## Al from generated data

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## Mathematics as a translation task

- Train models to translate problems, encoded as sentences in some language, into their solutions
- Numeric to numeric 7+9 => 16
- Symbolic to numeric

$$
x^{2}-x-1=>\quad \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}, \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}
$$

- Symbolic to symbolic
$x^{2}-x-1=>\quad 2 x-1$
- Numeric to symbolic

$$
1,1,2,3,5,8 \ldots=>\quad u_{n}=u_{n-1}+u_{n-2}
$$

## Maths as translation: learning GCD

- Generate pairs of integers ( $a, b$ ), compute their GCD: e.g. $a=10, b=32$, $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=2$
- Repeat to build a large supervised training set
- Integers can be represented as sequences of digits in base 10
- 10: '+', '1’, '0’
- 32: ‘+', ‘3’, '2’
- 2: '+', '2'
- Train a model to translate '+', '1', '0', '+', '3', '2' into '+', '2'
- From the generated examples only
- As a "pure language" problem: the model knows no maths


## This works!

- Symbolic integration / Solving ODE:
- Deep learning for symbolic mathematics (2020): Lample \& Charton (ArXiv 1912.01412)
https://arxiv.org/abs/1912.01412
- Dynamical systems:
- Learning advanced computations from examples (2021) : Charton, Hayat \& Lample (ArXiv 2006.06462)
- Discovering Lyapunov functions with transformers (2023) : Alfarano, Charton, Hayat (3rd MATH\&AI workshop, NeurIPS)
- Symbolic regression:
- Deep symbolic regression for recurrent sequences (2022) : d’Ascoli, Kamienny, Lample, Charton (ArXiv 2201.04600)
- End-to-end symbolic regression with transformers (2022) : Kamienny, d’Ascoli, Lample, Charton (ArXiv 2204.10532)
- Cryptanalysis of post-quantum cryptography:
- SALSA: attacking lattice cryptography with transformers (2022): Wenger, Chen, Charton, Lauter (ArXiv 2207.04785)
- SALSA PICANTE (2023) Li, Sotakova, Wenger, Mahlou, Garcelon, Charton, Lauter (ArXiv 2303.0478)
- SALSA VERDE (2023) Li, Wenger, Zhu, Charton, Lauter (ArXiv 2306.11641)
- Theoretical physics
- Transformers for scattering amplitudes (2023): Merz, Cai, Charton, Nolte, Wilhelm, Cranmer, Dixon (ML4PS Workshop, NeurIPS)
- Quantum computing
- Using transformer to simplify ZX diagrams (2023) (3rd MATH\&AI Workshop, NeurIPS)


## Mathematics as a translation task

## Three steps

I. Generate large sets of problems and solutions
II. Represent problems and solutions as sequences
III. Train transformers to translate problems into solutions

## Mathematics as a translation task

- Models trained from generated data allow for datasets as large as one wishes
- What is the impact of data generation on learning?
- An important question for LLM for physics


## Deep learning for symbolic mathematics

- Undergrad maths: compute symbolic integrals

$$
\frac{\cos (2 x)}{\sin (x)} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \frac{\log (\cos (x)-1)}{2}-\frac{\log (\cos (x)+1)}{2}+2 \cos (x)
$$

- Generate data: pairs ( $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{F}$ ) of functions and their integral
- Encode as sequences of symbols
- Train a transformer to predict F from $f$


## Two methods for data generation

- Forward
- Generate a random function f
- Compute its integral F
- Only for problems you know how to solve
- Slow
- Backward
- Generate a random function F
- Compute its derivative $f$


## Training models

- 6-layer encoder-decoder transformers with 256 dimensions and 8 attention heads
- The model is trained on generated data ( $20-40 \mathrm{M}$ examples)
- Supervised learning, minimizing cross-entropy
- A pure language task: the model has no understanding of maths
- Tested on held-out data (i.e. not seen during training)
- Solutions are verified with an external tool (SymPy)
- Using problem-related mathematical metrics


## In-domain results

- Performance on held-out test sets with the same distribution as training
- Almost $100 \%$ no matter the generation procedure
- Outperforms best computer algebras

|  | Integration (FWD) | Integration (BWD) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Beam size 1 | 93.6 | 98.4 |
| Beam size 10 | 95.6 | 99.4 |
| Beam size 50 | 96.2 | 99.7 |


|  | Integration (BWD) |
| :--- | :---: |
| Mathematica (30s) | 84.0 |
| Matlab | 65.2 |
| Maple | 67.4 |

## Out-of-distribution results

- Models trained on FWD do not generalize to BWD

|  | Forward (FWD) |  |  | Backward (BWD) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Training data | Beam 1 | Beam 10 | Beam 50 | Beam 1 | Beam 10 | Beam 50 |
| FWD | 93.6 | 95.6 | 96.2 | 10.9 | 13.9 | 17.2 |
| BWD | 18.9 | 24.6 | 27.5 | 98.4 | 99.4 | 99.7 |

- Why?


## Generating data

Functions and their primitives generated with the forward approach (FWD)

$$
\begin{array}{c|c}
\cos ^{-1}(x) & x \cos ^{-1}(x)-\sqrt{1-x^{2}} \\
x(2 x+\cos (2 x)) & \frac{2 x^{3}}{3}+\frac{x \sin (2 x)}{2}+\frac{\cos (2 x)}{4} \\
\frac{x(x+4)}{x+2} & \frac{x^{2}}{2}+2 x-4 \log (x+2) \\
\frac{\cos (2 x)}{\sin (x)} & \frac{\log (\cos (x)-1)}{2}-\frac{\log (\cos (x)+1)}{2}+2 \cos (x) \\
3 x^{2} \sinh ^{-1}(2 x) & x^{3} \sinh ^{-1}(2 x)-\frac{x^{2} \sqrt{4 x^{2}+1}}{6}+\frac{\sqrt{4 x^{2}+1}}{12} \\
x^{3} \log \left(x^{2}\right)^{4} & \frac{x^{4} \log \left(x^{2}\right)^{4}}{4}-\frac{x^{4} \log \left(x^{2}\right)^{3}}{2}+\frac{3 x^{4} \log \left(x^{2}\right)^{2}}{4}-\frac{3 x^{4} \log \left(x^{2}\right)}{4}+\frac{3 x^{4}}{8}
\end{array}
$$

## Generating data

Functions and their primitives generated with the backward approach (BWD)

$$
\begin{array}{c|c}
\cos (x)+\tan ^{2}(x)+2 & x+\sin (x)+\tan (x \\
\frac{1}{x^{2} \sqrt{x-1} \sqrt{x+1}} & \frac{\sqrt{x-1} \sqrt{x+1}}{x} \\
\left(\frac{2 x}{\cos ^{2}(x)}+\tan (x)\right) \tan (x) & x \tan ^{2}(x) \\
\frac{x \tan \left(\frac{e^{x}}{x}\right)+\frac{(x-1) e^{x}}{\cos ^{2}\left(\frac{e^{x}}{x}\right)}}{x} & x \tan \left(\frac{e^{x}}{x}\right) \\
1+\frac{1}{\log (\log (x))}-\frac{1}{\log (x) \log (\log (x))^{2}} & x+\frac{x}{\log (\log (x))} \\
-2 x^{2} \sin \left(x^{2}\right) \tan (x)+x\left(\tan ^{2}(x)+1\right) \cos \left(x^{2}\right)+\cos \left(x^{2}\right) \tan (x) & x \cos \left(x^{2}\right) \tan (x)
\end{array}
$$

## A third data set: integration by parts

- Integration by part
- Generate random functions $F$ and $G$
- Compute their derivative $f$ and $g$
- If fG is in the dataset, we get Fg for free using $\int F g=F G-\int f G$
- Derived from the backward model
- Problem and solution length are more balanced


## Generating data

Functions and their primitives generated with the integration by parts approach (IBP)

$$
\begin{gathered}
x(x+\log (x)) \\
\frac{x}{(x+3)^{2}} \\
\frac{x+\sqrt{2}}{\cos ^{2}(x)} \\
x(2 x+5)(3 x+2 \log (x)+1) \\
\frac{\left(x-\frac{2 x}{\sin ^{2}(x)}+\frac{1}{\tan (x)}\right) \log (x)}{\sin (x)} \\
x^{3} \sinh (x)
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{x^{2}(4 x+6 \log (x)-3)}{12} \\
\frac{-x+(x+3) \log (x+3)}{x+3} \\
(x+\sqrt{2}) \tan (x)+\log (\cos (x))
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\frac{x^{2}\left(27 x^{2}+24 x \log (x)+94 x+90 \log (x)\right)}{18}
$$

$$
\frac{x \log (x)+\tan (x)}{\sin (x) \tan (x)}
$$

$$
x^{3} \cosh (x)-3 x^{2} \sinh (x)+6 x \cosh (x)-6 \sinh (x)
$$

## More out-of-distribution results

|  | Forward (FWD) |  |  |  | Backward (BWD) |  |  | Integration by parts (IBP) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Training data | Beam 1 | Beam 10 | Beam 50 | Beam 1 | Beam 10 | Beam 50 | Beam 1 | Beam 10 | Beam 50 |  |
| FWD | 93.6 | 95.6 | 96.2 | 10.9 | 13.9 | 17.2 | 85.6 | 86.8 |  |  |
| BWD | 18.9 | 24.6 | 27.5 | 98.4 | 99.4 | 99.7 | 42.9 | 54.6 |  |  |
| BWD + IBP | 41.6 | 54.9 | 56.1 | 98.2 | 99.4 | 99.7 | 96.8 | 99.2 |  |  |

- Models trained on FWD do generalize to IPB
- OOD generalization is possible, when test distributions are not too far away from training distributions
- Training distribution matters
- Out-of-distribution generalization is possible so long test distribution is not 'too far'


## Linear algebra with transformers

(Charton 2021)

- Basic linear algebra is learned, with small models
- Transposition: 100\% accuracy, up to $30 \times 30$ matrices, with 1-layer transformers
- Addition: 99\% accuracy, up to $20 \times 20$ matrices, 2-layer transformers
- Matrix-vector product: $100 \%$ accuracy, up to $10 \times 10$ matrices, 2-layer transformers
- Multiplication: 100\% accuracy, $5 \times 5$ matrices, 1 / 4 layer transformers
- Advanced tasks can also be learned
- Eigenvalues: $100 \%$ accuracy for $5 \times 5$ to $20 \times 20$ matrices
- Eigen decomposition: $97 \%$ for $5 \times 5,82 \%$ for $6 \times 6$ matrices
- SVD decomposition: $99 \%$ accuracy for $4 \times 4$ matrices
- Matrix inversion: $90 \%$ for $5 \times 5$ matrices


## Computing eigenvalues - the importance of training distributions

- Models predict the eigenvalues of $5 \times 5$ symmetric matrices with $100 \%$ accuracy
- Training set symmetric matrices with independent coefficients: Wigner matrices
- Eigenvalues are distributed as a semi-circle
- Bounded support, symmetric around 0
- Variance depends on variance of coefficients, and dimension matrix
- Are we learning eigenvalues, or eigenvalues of Wigner matrices?


## Tweaking the training distribution

- Wigner matrices (symmetric matrices with independent identically distributed entries) can be decomposed as $\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{HDH}^{\top}$, with
- D diagonal, with entries distributed as a semi circle
- H orthogonal
- If the coefficients of $M$ are Gaussian, the directions of columns of $H$ are uniformly distributed over the unit sphere
- To generate matrices with different distributions of eigenvalues
- Generate M with Gaussian independent entries
- Compute M=HDH ${ }^{\top}$
- Replace $D$ with $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$, from a different distribution
- Recompute $\mathrm{M}^{\prime}=\mathrm{HD}^{\prime} \mathrm{H}^{\top}$


## Tweaking the training distribution

- We generate 7 distributions
- 4 with positive and negative eigenvalues
- Semi-circle: the original Wigner matrices
- Uniform eigenvalues
- Laplace distributed eigenvalues
- Gaussian eigenvalues
- 3 with positive eigenvalues only
- Absolute values of semicircle eigenvalues
- Absolute values of Laplace eigenvalues
- Marcenko-Pastur distribution (i.e. random covariance matrices)


## Eigenvalues - out-of-distribution generalization

|  | Semi-circle | Uniform | Gaussian | Laplace | abs-sc | abs-Lapl | Marchenko |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Semi-circle | 100 | 34 | 36 | 39 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| Uniform | 93 | 100 | 76 | 70 | 92 | 70 | 2 |
| Gaussian | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 99 |
| Laplace | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Abs-semicircle | 0 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 100 | 78 | 20 |
| Abs-Laplace | 0 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Marchenko-Pastur | 0 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 100 | 76 | 100 |

Table 1: Out-of-distribution generalization. Eigenvalues of $\mathbf{5 x 5}$ matrices. Rows are the training distributions, columns the test distributions.

- Gauss and Laplace generalize to Wigner (but not the other way around)
- Can generalize far away from training distribution: to positive definite matrices


## Eigenvalues - out-of-distribution generalization

## - Robust distributions learn faster

|  | Semi-circle | Uniform | Gaussian | Laplace | abs-sc | abs-Lapl | Marchenko |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8x8 matrices |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Semicircle | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Uniform | 91 | 100 | 65 | 57 | 89 | 55 | 0 |
| Gaussian | 100 | 100 | 100 | 99 | 100 | 99 | 41 |
| Laplace | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 97 |
| Abs-semicircle | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 53 | 0 |
| Abs-Laplace | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 100 | 100 | 98 |
| Marchenko-Pastur | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 20 |
| 10x10 matrices |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Gaussian (12/1 layers) | 100 | 100 | 100 | 98 | 100 | 97 | 3 |
| Laplace (8/1 layers) | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 74 |

Table 2: Out-of-distribution generalization. Eigenvalues of $\mathbf{8 x 8}$ and $\mathbf{1 0 x 1 0}$ matrices, accuracy after $\mathbf{3 6}$ million examples. Rows are the training distributions, columns the test distributions.

- Out-of-distribution generalization is possible
- Special "robust" distributions exist
- Allow for faster learning


## Can transformers learn the greatest common divisor?

 (Charton 2023)- Generate random pairs of integers between 1 and 1,000,000
- Compute their gcd, train a model to predict it
- Test on a held-out dataset (100k examples)
- Problem space size: $10^{12}$, no chance that the model memorizes all the cases
- Operands are uniformly distributed


## Can transformers learn the greatest common divisor?

- Encoding input/output in base 30
- 1-layer transformers, 64 dimensions
- $85 \%$ accuracy after one epoch (300k examples)
- $94.6 \%$ accuracy after 150 epochs (45M examples)
- Surely, the maths are learned



## Can transformers learn the greatest common divisor?

- Encoding input/output in base 31
- Accuracy plateaus around 61\%
- Accuracy seems base-dependent



## Learning the greatest common divisor

- Top to bottom, bases 30, 6, 10, 2, 3, 31...
- Performance depends on the base we use to represent numbers
- Are we really learning the maths?



## Looking at model predictions

Table 3: Model predictions and their frequencies, for GCD 1 to 36. Correct predictions in bold face.

| Base 2 |  |  |  | Base 10 |  |  | Base 2 |  |  |  | Base 10 |  |  | Base 2 |  |  | Base 10 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| GCD | Pred | \% | Pred | \% | GCD | Pred | $\%$ | Pred | $\%$ | GCD | Pred | $\%$ | Pred | $\%$ |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | $\mathbf{1}$ | 100 | $\mathbf{1}$ | 100 | 13 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 25 | 1 | 100 | $\mathbf{2 5}$ | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | $\mathbf{2}$ | 100 | $\mathbf{2}$ | 100 | 14 | 2 | 100 | 2 | 100 | 26 | 2 | 100 | 2 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 15 | 1 | 100 | 5 | 100 | 27 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | $\mathbf{4}$ | 100 | $\mathbf{4}$ | 100 | 16 | $\mathbf{1 6}$ | 100 | $\mathbf{1 6}$ | 99.7 | 28 | 4 | 100 | 4 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 1 | 100 | $\mathbf{5}$ | 100 | 17 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 29 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 2 | 100 | 2 | 100 | 18 | 2 | 100 | 2 | 100 | 30 | 2 | 100 | 10 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 19 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 31 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | $\mathbf{8}$ | 100 | $\mathbf{8}$ | 100 | 20 | 4 | 100 | $\mathbf{2 0}$ | 100 | 32 | $\mathbf{3 2}$ | 99.9 | 16 | 99.9 |  |  |  |  |
| 9 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 21 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 33 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | 2 | 100 | $\mathbf{1 0}$ | 100 | 22 | 2 | 100 | 2 | 100 | 34 | 2 | 100 | 2 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 23 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 100 | 35 | 1 | 100 | 5 | 100 |  |  |  |  |
| 12 | 4 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 24 | 8 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 36 | 4 | 100 | 4 | 100 |  |  |  |  |

## Learning the greatest common divisor???

- In base $2, \operatorname{gcd} 1,2,4,8,16 \ldots$ are correctly predicted
- The model counts the rightmost zeroes
- 11100 (28) and 1110 (14) have gcd 2
- 111100 (60) and 111000 (56) have gcd 4
- In composite bases, the model learns multiples of divisors of the base
- In base 10 multiples of 20 end with $00,20,40,60$ or 80


## The three rules

(R1) Predictions are deterministic. The model predicts a unique value $f(k)$ for almost all (99.9\%) pairs of integers with GCD $k$. Predictions are correct when $f(k)=k$.
(R2) Correct predictions are products of primes dividing B. For base 2 , they are $1,2,4,8,16$, 32 and 64 . For base 31,1 and 31 . For base 10 , all products of elements from $\{1,2,4,8,16\}$ and $\{1,5,25\}$. For base 30 , all products of $\{1,2,4,8\},\{1,3,9,27\}$. and $\{1,5,25\}$.
(R3) $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{k})$ is the largest correct prediction that divides $\mathbf{k}$. For instance, $f(8)=8$, and $f(7)=1$, for base 2 and 10 , but $f(15)=5$ for base 10 and $f(15)=1$ for base 2 .

## So far disappointing

## Accuracy may be high but only a few GCD are learned

Table 2: Number of correct GCD under 100 and accuracy. Best of 6 experiments.

| Base | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 15 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Correct GCD | 7 | 5 | 7 | 3 | 19 | 3 | 13 | 2 | 19 | 9 |
| Accuracy | 81.6 | 68.9 | 81.4 | 64.0 | 91.5 | 62.5 | 84.7 | 61.8 | 91.5 | 71.7 |
| Base | 30 | 31 | 60 | 100 | 210 | 211 | $\mathbf{4 2 0}$ | 997 | 1000 | 1024 |
| Correct GCD | 27 | 2 | 28 | 13 | 32 | 1 | $\mathbf{3 8}$ | 1 | 14 | 7 |
| Accuracy | 94.7 | 61.3 | 95.0 | 84.7 | 95.5 | 61.3 | $\mathbf{9 6 . 8}$ | 61.3 | 84.7 | 81.5 |

## Large bases and grokking

- Base 2023 = 7.17.17
- After 10 epochs: 1,7, and 17 are learned, accuracy 63\%, 3 GCD
- At epoch 101, 3 is learned, together with 21 (3.7) and 51 (3.17)
- At epoch 200, 2 is learned (and 6, 14, 34, 42): 11 GCD
- At epoch 600, 4 is learned: 16 GCD, 93\% accuracy



Figure 5: Learning curves for base $\mathbf{B}=\mathbf{2 0 2 3}$. 3 different model initializations.

## Large bases and grokking

This phenomenon is related to grokking, first described by Power. [22] for modular arithmetic. Table 5 presents model predictions for base 1000, which continue to respect rules R1 and R3. In fact, we can update the three rules into the three rules with grokking:
(G1) Prediction is deterministic. All pairs with the same GCD are predicted the same, as $f(k)$.
(G2) Correct predictions are products of primes divisors of B, and small primes. Small primes are learned roughly in order, as grokking sets in.
(G3) $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{k})$ is the largest correct prediction that divides $\mathbf{k}$.

## Still only a few GCD are learned

| Base | GCD predicted | Divisors predicted | Non-divisors (epoch learned) |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| $625=5^{4}$ | 6 | $\{1,5,25\}$ | $2(634)$ |
| 2017 | 4 | $\{1\}$ | $2(142), 3(392)$ |
| $2021=43.47$ | 10 | $\{1,43\},\{1,47\}$ | $2(125), 3(228)$ |
| $2023=7.17^{2}$ | 16 | $\{1,7\},\{1,17\}$ | $3(101), 2(205), 4(599)$ |
| $2025=3^{4} \cdot 5^{2}$ | 28 | $\{1,3,9,27,81\},\{1,5,25\}$ | $2(217), 4(493), 8(832)$ |
| $2187=3^{7}$ | 20 | $\{1,3,9,27,81\}$ | $2(86), 4(315), 5(650)$ |
| $2197=13^{3}$ | 11 | $\{1,13\}$ | $2(62), 3(170), 4(799)$ |
| $2209=47^{2}$ | 8 | $\{1,47\}$ | $2(111), 3(260), 9(937)$ |
| $2401=7^{4}$ | 10 | $\{1,7,49\}$ | $2(39), 3(346)$ |
| $2401=7^{4}$ | 14 | $\{1,7,49\}$ | $3(117), 2(399), 4(642)$ |
| $2744=2^{3} \cdot 7^{3}$ | 30 | $\{1,2,4,8,16,32\},\{1,7,49\}$ | $3(543), 5(1315)$ |
| $3125=5^{5}$ | 16 | $\{1,5,25\}$ | $2(46), 3(130), 4(556)$ |
| $3375=3^{3} \cdot 5^{3}$ | 23 | $\{1,3,9,27\},\{1,5,25\}$ | $2(236), 4(319)$ |
| $4000=2^{5} \cdot 5^{3}$ | 24 | $\{1,2,4,8,16,32\},\{1,5,25\}$ | $3(599)$ |
| $4913=17^{3}$ | 17 | $\{1,17\}$ | $2(54), 3(138), 4(648), 5(873)$ |
| $5000=2^{3} \cdot 5^{4}$ | 28 | $\{1,2,4,8,16,32\},\{1,5,25\}$ | $3(205), 9(886)$ |
| $10000=2^{4} \cdot 5^{4}$ | 22 | $\{1,2,4,8,16\},\{1,5,25\}$ | $3(211)$ |

Table 6: Predicted ged, divisors and non-divisors of B. Best model of 3. For non-divisors, the epoch learned is the first epoch where model achieves $90 \%$ accuracy for this gcd.

## Engineering the training distribution

- Training sets have uniformly distributed operands
- 90\% of them are over 100000
- Small GCD, e.g. $\operatorname{gcd}(6,9)$ are never seen
- This is not how we are taught / teach arithmetic
- From easy cases that we sometimes learn by rote
- Generalizing to harder cases once easy cases are mastered
- Curriculum learning has draw backs: the distribution changes over time
- Learn the easy cases, but then forget them


## Engineering the training distribution

- Log-uniform operands
- k appears with probability 1/k
- As many 1-digit numbers as 6-digit
- No impact on the outcome distribution $\left(1 / \mathrm{k}^{2}\right)$
- No impact on the test sets
- Learning is noisier, but more GCD are learned


Figure 3: Learning curves, Log-uniform training set.

## Engineering the training distribution

- Log-uniform operands, fast grokking
- All primes up to 23

Table 6: Accuracy and correct GCD (up to 100), log-uniform operands. Best of three models, trained for 1000 epochs (300M examples). All models are tested on 100,000 pairs, uniformly distributed between 1 and $10^{6}$.

| Base | Accuracy | Correct GCD | Base | Accuracy | GCD | Base | Accuracy | GCD |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 94.4 | 25 | 60 | 98.4 | 60 | 2025 | 99.0 | 70 |
| 3 | 96.5 | 36 | 100 | 98.4 | 60 | 2187 | 98.7 | 66 |
| 4 | 98.4 | 58 | 210 | 98.5 | 60 | 2197 | 98.8 | 68 |
| 5 | 97.0 | 42 | 211 | 96.9 | 41 | 2209 | 98.6 | 65 |
| 6 | 96.9 | 39 | 420 | 98.1 | 59 | $\mathbf{2 4 0 1}$ | $\mathbf{9 9 . 1}$ | $\mathbf{7 3}$ |
| 7 | 96.8 | 40 | 625 | 98.2 | 57 | 2744 | 98.9 | 72 |
| 10 | 97.6 | 48 | 997 | 98.3 | 64 | 3125 | 98.6 | 65 |
| 11 | 97.4 | 43 | 1000 | 99.1 | 71 | 3375 | 98.8 | 67 |
| 12 | 98.2 | 55 | 1024 | 99.0 | 71 | 4000 | 98.7 | 66 |
| 15 | 97.8 | 52 | 2017 | 98.6 | 63 | 4913 | 98.2 | 57 |
| 30 | 98.2 | 56 | 2021 | 98.6 | 66 | 5000 | 98.6 | 64 |
| 31 | 97.2 | 44 | 2023 | 98.7 | 65 | 10000 | 98.0 | 56 |

## Learning large primes, the outcome distribution

- GCD are distributed in $1 / k^{2}$, very few examples with large primes
- A log-uniform distribution of operands and outcomes
- All primes up to 53

| Base | Accuracy | Correct GCD | Base | Accuracy | GCD | Base | Accuracy | GCD |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 16.5 | 17 | 60 | 96.4 | 75 | 2025 | 97.9 | 91 |
| 3 | 93.7 | 51 | 100 | 97.1 | 78 | 2187 | 97.8 | 91 |
| 4 | 91.3 | 47 | 210 | 96.2 | 80 | 2197 | 97.6 | 90 |
| 5 | 92.2 | 58 | 211 | 95.3 | 67 | 2209 | 97.6 | 87 |
| 6 | 95.2 | 56 | 420 | 96.4 | 88 | 2401 | 97.8 | 89 |
| 7 | 93.0 | 63 | 625 | 96.0 | 80 | 2744 | 97.6 | 91 |
| 10 | 94.3 | 65 | 997 | 97.6 | 83 | 3125 | 97.7 | 91 |
| 11 | 94.5 | 57 | 1000 | 97.9 | 91 | 3375 | 97.6 | 91 |
| 12 | 95.0 | 70 | 1024 | 98.1 | 90 | 4000 | 97.3 | 90 |
| 15 | 95.4 | 62 | 2017 | 97.6 | 88 | 4913 | 97.1 | 88 |
| 30 | 95.8 | 72 | 2021 | 98.1 | 89 | 5000 | 97.1 | 89 |
| 31 | 94.4 | 64 | 2023 | 97.5 | 88 | 10000 | 95.2 | 88 |

[^0]- Predictions can be deterministic and explainable
- The model learns a sieve:
- It classifies input pairs $(a, b)$ into clusters with common divisors
- And predicts the smallest common divisor in the class (when outcomes are not uniformly distributed)
- Training distribution impact accuracy, no matter the test distribution


## Conclusions

- Transformers can learn mathematics
- A new field for research
- With applications to science
- Training distributions matter
- Some training distributions allow for faster learning and better generalization


[^0]:    Table 9: Accuracy and correct GCD, log-uniform operands and outcomes. Best model of 3 .

