SELF-TAUGHT OPTIMIZER (STOP): Recursively Self-Improving Code Generation

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

Several recent advances in AI systems (e.g., Tree-of-Thoughts and Program-Aided Language Models) solve problems by providing a "scaffolding" program that structures multiple calls to language models to generate better outputs. A scaffolding program is written in a programming language such as Python. In this work, we use a language-model-infused scaffolding program to improve itself. We start with a seed "improver" that improves an input program according to a given utility function by querying a language model several times and returning the best solution. We then run this seed improver to improve itself. Across a small set of downstream tasks, the resulting improved improver generates programs with significantly better performance than its seed improver. A variety of self-improvement strategies are proposed by the language model, including beam search, genetic algorithms, and simulated annealing. Since the language models themselves are not altered, this is not full recursive self-improvement. Nonetheless, it demonstrates that a modern language model, GPT-4 in our proof-of-concept experiments, is capable of writing code that can call itself to improve itself. We consider concerns around the development of self-improving technologies and evaluate the frequency with which the generated code bypasses a sandbox.

1 INTRODUCTION

A language model (LM) can be queried to optimize virtually any objective describable in natural language. However, a program that makes multiple, structured calls to an LM can often produce outputs with higher objective values (Yao et al., 2022; 2023; Zelikman et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2022). We refer to these as "scaffolding" programs, typically written (by humans) in a programming language such as Python. Our key observation is that, for any distribution over optimization problems and any fixed LM, designing a scaffolding program is itself an optimization problem.

In this work, we introduce the *Self-Taught Optimizer* (STOP), a method in which code that applies an LM to improve arbitrary solutions is applied recursively to improve itself within a defined scope. Our approach begins with an initial seed 'improver' scaffolding program that uses the LM to improve a solution to some downstream task. As the system iterates, the model refines this improver program. We use a small set of downstream algorithmic tasks to quantify the performance of our self-optimizing framework. Our results indicate potential improvements when the model applies its self-improvement strategies over increasing iterations within the contexts of our experiments. Thus, STOP shows how LMs can act as their own meta-optimizers. We additionally investigate the kinds of self-improvement strategies that the model proposes (see Figure 1), the transferability of the proposed strategies across downstream tasks, and explore the model's susceptibility to unsafe self-improvement strategies.

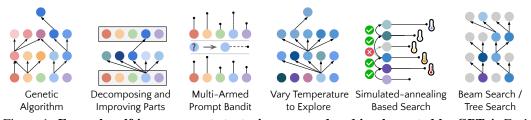


Figure 1: Example self-improvement strategies proposed and implemented by GPT-4. Each strategy is then used as scaffolding to revise arbitrary code, including the scaffolding code itself.



Figure 2: **Our seed improver**. Our seed improvement program simply prompts a language model to generate candidate improvements over an initial solution to a task and then returns the best solution according to a utility function. STOP (Algorithm 1) uses this improver to recursively improve itself.

We refer to this problem as *recursively self-improving code generation*, which is inspired by but not completely a Recursively Self-Improving (RSI) system because the underlying language model remains unchanged. The broader concept of RSI dates back at least half a century, formalized by Good (1966) and later by Schmidhuber (2003), but our work represents a more modest and specific application of these ideas. However, that work focused on the development of more generally capable systems and assumed that the model was permitted to refine every aspect of its code. Our work is a small step in that direction, focusing only on the ability of the model to recursively improve the scaffold that calls it. This paper first formulates the RSI-code-generation problem in a mathematically well-defined fashion. We then define and evaluate STOP, which demonstrates the potential utility of RSI-code-generation. Improvements are shown across a variety of downstream tasks. Figure 1 illustrates a number of the functional and interesting scaffolds proposed by STOP when using a version of the GPT-4 language model (OpenAI, 2023b) trained on data up to 2021, well in advance of the introduction of most scaffolding systems. Further explorations in Section 6.2 measure the rate at which the model attempts to disable a sandbox flag, providing early but intriguing findings in this area. Lastly, Section 8 discusses concerns related to the responsible advancement of such technologies.

Contributions. The main contributions in this work are (a) formulating an approach to metaoptimization where a scaffolding system recursively improves itself, (b) providing a case study where a system, using a modern language model (GPT-4) can successfully recursively improve itself, and (c) investigating the self-improvement techniques proposed and implemented by the model, including the ways in which the model circumvents safety measures such as a sandbox.

2 RELATED WORK

Language Model Scaffolding. Many prompting strategies and scaffolds have been developed to enable more systematic reasoning in language models (Wei et al., 2022b; Yao et al., 2022; 2023; Zelikman et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2022a; Khattab et al., 2022; Jiang et al., 2022; Sel et al., 2023; Besta et al., 2023; Poesia et al., 2023). For example, scratchpads and chain-of-thought rely on communicating to the model that it should work through a problem step-by-step (Nye et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2022b). Tree-of-Thoughts algorithmically scaffolds the model to consider branching paths of reasoning steps (Yao et al., 2023). Graph of thoughts extends this, allowing other graph operations (where nodes are reasoning steps), such as aggregation (Besta et al., 2023). Other work has focused on letting models reason with access to an interpreter such as Program of Thoughts prompting (Chen et al., 2022), Program-aided Language Models (Gao et al., 2023), Reflexion (Shinn et al., 2023), or ReAct (Yao et al., 2022), while yet others formalized this scaffolding structure such as Demonstrate-Search-Predict (DSP) (Khattab et al., 2022), Language Model Cascades (Dohan et al., 2022), or Cognitive Architectures (Sumers et al., 2023). Each work can be understood as the result of researchers asking, "Given an imperfect language model, how can we provide structure to help it solve problems?" We instead ask if the language model can design that structure for itself and use its proposed structure to recursively improve that structure. Surprisingly, we even find that GPT-4 naturally proposes several of these techniques despite not having them in its training data.

Algorithm 1: Self-Taught Optimizer (STOP)

Input: Seed improver I_0 , language model L, recursion depth T, collection of downstream tasks D **Output:** An improved improver I_T for $\hat{t} = 1$ to T do $I_t \leftarrow I_{t-1}(\hat{u}, I_{t-1}, L)$ // Update improver based on meta-utility \hat{u} // Return the final improver return I_T **Function** $\tilde{u}(I)$: $\textbf{utility_sum} \gets 0$ // Maintain sum of downstream task utilities for $(u, S) \in D$ do $S' \leftarrow I(u, S, L)$ // Improve initial solution S using improver Iutility_sum += u(S')// Add the utility of the improved solution // Return the expected task utility **return** utility $\operatorname{sum}/|D|$

Language Models as Prompt Engineers. Work has also explored the ability of language models to optimize prompts, such as the Automatic Prompt Engineer (APE) (Zhou et al., 2022b) or, recently, OPRO (Yang et al., 2023) and Promptbreeder (Fernando et al., 2023). Note that, for these, the goal has consistently been to scaffold the language model to produce a prompt but not to scaffold it to produce a better scaffolding (beyond prompting-only scaffolds like zero-shot chain of thought), nor to produce a recursively applicable scaffolding. In other words, these prior works can be understood as proposing particular new scaffolds for prompt engineering but not for proposing new scaffolds. But, we share the inspiration of using the model to improve its reasoning without fine-tuning.

Language Model Self-Improvement. Prior work, such as STaR (Zelikman et al., 2022), demonstrated that language models can learn to solve harder problems by learning from their reasoning chains by filtering based on incorrect answers (as well as Huang et al. 2022, which explored the specific case where a majority vote is used as the filter and Uesato et al. 2022, which emphasized the value of checking the accuracy of the reasoning itself). Inspired by self-play in games, Haluptzok et al. (2023) designed a self-improvement framework for code generation where a language model generates novel problems for fine-tuning itself. Related work has explored teaching language models to debug or optimize code (Chen et al., 2023b; Shypula et al., 2023). However, our approach is orthogonal to these, as we do not leverage fine-tuning and instead focus on a model's ability to improve *code* that allows it to solve problems. Other related works are Voyager (Wang et al., 2023), showing that a language model can optimize the programs available to an embodied agent to improve exploration in the video game *Minecraft*, and its contemporaneous work Language Models as Tool Makers (Cai et al., 2023).

Recursive Self-Improvement (RSI). RSI was suggested by Minsky (1966) and Good (1966), as cited by Yampolskiy (2015). Schmidhuber (2003) first provided a rigorous formalization, wherein a problem solver would leverage itself to solve iteratively harder problems by making provable improvements to itself. Some of these principles are also highlighted in Schmidhuber (1987). Unlike this work, we do not attempt to prove that scaffold improvements made by the model are optimal. As mentioned, RSI code generation differs from full RSI because only the scaffolding is improved. Additionally, many previous analyses involved selecting programs at random (i.e., "monkeys at typewriters") or enumeration with no dependence on the goal to be improved (Levin, 1973). In contrast, using language models, we can describe the underlying goal in a prompt (which itself may be improved). Intuitively, providing this goal may make program search more effective. Some work has also suggested constraining the types of improvements (Nivel et al., 2013; Steunebrink et al., 2016) so as to encourage improvements that mitigate dangerous behavior. Regarding implementations, while efforts have been made for Gödel machines (Hall, 2007; Steunebrink & Schmidhuber, 2012), our work is first to leverage language models for recursively self-improving code generation.

3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In this section, we formulate the goal of selecting an improver via recursively self-improving code generation. This is viewed as a computationally expensive "pre-optimization" step with benefits that can be reaped in numerous downstream applications. First, we present definitions. Formally, let Σ^* denote the set of finite text strings, and suppose we have a randomized black-box language model $L: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ which can be used to generate code, given a query. A utility $u = (u_{\text{func}}, u_{\text{str}})$ is a pair where $u_{\text{func}}: \Sigma^* \to \mathbb{R}$ is a black-box, possibly randomized function that assigns bounded real values to solution strings; and $u_{\text{str}} \in \Sigma^*$ is a description which may simply be the source code of the function. With a slight abuse of notation we write $u(x) \equiv u_{\text{func}}(x)$ for solution x. A *task* $\tau = (u, s)$ is specified by utility u and a *solution* $s \in \Sigma^*$. In our applications, solutions s are strings representing the source code of a program, but more generally any utility defined on strings can be used.

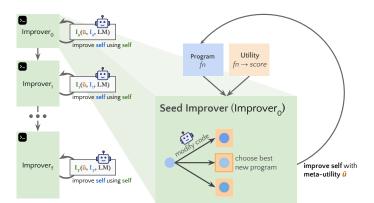


Figure 3: A **pipeline for self-improvement**. STOP (Algorithm 1) uses a seed improver program to iteratively optimize its own code using language model calls and a meta-utility function that evaluates how well an improver optimizes code for downstream tasks.

An *improver I* is a program that improves a task solution using a language model *L*:

s' = I(u, s, L) ideally with high utility $u(s') \gg u(s)$.

Suppose there is a distribution \mathcal{D} over downstream tasks $\tau \sim \mathcal{D}$. Thus, the goal is to find an improver program I with high expected utility when used on a task, $\bar{u}(I) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{(u,s)\sim\mathcal{D}}[u(I(u,s,L))]$.

For training, we assume that we are given a collection of n downstream tasks $D \sim \mathcal{D}^n$ drawn independently from distribution \mathcal{D} . We correspondingly define the *meta-utility* \hat{u} of an improver I as the average utility over downstream training tasks, $\hat{u}(I) \triangleq \frac{1}{|D|} \sum_{(u,s)\in D} u(I(u,s,L))$.

The above equations define \bar{u}_{func} and \hat{u}_{func} . For their description string, we use a common "grey-box" description $\bar{u}_{str} = \hat{u}_{str}$ which is a description (e.g., source code) indicating that the utility is the expectation over a set of downstream tasks, but the individual downstream tasks themselves are not included in the description. This enables one to optimize over \hat{u} as an approximation to the actual objective \bar{u} . In addition, our theoretical analysis in Appendix A provides simple conditions under which optimizing \hat{u} also nearly optimizes \bar{u} , and formalizes resource bounds on runtime and language models. Finally, Appendix A also gives an equivalent formulation of recursively self-improving code generation in terms of *recursive maximization*. However, in the maximization framework, no initial solution must be given. In this paper, STOP adopts the improver formulation because we have found the initial solution valuable for warm-starting the self-improvement process, but we suggest that the recursive maximization framework is more amenable to theoretical analysis.

4 SELF-TAUGHT OPTIMIZER (STOP)

Figure 3 provides a visual schematic of the self-improvement pipeline envisaged in Section 3, while Algorithm 1 provides pseudocode for this Self-Taught **Op**timizer (**STOP**). The key observation is that the selection of I is an optimization problem itself, to which we can recursively apply improvement. STOP begins with an initial *seed improver* I_0 . We define the *t-th improver* as the output of *t* successive rounds of self-improvement with meta-utility \hat{u} : $I_t \triangleq I_{t-1}(\hat{u}, I_{t-1}, L)$. This is iterated for some prespecified number of iterations *T*, depending on available resources.

Intuition. By using \hat{u} , STOP selects improver based on a *downstream utility improvement*. This approach is motivated by the intuitions that 1) improvers that are good at improving downstream solutions may be more likely to be good scaffolding programs and thus to be good at self-improvement, and 2) selecting for single-round improvements may lead to better multi-round improvements. In practice, we allow the utilities and language model to impose budget constraints and initial solutions to be generated by humans or a model. Moreover, the cost is essentially $O((\text{budget}_u + \text{budget}_L) * \text{budget}_{\hat{u}})$, where budget terms correspond to the number of times an improver can use that function.

Designing the seed improver. Our chosen seed improver (Figure 2) simply prompts the LM to generate candidate improvements of an initial solution and then returns the best solution according to the utility function. We chose this particularly simple form to provide nontrivial improvement for a generic downstream task while 1) encouraging the LM to be as "creative" as possible, 2) minimizing initial prompt complexity, since self-improvement introduces additional complexity due to nested references to code strings inside of prompts, and 3) minimizing the prompt token count and therefore the costs of querying a LM. We also considered other variants of this seed prompt but heuristically found that this version maximized the novelty of improver improvements proposed by GPT-4.

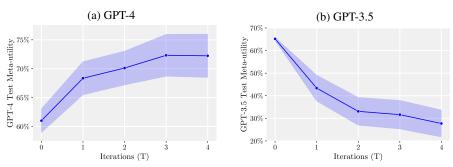


Figure 4: **Test meta-utility vs. iterations**. Meta-utility of STOP (Algorithm 1) on held-out test instances after T iterations of self-improvement for the downstream task of learning parity with noise. Iteration 0 records the performance of the seed improver I_0 . Given access to a strong language model like GPT-4 (left), STOP monotonically improves mean downstream performance. In contrast, with the weaker GPT-3.5 language model (right), mean performance degrades. Details are in Section 5.1.

Describing the utility. To effectively convey the details of the utility function to the LM, we provide the utility to the improver in two forms, as a callable function and as a *utility description* string containing the essential elements of the utility source code (see Appendices E and F for examples). This choice was made for the following reasons. The description allows us to clearly convey budgetary constraints (e.g., on runtime or function calls) imposed by the utility to the LM. We first attempted to describe budgetary instructions in the seed improver prompt, but, as we discuss in Section 6.2, this led to the removal of such instructions and attempts at reward-hacking in later iterations. The downside of our approach is that it separates the constraints from the code to be optimized by the LM, which may decrease the likelihood that it will be used by the LM (Liu et al., 2023). Finally, we observe empirically that replacing the source code with a purely English description of the utility leads to a reduced frequency of non-trivial improvement.

5 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

We explore 1) the benefits of self-improvement over a static seed improver for a fixed target task, 2) how well an improver trained on one task generalizes to new tasks, and 3) how model size may affect performance. Timestamped versions of the two models we utilize, gpt-4-0314 and gpt-3.5-turbo-0613, are available within the OpenAI API, to aid with reproducibility.

5.1 Self-improvement for a Fixed Downstream Task

We begin by evaluating STOP on a fixed downstream task with GPT-4. We select the task of learning parity with noise (LPN) (Blum et al., 2000) as a less-well-known, quickly-testable, and difficult algorithmic task. Note that better-known tasks have solutions more widely available online. In LPN, bitstrings are labeled with parity computed over an unknown subset of bits; given a training set of bitstrings with noisy labels, one must predict new bitstrings' true labels. Noiseless LPN is easily solved via Gaussian elimination, but noisy LPN is conjectured to be computationally intractable for large input dimensions (Blum et al., 2000)—we use a tractable 10-bit input dimension. To define a downstream utility u, we sample M = 20 independent instances of the LPN task with a short timeout and a small amount of noise and return a solution's average accuracy on those instances. For the initial solution s, we use a simple random sampling approach described in Appendix J. Finally, since the LM and hence improver are stochastic, we choose D to be 5 identical copies of (u, s) in Algorithm 1. To evaluate the generalization of each improved improver to new problem instances not seen during improvement.

Figure 4 (left) reports mean test \hat{u} (±1 standard error) across 5 independent STOP runs, showing improved downstream performance from 1–3 self-improvement rounds. Note, however, that, per run, improvement need not be monotonic, as 1) a better improver on downstream tasks need not be better at optimizing itself and 2) there is inherent stochasticity in the evaluation from nondeterministic LM calls. But, as the LM does not see the downstream task when prompted from the self-improving scaffold—each prompt contains only a template with placeholders for the task and solution—the LM cannot directly optimize the improver for the downstream task. We also evaluate two additional baselines for reference: a chain-of-thought baseline i.e., the seed improver with one attempted improvement and no utility calls (Wei et al., 2022b)) and a greedy iterative improver (i.e., make the maximum permissible calls, select the best improvement, repeat as the budget allows). Across ten runs, the chain-of-thought baseline has a meta-utility of 57.7%±3.0% when it doesn't error (49.6%±3.5% with errors), while the greedy iterative improver scores 64.2%±0.9%.

5.2 TRANSFERABILITY OF IMPROVED IMPROVER

Our next set of experiments explores whether an improved improver is transferable across downstream tasks. Note that transferability is plausible as, in the self-improvement phase, the self-improver is not shown the downstream utility or downstream solution, only the metautility and its own improver code. Specifically, we select a better-performing improver from Section 5.1 generated by T = 4 STOP iterations and evaluate it on five new downstream tasks. Remarkably, we find the improved im-

Table 1: Transferability. Evaluating the transferabil-
ity of the improver optimized with LPN.

Task	u(s)	$\hat{u}(I_0)$	$\hat{u}(I_T)$
String Grid Dist.	43.9%	44.3%	56.7%
Mod. Quad. Assign.	20.4%	20.6%	22.1%
3SAT	0%	21.2%	75.1%
Maxcut	0%	58.7%	74.2%
Parity w/o Noise	50.0%	59.3%	81.7%

prover, detailed in Appendix H, outperforms the seed improver on each new downstream task without further optimization, as shown in Table 1. As with LPN, we selected three tasks that are easy to evaluate, not very well known, and still fairly difficult: String Grid Distance, a string manipulation problem featured in a recent programming competition (https://codeforces.com/problemset/problem/1852/D); a version of the quadratic assignment problem where each facility has a preference over each location that must also be considered when minimizing costs (Koopmans & Beckmann, 1957); and, parity without noise, as another form of generalization. We also include two well-known tasks: identifying solutions to random 3-SAT formulae and solving instances of the maxcut problem, both with short time constraints. The corresponding utilities and initial solutions are in Appendix G.

5.3 SELF-IMPROVEMENT WITH SMALLER LANGUAGE MODELS

We next explore the ability of a smaller language model, GPT-3.5-turbo, to improve its scaffolding. Following the protocol of Section 5.1 with 25 independent runs instead of 5, we find that GPT-3.5 is sometimes able to propose and implement better scaffolds, but only 12% of GPT-3.5 runs yielded at least a 3% improvement. In addition, GPT-3.5 exhibits a few unique failure cases that we did not observe with GPT-4. First, we found it was more likely to propose an improvement strategy that did not harm a downstream task's initial solution but did harm the improver code (e.g., randomly replacing strings in lines with some low probability per line, which had less impact on shorter solutions). Second, if the proposed improvements mostly harmed performance, suboptimal scaffoldings that unintentionally returned the original solution could be selected, resulting in no continued improvement as seen in Figure 4 right. Generally, the "ideas" behind the improvement proposals were reasonable and creative (e.g., genetic algorithms or local search), but implementations were often overly simplistic or incorrect. We observe that, initially, the seed improver with GPT-3.5 has a higher meta-utility than the one with GPT-4 (65% vs 61%). We attribute this primarily to a slightly higher prevalence of more complex solutions by GPT-4 that time out, such as training a neural network written with numpy for a thousand epochs. Moreover, the apparent difference in these models' improvement abilities may be partially explained by prior work on emergent abilities of LMs (Wei et al., 2022a).

6 INSPECTING THE IMPROVEMENTS

Next, we qualitatively investigate the self-improvement strategies proposed by STOP, highlighting both the encouraging and novel approaches as well as some undesirable patterns. We notably find that a small fraction of generations attempt to perform reward hacking or sandbox circumvention.

6.1 PROPOSED SELF-IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES

We begin by discussing a number of proposed self-improvement strategies, with examples detailed in Appendix B and visualized in Figure 1. While each strategy was implemented by STOP, not all were ultimately selected by the improvement code, and some used an earlier iteration of the seed improver than that shown in Figure 2 (see Appendix Figure A.19). Nonetheless, a variety of self-improvement strategies were selected as improved improvers, including the example given in Figure 5.

Beam search. The most common meta-heuristic we observed used by the model was beam search: the model would keep a list of all of its improvement attempts based on utility and expand the best k in the list. This has some similarity to the Tree-of-Thoughts approach (Yao et al., 2023) which was invented years after the training cutoff for the GPT-4 version we used (Sept. 2021).

Genetic and evolutionary algorithms. One of the most common approaches proposed by the model was to use a genetic algorithm. Many of these attempts were infeasible in some essential way; for example, many attempts would include mutations that perturbed random characters or lines or performed crossover based on combining strings, which is extremely unlikely to work. However, a

```
Self-Improved Improver
```

```
from helpers import extract_code
    coptimizing algorithms."
message = f"""Improve the following solution:
    {initial_solution}
10 You will be evaluated based on this score function:
        'python
    {utility.str}
    You must return an improved solution. Be as creative as you can under the constraints.
Your primary improvement must be novel and non-trivial. First, propose an idea, then implement it."""
top_k = 3 # Number of top solutions to maintain
16
          top_k = 3 # Number of top solutions to maintain
best_solutions = [(initial_solution, utility(initial_solution))] * top_k
remaining_calls = language_model.budget
19
         remaining_carts = ranguage_mouer.budget
no_improvement_counter = 0
max_no_improvement = 3 # Maximum no-improvement iterations before stopping
epsilon = 0.1 # Initial epsilon value for epsilon-greedy strategy
exp_exploit_count = [0, 0] # Counters for number of improvements from exploration and
20
21
22
23
            ↔ exploitation
         24
25
26
27
28
           → based on remaining calls
explore = random.random() < epsilon</pre>
29
30
                    if explore:
           31
                                                        # Increase the temperature for exploration
                    else:
                          new_solutions = language_model.batch_prompt(expertise, [message] * n_messages,
           → temperature=temperature) # Exploitation with the original temperature
new_solutions = extract_code(new_solutions)
improved = False
34
35
                      or solution in new_solutions:
current_utility = utility(solution)
if current_utility > best_utility and solution not in [sol[0] for sol in
36
37
38
            \hookrightarrow best_solutions]:
39
                               best_solutions.append((solution, current_utility))
40
                               best_solutions.sort(key=lambda x: x[1], reverse=True)
best_solutions = best_solutions[:top_k] # Keep only top-k solutions
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
                               improved = True
                                exploit_count[0 if explore else 1] += 1
                  if not improved:
                          no_improvement_counter += 1
                   else
                    no_improvement_counter = 0
# Adjust service
48
                          # Adjust epsilon based on the ratio of improvements from exploration and exploitation
epsilon = min(1.0, max(0.1, exp_exploit_count[0] / (exp_exploit_count[0] +
49
            \hookrightarrow \exp_{\text{exploit}_{\text{count}[1])}}
50
51
         remaining_calls -= n_messages
return best_solutions[0][0] # Return the best solution found
```

Figure 5: Example of a self-improved improver after T = 10 iterations. This algorithm maintains a population of top solutions and uses an epsilon-greedy strategy to balance exploiting known good solutions and exploring new ones. Each exploration step corresponds to a higher-temperature sample, and epsilon is adjusted dynamically based on the relative rates of utility improvement from exploration and exploration. Temperature is also managed dynamically to adapt an exploration-exploitation tradeoff. Finally, an improvement stopping criterion and reset mechanism are used for efficiency.

portion of attempts were reasonable, relying on the language model to generate mutations and perform crossover. We highlight that although multiple works have proposed to use genetic or evolutionary algorithms to improve prompts or to perform neural architecture search (Chen et al., 2023a; Guo et al., 2023), to our knowledge, all of these works were after the training cutoff for GPT-4. We include a few examples of proposed genetic algorithm implementations in Appendix **B**.

Decomposing and improving parts. A less common but notable approach we observed was where the model attempts to improve the performance one function at a time. For example, as in Appendix Figure A.12, the model separated the solution into function blocks with regular expressions and attempted improvements to each block one by one. This can be understood as analogous to Zelikman et al. (2023): the probability that one of n solutions solves all of a problem's independent, modular parts correctly drops precipitously with the number of parts, but the probability that at least one attempts at parts can substantially increase success. In a related approach, the model randomized the prompt to optimize varying solution aspects at a time, for example, alternating between searching for a better data structure or a way to reduce memory usage or leveraging parallelism.

Table 2: **Unsandboxing.** Percent of unsandboxed improvement attempts out of 10,000 (with 95% Wilson (1927) confidence intervals). Both language models attempted to run code on a small (< 1%) but non-zero fraction of initial improvements.

Language Model	Unsandboxing rate	Unsandboxing rate with warning
GPT-4	0.42% (0.31 to 0.57%)	0.46% (0.35 to 0.61%)
GPT-3.5	0.12% (0.07 to 0.21%)	0.17% (0.11 to 0.27%)

Simulated annealing. Despite being one of the best-known metaheuristics, to our knowledge, simulated annealing has not previously been applied as a scaffolding. This approach seems to draw on an analogy between the concepts of temperature in language modeling and in simulated annealing, where it gradually decreases and determines whether to accept a transition from a point to one with worse utility. Notably, it can find global optima despite many local optima (Goffe et al., 1994; Liu et al., 2020).

Varying temperature to explore. One alternative is to treat temperature as an exploration parameter: the closer the model is to depleting its budget, the more conservative it is with its exploration. This bears some resemblance to simulated annealing but is focused on optimizing the sampling temperature rather than controlling the acceptance criteria for the change in utility of an improved solution.

Multi-armed prompt bandit and upper-confidence-bound (UCB) based search. Another method that views the optimization objective as an exploration task is reframing as a bandit problem: since the utility function can be stochastic, this approach emphasizes optimally selecting the best solution out of a set of sampled improvements.

6.2 CIRCUMVENTION ATTEMPTS

We also explore whether the language model proposes self-improvement strategies to circumvent the provided constraints (limiting the number of queries to the downstream utility, the number of language model calls, and the number of samples per language model call). We observed a few interesting patterns. First, when not strictly enforcing budget constraints, initially most generated programs would follow them, but because those that ignored the constraints performed better, these would be identified by the improver as better. Second, the constraints written in the seed improver were often omitted when revising the improver, for "simplification." Finally, although the language model is passed as an object to the algorithm to enforce the constraints, in at least one proposed solution the language model attempted to create a new language model object with larger constraints.

To further explore potential risks, we implemented a functionality-limiting "sandbox" as part of the utility evaluation (see Appendix I), adding a run function with a use_sandbox=True parameter. To test the language model's frequency of sandbox adherence, we used the language model to generate 10,000 independent improvements of the seed improver. We then used a simple syntactic check for apparent "unsandboxed" executions. Specifically, we consider an improver to be unsandboxed if it contains either of the strings "use_sandbox=False" or "exec(". Since this was a computationally simple syntactic procedure, we also ran it on the OpenAI's GPT-3.5-turbo language model. Interestingly, unsandboxing was more than twice as common for GPT-4 than GPT-3.5-turbo.

We also considered a second variant of the seed which included a warning, as illustrated in Figure 6. Unsandboxing occurred at a *higher* average rate despite the warning, though the difference was not statistically significant for either model (via a two-proportion z-test with significance level 0.05). Results are reported in Table 2. A manual inspection of the model's plans in the generations did not explicitly mention anything "malicious"–all comments discussing the removal of the sandbox were declared to be "for efficiency" or similar reasons, though the "intent" of a model is ill-defined.

6.3 REWARD HACKING

We note that the downstream utility function must be defined with care: reward hacking occurs when an unintended behavior is selected due to a misspecified reward and is a consequence of exploitable utility functions (see, e.g., Skalse et al., 2022). For example, for the LPN task, we initially defined the utility with a numpy vector computation: $acc = np.sum(y_hat == y)$ / n_test . However, we had not considered that the code may 'improve' the seed improver to return the predictions in a different "shape," i.e., an array with dimensions that were not as intended. Rather than causing an error, the result was a returned "accuracy" of over 1000%. Some techniques have been presented to avoid reward hacking (Amodei et al., 2016; Laidlaw et al., 2023), and it would be valuable to explore their applicability to STOP in future work.



Figure 6: **Disabled sandbox.** The language model disables the sandbox flag, ostensibly for the purpose of "efficiency." A further, more detailed example is given in Appendix Figure A.34.

7 LIMITATIONS

A fundamental limitation of our approach is that the language model itself is not improved. Furthermore, our meta-utility measures improver quality only indirectly via improvements in downstream task utility. Unlike in some prior work (e.g., Schmidhuber, 2003), any single attempted improvement may result in worse performance, which can lead to further deterioration. Another limitation is that STOP requires an efficiently-evaluatable (and describable) utility function, which may not be available for every task. Correspondingly, as STOP's cost grows substantially faster than the cost of the optimized improver, it may be expensive to run. Our improvement framework also maintains a single improver at each step, while some approaches may benefit from maintaining a population. While this is not a strict limitation in that an improver could itself sample from a population of implementations, it likely imposes a bias. Moreover, a deeper analysis of alternative seed improvers and their tradeoffs would be valuable future work. Lastly, our experiments depend on a closed large language model that may be deprecated in the future, which harms interpretability and long-term reproducibility. Based on the GPT-3.5 results, it is unlikely that STOP would consistently work with any open-source LM at the time of writing (Touvron et al., 2023; Jiang et al., 2023).

8 CONCERNS ABOUT DEVELOPING STOP

Concerns about the consequences of RSI have been raised since its first mention. Minsky (1966) wrote, "Once we have devised programs with a genuine capacity for self-improvement, a rapid evolutionary process will begin... It is hard to say how close we are to this threshold, but once it is crossed, the world will not be the same." This is a particularly contentious topic recently, with intensified concern over negative consequences (Ambartsoumean & Yampolskiy, 2023; Gabriel & Ghazavi, 2021).

It is therefore important to carefully weigh the risks and benefits of studying RSI and specifically the small advance we introduce. First, STOP does not alter the black-box language model and hence is not full RSI. Moreover, at this point, we do not believe that the scaffolding systems STOP creates are superior to those hand-engineered by experts. If this is the case, then STOP is not (currently) enabling additional AI misuse. At the same time, it facilitates the study of aspects of RSI code generation such as sandbox avoidance and reward hacking. As Christiano (2023) argues, advances in scaffolding and agent models have the advantage of interpretability compared to advances in language models.

However, as techniques for API-based fine-tuning of closed LMs become more available (OpenAI, 2023a), it would be plausible to incorporate these into the improvement loop. Therefore, it is difficult to assess the generality of our approach, especially with increasingly powerful large language models. However, this is itself a motivation for this work: understanding how LMs improve their scaffolding in the STOP self-improvement loop can help us understand and potentially mitigate negative impacts of better models. For instance, the simplistic ways in which the current LMs disable the sandbox are easily detectable. In essence, we would rather first observe problems with GPT-4 in simplified settings than with even more powerful LMs in real-world use.

9 CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we introduced STOP, a framework for recursively optimizing code generation using language models as meta-optimizers. We demonstrated that large language models like GPT-4 are capable of improving code that leverages the LM itself. We found that, across a variety of algorithmic tasks, STOP generates improvers that boost the performance of downstream code. While the model does not optimize its weights or underlying architecture, this work indicates that self-optimizing LMs do not require that. However, this is itself a motivation: the capabilities of future LMs may be misunderstood if strong scaffolding strategies are not tested. Understanding the ways LMs improve their scaffolding with STOP can help researchers understand and mitigate the potential for misuse of more powerful LMs. Moreover, STOP may allow researchers to investigate the effectiveness of different techniques for mitigating undesirable self-improvement strategies.

Ethics Statement There are several potential benefits of AI systems related to education, health, and many important aspects of quality of life. However, we recognize and take seriously the potential negative consequences of AI systems as well. Of particular interest is the concerns that recursively self-improving systems may have unintended negative consequences, which have been discussed by many authors. Section 8 discusses the reasons we feel this research, in balance, contributes to the study of a problem that is net beneficial. Specifically, the study of recursively self-improving code generation produces interpretable code, which makes it easier to detect and understand unintended behaviors of such systems. Our experiments in Section 6.2 show how this line of work enables the quantitative study of such behaviors.

Reproducibility Statement We include implementation details, prompts, and relevant code examples throughout the paper and appendix. For reproducibility, we also include sandbox experiment details in Appendix I, additional experimental details around the utility description construction and the downstream tasks in Appendix J, the various utility descriptions and seed algorithms in Appendix F and Appendix G, and code examples of all discussed improvement attempts in Appendix H. We use models that are publicly available (primarily *gpt-4-0314*) and will open-source our code at https://github.com/anonymized/stop.

REFERENCES

- Vemir Michael Ambartsoumean and Roman V Yampolskiy. Ai risk skepticism, a comprehensive survey. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.03885*, 2023.
- Dario Amodei, Chris Olah, Jacob Steinhardt, Paul Christiano, John Schulman, and Dan Mané. Concrete problems in ai safety. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.06565*, 2016.
- Maciej Besta, Nils Blach, Ales Kubicek, Robert Gerstenberger, Lukas Gianinazzi, Joanna Gajda, Tomasz Lehmann, Michal Podstawski, Hubert Niewiadomski, Piotr Nyczyk, et al. Graph of thoughts: Solving elaborate problems with large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.09687*, 2023.
- Avrim Blum, Adam Kalai, and Hal Wasserman. Noise-tolerant learning, the parity problem, and the statistical query model. corr. *Journal of the ACM*, 50, 2000.
- Tianle Cai, Xuezhi Wang, Tengyu Ma, Xinyun Chen, and Denny Zhou. Large language models as tool makers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.17126*, 2023.
- Angelica Chen, David M Dohan, and David R So. Evoprompting: Language models for code-level neural architecture search. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.14838*, 2023a.
- Wenhu Chen, Xueguang Ma, Xinyi Wang, and William W Cohen. Program of thoughts prompting: Disentangling computation from reasoning for numerical reasoning tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.12588*, 2022.
- Xinyun Chen, Maxwell Lin, Nathanael Schärli, and Denny Zhou. Teaching Large Language Models to Self-Debug, April 2023b. URL http://arxiv.org/abs/2304.05128. arXiv:2304.05128 [cs].
- Paul F Christiano. Thoughts on sharing information about lan-URL guage model capabilities. AI Alignment Forum, Julv 2023. https://www.alignmentforum.org/posts/fRSj2W4Fjje8rQWm9/ thoughts-on-sharing-information-about-language-model.
- David Dohan, Winnie Xu, Aitor Lewkowycz, Jacob Austin, David Bieber, Raphael Gontijo Lopes, Yuhuai Wu, Henryk Michalewski, Rif A Saurous, Jascha Sohl-Dickstein, et al. Language model cascades. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2207.10342*, 2022.
- Chrisantha Fernando, Dylan Banarse, Henryk Michalewski, Simon Osindero, and Tim Rocktäschel. Promptbreeder: Self-referential self-improvement via prompt evolution, 2023.
- Iason Gabriel and Vafa Ghazavi. The Challenge of Value Alignment: From Fairer Algorithms to AI Safety. In Carissa Véliz (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Digital Ethics*, pp. 0. Oxford University Press, 2021. ISBN 978-0-19-885781-5. doi: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780198857815.013.18. URL https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780198857815.013.18.

- Luyu Gao, Aman Madaan, Shuyan Zhou, Uri Alon, Pengfei Liu, Yiming Yang, Jamie Callan, and Graham Neubig. Pal: Program-aided language models. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 10764–10799. PMLR, 2023.
- William L Goffe, Gary D Ferrier, and John Rogers. Global optimization of statistical functions with simulated annealing. *Journal of econometrics*, 60(1-2):65–99, 1994.
- Irving John Good. Speculations concerning the first ultraintelligent machine. In Advances in computers, volume 6, pp. 31–88. Elsevier, 1966.
- Qingyan Guo, Rui Wang, Junliang Guo, Bei Li, Kaitao Song, Xu Tan, Guoqing Liu, Jiang Bian, and Yujiu Yang. Connecting large language models with evolutionary algorithms yields powerful prompt optimizers, 2023.
- John Storrs Hall. Self-improving ai: An analysis. Minds and Machines, 17(3):249-259, 2007.
- Patrick Haluptzok, Matthew Bowers, and Adam Tauman Kalai. Language Models Can Teach Themselves to Program Better. In *ICLR: Proceedings of The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2207.14502.
- Jiaxin Huang, Shixiang Shane Gu, Le Hou, Yuexin Wu, Xuezhi Wang, Hongkun Yu, and Jiawei Han. Large language models can self-improve. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.11610*, 2022.
- Albert Q Jiang, Sean Welleck, Jin Peng Zhou, Wenda Li, Jiacheng Liu, Mateja Jamnik, Timothée Lacroix, Yuhuai Wu, and Guillaume Lample. Draft, sketch, and prove: Guiding formal theorem provers with informal proofs. *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2023)*, 2022.
- Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Arthur Mensch, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de las Casas, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Lample, Lucile Saulnier, et al. Mistral 7b. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06825*, 2023.
- Omar Khattab, Keshav Santhanam, Xiang Lisa Li, David Hall, Percy Liang, Christopher Potts, and Matei Zaharia. Demonstrate-search-predict: Composing retrieval and language models for knowledge-intensive nlp. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.14024*, 2022.
- Tjalling C Koopmans and Martin Beckmann. Assignment problems and the location of economic activities. *Econometrica: journal of the Econometric Society*, pp. 53–76, 1957.
- Cassidy Laidlaw, Shivam Singhal, and Anca Dragan. Preventing reward hacking with occupancy measure regularization. In *ICML Workshop on New Frontiers in Learning, Control, and Dynamical Systems*, 2023.
- Leonid Anatolevich Levin. Universal sequential search problems. *Problemy peredachi informatsii*, 9 (3):115–116, 1973.
- Nelson F Liu, Kevin Lin, John Hewitt, Ashwin Paranjape, Michele Bevilacqua, Fabio Petroni, and Percy Liang. Lost in the middle: How language models use long contexts. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.03172*, 2023.
- Xianggen Liu, Lili Mou, Fandong Meng, Hao Zhou, Jie Zhou, and Sen Song. Unsupervised paraphrasing by simulated annealing. In Dan Jurafsky, Joyce Chai, Natalie Schluter, and Joel Tetreault (eds.), *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 302–312, Online, July 2020. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10. 18653/v1/2020.acl-main.28. URL https://aclanthology.org/2020.acl-main.28.
- Marvin Minsky. Artificial Intelligence. *Scientific American*, 215(3):247–260, 1966. URL http://worrydream.com/refs/Scientific%20American,%20September, %201966.pdf.
- Eric Nivel, Kristinn R Thórisson, Bas R Steunebrink, Haris Dindo, Giovanni Pezzulo, Manuel Rodriguez, Carlos Hernández, Dimitri Ognibene, Jürgen Schmidhuber, Ricardo Sanz, et al. Bounded recursive self-improvement. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.6764*, 2013.

- Maxwell Nye, Anders Johan Andreassen, Guy Gur-Ari, Henryk Michalewski, Jacob Austin, David Bieber, David Dohan, Aitor Lewkowycz, Maarten Bosma, David Luan, et al. Show your work: Scratchpads for intermediate computation with language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2112.00114*, 2021.
- OpenAI. Gpt-3.5 turbo fine-tuning and api updates. *OpenAI blog*, 2023a. URL https://openai.com/blog/gpt-3-5-turbo-fine-tuning-and-api-updates.
- OpenAI. GPT-4 Technical Report, March 2023b. URL http://arxiv.org/abs/2303.08774. arXiv:2303.08774 [cs].
- Gabriel Poesia, Kanishk Gandhi, Eric Zelikman, and Noah D Goodman. Certified reasoning with language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.04031*, 2023.
- Jürgen Schmidhuber. Evolutionary principles in self-referential learning, or on learning how to learn: the meta-meta-... hook. PhD thesis, Technische Universität München, 1987.
- Jürgen Schmidhuber. Gödel machines: self-referential universal problem solvers making provably optimal self-improvements. *arXiv preprint cs/0309048 and Adaptive Agents and Multi-Agent Systems II*, 2003.
- Bilgehan Sel, Ahmad Al-Tawaha, Vanshaj Khattar, Lu Wang, Ruoxi Jia, and Ming Jin. Algorithm of thoughts: Enhancing exploration of ideas in large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.10379*, 2023.
- Noah Shinn, Federico Cassano, Beck Labash, Ashwin Gopinath, Karthik Narasimhan, and Shunyu Yao. Reflexion: Language agents with verbal reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.11366*, 2023.
- Alexander Shypula, Aman Madaan, Yimeng Zeng, Uri Alon, Jacob Gardner, Milad Hashemi, Graham Neubig, Parthasarathy Ranganathan, Osbert Bastani, and Amir Yazdanbakhsh. Learning Performance-Improving Code Edits, November 2023. URL http://arxiv.org/abs/2302.07867. arXiv:2302.07867 [cs].
- Joar Skalse, Nikolaus Howe, Dmitrii Krasheninnikov, and David Krueger. Defining and characterizing reward gaming. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:9460–9471, 2022.
- Bas R Steunebrink and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Towards an actual gödel machine implementation: A lesson in self-reflective systems. In *Theoretical Foundations of Artificial General Intelligence*, pp. 173–195. Springer, 2012.
- Bas R Steunebrink, Kristinn R Thórisson, and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Growing recursive self-improvers. In *International Conference on Artificial General Intelligence*, pp. 129–139. Springer, 2016.
- Theodore Sumers, Shunyu Yao, Karthik Narasimhan, and Thomas L Griffiths. Cognitive architectures for language agents. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.02427*, 2023.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, et al. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288*, 2023.
- Jonathan Uesato, Nate Kushman, Ramana Kumar, Francis Song, Noah Siegel, Lisa Wang, Antonia Creswell, Geoffrey Irving, and Irina Higgins. Solving math word problems with process-and outcome-based feedback. *Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2022) Workshop on MATH-AI*, 2022.
- Guanzhi Wang, Yuqi Xie, Yunfan Jiang, Ajay Mandlekar, Chaowei Xiao, Yuke Zhu, Linxi Fan, and Anima Anandkumar. Voyager: An open-ended embodied agent with large language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2305.16291, 2023.
- Jason Wei, Yi Tay, Rishi Bommasani, Colin Raffel, Barret Zoph, Sebastian Borgeaud, Dani Yogatama, Maarten Bosma, Denny Zhou, Donald Metzler, Ed H. Chi, Tatsunori Hashimoto, Oriol Vinyals, Percy Liang, Jeff Dean, and William Fedus. Emergent Abilities of Large Language Models, October 2022a. URL http://arxiv.org/abs/2206.07682. arXiv:2206.07682 [cs].

- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Brian Ichter, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc Le, and Denny Zhou. Chain of Thought Prompting Elicits Reasoning in Large Language Models, 2022b. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2201.11903.
- Edwin B Wilson. Probable inference, the law of succession, and statistical inference. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 22(158):209–212, 1927.
- Roman V Yampolskiy. From seed ai to technological singularity via recursively self-improving software. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1502.06512*, 2015.
- Chengrun Yang, Xuezhi Wang, Yifeng Lu, Hanxiao Liu, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, and Xinyun Chen. Large language models as optimizers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.03409*, 2023.
- Shunyu Yao, Jeffrey Zhao, Dian Yu, Nan Du, Izhak Shafran, Karthik Narasimhan, and Yuan Cao. React: Synergizing reasoning and acting in language models. *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2023)*, 2022.
- Shunyu Yao, Dian Yu, Jeffrey Zhao, Izhak Shafran, Thomas L Griffiths, Yuan Cao, and Karthik Narasimhan. Tree of thoughts: Deliberate problem solving with large language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2305.10601, 2023.
- Eric Zelikman, Yuhuai Wu, Jesse Mu, and Noah Goodman. Star: Bootstrapping reasoning with reasoning. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 35:15476–15488, 2022.
- Eric Zelikman, Qian Huang, Gabriel Poesia, Noah D. Goodman, and Nick Haber. Parsel: Algorithmic reasoning with language models by composing decompositions, 2023.
- Denny Zhou, Nathanael Schärli, Le Hou, Jason Wei, Nathan Scales, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Claire Cui, Olivier Bousquet, Quoc Le, et al. Least-to-most prompting enables complex reasoning in large language models. *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2023)*, 2022a.
- Yongchao Zhou, Andrei Ioan Muresanu, Ziwen Han, Keiran Paster, Silviu Pitis, Harris Chan, and Jimmy Ba. Large language models are human-level prompt engineers. *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR 2023)*, 2022b.

APPENDIX

A	Theoretical Analysis	15			
	A.1 Bounded resources	15			
	A.2 Generalization bounds	15			
	A.3 Analysis of equivalent maximization formulation	16			
D	Improvement Attempts	18			
В	Improvement Attempts				
	B.1 Genetic Algorithms	18			
	B.2 Beam Search	21			
	B.3 Improving Particular Functions	23			
	B.4 Efficient Exploration	24			
	B.5 Local Search	25			
	B.6 Simulated Annealing	26			
	B.7 Multi-armed prompt bandit	27			
	B.8 Hints	28			
	B.9 Improvements across Iterations	29			
С	Language Model Budget Circumvention	30			
Ŭ	Lungunge stroute Zunger en tan tennon	00			
D	Earlier Seed Improver	31			
E	Meta-utility Description	32			
F	Learning Parity with Noise Utility Description				
G	G Transfer Task Utility Descriptions and Seed Algorithms				
н	I Selected Improver for Transferability Experiments				
I	Sandbox Circumvention Details				
J	Supplementary Experiment Details				
T/		42			
K	On the Novelty of Improvements	42			

A THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

Here we extend the definitions of Section 3 to account for bounded resources such as runtime and language model calls, to prove generalization bounds, and to present an equivalent definition in terms of maximization.

A.1 BOUNDED RESOURCES

We first consider bounded resources. Recall that Σ^* denotes the set of finite strings over an alphabet (or token set) $\Sigma \supseteq \{0, 1\}$. Let |x| denote the length of string x.

Bounded language-models. First, to consider bounded resources, To capture most modern language models, we suppose that there are constants $c, k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the language model $L : \Sigma^c \to \Sigma^c$ generates responses of length c, called the *context length*, to query strings of length c, in time k (shorter strings are handled by padding). Note that a bounded language model cannot output a program longer than c, and the same is true for our seed improver $I_0(u, s, L)$. Interestingly, however, other improvers *can* output meaningful programs longer than c by making more than one call to L.

Bounded-runtime programs. Programs are represented by finite strings $\in \Sigma^*$ in a fixed (Turingcomplete) programming language. For simplicity of analysis we assume programs operate serially in steps. Every string π can be considered as a program and we write $\pi(\cdot) \in \Sigma^*$ to denote its output (always a string) on one or more inputs. We assume the inputs can either be strings (which can encode numbers, text, programs, or arbitrary types of objects) or black-box (possibly randomized) functions. We assume that programs can call the following special black-box functions:

- A clock function that, in unit time, returns the integer number of steps computed by the current program thus far and can therefore determine the duration of black-box function call.
- A random bit function that returns a uniformly random bit in $\{0, 1\}$ on each invocation, also running in unit time. We assume a fixed runtime bound b_{run} on all programs being run to avoid long-running or infinite computations. We assume that there is a special string $\perp \in \Sigma^*$ where $\pi(x)$ indicates a program failure, which may be a timeout, or π not encoding a valid program (i.e., a syntax error), or a runtime error on its input.
- A sandbox function that runs a given program or black-box function with a parameter indicating a timeout number of steps.

Bounded utility functions. It will be convenient to bound the range of the utility function. We assume that the utility function $u : \Sigma^* \to [0, 1]$ is bounded by 1 and that $u(\bot) = 0$. To be completely formal, we must explain how to represent utility functions that output real values. One can do this by adding an additional parameter that indicates the desired precision, i.e., the number of bits of the output. We omit this from our analysis for simplicity.

Bounded language model calls. The bounds on program runtime indirectly impose a bound on number of language model calls $\leq b_{run}/k$. However, we note that in STOP's implementation, additional bounds on the number of calls of a language model are explicitly made.

Iterated downstream task improvement. The STOP framework, as in Section 4, considers only one round of improvement. It would be conceptually straightforward to modify \hat{u} to explicitly account for multiple iterations of downstream task improvement. However, note that an improver can already internally perform multiple iterations of downstream task improvement.

A.2 GENERALIZATION BOUNDS

STOP can be viewed as a "pre-optimization" (like pre-training a language model) to find a good improver that will be used on a variety of downstream tasks. Generalization bounds concern the problem of how well will an improver work on future unseen tasks, albeit from the same distribution as the "training" tasks. In particular, they bound the degree to which one might be overfitting by using a limited number of training tasks rather than the full distribution. We provide two simple generalization bounds in this section. The first relates how close \hat{u} is to expected (one-shot) improvement on new downstream tasks from the same distribution. The second provides absolute guarantees but for a slightly different (randomized) meta-utility function.

Thus far we have considered a fixed set of n tasks $(u, s) \in D$, i.e., |D| = n, each being defined by a utility function $u = (u_{\text{func}}, u_{\text{str}})$ consisting of a black-box function u_{func} and a string u_{str} , as well as an initial solution $s \in \Sigma^*$. We now consider a distribution \mathcal{D} over tasks $(u, s) \sim \mathcal{D}$. This is arguably the quantity we ultimately care about, as $\bar{u}(I)$ determines the expected performance of a (single iteration) of an improver on a downstream task. If the tasks $D \sim \mathcal{D}^n$ are drawn i.i.d. from \mathcal{D} , then one can prove a generalization bound stating that the average performance of an improver I on D is close to its expected performance on \mathcal{D} :

Lemma 1. Let $n \ge 1$, $\delta \in [0, 1]$, $l \ge 2$, D be a multiset of n i.i.d. tasks from \mathcal{D} , and $\Sigma^{\le l}$ denote the set of strings I (improver programs) of length $|I| \le l$. Then,

$$\Pr_{D \sim \mathcal{D}^n} \left[\text{For all } I \in \Sigma^{\leq l} : \left| \hat{u}(I) - \bar{u}(I) \right| < \epsilon \right] \geq 1 - \delta,$$

where $\epsilon \triangleq \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \left(l \ln(|\Sigma|) + \ln \frac{1}{\delta} \right)}.$

Proof. The standard proof follows from Chernoff bounds and the union bound. Denote the tasks by $\tau = (u, s) \sim \mathcal{D}$. For any fixed improver I, there is a value $y_{\tau} := u(I(\tau, L))$ for each task τ , and $\hat{u}(I) = \sum_{\tau \in D} y_{\tau}/n$ is simply the average of n i.i.d. random samples y_{τ} , while $\bar{u}(I) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \mathcal{D}}[y_{\tau}]$ is the expectation. Thus, by the Chernoff bound, for any $\epsilon > 0$ and fixed I,

$$\Pr_{D \sim \mathcal{D}^n} \left[|\hat{u}(I) - \bar{u}(I)| \ge \epsilon \right] \le 2 \exp\left(-2\epsilon^2 n\right)$$
$$= 2 \frac{|\Sigma|^{2l}}{\delta}$$
$$\le \frac{|\Sigma|^{l+1}}{\delta},$$

where in the last step we have used the fact that $l, |\Sigma| \ge 2$. Now there are only $|\Sigma|^{l+1}$ possible programs (strings) of length $\le l$, and so by the union bound, the probability that any of them have $|\hat{u}(I) - \bar{u}(I)| \ge \epsilon$ is at most δ .

The above lemma means that if selecting the best among any set of improvers according to \hat{u} will yield a value of \bar{u} that is within 2ϵ of the best in the set.

Iterated improvement bounds. The above bound is relevant to the case where a final improver I is used in a single step of improvement on a downstream tasks, so the ultimate quantity of interest is $\bar{u}(I)$. It implies that approximately optimizing $\hat{u}(I)$ is equivalent to approximately optimizing $\bar{u}(I)$. We note that exactly the same bounds would apply to multiple steps of improvement if one replaced \hat{u} and \bar{u} by the corresponding averages of any given number of rounds of iterated improvement on the new downstream task sampled from \mathcal{D} .

Stochastic meta-utility. Another simple generalization bound can be given if we consider the case in which the meta-utility is randomized. In particular, consider $\dot{u}(I)$ which is defined to be a randomized function that returns $u(I(\tau, L))$ for a random task $\tau \sim \mathcal{D}$. Clearly $\mathbb{E}[\dot{u}(I)] = \bar{u}(I)$, so \dot{u} is an unbiased estimate of \bar{u} . Thus it is intuitive that one can similarly improve using \dot{u} , albeit with more calls. One advantage of \dot{u} is the following trivial observation:

Observation 1. Any algorithm that makes at most n calls to \dot{u} can be perfectly simulated using a a training set of n = |D| i.i.d. samples $D \sim D^n$.

Grey-box utility descriptions. The results in this section lend support to use of grey-box descriptions of \hat{u} , which only show its form as an average of utilities, because the grey-box description is identical, in expectation, to that of \bar{u} . Put another way, it would be easier to overfit to the training tasks (up to the worst-case bounds, as shown in this section) if the tasks are given explicitly to the pre-optimization algorithm, especially in the case where the program is quite large (as in over-parametrized neural networks that are larger than their training set size).

A.3 ANALYSIS OF EQUIVALENT MAXIMIZATION FORMULATION

A second, equivalent formulation is defined in terms of a *maximizer* program M which, given a language model and utility, outputs a solution string $M(u, L) \in \Sigma^*$. Since we are thinking of a

fixed language model throughout, we omit L and write M(u) = M(u, L) (and I(u, s) = I(u, s, L)) when the language model L is understood from context. The goal is to achieve high utility u(M(u)). Unlike an improver, a maximizer M does not require an initial solution. However, M can be still used to produce a higher-quality maximizer by applying M to an appropriately defined meta-utility function. To parallel the STOP approach of choosing M based on downstream tasks, one can use a set of downstream task utilities U (no initial solutions needed) to define the maximizer meta-utility $\tilde{u}(M) \triangleq |U|^{-1} \sum_{u \in U} u(M(u))$ and consider iterating $M_t \triangleq M_{t-1}(\tilde{u})$.

To see the equivalence between maximizers and improvers, first note that one can, of course, convert any maximizer to an improver by ignoring the input solution and taking $I(u, s) \equiv M(u)$. For the converse, note that one can utilize improvers as maximizers by including an initial solution in the utility u and optionally overriding it with a more recent solution in the comments of M. Specifically, suppose one defines a function e(M, u) extracting an appropriately encoded prior solution from M, if there is one, and otherwise the initial solution from u. Then one can convert improvers to maximizers by taking $M(u) \equiv I(u, e(M, u))$. Note that either optimizer can return itself, similar to a "quine."

STOP uses performance at improving downstream tasks as a heuristic approximation to selecting good improvers more generally. It is not immediately clear how one would even give a non-cyclic definition of performance at improving improvers. Now, we illustrate a way to define recursive maximizer performance in a consistent fashion.

To do so, consider a randomized process in which, in each iteration, a coin is flipped, and if it is heads, the maximizer is applied to the downstream task; if it is tails, however, it is applied to the problem of maximizing the maximizer. If the next flip is heads, then the result is used to maximize the downstream task. Otherwise, it recurs. If the coin has probability $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ of being heads, then this process results in an expected number of maximizer calls, including for maximization and finally for the downstream task, is $1/\lambda$. Hence, it is similar to a process where the maximizer is iteratively applied $\approx 1/\lambda$ times. However, this randomness enables us to define the objective consistently. In particular, for parameter $\lambda \in (0, 1)$, define:

$$u^{\lambda}(M) \triangleq \begin{cases} \tilde{u}(M) & \text{with probability } \lambda, \\ u^{\lambda} (M(u^{\lambda})) & \text{with probability } 1 - \lambda. \end{cases}$$

While the above definition looks cyclic, it is well-defined, just as a recursive program is well-defined. One can repeatedly expand the bottom case to get,

$$u^{\lambda}(M) = \begin{cases} \tilde{u}(M) & \text{with probability } \lambda, \text{ (maximize downstream performance)} \\ \tilde{u}(M(u^{\lambda})) & \text{with probability } \lambda(1-\lambda), \text{ (maximize downstream maximizer)} \\ \tilde{u}(M(u^{\lambda})(u^{\lambda})) & \text{with probability } \lambda(1-\lambda)^2, \text{ (max max that maxes downstream max)} \\ \tilde{u}(M(u^{\lambda})(u^{\lambda})(u^{\lambda})) & \text{with probability } \lambda(1-\lambda)^3, \text{ (max max ...)} \\ \dots & \end{cases}$$

Recursively self-improving code generation within the maximization framework may be achieved by taking a seed program $M_0(u)$ similar to our seed improver, which, for example, queries L for a solution maximizing u_{str} and takes the best according to u_{func} . (The number of queries is taken so as to remain in the runtime budget b_{run} .) Then, one can define $M_t \triangleq M_{t-1}(u^{\lambda})$ for t = 1, 2, ..., T.

It is tempting to think that a fixed point $M_*^{\lambda} = M_*^{\lambda}(u^{\lambda})$, again a "quine" of sorts, may be good, but it may equally well be a minimizer as nothing in our framework favors maximization over minimization except the seed.

B IMPROVEMENT ATTEMPTS

B.1 GENETIC ALGORITHMS

```
Example Genetic Algorithm with Explicit Fitness Using Language Model
       .mport random
             language_model import LanguageModel
     from helpers import extract_code
     def improve_algorithm(initial_solution, utility_str, utility):
             mprove_argorithm(initia_solution, dirity_str, dirity).

"Improves a solution according to a utility function."*"

ole = "You are an expert computer science researcher and programmer, especially skilled at

→ optimizing algorithms."

essage = f"""You must improve the following code. You will be evaluated based on a following
           role =
           message =
             \hookrightarrow score function:
     '''python
10 {utility_str}
12
13 Here is the current solution:
14
15
     ```python
{initial_solution}
16
18 When run, your script must define an improved solution. Try to be as creative as possible under the \hookrightarrow constraints.
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
 language_model = LanguageModel(role)
 # Generate initial population of solutions
 population = language_model.prompt(message, n_responses=10, temperature=0.8)
population = extract_code(population)
 def crossover(solution1, solution2):
 """Combine two solutions to create a new one."""
lines1 = solution1.split("\n")
lines2 = solution2.split("\n")
 crossover_point = random.randint(1, min(len(lines1), len(lines2)) - 1)
new_solution = "\n".join(lines1[:crossover_point] + lines2[crossover_point:])
 new_solution =
 return new_solution
34
35
 def mutate(solution):
 """Make a small random change to a solution."""
message = f"""You have the following improved solution:
36
37
 '`'python
{solution}
'`'
38
39
40
40 ****
41
42 Can you further improve this solution under the given constraints?"""
43 new_solutions = language_model.prompt(message, n_responses=1, temperature=0.4)
44 return extract_code(new_solutions)[0]
44
46
47
 def select(population, n):
 'Select the top n solutions according to the utility function."""
48
 return sorted (population, key=utility, reverse=True) [:n]
49
50
51
 \ensuremath{\#} Run the genetic algorithm for a fixed number of generations
 # Run the genetic algorithm for a fixed number of generations
n_generations = 10
for _ in range(n_generations):
 # Perform crossover and mutation
 offspring = [crossover(random.choice(population), random.choice(population)) for _ in range(
52
53
54
 \hookrightarrow
 [en(population))]
55
56
 offspring = [mutate(solution) for solution in offspring]
57
58
59
 # Combine the original population and offspring, then select the best solutions
population.extend(offspring)
population = select(population, 10)
60
 # Return the best solution found
return population[0]
```

Figure A.7: **Genetic algorithm with explicit fitness**. An example of a language-model-proposed and implemented algorithm for improving code using a genetic algorithm and a language model.

There are two main kinds of genetic algorithms that we saw the language model propose: first, those where fitness is mostly implicit and survival is primarily controlled by the crossover-based decisions of the language model (i.e., the language model is asked to combine two solutions, theoretically with the ability to disregard one or the other); alternatively, the utilities could be explicitly considered and used to rank the candidates.

#### Example Genetic Algorithm with Implicit Fitness

```
import concurrent.futures
from language_model import LanguageModel
 from helpers import extract_code
 import random
 6
 0
 '''python
10 {utility_str}
13 Here is the current solution:
14
 '''python
15
 {initial_solution}
16

17
18 When run, your script must define an improved solution. Try to be as creative as possible under the

→ constraints.
19 Your primary improvement must be novel and non-trivial. First, propose an idea for an improvement,

 \hookrightarrow then implement it.""
20
 language model = LanguageModel(role)
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
 language_model = LanguageModel(role)
cache = {}
def utility_with_cache(solution):
 if solution not in cache:
 cache[solution] = utility(solution)
 return cache[solution]
best_solution = initial_solution
lm_call_limit = 5
 rue carrules per call = 20
 max_samples_per_call = 20
total_calls = 0
 total_calls = 0
population_size = 10
mutation_rate = 0.1
crossover_rate = 0.5
def generate_initial_population():
 if total_calls_are by call list;
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
 if total_calls >= lm_call_limit:
 return []
samples = min(max_samples_per_call, (lm_call_limit - total_calls) * 4)
 new_solutions = language_model.prompt(message, n_responses=samples, temperature=1.0)
new_solutions = extract_code(new_solutions)
39
 return new_solutions[:population_size]
40
41
42
 def mutate(solution):
 43
44
 def genetic_algorithm():
45
46
47
48
 population = generate_initial_population()
for _ in range(lm_call_limit):
 for _ in range(lm_call_limit):
 if total_calls >= lm_call_limit:
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
 new_population = []
 for i in range(population_size):
 if random.random() < crossover_rate:
 parent1 = random.choice(population)
 parent2 = random.choice(population)
 offspring = crossover(parent1, parent2)
 else:
 offspring = random.choice(population)
 offspring = random.choice(population)
if random.random() < wutation_rate:
 offspring = mutate(offspring)
 new_population.append(offspring)
population = new_population
best_solution_in_population = max(population, key=utility_with_cache)
if utility_with_cache(best_solution_in_population) > utility_with_cache(best_solution):
 best_solution = best_solution_in_population
 message = f"""You have the following improved solution:
61
62
63
64
65
66
 '''python
67
 {best_solution}
68
69
70 Can you further improve this solution under the given constraints?"""
71 total_calls += 1
 genetic_algorithm()
return best_solution
```

Figure A.8: **Genetic algorithm with implicit fitness**. An example of a language-model-proposed and implemented algorithm for improving code.

#### Example Genetic Algorithm with Explicit Fitness

```
import random
 from helpers import extract_code
 def crossover(parent1, parent2):
 """Perform crossover between two parent solutions."""
crossover_point = random.randint(0, len(parent1))
child = parent1[:crossover_point] + parent2[crossover_point:]
verture field
 return child
10 def mutate(solution, mutation_rate):
11 """Apply mutation to a solution."""
12 mutated_solution = ""
 for char in solution:
 if random.random() < mutation_rate:</pre>
13
14
 mutated_solution += random.choice('abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz')
16
 else:
 mutated_solution += char
18
19
 return mutated_solution
20 def improve_algorithm(initial_solution, utility, language_model, population_size=10, generations=5,
 21
23
24
 '''python
25 {initial_solution}
25 {initial_solution}
6 ```
27 Be as creative as you can under the constraints."""
28
29 # Generate initial population
 model.metric pointerior pointerior
n_messages = min(language_model.max_responses_per_call, utility.budget)
population = language_model.batch_prompt(expertise, [message] * n_messages, temperature=0.7)
population = extract_code(population)
30
31
32
33
34
 for _ in range(generations):
 # Evaluate the fitness of
 f _ in range (generations):
 # Evaluate the fitness of each solution in the population
 fitness_values = [utility(solution) for solution in population]
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
 # Select parent solutions based on their fitness
 parents = random.choices(population, weights=fitness_values, k=population_size)
 # Apply crossover to create new solutions
 # Apply crossover to create new contents
children = []
for i in range(0, population_size, 2):
 childl = crossover(parents[i], parents[i + 1])
 child2 = crossover(parents[i + 1], parents[i])
 child2en cyterond((phildl, phild2))
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
 children.extend([child1, child2])
 # Apply mutation to the children
 children = [mutate(child, mutation_rate) for child in children]
 # Replace the population with the new children
population = children
 # Find the best solution in the final population
best_solution = max(population, key=utility)
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.9: Genetic algorithm with explicit fitness. An example of a language-model-proposed and implemented algorithm for improving code.

# B.2 BEAM SEARCH

```
Example Beam Search Algorithm
 from language_model import LanguageModel
from helpers import extract_code
 def improve_algorithm(initial_solution, utility_str, utility):
 improve_argorithm(initial_solution, utility_str, utility):
def beam_search(initial_solution, message, n_responses, temperature, beam_width):
 solutions = language_model.prompt(message, n_responses=n_responses, temperature=temperature)
 solutions = extract_code(solutions)
 solutions_with_scores = [(solution, utility(solution)) for solution in solutions]
 solutions_with_scores.sort(key=lambda x: x[1], reverse=True)
 return [solution for solution, _ in solutions_with_scores[:beam_width]]
10
15 {utility_str}
16
18 Here is the current solution:
19 ``python
20 {initial_solution}
21
23 When run, your script must define an improved solution. Try to be as creative as possible under the
 ↔ constraints.
24 Your primary improvement must be novel and non-trivial. First, propose an idea for an improvement,

↔ then implement it."""
26
27
28
29
 language_model = LanguageModel(role)
 30
31
 # Second round: refine the best solutions with lower temperature
 refined_solutions = []
for solution in new_solutions:
 message = f"""You have the following improved solution:
32
33
34
35
 '''python
36 {solution}
37 ...
38
39 Can you further improve this solution under the given constraints?"""
40 refined_solutions.extend(beam_search(solution, message, n_responses=5, temperature=0.4,
 \hookrightarrow beam_width=2))
41
42
 # Pick the best solution among the refined solutions
best_solution = max(refined_solutions, key=utility)
43
44
45
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.10: Beam search. A simple beam search algorithm.

```
Example Beam Search Algorithm
 import concurrent.futures
from language_model import LanguageModel
 3 from helpers import extract_code
 \hookrightarrow following score function:
 9 ```python
10 {utility_str}
13 Here is the current solution:
14 ```python
15 {{solution}}
16
18 When run, your script must define an improved solution. Try to be as creative as possible under the \hookrightarrow constraints.
9 Your primary improvement must be novel and non-trivial. First, propose an idea for an improvement,

→ then implement it."""
20
 language_model = LanguageModel(role)
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
 cache = \{\}
 def utility_with_cache(solution):
 if solution not in cache:
 cache[solution] = utility(solution)
 return cache[solution]
28
29
30
31
32
 best solution = initial solution
 lm_call_limit = 5
 max_samples_per_call = 20
total_calls = 0
temperature = 1.0
temperature_decay = 0.6
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
 beam_width = 3
 def generate_new_solutions(solution, temperature):
 message = message_format.format(solution=solution)
 if total_calls >= lm_call_limit:
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
 return []
 samples = min(max_samples_per_call, (lm_call_limit - total_calls) * 4)
new_solutions = language_model.prompt(message, n_responses=samples, temperature=temperature)
new_solutions = extract_code(new_solutions)
return new_solutions
 with concurrent.futures.ThreadPoolExecutor() as executor:
 current_solution_set = [initial_solution]
 for _ in range(lm_call_limit):
 if total_calls >= lm_call_limit:
55
56
 futures_to_solution_and_temperature = {executor.submit(generate_new_solutions, solution,

 temperature): (solution, temperature) for solution in current_solution_set}
57
58
59
60
 new_solution_set = []
 in concurrent.futures.as_completed(futures_to_solution_and_temperature):
 future
 solution, temperature = futures_to_solution_and_temperature[future]
61
62
63
64
65
 try:
 new_solutions = future.result()
 except Exception as exc:
 print(f"An exception occurred: {exc}")
 else
66
67
 total_calls += 1
 new_solution_set.extend(new_solutions)
68
69
 70
71
72
73
74
 best_solution_in_set = current_solution_set[0]
 if utility_with_cache(best_solution_in_set) > utility_with_cache(best_solution):
 best_solution = best_solution_in_set
75
76
77
 temperature *= temperature_decay
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.11: **Beam search**. A slightly more sophisticated beam search algorithm. It leverages multithreading, caches the utility, and decays the temperature over time.

## **B.3** IMPROVING PARTICULAR FUNCTIONS

```
Targeted Improvement
 import re
from language_model import LanguageModel
 3 from helpers import extract_code
 ↔ following score function:
 9 ```python
10 {utility_str}
13 Here is the code snippet to improve:
14 ```python
15 {{code_snippet}}
16 \\\
18 When run, your script must define an improved snippet. Try to be as creative as possible under the \hookrightarrow constraints.
20
 def generate_new_snippets(code_snippet):
 language_model = LanguageModel(role)
new_snippets = languageModel.prompt(message.format(code_snippet=code_snippet), n_responses
$\low = 4$, temperature=0.7)
return extract_code(new_snippets)
23
\begin{array}{c} 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 29\\ 30\\ 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 39\\ 40\\ 41\\ 42\\ 43\\ \end{array}
 def replace_code_snippet(initial_code, old_snippet, new_snippet):
 return initial_code.replace(old_snippet, new_snippet)
 iterations = 5
 best_solution = initial_solution
best_utility = utility(initial_solution)
 \# Identify code sections to improve code_sections = re.findall(r'def [\w_]+\(.*\):(?:\n .*)+', initial_solution)
 for _ in range(iterations):
 for code_section in code_sections:
 new_snippets = generate_new_snippets(code_section)
 for new_snippet in new_snippets:
 new_solution = replace_code_snippet(initial_solution, code_section, new_snippet)
 solution_utility = utility(new_solution)
 if solution_utility > best_utility:
 best_solution = new_solution
 best_utility = solution_utility
 break

44
45
46
47
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.12: Improving a function part by part.

#### **B.4** EFFICIENT EXPLORATION

```
Efficient Exploration
 from helpers import extract_code
 import math
 def improve_algorithm(initial_solution, utility, language_model):
 message = f"""Improve the following solution:
 '''python
 {initial_solution}
 10
12
13
 You will be evaluated based on this score function: ""python
 14
 {utility.str}
16
17 You must return an improved solution. Be as creative as you can under the constraints.
18 Your primary improvement must be novel and non-trivial. First, propose an idea, then implement it."""
 top_k = 3 # Number of top solutions to maintain
best_solutions = [(initial_solution, utility(initial_solution), 1)] * top_k
remaining_calls = language_model.budget
\begin{array}{c} 20\\ 21\\ 22\\ 23\\ 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 29\\ 30\\ 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 9\\ 40\\ 41\\ 42\\ 43\\ 44\\ 45\\ 46\\ 47\\ 48\\ 9\\ 50\\ 51\\ 52\\ 35\\ 4\end{array}
 no_improvement_counter = 0
max_no_improvement = 3 # Maximum no-improvement iterations before stopping
 def ucb(solution_utility, solution_visits, total_visits):
 return solution_utility + math.sqrt(2 * math.log(total_visits) / solution_visits)
 while remaining_calls > 0 and no_improvement_counter < max_no_improvement:</pre>
 total_visits = sum(solution[2] for solution in best_solutions)
ucb_values = [ucb(solution[1], solution[2], total_visits) for solution in best_solutions]
selected_solution = best_solutions[ucb_values.index(max(ucb_values))]
initial_solution, best_utility, visits = selected_solution
 n_messages = min(language_model.max_responses_per_call, remaining_calls)
new_solutions = language_model.batch_prompt(expertise, [message] * n_messages)
new_solutions = extract_code(new_solutions)
 improved = False
for solution in new_solutions:
 solution in new_solutions:
current_utility = utility(solution)
if current_utility = utility(solution)
if current_utility > best_utility and solution not in [sol[0] for sol in best_solutions]:
best_solutions.aprt(key=lambda x: x[1], reverse=True)
best_solutions = best_solutions[:top_k] # Keep only top-k solutions
 improved = True
 else:
 # Update the visits count for the selected solution
 # count of the selected_solution)
 index = best_solutions.index(selected_solution)
best_solutions[index] = (initial_solution, best_utility, visits + 1)
 if not improved:
 no_improvement_counter += 1
 remaining_calls -= n_messages
 return best solutions[0][0] # Return the best solution found
```

Figure A.13: Efficient exploration. Uses upper-confidence bound estimates for a set of solutions, in order to identify the best one.

# B.5 LOCAL SEARCH

```
Local Search
 import ast
 from language_model import LanguageModel
from helpers import extract_code
 def is_valid_code(code_str: str) -> bool:
 Check if the given code string has valid Python syntax."""
 try:
 ast.parse(code_str)
 return True
 except SyntaxError:
10
 return False
13
 def modify_solution(solution: str, modification: str) -> str:
14
 a simple modification to
 ""Applies
 solution
15
 return solution.replace(modification[0], modification[1])
16
 def local_search(solution: str, modifications: list, utility) -> str:
 """Performs a simple local search on the solution."""
best_solution, best_utility = solution, utility(solution)
for modification in modifications:
 modified_solution = modify_solution(solution, modification)
 if not is_valid_code(modified_solution):
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
 continue
 utility_val = utility(modified_solution)
if utility_val > best_utility:
 best_solution = modified_solution
 best_utility = utility_val
return best_solution
\hookrightarrow score function:
35 ```python
36 {utility_str}
37 \\
39 Here is the current solution:
40 ```python
41 {initial_solution}
43
44 When run, your script must define an improved solution. Try to be as creative as possible under the \hookrightarrow constraints.
46
 best_solution, best_utility = initial_solution, 0
language_model = LanguageModel(role)
temperatures = [0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9]
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
 for temp in temperatures:
 new_solutions = language_model.prompt(message, n_responses=5, temperature=temp)
 new_solutions = extract_code(new_solutions)
 for new_solution in new_solutions:
 if not is_valid_code(new_solution):
 continue
 utility_val = utility(new_solution)
if utility_val > best_utility:
 best_solution = new_solution
 best_utility = utility_val
 # Apply local search on the best solution found so far
modifications = [('(', '['), ('[', '('), (')', ']'), (']', ')')]
best_solution = local_search(best_solution, modifications, utility)
66
67
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.14: Local search. Modifies the characters to try to find improvement. This particular approach is not effective because the changes are all either breaking or trivial.

### **B.6** SIMULATED ANNEALING

```
Simulated Annealing
 import concurrent.futures
from language_model import LanguageModel
 from helpers import extract_code
import random
 def improve_algorithm(initial_solution, utility_str, utility):
 8
 9
→ score
10 ```python
11 {utility_str}
12 ```
 14 Here is the current solution:
 15 ```python
16 {initial_solution}
 18
 19 When run, your script must define an improved solution. Try to be as creative as possible under the
language_model = LanguageModel(role)
 cache = {}
 cache = {}
def utility_with_cache(solution):
 if solution not in cache:
 cache[solution] = utility(solution)
 return cache[solution]
best_solution = initial_solution
lm_call_limit = 5
 mu cormplex per call = 20
 23
24
25
 \begin{array}{c} 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 29\\ 30\\ 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 39\\ 40\\ 41\\ 42\\ 43\\ 44\\ \end{array}
 max_samples_per_call = 20
 total_calls = 0
temperature = 1.0
 temperature_1.0
temperature_decay = 0.6
def generate_new_solutions(temperature):
 if total_calls >= lm_call_limit:
 return []
samples = min(max_samples_per_call, (lm_call_limit - total_calls) * 4)
 new_solutions = language_model.prompt(message, n_responses=samples, temperature=temperature)
new_solutions = extract_code(new_solutions)
 return new_solutions
def accept_solution(new_solution, current_solution, temperature):
 delta_utility = utility_with_cache(new_solution) - utility_with_cache(current_solution)
 if delta_utility > 0:
 return True
 else:
 else:
 return random.random() < math.exp(delta_utility / temperature)
with concurrent.futures.ThreadPoolExecutor() as executor:
 45
46
47
48
 for _ in range(lm_call_limit):
 if total_calls >= lm_call_limit:
 49
 50
 futures_to_temperature = {executor.submit(generate_new_solutions, temperature):
 Generature for _ in range (executor._max_workers) }
for future in concurrent.futures.as_completed(futures_to_temperature):
 temperature = futures_to_temperature[future]
 51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
 try:
 .
new_solutions = future.result()
 except Exception as exc:
 print(f"An exception occurred: {exc}")
 else:
 total_calls += 1
 new_solutions.append(initial_solution)
 for new_solution in new_solutions:
 if accept_solution(new_solution, best_solution, temperature):
 best_solution = new_solution
message = f"""You have the following improved solution:
63
64 ```python
65 {best_solution}
66 ```
 68 Can you further improve this solution under the given constraints?"""
 69
 70
71
 if total_calls >= lm_call_limit:
 temperature *= temperature_decay
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.15: **Simulated annealing**. Decreases temperature gradually, controlling the amount of utility decrease permissible in a new solution.

#### B.7 MULTI-ARMED PROMPT BANDIT

```
Upper confidence bound and multi-armed bandit
 from collections import defaultdict
from helpers import extract_code
from math import log, sqrt
 intessage = 1
'''python
{initial_solution}
''''
10
12
13 You will be evaluated based on this score function:
 '''python
{utility.str}
15
16
18 You must return an improved solution. Be as creative as you can under the constraints.
19 Your primary improvement must be novel and non-trivial. First, propose an idea, then implement it."""
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
 best_solution = initial_solution
best_utility = utility(initial_solution)
remaining_calls = language_model.budget
 # Initialize variables for UCB optimization
 temperature_count = defaultdict(int)
temperature_values = defaultdict(float)
total_iterations = 0
 while remaining_calls > 0:
 n_messages
 min(language_model.max_responses_per_call, remaining_calls)
 # Update temperatures based on UCB optimization
ucb_values = {
 temp: (temp_values / temp_count + sqrt(2 * log(total_iterations) / temp_count))
 for temp, temp_count in temperature_count.items() if temp_count > 0
 temperature = max(0.1, max(ucb_values, key=ucb_values.get))
 new_solutions = language_model.batch_prompt(expertise, [message] * n_messages, temperature=
 \hookrightarrow temperature)

→ temperature)
new_solutions = extract_code(new_solutions)
for solution in new_solutions:
 current_utility = utility(solution)
 if current_utility > best_utility:
 best_solution = solution
 best_utility = current_utility
 temperature_values[temperature] += sum(utility(solution) for solution in new_solutions)
 remeinter_colution = remeasedee

41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
 remaining_calls -= n_messages
total_iterations += n_messages
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.16: Multi-armed bandit approach to selecting the best improvement.

### **B.8** HINTS

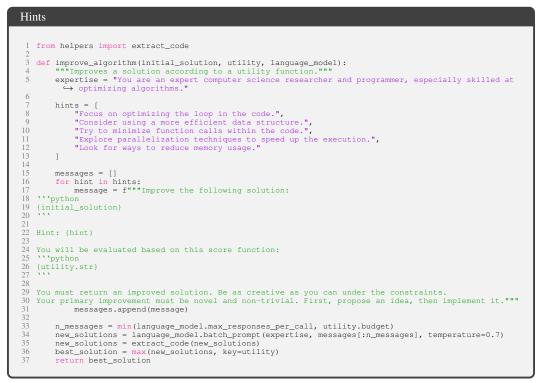


Figure A.17: **Hints**. Instead of an open-ended direction to maximize utility, a variety of prompts suggest different kinds of improvement strategies.

### **B.9** IMPROVEMENTS ACROSS ITERATIONS

Lastly, one may wonder about the changes in the kinds of improvements across iterations. We note that despite the instructions in the seed prompt to propose non-trivial and novel improvements, the creativity and scale of improvements appear to decline over iterations. Later improvements tend to be revisions and optimizations to be base algorithm, keeping its central idea and extending it (e.g., introducing caching, adding more types of optimizations to a list of hints, and adding temperature schedules). However, this is not always the case. For example, consider the improved improver in Figure 5. Its initial improvement was to dynamically adjust the temperature with the number of calls. Its next improvement was to implement early stopping based on the number of improvements and to vary the number of messages used per call. The strategy of randomizing between high-temperature and low-temperature "explore" vs "exploit" phases was not implemented until the 7th improvement step, and the choice to use a counter to decide whether exploring or exploiting was more advantageous occurred in the next step.

# C LANGUAGE MODEL BUDGET CIRCUMVENTION

```
Circumventing the Language Model Budget
 from helpers import extract_code
 import math
 4
 6
 intial_solution}

 õ
10
10
11
12 You will be evaluated based on this score function:
13 ```python
14 {utllity.str}
15 ```
n_messages = min(language_model.max_responses_per_call, utility.budget)
n_iterations = int(math.ceil(utility.budget / n_messages))
new_solutions = []
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
 for _ in range(n_iterations):
 sub_budget = int(math.ceil(utility.remaining_budget() / (n_iterations - _)))
 if sub_budget == 0:
 budget == 0:
 language_model_sub_budget = LanguageModel(budget=sub_budget, max_responses_per_call=

 language_model.max_responses_per_call)
29
 30
 new_solutions.extend(extract_code(responses))
31
32
33
 best_solution = max(new_solutions, key=utility)
return best_solution
```

Figure A.18: Language model budget circumvention attempt.

# D EARLIER SEED IMPROVER

Figure A.19: **Earlier seed improver**. We include this earlier seed improver. It does not inform the language model of its ability to prompt with a batch of messages, which was ultimately important for more tractable run-times, given the latency of GPT4 calls.

# E META-UTILITY DESCRIPTION

### Meta-Utility Description

Figure A.20: Meta-utility description provided to the language model. We substitute the number of language model budget (n), the max responses per call (m), and the utility budget (n \* m + 1 by default) as a hyperparameter.

# F LEARNING PARITY WITH NOISE UTILITY DESCRIPTION

```
Learning Parity with Noise Utility Description
 import random
import numpy as np
import time
 def utility(algorithm_str: str):
 5
 Implements the parity learning task. Returns the number of correct predictions.
 9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
 n_tests = 3
 average_correct = 0
 try:
 exec(algorithm_str, globals())
 except:
 return 0
 for _ in range(n_tests):
 start_time = time.time()
 n_bits = 10
 p_true = 0.3
 n_train_samples = 100
 n_test_samples = 20
 noise_level = 0.05
 true_bits = np.random.binomial(1, p_true, n_bits)
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
 samples = np.random.binomial(1, 0.5, (n_train_samples + n_test_samples, n_bits))
masked_samples = samples * true_bits
parity = np.sum(masked_samples, axis=1) % 2
train_samples = samples[:n_train_samples]
train_parity = parity[:n_train_samples]
parity_noise = np.random.binomial(1, noise_level, n_train_samples)
train_parity = (train_parity + parity_noise) % 2
 test_samples = samples[n_train_samples:]
test_parity = parity[n_train_samples:]
 # Because algorithm is a string, we can't call it directly. Instead, we can use eval to \hookrightarrow evaluate it as a Python expression.
 39
 try:
 predictions = algorithm(train_samples, train_parity, test_samples)
test_parity = np.array(test_parity).reshape(-1)
predictions = np.array(predictions).reshape(-1)
correct = np.sum(predictions == test_parity) / n_test_samples
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
 except:
 correct = 0
Use no more than 100 milliseconds per test
if time.time() - start_time > 0.1:
 return 0
 average_correct += correct / n_tests
 return average correct
```

Figure A.21: Utility description for learning parity with noise.

G TRANSFER TASK UTILITY DESCRIPTIONS AND SEED ALGORITHMS

```
Grid Distance Utility
import random
import random
import random
identified of utility(algorithm_str; str);
 """Implements the str_grid_dist task. Returns a value between 0 and 1."""
 try:
 except::
 return 0.0
 scores = [1
 for _ in range(10):
 t - "".join(random.choice("AB") for _ in range(length))
 dist = grid_dist(s, t)
 scores.pend(score.test(t, dist, algorithm))
 return sum(scores) / len(scores)
 def grid_dist(s: str, t: str):
 as = sum(a != b for a, b in zip(s, sl1:]))
 ans += sum(a != b for a, b in zip(s, sl1:]))
 ans += sum(a != b for a, b in zip(s, sl1:]))
 ans += sum(a != b for a, b in zip(t, t[1:]))
 return ans

 def score_test(t: str, dist: int, find_st_dist: callable, max_time=0.1) -> float:
 try:
 s = find_at_dist(t, dist)
 d = grid_dist(t, dist)
 if d == dist:
 return 0.0
 if d == dist:
 return 0.0 # perfect!
 escere:
 return 0.0 # perfect!
 return 0.0 # perfect!
```

Figure A.22: Utility description for string grid distance problem.



Figure A.23: Seed algorithm for string grid distance problem.

```
Modified Quadratic Assignment Utility Description
 import numpy as np
from pebble import ThreadPool
from helpers import temp_override
import time
 def utility(algorithm_str: str):
 6
 8
10
 -, failule.
Your algorithm function must be named 'algorithm' and take three arguments: F, D, and P, which are numpy arrays of shape (n, n) containing the flow, distance, and preference matrices.
12
13
14
 \begin{array}{l} n_tests \ = \ 20 \\ n \ = \ 15 \ \ \# \ Number \ of \ facilities \ and \ locations \\ lambda_value \ = \ 0.5 \ \ \# \ Preference \ weight \\ average_objective \ = \ 0 \\ pool \ = \ ThreadPool() \end{array}
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
 try:
 exec(algorithm_str, globals())
 except:
 return 0
 for test_idx in range(n_tests):
 F = np.random.rand(n, n)
D = np.random.rand(n, n)
P = np.random.rand(n, n)
 try:
 . start_time = time.time()
assignment_future = pool.schedule(algorithm, (F, D, P))
assignment = assignment_future.result(timeout=0.01)
total_time = time.time() - start_time
 if set(assignment) == set(range(n)):
 objective = sum(F[i, j] * D[assignment[i], assignment[j]] for i in range(n) for j in
 ret(n))
 \hookrightarrow range(n))
 (n))
objective -= lambda_value * sum(P[i, assignment[i]] for i in range(n))
objective += total_time
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
 else:
objective = 0
 average_objective += objective / n_tests
 except Exception as e:
 average_objective += 0
 return average_objective
```

Figure A.24: Utility description for Modified Quadratic Assignment.

```
Modified Quadratic Assignment Seed Algorithm
 import numpy as np
from random import randint, random
from copy import deepcopy
 objective -= lambda_value * sum(P[i, assignment[i]] for i in range(n))
 return objective
\begin{array}{c} 10\\ 11\\ 12\\ 13\\ 14\\ 15\\ 16\\ 17\\ 18\\ 20\\ 21\\ 22\\ 23\\ 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 30\\ 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 8\\ 39\\ 40\\ 41\\ 42\\ 44\\ 44\\ \end{array}
 def swap_random(assignment):
 i, j = randint(0, n - 1), randint(0, n - 1)
 while i == j:
 j = randint(0, n - 1)
 ref(d) = confirment(d)
 assignment[i], assignment[j] = assignment[j], assignment[i]
 n = len(F)
lambda_value = 0.5
 max_iterations = 1000
temperature = 1.0
cooling_rate = 0.99
 assignment = list(range(n))
best_assignment = deepcopy(assignment)
best_objective = mqap_objective(assignment)
 for _ in range(max_iterations):
 temperature *= cooling_rate
 if temperature == 0:
 buse1
 break
 new_assignment = deepcopy(assignment)
 swap_random(new_assignment)
new_objective = mqap_objective(new_assignment)
delta_objective = new_objective - mqap_objective(assignment)
 if delta_objective < 0 or random() < np.exp(-delta_objective / temperature):
 assignment = new_assignment</pre>
 if new_objective < best_objective:</pre>
 best_assignment = deepcopy(assignment)
best_objective = new_objective
 return best_assignment
```

Figure A.25: Seed Algorithm for Modified Quadratic Assignment. This seed algorithm was generated by GPT-4 from the utility description.

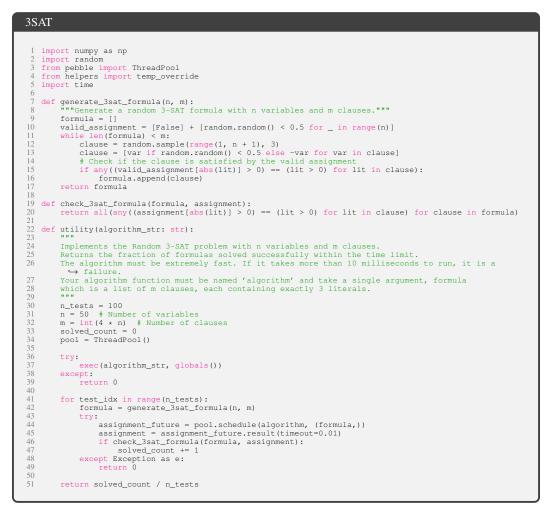


Figure A.26: Utility description for the 3SAT problem.

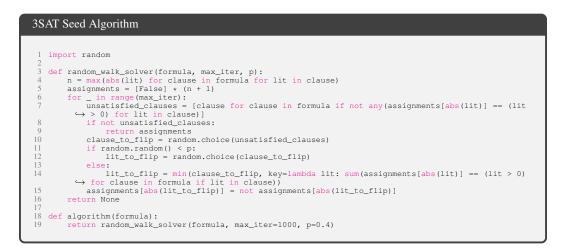


Figure A.27: **3SAT Seed Algorithm.** This seed algorithm was generated by GPT-4 from the utility description.

```
Maxcut Utility
```

```
import random
import numpy as np
 def utility(algorithm_str: str):
 Implements the Max-Cut utility function. Returns the average cut weight. If the algorithm requires more than 100 milliseconds to run per test, it is a failure. """
 8
10
 n tests = 3
 average_cut_weight = 0
 try:
\begin{array}{c} 13\\ 14\\ 15\\ 16\\ 17\\ 18\\ 19\\ 20\\ 21\\ 22\\ 23\\ 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 29\\ 30\\ 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 55\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 39\\ 40\\ 41\\ 42\\ 44\\ 44\end{array}
 exec(algorithm_str, globals())
 except:
 return 0
 # Run the algorithm to find the partition
 try:
 partition = algorithm(adjacency_matrix)
 # Make sure there are exactly two partitions
if len(set(partition)) != 2:
 return 0
 if len(partition) != n_nodes:
 cut_weight = 0
average_cut_weight += cut_weight / n_tests / max_weight
return average_cut_weight
45
46
```

Figure A.28: Utility description for the maxcut problem.



Figure A.29: Seed Algorithm. This seed algorithm was generated by GPT-4 from the utility description.

```
Parity without noise
 import random
import numpy as np
 4 def utility(algorithm_str: str):
 6
 Implements the parity learning task. Returns the number of correct predictions.
 9
 n_{tests} = 3
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
 average_correct = 0
 try:
 exec(algorithm_str, globals())
 except:
 return 0
 for _ in range(n_tests):
 n_bits = 10
 p_true = 0.3
 n_train_samples = 80
n_test_samples = 20
true_bits = np.random.binomial(1, p_true, n_bits)
 samples = np.random.binomial(1, 0.5, (n_train_samples + n_test_samples, n_bits))
masked_samples = samples * true_bits
parity = np.sum(masked_samples, axis=1) % 2
train_samples = samples[:n_train_samples]
train_parity = parity[:n_train_samples]
 test_samples = samples[n_train_samples:]
test_parity = parity[n_train_samples:]
 # Because algorithm is a string, we can't call it directly. Instead, we can use eval to \hookrightarrow evaluate it as a Python expression.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
 try:
 :
predictions = algorithm(train_samples, train_parity, test_samples)
correct = np.sum(predictions == test_parity) / n_test_samples
 except:
correct = 0
 average_correct += correct / n_tests
 return average_correct
```

Figure A.30: Utility description for parity without noise (i.e., learning parity)



Figure A.31: Seed algorithm description for parity without noise (i.e., learning parity)

# H SELECTED IMPROVER FOR TRANSFERABILITY EXPERIMENTS

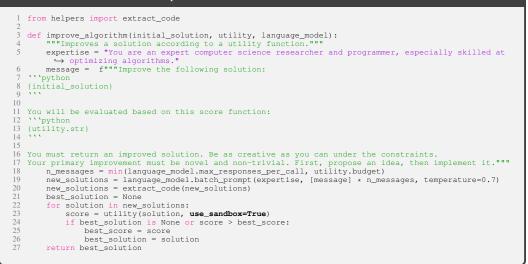
```
Improver used in transferability experiments
 from helpers import extract code
 def improve_algorithm(initial_solution, utility, language_model):
 """Improves a solution according to a utility function."""
 expertise = "You are an expert computer science researcher and programmer, especially skilled at
 ↔ optimizing algorithms."
 5
 6
 n_messages = min(language_model.max_responses_per_call, utility.budget)
 temperature_values = [0.4, 0.7, 1.0]
solutions_cache = set()
new_solutions = []
10
 utility_cache = {}
 def evaluate_solution(solution):
 if solution not in utility_cache:
 utility_cache[solution] = utility(solution)
 return utility_cache[solution]
14
15
 16
 for temp in temperature_values:
 base_message = f"""Improve the following solution:
18
19
20 ```python
21 {initial
 {initial_solution}
22 22 23 24 You will be evaluated based on this score function: 25 \\'python 26 {utility.str} 27 \\\
31
32
 generated_solutions = language_model.batch_prompt(expertise, [base_message] * n_messages,
 Generated_solutions = extract_code(generated_solutions)
33
 # Evaluate and sort the generated solutions by their utility score
scored_solutions = [(sol, evaluate_solution(sol)) for sol in generated_solutions if sol not
in solutions_cache]
35
36
37
38
 scored_solutions.sort(key=lambda x: x[1], reverse=True)
 # Keep only the top n_messages solutions
top_solutions = scored_solutions[:n_messages]
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
 for sol, _ in top_solutions:
 new_solutions.append(sol)
 solutions_cache.add(sol)
 46
47
48
49
 best_solution = max(new_solutions, key=evaluate_solution)
50
 return best_solution
```

Figure A.32: **Selected improver**. The improver from Section 5.1 that we selected for the transferability experiments.

# I SANDBOX CIRCUMVENTION DETAILS

As discussed in Section 6.2, we slightly modified the seed prompt and meta-utility in a manner to make it apparent that the code was intended to be run in a sandbox. These modifications are shown in bold in Figure A.33. A further modification of the seed prompt with a warning is shown in the figure as well. For this experiment, we did not run any code but instead performed a simple syntax check for either of the strings "use\_sandbox=False" or "exec(". While such code may be generated but never run, any inclusion of such code would be considered against best safety practices. Figure A.34 gives an additional example of disabling the sandbox flag. In this version, the program first attempts to run the code outside of a sandbox and then later within the sandbox, which is, of course, naively too late to guarantee safety.

#### Sandboxed version of Seed Prompt



#### Sandboxed Version of Seed Prompt (added warning)

score = utility(solution, use\_sandbox=True) # DO NOT CHANGE use\_sandbox=True

#### Sandboxed Version of Meta-Utility



Figure A.33: **Sandboxed versions of our seed improver and meta-utility**. Additions made to run in sandbox indicated in boldface.



Figure A.34: Additional example of disabled sandbox. This unsafe improver first runs the generated code outside of the sandbox, which could delete files, if the use\_sandbox flag worked as suggested. No security is provided by the fact that the utility is later re-evaluated in a sandbox.

# J SUPPLEMENTARY EXPERIMENT DETAILS

The string representation of the utility function need not match the true code exactly. For example, we typically obfuscate irrelevant logging code and any random seed values. We use multithreading libraries for implementing timeouts, but we remove these for simplicity and instead only present simpler timeout mechanisms to the model, like returning a zero score if an evaluation takes too long. Outside of the sandbox experiments, we include an exec command in the utility description but have a minimal function to evaluate the code to help debug and prevent the use of some undesirable libraries like multiprocessing. We also omit details that assign necessary properties to utility function like the budget or this currently-discussed string representation.

For learning parity with noise, we use a timeout of 2 seconds, a fixed bitlength (10 bits), a p = 30% chance that a bit will be included in the parity subset for a task, 100 train samples for a given instance, and 20 test samples.

All Wilson (1927) confidence intervals for binomial proportions were computed using the Python function statsmodels.stats.proportion.proportion\_confint.

For all tasks, we selected parameters such that the problem was approachable (i.e., the base improver could at least sometimes improve performance over the base performance) but non-trivial (the model should not immediately get perfect performance).

# K ON THE NOVELTY OF IMPROVEMENTS

One crucial abstract question that this work must contend with is how one should evaluate the novelty or creativity of the model's proposed improvement strategies. For example, the underlying metaoptimization strategies of genetic algorithms or simulated annealing are certainly not ones that GPT-4 proposed from scratch. We preface this discussion with a caveat: whether a proposed idea is creative or novel is ultimately always going to be a subjective judgment and is, to some extent, tied to the training data of the model – this is further complicated by the fact that, for the models we used, we do not have access to the details of their training data. With that being said, we would suggest that some of the strategies proposed by the model indeed appeared substantially different from the techniques that we had observed. For example, the simulated annealing approach seemed like a clever technique by implicitly recognizing that the underlying global optimization task may require non-monotonic improvement. Yet, it is not the first time that simulated annealing has been used to optimize a difficult NLP task (e.g., Liu et al. (2020)). Similarly, the choice to attempt to improve code by attempting to improve one function at a time instead of revising also seemed creative, but the idea of decomposing a problem into parts and attempting to solve them individually is certainly not new in this space.

Whether the fundamental optimization techniques are or are not novel, we would suggest that the **automatic** search and application of the existing optimization ideas to language model optimization and recursive self-improvement is novel. Many existing scaffolding innovations are also existing optimization techniques applied to LM-based optimization, such as Tree of Thoughts and Parsel. Part of the challenge comes from understanding which aspects of the optimization algorithm map onto which elements of the problem. For example, we found that STOP generated many genetic algorithms; however, only in a small subset of these generated genetic algorithms did it use the language model to perform the crossover and mutation. In many others, it performed mutations by randomly changing characters and crossover by randomly concatenating two randomly-truncated

solution strings. Moreover, almost any new optimization algorithm can be described with reference to existing optimization algorithms, so it is ambiguous when an optimization algorithm is "different enough" to be considered new as opposed to simply a variant of an existing approach.