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Abstract

As the capabilities of language models continue to advance, it is conceivable that "one-size-fits-all" model will remain as the main paradigm. For instance, given the vast number of languages worldwide, many of which are low-resource, the prevalent practice is to pretrain a single model on multiple languages. In this paper, we add to the growing body of evidence that challenges this practice, demonstrating that monolingual pretraining on the target language significantly improves models already extensively trained on diverse corpora. More specifically, we further pretrain GPT-J and LLaMA models on Portuguese texts using 3% or less of their original pretraining budget. Few-shot evaluations on *Poeta*, a suite of 14 Portuguese datasets, reveal that our models outperform English-centric and multilingual counterparts by a significant margin. Our best model, Sabiá-65B, performs on par with GPT-3.5-turbo. By evaluating on datasets originally conceived in the target language as well as translated ones, we study the contributions of language-specific pretraining in terms of 1) capturing linguistic nuances and structures inherent to the target language, and 2) enriching the model's knowledge about a domain or culture. Our results indicate that the majority of the benefits stem from the domain-specific knowledge acquired through monolingual pretraining.

1 Introduction

Language Models have revolutionized the field of natural language processing with their exceptional ability to perform tasks with minimal supervision. Although these models have been primarily pretrained on English-centric corpora, they have shown impressive multilingual capabilities [10]. Given the abundance of languages worldwide, the majority of which are low-resource, it has become a common practice to pretrain single models on multiple languages simultaneously. Models like XLM-R [12], mBART [32], mT5 [74], and BLOOM [57] exemplify this approach.

Despite the success of these multilingual models, we argue that they may not be the optimal approach for capturing the cultural and knowledge richness inherent in individual languages. When a moderately-sized language-specific corpus is available, continued pretraining could integrate the missing knowledge into the model, thereby enhancing its performance on targeted tasks. To test this hypothesis, we extend the pretraining of English-centric models using Portuguese corpora and evaluate their performance on an extensive range of Portuguese datasets employing a few-shot learning approach. Our results indicate that, even for models trained beyond the recommendations by Hoffmann et al [19], this additional pretraining considerably improves the performance compared to multilingual models.

We evaluate our models on datasets comprising texts originally created by native Brazilian Portuguese speakers, as well as datasets translated from English to Portuguese. We observe improvements across all datasets due to the Portuguese pretraining, with the gains being particularly pronounced for datasets created by Brazilian speakers. One of the largest improvements was observed on the ENEM dataset, which is derived from entrance exams used by Brazilian universities and requires extensive knowledge of the country's history, geography, and literature. This result provides evidence that the major contribution of our language-specific pretraining is to inject domain-specific knowledge about a particular culture as opposed to solely enhancing language proficiency.

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2 Related Work

The success of multilingual pretraining has been well-documented in the literature, with models such as ByT5 [73], mT5 [74], XLM-R [12], XGLM [30] and mGPT [59] paving the way for more inclusive language understanding and generation by leveraging shared knowledge across multiple languages. However, there are limitations to this approach.

BLOOM, a 175B-parameter model pretrained on 46 languages, demonstrates inferior performance on English tasks when compared to OPT [78], a similarly sized model pretrained with comparable computational resources and data size but that was trained on English-centric corpora. We conjecture that BLOOM's underperformance may be attributed to its relatively limited exposure to English tokens during the pretraining phase. Consequently, this observation suggests that monolingual pretraining could offer supplementary advantages.

In support of this hypothesis, models with hundreds of millions of parameters pretrained on monolingual texts have demonstrated gains over multilingual counterparts [7, 62, 6, 55, 36, 27, 8, 2, 28, 39, 22]. Additionally, research has indicated that language adaptation is beneficial even for low-resource languages [41, 14, 4, 76]. However, there is a limited number of published research articles with comprehensive evaluations of the benefits of continued pretraining at the multi-billion-parameter scale [26, 77, 23]. Through this study, we contribute to the literature by demonstrating the effectiveness of continued language-specific pretraining for Portuguese language models up to the 65B-parameter scale.

The question concerning whether it is advantageous to train models for specific languages is closely associated with the question of whether it is beneficial to train models for particular domains of knowledge. Recent studies on models such as Minerva [29] and Galactica [66] have shown that domain-specific pretraining can lead to significant improvements, even when the pretraining corpus is smaller in comparison to web-scale, general-purpose pretraining corpora. Analogously, Fu et al. [16] demonstrated the feasibility of specializing smaller models to perform multi-step reasoning — a capability typically exclusive to models with at least 50B parameters — at the expense of diminished performance in other, more general tasks.

Pretraining with a combination of general and domain-specific corpora can potentially enhance performance in specialized tasks without compromising effectiveness in general-purpose tasks, albeit at the cost of increased computational demands. For example, BloombergGPT [72], a 50B-parameter model pretrained on heterogeneous corpus in which more than half of texts are from the financial domain, exhibits comparable performance to OPT-66B in general tasks. BloombergGPT, however, was pretrained on a dataset three times larger in size, and consequently used more computational resources.

Rather than pursuing a single model that performs well across multiple domains, Gururangan et al. [18] propose an alternative approach: using multiple expert models, each trained on a domain-specific subset within a broader, diverse dataset, to function as a single general-purpose model. Their models outperform dense ones across various domain-specific tasks, at the expense of an increased parameter count, consequently leading to larger memory requirements for efficient inference.¹

3 Methodology

In this section, we outline the pretraining data and training details used to build our models, including data sources, preprocessing techniques, architectures, hyperparameters, and optimization methods.

3.1 Pretraining Data

The pretraining data is derived from the Portuguese subset of the ClueWeb 2022 dataset [43, 44]. To increase the quality of the dataset, we apply the quality filters from MassiveText [48], modifying them to accommodate the specific requirements of the Portuguese language, such as using appropriate stopwords. We normalize the text with ftfy [63]², convert wikitexts into human-readable texts, and exclude documents made up with less than 200 unique tokens.

 $^{^{1}}$ To serve their ensemble with a low latency, the weights for each expert must be kept in GPU memory.

²ftfy normalization fixes mojibakes and remove remnant HTML tags.

These quality filters are primarily designed for web pages and may not seamlessly transfer to other domains. There is potential for improvement by employing more automated methods; however, such experimentation was not conducted in this work due to the resource-intensive nature of pretraining experiments.

Following the cleaning process, all documents are concatenated using an end-of-sequence token as a separator, and then tokenized. The GPT-J tokenizer, which is identical to the GPT-2 tokenizer [47], produces 7.8 billion tokens, while the LLaMA tokenizer produces 7.3 billion tokens.

We extended the training of three models — LLaMA 7B and 65B [67] as well as GPT-J [70] — originally trained on English-centric corpora, on Portuguese texts; these further pretrained models from LLaMA are denoted as Sabiá, while the one derived from GPT-J is referred to as Sabiá-J.³

3.2 Sabiá models

The LLaMA 7B and 65B models are decoder-only Transformer models [68] with a similar architecture to PALM's [10]. The models were trained using a causal language modeling objective on a massive dataset sourced from webpages, code, books, and scientific papers, with the 7B model trained on 1 trillion tokens and the 65B model trained on 1.4 trillion tokens. The majority of the corpus consists of English text; however, it also contains Portuguese text, with the precise quantity not specified by the authors.

Starting from the LLaMA weights, we train the Sabiá models on our Portuguese dataset (described in Section 3.1) using the t5x and seqio frameworks [52]. Adhering closely to the hyperparameters used by PALM, we use the AdaFactor optimizer [58] without factorization, a first-order momentum $\beta_1 = 0.9$, and a second-order momentum $\beta_2 = 1 - k^{-0.8}$, where k represents the step number. We apply global norm clipping at 1.0 and dynamic weight decay of lr^2 , with lr denoting the current learning rate.

Besides the standard causal language modeling loss, we use an auxiliary loss of $10^{-4} \log^2(\sum_i e^{z_i})$, where z are the logits, to decrease the likelihood of loss spikes at the 65B-parameter scale. The learning rate is linearly increased from 0 to 1e-3 over the initial 1,000 steps, followed by a constant learning rate of 1e-3 for an additional 9,000 steps.

The models were trained on a TPU v2-512, using batches of 512 sequences, each containing 2048 tokens. We utilized gradient checkpointing, also known as rematerialization, to enable the use of larger batches, thereby increasing TPU utilization. For the 7B model, this configuration results in a throughput of 124,000 tokens/sec, corresponding to a Model FLOPs Utilization (MFU) [10] of 45.2%, excluding the self-attention operations. For the 65B model, we achieve a throughput of 14,000 tokens/sec, resulting in an MFU of 47.4%.

The resulting models were trained on a total of 10.4 billion tokens, or 1.52 epochs of the Portuguese dataset. We noticed improvements in few-shot tasks beyond one epoch, which corroborates results from Taylor et al. [66]. However, due to the high costs of pretraining, we did not continue training.⁴

3.3 Sabiá-J

The GPT-J model is a 6B-parameter decoder-only Transformer model whose architecture and training hyperparameters closely follow GPT-3 6.7B. The main differences reside on computing the MLP and self-attention in parallel, applying attention head with dimension 256 (twice larger than GPT-3 6.7B), and using Rotary Positional Embedding (RoPE) [65]. GPT-J was trained on 400B tokens from The Pile dataset [17], whose 97.4% tokens are in English.

We begin training Sabiá-J from the released GPT-J checkpoint,⁵ using the mesh-transformer-jax framework [69] and AdamW optimizer [34] with a weight decay of 0.1. We start the pretraining by warming up the learning rate until 1.2e-5 over 13,500 steps, followed by a cosine annealing decay during 135,518 steps until the end learning rate of 2.4e-6, and kept it constant from there on. We train on a TPU v3-8 using an effective batch size of 32 sequences of 2048 tokens. This results in a throughput of 5,200 tokens/sec, corresponding to a MFU of 44.5% without self-attention. The model was trained for 18 days on 7.8B tokens, or one epoch of the Portuguese dataset.

³Sabiá is a tribute to the eponymous bird, renowned for its diverse and intricate vocalizations.

⁴Considering the on-demand pricing of 384 USD per hour for a TPU v2-512, pretraining Sabiá-7B and Sabiá-65B cost approximately 9,000 and 80,000 USD, respectively.

⁵https://huggingface.co/EleutherAI/gpt-j-6b

4 Evaluation on Poeta

We evaluate the Sabiá models on the Portuguese Evaluation Tasks (Poeta) benchmark, which comprises 14 downstream NLP datasets in Portuguese: ASSIN 2 RTE and STS [51], ENEM Challenge [60], ENEM 2022 [40], FaQuAD [56], TweetSentBr [5], AG News [79], IMDB [35], MASSIVE [15], MKQA [33], BoolQ [11], SST2 [61], WSC [13], and BLUEX [1]. Half of them (ASSIN 2 RTE and STS, BLUEX, ENEM Challenge, ENEM 2022, FaQuAD, and TweetSentBr) were originally written in Portuguese, and the remaining ones were either manually or automatically translated into Portuguese from their originals in English. We refer to the first group as "Native" datasets and the second group as "Translated" datasets. More details about the datasets can be found in Appendix A.

The models were evaluated in a few-shot manner using the maximum number of examples that fits into a 2048-token context for each task. We used the GPT-2 tokenizer as reference because it results in more tokens. This allowed us to comfortably fit prompts tokenized with other tokenizers.

To evaluate the models, we manually select a set of few-shot examples for each dataset on Poeta. Depending on the dataset, these examples are balanced by class (except for FaQuAD, BLUEX, ENEM Challenge, ENEM 2022, MKQA, and WSC). For each test example, the prompts are built with the selected few-shot examples in alternating order. We also explore different alternatives to select few-shot examples in an ablation study (see Section 5.3). Each task on Poeta has a particular instruction that is placed at the beginning of the prompt.

Following Srivastava et al [64], we adopt the Normalized Preferred Metric (NPM) as our primary evaluation measure:

$$\text{NPM} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} 100 \times \frac{[\text{raw preferred metric}]_i - [\text{random score}]_i}{[\text{high score}]_i - [\text{random score}]_i} \tag{1}$$

where N is the number of evaluation datasets, [raw preferred metric] $_i$ is the score obtained by the model on the i-th dataset, [random score] $_i$ is the score of a random model (e.g., 50% for a binary classification task) and [high score] $_i$ is the highest possible score on that dataset. The preferred metric and random score for each dataset is presented in Table 4. The rationale behind employing NPM rather than a straightforward average across all datasets is to mitigate the undue influence of datasets with inherently high scores, such as binary classification datasets, which could otherwise outweigh datasets characterized by lower scores.

5 Results

The main results can be found in Table 1. Models such as BLOOMZ, XGLM and Bertin-GPT struggled to generate answers in Portuguese. To address this issue, we adopted an approach akin to that used by the XGLM authors: by calculating the likelihood of each candidate answer string based on the input text and subsequently selecting the class with the highest probability. For FaQuAD, the only dataset in the benchmark without predetermined candidate answers, we allowed the models to generate answers in their original format.

We observe that the LLaMA baselines significantly outperform models of equivalent size trained with fewer tokens, such as Galactica and OPT. Furthermore, despite being trained on English-centric corpora, LLaMA-7B surpasses multilingual BLOOM and XGLM of similar sizes. The Sabiá models demonstrate considerable improvement in NPM compared to their respective baseline models. These NPM gains are more substantial for the smaller Sabiá-J and Sabiá-7B models. Notably, Sabiá-65B marginally outperforms OpenAI's GPT-3.5-turbo, which serves as the base model for ChatGPT.

Through our Portuguese pretraining, we observed that the improvement in NPM was higher in native datasets than that in translated datasets. For Sabiá-65B, improvements over LLaMA-65B were mostly from the native subset. We hypothesize that this is due to the "mechanistic" nature of translated datasets: since they were translated from English, the baseline model already possesses the knowledge needed to solve them and gains little from learning the linguistic, syntactic, and grammatical knowledge of the target language. For instance, to answer the question "does p o box come before street address" from the BoolQ dataset, the model gains little from additional pretraining on a Portuguese corpus as it

⁶The MASSIVE dataset underwent manual translation and localization; however, given that the original text was composed in English, it has been categorized as a translated dataset.

	Native	Translated	All
GALACTICA-6.7B	2.2	13.6	7.9
OPT-6.7B	5.3	39.7	22.5
OPT-66B	16.4	47.1	31.7
BERTIN-GPT	5.8	42.5	24.2
BLOOM-7.1B	10.6	44.2	27.4
BLOOMZ-7.1B	18.3	44.7	31.5
XGLM-7.5B	14.0	46.9	30.4
GPT-3.5-turbo	67.9	66.0	67.0
GPT-4	78.8	82.5	80.6
GPT-J	10.2	33.9	22.0
Sabiá-J	25.0	43.1	34.0
LLaMA-7B	20.2	45.8	33.0
Sabiá-7B	43.4	53.6	48.5
LLaMA-65B	59.1	68.4	63.7
Sabiá-65B	69.2	69.6	69.4

Table 1: Few-shot NPM results on the Poeta benchmark.

is unlikely that the corpus would provide new information regarding the formatting of American mailing addresses that the model has not already encountered during its initial English-centric pretraining. Conversely, language-specific pretraining introduces the specific knowledge required to solve tasks in the native subset.

Although GPT-J exhibited lower few-shot performance in English tasks relative to LLaMA, we use it in this study to illustrate that not only highly optimized models like LLaMA, but also less refined models such as GPT-J, can benefit from extended pretraining. We chose not to use BLOOM-7.1B as our initial checkpoint for pretraining due to its inferior performance compared to GPT-J in preliminary few-shot experiments on three Portuguese datasets. However, we later discovered that its performance on Poeta surpassed GPT-J's. Nonetheless, BLOOM still exhibits lower performance compared to LLaMA.

Analogous to Sabiá-J, BERTIN-GPT is a model pretrained on Spanish text starting from the GPT-J weights. Since Spanish and Portuguese are similar languages, it is reasonable to expect that BERTIN-GPT would perform better than its baseline model. Nevertheless, the observed NPM for BERTIN-GPT is only slightly higher than GPT-J's.

A noteworthy comparison involves Galactica, a model pretrained on scientific text, predominantly in English, and a similarly-sized OPT model, which utilized comparable pretraining compute but was pretrained on a larger and more diverse English-centric corpus. In their study, the authors demonstrate that Galactica performs on par with OPT on English tasks and largely outperforms OPT on scientific-related tasks. Conversely, in Portuguese tasks, OPT significantly outperforms Galactica. This result underscores the trade-offs associated with domain-specific specialization, which often entails diminished performance in other tasks.

BLOOMZ [38], a multilingual instruction-tuned model, demonstrated superior performance compared to its baseline BLOOM model, rivaling LLaMA of equivalent size. Nevertheless, our approach of pretraining in Portuguese appears to yield superior results, as Sabiá-J surpasses BLOOMZ despite originating from a lower-performing baseline model. We envision continued pretraining and instruction tuning as complementary techniques to be combined in future research.

5.1 Results per Dataset

Table 2 presents the results per Poeta dataset for Sabiá models, their baselines, and for the supervised state-of-the-art. The SOTA results reported for the translated datasets were obtained using their original English versions [75, 80, 49, 54]. Since the Poeta benchmark excludes unanswerable examples of the MKQA dataset, we decided not to include the SOTA result for this dataset.

⁷This model was used in the experiments: https://huggingface.co/bigscience/bloomz-7b1-mt

In more challenging datasets, such as ENEM Challenge, ENEM 2022, and BLUEX, which are derived from admission exams to Brazilian universities, we see the most significant gains due to language-specific pretraining. Substantial improvements are also observed in TweetSentBr, a dataset containing tweets with an abundance of slang and references to Brazilian popular culture. We hypothesize that this pretraining imparts specific knowledge about the country's culture, literature, and geography that is less frequently encountered and learned during the original pretraining, which incorporates more diverse texts.

		Native							Translated						
	Avg	ASSIN 2 RTE (F1)	ASSIN 2 STS (Pearson)	BLUEX (Acc)	ENEM (Acc)	ENEM 2022 (Acc)	FaQuAD (F1)	TweetSentBr (F1-macro)	AG News (Acc)	BoolQ (Acc)	IMDB (Acc)	MASSIVE (F1-macro)	MKQA (F1)	SST2 (Acc)	WSC (Acc)
SOTA supervised	-	90.00^{1}	86.00^2	-	-	-	82.40^{3}	77.27^4	95.55^{5}	92.40^{6}	96.21^{5}	-	-	97.50^{7}	90.10^{8}
GPT-4	84.99	90.96	77.58	76.40	92.00	79.66	84.74	82.40	93.50	86.50	97.00	83.30	55.67	97.50	92.63
GPT-3.5-turbo	76.08	88.28	66.41	60.11	80.57	75.42	78.28	74.39	87.71	71.43	84.86	84.19	44.92	91.71	76.84
Galactica-6.7B	34.11	34.92	11.63	28.65	20.74	22.88	40.16	21.98	38.33	57.13	51.08	35.62	3.01	62.27	49.12
Bertin-GPT-6B	45.18	33.24	6.23	22.47	20.52	22.03	64.00	35.52	82.44	44.25	87.66	55.46	15.56	81.08	62.11
OPT-6.7B	43.35	43.33	21.35	24.16	19.87	20.34	56.45	14.37	55.67	61.31	90.42	51.84	13.64	86.47	47.72
OPT-66B	49.68	65.66	7.88	29.78	20.41	17.80	71.12	32.54	81.87	58.75	92.66	61.64	21.17	87.50	46.67
BLOOM-7.1B	47.01	50.32	12.16	25.84	20.85	17.08	72.67	25.12	79.48	60.43	89.60	56.23	15.72	83.83	48.77
BLOOMZ-7.1B	50.94	33.57	24.50	34.27	28.38	27.12	79.90	50.36	83.82	38.23	93.80	55.31	12.36	86.93	64.56
XGLM-7.5B	48.79	53.75	15.07	24.16	19.10	19.49	44.84	63.23	77.47	49.76	91.46	59.74	13.72	89.11	62.11
GPT-J	43.51	54.88	17.86	24.72	20.85	20.34	59.52	20.98	64.15	48.75	72.68	55.67	10.69	83.94	54.04
Sabiá-J	52.84	35.49	22.97	39.89	39.41	36.44	69.28	64.16	84.30	51.53	90.86	58.82	13.84	87.16	45.61
LLAMA-7B	51.30	56.82	7.39	32.02	29.04	23.73	77.38	44.19	76.94	57.37	86.92	59.90	30.08	88.76	47.72
Sabiá-7B	62.43	64.87	13.63	47.75	60.59	60.17	77.43	67.17	83.28	64.07	92.70	68.95	31.98	90.60	50.88
LLAMA-65B	73.84	74.98	62.85	53.93	75.00	62.71	87.25	68.05	88.01	73.12	94.98	78.71	48.34	94.27	71.58
Sabiá-65B	77.65	88.07	63.29	57.87	90.39	72.03	88.47	72.91	88.34	75.96	92.76	79.41	49.47	93.43	74.74

Table 2: Results per dataset. ¹[62]; ²[9]; ³[37]; ⁴[3]; ⁵[75]; ⁶[80]; ⁷[49]; ⁸[54].

Certain capabilities only emerge at scale, as evidenced by [71]. For example, 6-7B models perform close to the random baseline in datasets such as ASSIN 2 RTE and STS, and WSC. However, at the 65B scale, we observe substantial improvements, approaching or surpassing state-of-the-art supervised models on the ASSIN 2 RTE and FaQuAD datasets.

GPT-4 [42] results indicate that there is still room for improvement for Sabiá-65B in the majority of the datasets evaluated in this work. Nevertheless, Sabiá-65B performs on par with GPT-4 in datasets such as ASSIN 2 RTE, ENEM Challenge, and FaQuAD.

5.2 Data Contamination

The pretraining data for Sabiá models were collected up until February 2022. Since ENEM 2022 was publicly released in November 2022, the model could not have access to the answers for the questions present within its pretraining data. Consequently, the improvements observed at least for ENEM 2022, which were higher than the average of the datasets, cannot be attributed to data contamination.

5.3 Ablation: Alternative Prompt Types

In this ablation study, we explored alternative prompt types beyond the use of prompts with manually-selected few-shot examples. We studied another three types, described below.

Static prompt

This prompt configuration restricts the few-shot examples to the first k training examples of the dataset. Each test set example has the few-shot context composed of the same examples but in a different order. For datasets requiring the leave-one-out validation protocol: if the current test example is among the selected few-shot ones, it is replaced by the k+1-th example. For classification tasks, the prompt was class-balanced.

Dynamic-sampled prompt

For each test example, k examples are randomly sampled from the training set. For classification tasks, these few-shot examples are not necessarily balanced by class as they follow the training data distribution.

Dynamic-similar prompt

As proposed by Liu et al. [31], we treat the training examples as documents and employ a search engine to retrieve and rank them using the text of the current test example as a query, selecting the k most relevant ones. The BM25 algorithm [53] is used as a ranking function. If documents consist of multiple fields (e.g., premise and hypothesis), both the indexed contents and the query are formed by concatenating these fields.

Similar to the dynamic-sampled prompts, each test example will have a different set of few-shot examples. For classification tasks, to achieve a class-balanced set of few-shot examples, we organize N individual lists of top-M relevant documents for each class, where N is the number of classes and M = k/N, and then merge the lists. The merged list is reversed to place the most relevant documents at the end of the prompt.

5.3.1 Results

Table 3 reports the NPM results obtained for the Sabiá-7B model with the four different strategies to select few-shot examples explored in this ablation study. The manual choice of few-shot examples (manual) outperforms the use of the first examples of the training set to build the context (static) by more than two percentage points. The advantage of the manual approach is even greater when compared to randomly sampling the few-shot examples (dynamic-sampled).

	Manual	Static	Dynamic-sampled	Dynamic-similar
Sabiá-7B	48.5	46.4	45.3	52.3

Table 3: Few-shot NPM results on the Poeta benchmark on different prompt types.

Moreover, we observe that using dynamic-similar prompts improves the model's performance. However, the use of dynamic-similar prompts is discouraged for datasets that were intentionally biased in the creation of their training and test examples. For instance, the WSC dataset has pairs of passages that are identical except for one or two words:

- The city councilmen refused the demonstrators a permit because they feared violence.
- The city councilmen refused the demonstrators a permit because they *advocated* violence.

When one of these sentences is used as test, the other will be used in the prompt as the most similar case, which can give a clue to the model. Therefore, the use of dynamic-similar prompts should be avoided in such cases.

6 Limitations

Owing to the financial constraints associated with pretraining and, more significantly, the manual labor involved in collecting and curating evaluation datasets, experiments were conducted exclusively in Portuguese. Given that our models started pretraining from English-pretrained models and that Portuguese and English exhibit relatively close linguistic proximity, we anticipate that other researchers conducting further pretraining on languages closely related to English will observe comparable improvements in their target tasks. However, determining whether the benefits of our this method persist for languages more distant from English remains an open research question.

Portuguese is a language with an abundance of high-quality web-based texts. Thus, the gains observed with the proposed method may not necessarily extend to low-resource languages with limited availability of quality texts. In such cases, parameter-efficient methods [20, 46, 45] could be advantageous, as evidenced by Yong et al. [76]. We did not experiment with these techniques in this study due to the associated training costs, which are approximately equivalent to training the entire model.⁸

⁸Although parameter-efficient methods adjust only a fraction of the weights, they use only marginally fewer training FLOPs, as activations and gradients are computed for the entire model. For instance, LoRA [21], a parameter-efficient method, improves training throughput of a GPT-3 175B model by only approximately 32%.

7 Conclusion

In this study, we contributed to the expanding body of scientific evidence that specializing models for individual languages leads to improvements, even when the baseline model is large and extensively trained. We achieved this for the Portuguese language utilizing a near state-of-the-art model with 65 billion parameters. Given the relatively low pretraining cost and significant performance gains observed, we foresee a future landscape consisting of a diverse array of models, each tailored to a specific domain, rather than a single, all-encompassing model.

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A Details of the Evaluation Datasets

In this section, we detail the datasets present in the Poeta benchmark. Table 4 shows statistics of the datasets. We translated into Portuguese the datasets BoolQ, AG News, IMDB, and SST2 using Google Translate.

For the datasets that do not have training examples, we used the leave-one-out validation protocol. Particularly for ENEM Challenge and ENEM 2022, questions from other exams (except the one the current question came from) were selected to compose the set of few-shot examples.

In addition, we excluded large training examples that exceeded a certain number of characters for some datasets. To do this, we seek to find the maximum amount of characters that minimizes the cutoff (excluding a maximum of 25% of training) while maximizing the number of few-shot examples that would fit in a context of 2048 tokens. For instance, the AG News dataset had a cutoff of 298 characters and retained 110,953 examples, while the BoolQ dataset had a cutoff of 749 characters and kept 7,015 examples, and IMDB dataset had a cutoff of 1,544 characters and retained 18,613 examples. In some cases, large testing examples hindered the use of few-shot learning, so we truncated the documents in the BoolQ dataset at 1,169 characters (affecting 5% of the test set) and in the IMDB dataset at 2,095 characters (affecting 13% of the test set). A different strategy was applied for the two largest documents of the FaQuAD dataset. Instead of truncating the documents, we chose to reduce the number of few-shot examples by 1.

Dataset	Туре	Preferred Metric	Rand. Score	Transl.	Avg Len (chars)	Num Train	Num Test	Num Few-shot
AG News	Multiclass classification (4)	Accuracy	25	Yes	282.34	120,000 (110,953)	7,600	12
ASSIN 2 RTE	Binary classification	F1	50	No	139.99	6,500	2448	18
ASSIN 2 STS	Regression	Pearson	0	No	139.99	6,500	2448	15
BLUEX	Multiple choice (4)	Accuracy	25	No	1,228.08	, <u>-</u>	178	1
BoolQ	Binary classification	Accuracy	50	Yes	562.30	9,427 (7,015)	3,270	4
ENEM Challenge	Multiple choice (5)	Accuracy	20	No	1,286.68	-	916	1
ENEM 2022	Multiple choice (5)	Accuracy	20	No	1,170.24	-	118	1
FaQuAD	Extractive QA	F1	0	No	1,056.47	-	63	4
IMDB	Binary classification	Accuracy	50	Yes	1,114.56	25,000 (18,613)	25,000	2
MASSIVE	Multiclass classification (18)	F1-macro	0.58	Yes	68.35	11,514	2,974	36
MKQA	Extractive QA	F1	0	Yes	80.32	-	10,000 (6,758)	40
SST2	Binary classification	Accuracy	50	Yes	84.19	67,349	872	34
TweetSentBR	Multiclass classification (3)	F1-macro	32.4	No	93.32	12,990	2010	30
WSC	Binary classification	Accuracy	50	Yes	102.15	-	285	18

Table 4: A summary of the datasets constituting the Poeta benchmark.

Figure 1 presents prompts for some of Poeta datasets, translated into English. For simplicity, we omit the few-shot examples. The text in blue represents the target output. In the following subsections, we provide a more comprehensive description of the datasets.

A.1 FaQuAD

FaQuAD [56] is an extractive question-answering dataset about Brazilian higher education institutions, covering documents from a federal university, complemented with Wikipedia articles. The task parallels that of SQuAD [50], requiring the prediction of an answer span based on a given question and context as input. The primary evaluation metric is the token-level F1, wherein the predicted and ground truth answers are considered as sets of tokens, followed by the calculation of their respective F1 scores. Figure 1(a) presents an example of prompt for FaQuAD dataset.

A.2 ASSIN 2

ASSIN 2 is the second edition of the ASSIN (Avaliação de Similaridade Semântica e Inferência Textual - Evaluating Semantic Similarity and Textual Entailment) dataset and includes two tasks in the Portuguese language: Recognizing Textual Entailment (RTE), recently known as Natural Language Inference (NLI), and Semantic Textual Similarity (STS) [51]. The former predicts if a given text (premise) implies another text (hypothesis); while the latter measures the degree of semantic equivalence between two sentences. ASSIN 2 is composed of about 10,000 sentence pairs: 6,500 used for training, 500 for validation, and 2,448 for testing. The sentence pairs were annotated by native speakers of Brazilian Portuguese with linguistic training. Figure 1(b) shows an example of prompt for ASSIN 2 STS dataset.

A.3 ENEM Challenge

The ENEM Challenge is a dataset with questions from ten editions (2009-2017) of a multidisciplinary admission test widely used in Brazilian universities, the *Exame Nacional do Ensino Médio* (ENEM). ENEM is an annual exam⁹ that has an essay and 180 multiple-choice questions with 5 alternatives divided into four knowledge areas. The dataset poses a challenge for LM because it requires a deep understanding of various fields of knowledge and the ability to integrate information from diverse domains. For comparison purposes, this work follows the authors [60] criteria by eliminating questions that require image comprehension and mathematical reasoning, and have chemical elements.

A.4 ENEM 2022

ENEM 2022 is a dataset composed of questions from the most recent edition of the ENEM exam [40]. The dataset is structured and annotated similarly to the ENEM Challenge dataset. Unlike the ENEM Challenge dataset, we kept questions that require mathematical reasoning and have chemical elements, excluding only those that depend on understanding images. However, we also exclude the five questions

 $^{^9\}mathrm{Although}$ two exams were applied in 2016

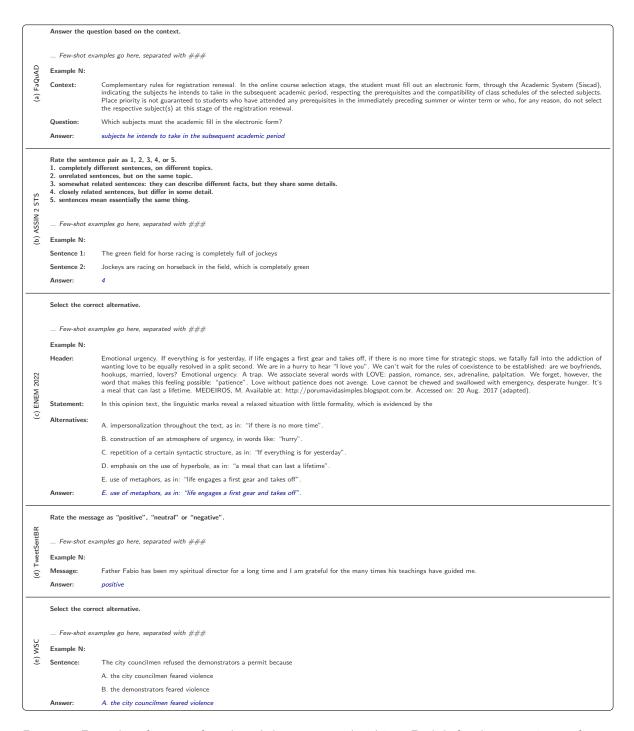


Figure 1: Examples of prompt for selected datasets, translated into English for the convenience of non-Portuguese speaking readers. The text in blue is the expected output.

related to the foreign language (English or Spanish). Figure 1(c) illustrates a prompt for ENEM 2022 dataset.

A.5 BLUEX

The BLUEX datasets consists of high school level multiple-choice entrance exam questions from two distinguished Brazilian universities, namely Universidade Estadual de Campinas (UNICAMP) and Universidade de São Paulo (USP), covering various subjects such as geography, history, literature, chemistry, physics and mathematics. In this research, we have exclusively used questions from UNI-

CAMP exams administered in 2021 and onwards, which resulted in a total of four exams. We have eliminated questions that require image comprehension to be answered, resulting in a final set of 178 textual multiple-choice questions, each with 4 alternatives.

A.6 TweetSentBR

TweetSentBR is a sentiment classification dataset composed of 15.000 tweets on the TV show domain, collected between January and July in 2017 [5]. The sentences were manually labeled by seven annotators in three classes (positive, neutral and negative). The test set has 2010 tweets with a distribution similar to the training set: positive (45%), neutral (25%), and negative (29%). Figure 1(d) presents an example of prompt for TweetSentBR dataset.

A.7 AG News

AG News is a document categorization dataset obtained from the AG corpus of news articles on the web. The documents were selected from the four largest categories, i.e., world, sports, business, and science/technology, with equal distribution among them. The dataset is composed of 120,000 training examples and 7,600 test examples [79].

A.8 IMDB

The Internet Movie Database (IMDb) dataset is a vast collection of informal movie reviews gathered from the website with the same name. The dataset consists of 25,000 training examples and 25,000 test examples labeled as either positive or negative [35]. The documents in this dataset tend to be longer than those in other text classification datasets. Due to the considerable computational costs arising from its large test set, we opted to subsample it by utilizing only 5,000 examples while preserving a balanced class distribution.

A.9 MASSIVE

The Multilingual Amazon Slu resource package (SLURP) for Slot-filling, Intent classification, and Virtual assistant Evaluation (MASSIVE) is a 1M-example dataset [15] with realistic virtual utterances spanning 51 languages translated from English by professional translators. The dataset is annotated for slot (55 classes) and intents (60 classes) prediction tasks. As the number of classes is prohibitive for evaluating language models with in-context learning, instead of using the dataset for the originally proposed intent prediction, we simplify it to predict the 18 domains/scenarios. Specifically, we simplify intents like $alarm_query$, $alarm_remove$ and $alarm_set$ to the domain alarm. In this study, we use only its Portuguese subset.

A.10 MKQA

The Multilingual Knowledge Questions and Answers (MKQA) dataset is an open-domain question-answering dataset comprising 10k documents aligned across 26 typologically diverse languages [33]. The dataset was created by sampling 10,000 queries from the Natural Questions dataset and collecting new passage-independent answers for each query. These queries and answers were then translated into 25 non-English languages by human translators. MKQA was created to enable a fair comparison of question-answering performance across languages, without imposing assumptions on the underlying QA approach. Even in English, MKQA is a challenging evaluation set, and it is particularly difficult in low-resource languages. In this study, we use only the answerable examples (ignoring unanswerable and long-answers types) of the Portuguese language.

A.11 BoolQ

Boolean Questions (BoolQ) is a question-answering dataset for yes/no questions [11]. The authors gathered naturally occurring yes/no questions using the same data collection method as used by Natural Questions [25]. Each example in BoolQ is a triplet consisting of a question, a paragraph from Wikipedia containing the answer, and the yes/no answer.

A.12 WSC

The Winograd Schema Challenge (WSC) dataset consists of pairs of sentences that differ in one or two words, with a highly ambiguous pronoun that is resolved in opposite ways in the two sentences [24]. Although these examples are easy for humans to solve, they pose a challenge for machines, making WSC a benchmark for both commonsense reasoning and natural language understanding.

To conduct our study, we used a Portuguese-based collection of schemas that was based on the original set of 285 English-based schemas [13]. Each schema was manually translated by three native Portuguese speakers. The Portuguese collection also includes adaptations of some sentences, made to preserve the original meaning of the sentence and comply with the rules of Winograd schemas. For example, unlike in English, objects in Portuguese are not gender-neutral, so some objects were changed to other plausible ones. In addition, the authors replaced the original names with popular names in Brazil, with gender being the only restriction. Names of famous personalities were kept. Figure 1(e) shows an example of prompt for WSC dataset.

A.13 SST2

The Stanford Sentiment Treebank (SST) [61] is a corpus that contains fully labeled parse trees. The original corpus was parsed using the Stanford parser, resulting in a total of 215,154 unique phrases from those parse trees, each annotated by three human judges. In this study, we used the most common version of this dataset, referred to as SST2 or SST binary, designed for a sentiment analysis task. As neutral sentences are excluded, this is a binary classification task. Another commonly used version of this dataset, referred to as SST5 or SST fine-grained, considers five levels of sentiment polarity but was not used in this study.