CodeRise: Bootstrapping LLMs for Ultra Low-Resource Programming Languages via Progressive Self-Refinement Curriculum

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Large Language Models (LLMs) struggle with code generation for Ultra Low-Resource Programming Languages (ULRPLs) due to the scarcity of training data. Existing synthetic data generation methods fail in this context, suffering from a severe cold-start problem and resulting in samples that lack diversity. To overcome these challenges, we propose CodeRise, a novel two-stage framework that autonomously generates a high-quality, diverse, and progressively complex curriculum for ULRPLs. The framework first tackles the cold-start and distribution issues by leveraging the full formal syntax of the target language as structural guidance and applying a biased sampling strategy over library modules. Building on this foundation, we fine-tune the model to generate increasingly complex code without explicit syntax input, using an adaptive curriculum and multi-turn self-debugging to progressively improve code quality. We evaluate on two ULRPLs, Tengo and Janet, using migrated HumanEval-Tengo and MBPP-Tengo, as well as our new benchmarks, TengoEval and JanetEval. Experiments show that CodeRise significantly outperforms both training-free and training-based baselines in ultra low-resource environments.

1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) (OpenAI et al., 2024b; Hui et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2024) have demonstrated outstanding performance across a wide range of code-related tasks, including code generation (Chen et al., 2021; Lai et al., 2023), code repair (Chen et al., 2024; Zhong et al., 2024; Tian et al., 2024), code completion (Bavarian et al., 2022; Ding et al., 2024), and program analysis (First et al., 2023). This remarkable success has been predominantly observed in the context of high-resource languages such as Python, where vast and high-quality codebases are readily available for training. The success is even beginning to extend to many Low-Resource Programming Languages (LRPLs) such as R and Perl (Cassano et al., 2022; Giagnorio et al., 2025; Joel et al., 2024; Cassano et al., 2024). However, the powerful capabilities of LLMs do not universally extend to the Ultra Low-Resource Programming Languages (Mora et al., 2024), despite their importance in various specialized domains. These languages suffer from multi-dimensional data scarcity: the volume of publicly available code is inherently low, and systematic collection is also challenging. For instance, many ULRPLs lack unique file extensions, making them invisible to automatic identification tools such as GitHub Linguist[1]. This severe lack of data directly limits the ability of models to learn the syntax, libraries, and coding patterns specific to ULRPLs.

A promising direction to overcome this data scarcity is to leverage the LLM itself to generate synthetic training data, a principle exemplified by methods like *Self-Instruct* (Wang et al., 2023) and *SelfCodeAlign* (Wei et al., 2024a). The Self-Instruct paradigm typically operates by iteratively bootstrapping instructions from a seed corpus, prompting a powerful teacher model to generate corresponding responses, and then validating these generations. However, existing relevant techniques, which are primarily designed for high-resource languages, exhibit limitations when directly applied to ULRPLs. A primary obstacle for ULRPLs is the cold-start problem. Even with state-of-the-art LLMs, their initial proficiency in these languages is often so low that they fail to produce even a single syntactically valid code sample, which prevents synthetic data generation from bootstrapping.

A straightforward workaround to launch this process is to provide the model with the complete language syntax in context. However, this approach is fraught with issues: the extremely long context

[1] https://github.com/github-linguist/linguist

Module	Frequency	Proportion(%)
text	6202	47.8
math	1438	11.1
rand	1291	10.0
fmt	1354	10.4
json	935	7.2
enum	791	6.1
times	650	5.0
base64	284	2.2
os	17	0.1
hex	9	0.1

Table 1: Distribution of standard library usage from an 30,000 Tengo samples dataset generated with the SelfCodeAlign baseline. The statistics are based on the 12,971 samples that involved API calls.

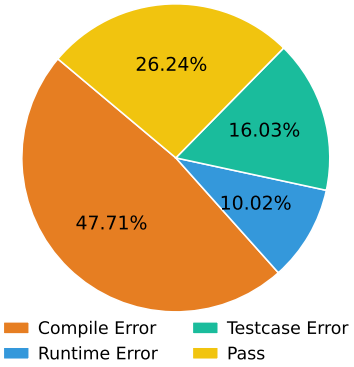

Figure 1: Failure analysis for the Qwen-2.5-Coder-32B-Instruct using in-context learning with the language's full documentation, the majority of failures are execution errors.

leads to slow inference and a low pass rate, as shown in Figure 1, making it impractical for large-scale data generation. Furthermore, even with this syntax guidance, the generated data still exhibits a severe long-tail distribution, clustering around basic language features, as shown in Table 1. Such long-tail coverage issues have also been observed for self-generated instruction data in high-resource languages (Wang et al., 2025). In our ULRPL setting, we find that the effect is further amplified because the model defaults to highly transferable "universal programming tasks" (e.g., string manipulation).

To overcome these challenges, we propose **CodeRise**, a two-stage framework for ULRPL code generation. Stage 1 (*Syntax-Guided Module-Balanced Generation*) bootstraps from near-zero ability by providing syntax guidance and balancing sampling across language-specific libraries to obtain a syntactically valid and diverse seed dataset. Stage 2 (*Progressive Self-Refined Generation*) removes the long syntax prompt and improves both difficulty and quality via an adaptive curriculum and multi-turn self-debugging. Together, CodeRise progressively strengthens the model and produces high-quality ULRPL code under extreme data scarcity.

We conduct extensive experiments on two representative ULRPLs, **Tengo** and **Janet**. For each language, we use CodeRise to synthesize a high-quality dataset and fine-tune LLMs on the corresponding synthetic data. For Tengo, we evaluate on migrated versions of HumanEval-Tengo and MBPP-Tengo, along with our newly constructed **TengoEval** benchmark. For Janet, we evaluate on our newly constructed **JanetEval** benchmark. Results show that models fine-tuned on CodeRise data consistently and significantly outperform a comprehensive suite of baselines, including both training-free and training-based approaches, underscoring the effectiveness of our progressive data generation strategy.

Our contributions are as follows:

- We propose **CodeRise**, a self-improvement framework designed to overcome the cold-start and long-tail challenges in ULRPLs.
- We release benchmark suites for **Tengo** and **Janet**. For Tengo, we provide migrated versions of HumanEval and MBPP together with our newly constructed **TengoEval**; for Janet, we release our newly constructed **JanetEval**.

2 Related Work

LLMs for Coding In recent years, Large Language Models (Guo et al., 2024; Rozière et al., 2024) have achieved remarkable progress in code-related tasks, such as code generation (Zheng et al., 2024; Han et al., 2024), code completion (Yu et al., 2024a; Hayes et al., 2025) and code translation (Szafraniec et al., 2023; Xue et al., 2024; Pan et al., 2024), and the impact is expanding across the entire software engineering (Jimenez et al., 2023; Xie et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2024). Besides, reasoning models like OpenAI-o1 (OpenAI et al., 2024a) and DeepSeek-R1 (DeepSeek-AI et al., 2025) have also demonstrated impressive coding performance due to their long reasoning ability. However, de-

spite these advancements, current LLMs still struggle to perform well on ULRPLs due to the scarcity of training data, limited exposure to syntax patterns, and the lack of task-specific supervision. While some prior work has addressed challenges in low-resource programming languages (Giagnorio et al., 2025; Mora et al., 2024; Cassano et al., 2022, 2024), such as R and Perl, their methods rely on the model's existing initial capability in those languages, this foundation is absent for the ULRPLs setting. In addition, many of these approaches synthesize training data via code translation from high-resource languages, which can introduce task-domain shift.

Data-Driven Code Tuning Instruction tuning further trains a pretrained LLM on instruction–response pairs (Ouyang et al., 2022; Wei et al.; Li et al., 2024) and has proven effective for code tasks (Muennighoff et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2024b; Liu et al., 2024). However, high-quality instruction data is costly to curate. Consequently, the *Self-Instruct* paradigm was proposed to generate synthetic instruction data from seed sets (Wang et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024) and has been widely adopted in code (Luo et al., 2024; Wei et al., 2024b), as well as frameworks such as SelfCodeAlign (Wei et al., 2024a). Moreover, self-generated instruction data can be overly concentrated in a few domains, motivating feature-aware rebalancing methods such as Epicoder (Wang et al., 2025). However, these approaches typically assume sufficient initial competence in the target language, an assumption that often fails in ULRPLs.

3 Methodology

To address the challenges of data scarcity and the pervasive long-tail distribution problem inherent in ULRPLs, we propose an iterative self-improvement framework. This framework adheres to a curriculum learning paradigm, enabling an LLM to autonomously generate diverse, correct, and progressively complex fine-tuning data through two distinct stages. Stage 1, termed Syntax-Guided Data Generation, primarily aims to create an initial high-quality dataset for the preliminary fine-tuning of the LLM's foundational understanding. Stage 2, Advanced Data Generation via Self-Debugging, is meticulously engineered to achieve two key objectives: generating more complex and challenging tasks efficiently, and substantially improving data quality through robust self-correction mechanisms.

3.1 Syntax-Guided Module-Balanced Generation

The data generation process in Stage 1 is executed as a multi-step pipeline designed to create a foundational and diverse dataset. The pipeline begins by generating a composite "seed concept set" derived from both code snippet analysis and a diversity-focused module sampling strategy. This seed set is then used to formulate a specific programming instruction. Following this, the model leverages the complete language syntax to autonomously generate both a code implementation and its corresponding test suite. Finally, the entire script is rigorously validated in a sandbox environment to ensure its correctness.

Concept Inspiration from Code Snippets Similar to previous works like OSS-Instruct (Wei et al., 2024b) and SelfCodeAlign (Wei et al., 2024a), we select a code snippet from a meticulously curated open-source code corpus, typically ranging from 1 to 15 lines. This chosen snippet serves as an inspiration for the LLM. Prompted with this snippet, the LLM is tasked with extracting and formulating a set of related "programming concept" that represent the core functionality, algorithms, or common patterns found in the snippet. This approach leverages the LLM's understanding of diverse coding patterns to derive high-level, actionable concepts, which form the building blocks for subsequent task instruction generation.

Module Sampling Relying solely on concepts derived from code snippets leads to a long-tail distribution in the generated dataset, with tasks clustering around common language features like string manipulation. To counteract this bias, we employ a weighted sampling strategy to select a module from the language's standard library, then this module is injected as an additional concept to guide task generation. The sampling weight for each module is determined by our logarithmic inverse frequency formula:

$$w_i = \frac{1}{log(c_i + 2)^p} \quad (1)$$

where c_i is the frequency that module i appears in correct solution. p is a hyperparameter to control the intensity of this weighting.

Code Generation and Validation The seed concept set from the previous step serves as the input to a sequential pipeline that generates and validates each data point. First, this set is embedded

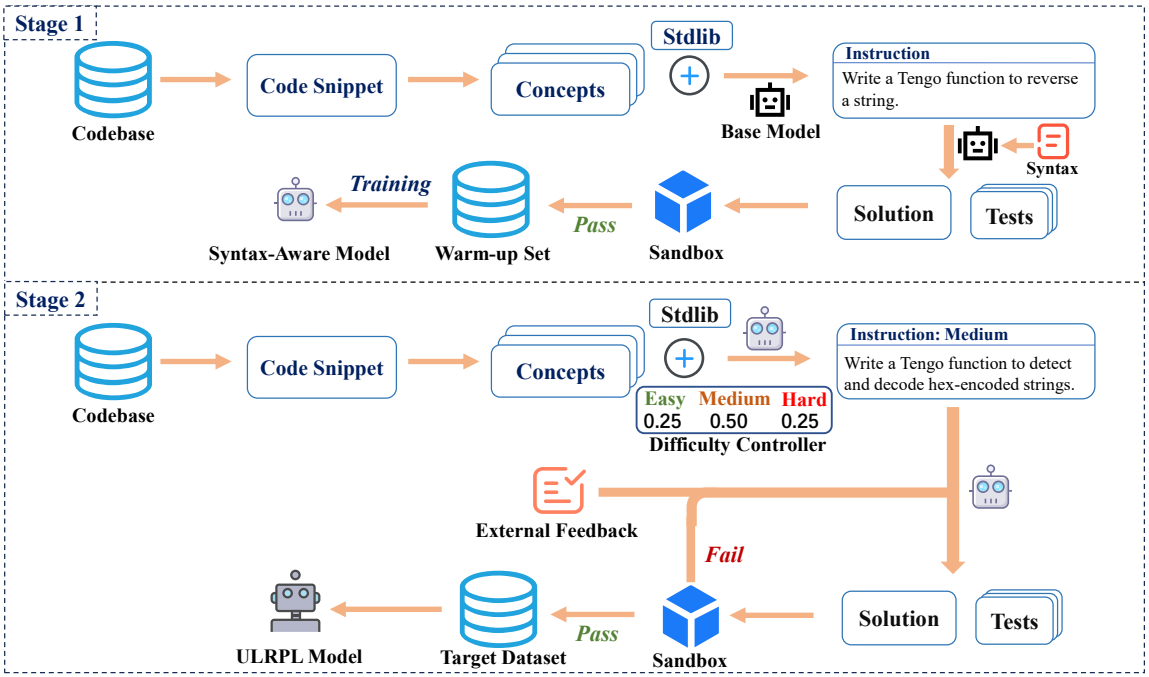

Figure 2: The overview of our two-stage CodeRise framework. **Stage 1: Syntax-Guided Module-Balanced Generation** (Top) addresses the cold-start problem by using explicit syntax guidance and diversity-focused module sampling to create a Warm-up Dataset. **Stage 2: Progressive Self-Refined Generation** (Bottom) then builds upon the fine-tuned model, employing a curriculum-based difficulty controller and a multi-turn self-debugging guided by external feedback to efficiently generate complex, high-quality instruction data for the final ULRPL model.

into a prompt that instructs the LLM to formulate a specific programming task in natural language. Next, this newly created instruction, along with the complete language syntax as a guiding scaffold, is provided to the LLM in a second prompt. In this step, the model's task is to generate both the code solution and a corresponding set of unit tests. Finally, each resulting (instruction, code, test) triplet is subjected to rigorous automated validation in a secure sandbox. An instruction-code pair is only accepted into our cold-start dataset if the code executes flawlessly and passes all associated tests, all other attempts are discarded.

3.2 Progressive Self-Refined Generation

Building upon the model fine-tuned in Stage 1, this advanced stage elevates the data generation process along two key dimensions: generation efficiency and data quality. A significant leap in efficiency is achieved by no longer providing the complete language syntax in the prompt. This is viable because the model has already internalized foundational syntactic knowledge, which drastically reduces context length and improves throughput. To enhance quality and generation yield, this stage replaces Stage 1's "discard-on-failure" strategy with the multi-turn self-debugging mechanism. This strategy enables the model to methodically correct its errors by leveraging reliable external feedback, facilitating the successful generation of more complex instruction-code pairs and elevating the dataset's overall quality.

Curriculum-Based Difficulty Control To systematically increase the complexity of generated tasks, Stage 2 introduces a structured curriculum learning approach. While the initial seed generation process remains consistent with Stage 1 combining concepts from code snippets with diversity-focused module sampling, we now introduce a crucial new dimension: explicit difficulty levels.

Crucially, we categorize code tasks into three difficulty tiers: `Easy`, `Medium`, and `Hard`, each with a tailored prompt template. The curriculum's progression is adaptive, driven by the model's mastery as quantified by its Pass@10 score p $(0 \leq p \leq 1)$ on recent tasks. This score dynamically adjusts the sampling probability for each tier. The unnormalized weights are calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Weight}_{\text{hard}} &= \alpha \cdot p \\ \text{Weight}_{\text{medium}} &= C \\ \text{Weight}_{\text{easy}} &= \alpha \cdot (1 - p) \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where α is a hyperparameter balancing the influence of Pass@10 on hard/easy tasks, and p represents the current Pass@10. The Medium tier's weight is a fixed constant C that acts as a stable baseline, ensuring the model always has a default difficulty to fall back on.

These unnormalized weights are then converted into probabilities using a softmax function with temperature T.

$$P_i = \frac{\exp(\text{Weight}_i/\text{T})}{\sum_j \exp(\text{Weight}_j/\text{T})} \tag{3}$$

where P_i is the probability of selecting difficulty tier i, temperature T controls the randomness of the tier selection. This adaptive strategy ensures a progressive increase in task complexity, maintaining appropriate control over the curriculum.

Multi-Turn Self-Debugging A cornerstone of Stage 2 is the Multi-Turn Self-Debugging Mechanism, designed to significantly increase both the success rate and quality of data generation. In a crucial departure from the "discard-on-failure" policy in Stage 1, the process begins after an initial solution fails validation in the sandbox. Instead of being discarded, the system first analyzes the specific type of error to trigger one of two tailored debugging strategies, which are detailed as follows:

Debugging Compilation or Runtime Errors. When a failure is caused by a compilation or runtime error, we employ a feedback-driven correction strategy. A new debugging prompt is constructed for the LLM, containing three key sources of information: 1) the verbatim error message from the compiler or runtime; 2) a pre-authored Debugging Guideline with expert strategies for common language-specific issues; 3) relevant chunks from the documentation using BM25 retrieval. By synthesizing these combined sources of feedback, the LLM is tasked with diagnosing the root cause of the error and generating a revised code solution.

Debugging Unit Test Failures via Pseudo Ground Truth. For logical flaws, we employ a distinct cross-lingual debugging strategy with the core objective of transferring the model's strong reasoning capabilities from a high-resource language (Python) to our target language. To achieve this, the model is prompted to generate a Python solution that serves as a "Pseudo Ground Truth". This Python solution is generated only upon the first occurrence of a logical error for a given task. The LLM then performs a comparative analysis to identify and correct logical discrepancies in its low-resource code, with the process concluding once a revised version successfully passes all unit tests.

Iterative Refinement. The two debugging strategies described above both operate within an iterative refinement loop. After each correction attempt, the revised code is resubmitted to the sandbox for re-validation, creating a "debug-correct-revalidate" cycle. This cycle continues until either the code successfully passes all tests or a predefined maximum number of attempts is reached. Stage 2 enables the successful creation of more complex instruction-code pairs that would otherwise be filtered out, thereby elevating the overall quality and challenge level of the final dataset.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Setup

This section details the models, parameters, and evaluation benchmarks used to validate our proposed framework. Our research primarily focuses on enhancing code generation capabilities for ULRPLs. For this purpose, we selected **Tengo** and **Janet** as the target ULRPLs. Tengo follows a paradigm similar to high-resource languages, whereas Janet is a stack-based language with a substantially different programming style, they represent two contrasting ULRPL settings under extreme data scarcity.

Model We use the Qwen-2.5-Coder-32B (Hui et al., 2024) as the data generator to create the training datasets in both Stage 1 and Stage 2. The models selected for fine-tuning are Qwen-2.5-Coder-32B, Qwen-2.5-Coder-7B-Instruct (Hui et al., 2024) and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct (Grattafiori et al., 2024).

Baseline We compare against a comprehensive set of training-free and training-based baselines. The training-free methods include standard Zero-Shot and Few-Shot prompting, as well as richer-context strategies: (i) **Full-Syntax Prompting**, which provides the entire language manual in context; (ii) **Translation Rules** (Giagnorio et al., 2025); and (iii) **Translation Example** (Giagnorio et al., 2025). For training-based comparisons, we include three representative baselines: (i) **Self-CodeAlign** (Wei et al., 2024a), a general self-alignment approach that fine-tunes a model on self-generated instruction data; (ii) **MultiPL-T** (Cassano et al., 2024), which synthesizes training data

Model	Method	HumanEval Pass@1	MBPP Pass@1	TengoEval Pass@1	JanetEval Pass@1
Qwen-Coder-2.5-32B-Instruct	Zero-Shot	0.61	2.34	1.00	0.00
	Full-Syntax Prompting	33.5	36.8	23.0	6.00
	Few-Shot Examples	22.6	41.8	15.0	4.00
	Translation Examples	24.4	42.6	18.0	4.00
	Translation Rules	15.9	32.0	11.0	2.00
	SelfCodeAlign	61.6	65.1	49.0	24.0
	MultiPL-T	60.4	64.6	47.0	22.0
	SPEAC	60.4	63.5	45.0	-
	CodeRise (Ours)	**71.3**	**75.5**	**60.0**	**36.0**
Qwen-Coder-2.5-7B-Instruct	Zero-Shot	0.61	0.00	1.00	0.00
	Full-Syntax Prompting	12.2	19.0	14.0	4.00
	Few-Shot Examples	9.75	25.7	9.00	2.00
	Translation Examples	4.27	6.80	6.00	2.00
	Translation Rules	2.44	10.4	7.00	2.00
	SelfCodeAlign	39.6	41.7	31.0	12.0
	MultiPL-T	43.3	44.5	31.0	14.0
	SPEAC	45.1	45.3	30.0	-
	CodeRise (Ours)	**50.3**	**57.9**	**39.0**	**20.0**
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct	Zero-Shot	2.44	3.13	2.00	0.00
	Full-Syntax Prompting	9.76	10.4	10.0	2.00
	Few-Shot Examples	15.2	29.0	11.0	2.00
	Translation Examples	14.6	30.4	7.00	2.00
	Translation Rules	3.67	2.86	6.00	0.00
	SelfCodeAlign	32.9	33.6	29.0	10.0
	MultiPL-T	25.0	28.6	21.0	8.00
	SPEAC	27.4	31.5	20.0	-
	CodeRise (Ours)	**35.4**	**36.7**	**31.0**	**18.0**
DeepSeek-R1-0528	Zero-Shot	18.3	27.8	16.0	6.00
	Full-Syntax Prompting	67.1	75.5	56.0	22.0

Table 2: Pass@1 comparison of CodeRise against training-free baselines and training-based baselines on migrated HumanEval-Tengo and MBPP-Tengo, as well as ULRPL-specific benchmarks, TengoEval and JanetEval.

for low-resource languages via code translation and test-based filtering; and (iii) **SPEAC** (Mora et al., 2024), which first prompts the LLM to write code in an intermediate language and then compiles it into the target language to construct training data.

Datasets and Metric To evaluate our framework, we employ several benchmarks. For Tengo, since no standard benchmark exists, we migrate HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021) and MBPP (Austin et al., 2021), and construct a new benchmark, **TengoEval**. For Janet, we use our newly annotated benchmark, **JanetEval**. Detailed benchmark construction and statistics are provided in Appendix B. We report Pass@1 (Chen et al., 2021) as the primary metric, which measures the percentage of problems solved in a single attempt.

4.2 Results

To evaluate the effectiveness of CodeRise, we conducted a comprehensive set of experiments, with the main results summarized in Table 2. From these results, we can derive the following conclusions:

CodeRise significantly outperforms both training-free and strong training-based baselines across all tested open-source models. As

Module	Frequency	Proportion(%)
text	6746	43.7 / -4.1
math	1562	10.1 / -1.1
rand	1373	8.9 / -1.1
fmt	1676	10.9 / +0.5
json	1057	6.8 / -0.4
enum	820	5.3 / -0.8
times	692	4.5 / -0.5
base64	504	3.3 / +1.1
os	652	4.2 / +4.1
hex	352	2.3 / +2.2

Table 3: Distribution of standard module usage from our 30,000 dataset, the statistics are based on the 15,434 samples that involved API calls. The last column showing the change compared to the baseline in Table 1.

shown in Table 2, when applied to the powerful Qwen-Coder-2.5-32B-Instruct model, our method outperforms all training-free and strong training-based baselines. Furthermore, its performance is highly competitive with the powerful DeepSeek-R1-0528 model, especially considering the latter relies on a Full-Syntax Prompting strategy that is exceptionally time-consuming due to its long context requirements. This trend of superior performance extends to the smaller models as well, on both Qwen-Coder-2.5-7B-Instruct and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, CodeRise consistently outperforms all baselines, demonstrating the stability.

Our framework effectively mitigates the long-tail distribution while preserving natural usage patterns. As demonstrated in Table 3, our method significantly rebalances the module usage distribution compared to the baseline (e.g., *os*, *hex*). Crucially, this is achieved without artificially distorting the overall distribution. This demonstrates that our framework addresses the most extreme aspects of the long-tail problem, resulting in a more diverse yet practical training dataset.

CodeRise significantly improves the efficiency and overall yield of the data generation process. As detailed in Table 4, CodeRise (Stage 2) achieves a final effective pass rate of 62.86%, a 2.4× increase in yield over the SelfCodeAlign baseline. **Pass Rate** measures generation yield, namely the fraction of generation attempts that produce a syntactically valid solution and pass all unit tests after the method's refinement and filtering procedure. It is worth noting that the initial pass rate of CodeRise (Stage 1) is slightly lower than the baseline, which is an expected trade-off because our diversity sampling deliberately explores more challenging, long-tail tasks. In contrast, the translation-based baseline MultiPL-T exhibits a substantially lower yield in this setting, since the domain shift between the source language and the target ULRPL causes many translated samples to be invalid or not faithfully expressible, and thus fail compilation. Ultimately, CodeRise solves these harder problems through self-debugging, leading to a superior outcome in both data quality and overall efficiency.

4.3 Analysis

4.3.1 Ablation

To better understand the contribution of each component in our CodeRise framework, we conduct a series of ablation studies on the HumanEval dataset.

Method	Syntax	Pass Rate (%)
MultiPL-T	✓	12.03
SelfCodeAlign	✓	26.24
CodeRise (Stage 1)	✓	23.64
CodeRise (Stage 2)	×	**62.86**

Table 4: Data generation efficiency and yield on Qwen-2.5-Coder-32B-Instruct for Tengo. We run 30,000 generation attempts for each method and report Pass Rate. The **Syntax** column indicates whether the method includes a full language syntax prompt during generation.

Method	HumanEval	TengoEval
CodeRise	**71.3**	**60.0**
w/o Diversity Strategy	70.7	49.0
w/o Curriculum Learning	64.0	52.0
w/o Self-Debugging	67.1	55.0
w/o Retrieval	69.5	53.0
Stage 1 Only (30k data)	59.8	46.0
Stage 1 Only (2k data)	51.8	36.0

Table 5: Ablation study results (Pass@1) on HumanEval and TengoEval using the fine-tuned Qwen-2.5-Coder-32B-Instruct model.

The results are presented in Table 5. We define the following ablation settings: a) Stage 1 Only: The model is fine-tuned on the dataset generated through the Stage 1 method; b) w/o Diversity Strategy: Remove the module sampling component in CodeRise; c) w/o Curriculum Learning: The full CodeRise framework is used, but the adaptive curriculum in Stage 2 is disabled. Tasks are generated without any explicit difficulty guidance or tier-specific prompting; d) w/o Self-Debugging: The full CodeRise framework is used, but the multi-turn self-debugging mechanism in Stage 2 is disabled, and failed attempts are discarded; e) w/o Retrieval: The full CodeRise framework is used, but remove the retrieval component in Stage 2. For a fair comparison, all models were fine-tuned on 30,000 samples. Based on the above ablation study, we can derive the following conclusions:

The Stage 2 self-refinement process is the primary driver of performance. The results in Table 5 clearly show a massive performance gap between our full framework and the Stage 1 Only model. We attribute this significant difference to the quality of the training data. The Stage 1 Only dataset is generated using a simple "discard-on-failure" policy without any curriculum or difficulty control. This inherently biases the dataset towards

simpler problems that the model can solve in a single pass. In contrast, our Stage 2 process can generate and successfully solve much more complex problems, and training on this higher-quality data is what ultimately leads to the superior performance of our final model.

Adaptive curriculum and multi-turn self-debugging are all effective components. The adaptive curriculum proves to be the most impactful component, its removal (w/o Curriculum Learning) causes a substantial performance degradation. This highlights that systematically generating more challenging problems is essential for pushing the model beyond its initial capabilities. The self-debugging mechanism is the crucial counterpart to this process. Its removal (w/o Self-Debugging) leads to a 4.2% decrease in performance on HumanEval, demonstrating that providing the model with multiple attempts and reliable external feedback is what enables it to successfully solve the difficult tasks proposed by the curriculum. This aligns with our core philosophy: for ULRPLs where no powerful teacher model exists, it is more effective to introduce external, verifiable knowledge to guide a model's own refinement process. Fo details on self-debugging, please refer to the case study in Appendix C.

The diversity strategy and retrieval component mainly contribute to long-tail coverage rather than algorithmic problem solving. Without the module-balanced sampling strategy in Stage 1, performance remains nearly unchanged on HumanEval but drops sharply on TengoEval, demonstrating that balancing over language-specific modules is critical for improving standard-library coverage and mitigating long-tail bias. Similarly, removing retrieval only slightly affects HumanEval but leads to a larger degradation on TengoEval, suggesting that external documentation is particularly important for resolving library-related details in practical ULRPL usage. Overall, these ablations confirm that CodeRise relies on complementary mechanisms: Stage 1 diversifies and bootstraps generation, while Stage 2 progressively increases difficulty and refines solutions to produce higher-quality and more practical training data.

4.3.2 Sweet Spot of Warm-up

An important consideration for CodeRise is determining the optimal amount of Stage 1 data for the initial fine-tuning. The objective is to achieve two goals: (1) effectively reducing execution errors in the target language; (2) preserving the model's general ability, it supports our aim of using a single model to save significant computational resources. To find this balance, we tracked the model's performance at 100-step intervals (batch size = 8). At each checkpoint, we evaluated its Execution Error Rate on a unified set of 5k instructions, and the performance on HumanEval-Python. As shown in Figure 3, the execution error rate on Tengo drops from nearly 100% to under 30% in the first 200 training steps. The intersection of these trends reveals a "sweet spot" around 200-300 steps. Therefore, we identify this range as the optimal warm-up point, as it achieves a substantial reduction in execution errors at a minimal cost to the model's general capabilities.

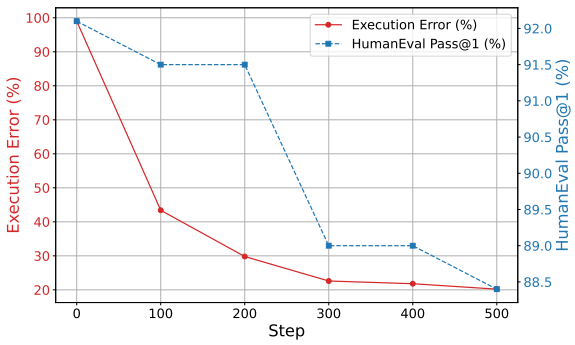

Figure 3: Identifying the sweet spot for the Stage 1 syntax warm-up. We plot the Execution Error Rate (%) on Tengo (left) and the Pass@1 on HumanEval-Python (right) against the number of fine-tuning steps.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we addressed the critical challenge of applying Large Language Models to ULRPLs, where progress has been hindered by a lack of high-quality training data. We identified two primary obstacles for existing self-generation methods: a severe cold-start problem and the tendency to produce datasets with a long-tail distribution. We introduced CodeRise, a novel two-stage framework that overcomes these issues. By first using syntax-guided generation and a diversity-focused sampling strategy, and then refining the model with an adaptive curriculum and a multi-turn self-debugging mechanism, CodeRise generates a diverse, complex, and high-quality dataset. Our experiments demonstrate that CodeRise significantly outperforms a wide range of baselines, proving the effectiveness of our methodology.

Limitations

Our study has a key limitation that points to promising directions for future research. Our current instruction generation process does not account for the domain-specific of many ULRPLs. While our generated data is syntactically valid, it may not reflect the idiomatic or practical use cases of the target language. Future work should focus on developing mechanisms to align instruction generation with the intended application scope, thereby improving the real-world relevance of the synthetic dataset.

References

Jacob Austin, Augustus Odena, Maxwell I. Nye, Maarten Bosma, Henryk Michalewski, David Dohan, Ellen Jiang, Carrie J. Cai, Michael Terry, Quoc V. Le, and Charles Sutton. 2021. Program synthesis with large language models. *CoRR*, abs/2108.07732.

Mohammad Bavarian, Heewoo Jun, Nikolas Tezak, John Schulman, Christine McLeavey, Jerry Tworek, and Mark Chen. 2022. Efficient training of language models to fill in the middle. *Preprint*, arXiv:2207.14255.

Federico Cassano, John Gouwar, Francesca Lucchetti, Claire Schlesinger, Anders Freeman, Carolyn Jane Anderson, Molly Q. Feldman, Michael Greenberg, Abhinav Jangda, and Arjun Guha. 2024. Knowledge transfer from high-resource to low-resource programming languages for code llms. *Proc. ACM Program. Lang.*, 8(OOPSLA2):677–708.

Federico Cassano, John Gouwar, Daniel Nguyen, Sydney Nguyen, Luna Phipps-Costin, Donald Pinckney, Ming-Ho Yee, Yangtian Zi, Carolyn Jane Anderson, Molly Q Feldman, Arjun Guha, Michael Greenberg, and Abhinav Jangda. 2022. Multipl-e: A scalable and extensible approach to benchmarking neural code generation. *Preprint*, arXiv:2208.08227.

Mark Chen, Jerry Tworek, Heewoo Jun, Qiming Yuan, Henrique Pondé de Oliveira Pinto, Jared Kaplan, and 1 others. 2021. Evaluating large language models trained on code. *CoRR*, abs/2107.03374.

Xinyun Chen, Maxwell Lin, Nathanael Schärli, and Denny Zhou. 2024. Teaching large language models to self-debug. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2024, Vienna, Austria, May 7-11, 2024*. OpenReview.net.

DeepSeek-AI, Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Haowei Zhang, Junxiao Song, and 1 others. 2025. Deepseek-r1: Incentivizing reasoning capability in llms via reinforcement learning. *Preprint*, arXiv:2501.12948.

Yifeng Ding, Hantian Ding, Shiqi Wang, Qing Sun, Varun Kumar, and Zijian Wang. 2024. Horizon-length prediction: Advancing fill-in-the-middle capabilities for code generation with lookahead planning. *CoRR*, abs/2410.03103.

Emily First, Markus N. Rabe, Talia Ringer, and Yuriy Brun. 2023. Baldur: Whole-proof generation and repair with large language models. In *Proceedings of the 31st ACM Joint European Software Engineering Conference and Symposium on the Foundations of Software Engineering, ESEC/FSE 2023, San Francisco, CA, USA, December 3-9, 2023*, pages 1229–1241. ACM.

Alessandro Giagnorio, Alberto Martin-Lopez, and Gabriele Bavota. 2025. Enhancing code generation for low-resource languages: No silver bullet. *Preprint*, arXiv:2501.19085.

Aaron Grattafiori, Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, and 1 others. 2024. The llama 3 herd of models. *Preprint*, arXiv:2407.21783.

Daya Guo, Qihao Zhu, Dejian Yang, Zhenda Xie, and 1 others. 2024. Deepseek-coder: When the large language model meets programming – the rise of code intelligence. *Preprint*, arXiv:2401.14196.

Hojae Han, Jaejin Kim, Jaeseok Yoo, Youngwon Lee, and Seung-won Hwang. 2024. Archcode: Incorporating software requirements in code generation with large language models. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), ACL 2024, Bangkok, Thailand, August 11-16, 2024*, pages 13520–13552. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Jamie Hayes, Ilia Shumailov, William P. Porter, and Aneesh Pappu. 2025. Measuring memorization in RLHF for code completion. In *The Thirteenth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2025, Singapore, April 24-28, 2025*. OpenReview.net.

Binyuan Hui, Jian Yang, Zeyu Cui, Jiaxi Yang, and Others. 2024. Qwen2.5-coder technical report. *CoRR*, abs/2409.12186.

Carlos E. Jimenez, John Yang, Alexander Wettig, Shunyu Yao, Kexin Pei, Ofir Press, and Karthik Narasimhan. 2023. Swe-bench: Can language models resolve real-world github issues? *CoRR*, abs/2310.06770.

Sathvik Joel, Jie JW Wu, and Fatemeh H. Fard. 2024. A survey on llm-based code generation for low-resource and domain-specific programming languages. *Preprint*, arXiv:2410.03981.

Denis Kocetkov, Raymond Li, Loubna Ben Allal, Jia Li, Chenghao Mou, Yacine Jernite, Margaret Mitchell, Carlos Muñoz Ferrandis, Sean Hughes, Thomas Wolf, Dzmitry Bahdanau, Leandro von Werra, and Harm

de Vries. 2023. The stack: 3 TB of permissively licensed source code. *Trans. Mach. Learn. Res.*, 2023.

Yuhang Lai, Chengxi Li, Yiming Wang, Tianyi Zhang, Ruiqi Zhong, Luke Zettlemoyer, Wen-Tau Yih, Daniel Fried, Sida I. Wang, and Tao Yu. 2023. DS-1000: A natural and reliable benchmark for data science code generation. In *International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 2023, 23-29 July 2023, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA*, volume 202 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 18319–18345. PMLR.

Kaixin Li, Qisheng Hu, James Xu Zhao, Hui Chen, Yuxi Xie, Tiedong Liu, Michael Shieh, and Junxian He. 2024. Instructcoder: Instruction tuning large language models for code editing. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, ACL 2024 - Student Research Workshop, Bangkok, Thailand, August 11-16, 2024*, pages 50–70. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Jimmy Lin, Xueguang Ma, Sheng-Chieh Lin, Jheng-Hong Yang, Ronak Pradeep, and Rodrigo Nogueira. 2021. Pyserini: A Python toolkit for reproducible information retrieval research with sparse and dense representations. In *Proceedings of the 44th Annual International ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval (SIGIR 2021)*, pages 2356–2362.

Bingchang Liu, Chaoyu Chen, Zi Gong, Cong Liao, Huan Wang, Zhichao Lei, Ming Liang, Dajun Chen, Min Shen, Hailian Zhou, Wei Jiang, Hang Yu, and Jianguo Li. 2024. Mftcoder: Boosting code llms with multitask fine-tuning. In *Proceedings of the 30th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, KDD 2024, Barcelona, Spain, August 25-29, 2024*, pages 5430–5441. ACM.

Jiawei Liu, Chunqiu Steven Xia, Yuyao Wang, and LINGMING ZHANG. 2023. Is your code generated by chatGPT really correct? rigorous evaluation of large language models for code generation. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*.

Ziyang Luo, Can Xu, Pu Zhao, Qingfeng Sun, Xiubo Geng, Wenxiang Hu, Chongyang Tao, Jing Ma, Qingwei Lin, and Daxin Jiang. 2024. Wizardcoder: Empowering code large language models with evol-instruct. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2024, Vienna, Austria, May 7-11, 2024*. OpenReview.net.

Federico Mora, Justin Wong, Haley Lepe, Sahil Bhatia, Karim Elmaaroufi, George Varghese, Joseph E. Gonzalez, Elizabeth Polgreen, and Sanjit A. Seshia. 2024. Synthetic programming elicitation for text-to-code in very low-resource programming and formal languages. In *The Thirty-eighth Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*.

Niklas Muennighoff, Qian Liu, Armel Randy Zebaze, Qinkai Zheng, Binyuan Hui, Terry Yue Zhuo, Swayam Singh, Xiangru Tang, Leandro von Werra, and Shayne Longpre. 2024. Octopack: Instruction tuning code large language models. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2024, Vienna, Austria, May 7-11, 2024*. OpenReview.net.

OpenAI, :, Aaron Jaech, Adam Kalai, Adam Lerer, and 1 others. 2024a. Openai o1 system card. *Preprint*, arXiv:2412.16720.

OpenAI, Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, and 1 others. 2024b. Gpt-4 technical report. *Preprint*, arXiv:2303.08774.

Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll L. Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, John Schulman, Jacob Hilton, Fraser Kelton, Luke Miller, Maddie Simens, Amanda Askell, Peter Welinder, Paul F. Christiano, Jan Leike, and Ryan Lowe. 2022. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 35: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2022, NeurIPS 2022, New Orleans, LA, USA, November 28 - December 9, 2022*.

Rangeet Pan, Ali Reza Ibrahimzada, Rahul Krishna, Divya Sankar, Lambert Pouguem Wassi, Michele Merler, Boris Sobolev, Raju Pavuluri, Saurabh Sinha, and Reyhaneh Jabbarvand. 2024. Lost in translation: A study of bugs introduced by large language models while translating code. In *Proceedings of the 46th IEEE/ACM International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE 2024, Lisbon, Portugal, April 14-20, 2024*, pages 82:1–82:13. ACM.

Stephen Robertson and Hugo Zaragoza. 2009. The probabilistic relevance framework: Bm25 and beyond. *Foundations and Trends® in Information Retrieval*, 3(4):333–389.

Baptiste Rozière, Jonas Gehring, Fabian Gloeckle, Sten Sootla, Itai Gat, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, and 1 others. 2024. Code llama: Open foundation models for code. *Preprint*, arXiv:2308.12950.

Marc Szafraniec, Baptiste Rozière, Hugh Leather, Patrick Labatut, François Charton, and Gabriel Synnaeve. 2023. Code translation with compiler representations. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2023, Kigali, Rwanda, May 1-5, 2023*. OpenReview.net.

Runchu Tian, Yining Ye, Yujia Qin, Xin Cong, Yankai Lin, Yinxu Pan, Yesai Wu, Hui Haotian, Liu Weichuan, Zhiyuan Liu, and Maosong Sun. 2024. DebugBench: Evaluating debugging capability of large language models. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024*, pages 4173–4198, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Yaoxiang Wang, Haoling Li, Xin Zhang, Jie Wu, Xiao Liu, Wenxiang Hu, Zhongxin, and 1 others. 2025. Epicoder: Encompassing diversity and complexity in code generation. In *Forty-second International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 2025, Vancouver, BC, Canada, July 13-19, 2025*. OpenReview.net.

Yizhong Wang, Yeganeh Kordi, Swaroop Mishra, Alisa Liu, Noah A. Smith, Daniel Khashabi, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2023. Self-instruct: Aligning language models with self-generated instructions. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), ACL 2023, Toronto, Canada, July 9-14, 2023*, pages 13484–13508. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Jason Wei, Maarten Bosma, Vincent Zhao, Kelvin Guu, Adams Wei Yu, Brian Lester, Nan Du, Andrew M Dai, and Quoc V Le. Finetuned language models are zero-shot learners. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.

Yuxiang Wei, Federico Cassano, Jiawei Liu, Yifeng Ding, Naman Jain, Zachary Mueller, Harm de Vries, Leandro von Werra, Arjun Guha, and Lingming Zhang. 2024a. Selfcodealign: Self-alignment for code generation. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 38: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2024, NeurIPS 2024, Vancouver, BC, Canada, December 10 - 15, 2024*.

Yuxiang Wei, Zhe Wang, Jiawei Liu, Yifeng Ding, and Lingming Zhang. 2024b. Magicoder: Empowering code generation with oss-instruct. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 2024, Vienna, Austria, July 21-27, 2024*. OpenReview.net.

Chengxing Xie, Bowen Li, Chang Gao, He Du, Wai Lam, Difan Zou, and Kai Chen. 2025. Swe-fixer: Training open-source llms for effective and efficient github issue resolution. *CoRR*, abs/2501.05040.

Can Xu, Qingfeng Sun, Kai Zheng, Xiubo Geng, Pu Zhao, Jiazhan Feng, Chongyang Tao, Qingwei Lin, and Daxin Jiang. 2024. Wizardlm: Empowering large pre-trained language models to follow complex instructions. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2024, Vienna, Austria, May 7-11, 2024*. OpenReview.net.

Min Xue, Artur Andrzejak, and Marla Leuther. 2024. An interpretable error correction method for enhancing code-to-code translation. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2024, Vienna, Austria, May 7-11, 2024*. OpenReview.net.

John Yang, Carlos E. Jimenez, Alexander Wettig, Kilian Lieret, Shunyu Yao, Karthik Narasimhan, and Ofir Press. 2024. Swe-agent: Agent-computer interfaces enable automated software engineering. *Preprint*, arXiv:2405.15793.

Xinran Yu, Chun Li, Minxue Pan, and Xuandong Li. 2024a. Droidcoder: Enhanced android code completion with context-enriched retrieval-augmented generation. In *Proceedings of the 39th IEEE/ACM International Conference on Automated Software Engineering, ASE 2024, Sacramento, CA, USA, October 27 - November 1, 2024*, pages 681–693. ACM.

Zhaojian Yu, Xin Zhang, Ning Shang, Yangyu Huang, Can Xu, Yishujie Zhao, Wenxiang Hu, and Qiufeng Yin. 2024b. Wavecoder: Widespread and versatile enhancement for code large language models by instruction tuning. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), ACL 2024, Bangkok, Thailand, August 11-16, 2024*, pages 5140–5153. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Lin Zheng, Jianbo Yuan, Zhi Zhang, Hongxia Yang, and Lingpeng Kong. 2024. Self-infilling code generation. *Preprint*, arXiv:2311.17972.

Li Zhong, Zilong Wang, and Jingbo Shang. 2024. Debug like a human: A large language model debugger via verifying runtime execution step by step. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024*, pages 851–870, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics.

A Implementation Details

This section provides the implementation details of CodeRise to ensure full reproducibility. We report the key hyperparameters for our data generation pipeline. For all inference processes conducted during testing and evaluation, the sampling temperature was consistently set to $T = 0$.

A.1 Syntax Warm-up

For the initial syntax warm-up, we fine-tuned the Qwen-2.5-Coder-32B-Instruct model on a dataset of 2k samples generated from Stage 1. The training was conducted for 1 epoch, with a learning rate of 2×10^{-5} , and the batch size is set to 8. We utilized a cosine scheduler and AdamW optimizer for the training process.

A.2 Main Model Training

We fine-tuned three models on the 30,000 samples dataset generated by CodeRise. All training runs were conducted for 3 epochs using the AdamW optimizer with a cosine learning rate scheduler and a maximum sequence length of 2048 tokens. No warm-up steps were used. For Qwen-2.5-Coder-32B-Instruct, we used a learning rate of 2×10^{-5} with a batch size of 8. For Qwen-2.5-Coder-7B-Instruct and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, we used a learning rate of 4×10^{-5} with a batch size of 32.

A.3 Seed CodeBase

To ensure a fair comparison with prior work, we use the same seed codebase[2](Wei et al., 2024a) as the SelfCodeAlign framework, which consists of 574k functions. This dataset is a curated collection of functions originally sourced from The Stack V1[3](Kocetkov et al., 2023) corpus, a 3.1 TB dataset consisting of permissively licensed source code in 30 programming languages.

B Benchmark Details

We evaluate CodeRise on migrated benchmarks for Tengo (HumanEval and MBPP) and our newly constructed native benchmark suite for ultra low-resource programming languages, consisting of **TengoEval** and **JanetEval**.

[2]https://huggingface.co/datasets/bigcode/python-stack-v1-functions-filtered

[3]https://huggingface.co/datasets/bigcode/the-stack

B.1 TengoEval and JanetEval

Scope and format **TengoEval** and **JanetEval** are file-level benchmarks, each containing 100 problems. Unlike translation-based benchmarks, both are natively designed for their target languages and grounded in each language's standard library, rather than translated from high-resource languages.

Module coverage TengoEval is designed to cover all native modules in the Tengo standard library, and each problem uses 2.3 modules on average. JanetEval contains 100 problems and each problem uses 1.6 modules on average.

Unit tests and semantics All test cases are written and executed under the native semantics of the target language. Each task includes multiple unit tests and at least one explicit edge case to reduce ambiguity and improve robustness.

Quality control To ensure correctness and feasibility, two senior engineers reviewed every problem for task feasibility and test correctness. All problems, reference solutions, and unit tests are executed and validated in a sandboxed environment before inclusion.

B.2 Migrated Benchmarks

We evaluate on migrated versions of HumanEval and MBPP for Tengo. We use the EvalPlus (Liu et al., 2023) problem sets as the source, but due to limited staffing, we only migrate the original unit tests provided by HumanEval and MBPP rather than the additional tests introduced by EvalPlus. All migrated problems and tests are manually verified by two engineers to ensure correctness under native Tengo semantics.

C Case Study

Figure 4 presents a case study where the model was tasked with calculating Euclidean distance. The initial code contained a compilation error, it used tuple assignment to unpack coordinates, which is a common feature in Go but unsupported in Tengo. Upon failure, it receives three complementary pieces of information: the direct compiler error identifies what is wrong; the pre-authored Debugging Guideline explains why it is wrong in Tengo and provides the correct pattern; and the retrieved documentation confirms that tuple assignment is a feature explicitly absent from the language. This multi-faceted

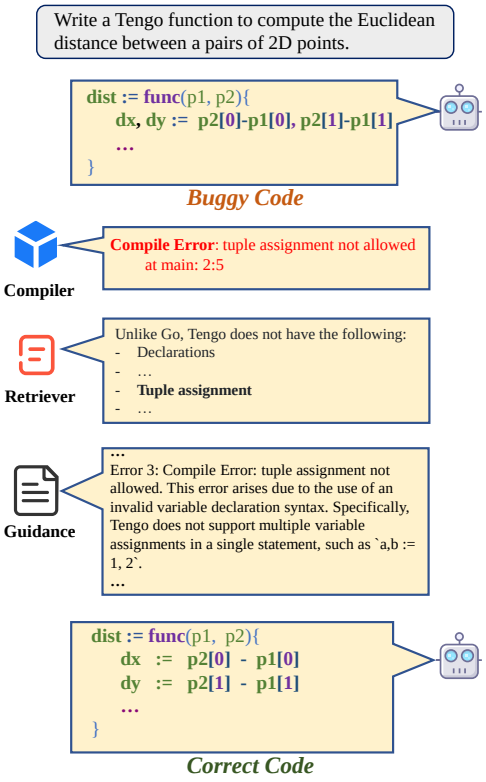

Figure 4: A case study of the CodeRise mechanism. An Compile Error caused by tuple assignment is resolved after the model receives synergistic feedback from the compiler, a documentation retriever, and our pre-authored guidance.

feedback enables the model to effectively diagnose and resolve the language-specific syntactic issue.

D Document Retrieval Strategy

The document was divided into three structurally parts: **(i) Basic Syntax**; **(ii) Built-in Functions**; and **(iii) Standard Libraries**. The chunking strategy was tailored to the characteristics of each section. For **Basic Syntax** and **Built-in Functions**, we leveraged the native Markdown hierarchy, treating each top-level heading as an individual chunk. In contrast, the **Standard Libraries** section, which consists of numerous concise function descriptions, was uniformly partitioned by grouping every three consecutive function definitions into one chunk. This design ensures semantic coherence within chunks while maintaining consistent retrieval granularity across heterogeneous documentation types.

Since retrieval is only triggered for *compilation* or *runtime* errors, BM25(Robertson and Zaragoza, 2009) proves more effective than dense retrieval. We utilized the BM25 algorithm from the Pyserini(Lin et al., 2021) with its default settings. The feedback messages from compilers often contain explicit lexical cues that directly correspond to documentation text, such as "Runtime Error: wrong number of arguments in call to user-function:has_prefix". In such cases, keyword-based retrieval better exploits these literal overlaps, whereas dense embeddings tend to smooth away the precise token-level distinctions that are crucial for error localization and resolution. Consequently, BM25 provides more reliable and interpretable matches for this type of debugging-oriented retrieval.

Iterations	Samples	Proportion (%)
1	11,090	53.1
2	4,476	21.4
3	2,150	10.3
4	1,194	5.7
5	751	3.6
6	510	2.4
7	395	1.9
8	319	1.5
9	257	1.2

Table 6: Iteration statistics of Stage 2 self-debugging on Tengo. We report the distribution over the number of refinement iterations for 20,885 successfully salvaged samples.

E Iteration statistics

To characterize the efficiency of Stage 2, we analyze 20,885 samples that were successfully salvaged by our self-debugging pipeline on Tengo. Table 6 reports the distribution over the number of refinement iterations needed to pass compilation/execution and all unit tests. More than half of the samples succeed in a single iteration; 74.5% succeed within two iterations, and 90.5% within four iterations. Only a small long tail (10.5%) requires five or more iterations, indicating that Stage 2 is typically efficient while still being able to rescue hard cases when needed.