Source code auto-completion using various deep learning models under limited computing resources

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Abstract
Deep learning models have become state of the art in many language modelling tasks. Among such tasks, source code auto-completion is one of the important areas of research. This paper presents various methodologies for source code auto-completion using different Deep Learning models for Python and CSharp Programming Languages. In a resource-limited environment, it is paramount to reduce various overheads: one way of achieving that is to use the code sequences to train and evaluate rather than using other code structures such as semantics. This paper compares various deep learning architectures like CodeGPT [1] from Microsoft, Roberta [2] from huggingface [3] and GPT2 [4] for source code auto-completion. Different dataset strategies are employed for comparison, such as (1) treating the whole code file as a single line, (2) using each line as single individual inputs, and (3) tokenizing the codes snippets before feeding them into the models. We consider the task of autocompletion on two different datasets: (1) Python dataset; (2) CSharp dataset. The Python dataset is processed by a fine-tuned CodeGPT with an overall accuracy of 71%. For the CSharp dataset with the GPT2 model, a PPL of 2.14 and 4.082 on the training and evaluation dataset is observed. Considering the results, we discuss the strength and weaknesses of different approaches in their application in the real world programming context.

Keywords Source-code auto completion · CodeGPT · Roberta · GPT2

Introduction
In the software development process, code auto-completion is a requisite tool for any developer as it increases productivity and can save countless hours while writing code [30]. Source-code completion is the task of predicting the code sequences while writing code. This task can be automated using various techniques such as (i) statistically analyzing code sequences, (ii) using neural networks, (iii) NLP or deep learning models to perform the auto-completion. The goal is to provide a rapid and correct suggestion for the following code sequence. These autocomplete models can be integrated into various IDEs and online code editors to increase the efficiency and productivity of developers.

Various methods have already been proposed for code auto-completion, e.g. using RNN(LSTM) [5], using LSTM with attention [6], using transformers [7], etc. Various code structures have been used as input data to these models—some of them focus on the raw source text whereas some are based on token streams. Recently, abstract syntax trees are gaining attraction to capture context and predict the next code tokens or streams. Early IDEs also have implemented some sort of auto-completions. For instance, Eclipse uses type-based auto-complete features for next token suggestions.

With the introduction of transformers [8], which gives state-of-art performance in the Natural Language Processing domain, code completion task has become more concrete and efficient. Moreover, with the advent of various transformer variant models like BERT [9], GPT [10] and XLNET [11], more progress has been made regarding different source code tasks.

With the introduction of Transfer learning [12], the application of fine-tuning a trained model to the different related domain has become a standard way of research and imple-
mentation. Transfer learning is a process, where a model is trained with very large training data over a long period of time on high-end machines and is made available and can be fine-tuned on different tasks. This process of retraining a fully trained model on a downstream task is known as fine-tuning [13]. This process has become the core tool for research work and model implementation for industries and individuals as it saves countless hours and computing resources. The cost of running such tests on model training experiments used to be enormous: this has been eliminated after the introduction of transfer learning.

In this paper, we discuss the following three approaches for source-code autocompletion:

1. Fine tuning CodeGpt on Python dataset.
2. Code prediction using Roberta on CSharp source code.
3. Code prediction using GPT2 model trained on CSharp source code.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we discuss the existing techniques, tools and literature for various source code auto-completion tasks. In Section 3, the dataset, various preprocessing steps and the proposed models are discussed. In Section 4, we list out the results obtained for different models with different datasets and compare the results with existing results.

Related work

Various methods have been proposed for source code auto-completion tasks and we discuss few of them in the section.

In code2vec: Learning Distributed Representations of Code [6] paper, the authors has presented a neural network framework to learn code embedding. They have used the semantic structure of code, by feeding serialized ASTs to represent into the network. The network itself contains LSTM layers with paths- attentions. A dataset of almost 10k Java GitHub repositories was used during training and evaluation purpose. The model achieved precision, recall and F1 score of 63.1, 54.4, and 58.4 respectively when evaluated on the test set consisting of 50k files. The model suffers from Close Labels vocabulary, which means that the model can only predict labels that were present in the vocabulary during training time. Another limitation with the model is a dependency on variable names, as the model was trained on top-starred projects. When given an obfuscated variable names, the model performs poorly.

code2seq: Generating Sequences from Structured Representations of Code [15] is an incremental paper of code2vec model which covers the natural language sequence generation from a code snippet. It focuses on Neural Machine Translation (encoder–decoder) architecture to generate texts. This model relies on ASTs for code snippets. The LSTM model is trained on three java corpus (small, medium and large) generating F1 score of 50.64, 53.23 and 59.19 for small, medium and large java dataset, respectively. The limitation of this model is that it does not consider long-distance context into account; rather it is limited to surrounding contexts.

In [16], the authors have used an Uni-directional LSTM to encode AST paths extracted from source code snippets. A transformer encoder is used to contextualize the encoded paths. It then uses attention over the path contexts. Soft-max is used over the node embedding to predict an AST node. It leverages the uni language model for auto-code completion which are restricted to language-specific vocabulary. The model shows 18.04 acc@1 and 24.83 acc@5 on the java corpus. For the CSharp corpus, it shows 37.61 acc@1 and 45.51 acc@2. acc@n means average accuracy on top n probabilities for a prediction. Limitation of the model is that it works with only one function or class. And the model performs poorly for complex expressions.

In [17], the authors use a transformer [8] model with self-attention mechanism to capture long-range dependencies during code summarization. Source-code token stream is fed to the network as input samples. The proposed model has BLEU [18] score of 44.58 on Java dataset and BLEU score of 32.52 on Python dataset. Limitation of this model is that it does not consider any structural aspect of the code. Moreover, the model was only tested on Java and Python dataset.

Pythia: AI-assisted Code Completion System [19] uses the Abstract syntax trees corresponding to code snippets of Python source code for training the model. They have introduced a ranking system for prediction results. It uses PTVS [20] parser from Microsoft to parse AST from source code snippets. It uses LSTM with predicted embedding model for the code completion task. It also uses Neural Network Quantization which reduces the number of bits to store the weights(To 8-bit, integer representation): this leads to the reduction of the model from 152MB to just 38MB. Limitation of the quantization process is that it reduces the top-5 accuracy from 92 to 89% though substantially reducing the model size. Currently, it only works work Python source code.

In [21] the authors use a pre-trained, multi-layer transformer model of code: GPT-C. GPT-C is a variant of GPT-2, trained from scratch on a large dataset. It uses the source code data as a sequence of tokens, the output of a lexical analyzer, as input samples. It also introduces the multilingual model by extracting a shared sub-token vocabulary from various programming languages. With the model size of 366 M, GPT-C scored a PPL score of 1.91 on CSharp corpus and a PPL score of 1.82 on Python corpus. On MultiGPT-C task (C#, Python, JS, TS) with PPL score of 2.01 in 374 M model size. However, it does not consider any structural aspect of the code,
like Abstract Syntax Trees or Concrete syntax tree: according to the authors, it introduces additional overhead and dependencies which reduces the efficiency of the code completion system.

The authors in [23] suggest a fast and small neural code model, which is not memory hungry like neural model usually are. They achieve this state of the art by utilizing candidate suggestions produced by the static analyser. It reduces the need for maintaining memory-hungry vocabulary and embedding matrix. It is based on four modules, working together. The modules are (a) Token Encoder, (b) Context Encoder, (c) Candidate provider and (d) Completion ranker. The authors have experimented with Token, Subtoken, BPE [24] and Char type encoders for Token Encoders. GNU and LSTM were mostly preferred as they have less memory footprint than CNN and transformer context encoders for context encoding. For candidate provider, STAN(static analysis-based ) was used which performed better than vocabulary candidate provider. The model was trained and tested on Python source code extracted from GitHub repositories and to pre-process the data PTVS was used.

In [25], the authors investigate various ways of using Transformer architecture to produce good accuracy for source-code prediction. The authors of this paper have limited their investigation on techniques that revolve around ASTs. They have proposed two ways to serialising ASTs to capture the partial structure rather than just jamming raw ASTs into transformers. The two ways of serialization techniques used are as follows:

1. Tree traversal order.
2. Decomposing trees into paths.

In tree traversal order serialization method, TRAVTRANS is proposed, which is depth-first-search order or pre-order traversal over the AST. In Decomposing trees into paths serialization, PATHTRANS is proposed, which is based on creating paths from the root node to terminal nodes. In this approach, the path from the node the parent node of the leaf is encoded with LSTM block and the leaf token embedding are concatenated with the root-path block and are fed to the transformer network. They found that TRAVTRANS outperformed various other code-auto completion techniques. PY150 dataset was used for the model(it consists of parsed ASTs trees). For the transformer model, GPT-2 small is used, adapted from pytorch version. The reciprocal rank improvement of TRAVTRANS compared to DEEP3 [26] is from 43.9% to 58.0%. And with CODE2SEQ compared with TRAVTRANS is 43.6% to 58.0%. Though TRAVTRANS outperforms other representation, the structural relation between the nodes is not retained, as cited by examples [25] in the paper by the authors.

Methodology

This section describes the various proposed methodologies and approaches: extraction and pre-processing of the dataset, and model details along with parameters used to train them. Three following methodologies are used:

1. Fine-tuning CodeGpt on Python data set.
2. Training Roberta model in four different CSharp datasets.
   (a) Set 1, on code streams.
   (b) Set 2, on code streams broken into statements in each line.
   (c) Set 3, tokenized version of Set 1.
   (d) Set 4, tokenized version of Set 2.
3. Training GPT2 model on two CSharp domains.
   (a) Naive approach.
   (b) Domain Specific

Training the transformers models requires a large amount of computing power and an enormous amount of time. The Roberta, CodeGpt and GPT2 model were all trained in google Colab, with 16GB of VRAM and 10GB of RAM. The machines had CUDA enabled.

Dataset

For using NLP models on the source code, numerous training-testing-validation samples are required. For the Python corpus, PY150 dataset, originally used in [14], is used. This large Python corpus contains around 100k training and 50k testing samples, respectively. However, using 100k samples requires a huge amount of computing resources and training on such large corpus was not feasible on a limited resource, like Google Colab. So, the large dataset is broken down into chunks of 2.5k, 5k, 7.5k, 10k, 12.5k, 15k, 17.5k and 20k for training purpose. 50k testing samples were used for each data chunk for evaluation. Breaking into such chunks enabled to run the model efficiently on the limited available resources.

For the C# dataset in Roberta Model, top 25 CSharp source code GitHub repositories are used. The source code filenames with.cs extension were extracted. Each file was initially represented as a single line in the main corpus file. The CSharp corpus contains around 23k source codes for training, 7k for testing, respectively. After the codes were collected, a pre-processing step was performed on each source code, which is discussed in the next section.

For the GPT2 model, in the third approach, SET 1 used in the Roberta model was used in the naive approach. For the Domain-Specific approach, a new dataset was created from a particular CSharp project domain. Code repositories
consisting of codes related to UNITY3D (a game engine based on C#) was used as domain. Both the datasets have roughly the same size, around 30k 36K samples. The training hyper-parameters were same for both the datasets. For both the cases, the model was trained for five epochs. For the naive approach, the dataset consists of various top GitHub repositories on CSharp source code all belonging to different domains. In case of Domain-Specific study, source codes related to UNITY3D were used. The corpus in all the cases are built from freely available CSharp code repositories from GitHub.

**Pre-processing**

For CodeGpt, the pre-processing steps for Python includes writing each Python code within `<s>` and `</s>` tags. `<EOL>` tags are used to mark the end of the line as the whole file code is represented in a single line in the Python corpus (see Listing 1).

For CSharp corpus, the dataset was pre-processed with four different sets as follows: (1) the first set contains all the source code in a single line; (2) in the second dataset, source code is split line by line such that each line contains a single statement; (3) the third dataset contains the tokenized streams of the first set; (4) the fourth set contains tokenized streams of second set. From each set, comments were removed. The splitting of the source code in a file line by line and considering each single line as single input sample (rather than the whole source file as the single input) was done because Roberta can only handle max token length of 514: tokens larger than that get truncated leading to loss of context from each input sample. Figures 1 and 2 shows the prepossessing pipeline and set representation for Csharp corpus, respectively. Truncating samples to only 514 size was done to prevent CUDA memory error because the Roberta only uses 514 length of input stream to encode; thus saving VRAM memory.

Another reason for splitting of the source code line by line was that as the codes were extracted from popular GitHub repositories, they contained a large amount of import statements (like `Using...`) before the actual code blocks. In addition to this, with the truncation after the first 514 tokens as input, less relevant information was fed to the model if splitting is not performed. Hence, to leverage this issue, the whole code files were broken line by line and each line was now a input to the model. As the splitting of codes into lines was not perfect (since some class definition or function were very large), lines which had five code tokens or less were discarded during the prepossessing step.

Yet another issued prevailed: as the variable naming style varied from the source file to file, the model did not perform well as expected on the identifier. To tackle this problem, the tokenized version of the source code was used. Here the source codes of the entire file were tokenized using a tokenized tool [27]. Subsequently, they are split into statement wise tokens and fed to the model. The same procedure of discarding lines with tokens less than or equal to 5 was used. Listing 2, 3, 4 and 5 show the SET 1, SET 2, SET 3 and SET 4 representations, respectively.

**Listing 1** CSharp Set 1 Sample

```csharp
collection . Add ( name ) ; Assert . Empty ( removeEvent . Event . EventName ) ;
name = "Int32" ; yield return new object[]{"  Int32 " , " Name " , " Int32 " } ;
```

---

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Listing 2  CSharp Set 2 Sample
```csharp
collection.Add(name);
Assert.Empty(removeEvent.Event.EventName);
name = "Int32";
yield return new object[] { "Int32", "Name" };
```

Listing 3  CSharp Set 3 Sample
```csharp
ID.ID = ID;ID(ID.ID.ID);
ID = STRING_LITERAL; yield return new object[] { STRING_LITERAL, STRING_LITERAL };
```

Listing 4  CSharp Set 4 Sample
```csharp
ID.ID = ID;
ID.ID(ID.ID.ID);
ID = STRING_LITERAL;
yield return new object[] { STRING_LITERAL, STRING_LITERAL };
```

SET 1, SET 2, SET 3 and SET 4 are used for training and evaluation of Roberta model in second methodology. For the naïve approach, in CSharp with GPT2 model, which is the third methodology proposed, same pre-processed dataset of SET 1 was used for training and evaluating. For the domain-specific approach, pre-processing used for SET 1 in Roberta model was used.

Models

This section describes the various deep learning models used in this paper. The CodeGpt, a pre-trained model, was used for the Python corpus in first methodology. The Roberta model was used for second methodology. GPT2 was used for the third methodology. Both GPT and Bert are generalized transformer models. GPT being the decoder section of the transformer and BERT being the encoder section as seen in Fig. 3. We are actually using GPT-2 small and Roberta in the implementation. Roberta uses a sequence of 12 encoders: they are not parallel; output of one encoder is passed on to the next. GPT-2 small uses a sequence of 12 decoders.

CodeGpt

CodeGpt is based on pre-trained GPT2 model. The model was fine-tuned on a downstream task over java and Python corpus by teams of Microsoft. For training, it took them 25 h on P100x2 Nvidia cards for Python corpus and 2 h on P100x2 cards for Java corpus, respectively. GPT2’s architecture is the same as the decoder only transformer. It comprises of only decoder blocks stack on top of each other as seen in Fig. 4. Each decoder block consists of a masked self-attention layer combined with a feed-forward network. Masked self-attention prevents or blocks a position to speak to its tokens in the right. We have used GPT2-small, which has only 12 layers with model dimensionality of 768. CodeGpt also supports code generation, which is used in the text to code generation tasks. Hyper-parameters used while training the CodeGPT models are listed in Table 1. The parameters were unaltered while fine-tuning.

Roberta

Roberta is variant of BERT model. Build around BERT’s masking strategy, it provides a robust and optimized way to pre-train various NLP tasks. It has around 84 million parameters. BERT or Bidirectional Encoder Representations from
Table 1  Hyper param for CodeGpt

| CodeGpt Hyper Param          |               |
|-----------------------------|---------------|
| Activation function         | gelu_new      |
| architecture                | GPT2LMHeadModel|
| attn_pdrop                  | 0.1           |
| bos_token_id                | 50256         |
| embd_pdrop                  | 0.1           |
| eos_token_id                | 50256         |
| gradient_checkpointing      | false         |
| initializer_range           | 0.02          |
| layer_norm_epsilon          | 1e-05         |
| model_type                  | gpt2          |
| n_ctx                       | 1024          |
| n_embd                      | 768           |
| n_head                      | 12            |
| n_inner                     | null          |
| n_layer                     | 12            |
| n_positions                 | 1024          |
| resid_pdrop                 | 0.1           |
| vocab_size                  | 50260         |

Table 2  Hyper Param for Roberta

| Roberta Hyper Param          |               |
|------------------------------|---------------|
| architecture                 | RobertaForMaskLM|
| attn_pdrops_dropout_prob     | 0.1           |
| bos_token_id                 | 0             |
| eos_token_id                 | 2             |
| gradient_checkpointing       | false         |
| hidden_act                   | gelu          |
| hidden_dropout_prob          | 0.1           |
| hidden_size                  | 768           |
| initializer_range            | 0.02          |
| intermediate_size            | 3072          |
| layer_norm_epsilon           | 1e-12         |
| max_position_embeddings      | 1024          |
| model_type                   | roberta       |
| num_attention_heads          | 12            |
| num_hidden_layers            | 6             |
| pad_token_id                 | 1             |
| type_token_size              | 1             |
| vocab_size                   | 52000         |

Table 3  Hyper Param for GPT2

| GPT2 Param                    |               |
|------------------------------|---------------|
| Activation function          | gelu_new      |
| architecture                 | GPT2          |
| num_layers                   | 4             |
| num_heads                    | 4             |
| diff                         | 3072          |
| max_seq_len                  | 512           |
| learning_rate                | 5e-05         |
| optimizer_t                  | adam          |
| mirrored_strategy            | None          |
| grad_clip                    | False         |
| clip_value                   | 1.0           |
| embedding_size               | 512           |
| ctx_size                     | 512           |
| vocab_size                   | 50000         |

Fig. 5  BERT model architecture, where encoders are stacked on top of each other

Transformers is a decoder only transformer section which was trained for a wide range of NLP tasks like language modelling (see Fig. 5). Roberta performs 2–20% better compared to BERT. Next Sentence Prediction (NSP) was removed from BERT to form Roberta, and dynamic masking method was introduced. Table 2 lists all the hyper-parameters for Roberta model used during training. ByteLevelBPETokenizer is used for creating a tokenized for Roberta over the CSharp dataset, to create a token stream. Trained with a batch size of only 2, because creating a larger batch size was resulting in CUDA out of memory error.

GPT2

Table 3 summarises the hyper-parameters while training and testing the GPT2 model. Same hyper-parameters were used for the third approach in both the strategies. Embedding size of 512 was used with 4 heads and 4 internal layers to reduce the model, that can be trained in colab environment. A tensor flow version of GPT2 was used.
The accuracy of the models are computed using the following formula:

\[
\text{accuracy} = \frac{\text{number of correctly predicted tokens}}{\text{total number of tokens}}.
\]

The loss is calculated in the following manner: The loss of a single batch is the cross-entropy loss for that batch. The total loss of a epoch is computed by taking the arithmetic mean of all the batch losses.

**Results**

The CodeGpt model was trained with a context size of 1024, embedding dimension of 768, positional encoding size of 1024. Attention drop of 0.1. Gelu_new [28] was used as the activation function. The model was trained for 5 epochs for each chunk of dataset. The result for testing and training for the CodeGpt on various chunks of Python corpus is summarised in Table 4. Figure 6 summarises the accuracy result for all chunks of Python corpus. As it is found that as the training sample increases, the accuracy on the testing sample is quite the same and increases ever so slightly. This behaviour might be due to the fact that the model was trained for only 5 epochs because of limited computing resources.

The Roberta model for all dataset for CSharp was trained using the weight decay rate of 0.01, attention drops out the probability of 0.1, maximum positioning embedding of 1024, 12 number of attention heads and 6 hidden layers. And Gelu [29] was used as the hidden layer activation function. Roberta-ForMaskLM was the architecture used for the model which masks 15% of random tokens and try to predict the tokens.

For SET 1 and SET 3, the model was trained for 30 epochs as they have 23k training samples. But for SET 2 and SET 4, which are unpacked versions of SET 1 and SET 3, respectively, the total sampled sized increased to over 1.8M samples, on which training the model would take a large amount of time. So, a sample size of 1364k samples for training and 364k for testing was used and only trained for 10 epochs. Figures 7, 8, 9, 10 show the training and validation loss, respectively, for the model.

Batch size for training and evaluations for each CSharp corpus is summarised in Table 5.

Table 5 summarises all the results for testing various CSharp dataset on Roberta model. As seen in Fig. 11, the training and the evaluation results reduce in a promising way, as for SET 3 and SET 4, which have a token representation for the source code, because the model has less varying elements in the data corpus to learn the context from. The evaluation loss for both SET 3 and SET 4 dataset are 0.3757 and 0.3302, respectively, which is a good sign in proving that statement wise token streams perform better while learning the code context compared to the extensive program token stream.
Table 4  Training and evaluation result for CodeGpt

| Training size | Global steps | AvgLoss (Training) | Acc (Testing) |
|---------------|--------------|--------------------|---------------|
| 10k           | 7061         | 0.68457            | 0.70933       |
| 12.5k         | 9160         | 1.04693            | 0.71506       |
| 15k           | 10,611       | 0.29235            | 0.71050       |
| 17.5k         | 12,290       | 1.03262            | 0.71956       |
| 20k           | 14,211       | 0.12262            | 0.71151       |

Table 5  Batch Size for training and evaluating, and number of epochs for each set

| Set | Train batch size | Eval batch size | No. Epochs |
|-----|------------------|-----------------|------------|
| 1   | 128              | 128             | 30         |
| 2   | 256              | 256             | 10         |
| 3   | 128              | 128             | 30         |
| 4   | 256              | 256             | 10         |

Table 6  Training and Evaluation result for Roberta

| Set  | Global steps | AvgLoss training | Evaluation Loss |
|------|--------------|------------------|-----------------|
| Set 1| 5580         | 0.8306           | 2.0165          |
| Set 2| 53,300       | 1.1998           | 2.9193          |
| Set 3| 5400         | 0.5221           | 0.3757          |
| Set 4| 53,300       | 0.1931           | 0.3302          |

Fig. 9  Training and Validation loss plot over 30 epochs, on set 3 CSharp dataset

Fig. 10  Training and Validation loss plot over 10 epochs, on set 4 CSharp dataset

From Table 6, which includes all the average training and evaluation loss for Roberta model, it can be also observed that, when using SET 2 instead of SET 1, but the training and validation loss increases. The reason for such behaviour may be because of an increase of naming style in statement representations. And number epoch, being only 10, may have led to such high training and evaluation loss.

From the results of the third methodology (see Fig. 12), it is found that for the naive approach though the training loss is decreasing with time, the validation loss remains unchanged. This is signifying over-fitting of the model which was expected since the varying code style across the corpus. Figure 13 also shows the same behaviour for the PPL results. Though using GPT2 produced better results than
using Roberta Model for the SET 1, the overall performance is still inferior.

For the domain-specific approach, where the coded corpus was created using a single project domain, the UNITY3D scripts. This was to test the performance of the GPT2 model on domain-specific corpus for CSharp. As expected (see Fig. 14), we can observe that the model performs exceptionally, on a single domain, as produced average evaluation loss of 0.53010 and average evaluation PPL of 4.08256. This is in contrast to the naive approach that produced an average evaluation loss of 1.98349 and 9.37218 average evaluation ppl. Similar statistics can be observed for the PPL from Fig. 15. Table 7 lists the average values for all the metrics for both approaches.

The CodeGPT2 model produced the accuracy result of Python dataset of 0.7123 approx, for only running the model for 5 epochs, using the training parameters. This is substantially better than the CodeXGlue [1] results, which was found as accurate as 0.7422 approx, trained for 50 epochs. This
maybe due to the small domain size, as less variance in coding style could be interpolated in the corpus.

As for Roberta Model, it did not perform well, as can be seen from large training and evaluation loss of 0.8306 and 2.0165 for SET 1 and 1.1998 and 2.2193 for SET 2. The reason was the varying code style in the CSharp corpus. In the SET 3 and 4, the model performed better, as the code snippets were changed to syntax tokens. But additional mapping strategy is needed to map the tokens to actual words.

The third approach using the GPT2 model performed better than the Roberta model for SET 1: GPT2 produced average 1.982349 and Roberta produced 2.0165 training loss. Still, the model still could not overcome the varying code style problem. The domain-specific dataset proved to improve the results: it produced average evaluation loss of 0.53010 and average evaluation ppl of 4.08256 (this is in contrast to the naive approach that produced an average evaluation loss of 1.98349 and 9.37218 average evaluation ppl). The state-of-the-art MultiGPT-C[21] has PPL of 2.01. Note that we have trained our model with a small GPT2 of only four layers and four heads, and trained for just 5 epochs on just 1 Google Colab GPU, whereas MUTLIGPT-C[21] was 24-layer and was trained on 80 GPU workers for 25 epochs.

### Time complexity analysis

Each encoder and decoder layer consists of a self-attention layer and a feed forward layer.

Let \( X \) be the input to a self-attention layer. Then, \( X \) will have shape \((n, d)\) since there are \( n \) word-vectors (corresponding to rows) each of dimension \( d \). Computing the output of self-attention requires the following steps (consider single-headed self-attention for simplicity):

1. Linearly transforming the rows of \( X \) to compute the query \( Q \), key \( K \), and value \( V \) matrices, each of which has shape \((n, d)\). This is accomplished by post-multiplying \( X \) with 3 learned matrices of shape \((d, d)_k\), amounting to a computational complexity of \( O(nd^2) \).
2. Computing the layer output as \( \text{SoftMax}(QK^T / \sqrt{d})V \), where the softmax is computed over each row. Computing \( QK^T \) has complexity \( O(n^2d) \), and post-multiplying the resultant with \( V \) has complexity \( O(nd^2) \) as well.

Therefore, the total complexity of the self attention layer is \( O(n^2d + nd^2) \).

Each block in the encoder and the decoder contains an independent fully connected 2-layer feed-forward network with a ReLU nonlinearity applied separately to each position of the sequence:

\[
FFN(Z) = \max (0, Z\theta_1 + b_1)\theta_2 + b_2
\]

where \( Z \) are the representations passed forward from the attention sublayer, \( \theta_1, \theta_2 \) are two learned independent parameter matrices for each layer and \( b_1, b_2 \) are their respective bias vectors.

Therefore, the total complexity of the feed-forward network layer is \( O(nd^2) \).

Thus, the total complexity of a single encoder/decoder block is \( O(n^2d + nd^2) \). Since there is constant number of such blocks in each transformer, the total complexity of a transformer model is \( O(n^2d + nd^2) \).

### Conclusion

This paper demonstrates various experiments with source code auto-completion on Python and CSharp source codes using different deep learning models. We presented multiple strategies used to structure source code datasets to produce significant results in auto-completion tasks. Fine-tuning the CodeGpt model on the Py150k dataset, we achieved an accuracy score of 0.7123 when trained for only five epochs on resource constraint environment. This is comparable to the CodeXGlue [1] result of 0.7422 accuracy score, which was trained for 50 epochs on high-end GPUs. Our GPT2 model performed well compared to Roberta, as evaluation loss was 2.0165 for Roberta and 1.98349 for GPT2 for the SET 1 dataset. Roberta performed well with evaluation loss of 0.3757 and 0.3302 for SET 2 and SET 3 datasets, but it requires an additional mapper function. GPT2 model for CSharp domain-specific dataset produced a result of 0.53010 evaluation loss and 4.08256 PPL score, which is better than the naive approach (9.3721 PPL) but is less than the score of MultiGPT-C[21] (PPL of 2.01). One important difference between our approach and MultiGPT-C[21] is that we have trained our model with a small GPT2 of only four layers and four heads and trained for just five epochs on just 1 Google Colab GPU. The MUTLIGPT-C[21], on the other hand, was 24-layer and was trained on 80 GPU workers for 25 epochs. As for future work, we suggest using the abstract syntax tree
and various structural and semantic models of a source code, which may improve the code prediction accuracy. This may also help in generalizing the auto-completion task for multiple languages.

**Declarations**

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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