# Self-Distillation for Model Stacking Unlocks Cross-Lingual NLU in 200+ Languages

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#### Abstract

LLMs have become a go-to solution not just for text generation, but also for natural language understanding (NLU) tasks. Acquiring extensive knowledge through language modeling on web-scale corpora, they excel on English NLU, yet struggle to extend their NLU capabilities to underrepresented languages. In contrast, machine translation models (MT) produce excellent multilingual representations, resulting in strong translation performance even for lowresource languages. MT encoders, however, lack the knowledge necessary for comprehensive NLU that LLMs obtain through language modeling training on immense corpora. In this work, we get the best both worlds by integrating MT encoders directly into LLM backbones via sample-efficient self-distillation. The resulting MT-LLMs preserve the inherent multilingual representational alignment from the MT encoder, allowing lower-resource languages to tap into the rich knowledge embedded in English-centric LLMs. Merging the MT encoder and LLM in a single model, we mitigate the propagation of translation errors and inference overhead of MT decoding inherent to discrete translation-based cross-lingual transfer (e.g., translate-test). Evaluation spanning three prominent NLU tasks and 127 predominantly low-resource languages renders MT-LLMs highly effective in cross-lingual transfer. MT-LLMs substantially and consistently outperform translate-test based on the same MT model, showing that we truly unlock multilingual language understanding for LLMs.

# 1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have become the swiss-army knife for natural language understanding (NLU) in English. When pretrained with language modelling on trillions of tokens, LLMs excel at complex NLU tasks with minimal or no labeled data [\(Brown et al.,](#page-8-0) [2020;](#page-8-0) [Touvron et al.,](#page-10-0) [2023;](#page-10-0) [AI@Meta,](#page-8-1) [2024\)](#page-8-1). Although these models are predominantly trained on English texts, typically comprising more than 80% of their training data [\(Tou](#page-10-0)[vron et al.,](#page-10-0) [2023;](#page-10-0) [AI@Meta,](#page-8-1) [2024;](#page-8-1) [Aryabumi et al.,](#page-8-2) [2024\)](#page-8-2), they show strong NLU capabilities also in other high-resource languages [\(Blevins and Zettle](#page-8-3)[moyer,](#page-8-3) [2022;](#page-8-3) [Zhu et al.,](#page-11-0)  $2023$ ).<sup>[1](#page-0-0)</sup> However, LLM performance degrades in cross-lingual transfer to languages that are typologically distant from English or virtually *unseen* at pretraining [\(Ojo et al.,](#page-10-1) [2024;](#page-10-1) [Holtermann et al.,](#page-9-0) [2024;](#page-9-0) [Razumovskaia et al.,](#page-10-2) [2024\)](#page-10-2). This performance degradation restricts the effectiveness of LLMs primarily to English and a tiny subset of high-resource languages and underscores shortcomings in their adaptability to underrepresented low-resource languages, thereby amplifying the cross-lingual language technology gap [\(Joshi et al.,](#page-9-1) [2020;](#page-9-1) [Razumovskaia et al.,](#page-10-2) [2024\)](#page-10-2).

In contrast, publicly available *machine translation* models like NLLB [\(Team et al.,](#page-10-3) [2022\)](#page-10-3) and MADLAD-400 [\(Kudugunta et al.,](#page-9-2) [2023\)](#page-9-2) are by design oriented towards and showcase ever more inclusiveness; they provide some machine translation capabilities between more than 200 and 400 languages, respectively, in any language direction. Unlike LLMs, machine translation (MT) models, and specifically MT encoders, are designed to semantically align textual representations in a unified embedding space, as demonstrated by their sentence retrieval performance on the FLORES200 dataset (cf. Figure [1\)](#page-1-0).

However, the MT models lack various types of knowledge (e.g., world knowledge, commonsense knowledge), commonly acquired through large-scale language modeling pre-training. Consequently, in multilingual NLU tasks and respective cross-lingual transfer they underperform even smaller multilingual encoders like XLM-R [\(Con](#page-9-3)[neau et al.,](#page-9-3) [2020\)](#page-9-3) (see Appendix [A.2](#page-11-1) for an em-

<span id="page-0-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For instance, 5% of the 15T pretraining dataset of Llama 3 comprise non-English data spanning over 30 languages. Aya is tailored for NLU across 23 high-resource languages.

<span id="page-1-0"></span>

Figure 1: Mean & std. dev. of sentence translation retrieval accuracy with BERTScore for NLLB-600M encoder outputs on pooled dev & devtest sets of FLO-RES200 by layer [\(Team et al.,](#page-10-3) [2022\)](#page-10-3).

pirical comparison). Because of this, MT models are typically used fully downstream, to translate training and/or test data from the source to the target languages, extending the wide availability of task-annotated English corpora to the target languages [\(Ruder et al.,](#page-10-4) [2021;](#page-10-4) [Artetxe et al.,](#page-8-4) [2023;](#page-8-4) [Ebing and Glavaš,](#page-9-4) [2023\)](#page-9-4). Translating training data (TTRAIN) involves substantial computational resources but yields strong XLT performance. TTRAIN nevertheless requires LLMs to support the target languages, which does not hold true for low-resource languages [\(Ojo et al.,](#page-10-1) [2024\)](#page-10-1). Translating test data, on the other hand, enables ZS-XLT with monolingual LMs, but it incurs an additional inference overhead from MT and generally offers performance that is slightly inferior to TTRAIN. Both TTRAIN and TTEST aim to align the input to accommodate the shortcomings of the LLM representation space, resorting for this to discrete natural language translations coming from the MT decoder. These methods fail to preserve the rich latent representations from the MT encoder and propagate translation errors to LLMs, thereby reducing downstream performance [\(Ponti et al.,](#page-10-5) [2021\)](#page-10-5).

In this work, we thus propose to merge MT encoders directly with LLMs, creating a unified multilingual LLM for enhanced cross-lingual NLU, termed MT-LLM. The merger of the two models unlocks the potential to combine 1) the general knowledge available in the original LLM for English and a handful of high-resource languages and 2) powerful multilingual representations and their cross-lingual semantic alignment available in the MT encoder (see Figure [1\)](#page-1-0). The key idea involves enabling the LLM to directly integrate the output representations from MT encoders, this way extending its NLU performance to virtually all languages supported by the MT encoder.

We align MT encoders with LLMs via self-

distillation in two steps. The objective in the first, self-supervised adaptation step is sequence-level alignment between the original LLM and the MTequipped LLM (MT-LLM). Second, we then address the distributional shifts inherent to adaptation from general-purpose data to downstream task data through task-specific self-distillation. We fine-tune the LLM on labeled task data, then transfer this task knowledge to the MT-LLM by aligning the task-specific output representations.

Contributions. 1) To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to successfully integrate MT encoders into language model backbones for XLT, thereby enabling ZS-XLT to all languages supported by the MT encoder. This integration yields two key benefits: ZS-XLT performance consistently improves over TTEST, while simultaneously reducing inference cost by eliminating the need to translate test instances. In turn, we show that the integration is highly efficient and only requires a few self-supervised adaptation steps to yield performance improvements over the LLM backbone. 2) We empirically show that our approach is agnostic to different types of LLM backbones, i.e., it improves the ZS-XLT capabilities of both decoderonly and encoder-only models. 3) We compare ZS-XLT and TTEST extensively and *fairly* on a range of tasks and a wide spectrum of (all supported) languages.[2](#page-1-1) Unlike existing work, we make sure that both cross-lingual transfer approaches—latent with MT-LLM and discrete with TTEST—are evaluated on an equal footing. Our results demonstrate that ZS-XLT with MT-LLM surpasses TTEST on NLU tasks when both rely on the same MT model.

# 2 Related Work

Translation-based XLT is a strong XLT baseline [\(Ruder et al.,](#page-10-4) [2021;](#page-10-4) [Ebrahimi et al.,](#page-9-5) [2022;](#page-9-5) [Aggar](#page-8-5)[wal et al.,](#page-8-5) [2022\)](#page-8-5). Previous studies have explored various techniques for leveraging translated training data in XLT (TTRAIN): these include training on translated data in a single target language [\(Ebrahimi et al.,](#page-9-5) [2022\)](#page-9-5), using concatenated data from all target languages [\(Ruder et al.,](#page-10-4) [2021\)](#page-10-4), sequential training starting with the source language followed by the translated target language [\(Aggar-](#page-8-5)

<span id="page-1-1"></span><sup>2</sup>[Our unified MT-LLM approach integrates additional MT](#page-8-5) [encoder parameters, while](#page-8-5) TTEST utilizes both the MT en[coder and decoder for translating test instances into English.](#page-8-5) Additionally, ZS-XLT [is commonly evaluated on languages](#page-8-5) [unsupported by the LLM, where MT models are employed to](#page-8-5) [bridge this gap in both TT](#page-8-5)EST and TTRAIN.

[wal et al.,](#page-8-5) [2022\)](#page-8-5), and jointly training on both combined [\(Chen et al.,](#page-9-6) [2023\)](#page-9-6). Recent studies have also benchmarked translating test data (TTEST) [\(Hu et al.,](#page-9-7) [2020;](#page-9-7) [Isbister et al.,](#page-9-8) [2021\)](#page-9-8), which enables ZS-XLT without the need for extensive finetuning for each target language, as in the case of TTRAIN. Moreover, both paradigms can be combined by training on round-trip translated noisy source data (translating source-language data to the target language and back) and evaluating on target language test data translated to the source [\(Oh](#page-10-6) [et al.,](#page-10-6) [2022;](#page-10-6) [Artetxe et al.,](#page-8-4) [2023;](#page-8-4) [Ebing and Glavaš,](#page-9-4) [2023\)](#page-9-4). Translating training or test data is essentially a *discrete* approach for adjusting the input (i.e., its language) to the LLM (i.e., language that the LLM is proficient in). In contrast, we propose to align latent representation of input, produced by the MT encoders, to the representation space of the LLM backbone via self-distillation, effectively bypassing translation errors that arise from the discrete translation, output of the MT decoder. By retaining continuous MT encoder representations and avoiding their discretization in the MT decoder, our approach also reduces the time and cost of inference vis-a-vis TTEST. This also means that the MT-LLMs (unlike English-centric LLMs) can also reap further gains from TTRAIN, particularly for low-resource languages unseen during pretraining.

While few studies investigated the integration of rich MT representations into LMs, these efforts have generally focused on task-specific integration, without achieving a global representation alignment between the MT encoder and the (large) language model [\(Ponti et al.,](#page-10-5) [2021;](#page-10-5) [Unanue et al.,](#page-10-7) [2023\)](#page-10-7). Our approach addresses this limitation by achieving task-agnostic representation alignment between MT and LM before task specialization.

Cross-lingual Transfer with LLMs. Widely used LLMs are predominantly trained on English data with English text accounting for 80-90% of their pretraining corpora [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-10-0) [2023;](#page-10-0) [AI@Meta,](#page-8-1) [2024\)](#page-8-1). Despite this imbalance, LLMs demonstrate a surprisingly strong performance in (high-resource) languages, which account for only a small fraction of their pretraining corpora [\(Blevins and Zettlemoyer,](#page-8-3) [2022\)](#page-8-3). The pretraining focus on English limits the NLU capabilities of LLMs in many low(er)-resource languages, and languages linguistically distant from English [\(Ojo](#page-10-1) [et al.,](#page-10-1) [2024\)](#page-10-1). Various methods adapt LLMs to languages not covered during pretraining, including

continued pretraining [\(Shliazhko et al.,](#page-10-8) [2023;](#page-10-8) [Fujii](#page-9-9) [et al.,](#page-9-9) [2024\)](#page-9-9), self-instruction [\(Wei et al.,](#page-10-9) [2023\)](#page-10-9), and vocabulary extension [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-11-2) [2024\)](#page-11-2). These methods yield gains in model's target language generation capabilities; however, recent work shows that better generation does not translate to stronger NLU performance [\(Razumovskaia et al.,](#page-10-2) [2024\)](#page-10-2).

# 3 Methodology

Idea in a Nutshell. Moving beyond translationbased XLT at the discrete (input data) level, we propose a method that merges a base LLM and an MT encoder into a massively multilingual *'MT-LLM'*. This integration enables the MT-LLM model to perform ZS-XLT to any language supported by the MT encoder by leveraging its multilingual language alignment capabilities that substantially extend those of the base LLM (see again Figure [1\)](#page-1-0).

More concretely, we hypothesize that by finetuning additional modular parameters on top of the base LLM, we can align the output representations of the merged MT-LLM with the original output representations of the base LLM. In other words, we learn the MT-LLM alignment via distillation with the LLM itself as the teacher. As a result, the MT encoder representations, which are of high-quality for many languages, act as input for the merged MT-LLM. The MT-LLM merge happens in two stages: 1) self-supervised (general, task-agnostic) adaptation and 2) task-specific distillation; we describe both in what follows.

Stage 1: Self-Supervised General Adaptation. Figure [2](#page-3-0) illustrates the approach in the first stage. We 'vertically' fuse a multilingual MT encoder  $E$  and an LLM  $M$  into a multilingual MT-LLM  $E \times M$ . To this end, we introduce two sets of new, trainable parameters Θ: We first initialize a projection  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{d_E \times d_M}$  that maps the output representation space  $\mathbb{R}^{d_E}$  of the MT encoder E into the input embedding space  $\mathbb{R}^{d_M}$  of the LLM M. We then insert low-rank adapters (LoRAs) [\(Hu](#page-9-10) [et al.,](#page-9-10) [2022\)](#page-9-10)  $\Delta W_{i=1}^{|W|}$  into the linear layers W of the LLM M. All other parameters of the MT encoder E and the LLM M are frozen.

The principal idea is to train the new modular parameters  $\Theta = \{U, \Delta W_{i=1}^{|W|}\}\$  to enable the LLM backbone  $M$  to 'understand' output token embeddings of the massively multilingual MT encoder. To this end, we utilize the original LLM as a teacher, which guides the self-supervised training process of our stacked MT-LLM. In the initial pass,

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Figure 2: Overview of Stage 1: we merge an MT encoder (NLLB, as a representative MT model) with an LLM (obtaining MT-LLM). We train, in a self-supervised distillation setup, the up-projection and LoRA adapters of the MT-LLM by forcing its output to match (via mean-squared error) the output of the LLM itself.

<span id="page-3-1"></span>

Figure 3: Overview of the architecture in Stage 2: taskspecific distillation (again assuming the use of NLLB).

we feed the input sequence  $S$  through the original LLM M (i.e., without U and  $\Delta W_{i=1}^{|W|}$ ), and pool the output representations  $\{ \mathbf{x}_{t_1}, ..., \mathbf{x}_{|T_M|} \}$  of tokens  $\{t_1, ..., t_{|T_M|}\}$  to a sequence embedding  $\phi\left(\lbrace x_t \rbrace_{t=1}^{T_M} \right) = \overline{\mathbf{x}}^S$ . In the subsequent step, we first re-embed the sequence  $S$  with the MT encoder  $E$ . We then input the MT encoder output embeddings into the LLM  $M$ , now including  $U$  and  $\Delta W_{i=1}^L$ , and again pool the resulting output representations  $\{z_1, ..., z_{|T_E|}\}\$  of tokens  $\{t_1, ..., t_{|T_E|}\}\$ to a sequence embedding  $\phi\left(\{\mathbf{z}_t\}_{t=1}^{T_E}\right) = \overline{\mathbf{z}}^S$ . The appropriate pooling function  $\phi$  depends on the prior training regime of the LLM. Common choices include BOS-pooling  $\phi\left(\{\mathbf{x}_t\}_{t=1}^T\right) = \mathbf{x}_1$  or mean-pooling  $\phi\left(\{\mathbf{x}_t\}_{t=1}^T\right) = \frac{1}{T}$  $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \mathbf{x}_i$  for encoders, as well as EOS-pooling  $\phi\left(\{\mathbf{x}_t\}_{t=1}^T\right) = \mathbf{x}_T$ for decoders. We train the parameters  $\Theta$  (i.e, U and  $\Delta W_{i=1}^L$ ) to minimize the mean-squared error <code>MSE( $\mathbf{\bar{x}}^{S},\mathbf{\bar{z}}^{S}).$ </code>

Stage 2: Task-Specific Distillation. The second stage is designed to bridge the remaining misalignment between the MT encoder and LLM in our fused MT-LLM  $E \times M$  in task-specific fine-tuning. We hypothesize that optimizing MT-LLM's representation alignment on general-purpose data is less sample-efficient than task-specific alignment. Figure [3](#page-3-1) depicts the task-specific distillation process.

We first fine-tune the base LLM with a classification head  $H \in \mathbb{R}^{d_m \times |C|}$  on the labeled task training data. Task fine-tuning reduces the complexity of the LLM's output representations, reducing them to encoding only task-specific features: this, in turn, facilitates task-specific representational alignment for our MT-LLM. Similar to the previous, adaptation stage, we then again fine-tune only the parameters of the LoRA adapters Θ: we continue training the LoRA adapters obtained in Stage 1 (i.e., task-agnostic adaptation).<sup>[3](#page-3-2)</sup> We again minimize the mean-squared error MSE( $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^S$ ,  $\bar{\mathbf{z}}^S$ ). During inference, we classify instances with the task head  $H$  as trained in the initial LLM task fine-tuning. This way we improve the model's ability to generalize on the task, as the MT-LLM is trained to match the output of the knowledge-rich task-specific representations of the fine-tuned LLM.

Both alignment steps together ensure that the latent translations from the MT encoder seamlessly integrate as input representations into the LLM backbone. And this integration extends the access to the knowledge embedded in the LLM to all languages supported by the MT model.

# <span id="page-3-3"></span>4 Experimental Setup

#### 4.1 Tasks and Languages

We evaluate on two established classification tasks and one multiple-choice machine reading compre-

<span id="page-3-2"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>In our preliminary experiments, merging the LoRAs of the adaptation phase with new, fine-tuning LoRA adapters led to numerical instabilities of weights due to quantization, which severely degraded final task performance.

hension (MRC) task, which all require nuanced NLU capabilities. For each task-dataset combination, we evaluate on all languages supported by the selected underlying MT model.<sup>[4](#page-4-0)</sup>

*Natural Language Inference (NLI)*. We evaluate on XNLI [\(Conneau et al.,](#page-9-11) [2018\)](#page-9-11), AmericasNLI (AmNLI) [\(Ebrahimi et al.,](#page-9-5) [2022\)](#page-9-5), and the NLI data of Kardeş-NLU [\(Senel et al.,](#page-10-10) [2024\)](#page-10-10). We fine-tune models on the training portion of MNLI [\(Williams](#page-10-11) [et al.,](#page-10-11) [2018\)](#page-10-11). We feed the mean-pooled token representations of the jointly embedded hypothesispremise sentence-pair into the classifier.

*Sentiment Classification* is evaluated on NusaX [\(Winata et al.,](#page-11-3) [2023\)](#page-11-3), which encompasses 10 In-donesian languages.<sup>[5](#page-4-1)</sup> We use the English training, and validation splits with 500 and 100 instances, respectively, as source-language data. We feed the mean-pooled token embeddings of the input text into the classifier.

*Multiple-Choice MRC*. Belebele is a multiplechoice MRC benchmark encompassing 122 typologically diverse language variants [\(Bandarkar](#page-8-6) [et al.,](#page-8-6) [2023\)](#page-8-6). We train models on the English training data provided by [Bandarkar et al.](#page-8-6) [\(2023\)](#page-8-6). We jointly embed the paragraph, question, and answers. For each choice  $c_i \in C$ , we then average the token embeddings and regress the resulting representation via head  $H^{d_M \times 1}$  to a logit  $l_{c_i}$ . We then minimize the cross-entropy between the concatenated choice logits  $\{l_{c_i}\}_{i=1}^{|C|}$  and the true label.

#### 4.2 Cross-Lingual Transfer Setups

We evaluate XLT abilities of LLMs in two standard setups, ZS-XLT and TTEST. Both paradigms enable XLT without requiring further annotation or prolonged training for any target language. We do not evaluate TTRAIN or involved strategies based on back-translations of source-language training data [\(Artetxe et al.,](#page-8-4) [2023;](#page-8-4) [Ebing and Glavaš,](#page-9-4) [2023\)](#page-9-4) as they require computationally intensive task-specific fine-tuning, independently for *each* target language; these variants also require sufficient target language 'understanding' ability from the LLM, which is not there for low-resource languages.<sup>[6](#page-4-2)</sup>

ZS-XLT. In ZS-XLT, the model is first trained on source-language training data. Since the model is multilingual, XLT is inherently supported: we simply run inference on target-language instances. Since LLMs are not sufficiently pretrained multilingually, we align them with an MT encoder with our self-distillation procedure (cf. Stage 1 in [§3\)](#page-3-1).

TTEST. In TTEST, the model is initially trained on labeled source-language instances. During inference, the target-language instances are translated to the source language prior to prediction with a dedicated MT model. This enables XLT with monolingual (L)LM backbones.

# 4.3 Models and Training Setup

Translation Models. We use the NLLB 600M parameter model as our primary MT encoder backbone [\(Team et al.,](#page-10-3) [2022\)](#page-10-3) for MT-LLM distillation. For TTEST, we translate validation and test datasets with both the 600M NLLB model as well as with the larger, 3.3B parameter variant. We use greedy decoding as [Ebing and Glavaš](#page-9-4) [\(2023\)](#page-9-4) showed that more sophisticated decoding strategies yield no downstream improvements in XLT.

LLMs. We base our experiments on the Llama 3-8B variant [\(AI@Meta,](#page-8-1) [2024\)](#page-8-1) that underwent the 'LLM2Vec process' [\(BehnamGhader et al.,](#page-8-7) [2024\)](#page-8-7). LLM2Vec is a recipe that converts decoder-only LLMs into powerful sequence encoders by (i) enabling bidirectional attention and continuing training on both (ii) self-supervised masked next-token prediction, and (iii) SimCSE [\(Gao et al.,](#page-9-12) [2021\)](#page-9-12).<sup>[7](#page-4-3)</sup> We refer to the model that fuses the NLLB 600M encoder with LLM2Vec as NLLB-LLM2Vec. We then adapt to downstream tasks by performing either direct fine-tuning on labeled instances or taskspecific self-distillation (cf. Stage 2 in [§3\)](#page-3-1).

Training Details. We train all models using LoRAs with rank  $r=16$ , alpha  $\alpha=32$ , and LoRA dropout of 0.05 inserted into all linear layers. We further train models with the 8-bit AdamW [\(Loshchilov](#page-10-12) [and Hutter,](#page-10-12) [2019;](#page-10-12) [Dettmers et al.,](#page-9-13) [2021\)](#page-9-13), 4-bit QLoRA-style quantization [\(Dettmers et al.,](#page-9-14) [2023\)](#page-9-14), weight decay of 0.01, and with 10% linear warmup and then linear decay. Experimental results are averaged across three random seeds.<sup>[8](#page-4-4)</sup>

*Stage 1: Setup*. We train for 10K steps on the

<span id="page-4-1"></span><span id="page-4-0"></span><sup>4</sup>Appendix [A.4](#page-12-0) lists the full details.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>In our experiments on Buginese, as the only outlier, ZS-XLT performance progressively deteriorated with more distillation (cf. Table [12\)](#page-16-0). This is in line with unusual behavior for Buginese reported in other work using NLLB [\(Ebing and](#page-9-4) [Glavaš,](#page-9-4) [2023\)](#page-9-4). We thus exclude Buginese results from the main discussion.

<span id="page-4-2"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Unlike the standalone LLM, our MT-LLM supports TTRAIN to any target language supported by the MT encoder.

<span id="page-4-3"></span>We refer the reader to the original LLM2Vec work for further technical details.

<span id="page-4-4"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>For NusaX, we repeat experiments with 5 random seeds due to the smaller dataset size.

10B tokens subsampled from the FineWeb corpus [\(Penedo et al.,](#page-10-13) [2024\)](#page-10-13). While our approach supports simultaneous adaptation on all languages supported by both the MT model and the LLM, we adapt the LLM only on English text. $9$  We set the effective batch size to 256. Learning rate is  $2e^{-4}$ .

*Baselines and Stage 2: Setup*. We set the learning rate to  $1e^{-4}$  for downstream task experiments. We fine-tune models with an effective batch size of 32, for 3 epochs on NLI, for 5 epochs on Belebele, and for 20 epochs on NusaX. We validate models at every 10% of total training steps. We validate and test on all languages that are supported by our MT model. We start task-specific self-distillation from model snapshots that performed best on sourcelanguage validation instances.

# 5 Results and Discussion

Table [1](#page-6-0) summarizes the results for each task, dataset, and model configuration. We then analyze the results per each of these dimensions.

ZS-XLT. Following prior work [\(Schmidt et al.,](#page-10-14) [2023\)](#page-10-14), we report final XLT test performance for model checkpoints that maximize performance on the source-language (S-DEV) and target-language (T-DEV) validation splits, respectively, in order to estimate the bounds of both expected (S-DEV) and ideal ZS-XLT performance (T-DEV). T-DEV also absorbs fluctuation in transfer performance stemming from sub-optimal hyperparameters [\(Keung et al.,](#page-9-15) [2020;](#page-9-15) [Schmidt et al.,](#page-10-14) [2023\)](#page-10-14).

*LLM2Vec*. Despite its strong English performance (as demonstrated in Table [2\)](#page-6-1), the English-centric LLM2Vec model based on Llama 3 8B underperforms all other models in ZS-XLT. For instance, the considerably smaller NLLB encoder (413M parameters) alone outperforms LLM2Vec on both the NLI and NusaX tasks. This confirms that LLMs generally underperform in NLU tasks for languages other than English. Notably, TTEST significantly improves upon the ZS-XLT performance of LLM2Vec, especially on datasets that predominantly feature lower-resource languages (AmNLI, Kardeş-NLU). Expectedly, and consistent with findings from related work [\(Ansell et al.,](#page-8-8) [2023\)](#page-8-8), the larger MT model (NLLB 3B) improves the TTEST performance on all tasks.

*NLLB-LLM2Vec*. The NLLB encoder alone shows strong ZS-XLT performance on sentiment classification (NusaX) but performs worse on NLI and degrades on MRC (Belebele), as the more intricate NLU task. This suggests that MT encoders indeed lack language understanding abilities and knowledge typically acquired with LM objectives on large-scale corpora. Our integrated NLLB-LLM2Vec variants substantially outperform both LLM2Vec and NLLB encoder on all NLU tasks, with performance gains on Belebele of 12% and 30%, respectively. Specifically, finetuning the NLLB-LLM2Vec adapted only in the taskagnostic manner (S1+FT) is already competitive with the more computationally involved TTEST. Our secondary task-specific distillation, i.e., NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2, further substantially and consistently improves the performance compared to direct fine-tuning (NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+FT). The gains are particularly prominent on NusaX  $(+9.4\%)$ , which has the smallest training set. Our full NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2 consistently beats TTEST based on the same NLLB 600M model by sizable margins  $(3 - 11\%)$ . What is more, NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2 frequently performs on par or better than TTEST that uses higher-quality translations from the larger NLLB 3B: MT improvements do propagate to ZS-XLT because of favorable model selection on T-DEV. These results show that NLLB-LLM2Vec  $(S1+S2)$  boosts  $ZS-XLT$  by allowing the NLU abilities of the LLM to propagate to many languages via the high-quality multilingual representation space of the NLLB encoder.

In sum, our alignment procedure effectively merges NLLB into LLM2Vec to enable ZS-XLT that both outperforms TTEST and reduces inference cost by avoiding decoding in the MT model. Consistent improvements of TTEST with NLLB 3B over NLLB 600M suggests that further ZS-XLT gains can be seized by integrating larger MT models into LLM2Vec. Moreover, since NLLB-LLM2Vec is inherently multilingual, NLLB-LLM2Vec can further benefit from training on translated training data (i.e., TTRAIN): NLLB-LLM2Vec is poised to robustly encode noisily translated training data, as it was trained both on MT and denoising autoencoding [\(Team et al.,](#page-10-3) [2022\)](#page-10-3).

English. Table [2](#page-6-1) shows the in-language (i.e., no XLT) English performance by task for our models.

*LLM2Vec*. Pre-trained on English-dominated webscale corpora, LLM2Vec demonstrates strong perfor-

<span id="page-5-0"></span> $9^9$ By unlocking ZS-XLT via self-supervised distillation on English text alone, we demonstrate that any monolingual language model can be equipped with an MT encoder.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

	<b>XNLI</b>		AMNLI		<b>KARDES-NLU</b>		<b>NUSAX</b>		<b>BELEBELE</b>
	S-DEV	T-DEV	$S-DEV$	T-DEV	$S-DEV$	T-DEV	$S-DEV$	T-DEV	S-DEV
Zero-Shot Cross-Lingual Transfer: Fine-tune multilingual model on English training set									
LLM2Vec	$68.9_{\pm2.0}$	$71.1_{+2.4}$	$40.9_{+2.0}$	$43.2_{+1.6}$	$\bar{4}6.7_{\pm 1.7}$	$51.1_{\pm 13.2}$	$54.5_{+13.7}$	$58.9_{\pm 10.9}$	$48.2_{\pm 3.2}$
NLLB-600M Encoder	$71.6_{+0.2}$	$71.8_{\pm 0.3}$	$55.3_{+0.6}$	$56.4_{\pm 0.3}$	$74.9_{+0.5}$	$75.2_{\pm0.6}$	$80.7_{\pm 0.2}$	$81.7_{\pm 0.1}$	$30.4_{+0.4}$
NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+FT	$80.0_{+0.9}$	$80.4_{\pm0.4}$	$63.0_{+1.9}$	$64.3_{\pm 1.2}$	$81.5_{+1.3}$	$81.3_{\pm 0.4}$	$72.7_{\pm 4.4}$	$77.5_{\pm 2.4}$	$60.2_{\pm 0.5}$
NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2	$81.4_{+0.6}$	$81.7_{+0.5}$	$64.0_{+0.3}$	$64.6_{\pm 0.7}$	$82.2_{\pm 0.5}$	$82.1_{+0.5}$	$82.1_{\pm 2.6}$	$82.6_{\pm 2.4}$	$62.6_{+0.5}$
Translate-Test: Translate test data to English									
LLM2Vec NLLB-600M	$78.7_{+0.7}$	$78.6_{\pm 0.9}$	$52.0_{+0.7}$	$52.7_{\pm0.6}$	$78.8_{\pm 0.8}$	$78.4_{\pm1.0}$	$78.3_{\pm 0.9}$	$78.8_{\pm1.2}$	$60.7_{\pm 0.7}$
LLM2Vec NLLB-3B	$80.2_{\pm 0.6}$	$80.2_{\pm 0.8}$	$50.9_{\pm 0.4}$	$51.2_{+1.7}$	$79.9_{\pm0.9}$	$79.9_{\pm1.0}$	$82.4_{\pm0.6}$	$\bf{82.6}_{\pm0.5}$	$64.2_{\pm 0.7}$

Table 1: ZS-XLT vs. TTEST. We benchmark models on ZS-XLT against TTEST on non-English NLU test sets (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) and per target-language (T-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metrics: accuracy for NLI and Belebele, macro-F1 for NusaX. Best model per column is in bold.

<span id="page-6-1"></span>

	XNLI	<b>NUSAX</b>	<b>BELEBELE</b>
LLM2Vec	$92.5_{+0.3}$	$91.3_{\pm 0.5}$	$94.0_{\pm 0.4}$
NLLB-600M Encoder	$80.4_{+0.2}$	$86.9_{\pm 0.2}$	$33.6_{\pm 0.1}$
NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+FT	$90.0_{\pm 0.7}$	$90.8_{\pm 0.6}$	$91.0_{\pm 1.0}$
NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2	$91.4_{\pm 0.2}$	$92.2_{\pm 0.5}$	$92.4_{+0.7}$

Table 2: English performance. We benchmark LLM2Vec, the NLLB encoder, and our fused NLLB-LLM2Vec on English test sets of various NLU benchmarks (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). See Table [1](#page-6-0) for further details.

mance on all tasks. The comparison of in-language performance in Table [2](#page-6-1) with ZS-XLT performance in Table [1](#page-6-0) shows the scale of performance drop for LLM2Vec in XLT. This means that LLMs require either extensive multilingual pre-training or post-hoc language adaptations for effective XLT.

*NLLB-LLM2Vec*. The results for NLLB variants, the NLLB encoder alone and our NLLB-LLM2Vec, provide more context for the ZS-XLT results from Table [1.](#page-6-0) We observe that ZS-XLT performance of NLLB variants is correlated with their in-language English performance. While the NLLB encoder performs fairly on NusaX (and to some extent also on NLI), it lacks language understanding abilities to that match more complex NLU tasks like Belebele. Our NLLB-LLM2Vec variants, on the other hand, successfully exploit the knowledge of Llama to materially increase English performance over the NLLB encoder (+58% on Belebele). Our taskagnostic NLLB-LLM2Vec alignment (S1+FT) still lags somewhat behind LLM2Vec after fine-tuning on labeled task data. We manage to narrow this gap for Belebele and NLI with task-specific distillation  $(S1+S2)$  (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1) and even surpass the English performance of the LLM for NusaX. This suggests that the task-specific distillation guides

NLLB-LLM2Vec to better leverage the knowledge embedded in the weights of LLM2Vec, and shape it specifically for the task.

The results indicate that compositional alignment on the word- or span-level, as introduced in the task-distillation on the Belebele dataset, further improves representational alignment in the MT-LLM. As evident from the comparison of English results in Table [2](#page-6-1) and XLT results in Table [1,](#page-6-0) better global (i.e., task-agnostic) alignment, in turn, directly transfers to closing the 'English knowledge gap', i.e., to better ZS-XLT performance.

#### 5.1 Further Analyses and Discussion

**Importance of Adaptation.** Figure [4](#page-7-0) shows both English and ZS-XLT performance by task for taskspecific self-distillation, NLLB-LLM2Vec (S1+S2), after  $K \in \{0, 3, 6, 10\}$  steps of task-agnostic alignment (see [§3\)](#page-3-1), respectively. The figure points to the importance of task-agnostic adaptation both for English and ZS-XLT performance. The results furthermore highlight that Stage 1 of our alignment is sample-efficient: the largest relative ZS-XLT gains are obtained after only 3K training steps (e.g., +10.5% for Belebele) and then marginalize with further training. We observe the same trends for the English performance (e.g.,  $+15\%$  on Belebele from 3K steps of alignment). These results show that we can effectively tie LLMs and MT encoders into a unified multilingual MT-LLM at computational cost that is negligible w.r.t. both LLM and MT (pre-)training.

On NusaX, we observe that while prolonged task-agnostic adaptation benefits the in-language English performance, it does not improve ZS-XLT results. The explanation, we believe, is in the sim-

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

Figure 4: Impact of Adaptation. We evaluate our 2-step alignment procedure by  $\{0, 3, 6, 10\}$ K general adaptation steps (Stage 1) (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1) on English (ENG) and non-English (ZS-XLT) test portions of various NLU benchmarks. Model selection on S-DEV.

<span id="page-7-3"></span>

		<b>XNLI</b>			AMNLI	<b>KNLU</b>	
$GPT-2$	<b>ENG</b>	$S-D$	$T-D$	$S-D$	$T-D$	$S-D$	$T-D$
Zero-Shot Cross-Lingual Transfer							
NLLB Enc.	80.4	71.6	71.8	55.3	56.4	74.9	75.2
<b>NLLB FT</b>	82.2	74.7	74.8	62.4	63.2	76.2	76.5
Translate-Test							
<b>NLLB-600M</b>	85.0	73.6	74.0	54.1	55.2	74.7	75.3
NLLB-3B	85.0	75.1	75.4	52.6	54.5	75.4	75.9

Table 3: Adaptation on GPT-2. We perform adaptation (stage 1) with GPT-2 and benchmark NLLB-GPT-2 against GPT-2 in English and non-English test portions of NLI benchmarks. We repeat NLLB encoder results in gray as a reference. See Table [1](#page-6-0) for further details.

plicity of the task: ZS-XLT performance on NusaX saturates quickly because the NLLB encoder already solves the task well (see Table [1\)](#page-6-0) and thus requires little additional knowledge from LLM2Vec, to which it gets access through the alignment.

The results indicate that the gap in English performance between LLM2Vec and NLLB-LLM2Vec (cf. Table [2\)](#page-6-1) can eventually be closed with longer alignment. We also hypothesize that explicit token or span alignment objectives would improve the generalization: this would be facilitated by the significant overlap between the vocabularies of Llama 3 and NLLB tokenizers.

Fusing Decoder Models with MT Encoders. We additionally test the integration of MT encoders into a decoder LM: we align the NLLB 600M encoder to the GPT-2 medium (354M parameters) and evaluate on NLI. $^{10}$  $^{10}$  $^{10}$  Due to the absence of the E0S token in the pretraining of GPT-2, we perform taskagnostic self-distillation (Stage 1, on the FineWeb corpus) using mean-pooled token representations (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). Subsequently, we fine-tune the NLLB-GPT-2 directly on MNLI, feeding the EOS-pooled representations into the classifier.<sup>[11](#page-7-2)</sup> We increase the learning rate to  $3e^{-4}$  and leave other hyperparameters unchanged. Like in our main experiments, we compare NLLB-GPT-2 against TTEST with NLLB-600M and NLLB-3.3B, respectively.

The results in Table [3](#page-7-3) show that NLLB-GPT-2 successfully taps into GPT-2's 'knowledge' to outperform both the standalone NLLB encoder and the *fair* TTEST baseline using the same NLLB-600M model in ZS-XLT across all datasets. Moreover, NLLB-GPT-2 even surpasses TTEST on GPT-2 with the larger NLLB-3.3B model on AMNLI and KARDES-NLU. These results hold despite the suboptimal alignment, as indicated by the notable gap in performance to the fine-tuned GPT-2 on the English test portion of XNLI. The discrepancy likely stems from challenges in converting encoders into decoders, as observed in prior work [\(Wang et al.,](#page-10-15) [2022\)](#page-10-15). We believe that prolonged adaptation and explicit token-level alignment objectives would further improve both sample-efficiency and quality of alignment, reducing the 'knowledge' gap.

#### 6 Conclusion

LLMs quickly emerged as the catch-all solution to NLU in English. However, LLMs still cannot extend their NLU abilities to languages typologically distant from English or virtually unseen at pretraining. In this work, we propose a novel approach to fuse MT encoders with LLM backbones via self-distillation to compile a massively multilingual MT-LLM. The MT-LLM not only strongly improves ZS-XLT performance over TTEST but also removes the overhead of MT decoding at inference. We demonstrate that our distillation procedure is highly efficient and requires only a few thousand steps to convert LLMs into multilingual MT-LLMs, enabling NLU in all languages supported by the MT encoder. We further show that our MT-LLM alignment benefits both encoder and decoder LLMs. In future work we will seek to (1) further improve generalization of MT-LLM by incorporating token-level alignment objectives and (2) extend the MT-LLM to support further languages by posthoc adaptation of the MT encoder.

<span id="page-7-1"></span> $10$ We exclude NusaX and Belebele for this ablation: (1) the NLLB encoder performs better than LLM2Vec in the TTEST setting on Nusa $\bar{X}$ ; (2) For Belebele, the limited context length of GPT-2 hinders a fair comparison.

<span id="page-7-2"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>We omit task-specific distillation because it performed slightly worse on English in XNLI compared to directly finetuning of NLLB-GPT-2 with larger learning rates.

# 7 Limitations

Our experimental results are based on using Llama 3 and GPT-2 as the LLM backbones and NLLB-600M as the MT encoder in our MT-LLM approach. Expanding our experimental setup to include a wider range of MT encoders and additional LLM backbones would not only validate its applicability across various model families and architectures but also enrich our findings. The Llama 3 backbone of LLM2Vec underwent instruction tuning. This means that LLM2Vec might have seen labelled data for tasks we experiment on in our work. We strongly believe this does not constitute an issue to evaluate *cross-lingual* transfer of our model configurations. If there was serious leakage of labelled instances, TTEST variants should benefit more strongly as the data is presented in the language Llama was trained on. Our method would gain further support, if our approach extended to generative language modelling. However, sequence-level alignment objectives do not sufficiently align the MT and LLM backbones. The MT and LLM backbones therefore would require either matching or largely overlapping vocabularies to appropriately learn how to fuse the models on the token level (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). Another non-negligible consideration in our evaluations that our limited compute budget does not allow for is hyperparameter tuning. We nevertheless believe our main evaluations put model variants on equal footing and hence reliably measure expected ZS-XLT. We further counteract this issue in two ways. First, prior work shows that LoRAs are generally more robust to varying hyperparameters. Second, we report transfer performance both on when selecting models on source-language and per target-language validation. The latter remedies oscillation in ZS-XLT performance [\(Keung et al.,](#page-9-15) [2020;](#page-9-15) [Schmidt et al.,](#page-10-14) [2023\)](#page-10-14).

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# <span id="page-11-4"></span>A Appendix

#### A.1 Reproducibility details

Compute Requirements. We perform generalpurpose adaptation (i.e., stage 1, cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1) on 8 A100 80GB, which requires about 22 hours of runtime. All downstream experiments were executed on A100 40GB. Downstream fine-tuning and distillation required for each one of three seeds ca. 20 hours of runtime for NLI, ca. 30 hours of runtime of Belebele, and ca. 20 minutes of runtime per NusaX. We execute these experiments for LLM2Vec fine-tuning, NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+FT, and NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2 (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). The compute required for downstream fine-tuning therefore sums roughly to 450 GPU hours. Subsequent evaluations required, per each of ten evaluated checkpoints, about 3 hours on XNLI, AmNLI, and Kardeş-NLU combined, 5 hours on Belebele, and 10 minutes on NusaX. We estimate that inference therefore requires 725 hours of GPU runtime. In conclusion, our experiments in total required between 50 to 60 days of A100 runtime.

Code. We will make the code publicly available at [https://github.com/fdschmidt93/](https://github.com/fdschmidt93/trident-nllb-llm2vec) [trident-nllb-llm2vec](https://github.com/fdschmidt93/trident-nllb-llm2vec).

Translations. The translated validation and test splits for all datasets (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1) are available via the Github repository.

Additional Details on Experimental Setup.

#### <span id="page-11-1"></span>A.2 NLLB vs. XLM-R on XNLI



Figure 5: Performance on XNLI English and non-English test portions when selecting the model on English validation instances (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3) for XLM-R-Base, XLM-R-Large, and the NLLB-600M Encoder [\(Con](#page-9-3)[neau et al.,](#page-9-3) [2020;](#page-9-3) [Team et al.,](#page-10-3) [2022\)](#page-10-3)

Please refer to Table [A.3](#page-12-1) for details on the no. of languages and instances by dataset and split.

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*MNLI.* We access the training portion of the MNLI at: [https://huggingface.co/datasets/](https://huggingface.co/datasets/nyu-mll/glue) [nyu-mll/glue](https://huggingface.co/datasets/nyu-mll/glue).

*XNLI.* We access the validation and test sets of the XNLI at: [https://huggingface.co/datasets/](https://huggingface.co/datasets/nyu-mll/glue) [nyu-mll/glue](https://huggingface.co/datasets/nyu-mll/glue).

*AmNLI.* We access the validation and tests portion of the AmNLI dataset at: [https://huggingface.](https://huggingface.co/datasets/nala-cub/americas_nli) [co/datasets/nala-cub/americas\\_nli](https://huggingface.co/datasets/nala-cub/americas_nli).

*Kardeş-NLU*. Our code includes a script to access the dataset via the Hugging Face datasets framework. The original dataset is available at: <https://github.com/lksenel/Kardes-NLU>.

*NusaX.* We access the dataset via Hugging Face at [https://huggingface.co/datasets/](https://huggingface.co/datasets/indonlp/NusaX-senti) [indonlp/NusaX-senti](https://huggingface.co/datasets/indonlp/NusaX-senti).

*Belebele.* The training dataset is available at [https:](https://github.com/facebookresearch/belebele) [//github.com/facebookresearch/belebele](https://github.com/facebookresearch/belebele).

We access the dataset via Hugging Face at [https://huggingface.co/datasets/](https://huggingface.co/datasets/facebook/belebele) [facebook/belebele](https://huggingface.co/datasets/facebook/belebele).

*LLM2Vec.* We use LLM2Vec that has been trained without supervision which is available on the Hugging Face hub: [here.](https://huggingface.co/McGill-NLP/LLM2Vec-Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct-mntp-unsup-simcse)

*NLLB.* The distilled 600M parameters variant of NLLB is available at [https://huggingface.co/](https://huggingface.co/facebook/nllb-200-distilled-600M) [facebook/nllb-200-distilled-600M](https://huggingface.co/facebook/nllb-200-distilled-600M). NLLB 3B can be accessed via [https://huggingface.](https://huggingface.co/facebook/nllb-200-3.3B) [co/facebook/nllb-200-3.3B](https://huggingface.co/facebook/nllb-200-3.3B).

# <span id="page-12-1"></span>A.3 Datasets

	<b>MNLI</b>	<b>XNLI</b>	<b>AMNLI</b>	<b>KARDES-NLU</b>	<b>NUSAX</b>	<b>BELEBELE</b>
No. of Languages						117
Training	392, 702				500	67,541
Validation		2,490	743	1,000	100	$3.773*$
Test		5,010	750	2,000	400	900

Table 4: Number of instances by split and language per dataset. For NLI, we train on the training split of MNLI [\(Williams et al.,](#page-10-11) [2018\)](#page-10-11). Number of languages reflects the number of languages supported by NLLB. For Belebele, we construct training and validation sets with code of [Bandarkar et al.](#page-8-6) [\(2023\)](#page-8-6) (cf. Appendix [A\)](#page-11-4).

## <span id="page-12-0"></span>A.4 Full results

# Main Results.



Table 5: XNLI (1/2). We benchmark models on test portions of XNLI (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.



Table 6: XNLI (2/2). We benchmark models on test portions of XNLI (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on per target-language (T-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.



Table 7: AmNLI & Kardeş-NLU. We benchmark models on test portions of AmNLI and Kardeş-NLU (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) and per target-language (T-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.

	<b>ENG</b>	ACE	<b>BAN</b>	$B$ J $N$	<b>BUG</b>	<b>IND</b>	JAV.	<b>MIN</b>	<b>SUN</b>	AVG
Zero-Shot Cross-Lingual Transfer: Fine-tune multilingual model on English training set										
LLM2Vec	$91.3_{+0.5}$	$.41.6_{\pm 14.5}$	$45.1_{\pm 17.6}$	$56.9_{+13.9}$	$30.5_{\pm 16.7}$	$83.3_{+2.4}$	$54.4_{\pm 14.8}$	$56.5_{\pm 16.8}$	$43.6_{\pm 17.9}$	$51.5_{+14.0}$
NLLB-600M Encoder	$86.9_{\pm 2.1}$	$80.3_{\pm 0.8}$	. 76.9 $_{\pm 2.0}$	$83.8_{+1.0}$	$67.4_{\pm 2.7}$	$86.4_{\pm 0.7}$	$83.6_{\pm0.8}$	$80.1_{\pm 0.5}$	$80.7_{+0.4}$	$79.9_{+0.3}$
NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+FT	$90.8_{\pm0.6}$	$73.9_{\pm 4.3}$	$70.6{\scriptstyle \pm2.4}$	$79.1_{\pm 2.5}$	$53.9_{\pm 9.3}$	$86.7_{+2.3}$	$81.0_{\pm 2.4}$	$72.6_{\pm 6.3}$	$78.4_{+2.7}$	$74.5_{+3.2}$
NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2	$92.2_{+0.5}$	$81.5_{+2.5}$	$74.8_{+4.1}$	$82.3_{\pm 2.6}$	$67.1_{\pm1.7}$	$89.3_{+0.6}$	$86.4_{\pm 1.8}$	$80.6_{\pm 3.3}$	$83.1_{+3.1}$	$80.6_{+2.3}$
Translate-Test: Translate test data to English										
LLM2Vec NLLB-600M	$91.3_{+0.5}$	$74.2_{\pm 2.2}$	$72.1_{\pm 1.6}$	$79.1_{\pm 1.8}$	$71.3_{\pm 3.7}$	$86.7_{\pm 1.2}$	79.4 $\pm$ 1.9	$78.7_{+1.6}$	$81.8_{+1.2}$	$77.9_{+1.4}$
LLM2Vec NLLB-3B	$91.3_{+0.5}$	$77.7_{\pm 1.4}$	$75.6_{\pm 1.3}$	$83.8_{\pm 1.5}$	$71.5_{\pm 4.3}$	$88.7_{\pm 0.6}$	$84.3_{\pm 1.3}$	$82.1_{\pm 0.4}$	$86.1_{+1.0}$	$81.2_{+0.8}$

Table 8: NusaX. We benchmark models on test portions of NusaX (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on per target-language (T-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: macro-F1.



Table 9: Belebele (1/2). We benchmark models on test portions of Belebele (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 and S2 refer to selfsupervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on sourcelanguage (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.



Table 10: Belebele (2/2). We benchmark models on test portions of Belebele (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised finetuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.

Results by No. of Adaptation Steps.

	$\bf{0}$	3,000	6,000	10,000
XNLI-EN	$82.6_{\pm0.6}$	$90.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.3}$	$91.2_{\pm 0.3}$	$91.4_{\pm 0.2}$
AMNLI-AYM	$60.0_{\pm 0.7}$	$62.8{\scriptstyle \pm2.4}$	$62k0_{\pm 1.2}$	$61.3_{\pm0.8}$
<b>AMNLI-GN</b>	$65.7{\scriptstyle \pm 0.4}$	$68.5{\scriptstyle \pm 0.5}$	$69.5{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$	$69.7{\scriptstyle \pm1.3}$
<b>AMNLI-QUY</b>	$60.7{\scriptstyle \pm1.5}$	$61.8{\scriptstyle \pm0.8}$	$61.4_{\pm 2.4}$	$61.5{\scriptstyle \pm1.9}$
KARDEŞ-NLU-AZ	$79.3_{\pm 0.9}$	$84.1_{\pm 0.1}$	$83.7_{\pm 1.1}$	$83.1_{\pm 0.7}$
KARDEŞ-NLU-KK	$77.8_{\pm 0.9}$	$82.1_{\pm 0.4}$	$82.2_{\pm 0.9}$	$81.8{\scriptstyle \pm0.2}$
KARDEŞ-NLU-KY	$77.9_{\pm 0.6}$	$81.9{\scriptstyle \pm0.1}$	$81.6_{\pm0.3}$	$81.4{\scriptstyle \pm 0.6}$
KARDEŞ-NLU-UZ	$78.9_{\pm0.4}$	$83.3{\scriptstyle \pm0.3}$	$82.9{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$	$82.3{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$
XNLI-AR	$75.6_{\pm0.5}$	$81.1_{\pm 0.5}$	$82.1_{\pm 0.8}$	$82.0_{\pm0.2}$
XNLI-BG	$79.5_{\pm0.5}$	$86.0_{\pm0.2}$	$86.2_{\pm 0.6}$	$86.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$
XNLI-DE	$79.1_{\pm0.2}$	$85.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$85.8{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$85.8_{\pm0.2}$
XNLI-EL	$78.1_{\pm0.4}$	$79.1_{\pm 6.1}$	$75.2_{\pm 3.8}$	$79.6_{\pm 6.2}$
XNLI-ES	$79.8_{\pm0.4}$	$86.9_{\pm 0.3}$	$87.3_{\pm0.3}$	$87.5_{\pm0.3}$
XNLI-FR	$78.8 + 0.5$	$86.2{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$86.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.3}$	$86.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.3}$
XNLI-HI	$72.7_{\pm0.3}$	$76.4_{\pm 0.5}$	$76.6_{\pm 1.0}$	$76.9_{\pm 0.6}$
XNLI-RU	$76.9_{\pm0.2}$	$83.4_{\pm 0.7}$	$83.7{\scriptstyle \pm0.6}$	$83.9{\scriptstyle \pm 0.1}$
XNLI-SW	$73.5{\scriptstyle \pm0.2}$	$79.5{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$79.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$79.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$
XNLI-TH	$71.6_{\pm0.5}$	$77.0_{\pm 1.0}$	$77.5_{\pm 1.3}$	$77.5_{\pm0.5}$
XNLI-TR	$76.4_{\pm0.6}$	$79.6_{\pm 0.3}$	$79.6_{\pm 0.4}$	$80.0_{\pm 0.3}$
XNLI-UR	$68.5{\scriptstyle \pm 0.2}$	$71.8_{\pm 0.5}$	$71.9_{\pm 0.7}$	$72.1_{\pm0.4}$
XNLI-VI	$77.7_{\pm 0.3}$	$83.0_{\pm 0.4}$	$83.5{\scriptstyle \pm0.3}$	$83.3_{\pm0.3}$
XNLI-ZH	$73.6_{\pm0.2}$	$79.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$80.2{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$80.2_{\pm 0.7}$
<b>AVG</b>	$74.4_{\pm0.3}$	$79.1_{\pm 0.2}$	$79.0_{\pm 0.4}$	$79.2_{\pm0.2}$

<span id="page-16-0"></span>Table 11: NLI by No. of Adaptation Steps. We benchmark NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2 on test portions of NLI benchmarks (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3) by number of adaptation steps in S1. S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.

	0	3,000	6,000	10,000
<b>ENG</b>	$86.4_{\pm 0.8}$	$91.5_{\pm 1.1}$	$91.7{\scriptstyle \pm 0.5}$	$92.2_{\pm0.5}$
ACE	$78.3_{\pm 2.3}$	$82.2_{\pm 1.2}$	$81.0_{+2.8}$	$80.6_{\pm 3.8}$
<b>BAN</b>	$75.2_{\pm 1.9}$	$75.0_{\pm 2.2}$	$72.4_{\pm 3.1}$	$72.9_{\pm 3.7}$
<b>BJN</b>	$82.3{\scriptstyle \pm1.7}$	$82.7{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$82.7_{\pm 1.3}$	$82.6{\scriptstyle \pm2.0}$
<b>BUG</b>	$72.7_{\pm 2.3}$	$66.5_{\pm 5.3}$	$62.7{\scriptstyle \pm5.9}$	$61.1_{\pm 6.9}$
<b>IND</b>	$85.5_{\pm1.6}$	$88.6{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$	$89.3{\scriptstyle \pm1.1}$	$89.3{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$
<b>JAV</b>	$81.1_{\pm 0.7}$	$85.6{\scriptstyle\pm2.5}$	$84.1_{\pm 2.1}$	$85.3{\scriptstyle \pm2.4}$
<b>MIN</b>	$76.2_{\pm 3.1}$	$80.5_{\pm 3.3}$	$78.3_{\pm 3.0}$	$80.4_{\pm 3.3}$
<b>SUN</b>	$80.8_{\pm 1.9}$	$83.9_{\pm2.0}$	$82.6_{\pm 3.1}$	$83.2_{\pm 3.1}$
AVG	$79.0_{\pm 4.2}$	$80.8{\scriptstyle \pm6.9}$	$79.2_{\pm 8.2}$	$79.4_{\pm 8.8}$

Table 12: NusaX by No. of Adaptation Steps. We benchmark NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2 on test portions of NusaX (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3) by number of adaptation steps in S1. S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.



Table 13: Belebele by No. of Adaptation Steps (1/2). We benchmark NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2 on test portions of Belebele (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3) by number of adaptation steps in S1. S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy. 6741

	0	3,000	6,000	10,000
eng_Latn	$\overline{74.9}_{\pm 5.5}$	$\overline{90.0}_{\pm 0.8}$	$\overline{91.7}_{\pm 0.4}$	$\overline{99.4}_{\pm 0.7}$
<b>AVG</b>	$\overline{51.3_{\pm 2.8}}$	$61.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.2}$	$62.2_{\pm 0.2}$	$\overline{62.6}_{\pm 0.5}$
mal_Mlym	$44.0{\pm}2.9$	$\overline{52.1}_{\pm 1.1}$	$\overline{50.6}_{\pm 0.9}$	$49.9{\scriptstyle \pm 0.4}$
mar_Deva	$51.7_{\pm 3.7}$	$60.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.9}$	$60.3_{\pm1.4}$	$60.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.5}$
mkd_Cyrl	$59.4_{\pm3.1}$	$72.2_{\pm 1.2}$	$73.4_{\pm0.5}$	$74.3{\scriptstyle \pm 0.6}$
mlt_Latn	$52.1_{\pm1.5}$	$65.7_{\pm0.7}$	$66.5{\scriptstyle \pm 0.5}$	$67.7_{\pm 1.7}$
mri_Latn	$41.2_{\pm 2.5}$	$45.8_{\pm0.3}$	$46.7_{\pm0.6}$	$47.2_{\pm 1.4}$
mya_Mymr	$40.6{\scriptstyle \pm1.8}$	$47.3{\scriptstyle \pm0.6}$	$46.6{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$47.4{\scriptstyle \pm 0.5}$
nld_Latn	$64.1_{\pm 3.9}$	$79.1_{\pm0.4}$	$80.7{\scriptstyle \pm 0.4}$	$81.0_{\pm 0.6}$
nob_Latn	$65.2{\scriptstyle \pm4.1}$	$81.8{\scriptstyle \pm1.2}$	$83.9{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$84.6{\scriptstyle \pm 0.2}$
npi_Deva	$51.5_{\pm 2.8}$	$61.1_{\pm 1.1}$	$61.2_{\pm0.4}$	$60.8_{\pm 1.6}$
nso_Latn	$49.6_{\pm 4.3}$	$58.0_{\pm 0.8}$	$60.4_{\pm0.9}$	$60.0_{\pm 1.5}$
nya_Latn	$44.4_{\pm1.5}$	$52.9_{\pm1.2}$	$54.5_{\pm 1.4}$	$54.5_{\pm 1.4}$
ory_Orya	$48.2_{\pm 1.4}$	$57.1_{\pm 0.8}$	$57.0_{\pm 1.1}$	$57.1_{\pm 1.2}$
pan_Guru	$46.6{\scriptstyle \pm2.0}$	$55.2_{\pm 1.4}$	$55.0_{\pm 1.1}$	$56.5{\scriptstyle \pm2.1}$
pbt_Arab	$44.2_{\pm2.3}$	$50.6_{\pm 1.3}$	$48.7{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$	$49.9_{\pm 1.4}$
pes_Arab	$60.1{\scriptstyle \pm5.5}$	$72.4_{\pm 0.5}$	$71.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$71.4{\scriptstyle \pm0.3}$
plt_Latn	$52.3_{\pm 2.8}$	$64.9_{\pm 0.7}$	$64.1_{\pm0.5}$	$64.9_{\pm0.7}$
pol_Latn	$55.7_{\pm 3.9}$	$69.0_{\pm 0.4}$	$70.7{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$	$71.0_{\pm 0.8}$
por_Latn	$68.2{\scriptstyle \pm4.8}$	$83.2_{\pm 0.5}$	$83.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$84.1{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$
ron_Latn	$62.1_{\pm 4.3}$	$77.3_{\pm 0.9}$	$78.0_{\pm 1.0}$	$79.1_{\pm1.0}$
rus_Cyrl	$61.6{\scriptstyle \pm3.6}$	$76.2{\scriptstyle \pm 0.6}$	$78.1_{\pm 1.0}$	$79.1_{\pm 1.2}$
shn_Mymr	$33.3_{\pm 1.4}$	$36.4_{\pm1.6}$	$36.4_{\pm 0.8}$	$37.3_{\pm 0.5}$
sin_Sinh	$38.4_{\pm 2.3}$	$43.9_{\pm1.3}$	$44.1_{\pm 1.7}$	$43.8_{\pm 1.6}$
slk_Latn	$60.5_{\pm 4.6}$	$73.3_{\pm 0.2}$	$74.9_{\pm 0.3}$	$76.0_{\pm 0.8}$
slv_Latn	$59.9_{\pm 4.2}$	$74.9_{\pm 0.7}$	$76.2_{\pm 0.3}$	$76.0_{\pm 0.6}$
sna_Latn	$48.8{\scriptstyle\pm2.2}$	$61.1_{\pm 1.0}$	$61.4{\scriptstyle \pm 0.4}$	$61.1{\scriptstyle \pm 0.9}$
snd_Arab	$48.6{\scriptstyle \pm2.4}$	$57.6_{\pm 1.4}$	$57.1_{\pm1.2}$	$56.6_{\pm 0.3}$
som_Latn	$43.3{\scriptstyle \pm2.1}$	$52.0_{\pm 1.5}$	$51.4_{\pm0.9}$	$51.2_{\pm 1.1}$
sot_Latn	$45.6_{\pm3.7}$	$56.6_{\pm0.1}$	$57.4_{\pm 1.4}$	$57.9_{\pm 1.4}$
spa_Latn	$67.0_{\pm3.6}$	$84.6_{\pm 0.8}$	$85.3{\scriptstyle \pm0.2}$	$85.6{\scriptstyle \pm 0.4}$
srp_Cyrl	$60.0_{\pm 3.9}$	$72.8_{\pm 1.0}$	$74.4_{\pm 0.8}$	$75.5_{\pm 1.0}$
ssw_Latn	$44.2_{\pm3.9}$	$51.4_{\pm0.2}$	$51.7_{\pm 0.2}$	$52.4_{\pm 2.1}$
sun_Latn	$54.8{\scriptstyle \pm3.2}$	$68.8{\scriptstyle \pm0.9}$	$68.9{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$70.1_{\pm 0.6}$
swe_Latn	$66.6_{\pm 4.6}$	$81.3_{\pm0.7}$	$81.9_{\pm0.1}$	$82.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.4}$
swh_Latn	$60.3{\scriptstyle \pm4.2}$	$74.9{\scriptstyle \pm0.4}$	$74.6{\scriptstyle \pm 0.5}$	$75.5_{\pm0.9}$
tam_Taml	$47.2_{\pm 3.9}$	$55.7_{\pm{1.7}}$	$55.6_{\pm0.9}$	$54.8_{\pm 0.9}$
tel_Telu	$47.0_{\pm2.6}$	$56.0_{\pm 0.6}$	$54.3_{\pm 1.2}$	$54.6_{\pm 1.0}$
tgk_Cyrl	$45.6{\scriptstyle \pm3.1}$	$55.6{\scriptstyle \pm 0.2}$	$55.4_{\pm 0.5}$	$54.7{\scriptstyle \pm 0.6}$
tgl_Latn	$58.0_{\pm 3.1}$	$71.8_{\pm0.3}$	$72.1_{\pm 0.7}$	$72.2_{\pm 1.3}$
tha_Thai	$46.5{\scriptstyle \pm1.9}$	$58.0{\scriptstyle \pm 0.6}$	$58.1_{\pm 0.8}$	$58.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.6}$
tir_Ethi	$40.1_{\pm 2.0}$	$44.0_{\pm 0.7}$	$44.9_{\pm 1.5}$	$44.6_{\pm 1.8}$
tsn_Latn	$48.3_{\pm 3.8}$	$55.9_{+1.0}$	$55.4_{\pm 0.9}$	$56.6_{\pm 0.6}$
tso_Latn	$54.9_{\pm 1.8}$	$64.3_{\pm0.6}$	$63.7_{\pm0.2}$	$64.5_{\pm1.7}$
tur_Latn	$55.3_{\pm3.2}$	$62.4_{\pm0.7}$	$63.7_{\pm0.8}$	$64.0_{\pm1.1}$
ukr_Cyrl	$57.0_{\pm 3.1}$	$72.3{\scriptstyle \pm0.2}$	$72.9{\scriptstyle \pm1.1}$	$74.1_{\pm0.8}$
urd_Arab	$53.8_{\pm2.1}$	$63.2_{\pm 1.2}$	$63.5{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$63.6_{\pm 1.6}$
uzn_Latn	$49.8{\scriptstyle\pm2.3}$	$60.5{\scriptstyle \pm0.9}$	$61.3{\scriptstyle \pm0.3}$	$61.0{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$
vie_Latn	$60.3{\scriptstyle \pm3.4}$	$75.5_{\pm0.2}$	$75.2_{\pm 1.0}$	$76.4_{\pm0.3}$
war_Latn	$55.9_{\pm 4.0}$	$69.6_{\pm0.4}$	$69.0_{\pm 1.0}$	$68.6_{\pm 1.1}$
wol_Latn	$34.7{\scriptstyle \pm1.5}$	$38.6{\scriptstyle \pm1.5}$	$37.0{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$	$36.9{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$
xho_Latn	$49.7_{\pm 2.5}$	$59.4_{\pm 1.1}$	$60.6{\scriptstyle \pm0.1}$	$61.2_{\pm 0.8}$
yor_Latn	$36.1{\scriptstyle\pm1.7}$	$41.6{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$	$41.1_{\pm0.9}$	$41.4{\scriptstyle \pm 0.7}$
zho_Hans	$65.3_{\pm3.7}$	$78.4_{\pm 0.7}$	$79.9_{\pm0.5}$	$79.6_{\pm 0.9}$
zho_Hant	$63.9_{\pm3.6}$	$77.4_{\pm0.4}$	$77.6_{\pm0.7}$	$76.8{\scriptstyle \pm 0.5}$
zsm_Latn	$66.1_{\pm3.8}$	$80.1_{\pm1.0}$	$80.7{\scriptstyle \pm1.5}$	$81.5{\scriptstyle \pm 0.8}$
zul_Latn	$47.1_{\pm 2.3}$	$56.2_{\pm 0.9}$	$56.7_{\pm 0.9}$	$58.1_{\pm 1.6}$

Table 14: Belebele by No. of Adaptation Steps (2/2). We benchmark NLLB-LLM2Vec S1+S2 on test portions of Belebele (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3) by number of adaptation steps in S1. S1 and S2 refer to self-supervised and task-specific stages of aligning NLLB with LLM2Vec (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.

# NLLB-GPT-2.



Table 15: NLLB-GPT-2 on XNLI (1/2). We benchmark models on test portions of XNLI (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 refers to the self-supervised stage of aligning NLLB with GPT-2 (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.



Table 16: NLLB-GPT-2 on XNLI (2/2). We benchmark models on test portions of XNLI (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 refers to the self-supervised stage of aligning NLLB with GPT-2 (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on per target-language (T-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.



Table 17: NLLB-GPT-2 on AmNLI & Kardeş-NLU. We benchmark models on test portions of AmNLI and Kardeş-NLU (cf. [§4\)](#page-3-3). S1 refers to the self-supervised stage of aligning NLLB with GPT-2 (cf. [§3\)](#page-3-1). FT denotes supervised fine-tuning. Reported performance is averaged over three seeds on model checkpoints that maximize performance on source-language (S-DEV) and per target-language (T-DEV) validation splits. Subscripts denote std. deviation. Metric: accuracy.