

Combining Static and Contextualised Multilingual Embeddings

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Abstract

Static and contextual multilingual embeddings have complementary strengths. Static embeddings, while less expressive than contextual language models, can be more straightforwardly aligned across multiple languages. We combine the strengths of static and contextual models to improve multilingual representations. We extract static embeddings for 40 languages from XLM-R, validate those embeddings with cross-lingual word retrieval, and then align them using VecMap. This results in high-quality, highly multilingual static embeddings. Then we apply a novel continued pre-training approach to XLM-R, leveraging the high quality alignment of our static embeddings to better align the representation space of XLM-R. We show positive results for multiple complex semantic tasks. We release the static embeddings and the continued pre-training code.¹ Unlike most previous work, our continued pre-training approach does not require parallel text.

1 Introduction

Multilingual contextual encoders like XLM-R (Conneau et al., 2020a) and mBERT (Devlin et al., 2019), despite being trained without parallel data, exhibit “surprising” cross-linguality (Wu and Dredze, 2019; Conneau et al., 2020b) and have demonstrated strong performance on multilingual and cross-lingual tasks (e.g., Hu et al., 2020; Lauscher et al., 2020; Kurfali and Östling, 2021; Turc et al., 2021). However, their *language-neutrality*, meaning how well languages are aligned with each other, has clear limits (Libovický et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2020, inter alia). In particular, more typologically distant language pairs tend to be less well-aligned than more similar ones, affecting transfer performance.

¹github.com/KathyHaem/combining-static-contextual

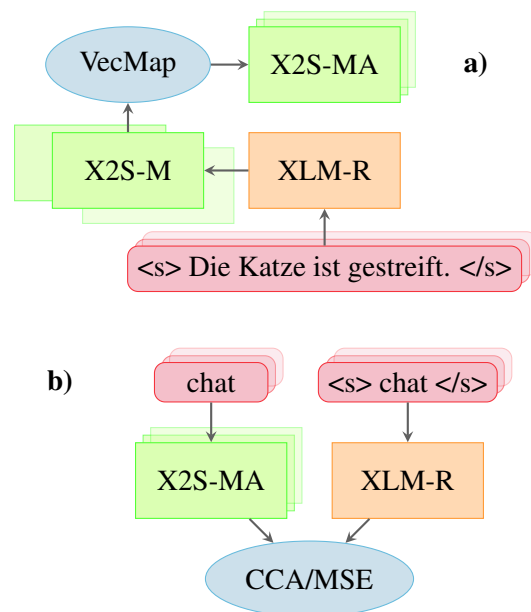


Figure 1: **a)** We feed sentences from 40 monolingual corpora to XLM-R, extracting partially aligned multilingual static embeddings (X2S-M). Then, we use VecMap to align the embeddings further, giving us X2S-MA. The German example sentence reads ‘The cat is striped’. **b)** Taking the representations of words from X2S-MA and XLM-R, we train the contextual model representations to be more similar to the well-aligned static embeddings via an alignment loss (CCA or MSE). The French example ‘chat’ means ‘cat’.

By contrast, cross-lingual alignment is well-studied for static embeddings (e.g., Mikolov et al., 2013; Artetxe et al., 2018a; Vulić et al., 2020). They can be aligned using simple transformations, resulting in high quality multilingual embeddings. However, static embeddings are considerably less expressive than contextual models and have in many applications been superseded by them.

This paper aims to combine the strengths of static and contextual models, and explore how they may benefit from each other. Our methods require no parallel corpus. Figure 1 shows a schematic of our two-part approach with an example: The words

‘Katze’ in Figure 1a and ‘chat’ in Figure 1b both mean ‘cat’. While creating X2S-M in Figure 1a, static vectors are learned for both words in their respective language embeddings. We then align those embeddings with VecMap, obtaining X2S-MA. In Fig 1b, we train the contextualised embeddings of ‘Katze’ and ‘chat’ to be closer to their well-aligned X2S-MA vectors, improving the alignment of the contextualised embeddings.

Monolingual static embeddings have been extracted from BERT by Gupta and Jaggi (2021). We show that their approach can be applied to multilingual embeddings. We distill static embeddings for 40 languages from XLM-R, showing that the resulting embeddings are already somewhat cross-lingually aligned, but that their alignment can be improved using established tools (Figure 1a; § 3). These vectors are of high monolingual and cross-lingual quality despite being distilled using only 1M sentences per language. Second, we present a novel continued pre-training approach for the contextual model, combining masked language modelling (MLM) with an alignment loss that leverages the aligned static embeddings (Figure 1b; § 4). This results in improved multilingual contextualised embeddings which work well for complex semantic tasks.

2 Related Work

XLM-R (Conneau et al., 2020a) and mBERT (Devlin et al., 2019) have been successful in multi- and cross-lingual transfer despite being trained only on monolingual corpora. However, the 100 languages in XLM-R—or 104 in mBERT—are not represented equally well (cf. Wu and Dredze, 2020a), either in terms of data size or downstream performance. Both Singh et al. (2019) and Libovický et al. (2020) found that mBERT clusters its representations of languages in a way that mirrors typological language family trees. However, representations being well-aligned across languages is related to better cross-lingual transfer performance. Therefore, this property limits the model’s transfer ability, putting target languages which are more distant from the source language at a disadvantage.

In comparison, static embeddings are far less resource-intensive than contextual models, both at training and inference time. They can be trained with smaller data and achieve good representation quality where a Transformer model would be under-trained. Where time, data, or computational re-

sources are limited, this makes static embeddings an attractive approach. Also, some NLP tasks rely on static embeddings in their formulation, such as lexical evaluation tasks, approaches comparing vector spaces to detect domain shift (Beyer et al., 2020) or linguistic change (Shoemark et al., 2019), or some bias detection and removal tasks (e.g., Kaneko and Bollegala, 2019; Manzini et al., 2019). Importantly for us, cross-lingual alignment has been studied extensively in static embeddings (e.g., Artetxe et al., 2018a,b; Joulin et al., 2018). Especially those languages that are ill-represented in the massively multilingual model can benefit from using well-aligned static embeddings. In summary, static and contextual representations have complementary strengths, which we aim to combine.

Recently, cross-lingual alignment objectives have been used to train multilingual contextual models from scratch (Hu et al., 2021; Chi et al., 2021), to align the outputs of monolingual models (Aldarmaki and Diab, 2019; Wang et al., 2019), or to apply a post-hoc alignment to a multilingual model after pre-training (Zhao et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2020; Wu and Dredze, 2020b; Kvapilíková et al., 2020; Ouyang et al., 2021; Alqahtani et al., 2021). These works typically use objectives that rely on translated or induced sentence pairs, such as translation language modelling (TLM; Lample and Conneau, 2019). Dou and Neubig (2021) and Nagata et al. (2020) focus on word alignment as a task and fine-tune the models on word alignment gold data, though Dou and Neubig (2021) also use the approach for XNLI. Gritta and Iacobacci (2021) use translated task data to encourage a task-specific alignment of XLM-R. Some use word-aligned corpora (e.g., Wang et al., 2019), while others use parallel sentences plus unsupervised word alignment (Alqahtani et al., 2021; Chi et al., 2021). Ouyang et al. (2021) introduce backtranslation to the alignment process, but still use some parallel data. Kvapilíková et al. (2020) instead create a synthetic parallel corpus, using this with TLM.

By contrast, we propose an alternate objective that relies on aligned static embedding spaces instead of sentence pairs. Our alignment approach is a post-hoc tuning of the contextual model using *no parallel corpora* at any point. This difference allows us to apply the alignment to many more languages than most related work. For example, Wang et al. (2019) use up to 18 languages, Chi et al. (2021) use 15 with parallel data though 94 in total,

Hu et al. (2021) use 15, while other related work often uses 4–9 languages, with a significant focus on European languages.

3 Static Embeddings from XLM-R

Gupta and Jaggi (2021) extracted English static embeddings from BERT and RoBERTa. They showed that their CBOW-like training scales better with more data and outperforms an aggregation approach to extracting static embeddings (Bommasani et al., 2020). In their system, X2Static, the context vector from which to predict the target word is given by the average of all vectors in the sentence without the target word. The method uses ten negative samples per target and calculates the loss based on similarity scores. However, they only evaluated their method on English. We extract this type of static embeddings from a multilingual contextual model.

3.1 Extraction and Alignment Process

We choose 40 languages for static embeddings extraction (full list in Appendix A). As the multilingual contextual model, we use XLM-R. From preliminary experimentation, we determined how best to extract multilingual embeddings from the model: First, using X2Static (Gupta and Jaggi, 2021) worked better than aggregation (Bommasani et al., 2020) even with a small amount of data. One important difference with Gupta and Jaggi’s work is that for our task the sentence-level variant of X2Static worked better than the paragraph-level version. Crucially, we also found that embeddings extracted from layer 6 of XLM-R performed noticeably better than embeddings extracted from the output layer. The latter fits with findings for mBERT by Muller et al. (2021) that the middle layers are more multilingually aligned. Due to the large number of languages and having limited data for some of them, we decided to use only up to 1M sentences per language for extraction. See Appendix B for more detailed reasoning on these choices.

For the full set of embeddings, we used data from the reconstructed CC100 corpus (Wenzek et al., 2020). We filtered out headlines and too-short sentences heuristically. See Appendix C for data sampling and processing details. We refer to the newly extracted embeddings as **X2S-M** for **X2Static-Multilingual**.

In a second step, we align X2S-M using VecMap (Artetxe et al., 2018a) and a set of unsupervised

Model	en-xx	xx-en
fasttext _{unsup}	54.71	58.26
X2S-M	52.11	59.00
X2S-MA	58.41	65.60
MUSE (Conneau et al., 2018)	58.88	65.21
RCSLS (Joulin et al., 2018)	67.47	71.70

Table 1: Results from MUSE BLI tasks. Scores are averaged over those language pairs present in all models. Even before alignment (X2S-M), the embeddings derived from XLM-R are competitive with fasttext vectors aligned using unsupervised VecMap (fasttext_{unsup}). After alignment and selection (X2S-MA), they are on-par with the supervised embeddings released by MUSE despite using much smaller data to train. We show per-language results in Table 5.

Model	cross-lingual	monolingual
fasttext _{unsup}	0.712	0.743
X2S-M	0.708	0.699
X2S-MA	0.713	0.706
MUSE	0.707	0.728
RCSLS	0.714	0.718

Table 2: Average monolingual and cross-lingual scores on SemEval 2017 Task 2 (Camacho-Collados et al., 2017). See Tables 6 and 7 for detailed results.

dictionaries that we had previously induced from experiments aligning fasttext vectors (Bojanowski et al., 2017) with unsupervised VecMap (Artetxe et al., 2018b). We refer to the aligned embeddings as **X2S-MA** (**X2Static-Multilingually-Aligned**).

3.2 Embedding Evaluation

We validate our static embeddings using the MUSE benchmark (Conneau et al., 2018), which includes bilingual dictionary induction (BLI) tasks for 28 of the 40 languages we use, and on SemEval 2017 Task 2 (Camacho-Collados et al., 2017), monolingual and cross-lingual word similarity. Additionally, we conduct a comparative evaluation of the supervised MUSE embeddings and the supervised RCSLS embeddings by Joulin et al. (2018).

Tables 1 and 2 show that after alignment and selection (X2S-MA), our vectors perform similarly to the supervised embeddings released by MUSE. We also contrast X2S-M and X2S-MA against the fasttext embeddings that were used to induce the dictionaries mentioned above. On the cross-lingual tasks, X2S-MA performs on par with the fasttext embeddings; on the monolingual tasks, fasttext clearly outperforms X2S-M and X2S-MA. Note,

however, that SemEval Task 2 only contains data for five of the 40 languages we experiment with.

For most languages, alignment improves BLI by at least a few points, with differences as large as 17 points for Bengali and Hindi (Appendix, Table 5). Such large gaps underline the fact that the alignment of XLM-R is suboptimal for these languages. Notable exceptions are Korean, Thai, Tagalog, and Vietnamese, where the embeddings showed some success before alignment but were not useful afterwards. It may be that the induced dictionaries did not work well for these languages or that the static embedding spaces were too different (cf. Vulić et al., 2020). In these cases, we use the “un-aligned” embeddings for further experiments.

4 Cross-Linguality Transfer to XLM-R

Since our static embeddings are of reasonably high quality after extraction and their cross-linguality can be further improved using established methods, we now ask whether the language neutrality of the Transformer model can in turn be improved via indirect transfer from our aligned static embeddings.

4.1 Continued Pre-Training

We mix an alignment loss with masked language modelling (MLM). For the alignment loss, we sample word-vector pairs from our static embeddings, encode the word using XLM-R, and mean-pool the contextual representations over the subword tokens. We then compare this representation to the sampled static vector using one of two loss terms:

1) MSE. We use mean squared error (MSE), i.e., an element-wise comparison of the static and contextual representations. This works only if the static vector dimension matches the model’s hidden size.

2) DCCA. The second option is a correlation loss (deep canonical correlation analysis; Andrew et al., 2013; implementation from Arjmand, 2020). Standard CCA (Hotelling, 1936) takes two continuous representations of related data and linearly transforms them to create two maximally correlated views. In deep CCA, the linear transformations are replaced by deep networks, which can be optimised on mini-batches. In our case, we treat the contextual model as one of the two deep models, and replace the other with the static embeddings. We back-propagate the loss only to the deep model.

We train with two sets of static vectors: Fasttext aligned with unsupervised VecMap ($\text{fasttext}_{un\text{sup}}$),

and our aligned and selected X2S-MA vectors. The former have 300 dimensions and so can only be used with DCCA; the latter have 768 dimensions and can thus be used with either loss.

Additionally, we use MLM during training to ensure that the model retains its contextual capabilities. See Appendix D for training details. As a second baseline, we also continue the pre-training with only MLM on our selected languages for the same number of update steps. This ensures that any improvements from our proposed model are not merely a result of carrying out further MLM training in these languages.

4.2 Downstream Tasks

For our downstream evaluation tasks, we follow the fine-tuning procedures shown in the repository for Hu et al. (2020) for better comparability. We use a zero-shot transfer setting, i.e., we fine-tune only on English data but evaluate on all test sets. We report mean F1 score over all test sets and three fine-tuning runs for all tasks except Tatoeba, which uses accuracy as its metric and no fine-tuning.

Question Answering. We use two extractive QA tasks, XQuAD (Artetxe et al., 2020) and TyDiQA-GoldP (Clark et al., 2020). For XQuAD, the SQuAD v1.1 (Rajpurkar et al., 2016) training set is used. TyDiQA includes its own training set.

Sequence Labelling. We experiment with the PAN-X (Pan et al., 2017) named entity recognition and the UD-POS part-of-speech tagging tasks. The annotated data for UD-POS are taken from Universal Dependencies v2.5 (Zeman et al., 2019).

Tatoeba is a sentence retrieval task compiled by Artetxe and Schwenk (2019). It does not need fine-tuning, instead using the cosine similarity of the mean-pooled layer 7 hidden states for retrieval.

4.3 Results and Discussion

Table 3 shows our downstream task results along with the average over all evaluated tasks. As expected, our second baseline with additional MLM in the affected languages can improve slightly over the unmodified XLM-R. However, our proposed training with a DCCA loss improves further over both baselines, except on UD-POS. This shows that the improvement is not merely a result of specialisation on the task languages, but that our alignment loss improves the model’s language-neutrality.

Model	XQuAD	TyDiQA	PAN-X	UD-POS	Tatoeba	avg
XLM-R	70.51	48.91	60.40	72.92	50.35	60.62
+MLM	70.50	48.15	61.80	72.97	60.87	62.86
+fasttext _{DCCA}	70.84	52.47	61.84	72.09	59.99	63.45
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	70.42	49.20	62.62	72.95	10.05	53.05
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	70.92	51.02	62.73	72.09	68.06	64.96

Table 3: Downstream evaluation results. For the QA and sequence tagging tasks, we report F1 scores averaged over three fine-tuning runs. For Tatoeba we report accuracy. +fasttext_{DCCA} means continued pre-training was done using MLM and DCCA with the aligned fasttext vectors, and analogously for +X2S-MA_{MSE} and +X2S-MA_{DCCA}. See appendix Tables 8-12 for per-language results.

Although the fasttext_{unsup} vectors performed very well in Section 3.2, using them in continued pre-training is less effective than using X2S-MA. X2S-MA has the advantage of having the same dimension as the model hidden size, as well as being derived from XLM-R itself, both of which likely make it easier to transfer their alignment signal to the contextual model.

While both Tatoeba and the QA tasks favour DCCA, PAN-X improves regardless of the alignment loss used with X2S-MA, and UD-POS performance even degrades when using DCCA. We speculate that this is caused by the different task types requiring different strengths of the model. Further, UD-POS is a syntactic task, and the strength of the static embeddings is semantic.

The sentence retrieval task, presumably because it relies directly on the cosine similarity of hidden representations, is highly sensitive to changes in the representation. If only a few dimensions change significantly, this could vastly improve—or “break”—alignment according to cosine similarity. By contrast, the tasks using fine-tuning are more stable. It may also be that although the continued pre-training with DCCA improves the alignment of XLM-R, fine-tuning for tasks on English data then primarily changes the English representation space again, leading to forgetting. This prompts the question whether the model could in future benefit from using the alignment loss alongside fine-tuning. Additionally, the static embeddings may be improved further by training them on more data per language, leading to an even better signal for XLM-R. Recent work also shows that some outlier dimensions in contextual models can obscure representational quality, suggesting that “accounting for rogue dimensions” (Timkey and van Schijndel, 2021, p.4527) when learning static embeddings may help as well.

5 Conclusions

We have extracted high-quality, highly multilingual static embeddings from XLM-R using a modified version of X2Static and only 1M sentences of data per language. Our vectors have reasonable cross-lingual quality immediately after extraction, but we are able to improve their performance using alignment with dictionaries induced from fasttext vectors using VecMap. No parallel corpus was needed for this process. Our final models perform competitively with supervised vectors from MUSE, and outperform both MUSE and RCSLS—or provide models at all—for a number of lower- and medium-resource languages.

Further, we proposed a continued pre-training approach that pairs a novel alignment loss with MLM. Using the DCCA loss, we can improve the language-neutrality of XLM-R, benefitting downstream performance on semantic tasks.

Ethical Considerations

Much NLP research is highly English-centric, with a small number of other high-resource languages also benefitting, and the vast majority of languages being left behind or excluded (Joshi et al., 2020). This applies to the multilingual contextual model that we extend, in that high-resource languages are also overrepresented in its training data, and most languages are not part of the model at all. As well, in the zero-shot transfer tasks we evaluate on, the “source language” is English. Similarly, the BLI datasets we use are mostly xx-en language pairs. Although this paper makes an effort to reduce the gap between higher- and lower-resource languages, we remain part of this paradigm. We would like to more strongly focus on low-resource languages in future work.

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A List of Languages

We list all languages used in our experiments in Table 4.

Language	Code	Family
Afrikaans	af	IE: Germanic
Arabic	ar	Semitic
Bulgarian	bg	IE: Slavic
Bengali	bn	IE: Indo-Aryan
German	de	IE: Germanic
Greek	el	IE: Greek
English	en	IE: Germanic
Spanish	es	IE: Romance
Estonian	et	Uralic
Basque	eu	Isolate
Farsi	fa	IE: Iranian
Finnish	fi	Uralic
French	fr	IE: Romance
Hebrew	he	Semitic
Hindi	hi	IE: Indo-Aryan
Hungarian	hu	Uralic
Indonesian	id	Malayo-Polynesian
Italian	it	IE: Romance
Japanese	ja	Japonic
Javanese	jv	Malayo-Polynesian
Georgian	ka	Kartvelian
Kazakh	kk	Turkic
Korean	ko	Koreanic
Malayalam	ml	Dravidian
Marathi	mr	IE: Indo-Aryan
Malay	ms	Malayo-Polynesian
Burmese	my	Sino-Tibetan
Dutch	nl	IE: Germanic
Portuguese	pt	IE: Romance
Russian	ru	IE: Slavic
Swahili	sw	Niger-Congo
Tamil	ta	Dravidian
Telugu	te	Dravidian
Thai	th	Kra-Dai
Tagalog	tl	Malayo-Polynesian
Turkish	tr	Turkic
Urdu	ur	IE: Indo-Aryan
Vietnamese	vi	Mon-Khmer
Yoruba	yo	Niger-Congo
Mandarin	zh	Sino-Tibetan

Table 4: List of languages used with their ISO codes and language families (Eberhard et al., 2021). IE stands for Indo-European.

B Design Choices for Embedding Extraction

Preliminary Experiments. We arrived at many of our design choices through preliminary experiments on English, French and German. Of course, these are highly related languages; however, they allowed for easier debugging in the early stages of embedding extraction. For these experiments, we used 100k paragraphs per language taken from the Wikipedia dataset by Rosa (2018), and applied the data filtering methods proposed by the respective authors. We first tested the approach by Bommasani et al. (2020) on all layers of XLM-R and found the best BLI performances in layer six. However, we also found that the method from Gupta and Jaggi (2021) tended to outperform the pooling approach even on this small data size while scaling better according to the authors. Inspired by the results on the pooling method, we decided to test the second approach on layer six as well, leading to better BLI results. Rather than expend the (GPU) time to train embeddings on every layer, we then experimented with different alignment algorithms before deciding on VecMap for its slight performance advantage and quick training time.

Data Size. We decided to use no more than 1M sentences per language partly to upper-bound resource consumption (note that this still amounts to 40M sentences of training data), and partly to put high- and low-resource languages on a somewhat more even footing. For example, Vulić et al. (2020) suggest that vastly different training data sizes make embedding alignment more difficult. They also find that at least the BLI performance of high-frequency words starts to saturate when the aligned embeddings were trained from scratch using around 1M sentences. Since our embeddings additionally have something of a head start due to initialisation from XLM-R, 1M sentences per language would seem to be a reasonable data size.

Dimensionality. The high dimensionality of the vectors is on one hand a direct result of the extraction method, but on the other hand we believe it may be an advantage for our subsequent alignment experiments, since having the same dimensionality as the contextual model seems to increase the stability of our continued pre-training. Quite likely the high dimensionality is a disadvantage for the BLI performance of these vectors due to hubness issues; however, their performance is remarkably

competitive considering this.

C Data Sampling and Processing Details for X2S-M

Data Sampling. After sampling data from the reconstructed CC100 corpus (Wenzek et al., 2020), we do sentence segmentation and tokenisation (see the list of languages and tools below), then filter the data heuristically: Like Bommasani et al. (2020), we discard sentences with fewer than seven tokens. We also keep only sentences from paragraphs with at least two sentences, avoiding, for example, headlines.

Segmentation and Tokenisation Tools. af, ar, bg, de, en, el, es, et, eu, fa, fi, fr, he, hi, hu, id, it, ko, mr, nl, pt, ru, ta, te, tr, ur, vi: Spacy-UDPipe (Straka and Straková, 2017; Text Analysis and Knowledge Engineering Lab, 2021) version 1.0.0 for both sentence segmentation and tokenisation. ja: ICU-tokenizer (Rui, 2020) version 0.0.1 for sentence segmentation, fugashi (McCann, 2020) version 1.1.1 for tokenisation. zh: ICU-tokenizer for sentence segmentation, jieba (Junyi, 2013) version 0.42.1 for tokenisation. bn, jv, ka, kk, ml, ms, my, sw, th, tl, yo: ICU-tokenizer for both.

D Continued Pre-Training Details

We start from XLM-R_{BASE}, which has 270M parameters. At each training step, we mix samples from a text dataset with samples from our static embeddings, computing both a language modelling and an alignment loss. We use an effective batch size of 64 for MLM and 1024 for the alignment loss. We use Gensim (Řehůřek and Sojka, 2010) version 4.0.0 to load the static embeddings. The data for MLM is sampled from concatenated Wikipedia data of all 40 languages. For this corpus, 100k paragraphs per language were taken from Rosa (2018). Each model is trained for 7500 update steps, corresponding to roughly four epochs over our set of static embeddings. We use the default hyperparameters for language modelling in Huggingface Transformers (Wolf et al., 2020) version 4.8.2. The final checkpoints are selected based on the MLM loss over a separate validation set. Training was done using PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019) in version 1.9. Each training run was done on a single Nvidia GeForce GTX 1080 Ti GPU.

Model	af-en	en-af	ar-en	en-ar	bg-en	en-bg	bn-en	en-bn	de-en	en-de	el-en	en-el
fasttext _{unsup}	38.49	30.38	49.02	39.07	59.99	46.27	33.31	24.50	70.11	76.65	60.15	49.86
X2S-M	59.94	57.01	34.88	25.59	57.10	44.72	18.03	18.04	63.34	65.69	48.22	35.95
X2S-MA	64.37	57.01	49.89	38.46	64.75	51.23	36.16	33.07	69.81	73.21	58.76	47.21
MUSE	-	-	49.87	39.74	57.53	47.27	-	-	72.67	74.67	58.47	46.27
RCSLS	40.00	36.27	59.57	56.33	65.20	58.20	28.41	35.93	77.53	79.20	64.53	55.07
Model	es-en	en-es	et-en	en-et	fa-en	en-fa	fi-en	en-fi	fr-en	en-fr	he-en	en-he
fasttext _{unsup}	77.53	79.87	49.16	38.15	38.24	35.41	51.51	44.97	77.20	80.59	54.82	44.82
X2S-M	75.90	72.25	51.23	38.41	33.78	30.56	53.32	45.11	72.88	71.47	39.64	32.29
X2S-MA	78.88	77.11	59.07	46.69	42.88	39.13	60.13	47.91	77.19	77.53	56.04	43.71
MUSE	83.47	81.87	45.67	37.87	-	-	59.47	48.07	82.40	82.93	54.14	44.07
RCSLS	87.13	83.73	53.67	52.93	44.27	45.33	69.93	61.80	84.73	84.13	59.88	58.53
Model	hi-en	en-hi	hu-en	en-hu	id-en	en-id	it-en	en-it	ja-en	en-ja	ko-en	en-ko
fasttext _{unsup}	48.00	38.58	58.89	54.45	63.95	66.35	72.86	78.80	40.06	45.40	0.07	0.00
X2S-M	32.22	33.24	59.29	49.00	69.26	66.38	72.25	68.20	26.89	36.24	30.77	22.63
X2S-MA	51.66	48.22	65.16	55.16	75.22	72.36	78.25	74.80	39.46	45.59	27.52	24.14
MUSE	-	-	64.87	53.87	67.93	67.40	77.87	78.60	-	-	-	-
RCSLS	46.95	44.47	73.00	67.00	72.87	72.87	82.73	81.07	-	-	36.55	57.47
Model	ms-en	en-ms	nl-en	en-nl	pt-en	en-pt	ru-en	en-ru	ta-en	en-ta	th-en	en-th
fasttext _{unsup}	39.68	41.95	70.49	76.22	69.79	69.41	55.84	44.08	29.31	24.87	0.00	0.00
X2S-M	56.89	55.99	69.50	69.58	76.47	75.04	53.07	38.14	17.68	16.26	29.06	29.69
X2S-MA	66.04	61.24	75.13	75.04	79.72	73.71	60.97	45.96	31.92	30.55	27.13	30.02
MUSE	-	-	75.33	75.53	80.27	81.27	63.67	54.07	-	-	-	-
RCSLS	-	-	80.47	79.67	84.60	83.13	70.27	60.93	22.84	30.67	21.07	32.27
Model	tl-en	en-tl	tr-en	en-tr	vi-en	en-vi	zh-en	en-zh				
fasttext _{unsup}	0.00	0.00	49.12	40.58	0.00	0.00	43.90	23.70				
X2S-M	53.99	52.84	55.58	45.26	51.02	41.76	35.04	36.26				
X2S-MA	53.49	52.75	56.20	47.75	50.00	43.77	44.89	44.70				
MUSE	-	-	59.17	49.93	55.80	40.60	-	-				
RCSLS	23.60	31.87	65.78	59.20	66.93	53.13	48.87	52.40				

Table 5: Cross-lingual MUSE results, per language with English.

Model	de-en	de-es	de-fa	de-it	en-es	en-fa	en-it	es-fa	es-it	fa-it	avg
fasttext _{unsup}	0.74	0.75	0.69	0.72	0.73	0.69	0.71	0.70	0.74	0.66	0.712
X2S-M	0.71	0.73	0.66	0.70	0.72	0.69	0.72	0.73	0.74	0.69	0.708
X2S-MA	0.72	0.72	0.67	0.70	0.73	0.71	0.73	0.72	0.74	0.69	0.713
MUSE	0.71	0.70	-	0.68	0.71	-	0.71	-	0.73	-	0.707
RCSLS	0.74	0.71	0.67	0.69	0.73	0.73	0.74	0.71	0.73	0.70	0.714

Table 6: Full cross-lingual results from SemEval 2017 Task 2 (Camacho-Collados et al., 2017).

Model	de	en	es	fa	it
fasttext _{unsup}	0.80	0.71	0.76	0.72	0.73
X2S-M	0.73	0.70	0.73	0.65	0.68
X2S-MA	0.73	0.72	0.72	0.66	0.70
MUSE (Conneau et al., 2018)	0.73	0.72	0.74	-	0.72
RCSLS (Joulin et al., 2018)	0.73	0.72	0.74	0.66	0.73

Table 7: Full monolingual results from SemEval 2017 Task 2 (Camacho-Collados et al., 2017).

Model	ar	de	el	en	es	hi	ru	th	tr	vi	zh
XLM-R	65.34	74.47	72.57	83.21	76.98	67.72	74.31	67.66	68.55	73.66	51.09
+MLM	64.93	74.73	72.52	83.66	76.75	68.00	74.30	67.76	67.86	73.35	51.68
+fasttext _{DCCA}	65.50	74.77	73.78	83.66	76.75	68.84	75.06	67.35	68.30	74.18	51.00
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	64.73	74.01	72.87	83.51	76.36	67.82	74.46	67.77	68.04	73.78	51.30
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	65.91	74.83	73.05	84.07	77.00	69.29	74.26	66.99	68.55	73.98	52.20

Table 8: XQuAD results (F1) per language. Averaged over three fine-tuning runs with different random seeds.

Model	ar	bn	en	fi	id	ko	ru	sw	te
XLM-R	57.43	37.20	62.74	53.87	68.04	20.67	52.25	54.16	33.80
+MLM	57.89	35.48	62.38	51.70	66.06	21.08	52.64	54.76	31.40
+fasttext _{DCCA}	60.96	43.20	63.79	56.52	70.72	23.58	55.57	55.37	42.56
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	57.46	37.59	61.16	52.95	66.77	21.73	51.63	53.10	40.43
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	58.58	42.69	63.48	56.78	69.02	23.11	54.55	54.90	36.04

Table 9: TyDiQA results (F1) per language. Averaged over three fine-tuning runs with different random seeds.

Model	af	ar	bg	bn	de	el	en	es	et	eu
XLM-R	74.88	46.12	77.18	67.96	74.34	72.97	82.83	74.52	70.44	57.75
+MLM	76.48	48.25	77.51	69.89	75.00	73.88	82.75	75.90	73.17	57.21
+fasttext _{DCCA}	77.93	47.58	78.00	67.27	76.23	75.34	82.82	79.45	74.06	61.43
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	76.87	47.86	77.79	70.69	75.58	76.34	82.72	77.87	73.96	61.90
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	77.50	53.03	77.98	66.16	75.81	75.30	82.73	75.76	74.67	60.28
Model	fa	fi	fr	he	hi	hu	id	it	ja	jv
XLM-R	49.30	74.95	77.51	51.86	66.65	76.10	48.99	77.13	19.61	57.45
+MLM	47.72	75.52	79.17	53.63	68.74	76.94	50.62	77.48	18.28	58.32
+fasttext _{DCCA}	47.74	76.93	78.71	56.70	66.66	77.27	49.35	78.56	17.48	59.14
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	55.45	76.30	78.83	57.81	67.76	77.22	49.92	77.98	20.53	63.28
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	50.56	76.20	78.88	54.91	67.86	76.83	55.03	78.13	17.94	58.42
Model	ka	kk	ko	ml	mr	ms	my	nl	pt	ru
XLM-R	65.60	45.45	48.07	60.50	61.31	62.54	53.09	79.45	77.67	63.42
+MLM	67.35	51.14	51.97	63.19	61.30	67.42	52.84	80.64	79.14	62.40
+fasttext _{DCCA}	67.88	51.49	47.48	51.92	63.13	57.89	46.19	81.25	79.48	64.41
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	69.14	51.76	54.13	64.49	62.96	67.43	53.53	80.82	78.90	64.50
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	66.49	50.59	52.55	59.64	60.35	66.94	51.79	81.06	80.45	62.77
Model	sw	ta	te	th	tl	tr	ur	vi	yo	zh
XLM-R	63.96	54.64	48.66	3.60	71.46	74.68	54.31	68.58	34.91	25.47
+MLM	65.27	56.12	50.77	3.34	71.39	76.49	62.23	69.88	38.05	24.51
+fasttext _{DCCA}	66.45	57.31	53.63	3.42	71.78	78.59	56.52	71.97	53.07	21.26
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	66.35	58.47	53.66	3.22	70.49	77.09	60.26	69.90	37.00	24.33
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	65.40	56.26	54.61	2.19	67.65	77.53	63.47	70.53	50.23	24.40

Table 10: PAN-X results (F1) per language. Averaged over three fine-tuning runs with different random seeds.

Model	af	ar	bg	de	el	en	es	et	eu
XLM-R	88.46	67.56	88.58	88.64	87.79	95.85	88.04	85.63	69.38
+MLM	88.75	68.21	88.85	88.57	87.37	95.71	88.51	85.88	69.05
+fasttext _{DCCA}	88.96	67.73	88.30	88.40	87.34	95.79	87.33	85.58	68.33
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	88.87	68.43	88.55	88.72	87.45	95.77	88.61	85.72	69.27
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	88.50	67.45	88.11	88.22	87.26	95.69	87.87	85.99	68.34
Model	fa	fi	fr	he	hi	hu	id	it	ja
XLM-R	70.16	85.60	86.00	66.96	67.83	83.14	72.64	87.41	24.23
+MLM	70.14	85.75	86.50	68.51	68.14	83.07	72.59	88.46	23.59
+fasttext _{DCCA}	68.70	85.69	86.20	66.33	65.70	82.87	72.64	87.32	13.89
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	70.46	85.61	86.76	67.63	69.30	82.82	72.59	88.61	20.61
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	68.81	85.74	86.38	66.34	66.01	82.89	72.82	87.43	14.12
Model	kk	ko	mr	nl	pt	ru	ta	te	th
XLM-R	76.74	53.06	82.95	89.42	86.21	89.25	62.12	84.90	42.36
+MLM	76.54	52.88	83.21	89.45	86.82	89.00	61.62	83.79	42.09
+fasttext _{DCCA}	78.09	52.86	82.86	89.35	85.70	89.11	63.00	84.21	41.54
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	76.55	53.16	84.19	89.45	87.45	89.17	61.44	84.60	42.62
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	77.78	52.93	82.66	89.37	86.07	88.89	62.21	84.49	39.63
Model	tl	tr	ur	vi	yo	zh			
XLM-R	88.91	74.27	56.48	58.59	25.29	32.08			
+MLM	89.42	74.20	56.58	58.21	24.38	32.06			
+fasttext _{DCCA}	88.22	74.53	56.06	57.62	23.76	25.02			
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	89.21	74.19	57.45	58.15	25.45	28.54			
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	87.44	74.58	56.79	57.68	24.55	25.80			

Table 11: UD-POS results (F1) per language. Averaged over three fine-tuning runs with different random seeds.

Model	af	ar	bg	bn	de	el	es	et	eu
XLM-R	51.60	35.80	66.90	28.70	88.40	51.60	71.00	44.20	26.10
+MLM	65.60	46.50	74.70	41.70	91.90	61.10	79.00	55.80	38.60
+fasttext _{DCCA}	70.60	47.20	78.20	44.90	95.00	68.40	85.80	63.90	44.70
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	10.90	3.90	17.10	2.40	42.50	5.10	15.20	7.90	7.40
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	74.10	57.00	82.10	54.90	95.40	72.50	88.60	75.20	52.50
Model	fa	fi	fr	he	hi	hu	id	it	ja
XLM-R	64.40	63.90	72.50	51.70	50.50	58.70	68.60	64.70	52.80
+MLM	73.50	74.60	77.90	65.10	69.10	69.90	81.10	73.40	64.20
+fasttext _{DCCA}	74.60	78.60	82.30	65.50	61.90	73.30	82.80	78.50	67.00
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	10.50	12.70	22.20	10.10	9.00	13.40	14.30	11.50	10.00
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	79.90	84.30	84.30	71.70	70.10	80.20	86.40	82.30	74.00
Model	jv	ka	kk	ko	ml	mr	nl	pt	ru
XLM-R	15.12	37.13	33.22	50.10	54.73	38.00	76.80	76.60	69.80
+MLM	20.00	45.98	44.17	61.00	64.19	50.70	84.60	84.40	78.50
+fasttext _{DCCA}	16.10	30.56	53.39	40.40	14.56	35.40	87.20	88.30	83.00
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	5.37	4.96	6.09	10.50	4.51	5.30	17.80	19.70	12.50
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	22.93	63.81	62.26	63.20	25.47	34.90	89.30	90.40	85.60
Model	sw	ta	te	th	tl	tr	ur	vi	zh
XLM-R	15.64	25.08	30.77	34.67	29.70	54.90	31.10	67.70	59.40
+MLM	23.59	36.16	37.61	51.28	39.90	65.20	47.40	77.50	75.60
+fasttext _{DCCA}	21.54	42.35	51.28	35.58	37.80	69.30	42.60	76.20	70.80
+X2S-MA _{MSE}	4.10	1.95	3.42	1.64	6.80	6.80	2.50	15.60	6.10
+X2S-MA _{DCCA}	23.85	56.35	59.40	68.43	45.10	78.00	45.90	84.40	85.20

Table 12: Tatoeba results (accuracy) per language.