What Matters for LLMs in Low-Resource Language?
A Survey of Bangla Language Processing
Datasets, Adaptation Techniques, and Application Areas

Abstract

Large Language Models (LLMs) show tremendous abilities in every field. To fully assess the usefulness of LLMs, it is essential to evaluate their performance in low-resource languages and ensure that improvements in accuracy do not come at the cost of increased bias or hallucination. We focus on Bangla language because, despite being the world's 7th most spoken language, there remains a lack of comprehensive reviews on this topic. Focusing on a single language also allows us to more deeply investigate *what actually matters for making LLMs work well in Bangla?* We systematically analyze recent work on Bangla language processing with LLMs, reviewing benchmarks, datasets, monolingual and multilingual model families, adaptation strategies, and application areas. We conclude by presenting clear research directions that not only guide Bangla researchers but also have implications for other low-resource and morphologically rich languages like Bangla.

Figure 1: LLMs correctly solve mathematical reasoning problems in English but not in Bangla. The example is from BanglaMATH (Prama et al., 2025), with responses generated by ChatGPT-4o on November 4, 2025.

1 Introduction

Imagine asking a smart assistant such as ChatGPT a math reasoning question in English at a 8th-grade level. It would likely provide a detailed and accurate answer. However, if you ask the same question in a low-resource language like Bangla, also known as Bengali, which is spoken by nearly 300 million people worldwide, the response might be incorrect, confusing or lacking clarity, as shown in Figure 1. This gap is not limited to a single math problem. Across a wide range of tasks, Bangla responses frequently degrade in quality, highlighting a broader global inequity in LLMs' performance. About 4.8 billion people (Roxas and Recario, 2024), or roughly 59 percent of the world's population, speak languages other than the few high-resource ones. Yet, LLM training data is dominated by high-resource languages (Imani et al., 2023). This imbalance creates a significant technological gap. It is limiting access to information and fair treatment for speakers of Bangla.

In today's world, LLMs have become more important than ever in history. To improve the performance of LLMs for Bangla, a systematic survey is essential. Over the years, several studies have explored Bangla language research. For instance, it Alam et al. (2021) provides a review of Bangla NLP tasks and the utility of transformer models. A comparative analysis of machine learning and deep learning methods for Bangla NLP is presented in (Sen et al., 2022). In addition, reviews have focused on specific tasks such as preprocessing techniques (Chakraborty et al., 2025), question generation (Faisal et al., 2024a), and natural language interfaces (NLI; Faria et al., 2025) using transformer models for Bangla. However,

a comprehensive survey that addresses the recent limitations and future directions of Bangla using LLMs across all aspects is still missing.

We have conducted a survey that is both timely and useful. First, this field is evolving rapidly, with new datasets, model variants and adaptation strategies for LLMs being introduced every few months. For instance, in 2025 alone, more than ten new datasets have been published (Prama et al., 2025; Fayaz et al., 2025; Mahtab et al., 2025; Islam and Sarti, 2025; Joy, 2025; Haider et al., 2025; Paul et al., 2025), and four new language models have been released (Bhattacharyya and Bhattacharya, 2025; Raihan and Zampieri, 2025; Nahin et al., 2025; Zehady et al., 2024). Second, existing results are scattered and difficult for researchers to compare. Third, even small design decisions, such as updating the tokenizer or applying cross-lingual transfer, can significantly affect outcomes for languages with limited data.

A systematic and well-organized survey helps researchers understand what approaches are effective, which ones are not, which NLP tasks remain unexplored and what directions future research should take for Bangla. To achieve this goal, we address three main research questions, and by answering them, we cover these areas comprehensively.

- What Bangla datasets and applications have been recently developed, and across what dimensions do they vary? (Section 3)
- What Bangla language models have been recently developed and what architectural or training paradigms drive them? (Section 4)
- Which LLM adaptation approaches work best for Bangla, and what are their strengths and weaknesses? (Section 5)
- What future directions can make Bangla datasets, applications, and language models more fair and effective? (Sections 3 to 6)

2 Selection Criteria

Articles were included in this survey if they were published between 2021–2025 in journals and conferences indexed by ACL Anthology, Springer, Elsevier, and Google Scholar and included a publicly used or evaluated Bangla dataset, a publicly available Bangla language model, or described a technique applied to adapt large language models for Bangla. This resulted in 32 dataset papers, 16 language model papers, 105 application area papers, and 27 adaptation papers.

Figure 2: Number of Bangla (monolingual) and multilingual datasets categorized by translation strategy (no translation, automatic translation, and post-edited translation), derived from Table 3 in Appendix A.

3 Datasets and Applications

Table 3 in Appendix A and Figure 10 in Appendix B summarize the reviewed Bangla datasets and applications, respectively.

3.1 Datasets: Size

Table 3 in Appendix A reveals that the size of Bangla datasets varies widely, ranging from small resources such as REVEAL-Bangla (104 samples) and BanglaMATH (1.7k samples) to larger corpora like BanglaNLG (2.75M pairs) and IndicNLG (8.5M sentences). Most (17 of 21) monolingual Bangla datasets are small, having fewer than 100k samples. The key findings are summarized below.

3.2 Datasets: Monolingual vs Multilingual

Figure 2, derived from Table 3 in Appendix A shows that both Bangla-only and multilingual datasets frequently depend (19 out of 32 datasets) on machine translation from high-resource languages to create the corpora. Sometimes automatic translations were manually post-edited to improve quality, though that was more common monolingual Bangla datasets (Figure 2 bottom) than in multilingual datasets (Figure 2 top).

Monolingual datasets not created through translation still show clear limitations in knowledge depth and cultural grounding. For example, datasets such as BanglaRQA (Ekram et al., 2022), BanglaQuAD (Rony et al., 2024), BanNERD (Mahtab et al., 2025) and BanglaNLG (Bhattacharjee et al., 2022b), all curated by native speakers, are typically developed for task specialization and of smaller size (see the size column of Table 3 in Appendix A). BanglaRQA and BanglaQuAD mainly use Bangla Wikipedia as their knowledge source, while BanglaNLG draws on online forums and social media posts for generative summarization tasks.

Figure 3: Frequency of evaluation metrics used in the surveyed studies to assess model performance on the datasets, derived from Table 3 in Appendix A.

Figure 4: Bangla NLP research landscape by task area related to LLMs, derived from Figure 10 in Appendix B. Bars show paper counts; darker blue indicates more papers, highlighting uneven research coverage.

Thus, although the data is authentically written in Bangla, it represents only a narrow range of topics and lacks the domain diversity needed for deeper and more comprehensive language understanding.

3.3 Datasets: Performance Metrics

Figure 3 shows that the common evaluation metric in Bangla NLP is F1, widely used for text classification datasets such as BANTH, BIDWESH, BanglaHateBERT, BDA, and M-BAD; it combines precision and recall and reflects how well the predicted labels match the gold labels.

$$F_1 = \frac{2 \times P \times R}{P + R} \qquad (1)$$

Accuracy, the overall fraction of correct predictions, is also frequently used, for example, in BanglaHate-BERT, BDA, and BanglaMATH.

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\#\text{Correct Predictions}}{\#\text{Total Predictions}} \qquad (2)$$

Evaluation metrics vary by task as seen in Table 3 in Appendix A: all question answering and text classification datasets use F1 as at least one of their metrics, 9 of the 10 uses of accuracy are for text classification and natural language understanding, BERTScore is used only for natural language understanding/generation, etc. The dominance of F1 in Figure 3 is thus due in part to the dominance of text classification and question answering tasks.

3.4 Applications

Figure 4, derived from Figure 10 in Appendix B, summarizes the main Bangla NLP application areas studied. Studies focus on applied NLP, especially text classification, information extraction and question answering, along with text generation and machine translation. In these areas, papers usually test how well LLMs perform and use

prompting or LLM-generated data to improve results (Liu et al., 2023; Wasi et al., 2024; Aurpa et al., 2023; Hasan et al., 2025a; Bhattacharyya and Bhattacharya, 2025; Shi et al., 2022). By contrast, preprocessing such as tokenization, normalization, and POS tagging is studied less often (Alam et al., 2021; Bose and Salim, 2024; Fahim, 2023; Nadif et al., 2024). Research on advanced topics in Bangla is still limited. A few papers explore reasoning with prompting methods like CoT, including multi-step and commonsense reasoning (Shafayat et al., 2024b; Ridoy et al., 2025; Tasnim et al., 2025). Work on responsible NLP, such as toxicity and bias, also appears infrequently; for example, Mohsin et al. (2025) uses short explanation-style CoT to identify toxic sentences and produce detoxified paraphrases.

3.5 Discussion and Research Gaps

Our survey of datasets and applications identified several research gaps, including oversimplified corpus design, evaluation strategies, and translation issues. As shown in Figure 2, Bangla benchmarks are often partly or fully translated from English. Translation can lose cultural context, idioms, morphology, and pragmatics (Nzeyimana, 2024), and machine-translated datasets may introduce semantic drift that affects reasoning and factual tasks. Some datasets also use partial translation, where sentences are translated but entities or tags are not, causing NER boundary confusion as in Figure 5(a).

Bangla datasets are small and cover only a few reasoning types, often using simple or binary questions, as seen in BnPC, REVEAL-Bangla, and Ban-StereoSet. Even larger classification datasets, such

Figure 5: Illustration of key limitations in Bangla dataset creation and evaluation: (a) translation-generated data causing NER boundary confusion, (b) oversimplified corpus design failing to capture deeper reasoning or contextual nuances, and (c) F1-based evaluation overlooking semantically identical answers. The examples are collected from the datasets Malmasi et al. (2022); Islam and Sarti (2025); Ekram et al. (2022); Kamruzzaman et al. (2025).

as BanglaHateBERT, BanMANI, and BIDWESH, are still not diverse enough, and heavy use of binary labels can hide important middle cases and lead to biased or unstable models. Figure 5(b) suggests that training on oversimplified QA data results is failure to provide depth and useful answers.

Figure 3 showed that Bangla evaluation is dominated by metrics like F1 and Accuracy. These metrics can fail to capture linguistic richness and cultural nuance. For example, Figure 5(c) shows how F1 can be misleading for Bangla QA: the gold answer and the model answer can be semantically identical (but syntactically different) and F1 still penalizes the performance by 50%.

4 Language Models

Table 1 summarizes the Bangla language models identified in our survey, with the following sections highlighting key findings.

4.1 Model Architecture

Two main transformer architectures are common in the development of language models: decoder only or encoder-decoder Table 1. Decoder-only models use a single autoregressive transformer decoder that learns to predict the next token given previous ones. Models such as BanglaGPT, Bangla-Llama, TituLLM, TigerLLM-1B, GPT-4, Gemma, LLaMA, Mistral, BLOOM/BLOOMZ, and Qwen adopt the decoder-only architecture, while models such as BanglaT5, BanglaByT5, Gemini 2.5, Aya and mBART employ an encoder–decoder architecture. BanglaBERT follows the ELECTRA-based transformer architecture, designed primarily for discriminative NLU tasks rather than for sequence-to-sequence generation.

4.2 Multilingual vs Monolingual

Although the most recent Bangla language models typically have the largest parameter counts (Size and Year columns in Table 1), multilingual mBART and monolingual BanglaBERT were among the earliest and thus have been widely used in later Bangla research. Multilingual models often have billions of parameters (e.g., LLaMA 65B, BLOOMZ 176B) but still are challenged by tasks such as information extraction, QA, and text classification (Figure 7). Monolingual models often have fewer than a billion parameters (e.g., BanglaBERT 111M, BanglaT5 247.6M, and BanglaByT5 300M) yet achieve strong results on QA and text classification (Table 2). Table 1 shows that monolingual models are typically designed for specific tasks such as NLU or NLG, whereas multilingual models typi-

Name	Size	Year	Architecture	Task
BanglaBERT (Bhattacharjee et al., 2022a)	111M	2022	Encoder	NLU
BanglaT5 (Bhattacharjee et al., 2023)	247.6M	2022	Encoder + Decoder	NLG
BanglaGPT (Salim et al., 2023)	124.4M	2023	Decoder	NLG
BanglaByT5 (Bhattacharyya and Bhattacharya, 2025)	300M	2025	Encoder + Decoder	NLU + NLG
BanglaLlama (Zehady et al., 2024)	8B	2025	Decoder	NLU + NLG
TituLLM-1B & 3B (Nahin et al., 2025)	37B	2025	Decoder	NLU + NLG
TigerLLM-1B & 9B (Raihan and Zampieri, 2025)	1B	2025	Decoder	General
Multilingual models supporting Bangla				
mBART (Liu et al., 2020)	∼680M	2020	Encoder + Decoder	NLG
GPT-4 (OpenAI et al., 2024)	–	2023	Decoder	General
LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023)	8B-65B	2023	Decoder	General
Mistral / Mixtral (Jiang et al., 2023)	7B	2023	Decoder	General
BLOOM / BLOOMZ (Workshop et al., 2023)	176B	2023	Decoder	NLG
Aya (Üstün et al., 2024)	13B	2024	Encoder + Decoder	NLU + NLG
Gemma (Gemma Team et al., 2024)	2B–7B	2024	Decoder	General
Gemini 2.5 (Comanici et al., 2025)	–	2025	Decoder	General
Qwen 3 (Yang et al., 2025)	0.5B–32B	2025	Decoder	General

Table 1: Overview of Bangla NLP models, including task type, size, and architecture. Abbreviations are NLG: Natural Language Generation; NLU: Natural Language Understanding."-" means the size is not disclosed.

Figure 6: Comparative Analysis of Bangla LLM Adaptation Strategies, derived from Table 4 in Appendix C.

cally support general capabilities, including NLU, NLG, reasoning, and multimodal learning.

4.3 Discussion and Research Gaps

One limitation of current work is the dominance of decoder-only models such as GPT, LLaMA, Mistral, BanglaGPT, and BanglaLLaMA. Decoder-only models generate text left to right, using only the previous words. While good for fluent generation, this may hurt Bangla due to its flexible word order (Ayman et al., 2024), where meaning can depend on what comes after a word. Similar findings in Arabic and Korean show bidirectional BERT models perform better than unidirectional GPT models for NLU (Abdul-Mageed et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2020). This limitation is illustrated in Figure 7(a), where the sentences in red are equally meaningful in all four word orders.

Another limitation is unfiltered pretraining data. Even with improved pretraining pipelines, domain and source bias can remain. For example, BanglaGPT (Salim et al., 2023) cleans and normalizes its data, but the corpus can still include web crawl noise and limited filtering, which affects downstream performance and causes religious bias, as illustrated in Figure 7(b). It also reports no strong alignment or toxicity control beyond basic cleaning, which can reduce reliability and safety (Raihan and Zampieri, 2025; Nahin et al., 2025).

5 Approaches for Adapting LLMs

Figure 6, derived from Table 4 in Appendix C, summarizes the techniques used to adapt LLMs for Bangla, with the following sections providing further details.

5.1 Prompting-based Adaptation

Prompting instructs the model without touching the model architecture. Four main types of prompting approaches have been applied: (1) translation-based prompting (Shafayat et al., 2024a), (2) chain-of-thought (CoT) prompting (Prama et al., 2025; Shafayat et al., 2024a), (3) zero-shot prompting (Singh et al., 2025; Deutsch et al., 2025; Hasan et al., 2024; Bhutani et al., 2024), and (4) few-shot prompting (Dehan et al., 2025; Nahin et al., 2025; Mahtab et al., 2025; Haider et al., 2025; Wasi et al., 2024; Saha et al., 2024; Kamruzzaman et al., 2023; Goswami et al., 2023). Figure 8 shows that zero-shot and few-shot prompting are the popular approaches prompt-based adaptation for Bangla. BenQA (Shafayat et al., 2024a) uses two other techniques: it instructs the model to reason step-by-step in Bangla before selecting an answer, known as CoT prompting, and then includes the English ver-

Figure 7: Visualization of major limitations of language model architecture and the pretraining process. (a) Showing how language performance depends on language model architecture (Abdul-Mageed et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2020). "Bidirectional-dependent language" refers to a language that has flexible word order, postpositional dependence, and heavy morphology. (b) Showing how an unfiltered language model creates bias in a QA task (Ekram et al., 2022).

Figure 8: Breakdown of Bangla LLM adaptation strategies by family and subtype (within-family percentages).

sion of the same question alongside the Bangla one, referred to as translation-based prompting.

5.2 Fine-Tuning-based Adaptation

Several studies have employed fine-tuning strategies to adapt LLMs for Bangla. The majority of early approaches relied on full fine-tuning, where all model parameters were updated for a specific downstream task (Liu et al., 2021; Bhattacharjee et al., 2022b; Malmasi et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2022a; Kamruzzaman et al., 2023; Monsur et al., 2023; Elahi et al., 2024; Faisal et al., 2024b; Singh et al., 2024a; Mahtab et al., 2025). More recent works have increasingly turned to Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning (PEFT) techniques to reduce training costs while retaining strong adaptation capabilities (Hasan et al., 2024; Mahfuz et al., 2025; Dehan et al., 2025). For example, Dehan et al. 2025 attached LoRA adapters to the linear layers of the models to make them faster, less memory intensive,

and cheaper. A small number of works have also explored instruction tuning to make LLMs behave more like a helpful assistant and follow human-written instructions (Akil et al., 2022; Kamruzzaman et al., 2023; Tariquzzaman et al., 2024). For instance, BanglaLlama (Zehady et al., 2024) was designed to make LLaMA models follow Bangla instructions.

5.3 Tokenizer or Vocabulary Adaptation

LLMs are trained on English or other Latin-based languages, so they often break words in other languages into too many small pieces. This makes it harder for the model to understand or generate good text. Tokenization adaptation (Bhattacharjee et al., 2022b; Kumar et al., 2022a; Monsur et al., 2023) solves this problem by updating the tokenizer using more Bangla text. This may be done either by incrementally adding a limited number of Bangla-specific tokens to an existing tokenizer without

Model	SQuAD_Bangla (QA)		Bangla-HelthNER (IE)	XNLI-bn (NLI)	SNAC (TC)
	EM	F1	F1	Acc.	Acc.
LLaMA-3-70b-chat	75.8[2]	81.9[2]	-	64.6[2]	-
GPT-3.5	44.85[3]	78.67[3]	15.51[1]	92[3]	48.47[3]
LLaMA-2-13b-chat	31.73[3]	67.95[3]	-	-	29.27[3]
Claude-2	49.92[3]	79.04[3]	-	-	48.61[3]
LLaMA-3-8B	-	-	-	83.1[2]	-
BanglaBERT	72.63[5]	79.34[5]	54.74[1]	82.8[2]	-
BanglishBERT	72.43[5]	78.40[5]	56.13[1]	-	-
XLM-R (Large)	73.15[5]	79.06[5]	-	-	-
XLM-R	-	-	-	-	87.60[4]
IndicBERT	-	-	-	-	78.45[4]
mBERT	-	-	54.98[1]	-	80.23[4]

Table 2: Performance comparison across language models on zero-shot prompting and finetuned data on different NLP tasks. Abbreviations: QA - Question Answering, IE - Information Extraction, NLI - Natural Language Interfaces, and TC - Text Classifications. Performance data collected from [1] Khan et al. (2023a); [2] Mahfuz et al. (2025); [3] Kabir et al. (2024); [4] Kakwani et al. (2020); [5] Bhattacharjee et al. (2022a).

retraining the full vocabulary (which we call *New Token*), or structurally extending or retraining the tokenizer to substantially increase Bangla coverage (which we call *Vocabulary Expansion*). Nahin et al. (2025) created a new Bangla-friendly tokenizer and combined it with Llama, using about 48 GB of Bangla text. They tested different vocabulary sizes so each Bangla word used fewer tokens, making the model faster and smarter. Mahfuz et al. (2025) showed that English tokenizers break Bangla words too much and suggested retraining the tokenizer with more Bangla data like in BanglaT5 and NLLB. Bangla-supporting models use diverse tokenization schemes, including WordPiece (mBERT, BanglaBERT), SentencePiece (XLM-R, IndicBERT, LLaMA-style), byte-level BPE (GPT-style), ByT5-style byte tokenization, and Indic NLP variants. These methods segment Bangla's morphologically rich words differently, yet there is limited systematic comparison of their effectiveness for Bangla, with existing work offering mostly qualitative insights (e.g., Nahin et al. 2025).

5.4 Multilingual / Cross-Lingual Transfer

Cross-lingual transfer refers to leveraging knowledge learned from one language to enhance model performance in another language with limited resources. In this review, nearly all papers (Liu et al., 2021; Akil et al., 2022; Malmasi et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2022a; Goswami et al., 2023; Tariquzzaman et al., 2024; Singh et al., 2024a; Bhutani et al., 2024; Hasan et al., 2024; Haider et al., 2025; Deutsch et al., 2025; Gamage et al., 2025; Dewangan et al., 2025) applied some form of cross-lingual transfer to improve Bangla language understanding. For example, Shafayat et al. (2024a) combine Bangla and English questions within the same prompt to transfer reasoning ability from English to Bangla. Similarly, Liu et al. (2021) employed multilingual language models to generate synthetic Bangla data from English seed texts, thereby augmenting low-resource datasets and strengthening model adaptation.

5.5 Discussion and Research Gap

In different adaptive strategies Figure 6, we have found that recent work uses fine-tuning and cross-lingual transfer. Full fine-tuning is expensive because it needs more task data, high compute, and long training time, which is hard for Bangla. Moreover, systematic analyses of cross-lingual transfer are still limited, particularly studies examining how Bangla models perform relative to other languages. Not only adaptation strategy but also Table 2 the lack of a consistent evaluation setup is shown: different models are evaluated on different datasets. This makes a fair comparison difficult, especially since different models do well on different tasks and benchmarks. The missing results in the table suggest there is scope for more thorough comparisons in future work.

Cross-lingual transfer helps share knowledge from English or Hindi to Bangla, but it can cause misalignment and domain-specific semantic hallucination (Sundar et al., 2025). As shown in Figure 9, the Bangla sentence means the patient's blood pressure is normal but glucose level is high.

Figure 9: Illustration of a cross-lingual transfer limitation by hallucination. The Bangla sentence means the patient's blood pressure is normal but glucose level is high. Due to English-biased embeddings, the model links "blood" with "pressure" and ignores "glucose," producing the wrong output: "The patient has high blood pressure." This example has taken from Demner-Fushman et al. (2022)

Due to English-biased embeddings, the model links "blood" with "pressure" and ignores "glucose," producing the wrong output: "The patient has high blood pressure." Research is needed to analyze in depth how tokenizers built for English and Latin scripts split Bangla words into unnatural fragments, how this contributes to cross-lingual transfer errors, and how the problem can be mitigated.

6 Future Directions

From the observation of the research gap of all sections, we have come to some precise future directions for Bangla researchers. We have seen from section 3.3 and Figure 7 that, we still do not have clear evidence on which model types handle Bangla's flexible word order best. Future work should run controlled tests that change word order and vary case markers or post-positions to see where decoder-only models fail. Also, Bangla hallucinations often come from poor cross-lingual alignment that is dominated by English. Future work should design Bangla-specific alignment methods and create benchmarks that directly measure alignment quality.

We also have observed that a few missing steps can make bigger problems; for instance, a language model with unfiltered data or a dataset with trans-

lation but without human post-editing can cause hallucination, bias, boundary mismatch, etc. A key future direction is to build large, high-quality native Bangla corpora that cover diverse domains. These datasets should support multi-label classification and multi-step reasoning with longer passages and include fine-grained labels that capture partial understanding and multiple valid answers. Since translation will remain important for expanding Bangla resources, improving translation reliability is another key direction. Future work can compare different translation strategies to understand their strengths and weaknesses.

Current Bangla NLP work focuses on applied tasks, with limited study of advanced reasoning and bias. Future research should expand into agentic NLP, retrieval-augmented reasoning, knowledge editing and memory, structured prediction, and code reasoning. Linking models to Bangla knowledge sources such as Wikipedia, textbooks, and government archives can improve factual accuracy, while more work on information extraction and knowledge graphs is needed for search and decision support.

7 Conclusion

In this survey, we presented a comprehensive overview of Bangla language processing with large language models, examining benchmarks, datasets, model architectures, adaptation techniques, and major application areas. Although research in Bangla NLP has expanded significantly in recent years, the overall progress remains uneven. Datasets are small or overly simplified, evaluation practices often rely on English-centered metrics, and a large portion of Bangla resources still depend on translation or cross-lingual transfer. Several important research directions such as advanced reasoning, bias and fairness, retrieval augmented methods, and structured prediction are only beginning to receive attention. To advance the field, future work will require richer native Bangla corpora, improved translation strategies, better tokenization and architectural choices tailored to Bangla, and alignment focused benchmarks that can reduce semantic drift. By synthesizing recent work and identifying these core gaps, we hope this survey will guide future research to address these existing challenges.

Limitations

This survey aims to give a broad overview of recent work on Bangla language processing with large language models. We made our best effort to find and review relevant studies across datasets, benchmarks, model families, adaptation methods, and application areas. However, because the field is moving very quickly, it is possible that we missed some very recent, unpublished, or hard-to-find works. Also, due to page limits, descriptions are necessarily brief and focus on key trends and takeaways rather than full technical details of every study. We welcome suggestions from the research community and plan to update this survey as new work appears.

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A Dataset

A.1 Monolingual vs. Multilingual

The distinction between monolingual and multilingual datasets is crucial in low-resource language research because each provides unique insights into how LLMs learn, generalize and represent linguistic knowledge. From Table 3 we can see that the multilingual datasets such as MulD (Liu et al., 2021), mMARCO (Bonifacio et al., 2022), IndicNLG(Kumar et al., 2022a), OffMix-3L(Goswami et al., 2023), MIRACL (Zhang et al., 2023), Aya (Singh et al., 2024a), WMT24 (Deutsch et al., 2025), SeeGULL(Bhutani et al., 2024) and MultiMWP (Gamage et al., 2025) highly rely on machine translation to extend language coverage, which converts English or other high-resource languages into Bangla.

For example, the MultiCoNER (Malmasi et al., 2022) dataset, a multilingual resource for complex named entity recognition, includes 11 languages, including Bangla (BN). During dataset construction, the corpus was first developed in English using three main sources: Wikipedia (LOWNER), MS MARCO questions (MSQ NER) and Bing ORCAS search queries (ORCAS NER). English entities were automatically labeled through Wikipedia interlinks and Wikidata gazetteers. For Bangla, German, Chinese and Hindi, the English sentences were translated into these languages using the Google Translation API. Only the surrounding sentence context, excluding the entity terms, was translated. No human participation was involved in the correction process.

Although monolingual datasets do not fully rely on data translation, they cannot be considered sufficient, as they still show clear limitations in knowledge depth and cultural grounding. For example, datasets such as BanglaRQA, BanglaQuAD (Rony et al., 2024), BanNERD (Mahtab et al., 2025) and BanglaNLG (Bhattacharjee et al., 2022b) are curated by native speakers and are typically developed for task specialization and smaller size rather than broad knowledge coverage. BanglaRQA (Ekram et al., 2022) and BanglaQuAD mainly use Bangla Wikipedia as their knowledge source, while BanglaNLG draws on online forums and social media posts for generative summarization tasks. This indicates that, although the data is authentically written in Bangla, it represents only a narrow range of topics and lacks the domain diversity needed for deeper and more comprehensive language under-

Dataset	Year	Task	Sources	Size	Metrics	LM-based	Translation
BanglaRQA	2022	QA	Bangla Wiki	14.8k Pairs	F1	✓	None
BanglaHateBERT	2022	TC	Multi-domain	15k Posts	Acc., F1	✓	None
BanglaParaphrase	2022	NLU	RoarBangla	466.6k Pairs	BLEU, ROUGE-L, BERTScore	✓	Automatic
BanglaNLG	2022	NLG	Multi-domain	2.75M pairs	BLEU; ROUGE; F1	✓	Automatic
BanMANI	2023	TC	Social Media	500 Articles	F1, ROUGE-L	✓	None
M-BAD	2023	TC	Social Media	15.6k Text	F1	✓	None
BnPC	2024	NLG	Newspapers	8.7k Pairs	ROUGE-L, BERTScore	✓	None
Bengali & Banglish	2024	TC	Multi-domain	80.1k Sent.	Acc., F1, Kappa	✓	Post-edit
BNSENTMIX	2024	TC	Multi-domain	20k Sent.	Acc., F1	✓	None
BanglaQuAD	2024	QA	Bangla Wiki	30.8k Sent.	F1	✓	None
BEnQA	2024	QA	Exams Book	5.1k Sent.	F1	✓	None
BDA	2024	TC	Multi-domain	48.3k Sent.	F1, CS	✓	Automatic
BanStereoSet	2025	BE	Multi-domain	2k Sent.	SE	✓	Post-edit
ANCHOLIK-NER	2025	IE	Multi-domain	17.4k Sent.	F1	✓	Post-edit
BANTH	2025	TC	Social Media	37k Samp.	F1, Acc.	✓	Post-edit
BnMMLU	2025	IE	Multi-domain	138k Sent.	Acc., F1	✓	None
REVEAL-Bangla	2025	NLU	Wikipedia	104 Samp.	Acc.	✓	Post-edit
BanNERD	2025	IE	Multi-domain	85k Sent.	F1	✓	None
BIDWESH	2025	TC	Social Media	9.1k Sent.	Acc., F1	✓	Post-edit
BanglaMATH	2025	NLU	School Workbooks	1.7k Samp.	Acc.	✓	None
Bangla-Alpaca	2025	NLU, NLG	Multi-domain	224k Pairs	N/A	✓	Automatic
MultiLingual datasets supporting Bangla							
MulDA	2021	IE	Multi-domain	100K Sent.	F1	✓	Automatic
MultiCoNER	2022	IE	Multi-domain	26M Tokens	F1	✓	Automatic
mMARCO	2022	IR	Multi-domain	532k Pairs	Recall	✓	Automatic
IndicNLG	2022	NLG	Multi-domain	8.5M Sent.	ROUGE-L, F1	✓	Automatic
OffMix-3L	2023	TC	Social Media	100k Sent.	F1	✓	None
MIRACL	2023	IR	Wikipedia	726k Pairs	Recall	✓	None
Aya	2024	NLU, NLG	Multi-domain	513M	Acc., chrF++	✓	Automatic
WMT24	2024	MT	Multi-domain	6.1k Pairs	chrF++	✓	Post-edit
SeeGULL	2024	BE	Multi-domain	25.8k Sent.	F1	✓	Automatic
Global-MMLU	2025	NLU	Multi-domain	589.7k Sent.	Acc.	✓	Post-edit
MultiMWP	2025	NLG	Multi-domain	7.4k Sent.	F1	✓	Post-edit

Table 3: Overview of Bangla NLP datasets. "LM-based" stands for involvement of LLMs on those Dataset. "Trans." represent Translation is used dataset generation process. Symbols ✓and ✗indicate the presence or absence of those things. Abbreviations of NLP Task: QA - Question Answering; TC -Text Classification; NLG - Natural Language Generation; IE - Information Extraction; NLU - Natural Language Understanding; MT -Machine Translation; IR -Information Retrieval; BE - Bias Evaluation; SE - Stereotype Engagements.

standing.

A.2 NLP Task

Among the reviewed Bangla NLP datasets, three major task types are common: Text Classification, Language Understanding and Question Answering. Datasets such as BanglaHateBERT, BanMANI, M-BAD, BNSENTMIX, BDA, BANTH, BID-WESH and OffMix-3L were primarily developed for different forms of text classification. On the other hand, BanglaParaphrase, REVEAL-Bangla, BanglaMATH and Bangla-Alpaca were designed for language understanding, while BanglaRQA, BanglaQuAD and BEnQA focus on question-answering tasks.

NLU is a common NLP task across these datasets, covering mathematical, commonsense and general language understanding. For instance,

Reveal-Bangla (Islam and Sarti, 2025) evaluates multi-step reasoning, particularly commonsense, temporal and multi-hop factual reasoning that links historical facts, performs simple calculations and applies logical inference. The reasoning follows a chain-of-thought (CoT) style, where intermediate steps lead to the final answer. While step-level importance enables analysis of model reasoning, the evaluation remains limited for non-binary examples, constraining deeper insight into complex reasoning.

IE, NLG, BE and MT tasks are less common but still represented.

A.3 Data Sources

Multi-domain is the common type of resource used in generating datasets of Bangla, covering sources such as Wikipedia, newspapers, exams, social me-

dia, online forums, and curated knowledge bases. Examples include BanglaHateBERT, BanglaNLG, BNSENTMIX, BDA, BanStereoSet, ANCHOLIK-NER, BnMMLU, BanNERD, Bangla-Alpaca etc. For instance, BanglaNLG is a benchmark created to evaluate natural language generation in Bangla across six key tasks. For machine translation, it uses the BanglaNMT parallel corpus, while the text summarization task is based on BBC News articles with editor-written summaries. The question-answering task uses the BQA dataset, which includes human-written Bangla questions and answers, along with some unanswerable ones. And those data are collected from school exam, notebooks, etc.

Wikipedia and social media are also common domains of collecting data including BanglaRQA, BanMANI, M-BAD, BanglaQuAD, BANTH, REVEAL-Bangla, BIDWESH, OffMix-3L and MIRACL. BanglaQuAD is one of the dataset which is built from Bengali Wikipedia. The authors first shortlisted 658 important Wikipedia articles across 14 categories and 114 subcategories, then had native Bengali annotators create 30,808 question answer pairs directly from those passages using their own annotation tool, BnAnno. On the other side, BIDWESH (Fayaz et al., 2025) dataset contained over 50,000 Bangla comments collected from social media platforms and online streaming sites.

Other resources are less common like Text books, Newspapers, Exam Papers etc. For example, The BEnQA (Shafayat et al., 2024a) dataset was created using official Bangladeshi national board exam questions for grades 8, 10, and 12, covering science subjects such as Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Biology.

A.4 Performance Metrics

The commonly used performance metric in Bangla NLP research is the F1 score. It is applied in some datasets such as BANTH, BIDWESH, BanglaHate-BERT, BDA, and M-BAD for text classification. This evaluation method calculates the standard precision (P), recall (R) and F1 score. F1 measures the overlap between system and gold tokens.

$$F_1 = \frac{2 \times P \times R}{P + R} \quad (3)$$

Another common metric is accuracy, which measures how many total predictions are correct. Datasets like BanglaHateBERT, BDA, and BanglaMATH (Prama et al., 2025) used accu-

racy to summarize overall performance. For question answering datasets such as BanglaQuAD and BEnQA, the main metrics are Exact Match (EM) and token-level F1. EM measures how many answers match the gold reference exactly.

Other performance metrics include Recall@k, Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR), BLEU, ROUGE-L, BERTScore and chrF++, which are used in different tasks. For instance, for generation and translation tasks such as BanglaParaphrase, BanglaNLG, and WMT24, the common metrics are BLEU, ROUGE-L, BERTScore and chrF++.

A.5 Translation of Data

To generate monolingual datasets, almost 60 percent of the time the technique used is translation from high-resource languages. More than half of the datasets, including BanglaParaphrase, BanglaNLG, BDA, BanStereoSet, ANCHOLIK NER, BANTH, REVEAL Bangla, BIDWESH and Bangla Alpaca, were created using translation-based methods. However, several Bangla NLP datasets were developed entirely in native Bangla without any machine or human translation, such as BanglaRQA, BanglaQuAD, BanglaHateBERT, M BAD, BanMANI, BNSENTMIX, BnPC and BanglaMATH.

Different translation strategies have been adopted across these datasets. For instance, Indic-NLG (Kumar et al., 2022a) applied parallel translation of summarization and dialogue data from English into several Indic languages, including Bangla. The Aya (Singh et al., 2024a) corpus combined automated translation models with crowd validation, mixing machine generated translations from English. The BanglaParaphrase (Akil et al., 2022) corpus used back translation, where Bangla text was first translated into English and then back into Bangla, producing paraphrased versions verified for semantic consistency.

While not all datasets used translation to create training data, some applied translation for reasoning support. For example, BANTH (Haider et al., 2025) introduced translation-based prompting, translating Banglish text into Bangla or English before inference to enhance the understanding ability of large language models. In contrast, BanglaRQA and BanglaQuAD contain manually written question and answer pairs collected from Bangla Wikipedia and news sources. Likewise, BNSENTMIX, BnPC and BanglaMATH were compiled directly from local sources such as product

reviews, newspapers and school textbooks, ensuring the natural use of the Bangla language.

A.6 Dataset Size

The size of Bangla NLP datasets varies widely, showing that data collection for this language is still developing unevenly. Generally, Bangla datasets are small, usually between 5,000 and 50,000 samples, such as BDA with 48,000, BanglaQuAD with 31,000, and BANTH with 37,000 entries. Only a few have reached large-scale levels, including BanglaNLG with 2.75 million pairs and Bangla-Alpaca with 224,000 pairs, which are important steps toward creating large, model-ready datasets. In comparison, multilingual datasets that include Bangla, such as IndicNLG with 8.5 million sentences, Aya with 513 million and Global-MMLU with about 590,000, are much larger and more balanced across languages. This clear difference in size shows that Bangla data is still limited for effective pretraining and evaluation of large language models.

B Application Areas

B.1 Fundamental NLP Tasks

From low-level preprocessing to high-level reasoning, this taxonomy (Figure 10) presents the full landscape of Bangla NLP in a single overview. All referenced studies were published between 2021 and 2025 and focus on the use of large language models. At the foundational stage, limited work exists on preprocessing tasks such as tokenization (Alam et al. 2021 Bose and Salim 2024), normalization (Fahim, 2023) and part-of-speech tagging (Nadif et al., 2024), followed by lexical and syntactic analysis that includes word sense disambiguation (Chakrabarty et al. 2021 Yong et al. 2024) and dependency or constituency parsing. For instance, the study by (Alam et al., 2021) primarily reviews core Bangla preprocessing tasks and shows that large language models can replace older rule-based and classical machine learning methods for Bangla preprocessing, provide better or similar performance and offer standard baselines and data splits for future Bangla NLP research.

B.2 Applied NLP Tasks

The Applied NLP section in this taxonomy (Figure 10) covers a wide range of topics, which reflects how active and rapidly growing this area is. It includes information retrieval, relational semantics,

and both natural language understanding and natural language generation tasks. Recent research focuses on NLU (Liu et al. 2023, Wasi et al. 2024, Aurpa et al. 2023, etc.) and NLG (Fahad et al. 2024, Niloy 2024, etc), especially on text classification, question answering, information extraction, and machine translation. Maximum papers examine how large language models perform on these tasks and how LLMs can be used to improve them. For example, Hasan et al. (2025a) used LLMs in two ways for machine translation task. First, LLMs helped to generate the data, they used large LLMs like GPT-4o, Claude, and Gemini to generate translations, and humans chose the best ones. Then, the authors trained BanglaT5 (Bhattacharyya and Bhattacharya, 2025) using their new dataset.

B.3 Advancing Reasoning and Responsible NLP

In the advanced reasoning area some papers have focused on reasoning rather than responsible NLP such as ethics and bias. Different prompting-based learning methods such as CoT, zero shot, and few shot have been applied and although research in Bangla is still limited various reasoning mechanisms have been explored including multi-step reasoning (Shafayat et al., 2024b), commonsense reasoning (Ridoy et al., 2025), and inductive and deductive reasoning (Tasnim et al., 2025). In (Mohsin et al., 2025) the main reasoning style is prompting-based CoT with short stepwise explanations. For each toxic Bangla sentence the LLM is instructed to first explain in about fifteen words why the sentence is toxic then decide the class (Explicit, Implicit, or Not Toxic) and finally generate a detoxified paraphrase. Therefore the reasoning is generally local and explanation-oriented CoT rather than long multi-step logic or formal inductive and deductive proofs. When handling implicit toxicity the model also relies on simple commonsense and social reasoning.

C Approaches for Adapting LLMs

C.1 Prompting-based Adaptation

To adapt LLMs for Bangla language, different types of adaptation techniques have been used, with prompting being one of the common (Table 4). There are four main types of prompting approaches that have been applied: (1) translation-based prompting (Shafayat et al., 2024a), (2) chain-of-thought (CoT) prompting (Prama et al. 2025,

Figure 10: A complete taxonomy of Bangla language processing application areas. This taxonomy is created by taking the idea from those (Zhao et al. 2024a, Chu et al. 2024 and Wasi et al. 2024) papers. Key abbreviations: IE - Information Extraction; QA - Question Answering; MT - Machine Translation; NER - Named Entity Recognition; CoT - Chain-of-Thought; RAG - Retrieval-Augmented Generation; WSD - Word Sense Disambiguations; RE - Relation Entities; TC - Text Classification; NLU - Natural Language Understanding; NLG - Natural Language Generation; IR - Inductive Reasoning and DR -Deductive Reasoning. Color legend are ▮ : extensive research, ▮ : moderate research, ▮ : limited research, ▯ : very few works.

Paper	Prompting	Finetune	Translation	Tokenizer Adaptation	Cross-/Multilingual
Liu et al. 2021	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Akil et al. 2022	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Bhattacharjee et al. 2022b	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗
Malmasi et al. 2022	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Kumar et al. 2022a	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓
Goswami et al. 2023	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
Kamruzzaman et al. 2023	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
Monsur et al. 2023	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓
Elahi et al. 2024	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Singh et al. 2024b	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
Saha et al. 2024	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
Faisal et al. 2024b	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Shafayat et al. 2024a	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓
Tariquzzaman et al. 2024	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Singh et al. 2024a	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Bhutani et al. 2024	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓
Wasi et al. 2024	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓
Hasan et al. 2024	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
Haider et al. 2025	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓
Mahtab et al. 2025	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
Deutsch et al. 2025	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓
Singh et al. 2025	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓
Gamage et al. 2025	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Dewangan et al. 2025	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓
Nahin et al. 2025	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
Dehan et al. 2025	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
Mahfuz et al. 2025	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 4: Comparative Analysis of Bangla LLM Adaptation Strategies: Prompting, Fine-Tuning, Translation, Tokenizer Adaptation, and Cross-/Multilingual Transfer. Symbols ✓ and ✗ indicate the presence or absence of those things.

Shafayat et al. 2024a), (3) zero-shot prompting (Singh et al. 2025, Deutsch et al. 2025, Hasan et al. 2024, & Bhutani et al. 2024), and (4) few-shot prompting (Dehan et al. 2025, Nahin et al. 2025, Mahtab et al. 2025, Haider et al. 2025, Wasi et al. 2024, Saha et al. 2024, Kamruzzaman et al. 2023, & Goswami et al. 2023).

BEnQA (Shafayat et al., 2024a) uses two straightforward prompting ideas to help LLMs perform better in Bangla. First, it instructs the model to reason step by step in Bangla before selecting an answer, known as CoT prompting. Second, it includes the English version of the same question alongside the Bangla one, referred to as translation-appended prompting. This approach allows the model to leverage its stronger English understanding to grasp terms and concepts more effectively while still providing the reasoning and final answer in Bangla.

A few studies have also explored generative elicitation prompting to examine model bias through open-ended responses. SeeGULL Multilingual (Bhutani et al., 2024) asked language models to freely generate stereotypes so researchers could observe what the models "think".

C.2 Fine-Tuning-based Adaptation

Several studies in this review employed fine-tuning strategies to adapt LLMs Bangla language. The majority of early approaches relied on full fine-tuning, where all model parameters were updated for a specific downstream task. For instance, Liu et al. 2021, Bhattacharjee et al. 2022b, Malmasi et al. 2022, Kumar et al. 2022a, Kamruzzaman et al. 2023, Monsur et al. 2023, Elahi et al. 2024, Faisal et al. 2024b, Singh et al. 2024a & Mahtab et al. 2025.

More recent works have increasingly turned to Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning (PEFT) techniques to reduce training costs while retaining strong adaptation capabilities. For example Hasan et al. 2024, Mahfuz et al. 2025 & Dehan et al. 2025 used PEFT technique where LoRA adapters were attached to the linear layers of the models Dehan et al. 2025 to make faster, less memory-intensive, and cheaper, while still adapting the models to Bangla text classification tasks effectively.

Though this not very common in this study but some paper used instruction tuning to make LLMs behave more like a helpful assistant to follow human written instruction clearly. For instance, Akil

et al. (2022), Kamruzzaman et al. (2023), Tariquz-zaman et al. (2024) has used Instruction tuning, where BanglaLlama (Zehady et al., 2024) was designed to make LLaMA models follow Bangla instructions, like answering questions, generating text, or solving reasoning problems in Bangla.

C.3   Tokenizer or Vocabulary Adaptation

Most LLMs are trained on English or other Latin-based languages, so they often break words into too many small pieces of tokens. This makes it harder for the model to understand or generate good text. Tokenization adaptation ((Bhattacharjee et al., 2022b), (Kumar et al., 2022a)& (Monsur et al., 2023)) solves this problem by updating the tokenizer using more Bangla text. Nahin et al. (2025) created a new Bangla-friendly tokenizer and combined it with Llama, using about 48 GB of Bangla text. They tested different vocabulary sizes so each Bangla word used fewer tokens, making the model faster and smarter. Mahfuz et al. (2025) mainly showed that English tokenizers break Bangla words too much and suggested retraining the tokenizer with more Bangla data like in BanglaT5 and NLLB.

C.4   Multilingual / Cross-Lingual Transfer

Cross-lingual transfer refers to leveraging knowledge learned from one language to enhance model performance in another language with limited resources. In this review, nearly all papers (Liu et al. 2021, Akil et al. 2022, Malmasi et al. 2022, Kumar et al. 2022a, Goswami et al. 2023, Tariquzzaman et al. 2024, Singh et al. 2024a, Bhutani et al. 2024, Hasan et al. 2024, Haider et al. 2025, Deutsch et al. 2025, Gamage et al. 2025 & Dewangan et al. 2025) applied some form of cross-lingual transfer to improve Bangla language understanding. For example, Shafayat et al. (2024a) combined Bangla and English questions within the same prompt to transfer reasoning ability from English to Bangla. Similarly, Liu et al. (2021) employed multilingual language models to generate synthetic Bangla data from English seed texts, thereby augmenting low-resource datasets and strengthening model adaptation.