Shrinking the Inductive Programming Search Space with Instruction Subsets

Edward McDaid[®]^a and Sarah McDaid[®]^b Zoea Ltd., 20-22 Wenlock Road, London, N1 7GU, U.K.

Keywords: Inductive Programming, State Space Search, Knowledge Representation.

Abstract: Inductive programming frequently relies on some form of search in order to identify candidate solutions. However, the size of the search space limits the use of inductive programming to the production of relatively small programs. If we could somehow correctly predict the subset of instructions required for a given problem then inductive programming would be more tractable. We will show that this can be achieved in a high percentage of cases. This paper presents a novel model of programming language instruction co-occurrence that was built to support search space partitioning in the Zoea distributed inductive programming system. This consists of a collection of intersecting instruction subsets derived from a large sample of open source code. Using the approach different parts of the search space can be explored in parallel. The number of subsets required does not grow linearly with the quantity of code used to produce them and a manageable number of subsets is sufficient to cover a high percentage of unseen code. This approach also significantly reduces the overall size of the search space - often by many orders of magnitude.

1 INTRODUCTION

The use of AI to assist in the production of computer software is an active area of research (e.g. Xu et. al., 2022; Nguyen & Nadi, 2022). Many current systems are based on deep learning and recent work includes the use of large language models such as GPT-3 (Brown et. al., 2020). These involve training on large quantities of code although this can also raise ethical concerns (Lemley & Casey, 2021).

Work also continues on approaches not traditionally associated with training (Cropper et al., 2020; Petke et. al., 2018). Inductive programing (IP) aims to generate code directly from a specification such as test cases (Flener & Schmid, 2008). Various IP techniques exist but fundamentally many of these utilise search (Kitzelmann, 2010).

Aside from trivial cases it is not possible to determine the outcome of a computation directly from source code without executing it. Some kind of generate-and-test approach is therefore unavoidable.

The size of the search space has limited IP systems to the production of relatively small

programs (Galwani et. al., 2015). A major source of combinatorial growth in IP is the number of instructions, comprising core language and standard library functions, and operators. This number varies by programming language but is frequently around 200 or more. It has been suggested that if we could predict the subset of instructions required for a given program then IP would be more tractable (McDaid & McDaid, 2019).

One way to produce slightly larger programs in a given time period is to distribute the work across many computers. This requires the search space to be partitioned. Partitioning on the instruction set is attractive as most programs use a relatively small subset of instructions. But how do we define the subsets?

This paper presents the results of a study that was carried out to define instruction subsets for the Zoea IP system (McDaid & McDaid, 2021). Zoea employs a distributed blackboard architecture comprising many knowledge sources that operate in parallel. Activations can already be partitioned by instruction subsets although currently these are coarse grained and manually specified.

McDaid, E. and McDaid, S. Shrinking the Inductive Programming Search Space with Instruction Subsets. DOI: 10.5220/0011706900003393 In Proceedings of the 15th International Conference on Agents and Artificial Intelligence (ICAART 2023) - Volume 3, pages 578-585 ISBN: 978-989-758-623-1; ISSN: 2184-433X Copyright © 2023 by SCITEPRESS – Science and Technology Publications, Lda. Under CC license (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0)

^a https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8684-0868

^b https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7643-6722

At present, Zoea can efficiently utilise up to around 100 cores in solving a problem. Using larger numbers of cores requires finer-grained partitioning of the instruction set. This will also enable Zoea to better leverage cloud-based deployment.

The strategy of deriving subsets from existing code was seen as a potential way to make subsets more representative of human originated software. It was also apparent that any such subsets would need to intersect with one another to some extent.

The number of subsets required to provide sufficient coverage for a wide variety of programs was unknown in advance. Based on experience in tuning the current system hundreds to thousands of subsets would result in acceptable performance.

The target size of the instruction subsets is an important consideration. Smaller subsets make it possible to find programs with fewer instructions in in less time. However, we also need to be able to produce programs with larger numbers of instructions. This suggests the use of multiple sets of instruction subsets of different sizes. The subset sizes studied were 10 to 100 in increments of 10.

The following sections describe our approach to the production and evaluation of instruction subsets. We then go on to discuss some significant findings that became apparent after this work was completed.

2 PRELIMINARIES

Let C be a source code program in a high level imperative programming language L. C is composed of one or more program units U - corresponding to procedures, functions or methods. L provides a set of instructions IL comprising built in operators, core and standard library functions. Each U contains a set of instructions IU where $IU \subseteq IL \land IU \neq \emptyset$.

Given a collection of programs *SP1* we can enumerate the corresponding family of program unit instruction subsets *SIU* where $SIU \in P(IL) \land SIU \neq \emptyset$. (Here P refers to the power set.)

IU is said to cover U if IU is the instruction subset for U or IU is the instruction subset for a different U and a superset of the IU for U. Each IUtrivially covers the corresponding U. We can also say that SIU covers SP1. Coverage for a set of programs is quantified as the number of covered program units divided by the total number of program units expressed as a percentage.

Any *IU* that is a subset of another *IU* can be removed from *SIU* without affecting the overall coverage of *SIU* wrt *SP1*. Two or more *IUs* can be combined to form a new derived instruction subset *ID*. *ID* provides the same aggregate coverage as its component *IU*s wrt *SP1*.

SID is a family of instruction subsets comprising all IUs (that have not been removed or merged) union all IDs. SID provides the same coverage as the original SIU wrt SP1. We can enforce an upper limit MI on |IU| and an upper limit M2 on |ID| during the creation of SID. Any U where |IU| > M1 is silently ignored. M2 constrains which subsets of SIU (IUs) can be combined to form IDs. Any number of IDs can be created providing their respective component IUs are also removed and $|ID| \le M2$. Once created SID can then be evaluated in terms of the coverage it provides wrt a different set of programs SP2.

3 APPROACH

3.1 Objectives

The primary goal of this work was to define a set of instruction subsets to support efficient clustering in the Zoea IP system.

Evaluation of subsets was also necessary to ensure that they were capable of generating a wide range of programs. The approach selected involved cross-validating subsets generated using part of the code sample with the entire code sample.

3.2 Method

This work began as a piece of analysis and without a specific research question. The methodology followed can best be characterised as descriptive with some similarities to exploratory data analysis.

A large quantity of code was required for instruction subset creation to ensure sufficient variety. Ideally it should be the product of many different developers from a variety of contexts. The code also needs to be legally and ethically available.

GitHub (Microsoft, 2022) was identified as a suitable source of software and it has been used in the past for similar analyses of code (Ray et. al., 2014). We used the largest 1,000 repositories on GitHub (as of 13 May 2022) and limited our analysis to Python (Martelli et al., 2017) programs only. Python was selected on the basis that it is a fairly popular language and the available instructions are representative of similar languages.

In each case the complete repository was downloaded as a zip file, extracted and non-Python files were discarded. Each Python program was split into program units (classes, methods, functions and mains) and tokenised using simple custom code based on regular expressions. Two of the repositories were excluded due to parsing errors. From the identified tokens the occurrences of each of a specific set of instructions were counted. Instructions that have no meaning in Zoea, such as those relating to variable assignment, were either mapped to an equivalent instruction if possible or else excluded. (E.g. '+=' is mapped to '+' while '=' is excluded.) No code or other information was used in any other way. This step output a list of instruction names in alphabetical order for each program unit.

The analysis included 71,972 Python files containing 15,749,416 lines of code or 580,476,516 characters. From this 886,421 program units were identified. For each program unit the subset of instructions it contains was recorded. Many of the instruction subsets so identified were duplicates and when these were removed 345,120 unique instruction subsets remained.

During processing the instruction subsets were filtered to remove any that are proper subsets of another instruction subset. This left 33,823 instruction subsets. These varied in size between 1 and 74 instructions (median: 3, standard deviation: 3.67). Many of the unique instruction subsets were very similar to one another, differing by only one or two instructions.



Figure 1: Overview of subset creation process.

3.3 Clustering Algorithm

Figure 1 gives a conceptual overview of the subset creation process. Producing derived instruction subsets (IDs) from program unit instruction subsets (IUs) is a clustering problem. A number of different clustering algorithms were developed and evaluated. The end result incorporates the two most successful of these together with some pre- and post-

processing. Pseudo-code for the software is shown in Algorithm 1.

Every derived instruction subset is created with respect to a specified maximum subset size. This size limit also impacts the number of derived subsets as described in more detail later in this section.

```
delete any duplicate IUs
amplify IUs (see section 3.4)
delete IUs that are subsets of IU'
foreach IU do
  find Instr, Subsets where
    Instr is not a subset of IU and
    length(IU ∪ Instr) is maximum
 Let IU = IU \cup \{ Instr \}
 delete all IUs in Subsets
end foreach
create NumIDs empty IDs
foreach IU do
  if exists ( empty ID ) then
    Let ID = IU
  else
    find IDs with max( | ID \cap IU | )
    choose ID with min( | ID | )
    Let ID = ID \cup IU
 end if
end foreach
merge IDs where size <= MaxIdSize
return set of IDs
     Algorithm 1: Clustering algorithm.
```

Input subsets are processed in decreasing order of size. In order to improve performance all instruction subsets are internally sorted at all times.

Pre-processing involves de-duplication, amplification and subset removal. Amplification is described in the next section. Many input subsets are duplicates of which set one is retained. Any input subset that is wholly contained within another input subset is also removed.

The first clustering stage attempts to subsume the largest number of near subsets by adding a single additional instruction to each IU in turn. In choosing which instruction to add the algorithm determines how many other IUs will become subsets of the current IU if that instruction is added. The instruction that results in the removal of the greatest number of other IUs is selected.

The second clustering stage tries to merge each *IU* with the *ID* with which it has the greatest intersection. This involves pre-creating a specified number of empty *ID*s and then either populating the empty *ID*s or else merging the *IU* into the *ID* with both the largest intersection and the most remaining capacity. If all *ID*s are at their maximum capacity then additional empty *ID*s are created.

Post-processing involves merging any remaining small *IU*s and non-full *ID*s together. This is driven entirely by subset size and ignores similarity.

As noted already, the algorithm allows for the specification of both a maximum subset size and a target number of subsets. However, the number of subsets requested is not honoured if this proves impossible, in which case a minimal number of additional subsets are created. For each subset size the approximate number of subsets required is determined in advance by code that iterates over possible values in ascending order. The number of subsets required is detected when the number of subsets requested. Given this requires considerable time the process has only been done in increments so the figures obtained are approximate, within the size of the increment.

The derived subset size that is enforced is allowed to be somewhat larger than the maximum by a small configurable amount – typically 10%. Without this headroom program unit subsets of the same size could not be merged.

3.4 Amplification

Initially, the process of merging subsets was seen as a way to reduce the number of derived subsets and standardize their sizes. However, it was observed that coverage against unseen code improved significantly after merging. This is partly because larger subsets provide better coverage than do small ones. Also, merging introduces additional intrasubset instruction co-occurrence variety that would not otherwise be present. It is interesting to note that adding an equivalent number of random instructions rather than merging does not give any detectable benefit.

In order to take advantage of this phenomenon an amplification step was introduced whereby smaller input subsets are merged with one another before clustering to create additional artificial program subsets. This was not explored systematically but the benefits do not seem to continue to accrue beyond a 50% increase in the number of subsets. Further work in this area may be fruitful.

4 RESULTS

4.1 Input Data

Figure 2 shows the size frequency distribution of the program unit instruction subsets. This provides both

the numbers of subsets of different sizes and the cumulative percentage of program units for each subset size. From this it can be seen that around 90% of program units have instruction subsets containing 10 or fewer unique instructions. Only 2% of program units contain 20 or more instructions.



Figure 2: Program unit instruction subset size frequency distribution.

Figure 3 gives the frequency distribution for instructions across all of the code used. Here instructions are ranked in order of descending frequency. This shows that a small number of instructions are used very frequently and that many instructions are seldom used. This is similar to a Zipfian distribution that is often associated with human and artificial languages (Louridas et al., 2008).



Figure 3: Ranked instruction frequency distribution.

The ranked frequency distribution for cooccurring instruction pairs is similar to that for instructions although it is more pronounced. Very few instruction pairs co-occur frequently while most occur infrequently or not at all.

4.2 Coverage of Unseen Code

By definition the derived subsets will always give 100% coverage of the code that was used to create them. In other words, all of the instructions in each program unit instruction subset will be found together in at least one single derived instruction subset. However, this is not the purpose for which the derived subsets are created. To be useful the derived subsets should also provide a high level of coverage for code that was not used for their creation. The level of coverage for unseen code was determined by nominating a percentage of the input code as a training set from which the derived subsets were then produced. The derived subsets could then either be tested against a different section of the input codebase or all of it.



Figure 4: Unseen code coverage for different training set percentages and subset sizes.

To understand the relative coverage that was achieved using training sets of different sizes, subsets were produced using 10% to 100% of the available code in 10% increments. In each case the derived subsets were then evaluated against the entire codebase. These results are shown in Figure 4. These tests were executed over 50 times and it was soon clear that subsets produced using a relatively small percentage of the code sample can provide high coverage. For subset size 10 just 1% of the code produces subsets that provide 77.31% coverage.

Other tests - that are not reported here - were carried out to ensure the particular section of code from which the training set was taken had no adverse impact on the results.

4.3 Number of Subsets

As we have already noted the number of derived subsets required depends to a large extent on the maximum derived subset size. Figure 5 shows the numbers of derived subsets for various maximum sizes. Generally, the number of subsets reduces exponentially with increasing maximum subset size. That the number for maximum size 10 is less than 20 is probably due to the fixed size of the derived subset headroom in combination with the skewed subset size distribution.

The numbers of derived subsets are acceptable in order to support Zoea clustering. It is possible to reduce the number of subsets further by various means although this will also reduce the coverage for unseen code. For example, some of the subsets are redundant when considered solely in terms of coverage of the training set. In addition, many individual instructions can be removed from subsets on the same basis.



Figure 5: Number of subsets required by subset size.

Another important factor is how the number of required subsets grows as the size of the training set is increased. This growth is not linear but instead decreases with each increment. The decreasing rate of growth suggests that subset size eventually stabilizes rather than growing indefinitely.

4.4 Search Space Reduction

The original motivation for using instruction subsets is to distribute work across many worker nodes in a cluster. An unanticipated benefit is that the size of the search space is also significantly reduced. It is easy to see why this is the case.

The search space for code approximates to a tree of a given depth with a branching factor largely determined by the number of instructions. Various approaches have been published for estimating the size of such a search tree (Kilby et. al., 2006). However, the reality is more complicated. Different instructions have different numbers of arguments and the data flows may span any number of levels forming a graph rather than a tree.

A more accurate estimate of cumulative search space size instead considers the number of values generated as successive layers of instructions are added. Inputs exist at level zero. If all instructions are applied at each level then single argument instructions must take their input from the previous level whereas two argument instructions only require one value from the previous level and another from any level. In this approach the number of search space nodes at a given level is the current total number of values excluding inputs.

Figure 6 shows the impact of different subset sizes on the size of the search space. This shows very large reductions in search space size –

particularly for subsets of size 10. This is largely due to the reduction in branching factor from around 200 to 10. The results in Figure 6 take account of the number of subsets, although this makes little difference to the relative scale of the results.

It is clear that distributing the work across a number of nodes in this manner does not just enable the work to be completed more quickly. It also reduces the amount of work that needs to be done.

People seem to get by using a relatively small proportion of all possible instruction subsets. This means there are a great many subsets that are not used very often - if at all. Every instruction subset, that does not include all instructions, accounts for a different and somewhat overlapping part of the complete search space. Effectively it is the instruction subsets that are not used that account for the reduction in the size of the search space.



Figure 6: Search space reduction for different instruction subset sizes.

4.5 Subset Overlap

Instruction subsets often overlap. This is intentional and reflects the fact that instructions used in different program units frequently intersect. It is also partly due to the clustering process. The median overlap for subset size 10 is around 20% and for size 50 is around 40%. As a result there might be a concern that an excessive amount of effort may be wasted when using the subsets to partition work.



Figure 7: Proportion of redundant activity for different subset overlap percentages.

Estimation of duplicate effort uses the same approach outlined earlier for search space size. Duplicated work at a given level corresponds to the size of the search space subtree for overlapping instructions only, divided by the size of the tree for the subset size number of instructions. Results are shown in Figure 7.

As the search tree grows, any values that have been produced using any non-duplicated instruction are distinct. Thus the proportion of values at each level that are produced exclusively from duplicated instructions quickly becomes insignificant.

4.6 Meaning of Results

The concept of coverage is a proxy for IP success or failure in finding a particular solution. High levels of coverage mean that for a given set of instruction subsets there is a correspondingly high probability that at least one worker in the cluster will encounter a particular IP solution.

Using only a subset of instructions rather than all of them significantly reduces the time Zoea takes to produce a solution. This, together with the overall reduction in search space size and the ability to run hundreds or possibly thousands of workers in parallel will certainly yield a dramatic improvement in response times. The size of programs that can be generated in a given time are also certain to increase.

4.7 Comparative Evaluation

It would be interesting to compare our results with other approaches such as various forms of heuristic search and generic algorithms (Mart et al., 2018). Distance metrics and fitness functions can be used to guide best first search for some specific types of program. However, no known set of distance metrics or fitness functions covers all possible programs. In many kinds of software the distance between a target value and successive intermediate values has no discernable pattern. Bi-directional search is also impractical as the number of possible input values for a given output can often be infinite. As a result only comparisons with various kinds of uninformed search can be made.

Consider a search space of size S with a maximum depth (and upper bound on program size) M. The simplest version of a specific program X is known to exist within that space at depth D. Sd is the cumulative size of the search space up to and including D. There also exist a number N of larger but functionally equivalent variants Vn of X between depths D+1 and M. The task is to find X or

alternatively any *Vn* using different kinds of search and estimate the size of the space. See Table 1.

Depth first and breadth first search are well known. Iterative deepening depth first search (IDDFS) approximates the behaviour of breadth first but although it requires less memory this is at the cost of repeating some work.

S is considerably larger than Sd so in this case depth first performs poorly. It can be seen that the use of instruction subsets results in a huge reduction in search space size. The corresponding running time can also be expected to be considerably less.

	Depth first	IDDFS	Breadth first	Instr. subsets
Always finds solution	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Best solution first	No	Yes	Yes	No
Approx. search size	S/ (N+1)	>Sd	Sd	Between <i>Sd</i> /10^5 and <i>Sd</i> /10^40

Table 1: Comparison of search techniques.

5 DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

Much of this work was conducted as an exercise in static code analysis rather than as a scientific investigation. However, that does not detract from the validity or potential significance of the results.

The frequency distributions of individual instructions and instruction pairs can be seen as tacit forms of software development knowledge. These distributions are highly skewed yet it is not clear why, or whether it has to be this way. Neither of these topics have attracted much attention to date.

In conducting this work it became clear that there is a key trade-off between clustering and merging/amplification. While it is possible to produce many fewer subsets through more aggressive clustering this comes at the price of less generality. We do not claim to have identified the optimum position on this continuum and more work in this area would be useful. However, the current results are sufficient to support the on-going operational deployment of this approach in Zoea.

By conceding that candidate solutions will only come from defined subsets of instructions we are accepting a compromise. We are willing to take any solution, potentially produced much faster, but there may be a small percentage of cases for which this approach might not succeed. More work will be required to quantify operational success in terms of generated solutions that meet the specification.

Other approaches to producing instruction subsets and alternative clustering algorithms are possible. Some of these may produce smaller sets of subsets and/or deliver greater coverage.

The authors believe that the results would also hold for other imperative programming languages. Most mainstream languages are very similar at the instruction level. Intuitively, the approach should also benefit different software development paradigms such as logic programming. Built-in predicates serve much the same role as instructions.

The authors also believe that the code sample used should be representative of other code. The sample used was large and came from many different repositories. Additional verification with code from other hosting sites would of course be useful.

Some instructions occur very frequently in the instruction subsets. One option would be to remove the most frequent instructions from the subsets and assume they always apply. This would have a dramatic effect on the size and number of the subsets. Since no clear boundary exists any threshold could be chosen.

It is worth noting that instruction subsets are capable of generating many more programs than those from which they were derived. Also, lack of coverage does not mean that an equivalent program cannot be produced. There are many different ways to produce a functionally equivalent program – sometimes using different instructions.

Some of the individual subsets provide much more program coverage than others. This information could be used to prioritise the assignment of cluster jobs to increase the probability that a solution is found early.

This approach should be useful in any problem that involves searching a program configuration space. Integration should be a simple matter in any software that utilises a defined list of instructions. It is also worth considering whether a similar approach might be useful in domains beyond IP. Combinatorial problems are common as is the need to partition work within clusters.

The current work considers subset construction as an offline activity. In operational deployment this could alternatively be a continuous process.

The only information extracted from the input source code was an alphabetic list of instruction

names. In most cases these lists of instructions are not unique to the code they came from. Instead they are exceptionally common both as literal copies and also as subsets of one another. As such there can be no sense in which intellectual property rights or the terms of any license have been violated.

6 CONCLUSIONS

We have described a technique for partitioning the IP search space using instruction subsets. This enables us to distribute IP work across many computer cores by assigning each a distinct but overlapping subset of instructions. Testing suggests the subsets generalise quickly, particularly when they are merged. Cross-validation shows they should work well with unseen code. The approach significantly reduces the size of the search space. Any duplication of effort due to subset overlap quickly becomes insignificant as program size increases. We also believe that our approach is ethical and does not exploit open source developers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by Zoea Ltd. Zoea is a trademark of Zoea Ltd. Other trademarks are the property of their respective owners.

REFERENCES

- Brown, T. B.; Mann, B.; Ryder, N.; Subbiah, M.; Kaplan, J.; Dhariwal, P.; Neelakantan, A.; Shyam, P.; Sastry, G.; Askell, A.; Agarwal, S.; Herbert-Voss, A.; Krueger, G.; Henighan, T.; Child, R.; Ramesh, A.; Ziegler, D. M.; Wu, J.; Winter, C.; Hesse, C.; Chen, M.; Sigler, E.; Litwin, M.; Gray, S.; Chess, B.; Clark, J.; Berner, C.; McCandlish, S.; Radford, A.; Sutskever, I.; Amodei, D. (2020). Language Models are Few-Shot Learners. arXiv pre-print. arXiv:2005.14165 [cs.CL]. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Library.
- Cropper, A.; Dumancic, S.; Muggleton, S. H. (2020). Turning 30: New Ideas in Inductive Logic Programming. In Proceedings of the Twenty–Ninth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI 2020. ijcai.org. pp. 4833–4839. doi.org/10.24963/ijcai.2020/673.
- Flener, P., Schmid, U. (2008). An introduction to inductive programming. Artificial Intelligence Review 29(1), 45-62. doi.org/10.1007/s10462-009-9108-7.
- Galwani, S.; Hernandez-Orallo, J.; Kitzelmann, E.; Muggleton, S. H.; Schmid, U.; Zorn, B. (2015).

Inductive Programming Meets the Real World. Communications of the ACM 58(11), 90–99. doi.org/ 10.1145/2736282.

- Kilby, P.; Slaney, J. K.; Thiébaux, S.; Walsh, T. (2006). Estimating Search Tree Size. In Proceedings of the Twenty-First National Conference on Artificial Intelligence AAAI 2006. AAAI Press. 1014-1019.
- Kitzelmann, E. (2010). Inductive programming: A survey of program synthesis techniques. Approaches and Applications of Inductive Programming. Lecture Notes in Computer Science 5812, 50–73. Springer-Verlag.
- Lemley, M. A., Casey B. (2021). Fair Learning. Texas Law Review 99(4): 743-785.
- Louridas, P.; Spinellis, D.; Vlachos. V. (2008). Power laws in software. ACM Transactions on Software Engineering and Methodology 18(1): 1-26. doi.org/10.1145/1391984.1391986.
- Mart, R., Pardalos, P. M., Resende, M. G. C. (2018) Handbook of Heuristics. Springer Publishing Company. 1st edition.
- Martelli, A.; Ravenscroft, A.; Holden, S. (2017). Python in a Nutshell. O'Reilly Media, Inc. 3rd edition.
- Microsoft. (2022). GitHub. https://www.github.com. Accessed: 2022-11-06.
- McDaid, E., McDaid, S. (2019). Zoea Composable Inductive Programming Without Limits. arXiv preprint. arXiv:1911.08286 [cs.PL]. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Library.
- McDaid, E., McDaid, S. (2021). Knowledge-Based Composable Inductive Programming. In Proceedings Artificial Intelligence XXXVIII: 41st SGAI International Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AI 2021, Cambridge, UK, December 14–16, 2021, Springer-Verlag. doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-91100-3 13.
- Nguyen, N., Nadi, S. (2022). An Empirical Evaluation of GitHub Copilot's Code Suggestions. In Proceedings of the IEEE/ACM 19th International Conference on Mining Software Repositories (MSR), 2022, 1-5. doi.org/10.1145/3524842.3528470.
- Petke, J.; Haraldsson, S.; Harman, M.; Langdon, W. B.;
 White, D.; Woodward, J. (2018). Genetic Improvement of Software: a Comprehensive Survey.
 IEEE Transactions on Evolutionary Computation. 22(3): 415-432. doi.org/10.1109/TEVC.2017. 2693219.
- Ray, B.; Posnett, D.; Filkov, V.; Devanbu, P. (2014). A large scale study of programming languages and code quality in github. In Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGSOFT International Symposi-um on Foundations of Software Engineering (FSE 2014). Association for Computing Machinery. 155–165. doi.org/10.1145/ 2635868.2635922.
- Xu, F. F.; Alon, U.; Neubig, G.; Hellendoorn, V. J. (2022). A systematic evaluation of large language models of code. In Proceed-ings of the 6th ACM SIGPLAN International Symposium on Machine Programming. Association for Computing Machinery. 1–10. doi. org/10.1145/3520312.3534862.