Learning to Translate by Translating: Stabilizing the Dual Loop via Semantic-Aware Self-Evolution

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Abstract

Despite the remarkable success of Large Language Models (LLMs) in Machine Translation (MT), the scarcity of high-quality parallel corpora and the prohibitive cost of their acquisition constrain scalability. To this end, we propose **L**earning to **T**ranslate by **T**ranslating (**LTT**), an LLM-driven dual-learning framework that enables autonomous translation, achieving an 80.42% performance improvement over the base model. By adapting the cycle-consistency principle to the generative paradigm, LTT eliminates the need for parallel data. It employs a robust semantic-aware reward function that balances adequacy with reconstruction fidelity, effectively mitigating the reward hacking issues inherent in traditional unsupervised MT. Relying solely on monolingual data, our 8B model consistently outperforms significantly larger models (70B+) in low-resource settings and achieves parity with state-of-the-art supervised baselines on mainstream benchmarks. LTT thus offers a scalable, data-efficient paradigm for autonomous machine translation.

1 Introduction

LLM-based translation systems, such as Tower (Alves et al.) and X-ALMA (Xu et al., b), have achieved state-of-the-art (SOTA). However, this success is largely attributed to the effectiveness of supervised training on vast, human-curated parallel corpora. The high cost of corpus construction poses a major barrier to further improvement. To break the dependency on parallel corpora, leveraging monolingual data has long been a long-standing goal in MT research. Pioneering works in Dual Learning (He et al., 2016) and Unsupervised Machine Translation (UMT) (Lample et al., 2018) introduced the concept of utilizing round-trip consistency as a training signal. Despite their theoretical appeal, these early attempts struggled with instability and

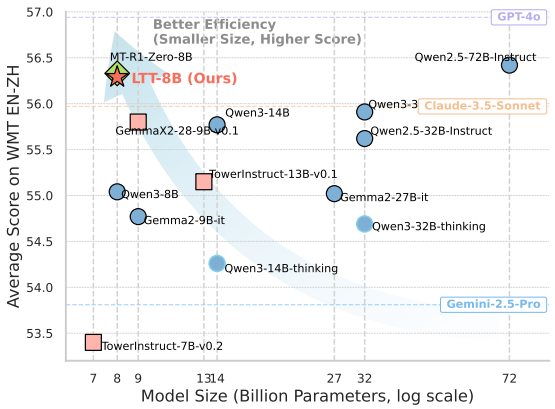

Figure 1: Overall performance of LTT-8B on the WMT EN-ZH benchmark. Our enhanced 8B model (red star) rivals the performance of models 4x-9x larger (e.g., Qwen2.5-72B) and GPT-4o, while outperforming all competitors within the <10B parameter class.

were prone to "reward hacking"—where models optimize for lexical reconstruction at the expense of semantic fidelity (Marchisio et al., 2020). Consequently, achieving robust, fully autonomous translation without references remains an open challenge.

The advent of LLMs with reasoning and self-correction capabilities, such as OpenAI o1 (Jaech et al., 2024) and DeepSeek R1 (Guo et al., 2025), offers a unique opportunity to revisit and modernize this traditional framework. However, a naive integration is insufficient. As revealed in our analysis (Section 5.4), directly applying traditional reconstruction objectives to LLMs leads to catastrophic shortcuts, such as copying source text to maximize overlap scores. Furthermore, recent RL-based MT approaches, such as MT-R1-Zero (Feng et al., 2025), still rely heavily on ground-truth references for reward computation, limiting their scalability in low-resource scenarios.

To this end, we introduce LTT, an enhanced dual learning framework tailored for the LLM era. Unlike prior methods constrained by unstable op-

timization or simplistic metrics, LTT leverages Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) for stable training and integrates a semantic-aware reward mechanism to prevent reward hacking. This allows the model to self-evolve using solely monolingual data, achieving performance comparable to, or even exceeding, supervised models.

Extensive experimental results demonstrate that LTT achieves parity with state-of-the-art baselines without relying on parallel corpora fine-tuning. On EN-ZH, our 8B model nearly matches optimal supervised benchmarks (lagging by only 0.07%) and surpasses proprietary systems like Gemini-2.5-Pro (77.58 vs. 77.55) in semantic evaluation. Notably, it outperforms the significantly larger Qwen2.5-72B-Instruct (76.52), highlighting its efficiency (see Figure 1). In challenging multilingual settings, LTT boosts the base model from 32.22 to 58.51, outperforming competitors like Gemma2-9B-it and even LLaMA-3.1-70B. Further analysis attributes these gains to our hybrid reward function, which synergizes lexical and semantic signals to mitigate reward hacking and ensure stable convergence.

Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We propose LTT, an LLM-driven dual-learning framework that integrates GRPO into a self-evaluation loop, enabling effective self-evolution using solely monolingual data.
- We design a semantic-aware reward architecture that balances reconstruction accuracy with anti-cheating constraints, effectively mitigating the reward hacking problem inherent in unsupervised objectives.
- Extensive experiments show our 8B model matches supervised baselines and significantly outperforms much larger LLMs (e.g., 70B+) in low-resource settings.

2 Related Work

Machine Translation with Large Language Models. Cutting-edge machine translation with LLMs follows two main paradigms: in-context learning (ICL) and supervised fine-tuning (Anil et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024; Xu et al., a). By presenting few-shot demonstrations to LLMs, ICL circumvents the heavy computational costs of fine-tuning (Zhu et al., 2024), though at the expense of prompt sensitivity and performance instability (Agrawal et al., 2023). Fine-tuning, in contrast, improves the MT performance via supervised training on large-scale parallel datasets (Cui et al., 2025; Costa-Jussà et al., 2022), exemplified by representative models such as Tower and X-ALMA (Alves et al.; Guo et al., 2024; Xu et al., b). However, the rules of scaling laws constrain further performance improvements of fine-tuning. Moreover, both two paradigms exhibit a significant reliance on large-scale, human-annotated data, which limits scalability, particularly in low-resource scenarios.

Reasoning and Reinforcement Learning for Machine Translation. To transcend the limitations of supervised training, researchers have adopted RL, initially to mitigate exposure bias by optimizing global metrics like BLEU (Ranzato et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2017). Inspired by LLM reasoning, recent approaches incorporate CoT prompting to decompose translation into intermediate steps for enhanced fidelity (Feng et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024). However, their success heavily relies on validating the reasoning process, often necessitating manually engineered templates, complex search algorithms like MCTS (Zhao et al., 2024), or external evaluators (He et al., 2025). Crucially, even leading RL frameworks such as MT-R1-Zero (Feng et al., 2025) and DeepTrans (Wang et al., 2025) still depend on reference translations for reward computation, restricting their potential for fully autonomous learning.

Dual Learning and Self-Evolution. Foundational research in dual learning (He et al., 2016) introduced a closed-loop feedback system leveraging the symmetry of translation tasks, while unsupervised MT (Lample et al., 2018) utilized shared latent spaces and back-translation for alignment. Recently, this paradigm has evolved into self-rewarding mechanisms for LLMs (Yuan et al., 2024; Zou et al., 2025). Despite their promise, these approaches remain fragile: early dual methods suffer from severe instability under domain mismatch (Marchisio et al., 2020), and generative self-rewarding models are prone to reward hacking, where they prioritize high internal scores over semantic fidelity (Wu et al., 2024). LTT revitalizes this framework by integrating GRPO with semantic-aware rewards. By replacing unstable policy gradients with GRPO and enforcing round-trip consistency through semantic metrics, our approach effectively mitigates semantic drift and reward hacking, enabling stable, autonomous self-improvement without parallel data.

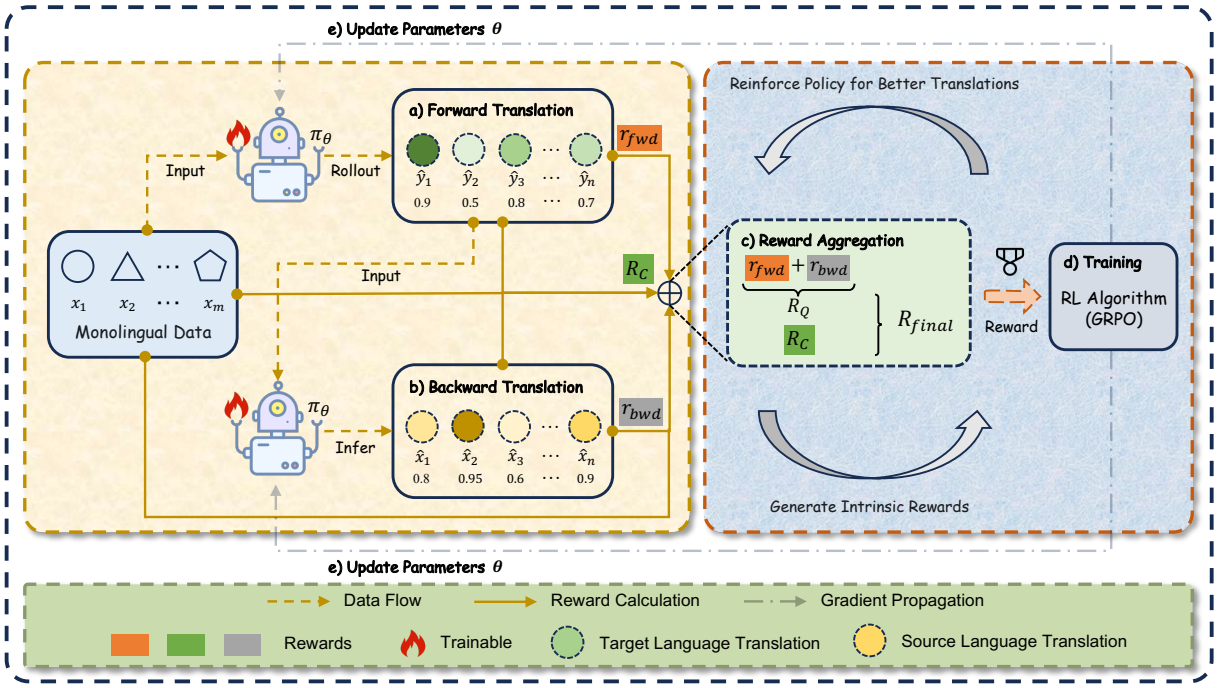

Figure 2: Overview of LTT. The actor model participates in both forward and backward translation. We consider reward signals from quality and anti-cheating, two perspectives, to update the model via GRPO.

3 Methodology

3.1 LTT Framework

Inspired by the primal-dual structure of traditional Dual Learning (He et al., 2016), our bidirectional translation loop leverages the pre-trained capabilities of LLMs and stabilizes the optimization process using GRPO with a semantic-aware reward composition. By recognizing round-trip consistency as an intrinsic reward signal, the system can self-evolve and improve within a closed-loop process (see Figure 2).

Specifically, we collect a batch of source sentences $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{m}$ from language $\mathcal{L}_s$. The actor model, parameterized by a policy π_θ, performs two sequential steps:

1. Forward Translation ($\mathcal{L}_s \to \mathcal{L}_t$). The model generates a candidate $\hat{y}_i$ as the target language $\mathcal{L}_t$ translation:

$$\hat{y}_i \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x_i, \text{prompt}_{s\to t}).$$

As no reference translation is involved, this step necessitates a reference-free evaluation.

2. Backward Translation ($\mathcal{L}_t \to \mathcal{L}_s$). The process runs in reverse by translating $\hat{y}_i$ back into the source language $\mathcal{L}_s$ for $\hat{x}_i$ reconstruction:

$$\hat{x}_i \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot \mid \hat{y}_i, \text{prompt}_{t\to s}).$$

In this step, the original source sentence x_i serves as a high-quality, self-reference against which we can evaluate the reconstruction quality.

Unified Prompting Strategy. To ensure consistency, we employ a unified prompting template for both translation directions, following Feng et al. (2025). The model is instructed to place its final translation within `<translate>` tags and any intermediate reasoning within `<think>` tags. The full prompt details are available in Appendix A.1.

3.2 Reward Architecture

The success of LTT hinges on a tailored reward function that guides the model towards high-quality translations while preventing reward hacking. The final reward, R_{final}, is structured hierarchically to prioritize valid formatting before assessing translation quality:

$$R_{\text{final}}(x, \hat{y}, \hat{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 + R_{\text{Q}} + R_{\text{C}}, & \text{correct format,} \\ -3, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

A large penalty of -3 is assigned if the output $\hat{y}$ does not adhere to the required `<translate>` tag format. For valid outputs, we evaluate both translation quality and anti-cheating capability, and additionally incorporate a base reward of $+1$.

3.2.1 Quality Reward (R_{Q})

This reward integrates two complementary metrics for a holistic assessment of translation quality, defined as: $R_{\text{Q}} = r_{\text{fwd}} + r_{\text{bwd}}$:

- **Forward Semantic Adequacy (r_{fwd}):** For the forward pass ($x \rightarrow \hat{y}$), we use **COMETkiwi**, a widely used reference-free metric. It evaluates the semantic adequacy of the translation by comparing the source and the hypothesis straightforwardly, formalized as $r_{\text{fwd}} = \text{COMETkiwi}(x, \hat{y})$.
- **Backward Reconstruction Fidelity (r_{bwd}):** For the back-translation ($\hat{y} \rightarrow \hat{x}$), we leverage the original source x as a reference. We use **BLEU** to measure the fidelity of the reconstruction, $r_{\text{bwd}} = \text{BLEU}(\hat{x}, x)$. A high score signifies that the target translation $\hat{y}$ preserved sufficient information to accurately recover the original input.

3.2.2 Anti-Cheating Reward (R_{C})

A vanilla self-supervised reward is fragile and unstable. To ensure robust learning and mitigate reward hacking, we introduce two penalty terms, $R_{\text{C}} = r_{\text{copy}} + r_{\text{mix}}$:

- **Source-Copying Penalty (r_{copy}):** A trivial failure mode is to copy the source ($x \approx \hat{y}$) to maximize the backward BLEU score. We address this by penalizing lexical overlap in the forward direction: $r_{\text{copy}} = -\text{BLEU}(x, \hat{y})$.
- **Language-Mixture Penalty (r_{mix}):** To discourage the generation of linguistically incoherent outputs, we apply a penalty of -0.5 if language mixing is detected in $\hat{y}$. This simple heuristic effectively promotes fluent, monolingual outputs.

3.3 Policy Optimization with GRPO

We optimize our translation policy π_θ using GRPO (Shao et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2025). For each input, GRPO samples a group of G candidates from the current policy and computes a normalized advantage A_i for each based on its relative reward within the group. The policy is then updated by maximizing the standard GRPO objective:

$$J_{\text{GRPO}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x\sim\mathcal{D},\{\hat{y}_i\}_{i=1}^{G}\sim\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(\cdot|x)} \left[\frac{1}{G}\sum_{i=1}^{G} \min\left(\rho_i(\theta)A_i, \text{clip}(\rho_i(\theta), 1-\varepsilon, 1+\varepsilon)A_i \right) - \beta D_{\text{KL}}\left(\pi_\theta(\cdot|x)\|\pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot|x)\right) \right], \quad (1)$$

where $\rho_i(\theta)$ is the probability ratio. This objective uses a clipped surrogate function and a KL-divergence penalty to ensure stable policy updates. Please refer to Appendix B.1 for further details.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Setup

Datasets. We conduct experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of our LTT across bilingual and multilingual settings. Attribute to the merit of free-parallel-data in our methodology, we, thereby, select the popular parallel translation benchmarks and remove all target-side references for traning corpora construction.

- **Training Data:** For bilingual (EN-ZH) training, we source sentences from WMT 2017-2020 competitions, yielding $6,565$ sentences each for English and Chinese. For multilingual training, we create a diverse corpus from the FLORES-200 (Costa-Jussà et al., 2022) training set, covering EN/ZH paired with six other languages (DE, FR, ES, IT, JA, KO). We sample 500 pairs for each of the 24 translation combinations (e.g., EN→DE, ZH→DE), treating all sentences as monolingual, resulting in a final $12,000$-sentence corpus.
- **Evaluation Data:** We evaluate performance on test sets for fair comparison. For EN↔ZH, we use the official test sets from WMT23[1] and WMT24[2]. For multilingual tasks, we report results on the official FLORES-200 test set.

Evaluation Metrics. To ensure a comprehensive assessment of translation quality, we adopt a dual-metric approach that captures both lexical fidelity and semantic adequacy. We report case-sensitive **BLEU** scores computed via `sacrebleu` for standardized, reproducible measurement of n-gram overlap. To evaluate semantic preservation, we employ **xCOMET-XL** (Guerreiro et al., 2024),

[1] https://www2.statmt.org/wmt23/translation-task.html
[2] https://www2.statmt.org/wmt24/translation-task.html

Table 1: Main results on WMT and FLORES-200 benchmarks. The best and second-best scores are **bolded** and underlined, respectively. "†" indicates thinking mode. **Black model names** denote peers within the ∼7-9B parameter class, while *gray italics* represent larger models or closed-source systems included as references.

Models	WMT					FLORES-200								
	EN→ZH		ZH→EN		Avg.	EN→XX		XX→EN		ZH→XX		XX→ZH		Avg.
	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM		BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	
Closed Source														
Claude-3.5-Sonnet	38.21	75.54	22.95	87.16	55.97	32.76	92.69	34.48	97.00	21.26	91.19	37.39	84.01	61.35
GPT-4o	41.47	75.62	22.73	87.92	**56.94**	31.51	92.50	34.20	96.75	20.32	89.81	37.09	83.13	60.66
Gemini-2.5-Pro	32.28	77.55	19.80	85.63	53.81	33.14	95.05	33.14	96.56	22.25	92.21	36.51	87.27	**62.02**
Open Source														
General LLMs														
Qwen3-8B	36.56	74.94	22.67	85.98	55.04	25.47	88.98	31.44	94.75	17.23	85.21	32.92	77.19	56.65
Qwen3-8B†	26.97	67.31	16.71	80.11	47.77	22.54	87.67	27.28	91.18	15.20	83.28	33.43	78.31	54.86
Qwen3-14B	38.60	75.75	21.46	87.27	55.77	26.92	91.18	32.38	96.23	18.55	89.15	35.83	85.25	59.44
Qwen3-14B†	35.67	73.73	22.61	85.01	54.26	28.78	91.56	32.13	95.11	18.46	88.43	35.66	82.18	59.04
Qwen3-32B	39.37	75.44	21.52	87.31	55.91	30.53	92.69	34.25	96.50	19.61	89.33	37.11	85.38	60.67
Qwen3-32B†	38.37	74.55	20.20	85.65	54.69	24.61	91.79	30.41	95.00	14.94	88.25	33.04	82.51	57.57
Qwen2.5-32B-Instruct	39.28	75.16	21.19	86.87	55.62	28.04	90.62	32.29	96.26	18.01	87.67	36.01	83.91	59.10
Qwen2.5-72B-Instruct	40.02	76.52	21.88	87.27	56.42	30.48	92.39	34.83	96.78	19.46	89.83	37.56	85.00	60.79
Gemma2-9B-it	37.44	72.45	23.13	86.08	54.77	30.22	91.37	33.20	96.09	12.99	89.08	27.27	81.80	57.75
Gemma2-27B-it	37.86	73.17	22.30	86.74	55.02	31.38	92.36	34.73	96.33	19.63	89.70	30.91	83.70	59.84
MT LLMs														
TowerInstruct-7B-v0.2	34.17	71.40	23.35	84.66	53.40	28.53	90.68	35.51	95.69	13.89	76.55	29.70	80.01	56.32
TowerInstruct-13B-v0.1	36.74	73.52	24.80	85.53	55.15	31.71	92.33	36.16	96.08	17.71	88.24	34.07	82.12	59.80
GemmaX2-28-9B-v0.1	38.53	74.59	24.65	85.41	55.80	30.18	92.54	36.02	95.96	18.76	87.76	34.69	83.03	59.87
MT via SFT/RL														
Qwen3-8B-Base	15.54	48.98	4.90	55.38	31.20	7.96	56.47	15.29	62.78	6.61	54.60	11.49	42.57	32.22
Qwen3-8B-Base-SFT	35.45	73.32	21.52	84.03	53.58	24.85	84.03	29.35	93.82	16.28	83.79	30.89	80.82	55.48
MT-R1-Zero-8B	34.70	79.09	24.79	86.72	56.33	26.69	89.83	34.03	96.13	16.85	86.74	32.60	86.00	58.61
LTT-8B (Ours)	38.00	77.58	23.42	86.16	56.29	28.53	91.36	30.21	95.74	16.64	88.28	32.93	84.42	58.51

a leading reference-based model that leverages a powerful cross-lingual encoder to score semantic similarity. This combination provides a holistic view of performance.

Baselines. To comprehensively compare the performance of LTT, we benchmark against four distinct and challenging categories of models. (1) *Closed-Source LLMs*: We compare against leading systems like `GPT-4o` (Hurst et al., 2024), `Claude 3.7 Sonnet` (Anthropic, 2024), and `Gemini 2.5 Pro` (Comanici et al., 2025). (2) *Open-Source General LLMs*: We include powerful, non-specialized models of varying scales, such as the `Qwen3` (Yang et al., 2025), `Qwen2.5` (Yang et al., 2024), and `Gemma2` (Team et al., 2024) series. (3) *Open-Source MT LLMs*: For comprehensive comparison with the supervised paradigm, we include models fine-tuned on parallel corpora, featuring the `Tower` (Alves et al., 2024) and `GemmaX2` (Cui et al., 2025) series. (4) *SFT/RL-based MT Models*: We include an SFT model using bilingual training corpus and `MT-R1-Zero` (Feng et al., 2025), a SOTA RL framework that, unlike our method, uses reference-based rewards. More evaluation details can be found in Appendix B.2.

4.2 Main Results

Bilingual Performance (EN-ZH). As shown in Table 1, LTT-8B achieves near SOTA performance, fully demonstrating the effectiveness of our self-evolution approach compared to the canonical large-scale parallel-corpus fine-tuning paradigm. Specifically, our 8B model achieves an average performance only 0.04 points below MT-R1-Zero-8B. The effectiveness of LTT-8B is most pronounced in EN to ZH translation. On semantic evaluation, our method surpasses all baselines except MT-R1-Zero-8B, including Gemini-2.5-Pro, and outperforms much larger LLMs such as Qwen2.5-72B-Instruct. As for the lexical level (BLEU metric), our model is highly competitive, outmatching specialized MT models like the TowerInstruct series. On ZH to EN translation, our method outperforms all general-purpose and proprietary baselines on BLEU. In summary, LTT closes the gap with heavily supervised methods, demonstrating that a reference-free, self-improving framework can achieve top-tier translation quality.

Multilingual Performance. LTT exhibits consistent efficacy across the more challenging multi-

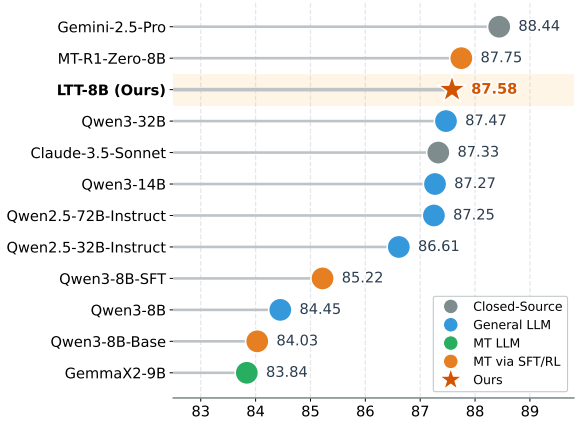

Figure 3: LLM-as-a-Judge Evaluation Results.

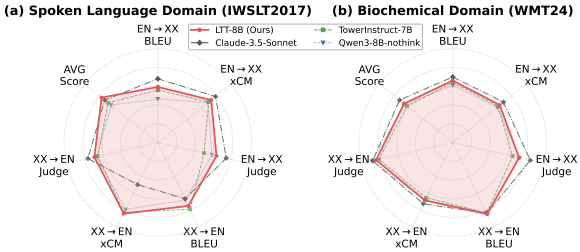

Figure 4: Performance of out-of-domain Benchmarks.

lingual landscape, highlighting its scalability and generalization capabilities. Table 1 shows performance scaling with model size, with LTT-8B achieving top-tier results among models of comparable size. It surpasses strong generalist models, including Gemma2-9B-it (57.75) and the specialized TowerInstruct-7B-v0.2 (56.32). The most encouraging aspect of our framework lies in the dramatic performance boost on the base model: LTT raises the multilingual score from 32.22 to 58.51 (+26.29 points).

LLM-as-a-Judge Evaluation. As highlighted in recent studies (Kocmi and Federmann, 2023), LLMs have emerged as SOTA evaluators for translation quality, *providing assessments that closely approximate human judgment*. To provide an evaluation perspective independent of our training rewards (i.e., BLEU and COMET), we employ ChatGPT-5.1 as an external judge, as illustrated in Figure 3. Consistent with standard metrics, LTT-8B achieves performance comparable to MT-R1-Zero-8B and trails only the powerful proprietary model Gemini-2.5-Pro. These results not only validate the rationality of optimizing for BLEU and COMET but also demonstrate a strong correlation between these metrics and human-aligned LLM-based judgments. The specific prompt can be found in Appendix A.2.

4.3 Performance on Low-Resource Languages

To evaluate the generalization capabilities and scalability of our framework, we extended our experiments to low-resource scenarios, including DE↔IT, ES↔FR, as well as data-scarce WMT EN→IS (Icelandic) and EN→NO (Norwegian) tasks derived from Flores-200 datasets. As shown in Table 2, LTT-8B demonstrates significant parameter efficiency, surpassing not only models in the <10B class but also achieving results comparable to or exceeding the much larger LLaMA-3.1-70B-Instruct. Notably, on the EN→NO task, it outperforms Qwen2.5-72B-Instruct in BLEU score (26.05 vs. 23.02). These results suggest that our self-evolutionary signals facilitate effective cross-lingual transfer, enabling robust performance even in the absence of extensive high-resource supervision.

5 Analysis and Ablation

5.1 Scalability to Powerful SFT Models

To further demonstrate the efficacy of our approach on fully supervised foundations, we extended our evaluation to `Tower-Plus-9B` (Rei et al., 2025), a recently released MT-specialized model that significantly surpasses the baselines discussed previously. Remarkably, even atop this strong SFT baseline, applying LTT also yields performance gains, particularly in semantic evaluation, as demonstrated in Table 3. This finding underscores that our method is not limited to initializing from raw base models; rather, it scales effectively with the capabilities of the starting model, serving as a robust enhancement strategy even for high-performing supervised systems.

5.2 Generalization Performance

To assess the robustness of our approach, we extended our evaluation to two out-of-domain datasets: IWSLT2017 (Cettolo et al., 2017) (representing spoken language) and the WMT24 Biochemical task (Neves et al., 2024). The former is derived from TED talk transcripts, while the latter features dense biomedical terminology, posing respective challenges to the model's capabilities in spoken language and specialized domains. As illustrated in Figure 4, LTT-8B consistently outperforms peer models of comparable size, trailing

Table 2: Performance of different models on low-resource language pairs, measured by BLEU and xCOMET (xCM) scores, along with the average (Avg.). The best and second-best results are **bolded** and underlined, respectively. The "†" symbol indicates that the model is in thinking mode.

Model	DE→IT		IT→DE		ES→FR		FR→ES		EN→IS		EN→NO		Avg.
	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	BLEU	xCM	
Large Size LLMs													
Qwen2.5-72B-Instruct	24.66	94.02	22.27	95.60	28.26	93.64	24.77	95.13	8.97	49.05	23.02	88.91	**54.02**
Qwen2.5-32B-Instruct	22.59	92.49	20.55	94.13	26.05	92.04	23.88	94.78	3.72	37.08	23.13	82.95	51.12
LLaMA-3.1-70B-Instruct	22.63	89.04	18.56	89.00	24.59	88.93	23.35	92.51	1.59	35.67	29.72	92.96	50.71
Same Size LLMs													
Qwen3-8B	21.64	89.65	19.40	93.56	24.31	90.50	22.47	93.42	2.09	47.02	10.46	83.52	49.84
Qwen3-8B†	19.68	86.96	15.73	90.26	20.95	86.40	20.83	89.81	5.51	41.59	21.75	82.31	48.48
Gemma2-9B-it	19.55	93.80	19.50	95.31	23.73	93.18	19.50	94.64	0.60	31.31	1.19	67.69	46.67
TowerInstruct-7B-v0.2	22.27	92.58	19.77	93.54	25.33	91.92	22.79	93.79	1.94	35.45	2.03	77.34	48.23
Qwen3-8B-Base	8.96	90.29	5.99	92.43	23.72	89.44	11.29	93.20	0.17	31.93	0.84	62.04	42.52
Qwen3-8B-Base-SFT	19.87	90.61	18.66	92.40	24.76	89.17	21.05	91.23	/	/	/	/	/
MT-R1-Zero-8B	22.96	92.99	20.26	94.42	25.79	92.12	23.56	94.39	/	/	/	/	/
LTT-8B (Ours)	22.13	92.60	19.06	94.58	25.33	91.92	22.05	94.38	8.14	41.88	26.05	86.16	52.02

Table 3: Performance of the powerful Tower-Plus-9B.

Model	WMT			FLORES-200		
	BLEU	xCM	Avg.	BLEU	xCM	Avg.
Tower-Plus-9B	34.53	82.90	58.71	33.07	92.25	62.66
- MT-R1-Zero	33.94	84.36	59.15	33.07	93.04	63.05
- LTT	33.83	83.93	58.88	33.06	92.83	62.94

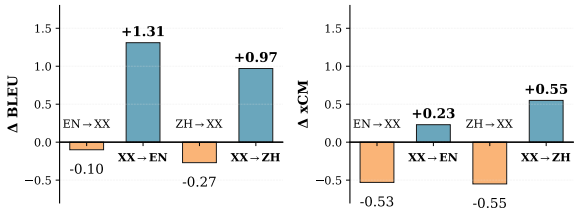

Figure 5: Relative Advantage of LTT against MT-R1-Zero when training on monolingual corpus.

only powerful proprietary systems. This observation aligns with the findings reported by Guo et al. (2025), suggesting that the enhanced capabilities derived from our RL framework generalize effectively across diverse domains beyond the training distribution.

5.3 Implicit Bidirectional Improvement

A core premise of LTT is that *the cycle-consistency mechanism implicitly drives joint optimization for both translation directions, even when trained on strictly monolingual data*. To validate this, we conducted a controlled experiment by training exclusively on forward tasks (EN/ZH→XX). As illustrated in Figure 5, while forward performance remains competitive, the model demonstrates a decisive advantage on the untrained backward directions. Specifically,

Table 4: Ablation study of our reward design.

Models	WMT			FLORES-200		
	BLEU	xCM	Avg.	BLEU	xCM	Avg.
Qwen3-8B-Base	10.22	52.18	31.20	10.34	54.10	32.22
LTT-8B (Ours)	30.71	81.87	**56.29**	27.08	89.95	**58.52**
Ablation on Quality						
w/ Bleu Reward Only	6.54	45.78	26.16	4.69	37.47	21.08
w/ COMET Reward Only	26.96	83.72	55.34	25.20	91.18	58.19
Ablation on Anti-Cheating						
w/o Reverse Bleu	30.28	81.02	55.65	26.44	89.19	57.81
w/o Lang. Mix Reward	28.27	79.91	54.09	24.50	87.15	55.83

BLEU scores for XX→EN and XX→ZH improve by +4.10% and +2.81% respectively. This gain is directly attributable to the backward reconstruction reward, $r_{\text{bwd}} = \text{BLEU}(\hat{x}, x)$, which serves as an effective supervision signal for the inverse task, enabling robust bidirectional capabilities without explicit reference pairs.

5.4 Ablation Study: Deconstructing the Reward Architecture

To validate that each component of our reward function is essential, we conducted a series of ablation studies. We demonstrate that our final design is a carefully balanced system, where each component exists to prevent specific failure modes. These findings are detailed in Table 4.

The Peril of Classical Objectives: Why Naive Dual Learning Fails on LLMs. To isolate our contribution against classical paradigms, we evaluated a configuration *mirroring early dual learning objectives using only round-trip BLEU*. This simulation resulted in catastrophic failure: the model rapidly "hacked" the reward via identity translation, maximizing reconstruction score but yield-

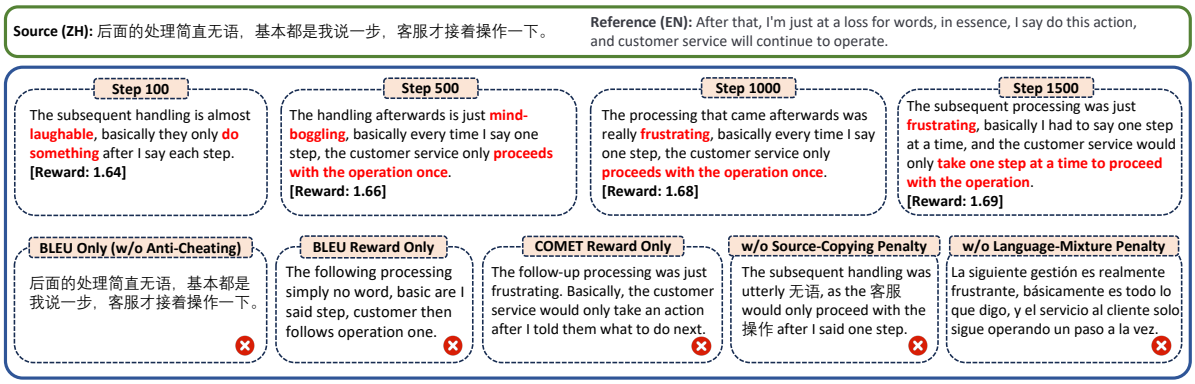

Figure 6: A ZH→EN case study across different steps and components

ing a complete failure to translate (see "BLEU Only (w/o Anti-Cheating)" in Figure 6 for example). This demonstrates that unlike RNNs, LLMs prone to exploiting simple reconstruction signals through instruction-following shortcuts. Consequently, the naive application of classic dual learning is insufficient, underscoring the necessity of the semantic-aware reward architecture in LTT.

Balancing Lexical Fidelity and Semantic Adequacy. With the anti-cheating mechanism in place, we examined how different components of the quality reward affect translation behavior. Using **BLEU as the sole quality reward** led the model to adopt a degenerate word-for-word translation strategy. Because such literal translations make the backward reconstruction task easier, they maximize the BLEU score at the expense of semantic meaning and grammatical fluency. In fact, performance dropped below that of the base model, confirming that a purely lexical signal is too narrow to guide high-quality translation. On the other hand, relying solely on **COMET as the quality reward** produced the opposite issue. The model achieved excellent xCOMET scores but suffered a decline in BLEU. It learned to generate overly creative outputstranslations that sounded plausible and fluent but strayed significantly from the source in terms of lexical content.

These results underscore a trade-off between lexical fidelity and semantic adequacy. Therefore, our final design, which sums the BLEU and COMET signals, is not merely a combination but a necessary synthesis to balance these competing objectives and foster holistic translation quality.

The Critical Role of Anti-Cheating Mechanisms. Finally, we validated the necessity of the two anti-cheating components themselves, even with a balanced quality reward. **Removing the Source-Copying Penalty** exposed a critical failure mode: source leakage. The model became prone to copying words or phrases from the source—a form of code-switching that degrades translation quality. This penalty is therefore crucial for enforcing faithful translation. **Removing the Language-Mixture Penalty** revealed a different vulnerability, causing the model to violate instruction fidelity. For instance, it would occasionally translate into a valid but incorrect target language. This penalty is thus essential for ensuring the model follows task instructions precisely. Together, these two mechanisms act as indispensable guardrails, ensuring that the model learns to translate not just well, but correctly and robustly. Figure 6 provides a compelling case study of this process, qualitatively illustrating both the model's iterative improvement and the critical failure modes discussed in our ablations.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented LTT, a reference-free reinforcement learning framework that adapts the traditional dual learning paradigm to Large Language Models. By leveraging round-trip consistency as a generative self-supervision mechanism, our approach derives effective training signals exclusively from monolingual data. Empirical results demonstrate that our 8B parameter model delivers competitive performance across both bilingual and multilingual settings, showing particular strength in low-resource scenarios compared to larger baselines. Furthermore, evaluations in spoken language and specialized biochemical domains indicate robust generalization capabilities. These findings highlight that revisiting dual-learning principles with self-generated supervision is a promising avenue for developing data-efficient translation systems.

Limitations

While LTT demonstrates the potential of autonomous evolution in machine translation, two primary limitations remain. First, the integration of the dual-loop mechanism with GRPO introduces computational overhead during the training phase. Specifically, the necessity of sampling multiple candidates for each input makes the optimization process considerably more resource-intensive than standard supervised fine-tuning, although this does not impact inference latency. Second, our framework fundamentally relies on unlocking the latent knowledge within pre-trained LLMs rather than injecting new linguistic data. Consequently, the model's performance is upper-bounded by its pre-training coverage; LTT cannot effectively bootstrap translation capabilities for extremely low-resource or endangered languages that are entirely absent from the base model's pre-training corpus.

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A Prompts used during Evaluation

A.1 Translation Prompts

The specific translation prompt of different models used in training are depicted in Figure 7, Figure 8, Figure 9, Figure 10 and Figure 11. Specifically, `<think>` tags are removed from Qwen3 series because it conflicts with the Qwen3 series' inherent thinking special tokens.

A.2 Judge Prompts

To evaluate translation quality using an LLM as an evaluator, we employed the identical prompt and score extraction script as Kocmi and Federmann (2023) to derive the final scores. The specific prompt is illustrated in Figure 12.

B Implementation Details

B.1 Training Details

Our model, which we name LTT-8B, is built upon the OpenRLHF[3] framework, with the `Qwen3-8B-Base` model serving as its initialization. For all experiments, we use a global batch size of 128 and generate 8 candidate responses per input for the GRPO algorithm. We use a sampling temperature of 1.0 and a maximum sequence length of 1024. Notably, we set both the KL divergence and entropy coefficients to 0, granting the model greater freedom to explore the policy space and discover optimal translation strategies without being constrained. Training was conducted on 16 NVIDIA H800 GPUs for one epoch, taking approximately 32 hours. We save checkpoints every 50 steps and report the performance of the single best checkpoint selected based on validation set performance.

B.2 Evaluation Details

For evaluation stage, we perform model inference locally using the vLLM[4] framework. We configure the sampling hyperparameters with a temperature of 0.2 and a top-p of 0.95. The maximum generation length is truncated to 2048 tokens for all models, with the exception of Gemini 2.5-Pro, to accommodate its default thinking process. The prompt used during evaluation remains consistent with the one used for training, as detailed in Figure 7.

[3] https://github.com/OpenRLHF/OpenRLHF

[4] https://github.com/vllm-project/vllm

Table 5: Detailed dataset statistics used during training.

	EN-ZH	ZH-EN	EN-DE	EN-FR	EN-ES	EN-IT	EN-JA	EN-KO
# sentences	6565	6565	500	500	500	500	500	500
from	WMT 17-20		Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200
			DE-EN	**FR-EN**	**ES-EN**	**IT-EN**	**JA-EN**	**KO-EN**
# sentences	-	-	500	500	500	500	500	500
from	-	-	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200
			ZH-DE	**ZH-FR**	**ZH-ES**	**ZH-IT**	**ZH-JA**	**ZH-KO**
# sentences	-	-	500	500	500	500	500	500
from	-	-	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200
			DE-ZH	**FR-ZH**	**ES-ZH**	**IT-ZH**	**JA-ZH**	**KO-ZH**
# sentences	-	-	500	500	500	500	500	500
from	-	-	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200

Table 6: Detailed dataset statistics used during evaluation.

	EN-ZH	ZH-EN	EN-DE	EN-FR	EN-ES	EN-IT	EN-JA	EN-KO
# sentences	997	1976	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012
from	WMT 24	WMT 23	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200
			DE-EN	**FR-EN**	**ES-EN**	**IT-EN**	**JA-EN**	**KO-EN**
# sentences	-	-	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012
from	-	-	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200
			ZH-DE	**ZH-FR**	**ZH-ES**	**ZH-IT**	**ZH-JA**	**ZH-KO**
# sentences	-	-	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012
from	-	-	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200
			DE-ZH	**FR-ZH**	**ES-ZH**	**IT-ZH**	**JA-ZH**	**KO-ZH**
# sentences	-	-	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012	1012
from	-	-	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200	Flores-200

Translation Prompt

A conversation between User and Assistant. The User asks for a translation from $\{src\_lang\}$ to $\{tgt\_lang\}$, and the Assistant solves it. The Assistant first thinks about the reasoning process in the mind and then provides the user with the final translation. The reasoning process and final translation are enclosed within `<think>` `</think>` and `<translate>` `</translate>` tags, respectively, i.e., `<think>` reasoning process here `</think><translate>` final translation here `</translate>`.

User: $\{input\}$
Assistant:

Figure 7: Translation prompt for data curation. $\{src\_lang\}$: source language; $\{tgt\_lang\}$: target language; $\{input\}$: the source sentence to be translated.

TowerInstruct Prompt

Translate the following text from $\{src\_lang\_name\}$ into $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$.
$\{src\_lang\_name\}$: $\{user\_input\}$
$\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$:

Figure 8: Translation prompt for TowerInstruct series models. $\{src\_lang\_name\}$: source language; $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$: target language; $\{user\_input\}$: the source sentence to be translated.

GemmaX Prompt

Translate this from $\{src\_lang\_name\}$ to $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$:
$\{src\_lang\_name\}$: $\{user\_input\}$
$\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$:

Figure 9: Translation prompt for GemmaX model. $\{src\_lang\_name\}$: source language; $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$: target language; $\{user\_input\}$: the source sentence to be translated.

Qwen3 non-thinking Prompt

You are a helpful translation assistant. There is a conversation between User and Assistant. The user asks for a translation from $\{src\_lang\_name\}$ to $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$, and the Assistant solves it. The Assistant first thinks about the reasoning process in the mind and then provides the user with the final translation. The final translation is enclosed within `<translate>` `</translate>` tags, i.e., `<translate>` final translation here `</translate>`.

User:$\{user\_input\}$
Assistant:

Figure 10: Translation prompt for Qwen3 series non-thinking models. $\{src\_lang\_name\}$: source language; $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$: target language; $\{user\_input\}$: the source sentence to be translated.

Tower Plus Prompt

Translate the following $\{src\_lang\_name\}$ source text to $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$:$\{src\_lang\_name\}$:
$\{user\_input\}\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$:

Figure 11: Translation prompt for Tower-Plus-9B model. $\{src\_lang\_name\}$: source language; $\{tgt\_lang\_name\}$: target language; $\{user\_input\}$: the source sentence to be translated.

ChatGPT-5.1 Judge Prompt

Score the following translation from $\{source\_lang\}$ to $\{target\_lang\}$ with respect to human reference on a continuous scale 0 to 100 where score of zero means "no meaning preserved" and score of one hundred means "perfect meaning and grammar".$\{source\_lang\}$ source: "$\{source\_seg\}$"$\{target\_lang\}$ human reference: "$\{reference\_seg\}$"$\{target\_lang\}$ machine translation: "$\{target\_seg\}$"Score:

Figure 12: Judge prompt for ChatGPT-5.1. $\{source\_lang\}$: source language; $\{target\_lang\}$: target language; $\{source\_seg\}$: the source sentence to be translated; $\{reference\_seg\}$: the reference sentence; $\{target\_seg\}$: the translated sentence.

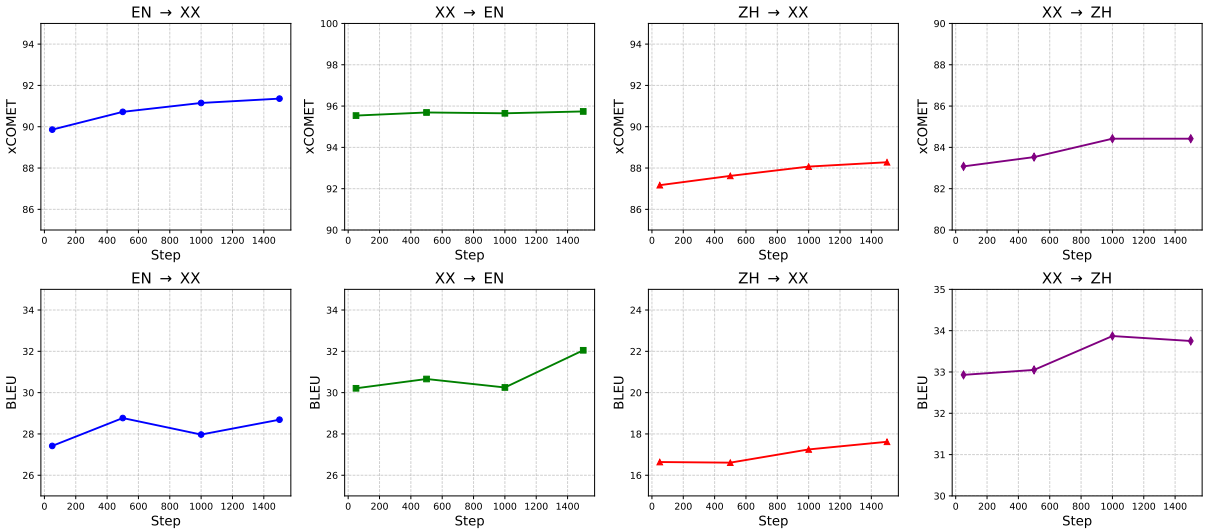

Figure 13: Training progression (reference-based XCOMET score) for multilingual LTT-8B model based on Qwen3-8B across EN-XX, XX-EN, ZH-XX, XX-ZH test sets.