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Mathematical Information Retrieval: Search and Question Answering

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Foundations and Trends® in Information Retrieval

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Mathematical Information Retrieval: Search and Question Answering

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ABSTRACT

Mathematical information is essential for technical work, but its creation, interpretation, and search are challenging. To help address these challenges, researchers have developed multimodal search engines and mathematical question answering systems. This monograph begins with a simple framework characterizing the information tasks that people and systems perform as we work to answer math-related questions. The framework is used to organize and relate the other core topics of the monograph, including interactions between people and systems, representing math formulas in sources, and evaluation. We close by addressing some key questions and presenting directions for future work. This monograph is intended for students, instructors, and researchers interested in systems that help us find and use mathematical information.

Preface

This monograph provides an introduction to the foundations and current developments in *mathematical information retrieval* research, or *math IR*. In this area we focus on systems designed to assist with finding, collecting, and using mathematical information. With the advent of Large Language Models (LLMs), mathematical question answering is of particularly keen interest at the moment. Systems that combine LLMs with logic-based systems have been making news by solving problems from the International Mathematical Olympiad, for example.

The authors have spent more than a decade working on systems and interfaces for math-aware search engines in web pages, PDF documents, and even videos. We have more recently worked with interactive *conversational* systems for math IR, and looked into applications of LLMs. In this monograph we try to summarize what we have learned about systems for searching existing sources, and briefly introduce emerging math question answering systems that automatically generate responses based on usage patterns for text *and* formulas.

Our intended audience includes students, instructors, and researchers of information science, computer science, and mathematics.¹ Because the goal of this series is to introduce a topic from its fundamentals and then build up to the state-of-the-art, we needed to prioritize making

¹With this said, we have often been ‘unintended’ readers of monographs, and warmly welcome anyone with even the slightest interest in what we have to say here.

the presentation as clear and concrete as possible. This means that we also had to make difficult decisions about what material to include. We have focused on covering what we understand to be core topics and concerns, rather than provide an exhaustive survey of techniques. For those interested in learning more than we could cover here, we refer you to other math IR surveys that are available (Zanibbi and Blostein, 2012; Guidi and Sacerdoti Coen, 2016; Dadure *et al.*, 2024).

Our approach in this work is searcher-centered, *i.e.*, focused on models and systems used directly by people. We acknowledge that there are *vast* bodies of literature concerned with searching and discovering mathematical information with little or no human interaction. Important examples include automated theorem proving, one of the oldest and most influential corners of artificial intelligence research, and work with mathematical knowledge databases in the Mathematical Knowledge Management community (*e.g.*, at the CICM² conferences), from which much of the early influential work in math IR also originates from. In Appendix B we present related work from the theorem proving space, but this is only a brief overview, and just the tip of the iceberg.

Structured representations for formulas and computations precede the electronic computer. The tree-based representations for formula structure presented in Section 2 were designed to be simple and capture key structural properties, *i.e.*, writing lines of symbols for formula appearance, and operation hierarchies for mathematical expressions represented by formulas. However, we make no assertion of their novelty; many analogous representations have been used in papers and systems. We've found that Symbol Layout Trees (SLTs) and Operator Trees (OPTs) generalize the graph types used for recognition and retrieval of formulas well.

We close here with a brief summary of the contents of this monograph. The sections of the monograph are summarized visually in Figure 1, and in more detail below.

Section 1 introduces math IR, and presents a framework that unifies information seeking activities performed by people *and* systems in (1) the real world, with (2) ‘traditional’ retrieval systems, and (3)

²<https://cicm-conference.org/cicm.php>

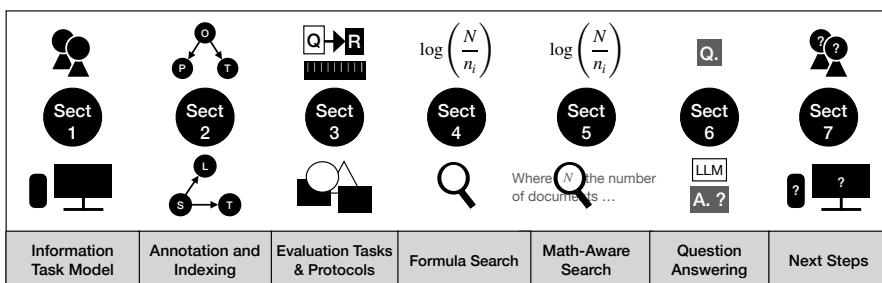


Figure 1: Visual summary of this monograph’s contents

question answering systems. The framework is organized around information needs, sources, and tasks, with an informal ‘source jar’ model for human information seeking, and a structured task graph for systems. The systems-oriented model is used to organize material in Sections 2–6.

Section 2 considers the types of mathematical information present (and missing) in sources, and provides an overview of formula representations. The larger focus is annotating sources with additional information (*e.g.*, formula representations) and representing text and formulas in indexes for ‘sparse’ (*i.e.*, discrete pattern-based lookup) and ‘dense’ (*i.e.*, continuous vector space-based lookup) retrieval.

Section 3 presents the math IR tasks addressed in Sections 4–6, along with procedures for creating *test collections* for evaluation, and evaluation metrics used in benchmarks. These are presented together to emphasize similarities and differences between retrieval and question answering tasks.

Sections 4–6 present past and current systems for formula search, text + formula search (‘math-aware’ search), and question answering. These systems depend upon indexing and evaluation techniques covered in Sections 2 and 3. Each section begins with a summary of test collections for evaluation, followed by a presentation and comparison of methods.

Section 7 provides a closing summary, a discussion of what math IR *cannot* provide, and directions for future work organized around the information task framework from Section 1.

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December 2024

Appendices

B

Search and QA for Theorem Proving

In Sections 5 and 6 we discussed math-aware search and math question-answering. A topic closely related to these is theorem proving. Automated theorem proving aims to explore the application of computers in proving mathematical theorems. This is actually one of the earliest topics of interest in computer science. In the early 1960s, scientists started exploring the use of machines for theorem proving for the quantification theory (Davis and Putnam, 1960; Davis *et al.*, 1962) using deduction rules to prove assertions.

Informal theorem proving refers to the way that humans approach proving theorems using reasoning through notation and natural language, likely with some missing details (*e.g.*, assumed definitions) and skipped computational steps, for example. In contrast, formal theorem proving represents theorems in a machine-readable format, making verification by logical rules possible, at the cost of more information being explicitly stated (*e.g.*, all variable types, definitions for all operators, etc.).

Converting informal to formal proof steps is referred to as *Automatization*. The Mizar¹ language is commonly used by mathemati-

¹<https://mizar.uwb.edu.pl/>.

cians as a formal language for writing definitions and proofs. Using Mizar, Wang *et al.* (2018) explored converting (translation) of informal L^AT_EX-written text into formal Mizar language. This work explored different seq2seq architectures, with LSTM and attention providing the highest BLEU score for this translation.

Researchers have also explored other formalization languages, including applying large language models to generate statements in Codex (Chen *et al.*, 2021b) has been studied recently (Wu *et al.*, 2022). This translates statements in natural text into formalized theorems for the interactive proof assistant Isabelle (Wenzel *et al.*, 2008). As an example, the system translated “Prove that there is no function f from the set of non-negative integers into itself such that $f(f(n)) = n + 1987$ for every n ” perfectly to Codex as:

```
theorem
  fixes f :: "nat → nat"
  assumes "\forall n. f (f n) = n + 1987"
  shows False
```

Another task for theorem proving is retrieving useful lemmas that will help with proving steps, known as *premise selection*. This is a form of search problem, where relevance is defined in terms of suitability for proving a specific conjecture. The problem is defined as (Alama *et al.*, 2014):

Given an Automated Theorem Provers and a large number of premises, find premises that are useful to the prover for constructing a proof for a new conjecture.

DeepMath (Irving *et al.*, 2016) is one of the earliest works to apply deep learning for this task. Conjecture and axiom sequences are embedded separately, concatenated, and then passed to a fully connected neural network for predicting the usefulness of the axiom. Embeddings are at character level for formulas, and word-level for statements defining symbols. The convolutional network model FormulaNet (Wang *et al.*, 2017a) used a similar idea and applied graph neural networks. Using formulas in higher-order logic (Church, 1940), each formula is first parsed into an OPT: internal nodes represent a quantifier or a constant or variable function, and leaf nodes represent variable or constant values.

Edges connect a quantifier to all instances of its quantified variables. After creating the tree, a merging step is applied to merge leaf nodes representing the same constant/variable. Finally, a unification technique is used to replace variable names with ‘VAR’ and function names with ‘VARFUNC’. After building the graph, convolution or message passing is applied to get node embeddings. These embeddings are used with max-pooling to form an embedding for the graph.

As theorems are built upon existing mathematical knowledge, a graph representation of mathematical concept statements such as lemma, and definitions is a common approach for this task. One way of building this graph is to use statements as nodes and ordered edges from node s_1 to s_2 if there is statement 1 is a premise of statement 2 (Ferreira and Freitas, 2020a). With this definition of a graph, the problem can be viewed as link prediction, for which a Deep Graph Convolutional Neural Network (DGCNN) architecture was applied (Zhang *et al.*, 2018). The textual content embedding of each node in this work is encoded using Doc2Vec (Le and Mikolov, 2014) model with mathematical concepts being encoded as linearized trees, with every sub-expression represented as a token.

For example, the formula $(x + y) \times c$ is represented as a sequence of tokens for subexpressions {‘ x ’, ‘ y ’, ‘ $(x + y)$ ’, ‘ $(x + y) \times c$ ’} (similar to what is used to generate subexpression tokens for the WikiMirs search model discussed earlier). The authors later introduced STAtement Representation (STAR) cross-modal representation (Ferreira and Freitas, 2021), treating mathematical formulas as natural language. Each statement is viewed as a combination of words and formulas. However, for embedding, they proposed two separate self-attention layers, one for formulas and one for words. The output of the self-attention layers is then concatenated and passed to a Bi-LSTM to get the final representation of the statement. To find the relatedness score between conjecture and premises, a Siamese neural network was applied.

Generative and large language models have recently been applied for premise selection. LeanDojo (Yang *et al.*, 2023) is an open-source toolkit based on the Lean² programming language, that introduces

²<https://lean-lang.org/>

ReProver (Retrieval-Augmented Prover). ReProver is a language model-based prover, augmented with retrieval for selecting premises. Given the initial state of proof, it retrieves a set of useful premises (set at 100) using a Dense Passage Retriever. These premises are concatenated to the initial state and passed to a fine-tuned ByT5 (Xue *et al.*, 2022) model to generate steps toward the proof.

As the application of LLMs for theorem proving is gaining attention, new datasets are being introduced for theorem proving. NATURAL-PROOFS (Welleck *et al.*, 2021) for example, is a multi-domain corpus of mathematical statements and their proofs, written in natural mathematical language. The main tasks in this dataset are: 1) *mathematical reference retrieval*: given a theorem, retrieve a set of references that occur in the theorem proof, and 2) *mathematical theorem generation*: generate the sequence of references that occur in a given theorem’s proof. Table B.1 summarizes some of the existing resources for this task.

Table B.1: Resources for Math Search and Question Answering

Name	Type	Link	Year
NaturalProof	Proof Dataset	https://github.com/wellecks/naturalproofs	2021
FormulaNet	Theorem Proving	https://github.com/princeton-vl/FormulaNet	2017
STAR	Theorem Proving	https://github.com/ai-systems/crossmodal_embedding	2021

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