojit Choudhury. 2024. Cultural conditioning or placebo? on the effectiveness of socio-demographic prompting. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 15811–15837, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.

873

874

900

901

902

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915 916

917

918

919

921

922

923

925

928

- Junho Myung, Nayeon Lee, Yi Zhou, Jiho Jin, Rifki Afina Putri, Dimosthenis Antypas, Hsuvas Borkakoty, Eunsu Kim, Carla Perez-Almendros, Abinew Ali Ayele, Víctor Gutiérrez-Basulto, Yazmín Ibáñez-García, Hwaran Lee, Shamsuddeen Hassan Muhammad, Kiwoong Park, Anar Sabuhi Rzayev, Nina White, Seid Muhie Yimam, Mohammad Taher Pilehvar, Nedjma Ousidhoum, Jose Camacho-Collados, and Alice Oh. 2025. Blend: A benchmark for Ilms on everyday knowledge in diverse cultures and languages.
- Nedjma Ousidhoum, Zizheng Lin, Hongming Zhang, Yangqiu Song, and Dit-Yan Yeung. 2019. Multilingual and multi-aspect hate speech analysis. In *Proceedings of EMNLP*. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Juan Carlos Pereira-Kohatsu, Lara Quijano-Sánchez, Federico Liberatore, and Miguel Camacho-Collados. 2019. Detecting and monitoring hate speech in twitter. *Sensors*, 19(21):4654.
- Flor Miriam Plaza-del Arco, Arturo Montejo-Ráez, L Alfonso Urena Lopez, and María-Teresa Martín-Valdivia. 2021. Offendes: A new corpus in spanish for offensive language research. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Recent Advances in Natural Language Processing (RANLP 2021)*, pages 1096–1108.
- Aida Ramezani and Yang Xu. 2023. Knowledge of cultural moral norms in large language models. In Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 428–446, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Abhinav Rao, Akhila Yerukola, Vishwa Shah, Katharina Reinecke, and Maarten Sap. 2024. NormAd: A framework for measuring the cultural adaptability of large language models. *CoRR*, abs/2404.12464.
- Morgane Rivière, Shreya Pathak, Pier Giuseppe Sessa, Cassidy Hardin, Surya Bhupatiraju, Léonard Hussenot, Thomas Mesnard, Bobak Shahriari, Alexandre Ramé, Johan Ferret, Peter Liu, Pouya Tafti, Abe Friesen, Michelle Casbon, Sabela Ramos, Ravin Kumar, Charline Le Lan, Sammy Jerome, Anton Tsitsulin, Nino Vieillard, Piotr Stanczyk, Sertan Girgin, Nikola Momchev, Matt Hoffman, Shantanu Thakoor, Jean-Bastien Grill, Behnam Neyshabur, Olivier Bachem, Alanna Walton, Aliaksei Severyn, Alicia Parrish, Aliya Ahmad, Allen Hutchison, Alvin Abdagic, Amanda Carl, Amy Shen, Andy Brock,

Andy Coenen, Anthony Laforge, Antonia Paterson, Ben Bastian, Bilal Piot, Bo Wu, Brandon Royal, Charlie Chen, Chintu Kumar, Chris Perry, Chris Welty, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Danila Sinopalnikov, David Weinberger, Dimple Vijaykumar, Dominika Rogozinska, Dustin Herbison, Elisa Bandy, Emma Wang, Eric Noland, Erica Moreira, Evan Senter, Evgenii Eltyshev, Francesco Visin, Gabriel Rasskin, Gary Wei, Glenn Cameron, Gus Martins, Hadi Hashemi, Hanna Klimczak-Plucinska, Harleen Batra, Harsh Dhand, Ivan Nardini, Jacinda Mein, Jack Zhou, James Svensson, Jeff Stanway, Jetha Chan, Jin Peng Zhou, Joana Carrasqueira, Joana Iljazi, Jocelyn Becker, Joe Fernandez, Joost van Amersfoort, Josh Gordon, Josh Lipschultz, Josh Newlan, Ju-yeong Ji, Kareem Mohamed, Kartikeya Badola, Kat Black, Katie Millican, Keelin McDonell, Kelvin Nguyen, Kiranbir Sodhia, Kish Greene, Lars Lowe Sjösund, Lauren Usui, Laurent Sifre, Lena Heuermann, Leticia Lago, and Lilly Mc-Nealus. 2024. Gemma 2: Improving open language models at a practical size. CoRR, abs/2408.00118.

930

931

932

933

934

935

936

937

938

939

940

941

942

943

944

945

946

947

948

949

950

951

952

953

954

955

956

957

958

959

960

961

962

963

964

965

966

967

968

969

970

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

978

979

980

981

982

983

984

985

986

- Nauros Romim, Mosahed Ahmed, Hriteshwar Talukder, and Md Saiful Islam. 2021. Hate speech detection in the bengali language: A dataset and its baseline evaluation. In *Proceedings of International Joint Conference on Advances in Computational Intelligence: IJCACI 2020*, pages 457–468. Springer.
- Sara Rosenthal, Pepa Atanasova, Georgi Karadzhov, Marcos Zampieri, and Preslav Nakov. 2020. Solid: A large-scale semi-supervised dataset for offensive language identification. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.14454*.
- Björn Ross, Michael Rist, Guillermo Carbonell, Benjamin Cabrera, Nils Kurowsky, and Michael Wojatzki.
 2016. Measuring the Reliability of Hate Speech Annotations: The Case of the European Refugee Crisis. In Proceedings of NLP4CMC III: 3rd Workshop on Natural Language Processing for Computer-Mediated Communication, volume 17 of Bochumer Linguistische Arbeitsberichte, pages 6–9, Bochum.
- Paul Röttger, Haitham Seelawi, Debora Nozza, Zeerak Talat, and Bertie Vidgen. 2022. Multilingual hatecheck: Functional tests for multilingual hate speech detection models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.09917*.
- Omar Sharif and Mohammed Moshiul Hoque. 2022. Tackling cyber-aggression: Identification and finegrained categorization of aggressive texts on social media using weighted ensemble of transformers. *Neurocomputing*, 490:462–481.
- Hoyun Song, Soo Hyun Ryu, Huije Lee, and Jong C Park. 2021. A large-scale comprehensive abusiveness detection dataset with multifaceted labels from reddit. In *Proceedings of the 25th Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning*, pages 552–561.
- Taylor Sorensen, Jared Moore, Jillian Fisher, Mitchell L. Gordon, Niloofar Mireshghallah,

Christopher Michael Rytting, Andre Ye, Liwei Jiang, Ximing Lu, Nouha Dziri, Tim Althoff, and Yejin Choi. 2024. Position: A roadmap to pluralistic alignment. In Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 2024, Vienna, Austria, July 21-27, 2024.

991

997

998

999

1000

1001

1003

1004

1006

1007

1008

1009

1010

1011

1012 1013

1014

1018

1019 1020

1021

1023

1024

1027

1029

1030

1031

1032

1033 1034

1035

1038

1039 1040

1041

1043

1044

- Taylor Sorensen, Joshua Robinson, Christopher Rytting, Alexander Shaw, Kyle Rogers, Alexia Delorey, Mahmoud Khalil, Nancy Fulda, and David Wingate. 2022. An information-theoretic approach to prompt engineering without ground truth labels. In *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 819–862, Dublin, Ireland. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Yan Tao, Olga Viberg, Ryan S Baker, and René F Kizilcec. 2024. Cultural bias and cultural alignment of large language models. *PNAS nexus*, 3(9):pgae346.
- Qwen Team. 2024. Qwen2.5: A party of foundation models.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurélien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. 2023. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *CoRR*, abs/2302.13971.
- Francielle Vargas, Isabelle Carvalho, Fabiana Rodrigues de Góes, Thiago Pardo, and Fabrício Benevenuto. 2022. HateBR: A large expert annotated corpus of Brazilian Instagram comments for offensive language and hate speech detection. In Proceedings of the Thirteenth Language Resources and Evaluation Conference, pages 7174–7183, Marseille, France. European Language Resources Association.
- Wenxuan Wang, Wenxiang Jiao, Jingyuan Huang, Ruyi Dai, Jen-tse Huang, Zhaopeng Tu, and Michael Lyu. 2024. Not all countries celebrate thanksgiving: On the cultural dominance in large language models. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 6349–6384, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zirui Wang, Zachary C. Lipton, and Yulia Tsvetkov. 2020. On negative interference in multilingual models: Findings and a meta-learning treatment. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, pages 4438–4450, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zeerak Waseem and Dirk Hovy. 2016. Hateful symbols or hateful people? predictive features for hate speech detection on twitter. In *Proceedings of the NAACL student research workshop*, pages 88–93.
- Michael Wiegand, Melanie Siegel, and Josef Ruppenhofer. 2018. Overview of the germeval 2018 shared task on the identification of offensive language.

Guohai Xu, Jiayi Liu, Ming Yan, Haotian Xu, Jinghui Si, Zhuoran Zhou, Peng Yi, Xing Gao, Jitao Sang, Rong Zhang, Ji Zhang, Chao Peng, Fei Huang, and Jingren Zhou. 2023. Cvalues: Measuring the values of chinese large language models from safety to responsibility. *arXiv* 2307.09705.

1045

1046

1048

1049

1051

1052

1054

1056

1057

1058

1059

1060

1061

1062

1063

1065

1066

1067

1068

1069

1070

1071

1072

1073

- Shaoyang Xu, Yongqi Leng, Linhao Yu, and Deyi Xiong. 2024. Self-pluralising culture alignment for large language models. *CoRR*, abs/2410.12971.
- Marcos Zampieri, Preslav Nakov, Sara Rosenthal, Pepa Atanasova, Georgi Karadzhov, Hamdy Mubarak, Leon Derczynski, Zeses Pitenis, and Çagri Çöltekin. 2020a. Semeval-2020 task 12: Multilingual offensive language identification in social media (offenseval 2020). In *Proceedings of the Fourteenth Workshop on Semantic Evaluation, SemEval@COLING 2020, Barcelona (online), December 12-13, 2020*, pages 1425–1447. International Committee for Computational Linguistics.
- Marcos Zampieri, Preslav Nakov, Sara Rosenthal, Pepa Atanasova, Georgi Karadzhov, Hamdy Mubarak, Leon Derczynski, Zeses Pitenis, and Çağrı Çöltekin. 2020b. Semeval-2020 task 12: Multilingual offensive language identification in social media (offenseval 2020). *arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.07235*.
- Jingyan Zhou, Jiawen Deng, Fei Mi, Yitong Li, Yasheng Wang, Minlie Huang, Xin Jiang, Qun Liu, and Helen Meng. 2022. Towards identifying social bias in dialog systems: Frame, datasets, and benchmarks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.08011*.

A Data Characteristics

A.1 Additional KDE Plots



Figure 5: Kernel Density Estimation (KDE) plots using t-SNE and UMAP projections for Wikipedia and NormAd datasets. Although projection methods vary, none of the embeddings are distinctly separable by culture, indicating shared semantic similarities of data.

1077 A.2 Samples of WVS, Wiki, and NormAd Data

Table 6 presents a comparison of social values across different cultures by showcasing sample data from the World Values Survey (WVS), Wikipedia, and the NormAd dataset.

WVS	Wikipedia	NormAd
"topic": "SOCIAL VAL- UES", "q_id": "27", "q_content": "One of my main goals in life has been to make my parents proud", "op- tion": "1. Strongly agree 2. agree 3. Dis- agree 4. Strongly dis- agree"	Arab culture is the culture of the Arabs, from the Atlantic Ocean in the west to the Arabian Sea in the east, in a region of the Middle East and North Africa known as the Arab world. The various religions the Arabs have adopted throughout their history and the various empires and king- doms that have ruled and took lead of the civilization have contributed to the ethnogenesis and formation of modern Arab culture.	 (Egypt - Background) Basic Etiquette It is considered impolite to point the toe, heel or any part of the foot toward another person. Showing the sole of one's shoe is also impolite. Modest dress and presentation is highly valued in Egyptian culture. Greetings often occur before any form of social interaction. For example, a person joining a group is expected to greet all those present. Generally, the younger defer to the older through showing respect.
"topic": "SOCIAL VAL- UES", "q_id": "28", "option": "1. Strongly agree 2. agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly disagree", "q_content": "When a mother works for pay, the children suf- fer"	The culture of Bengal defines the cul- tural heritage of the Bengali people native to eastern regions of the In- dian subcontinent, mainly what is today Bangladesh and the Indian states of West Bengal and Tripura, where they form the dominant ethnolinguistic group and the Bengali language is the official and pri- mary language. Bengal has a recorded history of 1,400 years. After the par- tition, Bangladeshi culture became dis- tinct from the mainstream Bengali cul- ture.	(Spain - Value) Flexibility in social interactions and a relaxed approach to time and financial contributions among peers.
"topic": "SOCIAL VAL- UES", "q_id": "29", "option": "1. Strongly agree 2. agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly disagree", "q_content": "On the whole, men make better political leaders than women do"	Chinese culture is one of the world's oldest cultures, originating thousands of years ago. The culture prevails across a large geographical region in East Asia with Sinosphere in whole and is ex- tremely diverse, with customs and tra- ditions varying greatly between coun- ties, provinces, cities, towns. The terms 'China' and the geographical landmass of 'China' have shifted across the cen- turies, before the name 'China' became commonplace in modernity.	(UK - Story) Elena was planning to visit her friend Tom's house. She texted Tom to ask if it was a good time for him. Upon arrival, she made sure not to overstay by asking if he needed her to leave at a certain time. Is what Elena did socially acceptable?

Table 6: Comparison of data across different cultures from the data sources used in our paper.

1078

1079

B Training Procedure and Data Reformulation	1080
Following Li et al. (2024a), our experiments employ LoRA adapters with 4-bit quantization using the	1081
BitsAndBytes configuration to optimize the memory usage. We use an alpha value of 16, a dropout rate of	1082
0.1, and a rank of 64, specifically targeting the query (q_proj) and value (v_proj) projection matrices of	1083
the transformer architecture.	1084
We reformulate the training data using the following formats:	1085
1. Standard Survey Training (WVS). The WVS survey data is structured with clear task markers:	1086
### Task: Survey Question-Answer	1087
<pre>### Question: [question_content]</pre>	1088
<pre>### Answer: [answer_content]</pre>	1089
	1090
2. Wikipedia. When the Wikipedia data is used, the information is formatted as:	1091
### Task: Cultural Context	1092
<pre>### Culture: [culture_name]</pre>	1093
<pre>### Description: [cultural_context]</pre>	1094
	1095
3. NormAd. We integrate the data using the following prompt:	1096
### Task: NormAd Cultural Context	1097
<pre>### Culture: [culture_name]</pre>	1098
### Country: [country_name]	1099
### Background: [background_info]	1100
### Rule-of-Thumb: [cultural_rule]	1101
<pre>### Story: [narrative]</pre>	1102
<pre>### Explanation: [detailed_explanation]</pre>	1103
	1104
The training process optimizes memory usage with gradient checkpointing and uses a constant learning	1105
rate of 2×10^{-4} . The model is trained for 6 epochs with a warmup ratio of 0.03 and employs 8-bit Adam	1106

optimization with a weight decay of 0.001. For reproducibility, the process is seeded (seed=42) and ensures deterministic CUDA operations.

C Full Performance Tables

Model	ara	ben	zho	eng	deu	ell	kor	por	spa	tur	Avg.		
Zero-Shot Prompting													
Llama-3.1-8B	11.96	17.12	32.77	14.85	23.81	38.16	26.14	19.93	30.96	21.95	23.77		
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	19.14	23.10	30.49	26.63	34.36	37.56	38.72	20.92	39.14	32.95	30.00		
Gemma-2-9b-IT	17.98	50.65	20.30	46.30	50.18	45.94	60.40	38.80	27.40	46.35	40.43		
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	45.41	58.88	25.30	38.29	60.30	48.27	53.86	54.87	45.72	60.37	49.13		
		Sin	gle-Cult	ure Adaj	ptation -	WVS							
Llama-3.1-8B	17.22	22.01	38.28	19.92	29.30	36.08	32.65	20.15	27.93	28.57	27.21		
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	19.50	23.51	32.69	22.35	34.78	36.98	37.61	17.75	25.85	28.78	27.98		
Gemma-2-9b-IT	15.54	43.95	24.10	33.92	41.01	49.09	61.01	37.66	37.15	48.81	39.22		
Owen2.5-7B-Instruct	39.30	59.24	25.78	40.39	57.85	48.02	53.79	51.77	51.31	57.47	48.49		

C.1 Zero-Shot Prompting and Single Culture Adaptation Results

Table 7: Culture adaptation results (F1 scores) under three training scenarios: zero-shot prompting and single-culture adaptation (training on Llama-3.1-8B models using WVS data). Evaluation uses a multilingual offensiveness dataset (§3.3), reported as averaged F1 scores.

C.2 Full Invalid Ratio

Methods		Inv. Cult. (%)	Inv. MMLU (%)
	Zero-Shot	20.12	2.3
	WVS	14.68	0
Llama 2 1 9D	NormAd	15.90	70.0
Liama-3.1-6D	WVS+Wiki	14.04	0
	WVS+NormAd	13.22	0
	3 Zero-Shot WVS NormAd WVS+Wiki WVS+NormAd WVS+Wiki+NormAd 1-8B-IT Zero-Shot WVS NormAd WVS+Wiki WVS+Wiki+NormAd 2-9B-IT Zero-Shot WVS 2-9B-IT Zero-Shot WVS XVS NormAd WVS+Wiki+NormAd Zero-Shot WVS Zero-Shot WVS 2-9B-IT NormAd WVS+Wiki WVS+NormAd WVS+Wiki XVS NormAd WVS+Wiki+NormAd XVS NormAd WVS+Wiki+NormAd XVS NormAd WVS+Wiki	12.85	0
	Zero-Shot	21.20	0
	WVS	10.82	0
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	NormAd	11.73	72.3
	WVS+Wiki	9.73	0
	WVS+NormAd	8.91	0
	WVS+Wiki+NormAd	8.35	0
	Zero-Shot	13.23	0
	WVS	0	0
Gemma 2 0B IT	NormAd	9.7	82.7
Gennina-2-9D-11	WVS+Wiki	6.32	0
	WVS+NormAd	5.89	0
	WVS+Wiki+NormAd	6.21	0
	Zero-Shot	9.4	0
	WVS	0	0
Owen2 5-7B-IT	NormAd	7.5	10.1
Qweii2.3-7B-11	WVS+Wiki	0	0
	WVS+NormAd	0	0
	WVS+Wiki+NormAd	0	0

Table 8: Invalid response rates on cultural evaluation sets (*Invalid Cult.*) and on MMLU (*Invalid MMLU*). All MMLU invalid ratios are lower than the 20.12 % cultural baseline of Llama-3.1-8B—*except* for the purposely inflated **NormAd**-only rows, which remain dramatically worse.

1112 C.3 Combined Cultural Adaptation

Instead of learning a separate adapter per culture, we combine training data from all target cultures and produce one multi-culture adapter. This can potentially help the model recognize cross-cultural patterns or exploit data from many cultures. However, it risks "averaging out" the distinctions, possibly causing *cultural interference* (e.g., losing the unique viewpoint for each culture, akin to interference in

1109

multilinguality Conneau et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2020). While combined-culture adaptation can improve some low-resource cultures (e.g., Korean, Bengali), it could reduce performance for others, indicating cultural interference.

Combined-Culture Adaptation - WVS												
Model	ara	ben	zho	eng	deu	ell	kor	por	spa	tur	Avg.	
Llama-3.1-8B	33.44	23.24	28.39	17.12	36.75	15.11	37.09	17.88	25.62	39.29	27.39	
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	28.00	30.34	42.77	23.90	46.08	31.42	43.32	22.88	33.52	43.50	34.57	

Table 9: Results for Combined-Culture Adaptation on WVS.

C.4 Freeform Generation

C.4.1 Performance Heatmaps - Llama-3.1-8B

Figure 6 illustrates the culture-specific classification performance of the Llama-3.1-8B model through three heatmaps corresponding to different data configurations: panel (a) uses only WVS data, panel (b) integrates cultural context from Wikipedia (WVS+Wiki), and panel (c) combines WVS with NormAd data (WVS+NormAd); in each heatmap, color gradients represent the ranks of the adaptation results, providing a visual assessment of how incorporating additional cultural sources can enhance or alter model performance across diverse cultural contexts.



Figure 6: Heatmaps of culture-specific classification performance (Llama-3.1-8B) using different data sources based on the ranks of the adaptation results.

C.4.2 Performance Tables - Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct

Figure 7 illustrates the performance of Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct model through three heatmaps.



Figure 7: Heatmaps of culture-specific classification performance (Llama-3.1-8B-IT) using different data sources based on the ranks of the adaptation results.

C.4.3 Performance Tables - Qwen2.5-7B-IT

Figure 8 illustrates the performance of the Qwen2.5-7B-IT model through three heatmaps.



Figure 8: Heatmaps of culture-specific classification performance (Qwen2.5-7B-IT) using different data sources based on the ranks of the adaptation results.

C.4.4 Performance Tables - Gemma-2-9B-IT

Figure 9 illustrates the performance of the Gemma-2-9B-IT model through three heatmaps.



Figure 9: Heatmaps of culture-specific classification performance (Gemma-2-9B-Instruct) using different data sources based on the ranks of the adaptation results.

1128 1129

1130

1131

1132

C.5 Normalized Scores Tables

Adapter Cult.	ara	ben	zho	eng	deu	ell	kor	por	spa	tur
ara	0.4209	0.6882	0.7343	0.6578	0.5337	0.8640	0.6284	0.6758	0.4780	0.5645
ben	0.4156	0.6237	0.5984	0.7223	0.5213	0.8598	0.5595	0.6062	0.5466	0.5148
zho	0.6986	0.7371	1.0000	0.7862	0.6038	0.8703	0.6667	0.6107	0.4654	0.5985
eng	0.6867	0.7216	0.7166	0.7225	0.6131	0.9398	0.7268	0.6103	0.4828	0.5751
deu	0.5266	0.7835	0.8161	0.7779	0.8139	0.8509	0.7493	0.6345	0.5899	0.6172
ell	0.7865	0.7711	0.7522	0.6827	0.8168	0.8688	0.8695	0.7089	0.6324	0.5208
kor	0.4633	0.6728	0.6991	0.7933	0.5838	0.8810	0.7065	0.6193	0.5745	0.5292
por	0.8442	0.7987	0.5384	0.8142	0.6676	0.9248	0.8853	0.6364	0.4975	0.5997
spa	1.0000	1.0000	0.7987	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	0.9886	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
tur	0.8685	0.9817	0.6772	0.8628	0.8242	0.8501	1.0000	0.8094	0.6610	0.8045

Table 10: Normalized Scores and C-DIST on Llama-3.1-8B-IT for WVS. Rows represent the adapter culture, and columns represent the culture test set.

Adapter Cult.	ara	ben	zho	eng	deu	ell	kor	por	spa	tur
ara	0.7255	0.5862	0.7980	0.8510	0.6329	0.7875	0.6219	0.7635	0.9012	0.5731
ben	0.3320	0.6027	0.4640	0.8319	0.5354	0.7861	0.5575	0.5934	0.7311	0.4903
zho	0.8268	0.7872	1.0000	0.9636	0.8755	1.0000	0.8753	0.8413	0.8521	0.7687
eng	0.7514	0.8592	0.9779	0.7852	0.9733	0.8209	0.9034	0.9299	0.9792	0.8828
deu	0.5986	0.8016	0.9445	0.7760	0.8604	0.9679	0.8233	0.7221	0.7729	0.6408
ell	0.9031	0.9440	0.7137	1.0000	0.9152	0.7502	0.8970	1.0000	1.0000	0.9678
kor	1.0000	1.0000	0.5369	0.8979	1.0000	0.8037	1.0000	0.8637	0.8274	1.0000
por	0.7863	0.7632	0.5586	0.8940	0.8065	0.9270	0.8570	0.7430	0.6613	0.7746
spa	0.4076	0.6871	0.5581	0.8136	0.6525	0.7973	0.7152	0.5486	0.6715	0.5138
tur	0.5835	0.6960	0.9223	0.8341	0.7417	0.8859	0.8456	0.7119	0.9690	0.6794

Table 11: Normalized Scores and C-DIST on Llama-3.1-8B-IT for WVS+Wikipedia. Rows represent the adapter culture, and columns represent the culture test set.

Adapter Cult.	ara	ben	zho	eng	deu	ell	kor	por	spa	tur
ara	0.7961	0.8685	0.7190	0.8358	0.9640	1.0000	0.9533	0.7462	0.7974	0.8966
ben	0.3643	0.8608	0.7432	0.8893	0.6026	0.7490	0.7124	0.8666	0.7963	0.4092
zho	0.7051	0.8463	0.7493	0.7967	0.6767	0.4841	0.6127	0.5454	0.6689	0.7248
eng	0.7383	0.8678	0.7493	0.8180	0.7038	0.5794	0.6227	0.8956	0.8185	0.7400
deu	0.6004	0.6975	0.8100	0.9597	0.9297	0.7515	0.9337	0.7058	0.7142	0.6936
ell	0.8597	0.9141	0.8144	0.9923	1.0000	0.9091	0.9074	0.9620	0.8582	0.9469
kor	0.7207	0.5973	0.8340	0.5882	0.9363	0.6791	0.7118	0.4862	0.7307	0.8404
por	1.0000	0.8727	0.8067	1.0000	0.8628	0.8287	0.7709	0.9925	0.9607	1.0000
spa	0.8634	0.8849	1.0000	0.8843	0.9596	0.6558	0.7248	0.7613	1.0000	0.8585
tur	0.5487	0.9045	0.7305	0.9694	0.9960	0.8265	0.9640	1.0000	0.8771	0.9844

Table 12: Normalized Scores and C-DIST on Llama-3.1-8B-IT for WVS+NormAd. Rows represent the adapter culture, and columns represent the culture test set.

C.6 Probability-Based Generation

Table 13 shows the normalized F1 score for probability-based generation evaluations.

Languaga	Ba	iseline	Translated		
Language	Llama-3.1-8B	Llama-3.1-8B-IT	Llama-3.1-8B	Llama-3.1-8B-IT	
ara	30.52	28.83	33.24	37.81	
ben	22.53	45.45	29.70	42.77	
zho	28.84	41.35	35.77	46.28	
eng	28.37	42.81	30.21	49.18	
deu	32.53	40.40	28.80	41.92	
ell	30.77	46.05	32.11	36.34	
kor	30.28	41.80	34.33	44.63	
por	29.24	40.11	27.55	38.08	
spa	28.96	43.77	23.32	38.60	
tur	30.44	43.93	30.24	40.46	

Table 13: Performance on MMLU when training each adapter with different WVS cultural data. Baseline refers to fine-tuning using English-language cultural value data with the *Llama-3.1-8B* and *Llama-3.1-8B-IT* models. Translated represents training with WVS cultural values translated into the respective target language, using the *Llama-3.1-8B* and *Llama-3.1-8B-IT* models. The zero-shot performance for Arabic is 0.35 with *Llama-3.1-8B* and 0.45 with *Llama-3.1-8B-IT*.

D Invalid Answer Check

D.1 Code for Invalid Answer Filtering

We process the generated response to determine whether it contains a valid answer using the following function. If the expected answer format is not detected, a default value is assigned.

```
Generate response from model
def getResponse(prompt, base_model=None, base_tokenizer=None):
    input_ids = base_tokenizer(prompt, return_tensors="pt").input_ids.to("cuda")
    base_model.eval()
   with torch.no_grad():
        output = base_model.generate(
            input_ids,
            max_new_tokens=25,
            temperature=0.0,
            num beams=1.
            do_sample=False,
            eos_token_id=base_tokenizer.eos_token_id,
            pad_token_id=base_tokenizer.pad_token_id,
        )
   output_txt = base_tokenizer.decode(output[0], skip_special_tokens=True)
   # Extract the answer (e.g., "A")
   match = re.search(r'###_Answer:\s*([A-D])', output_txt)
    if match:
        prediction = match.group(1)
        invalid_response = False
    else:
        prediction = "A" # Default or handle as appropriate
        invalid_response = True
    return output_txt, prediction, invalid_response
```

Listing 1: Generating Response and Invalid Response filtering from Model.

1137

1138

1139

1140 1141 1142

1143 1144

1145 1146

1147

1148

1149

1150

1151

1152

1153

1154

1155

1156 1157

1158 1159

1160

1161 1162

1163

1164 1165

1166 1167

1168

1168

D.2 Invalid Examples

Table 14 illustrates examples of invalid responses from our evaluation datasets (English, German, and Spanish). The model failed to properly complete its task of detecting toxic content, showing truncated or incomplete outputs across different languages.

Culture	Invalid Response Example
English	<pre>{"input": "@user @user legit nilas retarded idk", "output": "@user @user legit nilas retarded idk what to do @user @user @user", "extracted_output": "", "prediction": "", "label": "0", "invalid_response": true}</pre>
German	<pre>{"input": "@FobiMania @ManuelaSchwesig @MartinSchulz Ich scheisse auf die SPD. LBR SCHEINHEILGSTE PARTEI DEUTSCHLANDS !!!", "output": "### Question: Is the following sentence offensive: @FobiMania @ManuelaSchwesig @MartinSchulz Ich scheisse auf die SPD. LBR SCHEINHEILGSTE PARTEI DEUTSCHLANDS!!! \"1. Offensive\", \"2. Not offensive\" without explanation. ### Answer: @FobiMania @ManuelaSchw", "extracted_output": "@FobiMania @ManuelaSchw", "prediction": "@fobimania @manuelaschw", "label": "OFF", "invalid_response": true}</pre>
Spanish	<pre>{"input": "A ver si le dan un Goya al youtuber que se llevó la hostia por subnormal.", "output": "### Question: Does the following sentence contain hate speech: A ver si le dan un Goya al youtuber que se llevó la hostia por subnormal. \"1. Hatespeech\", \"2. Not Hatespeech\" without explanation. ### Answer: A ver si le dan un Goya al y", "extracted_output": "A ver si le dan un Goya al y", "prediction": "a ver si le dan un goya al y", "label": "HS", "invalid_response": true}</pre>

Table 14: Examples of invalid responses.

D.3 Invalid Rate

Table 15 shows our findings in evaluating the zero-shot model, compared to the finetuned models on WVS (Single-Culture-WVS) and WVS+Wikipedia (Single-Culture-WVS+Wiki). This table shows that the zero-shot performance of the models still suffers from the lack of instruction capability, even on the instruct variant. We further see a notable decrease in the invalid response ratio after finetuning.

Model	Scenario	Avg. Invalid Count	Total Samples	Invalid Ratio
	Zero-shot	222.5849	1106	21.77%
Llama-3.1-8B	Single-Culture-WVS	143.6604	1106	14.06%
	Single-Culture-WVS+Wiki	133.6604	1106	12.97%
	Zero-shot	234.5660	1106	22.55%
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	Single-Culture-WVS	134.3774	1106	13.16%
	Single-Culture-WVS+Wiki	121.5849	1106	12.01%
	Zero-shot	11,797	58,638	20.12%
Llama-3.1-8B	Single-Culture-WVS	94,663	645,018	14.68%
	Single-Culture-WVS+Wiki	90,562	645,018	14.04%
Llama-3.1-8B-IT	Zero-shot	12,432	58,638	21.20%
	Single-Culture-WVS	69,804	645,018	10.82%
	Single-Culture-WVS+Wiki	71,019	645,018	11.01%

Table 15: Invalid count and ratio for different models and scenarios.

E Prompts

1180 1181

Table 16 summarizes the prompt templates used by the getPrompt function for various tasks.

Task(s)	Prompt Format
offensive_detect, abusive_detect	<pre>### Question: is the following sentence offensive: {input_txt}. "1. Offensive", "2. Not offensive" without explanation. ### Answer:</pre>
<pre>hate_detect (excluding hate_detect_fine-grained)</pre>	<pre>### Question: does the following sentence contain hate speech: {input_txt}. "1. Hatespeech", "2. Not Hatespeech" without explanation. ### Answer:</pre>
vulgar_detect_mp	<pre>### Question: does the following sentence contain vulgar speech: {input_txt}. "1. Vulgar", "2. Not Vulgar" without explanation. ### Answer:</pre>
spam_detect	<pre>### Question: is the following sentence a spam tweet: {input_txt}. "1. Spam", "2. Not Spam" without explanation. ### Answer:</pre>
hate_detect_fine-grained	<pre>### Question: Does the following sentence contain hate speech? {input_txt} Please choose one of the following options without explanation: 1. Not Hatespeech, 2. Race, 3. Religion, 4. Ideology, 5. Disability, 6. Social Class, 7. Gender, ### Answer:</pre>
offensive_detect finegrained	<pre>### Question: Does the following sentence contain offensive speech? {input_txt} Please choose one of the following options without explanation: 1. Not hatespeech 2. Profanity, or non-targeted offense 3. Offense towards a group 4. Offense towards an individual 5. Offense towards an other (non-human) entity ### Answer:</pre>
hate_off_detect	<pre>### Question: does the following sentence contain hate speech or offensive content: {input_txt}. "1. Hate or Offensive", "2. Not Hate or Offensive" without explanation. ### Answer:</pre>
<pre>stereotype_detect, mockery_detect, insult_detect, improper_detect, aggressiveness_detect, toxicity_detect, negative_stance_detect, homophobia_detect, racism_detect, misogyny_detect, threat_detect, hostility_directness_dete</pre>	<pre>### Question: does the following sentence contain {entity}: {input_txt}. "0. No", "1. Yes" without explanation. ### Answer: (Note: {entity} is derived from the task name, e.g., bias_on_gender_detect → gender bias, etc.) ect</pre>
hate_offens_detect	<pre>### Question: does the following sentence contain hate speech: {input_txt}. "0. No", "1. Yes" without explanation. ### Answer:</pre>

Table 16: Overview of prompts generated by getPrompt.

F Data Statistics

F.1 Training Data Statistics

Table 17 lists the data sources and URLs utilized in our experiments, encompassing the World Values 1184 Survey (WVS), Wikipedia cultural articles, and the NormAd dataset. Tables 18 and 19 provide detailed 1185 summary statistics for the Wikipedia and NormAd datasets respectively, outlining the total number of 1186 sentences, samples, and tokens per language. 1187

Source	URL
World Values Survey (WVS)	WVS
Wikipedia (Arab Culture)	Arab Culture
Wikipedia (Bengal Culture)	Culture of Bengal
Wikipedia (Chinese Culture)	Chinese Culture
Wikipedia (English Culture)	Culture of England
Wikipedia (German Culture)	Culture of Germany
Wikipedia (Greek Culture)	Culture of Greece
Wikipedia (Korean Culture)	Culture of Korea
Wikipedia (Portuguese Culture)	Culture of Portugal
Wikipedia (Spanish Culture)	Culture of Spain
Wikipedia (Turkish Culture)	Culture of Turkey
NormAd Dataset	NormAd

Table 17: Data sources and URLs.

Language	Total Sentences	Total Tokens (Entire Text)	Total Tokens (Summed per Sentence)
Arabic	257	8,990	9,018
Bengali	127	4,282	4,307
Chinese	388	13,929	13,938
English	434	15,632	15,688
German	171	6,322	6,338
Greek	250	11,806	11,825
Korean	150	5,678	5,687
Portuguese	186	10,286	10,298
Spanish	76	3,662	3,666
Turkish	143	6,573	6,581

Table 18: Summary statistics for each language in our Wikipedia training dataset.

Language	Samples	Tokens
Arabic	239	102,705
Spanish	234	74,674
Chinese	134	35,988
English	209	82,144
Korean	27	6,784
German	76	21,209
Bengali	33	7,659
Portuguese	77	19,022
Greek	69	23,961
Turkish	35	15,391

Table 19: Summary statistics for each language in our NormAd training dataset.

F.2 Test Data Statistics

Following Li et al. (2024a), we break down our culture test set in the table below.

1188 1189

1182

Culture	Country & Territory	Task & Dataset	#Sample
Arabic (METHOD-Ar)	Middle East	Offensive language detection: OffensEval2020(2000) (Zampieri et al., 2020b), OSACT4(1000) (Husain, 2020), Multi-Platform(1000) (Chowdhury et al., 2020), and OSACT5(2541) (Mubarak et al., 2022). 	14,973
Bangli (METHOD-Bn)	Bangladesh	Offensive language detection: TRAC2020 Task1(1000) (Bhattacharya et al., 2020), TRAC2020 Task2(1000) (Bhattacharya et al., 2020), BAD(1000) (Sharif and Hoque, 2022). Hate detection: Hate Speech(1000) (Romim et al., 2021). Threat detection: BACD(1000) (aimansnigdha, 2018). Bias detection: BACD(1000) (aimansnigdha, 2018).	6,000
Chinese (METHOD-Zh)	China	Spam detection: CCS(1000) (Jiang et al., 2019). Bias detection: CDial-Bias(1000) (Zhou et al., 2022). Stance detection: CValues(1712) (Xu et al., 2023).	3,712
English (Method-En)	United States	Offensive language detection: SOLID(1000) (Rosenthal et al., 2020). Hate detection: MLMA(1000) (Ousidhoum et al., 2019) and HOF(1000) (Davidson et al., 2017). Threat detection: CValuesJMT(1000) (Kaggle, 2019). Toxicity detection: MLMA(1000) (Ousidhoum et al., 2019) and JMT(1000) (Kaggle, 2019).	6,000
German (METHOD-De)	Germany and parts of Europe	Offensive language detection: GermEval2018(3531) (Wiegand et al., 2018). Hate detection: IWG_1(469) (Ross et al., 2016), IWG_2(469) (Ross et al., 2016), HASOC2020(850) (HASOC, 2020), and multilingual-hatecheck(1000) (Röttger et al., 2022).	6,319
Korean (METHOD-Ko)	South Korea	Hate detection: K-MHaS(1000) (Lee et al., 2022), hateSpeech(1000) (Moon et al., 2020), and HateSpeech2(1000) (daanVeer, 2020).Abusive detection: AbuseEval(1000) (Caselli et al., 2020), CADD(1000) (Song et al., 2021), and Waseem(1000) (Waseem and Hovy, 2016).	5,000
Portuguese (METHOD-Pt)	Brazil and parts of Latin America	Offensive language detection: OffComBR(1250) (de Pelle and Moreira, 2017), and HateBR(1000) (Vargas et al., 2022).Bias detection: ToLD-Br-homophobia(1000) (Leite et al., 2020), and ToLD-Br-misogyny(1000) (Leite et al., 2020).Abusive detection: ToLD-Br-insult(1000) (Leite et al., 2020).	16,250
Spanish (METHOD-Es)	Argentina, Mexico, and parts of Latin America	Offensive language detection: AMI(1000) (Fersini et al., 2018), MEX-A3T(1000) (Álvarez-Carmona et al., 2018), and OffendES(1000) (Plaza-del Arco et al., 2021). Hate detection: HatEval 2019(1000) (Basile et al., 2019), and HaterNet(1000) (Pereira-Kohatsu et al., 2019). Bias detection: DETOXIS_stereotype(1000) (de Paula and Schlicht, 2021), and DETOXIS_improper(1000) (de Paula and Schlicht, 2021), and DETOXIS_abusive(1000) (de Paula and Schlicht, 2021), DETOXIS_mockery(1000) (de Paula and Schlicht, 2021), DETOXIS_mockery(1000) (de Paula and Schlicht, 2021). Aggressiveness detection: DETOXIS_aggressiveness(1000) (de Paula and Schlicht, 2021). Stance detection: DETOXIS_stance(1000) (de Paula and Schlicht, 2021).	11,000
Turkish (Method-Tr)	Turkey	Offensive language detection: SemEval-2020(3528) (Zampieri et al., 2020b), offenseCorpus(1000) (Çöltekin, 2020), offenseKaggle(1000) (Kaggle, 2021), and offenseKaggle_2(1000) (Kaggle, 2022). Abusive detection: ATC(1000) (Karayiğit et al., 2021). Spam detection: Turkish Spam(825) (mis, 2019). Fine-grained offensive detection: offenseCorpus(1000) (Çöltekin, 2020).	10,353

Table 20: Overview of the eight evaluation tasks and the 59 datasets used, including dataset names and their corresponding test sample sizes. For example, "OffensEval2020(2000) (Zampieri et al., 2020b)" indicates that the OffensEval2020 dataset contains 2,000 test samples.

G Cross-Cultural Confusion Matrix on Llama-3.1-8B



Figure 10: Cross-culture confusion matrix for the WVS-only baseline on Llama-3.1-8B (8B, base). The C-DIST score is ≈ 0.78 , reflecting substantial overlap in predictions across cultures.