Towards Opening the Black Box of Neural Machine Translation: Source and Target Interpretations of the Transformer

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Abstract

In Neural Machine Translation (NMT), each token prediction is conditioned on the source sentence and the target prefix (what has been previously translated at a decoding step). However, previous work on interpretability in NMT has mainly focused solely on source sentence tokens’ attributions. Therefore, we lack a full understanding of the influences of every input token (source sentence and target prefix) in the model predictions. In this work, we propose an interpretability method that tracks input tokens’ attributions for both contexts. Our method, which can be extended to any encoder-decoder Transformer-based model, allows us to better comprehend the inner workings of current NMT models. We apply the proposed method to both bilingual and multilingual Transformers and present insights into their behaviour.

1 Introduction

Transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) have become the state-of-the-art architecture for natural language processing (NLP) tasks (Devlin et al., 2019; Raffel et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2020). With its success, the NLP community has experienced an urge to understand the decision process of the model predictions (Jain and Wallace, 2019; Serrano and Smith, 2019).

In Neural Machine Translation (NMT), attempts to interpret Transformer-based predictions have mainly focused on analyzing the attention mechanism (Raganato and Tiedemann, 2018; Voita et al., 2018). A large number of works in this line have investigated the capabilities of the cross-attention to perform source-target alignment (Kobayashi et al., 2020; Zenkel et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020), compared with human annotations. Gradient-based (Ding et al., 2019) and occlusion-based methods (Li et al., 2019) have also been evaluated against human word alignments. The former computes gradients with respect to the input token embeddings to measure how much a change in the input changes the output, the latter generates input attributions by measuring the change in the predicted probability after deleting specific tokens. However, there is a tension between finding a faithful explanation and observing human-like alignments, since one does not imply the other (Ferrando and Costa-jussà, 2021).

The decoding process of NMT systems consists of generating tokens in the target vocabulary based on the information provided by the source sequence and the previously generated tokens (target prefix). However, most of the work on interpretability of NMT models only analyses source tokens. Recently, Voita et al. (2021a) proposed using Layer Relevance Propagation (LRP) (Bach et al., 2015) to analyze the source and target contributions to the model prediction, and later analyzed its behaviour during training (Voita et al., 2021b). Nonetheless, they apply their method to obtain global explanations, as an average over the entire dataset, not to get input attributions of a single prediction. Gradient-based methods have also been extended to the target prefix (Ferrando and Costa-jussà, 2021), although they do not quantify the relative contribution of source and target inputs.
Concurrently, encoder-based Transformers, such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) and RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), have been analysed with attention rollout (Abnar and Zuidema, 2020), which models the information flow in the model with a Directed Acyclic Graph, where nodes are token representations and edges, attention weights. In the computer vision literature, Chefer et al. (2021b,a) combined this method with gradient information. Recently, Ferrando et al. (2022) have presented ALTI (Aggregation of Layer-wise Tokens Attributions), which applies the attention rollout method by substituting attention weights with refined token-to-token interactions. In this work, we present the first application of a rollout-based method to sequence Transformers. Our key contributions are\(^1\):

- We propose a method that measures the contributions of each input token (source and target prefix) to the encoder-decoder Transformer predictions;
- We show how contextual information is mixed across the encoder of NMT models, with the model keeping up to 47% of token identity;
- We evaluate the role of residual connections in the cross-attention, and show that attention to uninformative source tokens (EOS and final punctuation mark) is used to let information flow from the target prefix;
- We analyze the role of both input contexts in low and high-resource scenarios, and show the model behaviour under hallucinations.

2 Background

In this section, we provide the background to understand our proposed method by briefly explaining the encoder-decoder Transformer-based model in the context of NMT (Vaswani et al., 2017) and the Aggregation of Layer-wise Token-to-token Interactions (ALTI) method (Ferrando et al., 2022).

2.1 Encoder-Decoder Transformer

Given a source sequence of tokens \( \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_J) \), and a target sequence \( \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \ldots, y_T) \), an NMT system models the conditional probability:

\[
P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(y_t|y_{<t}, \mathbf{x})
\]

where \( y_{<t} = (y_0, \ldots, y_{t-1}) \) represents the prefix of \( y_t \), with \( x_{J} = y_0 = \langle \text{bos} \rangle \) used as a special token to mark the beginning and end of sentence. The Transformer is composed by a stack of encoder and decoder layers (Figure 2). The encoder generates a contextualized sequence of representations \( \mathbf{e} = (e_1, \ldots, e_J) \) of the source sentence. The decoder, at each time step \( t \), uses both the encoder outputs (\( \mathbf{e} \)) and the target prefix (\( y_{<t} \)) to compute a probability distribution over the target vocabulary, from which a prediction is sampled.

**Multi-head attention.** The Transformer core building block, the multi-head attention mechanism (MHA) is in charge of combining contextual information in the hidden representations. Consider here \( \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_J) \) as the sequence of token representations\(^2\) of dimension \( d \) entering layer \( l \), and \( \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (\tilde{x}_1, \ldots, \tilde{x}_J) \) the output layer representations. Each of the \( H \) heads inside MHA computes vectors of dimension \( d_h = d/H \):

\[
\mathbf{z}_i^h = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \alpha_{i,j}^h \mathbf{W}_V^h \tilde{x}_j
\]

with \( \alpha_{i,j}^h \) referring to the attention weight where token \( i \) attends token \( j \), and \( \mathbf{W}_V^h \in \mathbb{R}^{d_h \times d} \) to a learned weight matrix\(^3\).

\(^1\)Code available at https://github.com/mt-upc/transformer-contributions-nmt.

\(^2\)We consider \( \tilde{x}_i \) as a column vector.

\(^3\)The bias vector associated with \( \mathbf{W}_V^h \) is omitted for the sake of simplicity.
The output of MHA for the i-th token (MHA_i) is calculated by concatenating each z_i^k and projecting the joint vector through W_O \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}.

This is equivalent to a sum over heads where each z_i^k is projected through the partitioned weight matrix W_O^h \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_h}, and adding the bias b_O \in \mathbb{R}^d:

\[
\text{MHA}_i(x) = W_O \text{Concat}(z_i^1, \ldots, z_i^H) + b_O = \sum_{h=1}^H W_O^h z_i^h + b_O
\]

(3)

**Layer normalization.** Finally, a layer normalization (LN) is applied over the sum of the residual vector x_i and the output of the multi-head attention module, giving as output \( \tilde{x}_i \):

\[
\tilde{x}_i = \text{LN}(\text{MHA}_i(x) + x_i)
\]

(4)

Merging Equations (2) to (4), we get:

\[
\tilde{x}_i = \text{LN}\left( \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H W_O^h \alpha_{i,j}^h W_V x_j + b_O + x_i \right)
\]

Considering \( F_i(x_j) = \sum_{h=1}^H W_O^h \alpha_{i,j}^h W_V x_j \), we can formulate the previous equation as:

\[
\tilde{x}_i = \text{LN}\left( \sum_{j=1}^J F_i(x_j) + b_O + x_i \right)
\]

(5)

### 2.2 Aggregation of Layer-wise Token-to-token Interactions (ALTI)

The layer normalization operation over a sum of vectors LN(\sum \alpha \nu_j), as in Equation (5), can be reformulated as \( \sum J L(\nu_j) + \beta \), where \( L : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \) (see Appendix A.1).

This allows us to express Equation (5) (Kobayashi et al., 2021) as an interpretable expression of the layer input representations (Figure 3):

\[
\tilde{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^J T_i(x_j) + \epsilon
\]

(6)

where \( \epsilon \) contains bias terms (see Appendix A.2 for full derivation) and \( T_i \) transforms the layer input vectors:

\[
T_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 
L(F_i(x_j)) & \text{if } j \neq i \\
L(F_i(x_j) + x_i) & \text{if } j = i
\end{cases}
\]

(7)

with the residual connection \( x_i \) only considered in the transformed vector \( T_i(x_{j=i}) \).

Ferrando et al. (2022) propose to use the Manhattan distance between the output vector and the transformed vector as a measure of the impact of \( x_j \) on \( \tilde{x}_i \):

\[
d_{i,j} = \| \tilde{x}_i - T_i(x_j) \|_1
\]

(8)

By taking \(-d_{i,j}\), larger distances reflect lower (more negative) influence. Then, distances are normalized \( \in [0,1] \) to obtain the contribution of token representation \( j \) to token representation \( i \):

\[
c_{\tilde{x}_i \leftarrow x_j} = \frac{\max(0, -d_{i,j} + \| \tilde{x}_i \|_1)}{\sum_{k=1}^J \max(0, -d_{i,k} + \| \tilde{x}_i \|_1)}
\]

(9)

giving the matrix of layer-wise contributions \( \mathbf{C}_{\tilde{x}_i \leftarrow x} \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times J} \), where each row contains the contribution, or influence, of each \( x_j \) in \( \tilde{x}_i \).

ALTI method (Ferrando et al., 2022) follows the Transformer’s modeling approach proposed by Abnar and Zuidema (2020), where the information flow in the model is simplified as a Directed Acyclic Graph, where nodes are token representations, and edges represent the influence of each input layer token \( x_j \) in the output token \( \tilde{x}_i \). ALTI proposes using token contributions \( \mathbf{C} \) instead of raw attention weights \( \alpha \). The amount of information flowing from one node to another in different layers is computed by summing over the different paths connecting both nodes, where each path is the result of the multiplication of every edge in the path. This is computed by the matrix multiplication of the layer-wise contributions, giving the full encoder contribution matrix:

\[
\mathbf{C}_{\text{enc}}^{e \leftarrow x} = \mathbf{C}_{\text{enc}}^{L_k \leftarrow x} \mathbf{C}_{\text{enc}}^{L_{k-1} \leftarrow x} \cdots \mathbf{C}_{\text{enc}}^{L_1 \leftarrow x}
\]

(10)

We refer to \( \mathbf{C}_{\text{enc}}^{L_k \leftarrow x} \) as the contributions in the last layer of the encoder, where output vectors are \( \epsilon \).
We decompose the self-attention and cross-attention contributions at a single time step \( t \) in the decoder (target prefix). Highlighted is shown contributions to the decoder layer output (Figure 4). In green, it’s shown the information coming from the encoder (source), and in red, the information from the decoder (target prefix). Highlighted is shown contributions at a single time step.

### Decoder cross-attention

The output of the cross-attention block at time step \( t \) can be decomposed as:

\[
\hat{y}_t = \text{LN}^c(MHA^c_t(e) + \hat{y}_t) = \text{LN}^c\left(\sum_{j=1}^{J} F_t^c(e_j) + b_O + \hat{y}_t\right)
\]

where \( \hat{y}_t \) is the residual connection, \( e \) the encoder outputs. We can obtain the transformed vectors of the encoder outputs \( e_j \) and the residual connection \( \hat{y}_t^e \):  
\[
T_t^e(e_j) = L^c(F_t^e(e_j)) \\
T_t^c(y_j^e) = L^c(\hat{y}_t^e)
\]

Following Equation (8), we can compute the Manhattan distance between the transformed vectors and \( \hat{y}_t \) and get the contributions \( [C_{\hat{y}_t-e}; C_{\hat{y}_t-\hat{y}_t}] \), with \( C_{\hat{y}_t-e} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times J} \) and \( C_{\hat{y}_t-\hat{y}_t} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times 1} \).

The cross-attention residual \( \hat{y}_t^e \) contribution to \( \hat{y}_t \) reflects the total influence of the self-attention inputs \( y_{<t} \) to the decoder layer output \( \hat{y}_t \). Thus, we can get the full decoder layer contribution matrix \( [C_{\hat{y}_t-e}; C_{\hat{y}_t-y_{<t}}] \) (Figure 5) by substituting the residual contributions \( C_{\hat{y}_t-\hat{y}_t} \) with the self-attention contributions \( C_{\hat{y}_t-e} \), and weighting every row of \( C_{\hat{y}_t-y_{<t}} \) by the corresponding value of the residual contribution of each time step.
3.2 Aggregating Contributions Through the Encoder-Decoder Transformer

In order to get input token attributions, we apply the same principle as attention rollout method. As described in §2.2, ALTI builds a graph where nodes are token representations and edges represent the contributions between tokens in each layer. The amount of information flowing from one node to another in different layers is computed by summing over the different paths connecting both nodes, where each path is the result of the multiplication of every edge in the path (Figures 6 and 7).

Algorithm 1: ALTI+ source relevance.

Input: $C_{\text{enc}}^{e\leftarrow x} \leftarrow x$ - encoder contributions
$C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow e} \leftarrow y$ - contributions decoder layers
$L$ - number of layers

Output: $R_{\text{model}}^{y\leftarrow x} \leftarrow x$ - source input relevancies

for $l \leftarrow [1,2,\ldots,L]$ do
   $C_{\text{dec}}^{e\leftarrow x} = C_{\text{enc}}^{e\leftarrow x} \cdot C_{\text{dec}}^{e\leftarrow x}$
   $R_{\text{dec}}^{x\leftarrow x} = C_{\text{dec}}^{x\leftarrow x}$
for $l \leftarrow [2,3,\ldots,L]$ do
   $C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow x} = C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}} \cdot R_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}} + C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow x}$
   $R_{\text{model}}^{y\leftarrow x} = R_{\text{model}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}}$
return $R_{\text{model}}^{y\leftarrow x}$

ALTI+ source tokens relevance. Algorithm 1 shows the process to obtain source sentence tokens relevance for the model prediction $R_{\text{model}}^{y\leftarrow x} \leftarrow x$ (Figure 6). We first update the cross-attention contribution matrices (to $C_{\text{dec}}^{e\leftarrow x}$) by multiplying each of them with the contributions of the entire encoder $C_{\text{enc}}^{e\leftarrow x}$ to account for all the paths in the encoder and cross-attentions. We then iteratively aggregate edges from paths of the target prefix contributions $C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}}$.

ALTI+ target prefix tokens relevance. Target prefix input attributions (Figure 7) are computed by multiplying $C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}}$ in each layer:

$$R_{\text{model}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}} = C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}} \cdot C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}} \cdot \ldots \cdot C_{\text{dec}}^{y\leftarrow y_{<t}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)

4 Experimental Setup

We analyze input token attributions in both bilingual and multilingual Machine Translation models. For the bilingual setting, we train a 6-layer Transformer model for the German-English (De-En) translation task. We use Europarl v7 corpus\(^7\) and follow Zenkel et al. (2019) and Ding et al. (2019) data setup\(^8\). We use byte-pair encoding (BPE) (Sennrich et al., 2016) with 10k merge operations. For the multilingual model, we use M2M Transformer (Fan et al., 2021), a many-to-many multilingual translation model that can translate directly between any pair of 100 languages. We use FAIRSEQ (Ott et al., 2019) implementations, and the provided checkpoint for the M2M model (418M). We perform the quantitative analysis in 1000 sentences of the test set of IWSLT’14 German-English dataset. For the analysis in §5.5 we use FLORES-101 (Goyal et al., 2022) devtest split.

5 Analysis

In this section, we perform a set of experiments to measure the quality of the obtained contribu-
5.1 Information Mix in the Encoder

Information from input source tokens gets mixed throughout the encoder. Intermediate layer representations acquire contextual information from other tokens in the sentence due to the self-attention mechanism. Brunner et al. (2020) analyze, for an encoder-based model, the contribution of input source tokens to its intermediate layer representations. They conclude that input source tokens contribute little (around 10% on average) to its corresponding last layer representation (encoder output). However, by training a linear classifier and, with nearest neighbor lookup based on the cosine distance, they are able to recover input token identity 93% of the times. We apply ALTI method (Equation (10)) across the Transformer encoder and analyze the input relevance of source tokens to intermediate encoder representations (Figure 9). Our results in the bilingual and multilingual models show that, indeed, input tokens highly contribute to their associated layer representations. In the last layer, 41% of the input contribution comes from the input token at the same position. The multilingual model is able to retain above 47% despite its 12 layers. The curves of both models in Figure 9 closely match the results obtained by Voita et al. (2019) relying on the mutual information between the input tokens and tokens representations across layers.

5.2 Alignment in Cross-attention

In order to evaluate the quality of the proposed cross-attention contributions (§3.1), we measure Alignment Error Rate (AER) against human-annotated alignments. As found out by Garg et al. (2019), the penultimate layer of Transformers tends to focus on learning the source-target alignment of words. Therefore, we analyze the cross-attention contributions $C_{\hat{y} \leftarrow e}$ extracted from the 5th layer from the bilingual 6-layer model. We use gold alignments from Vilar et al. (2006), containing 508 sentence pairs. For comparison, we compute the AER of the raw attention weights and previous methods based on vector norms. Vector-Norms (Kobayashi et al., 2020) compute $\| F \|_2$ from Equation (8761).
5.3 The Role of the End-of-Sentence Token

It has been hypothesized that attention given to special tokens is used by the model as a 'no-op' (Clark et al., 2019). Ferrando and Costa-jussà (2021) analyze attention weights of the cross-attention to source finalizing tokens (final punctuation mark and </s>), and find the value vectors (see Appendix B) associated with these tokens to be almost zero norm. Additionally, they find that attention weights to source finalizing tokens tend to increase when predicting tokens that heavily rely on the target prefix, such as postpositions, particles, or closing subwords. The proposed cross-attention decomposition in §3.1 allows us to analyze both the contributions of source tokens, and the residual connection (Figure 8 (b)). We measure the Pearson correlation between attention weights to </s> token and the contribution of the residual connection in the cross-attention. We can see in Figure 10 that there is a high correlation in almost every layer, especially in the last layers. This demonstrates that finalizing tokens are used to skip source attention, since the higher their attention score, the more information is flowing from the decoder (in the residual) coming from the target prefix.

5.4 Analyzing Hallucinations

A common issue of NMT models is hallucination, which are translations that are disconnected from the source text, despite being fluent in the target language (Müller et al., 2020). Hallucinations should be reflected in our method as a drop in the contribution of the source sentence. Thus, in this section, we induce hallucination and measure the source sentence contribution with ALTI+.

To induce hallucination, we perturb the target prefix sequence of the bilingual model by adding the <unk> token. Then, we follow the algorithm proposed by Lee et al. (2018) to detect which perturbed translations are hallucinations. They measure BLEU score of the generated translation with and without perturbation. They fix a minimum threshold BLEU score for the original translations (20 BLEU in our experiments), and a maximum score for the perturbed translations (3 BLEU in our experiments). The model is considered to hallucinate when both translations satisfy the thresholds.

Analyzing ALTI+ contributions, we can confirm that the bilingual model largely ignores source to-
5.5 Multilingual Model Analysis

We analyze the behavior of the multilingual model in different language pairs of FLORES-101 dataset. We include in the analysis high-resource languages, English (En), Spanish (Es), and French (Fr) and low-resource languages, Zulu (Zu) and Xhosa (Xh). High-resource languages have been defined in (Goyal et al., 2022) as languages with available bi-text data beyond 100M samples, and low-resource languages are those with less than 1M.

Figure 13 shows an Es-En example in the multilingual model. We observe an almost uniform contribution of the language tags across different outputs. The only drop in its contribution seems to happen when translating proper nouns (e.g., "Mr. Williams") or anglicisms (e.g., "hobby"), which is observed for other language pairs too (Appendix C), and repeated across the dataset. We hypothesize that the model doesn’t need to rely on the language tag since these words appear across different languages. Dependencies between generated tokens are also observed, the prediction “for” relies on “thanks”, “Williams” on “Mr.” and “into” on “introducing”. The same example can be found in Appendix C for En-Zu and Zu-En pairs.

Figure 14 shows results of the source sentence contribution for En-Zu, En-Xh, En-Fr and En-En pairs. We observe similar source contribution patterns between the high-resource pairs, and between those pairs involving a low-resource language. However, in the low-resource scenario, the source contribution is remarkably lower when translating from English. We hypothesize that, when the low-resource language is in the target prefix, the model tends to behave similarly to when it hallucinates (Figure 12), ignoring the source. But, when a high-resource language (En) is in the target prefix, it is less likely to lose track of the source and, thus, less prone to enter hallucination mode. Low-resource language sentences in the target side may be seen by the model as target prefix perturbations (§5.4), although further research is required.

6 Conclusions

We propose ALTI+, an interpretability method for the encoder-decoder Transformer that provides token influences to the model predictions for the two input contexts: source sentence and target prefix. By applying ALTI+ to a bilingual and a multilingual NMT model we are able to discover insights into the behavior of these black-box models. Unlike previous methods, we can now observe dependencies between tokens in the predicted sentence, and quantify the total contribution of each of the contexts. This allows a deeper exploration of current NMT models. Our findings include: the role of the source EOS (</s>) token as a mean to avoid...
incorporating source information, the absence of source contribution when producing hallucinations, and the lack of source contributions when translating from English to a low-resource language. ALTI+ overcomes the limitations of previous interpretability methods in NMT, and we believe it can help researchers and practitioners to better understand any encoder-decoder Transformer model.

Limitations
ALTI+ is able to measure the amount of contextual information in each layer representation of the Transformer. We use the influences of each input token to the last layer representation for evaluating input attributions for the model prediction. However, our method does not consider the softmax layer on top of the Transformer. Therefore, ALTI+ doesn’t provide explanations for each of the output classes (target vocabulary), as opposed to gradient-based methods.

Ethical Considerations
ALTI+ provides explanations about input attributions in the Encoder-Decoder Transformer. By itself, we are not aware of any ethical implications of the methodology, which does not take into account any subjective priors. We perform experiments in Machine Translation. While we do not study biases in this application, we know they exist (Costa-jussà et al., 2022). In the future, we plan to further explore and mitigate them by using the information of source input attributions that ALTI+ provides. Also, understanding hallucinations by means of ALTI+ can help to avoid catastrophic and unsafe translations.

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A. ALTI

A.1 Layer Normalization

The Layer normalization operation over input $x$ can be defined as: $\text{LN}(x) = \frac{x - \mu(x)}{\sigma(x)} \odot \gamma + \beta$, where $\mu$ computes the mean, $\sigma$ the standard deviation, and $\gamma$ and $\beta$ refer to an element-wise transformation and bias respectively. $\text{LN}(x)$ can be decomposed into $\frac{1}{\sigma(x)} L x + \beta$, where $L$ is a linear transformation including the mean and element wise multiplication.

Given a sum of vectors $\sum_j x_j$ as input to LN we can rewrite the expression as:

$$\text{LN}\left(\sum_j x_j\right) = \frac{1}{\sigma(\sum_j x_j)} L \sum_j x_j + \beta$$

$$= \sum_j \frac{1}{\sigma(\sum_j x_j)} L x_j + \beta$$

$$= \sum_j L(x_j) + \beta$$

A.2 Full derivation

$$\tilde{x}_i = \text{LN}\left(\sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H W^h_{ij} \alpha^h_{ij} W^h_{ij} x_j + b_O + x_i\right)$$

$$= \text{LN}\left(\sum_{j=1}^J F_i(x_j) + b_O + x_i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^J L(F_i(x_j)) + L(b_O) + L(x_i) + \beta$$

Defining $\epsilon = L(b_O) + \beta$ we get to the expression in Equation (6):

$$\tilde{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^J T_i(x_j) + \epsilon \quad (15)$$

B Values Norms

Figure 15: Norm of the value vectors (from encoder outputs) in the cross-attention of the alignment layer. We provide mean and SD for each head in the bilingual model. Similar patterns are observed across layers, and in the multilingual model.

C Examples

We include examples for the En-Zu language pair in the multilingual model in Figure 16 and 17, as well as for Es-En in Figure 18 and Fr-En in Figure 19.
Figure 16: ALTI+ for a En-Zu example in the multilingual model.

Figure 17: ALTI+ for a Zu-En example in the multilingual model.
Figure 18: ALTI+ for a Es-En example in the multilingual model.

Figure 19: ALTI+ for a Fr-En example in the multilingual model.