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# Invariance and identifiability issues for word embeddings

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## Abstract

1 Word embeddings are commonly obtained as optimisers of a criterion function  $f$  of  
2 a text corpus, but assessed on word-task performance using a different evaluation  
3 function  $g$  of the test data. We contend that a possible source of disparity in  
4 performance on tasks is the incompatibility between classes of transformations that  
5 leave  $f$  and  $g$  invariant. In particular, word embeddings defined by  $f$  are not unique;  
6 they are defined only up to a class of transformations to which  $f$  is invariant, and  
7 this class is larger than the class to which  $g$  is invariant. One implication of this is  
8 that the apparent superiority of one word embedding over another, as measured by  
9 word task performance, may largely be a consequence of the arbitrary elements  
10 selected from the respective solution sets. We provide a formal treatment of the  
11 above identifiability issue, present some numerical examples, and discuss possible  
12 resolutions.

## 13 1 Introduction

14 Word embeddings map a text corpus, say  $X$ , to a collection of vectors  $V = (v_1, \dots, v_p)$  where each  
15  $v_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , for a prescribed embedding dimension  $d$ , represents one of  $p$  words in the corpus. Different  
16 word embedding models can be cast as the solution of an optimisation

$$\arg \min_{U,V} F(X, U, V) = \arg \min_{U,V} f(X, UV), \quad (1)$$

17 for particular corpus representation  $X$  and objective function  $f$ , where  $U = (u_1, \dots, u_n)^T$  are  
18 vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  representing contexts, typically not of main interest. The setup subsumes some popular  
19 embeddings techniques such as Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) [Deerwester et al., 1990], word2vec  
20 [Mikolov et al., 2013b,a], GloVe [Pennington et al., 2014], wherein the matrices  $U$  and  $V$  appear in a  
21 suitably chosen  $f$  only through their product  $UV$ .

22 Once a word embedding  $V$  is constructed by solving (1), the embedding is evaluated on its perfor-  
23 mance in tasks, including identifying word *similarity* (given word  $a$ , identify words with similar  
24 meanings), and word *analogy* (for the statement " $a$  is to  $b$  what  $c$  is to  $x$ ", given  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ , identify  
25  $x$ ). Similarities or analogies can be computed from  $V$ , then performance evaluated against a test data  
26 set  $D$  containing human-assigned judgements as

$$g(D, V), \quad (2)$$

27 for some function  $g$ . Constructing word embeddings is "unsupervised" with respect to the evaluation  
28 task in the sense that  $V$  is determined from (1) independently of the choice of  $g$  and the data  $D$  in (2),  
29 although  $f$  typically entails free parameters that may, consciously or not, be chosen to optimise (2)  
30 [Levy et al., 2015].

31 Different word embedding models, identified as different  $f$  in (1), are often compared based on  
 32 performance in word tasks in the sense of  $g$  in (2). But there are several reasons why comparing  
 33 performance in this way is difficult. First: performance may be affected less by the structure of  
 34 model  $f$ , and more by the number of free parameters it entails and how well they have been tuned  
 35 [Levy et al., 2015]. Second: for many embeddings, solving (1) entails a Monte Carlo optimisation,  
 36 so different runs with identical  $f$  will result in different realisations of  $V$  and hence different values  
 37 of  $g(D, V)$ . Third, more subtle and often conflated with the first and second: for most embedding  
 38 models  $f$ , (1) does not uniquely identify  $V$  —  $V$  is said to be *non-identifiable* — and different  
 39 solutions,  $V$ , each equally optimal with respect to (1), correspond to different values of  $g(D, V)$ .

40 This raises the disconcerting question: can apparent differences in performances in word tasks  
 41 as evaluated with  $g$  be substantially attributed to the arbitrary selection of a solution  $V$  from the  
 42 set of solutions of  $f$ ? In this paper we explore the non-identifiability of  $V$ , particularly with  
 43 respect to the class of non-singular transformations  $C$  for which  $f(X, UV) = f(X, UC^{-1}CV)$   
 44 but  $g(X, V) \neq g(X, CV)$ , and the consequences for constructing and evaluating word embeddings.  
 45 Specifically, our contributions are as follows.

- 46 1. For  $g$  defined using inner products of embedded word vectors (e.g. Cosine similarity) in  $d$  di-  
 47 mensions, we characterise the subset  $\mathcal{F}_d$  contained in the set of non-singular transformations  
 48 to which  $g$  is not invariant.
- 49 2. We study a widely used strategy for constructing word embeddings that involves multiplying  
 50 a "base" embedding by a powered matrix of singular values, and show that this amounts to  
 51 exploring a one-dimensional subset of the optimal solutions.
- 52 3. We discuss resolutions to the non-identifiability, including (i) constraining the set of solutions  
 53 of  $f$  to ensure compatibility with invariances of  $g$ , and (ii) optimising over the solutions of  
 54  $f$  with respect to  $g$  in a supervised learning sense.

## 55 2 Non-identifiability of word embedding $V$

56 The issue of non-identifiability is most transparent in word embedding models explicitly involving  
 57 matrix factorisation. LSA assumes  $X$  is an  $n \times p$  context-word matrix and seeks  $V$  as

$$\arg \min_{U, V} f(X, UV) := \arg \min_{U, V} \|X - UV\|, \quad (3)$$

58 where  $\|\cdot\|$  is the Frobenius norm, and  $U$  is an  $n \times d$  matrix of contexts to be estimated. For any  
 59 particular solution  $\{U^*, V^*\}$  of (3)  $\{U^*C^{-1}, CV^*\}$  is also a solution, where  $C$  is any  $d \times d$  invertible  
 60 matrix. The solution of (3) for  $V$  is hence a set

$$\{CV^* : C \in \text{GL}(d)\} \quad (4)$$

61 where  $\text{GL}(d)$  denotes the general linear group of  $d \times d$  invertible matrices.

62 One way to find an element of the solution set (4) is by using the singular value decomposition  
 63 (SVD) of  $X$ . The SVD decomposes  $X$  as  $X = A\Sigma B^T$  where  $A$  and  $B$  are orthogonal and  $\Sigma$  is a  
 64 diagonal matrix with the singular values in decreasing order on the diagonal. Then a rank  $d$  matrix  
 65 that minimises  $\|X - X_d\|$  is  $X_d = A_d\Sigma_d B_d^T$  where  $A_d$  and  $B_d$  are the first  $d$  columns of  $A$  and  $B$   
 66 respectively, and  $\Sigma_d$  is the  $d \times d$  upper left part of  $\Sigma$  [Eckart and Young, 1936]. Hence a solution to  
 67 (3) is obtained by taking

$$U^* = A_d, \quad V^* = \Sigma_d B_d^T, \quad (5)$$

68 called by Bullinaria and Levy [2012] the "simple SVD" solution. Bullinaria and Levy [2012] and  
 69 Turney [2013] have investigated the word embedding  $V^* = \Sigma_d^{1-\alpha} B_d^T$  which generalises  $V^*$  in (5)  
 70 by introducing a tunable parameter  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , motivated by empirical evidence that  $\alpha \neq 0$  often leads to  
 71 better performance on word tasks. Such an embedding is perfectly justified, however, as an alternative  
 72 solution

$$U^* = A_d \Sigma_d^\alpha, \quad V^* = \Sigma_d^{1-\alpha} B_d^T,$$

73 to (3), for any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . We can hence interpret the tuning parameter  $\alpha$  as indexing different elements  
 74 of the solution set (4), each optimal with respect to the embedding model  $f$ , with  $\alpha$  free to be chosen  
 75 so that the word-task performance  $g$  is maximised.

76 Indeed, by choosing the particular solution  $V^*$  in (5), and setting  $C = \Sigma_d^{-\alpha}$ , we see that tuning  $\alpha$   
 77 amounts to optimising over the one-parameter subgroup  $\gamma(\alpha) := \Sigma_d^{-\alpha} \in \text{GL}(d)$ , a one-dimensional  
 78 subset of the  $d^2$ -dimensional group  $\text{GL}(d)$  to which  $V$  is non-identifiable. The motivation for  
 79 restricting the optimisation to this particular subset is unclear, however. In fact, it is not clear that  
 80 choice of the matrix of singular values  $\Sigma_d$  in the subgroup  $\gamma$  necessarily leads to better performance  
 81 with  $g$ ; Figure 2 in Section 4.2, demonstrates superior performance for alternate (but arbitrary)  
 82 diagonal matrices for certain values of  $\alpha$ .

83 Yin and Shen [2018] (see also references therein) recognise "unitary [equivalently orthogonal]  
 84 invariance" of word embeddings, explaining that "two embeddings are essentially identical if one  
 85 can be obtained from the other by performing a unitary [orthogonal] operation." Here "essentially  
 86 identical" appears to mean with respect to the performance evaluation, our  $g$  in this paper. We  
 87 emphasise the distinction between this and the non-identifiability of  $V$ , which refers to the invariance  
 88 of  $f$  to a (typically larger) class of transformations. The distinction was similarly made by Mu  
 89 et al. [2019] who suggested modifying the embedding model  $f$  such that the class of invariant  
 90 transformations of  $f$  and  $g$  match. We briefly discuss further their approach later.

91 **Remark 1.** The foregoing discussion focuses on the LSA embedding model,  $f$  in (3), in which the  
 92 optimal embedding  $V$  arises clearly from a matrix factorisation  $X \approx UV$  with respect to Frobenius  
 93 norm, and the non-identifiability is transparent. But other embedding models, including word2vec  
 94 and GloVe, are defined by different  $f$  yet share the same property that  $V$  is non-identifiable, i.e. that  
 95 the solution is defined as the set (4). Levy et al. [2015] have shown that word2vec and GloVe both  
 96 amount to solving implicit matrix factorisation problems each with respect to a particular corpus  
 97 representation  $X$  and metric. To see this, and the consequent non-identifiability, it is sufficient to  
 98 observe, as with the objective of LDA, that the objective functions of word2vec and GloVe involve  
 99 matrices  $U$  and  $V$  appearing only as the product  $UV$ .

### 100 3 Effect of non-identifiability of embeddings on $g$

101 The word embeddings are evaluated on tasks on the test data  $D$  using the function  $g$ , which typically  
 102 is based on the Euclidean norm  $\|\cdot\|$  or the inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  (e.g. Cosine similarity, 3CosAdd,  
 103 3CosMul [Levy et al., 2015]). Our focus will hence be on functions  $g$  that depend on  $V$  only through  
 104 the inner product between its columns.

105 The set of invariances associated with such  $g$  consists of the group of orthogonal transformations  
 106  $\text{O}(d) := \{Q \in \text{GL}(d) : Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I_d\}$ , the set of scale transformations  $c\mathcal{I} := \{cI_d : c \in$   
 107  $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}\}$ , and their intersection.  $\text{O}(d)$  relates to transformations that leave  $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$  invariant, the set  
 108  $c\mathcal{I}$  preserves angle between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , and  $cQ$  in their intersection preserves the angle. Note that  $cI_d$   
 109 is orthogonal if and only if  $c = \pm 1$ .

110 Figure 1 (left) illustrates the incompatibility between invariances of  $f$  and  $g$ . For embedding  
 111 dimension  $d = 2$ ,  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are 2D embeddings of words  $i$  and  $j$  obtained from solving  $f$  with respect  
 112 to coordinate vectors  $\{e_1, e_2\}$ . For  $Q \in \text{O}(d)$ , with respect to orthogonally transformed coordinates  
 113  $\{Qe_1, Qe_2\}$ ,  $Qv_i$  and  $Qv_j$  are also viable solutions of  $f$ . A  $g$  that depends only on  $\langle v_i, v_j \rangle$  has  
 114 the same value for  $\langle Qv_i, Qv_j \rangle$ . On the other hand, equally valid solutions  $Cv_i$  and  $Cv_j$  of  $f$  with respect  
 115 to nonsingularly transformed coordinates  $\{Ce_1, Ce_2\}$  for  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$  lead to a different value of  $g$   
 116 since  $\langle Cv_i, Cv_j \rangle \neq \langle Qv_i, Qv_j \rangle$  unless  $C \in \text{O}(d)$ .

117 Thus with respect to the evaluation function  $g$ , each solution from the set  $\{CV^* : C \in \text{O}(d) \cup c\mathcal{I}\}$   
 118 is equally good (or bad). However, since  $(\text{O}(d) \cup c\mathcal{I}) \subset \text{GL}(d)$ , there still exist embeddings  $CV^*$   
 119 which solve  $f$  with  $g(\cdot, CV^*) \neq g(\cdot, V^*)$ . Such  $C$  are precisely those which characterise the  
 120 incompatibility between invariances of  $f$  and  $g$ . One such example is the set of  $C$  given by the  
 121 one-parameter subgroup  $\mathbb{R} \ni \alpha \mapsto \Lambda^\alpha$ , where  $\Lambda$  is a  $d$ -dimensional diagonal matrix with positive  
 122 elements. This generalises the subgroup  $\gamma(\alpha)$  discussed in §2, which is the special case with  $\Lambda = \Sigma_d$ .  
 123 Figure 1 (right) illustrates the solution set and 1D subsets  $\{\Lambda^\alpha V^*\}$  for different  $\Lambda$  and particular  
 124 solutions  $V^*$ . The discussion above is summarised through the following Proposition.

125 **Proposition 1.** *Let  $V^*$  be a solution of (1). Then  $g$  is not invariant to non-singular transforms*  
 126  *$V^* \mapsto \Lambda^\alpha V^*$  for any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  unless  $\Lambda \in c\mathcal{I}$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .*

127 The key message from Proposition 1 is: for  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , *comparison of performances of embeddings*  
 128  *$\Lambda^{\alpha_1} V^*$  and  $\Lambda^{\alpha_2} V^*$  using  $g$  depends on the (arbitrary) choice of the orthogonal coordinates of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .*

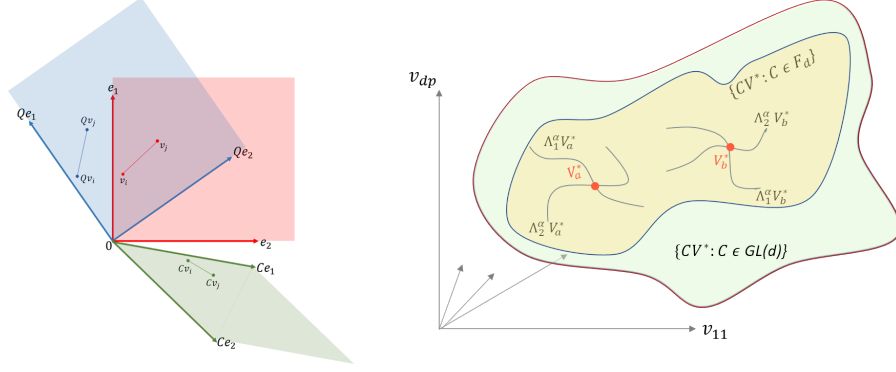


Figure 1: Left: For  $d = 2$ , orthogonally transformed coordinates  $\{Qe_1, Qe_2\}$  (blue) with  $Q \in O(d)$ , and nonsingularly transformed  $\{Ce_1, Ce_2\}$  (green) with  $C \in GL(d)$ , where  $\{e_1, e_2\}$  (red) are standard coordinates. Distances between two embedding vectors  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are preserved in the coordinates  $\{Qe_1, Qe_2\}$ , but altered in the coordinates  $\{Ce_1, Ce_2\}$ . However,  $\{v_i, v_j\}$ ,  $\{Qv_i, Qv_j\}$  and  $\{Cv_i, Cv_j\}$  are valid solutions to (1). Right: Illustration of the solution set and one-dimensional subsets  $\Lambda^\alpha V^*$  parameterised by  $\alpha$  for two choices of  $\Lambda$  and two particular solutions  $V^*$ .

129 Note however that the choice of the orthogonal coordinates does not have any bearing on  $f$ , and  
 130 hence  $\Lambda^{\alpha_1} V^*$  and  $\Lambda^{\alpha_2} V^*$  are both solutions of  $f$ . The first step towards addressing identifiability  
 131 issues pertaining to  $f$  and  $g$  is to isolate and understand the structure of the set  $\mathcal{F}_d$  of transformations  
 132 in  $GL(d)$  which leave  $f$  invariant but not  $g$ .

### 133 3.1 Structure of the set $\mathcal{F}_d$

134 What is the dimension of the set  $\mathcal{F}_d \subset GL(d)$ ? The dimension of  $GL(d)$  is  $d^2$  and that of  $O(d)$  is  
 135  $d(d-1)/2$ . Since  $c\mathcal{I}$  is one-dimensional, the dimension of  $\mathcal{F}_d$  is  $d^2 - d(d-1)/2 - 1 = d(d+1)/2 - 1$ .  
 136 Figure 1 (right) clarifies the implication of the result of Proposition 1: given a solution  $V^*$ , tuning  $\alpha$   
 137 explores only a one-dimensional set within  $\{CV^* : C \in \mathcal{F}_d\}$  (yellow) within the overall solution set  
 138  $\{CV^* : C \in GL(d)\}$  (green).

139 A group-theoretic formalism is useful in precisely identifying  $\mathcal{F}_d$ . Since  $O(d)$  is a subgroup of  $GL(d)$ ,  
 140 we are interested in those elements of  $GL(d)$  that cannot be related by an orthogonal transformation.  
 141 Such elements can be identified as the (right) coset  $GL(d) \setminus O(d)$  of  $O(d)$  in  $GL(d)$ : equivalence  
 142 classes  $[C] := \{QC : Q \in O(d)\}$  for  $C \in GL(d)$ , known as *orbits*, under the equivalence relation  
 143  $M \sim N$  if there exists  $Q \in O(d)$  such that  $M = QN$ . The set of orbits  $\{[C] : C \in GL(d)\}$  forms a  
 144 partition of  $GL(d)$ : each nonsingular transformation  $C \in GL(d)$  is associated with its  $[C]$ , elements  
 145 of which are orthogonally equivalent.

146 From the definition of  $GL(d) \setminus O(d)$ , we can represent  $\mathcal{F}_d$  as  $\mathcal{F}_d = \tilde{\mathcal{F}}_d - c\mathcal{I}$ , where  $\tilde{\mathcal{F}}_d$  represents  
 147 what is left behind in  $GL(d)$  once  $O(d)$  has been ‘removed’, and  $-$  denotes the set difference.

148 **Proposition 2.** *The set  $\tilde{\mathcal{F}}_d$  can be identified with the subgroup  $UT(d)$  of upper triangular matrices*  
 149 *within  $GL(d)$  with positive diagonal entries.*

150 *Proof.* The proof is based on identifying a set  $S \subset GL(d)$  that is in bijection with the orbits in  
 151  $GL(d) \setminus O(d)$ . Such a subset  $S$  is known as a cross section of the coset  $GL(d) \setminus O(d)$ , and intersects  
 152 each orbit  $[C]$  at a single point. Since  $O(d)$  is a subgroup of  $GL(d)$ , no two members of  $\mathcal{F}_d$  belong  
 153 to the same orbit  $[C]$  of any  $C \in GL(d)$ . Thus  $\mathcal{F}_d$  can be identified with *any* cross section of  
 154  $GL(d) \setminus O(d)$ .

155 The map  $GL(d) \ni C \mapsto h(C) := C^T C$  is invariant to the action of  $O(d)$  since  $h(QC) =$   
 156  $(QC)^T QC = C^T C$ . This implies that  $h$  is constant within each orbit  $[C]$ . Additionally, it is  
 157 clear that  $h(C_1) = h(C_2)$  if and only if there is a  $Q \in O(d)$  with  $C_1 = QC_2$ . Thus the range of  $h$  is  
 158 in bijection with the orbits in  $GL(d) \setminus O(d)$ , and constitutes a cross section.

159 For any  $C \in GL(d)$  consider its unique QR decomposition  $C = QR$ , where  $Q \in O(d)$  and  
 160  $R \in UT(d)$ , made possible since  $R$  is assumed to have positive diagonal elements. Clearly then  
 161  $h(C) = h(QR) = R^T R$ , and its range  $h(GL(d))$  can be identified with the set  $UT(d)$ .  $\square$

162 **Remark 2.** The result of Proposition 2 can be distilled to the existence of a unique QR decomposition  
 163 of  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$ :  $C = QR$ , where  $Q \in \text{O}(d)$  and  $R \in \text{UT}(d)$ . There is no loss of generality in  
 164 assuming that  $R$  has positive entries along the diagonal, since this amounts to multiplying by another  
 165 orthogonal matrix which changes signs accordingly. Thus the map  $\text{GL}(d) \ni C \mapsto \{\text{UT}(d) - c\mathcal{I}\}$   
 166 uniquely identifies an element of  $\mathcal{F}_d$ .

167 The map  $\text{GL}(d) \ni C \mapsto h(C) = C^T C$  is referred to as a maximal invariant function, and indexes the  
 168 elements of  $\text{GL}(d) \setminus \text{O}(d)$ , and hence  $\text{UT}(d)$ . This offers verification of the fact that the dimension of  
 169  $\mathcal{F}_d$  is  $d(d+1)/2 - 1$  since it is one fewer than the dimension of the subgroup  $\text{UT}(d)$ . Another way  
 170 to arrive at the conclusion is to notice that any  $d \times d$  upper triangular matrix  $R$  can be represented  
 171 as  $R = D(I_d + L)$ , where  $I_d$  is the identity,  $L$  is an upper triangular matrix with zeroes along the  
 172 diagonal, and  $D$  is a diagonal matrix. The dimension of the set of  $L$  is  $d(d-1)/2$  and that of the set  
 173 of  $D$  is  $d$ , resulting in  $d + d(d-1)/2 = d(d+1)/2$  as the dimension of the set of  $R$ .

## 174 4 Resolving the problem of non-identifiability

175 From the preceding discussion we gather that  $\{CV^* : C \in \mathcal{F}_d\}$  comprises the set of solutions of  
 176  $f$  which do not leave  $g$  invariant. We explore two resolutions: (i) imposing additional constraints  
 177 on  $V$  in (1) to identify solutions up to  $C \in \text{O}(d)$  (Theorem 1), and uniquely (Corollary 1); and (ii)  
 178 considering  $C$  as a parameter to be tuned to optimise performance in word tasks, i.e., by optimising  
 179  $g(D, CV^*)$  over  $C \in \text{UT}(d)$ .

### 180 4.1 Constraining the solution set

181 Redefine (1) as a constrained optimisation

$$\arg \min_{U, V: V \in \mathcal{C}_v} f(X, UV), \quad (6)$$

182 over a subset  $\mathcal{C}_v$  of possible values of  $V$  which ensures that the only possible solutions are of the form  
 183  $\{CV^* : C \in \text{O}(d)\}$  for any solution  $V^*$ . The set of possible  $U$  is unconstrained. From Proposition  
 184 2 and the QR decomposition of an element of  $\text{GL}(d)$ , this is tantamount to ensuring that  $CV^*$  for  
 185  $C \in \text{UT}(d)$  is a solution of (6) if and only if  $C = I_d$ , the identity matrix. Theorem below identifies  
 186 the set  $\mathcal{C}_v$  for any solution of  $U$ .

187 **Theorem 1.** Let  $\mathcal{C}_v = \{V \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times p} : VV^T = I_d\}$ . Then for any solution  $V^*$  to the constrained  
 188 problem (6), any other solution of the form  $CV^*$  for  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$  satisfies  $g(D, CV^*) = g(D, V^*)$   
 189 for a given test data  $D$ .

190 *Proof.* Let  $\{\bar{U}, \bar{V}\}$  be a solution to the unconstrained problem. The proof rests on the simultaneous  
 191 diagonalisation of  $\bar{V}\bar{V}^T$  and  $\bar{U}^T\bar{U}$ . Since  $\bar{V}\bar{V}^T$  is positive definite there exists  $M \in \text{GL}(d)$  such  
 192 that  $\bar{V}\bar{V}^T = M^T M$ . Then  $M^{-T}(\bar{U}^T\bar{U})M^{-1}$  is symmetric, and there exists  $Q \in \text{O}(d)$  such that  
 193  $Q^T M^{-T}(\bar{U}^T\bar{U})M^{-1}Q = \Lambda$ , where  $\Lambda$  is diagonal. Setting  $C = M^{-1}Q$  results in  $C^T \bar{V}\bar{V}^T C =$   
 194  $Q^T M^{-T}(\bar{V}\bar{V}^T)M^{-1}Q = I_d$ .

195 We thus arrive at the conclusion that there exists a  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$  such that  $C^T \bar{V}\bar{V}^T C =$   
 196  $I_d$ , and  $C^T \bar{U}^T \bar{U} C = \Lambda$ . The elements of  $\Lambda$  solve the generalised eigenvalue problem  
 197  $\det(\bar{U}^T \bar{U} - \lambda \bar{V}\bar{V}^T)$ . Evidently then  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$  is orthogonal if  $\bar{V}\bar{V}^T = I_d$ .  $\square$

198 An obvious but important corollary to the above Theorem is that any two solutions from  $\mathcal{C}_v$  are  
 199 related through an orthogonal transformation (not necessarily unique).

200 **Corollary 1.** For any solutions  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  of (6) in  $\mathcal{C}$  there exists an  $Q \in \text{O}(d)$  such that  $QV_1 = V_2$ .  
 201 In other words,  $\text{O}(d)$  acts transitively on  $\mathcal{C}$ .

202 **Remark 3.** Optimisation over the constrained set  $\mathcal{C}_v$  results in a reduction of the invariance transfor-  
 203 mations of  $f$  from  $\text{GL}(d)$  to  $\text{O}(d)$ . This can be understood as choosing  $CV^*$  for a fixed solution  $V^*$   
 204 and arbitrary  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$ , performing a Gram–Schmidt procedure to obtain  $QRV^*$  for an  $Q \in \text{O}(d)$   
 205 and  $R \in \text{UT}(d)$ , and discarding  $R$ . Topologically then, the set of solutions  $\{QV^* : Q \in \text{O}(d)\}$  is ho-  
 206 motopically equivalent to the set  $\{CV^* : C \in \text{GL}(d)\}$ . This is because the inclusion  $\text{O}(d) \hookrightarrow \text{GL}(d)$   
 207 is a homotopy equivalence, as it is well-known that the Gram Schmidt process  $\text{GL}(d) \rightarrow \text{O}(d)$  is a  
 208 (strong) deformation retraction.

209 A unique solution for  $V$  can be identified by imposing additional constraints on  $U$  as follows.

210 **Corollary 2.** Denote by  $\mathfrak{C}_u$  the set of all  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  which satisfy the following conditions: (i) The  
211 columns of  $U$  are orthogonal; (ii) the diagonal elements of  $U^T U$  are arranged in descending order;  
212 (iii) first non-zero element of each column of  $U$  is positive. Then, any solution to the optimisation  
213 problem in (1) over the constrained set  $(U, V) \in \mathfrak{C}_u \times \mathfrak{C}_v$  is unique.

214 *Proof.* We need to show that on the constrained space  $\mathfrak{C}_u \times \mathfrak{C}_v$ , the orthogonal  $C$  obtained by  
215 optimising (6) reduces to the identity.

216 On the set  $\mathfrak{C}_v$ , from the proof of Theorem 1, we note that there exists a  $C \in \mathcal{O}(d)$  such that  
217  $C^T \bar{U}^T \bar{U} C = \Lambda$  for a diagonal  $\Lambda$  containing the eigenvalues of  $U^T U$  with respect to  $V V^T$  obtained  
218 a solution of  $\det(\bar{U}^T \bar{U} - \lambda \bar{V} \bar{V}^T)$ .

219 In addition to being orthogonal, condition (i) forces  $C$  to be a matrix with each column and row  
220 containing one non-zero element assuming values  $\pm 1$ . In other words,  $C$  is forced to be a monomial  
221 matrix with entries equal to  $\pm 1$ . This implies that the diagonal  $C^T U^T U C$  contains the same elements  
222 as  $U^T U$ , but possibly in a different order. Condition (ii) then fixes a particular order, and condition  
223 (iii) ensures that each diagonal element is  $+1$ . We thus end up with  $C = I_d$ .  $\square$

224 The idea to modify the optimisation so that the solution is unique up to transformations in  $\mathcal{O}(d)$ , but  
225 not necessarily  $\text{GL}(d)$ , is also used by Mu et al. [2019]. Rather than place constraints on  $V$ , as above,  
226 they modified the objective  $f$  to include Frobenius norm penalties on  $U$  and  $V$ , which achieves the  
227 same outcome, although the relationship between the solutions of the penalised and unpenalised  
228 problems is not transparent.

#### 229 4.1.1 Exploiting symmetry of $X$

230 If the corpus representation  $X$  is a symmetric matrix, for example involving counts of word-word  
231 co-occurrences, then the rows of  $U$  and the columns of  $V$  both have the same interpretation as word  
232 embeddings. In such cases the symmetry motivates the imposition  $U^T = V$ . For example, in LSA  
233 (3) and its solution (5), this is achieved by taking  $\alpha = 1/2$ , since  $A_d = B_d$  owing to the symmetry.  
234 This identifies a solution up to sign changes and permutations of the word vectors, transformations  
235 which are contained within  $\mathcal{O}(d)$  and hence are of no consequence to  $g$ .

236 In GloVe, Pennington et al. [2014] observe that when  $X$  is symmetric the  $U^T$  and  $V$  are equivalent  
237 but differ in practise "as a result of their random initializations". It seems likely that different runs  
238 involve the optimisation routine converging to different elements of the solution set, and not in  
239 general to solutions with  $U^T = V$ . For a given run Pennington et al seek to treat solutions  $U^{*T}$   
240 and  $V^*$  symmetrically by taking the word embedding to be  $V = U^{*T} + V^*$ , which is not itself in  
241 general optimal with respect to the GloVe objective function,  $f$  (although they report that using it  
242 over  $V = V^*$  typically confers a small performance advantage). A different approach is to take the  
243 embedding to be  $V = C V^*$  where  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$  is the solution to the equation  $C^{-T} U^{*T} = C V^*$   
244 which more directly identifies an element of the solution set for which  $U^T = V$ , and hence avoids  
245 taking the final embedding to be one that is non-optimal with respect to criterion  $f$ . The same strategy  
246 is also appropriate to other word embedding models, e.g. word2vec.

#### 247 4.2 Optimizing over $\mathcal{F}_d$

248 To what extent can we optimise word-task performance  $g(D, V)$  by choosing an appropriate element  
249  $V$  of the solution set (4)? The set of transformations  $\mathcal{F}_d$  has dimension  $d(d+1)/2 - 1$ , typically  
250 much larger than the number of cases in  $d$ , so care is needed to avoid overfitting. One approach is to  
251 restrict the dimension of the optimisation, for example as earlier by considering solutions  $V = \Lambda^\alpha V^*$   
252 for a particular solution  $V^*$  and diagonal matrix  $\Lambda$ . A widely used approach corresponds to choosing  
253  $\Lambda = \Sigma_d$ , a matrix containing the dominant singular values of  $X$ ; Figure 2 shows how  $g$  varies with  $\alpha$   
254 for this  $\Lambda$  and some other choices of  $\Lambda$  chosen quite arbitrarily. There is clearly substantial variability  
255 in  $g$  with  $\alpha$ , but performance with  $\Lambda = \Sigma_d$  is only on a par with the other arbitrary choices.

256 Figure 3 shows the distribution of  $g$  for  $V = R V^*$  for random  $R \in \mathcal{F}_d$  for different models for  
257  $R$ , where  $V^*$  is a GloVe embedding. The histograms shows substantial variance in the scores for  
258 different  $R$ . The score for the base embedding  $V^*$  is at the higher end of the distribution, though for  
259 some instances of random  $R$  the performance of  $V$  is superior.

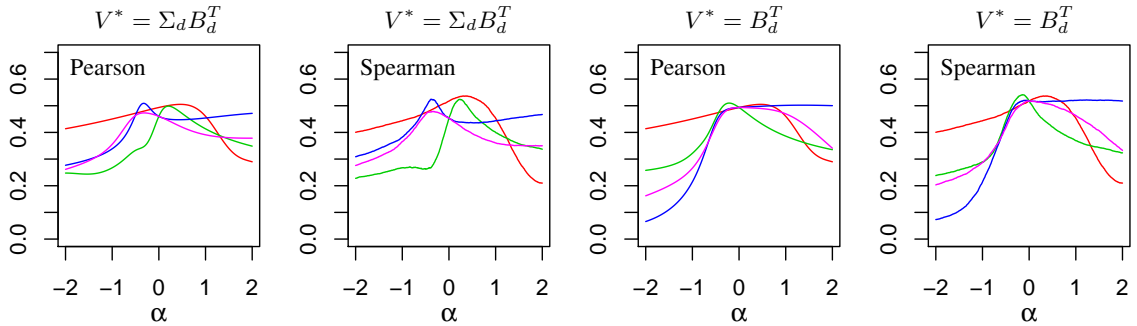


Figure 2: Plots showing word task evaluation scores  $g(D, V)$  corresponding to the WordSim-353 task [Finkelstein et al., 2002] (located at <http://www.cs.technion.ac.il/~gabr/resources/data/wordsim353/>) which provides a set of word pairs with human-assigned similarity scores. The embeddings are evaluated by calculating the cosine similarities between the word pairs and using either Pearson or Spearman correlation (each invariant to  $O(d) \cup c\mathcal{L}$ ) to score correspondence between embedding and human-assigned similarity values. The embedding is from model (3), with  $X$  taken to be a document–term matrix computed from the Corpus of Historical American English [Davies, 2012], and the plotted lines show how performance varies with different elements of the solution set, namely  $V = \Lambda^\alpha V^*$  for  $V^*$  as indicated and different  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)$  as follows:  $\Lambda = \Sigma_d$  (red lines);  $\lambda_i = i$  (green);  $\lambda_i \sim U(0, 1)$  (blue); and  $\lambda_i \sim |N(0, 1)|$  (purple). Performance for  $\Lambda = \Sigma_d$ , which is widely used, is not obviously superior to performance of the other completely arbitrary choices for  $\Lambda$ .

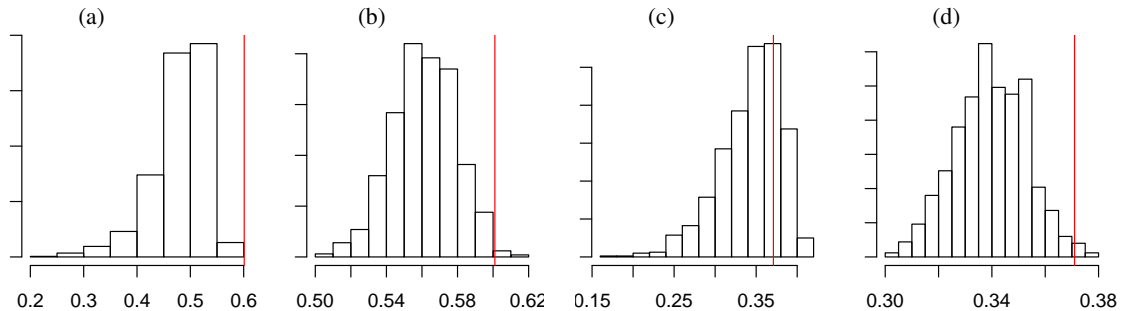


Figure 3: For the same task as in Fig 2, histograms of Spearman correlation scores for embeddings  $V = RV^*$  where  $V^*$  is a GloVe embedding<sup>1</sup> with  $d = 300$  trained on Wikipedia 2014 + Gigaword 5 corpus, evaluated on the WordSim-353 test set in (a) and (b), and on the SimLex-999 test set [Hill et al., 2015] in (c) and (d).  $R \in \mathcal{F}_d$  is a random matrix, taken to be diagonal in (a) and (c) and upper-triangular in (b) and (d), in each case with the non-zero elements each distributed as  $|N(0, 1)|$ . The number of runs in each case was 1000. <sup>1</sup>Source: <https://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/glove/>

260 Table 1 shows scores that result from using optimising  $g(D, V)$  for  $V = \Lambda V^*$  with respect to the  
 261 elements of  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)$ , using R’s `optim` implementation of the Nelder–Mead method. The  
 262 results show that there exists a transformed embedding  $\Lambda V^*$  that performs substantially better than  
 263 the base embedding.

## 264 5 Conclusions

265 We summarise our conclusions as follows.

Test set	Embeddings	Spearman	Pearson
WordSim-353	GloVe vectors reported in [Pennington et al., 2014]	0.658	
	GloVe embedding, $V^*$	0.601	0.603
	$V = \Lambda V^*$ optimised over $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)$	0.679	0.760
SimLex-999	GloVe embedding, $V^*$	0.371	0.389
	$V = \Lambda V^*$ optimised over $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)$	0.560	0.582

Table 1: Evaluation task scores  $g(D, V)$  corresponding to WordSim-353 [Finkelstein et al., 2002] and SimLex-999 [Hill et al., 2015] test sets. The base GloVe embedding  $V^*$  is as described in the caption of Figure 3. In the first row we note for reference the performance reported in [Pennington et al., 2014]. The results indicate substantial scope for improving performance scores via an appropriate choice of  $\Lambda$ .

- 266 1. Examining word embeddings — including LSA, word2vec, GloVe — through the relationship  
267 with low-rank matrix factorisations with respect to a criterion  $f$  makes it clear that  
268 the solution  $V$  is non-identifiable: for a particular solution  $V^*$ ,  $CV^*$  for any  $C \in \text{GL}(d)$  is  
269 also a solution. Different elements of the  $d^2$ -dimensional solution set perform differently in  
270 evaluations,  $g$ , of word task performance.
- 271 2. An important implication is that the disparity in performance between word embeddings  
272 on tasks  $g$  maybe due to the particular elements selected from the solution sets. In word  
273 embeddings for which the  $f$  is optimised numerically with some randomness, for example  
274 in the initializations, the optimisation may converge to different elements of the solution  
275 set. An embedding chosen based on the best performance in  $g$  over repeated runs of the  
276 optimisation can essentially be viewed as a Monte Carlo optimisation over the solution set.
- 277 3. The evaluation function  $g$  is usually only invariant to orthogonal ( $O(d)$ ) and scale-type ( $c\mathcal{I}$ )  
278 transformations. Thus for an embedding dimension  $d$ , the effective dimension of the solution  
279 set after accounting for the orthogonal transformations, and scaled versions of the identity, is  
280  $d(d+1)/2 - 1$ . Conclusions from evaluations with large  $d$  must hence be interpreted with  
281 some care, especially if the  $V$  is optimised with respect to the incompatible transformations  
282  $\mathcal{F}_d$  directly or indirectly, for example as in point 2 above.
- 283 4. These considerations have a bearing on the interpretation of the performance of the popular  
284 embedding approach of taking  $V = \Lambda^\alpha V^*$  where  $\alpha$  is a tuning parameter and  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal  
285 matrix taken, for example, to contain the singular values of  $X$ . This amounts to providing a  
286 way to perform a search over a one-dimensional subset of the  $(d(d+1)/2 - 1)$ -dimensional  
287 solution set. Our numerical results suggest there is nothing special about this particular  
288 choice of  $\Lambda$  (or the corresponding one-dimensional subset being searched over), nor is there  
289 a clear rationale for restricting to a one-dimensional subset.

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