
STEM-POM: Evaluating Language Models Math-Symbol Reasoning in Document Parsing

Jiaru Zou

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Champaign, IL
jiaruz2@illinois.edu

Qing Wang

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Champaign, IL
qingw3@illinois.edu

Pratyush Thakur

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Champaign, IL
pthakur3@illinois.edu

Nickvash Kani

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Champaign, IL
kani@illinois.edu

Abstract

Advances in large language models (LLMs) have spurred research into enhancing their reasoning capabilities, particularly in math-rich STEM documents. While LLMs can generate equations or solve math-related queries, their ability to fully understand and interpret abstract mathematical symbols in long, math-rich documents remains limited. In this paper, we introduce STEM-POM, a comprehensive benchmark dataset designed to evaluate LLMs’ reasoning abilities on math symbols within contextual scientific text. The dataset, sourced from real-world ArXiv documents, contains over 2K math symbols classified as main attributes of variables, constants, operators, and unit descriptors, with additional sub-attributes including scalar/vector/matrix for variables and local/global/discipline-specific labels for both constants and operators. Our extensive experiments show that state-of-the-art LLMs achieve an average of 20-60% accuracy under in-context learning and 50-60% accuracy with fine-tuning, revealing a significant gap in their mathematical reasoning capabilities. STEM-POM fuels future research of developing advanced Math-AI models that can robustly handle math symbols.

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) have demonstrated exceptional reasoning abilities across numerous fields [1, 2, 3, 4]. With the increasing shift towards applying LLMs to complex tasks [5, 6, 7], the need for supplementary data beyond the general pre-trained datasets has become increasingly important. Among these, mathematical reasoning tasks [8, 9] have recently drawn the attention of several researchers [10, 11, 12, 13] (see Backgrounds in Appendix B). In particular, Part-of-Math Tagging [14], the mathematical analog to part-of-speech tagging [15] where mathematical tokens are classified according to a given taxonomy of attributes, continues to gain interest but lacks the foundational datasets that can support advanced NLP tasks [14, 16, 17]. In addition, integrating mathematical language into NLP models remains a substantial challenge [18, 19], especially in the realm of document parsing [20, 21, 22]. Traditional semantic parsing methods like LateXML [23] or arXMLiv [24] often fall short when applied to math-rich documents, where precision and structured syntax are paramount [25, 26, 27]. These methods struggle to accurately perform pattern matching between abstract mathematical symbols and their corresponding XML tag notations. Similarly, recent advanced LLMs, such as ChatGPT [28], also face difficulties in understanding and reasoning with abstract mathematical symbols due to their contextual polymorphism [29] (as Figure 3 shown).

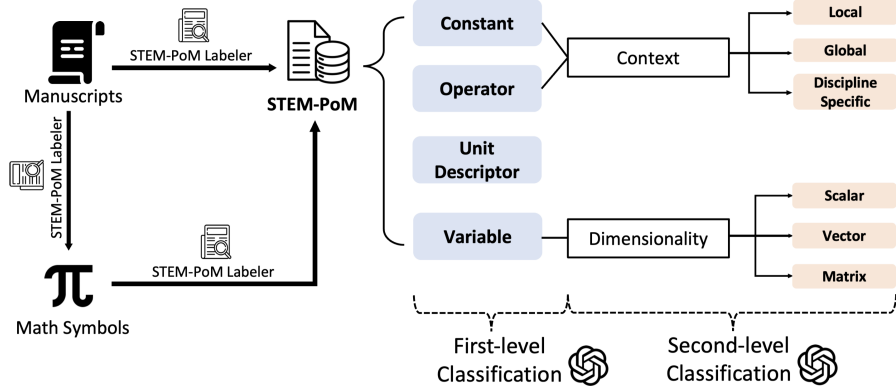


Figure 1: The overall pipeline for constructing the STEM-PoM dataset. We extract math symbols with corresponding text information to formulate the dataset. Each math symbol is initially classified into one of four primary categories based on its definition. Then, the symbol is further categorized into secondary categories by the context in which it appears or by the symbol’s dimensionality. An LLM is evaluated via the first-level and second-level classification tasks.

For example, in the linear equation: $y = mx + p$, y is categorized as a variable. Whereas in the cross-entropy loss function: $\mathcal{L}(x, y) = -\sum_{i=1}^N x_i \log(y_i)$, the symbol y represents the fixed target labels, which is considered a constant for a given dataset. Without the corresponding contextual information of a mathematical symbol, LLMs are unable to distinguish between different attributes of the symbol and cannot effectively process related mathematical reasoning tasks. Thus, tagging math symbols within domain-specific contexts is essential for language models.

In this paper, we introduce a novel benchmark dataset, **STEM-PoM**, designed to evaluate the reasoning capabilities of language models on mathematical symbols across different domains. The STEM-PoM dataset consists of 2,109 instances extracted from a random sampling of over 10,000 arXiv manuscripts, which are math-rich documents spanning domains such as Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and more. We provide a mathematical symbol for each dataset instance, its order in the document, its main and sub-level attributes, and the corresponding text or expression from the original arXiv paper containing the symbol. Each mathematical symbol in the dataset is classified according to two levels of attributes [30]. The first-level attribute categorizes the symbol as variable, constant, operator, or unit descriptor. The second-level attribute further classifies the symbol into one of six types based on its first-level category: scalar, vector, matrix, local, global, or discipline-specific. Figure 1 illustrates the dataset’s category distribution. To further enrich the STEM-PoM dataset with additional arXiv manuscripts and other math-rich document resources, we also design the **STEM-PoM Labeler**, a feasible method for assisting dataset generation by automatically searching, extracting, and recording hand-labeled mathematical symbols and their corresponding context from long-text documents.

We conduct thorough experiments on the STEM-PoM dataset to assess the mathematical reasoning abilities of six open- and closed-source (large) language models, including LSTM [31], Mixtral-8x7B [32], Llama2-13B [33], and GPT-3.5 [34] with various prompting and fine-tuning strategies. The experiment results demonstrate that the complexity and difficulty of our dataset are sufficient to differentiate the performance levels across these models. Additionally, we investigate the influence of context length on the ability of language models to understand mathematical symbols.

2 STEM-PoM Dataset

2.1 Data Annotation

Source of Mathematical Symbols. The first crucial step in constructing the dataset is selecting high-quality mathematical symbols. For STEM-PoM, we primarily collect these symbols from two sources: 1. *Public math-symbol datasets*, where we directly utilize candidate mathematical symbols from the mathematical token definition extraction benchmark, MTDE [25]. 2. *Raw ArXiv papers*

Statistic	Number
Total Symbols	2,109
Unit Descriptor	129
Constant	384
- Local	171
- Global	121
- Discipline Specific	92
Operator	363
- Local	181
- Global	105
- Discipline Specific	77
Variable	1,233
- Scalar	601
- Vector	599
- Matrix	33
Avg symbols per article	4.7
Avg tokens per sentence	31.8
Avg tokens per math symbol	1.07

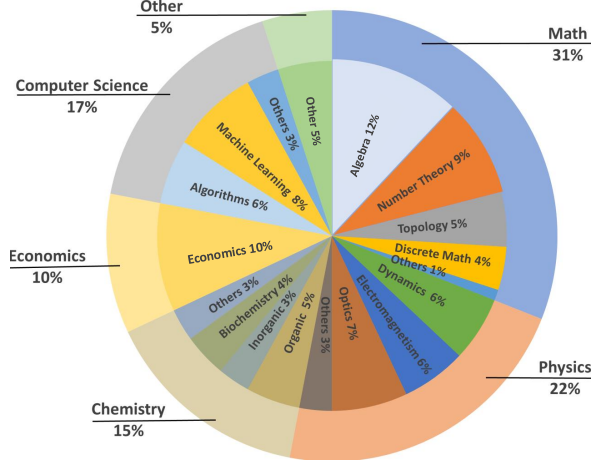


Table 1: STEM-PoM Dataset Statistics Figure 2: Discipline Distribution from Source ArXiv

File Name	Symbol Order	Symbol	Main Attribute	Sub Attribute	Related Contents
9509/adap-org9509001.html	0	f	Constant	Global	...1/f noise was discovered...
9509/adap-org9509001.html	1	Δ	Operator	Global	...can be quantified by studying the displacement ΔX
9509/adap-org9509001.html	2	X	Unit Descriptor	-	...can be quantified by studying the displacement ΔX
9509/adap-org9509001.html	3	t	Variable	Scalar	...after t steps, we can...
...

Table 2: STEM-PoM Dataset Structure

[35], where we apply the STEM-PoM Labeler to identify and extract mathematical symbols from the ArXiv dataset. We include a detailed description of each source dataset in Appendix A.2.

Dataset Construction. After obtaining the mathematical symbols, we categorize each symbol into different attributes and assign corresponding information to construct the STEM-PoM dataset. Specifically, we first extract the file name and symbol order for each mathematical symbol. Then, for each symbol, we extract the contexts in which the symbol appears, using several predefined lengths. Following this, we manually classify each symbol into four primary categories: Variable, Constant, Operator, and Unit Descriptor. For Variable, Constant, and Operator, we further categorize them into sub-level categories. The variable is classified as Vector, Scalar, or Matrix, while Constant and Operator are categorized as Local, Global, or Discipline-Specific. Table 2 outlines the overall dataset structure. We manually examine each entry of the dataset thoroughly to ensure its robustness and correctness. We provide a detailed explanation of the dataset structure in Appendix A.3 and the definitions of each level’s attributes in Appendix A.4. Additionally, the STEM-PoM Labeler is described in Appendix A.5.

2.2 Dataset Statistics

We summarize the key statistics of our dataset in this section. Table 1 presents the categorical statistics, including the math symbols along with their first- and second-level attributes. The distribution of Variables, Constants, Operators, and Unit Descriptors is 58.5%, 18.2%, 17.2%, and 6.1%, respectively. In addition, Figure 2 illustrates the discipline distribution of the source arXiv papers. Our dataset covers mathematical symbols from various fields, including Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Economics, Computer Science, etc.

3 Experiments

3.1 Setup

Models. To thoroughly evaluate our dataset across models with varying parameter sizes, we utilize the following models: LSTM framework [31], Llama-2-13B [33], Mixtral-8x7B-v0.1 [32], and GPT-3.5-turbo-0125 [34].

Table 3: First-level classification accuracy with various context lengths.

Models	Context Length	Overall	Variable	Constant	Operator	Unit Descriptor
LSTM	One Sentence	18.7%	24.5%	13.2%	10.3%	27.1%
	Ten Sentences	22.6%	28.1%	16.8%	15.5%	30.2%
	Full Manuscript	-	-	-	-	-
Llama2-13B	One Sentence	36.8%	24.1%	39.3%	41.4%	42.7%
	Ten Sentences	42.7%	35.6%	39.8%	46.9%	48.5%
	Full Manuscript	45.9%	38.2%	42.8%	50.1%	52.4%
Mistral-8x7B	One Sentence	47.3%	38.50%	41.7%	52.9%	56.2%
	Ten Sentences	49.8%	41.8%	45.9%	58.6%	56.7%
	Full Manuscript	53.6%	45.7%	48.9%	61.4%	58.2%
GPT-3.5 (Vanilla)	One Sentence	56.8%	51.5%	53.5%	59.4%	62.4%
	Ten Sentences	58.7%	54.5%	53.6%	61.3%	65.1%
	Full Manuscript	60.6%	57.2%	56.6%	63.2%	65.2%
GPT-3.5 (Fine-tuned)	One Sentence	67.4%	64.8%	67.5%	71.4%	66.1%
	Ten Sentences	66.9%	65.4%	66.6%	71.3%	64.5%
	Full Manuscript	62.2%	58.4%	62.2%	65.1%	63.2%

Table 4: Second-level classification accuracy with full manuscript input (Ten-sentence input for LSTM). We abbreviate "Discipline Specific" as "DS".

Models	Variable			Constant			Operator		
	Scalar	Vector	Matrix	Local	DS	Global	Local	DS	Global
(Vanilla)									
LSTM	13.8%	15.1%	17.2%	19.2%	17.8%	22.2%	16.6%	11.3%	14.6%
Llama2-13B	27.3%	24.4%	21.8%	33.6%	31.5%	33.6%	32.4%	28.3%	32.7%
Mistral-8x7B	36.9%	35.8%	21.6%	34.8%	31.2%	37.8%	36.4%	34.8%	35.7%
GPT-3.5	44.5%	45.8%	48.3%	48.5%	42.9%	44.3%	48.4%	43.5%	49.7%

Evaluation Metrics. We apply the *Precision Accuracy* as our metric for the mathematical symbol classification task, the metric can be formulated as: $Precision\ Accuracy = \frac{Number\ of\ correct\ predictions}{Total\ number\ of\ samples}$

Training & Inference Details. We evaluate several models under both pre-training and fine-tuning settings. Specifically, we train an LSTM model with varying layers and apply the LoRA method [36, 37], a PEFTR technique, to GPT-3.5. For other models, we evaluate them under the in-context learning setting. The training and model parameter details are provided in Appendix C.

3.2 Main Results

First-Level Classification Results. Table 3 presents the accuracy results on different model sizes and context lengths. The LSTM model struggles with accuracies around 18.7% to 22.6%, while larger models, such as Llama2-13B and Mistral-8x7B, show steady improvements as context length increases. GPT-3.5 (Vanilla) achieves a strong baseline, with accuracies from 56.8% to 60.6%. Notably, the fine-tuned GPT-3.5 model performs best overall, reaching 67.4% accuracy. However, its performance diminishes with longer context lengths, decreasing from 67.4% (one sentence) to 62.2% (full manuscript). This highlights the potential sensitivity of LLMs to long context, which may arise from irrelevant noisy context information introduced during the fine-tuning process.

Second-Level Classification Results. Table 4 shows second-level classification accuracy with full manuscript input. In this experiment, we assume that the model got the first-level classification correct. From the results, LSTM performs poorly, with accuracies as low as 11.3% for predicting the DS. Larger models, like Llama2-13B and Mistral-8x7B, improve performance, especially in classifying Constants (up to 37.8%). GPT-3.5 achieves the best results, with 48.5% for Local Constants and 49.7% for Global Operators. The second-level Matrix and DS classification remains challenging for all models. Overall, the Constant is easier to categorize compared to the Variable and Operator. We leave additional experiments in Appendix D.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduce STEM-POM, a comprehensive benchmark for evaluating language models’ mathematical reasoning abilities to classify math symbols from scientific texts. The dataset includes over 2,000 math instances sourced from ArXiv papers. Extensive experiments show that the updated language models, achieves normal performance under both ICL and fine-tuning settings, highlighting the challenge of extracting and categorizing math symbols from large text corpora.

References

- [1] Jie Huang and Kevin Chen-Chuan Chang. Towards reasoning in large language models: A survey. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.10403*, 2022.
- [2] Muhammad Usman Hadi, Rizwan Qureshi, Abbas Shah, Muhammad Irfan, Anas Zafar, Muhammad Bilal Shaikh, Naveed Akhtar, Jia Wu, Seyedali Mirjalili, et al. A survey on large language models: Applications, challenges, limitations, and practical usage. *Authorea Preprints*, 2023.
- [3] Muhammad Usman Hadi, Qasem Al Tashi, Abbas Shah, Rizwan Qureshi, Amgad Muneer, Muhammad Irfan, Anas Zafar, Muhammad Bilal Shaikh, Naveed Akhtar, Jia Wu, et al. Large language models: a comprehensive survey of its applications, challenges, limitations, and future prospects. *Authorea Preprints*, 2024.
- [4] Yuanchun Li, Hao Wen, Weijun Wang, Xiangyu Li, Yizhen Yuan, Guohong Liu, Jiacheng Liu, Wenxing Xu, Xiang Wang, Yi Sun, et al. Personal llm agents: Insights and survey about the capability, efficiency and security. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.05459*, 2024.
- [5] Tom B Brown. Language models are few-shot learners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2005.14165*, 2020.
- [6] Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. Large language models are zero-shot reasoners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:22199–22213, 2022.
- [7] Yuan Sui, Jiaru Zou, Mengyu Zhou, Xinyi He, Lun Du, Shi Han, and Dongmei Zhang. Tap4llm: Table provider on sampling, augmenting, and packing semi-structured data for large language model reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.09039*, 2023.
- [8] Lyn D English. *Mathematical reasoning: Analogies, metaphors, and images*. Routledge, 2013.
- [9] Bat-Sheva Ilany, Bruria Margolin, et al. Language and mathematics: Bridging between natural language and mathematical language in solving problems in mathematics. *Creative Education*, 1(03):138, 2010.
- [10] Shima Imani, Liang Du, and Harsh Shrivastava. Mathprompter: Mathematical reasoning using large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.05398*, 2023.
- [11] Janice Ahn, Rishu Verma, Renze Lou, Di Liu, Rui Zhang, and Wenpeng Yin. Large language models for mathematical reasoning: Progresses and challenges. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.00157*, 2024.
- [12] Renrui Zhang, Dongzhi Jiang, Yichi Zhang, Haokun Lin, Ziyu Guo, Pengshuo Qiu, Aojun Zhou, Pan Lu, Kai-Wei Chang, Peng Gao, et al. Mathverse: Does your multi-modal llm truly see the diagrams in visual math problems? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.14624*, 2024.
- [13] Pan Lu, Hritik Bansal, Tony Xia, Jiacheng Liu, Chunyuan Li, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Hao Cheng, Kai-Wei Chang, Michel Galley, and Jianfeng Gao. Mathvista: Evaluating mathematical reasoning of foundation models in visual contexts. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.02255*, 2023.
- [14] Abdou Youssef. Part-of-math tagging and applications. In *International Conference on Intelligent Computer Mathematics*, pages 356–374. Springer, 2017.
- [15] Helmut Schmid. Part-of-speech tagging with neural networks. *arXiv preprint cmp-lg/9410018*, 1994.

- [16] Ruocheng Shan and Abdou Youssef. Using large language models to automate annotation and part-of-math tagging of math equations. In *International Conference on Intelligent Computer Mathematics*, pages 3–20. Springer, 2024.
- [17] Ruocheng Shan and Abdou Youssef. Towards math terms disambiguation using machine learning. In *Intelligent Computer Mathematics: 14th International Conference, CICM 2021, Timisoara, Romania, July 26–31, 2021, Proceedings 14*, pages 90–106. Springer, 2021.
- [18] Fatimah Alshamari and Abdou Youssef. A study into math document classification using deep learning, 2020.
- [19] Jordan Meadows and André Freitas. A survey in mathematical language processing. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.15231*, 2022.
- [20] Rebecca Dridan and Stephan Oepen. Document parsing: Towards realistic syntactic analysis. In *Proceedings of The 13th International Conference on Parsing Technologies (IWPT 2013)*, pages 127–133, 2013.
- [21] Tak Cheung Lam, Jianxun Jason Ding, and Jyh-Charn Liu. Xml document parsing: Operational and performance characteristics. *Computer*, 41(9):30–37, 2008.
- [22] Dongxiang Zhang, Lei Wang, Luming Zhang, Bing Tian Dai, and Heng Tao Shen. The gap of semantic parsing: A survey on automatic math word problem solvers. *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence*, 42(9):2287–2305, 2019.
- [23] B Miller. Latexml the manual. *Web document*, 2011.
- [24] Michael Kohlhase et al. arxmliv project. <https://kwarc.info/projects/arXMLiv/>, 2024. Accessed: 2024-09-17.
- [25] Emma Hamel, Hongbo Zheng, and Nickvash Kani. An evaluation of nlp methods to extract mathematical token descriptors. In *International Conference on Intelligent Computer Mathematics*, pages 329–343. Springer, 2022.
- [26] Keiran Paster, Marco Dos Santos, Zhangir Azerbayev, and Jimmy Ba. Openwebmath: An open dataset of high-quality mathematical web text. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06786*, 2023.
- [27] Xiaoxuan Wang, Ziniu Hu, Pan Lu, Yanqiao Zhu, Jieyu Zhang, Satyen Subramaniam, Arjun R Loomba, Shichang Zhang, Yizhou Sun, and Wei Wang. Scibench: Evaluating college-level scientific problem-solving abilities of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.10635*, 2023.
- [28] Yiheng Liu, Tianle Han, Siyuan Ma, Jiayue Zhang, Yuanyuan Yang, Jiaming Tian, Hao He, Antong Li, Mengshen He, Zhengliang Liu, et al. Summary of chatgpt-related research and perspective towards the future of large language models. *Meta-Radiology*, page 100017, 2023.
- [29] Jan Frederik Schaefer and Michael Kohlhase. Towards an annotation standard for stem documents: Datasets, benchmarks, and spotters. In *International Conference on Intelligent Computer Mathematics*, pages 190–205. Springer, 2023.
- [30] Wikipedia. Glossary of mathematical symbols, 2023. Accessed: 2024-09-17.
- [31] Alex Graves and Alex Graves. Long short-term memory. *Supervised sequence labelling with recurrent neural networks*, pages 37–45, 2012.
- [32] Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Antoine Roux, Arthur Mensch, Blanche Savary, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de las Casas, Emma Bou Hanna, Florian Bressand, et al. Mixtral of experts. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.04088*, 2024.
- [33] 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.

- [34] Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. Gpt-4 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*, 2023.
- [35] Colin B Clement, Matthew Bierbaum, Kevin P O’Keeffe, and Alexander A Alemi. On the use of arxiv as a dataset. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1905.00075*, 2019.
- [36] Edward J Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang, and Weizhu Chen. Lora: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2106.09685*, 2021.
- [37] Jiaru Zou, Mengyu Zhou, Tao Li, Shi Han, and Dongmei Zhang. Promptintern: Saving inference costs by internalizing recurrent prompt during large language model fine-tuning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.02211*, 2024.
- [38] Daniel W Lozier. Nist digital library of mathematical functions. *Annals of Mathematics and Artificial Intelligence*, 38:105–119, 2003.
- [39] Ronald Rosenfeld. Two decades of statistical language modeling: Where do we go from here? *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 88(8):1270–1278, 2000.
- [40] Wayne Xin Zhao, Kun Zhou, Junyi Li, Tianyi Tang, Xiaolei Wang, Yupeng Hou, Yingqian Min, Beichen Zhang, Junjie Zhang, Zican Dong, et al. A survey of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.18223*, 2023.
- [41] Yoshua Bengio, Réjean Ducharme, and Pascal Vincent. A neural probabilistic language model. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 13, 2000.
- [42] Tomas Mikolov. Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1301.3781*, 2013.
- [43] Alec Radford, Jeffrey Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, Ilya Sutskever, et al. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners. *OpenAI blog*, 1(8):9, 2019.
- [44] Diederik P Kingma. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6980*, 2014.

the extracted symbols and contexts are systematically cleaned and structured to facilitate further classification and analysis.

A.3 Dataset Definitions in Table 2

File Name: This attribute serves as a reference point, indicating the source of the file. Specifically, it denotes the arXiv article from which the dataset extracts its contents.

Symbol Order: This component records the sequence in which mathematical symbols appear within the article. By capturing the ordinal position of each symbol, we facilitate a structured analysis of the symbols' progression and their contextual relationships within the document.

Symbols: This field encapsulates the mathematical symbols themselves, predominantly consisting of Greek letters, albeit inclusive of additional characters. The precise documentation of these symbols is paramount for the subsequent analytical processes.

Main and Sub Attributes: These attributes categorize each mathematical symbol into specific classes, delineating a hierarchical structure within the dataset. This classification scheme is vital for understanding the symbols' roles and relationships within the mathematical discourse.

Related Contents: This segment comprises the words or sentences surrounding each symbol, embodying a critical resource for our model training. The contextual information surrounding each symbol is indispensable, as it imbues our models with a deeper understanding of each symbol's application and significance within the mathematical narrative.

A.4 First-Level and Second-Level Attributes Definition

Constant: A value that does not change in a mathematical expression.

Local Constant: Constant that is specific to a particular system or model, such as the gravitational constant in a simulation of a specific planetary system.

Global Constant: Constant that is applicable in all contexts, like the speed of light in a vacuum.

Discipline-specified Constant: Constant that applies to particular fields of study, for instance, Planck's constant in quantum mechanics.

Operator: A symbol that operates on one or more operands.

Local Operators: Operator that is applied in a localized or specific context within a discipline, like a self-defined operation in matrix processing.

Global Operators: Operators that is used broadly across different disciplines, like the addition or multiplication operator.

Discipline-specified Operators: Operator that is unique to certain fields, such as the Hamiltonian operator in quantum physics.

Variable: A symbol that represents an unknown or changeable quantity in a mathematical expression.

Scalar: A quantity that has only magnitude, no direction.

Vector: A quantity that has both magnitude and direction.

Matrix: A rectangular array of numbers or symbols arranged in rows and columns.

A.5 STEM-PoM Labeler

During the dataset construction, a pivotal step involves the meticulous annotation of each mathematical symbol with corresponding tags. This process, inherently labor-intensive and repetitive, necessitates a systematic approach to mitigate the workload and facilitate collaboration among the research team members. To address these challenges, we developed a labeling pipeline designed to streamline the dataset construction process. The UI design is shown in figure 4. The functionalities are delineated below:

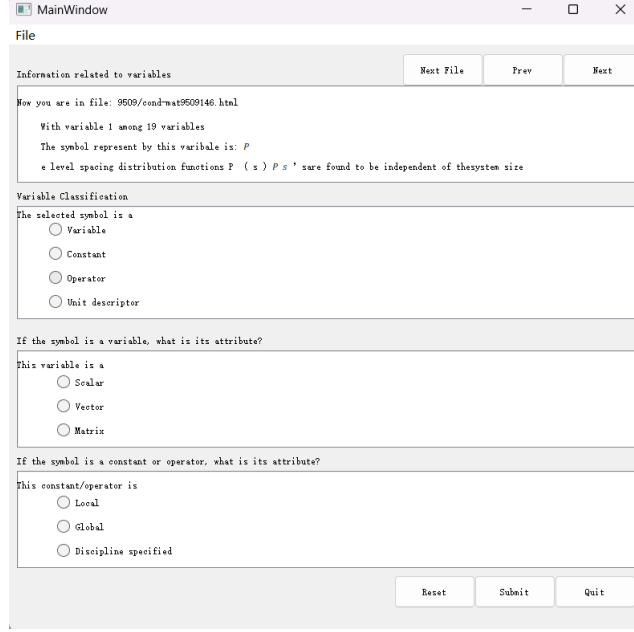


Figure 4: The UI Design of STEM-PoM Labeler

File Reading: We initiate the data importing operation progress by importing files from the designated arXiv folder, ensuring a structured and accessible repository of mathematical documents for subsequent processing.

Symbol Identification and Contextualization: For each file, we enumerate and display essential information: the current file being processed, the total number of symbols within, the sequence number of the current symbol, the graphical representation of the symbol, and the contextual content surrounding the symbol. This feature aids in providing a comprehensive overview and facilitates accurate symbol annotation.

Annotation Interface: We then present a user-friendly interface offering a set of predefined tagging options for each symbol. Through the designed interface, we easily select the most appropriate tag from these options, standardizing the labeling process and enhancing the consistency of the dataset.

Data Recording: Upon the selection of a tag for a symbol, We record this association by appending a new line to the dataset, capturing the symbol along with its assigned tag. This systematic data recording ensures the integrity and scalability of the MTCE dataset.

Dataset Evaluation: After constructing the dataset, we manually evaluate the quality and applicability of the annotated data. Specifically, we process the evaluation process through the following steps: Consistency Check, Inter-annotator Agreement, Statistical Analysis, and Benchmark Testing.

B Backgrounds

Part-of-Math (PoM) Tagging : The part-of-math tagging task draws inspiration from similar tagging tasks such as part-of-speech tagging [15]. In the PoM context, the goal is to label individual mathematical tokens or expressions in math formulas with their corresponding mathematical roles. Such a task is essential for enabling a deeper semantic understanding of mathematical content by machines. Several datasets or benchmarks have been developed for the part-of-tagging task, but there also remain several challenges. Abdou [14] collects mathematical content, such as formula representation and tagging for specific mathematical formula translations and verifications, including converting formulae into semantic LaTeX or testing with tools like CAS (Computer Algebra Systems). However, this focus on structured and narrow formula translations does not align with the broader, more diverse text-based tasks required to assess NLP models, due to the lack of scalability features in the collected math symbols. Ruocheng [17, 16] recently evaluated the potential of leveraging

LLMs for automated annotation and Part-of-Math tagging of math symbols. However, their PoM tagging was conducted on the Digital Library of Mathematical Functions (DLMF) [38]. Since the source of math symbols is only one manuscript, the mathematical tokens collected only have a single classification type and are self-consistent. In contrast, our dataset incorporates the inherent messiness of published literature across several STEM subjects, where these domain-specific math symbols can have multiple classifications or meanings depending on the discipline and related context information.

Large Language Models: Pre-trained large language models (LLMs) have become a cornerstone in modern NLP [39, 40]. These models, which assign probabilities to word sequences by decomposing the probability of a sequence into the product of conditional probabilities of subsequent tokens, have evolved significantly over time. Early approaches were based on N-gram models, but with the advent of distributed word embeddings [41, 42], neural language models gained prominence. The scalability and performance improvements introduced by these models, along with the availability of vast textual data, have enabled the unsupervised pre-training of LLMs. These models, often referred to as foundation models [43, 6], can then be fine-tuned on smaller, task-specific datasets to adapt them for various downstream applications. For STEM-POM, we apply one traditional sequence-based NLP model, LSTM [31], and several recent LLMs for our dataset evaluation.

C Additional Experiment Setups

Training Details In our experiments, we train an LSTM with varying numbers of layers for the mathematical symbol classification tasks. For LLMs, we choose GPT-3.5 and apply a common parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) method, LoRA [36], to evaluate the model precision performance. We split our dataset into 80%/10%/10% for training/validation/testing sets.

Model Parameters For the LSTM model, we use different layer sizes from {128, 256, 512, 1024}. The hidden state size is set to 256, the learning rate is set from {0.1, 0.01, 0.001}, the training epoch is 5, and the batch size is 16. We utilize the Adam optimizer [44]. For GPT-3.5 fine-tuning, we use the GPT-3.5-turbo-0125 model version and set the training epoch to 3. For LoRA fine-tuning, we set the LoRA rank to 32, batch size to 32, weight decay to 0.01, dropout to 0.1, and learning rate to $1e^{-4}$.

Table 5: LSTM first-level classification accuracy based on different model sizes

Model size(layers)	Variable	Constant	Operator	Unit Descriptor
128	24.5%	13.2%	10.3%	27.1%
256	28.7%	17.9%	15.7%	32.5%
512	34.2%	23.2%	24.9%	40.0%
1024	46.5%	35.9%	44.2%	51.3%

Table 6: LSTM first-level classification accuracy based on different input context lengths.

Context Length	Variable	Constant	Operator	Unit Descriptor
One Sentence	24.5%	13.2%	10.3%	27.1%
Five Sentence	26.3%	15.6%	14.1%	29.2%
Ten Sentence	28.1%	16.8%	15.5%	30.2%

D Additional Experiments

LSTM Accuracy vs Model Size Table 5 presents the classification accuracy of an LSTM model for first-level classification across different model sizes, ranging from 128 to 1024 layers. Note that we set the input context length to be one sentence. The results show a clear positive correlation between the model size and classification accuracy across all four categories. For the smallest model (128 layers), the accuracy ranges from 10.3% for the Operator class to 27.1% for the Unit Descriptor class. As the model size increases, the performance improves notably, with the largest model (1024 layers) achieving a significant increase in accuracy, ranging from 35.9% for the Constant class to 51.3% for the Unit Descriptor class. The most substantial improvements are observed in the Operator category,

where accuracy increases from 10.3% for 128 layers to 44.2% for 1024 layers. These results suggest that larger model sizes are more effective in capturing complex patterns.

LSTM Accuracy vs Data Input Lengths Table 6 displays the classification accuracy of an LSTM model across varying input context lengths across four categories. A trend of increasing accuracy can be observed as the input length increases. For instance, in the Variable category, the accuracy increases from 24.5% for one sentence to 28.1% for ten sentences. Similarly, for the Constant category, accuracy rises from 13.2% for one sentence to 16.8% for ten sentences. The Operator category shows a modest increase from 10.3% to 15.5% as the input length expands. Finally, for the Unit Descriptor category, accuracy grows from 27.1% to 30.2%. These results suggest that longer input data contributes to improved classification accuracy.