

How Well do LLMs know Finno-Ugric Languages? A Systematic Assessment

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Abstract

We present a systematic evaluation of multilingual capabilities of open large language models (LLMs), specifically focusing on five Finno-Ugric (FiU) languages. Our investigation covers multiple prompting strategies across several benchmarks and reveals that Llama 2 7B and Llama 2 13B perform weakly on most FiU languages. In contrast, Llama 3.1 models show impressive improvements, even for extremely low-resource languages such as Võro and Komi, indicating successful cross-lingual knowledge transfer inside the models. Finally, we show that stronger base models outperform weaker, language-adapted models, thus emphasizing the importance of the choice of the base model for successful language adaptation.

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) have recently made significant advances in multilingual settings. For instance, GPT-4 achieves 80.9% accuracy for Latvian and 76.5% for Icelandic on the 3-shot MMLU benchmark (OpenAI et al., 2024). For some time, strong multilingual capabilities were mainly limited to proprietary models, such as ChatGPT¹ and Claude², whose weights, training details, and inference processes are kept private. These models outperformed open LLMs³ like Llama 2 models (Touvron et al., 2023), on non-English tasks. However, open-weight LLMs have recently begun to close this gap (Dubey et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2024), even though the officially

supported languages of these models remain limited and the primary focus is on those with significantly more data available than for Finno-Ugric (FiU) languages.

On the other hand, it has been observed that even models optimized solely for English, such as the Llama 2 family models (Touvron et al., 2023), demonstrate some understanding of a wide range of languages beyond their intended use (Holtermann et al., 2024). In experiments conducted by Holtermann et al. (2024), the Llama 2 7B chat model correctly answered 14% and 40% of basic open-ended questions in Estonian and Finnish, respectively, even though only 0.03% of the Llama 2 training data was in Finnish and less than 0.005% in Estonian (Touvron et al., 2023).

This work evaluates the multilingual capabilities of open LLMs on five FiU languages: Finnish, Estonian, Livonian, Võro, and Komi. Among these, Finnish and Estonian are the most well-resourced, making it easier to adapt existing LLMs for these languages through continued pretraining (Kuulmets et al., 2024; Luukkonen et al., 2023). In contrast, Võro, Livonian, and Komi are extremely low-resource languages, making language-specific adaptation considerably more challenging.

The aim of this work is to clarify the capabilities of open LLMs in understanding FiU languages. While it is evident that open LLMs can understand these languages to some degree (Holtermann et al., 2024), their proficiency and comparative performance across models remain largely unexplored. We focus on Llama models, which have demonstrated state-of-the-art performance and competitiveness with proprietary models (Dubey et al., 2024; Touvron et al., 2023) and have been widely used in non-English adaption (Kuulmets et al., 2024; Etxaniz et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2024; Fujii et al., 2024; Dima et al., 2024; Basile et al., 2023). Another reason for focusing on Llama

¹<https://openai.com/index/chatgpt/>

²<https://www.anthropic.com/claude>

³Models that have publicly accessible weights available for use, modification, and research.

models is that the newer Llama 3.1 models are natively multilingual, potentially improving performance on unsupported languages as well. For further insights, we compare Llama models with Mistral NeMo (Jiang et al., 2024), another natively multilingual open model shown to be competitive with Llama 3.1 model of the same size.

We evaluate only base models rather than chat-optimized models, as most knowledge is acquired during pretraining (Zhou et al., 2023; Lin et al., 2023). In other words, a stronger base model offers greater potential for developing a strong chat model. Consequently, the performance of base models on different FiU languages can serve as a relative estimate of the chat model’s quality.

The evaluation is conducted using several existing benchmarks that include one or more Finno-Ugric languages. We examine both the zero-shot and few-shot capabilities of these models. Additionally, we explore whether chain-of-thought prompting, which involves first translating the input to English, could improve results on Finno-Ugric languages. In summary, we seek to answer the following research questions:

1. How well can open LLMs solve tasks in Finno-Ugric languages?
2. What is the expected improvement from few-shot prompting over zero-shot prompting in solving tasks in Finno-Ugric languages?
3. Can chain-of-thought prompting, where the model first translates the input into English, improve the performance of open LLMs on Finno-Ugric languages?

2 Related Work

2.1 Multilingual LLMs

While state-of-the-art LLMs are typically trained on English-centric data, they exhibit some multilingual capabilities (Brown et al., 2020; Holtermann et al., 2024), even for languages with minimal representation in the training data (Holtermann et al., 2024; Touvron et al., 2023). This suggests that knowledge transfer from high-resource languages to low-resource languages must occur at least to some extent within the model. These multilingual capabilities can be further enhanced through continued pretraining in the target languages, even with just a few billion tokens of data (Pires et al., 2023; Cui et al., 2024; Kuulmets et al., 2024; Etxaniz et al., 2024).

Recent open LLMs such as Llama 3.1 (Dubey et al., 2024), Mistral NeMo (Jiang et al., 2024), and Tower (Alves et al., 2024) are specifically optimized for multilingual performance. For example, Llama 3.1 models officially support seven non-English languages (Dubey et al., 2024), Mistral NeMo is particularly strong in ten languages other than English (Jiang et al., 2024), and Tower is trained on a multilingual dataset consisting of ten languages, including English. According to Dubey et al. (2024), the strong performance in non-English languages is achieved by increasing the proportion of multilingual data in the pretraining dataset and incorporating high-quality target language instructions into the instruction-tuning data.

However, neither Mistral NeMo nor Llama 3.1 models officially support Finno-Ugric languages. The amount of Finno-Ugric data in their pretraining corpora is unknown but is likely very limited. For example, Purason et al. (2024) presented experiments on adapting LLMs to FiU languages, but gathered only 2.6 million characters of pretraining data for Livonian, 14 million for Võro, and 579 million for Komi.

2.2 In-context Learning

In-context learning (ICL) (Brown et al., 2020) is a method where a pretrained language model *learns* to generate the desired output for a given task from the context of the prompt, without any gradient updates. One of the most common applications of ICL is few-shot prompting, where a few example question-answer pairs are provided in the prompt to guide the model in solving the task.

2.2.1 Chain-of-thought Prompting

Chain-of-thought (CoT) prompting (Wei et al., 2023) is a prompting technique that improves upon few-shot prompting. With CoT, the example demonstrations provided in the prompt include a series of intermediate reasoning steps that conclude with an answer as opposed to being just question-and-answer pairs. While initially proposed to improve English reasoning in LLMs, Shi et al. (2022) showed that CoT prompting turns English-centric PaLM and GPT-3 into multilingual reasoners, achieving strong results even in languages whose proportion in the training data is as small as 0.01%. Notably, they achieve an accuracy of 91% on the Estonian subset of the multilingual commonsense reasoning benchmark XCOPA

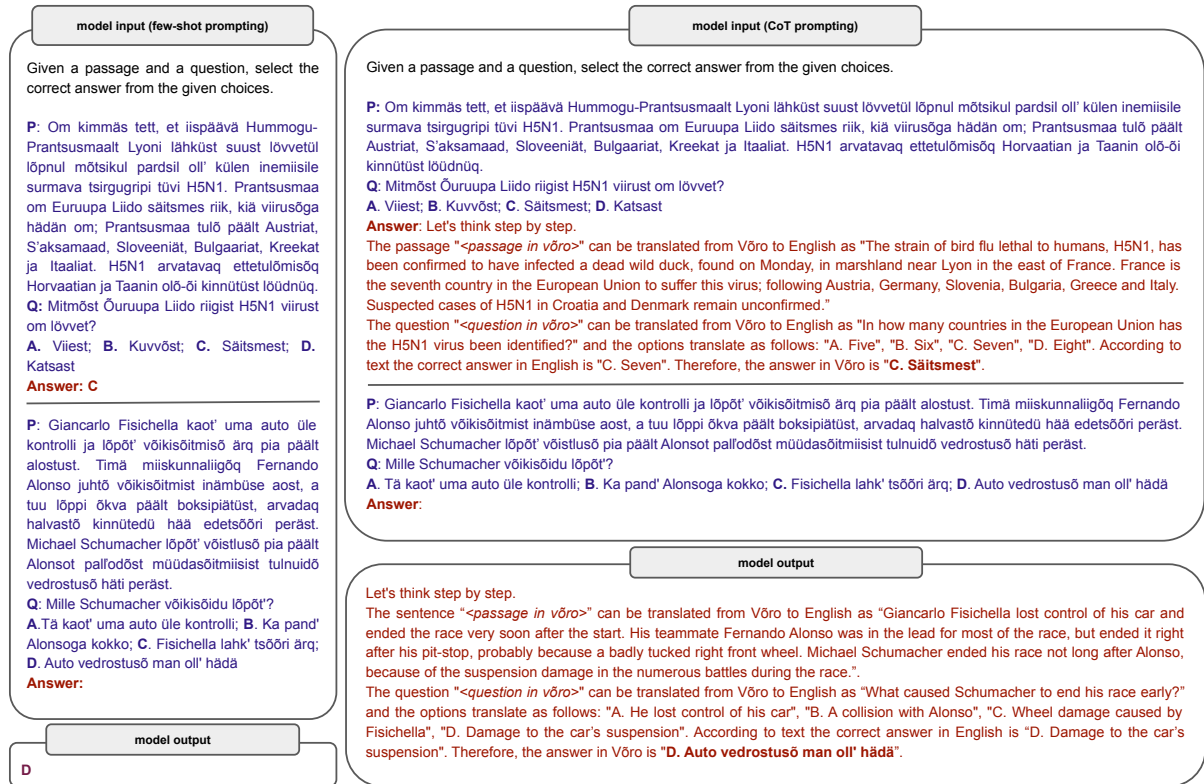


Figure 1: Model input and expected output for few-shot prompting (left) and for CoT prompting where the intermediate step involves translating the input from the source language (Võro) to English. The example is taken from the Belebele benchmark.

(Ponti et al., 2020) (average accuracy 89.9%) with PaLM. Their observation that there is no strong correlation between performance and language frequency in the training corpora leads them to suggest that, to some extent, language models can transfer knowledge from high-resource to low-resource languages, and that this ability is mainly facilitated by scale.

2.3 English as Pivot Improves Multilingual Capabilities of LLMs

One of the findings of Shi et al. (2022) is that CoT prompting with intermediate reasoning steps in English outperforms native CoT prompting with steps in the target language. Huang et al. (2023) show that conversational models such as ChatGPT and Llama-2 also benefit from using English as a pivot language – asking the model to first retell the request in English improves performance on non-English tasks. Notably, this strategy eliminates the need for few-shot examples, meaning that the ability to translate between English and the target language must have been learned during (pre)training rather than from parallel exam-

ples provided in the context. Zhang et al. (2024) instruction-tune pretrained LLMs to first process instructions in the pivot language English and then produce responses in the target language.

The phenomenon has been explicitly studied by Zhang et al. (2023), who show that ChatGPT behaves similarly to subordinate bilinguals whose representation of knowledge is strongly biased toward English and, as a consequence, translates all non-English inputs to English. Wendler et al. (2024) investigate the latent representations of token embeddings of LLaMA 2 and find that in the middle layers, these are closer to English tokens, and only in the final layers shift towards target language tokens. They interpret this result as the "concept space" being closer to English.

3 Datasets

The selection of benchmark tasks is determined by the availability of datasets for our target languages. In total, we evaluate the models on five tasks using nine datasets. These datasets primarily originate from cross-lingual benchmarks that include multiple languages. For our experiments, we

| task | datasets | est | fin | vro | kpv | liv |
|-----------------------|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| machine translation | FLORES-200 (NLLB Team, 2022), SMUGRI-FLORES (Yankovskaya et al., 2023) | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| multiple choice QA | Belebele (Bandarkar et al., 2024), Belebele-smugri (Purason et al., 2024) | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| text classification | SIB-200 (Adelani et al., 2024), SIB-smugri (Purason et al., 2024) | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| extractive QA | EstQA (Käver, 2021), TyDiQA (Clark et al., 2020) | ✓ | ✓ | | | |
| commonsense reasoning | XCOPA (Ponti et al., 2020) | ✓ | | | | |

Table 1: Tasks and datasets used for benchmarking the models.

use only the subsets that correspond to the selected target languages. A summary of the datasets, tasks and their language coverage is provided in Table 1.

Machine Translation (MT) Our evaluation includes translation tasks from low-resource FiU languages to English. For this purpose, we use the FLORES-200 benchmark (NLLB Team, 2022), which includes Estonian and Finnish, and the FLORES-SMUGRI dataset (Yankovskaya et al., 2023), which translates the first 250 sentences from FLORES-200 to ten low-resource FiU languages, including Komi, Võro, and Livonian. To ensure consistency, we use only the first 250 sentences of FLORES-200 for Estonian and Finnish as well.

Multiple choice QA This task involves selecting the correct answer from a set of options, given a passage, a question, and possible answer choices. We use the Belebele dataset (Bandarkar et al., 2024), which augments paragraphs from the FLORES-200 benchmark with corresponding questions and answer choices. Among its 122 languages, Belebele includes Estonian and Finnish. Purason et al. (2024) further extend the dataset to cover Võro, Livonian, and Komi, resulting in a total of 127 examples per language. For consistency, we use the same number of examples for Estonian and Finnish.

Topic classification We use the massively multilingual text classification benchmark SIB-200 (Adelani et al., 2024), which bases on the FLORES-200 benchmark and comprises 125 examples per language. This benchmark involves classifying sentences from FLORES-200 into seven categories. Purason et al. (2024) extend it to include Võro, Livonian, and Komi.

Extractive QA It is a task in which the objective is to identify a snippet from a given passage

that answers a given question. There exists an Estonian dataset for this task, EstQA (Käver, 2021) which includes 603 test examples, each potentially featuring multiple golden answers. In our evaluation, however, we consider only the first answer for each example. Finnish is included into the multilingual dataset TyDiQA (Clark et al., 2020) covering eight typologically diverse languages. Both of these datasets are translation-free, meaning they are created directly in the target language rather than translated from English. In our experiments, we use Finnish samples from the `secondary-task` subset of TyDiQA, where the task format is similar to EstQA. This subset contains 782 Finnish test examples.

Commonsense reasoning Reasoning skills have been observed to be less trivially transferable across languages than question-answering abilities (Kuulmets et al., 2024; Zhu et al., 2024; Huang et al., 2023). To avoid creating a misleading impression of the models’ capabilities, it is essential to include reasoning datasets in our evaluation benchmarks. To the best of our knowledge, only one such benchmark incorporates a Finno-Ugric language: XCOPA (Ponti et al., 2020), which includes Estonian. XCOPA requires models to identify which of two answer choices most plausibly represents the cause or effect of a given premise. The test dataset comprises 500 examples.

4 Methodology

For tasks that do not require open-ended text generation (e.g., Belebele, SIB, XCOPA), performance is evaluated by calculating the log likelihood of each possible answer choice and selecting the most likely one as the prediction. In contrast, tasks requiring open-ended text generation, such as FLORES, extractive QA, we use greedy decoding to generate predictions.

We report the results both in zero-shot and few-shot setting where we add either 1, 3 or 5 input-output pairs to the prompt to provide the model with task-specific guidance. Additionally, we investigate the impact of CoT prompting, which guides the model to generate intermediate reasoning steps before producing the final answer. Drawing inspiration from Shi et al. (2022), the intermediate steps require translating the input into English, identifying the answer in English, and translating it back to the target language. CoT prompting can also be used both in zero-shot⁴ and few-shot settings. In the zero-shot setting, the prompt ends with *"Let's think step-by-step"* (Kojima et al., 2022), while in the few-shot setting, this is followed by explicit reasoning steps. Figure 1 illustrates model input and output in one-shot setting with and without CoT.

We use regexes to extract answers from the generated text in tasks requiring decoding. Although this approach may occasionally produce false negatives, the models generally adhere well to the output format in few-shot settings. We implement all evaluation strategies with `lm-eval-harness` framework (Gao et al., 2024) and make the task configurations publicly available.⁵

5 Results

5.1 Main Results

Table 2 shows 5-shot results (without CoT) across all tasks and models. In general, Llama 2 7B and Llama 2 13B perform significantly worse on the observed FiU languages than the Llama 3.1 family models. The exception is Finnish, on which the Llama 2 models are notably better than on the other FiU languages. This may be due to the larger amount of Finnish data in the Llama 2 training dataset (Touvron et al., 2023) when compared to data in other FiU languages. However, both Llama-2 7B and Llama 2 13B still appear weak on Finnish when compared to other models.

Llama-2 70B shows notable improvements over Llama 2 7B and Llama 2 13B on Estonian and Finnish across all tasks. The results for Belebele and SIB also indicate improvement for Võro, though the improvement in machine translation (FLORES) is less pronounced. Additionally, SIB appears to be generally too easy of a benchmark for the models, as Llama 2 7B already achieves

86% accuracy for Finnish. For other languages, the benchmark saturates with Llama 2 70B. For this reason, we exclude SIB from further analysis. Finally, we observe that Llama 2 models are the weakest on Komi and Livonian.

| | L2-7B | L2-13B | L2-70B | L3.1-8B | L3.1-70B |
|---|-------|--------|--------|---------|----------|
| SIB | | | | | |
| liv | 64.8 | 61.6 | 83.2 | 74.4 | 77.6 |
| kpv | 68.0 | 59.2 | 83.2 | 77.6 | 87.2 |
| vro | 64.8 | 59.2 | 85.6 | 86.4 | 86.4 |
| est | 69.6 | 68.0 | 88.8 | 89.6 | 89.6 |
| fin | 85.6 | 81.6 | 91.2 | 87.2 | 89.6 |
| Belebele | | | | | |
| liv | 26.23 | 35.25 | 36.89 | 37.70 | 42.62 |
| kpv | 27.87 | 31.15 | 34.43 | 52.46 | 73.77 |
| vro | 27.05 | 32.79 | 44.26 | 50.82 | 73.77 |
| est | 28.69 | 36.07 | 66.39 | 68.03 | 88.52 |
| fin | 44.26 | 54.92 | 86.89 | 74.59 | 91.80 |
| XCOPA | | | | | |
| est | 49.2 | 51.8 | 67.6 | 69.2 | 92.6 |
| FLORES (FiU → En) | | | | | |
| liv | 6.8 | 9.3 | 12.0 | 10.5 | 16.1 |
| kpv | 5.4 | 6.0 | 7.3 | 10.3 | 21.9 |
| vro | 7.8 | 9.1 | 12.9 | 16.7 | 30.3 |
| est | 12.6 | 17.8 | 26.9 | 35.3 | 41.0 |
| fin | 29.6 | 31.9 | 34.6 | 32.0 | 37.1 |
| Extractive QA | | | | | |
| <i>exact match</i> | | | | | |
| est | 21.89 | 34.33 | 49.25 | 50.75 | 52.74 |
| fin | 51.66 | 48.34 | 53.45 | 58.31 | 47.06 |
| <i>F1</i> | | | | | |
| est | 35.35 | 51.39 | 66.72 | 70.87 | 73.76 |
| fin | 70.63 | 70.36 | 74.65 | 75.44 | 72.98 |
| <i>BERTScore F1</i> (Zhang* et al., 2020) | | | | | |
| est | 76.88 | 82.95 | 88.86 | 91.76 | 93.02 |
| fin | 88.50 | 87.95 | 89.60 | 90.63 | 88.67 |

Table 2: 5-shot results on all tasks. Accuracy is reported for SIB, Belebele and XCOPA. BLEU is reported for FLORES. BERTScore F1 was calculated using `bert-base-multilingual-cased`.

We notice that on Estonian and Finnish, Llama 2 70B is competitive with Llama 3.1 8B despite the latter being nearly nine times smaller, although Llama-3.1 8B appears to slightly underperform on Finnish, as indicated by the results of Belebele and FLORES.

When comparing Llama-3.1 8B to Llama-3.1 70B, the larger model clearly outperforms the smaller one on Belebele, FLORES, and XCOPA.

⁴We leave zero-shot CoT for future research.

⁵<https://github.com/TartuNLP/smugri-lm-eval-configs>

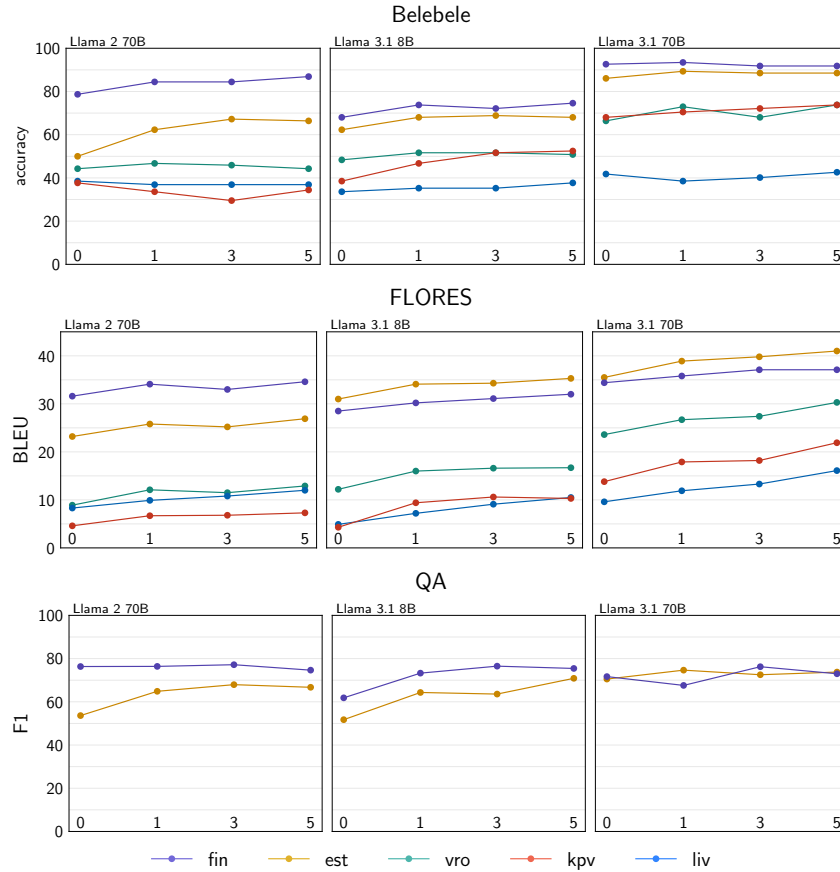


Figure 2: Effect of few-shot examples in 0, 1, 3 and 5-shot setting.

For Estonian and Finnish, the Llama-3.1 70B achieves nearly 90% accuracy on Belebele and XCOPA, along with very strong BLEU scores on the FLORES dataset. The improvements are also significant for extremely low-resource languages Võro, Komi and Livonian.

5.2 The Effect of Few-Shot Examples

We analyze the impact of few-shot examples on the models’ ability to solve tasks in FiU languages. We limit this analysis to three models: Llama 2 70B, Llama 3.1 8B, and Llama 3.1 70B due to their superior performance.

Figure 2 illustrates the results. For Belebele and QA tasks, one-shot prompting generally improves performance compared to zero-shot prompting. However, the gains from adding three or five examples vary significantly across tasks and languages. Notably, the improvements from few-shot examples are particularly inconsistent on the Finnish QA task with Llama-3.1 70B.

In contrast, on FLORES benchmark, the improvements are more consistent as the number of examples increases. Notably, Llama-3.1 70B

shows substantial gains when translating from Võro, Livonian, and Komi to English, with improvements of 6.6 BLEU points for Võro, 6.6 for Livonian, and 8.1 for Komi when using five examples compared to zero-shot prompting.

To conclude, few-shot prompting can yield notable gains in some cases—such as a 17% improvement for Estonian on Belebele with three examples and using Llama 2 70B as the base model. However, these gains are inconsistent and smaller compared to the improvements achieved by using a stronger base model. For instance, the zero-shot performance for Estonian on Belebele with Llama 3.1 70B surpasses the 3-shot performance of Llama 2 70B. This highlights the greater potential of stronger base models over prompt engineering the weaker models.

5.3 The Effect of CoT Prompting

We analyze the impact of CoT prompting across three tasks: Belebele, QA, and XCOPA. Due to the significant increase in the input length with additional examples, we only compare one-shot prompting with one-shot CoT prompting for Bele-

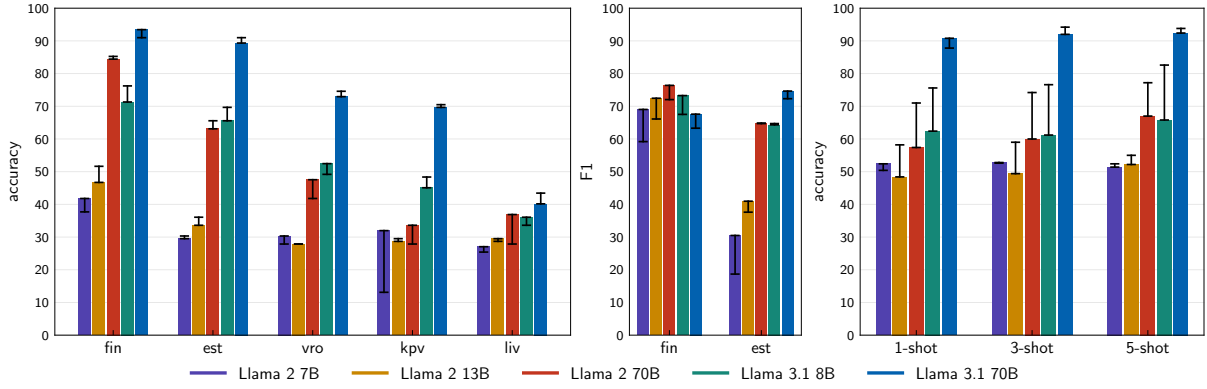


Figure 3: Comparison of CoT prompting and few-shot prompting on Belebele (left, 1-shot), QA (middle, 1-shot) and XCOPA (right, 1-, 3- and 5-shot). The bars shows the scores with few-shot prompting. Horizontal line (–) indicates the score with few-shot CoT prompting with the same number of shots.

bele and QA. For XCOPA we consider 1-, 3-, and 5-shot scenarios.

Figure 4 shows the results. In Belebele task, Llama 2 13B, Llama 2 70B and Llama 3.1 8B benefit from CoT prompting in case of Estonian and Finnish. With the same models the effect of CoT prompting to Võro, Livonian and Komi is mostly negative. Llama 2 7B shows negative or minimal positive gains on all languages. This can be explained with the weak translation skills of Llama 2 7B. On the other hand, Llama 3.1 70B has very strong translation skills, yet CoT prompting yields smaller positive improvement than weaker models. This suggests the strong cross-lingual capabilities of Llama 3.1 70B that mitigate the need for CoT prompting.

For the QA task, CoT prompting consistently results in lower performance. This could be attributed to the nature of the extractive QA task, which requires the output to precisely match the correct text snippet. The intermediate translation steps involved in CoT prompting may lead to slight alterations in the morphological form of the answer, causing a mismatch with the expected output.

In XCOPA, we see mostly positive improvements from CoT prompting, with even Llama 2 13B benefiting, while Llama 2 7B does not. The average improvement across all shots for Llama 2 70B and Llama 3.1 8B is 14%. However, the benefit of CoT prompting decreases significantly for Llama 3.1 70B, following the trend observed in the Belebele task.

These observations naturally raise the question of whether there is a correlation between a model’s

translation capability and its ability to benefit from CoT prompting. To answer that question, we plot the 1-shot BLEU scores of FiU → English translation direction against the gains from 1-shot CoT prompting over 1-shot prompting (Figure 4). As shown in the plot, there is no strong correlation between machine translation quality and CoT gains. Interestingly, CoT prompting can provide improvements over few-shot prompting, even for models with weak translation capabilities. However, it also appears that CoT prompting is more likely to degrade performance than enhance it.

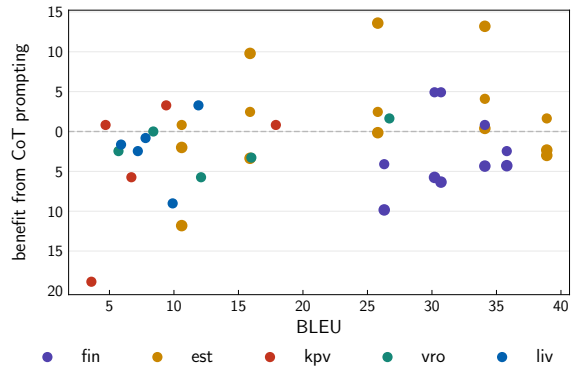


Figure 4: 1-shot BLEU scores for FiU → English translation (x-axis) compared with gains from 1-shot CoT prompting over 1-shot prompting (y-axis). Each dot represents a specific Llama model on a specific task and language. Tasks include Belebele, QA, and XCOPA.

Our findings align with Sprague et al. (2024), whose experiments and extensive meta-analysis of existing studies show that CoT provides significant benefits on tasks involving math and logic but offers much smaller gains for other types of tasks.

| | Belebele | | | FLORES | | | XCOPA | | | QA | | |
|-----|----------|-------|--------------|--------|-------|--------------|-------|-------|--------------|-------|-------|--------------|
| | L2 | Lam | L3.1 | L2 | Lam | L3.1 | L2 | Lam | L3.1 | L2 | Lam | L3.1 |
| liv | 26.23 | 23.77 | 37.70 | 6.76 | 7.70 | 10.50 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| vro | 27.05 | 31.97 | 50.82 | 7.83 | 16.23 | 16.72 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| kpv | 27.87 | 24.59 | 52.46 | 5.36 | 3.64 | 10.32 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| est | 28.69 | 36.89 | 68.03 | 12.65 | 34.29 | 35.28 | 49.20 | 68.20 | 69.00 | 35.35 | 63.76 | 70.87 |
| fin | 44.26 | 27.87 | 74.59 | 29.63 | 18.36 | 31.97 | - | - | - | 70.63 | 56.32 | 75.44 |
| avg | 30.82 | 29.02 | 56.72 | 12.44 | 16.04 | 20.96 | 49.20 | 68.20 | 69.00 | 52.99 | 60.04 | 73.16 |

Table 3: Comparison of five-shot results of Llama 2 7B, Llammas-base and Llama 3.1 8B. F1 score is reported for QA.

6 Comparison With Other Models

6.1 Mistral NeMo

We compare Llama 3.1 8B with its competitor, the 12B-parameter model Mistral NeMo (Jiang et al., 2024), across all tasks except SIB. Both models are evaluated in zero-shot and five-shot settings to assess their ability to perform with and without examples. Results for the zero-shot setting are shown in Table 4, while the five-shot results are presented in Table 5. Note that zero-shot results for the QA task are not reported, as this task is typically evaluated in a few-shot setting due to significantly lower performance in zero-shot scenarios.

| | Belebele | | FLORES | | XCOPA | |
|-----|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------|
| | L3.1 | MN | L3.1 | MN | L3.1 | MN |
| liv | 33.61 | 35.25 | 4.91 | 5.85 | - | - |
| vro | 48.36 | 50.82 | 12.19 | 8.18 | - | - |
| kpv | 38.52 | 36.89 | 8.18 | 3.45 | - | - |
| est | 62.30 | 74.59 | 31.00 | 33.04 | 56.80 | 56.40 |
| fin | 68.03 | 74.59 | 28.54 | 30.39 | - | - |
| avg | 50.16 | 54.43 | 16.96 | 16.18 | 56.80 | 56.40 |

Table 4: Comparison of zero-shot results of Llama-3.1 8B and Mistral NeMo.

| | Belebele | | FLORES | | XCOPA | | QA | |
|-----|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------|--------------|-------|--------------|
| | L3.1 | MN | L3.1 | MN | L3.1 | MN | L3.1 | MN |
| liv | 37.70 | 37.70 | 10.50 | 10.10 | - | - | - | - |
| vro | 50.82 | 50.00 | 16.72 | 12.55 | - | - | - | - |
| kpv | 52.46 | 34.43 | 10.32 | 6.01 | - | - | - | - |
| est | 68.03 | 83.61 | 35.28 | 32.28 | 69.20 | 71.60 | 70.87 | 71.86 |
| fin | 74.59 | 78.69 | 31.97 | 33.24 | - | - | 75.44 | 77.39 |
| avg | 56.72 | 56.89 | 20.96 | 18.83 | 69.20 | 71.60 | 73.16 | 74.63 |

Table 5: Comparison of five-shot results of Llama-3.1 8B and Mistral NeMo. F1 score is reported for QA.

The results show that Mistral NeMo and Llama

3.1 8B perform similarly on FiU languages in the zero-shot setting, though Mistral NeMo is over 4% better on the Belebele task. In the five-shot setting, Mistral NeMo outperforms Llama 3.1 8B on three out of four tasks, except for machine translation, where Llama 3.1 8B demonstrates a stronger ability to learn from examples. Overall, Mistral NeMo excels in Finnish and Estonian, while Llama 3.1 8B appears slightly stronger in extremely low-resource FiU languages. Notably, Llama 3.1 8B consistently outperforms Mistral NeMo in Komi, which, unlike the other languages, uses the Cyrillic script.

| | Belebele | | | FLORES | | | XCOPA | | |
|-----|----------|--------------|--------------|--------|-------|--------------|-------|--------------|--------------|
| | L2 | Lam | L3.1 | L2 | Lam | L3.1 | L2 | Lam | L3.1 |
| liv | 24.59 | 38.52 | 33.61 | 4.74 | 4.62 | 4.91 | - | - | - |
| vro | 23.77 | 33.61 | 48.36 | 4.61 | 9.92 | 12.19 | - | - | - |
| kpv | 26.23 | 29.51 | 38.52 | 2.88 | 1.44 | 8.18 | - | - | - |
| est | 22.95 | 39.34 | 62.30 | 8.53 | 28.90 | 31.0 | 48.80 | 56.60 | 56.60 |
| fin | 32.79 | 34.43 | 68.03 | 27.16 | 11.57 | 28.54 | - | - | - |
| avg | 26.07 | 35.08 | 50.16 | 9.59 | 11.29 | 16.96 | 48.80 | 56.60 | 56.60 |

Table 6: Comparison of zero-shot results of Llama 2 7B, Llammas-base and Llama 3.1 8B.

6.2 Llammas

We compare Llama 2 7B with Llammas (Kuulmets et al., 2024), which is an adaptation of Llama 2 7B to Estonian with additional pretraining of 5B tokens of Estonian-centric data. We also include comparative size Llama 2.1 8B in this comparison. The results are presented in Table 6 and Table 3.

Unsurprisingly, Llammas outperforms Llama 2 7B on Estonian by a significant margin; however, its performance on Finnish, in general, decreases substantially. As indicated in the tables presented in Section 5.1, Llama 2 7B already demonstrates some capability in solving tasks in Finnish, unlike

in other FiU languages. This suggests that continued pretraining on Estonian notably damages this capability.

Llammas consistently outperforms Llama 2 7B on Võro, which is not surprising given the linguistic similarities between Võro and Estonian. The comparison between Livonian and Komi is less clear in determining which model performs better. However, Llama 3.1 8B surpasses both models by a large margin, except on the Belebele task in Livonian. Notably, Llama 3.1 8B outperforms Llammas even on Estonian, demonstrating that language-specific adaptation of a weaker base model cannot compete with a stronger, unadapted base model.

7 Conclusion

We evaluated the Llama 2 and multilingual Llama 3.1 family models on five Finno-Ugric languages with varying amounts of available resources. Our results show that Llama 2 7B and 13B perform poorly on most languages, except for Finnish, where they achieve moderate results. In contrast, the Llama 3.1 family models demonstrate impressive performance, even for extremely low-resource languages like Võro and Komi.

The comparison of zero-shot and few-shot prompting indicates that few-shot prompting is beneficial across all languages. However, increasing the number of examples does not always lead to better performance. Similarly, few-shot CoT prompting brings substantial benefits for tasks like commonsense reasoning but negatively affects others, such as QA. Notably, the strongest model, Llama 3.1 70B, benefits less from CoT prompting on tasks where it helps weaker models, suggesting that strong cross-lingual capabilities reduce reliance on CoT prompting.

Outstanding results in MT, XCOPA, and Belebele for Estonian and Finnish highlight the need for stronger benchmarks to better assess the capabilities and limitations of these models. The surprisingly strong results from Llama 3.1 70B on Komi and Võro, despite extremely limited resources, demonstrate effective cross-lingual knowledge transfer and reduce the dependence on large target-language datasets for reasonable performance.

Finally, our comparison with Mistral NeMo suggests that the latter outperforms Llama 3.1 8B in Estonian and Finnish. Furthermore, our analy-

sis of Llama models versus Llammas shows that a stronger, general-purpose base model consistently outperforms a weaker base model adapted to a specific language, emphasizing the critical role of the base model in successful language adaptation.

Acknowledgements

This work was partially supported by the Estonian Research Council grant PRG2006 as well as the National Programme of Estonian Language Technology grant EKTB104. All computations were performed in the High Performance Computing Center of the University of Tartu.

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