

Data Foundations of Long-Context Language Models: A Survey

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Abstract

Long-context large language models (LCMs) have emerged as a focal point of research in natural language processing due to their ability to process ultra-long text sequences. Among the key factors influencing their performance, long-context data serve as a core foundation for LCMs’ modeling and differ significantly from traditional short-context data in terms of length and structural complexity. Despite extensive efforts devoted to optimizing or evaluating LCMs through data-centric approaches, there remains a lack of unified comparisons across existing datasets and an insufficient discussion of the essential data characteristics required by LCMs. To address this gap, this survey presents the first systematic review of LCMs from a data-centric perspective. Specifically: (1) We identify the critical characteristics that long-context data should possess; (2) We comprehensively summarize the sources and construction methods of long-context data; (3) We analyze the relationship between long-context data and LCMs’ capabilities; and (4) We outline the main challenges faced by LCMs at the data level and provide insights into future research directions. By offering a systematic review, this work aims to provide clear guidelines for data selection and design in LCMs, thereby promoting continued advancements in the field.

1 Introduction

Long-Context Language Models (LCMs) have emerged as a focal point of research in natural language processing, driven by their ability to process ultra-long text sequences (Anthropic; Achiam et al., 2023). These models excel in tasks requiring deep contextual understanding and sustained coherence, such as long-document summarization, code generation, and multi-hop reasoning (Bai et al.,

2023; Bolotova-Baranova et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024a). However, achieving high performance in these tasks depends not only on advancements in model architecture but also critically on the availability and quality of long-context data (Gao et al., 2024b; Chen et al., 2024c). Unlike traditional short-context data, long-context data exhibits unique characteristics—such as extended dependencies, structural complexity, and non-uniform information density—that pose significant challenges for both data collection and model training (Fu et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2024b).

Despite extensive efforts to evaluate and optimize LCMs, there remains a notable gap in the systematic understanding of long-context data (Hsieh et al., 2024; Kuratov et al., 2024). Existing datasets vary widely in terms of quality, diversity, and applicability, with many failing to meet the demands of training robust LCMs (Liu et al., 2024c; Wen et al., 2025). High-quality, naturally occurring long-context corpora remain scarce, while synthetic datasets, though promising, often struggle to achieve an ideal balance between realism and scalability (Liu et al., 2025a). Similarly, current benchmarks for evaluating LCMs are numerous but limited in scenario coverage, making it difficult to comprehensively assess model capabilities across diverse long-context tasks (Costa-jussà et al., 2024; Yan et al., 2025a). As a result, the field faces a pressing need for unified comparisons of existing datasets and a deeper exploration of the data characteristics essential for advancing LCMs.

1.1 Structure of the Survey

In this survey, we provide the systematic review of LCMs from a data-centric perspective. The taxonomy of long-context data is illustrated in Figure 1. And Table 1 summarizes and compares long-context datasets from the perspectives of usage stage, source, capability, and construction method. The survey is organized as follows:

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1. Section 2 analyzes the critical characteristics that long-context data should possess to effectively support LCMs training and evaluation.
2. Section 3 summarizes the sources and construction methods of long-context data.
3. Section 4 investigates the relationship between long-context data and LCMs capabilities, highlighting how data properties influence model performance.
4. Finally, we identify key challenges at the data level and propose future research directions to address these issues in Section 5.

2 Requirements for Long-Context Data

Simply requiring long-context data to meet a certain length threshold is far from sufficient for effectively developing the capabilities of LCMs (Hu et al., 2024). It is crucial to explore data characteristics that are more conducive to LCMs. Below, we introduce this exploration from two perspectives: training (§2.1) and evaluation (§2.2).

2.1 Training

Contextual Coherence One of the core characteristics of long-context is their essential contextual coherence (Liu et al., 2024c). Training data must absolutely maintain complete semantic coherence to avoid contextual fragmentation caused by data segmentation or concatenation. This helps LLMs better understand complex semantic relationships within long-context and enhances its generation and reasoning capabilities.

Long-Range Dependencies Long-context often contain long-range dependencies that span multiple sentences or even paragraphs (Chen et al., 2024b). The training data should adequately reflect these long-range dependencies, enabling LLMs to learn how to capture and utilize such relationships within long-context. This improves the model’s ability to comprehend complex structures.

Cross-Domain Diversity To ensure the model possesses strong generalization capabilities, long-context training data should cover a wide range of domains (e.g., science, literature, news) and genres (e.g., academic papers, novels, reports). Diverse data sources ensure that the model can adapt to various types of long-context tasks, and the mixture

proportions of data from each field crucially impact the competence of outcome models (Fu et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2025b; Ye et al., 2025).

Utilization of Structured Data Some long-context data exhibits structured features, such as code, tables, or lists. Proper utilization of this structured information can enhance the model’s understanding of long-context, enabling it to process complex document structures more effectively (Pham et al., 2024; Staniszewski et al., 2025).

2.2 Evaluation

The core idea behind the design of evaluation data for LCMs is that “models with longer input contexts should be capable of completing tasks that were previously difficult or impossible to achieve.” Effective evaluation data not only ensures the reliability and consistency of models in real-world applications but also provides guidance for model optimization and selection. Therefore, compared to long-context training data, the construction of evaluation data imposes higher requirements (Yan et al., 2025a; Que et al., 2024).

Length Coverage Long-context test data should encompass contexts of varying lengths, with the quantity and quality of evaluation data across different length intervals being as balanced as possible (Yuan et al., 2024). This ensures a flexible assessment of LCMs capabilities in handling long-contexts of varying scales.

Data Authenticity These data should closely resemble real-world scenarios and include various phenomena found in natural language usage, such as colloquial expressions and slang, to ensure that the test reflects the LCMs performance in practical applications (Reddy et al., 2024; Bai et al., 2025).

Uniform Answer Distribution Long-contexts contain vast amounts of information, imposing higher requirements on the annotation and construction of test data (Zhu et al., 2024). The ground truth should not be concentrated in a fixed position within the data, and to avoid LCMs exploiting shortcut learning for predictions (Zhang et al., 2025).

Controlled Difficulty Test data should have moderate difficulty, aligning with the development of LCMs capabilities (Kuratov et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2024b). Avoid excessively difficult or overly simplistic evaluation data to effectively assess the

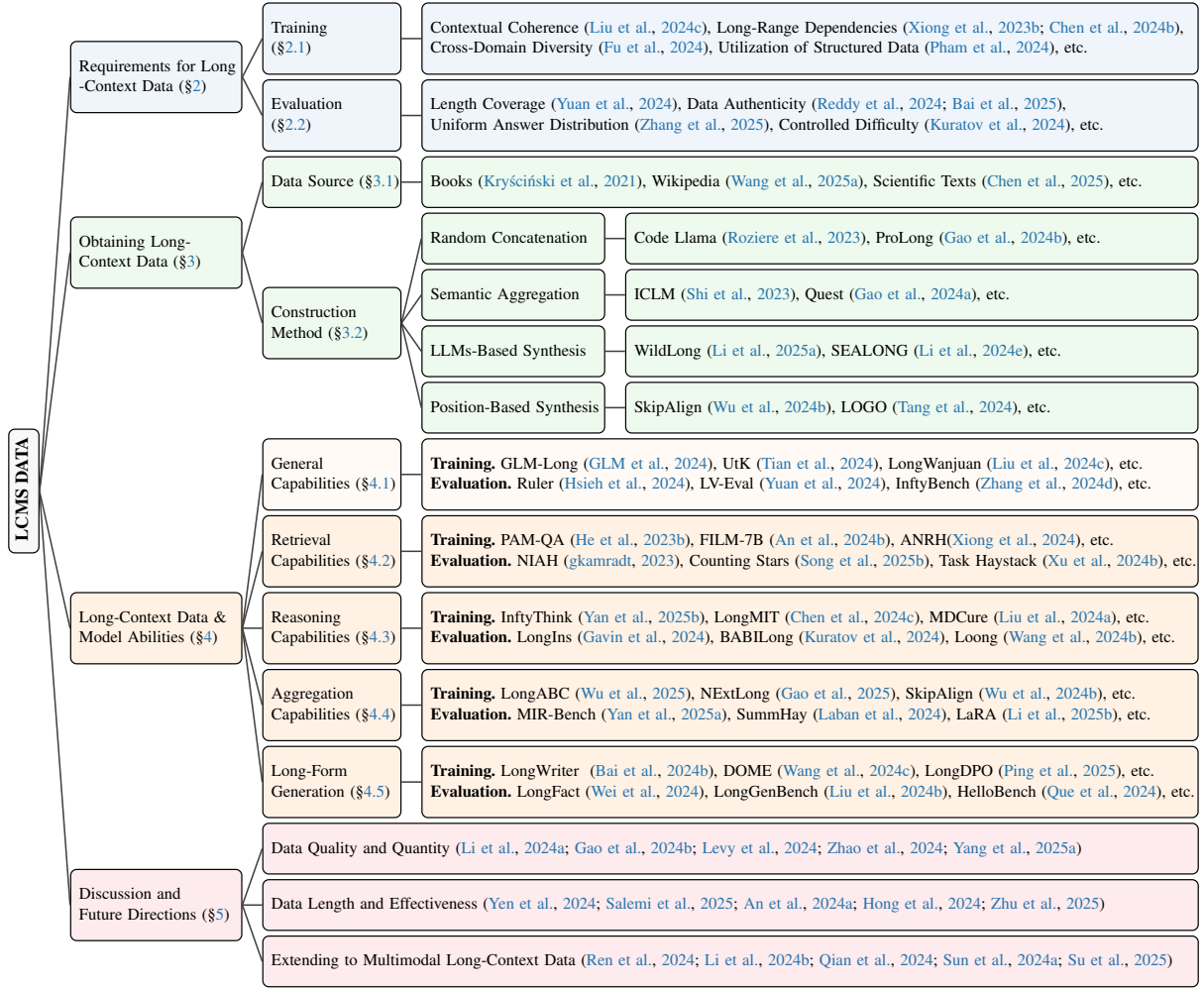


Figure 1: Taxonomy of Long-Context Data.

model’s performance in complex scenarios and promote LCMs optimization.

3 Obtaining Long-Context Data

Compared with short-context data, long-context data is typically more challenging to acquire due to its stringent requirements for length and quality (Ouyang et al., 2022). The acquisition of such data can be categorized into two main approaches: sampling long-context data form existing data sources (Le Scao et al., 2023; Touvron et al., 2023) or synthesizing long-context through strategies (Shi et al., 2023; Tworkowski et al., 2024; Song et al., 2025a). Below, we provide a detailed discussion of long-context data sources (§3.1) and construction methods (§3.2).

3.1 Long-Context Data Source

The sources of long-text data can be categorized into general-purpose data and domain-specific data. General-purpose data primarily originates from

sources such as books and lengthy dialogues (Zhao et al., 2023), offering advantages such as large scale, high diversity, and ease of access. These qualities make it highly suitable for LCMs to enhance their language modeling and generalization capabilities. Domain-specific data includes code, academic papers, and specialized knowledge resources, which can significantly improve the performance of LCMs on specific tasks (Yan et al., 2025b; Adams et al., 2024).

Books Books represent one of the most important and frequently used sources of naturally generated long-context data (Kim et al., 2024). They encompass a wide range of styles and genres, providing complete sentences and paragraphs with strong coherence and complex contextual relationships (Bai et al., 2024a; Zhang et al., 2024e). These characteristics enable LCMs to learn deep connections between contexts, thereby improving their ability to understand complex sentence structures, logi-

Datasets	Source	Abilities	Construction method
<i>Pre-Training Data</i>			
SemDeDup (Abbas et al., 2023)	O	General	Sampling
WanJuan (He et al., 2023a)	C, O	General	Sampling
LLaMA2 Long (Xiong et al., 2023b)	B, W, C	Reasoning	Up-Sampling, Generation
ICLM (Shi et al., 2023)	B, W, S	Reasoning, Retrieval	Splicing
UtK (Tian et al., 2024)	B, W, S, C	General	Splicing
Quest (Gao et al., 2024a)	O	General	Splicing
ProLong (Chen et al., 2024b)	B, C, S	General, Reasoning	Up-Sampling
MAP-Neo (Zhang et al., 2024a)	B, S, C, O	General, Reasoning	Sampling
LongWanjuan (Liu et al., 2024c)	B, W, S, C, O	General, Reasoning	Up-Sampling
ProLong 8B (Gao et al., 2024b)	B, W, C	Reasoning	Mixing, Sampling
LLaMA2 128K (Fu et al., 2024)	B, W, C	Reasoning, Retrieval	Splicing, Sampling
RegMIX (Liu et al., 2025b)	B, W, S, C, O	General, Reasoning	Mixing
SPLiCe (Staniszewski et al., 2025)	W, S, C	General, Reasoning	Splicing
NextLong (Gao et al., 2025)	B, W, S	General, Retrieval	Splicing, Positional
LADM (Chen et al., 2025)	B, W, S, C, O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
LongABC (Wu et al., 2025)	B, C, S	Reasoning, Aggregation	Positional
MMR&FPS (Wang et al., 2025b)	O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Splicing, Generation
<i>Post-Training Data</i>			
ASM QA (He et al., 2023b)	O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
LongAlign (Bai et al., 2024a)	B, W, S, C	General, Reasoning	Generation
ChatQA 2 (Xu et al., 2024a)	B, W	General, Reasoning	Sampling, Generation
LongReward (Zhang et al., 2024c)	S	General, Aggregation	Splicing, Generation
LongMIT (Chen et al., 2024c)	B, W, S	Reasoning	Generation
Suri (Pham et al., 2024)	O	Reasoning	Sampling, Annotation
USDC (Marreddy et al., 2024)	O	Reasoning	Generation
MDCure (Liu et al., 2024a)	O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
SkipAlign (Wu et al., 2024b)	S	Reasoning, Aggregation	Positional
IN2 (An et al., 2024b)	O	Reasoning, Retrieval	Generation
SEALONG (Li et al., 2024e)	W	Reasoning, Retrieval	Generation
LOGO (Tang et al., 2024)	B, W, S	Reasoning, Aggregation	Splicing, Positional
ORPO (Hong et al., 2024)	O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
DOME (Wang et al., 2024c)	B, O	Long-Form Generation	Generation
LongWriter (Bai et al., 2024b)	O	Long-Form Generation	Generation
MegaBeam (Wu and Song, 2025)	B, S, C	General, Retrieval	Splicing, Positional
HIERARCHICAL (He et al., 2025)	B	General, Reasoning	Generation, Positional
LongFaith (Yang et al., 2025a)	W	Reasoning	Generation
InfyThink (Yan et al., 2025b)	O	Reasoning	Generation
WildLong (Li et al., 2025a)	S, C	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
DeFine (Wang et al., 2025a)	W	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
Light-R1 (Wen et al., 2025)	O	Reasoning	Generation
LongDPO (Ping et al., 2025)	O	Long-Form Generation	Generation
<i>Evaluation Data</i>			
L-EVAL (An et al., 2023)	B, O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Annotation
LongBench v1&v2 (Bai et al., 2023, 2025)	B, W, S	Reasoning, Aggregation	Annotation, Generation
ZeroSCROLLS (Shaham et al., 2023)	B, W, S	Reasoning, Aggregation	Annotation, Generation
LongIns (Gavin et al., 2024)	O	General, Reasoning	Generation
HELMET (Yen et al., 2024)	B, W, O	General, Reasoning	Annotation
InfyBench (Zhang et al., 2024d)	B, C	General, Retrieval	Annotation, Generation
FanOutQA (Zhu et al., 2024)	W	Reasoning, Retrieval	Annotation
NovelQA (Wang et al., 2024a)	B	Reasoning, Retrieval	Annotation
BABILong (Kuratov et al., 2024)	B	Reasoning, Retrieval	Annotation, Generation
LV-EVAL (Yuan et al., 2024)	B, W, O	Reasoning, Retrieval	Annotation, Generation
HoloBench (Maekawa et al., 2024)	W, O	Reasoning, Retrieval	Generation
FinTextQA (Chen et al., 2024a)	O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Annotation
Loong (Wang et al., 2024b)	S, O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Annotation
NarrativeQA (Bohnet et al., 2024)	B	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
Ruler (Hsieh et al., 2024)	O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
Task Haystack (Li et al., 2024d)	W, O	Retrieval	Annotation
SummHay (Laban et al., 2024)	O	Aggregation, Retrieval	Generation
XL2Bench (Ni et al., 2024)	B, S, O	Reasoning, Retrieval	Generation
Michelangelo (Vodrahalli et al., 2024)	W, C	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
LCFO (Costa-jussà et al., 2024)	W, S, O	Aggregation	Annotation
HelloBench (Que et al., 2024)	B, W, S, O	Long-Form Generation	Annotation
LongGenBENCH (Liu et al., 2024b)	O	Long-Form Generation	Generation
LongFact (Wei et al., 2024)	O	Long-Form Generation	Generation
LongLaMP (Kumar et al., 2024)	S, O	Long-Form Generation	Generation
LongCodeBench (Rando et al., 2025)	C	Reasoning	Annotation, Generation
LaRA (Li et al., 2025b)	B, S, O	Reasoning, Retrieval	Annotation, Generation
DeFine (Wang et al., 2025a)	O	Reasoning, Aggregation	Annotation
MIR-Bench (Yan et al., 2025a)	C	Reasoning, Aggregation	Generation
Needle Threading (Roberts et al., 2025)	B	Retrieval	Generation
LONGINOUTBENCH (Zhang et al., 2025)	S	Long-Form Generation	Generation

Table 1: Datasets and Benchmarks for LCMs Training and Evaluation. “B”, “W”, “S”, “C”, and “O” refer to Books, Wikipedia, Scientific-Texts, Code, and Other domain-specific data (e.g. medical, financial, etc.).

cal relationships, and semantic coherence. Currently, widely used book datasets include Books3 and BookCorpus2 ¹.

Wikipedia Wikipedia ² serves as a high-quality knowledge base and is extensively utilized in the training and evaluation of LCMs (Xiong et al., 2023a; Gao et al., 2024b; Wang et al., 2025a). Its entries cover a broad spectrum of topics, enhancing the model’s knowledgeability and logical reasoning abilities. Additionally, Wikipedia’s hierarchical structure makes it particularly suitable for constructing multi-hop reasoning datasets with long-context dependencies (Zhu et al., 2024).

Scientific Texts Scientific text encompasses textbooks, academic papers, and related resources. Such data plays a crucial role in training and testing LCMs’ ability to comprehend scientific knowledge (Tian et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2025). Common sources of scientific texts include arXiv ³ papers, PubMed ⁴ papers, textbooks, lecture notes, and educational webpages.

Code Code also meets the length requirements of long-context data and differs significantly from natural language (Roziere et al., 2023). As a formalized language, code relies on strict syntax and specific programming paradigms, reflecting long-range dependencies and precise execution logic. Primary sources of code include programming Q&A communities (e.g., Stack Exchange ⁵) and public software repositories (e.g., GitHub ⁶). The former provides rich context and real-world usage scenarios, while the latter covers multiple programming languages and domains, ensuring high quality and diversity (Wu and Song, 2025; Wu et al., 2025).

3.2 Long-Context Data Construction Method

Existing native long-context data is not only scarce but also costly to acquire. Additionally, processing such data poses significant technical challenges, including difficulties in annotation, sparsity of key information, and the complexity of maintaining logical coherence (Zhang et al., 2024a; Quan et al., 2024). Consequently, synthesizing long-context data through specific strategies—such as document

concatenation or leveraging large language models (LLMs)—has become a critical approach to overcoming the bottleneck of long-context data availability and enhancing the performance of LCMs (Pham et al., 2024; Liang et al., 2024).

Random Concatenation Strategy The random concatenation strategy involves combining short documents randomly to achieve a target length, enabling rapid generation of long-context data (Ouyang et al., 2022; Le Scao et al., 2023; Touvron et al., 2023). While this method ensures diversity in the contextual content of the synthesized data, the weak semantic relationships between concatenated documents hinder the model’s ability to learn long-range dependencies (Levine et al., 2021). As such, data generated via random concatenation is typically suitable for the pre-training phase of LCMs, which requires large amounts of unsupervised data and does not involve manual annotation.

Semantic Aggregation Strategy The semantic aggregation strategy generates long-context data by aggregating semantically similar documents (Shi et al., 2023). For instance, a document can be concatenated with the top k most similar documents in the corpus (Guu et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2024a). This approach emphasizes semantic relevance, enhancing the coherence of the synthesized long text. However, excessive reliance on semantic similarity may lead to narrow contexts (i.e., high redundancy), thereby compromising the diversity of the long-context data (Gao et al., 2024a).

LLMs-Based Synthesis Strategy Owing to the rapid advancements in LLMs, LLM-based long-context synthesis has emerged as an efficient method to significantly reduce manual annotation costs while enriching long-context data resources. Data synthesized using LLMs is typically supervised, including instruction-tuning data (An et al., 2024b; He et al., 2023a) and preference-alignment data (Zhang et al., 2024c; Ping et al., 2025; Hong et al., 2024). The most common form of such data is question-answer pairs (QA pairs), which are used during the post-training phase. In this phase, pre-trained language models with general capabilities undergo targeted training to acquire domain-specific skills or produce outputs that better align with human preferences (Yang et al., 2024b).

Position-Based Synthesis Strategy By inserting specific position indices during training, models

¹<https://opendatalab.com/OpenDataLab/Pile-BookCorpus2>

²<https://zh.wikipedia.org/>

³<https://arxiv.org/>

⁴<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>

⁵<https://stackexchange.com/>

⁶<https://github.com/>

can handle longer contexts without increasing additional computational resources (Zhu et al., 2023; Su et al., 2024; Ding et al., 2024). This method constructs “long-context” data by manipulating position indices, rather than relying on extending the actual length of input sequences (Wu et al., 2024a). For example, SkipAlign (Wu et al., 2024b) strategically inserts skipped positions into instruction-following samples, leveraging the semantic structure of the data to effectively extend context and synthesize long-range dependencies. DAPE (Zheng et al., 2024) achieves length extrapolation through data-adaptive position encoding.

4 Long-Context Data Driven Model Capabilities

LCMs are capable of effectively processing text sequences containing thousands or even tens of thousands of tokens, thereby excelling in more complex language understanding and generation tasks (anthropic, 2024; OpenAI, 2024). This capability also imposes higher demands on various aspects of the model’s performance. This chapter systematically examines the impact of data on the development and evaluation of LCMs capabilities from the perspective of model competencies. Specifically, we categorize the core capabilities of these models into five types: General Capabilities (§4.1), which are fundamental language modeling abilities acquired during the pre-training phase and serve as the foundation for other advanced abilities; Retrieval Capabilities (§4.2), Reasoning Capabilities (§4.3), Aggregation Capabilities (§4.4), and Long-Form Generation Capabilities (§4.5), as shown in Figure 2. Building on this framework, we conduct an analysis from two dimensions—training data and evaluation data—focusing on the following key questions 1) **What training data are most conducive to enhancing LCMs performance** and 2) **What benchmarks are more accurate and comprehensive** of these capabilities. Through this systematic analytical framework, we aim to provide both theoretical support and practical guidance for optimizing the capabilities of LCMs.

4.1 General Capabilities

General capabilities of LCMs refer to the foundational language understanding and generation abilities that possess in long-context scenarios. These include mastery of basic grammatical structures, comprehension of semantic relationships, and com-

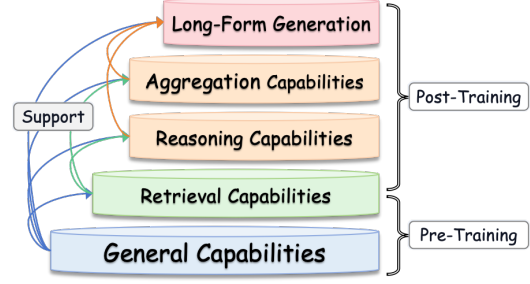


Figure 2: LCMs Capabilities and Training Phases

monsense reasoning (Beltagy et al., 2020; MiniMax et al., 2025). General capabilities enable LCMs to accurately process and generate text that conforms to linguistic norms, while serving as the foundation for supporting other advanced capabilities.

General capabilities are primarily acquired during the pre-training phase of LLMs through large-scale unsupervised learning. Typically, diverse long-context data are obtained from existing large corpora using splicing and sampling methods. These data sources are extensive, covering various types such as books, Wikipedia, and code. For example, Qwen-2.5 (Yang et al., 2024a) and GLM-Long (GLM et al., 2024) enhance the models’ ability to process million-token-level long-contexts by splicing and upsampling natural long-context data, while introducing synthetic data. Research efforts such as UtK (Tian et al., 2024), Quest (Gao et al., 2024a), and SPLiCe (Staniszewski et al., 2025) further emphasize the importance of long-range dependencies in long-context data. These methods split long contexts into shorter segments and reassemble them to generate training samples with higher diversity. Additionally, Fu et al. (2024) and Ye et al. (2025) explore the significant impact of mixing proportions of data from different domains. Datasets such as LongWanJuan (Liu et al., 2024c) and RegMix (Liu et al., 2025b) construct high-quality, domain-balanced, large-scale training sets for LCMs from the perspective of data mixing, providing robust data support for the development of general capabilities and significantly enhancing the overall performance of LCMs.

The evaluation of LCMs general capabilities relies on multi-task comprehensive benchmarks that integrate diverse tasks and datasets to offer a holistic assessment. For example, ZeroSCROLLS (Shaham et al., 2023) extends SCROLLS (Shaham et al., 2022) by including 10 natural language tasks such as QA and information aggregation, focusing

on zero-shot understanding. BABILong (Kuratov et al., 2024) emphasizes complex reasoning and retrieval through 20 reasoning tasks, including multi-hop QA and fact chain reasoning. RULER (Hsieh et al., 2024) builds on the NIAH (gkamradt, 2023) benchmark to evaluate ultra-long context search abilities. InftyBench (Zhang et al., 2024d), covering multiple domains and languages, assesses retrieval and reasoning performance on texts exceeding 100k tokens. Other benchmarks combine existing datasets for broader evaluations. LV-Eval (Yuan et al., 2024) evaluates performance across five text lengths. Longbench (Bai et al., 2023) and its updated version Longbench-v2 (Bai et al., 2025) focus on bilingual real-world scenarios with more realistic long-context tasks. L-Eval (An et al., 2023) covers law, finance, and other domains through 20 subtasks. HELMET (Yen et al., 2024) expands into seven application-driven categories and supports input lengths up to 128k tokens.

Summary. The development of general capabilities in LCMs require sufficiently long, diverse, and domain-balanced datasets, as well as multi-task evaluation benchmarks that are flexible in length, moderate in task difficulty, and broadly applicable.

4.2 Retrieval Capabilities

Retrieval capability of LCMs refers to the ability to quickly locate information relevant to user queries in a massive context, and integrate it (Fei et al., 2024; Roberts et al., 2025). This process not only relies on surface-level keyword matching but also demands that the model possess robust “attention mechanisms” and “information filtering” capabilities. These enable precise and comprehensive retrieval of long-context, thereby identifying semantic segments most relevant to the key information (Xu et al., 2023; Goldman et al., 2024).

Existing work typically leverages synthetic data to enhance the retrieval capabilities of LCMs during the post-training phase (Xu et al., 2024a). A key challenge in this process is the “Lost in the Middle” phenomenon, where models tend to overly focus on information at the beginning and end of ultra-long texts while neglecting critical information located in the middle (Liu et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2025). To address this, PAM-QA (He et al., 2023b) improves retrieval performance by decomposing multi-document QA tasks into multiple reasoning steps, including question paraphrasing, index prediction, and answer summarization, thereby guid-

ing the model to better focus on target information. An et al. (2024b) synthesized long-context QA data that explicitly teaches models that key information can appear at any position within the context. The resulting model, FILM-7B, demonstrates robust retrieval of information from any position within the context window. Existing research has shown that structured training data plays a positive role in enhancing the retrieval capabilities of LCMs (Li et al., 2024d). For instance, Baker et al. (2024) utilize triple extraction and summarization techniques from knowledge graphs to construct concise and well-structured training samples, to guide models to perform more precise information retrieval. Xiong et al. (2024) design a dataset based on key-value retrieval tasks, which not only improves the retrieval accuracy of models but also effectively mitigates hallucination.

Retrieval benchmarks aim to assess LCMs ability to locate and extract key information within long-contexts (Askari et al., 2024; Yuan et al., 2024), with the “Needle In A Haystack (NIAH)” (gkamradt, 2023) being one of the most representative. NIAH requires LCMs to retrieve critical information (“needle”) from ultra-long irrelevant text (“haystack”), thereby evaluating its retrieval performance across varying context lengths and depths. Building on this, NeedleBench (Li et al., 2024c) introduces multi-needle retrieval tasks (M-RT) and multi-needle reasoning tasks (M-RS) to further explore the complex retrieval and certain reasoning capabilities of LCMs. Meanwhile, RULER (Hsieh et al., 2024) incorporates four variants of the NIAH task to deeply investigate LCMs performance under different retrieval conditions. Counting-Stars (Song et al., 2025b) requires models to accurately retrieve and output the number of inserted “stars” in long-contexts, offering a more precise measure of LCMs ability to handle long-range dependencies compared to traditional NIAH, thus providing new insights into their potential for complex information processing and detailed task execution. Furthermore, some comprehensive evaluation benchmarks also include extensive retrieval tasks (Kuratov et al., 2024; Bai et al., 2023), such as the Retrieve.PassKey (Mohtashami and Jaggi, 2023) in Infty-Bench (Zhang et al., 2024d) and TriviaQA (Joshi et al., 2017) in HELMET (Yen et al., 2024). Many long-context reasoning benchmarks (Li et al., 2025b; Ni et al., 2024; Laban et al., 2024), including FanoutQA (Zhu et al., 2024) and

Loong (Wang et al., 2024b), require models to first retrieve key information from multiple documents before assessing their comprehension abilities.

Summary. Synthetic data with explicit key information and clear structure is more conducive to enabling LCMs to achieve efficient and accurate information retrieval in complex long-context scenarios (Qu et al., 2025). To properly evaluate this retrieval capability, ultra-long evaluation data with flexible and controllable key information is required, which helps avoid the phenomenon of shortcut learning (Du et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2024b) based on the original knowledge.

4.3 Reasoning Capabilities

Reasoning capability of LCMs refers to perform logical deduction and judgment based on given contextual information and internalized knowledge (Wan et al., 2025a; Yang et al., 2025b). This enables LCMs to understand complex logical structures, such as causal and conditional relationships, and to derive new conclusions or insights. Such reasoning ability allows LCMs to effectively address tasks that require in-depth thinking and logical analysis.

LCMs exhibit substantially weaker reasoning capabilities on long-context tasks compared to their performance on short-context tasks (GLM et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024d). To bridge this gap, recent research commonly leverages advanced LLMs to synthesize high-quality instruction data, which is used for post-training to enhance the complex reasoning abilities of LCMs (Zhang et al., 2024e; Tang et al., 2024). InftyThink (Yan et al., 2025b) reconstructs long-context reasoning datasets into an iterative format, facilitating better learning of complex reasoning paths. WildLong extracts meta-information from real user queries, models co-occurrence relationships using graph-based methods, to construct scalable training data. LongFaith (Yang et al., 2025a) improves the accuracy of reasoning chains by integrating ground-truth with citation-based reasoning prompts. Moreover, both LongMIT (Chen et al., 2024c) and MDCure (Liu et al., 2024a) generate high-quality instructions based on multi-document QA tasks. Among these, multi-hop instructions are particularly beneficial for enhancing the reasoning capabilities of LCMs. Beyond instruction tuning, preference optimization data also enhance the complex reasoning capabilities of LCMs (Zhang et al., 2024c; Marreddy et al., 2024). SeaLong (Li et al., 2024e) generates

multiple responses per question, ranks them and then conducts either supervised fine-tuning or preference optimization based on the ranked outputs. Light-R1 (Wen et al., 2025) proposes a curriculum learning approach, demonstrating that using unique and diverse datasets at different training stages can be more effective.

Reasoning benchmarks are designed to assess capacity for logical inference and deep comprehension in long-context contexts, going beyond simple retrieval of key information (Ho et al., 2020; Amos et al., 2023). Among these, single-document reasoning tasks are the most commonly used (Dasigi et al., 2021). However, due to the concentrated distribution of ground truth within long-contexts, these tasks often provide a limited assessment of LCMs’ reasoning capabilities (Trivedi et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2024b). To address this limitation, recent benchmarks introduce more diverse and challenging reasoning structures (Ni et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024a). For example, FanoutQA (Zhu et al., 2024) leverages the hierarchical structure of Wikipedia to construct multi-hop reasoning tasks, Michelangelo (Vodrahalli et al., 2024) challenges models to extract relevant information from large volumes of irrelevant content, BABILong (Kurato et al., 2024) encompasses 20 distinct reasoning tasks, including chain-of-facts reasoning and basic induction, aiming to evaluate cross-fact reasoning abilities. Furthermore, Loong (Wang et al., 2024b) and LongBench (Bai et al., 2023, 2025) focus on evaluating deep understanding and reasoning capabilities across multiple real-world tasks. These benchmarks emphasize the importance of handling realistic scenarios with extended contexts. Given the practical importance of reasoning in real-world applications, some efforts have been directed toward evaluating LCMs in domain-specific settings. LongCodeBench is built on GitHub issues and code repositories, testing abilities in code comprehension and bug fixing within million-token contexts. DocFinQA (Reddy et al., 2024) and FinTextQA (Chen et al., 2024a) are financial-domain QA datasets on long-document comprehension in realistic financial scenarios. LongHealth (Adams et al., 2024) provides a comprehensive evaluation to process lengthy clinical documents encountered in healthcare settings.

Summary. Multi-document and multi-hop QA with explicit intermediate reasoning processes are highly beneficial for enhancing the reasoning capa-

bilities of LCMs. Reasoning chains and knowledge graphs further facilitates the explicit representation of reasoning paths, thereby improving both the interpretability and accuracy of reasoning. To effectively evaluate these capabilities, it is essential to design datasets with increased complexity and robustness, paired with tasks that demand advanced reasoning skills.

4.4 Aggregation Capabilities

The aggregation capability of LCMs refers to effectively integrating and synthesizing distributed information into a more comprehensive and well-structured knowledge representation (Li et al., 2024a; Zhang et al., 2024f; Liu et al., 2025a). This crucially involves categorizing similar content, summarizing key points, and eliminating redundancy (Li et al., 2025b).

Notably, compared to reasoning capabilities, aggregation relies more heavily on accurately capturing long-range dependencies within the training data. For instance, LongABC (Wu et al., 2025) leverages the self-attention mechanisms of LCMs to effectively quantify these long-range dependencies, thereby demonstrably enhancing aggregation performance. Similarly, the NExtLong approach (Gao et al., 2025) introduces negative document extension as a strategy to synthesize long-context data. This forces LCMs to meticulously distinguish relevant long-range context from irrelevant content, thus significantly strengthening their dependency modeling capabilities. Moreover, innovative positional-based data synthesis methods allow for precise control over the uniform distribution of key information within long contexts, which has also proven particularly beneficial for improving aggregation performance (Chen et al., 2023). Furthermore, SkipAlign (Wu et al., 2024b) enables LCMs to better capture complex long-range dependencies by astutely leveraging both positional indexing and underlying semantic structure. Additionally, it is worth noting that QA datasets presented in summarization task formats are also highly beneficial for training and refining the aggregation capabilities of LCMs (Kryściński et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2024e).

Aggregation capability benchmarks are designed to assess LLMs to integrate, summarize, and perform cross-document analysis across multiple long-contexts (Koh et al., 2022; Yan et al., 2025a). These tasks typically involve summarization and

synthesis, and often impose demands on the retrieval and reasoning capabilities (Shaham et al., 2023). GovReport (Huang et al., 2021) and QM-Sum (Zhong et al., 2021), constructed from government reports and meeting transcripts, respectively, evaluate LCMs ability to aggregate information in real-world scenarios. LCFO (Costajussà et al., 2024) evaluates progressive summarization and summary expansion across diverse domains. HoloBench (Maekawa et al., 2024) introduces database-style reasoning operations into textual contexts, facilitating a systematic evaluation of how LCMs handle holistic inference and aggregation across large document collections. SummHay (Laban et al., 2024) leverages synthetic multi-document “haystack” data to test LCMs to generate accurate summaries from extensive long-document corpora, with the additional requirement to identify relevant insights and properly cite source documents. XL2Bench (Ni et al., 2024) provides a comprehensive evaluation of LCMs aggregation capabilities across three distinct domains—focusing on long-range dependencies modeling.

Summary. The development of aggregation ability depends on effectively modeling long-range dependencies in long-context data, with position-index synthesis strategies demonstrating effectiveness in simulating such dependencies. These evaluation primarily involves summarization and synthesis tasks over long-contexts, requiring realistic data for effective benchmarking. A key challenge lies in assessing the quality of generated summaries, which critically depends on the reliability and accuracy of ground-truth references.

4.5 Long-Form Generation Capabilities

Long-form generation capability of LCMs refers to to produce coherent, fluent, and logically structured long-context content, such as articles and reports. This capacity enables LCMs to meet user demands for text creation of substantial length and depth, while maintaining global structural integrity, narrative flow, and factual consistency across extended contexts. (Li et al., 2023; Wan et al., 2025b)

Long-form generation poses a particularly challenging capability for LCMs. Existing datasets often lack the hierarchical structure and fine-grained annotations necessary for effective task decomposition, resulting in generated texts that are superficial and disorganized (Wang et al., 2024c). To address this limitation, DeFine (Wang et al., 2025a)

introduces a decomposed, fine-grained annotation dataset for long-article generation. It incorporates a hierarchical decomposition strategy combined with domain-specific knowledge and multi-level annotations, enabling precise control over generation granularity and promoting content depth. In addition, LongWriter (Bai et al., 2024b) proposes an AgentWrite pipeline that first generates a paragraph-level outline and then produces each section sequentially, while LongDPO (Ping et al., 2025) integrates a global memory pool and external critique mechanisms to generate higher-quality long texts, leading to substantial improvements in long-form generation tasks.

For evaluation purposes, the LongLaMP benchmark (Kumar et al., 2024) defines personalized long-form generation tasks by meticulously combining diverse prompts with retrieval-augmented frameworks. This rigorously assesses the model’s ability to integrate retrieved information into coherent, extended outputs. In a similar vein, LongFact (Wei et al., 2024) introduces a novel set of GPT-4-generated prompts that specifically require multi-paragraph, fact-rich responses. It also employs an automated SAFE evaluator to quantitatively measure factual accuracy in such long-form generation (Bai et al., 2024b). Furthermore, the LongGenBench suite (Liu et al., 2024b) presents diverse generation tasks, including technical expositions and creative stories, primarily to evaluate logical consistency maintained over considerably extended contexts. Separately, the HelloBench framework (Que et al., 2024) curates its prompts from authentic sources like books, reports, and transcripts. It then applies a detailed, layered human evaluation framework to assess critical aspects such as narrative flow, overall coherence, and factual coverage. Finally, to test resilience, LongInOutBench (Zhang et al., 2025) introduces controlled perturbations within mid-document content, such as shuffled paragraphs. This specifically tests the model’s robustness and its ability to maintain contextual fidelity despite such disruptions.

Summary. Training data that combine hierarchical outlines and stepwise preferences from rich multi-document contexts best develop long-form generation capabilities, while evaluation datasets that holistically cover personalization, factuality, coherence, and robustness comprehensively measure whether LCMs can sustain well-structured, accurate output over thousands of tokens.

5 Discussion and Future Directions

In this work, we present a systematic and comprehensive review of existing research on data-related aspects for long-context large language models (LCMs), with a particular emphasis on the relationship between data characteristics and model capabilities. We discuss datasets that are specifically designed to train and evaluate different abilities, offering clear guidelines for data selection and design in LCMs while laying a theoretical foundation for further enhancing their performance. Nevertheless, many challenges remain in the realm of data for LCMs. This section highlights some of key challenges and discusses future research directions.

Data Quality and Quantity The scarcity of genuinely high-quality, extensive long-context data represents a significant and persistent challenge (Zhao et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024a). While numerous studies have utilized large language models to synthesize long-context data, the verifiable quality of such synthetic data often remains inconsistent. Currently, there is a notable lack of clear definitions and robust evaluation metrics for long-context datasets (Gao et al., 2024b). Future work should therefore critically aim to develop a unified framework for quantifying the quality of long-context datasets across multiple dimensions.

Data Length and Effectiveness Increasing input length significantly raises computational costs during training (Zhang et al., 2024a; An et al., 2024a). Consequently, researchers are exploring the use of hybrid datasets that combine short- and long-context data. However, relying on limited amounts of long-context data may not be sufficient to ensure effective generalization from short to long contexts (Salemi et al., 2025; Zhu et al., 2025). Therefore, it is essential to strike a balance between data length, the proportion of short-to-long mixtures, and overall training effectiveness.

Extending to Multimodal Long-Context Data Future research can address the complexities of multimodal long-context data, encompassing text, image, and video. Key challenges include curating aligned datasets, modeling inter-modal long-range dependencies, synthesizing realistic multimodal sequences, and developing robust evaluation metrics for these integrated contexts. This will unlock more sophisticated, human-like understanding in LCMs (Sun et al., 2024a; Su et al., 2025).

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