
Dataset Extraction and Creation for Social Services in Africa

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Abstract

1 Large Language Models (LLMs) are transforming digital services globally, yet their
2 integration into localized and resource-constrained environments, such as those in
3 Africa, remains underexplored. This paper presents an extensive approach from
4 dataset creation to real-world model deployment of fine-tuned LLMs including
5 Llama, Gemma and Deepseek for structured financial, healthcare and communica-
6 tion services. We develop structured datasets tailored to African contexts, fine-tune
7 several open-source models, and evaluate their ability to accurately extract key
8 details from informal messages into structured JSON outputs. We integrate the
9 best performing model into our already existing WhatsApp-based AI assistant
10 capable of performing tasks like sending reminders, scheduling payments and
11 providing healthcare reminders. A comparative analysis reveals the differences in
12 model performances, highlighting the best approaches for efficient deployment in
13 resource-limited African markets. Our findings suggest that LLM-based solutions
14 are viable in bridging the gap in digital services in low-resource settings, allowing
15 for inclusivity and accessibility.

16 1 Introduction

17 Large Language Models (LLMs) are being leveraged all around the globe, offering new opportunities
18 to drive innovation and improve efficiency in and around various industries and sectors, transforming
19 the way different businesses operate. These models have indeed demonstrated exceptional capabilities
20 across a range of tasks including machine translation and summarization in even some low-resource
21 contexts as demonstrated in research.

22 In the context of structured digital services, high-resource settings have made great strides due to the
23 availability of large-scale data making the possibility of creating such applications easy, as compared
24 to low-resource contexts where there are still limitations on the deployment of such models, owing
25 to the scarce standardized data. There is a growing need for AI systems that are context-aware and
26 task-specific in African markets where informal communication norms still exist and mobile first
27 interactions dominate.

28 Social services in areas such as financial planning, healthcare, and public administration are critical
29 for communities across Africa. AI technologies have the potential to enhance these services by
30 providing intelligent support and decision-making, from automating appointment scheduling to
31 offering personalized health advice. Indeed, early applications of AI in African contexts have shown
32 promise: for example, machine learning on satellite imagery has been used to estimate poverty
33 levels and support financial inclusion efforts[Jean et al., 2016], and digital data have been harnessed
34 for public health surveillance[Zhao et al., 2020]. These successes illustrate the opportunities of
35 AI-for-social-good in emerging markets. However, mainstream large language models (LLMs) and
36 AI systems often underperform or lack support for African languages and local contexts[Chen et al.,

2024]. A recent study evaluating ChatGPT (powered by GPT-4) on 670 languages found that it struggles the most with African languages[Chen et al., 2024], recognizing text in Hausa only about 10–20% of the time[Moorosi, 2024]. Such disparities stem from a shortage of high-quality, relevant training data for low-resource languages and domains[Moorosi, 2024].

There is a pressing need to create datasets that reflect African social service scenarios and languages. Traditional dataset curation (e.g., manually collecting conversational data in multiple local languages) is expensive and time-consuming. As an alternative, we explore using LLMs to *generate* and *extract* structured data that can bootstrap model training. Recent advances show that with the right prompts, LLMs can produce outputs in structured formats like JSON or XML [Shorten et al., 2024]. By guiding an LLM to output, for instance, a JSON record of a dialogue or a service log, we can automatically create synthetic training examples. This approach leverages the generative power of LLMs to overcome data scarcity, effectively turning the model into a data generator for downstream tasks.

In this paper, we present a framework for designing, fine-tuning and deploying LLMs tailored to structured social services in Africa, such as financial reminders, scheduling, and healthcare-related communication, using datasets from African contexts derived from real-world use cases.

Our contribution will include the following:

- Construction of task-specific datasets that reflect the low-resource scenarios, and annotated for structured outputs.
- A fine-tuning and evaluation pipeline applied to open-source models (Llama, Gemma, and Deepseek), and adapted to perform structured JSON generation from natural prompts.
- A benchmarking methodology using confidence-based sampling to assess the model performance.

2 Related Work

2.1 Structured Generation from LLMs

Structured output generations have recently been an area of interest of research for adapting LLMs to domain-specific tasks. Some early methods focused on templated data or classification heads and earlier work like T5 and GPT-3 explored generation of machine-readable outputs using prompt engineering and task formulations, however more recent work has explored direct generation of JSON or XML structures. For example, [Geng et al., 2025] introduced JSONSchemaBench, which evaluates LLMs on their ability to follow predefined schemas during generation. [Lu et al., 2025] proposed schema-aware reinforcement learning to guide structured generation.

Shorten et al. [2024] introduce a benchmark called StructuredRAG to assess how well LLMs follow response formatting instructions, reflecting growing interest in reliable structured generation. They report that state-of-the-art models can achieve over 80% success in zero-shot structured output tasks, though performance varies by task complexity. Other approaches enforce structure via constrained decoding algorithms [Beurer-Kellner et al., 2024], ensuring, for example, that parentheses or JSON brackets are balanced and keys are present. Tam et al. [2024] find that while models can be coaxed into formats like JSON, overly rigid format requirements may sometimes degrade the quality of the answer.

These approaches emphasize fine-tuning methods, Retrieval-Augmented Generations (RAGs), and prompt-engineering to ensure synthetic and semantic validity. Our approach falls within this category, but we emphasize task-specific fine-tuning from real-world service messages. These efforts highlight the promise of LLMs in producing structured formats, but they are often benchmarked on synthetic tasks. Our work grounds this approach in realistic, service-driven datasets.

2.2 Conversational Interface for Social Services

There has been a recent increasing interest in using LLMs for the support of public service delivery. A number of researchers have explored using language models for public-facing tasks in health and finance. [Singhal et al., 2022] developed Med-PaLM, a model fine-tuned on medical question answering, while [Rakesh et al., 2025] introduced ChatFin, an LLM-based banking assistant capable

87 of processing finance-related chat inputs. However, these models typically rely on few-shot prompting
88 or in-context learning, rather than full finetuning.

89 Deploying such AI solutions in practice often requires conversational interfaces and local language
90 support, especially for outreach and education. For instance, a health advisory system might take
91 symptoms described by a user in Swahili and provide guidance or triage information. Similarly, a
92 financial planning assistant might converse in French with users in Francophone African countries
93 to help them budget or access micro-loans. These use cases demand both the underlying predictive
94 analytics and a user-facing conversational component.

95 Our work complements this by developing a fine-tuned model for narrow, operational tasks such as
96 reminders and scheduling which require precise extraction and generation.

97 2.3 NLP for Low-Resource Context

98 Majority of the literature in low-resource context NLP focuses on multilingual modeling, transfer
99 learning (Hedderich et al. [2021]) as well as dataset curation. These approaches have been aimed to
100 extend language technologies to low-resource settings. Our work, in addition to creating datasets, is
101 situated in a setting where our notion of low-resource refers not to the language per se, but to the
102 availability of aligned task-specific high quality data, compute and automation infrastructure.

103 3 Methodology

104 Our approach combines fine-tuning large language models (LLMs) with structured information
105 retrieval to enhance AI-driven services in low-resource environments. We focus on financial services,
106 healthcare, and general task reminders in English and French, reflecting real-world usage patterns in
107 West and Central Africa.

108 3.1 Dataset Construction

109 Our approach to generating the dataset involved curating six different dataset from real-world
110 WhatsApp-style prompts, ranging from financial to healthcare, collected through user experiments. In
111 constructing the dataset, for each data instance, we prompt engineered GPT 4o through the OpenAI
112 Azure Foundry to create an annotated structured JSON completion, retrieving fields from the initial
113 CSV data files such as the sender, recipient, amount, deadlines, actions and other fields. This further
114 went through manual annotation for correction. We then performed some additional normalization to
115 the phone format and date values.

116 Example Dataset

117 Below are two examples of prompt-completion pairs used for fine-tuning. Each example consists of a
118 user-provided instruction and the expected structured output.

```
{
  "prompt": "Hi, could you send a reminder to 96 28 81 35 for a debt of 41243.13  
↪ FCFA due on 03/05/2025? Reminder to be sent on 01/08/2025.",
  "completion": {
    "sender_phone": "N/A",
    "recipient_phone": "96 28 81 35",
    "action": "send reminders",
    "action_count": 1,
    "deadline_date": "2025-05-03",
    "reminder_date": "2025-08-01",
    "frequency": "none",
    "response-to-sender": "The reminder for the debt of 41243.13 FCFA due on  
↪ 2025-05-03 will be sent to 96 28 81 35 on 2025-08-01.",
    "response-to-recipient": "You have a debt of 41243.13 FCFA due on 2025-05-03.  
↪ This is a reminder sent as requested."
  }
}
```

119 We then merge and clean the datasets, creating a training corpus of approximately **8700** examples and
 120 a benchmark test set, which we constructed via a confidence-based sampling approach and manual
 121 verification.

122 3.2 Sampling Dataset for Benchmarking

123 We follow a statistical approach which uses the confidence interval calculation. We calculate the
 124 initial sample size using the z-score from the confidence interval chosen, the data size, an estimated
 125 proportion and a margin of error. Once that is done, we use the initial sample size to adjust for a finite
 126 population, which is then going to be our required sampled size.

127 The sample size calculation employs the **finite population correction** formula, suitable for smaller
 128 datasets, given by:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0-1)}{N}}, \quad (1)$$

129 where the initial sample size n_0 is calculated as:

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 \times p \times (1 - p)}{E^2}. \quad (2)$$

130 Parameters Explained:

- 131 • N : Population size (total records in the dataset)
- 132 • Z : Z-score (e.g., $Z = 1.96$ for 95% confidence)
- 133 • p : Estimated proportion
- 134 • E : Margin of error

135 3.3 Fine-tuning Setup

136 We finetuned three open-source LLMs using task-specific LoRA adapters:

- 137 • LLaMA (1B)
- 138 • DeepSeek (1.5B)
- 139 • Gemma (2B)

140 Models were trained using Unsloth’s optimized trainer with 4-bit quantization. We used a ChatML-
 141 style prompt format and tuned models on JSON generation tasks using SFT (supervised finetuning).

142 3.4 Evaluation Metrics

143 We assessed the performance of the finetuned models using both exact and partial matching metrics,
 144 including exact match accuracy, field-level accuracy, and token-level metrics such as BLEU and
 145 ROUGE-L (on text responses).

- 146 1. **Exact Match Accuracy:** This metric compares the model’s prediction string to the reference
 147 string to measure how often the strings match (IBM). This metric is strict, where all labels
 148 have to match correctly for a correct classification (Lukasik et al. [2024]).
- 149 2. **Field Accuracy:** To evaluate models more leniently, we compute token-level correctness
 150 across all fields. Each field is treated independently.
- 151 3. **BLEU:** To assess the quality of free-form text fields—particularly the fields **’response-to-**
 152 **sender’** and **’response-to-recipient’**, we use BLEU (Bilingual Evaluation Understudy). We
 153 report the average BLEU over the two response fields.
- 154 4. **ROUGE-L F1:** The longest common subsequence between the reference and model’s
 155 prediction is captured by the ROUGE-L F1 score, which we calculate. ROUGE-L is
 156 appropriate for assessing the coherence and fluency of generated responses and places an
 157 emphasis on sequence-level similarities.

4 Results and Discussion

The results for the finetuned models are presented in two parts. First, we report the training loss curves for each of the models, and then we evaluate model performance using structured prediction metrics, as mentioned in Subsection 3.4.

4.1 Training Losses

All the models were trained for approximately 4300 steps. The number of epochs varied due to the variation in dataset tokenization and batch length: LLaMA was trained for 2 epochs, while Gemma and DeepSeek were each trained for 8 epochs.



Figure 1: LLaMA Train Loss Figure 2: Gemma Train Loss Figure 3: DeepSeek Train Loss

The diagrams in Figure 4.1 above, shows the progression of the losses for three finetuned models (i.e., Llama, Gemma, and Deepseek) on our datasets. DeepSeek decreases the fastest and the most steadily, stabilizing below a loss value of 0.1759. Gemma’s loss decreases smoothly to around 0.1577 with minor fluctuations. LLaMA starts from a very different and higher loss value (>2.0), perhaps due to different scaling or initialization, but converges quickly to similar values as the other two models.

4.2 Evaluation Results

Table 1 shows a summary of the evaluation results for the three fine-tuned models on the structured prediction task. Metrics include exact match accuracy, field-level accuracy, BLEU score, and ROUGE-L F1.

Table 1: Evaluation results for the fine-tuned models on structured prediction.

Model	Exact Match	Field Accuracy	BLEU	ROUGE-L F1
LLaMA	0.0057	0.4710	0.1801	0.4035
Gemma	0.0263	0.5799	0.2731	0.4921
DeepSeek	0.0263	0.6094	0.2891	0.5181

The evaluation results show clear differences in model performance on the structured prediction task. While exact match scores are low across all models ($\leq 2.6\%$), this is expected given the strict nature of the metric—requiring every field in the structured output to be correct.

Looking beyond exact match, field-level accuracy and text generation metrics (BLEU and ROUGE-L F1) provide a more refined view:

- DeepSeek achieved the highest field accuracy (0.6094) and also led in both BLEU (0.2891) and ROUGE-L F1 (0.5181), suggesting it is most reliable at producing both correct field values and fluent text in **‘response-to-sender’** and **‘response-to-recipient’**.
- Gemma performed competitively, with a field accuracy of 0.5799 and slightly lower text quality metrics than DeepSeek, indicating a consistent but marginally less precise output.
- LLaMA, despite completing training, lagged behind both models in all metrics. Its low BLEU (0.1801) and ROUGE-L (0.4035) suggest challenges in generating fluent, correct text responses—likely impacted by the shorter training duration (2 epochs vs. 8).

Overall, DeepSeek appears to generalize best on this task, with Gemma close behind. LLaMA may require longer training or adjusted hyperparameters to match their performance.

5 Conclusion

This paper presents a practical framework for deploying LLMs in low-resource service delivery contexts, highlighting how carefully curated datasets, lightweight fine-tuning, and structured evaluation can yield useful automation tools. Rather than relying on general-purpose reasoning capabilities, we show that narrow, reliable models trained on real-world prompts can power transactional workflows such as reminders and scheduling.

We demonstrate that with minimal resources and careful annotation, it is possible to build and deploy efficient LLMs tailored for social service use cases.

Our results suggest that task-specific finetuned models offer a viable and accessible path for automating structured social interactions in emerging digital economies.

6 Limitations

Looking forward, there are several avenues for improvement. First, incorporating more African languages explicitly in the training (possibly via translation or community data efforts) would enhance the system’s inclusivity.

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