

# Findings

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## 0.1 Abstract

## 0.2 Introduction

This project started with a simple Idea – A calculator that rather than working systematically, predicts your answer using a neural network. The question which neural network architecture would fit this job best is what what truly propelled this project.

This document presents the findings, which have been learned with the project: A Predictive Calculator.

## 0.3 Hypothesis

After a writing a literature review, following results were expected:

Feed-forward Neural Networks (FNNs) should be the weakest architecture type, the Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) should be better, transformers and pre-trained transformers should perform the best.

Technologies such as positional embeddings, a seq2grid pre-processor<sup>1</sup> and a PReLU activation function are expected to help a model to generalize simple arithmetic rules.

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<sup>1</sup>This was skipped because in theory it wouldn't have a big impact if any, mainly only helping with rounding errors.

# Contents

0.1	Abstract . . . . .	1
0.2	Introduction . . . . .	1
0.3	Hypothesis . . . . .	1
0.4	Feed-forward Neural Networks (FNNs) . . . . .	3
<b>1</b>	<b>RNN</b>	<b>3</b>
1.1	Numerical Visualization of a RNN: . . . . .	3
1.2	Relevant Takeaway . . . . .	3
<b>2</b>	<b>Other Types of RNNs</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1	Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) . . . . .	4
2.2	Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) . . . . .	4
2.3	Bidirectional LSTM with Attention . . . . .	5
<b>3</b>	<b>Transformers</b>	<b>6</b>
3.1	Multi-Head Self-Attention . . . . .	6
3.2	The Encoder Layer . . . . .	7
3.3	Point-wise Feed-Forward Network . . . . .	7
3.4	Positional Encoding . . . . .	7
<b>4</b>	<b>Fine-Tuned Pre-Trained LLMs</b>	<b>8</b>
4.1	LLM . . . . .	8
4.2	Fine-Tuning Process . . . . .	8
4.3	In Addition . . . . .	8
<b>5</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>9</b>
5.1	Conclusion . . . . .	9
5.1.1	Regression Models . . . . .	9
5.2	Conclusion . . . . .	9
	<b>References</b>	<b>11</b>

## 0.4 Feed-forward Neural Networks (FNNs)

Since the functionality of a FNN has already been discussed in the literature study, were mentioned in the methodology document and no new information on FNNs has been found since then by the author, this topic will not be discussed in this document.

Though, FNNs will make an appearance later on in this document.

## 1 RNN

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) work similar to FNNs with one key difference: There is a vector called the hidden-state. This vector contains information about previous inputs. The hidden-state of the previous time-step, in addition to the input of the current time-step, is fed into a model which computes the hidden-state of the present time-step. The output of each time-step is calculated by feeding the respective hiddenstate to a model.

### 1.1 Numerical Visualization of a RNN:

Let:

- $x_t$ : Input at time step  $t$
- $h_t$ : Hidden state at time step  $t$
- $y_t$ : Output at time step  $t$
- $W_{xh}$ : Weight matrix connecting input to hidden state
- $W_{hh}$ : Weight matrix connecting previous hidden state to current hidden state (recurrent weights)
- $W_{hy}$ : Weight matrix connecting hidden state to output
- $b_h$ : Bias vector for the hidden layer
- $b_y$ : Bias vector for the output layer
- $\sigma$ : Activation function (in our case: PReLU)
- $\sigma_{out}$ : Activation function for the output (linear for regression)

$$h_t = \sigma(W_{xh}x_t + W_{hh}h_{t-1} + b_h)$$

$$y_t = \sigma_{out}(W_{hy}h_t + b_y)$$

### 1.2 Relevant Takeaway

For us this means, the RNN doesn't process an expression as a whole, but rather one part after another. Also, because of how the formula works, Tokens, which are later in the sequence, play a more impactful role on the models prediction, than earlier tokens. This means the output number will almost always be closer to the last number of the expression, than the first.

This is a common issue with RNNs, not only prevelant in this project. It is more widely known as the vanishing gradient problem.

## 2 Other Types of RNNs

To solve the problem described above, different methods have been adopted like for example the Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) proposed by Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997, the Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) proposed by Cho et al., 2014 or later even the concept of attention proposed by Bahdanau et al., 2016.

## 2.1 Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

The LSTM architecture solves the gradient vanishing problem by using a memory cell. The model can use this to store (5), forget (1) and pass information from the memory cell to the hidden state (6).

Let:

- $\sigma(\cdot)$  denotes the sigmoid activation function,
- $\tanh(\cdot)$  is the hyperbolic tangent function,
- $\odot$  represents element-wise (Hadamard) multiplication,
- $[h_{t-1}, x_t]$  is the concatenation of the previous hidden state  $h_{t-1}$  and the current input  $x_t$ ,
- $W_f, W_i, W_C, W_o$  are trainable weight matrices,
- $b_f, b_i, b_C, b_o$  are trainable bias vectors,
- $C_t$  is the current memory cell state,
- $\tilde{C}_t$  is the candidate cell state,

$$f_t = \sigma(W_f \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f) \quad (1)$$

$$i_t = \sigma(W_i \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i) \quad (2)$$

$$\tilde{C}_t = \tanh(W_C \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_C) \quad (3)$$

$$o_t = \sigma(W_o \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o) \quad (4)$$

$$C_t = f_t \odot C_{t-1} + i_t \odot \tilde{C}_t \quad (5)$$

$$h_t = o_t \odot \tanh(C_t) \quad (6)$$

Source for the equations: GeeksforGeeks, 2025a

In the equations you can see the forget gate activation (1), the input gate activation (2), the candidate cell state (3) and the output gate activation (4).

The cell state is calculated in (5). There, the forget gate which scales the previous cell state is combined with the input gate.

The hidden state is calculated in (6), where the output activation is applied to the cell state.

## 2.2 Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU)

The GRU architecture works in a similar way to the LSTM. Instead of utilizing memory cells, they directly use the hiddenstate.

Let:

- $\sigma(\cdot)$  is the sigmoid activation function,
- $\tanh(\cdot)$  is the hyperbolic tangent function,
- $\odot$  denotes element-wise (Hadamard) multiplication,
- $[h_{t-1}, x_t]$  is the concatenation of the previous hidden state and current input,
- $W_z, W_r, W_h$  are trainable weight matrices,
- $b_z, b_r, b_h$  are trainable bias vectors,
- $\tilde{h}_t$  is the candidate hidden step

- $h_t$  is the current hiddenstep

$$z_t = \sigma(W_z[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_z) \quad (7)$$

$$r_t = \sigma(W_r[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_r) \quad (8)$$

$$\tilde{h}_t = \tanh(W_h[r_t \odot h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_h) \quad (9)$$

$$h_t = (1 - z_t) \odot h_{t-1} + z_t \odot \tilde{h}_t \quad (10)$$

Source for the equations: GeeksforGeeks, 2025b

Above you can see the update gate activation (7), as well as the reset gate activation (8).

Further down, the reset gate activation is applied to the previous hidden step to calculate the candidate hidden state (9).

Lastly the hidden step can be calculated by applying (1 - the update gate activation) to the previous hidden step and combining it with the update gate activation applied to the hidden state candidate (10). Depending on whether the update gate activation is larger or smaller, the previous hidden step or the candidate hiddenstate will weigh in more on the current hidden step.

### 2.3 Bidirectional LSTM with Attention

An architecture of this type consists in part of a bidirectional LSTM, meaning two LSTMs working in parallel, one of who process data from front to back, the other from back to front, their results are afterwards concatenated together and passed on.

The other part of this architecture is the attention mechanism. Here it is, as described by Bahdanau et al., 2016.

Let:

- $\mathbf{h}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{128}$  are the hiddenstates for each timestep  $t$ , the output from the bidirectional LSTM,
- $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{128 \times 128}$  is a trainable weight matrix,
- $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{128}$  is a bias vector,
- $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{128}$  is a trainable context vector.

For each time step  $t$ , compute:

$$\mathbf{v}_t = \tanh(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{h}_t + \mathbf{b}) \quad (11)$$

$$e_t = \mathbf{u}^\top \mathbf{v}_t \quad (12)$$

Normalize scores using softmax:

$$\alpha_t = \frac{\exp(e_t)}{\sum_{j=1}^T \exp(e_j)} \quad (13)$$

The attention weights  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_T]$  indicate the importance of each time step.

Then compute the context vector:

$$\mathbf{c} = \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \mathbf{h}_t \quad (14)$$

Source for equations: Cristina, 2023

An attention score is calculated for each timestep in (11), (12), it is then normalized (13). Finally the attention weights scale their respective hiddenstates from the LSTMs, to compute the context vector (14).

### 3 Transformers

The best performing and widely used on most tasks to date are transformer architectures, they formed the basis for LLM's.

The key to their success: multi-head self-attention.

In this document we will discuss the transformer architecture as first proposed by Vaswani et al., 2023.

#### 3.1 Multi-Head Self-Attention

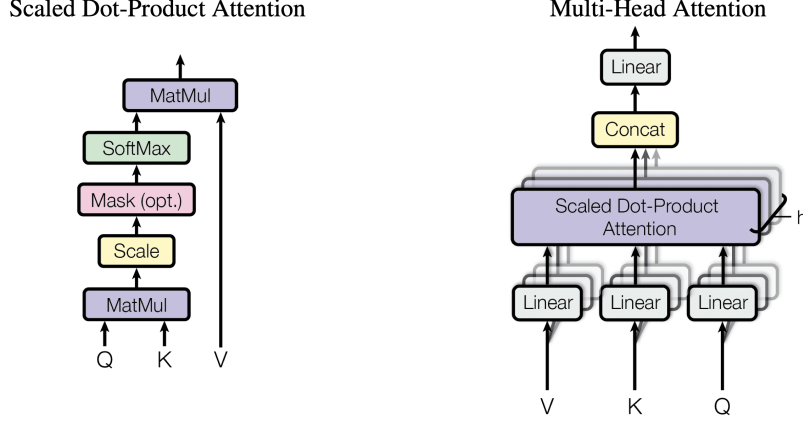


Figure 1: Two diagrams from Vaswani et al., 2023 with the scaled dot-product attention described on the left and multi-head attention on the right.

Data is first split up equally into multiple heads which will process it in parallel. There, the tensors are linearly projected with trainable weights, to obtain queries (Q), keys (K) and values (V) which you can see at the bottom of the image.

$$Q = XW_Q, \quad K = XW_K, \quad V = XW_V$$

Afterwards, the dot-product between the queries and the keys is calculated and scaled<sup>2</sup> to determine how similar they are. This leaves us with a number between 0 and 1 representing how much attention you have to pay. The value  $V$  represents the actual information of the token we just calculated the attention for. This means our final step is to scale the value  $V$  by it's attention. Pay attention to the equation below. (15)

$$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{QK^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right) V \quad (15)$$

This is done across all heads in parallel. The results are then concatenated<sup>3</sup> back together and they undergo a linear projection. As described below:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MultiHead}(Q, K, V) &= \text{Concat}(\text{head}_1, \dots, \text{head}_h)W^O \\ \text{where: } \text{head}_i &= \text{Attention}(QW_i^Q, KW_i^K, VW_i^V) \end{aligned}$$

<sup>2</sup>According to Vaswani et al., 2023 this is done to counteract dot-products growing too large and later overwhelming the softmax function.

<sup>3</sup>This means they are assembled or added back together, to have the same dimensions as before they were split up.

### 3.2 The Encoder Layer

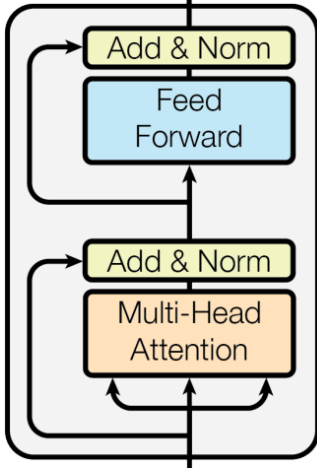


Figure 2: Encoder Layer as described by Vaswani et al., 2023

In figure 2 the multi-head attention first undergoes a residual connection as well as a layer normalization <sup>4</sup>, as described below:

where  $\text{Sublayer}(x)$  is the function the residual connection is formed around:

$$\text{Output}(x) = \text{LayerNorm}(x + \text{Sublayer}(x)) \quad (16)$$

Afterwards, all tokens are fed into a point-wise FNN, where they are processed separately and independently. This part is crucial, to introduce non-linearity into the system, as multi-head attention is linear, and non-linearity is needed for a model to be able to learn.

### 3.3 Point-wise Feed-Forward Network

Equation (17) and figure 3:

The pointwise FNN works by taking in a number of  $d_{model}$  tokens, then a layer with a number of  $d_{FNN}$  neurons with weights and biases  $W_1$  and  $b_1$  is applied to them individually. The activation function ReLU discards all negative values and the output layer with weights and biases  $W_2$  and  $b_2$  resets the data back to its original dimensionality.

After undergoing a residual connection and layer normalization like after multihead attention (16), this makes up a single layer of the Encoder.

A regressive transformer model, like the one used in this project, consists of multiple such encoding layers and last but not least a FNN with a single neuron, which works as the output layer.

$$\text{pointwiseFNN}(x) = \max(0, xW_1 + b_1)W_2 + b_2 \quad (17)$$

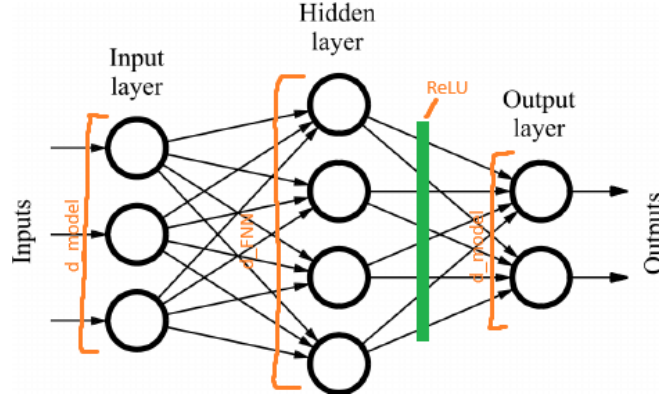


Figure 3: A diagram representing the structure of a pointwise FNN. source for figure

### 3.4 Positional Encoding

Something, that's special about the tranformer, is the fact that data is passed through it as a whole. This means the model doesn't have positional understanding on its own. To counteract this effect, a positional encoding is applied to the input sequences after the tokenizer.

<sup>4</sup>Given an input vector, layer normalization works by normalizing its features and making it so their mean is 0.

## 4 Fine-Tuned Pre-Trained LLMs

The last model type used for this project are fine-tuned Large Language Models (LLMs). For sources and further reading on this section see (in chronological order; left to right): Bergmann, n.d.; GeeksforGeeks, 2024; Srinivasan Anusha, 2024; Stryker, n.d.

### 4.1 LLM

LLMs adopt the transformer architecture<sup>5</sup> and adapt it to immense sizes, by increasing the architecture's hyperparameters, as well as employing new technological advancements. The number of parameters used by a LLM varies from model to model, but lies in the hundreds of billions per popular high-end LLM.

The large size allows large architectures to excel at complicated tasks like mostly Natural Language Processing (NLP).

To facilitate, training and predicting on such large architectures, massive super-computers are used, consisting of thousands of GPUs. They mainly work by utilizing parallel processing to distribute the load across multiple powerful GPUs.

While by far not a super-computer, a tiny replica was used for this project: The Nvidia Jetson Orin Nano Super Developer Kit.

### 4.2 Fine-Tuning Process

Most of the time LLMs are trained on huge dumps of unlabeled data, which we call unsupervised, or on unlabelled data from which ground truth can be inferred, which we call self-supervised data.

The fine-tuning process on the other hand is mostly done on smaller datasets with supervised data, meaning it is labeled.

In fine-tuning a pre-trained model, with all of it's weights and biases being set to an optimized value after the training, is trained again on additional data. This will mean, that the models weights will move and change by a little amount from the state it was in before fine-tuning. The optimizer will find a new minima in which the model will have learned additional information from the fine-tuning train-data. When evaluated on test-data the newly fine-tuned model should now perform better, than it's pre-trained basemodel counterpart.

### 4.3 In Addition

Please note that these are not regression models, but sequence to sequence models, which means that inside the model tokens are processed, not numbers, like in the other models discussed.

For the task in this project Specifically, fine-tuned models will not output a float number, but rather an integer, because tokens for floats haven't been created. It is the reason why the only metric that makes sense for these models is accuracy, which essentially evaluates how many times the model predicted correctly.

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<sup>5</sup>The transformer architecture discussed in the previous section 3. It not only consists but also a decoder, which is responsible for the model's output



## 5 Findings

Lastly, the most noteworthy architectures were evaluated and scored on a benchmark. The results were documented in this table:

Regression models:	FNN2	RNN2	Bidirectional LSTM	transformer4	transformer5
Total Parameters:	6'211	222'464	19'535	114'628	1'494'724
Architecture Parameters:	6'211	222,464	6'511	38'209	498'241
Optimizer Parameters:	-		13'024	76'419	996'483
MAE in Range:	0.0389406	0.2730647	0.5908327	0.0448075	0.0381983
MRE in Range:	0.0155504	0.1135200	0.2712299	0.0188047	0.0151836
MAE out Range:	2.2301364	3.5727410	3.2350100	4.5702314	4.9287004
MRE out Range:	0.2509270	0.3472042	0.3404062	0.5201459	0.5431157
MAE long Expressions:	6.2929916	6.0766930	2.7806435	6.1630590	6.0680327
Benchmark score:	6.6345832	0.4793787	1.7374969	2.8882827	5.2896368

And the fine-tuned Language Models, evaluated on their accuracy:

fine-tuned Language Models:	Gemini 2.5 Pro	Gemma 3 1B	Gemma 3 270M
Parameter size:	1.4E+11	1.00E+09	2.70E+08
Accuracy in Range:	95.17	93.41	54.22
Accuracy out Range:	99.51	63.33	9.67
Accuracy long expressions:	90	39.57	28

Firstly, observe how the main point of the thesis, which was that more complex models will perform better, isn't the case. There are clear outliers like the outstanding performance of the FNN2 or the poor performance of the RNN2.

### 5.1 Conclusion

#### 5.1.1 Regression Models

All of the 3 or 4 architectures discussed here are very different and all of them have different strengths and weaknesses as you can tell by their performances on different sets of test data.

Recurrent Neural networks excell at long Expressions, due to the way data is passed through these models sequentially in hiddensteps. They are designed for handling longer inputs.

Similarly, Bidirectional LSTMs with attention are even better, when having to adjust to a longer input. They can confidently predict longer expressions the best out of all the models studied in this project. This is because vanishing gradients are punished heavily when solving arithmetic expressions by nature and this model combats this well, as opposed to the simplistic RNN architecture. Additionally the attention mechanism not only helps with vanishing gradients in longer expressions, but also emphasising outstandingly large numbers and their corresponding signs.

When it comes to transformers, they perform best on data just like the one they are trained on, but not exactly the same - the classical definition of validation data. There are too many different types of different parameters, which all have been trained to process training data, this means even the smallest differences in input will lead to the model processing them wrong. Thanks to positional encoding, transformers can handle longer inputs better, than FNNs.

The FNN architecture performed with the best benchmark. While it's ability to generalize laws is bad, the FNN2 model was good at expressions of the same length with numbers not encountered in the training data.

### 5.2 Conclusion

Notes: no correlation between number of total parameters and benchmark across different architectures.

bidirectional LSTMs with attention are the best for long expressions, because they process information sequentially with a low gradient decay. They are also the most consistent across the categories, meaning

they don't have categories, where they perform extraordinarily well and other categories where they perform extraordinarily bad, but are consistent across all categories.

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