

Synthetic Hallucinations, Real Gains: Hard Negatives from Frontier Models for FIM Hallucination Mitigation

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Abstract

Small open-source code models that power IDE autocomplete still emit *hallucinated* Fill-in-the-Middle (FIM) completions: syntactically natural calls to methods, parameters, variables, and imports that do not exist in the surrounding project. Existing mitigations either require per-language execution sandboxes that do not apply at mid-keystroke or preference-optimisation pipelines that need large human-labelled corpora. We propose an execution-free alternative: use frontier code models to *synthesize* plausible-but-wrong completions as *hard negatives*, then leverage the contrast between these synthetic hallucinations and the ground-truth developer edit as a supervised fine-tuning signal. Our pipeline scrapes multilingual FIM contexts from public GitHub across eight languages and asks a panel of three frontier generators to produce one hard negative per context for each of four hallucination types drawn from the Delulu taxonomy, a Docker-verified multilingual FIM hallucination benchmark, yielding a paired CHOSEN/REJECTED dataset. Fine-tuning QWEN2.5-CODER-7B-INSTRUCT on a 100K-row curated subset lifts Delulu exact match by +18.8 points and edit similarity by +0.22 on every language and every type, while also improving every HumanEval-Infilling split and every SAFIM subset. The same recipe at 3B lifts Delulu by +12.8 EM with a small, characterised general-FIM trade-off. Five-axis ablations (size, type mix, language coverage, base-model family, and a difficulty-aware *fool rate*) plus a head-to-head SFT vs. DPO/ORPO comparison map which design choices drive the gain. We release the full pipeline source code — generation, fool-rate LLM judging, curation, and the FIM fine-tuning recipe — so that the experiments in this paper can be reproduced end-to-end on any permissively licensed corpus.

1 Introduction

Large language models have become the default engine behind modern code assistants, and one of the dominant interaction patterns is *Fill-in-the-Middle* (FIM) (Bavarian et al., 2022; Fried et al., 2022): given a prefix and a suffix from the same source file, the model produces the missing middle. FIM is the workhorse of editor autocomplete: every keystroke that opens a new gap between two pieces of code becomes, at the model’s input, a FIM request, and its quality directly shapes the day-to-day experience of an AI coding assistant.

Because autocomplete must feel “live” (suggestions are useful only if they arrive within a few hundred milliseconds of a keystroke (Ziegler et al., 2022; Mozannar et al., 2024)), frontier APIs are too slow and too expensive at the scale of millions of keystrokes per second, and increasingly unusable inside enterprise tenants where source code cannot leave the customer’s network. Production code assistants therefore ship *small, fast, open-source code models* in the 3–7B parameter range specifically tuned for FIM (Bavarian et al., 2022; Fried et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2024; Hui et al., 2024; Lozhkov et al., 2024), reserving larger frontier models for chat and explain workflows.

The persistent failure mode of such small FIM models is *code hallucination*: a completion that is syntactically natural and locally plausible, but that violates the project’s true state: calling a method that does not exist, invoking an identifier that was never imported, fabricating a positional argument the API does not accept, or supplying an argument value that contradicts the documented behaviour of the surrounding code (Figure 1).

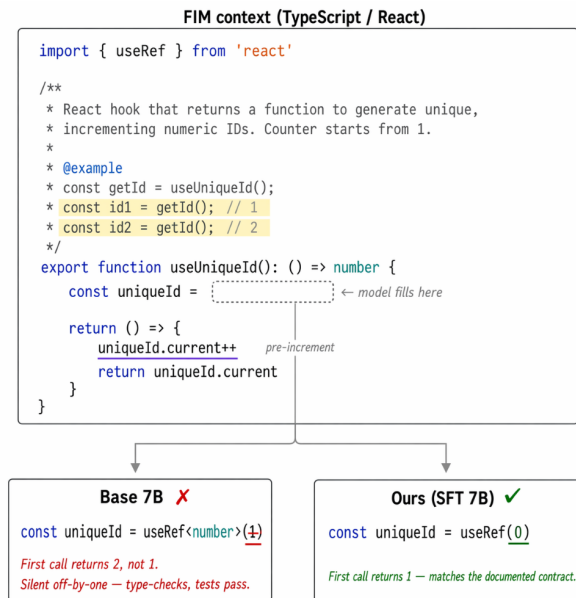


Figure 1: A representative FIM hallucination from Delulu. Given the same prefix and suffix (top), a React `useUniqueId` hook whose docstring promises that the first call returns 1 and whose body pre-increments the counter before returning it. The base 7B Code-LLM (bottom left) fills the hole with `useRef<number>(1)`, so the first call returns 2 and silently violates the documented contract. Our SFT-tuned model (bottom right) emits `useRef(0)`, matching the developer’s actual edit and the docstring. The failure is local and plausible: the surrounding lines type-check and run, the hallucinated initialiser looks deliberate, and a unit test asserting only that IDs are increasing would not catch the off-by-one.

Two families of mitigations are visible in prior work. The first, *execution-based* curation and filtering, runs each candidate completion through unit tests inside a per-language sandbox and keeps only the ones that pass (Chen et al., 2021; Shojaee et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2024); it is the recipe behind HumanEval-style evaluation and behind self-improving synthetic-data pipelines such as Magicoder and WizardCoder (Wei et al., 2023; Luo et al., 2023). The approach is effective for full-function synthesis with tests attached, but it breaks down in FIM autocomplete: mid-file edits have no per-hole tests, the file often does not parse mid-keystroke, and per-language sandboxes do not scale across multiple languages. The second family, *preference optimisation*, trains the model to prefer a chosen completion over a rejected one, either through a learned reward model (RLHF/RLAIF (Lee et al., 2023)) or by collapsing the reward into a contrastive objective (DPO (Rafailov et al., 2023), ORPO (Hong et al., 2024)). These methods are powerful but require large human-annotated preference corpora or per-rollout reward signals, neither of which is available at the granularity that per-hole hallucination correction needs.

A third option is suggested by work on *hard-negative mining* (Schroff et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2020; Xiong et al., 2020) and *synthetic data* from strong models (Wang et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2023; Luo et al., 2023). Hard-negative mining trains a model by contrasting positive examples with carefully chosen *near-miss* negatives that are close enough to be confusing but wrong in a specific, learnable way. Meanwhile, synthetic-data distillation has shown that strong models can transfer non-trivial capabilities to smaller students, including instruction following, reasoning, and code generation. Most earlier code-focused synthetic-data pipelines still depend on execution to verify their generations and therefore inherit the FIM limitations above (Wei et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023; Shojaee et al., 2023). We propose a different approach to overcome this limitation: rather than generating *correct* completions that require an executor to validate, we invert the recipe and generate *wrong-but-plausible* completions as hard negatives. Every FIM context already carries a *golden* continuation—the real line of code at the selected FIM hole—so we never need an executor to decide which completion is correct. This shifts the problem from “synthesise a correct completion and verify it”

to “synthesise a wrong-but-plausible completion as a hard negative to contrast against the existing gold,” removing the per-language sandbox, the per-hole unit tests, and the file-must-parse precondition in one move.

This raises the central question of this paper:

Can synthetic hard negatives generated by frontier code models serve as effective supervised fine-tuning signal for reducing hallucinations in smaller open-source FIM models?

These synthetic hard negatives can be used in two ways. In fine-tuning paradigms that consume paired CHOSEN/REJECTED samples such as DPO (Rafailov et al., 2023) and ORPO (Hong et al., 2024), the hard negatives serve *directly* as the rejected side of the contrastive objective, pushing the model toward the golden completion and away from the hallucinated one. SFT, by contrast, only consumes the chosen continuation and cannot ingest a rejected sample directly. Our claim is that the hard negatives are still useful here *indirectly*: because each one is a wrong answer that a strong model believed was good enough to emit, the rate at which it fools a blind LLM judge panel (our *fool rate*; §4.3.6) is a difficulty signal on the underlying FIM hole. Using this signal as a hard-negative mining filter (Schroff et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2020) lets us train on a much smaller, harder slice of the chosen data without losing quality.

Concretely, our pipeline samples FIM contexts from a permissive multilingual corpus scraped from public GitHub across eight languages (C#, Go, Java, JavaScript, PHP, Python, Ruby, Rust). A panel of three frontier code generators then produces one hard negative per context for each of four identifier-level hallucination types: METHOD, PARAMETER, UNDEFINED-VARIABLE, and IMPORT¹. The pipeline emits a paired CHOSEN/REJECTED dataset (Table 1, §3); we use the CHOSEN half as the SFT target and the REJECTED half as the contrastive signal for the DPO/ORPO comparison reported alongside SFT in the proof-of-concept evaluation (§4.2).

Fine-tuning QWEN2.5-CODER-7B-INSTRUCT on a 100K-row curated slice of this data lifts Delulu exact match by +18.8 points (+0.22 edit similarity), with positive deltas in *every* language and *every* hallucination type. We evaluate on three complementary benchmarks beyond Delulu: HumanEval-Infilling (Fried et al., 2022) (single-line, multi-line, and random-span Python FIM), SAFIM (Gong et al., 2024) (API completion, block completion, and control-flow completion across multiple languages), and Real-FIM-Eval (Gong et al., 2025), a benchmark of real GitHub additions extracted from 228 permissively-licensed repositories. The recipe simultaneously improves general-purpose FIM on every HumanEval-Infilling split and every SAFIM subset. The same recipe applied to the smaller QWEN2.5-CODER-3B-INSTRUCT lifts Delulu by +12.8 EM with a small, size-dependent trade-off on general FIM that we characterise in Section 5. The recipe also internalises *stopping behaviour*: every curated training target ends exactly at the FIM hole boundary, and a first- N -lines truncation protocol that we apply to every table isolates this gain from content gain (§4.1).

Having established that the recipe works, we ablate which design choices drive it: training-set *size* (5K–100K rows; §4.3.1), the *hallucination-type* mix (§4.3.2), the *language coverage* (Python-only, top-5, all eight; §4.3.3), the *base-model family* (Qwen, StarCoder2, CodeLlama; §4.3.5), and a difficulty-aware *fool rate* that filters the training set by hard-negative difficulty (§4.3.6). The picture is consistent: scale matters until ~ 50 K rows; all four hallucination types are necessary at full scale; language breadth ignites cross-lingual transfer above a five-language threshold, the recipe is base-model-agnostic; and supervisory mass concentrates in harder negatives (those that deceive more judges), with the largest per-row gain coming from the disputed middle of the fool-rate distribution rather than the unanimous-easy tier.

Contributions.

- An **execution-free, multilingual hard-negative SFT pipeline** that turns a permissive code corpus and a frontier generator panel into paired (CHOSEN, REJECTED) FIM data without sandboxes or unit tests (§3).
- Open-source **training and judging code** — the full pipeline used to generate hallucinated hard negatives, score them with a fast-reviewer LLM judge panel, curate the SFT dataset, and fine-tune the FIM models.

¹We adopt these four categories from the Delulu benchmark (Erfanian et al., 2026), which finds them to cover the majority of identifier-level FIM hallucinations. Extending the taxonomy with finer-grained types is left to future work.

The recipe is base-model-agnostic and we report results on four 7B/3B base families (QWEN2.5-CODER-{3B,7B}, STARCODER2-7B, CODELLAMA-7B); the SFT recipe simultaneously reduces hallucinations and improves general FIM at 7B (with a small, characterised trade-off at 3B), and we report a head-to-head SFT vs. DPO/ORPO comparison on the same paired data (§4.2, §5.1, §5.2, §4.3.5).

- Evidence that the recipe also teaches **stopping behaviour**, isolated via a first- N -lines truncation scoring protocol applied to every table (§4.1).
- A systematic ablation of **five recipe axes**: size, hallucination-type mix, language coverage, base model, and fool-rate filtering (§4.3).

Release. We open-source the full pipeline code — generation prompts, fool-rate LLM judge harness, curation, FIM tokenisation, and the fine-tuning recipe — so that any team with access to a permissively licensed corpus and a frontier generator panel can reproduce the proof of concept end to end. We do not release the fine-tuned checkpoints or the curated dataset: both are built on a proprietary source-code corpus whose redistribution terms prevent publication of derivatives. For teams with limited compute, a reduced-scale recipe using two generators and a $\sim 50\text{K}$ -row curated subset reaches near-identical performance at roughly half the total cost (Appendix D). §3 and Appendix B together document the pipeline, the prompts, and the training hyperparameters in enough detail to reproduce every result in this paper.

2 Related Work

Code-LLMs and Fill-in-the-Middle. Causal Code-LLMs such as Codex (Chen et al., 2021), StarCoder2 (Lozhkov et al., 2024), DeepSeek-Coder (Guo et al., 2024), and Qwen2.5-Coder (Hui et al., 2024) are routinely fine-tuned with FIM token permutations (Bavarian et al., 2022). We adopt the same FIM input format and evaluate on standard FIM benchmarks (HumanEval-Infilling (Fried et al., 2022), SAFIM (Gong et al., 2024)).

Code hallucination benchmarks. CodeHalu (Tian et al., 2024) and HalluCode (Liu et al., 2024) target instruction-following code tasks and rely on execution-based verification to label correctness; neither provides a FIM-specific evaluation suite, so no direct numerical comparison with our work is possible. Delulu (Erfanian et al., 2026) provides a Docker-verified multilingual FIM benchmark with four hallucination types and is the held-out evaluation target of our work. We reuse Delulu’s taxonomy but *drop* Docker verification when constructing training data, replacing the execution oracle with the existence of a known-confusable hard negative produced by a strong frontier generator.

Synthetic SFT data for code. Self-Instruct (Wang et al., 2022), Magicoder (Wei et al., 2023), and WizardCoder (Luo et al., 2023) construct large code SFT corpora from LLM completions. The closest line of work is RLAIIF-style (Lee et al., 2023) pipelines that pair correct and incorrect completions for DPO (Rafailov et al., 2023). Unlike previous code-SFT work, our *target* failure mode is hallucination at FIM holes specifically, and our paired data is built around a synthetic hard negative produced by a strong generator rather than a synthetic preference signal.

Test-free correctness signals. Execution-based filters (Zhang et al., 2023; Shojaee et al., 2023) rely on a per-language runtime. At SFT scale (millions of rows, nine languages, multi-runtime tests) this is prohibitive. Static substitutes (parsers, type-checkers) are cheaper but miss semantic hallucinations. Our pipeline sidesteps both: the *hard negative* produced by a strong generator provides the supervisory signal — training the model to prefer the golden over the hallucinated counterpart directly targets the failure mode the hard negative represents.

LLM-as-a-judge. Using LLMs as evaluators is now standard practice across NLG (Zheng et al., 2023; Gu et al., 2024). Recent work applies panels of judges to reduce single-model bias (Verga et al., 2024). We adopt judges only as a *difficulty signal* in an ablation (§4.3.6); the main proof of concept does not depend on judging.

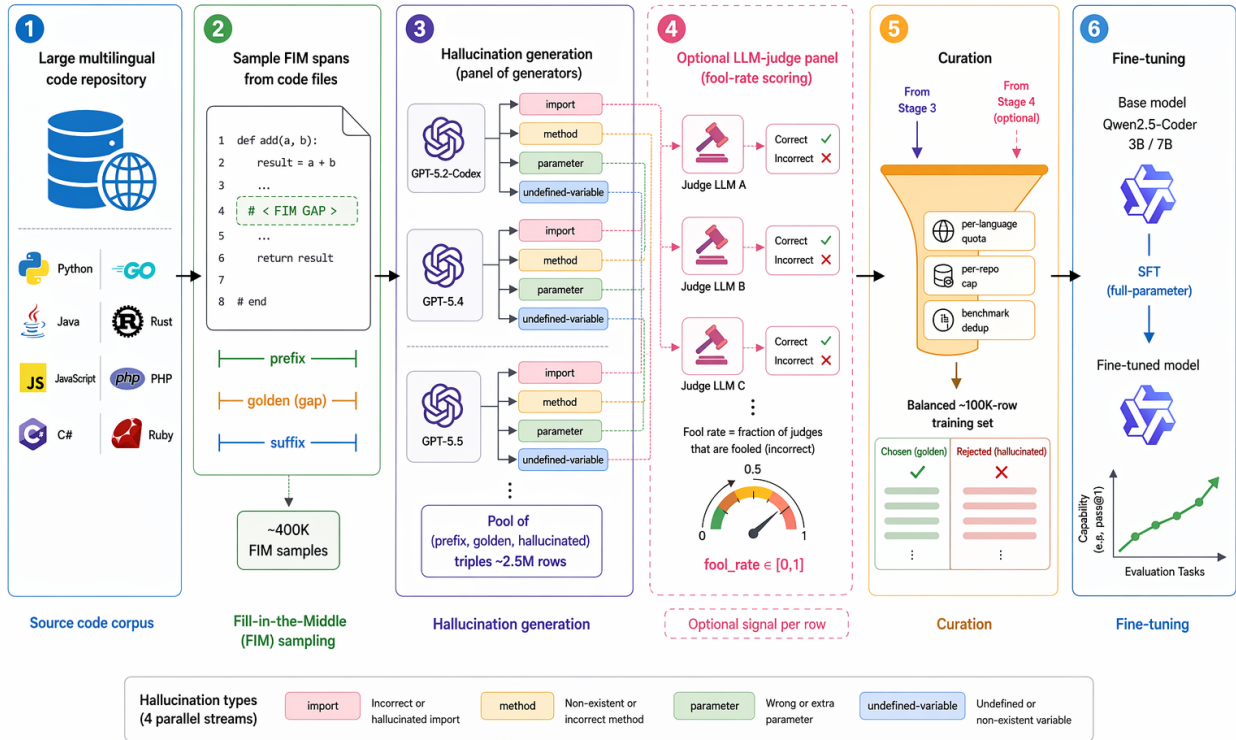


Figure 2: End-to-end pipeline. (1) A multilingual source-code corpus spanning eight languages feeds (2) Fill-in-the-Middle sampling, which extracts $\sim 400K$ real (prefix, golden, suffix) contexts. (3) A panel of three strong code generators (GPT-5.2-Codex, GPT-5.4, GPT-5.5) emits one hallucinated completion per context for each of the four taxonomy types, producing a pool of $\sim 2.5M$ (prefix, golden, hallucinated) triples. (4) An *optional* panel of blind LLM judges scores each row with a fool rate $\in [0, 1]$ (§3.2); the main proof of concept does not use this signal. (5) Curation enforces per-language and per-repository quotas and emits a balanced $\sim 100K$ -row training set with both the golden completion (CHOSEN) and the hallucinated one (REJECTED). (6) Full-parameter SFT of Qwen2.5-Coder- $\{3B, 7B\}$ on the CHOSEN side yields the fine-tuned models we evaluate. Engineering details are in Appendix B.

Type	Edit applied to the golden completion
METHOD	Replace one method name with an invented but plausible name not present in prefix or suffix.
PARAMETER	Inject a fake keyword or positional argument into an existing call.
UNDEFINED VARIABLE	Replace one identifier with one not defined in the surrounding scope.
IMPORT	Replace one real import line with a plausible but fictitious package or symbol.

Table 1: Hallucination taxonomy used throughout the paper.

3 Method

Our pipeline (Figure 2) turns a multilingual code corpus into a paired CHOSEN/REJECTED SFT dataset without ever executing the candidate code. The four hallucination types we target are listed in Table 1; they are inherited from the Delulu benchmark (Erfanian et al., 2026) so that gains on Delulu are interpretable as targeted-error reductions, not distribution-shift artifacts.

3.1 Pipeline

Seed FIM contexts. We scrape permissively licensed public GitHub repositories across eight languages and apply a model-based selector to identify lines that make high-quality FIM completion holes (sufficient context in prefix and suffix, non-trivial golden content). The selected line becomes the golden completion; the surrounding code forms the prefix and suffix. We sample $\sim 400\text{K}$ such contexts stratified per language and exclude any file or repository present in the evaluation benchmarks (§4.1).

Hallucination generation. A panel of three strong generators (GPT-5.2-Codex, GPT-5.4, GPT-5.5) produces one hallucinated completion per (context, type) pair. Different generators exhibit visibly different failure modes (one over-uses camel-case verbs, another invents framework-specific decorators), so panelling diversifies the hallucinations the model must learn to suppress; we also use the panel as an ablation axis in §4.3. The `IMPORT` type is special because the candidate must be placed at file scope rather than at the FIM hole; we handle it by relocating the FIM hole onto the original import line (Appendix B.1).

Curation. The curator emits two parallel files: an `sft.jsonl` that pairs each FIM prompt with its golden completion (used by the main proof of concept and by every ablation in §4.3), and a `pairs.jsonl` that additionally retains the hallucinated completion as `REJECTED`. Curation enforces per-(language, type) bucket quotas (default 4,000 rows) and a per-source- repository cap (default 50) to control leakage of any single repo’s style.

Fine-tuning. We fine-tune `QWEN2.5-CODER-{3B, 7B}-INSTRUCT` (Hui et al., 2024) with full-parameter SFT on the curated `sft.jsonl`; the model consumes the FIM prefix and suffix and predicts the golden completion. The same recipe is applied to two additional 7B base families (`STARCODER2-7B`, `CODELLAMA-7B-HF`) in the base-model ablation (§4.3.5); the only per-family change is the FIM sentinel template. Hyperparameters in Appendix B.2.

3.2 Difficulty signal: fool rate

The pipeline above treats every generated hallucination as equally useful training signal. In practice, some hallucinations are easy to spot (an obviously fake method name like `doFakeStuff`) while others are subtle enough that even a strong LLM judge would mistake them for correct code. Intuitively, hard-to-detect hallucinations should be more valuable for training: they are closer to the mistakes the target model would actually make in the wild. To measure how hard each row is, we score it with a panel of LLM judges and define the *fool rate* as the fraction of judges that classified the hallucinated completion as correct. A fool rate of 1 means every judge was deceived; a fool rate of 0 means the hallucination was obvious to all. This score lets us select training rows by difficulty and test empirically which regime carries the most useful signal.

Formally, we ask a panel $\mathcal{J} = \{j_1, j_2, j_3\}$ of three fast-reviewer LLM judges (GPT-4O-MINI, GPT-4.1-MINI, GPT-5.4-MINI; chosen to be distinct from the three Phase-2 generators), each shown only the FIM prefix, the candidate completion, and the suffix *without being told the candidate may be hallucinated*, whether the candidate is correct. Each verdict is a binary correct/incorrect label and the *fool rate* is the fraction of judges deceived:

$$\text{fool_rate} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{J}|} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}} \mathbf{1}[j(\text{candidate}) = \text{correct}]. \quad (1)$$

`fool_rate=1` marks rows that every judge thought were correct (the hardest); `fool_rate=0` marks rows whose hallucination is obvious. The fool rate is stored as a per-row column and consumed by the difficulty ablation (§4.3.6), which trains on subsets thresholded by τ to test which intuition wins; the main proof of concept (§4.2) does not filter on it.

4 Experiments

Our experiments are organised around two questions. *Does the recipe work?* §4.2 establishes the proof of concept on Delulu and eight further FIM benchmarks at two model scales (Qwen2.5-Coder-3B and 7B).

Language	Seed rows	Curated rows
C#	71,832	15,938
Java	55,122	14,793
PHP	53,897	14,756
Go	51,008	14,832
JavaScript	49,710	14,079
Python	47,241	12,353
Ruby	35,406	7,117
Rust	35,340	6,018
Total	399,556	99,886

Table 2: Per-language row counts: Phase 1 seed FIM contexts (left) and Phase 5 curated training rows (right). TypeScript is omitted throughout: the source corpus contains only ~ 300 TypeScript seeds, too small to affect curated proportions.

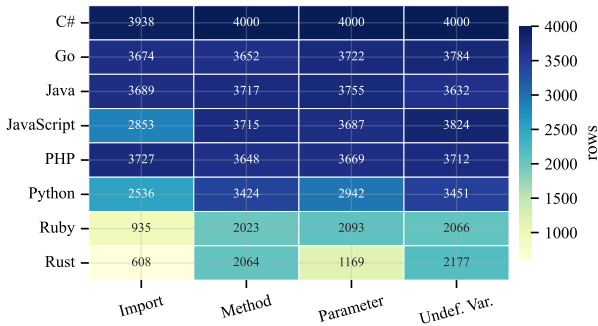


Figure 3: Curated training set distribution per (language, hallucination type). C# and Java are the largest cells; sampling is close to uniform across the four types within each language.

Why does it work? §4.3 dissects the recipe along five axes that map to the curator’s free choices: training-set size (§4.3.1), hallucination type (§4.3.2), language coverage (§4.3.3), base-model family (§4.3.5), and a difficulty-aware fool-rate threshold (§4.3.6). A short 3B re-run (§4.3.4) confirms that the size/type/language conclusions are not specific to the 7B scale. §4.1 describes the shared setup used throughout.

4.1 Setup

Source FIM corpus. We sample $N_{\text{seed}} = 399,556$ FIM contexts from a permissive, multilingual code corpus that already provides a fixed (prefix, golden, suffix) (i.e. we do not synthesise FIM holes; we sample existing ones, consistent with our research question). The corpus covers eight programming languages (Table 2, “seed” column); rows are stratified per language and we exclude any file or repository present in the Delulu held-out benchmark to avoid evaluation contamination.

Generation. For every seed context, each generator in the panel {GPT-5.2-Codex, GPT-5.4, GPT-5.5} produces one hallucinated completion for each of the four taxonomy types. After discarding rows that failed the output contract or the import-type file-reconstruction check (Appendix B.1), the resulting pool contains 2,473,312 valid (golden, hallucinated, context) rows (Table 9, Appendix A). This is the shared pool from which every ablation cell in §4.3 samples its training rows.

Curation. Phase 5 distils the generation pool into a balanced 100,000-row training set under the following constraints:

- Per-(language, type) bucket cap of 4,000 (so any cell contributes at most $\sim 4\%$ of the dataset).
- Per-source-repository cap of 50 rows.
- Delulu-overlap exclusion on `file_path` and `source_repo`.

The curated dataset is multilingual (Table 2). We emit both `sft.jsonl` (golden as supervised target) and `pairs.jsonl` (golden + hallucinated) for downstream preference-optimisation experiments; the experiments in this section use `sft.jsonl`. Per-language curated counts are the right column of Table 2.

Training. We fine-tune QWEN2.5-CODER-{3B, 7B}-INSTRUCT (Hui et al., 2024) with full-parameter fine-tuning. Per-device batch size 4, gradient accumulation 8, effective batch 32 on a single $8 \times \text{H100}$ node, learning rate 5×10^{-6} , cosine schedule, 1 epoch, `cutoff_len = 8000`, DeepSpeed ZeRO-3, bf16, FlashAttention-2. Full hyperparameters in Appendix B.2.

Metrics. We report two metrics throughout. **EM** (exact match, %) is the fraction of predictions that match the golden completion exactly after whitespace normalisation; it is the strictest signal and the one we treat as

primary. **ES** (edit similarity, $[0, 1]$) is the character-level ratio returned by Python’s `difflib.SequenceMatcher` against the golden completion; it captures partial improvements that EM misses (near-misses, formatting variants) and is more stable on small per-cell counts. We use EM as the headline number and ES as the secondary view; the two together also let us read off when a recipe shifts content vs. surface form (e.g. the fool-rate ablation, §4.3.6).

Evaluation benchmarks. We evaluate on four benchmark families (nine splits in total, $\sim 42\text{K}$ examples). **Delulu** is our primary hallucination metric and is multilingual by design; the remaining three families probe whether the recipe damages general FIM ability on data that has nothing to do with hallucinations.

- **Delulu** (Erfanian et al., 2026) ($N=1,950$, 7 languages, 4 hallucination types) — pairs every prompt with a hallucinated hard negative; EM and ES against the golden completion measure how often the model resists the hard negative.
- **HumanEval-Infilling** (Fried et al., 2022) ($N=409$, three splits: single-line, multi-line, random-span) — canonical short-Python FIM regression test.
- **SAFIM** (Gong et al., 2024) ($N=22,291$, four subsets: API call, code block, code block v2, control flow) — a broader, enterprise-style FIM benchmark.
- **Real-FIM-Eval (add)** (Gong et al., 2025) ($N=17,879$): real code additions extracted from GitHub commits across 228 permissively licensed repositories (Jan–Feb 2025). The “edit” split uses a conflict-merge format outside the standard FIM paradigm and is omitted.

Inference. All evaluations use vLLM, greedy decoding ($T=0$, `max_new_tokens = 256`). We never use the Phase-2 generators (the frontier models that produced the training data) at evaluation time, and never train on any sample from any evaluation benchmark.

Compute. The full project (proof of concept, all five ablations, and discarded preliminary runs) consumed $\sim 1,100$ H100-hours over 554 AML jobs: ~ 640 on training ($8 \times \text{H100}$ nodes) and ~ 500 on inference ($8 \times \text{H100}$ with vLLM). Per-(model, training-set) SFT runs averaged about an hour wall-clock and per-(model, benchmark) eval cells ~ 8 minutes. A bottom-up breakdown by job kind, base model, and reduced-scale recipe is in Appendix D.

First- N -lines truncation. EM is a brittle metric for FIM because a base model that produces the correct first line followed by extra tokens scores 0, even when its top-line completion is exactly right. To separate this “content vs. stopping” confound from the true content lift, we report every result table both *untruncated* and with first- N -lines truncation (“+trunc”): given gold completion g , we keep only the first $\text{lines}(g)$ lines of the prediction before applying EM. This upper-bounds what a perfect length oracle would buy a base model. Truncation is computed at scoring time only — decoding is unchanged — and uses the line count (not character count) so that whitespace changes upstream do not break it. Critically, our SFT recipe trains the model to emit the correct *ending*, not just the correct content: every curated row’s target completion ends exactly where the golden FIM hole ends, and the supervised objective penalises over- or under-emission. As a result, the gap between the untruncated and +trunc rows of every SFT cell in §§4.2–4.3.5 is ≤ 1 EM, while the same gap on base models is regularly $+5$ – $+25$ EM. The +trunc rows therefore serve a dual purpose: they let us compare against the base on equal stopping footing, and they quantify the stopping signal that SFT internalises.

4.2 Proof of concept

We fine-tune the recipe on Qwen2.5-Coder-3B and 7B and evaluate without further tuning on Delulu and eight further FIM benchmark splits. Three views answer three questions: *does it move the headline metric?* (Table 3), *does the gain distribute across hallucination types and languages, or concentrate in one corner?* (Table 4, Figure 4), and *does the recipe transfer to FIM benchmarks it was not designed for, and how does it compare to contrastive recipes on the same paired data?* (Table 5).

Model	EM	ES
Qwen2.5-Coder-3B (base)	45.7±0.2	0.72±0.02
+trunc	52.0	0.798
+ SFT (ours)	58.5±0.3	0.85±0.02
+trunc	59.2	0.835
Qwen2.5-Coder-7B (base)	42.8±0.1	0.65±0.02
+trunc	48.8	0.770
+ SFT (ours)	61.4±0.3	0.87±0.02
+trunc	61.8	0.850

Table 3: Delulu held-out ($N=1,950$, 7 languages, 4 hallucination types): EM (%) and ES. Values are mean±half-spread across two inference runs; “+trunc” applies first- N -lines truncation (§4.1). The trunc lifts on base (+6.3 / +6.0 EM at 3B/7B) vanish after SFT (+0.7 / +0.4): SFT teaches the model to stop on its own.

	By hallucination type			
	3B		7B	
	base	+SFT	base	+SFT
IMPORT	40.7	62.5	39.4	65.6
+trunc	52.0	62.7	48.8	65.6
METHOD	44.0	54.4	41.4	58.1
+trunc	48.6	55.3	46.4	58.4
PARAMETER	51.7	62.1	48.3	65.1
+trunc	56.1	62.5	52.6	65.1
UNDEF-VARIABLE	47.3	56.5	43.0	58.9
+trunc	51.6	57.0	47.7	58.9

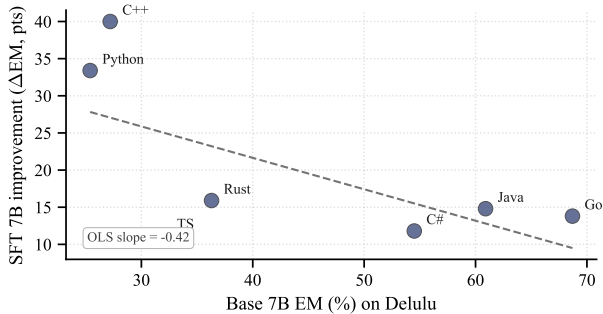


Figure 4: Per-language Delulu gain (Δ EM) for the 7B SFT model vs. the base 7B’s baseline strength on the same language. The fitted OLS line has a strong negative slope: the recipe closes the largest gaps first.

	By target language			
	3B		7B	
	base	+SFT	base	+SFT
cpp	36.8	60.0	27.2	67.2
+trunc	46.4	60.8	32.0	67.2
csharp	56.1	63.8	54.5	66.3
+trunc	58.5	63.8	58.5	66.3
go	73.9	80.8	68.7	82.5
+trunc	76.3	80.8	70.1	82.5
java	61.7	72.8	60.9	75.7
+trunc	69.1	72.8	69.1	75.7
python	31.8	56.7	25.4	58.8
+trunc	44.9	56.7	38.5	58.3
rust	38.2	50.2	36.3	52.2
+trunc	42.6	53.8	43.8	53.4
typescript	31.2	38.8	32.1	43.3
+trunc	35.0	38.8	33.6	43.3

Table 4: Delulu EM (%) per hallucination type (left) and per target language (right). Every cell improves; the largest absolute gains land where the base was weakest (IMPORT; C++, Python). C++ and TypeScript have zero curated training rows (Table 2) and still improve through cross-lingual transfer.

Headline. Both fine-tuned models improve substantially on Delulu (Table 3). Notably, 3B + SFT (58.5 EM) outperforms BASE 7B (42.8 EM) by 15.7 points: the training data, not the parameter count, is doing the work.

The gain is broad, not local. Table 4 breaks the Delulu gain down by hallucination type (top) and target language (bottom). All four types and all seven languages improve at both scales; the largest absolute gains accrue where the base model was weakest: IMPORT at the type level (+22 / +26 EM at 3B / 7B) and C++ and Python at the language level (+23 to +40 EM, with the largest lift on C++ at 7B and on Python at 7B). Figure 4 makes this gap-closing pattern explicit: regressing per-language gain on base-model strength gives a strong negative slope.

Cross-benchmark transfer, and SFT vs. DPO vs. ORPO on the same paired data. Table 5 aggregates every base / SFT cell across all nine benchmark splits and adds DPO and ORPO runs trained on the identical 100K (CHOSEN, REJECTED) pairs from our pipeline (DPO and ORPO use both sides of each pair directly; SFT uses only the chosen side). The 7B SFT model improves on *every* cell (+4.0 to +34.4 EM); 3B SFT records five clear wins (Delulu, SAFIM-api, SAFIM-blk2, SAFIM-ctl, Real-FIM-Eval), two near-ties

(HE-Inf random-span at parity, SAFIM-blk within 0.1 EM), and two regressions on the HumanEval-Infilling Python splits (single-line -0.6 , multi-line -16.1) — the splits whose gold completions most resemble the training-data surface form. The single most striking cell is SAFIM CONTROL 7B, where the base is nearly broken (4.8 EM, ES 0.099) and SFT recovers it to 39.2 EM (ES 0.722); we attribute the 3B HE-Inf SL/ML regression to a capacity-vs.-objective trade-off that the 7B has enough slack to absorb. The mechanism is specific to the multi-line split: the SFT training set targets single identifier-level FIM holes, so every curated completion is short — typically one logical line of code, even when that line wraps. At 7B, the model retains its pre-trained ability to generate long, multi-line completions alongside the anti-hallucination objective it learns from fine-tuning; the two coexist without interference. At 3B, catastrophic forgetting takes over: the model over-generalises the “short completion” pattern from training and defaults to abbreviated outputs on any split where the gold completion spans multiple lines. HumanEval-Infilling multi-line (-16.1 EM at 3B) is precisely that split; single-line (-0.6 EM) and random-span (± 0 EM) are barely affected because their gold completions are short and already compatible with what fine-tuning reinforces.

Three patterns separate the contrastive runs from SFT. *ORPO ties SFT on Delulu* ($+1.0$ EM at 3B, $+0.7$ at 7B) and is competitive on general FIM at 7B (within ± 2 EM on all eight cross splits). *DPO collapses across the board*, losing 35–45 EM to SFT on Delulu and broadly 2–49 EM on the cross splits (the low end is Real-FIM-Eval where absolute numbers are below 5%); its `+trunc` lifts of $+3$ to $+12$ EM on the main cross splits (vs. ≤ 1 for SFT and ORPO) localise the cause to over-generation past the FIM-hole boundary — DPO’s contrastive objective does not internalise the stop. Two conclusions follow: (i) the synthetic hard negatives are a useful preference signal that ORPO can exploit; (ii) the chosen side alone, curated for hard-negative difficulty, matches the strongest contrastive alternative on the anti-hallucination target and is the safer choice on general FIM at 3B. We return to the question of when SFT suffices in §5.2.

4.3 Ablations

The proof of concept uses one fixed recipe: 100K curated rows, all four hallucination types, all eight source languages, 7B base. We isolate each design choice and confirm that the conclusions are not 7B-specific. Every ablation cell shares the exact same training hyperparameters and evaluation protocol (§4.1); only the curator’s row selector varies. We evaluate every cell on a fixed six-benchmark panel that spans the main shapes of FIM tasks (single-line Python, multi-line Python, random-span Python, API-completion, control-flow, and the multilingual Delulu benchmark itself). Both EM and ES are reported for each ablation cell; cells are formatted as `untruncated / +trunc` pairs. `to` preserve the stopping signal in one number; truncation moves trained cells by ≤ 4 EM throughout, consistent with §4.2. Table 6 aggregates all four axes; we discuss each in turn.

4.3.1 Size: how many rows are enough?

Uniformly subsample the 100K curated pool to $\{5K, 20K, 50K, 100K\}$; per-bucket and per-repo caps unchanged, language and type mix unchanged. All five benchmarks share the same saturating-step shape (Table 6a, plus the 100K reference row): 5K is far below where the recipe works at all on Delulu and SAFIM-control; 20K is mid-curve; *the knee falls between 20K and 50K rows on every benchmark*; 50K and 100K are within noise, with HE-RS even mildly regressing. The recipe is therefore not relying on the full 100K; 50K would have produced a near-identical paper headline. The shared curve shape across very different benchmarks suggests the 50K-row ceiling is a property of the *recipe*, not of any one benchmark.

4.3.2 Hallucination type: are the four types interchangeable?

Four single-type 7B cells, each trained on $\sim 32K$ rows from one taxonomy type over the same eight languages; budget, caps, hyperparameters and language mix held fixed. `METHOD`, `PARAMETER`, and `UNDEFINED-VARIABLE` produce near-identical numbers on every benchmark (within ~ 2 EM of each other, Table 6b): training on any one of these three transfers to the others through a shared “do not invent identifiers” signal. `IMPORT-ONLY` breaks the pattern: best on its own Delulu type but *catastrophically* loses on multi-line completions (HE-ML 0.8, SAFIM-ctl 0.4) and API completion (SAFIM-api 15.8). Imports are short and lexically distinctive, so an import-only model learns a degenerate “emit a short import-shaped prefix” policy

Benchmark	3B				7B			
	base	SFT	DPO	ORPO	base	SFT	DPO	ORPO
<i>EM (% untruncated / +trunc)</i>								
Delulu	45.9	58.7	13.3	59.7	42.9	61.7	24.2	62.4
+trunc	52.0	59.2	16.9	59.9	48.8	61.8	25.8	62.4
HE-Inf single-line	52.4	51.8	52.4	54.9	40.2	57.3	8.5	56.7
+trunc	52.4	51.8	48.8	54.9	43.3	57.3	12.8	56.7
HE-Inf multi-line	27.1	11.0	19.5	9.3	16.1	22.9	3.4	23.7
+trunc	27.1	11.0	21.2	9.3	19.5	22.9	5.1	23.7
HE-Inf random-span	41.7	41.7	47.2	40.2	34.6	44.9	8.7	46.5
+trunc	50.4	42.5	39.4	39.4	40.2	47.2	21.3	47.2
SAFIM API	50.3	69.0	25.5	66.8	53.9	72.6	38.1	71.0
+trunc	55.5	69.4	26.5	66.8	58.7	72.6	39.7	71.0
SAFIM block	24.6	24.5	14.6	23.9	12.4	26.3	19.6	25.7
+trunc	30.9	24.5	19.3	23.9	30.1	26.3	24.7	25.8
SAFIM block-v2	27.3	31.1	15.3	31.1	13.4	32.9	22.2	32.5
+trunc	37.5	31.1	24.5	31.1	37.6	32.9	30.2	32.7
SAFIM control	34.7	36.4	14.0	34.3	4.8	39.2	8.9	41.0
+trunc	35.3	36.4	15.0	34.3	7.6	39.3	12.0	41.0
Real-FIM-Eval (add)	0.2	3.6	1.2	3.3	0.2	4.2	1.7	3.7
+trunc	0.4	3.7	2.3	3.3	0.4	4.4	2.4	3.8
<i>ES (untruncated / +trunc)</i>								
Delulu	0.695/0.798	0.833/0.835	0.288/0.554	0.841/0.841	0.628/0.770	0.852/0.850	0.362/0.624	0.856/0.855
HE-Inf SL	0.815/0.830	0.808/0.811	0.740/0.633	0.842/0.842	0.660/0.767	0.849/0.847	0.183/0.596	0.848/ 0.847
HE-Inf ML	0.730/0.761	0.581/0.601	0.707/0.743	0.550/0.564	0.487/ 0.715	0.690/0.687	0.172/0.647	0.694/0.691
HE-Inf RS	0.702/ 0.810	0.723/0.729	0.742/0.684	0.710/0.712	0.601/0.757	0.745/0.765	0.222/0.641	0.770/0.774
SAFIM API	0.667/0.832	0.885/0.884	0.370/0.649	0.877/0.877	0.687/0.838	0.914/0.914	0.474/0.715	0.908/0.908
SAFIM blk	0.508/ 0.639	0.515/0.519	0.351/0.524	0.488/0.490	0.285/ 0.621	0.523/0.525	0.405/0.567	0.496/0.497
SAFIM blk2	0.514/ 0.663	0.566/0.568	0.348/0.551	0.548/0.548	0.282/ 0.655	0.580/0.581	0.413/0.597	0.560/0.560
SAFIM ctl	0.577/0.667	0.696/0.698	0.291/0.532	0.695/0.697	0.099/0.510	0.722/0.723	0.163/0.518	0.727/0.727
Real-FIM-Eval	0.143/0.185	0.318/0.325	0.189/ 0.336	0.329/0.333	0.140/0.182	0.331/0.339	0.193/0.340	0.338/0.343

Table 5: EM (%) and ES across all nine FIM benchmark splits for the three fine-tuning recipes (SFT, DPO, ORPO) and the base model, at 3B and 7B. Bold marks the best cell per (size, benchmark) row for each metric. SFT and ORPO are within ± 2 EM on most cells; DPO loses broadly 7–49 EM to both on the cross splits. The +trunc rows truncate predictions to the gold completion’s line count: trunc lifts the base by up to +25 EM (SAFIM blk2, 7B) and lifts DPO by +3 to +12 EM on cross splits, but moves SFT and ORPO cells by ≤ 1 EM, showing that SFT and ORPO internalise the FIM-hole stop while DPO and the base over-generate. On Real-FIM-Eval ES, ORPO edges out SFT at 7B (0.338/0.343 vs. 0.331/0.339) while DPO’s +trunc ES (0.336) leads at 3B, suggesting contrastive training improves edit-level proximity on free-form edits even when EM lags.

that crashes when the gold completion is a longer block. The all-types 100K recipe matches or beats every single-type cell on every benchmark.

4.3.3 Language coverage: breadth vs. budget

Three 16K-row 7B cells: LANG-PYTHON (Python only), LANG-TOP5 (the five largest non-Python languages: C#, Go, Java, JavaScript, PHP), and LANG-ALL (all eight training languages, uniform per-bucket sampling). At 16K, Python-only collapses to 7.8 EM on the multilingual Delulu val *and even to 1.9 EM on Python itself*: squeezing a small budget into one language distorts the multilingual prior so badly that the trained language gets hurt. Replacing the 16K Python rows with the same 16K rows drawn from five non-Python languages quadruples Delulu (7.8 \rightarrow 32.0 EM) and *raises Python to 20.6 EM without a single Python row in training* (Figure 5). Adding the remaining three languages (LANG-ALL) leaves overall Delulu within noise of top-5 (31.1 vs. 32.0) and raises Python further to 28.9. At the same 16K budget, top-5 and all-8 are tied (Table 6c); the remaining gap to the 100K recipe is *scale*, not *breadth*. The recipe needs roughly five diverse languages to ignite cross-lingual transfer; beyond that, budget is better spent scaling up than diversifying further.

The cross-lingual effect is best understood by noting that all four hallucination types target *identifier-level* edits: replacing a method name, fabricating an argument, introducing an undefined variable, or swapping an import line. These edit patterns are structurally language-independent — a plausible-but-wrong method call

Cell	Delulu	HE-SL	HE-ML	HE-RS	SA-api	SA-ctl
<i>EM (% , untruncated / +trunc)</i>						
<i>(a) Size axis, 7B; rows \in {5K, 20K, 50K, 100K}</i>						
5,000	18.7/18.7	25.6/26.8	3.4/ 4.2	21.3/23.6	40.3/40.3	4.8/ 5.1
20,000	26.9/27.0	43.3/43.9	19.5/20.3	38.6/40.9	52.9/55.5	11.8/11.9
50,000	61.7/61.8	56.7/56.7	27.1/27.1	48.0/50.4	72.6/72.6	36.8/36.9
<i>(b) Type axis, 7B, 32K rows per single-type cell</i>						
IMPORT	25.5/25.5	55.5/55.5	0.8/ 0.8	34.6/34.6	15.8/15.8	0.4/ 0.4
METHOD	57.3/57.5	52.4/53.7	24.6/24.6	40.2/48.0	71.6/72.3	24.1/25.5
PARAMETER	57.0/57.3	50.6/54.3	25.4/26.3	39.4/46.5	70.3/70.3	24.0/24.9
UNDEF. VAR.	57.1/57.2	51.2/53.0	22.9/25.4	40.2/47.2	70.6/71.0	24.9/25.8
<i>(c) Language axis, 7B, 16K rows per cell</i>						
Python only	7.8/ 8.1	20.1/20.1	6.8/ 6.8	14.2/15.7	28.4/28.4	3.0/ 3.2
top-5 langs	31.9/33.0	55.5/55.5	27.1/27.1	40.9/46.5	53.5/57.1	15.8/15.9
all 8 langs	31.1/31.8	53.0/53.0	22.0/22.0	41.7/44.9	50.6/53.9	10.2/10.3
<i>(d) Re-runs at 3B (one cell per axis)</i>						
size-20K	53.2/53.6	50.0/50.0	13.6/14.4	40.2/43.3	65.8/66.1	15.0/15.0
type-method	52.5/53.0	50.0/50.6	21.2/21.2	41.7/44.1	67.4/67.7	19.7/19.7
lang-top5	48.6/49.0	42.7/42.7	11.9/12.7	40.2/42.5	64.5/64.8	12.8/12.9
recipe (3B, 100K)	58.7/59.2	51.8/51.8	11.0/11.0	41.7/42.5	69.0/69.4	36.4/36.4
<i>Reference: 7B 100K recipe (all types, all 8 langs)</i>						
recipe (7B, 100K)	61.7/61.8	57.3/57.3	22.9/22.9	44.9/47.2	72.6/72.6	39.2/39.3
<i>ES (untruncated / +trunc)</i>						
<i>(a) Size axis, 7B</i>						
5,000	0.605/0.689	0.481/0.649	0.200/0.613	0.385/0.626	0.759/0.816	0.198/0.449
20,000	0.591/0.622	0.731/0.756	0.618/0.695	0.702/0.752	0.706/0.783	0.483/0.537
50,000	0.849/0.850	0.842/0.841	0.731/0.727	0.761/0.782	0.915/0.915	0.711/0.713
<i>(b) Type axis, 7B</i>						
IMPORT	0.570/0.570	0.823/0.823	0.371/0.371	0.623/0.623	0.599/0.600	0.339/0.339
METHOD	0.812/0.815	0.802/0.842	0.604/0.738	0.699/0.783	0.892/0.907	0.585/0.655
PARAMETER	0.809/0.810	0.781/0.837	0.640/0.745	0.696/0.788	0.894/0.901	0.594/0.653
UNDEF. VAR.	0.808/0.810	0.795/0.839	0.583/0.739	0.707/0.786	0.894/0.903	0.591/0.651
<i>(c) Language axis, 7B</i>						
Python only	0.317/0.385	0.508/0.581	0.359/0.550	0.442/0.563	0.431/0.502	0.307/0.420
top-5 langs	0.639/0.664	0.830/0.833	0.710/0.739	0.725/0.778	0.772/0.822	0.512/0.562
all 8 langs	0.604/0.628	0.809/0.818	0.640/0.720	0.717/0.768	0.712/0.758	0.432/0.493
<i>(d) Re-runs at 3B</i>						
size-20K	0.790/0.795	0.754/0.786	0.573/0.644	0.711/0.753	0.857/0.868	0.455/0.533
type-method	0.764/0.770	0.695/0.727	0.623/0.678	0.669/0.697	0.875/0.882	0.464/0.524
lang-top5	0.755/0.761	0.699/0.754	0.518/0.633	0.673/0.748	0.854/0.868	0.417/0.519
recipe (3B, 100K)	0.833/0.835	0.808/0.811	0.581/0.601	0.723/0.729	0.885/0.884	0.696/0.698
<i>Reference: 7B 100K recipe (all types, all 8 langs)</i>						
recipe (7B, 100K)	0.852/0.850	0.849/0.847	0.690/0.687	0.745/0.765	0.914/0.914	0.722/0.723

Table 6: Ablation cells (EM and ES, formatted as untruncated / +trunc). Groups (a)–(c) vary one curator axis at a time at 7B; group (d) re-runs one representative cell per axis at 3B. Bold marks the within-axis best per metric (excluding the reference recipe row). Across all four groups, +trunc moves trained cells by ≤ 4 EM: the stopping behaviour learned in §4.2 is invariant to the recipe axis varied.

looks the same in Go as it does in Python — so the model’s identifier-level discrimination signal generalises across language boundaries even when no Python rows appear in training. The five-language threshold likely marks the point at which the training set covers enough surface-form diversity (camelCase, snake_case, module paths, different import syntaxes) for this shared discriminative structure to transfer.

4.3.4 Does the ablation behaviour transfer to 3B?

We re-run one cell per axis at 3B (Table 6d). The same qualitative pattern holds: the 100K recipe is best on four of five benchmarks; the size-20K cell is consistently below the 100K cell; the lang-top5 cell loses ground on Delulu but stays close on HE-Inf single-line. HE-Inf multi-line remains the single anomaly: best at type-method, not at the full recipe, in line with the size-dependent trade-off observed in the proof of concept.

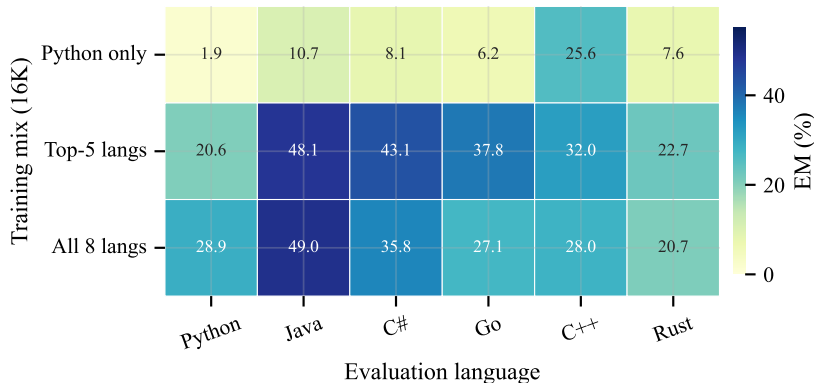


Figure 5: Language ablation, 7B. Per-evaluation-language Delulu EM at a fixed 16K-row training budget. Python rises from 1.9 to 28.9 EM as we add non-Python languages, none of which include any Python data; once ≥ 5 diverse languages are present at this budget, adding more breadth no longer helps overall.

4.3.5 Does the recipe transfer across base model families?

Setup. The proof of concept fine-tunes QWEN2.5-CODER-7B-INSTRUCT. To check that the curated dataset is the load-bearing piece — and not an artifact of Qwen’s tokenizer, chat template, or pre-training mixture — we re-train two additional 7B base models on the *exact same* 100K curated rows: STARCODER2-7B and CODELLAMA-7B-HF. Both are non-instruct FIM-pretrained bases with different vocabularies, FIM token conventions (PSM vs. SPM), and pre-training corpora.

Same. Training hyperparameters (§4.1), the 100K-row dataset, the eight evaluation benchmarks, and the EM/ES scoring pipeline are identical across the three families. The only per-family adjustment is the FIM prompt template: each base model is fed its native <fim_*> sentinels, so the curated rows are retokenised — but never re-curated — for StarCoder2 and CodeLlama.

Changed. The base model family (Qwen-instruct \rightarrow StarCoder2-base \rightarrow CodeLlama-base) and, by necessity, the FIM template.

Result. The recipe lifts *every* (family, benchmark) cell on both EM and ES except StarCoder2’s HE-sl/ml, where SFT preserves rather than improves an already-strong base (Table 7, Figure 6). Three observations stand out. First, the Delulu lift is uniformly large across families (+15 to +35 EM points; ES from ~ 0.41 – 0.66 to ~ 0.80 – 0.85), confirming that the hallucination-correction signal is encoded in the data rather than in the base model. Second, the largest relative gain is on CODELLAMA’s HumanEval-Infilling single-line: $7.3 \rightarrow 49.4$ EM ($0.228 \rightarrow 0.718$ ES); the base barely emits a well-formed FIM completion on this split, and the curated rows teach it to do so. Third, Qwen sees a striking SAFIM control-flow lift (+34.4 EM, ES $0.099 \rightarrow 0.722$): SAFIM-ctl is the cell where the Qwen base was weakest on this panel, and the curated rows close most of that gap. StarCoder2, whose base is already the strongest of the three on HumanEval-Infilling, shows the smallest gains there (HE-ml slips by -6.0 EM but its ES drops only -0.037 , indicating shorter but still close completions), while still gaining +15 EM on Delulu and +4–10 EM on the SAFIM panel. Reading the +trunc rows of Table 7 makes the data effect even sharper: the EM gap between base and SFT shrinks once the base is allowed to be truncated to gold line count, but the SFT models still win on every cell and their ES is essentially unchanged before/after truncation. The recipe therefore behaves as a base-model-agnostic post-training step that teaches both the right completion *and* the right stopping point.

4.3.6 Difficulty-aware curation: fool-rate threshold

The previous ablations vary what the curator keeps (size, type, language). This axis varies *how hard* the kept rows are. Each curated row carries a *fool rate* τ — the fraction of a three-judge panel (GPT-4O-MINI, GPT-4.1-MINI, GPT-5.4-MINI) that preferred the hard negative over the golden completion (§3.2). We partition the curated pool into three non-overlapping buckets — EASY ($\tau \leq 0.33$), MEDIUM ($0.33 < \tau \leq 0.66$),

Model	Run	Delulu	HE-sl	HE-ml	HE-rs	SA-api	SA-blk	SA-blk2	SA-ctl
<i>EM (%)</i>									
Qwen2.5-Coder-7B-Instr.	base	42.9	40.2	16.1	34.6	53.9	12.4	13.4	4.8
	+trunc	48.8	43.3	19.5	40.2	58.7	30.1	37.6	7.6
	sft-v2	61.7	57.3	22.9	44.9	72.6	26.3	32.9	39.2
StarCoder2-7B	base	43.9	51.8	24.6	38.6	57.7	26.1	31.1	36.3
	+trunc	48.2	53.0	24.6	45.7	61.9	32.7	39.3	36.8
	sft-v2	59.3	51.2	18.6	42.5	68.1	29.8	36.3	40.6
CodeLlama-7b-hf	base	23.6	7.3	6.8	7.9	45.5	7.2	10.6	24.9
	+trunc	46.2	10.4	9.3	19.7	58.4	28.8	36.0	27.2
	sft-v2	58.7	49.4	11.0	34.6	61.6	18.3	22.7	26.7
	+trunc	58.8	49.4	11.0	34.6	61.9	19.4	23.6	26.8
<i>ES</i>									
Qwen2.5-Coder-7B-Instr.	base	0.628	0.660	0.487	0.601	0.687	0.285	0.282	0.099
	+trunc	0.770	0.767	0.715	0.757	0.838	0.621	0.655	0.510
	sft-v2	0.852	0.849	0.690	0.745	0.914	0.523	0.580	0.722
StarCoder2-7B	base	0.658	0.773	0.711	0.670	0.753	0.555	0.580	0.609
	+trunc	0.731	0.799	0.731	0.773	0.877	0.664	0.686	0.687
	sft-v2	0.830	0.754	0.674	0.716	0.881	0.610	0.647	0.711
CodeLlama-7b-hf	base	0.409	0.228	0.416	0.237	0.602	0.254	0.259	0.446
	+trunc	0.727	0.465	0.625	0.584	0.840	0.627	0.651	0.619
	sft-v2	0.804	0.718	0.562	0.623	0.849	0.450	0.473	0.565
	+trunc	0.809	0.725	0.569	0.630	0.850	0.466	0.481	0.567

Table 7: Same 100K curated dataset applied to three 7B base model families. Each (family, benchmark) cell improves on both EM and ES except StarCoder2’s HE-sl/ml, where SFT preserves rather than improves an already-strong base. The +trunc rows show why the EM lifts in this table understate the data effect: the base models over-generate, so truncating to gold-line-count rescues a large chunk of base EM (e.g. Qwen SAFIM-blk 12.4 \rightarrow 30.1, CodeLlama Delulu 23.6 \rightarrow 46.2), while the SFT cells barely move (≤ 1 EM on every cell). The SFT recipe therefore teaches *both* the right token sequence *and* when to stop; over the base, ES remains the cleaner one-number summary. N per benchmark: Delulu 1950, HE-sl 164, HE-ml 118, HE-rs 127, SA-api 310, SA-blk 8781, SA-blk2 4571, SA-ctl 8629.

and HARD ($\tau > 0.66$) — and draw a balanced subset of 5,000 rows from each, matching per-(type, language) counts exactly so that the only variable is fool-rate difficulty. We deliberately shrink the bucket size from earlier 16,589-row runs: at the larger scale all three buckets converged to within < 1 EM point, saturating any difficulty signal. At 5K the recipe is still informative but no longer saturated, exposing how much each judge-defined tier contributes per row. We focus on Qwen2.5-Coder-7B here.

Result. Table 8 shows a clear, monotone difficulty effect: overall Delulu EM rises from 32.7 (EASY) to 37.4 (MEDIUM) to 37.7 (HARD) — a ~ 5 point lift from easy to medium and a near-plateau from medium to hard. The plateau is informative: once the bucket reaches the panel-disagreement regime ($\tau > 0.33$), additional “trickiness” adds little. The supervisory mass lives in the disputed-but-not-impossible middle and tail, not in the unanimous-easy tier.

Three patterns are worth noting. First, IMPORT drives most of the lift: it climbs monotonically on both metrics from 36.9 \rightarrow 43.2 \rightarrow 44.9 EM (+8.0 pp) and 0.707 \rightarrow 0.745 \rightarrow 0.757 ES (+0.050), consistent with the earlier 16,589-row run where IMPORT was also the one type that responded to harder negatives. Import-name hallucinations require sharper discriminative signal than the other three types. Second, METHOD, PARAMETER, and UNDEF. all flatten between medium and hard on EM (within ± 0.7), suggesting that for these types the medium bucket already contains enough disagreement to teach the contrast and the hard tail offers diminishing returns. Third, ES tells a subtler story than EM on these three types: ES peaks at medium and *dips* at hard (method 0.714 \rightarrow 0.689, param. 0.710 \rightarrow 0.689, undef. 0.714 \rightarrow 0.697), while EM stays flat. Hardest negatives sharpen the binary golden/hallucinated decision but pull surface forms away from the gold

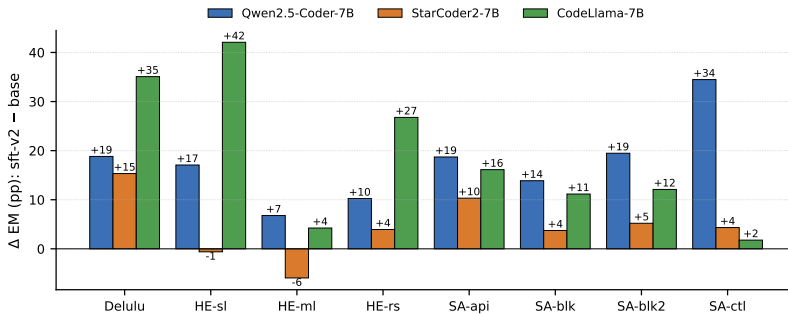


Figure 6: Per-benchmark EM lift ($\Delta \text{EM} = \text{sft-v2} - \text{base}$, percentage points) for the three 7B base model families trained on the identical 100K curated dataset. Lifts are positive on 23/24 cells; the only regression is StarCoder2 on HE-ml (-6.0 pp), where the base is already strong and ES barely moves (Table 7). The weaker the base on a cell, the larger the lift — the recipe rescues CodeLlama’s near-empty HumanEval-Infilling single-/random-line and Qwen’s collapsed SAFIM control-flow, while leaving StarCoder2’s already-strong HE cells essentially intact.

	EASY		MEDIUM		HARD	
	EM	ES	EM	ES	EM	ES
<i>Overall</i>	32.7	0.692	37.4	0.721	37.7	0.708
<i>By hallucination type</i>						
IMPORT	36.9	0.707	43.2	0.745	44.9	0.757
METHOD	30.4	0.692	34.3	0.714	34.3	0.689
PARAM.	33.3	0.683	37.5	0.710	36.8	0.689
UNDEF.	30.5	0.685	35.0	0.714	35.2	0.697

Table 8: Fool-rate threshold ablation (Qwen2.5-Coder-7B). Each bucket contains 5,000 rows drawn from the curated pool with identical per-(type, language) distributions; the only variable is the fool-rate difficulty. At this smaller scale the difficulty signal becomes visible: harder negatives lift Delulu EM by ~ 5 points (easy 32.7 \rightarrow medium 37.4 \rightarrow hard 37.7), driven mainly by IMPORT (+8.0 EM, +0.050 ES). On the other three types EM plateaus between medium and hard while ES actually peaks at medium and dips at hard — harder negatives sharpen the golden/hallucinated decision boundary but pull surface forms away from the gold token sequence, indicating that the supervisory mass sits in the disputed middle, not the unanimous-easy or unanimous-hard tier. Bold marks the within-row best per metric. $N = 1,950$ (Delulu val); per-type N ranges from 435 to 577.

token sequence — the model still picks the right behavior, just expressed less like the reference string. Net: the supervisory mass for non-import types lives in the disputed middle, not the unanimous-hard tail.

Caveat. Delulu contains fewer than 50 samples for several (type, language) cells; the per-type and per-language breakdowns should therefore be read as suggestive rather than definitive.

5 Analysis

The proof-of-concept results (§4.2) and ablations (§4.3) already integrate the per-type, per-language, size-scaling and language-coverage analyses next to the corresponding tables. This section focuses on three cross-cutting topics: the size-dependent trade-off at 3B (§5.1), when SFT on hard negatives is sufficient without explicit contrastive training (§5.2), and failure modes encountered during pipeline development (§5.3).

5.1 Size-dependent trade-off

The clearest cross-benchmark pattern in Table 5 is the contrast between 3B and 7B. On Delulu both sizes improve substantially (+12.8 and +18.8 EM); on multilingual SAFIM the 7B recovers a near-broken CONTROL subset (+34.4) while the 3B gain is muted (+1.7). The most informative diagnostic, however, is the 3B regression on HumanEval-Infilling single- and multi-line: the two splits where the base 3B is at its strongest, and where the gold completions are short, idiomatic Python.

We interpret this as a capacity-versus-objective trade-off. The SFT objective asks the model to prefer the (often longer, multilingual) golden completion over plausible identifier-level hard negatives; at 3B there is little slack between the base FIM distribution and the direction the fine-tuning task pulls it, and the optimiser pays for hallucination defence with a fraction of general-FIM accuracy on the splits closest to the base’s strengths. At 7B there is enough capacity to satisfy both. Two pieces of evidence support this reading. (i) HumanEval-Infilling random-span — the split that most resembles arbitrary FIM holes rather than the canonical short Python shape — is the only HumanEval-Infilling subset where the 3B does not regress. (ii) The size ablation (Table 6a) shows that even at 3B the recipe behaves monotonically with budget; the regression is not the recipe getting worse with more data, it is a fixed bias in the SFT-target distribution that 3B has too little spare capacity to absorb. The fool-rate-threshold ablation (§4.3.6), run at 7B on smaller 5K buckets that no longer saturate the difficulty signal, shows the complementary picture for the data side: harder buckets lift Delulu EM by ~ 5 points (easy 32.7 \rightarrow medium 37.4 \rightarrow hard 37.7), so the supervisory mass lives in the disputed-middle and tail of the fool-rate distribution rather than in the unanimous-easy tier.

5.2 When does SFT suffice?

The SFT vs. DPO vs. ORPO comparison (Table 5, §4.2) surfaces a practically important finding that deserves emphasis: *training on only the chosen side of a preference pair matches, and sometimes exceeds, the best contrastive alternative when the training distribution has been curated for hard-negative difficulty*. ORPO, which sees both the chosen and rejected completions, ties SFT on the anti-hallucination target (± 1 EM, ± 0.004 ES across all benchmarks) and is competitive on general FIM at 7B. DPO, using the same pairs, collapses.

Two properties of our setting explain the gap. First, the hard negatives are already in the right difficulty regime: generated by frontier models and scored by a judge panel, they are neither trivially distinguishable from the gold nor adversarially far from it. A well-curated SFT target set therefore carries most of the preference information that an explicit contrastive objective would add. Second, DPO’s margin-based objective is sensitive to over-long generations, and FIM is a stopping-sensitive task; SFT’s cross-entropy loss on the short, boundary-respecting golden completions aligns naturally with what the task requires, while DPO’s gradient can push toward any completion that differs from the rejected sequence — including ones that over-generate past the FIM hole. These results suggest that for *stopping-sensitive FIM tasks*, a high-quality curated SFT corpus with hard-negative selection is a safer default than paired contrastive training.

5.3 Failure modes during pipeline development

(1) Plausibility is a knob. A naive prompt template lets the generator emit tokens with explicit “hallucinated” tells such as Fake. . . , Bogus. . . , or Hallucinated. . . Such rows are trivial supervised signal: the model learns to suppress the surface artifact rather than the underlying mistake. We instruct the generator to keep new identifiers *plausible*, which both makes the SFT signal more useful and, as the fool-rate ablation confirms (§4.3.6), increases how often the generated row deceives the judge panel.

(2) Position matters more than content for the import type. An early version of the pipeline placed the candidate import at the end of the prefix — the same hole position used for the other three types — which made the candidate appear *after* its first usage and silently corrupted the supervisory signal. We restructure the FIM hole so it coincides with the line of the original import (Appendix B.1). The general principle: any extension of the taxonomy must place the candidate at the location it would naturally occupy in the file.

6 Limitations

Synthetic vs. natural hallucinations. Hallucinated completions in our training set are produced by adversarial prompting of strong generators rather than collected from in-the-wild Code-LLM mistakes. Some real-world hallucinations (off-by-one errors, async/await misuse, type-annotation drift) are not covered by our four-type taxonomy. We expect the recipe to extend cleanly to new types by writing a new generator prompt (Appendix C.1), but that claim is currently untested.

Real-FIM-Eval absolute performance. The SFT model achieves only 3.6–4.2 EM on Real-FIM-Eval (Table 5), versus 60+ EM on Delulu. Three factors explain this. First, the Real-FIM-Eval (add) split samples arbitrary real developer edits from 228 permissively-licensed repositories; many of these edits are multi-token insertions that fall outside the identifier-level hallucination regime our recipe targets. Second, exact-match scoring on free-form developer edits is inherently harder than on the structured four-type hallucinations of Delulu: the model must reproduce the developer’s specific identifier choice verbatim. Third, the +4.0 EM gain over base (which achieves 0.2 EM) is proportionally large relative to what the base model can do on this benchmark, and the ES gain (+0.07) confirms the model is moving toward the gold. We interpret Real-FIM-Eval as evidence that general code-understanding improves alongside the anti-hallucination objective, while acknowledging that broader coverage of real-world edit types would be needed to close the remaining gap.

Held-out evaluation is one benchmark. Delulu is the only multi-lingual FIM hallucination benchmark we are aware of. Cross-benchmark generalisation should be re-checked when additional FIM-hallucination benchmarks become available.

Small-model regression. At 3B parameters the recipe improves Delulu but trades general FIM accuracy on the two non-random HumanEval-Infilling splits (§5.1). We recommend the recipe at $\geq 7B$ parameters for now. Closing the 3B gap (e.g. via mixed-objective training or capacity-aware curation) is left to future work.

Compute cost. The full pipeline is not free: generation alone consumes on the order of millions of generator tokens. A reduced-scale recipe using two generators and a $\sim 50K$ -row curated subset reaches near-identical Delulu and cross-benchmark scores at roughly half the total H100-hour cost, making the approach accessible to teams with academic-scale compute; the cost breakdown and reduced-scale recipe details are reported in Appendix D.

Ethics statement

This work uses code samples drawn exclusively from a permissively-licensed multilingual corpus. We exclude any file present in the Delulu held-out benchmark, in HumanEval, or in SAFIM to avoid evaluation contamination. We do not release human-collected data and do not perform human evaluation in the main paper. The released artifact (pipeline source code: generation, fool-rate LLM judging, curation, and the fine-tuning recipe) targets a measurable model-quality improvement (reduced hallucination) and we are not aware of dual-use concerns specific to this work beyond those already inherent to Code-LLM fine-tuning. The curated SFT dataset and the fine-tuned checkpoints are built on a proprietary source-code corpus and are withheld; the pipeline reproduces every result in this paper on any permissively licensed corpus.

7 Conclusion

We asked whether hallucinated completions synthesised by frontier code models could serve as effective SFT signal for smaller open-source FIM models. Our proof of concept — a fully execution-free pipeline that generates $\sim 2.5M$ hallucinated completions across eight languages and four taxonomy types — answers in the affirmative. Fine-tuning QWEN2.5-CODER-7B-INSTRUCT on 100K curated rows simultaneously reduces hallucination rate on Delulu (+18.8 EM) and improves general-purpose FIM on HumanEval-Infilling and SAFIM, with positive transfer to every language and every hallucination type. The smaller 3B model improves Delulu by +12.8 EM but trades some general-FIM accuracy, a size-dependent effect we attribute

to the capacity vs. objective trade-off. The recipe also internalises FIM-hole stopping behaviour, isolated via a first- N -lines truncation scoring protocol applied to every table. We ablate five recipe axes (size, hallucination type, language coverage, base-model family, and a difficulty-aware fool-rate threshold) and confirm the size/type/language conclusions at 3B. The fool-rate ablation, run at 7B on 5K-row buckets, shows a clear monotone difficulty effect (Delulu EM 32.7 \rightarrow 37.4 \rightarrow 37.7 across easy/medium/hard) and locates the supervisory mass in the disputed middle and tail of the judge-panel distribution rather than the unanimous-easy tier. A head-to-head comparison on identical paired data shows that SFT matches ORPO and substantially outperforms DPO: for stopping-sensitive FIM tasks, a high-quality curated SFT corpus with hard-negative selection is a safer default than explicit contrastive training (§5.2). We release the full pipeline source code — generation, fool-rate LLM judging, curation, and the FIM fine-tuning recipe — so that every experiment in this paper can be reproduced on any permissively licensed corpus; the curated training data and the fine-tuned checkpoints are built on a proprietary source-code corpus and are not released.

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A Generation pool statistics

Phase 2 yields 2,473,312 valid rows distributed across the three generators and four taxonomy types as shown in Table 9. Per language, the pool is dominated by C# (~465K rows), followed by Java, PHP, Go, and JavaScript (~350K each), Python (~290K), Ruby (~170K), and Rust (~130K). Phase 5 caps each (language, type) bucket at 4K rows during curation to enforce a balanced training mix.

Generator	IMPORT	METHOD	PARAM	UNDEF
GPT-5.2-Codex	26.3	31.3	31.3	27.2
GPT-5.4	315.5	357.3	335.9	354.9
GPT-5.5	232.7	257.2	244.8	258.8

Table 9: Phase 2 valid-row counts (thousands) per (generator, type). GPT-5.2-Codex covers only a portion of the corpus (C# in particular) and so contributes fewer rows in absolute terms.

B Implementation details

B.1 Import-line restructuring

For the IMPORT type the candidate must appear at file scope, not at the original FIM hole. We give the generator the full file (prefix||golden||suffix) and ask it to return one real import line and a plausible fake replacement. The parser locates the original line, splits the file at that line into a new (prefix', suffix'), validates exact byte-level reconstruction, and stores the restructured pair. Inference at evaluation time uses the restructured prefix and suffix so the candidate is judged where it would actually appear in the file. An early version of the pipeline left the FIM hole at its original position, which placed the candidate import *after* its first usage and silently leaked the answer through the suffix; the restructuring is what allowed the import type to behave consistently with the other three.

B.2 Fine-tuning configuration

We use LLaMA-Factory (Zheng et al., 2024) for training. Inputs are formatted with the `qwen3_fim` template (`<|fim_prefix|>P<|fim_suffix|>S<|fim_middle|>` as the prompt, golden completion as the target). Hyperparameters are shared across the proof of concept and every ablation cell; only the training set varies.

Setting	Value
Base model	Qwen2.5-Coder-{3B, 7B}-Instruct
Fine-tune type	Full (no LoRA)
Cutoff length	8000 tokens
Per-device batch size	4
Gradient accumulation	8 (effective batch 32)
Learning rate	5×10^{-6} , cosine schedule
Epochs	1.0
Precision	bf16, FlashAttention-2
Distributed	DeepSpeed ZeRO-3
Hardware	1×ND96 H100 v5 (8×H100)

Table 10: Training hyperparameters.

B.3 Inference for evaluation

All evaluations use vLLM with greedy decoding ($T=0$, `max_new_tokens = 256`, tensor-parallel 8 on H100). We never use the Phase-2 generators at evaluation time and never train on any sample drawn from any evaluation benchmark.

C Prompt templates

C.1 Generator prompts

Each generator system prompt ends with a strict single-line output contract so parsing cannot silently misalign. The user message provides the prefix, golden completion, and suffix (or the full file for IMPORT).

method.

Replace the method name in the completion with a random, invented method name that does NOT appear in prefix or suffix. The new name must be plausible; do not signal it as hallucinated. Output exactly: “Generated completion: <...>”.

parameter.

Inject a non-existent keyword or positional argument into the call. The new parameter name must be plausible. Keep the function name and the other parameters unchanged. Output exactly: “Generated completion: <...>”.

undefined-variable.

Introduce a reference to a variable or identifier that is NOT defined in prefix or suffix. The identifier must be plausible for the language but must cause a NameError / ReferenceError / similar at runtime. Output exactly: “Generated completion: <...>”.

import.

Given the full file, pick one real import line and replace it with a plausible but fictitious package or symbol. Output exactly two lines: “Original import: <...>” and “Hallucinated import: <...>”.

C.2 Judge prompt (fool rate)

Each judge is shown the FIM prefix, the candidate completion, and the suffix, and answers a single binary correctness question. Critically, the judge is *not* told that the candidate may be hallucinated.

You are evaluating a code completion drawn from the middle of the same source file. Decide whether the candidate completion is CORRECT (1) or NOT CORRECT (0). Score 1 only when the completion keeps the file syntactically valid, is logically consistent with surrounding context, advances the apparent task, and does not hallucinate APIs, parameters, identifiers, modules, or behaviour. Otherwise score 0. Output exactly:

Detailed Reasoning: <...>

Final Average Score for Completion: <0 or 1>

D Approximate compute cost

The dominant cost categories are (i) Phase-2 generation ($\approx 2.5 \times 10^6$ requests at $\sim 4\text{K}$ input and ~ 100 output tokens each) and (ii) GPU-hours on Azure ML for training and evaluation across the full project (proof of concept, all five ablations, and the discarded preliminary runs that never made it into the paper). A telemetry export of every job we submitted to the workspace gives a concrete bottom-up estimate. The export covers 554 AML jobs (427 completed evaluations, 31 completed SFT training runs, 4 completed DPO/ORPO training runs, the remainder failed, cancelled, or superseded), aggregating to roughly 142 wall-clock hours: ~ 66 h of SFT training, ~ 14 h of DPO/ORPO training, and ~ 62 h of inference evaluation. At the node shapes we used ($8 \times \text{H100}$ for training, $8 \times \text{H100}$ for inference) this corresponds to $\sim 1,100$ H100-hours end-to-end,

roughly 640 on training and ~ 500 on evaluation. Per-(model, training-set) SFT runs averaged about an hour of wall-clock — the mean is pulled down by 3B and reduced-bucket ablations — and per-(model, benchmark) inference cells averaged ~ 8 minutes on $8\times H100$ with vLLM. The bulk of the compute lands on Qwen variants (~ 112 h wall), with StarCoder2-7B (~ 16 h) and CodeLlama-7b (~ 14 h) adding the base-model ablation. A reduced-scale recipe using two generators and a 50K-row curated subset reaches near-identical scores at roughly half the total cost (§4.3).

E Training Dataset Composition

This section documents provenance and statistics not covered in the main text; per-language and per-type row counts are in Table 2 and Figure 3.

E.1 Source Corpus Provenance

The source corpus is produced by a code-mining pipeline that extracts API call sites from public GitHub repositories, mined in March 2026. For each of eight target languages, third-party packages are selected by a consensus of three independent signals: (i) adoption frequency in anonymised code-completion telemetry, (ii) LLM-based ecosystem ranking via an agentic pipeline that queries language-specific package registries (PyPI, npm, Maven Central, NuGet, crates.io, Go modules, Packagist, RubyGems), and (iii) curated priority lists from language-specific engineering teams. Each target package is pinned to a minimum version released within six months of the mining date; only repositories declaring a dependency at or above that version are retained. C++ libraries are selected via expert curation and matched by include-path patterns.

Source files are filtered to the 2nd–98th percentiles for file size and line count, and must have ≥ 50 GitHub stars. API call sites are extracted using Tree-sitter AST parsing, classified by GPT-4.1-mini, and split into fill-in-the-middle (prefix, golden, suffix) triples at each call site’s byte offsets.

Generator distribution. In the curated 100K-row training set, GPT-5.4 contributes 56.1% of rows, GPT-5.5 contributes 40.0%, and GPT-5.2-Codex contributes 3.9%. The imbalance reflects GPT-5.2-Codex’s smaller coverage of the source corpus; curation does not rebalance across generators, as the row-count distribution mirrors each generator’s natural coverage of the source corpus rather than a deliberate design choice.

Context-length statistics. Hallucinated completions are short (median 38 characters, mean 81, P95 = 255), consistent with the single-identifier edits targeted by the taxonomy. Prefixes are longer (median 1,931 chars, mean 3,317, P95 = 11,295) and suffixes longer still (median 2,792 chars, mean 4,452, P95 = 14,418), providing rich surrounding context.

E.2 Fool-Rate Characterisation

A panel of three LLM judges (GPT-4o-mini, GPT-4.1-mini, GPT-5.4-mini) scores every curated row blind (§3.2). Of the 100,000 curated rows, 99,920 received verdicts from all three judges (the remaining 80 were blocked by content filters). Table 11 reports the resulting distribution; the overall mean fool rate is 0.78.

Table 11: Fool-rate distribution across the 3-judge panel (99,920 rows with complete verdicts).

Judges fooled	Rows	%
0 / 3 (fool_rate = 0.00)	4,558	4.6
1 / 3 (fool_rate = 0.33)	12,031	12.0
2 / 3 (fool_rate = 0.67)	26,411	26.4
3 / 3 (fool_rate = 1.00)	56,920	57.0

Fool rate by hallucination type and language. Import hallucinations are the hardest for judges to detect: mean fool rate 0.93, with 83.5% fooling all three judges. The other three types cluster around a mean

fool rate of 0.75, with $\sim 50\%$ fooling all three judges (Table 12). This is consistent with the observation that import hallucinations involve fabricating plausible package names, which cannot be verified without external registry lookups. Across languages, PHP (0.83) and Java (0.83) produce the hardest hallucinations; Python (0.75) and C# (0.75) the easiest.

Table 12: Mean fool rate and fraction of rows fooling all 3 judges, by hallucination type and by language.

Type	Mean τ	3/3 (%)	Language	Mean τ	3/3 (%)
import	0.93	83.5	PHP	0.83	65.8
method	0.75	49.7	Java	0.83	63.8
parameter	0.75	49.3	Rust	0.82	62.4
undef. variable	0.75	49.6	JavaScript	0.80	59.7
			Python	0.75	52.8
			Go	0.76	50.5
			Ruby	0.76	50.3
			C#	0.75	50.1

Non-release justification. The curated dataset is built on a proprietary source-code index derived from anonymised code-completion telemetry and internal repository metadata. While the source files themselves are drawn from public GitHub repositories, the telemetry-based package selection, the repository filtering pipeline, and the API-call-site extraction infrastructure are proprietary. For the same reason we do not release the fine-tuned checkpoints: the trained weights are a derivative of the proprietary corpus, and publishing them without the corresponding data provenance would invite questions about the training data that we cannot answer publicly. We instead open-source the full pipeline source code — generation prompts, fool-rate LLM judging harness, curation, FIM tokenisation, and the fine-tuning recipe (Appendix B) — which is sufficient to reproduce every result in this paper on any permissively licensed corpus paired with a frontier generator panel.