# Adapting Open-Source Generative Large Language Models for Low-Resource Languages: A Case Study for Turkish

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### **Abstract**

Despite advancements in English-dominant generative large language models, further development is needed for low-resource languages to enhance global accessibility. The primary methods for representing these languages are monolingual and multilingual pretraining. Monolingual pretraining is expensive due to hardware requirements, and multilingual models often have uneven performance across languages. This study explores an alternative solution by adapting large language models, primarily trained on English, to low-resource languages. We assess various strategies, including continual training, instruction fine-tuning, taskspecific fine-tuning, and vocabulary extension. The results show that continual training improves language comprehension, as reflected in perplexity scores, and task-specific tuning generally enhances performance of downstream tasks. However, extending the vocabulary shows no substantial benefits. Additionally, while larger models improve task performance with few-shot tuning, multilingual models perform worse than their monolingual counterparts when adapted.

# 1 Introduction

The performance of proprietary generative large language models (LLMs) is better than open-source ones in most cases as this article is written (Xu et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2024), though there are efforts to develop open-source generative LLMs in terms of high performance and human ethics alignment (Touvron et al., 2023a; Jiang et al., 2023; Almazrouei et al., 2023).

The progress is more significant in the English language compared to other languages as the aforementioned open-source models are mostly trained by English corpora (Wang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023a). To make natural language processing technology more inclusive and accessible globally, research and development should be dedicated to the

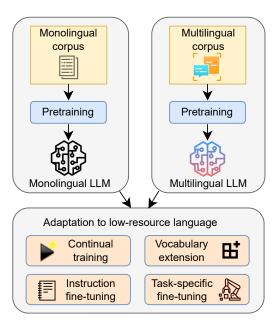


Figure 1: Adapting generative large language models for low-resource languages.

techniques that improve the performance of large language models in low-resource languages.

Monolingual (Yang et al., 2023b; Nagoudi et al., 2023; Pires et al., 2023; Uludoğan et al., 2024; Corrêa et al., 2024; Kesgin et al., 2024) and multilingual pretraining (Shliazhko et al., 2023; Scao et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2024b; Blevins et al., 2024) of generative LLMs are two main solutions for representing low-resource languages. However, monolingual pretraining is too costly due to hardware requirements for generative LLMs (Zhao et al., 2023a). On the other hand, multilingual LLMs have uneven performance across different languages mostly due to imbalanced training corpus (Zhang et al., 2023a; Qin et al., 2024). Our proposed solution is to adapt open-source generative LLMs for low-resource languages, illustrated in Figure 1.

In this regard, this study examines how to adapt open-source LLMs for low-resource languages in a systematic way. We focus on the benefits of using different methodologies, both individually and together, including continual training, supervised fine-tuning, and vocabulary extension, to adapt generative LLMs for low-resource languages.

For the sake of efficiency, we use Llama (Touvron et al., 2023a) in the experiments. We select the Turkish language as a low-resource language. We therefore refer to the model family used in this study as LlamaTurk. The model size and language selection are affordable when the number of experiments is considered in this study<sup>1</sup>. Also, Llama is trained mostly with English data, which can provide better investigation for adapting non-English languages. The Turkish language can be categorized under low-resource languages when training corpus of open-source generative LLMs are considered (Touvron et al., 2023a), yet the recipes given in this study can also be used for other low-resource languages since the methods are independent of language itself.

We further examine adaptation in terms of two more aspects: Model size and multilinguality. Model size is important for scalability and performance (Zhao et al., 2023a; Yang et al., 2023a). We provide an analysis of the adaptation of Llama-7b and 13b in this respect. Moreover, multilingual LLMs, such as BLOOM (Scao et al., 2022), Yi (AI et al., 2024), Aya (Üstün et al., 2024), and MaLA (Lin et al., 2024a), can provide an opportunity to adapt low-resource languages easier than English-dominant ones due to multilingual corpus and vocabulary. Since BLOOM and Yi do not involve Turkish in training and Aya is larger than MaLA in terms of model parameters, we use MaLA for an analysis of multilingual LLMs.

The main contributions of this study can be summarized as follows. We (i) analyze the adaptation of generative LLMs for low-resource language systematically to understand advantages and disadvantages in terms of continual training, instruction fine-tuning, task-specific fine-tuning, and vocabulary extension, (ii) investigate model size and multilingual models for adaptation, and (iii) publish all resources including source codes, datasets, and generative models reported in the experiments<sup>2</sup>.

### 2 Related Work

Generative LLMs are either proprietary or opensource. Although proprietary LLMs have currently outstanding performance (Sun et al., 2024), there are also efforts to develop competitive open-source models (Touvron et al., 2023a; Jiang et al., 2023).

The majority language of open-source generative LLMs is English. Their pretraining text corpus mostly includes text in the English language. For adapting LLMs pretrained with English data for low-resource languages, the following methods are examined. (i) The training phase is continued using non-English raw data to learn the language properties of the new language (Ebrahimi and Kann, 2021; Larcher et al., 2023; Csaki et al., 2023; Cui et al., 2024; Zhao et al., 2024; Acikgoz et al., 2024). (ii) The knowledge of large language model is transferred by supervised fine-tuning on a non-English instruction or downstream-task dataset (Santilli and Rodolà, 2023; Holmström and Doostmohammadi, 2023; Kohli et al., 2023; Csaki et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024; Garcia et al., 2024; Kuulmets et al., 2024). (iii) The vocabulary of large language model is extended to include non-English tokens (Cui et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024).

These methods are employed in different studies and languages, resulting in a lack of understanding advantages and disadvantages of each in a controlled experimental framework. Different from these studies, we provide a comprehensive experimental setup on the benefits of different methodologies for adapting generative LLMs for low-resource languages. Moreover, we focus on model size and multilingual models for adaptation.

# 3 Adaptation Methods

In this section, we explain the methods to adapt open-source generative LLMs for low-resource languages in detail.

### 3.1 Continual Training

Continual training is the process of extending the pretraining phase of LLMs by incorporating new data corpus (Gupta et al., 2023). The main objective is to minimize the loss on this new data while having relatively lower loss scores on previous data since continual training is open to catastrophic forgetting (French, 1999; Li and Lee, 2024). Continual training can therefore capture implicit language structures and text semantics.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Two NVIDIA RTX 2080Tis and four A4000s are employed in the experiments.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>https://github.com/metunlp/llamaturk

Previous studies (Qin et al., 2022) show that continual training improves the performance of domain adaptation for BERT-like encoder-based LLMs (Devlin et al., 2019). It is also used for adapting decoder-based generative LLMs to low-resource (Cui et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024), codemixed (Owen et al., 2024), non-Latin (Husain et al., 2024), and multilingual (Lin et al., 2024a) settings.

In this study, similar to previous studies, we employ Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) (Hu et al., 2021) for efficient training due to limited resources. We use a raw Wikipedia corpus<sup>3</sup> from November 2023 with a size of 534,988 Turkish articles.

We set the input sequence length as 512 tokens and the batch size as 128 instances. We use 32 gradient accumulation steps and 100 linear warmup steps. We train with a learning rate of 3e-4 for a single epoch. LoRA's R is set to 8, alpha to 16, and dropout to 0.05. Since continual training is costly and the study has a limited budget, we employ continual training for only Llama-7b<sup>4</sup> with 8-bit quantization. A single run of continual training takes approximately 206 hours with these settings using four NVIDIA RTX A4000s.

# 3.2 Instruction Fine-tuning

Instruction tuning is a supervised fine-tuning method that improves the ability of LLMs to follow instructions (Wei et al., 2021; Ouyang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2024). During training, the model is presented with many pairs of instructions and corresponding responses. The main objective is to teach the model to generate accurate responses based on the given instructions, rather than continuing from the previous text.

Different from previous instruction-tuning efforts, Stanford's Alpaca (Taori et al., 2023) is a leading model that shows major improvements by instruction fine-tuning an open-source generative LLM, namely (Touvron et al., 2023a). While Alpaca and similar models such as Vicuna (Chiang et al., 2023) have an instruction set constructed by prompting proprietary LLMs, other models such as Dolly (Conover et al., 2023) employ human labor for constructing a more reliable instruction set. The majority of these efforts are for the English language, yet there are instruction-tuned models to adapt English-supported LLMs for low-resource settings (Cui et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024; Azime et al., 2024).

In this study, we construct an instruction set by translating Alpaca's 52k instructions from English to Turkish by using Google Translate<sup>5</sup>. The quality of the translated set is inadequate for training since we observe many issues such as translation errors (e.g. missing letters and untranslated words), keyword translations (e.g. reserved keywords specific to programming languages should not be translated), and semantic mismatching (e.g. original instruction asks for a phrase with five words, but correct translation has less than five words). We therefore manually validate and correct the quality of the instruction set. We publish our instruction set<sup>6</sup>. We also provide a prompting example for instruction fine-tuning in Appendix A.1.

We employ instruction tuning for all LLMs examined in this study, namely Llama-7b<sup>7</sup>, Llama-13b<sup>8</sup>, and MaLA-10b<sup>9</sup>. We use 8-bit quantization with LoRA (resulting in training 12.4% of LLM parameters) and the same hyperparameters as in continual training, except that we use a smaller input sequence length (256 tokens) and train for two epochs. A single run of instruction tuning takes approximately 17.5 hours for Llama-7b with these settings using two NVIDIA RTX 2080Tis.

### 3.3 Task-Specific Fine-tuning

Task-specific tuning is a type of instruction tuning, where a fine-tuning set involves task-related instructions and ground-truth answers (Budzianowski and Vulić, 2019; Wang et al., 2024), rather than adapting a general-purpose instruction set. Task-specific tuning of generative LLMs is proven to be successful in different domains including text editing (Raheja et al., 2023), sentiment analysis (Inserte et al., 2024), and machine translation (Zheng et al., 2024). However, task-specific tuning have the potential of deteriorating the language capabilities of LLMs (Zhang et al., 2023b; Zhao et al., 2023b).

We follow instruction fine-tuning with a task-specific dataset for the downstream task of sentiment analysis. We choose sentiment analysis since it is a widely applicable task that represents a fundamental natural language processing capability (Liu, 2012). For this purpose, we create an instruction set for sentiment analysis. To create a balanced set, we downsample 2,500 instances for both neg-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>https://huggingface.co/datasets/wikipedia

<sup>4</sup>https://huggingface.co/huggyllama/llama-7b

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>https://translate.google.com

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>https://github.com/metunlp/llamaturk

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>https://huggingface.co/huggyllama/llama-7b

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>https://huggingface.co/huggyllama/llama-13b

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>https://huggingface.co/MaLA-LM/mala-500-10b-v1

	Data	Size	Tokens
Continual training	Wiki	535.0k	273.9m
Instruction tuning	Alpaca	52.0k	13.3m
Task-specific tuning	Sentiment	5.0k	1.3m
Vocabulary extension	BPE	28.6k	28.6k

Table 1: **Data statistics for adaptation methods**. The columns represent the type of data used (Data), the total number of instances (Size), and the total number of tokens (Tokens), respectively.

ative and positive sentiment classes, a total of 5k instances from the TRSAv1 dataset (Aydoğan and Kocaman, 2023). We then use a prompt manually crafted for the task of sentiment analysis<sup>10</sup>. We provide the prompt in Appendix A.2.

We employ task-specific tuning for all LLMs examined in this study. We use all models in 8-bit quantization. We also use LoRA (resulting in training 12.4% of LLM parameters) and the same hyperparameters as in instruction tuning. A single run of task-specific tuning takes approximately 2.5 hours for Llama-7b with these settings using two NVIDIA RTX 2080Tis.

# 3.4 Vocabulary Extension

Vocabulary embeddings are a major component of how LLMs understand and process natural language text by capturing semantic meanings and relationships among subwords called tokens (Toraman et al., 2023). Vocabulary tokens are determined by tokenization algorithms such as Word-Piece (Schuster and Nakajima, 2012) and Bype Pair Encoding (BPE) (Sennrich et al., 2016).

Llama has a vocabulary size of 32k tokens based on BPE tokenization (Touvron et al., 2023a). The majority of tokens in its vocabulary are English. The remaining small portion involves European languages with Latin and Cyrillic symbols.

In this study, we extend Llama's vocabulary by merging with low-resource language tokens. Specifically, we use the Turkish tokenizer with 28,600 tokens trained by BPE algorithm (Toraman et al., 2023) (We publish the tokenizer<sup>6</sup>).

Merging the original Llama tokenizer with low-resource vocabulary yields 59,773 tokens, meaning that 827 tokens are overlapping. This results in adding almost 228m new parameters to be trained into the model due to the extended vocabulary embeddings. We employ vocabulary extension with

above-mentioned methods when Llama-7b is used with LoRA due to limited resources.

### 3.5 Combinations

A summary of data statistics used for the adaptation methods is given in Table 1. In addition to a single examination of these methods, we also report the results of using them in combination to leverage better performance. We particularly employ the following combinations using Llama-7b with LoRA. Hyperparameters are set the same as explained in the previous subsections.

Continual Training with Instruction Fine-tuning: We first obtain a model by continual training using raw Wiki data as explained in Section 3.1. We then apply instruction fine-tuning as explained in Section 3.2. The motivation is to boost the potential of instruction tuning when the backbone model is trained with low-resource raw text beforehand.

Continual Training with Task-Specific Finetuning: With a similar motivation to the previous approach, we first obtain a model by continual training using raw Wiki data. We then apply taskspecific fine-tuning as explained in Section 3.3.

Continual Training with Instruction and Task-Specific Fine-tuning: The motivation is to boost the performance of task-specific tuning when the model is trained by both raw text and instruction-set in low-resource language beforehand. We first obtain a model by continual training using raw Wiki data. We then apply instruction tuning and task-specific fine-tuning respectively.

Instruction and Task-Specific Fine-tuning: This approach avoids continual training but examines using both instruction and then task-specific tuning respectively. The motivation is to boost the performance of task-specific tuning when the model is trained by only instruction-set in low-resource language beforehand.

Vocabulary Extension with Instruction Finetuning: We extend the vocabulary with lowresource language tokens as explained in Section 3.4. We then apply instruction tuning to understand the impact of vocabulary extension on instruction tuning.

Vocabulary Extension with Task-Specific Finetuning: With a similar motivation to the previous approach, we extend the vocabulary with lowresource language tokens and then apply taskspecific tuning to understand the impact of vocabulary extension on task-specific tuning.

Vocabulary Extension with Continual Training:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup>We run prompts from existing resources (Bach et al., 2022) but decided to use a manually crafted one by observing better performance in preliminary experiments.

	xquad question	xquad context	dbricks instruction	dbricks response	
Size	1.2k	1.2k	15.0k	15.0k	
Chars	74.7k	965.4k	1.1m	5.4m	
Tokens	37.4k	458.3k	549.8k	2.4m	

Table 2: **Dataset statistics for perplexity**. The xquad dataset has question and context subsets. The databricks (dbricks) dataset has instruction and response subsets.

We extend the vocabulary with low-resource language tokens and then apply continual training to understand its impact on continual training.

# 4 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate the performance of different methods to adapt generative large language models for low-resource language. We particularly conduct both intrinsic and extrinsic evaluations in order to understand the performance of both language comprehension and downstream tasks. We also run benchmark LLM evaluation by using appropriate datasets. This section further involves the results of using varying model sizes and applying multilingual models for the adaptation.

### 4.1 Intrinsic Evaluation

Intrinsic evaluation of generative LLMs involves a perplexity score that represents how well a language model can predict the next word in a sequence of text (Jurafsky and Martin, 2009):

perplexity = 
$$2^{-\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\log_2 P(w_i|w_1,...,w_{i-1})}$$
 (1)

where N is the total number of words and  $P(w_i|w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_{i-1})$  is the probability assigned by the model to the i-th word given the preceding text context.

A lower perplexity score indicates that language model is better able to predict the next word, and thus has a better understanding of the language.

We calculate the perplexity scores on different data collections than the ones used in Section 3. Specifically, we use the Turkish question and context subsets of xquad (Artetxe et al., 2019), and the instruction and response subsets of databricks-dolly-15k (Conover et al., 2023) using a Turkish translated version<sup>11</sup>. The detailed statistics of the data used for calculating perplexity scores are given in Table 2. The reason for

reporting the perplexity scores for different subsets is that the characteristics of each subset can be helpful to understand the applied method's impact on the adaptation. For instance, xquad-question has instances of questions while xquad-context has longer paragraphs of task descriptions. Similarly, databricks-instruction has instruction-type questions, while databricks-response has answers or responses to those questions.

In Table 3, we provide the perplexity scores. The main observations can be summarized as follows.

# Continual training reduces perplexity scores.

In all cases, perplexity scores are improved by continual training (LlamaTurk-7b-c). The lowest perplexity scores are also obtained by continual training in the majority of cases (three of four data collections). A possible reason is that the model could gradually accumulate language knowledge as it is exposed to more raw text. This incremental learning process can allow the model to become more robust and adaptable.

Instruction tuning improves perplexity but not task-specific tuning. Perplexity scores are improved by instruction tuning (LlamaTurk-7b-i). The only exception is xquad-context, yer instruction tuning has still a very close perplexity score to the original Llama-7b. Our instruction-tuning set is based on Alpaca, which has general-purpose instructions and responses. On the other hand, task-specific tuning (LlamaTurk-7b-t) deteriorates perplexity scores in all cases. We argue that, by training on task-specific instructions, generative LLMs might become overly specialized and optimized for those specific instructions, rather than maintaining a more general understanding of language.

Combinations fail in most cases but depends on data types. The combinations that include task-specific tuning have poor perplexity scores. On the other hand, continual training and instruction tuning improve perplexity. We therefore expect to have a better performance by using them together (LlamaTurk-7b-c-i) but perplexity scores get worse than the case when they are applied alone. However, when perplexity is measured on an instruction set (databricks-instruction), continual training together with instruction tuning has the lowest perplexity score. This observation can support that generative LLMs adapt to different data types, and one should consider target data type before selecting adaptation method.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>https://huggingface.co/datasets/atasoglu/databricks-dolly-15k-tr

Model	Continual	Instruction Tuning	Task Tuning	Vocabulary Extension	Data			
	Continual Training				xquad	xquad	dbricks	dbricks
					question	context	instruction	response
Llama-7b					6.6916	1.5487	9.5845	9.0259
LlamaTurk-7b-c	✓				5.5088	1.5064	8.4364	7.0924
LlamaTurk-7b-i		✓			6.3260	1.5674	8.3131	7.9351
LlamaTurk-7b-t			✓		9.2267	1.7850	13.7173	13.2289
LlamaTurk-7b-c-i	✓	✓			7.0676	1.5978	8.2488	9.4570
LlamaTurk-7b-i-t		✓	✓		9.0380	1.8194	13.0113	11.8501
LlamaTurk-7b-c-t	✓		$\checkmark$		7.7305	1.7181	12.5591	10.7188
LlamaTurk-7b-c-i-t	✓	✓	✓		8.0855	1.6666	11.5441	10.6943
LlamaTurk-7b-v-i		✓		✓	18.6241	3.8897	22.1750	24.3312
LlamaTurk-7b-v-t			✓	✓	28.7707	5.8666	37.6394	43.7040
LlamaTurk-7b-v-c	✓			✓	17.3135	3.6807	23.9212	23.2612

Table 3: **Perplexity scores**. The models have different adaptation methods: Continual Training (c), Instruction Tuning (i), Task-specific Tuning (t), and Vocabulary Extension (v). The xquad dataset has question and context subsets. The databricks (dbricks) dataset has instruction and response subsets. The best (lowest) perplexity scores for each dataset are given in bold.

Vocabulary extension has poor perplexity. In all models where vocabulary extension is applied (Llama-7b-v), perplexity scores get higher than the original (Llama-7b). We argue that without sufficient training data and fine-tuning, the model can struggle to effectively incorporate the new vocabulary into its internal representations and learning processes. Similarly, (Zhao et al., 2024) observes negative impact of vocabulary extension, and also suggests that vocabulary extension might not be a suitable choice for small-scale continual training such as in our continual training with 0.2 billion tokens of the training data. Another reason could be the number of additional tokens in vocabulary (28k tokens), merged with the original tokenizer (32k tokens). More experimentation is needed to understand if a different number of new tokens in vocabulary works better in adaptation (Csaki et al., 2023).

### 4.2 Extrinsic Evaluation

Generative LLMs employ human evaluations as an evaluation method to align with human judgments (Ouyang et al., 2022). However, human-based evaluation is labor-intensive, making it costly and less feasible for low-resource languages. On the other hand, LLM evaluation benchmarks offer reliable evaluation for downstream NLP tasks such as GLUE (Wang et al., 2018) and SuperGLUE (Wang et al., 2019). Similarly, there are evaluation frameworks and tools such as LM Evaluation Harness (Gao et al., 2023) and MLflow<sup>12</sup>. However, they mostly support English benchmark datasets. Although multilingual datasets are published by

Model	0-shot	1-shot	2-shot	3-shot
Llama-7b	0.00	0.50	0.53	0.50
LlamaTurk-7b-c	0.00	0.47	0.54	0.51
LlamaTurk-7b-i	0.06	0.48	0.48	0.56
LlamaTurk-7b-t	0.90	0.840	0.61	0.78
LlamaTurk-7b-c-i	0.10	0.52	0.50	0.54
LlamaTurk-7b-i-t	0.830	0.90	0.93	0.89
LlamaTurk-7b-c-t	0.82	0.60	0.62	0.860
LlamaTurk-7b-c-i-t	0.62	0.52	0.56	0.51
LlamaTurk-7b-v-i	0.35	0.44	0.49	0.53
LlamaTurk-7b-v-t	0.44	0.50	0.53	0.53

Table 4: Accuracy scores on sentiment analysis. The darker cell color gets, the better task performance. The symbol "•" indicates statistically significant difference at a 95% interval in pairwise comparisons between the highest performing method and others (except with "o").

some benchmarks, either they do not include the language used in this study, or the data size is small for task-specific tuning. We therefore craft an evaluation on sentiment analysis in this subsection<sup>13</sup>.

For this purpose, we extract 100 instances (50 instances for both positive and negative classes) from the Turkish sentiment analysis dataset used in task-specific tuning (Aydoğan and Kocaman, 2023). We avoid selecting from 5k instances used in task-specific tuning explained in Section 3.3. Since inference is time costly, we use a small subset of this dataset for the evaluation. However, we take the average of five different runs by using random seeds. We thereby validate statistically significant differences in the average performances with the two-tailed paired t-test at a 95% interval.

We also craft inference prompts for different scenarios including zero-shot to few-shot prompts. We check the generated text if it equals to positive or

<sup>12</sup>https://github.com/mlflow/mlflow

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>We also provide a benchmark evaluation for available datasets from LLM benchmarks in Section 4.3.

Model	XCOPA				Belebele			
Model	0-shot	1-shot	2-shot	3-shot	0-shot	1-shot	2-shot	3-shot
Llama-7b	0.53	0.51	0.48	0.52	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.24
LlamaTurk-7b-i	0.58	0.51	0.50	0.55	0.24	0.27	0.25	0.28
LlamaTurk-7b-c-i	0.52	0.52	0.53	0.50	0.24	0.25	0.23	0.27
LlamaTurk-7b-v-i	0.55	0.53	0.54	0.54	0.24	0.27	0.23	0.28

Table 5: Accuracy scores on benchmark datasets. The highest scores for each dataset are given in bold.

negative, and calculate the accuracy score accordingly. We measure accuracy since the inference dataset is fully balanced. We provide the inference prompts in Appendix A.3.

During inference, we load the models with 8-bit quantization due to limited hardware. Generation configuration involves the following hyperparameters. The temperature is set to 0.2. Beam search is applied with four beams, and top-p is set to 0.75. A single run of inference takes approximately from six hours (zero-shot) to eight hours (3-shot) for Llama-7b with these settings using two NVIDIA RTX 2080Tis. In Table 4, we provide the accuracy scores for all methods.

Task-specific tuning improves the performance of downstream task. We find that task-specific tuning cannot help improve perplexity scores previously. However, our extrinsic evaluation shows that task-specific tuning improves the performance of sentiment analysis. Specifically, we observe that task-specific tuned model (LllamaTurk-7b-t) is good at zero-shot inference, suggesting that task-specific instructions provide sufficient knowledge for zero-shot evaluation.

Instruction tuning boosts the performance of downstream task when used together with task-specific tuning. When instruction tuning is employed alone, it has no significant impact on the performance of downstream task. However, the highest accuracy is obtained when instruction and task-specific tuning are together employed. Moreover, LllamaTurk-7b-i-t has a better few-shot performance compared to other methods including task-specific tuning.

Continual training can help task-tuning. When continual training is employed alone (LllamaTurk-7b-c), we observe no significant improvement in the performance of downstream task. However, the performance is promising when it is used together with task-specific tuning (LllamaTurk-7b-c-t). This suggests further examination of continual training with task-specific tuning in different downstream tasks and datasets.

**Vocabulary extension has poor downstream performance.** Similar to the perplexity experiments, we observe that vocabulary extension has no improvement on the performance of downstream task.

### 4.3 Benchmark Evaluation

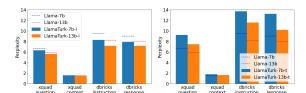
In this subsection, we report the performance results on benchmark datasets. Since LLM evaluation benchmarks mostly include English datasets, we examine multilingual datasets in available LLM benchmarks. For this purpose, we use the Turkish subsets of XCOPA (Ponti et al., 2020) and Belebele (Bandarkar et al., 2023) datasets provided by LM Evaluation Harness (Gao et al., 2023). XCOPA is a benchmark to evaluate the ability of machine learning models to transfer commonsense reasoning. Belebele is a multiple-choice machine reading comprehension dataset, and each question has four multiple-choice. We modify the default prompts given in LM Evaluation Harness to align with our instruction prompting. We provide the inference prompts in Appendix A.4 and A.5.

Since the dataset sizes are small, we are not able to apply task-specific tuning in these benchmark datasets. Specifically, we observe almost no change in performance scores when XCOPA's 600 and Belebele's 900 instances are fine-tuned for the Turkish language, while the performance is improved in Section 4.2 with 5k instances. We thereby report the results for instruction tuning and related methods. Table 5 reports the accuracy scores on the XCOPA and Belebele datasets.

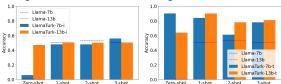
The results show that instruction tuning (LlamaTurk-7b-i) improves the performance of downstream task in both datasets. However, continual training and vocabulary extension have no significant benefits. The results thereby align with the results reported in Section 4.2.

### 4.4 Model Size

We provide an analysis of the impact of model size on adapting generative LLMs. For this purpose, we employ Llama models with 7b and 13b parameters. Figure 2 shows a histogram depicting the compari-



(a) Perplexity of instruction (b) Perplexity of task-specific tuning (lower is better) tuning (lower is better)



(c) Accuracy of instruction (d) Accuracy of task-specific tuning (higher is better) tuning (higher is better)

Figure 2: Model size comparison for adaptation.

son between the fine-tuned models for instruction tuning (LlamaTurk-7b-i and LlamaTurk-13b-i) and task-specific tuning (LlamaTurk-7b-t and LlamaTurk-13b-t).

**Perplexity is improved by adapting a larger model.** In both cases of applying instruction or task-specific tuning, we find that LlamaTurk-13b improves perplexity scores in all cases. However, task-specific tuning (LlamaTurk-13b-t) is still outperformed by the original Llama model Llama-13b in most cases.

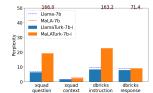
# Task performance is improved by adapting a larger model when few-shot tuning is applied.

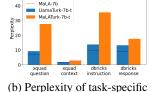
We find that LlamaTurk-13b improves the performance of downstream task when it is applied with task-specific tuning and few-shot evaluation. On the other hand, the adaptation of a larger model with instruction tuning has no significant impact on the performance of downstream task.

### 4.5 Multilingual Models

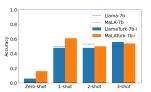
We also provide an analysis for the impact of multilingual generative LLMs on adapting generative LLMs. For this purpose, we fine-tune a multilingual model, MaLA-500 (Lin et al., 2024b). MaLA is developed to cover 534 languages by using vocabulary extension and continual training on Llama2 (Touvron et al., 2023b). Analyzing a multilingual LLM with an enriched vocabulary can provide more insights into LLM adaptation for low-resource languages.

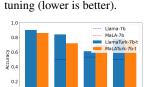
Figure 3 shows a histogram depicting the comparison between the fine-tuned models for instruction tuning (LlamaTurk-7b-i and





(a) Perplexity of instruction tuning (lower is better).





(c) Accuracy of instruction tuning (higher is better).

(d) Accuracy of task-specific tuning (higher is better).

Figure 3: Multilingual comparison for adaptation.

MaLATurk-7b-i) and task-specific tuning (LlamaTurk-7b-t and MaLATurk-7b-t).

Adapting multilingual LLM has no significant improvements. Perplexity and accuracy scores of the original MaLA-7b model are improved by adapting MaLATurk-7b in both instruction and taskspecific tuning. However, the perplexity of adapting a monolingual model LlamaTurk-7b is still better than adapting a multilingual model in all cases. Similarly, monolingual adaptation has better accuracy scores of task-specific tuning in most cases. The only benefit of adapting multilingual LLM is observed when instruction tuning is applied. Note that the results are obtained under the assumption that the number of pretraining data instances and their quality differ between Llama and MaLA. Further investigations are needed to fully understand the comparison between monolingual and multilingual setups for adaptation.

### 5 Conclusion

This study examines different methods for adapting English-dominant generative large language models to low-resource languages.

The results show that continual training with raw text can improve perplexity. Vocabulary extension has no significant impact on adaptation performance under a small scale of continual training set. Another factor can be 8-bit quantization with LoRA that trains a subset of model weights for new vocabulary token embeddings (Dobler and de Melo, 2023).

We also find that the adaptation with generalpurpose instruction tuning has promising results in both perplexity and accuracy scores, while downstream task performance can be boosted by taskspecific tuning. Furthermore, adapting a larger model with 13b parameters improves task performance with few-shot tuning. However, we observe no significant improvements by adapting a multilingual model.

In future work, we plan to adapt other opensource language models such as Llama2 (Touvron et al., 2023b) and Gemini (Team et al., 2024) to generalize our results to different models. Other adaptation methods can also be studied such as modification of model architecture since different model layers and tokenization algorithms might change the outcomes.

### 6 Limitations

This study employs a particular family of generative large language models (Llama and MaLA) for adapting open-source generative monolingual and multilingual LLMs to a low-resource language using the 8-bit quantization with LoRA. Other generative models and non-quantization might have different results in the experiments. Similarly, we use Turkish language for the target of adaptation. Other languages might have different experimental results depending on the tuning and inference datasets with prompt examples. We therefore acknowledge the effect of the instruction set and prompting templates in the results.

Continual training is done by using Wikipedia in this study. However, other data types can be used such as comprehensive multilingual datasets (Nguyen et al., 2024) and filtering methods can also be applied for training corpus. Also, sequence length is limited up to 512 tokens in this study for the sake of efficiency but Llama supports up to 2048 tokens. This might result in losing some information specifically in continual training where longer Wikipedia articles are used compared to the prompts in instruction and task-specific sets.

The evaluation sets used for calculating perplexity scores involve questions, instructions, and responses. Evaluation results might differ with other raw data such as Common Crawl. Benchmark evaluation is limited to extracting Turkish subsets from multilingual datasets in this study due to the unavailability of benchmark datasets for the target language<sup>14</sup>.

Moreover, we would like to emphasize the limited hardware resources the experiments were conducted, which restricts using a variety of models including larger sizes (higher than 13b) and different model types (rather than Llama), and larger evaluation sets.

### 7 Ethical Concerns

This study employs a low-resource language, Turkish, and our findings can guide to other researchers studying low-resource languages. We also provide performance evaluations that can be considered for deploying generative LLMs in similar tasks.

To provide transparency, we explain all details regarding text collections used in pretraining and fine-tuning our generative language models. Moreover, we report the details of the models and configurations with hyperparameters.

Since the training corpus of generative LLMs involves a huge amount of raw text from different resources including the world wide web, it is inevitable to observe a risk of cultural and ethical bias towards different individuals and communities in the generated text of the published models in this study (Kasneci et al., 2023; Cetinkaya et al., 2024). Moreover, training texts are contaminated with more problematic biases and polluted with a large amount of synthetic text generated by LLMs (Denning and Rousse, 2024). Possible bias can be removed by filtering the corpus, however, we leave the study of such filtering to future work since it would require a dedicated effort but the scope of this study is to compare the adaptation methods of generative LLMs for low-resource languages.

Lastly, we estimate the carbon footprint of our study based on the energy usage of GPUs. We consider execution time in hours and electrical energy consumption in kWh, and assume that power consumption during training is equal to the maximum power drain of GPUs by operating at maximum power utilization (0.25 MW for 2080Ti, and 0.14 MW for A4000). We assume that 1 MWh is equivalent to 0.439 ton CO2eq<sup>15</sup>. Our estimation ignores the carbon footprint of CPU utilization and the manufacturing costs of the hardware.

Social carbon cost is approximately 50.64, 3.84, and 0.55 kg CO2eq for a single run of continual training, instruction tuning, and task-specific tuning, respectively.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>After this study was submitted, a new Turkish benchmark was published (Yüksel et al., 2024).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>https://enerji.gov.tr/evced-cevre-ve-iklim-elektrikuretim-tuketim-emisyon-faktorleri

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# A Appendix

### **A.1 Instruction Fine-tuning Prompt**

The prompt used in instruction tuning is given as follows (translated prompt is given in parenthesis).

Aşağıda, daha geniş bir bağlam sağlayan girdiyle birlikte bir görevi açıklayan talimat bulunmaktadır. Talimatı yeterince sağlayan bir çıktı yaz.

(Below is an instruction explaining a task with input that provides more context. Write an output that satisfies the instruction)

```
### Talimat (Instruction):
[INSTRUCTION]

### Girdi (Input):
[INPUT]

### Çıktı (Output):
[OUTPUT]
```

# A.2 Task-Specific Fine-tuning Prompt

The prompt used in task-specific (sentiment analysis) fine-tuning is given as follows (translated prompt is given in parenthesis).

Aşağıda bir görevi açıklayan talimat bulunmaktadır. Talimatı yeterince

```
sağlayan bir çıktı yaz.
(Below are instructions describing a task.
Write an output that satisfying
the instruction)
```

### ### Talimat:

Lütfen verilen yorumun olumlu ya da olumsuz olduğunu çıktı olarak belirtin. (Please indicate whether the given comment is positive or negative.)

```
### Yorum (Comment):
[INPUT]
### Çıktı (Output):
FOUTPUT]
```

### A.3 Task-Specific Inference Prompt

For sentiment analysis, the prompt used in zeroshot inference is the same as the prompt used for task-specific fine-tuning given in A.2. Few-shot prompting (one-shot for example) is given as follows (translated prompt is given in parenthesis).

Aşağıda bir görevi açıklayan talimat bulunmaktadır. Talimatı yeterince sağlayan bir çıktı yaz.
(Below are instructions describing a task. Write an output that satisfies the instruction)
### Talimat (Instruction):
Lütfen verilen yorumun olumlu ya da olumsuz olduğunu çıktı olarak belirtin.
(Please indicate whether the given comment is positive or negative.)

### Yorum (Comment):
cok güzel, sağlıklı, temiz, ferah
(very beautiful, healthy, clean,
spacious)

```
### Çıktı (Output):
olumlu
(positive)
```

### Talimat (Instruction):
Lütfen verilen yorumun olumlu ya da
olumsuz olduğunu çıktı olarak belirtin.
(Please indicate whether the given
comment is positive or negative.)

```
### Yorum (Comment):
```

### [INPUT]

```
### Ç1kt1 (Output):
[OUTPUT]
```

# **A.4** XCOPA Inference Prompt

Few-shot prompting (one-shot for example) is given as follows (translated prompt is given in parenthesis).

Aşağıda bir görevi açıklayan talimat bulunmaktadır. Talimatı yeterince sağlayan bir çıktı yaz. (Below are instructions describing a task. Write an output that satisfies the instruction)

### Talimat (Instruction):
Verilen cümlenin sebebi nedir?
(What is the reason for the given
sentence?)
Kadın kötü bir ruh halindeydi bu yüzden
(The woman was in a bad mood so)

### Girdi (Input):
arkadaşıyla biraz konuştu.
(she talked to her friend for a while.)
arkadaşına onu yalnız bırakmasını söyledi.
(she told her friend to leave her alone.)

### Çıktı (Output):

Kadın kötü bir ruh halindeydi bu yüzden arkadaşına onu yalnız bırakmasını söyledi. (The woman was in a bad mood so she told her friend to leave her alone.)

Aşağıda bir görevi açıklayan talimat bulunmaktadır. Talimatı yeterince sağlayan bir çıktı yaz. (Below are instructions describing a task. Write an output that satisfies the instruction)

### Talimat (Instruction):
Verilen cümlenin sebebi nedir?
(What is the reason for the given sentence?)
[INPUT]

### Girdi (Input):
[OPTION1]
[OPTION2]

### Çıktı (Output):
Ürün balonlu naylonla paketlenmişti
bu yüzden [OUTPUT]
(The product was packaged with
bubble wrap so [OUTPUT])

### **A.5** Belebele Inference Prompt

Few-shot prompting (one-shot for example) is given as follows (translated prompt is given in parenthesis).

Aşağıda bir görevi açıklayan talimat bulunmaktadır. Talimatı yeterince sağlayan bir çıktı yaz. (Below are instructions describing a task. Write an output that satisfies the instruction)

### Talimat (Instruction):

Tüm notalara doğru şekilde basmaya devam ederken elinizin mümkün olduğu kadar rahat olduğundan emin olun - aynı zamanda parmaklarınızla fazladan hareketler yapmamaya çalışın. Bu şekilde kendinizi olabildiğince az yormuş olacaksınız. Unutmayın ki piyanoda olduğu gibi daha fazla ses için tuşlara çok güçlü vurmanıza gerek yoktur. Akordeon üzerinde, ekstra hacim elde etmek için körüğü daha fazla basınç veya hızda kullanırsınız. Akordeonu çalarken aşağıdakilerden hangisi sesin yükselmesini sağlar? (Make sure your hand is as relaxed as possible while still hitting all the notes correctly - at the same time, try not to make extra movements with your fingers. This way, you will tire yourself as little as possible. Remember that you don't need to hit the keys too hard to get more sound, like on the piano. On the accordion, you use the bellows with more pressure or speed to get extra volume. Which of the following makes the sound rise when playing the accordion?)

### Girdi (Input):

A: Daha fazla hız (more speed)B: Daha fazla güç (more power)C: Daha az basınç (less pressure)

D: Daha az parmak hareketi (less finger movement)

### Çıktı (Output):
A

Aşağıda bir görevi açıklayan talimat bulunmaktadır. Talimatı yeterince sağlayan bir çıktı yaz. (Below are instructions describing a task. Write an output that satisfies the instruction)

### Talimat (Instruction):

Tüm notalara doğru şekilde basmaya
devam ederken elinizin mümkün olduğu
kadar rahat olduğundan emin olun aynı zamanda parmaklarınızla fazladan
hareketler yapmamaya çalışın. ...
Akordeonu çalarken aşağıdakilerden
hangisi sesin yükselmesini sağlar?
(Make sure your hand is as relaxed as
possible while still hitting all the
notes correctly - at the same time,
try not to make extra movements with
your fingers. ... Which of the
following makes the sound rise
when playing the accordion?)

### Girdi (Input):
[OPTION1]
[OPTION2]
[OPTION3]
[OPTION4]

### Ç1kt1 (Output):
[OUTPUT]