ADAPTIVE TRANSFORMER PROGRAMS: BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN PERFORMANCE AND INTERPRETABILITY IN TRANSFORMERS

Anonymous authorsPaper under double-blind review

000

001

002

004

006

008 009 010

011 012 013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

023

025

026

027

028

029

031

033

035

037

040

041

042

043

044

046

047

048

051

052

ABSTRACT

Balancing high performance with interpretability in increasingly powerful Transformer-based models remains a challenge. While mechanistic interpretability aims to specify neural network computations in explicit, pseudocode-like formats, existing methods often involve laborious manual analysis or struggle to fully elucidate learned internal algorithms. Recent efforts to build intrinsically interpretable models have introduced considerable expressivity and optimization challenges. This work introduces Adaptive Transformer Programs, an enhanced framework building upon RASP language and Transformer Programs to create more robust and interpretable models. The proposed method increases expressivity by redesigning two primary attention modules to improve categorical and numerical reasoning capabilities. To overcome optimization hurdles, we introduce a novel reparameterization scheme that enhances the exploration-exploitation tradeoff during training. We validate our approach through extensive experiments on diverse tasks, including in-context learning, algorithmic problems (e.g., sorting and Dyck languages), and NLP benchmarks such as named entity recognition and text classification. Results demonstrate that Adaptive Transformer Programs substantially narrow the performance gap between black-box Transformers and interpretable models, enhancing transparency. This work advances the development of high-performing, transparent AI systems for critical applications, addressing crucial ethical concerns in AI development.

1 Introduction

Balancing high performance with model interpretability has emerged as a central challenge in artificial intelligence. The introduction of Transformer architectures (Vaswani et al., 2017) and the rise of large language models (LLMs) (Brown et al., 2020) have significantly advanced natural language processing. However, these powerful models often operate as "black boxes," making it difficult to understand their decision-making processes. This issue is especially critical in fields like healthcare, finance, and law, where AI-driven decisions can have profound impacts. Addressing this challenge within the context of Transformers and LLMs is both timely and essential.

Various interpretability techniques have been proposed to illuminate how AI models make decisions, each offering unique insights yet presenting distinct challenges. Behavioral approaches, such as those by Ribeiro et al. (2020); Warstadt et al. (2020), probe model responses to diverse inputs, providing an external view of model behavior but lacking access to internal reasoning mechanisms. Attribution methods like Integrated Gradients (Sundararajan et al., 2017) and SmoothGrad (Smilkov et al., 2017) quantify the influence of input features on predictions but often fail to capture underlying causal relationships. Concept-based interpretabilities (Kim et al., 2018; Belinkov, 2022) adopt a top-down approach to unraveling a model's decision-making processes but risk introducing biases through subjective concept selection. Mechanistic interpretability efforts (Elhage et al., 2021; Nanda et al., 2023) delve into the internal computations of models but struggle with scalability as model complexity grows. These limitations underscore the necessity for inherently interpretable models that offer transparent decision-making processes without sacrificing performance.

Advancements such as RASP, Tracr, and Transformer Programs represent significant strides toward inherently interpretable Transformer models. RASP (Weiss et al., 2021) introduces a programming language that allows users to define Transformer operations in a human-readable format, effectively mapping neural computations to symbolic logic. Building on this, Tracr (Lindner et al., 2024) serves as a compiler that translates RASP programs into actual Transformer weights, bridging the gap between high-level specifications and low-level implementations. Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024) take this a step further by proposing a method to train Transformers that can be directly translated into discrete, interpretable programs. While these innovations move us closer to transparent AI systems, challenges in expressivity and optimization persist. Our work addresses these challenges by introducing novel enhancements to Transformer Programs.

In this paper, we introduce three key innovations that enhance the expressivity and optimization of Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024) while preserving interpretability. First, we propose a seamless transition mechanism between Gumbel-Softmax and Sparsemax, improving the exploration-exploitation trade-off during training by allowing the model to dynamically adjust its attention distributions. Second, we develop an uncertainty-aware attention mechanism that integrates categorical and score-based attention through Jensen-Shannon Divergence, enabling the model to handle varying levels of uncertainty in data processing. Third, we enhance the numerical mechanism by incorporating positional encodings. These contributions not only extend the functional capacity of Transformer Programs but also maintain their inherent interpretability, addressing limitations in previous approaches.

Our extensive validation on diverse tasks, including in-context learning, algorithmic problems (Weiss et al., 2021), and NLP benchmarks, demonstrates the effectiveness of our *Adaptive Transformer Programs*. Experimental results show a substantial improvement in bridging the performance gap between black-box Transformers and interpretable models while offering enhanced transparency. This work not only advances the state-of-the-art in interpretable AI but also paves the way for the responsible and ethical integration of AI systems in critical applications, potentially transforming how we develop and deploy AI in high-stakes environments.

2 Background

Transformer Architecture and Circuits. The Transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017) has revolutionized sequential data processing, achieving unprecedented performance across NLP tasks. It processes token sequences $\boldsymbol{w} = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_N\}$ from a vocabulary \mathcal{V} , converting each into a high-dimensional embedding. The initial representation $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ combines learned token embeddings with positional encodings, crucial for capturing sequential information. The architecture consists of L layers, each refining the input representation through two main components: Multi-Head Attention (MHA) and Multilayer Perceptron (MLP). The output of layer i is computed as:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_{i-1} + \text{MLP}_i(\mathbf{x}_{i-1} + \text{MHA}_i(\mathbf{x}_{i-1})), \tag{1}$$

where MHA allows the model to attend to different positions within the sequence:

$$MHA(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{h=1}^{H} softmax \left(\frac{\mathbf{x} \mathbf{W}_{Q}^{h} (\mathbf{x} \mathbf{W}_{K}^{h})^{\top}}{\sqrt{d_{k}}} \right) \mathbf{x} \mathbf{W}_{V}^{h} \mathbf{W}_{O}^{h}.$$
(2)

Recent research has focused on understanding Transformers through the lens of "Transformer circuits" (Elhage et al., 2021), viewing them as a residual stream architecture where each component reads from and writes to a running representation:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_{i-1} + f(\mathbf{x}_{i-1} \mathbf{W}_{in}) \mathbf{W}_{out} \tag{3}$$

This approach has yielded insights into emergent behaviors, such as induction heads for in-context learning (Olsson et al., 2022). While offering insights into attention heads and neurons, their approach to interpretability is limited by the complexity of modern models. This has led to efforts to bridge the gap between symbolic reasoning and neural network models.

Bridging Transformers and Programs. Bridging the gap between Transformers and symbolic programs has emerged as a promising direction for enhancing interpretability. RASP (Weiss et al., 2021) offers a programming language designed to express Transformer computations in a humanreadable format. Its key select function, analogous to attention in Transformers, which takes sequences of keys $k \in \mathcal{K}^N$ and queries $q \in \mathcal{Q}^M$, along with a boolean predicate $p: \mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{K} \to \{0,1\}$, to produce an attention matrix $A \in \{0,1\}^{M \times N}$. This is followed by an aggregate operation, akin to value aggregation in Transformers. Building on RASP, Lindner et al. (2024) introduced Tracr, a compiler that converts RASP programs into Transformer weights. This led to Learning Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024), a method for training Transformers that can be automatically converted into discrete, human-readable programs. This approach advances neural-symbolic integration by combining neural network expressiveness with symbolic transparency. However, a key challenge remains in implementing effective discrete optimization to ensure both accuracy and interpretability in the learned programs.

120 121 122

123

124

125

126

127

128

108

109

110

111 112 113

114

115

116

117

118

119

Discrete Optimization. Discrete optimization is crucial for training interpretable models with discrete representations like Transformer Programs. The Gumbel-Softmax estimator (Jang et al., 2017) enables differentiable sampling from discrete distributions, generating one-hot encoded vectors approximating discrete selections. This allows gradient-based optimization in Transformers. While effective, it has limitations in finding optimal solutions and promoting sparsity, crucial for interpretability. This paper explores alternative methods, including Sparsemax (Martins & Astudillo, 2016), and introduces a novel smooth transition mechanism addressing these limitations, leading to more effective, interpretable program learning.

129 130 131

132

133 134

ADAPTIVE TRANSFORMER PROGRAMS

3.1 Overview

135 136 137

138

139 140

146

147

148 149

150

151

152 153

154

155

156 157

158

159

160

161

Our approach builds upon the Transformer Programs framework (Friedman et al., 2024), which introduces two key constraints for interpretable Transformers: a disentangled residual stream and rule-based modules.

The disentangled residual stream encodes each program variable in a dedicated, orthogonal sub-

141 142 143 144 145

space, preventing the entanglement often seen in standard Transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) and facilitating clear reading and writing mechanisms. When reading, each module accesses specific variables using projection matrices parameterized by one-hot indicator vectors. Formally, if the residual stream encodes m categorical variables, each with cardinality k, resulting in input embeddings $\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^{N \times mk}$, then each projection matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{mk \times k}$ is defined by an indicator $\pi \in \{0,1\}^m$: $\mathbf{W} = [\pi_1 \mathbf{I}_k; \dots; \pi_m \mathbf{I}_k]^{\top}$, where \mathbf{I}_k is the $k \times k$ identity matrix. Writing involves concatenating new information to maintain separation: $\mathbf{x}_i = [\mathbf{x}_{i-1}; h(\mathbf{x}_{i-1})]$, where i denotes the

layer and h is an attention head.

Transformer Programs enforce interpretable, rule-based mappings between input and output variables. Categorical attention heads compute attention patterns using boolean predicate matrices and employ hard attention for aggregation. The attention pattern is determined using a boolean predicate matrix $\mathbf{W}_{\text{predicate}} \in \{0,1\}^{k \times k}$, defining mappings between query and key values. This results in an attention score matrix $\mathbf{S} \in \{0,1\}^{N \times N}$ where $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{x} \mathbf{W}_{Q} \mathbf{W}_{\text{predicate}} (\mathbf{x} \mathbf{W}_{K})^{\top}$. Hard attention ensures each query attends to a single key, producing a categorical output variable: $\mathbf{A}_i = \text{One-hot} (\arg \max_j \mathbf{S}_{i,j})$. Additional modules include factored categorical embeddings, limited numerical attention, and feed-forward layers as lookup tables.

While effective, the original framework's use of Gumbel-Softmax reparameterization (Jang et al., 2017) faces challenges in finding optimal solutions and promoting sparsity. Our work addresses these challenges through three main contributions: (1) a Smooth Transition Mechanism for discrete optimization, (2) Uncertainty-Aware Categorical Attention, and (3) Position-Aware Numerical Attention. These enhancements improve both interpretability and performance, leading to Adaptive Transformer Programs.

3.2 SMOOTH TRANSITION MECHANISM FOR DISCRETE OPTIMIZATION

Our Smooth Transition Mechanism facilitates effective discrete optimization in Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024) by gradually shifting from exploration to exploitation during training. The inherently discrete nature of Transformer Programs, with modules containing discrete parameters like predicate matrices and gate vectors, poses challenges for traditional gradient-based methods. To address this, differentiable relaxation techniques have been employed, with the Gumbel-Softmax estimator (Jang et al., 2017) being widely adopted:

$$\tilde{z}_i = \frac{z_i + g_i}{\tau} \tag{4}$$

$$y_{\text{soft},i} = \text{softmax}_i(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}) = \frac{\exp(\tilde{z}_i)}{\sum_j \exp(\tilde{z}_j)}.$$
 (5)

where g_i is Gumbel noise, τ is temperature, z_i is raw logit, and \tilde{z}_i is perturbed and scaled logit. However, Gumbel-Softmax (Jang et al., 2017) often yields sub-optimal programs due to local optima and fails to encourage sparsity, hindering interpretability and efficiency.

To address these limitations, we introduce a Smooth Transition Mechanism combining Gumbel-Softmax and Sparsemax (Martins & Astudillo, 2016). This hybrid approach balances exploration and exploitation during training. Initially, it behaves like Gumbel-Softmax, encouraging diverse program structures. As training progresses, it shifts towards a Sparsemax variant with Gumbel noise, which we term Gumbel-Sparsemax:

$$y_{\text{sparse},i} = \operatorname{sparsemax}(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}) := \underset{\mathbf{p} \in \Delta^{K-1}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \|\mathbf{p} - \tilde{\mathbf{z}}\|^2.$$
 (6)

where Δ^{K-1} is the (K-1)-dimensional probability simplex, and the equation finds the closest point to the perturbed logit $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}$. This promotes sparsity and more deterministic program choices, refining promising solutions and encouraging concise, interpretable programs. This balance enables the discovery of high-quality, interpretable, and efficient program structures.

The temperature parameter τ controls the smooth transition between Gumbel-Softmax and Gumbel-Sparsemax. High τ favors exploration (Gumbel-Softmax), while low τ promotes exploitation (Gumbel-Sparsemax). The transition is governed by $\alpha(\tau)$:

$$\alpha(\tau) = \frac{\tau_1 - \tau}{\tau_1 - \tau_2} \tag{7}$$

where τ_1, τ_2 are the transition points $(\tau_1 > \tau_2)$. The hybrid distribution is:

$$y = (1 - \alpha(\tau)) \cdot y_{\text{soft}} + \alpha(\tau) \cdot y_{\text{sparse}}$$
 (8)

While improving discrete optimization, this mechanism falls short of fully addressing the need for adaptability and robustness in real-world scenarios, motivating our next contribution: Uncertainty-Aware Attention.

3.3 Uncertainty-Aware Attention

Categorical attention heads in Transformer Programs, as in Tracr (Lindner et al., 2024) and RASP (Weiss et al., 2021), enforce one-to-one attention, excelling at discrete, rule-based relationships but struggling with nuanced or continuous relationships. Weiss et al. (2021) proposed an extension to RASP combining a binary function predicate : $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{K} \to \{0,1\}$ with a continuous function score : $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{K} \to \mathbb{R}$, capturing fine-grained relationships useful for tasks like semantic similarity in NLP. This continuous score function forms the basis of what we term *score-based attention*. While Friedman et al. (2024) suggested incorporating score-based attention in Transformer Programs, this approach increases program complexity. Our preliminary experiments with separate

 binary (predicate-based) and continuous functions (score-based) revealed scenario-dependent performance variations, motivating the development of a hybrid mechanism to create more Adaptive Transformer Programs.

We employ Jensen-Shannon Divergence (JSD) (Lin, 1991), a symmetric and smoothed version of Kullback-Leibler divergence (Kullback & Leibler, 1951), to measure uncertainty in categorical attention. JSD's non-negativity, boundedness, and symmetry make it suitable for this task. In this context, JSD measures uncertainty in probability distributions, where higher values indicate greater uncertainty and a larger divergence between categorical attention and a reference distribution. Given a query q and keys k_1, \ldots, k_n , we define categorical attention (CatAttention) as $\mathbf{A}_{\text{cat},i} = \operatorname{predicate}(q,k_i)$ and score-based attention (ScoreAttention) as $\mathbf{A}_{\text{score},i} = \operatorname{score}(q,k_i)$. We introduce a dynamic reference attention $\mathbf{A}_{\text{ref},i}$ that adapts during training, allowing flexible uncertainty estimation. The JSD is formulated as:

$$JSD(\mathbf{A}_{cat,i} \parallel \mathbf{A}_{ref,i}) = \frac{1}{2}KL(\mathbf{A}_{cat,i} \parallel \mathbf{A}_{avg,i}) + \frac{1}{2}KL(\mathbf{A}_{ref,i} \parallel \mathbf{A}_{avg,i})$$
(9)

where $\mathbf{A}_{\text{avg},i} = (\mathbf{A}_{\text{cat},i} + \mathbf{A}_{\text{ref},i})/2$. This formulation enables uncertainty estimation in the attention mechanism, which is used to adjust attention weights accordingly.

A learnable gating mechanism, driven by the JSD-based uncertainty estimate, dynamically weights the contributions of CatAttention and ScoreAttention. The gating mechanism: $g = \text{MLP}(\text{JSD}(\mathbf{A}_{\text{cat},i} \parallel \mathbf{A}_{\text{ref},i}))$, that implemented as a network module that takes the JSD value as input and outputs a gating weight between 0 and 1. This weight is used to combine the outputs of CatAttention and ScoreAttention:

$$\mathbf{A}_{i} = g \cdot \mathbf{A}_{\text{cat},i} + (1 - g) \cdot \mathbf{A}_{\text{score},i}$$
(10)

In high uncertainty scenarios (high JSD), the gate favors ScoreAttention, which is more reliable in uncertain contexts. In low uncertainty (low JSD), CatAttention is preferred, as it is more confident in its categorical decisions. This adaptive mechanism provides flexible and robust decision-making by dynamically adjusting the balance between attention types based on uncertainty.

While Uncertainty-Aware Attention improves the handling of categorical and contextual information, processing numerical data poses additional challenges. To address this, we introduce the Position-Aware Attention module, which extends the original Numerical Attention mechanism.

3.4 Position-Aware Attention

The numerical attention mechanism in Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024) is restricted to outputting integer values within a bounded range. This limitation hinders the model's ability to represent and process continuous or fractional values, thereby reducing expressiveness and complicating tasks that require nuanced numerical representations or complex calculations. Additionally, numerical attention employs a binary predicate matrix and computes a weighted sum instead of a weighted average, simplifying standard Transformer attention and diminishing the model's capacity to capture intricate relationships between inputs. Furthermore, numerical variables are limited to being either constant (set to one at the input layer) or outputs of numerical attention heads, constraining the model's ability to learn and represent arbitrary numerical values and restricting its problem-solving capabilities.

Our Position-Aware Attention mechanism extends the numerical attention in Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024). It uses categorical variables as keys and queries, and numerical variables as values. We incorporate both Learnable (Gehring et al., 2017) and Sinusoidal (Vaswani et al., 2017) Positional Encodings into the numerical value variable var, creating a position-aware value var_{pos} . This allows the model to learn nuanced positional relationships. Given attention scores $\mathbf{S} \in \{0,1\}^{N \times N}$, the output for the i^{th} token is computed as:

$$\mathbf{A}_{\text{num},i} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} S_{i,j} \text{var}_{\text{pos}}[j]$$
 (11)

283 284

287 289 291

293

295

296 297 298

299

306

307

308

309

310

323

The integration of learnable and sinusoidal positional encodings offers several advantages. Learnable encodings capture nuanced positional information and enable processing of non-integer values, expanding the model's numerical capabilities for tasks requiring fine-grained representations. By incorporating positional information, each token can distinguish between identical numerical values at different positions. Additionally, Sinusoidal Positional Encodings provide a structured approach to embedding positional information, improving the model's ability to handle sequence-dependent tasks and maintain interpretability. These enhancements, combined with the Smooth Transition Mechanism and Uncertainty-Aware Attention, enable Transformer Programs to be effectively converted into interpretable programs, as discussed in the subsequent section on Experimental Results.

Table 1: Accuracy (Acc.) and Program Length (Lines) for Transformer Programs (Baseline) and Adaptive Transformer Programs (Ours) on In-Context Learning (Friedman et al., 2024) and RASP tasks Weiss et al. (2021).

Dataset	Description	Example	Baseline		Ours	
Dataset	Description	Example		Lines	Acc.	Lines
Induction	In-context learning.	induction("a1b2b2a") = 1	100.0	107	100.0	101
Reverse	Reverse the order.	reverse("abbc") = "cbba"	99.74	859	99.99	779
Histogram	Count the number of tokens.	hist("abbc") = "1221"	99.94	199	99.95	189
Double hist.	Count the number of unique tokens sharing identical frequency count.	hist2("abbc") = "2112"	66.78	586	91.81	513
Sort	Arrange the input elements in alphabetically ascending order.	sort("cbba") = "abbc"	99.98	945	99.86	895
Most-Freq	Order unique elements by occurrence frequency, using earlier positions to break ties.	<pre>most_freq("abbc") = "bac"</pre>	76.44	1334	80.80	894
Dyck-1	Classify if each position i is a valid string(T), a valid prefix(P), or an invalid(F).	dyck1("(())") = "PTPTF"	99.69	1297	99.93	1086
Dyck-2	The same analysis with above, but in Dyck-2.	dyck2("(()[])") = "PPPPTPF"	97.98	1316	98.14	1065

EXPERIMENTS

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP AND DATASETS

To evaluate the effectiveness of Adaptive Transformer Programs, we conducted experiments on a diverse set of tasks: a simple in-context learning task (Friedman et al., 2024), algorithmic RASP tasks (Weiss et al., 2021), and two standard NLP tasks—named entity recognition using CoNLL-2003 (Tjong Kim Sang & De Meulder, 2003) and text classification using TREC, MR, Subj., and AG News datasets (Voorhees & Tice, 2000; Pang & Lee, 2004; 2005; Zhang et al., 2015). In the in-context learning task, the model processed sequences of up to 10 tokens of alternating letters and numbers from a vocabulary of four letters and four numbers, outputting the number following a repeated letter or unk for a new letter, using an attention-only Transformer with two layers and one attention head per layer, fixed one-hot encoded token and position variables as input, and a causal attention mask. For the RASP tasks, as summarized in Table 1, we tested our models on small-scale datasets with sequence lengths up to 16 (Dyck tasks) or 8 (others), using vocabularies matching the sequence lengths; the models employed fixed one-hot token and position embeddings, variable cardinality set to the maximum sequence length, and incorporated our enhanced modules-Uncertainty-Aware categorical attention and Position-Aware numerical attention heads and MLPs with two input variables. In the NLP tasks, sentences were limited to 32 words for named entity recognition and 64 words for text classification, both using a 10,000-word vocabulary and initialized with 300-dimensional GloVe embeddings (Pennington et al., 2014); for named entity recognition, only categorical attention heads and MLPs were employed, while text classification used averaged token embeddings for sentence representation.

4.2 IN-CONTEXT LEARNING AND RASP TASKS

Performance. Table 1 compares Adaptive Transformer Programs (Ours) to Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024) (Baseline) across eight tasks, showing improvements in accuracy and program complexity. Our approach consistently matches or outperforms the baseline, with notable gains

in challenging tasks: Double histogram (91.81% vs 66.78%) and Most-Freq (80.80% vs 76.44%). For tasks like Induction and Sort, where baseline accuracy was already high, our model maintains performance (100% and 99.86% respectively) while reducing program complexity. Slight accuracy improvements are observed in Reverse, Histogram, and Dyck-1 tasks. Interestingly, for the Dyck-2 task, which involves more complex string analysis, our model achieves a small increase in accuracy from 97.98% to 98.14%. These results demonstrate that Adaptive Transformer Programs maintain high accuracy across diverse RASP tasks while showing significant improvements in challenging scenarios, highlighting the effectiveness of our proposed enhancements in complex reasoning tasks.

Interpretability. A key advantage of Adaptive Transformer Programs is their ability to achieve more concise and interpretable representations, evidenced by the reduced program length (lines of code) across all tasks in Table 1. This improved sparsity not only suggests greater computational efficiency but also enhances interpretability, making it easier to understand the model's decision-making process. Notably, our approach achieves substantial reductions in program length for both complex tasks like Dyck-1 (16.3% reduction) and Dyck-2 (19.1% reduction) and simpler tasks like Induction (5.6% reduction) and Histogram (5% reduction). The most significant reduction is observed in the Most-Freq task (33% reduction, from 1334 to 894 lines). These improvements in conciseness, combined with maintained or improved accuracy across tasks, demonstrate the effectiveness of Adaptive Transformer Programs in balancing performance with interpretability.

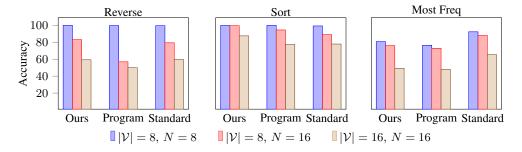


Figure 1: RASP accuracy comparison of Adaptive Transformer Programs (Ours), Program Transformers (Program), and Standard Transformers (Standard) across increasing input vocabulary sizes $(|\mathcal{V}|)$ and sequence lengths (N).

Scalability. Adaptive Transformer Programs demonstrate robust scalability when faced with increasing input complexity, outperforming both Program Transformers and Standard Transformers in some scenarios. Figure 1 illustrates the performance across three representative RASP tasks (Reverse, Sort, and Most Freq) as we increase the input vocabulary size ($|\mathcal{V}|$) from 8 to 16 and the maximum sequence length (N) from 8 to 16. For the Reverse task, our model maintains high accuracy (99.99%) with $|\mathcal{V}|=8$ and N=8, and experiences less degradation (83.11% and 59.35%) compared to baselines as complexity increases. In the Sort task, Adaptive Transformer Programs consistently outperform Standard Transformers and show better resilience than Program Transformers, maintaining 87.6% accuracy even at $|\mathcal{V}|=16$ and N=16. The Most Freq task presents a challenge for all models, but our approach still demonstrates competitive performance, particularly at higher complexities. These results highlight the superior scalability of Adaptive Transformer Programs, showing their potential for handling more complex, real-world data distributions while maintaining interpretability.

Ablation Study. Table 2 presents our comprehensive ablation study, evaluating the impact of three key enhancements: the Smooth Transition Mechanism, Uncertainty-Aware Attention, and Position-Aware Attention on the Most-Freq task. We manually enable or disable these components in various combinations, training separate models for each configuration. The results reveal that the full model, with all enhancements enabled, achieves the highest accuracy of 80.8% while maintaining a relatively concise program length of 894 lines. As observed in the ablation study where only Smooth Transition is enabled and the others disabled, while the Smooth Transition Mechanism (which incorporates Gumbel-Sparsemax) contributes significantly to program conciseness, it also shows a slight decrease in accuracy when used in isolation, highlighting the trade-off between interpretability and

Table 2: Ablation study on Most-Freq task: Impact of model enhancements on performance (Accuracy) and program length (Lines).

Smooth Transition Mechanism	Uncertainty-Aware Attention	•		Lines
\checkmark	✓	✓	80.8	894
\checkmark	✓	-	78.25	850
✓	-	\checkmark	75.01	939
-	✓	\checkmark	78.62	938
\checkmark	-	-	73.61	920
-	✓	-	77.34	896
-	-	\checkmark	76.26	1028
-	-	-	76.44	1334

performance. Disabling individual components leads to performance drops, with Uncertainty-Aware Attention showing the most significant impact (accuracy decrease to 75.01% when disabled). Notably, removing all enhancements (equivalent to baseline Transformer Programs) results in a lower accuracy (76.44%) and the longest program (1334 lines), highlighting the cumulative benefit of our proposed enhancements. When multiple components are disabled, the performance declines further—removing both Uncertainty-Aware Attention and Position-Aware Attention leads to an accuracy of 73.61% and a less efficient program length of 920 lines. These results demonstrate the critical role each enhancement plays in maintaining high performance and concise, interpretable program structures.

4.3 NLP TASKS

Table 3: NER Performance Metrics and Program Length on CoNLL-2003 Dataset.

Model	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1	Lines
Standard Transformers	92.2	71.1	62.5	66.6	-
Transformer Programs	94.2	78.9	72.9	75.8	991
Ours	94.1	77.2	73.2	75.1	916

Named Entity Recognition (NER). On the CoNLL-2003 Named Entity Recognition (NER) task, a standard benchmark for sequence labeling, Adaptive Transformer Programs demonstrate competitive performance while offering significant advantages in interpretability. Table 3 presents the results, comparing our approach to Standard Transformers and Transformer Programs. Our model achieves 94.1% accuracy, closely matching the 94.2% of Transformer Programs and significantly outperforming the 92.2% of Standard Transformers. Although the F1 scores are similar across Transformer Program and our approach (75.8 and 75.1, respectively), Adaptive Transformer Programs achieve this performance with a notably shorter program length (916 lines compared to 991). This conciseness, indicative of greater program sparsity, is a key advantage, promoting easier analysis and understanding of the learned programs, a crucial aspect for interpretability. This result highlights the ability of Adaptive Transformer Programs to maintain competitive performance while generating more interpretable program representations.

Table 4: Accuracy and Program Length for Various Text Classification Tasks.

Model	TREC		MR		Subj		AG	
Model	Acc.	Lines	Acc.	Lines	Acc.	Lines	Acc.	Lines
Standard Transformer	83.4	-	75.9	-	90.9	-	89.1	-
Transformer Program	84.2	5520	77.1	3972	92.3	3065	90.3	1881
Ours	83.6	827	77.9	773	90.4	1954	90.0	1790

Text Classification. Adaptive Transformer Programs exhibit robust performance across diverse text classification tasks, demonstrating their capacity for generalization to various real-world sce-

narios. As shown in Table 4, our approach performs competitively on four distinct classification tasks: TREC (question type identification), MR (sentiment evaluation), Subj (subjectivity assessment), and AG news (topic categorization). Notably, our model achieves the highest accuracy on the MR task at 77.9%, surpassing both Standard Transformers (75.9%) and Transformer Programs (77.1%). While performance on other tasks is comparable to the baselines, with slight variations in accuracy, the most striking difference lies in program length. Across all tasks, Adaptive Transformer Programs consistently produce more concise programs. For instance, on the TREC task, our model requires only 827 lines compared to 5520 lines for Transformer Programs, representing an 85% reduction in complexity. This significant decrease in program length, coupled with competitive accuracy, underscores the efficiency and interpretability of our approach in handling diverse text classification challenges.

5 RELATED WORK

Learning Programs. Program synthesis has evolved from classical symbolic approaches to deep learning-based methods, driven by the need to scale to complex programs learned by modern neural architectures. Traditional paradigms like Inductive Logic Programming (Muggleton & de Raedt, 1994) and Deductive Program Synthesis (Manna & Waldinger, 1980) relied on symbolic reasoning and expert knowledge. The field then shifted towards neural program induction, with works like Neural Programmer-Interpreters (Reed & de Freitas, 2016) and Neuro-Symbolic Program Synthesis (Devlin et al., 2017) learning programs directly from data. However, these methods struggle with scalability to large datasets, complex program structures, and incorporating domain-specific knowledge (Gulwani et al., 2017). Transformer Programs (Friedman et al., 2024) address these limitations by leveraging Transformer architectures' representation learning capabilities while imposing constraints to learn interpretable programs.

Transformers and Formal Languages. Recent research has demonstrated the expressive power of Transformers in relation to formal languages. Studies show that Transformers can learn regular and context-free languages, and implement algorithms like first-order logic with majority quantifiers (Hahn, 2020; Merrill & Sabharwal, 2022). Work by Giannou et al. (2023) further supports the view of Transformers as general-purpose computation devices. Weiss et al. (2021) established an initial connection between Transformer operations and program-like representations through the RASP language. Adaptive Transformer Programs build on this foundation, enhancing interpretability and programmatic representation to align Transformers with human-understandable symbolic systems.

Interpretable Machine Learning Models. The field of interpretable machine learning has seen a surge in methods for understanding deep learning models. Post-hoc methods include attention visualization (Bahdanau et al., 2014), feature attribution (Ribeiro et al., 2016; Lundberg & Lee, 2017), and concept activation vectors (Kim et al., 2018). Architectural modifications, such as sparse attention (Zhang et al., 2021) and inductive biases (Geiger et al., 2024), attempt to enhance interpretability through model design. In contrast, intrinsically interpretable models offer direct access to underlying algorithms, improved transparency, and the potential for formal verification. Our Adaptive Transformer Programs aim to learn inherently interpretable models, providing more faithful and complete explanations of decision-making processes. This approach addresses the limitations of post-hoc methods and architectural modifications by representing complex computations transparently.

Uncertainty in Deep Learning. Uncertainty estimation plays a crucial role in developing reliable and interpretable deep learning models. Quantifying uncertainty improves model reliability (Kendall & Gal, 2017), facilitates human-AI collaboration (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016), and enhances interpretability (Leibig et al., 2017). Prominent techniques include Bayesian Neural Networks (MacKay, 1995), Monte Carlo Dropout (Gal & Ghahramani, 2016), and Ensemble Methods (Lakshminarayanan et al., 2017). Our Uncertainty-Aware Attention mechanism dynamically combines attention types based on uncertainty estimates, leading to more robust and interpretable models. This approach uniquely integrates program synthesis, Transformer architectures, interpretability, and uncertainty estimation.

6 CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The study presents a novel framework for developing robust, expressive, and interpretable Transformer models that can be translated into human-readable programs. Key contributions include a Smooth Transition Mechanism for discrete optimization, an Uncertainty-Aware Attention mechanism for adaptive attention blending, and a Position-Aware Attention module for numerical reasoning. Empirical results on synthetic and real-world NLP tasks demonstrate superior performance compared to benchmarks and provide concise, insightful interpretability analysis. This work advances interpretable AI by improving performance and clarity through new adaptive mechanisms, facilitating the creation of transparent and reliable AI systems. Additionally, it explores the convergence of program synthesis, deep learning, and uncertainty estimation, promoting accountability and the societal benefits of AI.

Integration of Contributions. The three enhancements introduced in this work synergistically contribute to the effectiveness of Adaptive Transformer Programs. The Smooth Transition Mechanism promotes program sparsity by gradually shifting from exploration-focused Gumbel-Softmax to exploitation-focused Gumbel-Sparsemax. Uncertainty-Aware Attention dynamically adapts the attention strategy based on uncertainty estimates, enhancing expressiveness and robustness. Position-Aware Attention improves numerical reasoning and training stability through positional encodings.

Future Research Directions. Adaptive Transformer Programs exhibit potential but face challenges such as scaling to larger models and tasks, necessitating improved training methods or compact representations. The complexity of these programs can impede human understanding, highlighting the need for simplification, summarization, or visualization techniques. Extending their application to computer vision or robotics will require adapting knowledge representation and extraction processes. Future research might explore advanced structures like recursion and hierarchical composition for greater expressiveness and leverage interpretability to support human-AI collaboration through interactive program refinement tools.

REFERENCES

Dzmitry Bahdanau, KyungHyun Cho, and Yoshua Bengio. Neural machine translation by jointly learning to align and translate. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.0473*, 2014.

Yonatan Belinkov. Probing classifiers: Promises, shortcomings, and advances. *Computational Linguistics*, 48(1), March 2022.

Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Chris Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz Litwin, Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam McCandlish, Alec Radford, Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. Language models are few-shot learners. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 33, pp. 1877–1901, 2020.

Jacob Devlin, Jonathan Uesato, Rishabh Singh, and Pushmeet Kohli. Semantic code repair using neuro-symbolic transformation networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.11054*, 2017.

Nelson Elhage, Neel Nanda, Catherine Olsson, Nicholas Joseph, Ben Mann, Amanda Askell, Yuntao Bai, Anna Chen, Tom Conerly, Nova DasSarma, Dawn Drain, Deep Ganguli, Zac Hatfield-Dodds, Danny Hernandez, Andy Jones, Jackson Kernion, Liane Lovitt, Kamal Ndousse, Dario Amodei, Tom Brown, Jack Clark, Jared Kaplan, Sam McCandlish, and Chris Olah. A mathematical framework for transformer circuits. *Transformer Circuits Thread*, 1(1):12, 2021.

Dan Friedman, Alexander Wettig, and Danqi Chen. Learning transformer programs. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024.

Yarin Gal and Zoubin Ghahramani. Dropout as a bayesian approximation: Representing model uncertainty in deep learning. In *international conference on machine learning*, pp. 1050–1059. PMLR, 2016.

- Jonas Gehring, Michael Auli, David Grangier, Denis Yarats, and Yann N Dauphin. Convolutional sequence to sequence learning. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 1243–1252. PMLR, 2017.
 - Atticus Geiger, Duligur Ibeling, Amir Zur, Maheep Chaudhary, Sonakshi Chauhan, Jing Huang, Aryaman Arora, Zhengxuan Wu, Noah Goodman, Christopher Potts, and Thomas Icard. Causal abstraction: A theoretical foundation for mechanistic interpretability, 2024.
 - Angeliki Giannou, Shashank Rajput, Jy-yong Sohn, Kangwook Lee, Jason D Lee, and Dimitris Papailiopoulos. Looped transformers as programmable computers. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 11398–11442. PMLR, 2023.
 - Sumit Gulwani, Oleksandr Polozov, Rishabh Singh, et al. Program synthesis. *Foundations and Trends*® *in Programming Languages*, 4(1-2):1–119, 2017.
 - Michael Hahn. Theoretical limitations of self-attention in neural sequence models. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 8:156–171, 2020.
 - Eric Jang, Shixiang Gu, and Ben Poole. Categorical reparameterization with gumbel-softmax. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2017.
 - Alex Kendall and Yarin Gal. What uncertainties do we need in bayesian deep learning for computer vision? *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30, 2017.
 - Been Kim, Martin Wattenberg, Justin Gilmer, Carrie Cai, James Wexler, Fernanda Viegas, and Rory Sayres. Interpretability beyond feature attribution: Quantitative testing with concept activation vectors (tcav). In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 2668–2677. PMLR, 2018.
 - Solomon Kullback and Richard A Leibler. On information and sufficiency. *The annals of mathematical statistics*, 22(1):79–86, 1951.
 - Balaji Lakshminarayanan, Alexander Pritzel, and Charles Blundell. Simple and scalable predictive uncertainty estimation using deep ensembles. In I. Guyon, U. Von Luxburg, S. Bengio, H. Wallach, R. Fergus, S. Vishwanathan, and R. Garnett (eds.), Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 30. Curran Associates, Inc., 2017.
 - Christian Leibig, Vaneeda Allken, Murat Seçkin Ayhan, Philipp Berens, and Siegfried Wahl. Leveraging uncertainty information from deep neural networks for disease detection. *Scientific reports*, 7(1):1–14, 2017.
 - Jianhua Lin. Divergence measures based on the shannon entropy. *IEEE Transactions on Information theory*, 37(1):145–151, 1991.
 - David Lindner, János Kramár, Sebastian Farquhar, Matthew Rahtz, Tom McGrath, and Vladimir Mikulik. Tracr: Compiled transformers as a laboratory for interpretability. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024.
 - Scott M. Lundberg and Su-In Lee. A unified approach to interpreting model predictions. NIPS'17, pp. 4768–4777, Red Hook, NY, USA, 2017. Curran Associates, Inc. ISBN 9781510860964.
 - David JC MacKay. Bayesian neural networks and density networks. *Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Section A: Accelerators, Spectrometers, Detectors and Associated Equipment*, 354(1):73–80, 1995.
 - Zohar Manna and Richard Waldinger. A deductive approach to program synthesis. *ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst.*, 2(1):90–121, 1980.
- Andre Martins and Ramon Astudillo. From softmax to sparsemax: A sparse model of attention and multi-label classification. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 1614–1623. PMLR, 2016.
 - William Merrill and Ashish Sabharwal. Transformers implement first-order logic with majority quantifiers. 2022.

- Stephen Muggleton and Luc de Raedt. Inductive logic programming: Theory and methods. *The Journal of Logic Programming*, 19-20:629–679, 1994.
 - Neel Nanda, Lawrence Chan, Tom Lieberum, Jess Smith, and Jacob Steinhardt. Progress measures for grokking via mechanistic interpretability. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023.
 - Catherine Olsson, Nelson Elhage, Neel Nanda, Nicholas Joseph, Nova DasSarma, Tom Henighan, Ben Mann, Amanda Askell, Yuntao Bai, Anna Chen, Tom Conerly, Dawn Drain, Deep Ganguli, Zac Hatfield-Dodds, Danny Hernandez, Scott Johnston, Andy Jones, Jackson Kernion, Liane Lovitt, Kamal Ndousse, Dario Amodei, Tom Brown, Jack Clark, Jared Kaplan, Sam McCandlish, and Chris Olah. In-context learning and induction heads. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2209.11895*, 2022.
 - Bo Pang and Lillian Lee. A sentimental education: Sentiment analysis using subjectivity summarization based on minimum cuts. In *Proceedings of the 42nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL-04)*, pp. 271–278, 2004.
 - Bo Pang and Lillian Lee. Seeing stars: Exploiting class relationships for sentiment categorization with respect to rating scales. In *Proceedings of the 43rd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL'05)*, pp. 115–124, 2005.
 - Jeffrey Pennington, Richard Socher, and Christopher D Manning. Glove: Global vectors for word representation. In *Proceedings of the 2014 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing (EMNLP)*, pp. 1532–1543, 2014.
 - Scott E. Reed and Nando de Freitas. Neural programmer-interpreters. In 4th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2016, San Juan, Puerto Rico, May 2-4, 2016, Conference Track Proceedings, 2016.
 - Marco Tulio Ribeiro, Sameer Singh, and Carlos Guestrin. "why should i trust you?" explaining the predictions of any classifier. In *Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD international conference on knowledge discovery and data mining*, pp. 1135–1144, 2016.
 - Marco Tulio Ribeiro, Tongshuang Wu, Carlos Guestrin, and Sameer Singh. Beyond accuracy: Behavioral testing of NLP models with CheckList. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 4902–4912, 2020.
 - Daniel Smilkov, Nikhil Thorat, Been Kim, Fernanda B. Viégas, and Martin Wattenberg. Smooth-grad: removing noise by adding noise. *CoRR*, abs/1706.03825, 2017.
 - Mukund Sundararajan, Ankur Taly, and Qiqi Yan. Axiomatic attribution for deep networks. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 3319–3328. PMLR, 2017.
 - Erik F. Tjong Kim Sang and Fien De Meulder. Introduction to the CoNLL-2003 shared task: Language-independent named entity recognition. In *Proceedings of the Seventh Conference on Natural Language Learning at HLT-NAACL 2003*, pp. 142–147, 2003.
 - Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 30, 2017.
 - Ellen M Voorhees and Dawn M Tice. Building a question answering test collection. In *Proceedings of the 23rd annual international ACM SIGIR conference on Research and development in information retrieval*, pp. 200–207, 2000.
 - Alex Warstadt, Alicia Parrish, Haokun Liu, Anhad Mohananey, Wei Peng, Sheng-Fu Wang, and Samuel R. Bowman. BLiMP: The benchmark of linguistic minimal pairs for English. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 8, 2020.
- Gail Weiss, Yoav Goldberg, and Eran Yahav. Thinking like transformers. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 11080–11090. PMLR, 2021.
- Biao Zhang, Ivan Titov, and Rico Sennrich. Sparse attention with linear units, 2021.
- Xiang Zhang, Junbo Zhao, and Yann LeCun. Character-level convolutional networks for text classification. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 28, 2015.