
Practical Code RAG at Scale: Task-Aware Retrieval Design Choices under Compute Budgets

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Abstract

1 We study retrieval design for code-focused generation tasks under realistic compute
2 budgets. Using two complementary tasks from Long Code Arena — code comple-
3 tion and bug localization — we systematically compare retrieval configurations
4 across various context window sizes along three axes: (i) chunking strategy, (ii)
5 similarity scoring, and (iii) splitting granularity. (1) For PL→PL, sparse BM25 with
6 word-level splitting is the most effective and practical, significantly outperforming
7 dense alternatives while being an order of magnitude faster. (2) For NL→PL,
8 proprietary dense encoders (Voyager-3 family) consistently beat sparse retrievers,
9 however requiring 100x larger latency. (3) Optimal chunk size scales with available
10 context: 32–64 line chunks work best at small budgets, and whole-file retrieval
11 becomes competitive at 16000 tokens. (4) Simple line-based chunking matches
12 syntax-aware splitting across budgets. (5) Retrieval latency varies by up to 200x
13 across configurations; BPE-based splitting is needlessly slow, and BM25 + word
14 splitting offers the best quality–latency trade-off. Thus, we provide evidence-based
15 recommendations for implementing effective code-oriented RAG systems based
16 on task requirements, model constraints, and computational efficiency.

17 1 Introduction

18 Large language models (LLMs) have rapidly advanced the state of the art in code intelligence, demon-
19 strating impressive capabilities in code synthesis, refactoring, and defect detection — combining
20 both generation and retrieval-based enhancements [Wang et al., 2023, Su et al., 2024, Tan et al.,
21 2025b, Zhou et al., 2025]. Despite these advances, even the largest models struggle to internalize
22 the long-tail knowledge scattered throughout real-world software projects [Bogomolov et al., 2024,
23 Kandpal et al., 2023, Zhou et al., 2024]. Retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) tackles this limitation
24 by augmenting the model’s prompt with text retrieved on-the-fly from an external corpus [Lewis
25 et al., 2020].

26 While RAG has become standard for open-domain question answering, its adaptation to software
27 engineering tasks remains insufficiently examined. Source code presents unique challenges compared
28 to natural language: it is highly structured, often exceeds typical context windows, and combines
29 multiple languages and modalities (e.g., code, comments, issue reports). As a result, text-based RAG
30 best practices do not transfer directly to code. Prior work has addressed individual aspects of this
31 domain. Sparse lexical methods such as BM25 [Beaulieu et al., 1997, Robertson and Zaragoza, 2009]
32 remain strong baselines for code search [Zhang et al., 2023, Zhou et al., 2023], while dense models
33 like CodeBERT Feng et al. [2020] and E5 Wang et al. [2022] offer improved cross-modal alignment.
34 More specialized retrieval approaches have explored leveraging the semantic and syntactic structure
35 of code, including syntax-aware chunking strategies [Su et al., 2024, Zhou et al., 2025] and the use of
36 repository-specific dependency graphs [Cheng et al., 2024, Zhang et al., 2025] to guide retrieval. Yet,

37 to the best of our knowledge, no study has systematically compared these design choices under a
38 unified RAG pipeline across multiple code-centric tasks.

39 In this paper, we fill that gap by benchmarking a spectrum of RAG configurations on two comple-
40 mentary tasks from the Long Code Arena (LCA) benchmark collection Bogomolov et al. [2024]:

41 **Code completion (CC).** The task is to generate the next line of code, conditioned on the preceding
42 code context. This task involves programming language to programming language (PL→PL) retrieval.

43 **Bug localization (BL)** Identifying target files required correction based on issue text. This task
44 involves natural language to programming language (NL→PL) retrieval.

45 Both tasks require accurate retrieval of semantically related and often distant context snippets before
46 generation. We then use these tasks to explore mixtures of various approaches coming from three
47 orthogonal RAG axes: the **chunking strategy** — dividing code into whole files, fixed-sized segments,
48 or syntax-aware chunks; the **similarity scorer** — sparse metrics such as BM25 or IoU, dense
49 encoders, and repository structure-aware approaches; and the **tokenization granularity** (for sparse
50 retrieval only) — measuring similarity at the level of BPE tokens, words, or lines of code. By jointly
51 varying these dimensions, we aim to clarify their individual and combined contributions to retrieval
52 effectiveness in code-focused RAG. In addition, our experimental design varies the model context
53 window from 128 to 16,000 tokens to study interactions between retrieval granularity and LLM
54 capacity. The study yields several actionable insights.

55 We find that there is no single retrieval configuration that excels at all code tasks — each requires
56 its own optimal approach. For code completion (PL→PL), lightweight, sparse retrieval with BM25
57 and word-level splitting stands out, significantly outperforming more complex dense models both
58 in accuracy and speed. In contrast, bug localization (NL→PL) benefits far more from advanced
59 dense embeddings, which provide much stronger alignment between natural language and code than
60 traditional sparse methods. We demonstrate that latency varies by up to 200x between configurations,
61 emphasizing the importance of holistic cost-quality trade-offs for practical deployment.

62 Chunk size also matters: smaller code chunks (32-64 lines) are best for models with limited context
63 windows ($\leq 4,000$ tokens), while whole-file retrieval becomes effective as the available context
64 grows (up to 16,000 tokens). Surprisingly, simple line-based chunking is consistently as effective as
65 syntax-aware approaches, suggesting that elaborate code parsing offers limited benefit.

66 Our findings serve as evidence-based guidelines for practitioners who must choose between accuracy,
67 speed, and engineering complexity when building RAG systems for software engineering.

68 2 Related Work

69 While RAG is well studied for open-domain QA, its application to software engineering tasks
70 remains relatively underexplored Oche et al. [2025]. Recent work in retrieval for code and software
71 engineering tasks demonstrates a rich diversity of approaches, encompassing lexical, dense, hybrid,
72 and structure-aware techniques, each balancing quality and latency in distinct ways.

73 **Dense and sparse similarity scorers** remain competitive in code tasks [Robertson and Zaragoza,
74 2009, Zhang et al., 2023, Zhou et al., 2023], while dense models such as CodeBERT Feng et al. [2020],
75 GraphCodeBERT Guo et al. [2020], UniXcoder Guo et al. [2022], and E5 Wang et al. [2022] improve
76 cross-modal alignment. Hybrid search [Lin, 2022] and learned sparse models like SPLADE Formal
77 et al. [2021] aim to combine precision, recall, and efficiency. While these approaches have highlighted
78 different strengths depending on the retrieval scenario, prior work generally selects one retrieval
79 paradigm for a specific setting, lacking systematic benchmarking of retrieval strategies across multiple
80 tasks and under various computational constraints.

81 **Chunking strategies** vary from line-based windows, offering language-agnostic simplicity, to
82 syntax-aware splitting that preserves structural coherence [Su et al., 2024, Zhou et al., 2025], and
83 graph-guided retrieval using dependency or call graphs [Li et al., 2025, Cheng et al., 2024]. While
84 some studies show semantic chunking can yield performance gains [Zhang et al., 2025, Singh et al.,
85 2025, Chen et al., 2024], others argue that the computational costs associated with semantic chunking
86 are not justified by consistent performance gains Qu et al. [2025]. Further, works like Nguyen et al.
87 [2025] explore optimal chunk sizes but are limited in scope. Despite these efforts, it remains unclear

88 how chunking choices interact with retrieval methods and task modalities in realistic code-focused
89 RAG pipelines.

90 **Tokenization granularity** for sparse retrieval — as in token-, word-, or line-level splitting — is
91 seldom studied systematically and is often treated as an implementation detail. While some recent
92 work has compared some granularities for natural language tasks Zhang and Tan [2021], Ogundepo
93 et al. [2022] and found token-level splitting performs best, such findings have not been extended to
94 code-focused RAG, nor have efficiency implications been explored. We address this gap by explicitly
95 evaluating tokenization granularity as a separate axis in our experiments.

96 **Efficiency–quality trade-offs** have been the focus of recent studies, which highlight challenges in
97 system latency and resource consumption. Recent works, such as [Shen et al., 2024, Ray et al.,
98 2025], provide a thorough analysis, mainly focusing on indexing techniques for dense retrieval. Our
99 work complements these directions by systematically benchmarking retrieval design choices for
100 code-related RAG tasks, extending the analysis to a broader range of retrieval techniques.

101 **Task-specific pipelines**, such as ReACC, RepoFormer and ProCC [Lu et al., 2022, Wu et al.,
102 2024, Tan et al., 2025a] for retrieval-augmented code completion, ReCo Li et al. [2024] for stylistic
103 normalization in code search, and CodeRAG Li et al. [2025], which leverages requirement–code
104 graphs, demonstrate substantial gains on their respective tasks. These targeted solutions illustrate that
105 retrieval choices — including representation, chunking, and the use of code structure — can have
106 significant task-dependent impacts.

107 Collectively, these works highlight the versatility of retrieval approaches — lexical, dense, hybrid,
108 and structure-aware. Each exhibiting distinct quality — latency trade-offs that map onto retrieval
109 design axes such as chunking strategy, similarity scoring, and tokenization granularity. However,
110 most prior studies assess these factors in isolation or optimize for a single configuration, leaving
111 open the question of how these choices interact under realistic compute constraints and varying task
112 modalities. Our work addresses this gap by benchmarking diverse retrieval configurations across
113 two complementary code tasks under varying context windows and latency constraints, enabling
114 evidence-based recommendations for task- and budget-aware code-oriented RAG system design.

115 3 Experimental Setup

116 3.1 Tasks and Metrics

117 **Dataset and scope.** All experiments are run on the Long Code Arena (LCA) benchmark Bogomolov
118 et al. [2024]. Retrieval is restricted to the target repository. We do not train or fine-tune any models.

119 **Code Completion (CC).** The task is to generate the next line of code, conditioned on the preceding
120 code context. Target lines are selected to reference code entities — classes or methods — defined
121 in other files of the same repository. Primary retrieval metric is an exact match (EM): we record
122 $EM = 1$ if the target line matches the generated one; otherwise, $EM = 0$. We report the mean EM
123 over instances. The retrieval task is to retrieve the code according to the context of the completion
124 file of the chunk (PL-PL), without seeing the target line itself. Generation is then performed with
125 DEEPSEEK-CODER-1.3B. The tasks are provided for two languages: Kotlin and Python.

126 **Bug Localization (BL).** Given a natural-language issue description, the retrieval task is to rank
127 repository files by likelihood of containing the described bug. The ground truth set is unordered
128 and may contain several files. Following the LCA work, we evaluate ranking with Normalized
129 Discounted Cumulative Gain (NDCG) Järvelin and Kekäläinen [2002]. The tasks are provided for
130 three languages: Java, Kotlin, and Python.

131 3.2 Retrieval Components

132 We factor retrieval into three orthogonal sub-modules.

133 **Chunker** maps each source file to a set of textual chunks to be indexed. We consider (i) whole files,
134 a single chunk per file; (ii) fixed-length non-overlapping windows of 8, 16, 32, 64, or 128 lines, and
135 (iii) syntax-aware recursive splitter via LANGCHAIN Chase and Contributors [2022] with a target
136 length matched to the corresponding fixed-line alternative.

137 **Splitter** (applies for sparse retriever only) splits a chunk into a bag of "tokens" consumed by the scorer.
138 Options are (i) *line-level*, each distinct line is a token, (ii) *word-level*, split on non-alphanumeric
139 boundaries; drop punctuation and numerals; no stemming, and (iii) *BPE*, byte-pair tokens.

140 **Scorer** assigns a similarity score between query and chunk. We test (i) *sparse* lexical scorers: IoU (nor-
141 malized set overlap) and BM25 (Okapi), (ii) *dense* bi-encoder models: E5-small/base/large Wang et al.
142 [2022], Voyager-3/Code/Lite Voyage AI [2025], (iii) *Structure-aware*: DraCo (dataflow/dependency
143 graph) and a path-distance heuristic. *DraCo* (Dataflow-guided Retrieval Augmentation) Cheng et al.
144 [2024] leverages static dataflow analysis to collect the context. *Path-distance* heuristic retrieves
145 context based on how close files are in the directory tree, assuming that files located nearer to each
146 other are more likely to be relevant.

147 The retrieval configuration is therefore a triplet (*chunker*, *splitter*, *scorer*). Unless noted, dense
148 encoders use a 512-token limit; longer documents are truncated from right.

149 3.3 Packing and budgets

150 **Query construction** CC: the query is the last chunk from the completion file with the target line
151 removed. BL: the query is the issue text.

152 **Ranking and packing** For each query, we rank candidate chunks/files. We then greedily pack the
153 top-ranked items into the prompt until a token budget is reached, preserving rank order and discarding
154 overflows. Budgets for CC are 128, 4,096, 8,192, and 16,384 tokens. BL is evaluated as a ranking
155 task over files (NDCG) and does not use a packing budget.

156 **Hybrids and reranking** Structure-aware lists (DraCo) are combined with the best-performing
157 sparse/dense retriever by prepending the structure-aware candidates and backfilling with BM25-
158 ranked items to fill the budget. If the structure-aware method returns fewer candidates than needed,
159 we continue with BM25 order.

160 3.4 Hyper-parameter Search

161 A full grid over all axes would require an excessive number of runs, so we adopt a staged search:

162 Stage 1 **scorer** $\times$ **splitter**. Using the whole file as a chunk, we benchmark every (*scorer*, *splitter*)
163 pair and select the best per task. Results select BM25 + word for CC; E5-large and Voyager-3
164 for BL.

165 Stage 2 **chunk size**. Fixing the chosen at Step 1 scorer and splitter, we sweep chunk line windows
166 $\in \{8, 16, 32, 64, 128\}$ and whole files. We measure EM (@CC) for each candidate at four
167 LLM context budgets: 128, 4 096, 8 192, 16 384 tokens.

168 Stage 3 **chunker type** Compare the best fixed-line window from Stage 2 to syntax-aware recursive
169 splitting with matched average lengths.

170 Stage 4 **hybrid rerankers**. Evaluate dataflow graph-based DraCo and path distance combined with
171 the best sparse/dense retriever.

172 The code completion task is sensitive to context size, so we report scores across a range of context
173 lengths (128–16,000 tokens) and analyze how performance depends on context size and other factors.
174 This progressive refinement methodology allowed us to systematically narrow the search space while
175 identifying the most effective configuration components at each stage of the optimization process.

176 3.5 Implementation notes

177 Source files are indexed as-is (comments and strings retained). Word-level splitting removes punctu-
178 ation and numerals; no stemming or identifier de-camelization is applied. We use dense encoders
179 off-the-shelf. All latency measurements reported later are wall-clock times.

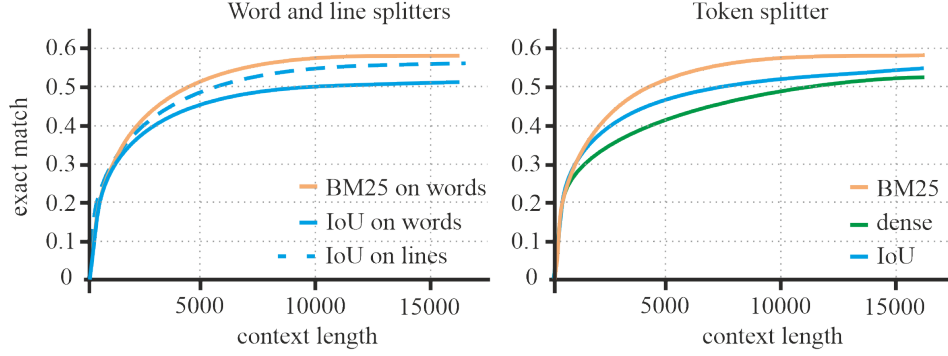


Figure 1: Exact match scores for various combinations of splitters and scorers.

4 Results and Analysis

4.1 Code Completion Task

4.1.1 Optimal Scorers and Splitters

In this experiment, we fix the chunker to whole-file retrieval and sweep scorer–splitter pairs across context budgets. For sparse scorers (BM25, IoU), we evaluate line-, word-, and BPE-level splitters. Dense encoder (E5-large) operates on raw text and ignores the splitter choice. Retrieved files are packed greedily in rank order up to the context budget. Figure 1 summarizes the results for the evaluated splitter–scorer pairs. Three consistent trends emerge:

BM25 dominates in accuracy. BM25 achieves the highest exact-match rate, outperforming both IoU and dense embeddings by ≈ 10 p.p. on average for medium and large context lengths (> 2000), where lexical overlap remains informative.

Word splitter is more efficient than BPE, while showing same quality. Using BPE tokens or plain words with BM25 yields statistically indistinguishable EM; however, the word splitter is $9\times$ faster to build. We therefore adopt the BM25 scorer with word splitter as our default sparse configuration.

Dense encoders plateau early. E5-large trails BM25, making sparse methods the pragmatic choice for PL $\rightarrow$ PL retrieval, particularly for longer documents, which require more resources to encode.

IoU with line splitting sits in the middle ground, cheaper than BM25 but also ≈ 4 p.p. worse on EM, making it attractive only for latency-critical deployments.

4.1.2 Optimal Chunking

We study chunk-size choice under the best sparse configuration from the previous subsection: BM25 with word-level splitting. We vary two knobs:

Index chunk size L_i $\{8, 16, 32, 64, 128, \text{inf}\}$. For every file, including the completion file, we index non-overlapping windows of a L_i lines; inf denotes whole-file indexing.

Query window size L_q $\{8, 16, 32, 64, 128\}$. For completion file, query consists of the last L_q lines preceding the target line. Retrieved chunks are greedily packed in rank order up to the budget tokens.

The results (Figure 2) revealed a clear relationship between optimal chunk size and the model’s context window length. Small chunks (8-16 lines) consistently underperformed across all context lengths, likely because they contained insufficient information to establish meaningful relevance. For models with shorter context windows (less than 4,000 tokens), moderate chunks of 32-64 lines provide the best performance and saturate faster. For models with longer context windows ($> 8,000$ tokens), larger completion chunk sizes of 128 lines or more yielded superior results at large context, but saturate more slowly with context size. Ultimately, when models had access to extensive context windows (16,000 tokens), the whole file approach performed on par with chunked alternatives. This suggests that smaller contexts benefit from more granular retrieval units that can precisely match the

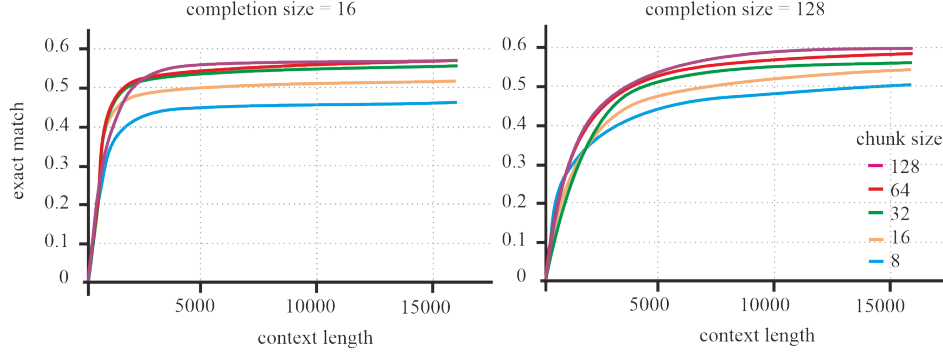


Figure 2: Exact match scores for various completion file sizes and chunk size

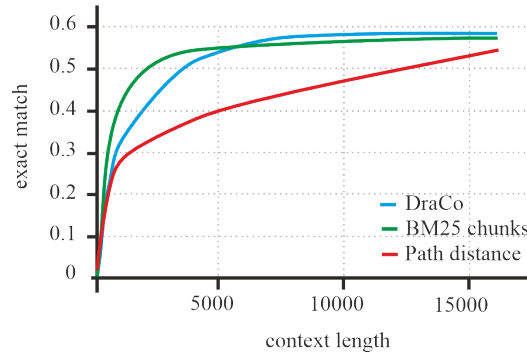


Figure 3: Exact match scores of benchmarked retrievers.

214 query, while longer contexts benefit from having more comprehensive code segments that preserve
 215 broader structural and contextual information.

216 Line splitting demonstrated a slight but consistent performance advantage over code structure-aware
 217 splitting across all parameters. This surprising result suggests that simple line-based chunking may
 218 preserve sufficient code coherence.

219 These findings provide valuable guidance for RAG system implementation. They suggest that chunk
 220 sizes should be dynamically adjusted based on the underlying generation model’s context window
 221 length rather than using a one-size-fits-all approach. Additionally, results demonstrate that line
 222 splitting performs on par with a more sophisticated structure-aware chunking approach. It offers
 223 implementation simplicity and a language-agnostic application, making it a robust choice for general
 224 code retrieval systems.

225 4.1.3 Structure-Aware Code Retrieval

226 We evaluated the dataflow-guided DraCo retriever, leveraging the import dependency graph structure
 227 to identify files directly relevant to the completion target file as well as path-distance retriever. We
 228 augment DraCo’s selections with additional files identified through BM25 ranking, as DraCo returns
 229 only limited number of files.

230 The results (Figure 3) indicate that chunking-based retrieval provides superior accuracy for medium
 231 contexts (< 8,000 tokens). However, as context length increases, the DraCo and chunking approaches
 232 converge towards similar performance levels. Path distance retrieval remains consistently lower-
 233 performing, suggesting that directory structure alone is insufficient for optimal context selection for
 234 the code completion task.

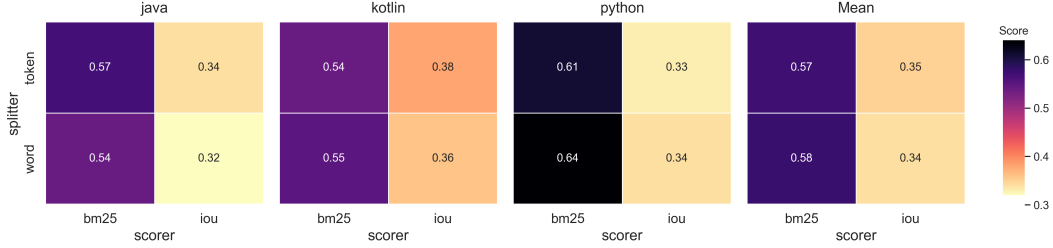


Figure 4: NDCG scores for various combinations of splitters and scorers for sparse retrieval

Table 1: NDCG scores for various models on the bug localization task.

Model	Embed dim	Context length	Time, s/1M symb*	NDCG			
				java	kotlin	python	mean
Voyager-3-code 512	1,024	512	19	0.712	0.701	0.738	0.717
Voyager-3-code	1,024	32,000	110**	0.708	0.676	0.705	0.696
Voyager-3	1,024	32,000	32	0.660	0.697	0.651	0.670
Voyager-3-lite	512	32,000	17	0.647	0.637	0.625	0.636
BM25, word splitter	—	∞	0.07	0.541	0.547	0.635	0.574
BM25, token splitter	—	∞	1.2	0.573	0.538	0.614	0.575
E5 large 560M	1,024	514	2.8	0.596	0.569	0.606	0.590
E5-base 278M	768	514	1.1	0.446	0.478	0.467	0.464
E5-small 117M	384	514	0.7	0.409	0.511	0.491	0.470

*retrieval time includes encoding the whole repository for each data point. Symbols are counted all - even truncated ones, which were not used in the encoder.

**retrieval time for Voyager-3-code is exceedingly high because we have to set batch_size=2 due to the limit of 120,000 tokens per request.

4.2 Bug Localization Task

We evaluate bug localization as NL→PL file ranking with NDCG. Sparse methods (BM25, IoU) use line-, word-, or BPE-level splitting. Dense encoders (E5 small/base/large and Voyager-3 family) operate on raw text with model-specific input limits; overlength files were truncated from the right.

Figure 4 summarizes sparse variants. BM25 consistently outperforms IoU across Java, Kotlin, and Python, reflecting the limits of exact-overlap signals in cross-modal queries. Table 1 extends the comparison to dense encoders and shows that dense retrieval is stronger on average: E5-large reaches a mean NDCG of 0.59 versus 0.57 for BM25 with a word splitter, despite the 512-token limit. Proprietary Voyager embeddings are substantially higher, with Voyager-3-Code at 0.72 mean NDCG. Language-wise, the gap narrows for Python: BM25+word attains 0.64 versus 0.61 for E5-large, suggesting that repositories with richer natural-language artifacts in code and comments reduce the advantage of semantic encoders.

Efficiency varies greatly with splitting strategy. BM25 with a word splitter is the fastest (0.07 s per 1M symbols), while BM25 with BPE/token splitting is 16× slower (1.15 s) without quality gains and can even lag behind lighter dense encoders (E5-small/base) due to larger context size. E5-large requires 2.8 s, while Voyager-3-Code (512) is substantially slower at 19 s; the 32000-token Voyager variants are even slower due to technical token-budget constraints at the time of experiments. These findings show that, for NL→PL ranking on large repositories (here roughly 20% of files exceed 15000 tokens), dense models offer better accuracy even with truncation, but sparse BM25 with word-level splitting remains an excellent latency–quality baseline. When accuracy is paramount and cost permits, Voyager-3-Code leads by a wide margin; when latency or budget is critical, BM25+word is the pragmatic choice.

Table 2: Retrieval latency and EM scores (the best setup) for different approaches for the code completion task.

Scorer	Splitter	Time, s/1M repo symbols	EM at 4K / 16K context
Path distance	–	0.0005	0.37 / 0.55
IoU	line	0.02	0.46 / 0.57
IoU	word	0.1	0.44 / 0.51
BM25	word	0.2	0.55 / 0.60
IoU	token	1.5	0.40 / 0.55
BM25	token	2.0	0.50 / 0.59
Dense (E5-large, 512)	–	3.3	0.39 / 0.52

4.3 Latency Analysis

We assess end-to-end retrieval latency normalized by repository size, including query tokenization, splitting and similarity scoring. For sparse methods, we use prebuilt inverted indices; for dense encoders, we report query-time document encoding plus similarity computation, which makes the dense figures an upper bound for deployments that could precompute embeddings.

Table 2 summarizes results on the code completion setup. The path-distance heuristic is effectively free because it ignores content and operates only on directory metadata. Among content-based methods, IoU with line-level splitting is the fastest at 0.02 s/1M symbols; moving to word-level splitting raises cost to 0.1 s due to a larger token inventory per document. BM25 with word-level splitting remains reasonably efficient at 0.2 s and, as shown earlier, offers the best quality–latency balance for PL→PL. BPE/token-level pipelines are an order of magnitude slower (IoU 1.5 s; BM25 2.0 s) without accuracy gains, reflecting tokenizer overhead and much larger posting lists. Dense retrieval with E5-large is the slowest at 3 s/1M symbols because it requires a forward pass over all candidate chunks.

For a representative repository of 2.3 million symbols, these rates translate to approximately 1.2 ms for path distance, 0.04 s for IoU-line, 0.5 s for BM25-word, 3.5 s for IoU-token, 4.5 s for BM25-token, and 7.5 s for E5-large. Thus, the spread between the fastest practical content-based scorer (IoU-line) and a dense encoder is about 180×, and between BM25-word and E5-large about 14×, in line with the “orders of magnitude” difference noted earlier.

The bug localization task presents a tougher efficiency–effectiveness trade-off. We recommend BM25-based retrieval over E5-large: it offers similar performance but is about 40× faster. Proprietary Voyage models achieve higher scores, but with much greater latency and cost. Ultimately, the choice is yours: use BM25 if speed and cost are paramount, or choose Voyage if you prioritize accuracy despite higher latency and expense.

5 Limitations and Future Work

For the retrieval part, we have not tested deduplication techniques to remove redundant information from retrieved contexts or context compression methods to maximize the utility of limited context windows. This could transform context window constraints, enabling even small-context models to effectively process information from larger code segments. However, context compression will come at some additional latency cost.

This study focuses on two LCA tasks — single-line code completion (PL→PL) and bug localization (NL→PL) — across Java, Kotlin, and Python with repository-local retrieval. While these tasks are representative, the scope limits external validity: results may differ for multi-line completion/repair or long-form generation. We evaluated generation with a single small model (DeepSeek-Coder-1.3B) to isolate retrieval effects; preliminary checks with a larger variant showed similar trends. We anticipate that the core principles would remain consistent with our findings on this narrow set of tasks.

Integrating additional code-specific structural information could enhance retrieval effectiveness, particularly for more complex tasks than code completion.

6 Conclusions and Recommendations

We systematically evaluated retrieval design choices for code-oriented RAG on two complementary tasks – PL→PL code completion and NL→PL bug localization. By varying chunking, similarity scoring, and splitting granularity across different context budgets, we provide critical insights to guide the implementation of effective RAG systems for software engineering.

Sparse vs Dense. For code completion tasks involving PL-PL retrieval, sparse retrieval methods — particularly BM25 with word-level splitting — consistently delivered superior results with reasonable computational efficiency. In contrast, bug localization tasks that involve NL-PL retrieval showed markedly different behaviour. Dense retrieval methods using neural embeddings mostly outperformed sparse retrieval approaches, with models like E5-large marginally higher NDCG scores than BM25, and Voyager-3-Code, achieving ≈ 0.72 NDCG score compared to ≈ 0.57 achieved by BM25.

These results reflect a modality-driven divide. In PL→PL code completion, substantial lexical overlap between the query and target makes sparse lexical scoring (e.g., BM25 with word-level splitting) a natural fit. In contrast, NL→PL bug localization benefits from dense encoders that capture semantic correspondence, bridging the gap between natural-language issue text and code implementations.

Chunking. There is an important relationship between optimal chunk size and available context window. Moderate windows (32–64 lines) are best for small budgets (≤ 4000 tokens), larger windows (64–128 lines) help as budgets grow, and whole-file retrieval becomes competitive at 16000 tokens. This scaling relationship underscores the importance of aligning retrieval granularity with model capacity — smaller contexts benefit from precise, focused chunks that maximize the relevance density, while larger contexts leverage broader context to better understand complex code relationships.

Sophisticated chunking. Line-based chunking matched or slightly exceeded syntax-aware splitting across budgets. We attribute this result to the fact that code completion relies more heavily on identifying semantically similar fragments rather than hierarchically related parent code structures in the codebase. This suggests that syntactic structure preservation may not be as critical as previously assumed for effective code retrieval, at least for the tasks evaluated in this study. This finding aligns with similar results reported for natural language tasks Qu et al. [2025].

Latency. From a practical implementation perspective, our latency analysis revealed dramatic efficiency differences between retrieval approaches, with up to 180× speed differences between the fastest meaningful (IoU-line) and slowest (dense) methods. This emphasize the importance of balancing retrieval quality with computational efficiency, particularly for interactive applications where response time is critical.

Based on these results, we offer the following recommendations for code RAG systems:

1. Match the retrieval strategy to the task nature. Use BM25 with word splitting for code-to-code retrieval tasks and dense embedding methods for natural language-to-code retrieval scenarios. The additional computational cost of dense retrieval is justified by its superior performance in cross-modal scenarios.
2. Align chunk granularity with model context capacity. As model context windows expand, increase chunk sizes accordingly. For models with shorter context window (≤ 4000 tokens), use 32-64 line chunks; for medium-length models (4000-8000 tokens), use 64-128 line chunks; and for models with long context windows (≥ 16000 tokens), consider retrieving entire files when appropriate. This applies to both index chunk size and query windowing.
3. Prioritize implementation efficiency through strategic choices. The word splitter offers nearly identical performance to tokenizer-based approaches at a fraction of the computational cost. For applications with strict latency requirements, consider using IoU with line splitting, which delivers reasonable performance with minimal computational overhead.
4. Complexity does not necessarily improve quality. As we show for the code completion task, structural information did not enhance performance. However, for bug localization, including file paths and import statements in the context significantly improved performance.
5. Consider the entire retrieval pipeline holistically. The most effective RAG systems will likely combine multiple retrieval strategies with the specific configuration tailored to the task requirements, codebase characteristics, and computational constraints.

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