

# **Recent progress in Neural Code Generation**

**Aman @ Yiming Yang's Lab Seminar, 2/22/22**

# Code generation

```
def get_dfdx(func, x) -> float:  
    """ derivative of func at x  
    d = 1e-6  
    return (func(x+d) - func(x-d)) / (2*d)
```

Completing code

```
"""\nwrite a program to search google for a given question\n"""\n\ndef query_google(query):\n    import requests\n    from bs4 import BeautifulSoup\n    url = "https://www.google.com/search?q=" + query\n    r = requests.get(url)\n    soup = BeautifulSoup(r.text, "html.parser")\n    links = [a.attrs.get("href") for a in soup.select("h3.r a")]  
    return links
```

Generating code from  
natural language description

# What makes code generation interesting?

- Programming *language* is language
  - Sequence of tokens sampled from an underlying grammar (so does English)
  - From a modeling perspective  $p(\text{code} \mid \text{input})$  can be factorized auto regressively, no difference on the surface
- Yet
  - Syntax is much more restrictive (indentation, types)
  - Long-form generations needed
  - Specialized knowledge
  - A single token has higher odds **of** disrupting everything
- Potential to be the first real-world, pervasive application of language generation models in the next few years



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## Learning to code will not save your kids

BY JEREMY KAHN  
February 8, 2022 11:19 AM EST

# Watch out Developers: DeepMind AI Can Now Write Code as well as the Average Programmer

Programming jobs may be on the decline in the not-so-distant future.



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## Bad news for developers? This AI is getting very good at writing code

DeepMind says its research could eventually help programmers code more efficiently and open up the field to people who don't code.

# Outline

- **Part 1**
  - State of the art language models are impressive to the point that telling them apart from human text is difficult.  
**Does this progress translate to code-generation?**
  - Alphacode: SOTA in solving competitive programming problems (“better” than 54% humans)
  - Treat code like other language
- **Part 2**
  - **Can we exploit key properties of code to improve over using language models alone?**
  - Using familiar techniques from NLP toolbox and PL
    - Masked language objective when dealing with code
    - Retrieval-augmented generation
    - Backtranslation
    - Syntax-guided generation

# Competition-Level Code Generation with AlphaCode

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<sup>\*</sup>Joint first authors

# Competitive programming

- Given
  - A new problem
  - Few (~5) input - output test cases
- Generate 1 million programs, test them on the 5 test cases
  - Only 10k programs pass these 5 test cases
- Check solution on a larger number of hidden test cases
- Widely used in hiring for CS

## A. Team

time limit per test: 2 seconds

memory limit per test: 256 megabytes

input: standard input

output: standard output

One day three best friends Petya, Vasya and Tonya decided to form a team and take part in programming contests. Participants are usually offered several problems during programming contests. Long before the start the friends decided that they will implement a problem if at least two of them are sure about the solution. Otherwise, the friends won't write the problem's solution.

This contest offers  $n$  problems to the participants. For each problem we know, which friend is sure about the solution. Help the friends find the number of problems for which they will write a solution.

### Input

The first input line contains a single integer  $n$  ( $1 \leq n \leq 1000$ ) — the number of problems in the contest. Then  $n$  lines contain three integers each, each integer is either 0 or 1. If the first number in the line equals 1, then Petya is sure about the problem's solution, otherwise he isn't sure. The second number shows Vasya's view on the solution, the third number shows Tonya's view. The numbers on the lines are separated by spaces.

### Output

Print a single integer — the number of problems the friends will implement on the contest.

### Examples

#### input

```
3  
1 1 0  
1 1 1  
1 0 0
```

[Copy](#)

#### output

```
2
```

[Copy](#)

#### input

```
2  
1 0 0  
0 1 1
```

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#### output

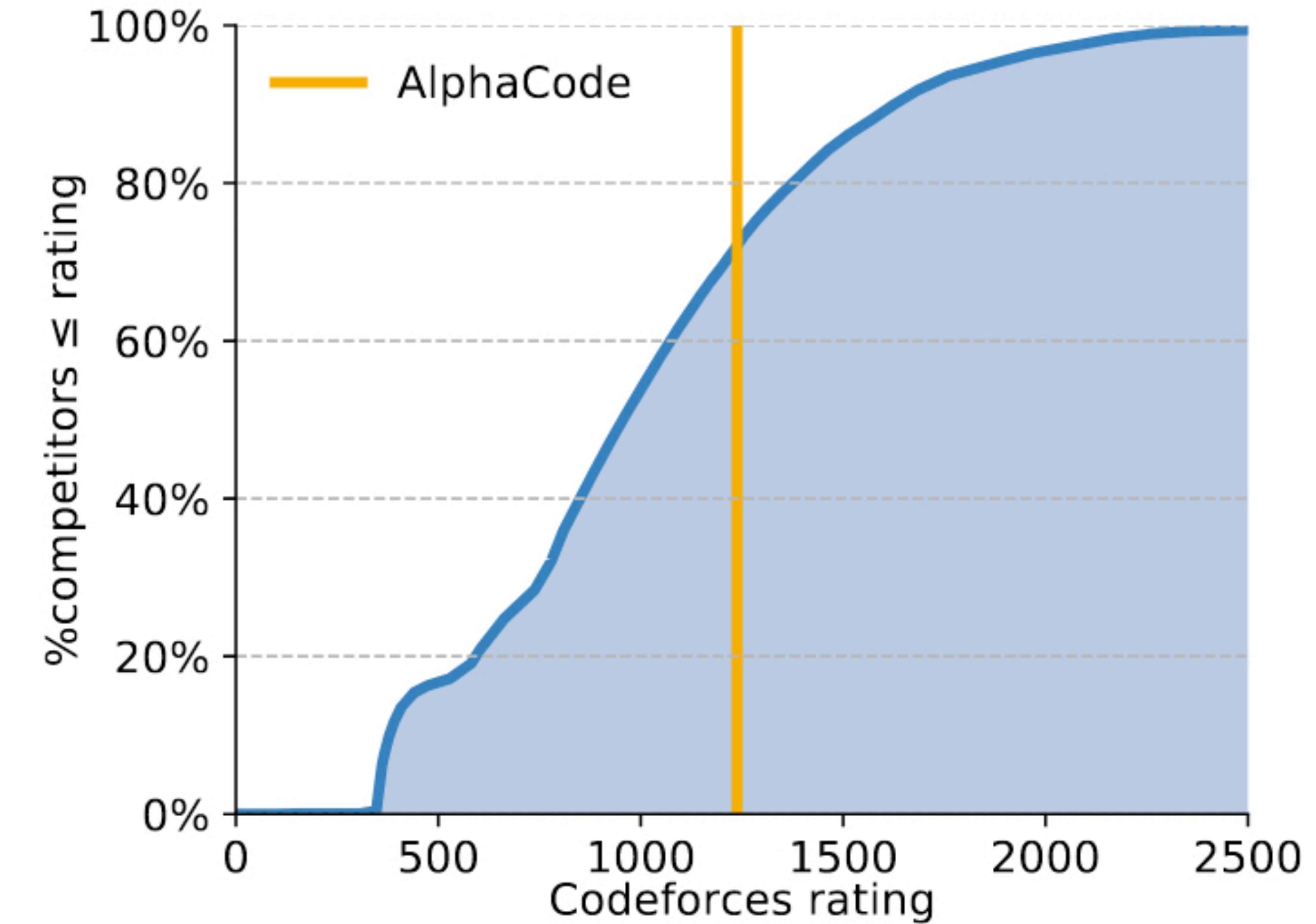
```
1
```

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# Alphacode

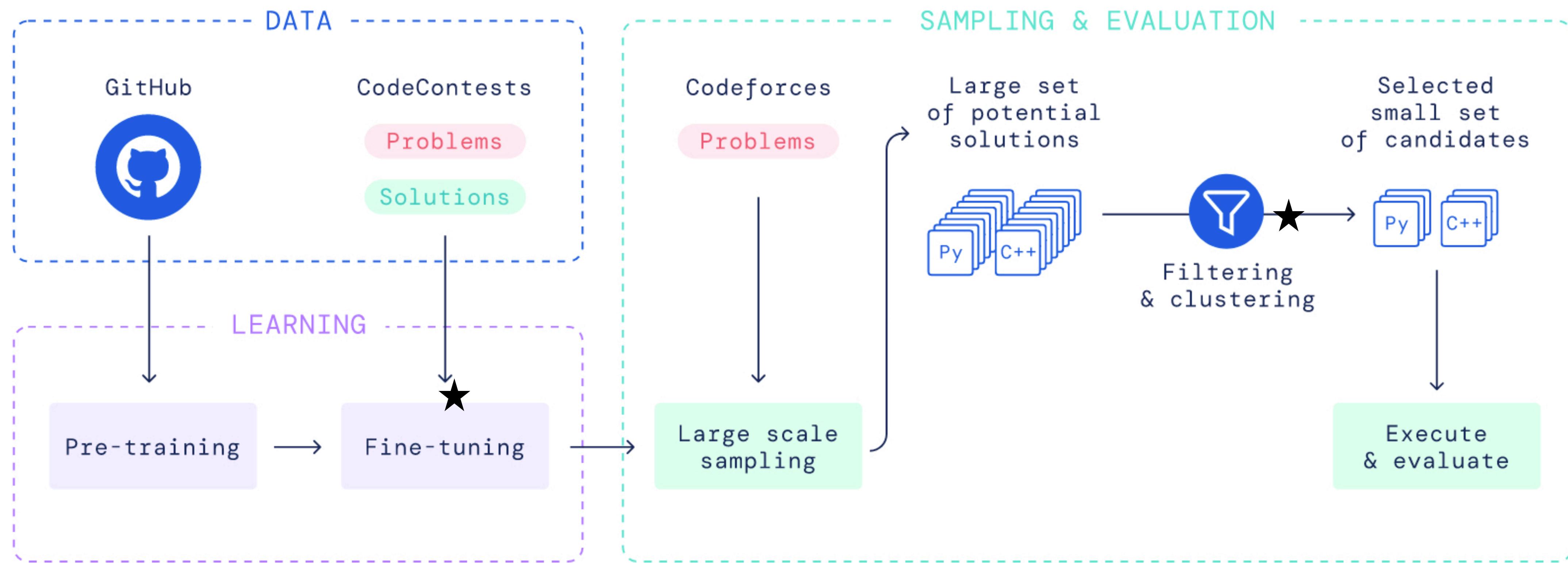
## Introduction

- Competitive programming contests: write program for a complex requirement, test on  $O(10^4)$  test cases.
- Example
  - Given two strings **A** and **B**, find if **A** and **B** are palindromes
- Many competitive programming websites



Alphacode is better than 72% of human participants at  
[codeforces.com](https://codeforces.com)

# Overview



# Datasets

- Pre-training: essentially all publicly available code on Github, filter out files > 1000 characters ~ 715.1 GB
- Fine-tuning:
  - Scraped [codeforces.com](https://codeforces.com)
  - Need dataset of (problem, correct solutions)
  - Generated additional test cases by mutating, and checked for correctness
  - Do not care about time complexity
- Architecture: encoder-decoder
  - Number of parameters vary from 1B to 41B
  - Shallow (8 layers) + wide (1500 tokens) encoder —> deep (56 layers) + narrow (768 tokens) decoder
  - Code is shorter than program description and test cases

# Fine-tuning

Encoder Input X:

Tags (meta-data about the problem)

```
# RATING: 3100
# TAGS: binary search,math
# LANGUAGE IS python3
# CORRECT SOLUTION

# n towns are arranged in a circle sequentially. The towns are numbered from 1
# to n in clockwise order. In the i-th town, there lives a singer with a
# repertoire of a_i minutes for each i ∈ [1, n].
#
# Each singer visited all n towns in clockwise order, starting with the town he
# lives in, and gave exactly one concert in each town. In addition, in each
# town, the i-th singer got inspired and came up with a song that lasts a_i
# minutes. The song was added to his repertoire so that he could perform it in
# the rest of the cities.
#
# Hence, for the i-th singer, the concert in the i-th town will last a_i
# minutes, in the (i + 1)-th town the concert will last 2 · a_i minutes, ..., in
# the ((i + k) mod n + 1)-th town the duration of the concert will be (k + 2) ·
# a_i, ..., in the town ((i + n - 2) mod n + 1) - n · a_i minutes.
#
# You are given an array of b integer numbers, where b_i is the total duration
# of concerts in the i-th town. Reconstruct any correct sequence of positive
# integers a or say that it is impossible.
#
# Input
#
# The first line contains one integer t (1 ≤ t ≤ 10^3) - the number of test
# cases. Then the test cases follow.
#
# Each test case consists of two lines. The first line contains a single integer
# n (1 ≤ n ≤ 4 · 10^4) - the number of cities. The second line contains n
# integers b_1, b_2, ..., b_n (1 ≤ b_i ≤ 10^{9}) - the total duration of
# concerts in i-th city.
#
# The sum of n over all test cases does not exceed 2 · 10^5.
#
# Output
#
# For each test case, print the answer as follows:
#
# If there is no suitable sequence a, print NO. Otherwise, on the first line
# print YES, on the next line print the sequence a_1, a_2, ..., a_n of n
# integers, where a_i (1 ≤ a_i ≤ 10^{9}) is the initial duration of repertoire
# of the i-th singer. If there are multiple answers, print any of them.
#
# Example
#
# Input
#
# 4
# 3
# 12 16 14
# 1
# 1
# 3
# 1 1 3
```

Decoder Output Y:

```
import sys
input = sys.stdin.readline

t=int(input())
for tests in range(t):
    n=int(input())
    B=list(map(int,input().split()))

    A=[-1<<100]*n
    MIN=float("inf")
    MAX=-1

    for i,b in enumerate(B):
        MIN=min(MIN,b)
        MAX=max(MAX,b)

    SUM=sum(B)

    if SUM%(n*(n+1)//2)!=0:
        print("NO")
        continue

    SUM//=(n*(n+1)//2)

    for i in range(n):
        j=i-1
        if j== -1:
            j=n-1
        a=(SUM-B[i]+B[j])//n
        if a>MIN or a>MAX or a<1:
            print("NO")
            break
        A[i]=a
    else:
        print("YES")
        print(*A)
```

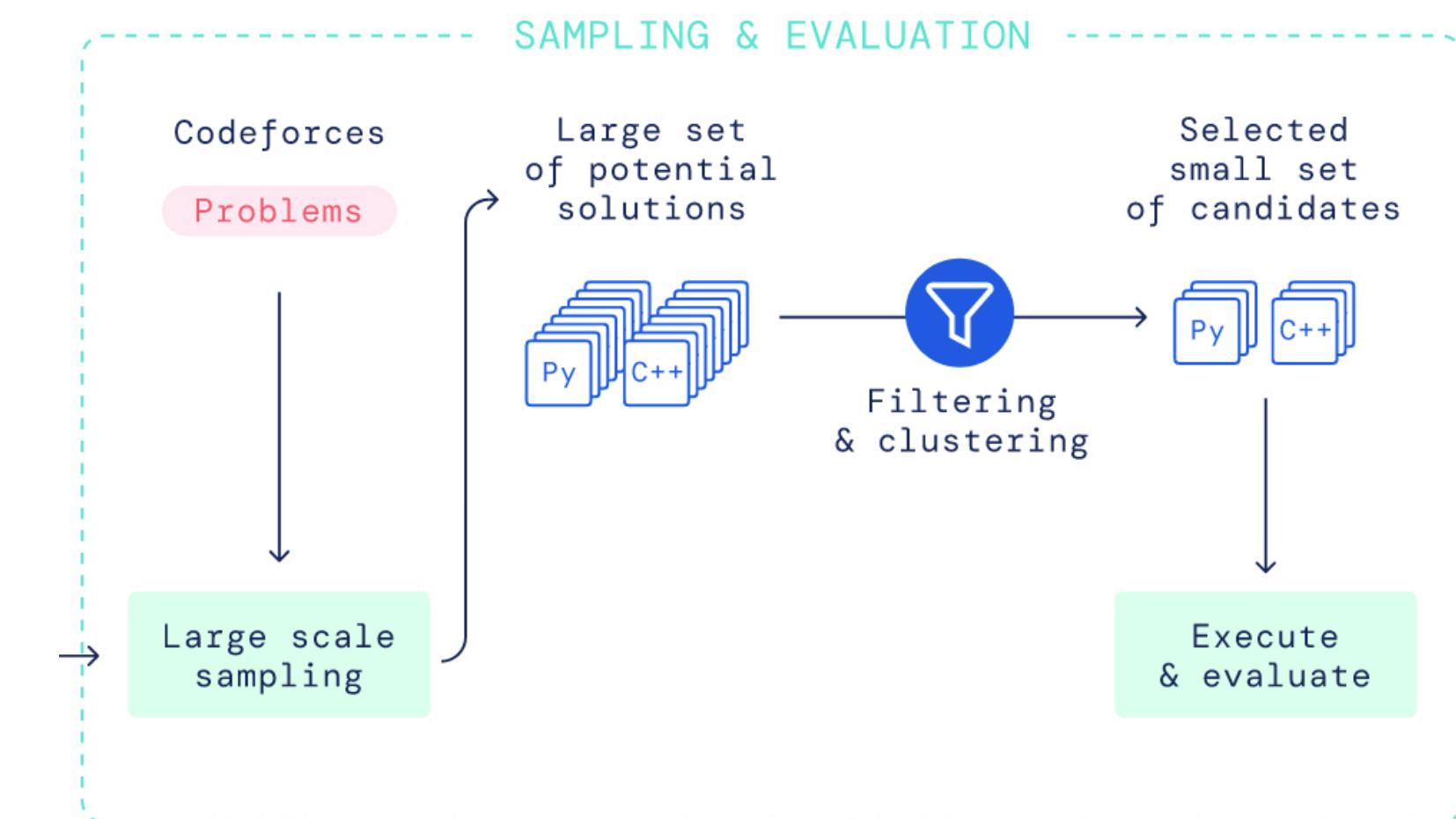
# Fine-tuning Tricks

- Tempering to avoid overfitting:
  - During training, divide the logits by  $T = 0.2 (<1)$
  - Causes sharper logits during training, but smoother logits during inference
  - No explanation provided, but intuitively could be working as backprop penalizes overly confident predictions
- GOLD training objective to improve precision (added to the standard MLE gradient)
  - The gradient for a token is up-weighted if it is already being predicted with a high confidence

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{GOLD}}(\theta) = - \sum_{s \in \text{Solution tokens}} P_\theta(s) \nabla \log P_\theta(s)$$

# Sampling and Filtering

- Sample **1M** programs for a given problem, select **10** programs from this pool
  - Done by randomly varying tags in the input + changing the input temperature
- If one of the 10 solves the problem, consider it solved
- **Step 1:** Filter obviously wrong programs by using unit tests (~99% discarded)
  - Left with 10k
- **Step 2:** Cluster programs using artificially generated test cases (key insight)



# Filtering by clustering

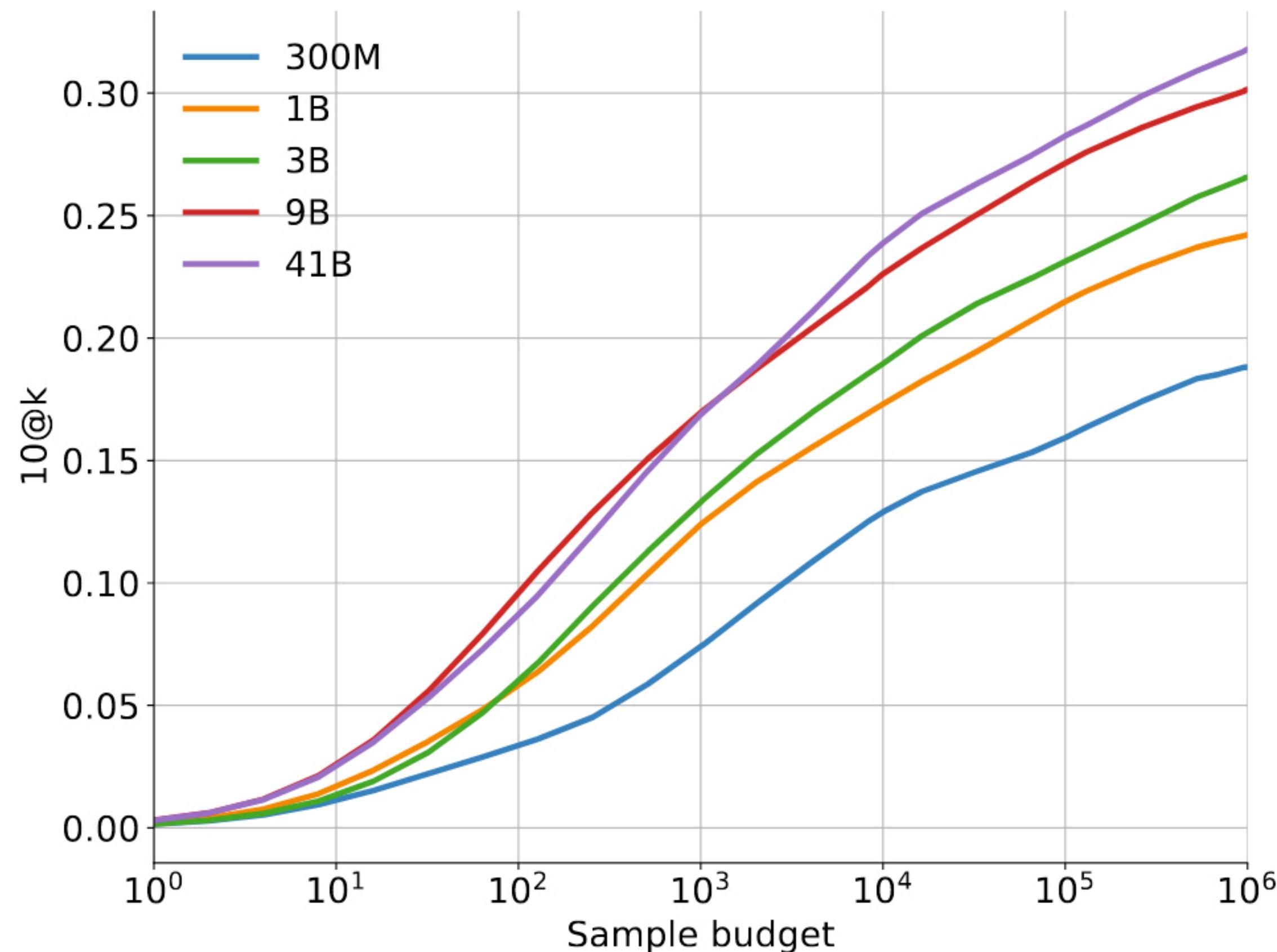
- Let  $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$  be a set of programs,  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$  be a set of inputs
- If programs  $p_i$  and  $p_j$  have the same output for the given input set, they belong to the same cluster
  - We don't have to care about correctness
  - Programs that generate same output for the same input must be semantically the same
- Sample one program per cluster

# Main results

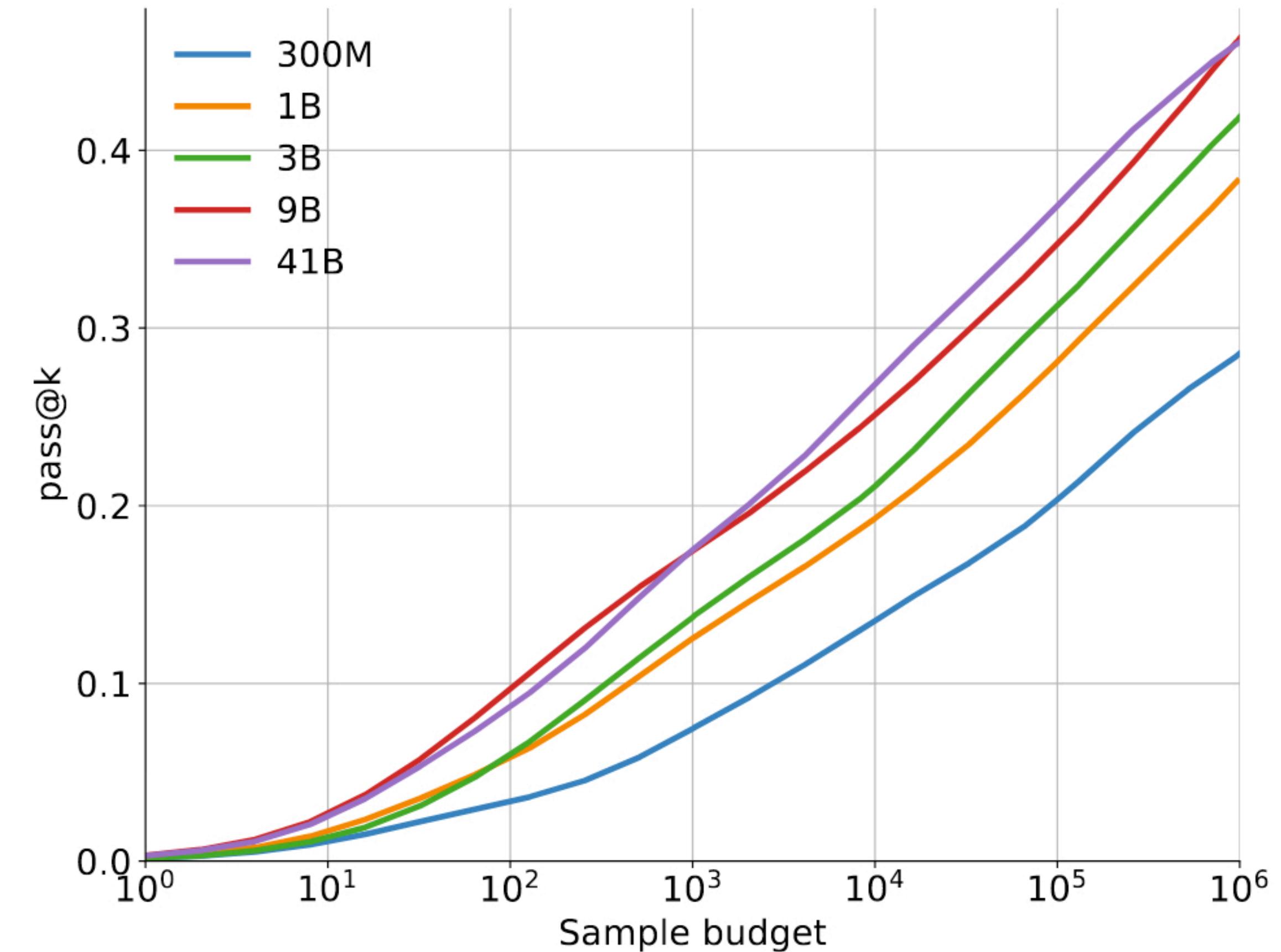
Approach	Validation Set				Test Set		
	10@1k	10@10k	10@100k	10@1M	10@1k	10@10k	10@100k
9B	16.9%	22.6%	27.1%	30.1%	14.3%	21.5%	25.8%
41B	16.9%	23.9%	28.2%	31.8%	15.6%	23.2%	27.7%
41B + clustering	21.0%	26.2%	31.8%	34.2%	16.4%	25.4%	29.6%

<https://alphacode.deepmind.com/>

Contest ID	1591	1608	1613	1615	1617	1618	1619	1620	1622	1623	Average
Best	43.5%	43.6%	59.8%	60.5%	65.1%	32.2%	47.1%	54.0%	57.5%	20.6%	48.4%
Estimated	44.3%	46.3%	66.1%	62.4%	73.9%	52.2%	47.3%	63.3%	66.2%	20.9%	54.3%
Worst	74.5%	95.7%	75.0%	90.4%	82.3%	53.5%	88.1%	75.1%	81.6%	55.3%	77.2%



(a) 10 attempts per problem



(b) Unlimited attempts per problem

Figure 6 | **Solve rate scaling vs. number of samples.** The solve rate scales approximately log-linearly with the number of samples, although this tapers off slightly in the  $10@\mathbf{k}$  setting. The better, larger scale models have higher scaling slopes in this log-linear plot.

# Similar works

## Evaluating Large Language Models Trained on Code

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Gretchen Krueger<sup>1</sup> Michael Petrov<sup>1</sup> Heidy Khlaaf<sup>3</sup> Girish Sastry<sup>1</sup> Pamela Mishkin<sup>1</sup> Brooke Chan<sup>1</sup>  
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Clemens Winter<sup>1</sup> Philippe Tillet<sup>1</sup> Felipe Petroski Such<sup>1</sup> Dave Cummings<sup>1</sup> Matthias Plappert<sup>1</sup>  
Fotios Chantzis<sup>1</sup> Elizabeth Barnes<sup>1</sup> Ariel Herbert-Voss<sup>1</sup> William Hebgen Guss<sup>1</sup> Alex Nichol<sup>1</sup> Alex Paino<sup>1</sup>  
Nikolas Tezak<sup>1</sup> Jie Tang<sup>1</sup> Igor Babuschkin<sup>1</sup> Suchir Balaji<sup>1</sup> Shantanu Jain<sup>1</sup> William Saunders<sup>1</sup>  
Christopher Hesse<sup>1</sup> Andrew N. Carr<sup>1</sup> Jan Leike<sup>1</sup> Josh Achiam<sup>1</sup> Vedant Misra<sup>1</sup> Evan Morikawa<sup>1</sup>  
Alec Radford<sup>1</sup> Matthew Knight<sup>1</sup> Miles Brundage<sup>1</sup> Mira Murati<sup>1</sup> Katie Mayer<sup>1</sup> Peter Welinder<sup>1</sup>  
Bob McGrew<sup>1</sup> Dario Amodei<sup>2</sup> Sam McCandlish<sup>2</sup> Ilya Sutskever<sup>1</sup> Wojciech Zaremba<sup>1</sup>

Model behind the outputs we saw on the first page

## Program Synthesis with Large Language Models

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# Outline

- **Part 1 ✓**
  - State of the art language models are impressive to the point that telling them apart from human text is difficult. Does this progress translate to code-generation?
  - Alphacode: SOTA in solving competitive programming problems (“better” than 54% humans)
  - Treat code like other language
- **Part 2**
  - **Can we exploit key properties of code to improve over using language models alone?**
  - Using familiar techniques from NLP toolbox and PL
    - Masked language objective when dealing with code
    - Retrieval-augmented generation
    - Backtranslation
    - Syntax-guided generation

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# **DOBF: A Deobfuscation Pre-Training Objective for Programming Languages**

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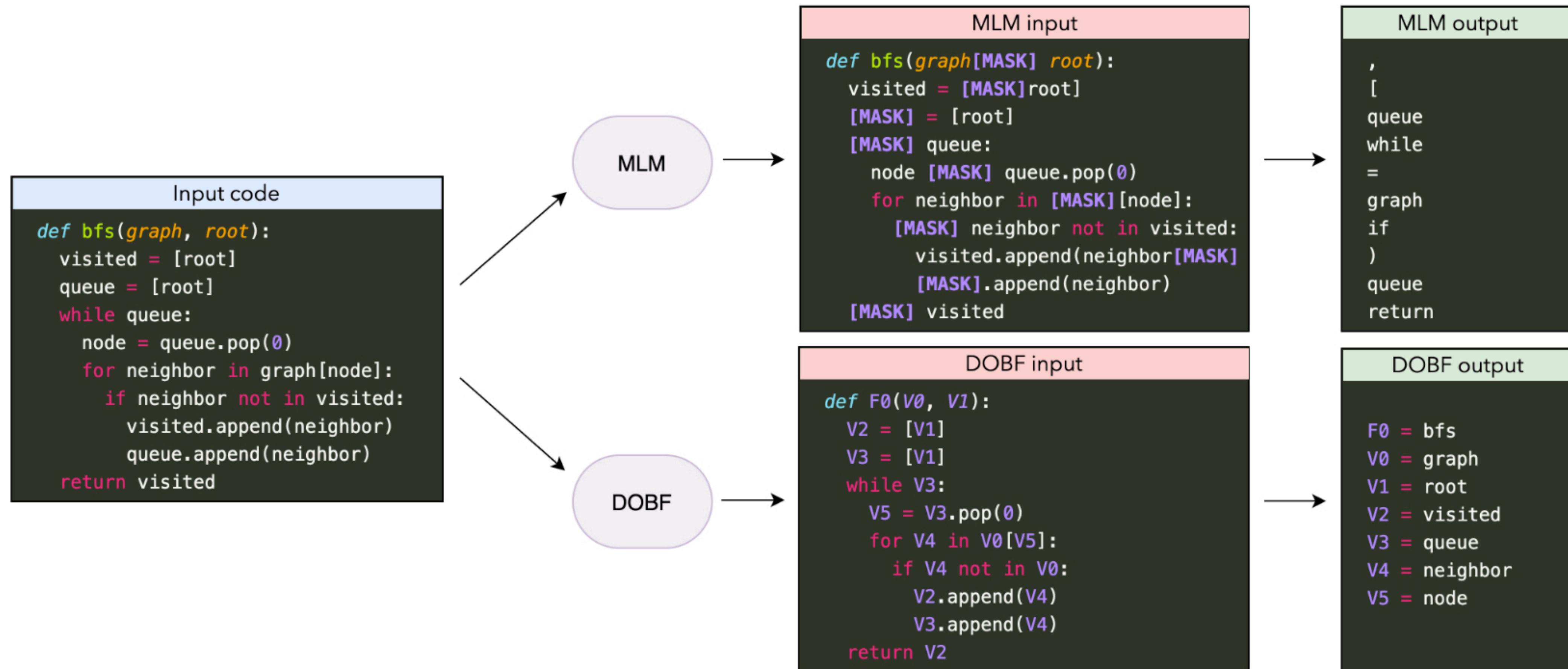
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# Key idea

- Masked language modeling (MLM) for language drops tokens randomly
- Too simple for programming languages, not very informative
  - Syntax errors (e.g., missing ";") might be easily corrected by the code
  - Masking a variable once, but not everywhere, allows copying names
- Instead of MLM, they propose DOBF (de-obfuscation objective) that leverages structure of programming languages

# De-obfuscation



- Replace class, function, and variable names with special tokens, and train a model to recover them.
- Syntax related tokens are not masked out
- Model has to come up with meaningful variable and function names, which requires deep understanding of code semantics.

# Implementation

- Encoder-decoder transformer based Seq2seq model with the new DOBF objective (12 layers, 12 heads)
- Dataset: collect all publicly available code on Github, retain files with < 2000 tokens

	Eval $p_{\text{obf}} = 0$		Eval $p_{\text{obf}} = 1$	
	Acc	F1	Acc	F1
DOBF <sub>0</sub>	56.3	68.0	0.4	0.9
DOBF <sub>0.5</sub>	61.1	71.2	41.8	54.8
DOBF <sub>1</sub>	18.1	27.0	45.6	58.1
DOBF <sub>0.5</sub> init MLM	<b>67.6</b>	<b>76.3</b>	45.7	58.0
DOBF <sub>1</sub> init MLM	20.0	28.3	<b>49.7</b>	<b>61.1</b>

Initializing with MLM helps further

# Results

	Clone Det (F1 score)	Code Sum Java (BLEU)	Code Sum Python (BLEU)	NLCS (MRR)	Python→Java (CA@1) k=1	Python→Java (CA@1) k=10	Java→Python (CA@1) k=1	Java→Python (CA@1) k=10
Transformer	88.14	16.58	16.43	0.025	24.0	28.4	29.0	29.7
MLM	91.89	18.59	17.95	0.308	44.8	45.4	34.5	35.6
DAE	96.30	19.19	18.28	0.380	<b>48.3</b>	<b>49.2</b>	32.1	32.8
CodeBERT	96.50	18.25	18.22	0.315	40.8	45.6	36.5	36.7
GraphCodeBERT	96.38	18.78	18.51	0.377	44.3	44.1	35.6	37.8
DOBF init scratch	<b>96.52</b>	18.19	17.51	0.272	43.9	44.1	35.2	34.7
DOBF	95.87	19.05	18.24	0.383	43.5	44.1	38.7	40.0
DOBF+DAE	95.82	<b>19.36</b>	<b>18.58</b>	<b>0.397</b>	46.6	47.3	<b>40.6</b>	<b>42.4</b>

# Qualitative Results

## Completing matrix operations code

Input Code	Function Name Proposals	
<pre>def FUNC_0 (m1, m2):     assert m1.shape == m2.shape     n, m = m1.shape     res = [[0 for _ in range(m)] for _ in range(n)]     for i in range(n):         for j in range(m):             res[i][j] = m1[i][j] + m2[i][j]     return res</pre>	matrix_add matrixAdd matrixadd matrix_sum matrix_addition	25.9% 22.5% 18.8% 16.7% 16.1%
<pre>def FUNC_0 (matrix):     n, _ = matrix.shape     for i in range(n):         for j in range(i,n):             matrix[i][j], matrix[j][i] = \                 matrix[j][i], matrix[i][j]</pre>	transpose rotate rotate_matrix symmetric rotate_matrix_by_row	36.7% 29.5% 17.1% 8.9% 7.7%
<pre>def FUNC_0 (m1, m2):     n1, m1 = m1.shape     n2, m2 = m2.shape     assert n2 == m1     res = [[0 for _ in range(m2)] for _ in range(n1)]     for i in range(n1):         for j in range(m2):             res[i][j] = sum([m1[i][k] * m2[k][j]                             for k in range(n2)])     return res</pre>	matrix_product mat_mult matmul_mat matprod matrixProduct	28.8% 23.8% 17.0% 16.0% 14.4%

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# Neural Program Generation Modulo Static Analysis

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Neurips 2021 (Spotlight)

# Introduction

- Task: **complete** a given piece of code
- $p_{\Theta}(Y | X)$  where
  - X is the input specification: class name, type of the variables, other complete methods
  - Y is a completion of X
- Key idea:
  - Neurosymbolic attribute grammars: **Use static analysis and grammar to guide code generation**

(a)

```
public class FileUtil{
    String err;
    public int read(File f){...}

    /* write lines to file */
    public void write(
        File f, String str){??}}
}
```

(b)

```
void write(File f, String str){
    try {
        FileWriter var_0;
        var_0 = new FileWriter(f);
        var_0.write(str);
    } catch(IOException var_0) {
        var_0.printStackTrace();
        System.out.println( ARG );
    }
    return; }
```

# Model

- Let  $Z$  be the (latent) user intent behind the ambiguous incomplete code  $X$

- $$p(Y | X) = \int_Z p(Z | X)p(Y | Z)dZ$$

- $p(Z | X)$ : context encoder
- $p(Y | Z)$ : program synthesizer

# Context encoder

- $X$ : input or *evidence*
  - Consists of method names, formal parameters, comments (7 types of “evidence”)

- Assume  $Z$  is Normal,  $X$  is sampled from  $Z$

$$P(X|Z, \theta) = \left( \prod_j \text{Normal}(f(X_{Calls,j})|Z, \mathbf{I}\sigma_{Calls}^2) \right) \left( \prod_j \text{Normal}(f(X_{Types,j})|Z, \mathbf{I}\sigma_{Types}^2) \right) \\ \left( \prod_j \text{Normal}(f(X_{Keys,j})|Z, \mathbf{I}\sigma_{Keys}^2) \right).$$

- And thus:

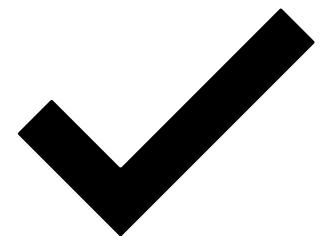
$$\mathcal{P}(Z|X) = \mathcal{N} \left( Z \mid \frac{\sum_{j,k} \sigma_j^{-2} f_j(X_{j,k})}{1 + \sum_j |X_j| \sigma_j^{-2}}, \frac{1}{1 + \sum_j |X_j| \sigma_j^{-2}} \mathbf{I} \right)$$

- In summary,  $X$  (input) is used to generate parameters of normal from which  $Z$  is sampled. Each part of the input contributes individually to sampling the latent variable

# Program Synthesizer

$$\cdot p(Y | X) = \int_Z p(Z | X)p(Y | Z)dZ$$

- $p(Z | X)$  : context encoder
- $p(Y | X)$ : program synthesizer



Aside

# Context-free grammar

- Set of production rules, where left-hand side is a non-terminals, and right-hand side is a combination of terminals and non-terminals

$$S \rightarrow aSa$$

$$S \rightarrow bSb$$

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$

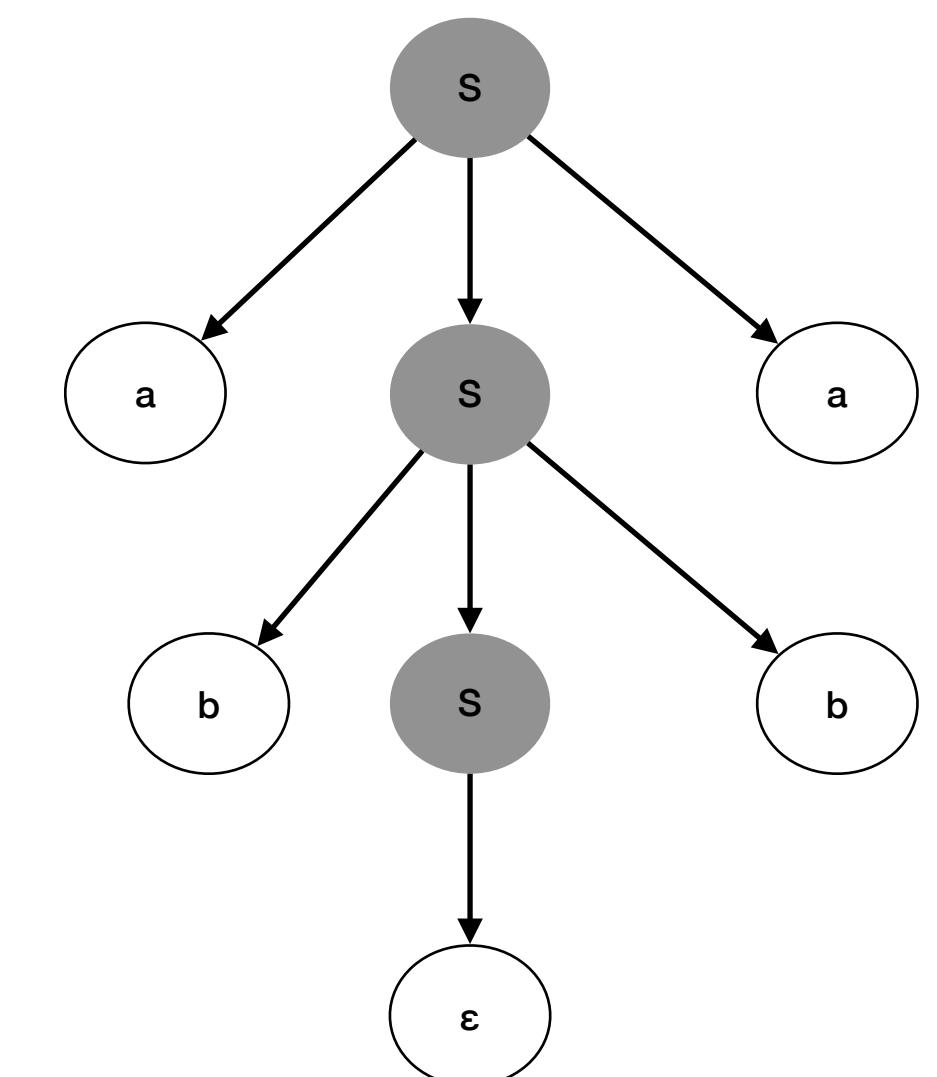
- Generative process:
  - Start with a production, recursively expand non-terminals
    - $S \rightarrow aSa \rightarrow abSba \rightarrow abba$
  - Parse trees
  - If each rule is picked probabilistically, it's called a P-CFG
- **Aside:** if the LHS contains a terminal the grammar is context sensitive

$$S \rightarrow aSa$$

$$S \rightarrow bSb$$

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$

$$abSba \rightarrow abaaba$$



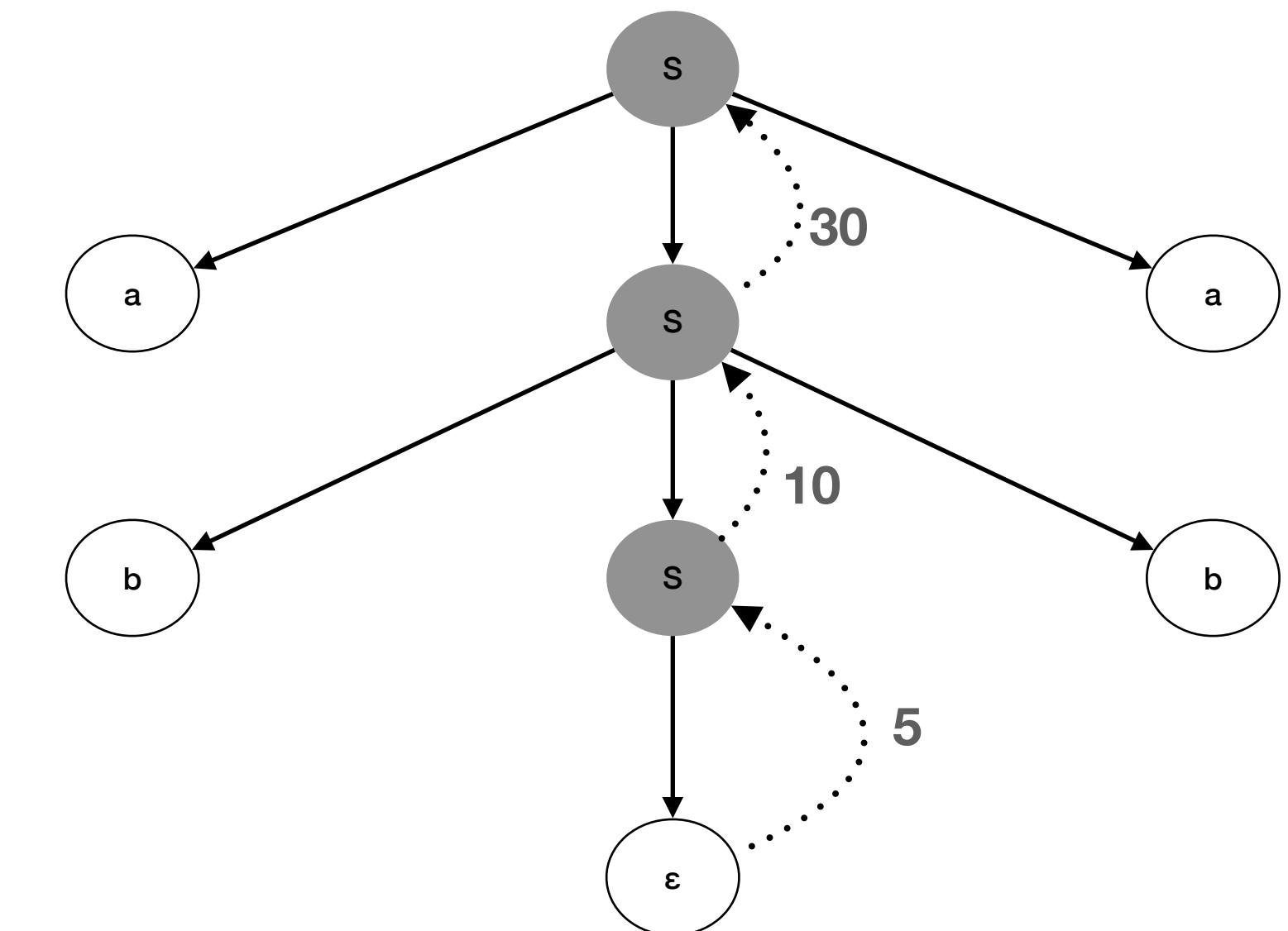
# Attribute grammars

- Context-free grammars + attributes associated with each symbol
- Attribute grammar
  - Attaches some auxiliary information with each symbol, and defines how the information flows as parsing proceeds
  - Each symbol gets inherited attributes and synthesized attributes
- Example

$S1 \rightarrow aS2a [S1.value = S2.value * 3]$

$S1 \rightarrow bS2b [S1.value = S2.value * 2]$

$S \rightarrow \epsilon [ S.value = 5 ]$



# Program Synthesizer

- Generative process:
  - $Y = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n)$  where each of the  $S_i$  is a symbol and its expansion
- **Standard conditional distribution:** PCFG conditioned by the input latent representation  $Z$ , and the expansion so far
  - $$Y = \prod_i P(S_i | S_{<i}, Z)$$
- **Their work:**
  - $$Y = \prod_i P(S_i | S_{<i}, Z, A(S_i))$$
 where the extra  $A(S_i)$  term is supplied by the auxiliary grammar
- **Key idea:** inform the generation process with Auxiliary attributes of the program generated so far using a static analyzer:
  - Static analyzer: can infer the types of the method generated so far

# Generation without attribute grammar

```
2 import java.io.*;
3
4 public class FileUtils{
5     public int read(File a){
6         Reader a = new FileReader("file.txt");
7         ...
8     }
9
10 /**
11 * write lines to file
12 */
13 @synthesize public void write(File fp_0,
14                             String fp_1){
15
16
17 }
18 }
```

```
void write(java.io.File fp_0, java.lang.String fp_1){
    try {
        java.io.FileWriter var_0;
        var_0 = new java.io.FileWriter(
            (java.io.File) fp_0, (boolean) BOOL_LITERAL);
        java.io.BufferedWriter var_1;
        var_1 = new java.io.BufferedWriter(BufferedWriter(
            (java.io.Writer) var_0));
        var_1.write(java.lang.String: fp_1);
        var_1.newLine();
    }
    catch(java.io.IOException var_0){
        var_0.printStackTrace();
    }
    return;
}
```

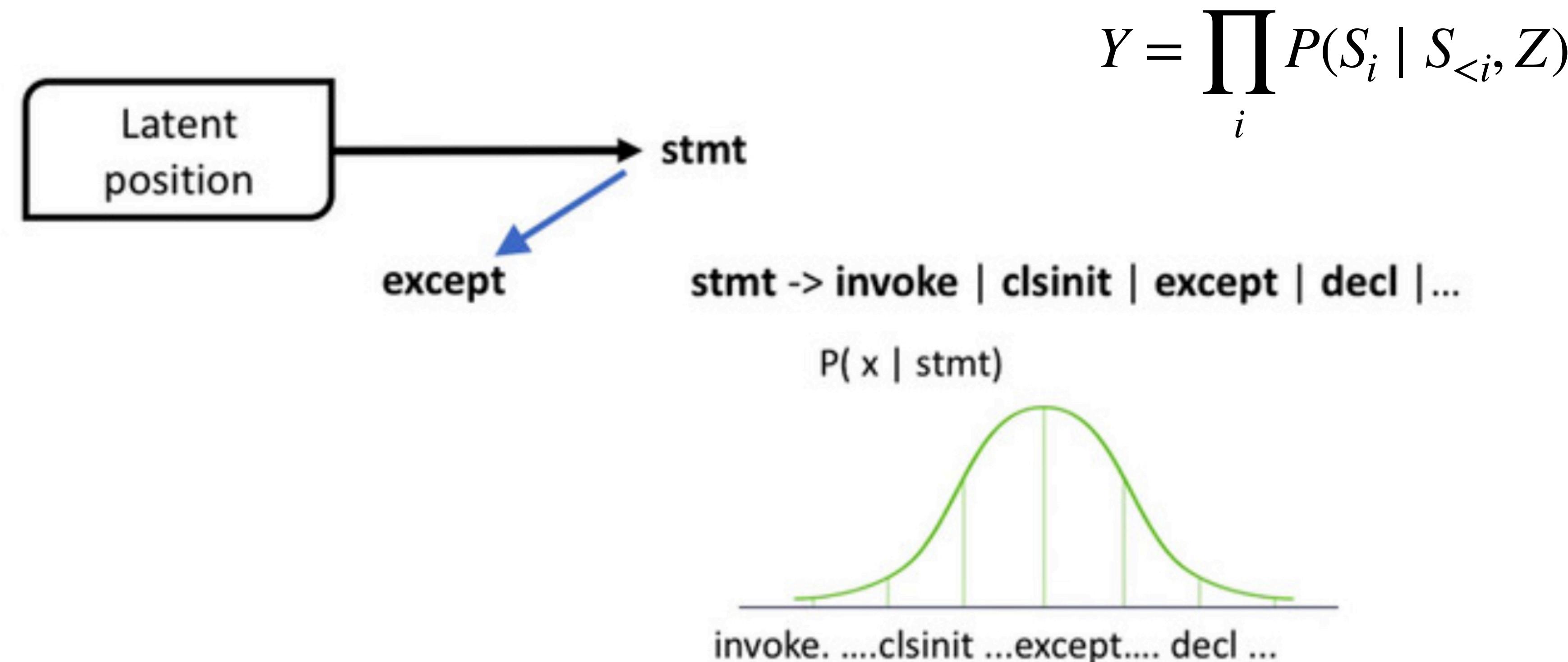
```
root      -> stmt;
stmt      -> stmt; stmt
stmt      -> decl;
stmt      -> invoke
...
invoke   -> ret_var = expr_var . api_call (formal_params)
api_call -> readln | writeln | ...
```

Input

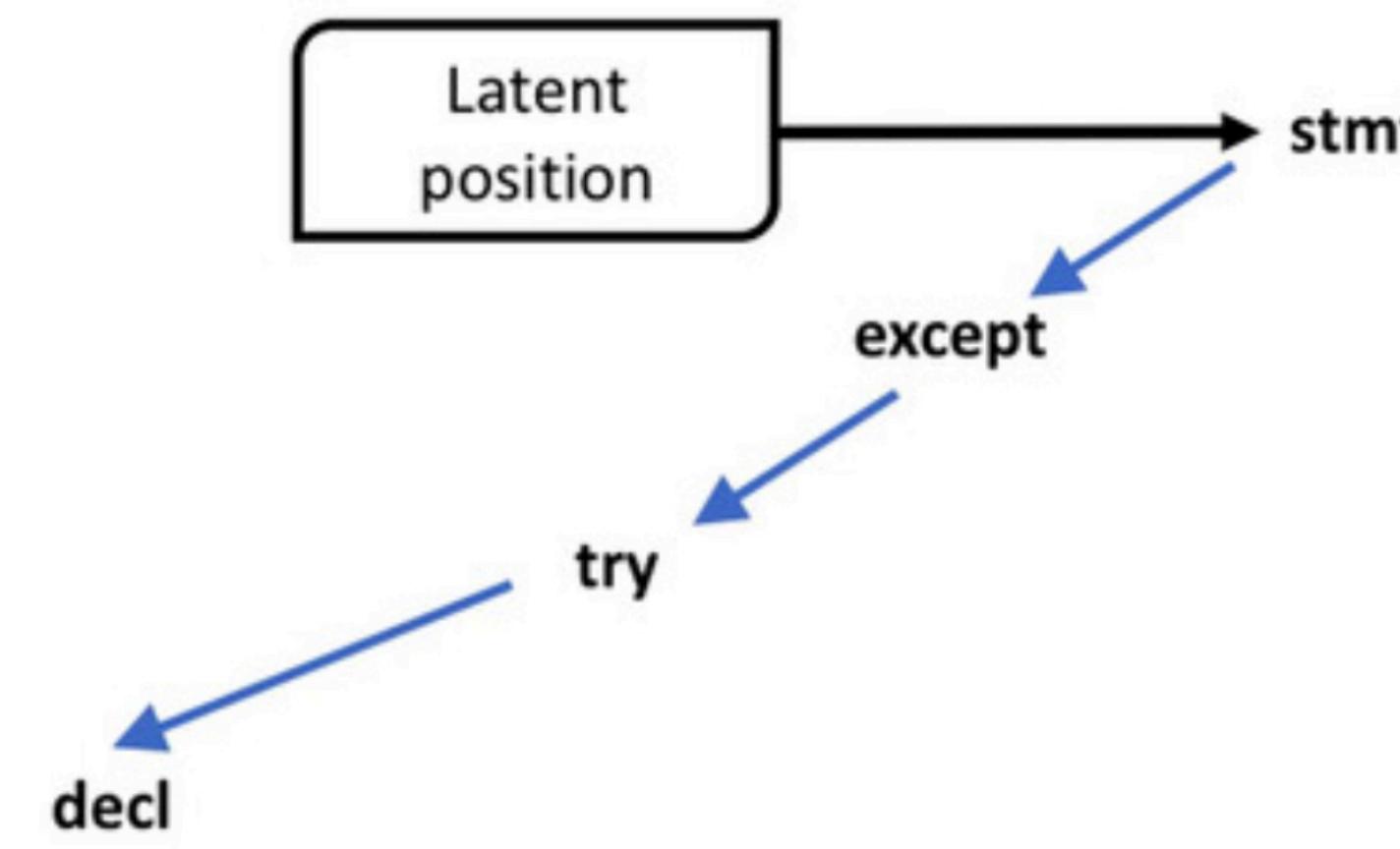
Output

Grammar

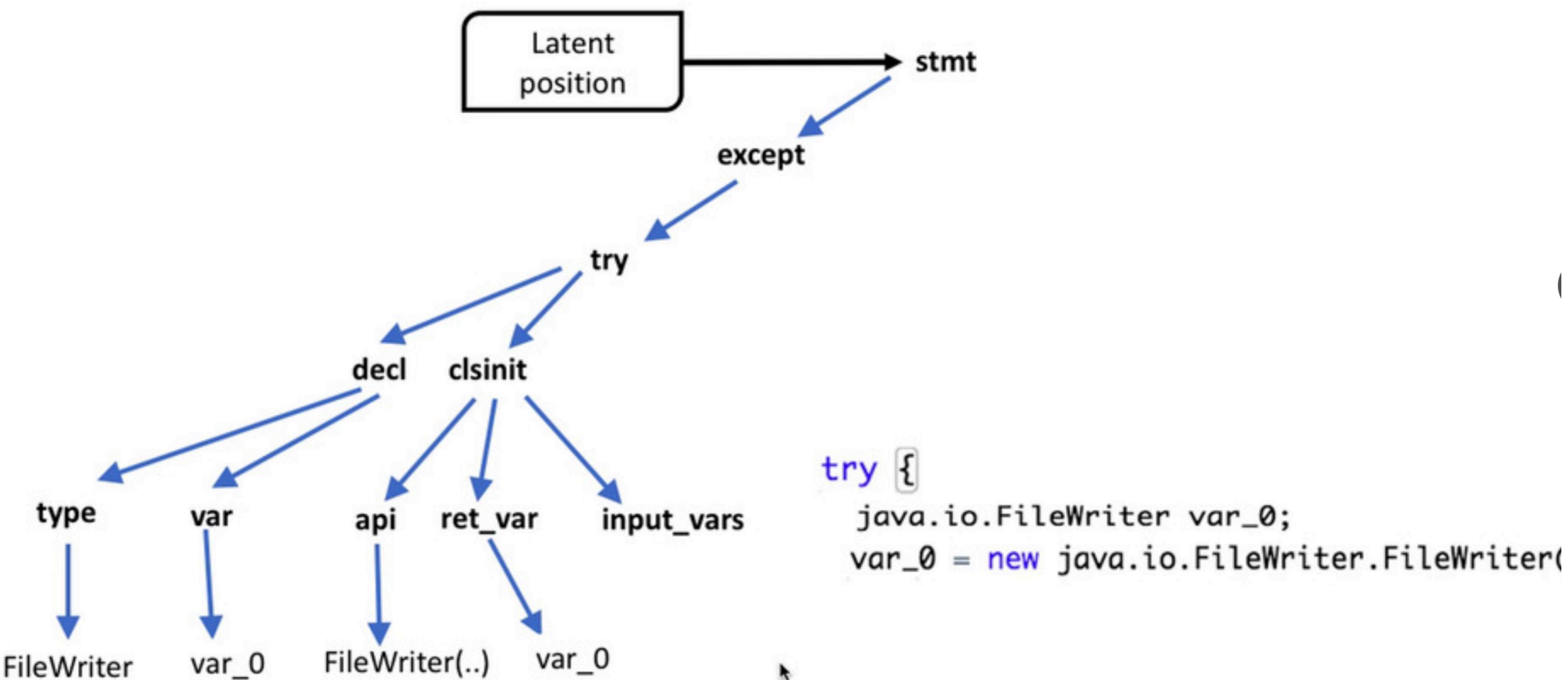
# Generation without attribute grammar



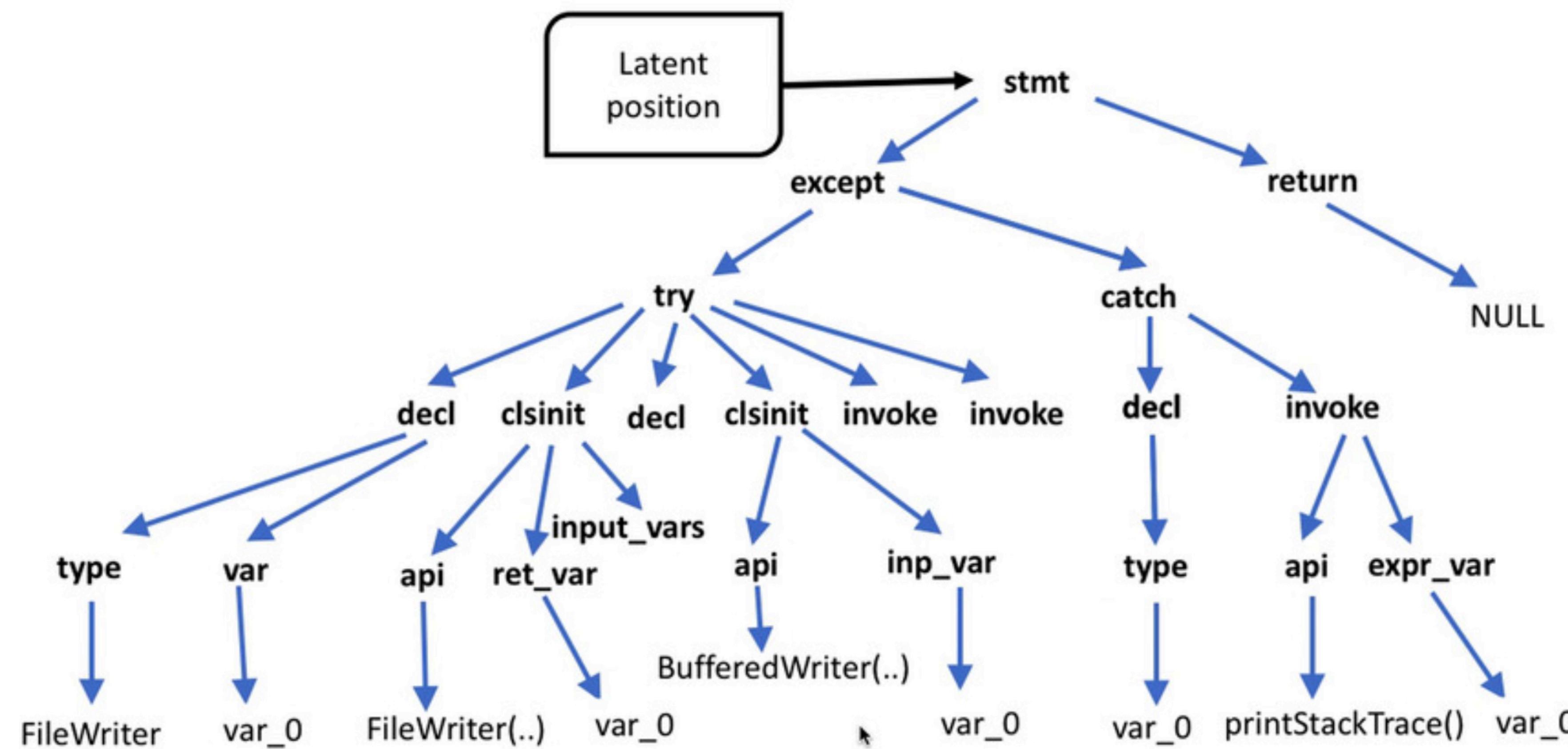
# Generation without attribute grammar



# Generation with vanilla CFG



# Generation with vanilla CFG

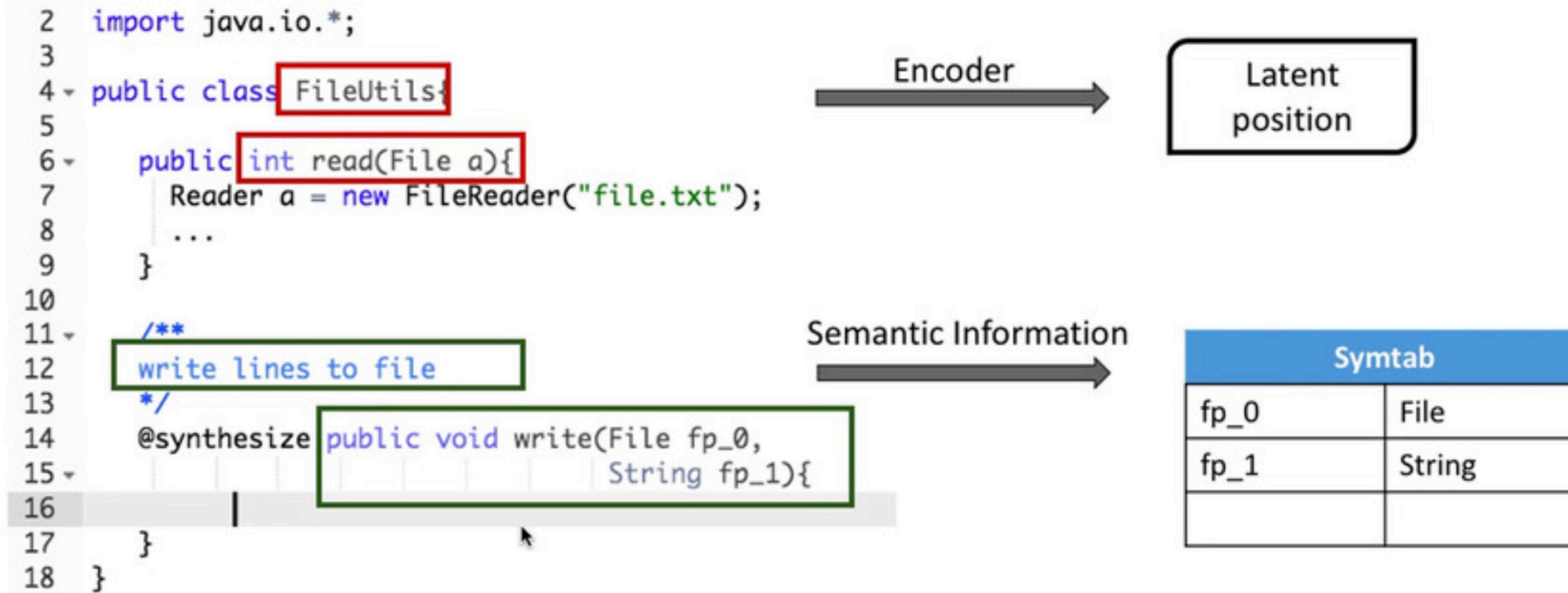


# What is vanilla PCFG generation losing?

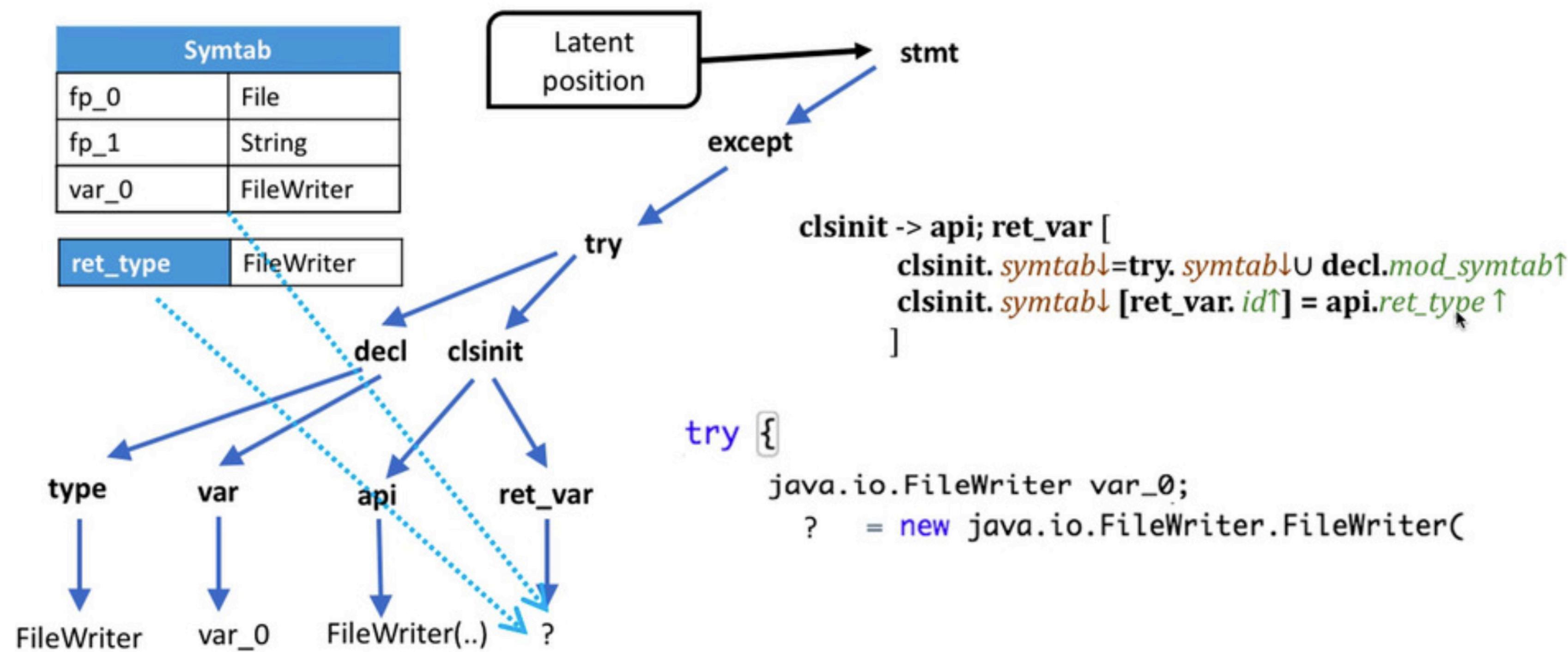
- Given the data, we can train a PCFG guided generation model
- There are some global constraints of the code that are readily available by static analysis
  - Type constraints, scope constraints etc.
  - Can make life of the model easier

```
void write(java.io.File fp_0, java.lang.String fp_1){  
    try {  
        java.io.FileWriter var_0;  
        var_0 = new java.io.FileWriter.FileWriter(  
            (java.io.File) fp_0, (boolean) BOOL_LITERAL);  
        java.io.BufferedWriter var_1;  
        var_1 = new java.io.BufferedWriter.BufferedWriter(  
            (java.io.Writer) var_0);  
        var_1.write(java.lang.String: fp_1);  
        var_1.newLine();  
    }  
    catch(java.io.IOException var_0){  
        var_0.printStackTrace();  
    }  
    return;  
}
```

# Attribute grammars can maintain useful auxiliary information



# Generation with Attribute Grammar



# Experiments

- Architecture: **Tree-LSTM** with 63M parameters
  - However, they can only work on a subset of Java for which their grammar is defined
- Training on 1.57M method bodies of java
- Randomly remove a method body, and try to complete it with their method and baselines
- Evaluation based on key properties (compiler errors) of generated code

# Results

	GPTNeo125M	GPTNeo1.3B	CODEX	CODEGPT	GNN2NAG	CNG	NSG	Their method without attribute grammar (shown earlier)	Their method
No undeclared variable access	89.87%	90.36%	88.62%	90.94%	47.44%	19.78%	<b>99.82%</b>		
Valid formal parameter access	NA	NA	NA	NA	25.78%	11.03%	<b>99.55%</b>		
Valid class variable access	NA	NA	NA	NA	15.40%	12.75%	<b>99.53%</b>		
No uninitialized objects	93.90%	91.73%	90.82%	94.37%	21.20%	21.56%	<b>99.01%</b>		
No variable access error	90.36%	90.51%	88.86%	91.32%	28.92%	17.92%	<b>99.69%</b>		
Object-method compatibility	<b>98.36%</b>	98.09%	98.35%	97.84%	21.43%	12.23%	97.53%		
Return type at call site	97.38%	98.01%	<b>98.53%</b>	97.83%	23.86%	16.40%	98.01%		
Actual parameter type	87.03%	86.36%	92.28%	88.71%	9.27%	16.09%	<b>97.96%</b>		
Return statement type	84.05%	85.09%	88.13%	85.23%	12.34%	9.51%	<b>90.97%</b>		
No type errors	87.25%	88.13%	91.42%	88.10%	16.31%	13.56%	<b>97.08%</b>		
Return statement exists	99.61%	99.80%	98.44%	99.57%	94.02%	<b>99.92%</b>	97.10%		
No unused variables	96.42%	96.46%	96.82%	<b>97.64%</b>	20.95%	24.29%	93.84%		
Percentage of parsing	98.18%	98.13%	96.41%	97.08%	<b>100.0%</b>	<b>100.0%</b>	<b>100.0%</b>		
Pass all checks	65.26%	64.88%	47.49%	67.73%	17.34%	12.87%	<b>86.41%</b>		

# Results

- BLEU score is useless for comparing code
- Compare Jaccard score of API calls

	GPTNeo125M	GPTNeo1.3B	CODEX	CODEGPT	GNN2NAG	CNG	NSG
Set of API Calls	32%	37%	36%	36%	3%	22%	<b>53%</b>
Sequences of API Calls	17%	20%	16%	19%	0.3%	18%	<b>42%</b>
Sequences of Program Paths	12%	15%	10%	14%	0%	17%	<b>39%</b>
AST Exact Match	12%	15%	10%	14%	0%	6%	<b>26%</b>

# SYNCHROMESH: RELIABLE CODE GENERATION FROM PRE-TRAINED LANGUAGE MODELS

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# Introduction

- **Task:** generating program  $p$  from natural language description  $u$

Which city has the highest number of departing flights?



```
SELECT City
FROM Flights AS T1
JOIN Airports AS T2
ON T1.SourceAirport =
T2.AirportCode
GROUP BY City
ORDER BY COUNT(*) DESC LIMIT 1
```

- **Setup:** few-shot prompting - create a prompt from  $k$  examples  $\{(u_i, p_i)\}_{i=1}^k$
- **Questions**
  - 1. How to select relevant examples for the prompt?
  - 2. How to enforce additional syntactic constraints while decoding the output?

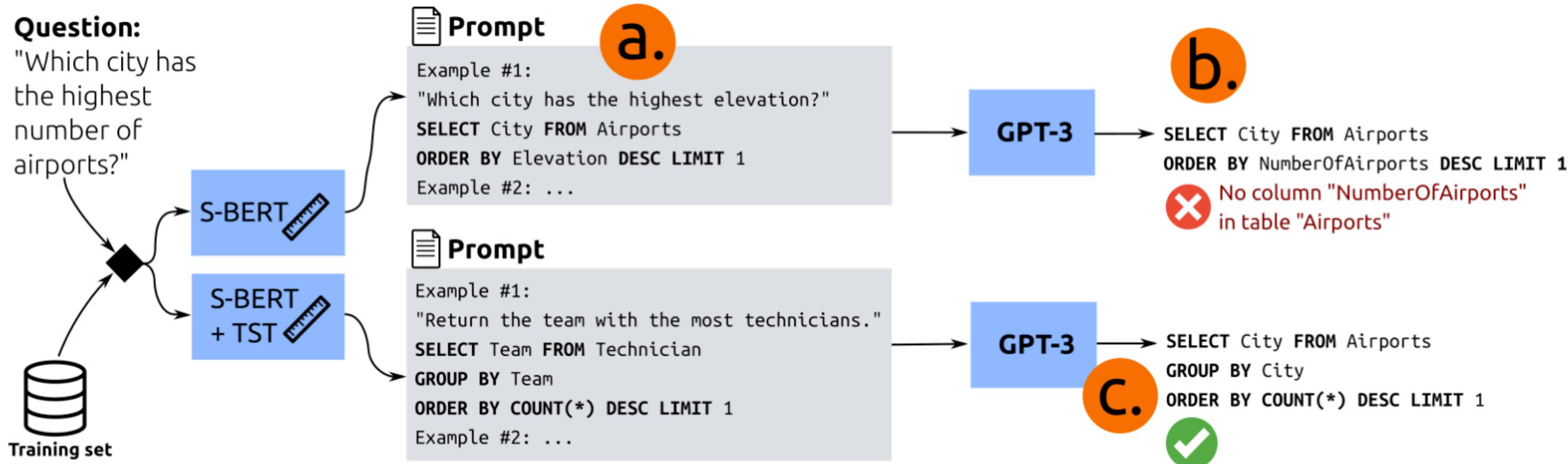
# Selecting relevant examples for the prompt

## Target similarity tuning

- Typical approach: Given a  $\mathbf{u}$  (problem description),  $k$  examples  $\{(u_i, p_i)\}_{i=1}^k$  find closest examples based on  $f_\theta(u_i, u_j)$  for some distance metric  $f_\theta \in [0,1]$ 
  - $L_{sim} = E_{i,j \sim \mathcal{D}_{diff}} f_\theta(u_i, u_j) - E_{i,j \sim \mathcal{D}_{sim}} f_\theta(u_i, u_j)$
- Problem: we want to retrieve **similar code**, not similar **descriptions**
  - Similarity in descriptions may not translate to similarity in the output code
- Their approach:
  - $L_{sim} = E_{i,j \sim \mathcal{D}} [f_\theta(u_i, u_j) - S(p_i, p_j)]^2$
  - Where  $S(p_i, p_j) \in [0,1]$  is similarity between the syntax trees
  - Similarity function now needs to pay attention to the difference in the syntax trees

# Selecting relevant examples for the prompt

## Target similarity tuning



# Constrained semantic decoding

- Unconstrained language models may produce wrong output when completing complex expressions
  - Key idea: code is structured, can help using grammar
- Two layers: context-sensitive and context-free
- Context-free layer:
  - Uses parser to restrict the set of next tokens
- Context-sensitive layer:

Constraint	Example of partial program	Valid/Invalid Examples
A valid identifier must follow after AS.	<b>SELECT</b> Name, Role <b>FROM</b> User <b>AS</b> ^	U ✓ T1 ✓ 2 ✗
Column names must come from schema, even behind aliases.	<b>SELECT</b> U.Name <b>FROM</b> User <b>AS</b> U <b>WHERE</b> U. ^	Name ✓ DoB ✓ Birthday ✗

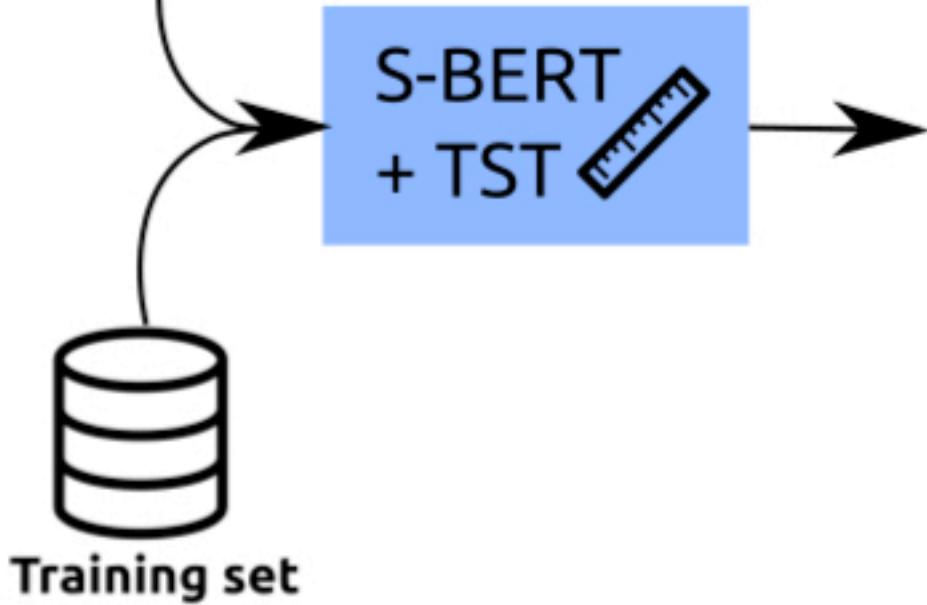
# Completion Engine

- Instead of sampling from an unconstrained set, sample tokens that would keep the program generated so far valid
  - Let  $p_t$  be the program decoded till current time step t
  - Use a parser to find a list of production rules and possible token types that can follow  $p_t$
- Let  $L^c$  be the set of languages that can be completed to a valid program. Given a string s, how to determine if it is in  $L^c$ ?
- $V_M(s) = \{t \in \Sigma_M : st \in L^c\}$

# Completion Engine

## Question:

"Which city has the highest number of departing flights?"

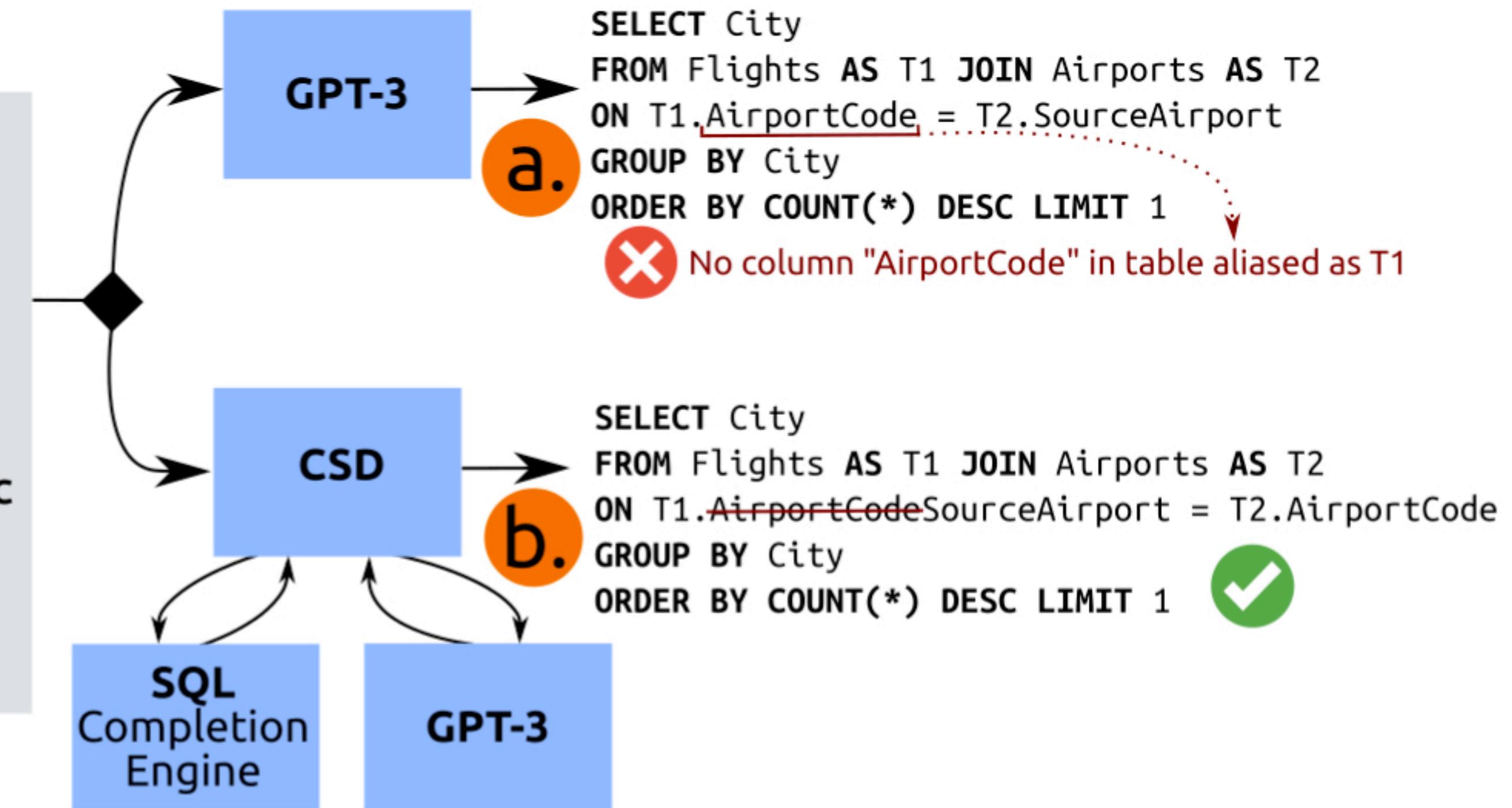


## Prompt

Example #1:  
"Return the team with the most technicians."

```
SELECT Team  
FROM Technician  
GROUP BY Team  
ORDER BY COUNT(*) DESC  
LIMIT 1
```

Example #2:  
...



# Results

Model	SQL			Vega-Lite			SMCalFlow		
	Exec.	Valid	Dist.	Acc.	Valid	Dist.	Acc.	Valid	Dist.
Andreas et al. (2020)	-	-	-	-	-	-	72% <sup>(S)</sup>	-	-
Srinivasan et al. (2021)	-	-	-	64% <sup>(S)</sup>	-	-	-	-	-
Rubin & Berant (2021)	71% <sup>(S)</sup>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Scholak et al. (2021)	79% <sup>(S)</sup>	98%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GPT-3 13B	16%	43%	0.42	14%	55%	0.51	38%	76%	0.43
” + CSD	20%	66%	0.44	17%	100%	0.48	40%	95%	0.40
” + TST	14%	48%	0.42	-	-	-	60%	88%	0.22
” + CSD + TST	19%	72%	0.43	-	-	-	63%	98%	0.17
GPT-3 175B	28%	49%	0.36	20%	67%	0.36	44%	77%	0.41
” + CSD	35%	73%	0.36	25%	100%	0.32	45%	97%	0.37
” + TST	31%	56%	0.35	-	-	-	60%	88%	0.24
” + CSD + TST	37%	76%	0.34	-	-	-	66%	97%	0.18
Codex 175B	56%	73%	0.25	39%	87%	0.24	45%	79%	0.37
” + CSD	61%	85%	0.23	40%	99%	0.23	46%	97%	0.33
” + TST	60%	81%	0.23	-	-	-	63%	90%	0.21
” + CSD + TST	64%	85%	0.23	-	-	-	63%	99%	0.19

---

# **Break-It-Fix-It: Unsupervised Learning for Program Repair**

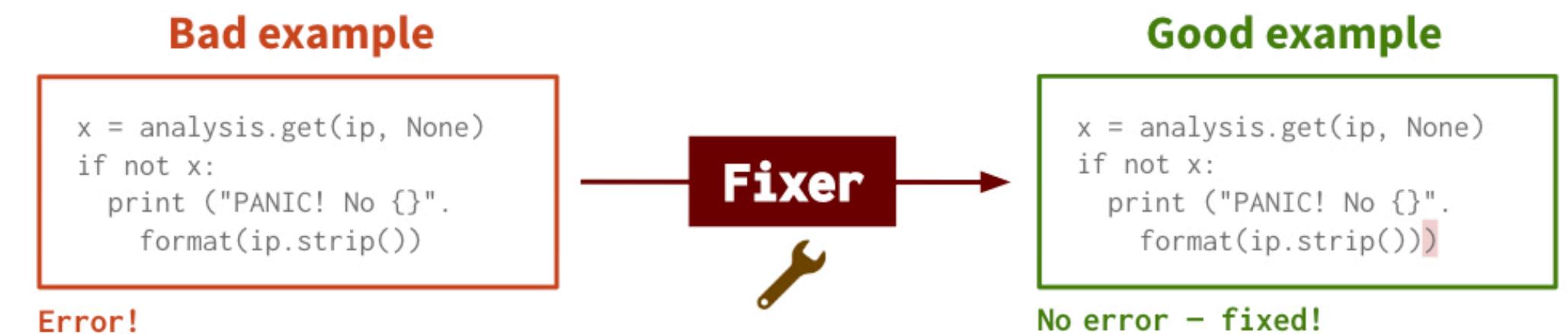
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**Michihiro Yasunaga<sup>1</sup>   Percy Liang<sup>1</sup>**

ICML 2021

# Overview

- Fix a given piece of incorrect code



- No parallel data available
- BUT:
  - Large quantities of code online
  - Compiler can check if the code is correct or not

# Initialization with synthetic errors

- Let  $D$  be a large corpus of code, and  $D_{good}$  and  $D_{bad}$  be the correct and incorrect splits.
- Introduce synthetic perturbations (random token drop/typos/punctuation errors) in  $D_{good}$ 
  - $\mathcal{P}_{\text{synthetic}} = \{(b_{\text{synthetic}}(y), y) \mid y \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{good}}\}$
- Train initial fixer  $f_0$  to go from bad to good, and initial breaker  $b_0$  to go from good to bad

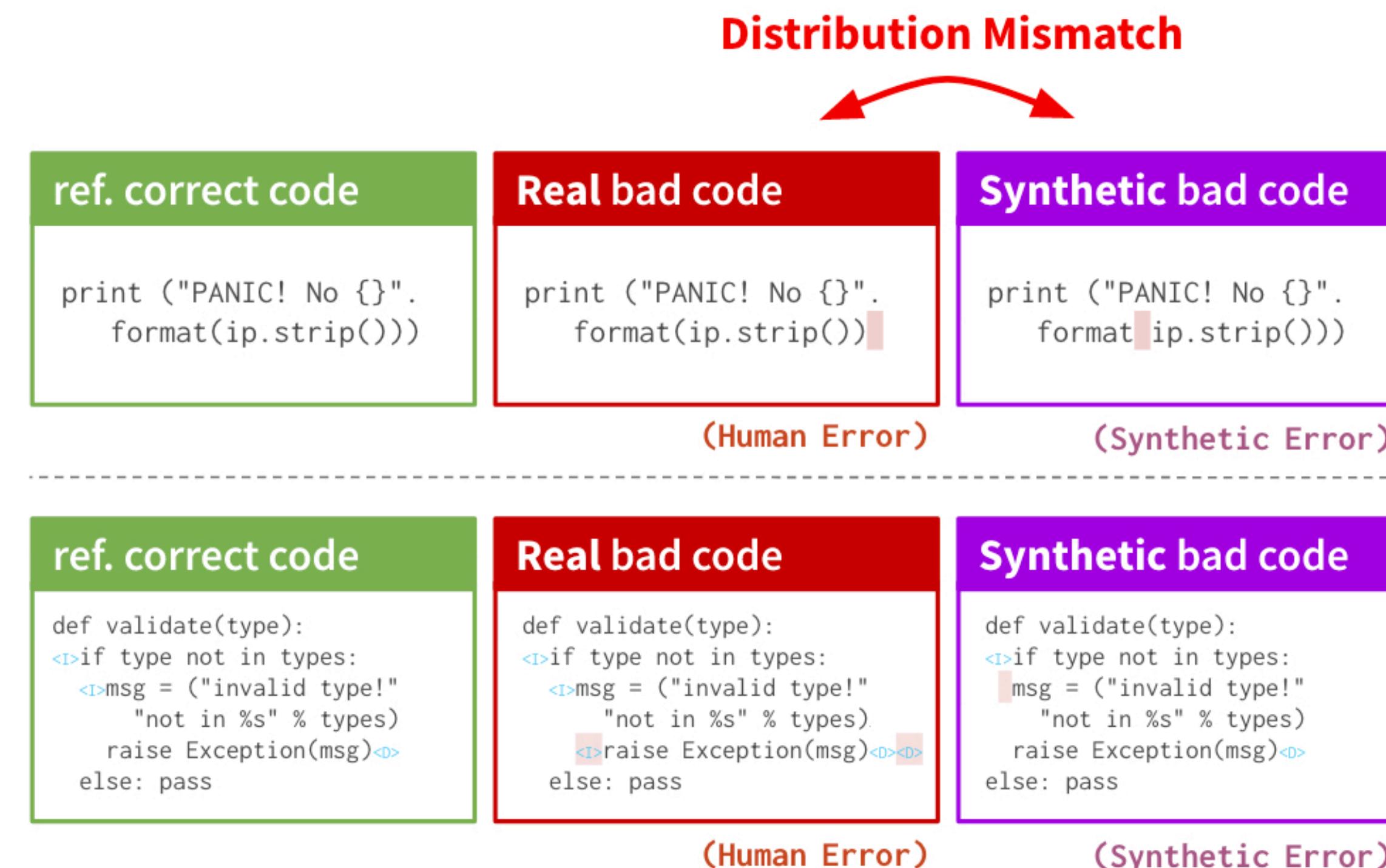
$$b_0 = \text{TRAIN}^{\text{good} \rightarrow \text{bad}}(\mathcal{P}_{\text{synthetic}})$$

$$f_0 = \text{TRAIN}^{\text{bad} \rightarrow \text{good}}(\mathcal{P}_{\text{synthetic}})$$

# Initialization with synthetic errors

## Why is it not enough?

- Real and synthetic error distribution is different



# Break-it-fix-it loop

- During initialization,  $D_{bad}$  was not used
- Run inference **f0** on  $D_{bad}$  to fix the originally bad examples, keep those that are actually fixed

$$\mathcal{P}_k^{(f)} = \{(x, f_{k-1}(x)) \mid x \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{bad}}, c(f_{k-1}(x)) = 1\}$$

$$b_k = \text{TRAIN}^{\text{good} \rightarrow \text{bad}}(\mathcal{P}_k^{(f)})$$

$c(f_k(y)) = 1$  : code is correct  
after applying  $f_k$

- Breaker **b1** learns to generate \*actual\* errors
- Create more examples, train **f1**, repeat

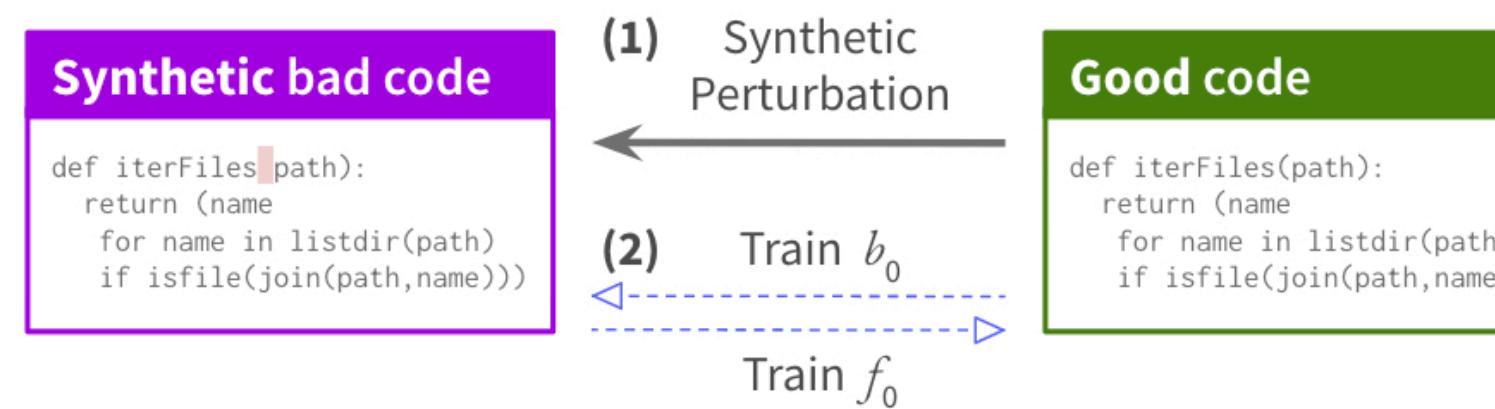
$$\mathcal{P}_k^{(b)} = \{(b_k(y), y) \mid y \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{good}}, c(b_k(y)) = 0\}$$

$$f_k = \text{TRAIN}^{\text{bad} \rightarrow \text{good}}(\mathcal{P}_k^{(f)} \cup \mathcal{P}_k^{(b)}).$$

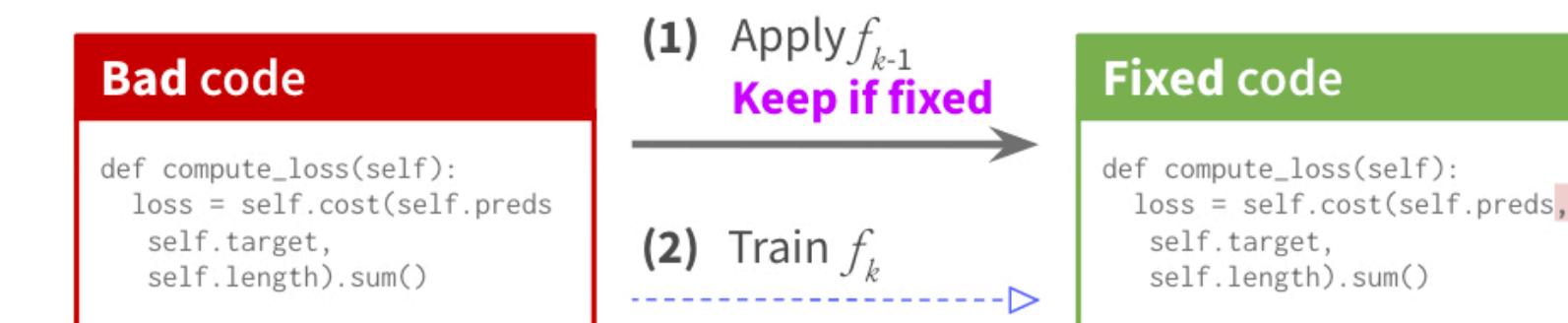
# Difference with Backtranslation

- Conceptually identical
- Main differences: no strict criteria for filtering in back translation, have a good measure here (compiler/parser)

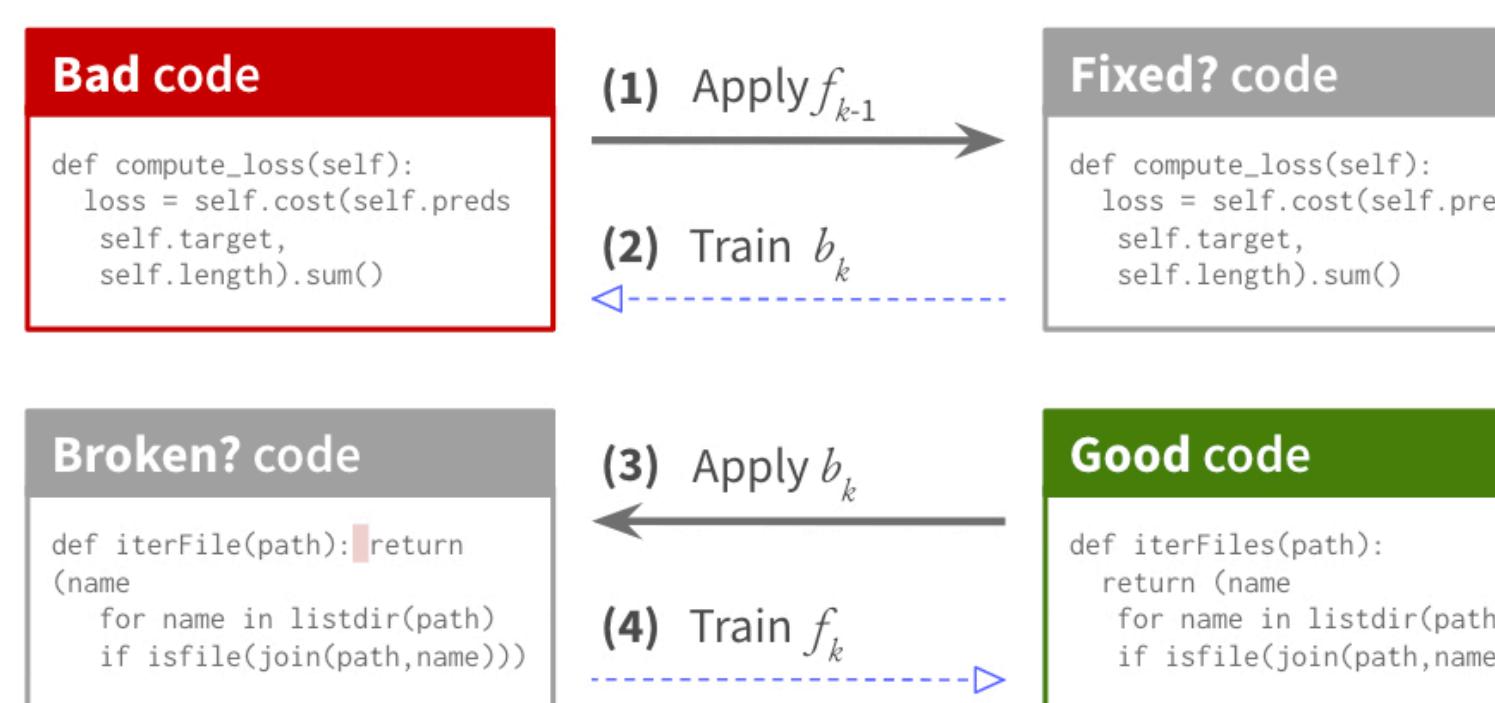
## §3.1 Initialization — Round 0



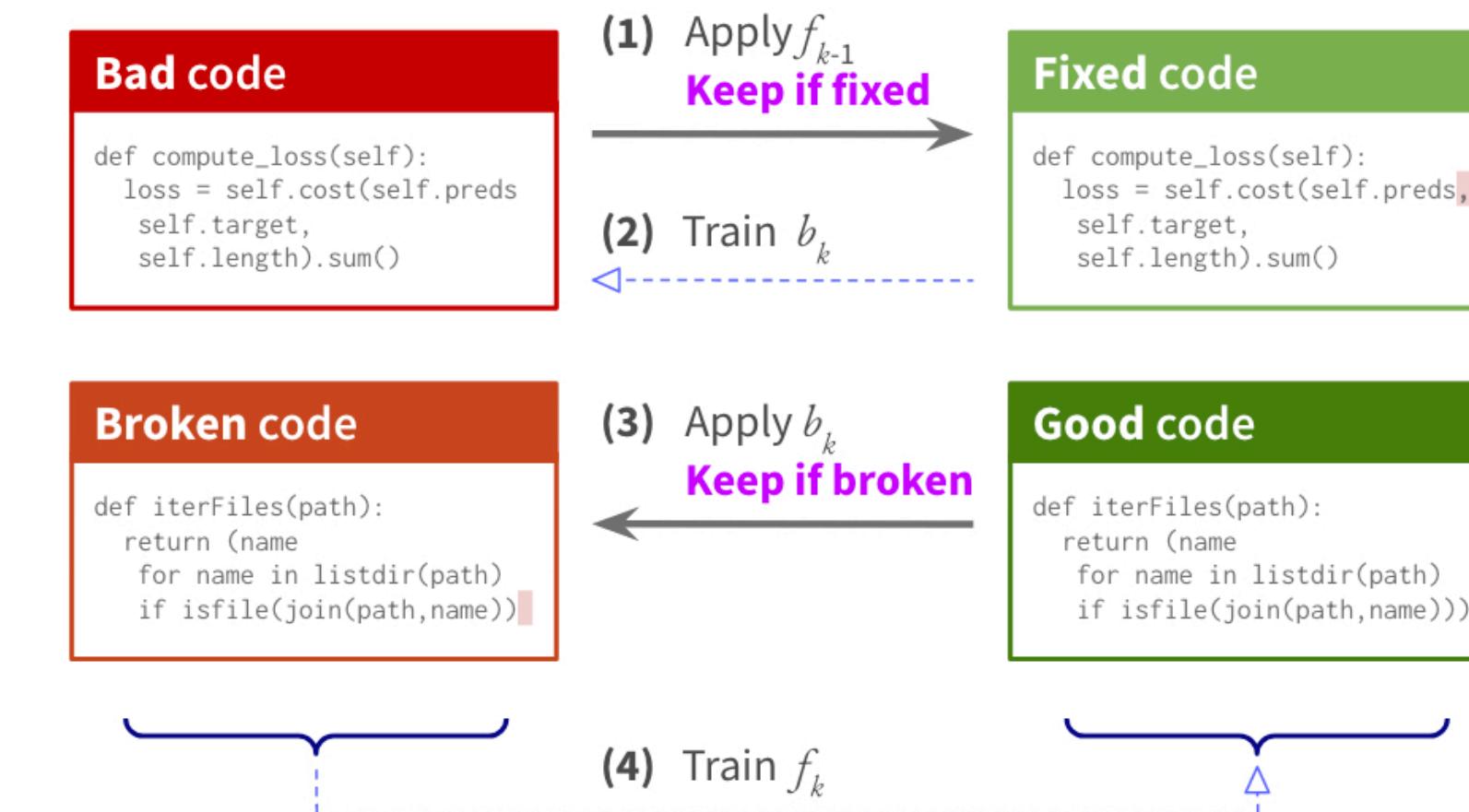
## §3.4 FixerOnly — Round $k (=1,2, \dots)$



## §3.3 ref. Backtranslation — Round $k (=1,2, \dots)$



## §3.2 Break-It-Fix-It (BIFI) — Round $k (=1,2, \dots)$



# Implementation

- **Data:** open source Python files from Github
  - 3M code snippets
  - Check errors using Python parser
  - Code is correct if it has no parse errors AND is less than 5 tokens from the input code (correct but not change)
  - 38k wrong (from 3M)
- **Implementation:**
  - Uses encoder-decoder architecture
  - Relatively small model: 4 layers, 8 heads

# Results

- Bad code helps

Method		Test accuracy				
		Bad 100%	Bad 50%	Bad 10%	ref. only	Synthetic bad only
Initial	Round-0	62.0%	62.0%	62.0%	62.0%	62.0%
FixerOnly	Round-2	88.6%	84.7%	78.5%	62.7%	
BIFI	Round-2	90.5%	89.0%	86.7%	63.3%	

Method	Test accuracy
Initial	62.0%
BIFI (ours)	90.5%
– real bad	84.6%
– critic	84.0%
– both (backtranslation)	80.1%

# Summary

- Lots of progress made by large language models by treating code as language
- Exploiting properties of code lead to useful modifications of popular NLP techniques:
  - Backtranslation
  - Syntax-guided generation
  - Retrieval-augmented generation
  - MLM
- Future work: using some of these techniques in graph generation