Dispersing Embeddings in Transformer Layers Improves Generalization of Language Models

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Abstract

Large language models achieve remarkable performance through ever-increasing parameter counts, but scaling incurs steep computational costs. In this work, we observe a geometric phenomenon which we call ***embedding condensation***, where token representations collapse into narrow cones as they propagate through transformer layers in some language models. Through systematic measurements across multiple transformer families, we show that small models such as `GPT2` and `ALBERT-base` exhibit severe condensation, whereas the larger models within the same families such as `GPT2-xl` and `ALBERT-xxlarge` are more resistant to this phenomenon. This suggests that superior performance might arise from sustained representational diversity. To test this hypothesis, we formulate four losses that explicitly encourage embedding dispersion during training. Experiments demonstrate that these losses mitigate condensation, recover dispersion patterns seen in larger models, and yield consistent performance gains across 10 benchmarks. We believe this work offers a principled path toward improving smaller transformers without additional parameters.

1 Introduction

The remarkable success of large-scale transformer models has fundamentally transformed natural language processing, with performance consistently improving as parameter counts scale from millions to hundreds of billions [1, 2, 3]. However, this scaling paradigm presents significant practical challenges: larger models require substantial computational resources [4, 5, 6], making them inaccessible for many applications. This motivates a critical question: *Can we identify and replicate the key properties that make large models effective, thus improving smaller models without simply adding more parameters?*

Recent theoretical work has shown that transformer embeddings mathematically tend to cluster toward a single point as depth approaches infinity [7], but the empirical manifestation of this phenomenon and its relationship to model performance remain underexplored. In this work, we provide a comprehensive empirical analysis of what we term ***embedding condensation***: the tendency for token representations in smaller transformer models to collapse into narrow directional cones as they propagate through deeper layers. Through systematic measurement of pairwise cosine similarities across multiple transformer families, we demonstrate that smaller models (e.g., `GPT2`, `ALBERT-base`) exhibit severe condensation, with token representations becoming increasingly aligned and losing representational diversity (Figure 1). In contrast, larger models (e.g., `GPT2-xl`, `ALBERT-xxlarge`) naturally maintain ***embedding dispersion***, which we define as diverse representation directions that preserve expressive capacity.

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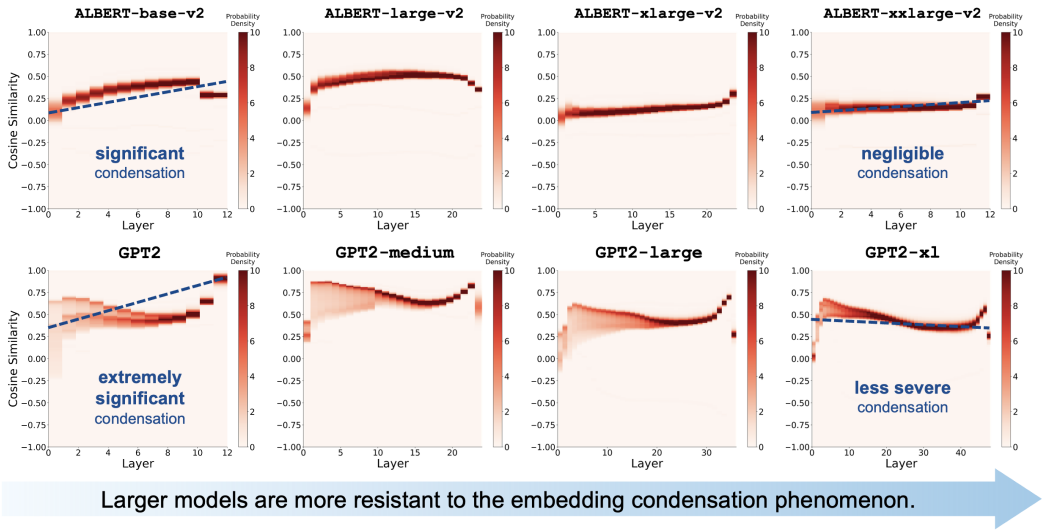

Figure 1: Smaller models (e.g., `ALBERT-base`, `GPT2`) exhibit the embedding condensation phenomenon, as token cosine similarities become increasingly positive as the embeddings proceed to deeper layers. Larger models (e.g., `ALBERT-xxlarge`, `GPT2-xl`) are less vulnerable to embedding condensation, suggesting that broader representation spread is a key property of larger models, and potentially correlated with model performance.

This geometric perspective reveals a fundamental insight: *condensation might be a key bottleneck limiting the expressiveness of smaller transformers*. We hypothesize that the superior performance of large-scale models is partly a consequence of their ability to maintain representational breadth, suggesting that counteracting condensation could narrow the performance gap between small and large models without increasing parameter count.

To test this hypothesis, we propose four variants of **dispersion losses** that explicitly encourage embedding dispersion during training, serving as auxiliary objectives that promote representational diversity. Our empirical evaluation demonstrates that these losses successfully counteract embedding condensation in smaller models, restoring representational dispersion. More importantly, this geometric improvement leads to overall performance gains on average across 10 language understanding benchmarks when applied to `GPT2` during mid-training.

The key contributions of this work are listed below.

1. We provide an empirical characterization of embedding condensation across transformer scales, revealing a clear size-dependent geometric phenomenon.
2. We formulate four geometrically motivated dispersion loss variants that counteract condensation through different mechanisms. Compared to their existing counterparts in the literature, our implementations include specific design choices to maintain training stability and reduce parameter search space.
3. We demonstrate that explicitly encouraging dispersion improves the performance of smaller models, offering a path toward closing the gap with larger models.

2 The Embedding Condensation Phenomenon

Consider a sequence of N tokens and let $\mathcal{Z}^{(l)} = [z_1^{(l)}, z_2^{(l)}, \ldots, z_N^{(l)}]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ denote the token embeddings after layer l in a transformer. In the eyes of physicists, $\mathcal{Z}^{(l)}$ can be interpreted as N particles in a d-dimensional space, and transformer layers are external impacts on the particle system. A theory paper [7] has mathematically proven that these embeddings tend to cluster to a single point as $l \to \infty$, but limited empirical evidence has been provided.

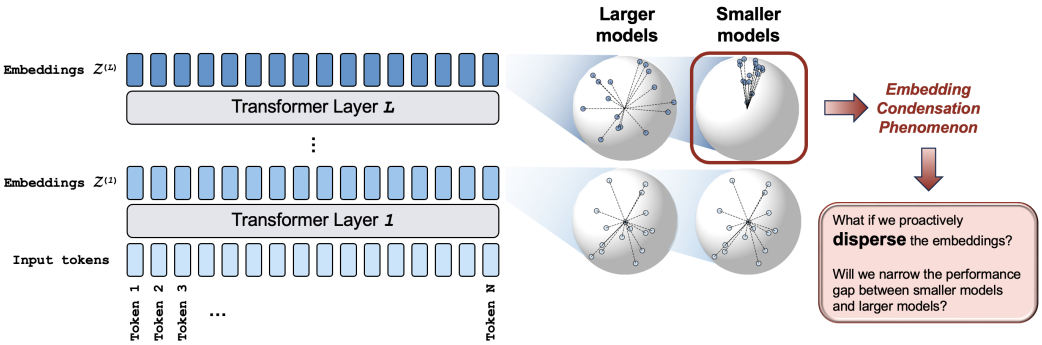

Figure 2: Conceptual illustration of embedding condensation.

In this work, we empirically analyze the spread of $\mathcal{Z}^{(l)}$ across depth l and across model scales, and identify what we term the ***embedding condensation phenomenon***.

2.1 Quantifying layer-by-layer embedding spread in transformers

Let $z_i^{(l)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denote the embedding of token i after layer l, we measure the spread of embeddings using pairwise cosine similarities $\texttt{cossim}\left(z_i^{(l)}, z_j^{(l)}\right) = \frac{z_i^{(l)\top} \cdot z_j^{(l)}}{\|z_i^{(l)}\| \cdot \|z_j^{(l)}\|}$.

Cosine similarities lie in $[-1, 1]$, with a value of 1 indicating complete directional alignment, -1 indicating opposite directions, and 0 indicating orthogonality.

For each layer l, we feed the input sequence of length N tokens to the transformer, and gather the token embeddings $[z_1^{(l)}, z_2^{(l)}, \ldots, z_N^{(l)}]^\top$. We then compute pairwise similarities $\{\texttt{cossim}(z_i^{(l)}, z_j^{(l)})\}$ for all N^2 pairs. The resulting cosine similarity values form a distribution that we visualize as a histogram for each layer. By stacking these histograms across depth, we create a heatmap that highlights the progression of embedding spread layer by layer.

In this work, every heatmap is created using a population average over $n = 100$ randomly selected input sequences from `wikitext-103` [8]. We have experimented with different types of input text corpora (namely, `pubmed_qa` [9], `imdb` [10], and `squad` [11]), and the trends remain highly consistent and dataset-independent.

2.2 Embedding condensation and its implication

Applying the above analysis to multiple transformer families reveals a clear model-size-dependent trend. As shown in Figure 1, smaller models such as `ALBERT-base` and `GPT2` exhibit a **sharp upward drift** of cosine similarity distributions with depth. The embeddings become increasingly aligned, and in `GPT2` the distribution collapses almost entirely near 1, indicating a near-perfect directional alignment. `ALBERT-base` shows the same tendency, though its collapse remains less extreme. We refer to this degeneracy as ***embedding condensation***.

In contrast, larger models such as `ALBERT-xxlarge` and `GPT2-xl` maintain relatively non-extreme cosine similarities across all layers, indicating that they are naturally more resistant to embedding condensation. We refer to this behavior as ***embedding dispersion***.

This geometric view highlights an important implication: condensation reduces the diversity of directions in which tokens can be represented, effectively narrowing the model's expressive capacity (Figure 2). Dispersion, on the other hand, preserves representational breadth, which may underlie the superior performance of large-scale models. These observations motivate the following hypothesis.

Table 1: **Variants of dispersion losses for transformers.** For the Orthogonalization variant, the distance margin is fixed to $\frac{1}{2}$ since we use angular distance, where $\frac{1}{2}$ corresponds to orthogonality and thus serves as the ideal margin. For ℓ_2-repel and Angular spread, we adopt the `log-sum-exp` trick for numerical stability, which differs from $\log(\text{mean}(\exp(\cdot)))$ only by an additive constant. For ℓ_2-repel, a norm regularization term is added to prevent unbounded expansion of embeddings.

Variant	For generative modeling in diffusion-based models	**For improving generalization performance of smaller language models**	
	formulation [12]	**formulation (ours)**	term definition
Decorrelation	$\sum_{m,n} \text{Cov}_{mn}^2$	$\sum_{m,n}^{m\neq n} \text{Cov}_{mn}^2$	$\text{Cov}^2 = \frac{\mathcal{Z}_c^\top \mathcal{Z}_c}{d-1}$, $\mathcal{Z}_c = \frac{\mathcal{Z}-\mu_d(\mathcal{Z})}{\sigma_d(\mathcal{Z})}$
ℓ_2-repel	$\log \mathbb{E}_{i,j}[\exp(-D(z_i, z_j)/\tau)]$	$\log \sum_{i,j}^{i\neq j}[\exp(-D(z_i, z_j)/\tau)] + \lambda_{\text{norm}}\|\mathcal{Z}\|_2^2$	$D(z_i, z_j) = \|\mathcal{Z}_{i,:} - \mathcal{Z}_{:,j}\|_2^2$
Angular spread	$\log \mathbb{E}_{i,j}[\exp(-D(z_i, z_j)/\tau)]$	$\log \sum_{i,j}^{i\neq j}[\exp(-D(z_i, z_j)/\tau)]$	$D(z_i, z_j) = \frac{\arccos(\texttt{cossim}(z_i, z_j))}{\pi}$
Orthogonalization	$\mathbb{E}_{i,j}[\texttt{max}(0, \epsilon - D(z_i, z_j))^2]$	$\mathbb{E}_{i,j}^{i\neq j}[\texttt{max}(0, \frac{1}{2} - D(z_i, z_j))^2]$	$D(z_i, z_j) = \frac{\arccos(\texttt{cossim}(z_i, z_j))}{\pi}$

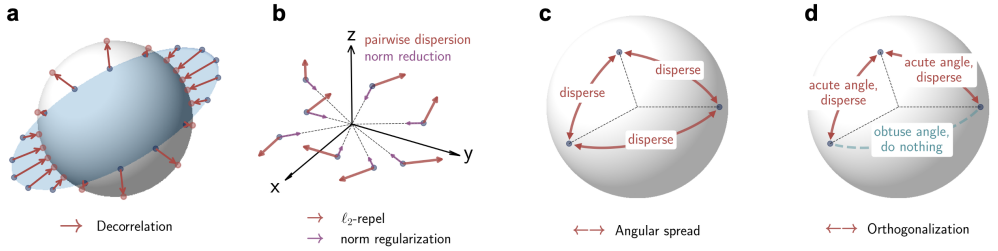

Figure 3: **Illustration of how the four dispersion loss variants respectively promote representation dispersion.** (a) Decorrelation loss suppresses off-diagonal covariance, encouraging different feature dimensions to remain uncorrelated. (b) ℓ_2-repel loss drives pairwise separation in Euclidean space, while the norm regularization prevents unbounded expansion. (c) Angular spread loss enforces uniform angular dispersion by spreading out all pairs along the sphere. (d) Orthogonalization loss selectively spreads out vectors forming acute angles while leaving cobtuse ones unchanged.

HYPOTHESIS: DISPERSION UNDERLIES THE POWER OF LARGER MODELS.

Embedding condensation reduces the expressiveness of small transformers by collapsing token representations into narrow cones. We hypothesize that by **counteracting condensation** and **encouraging dispersion during training**, smaller models can recover properties seen in larger models, thereby *narrowing the performance gap without increasing the number of parameters*.

3 Dispersion Losses for Transformer Embeddings

Our hypothesis motivates the design of auxiliary objectives that explicitly promote embedding dispersion during training. For this purpose, we propose to augment the training loss with a dispersion loss as a regularizer, which gives $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{train}} + \lambda_{\text{disp}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{disp}}$.

We implemented four variants of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{disp}}$, each capturing dispersion through a different geometric lens. The formulations of these variants are summarized in Table 1, illustrated in Figure 3, and discussed in more details below.

Variant 1: Decorrelation The decorrelation penalty minimizes off-diagonal entries of the covariance matrix of embeddings (Table 1, row 1 and Figure 3a). By construction, this loss discourages feature dimensions from becoming correlated, thereby encouraging decorrelated directions in the representation space.

Variant 2: ℓ_2-repel The ℓ_2-repel variant directly pushes apart pairs of embeddings in the Euclidean space. A key implementation detail is that minimizing the objective could be achieved trivially by increasing the norm of embeddings, since larger magnitudes inflate distances. To avoid this, we include a norm regularization term that penalizes unbounded growth (Table 1, row 2 and Figure 3b).

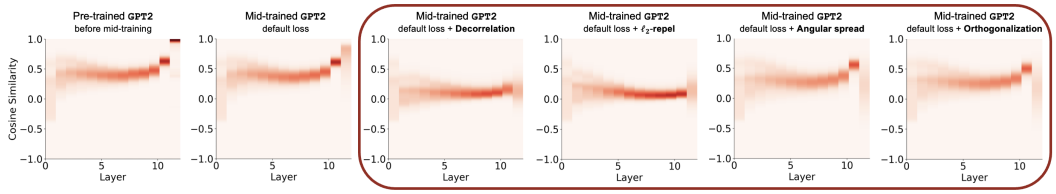

Figure 4: Dispersion losses counteract the embedding condensation phenomenon.

Variant 3: Angular spread The angular spread variant is the most straightforward objective that directly counteract the condensation of cosine similarities by spreading out all embeddings on the unit hypersphere (Table 1, row 3 and Figure 3c). In practice, we use the inverse cosine function to map the cosine similarity to a normalized angular scale for numerical stability.

Variant 4: Orthogonalization The orthogonalization variant is similar to the angular spread variant, except that the dispersion is set to vanish when two vectors are orthogonal to each other (Table 1, row 4 and Figure 3d). The distance margin ϵ naturally becomes $\frac{1}{2}$ which corresponds to orthogonality.

4 Empirical Results

We mid-train `GPT2` models for 200M tokens on `wikitext-103` starting from pre-trained weights. Full pre-training from scratch is computationally expensive, which we leave for future investigations.

4.1 Dispersion loss counteracts the embedding condensation phenomenon

Our dispersion losses effectively counteract the embedding condensation phenomenon (Figure 4). While pre-trained `GPT2` exhibits severe condensation (similarities collapse to 1 in deeper layers) and standard mid-training provides minimal improvement, all four dispersion variants significantly restore the natural non-extreme cosine similarities characteristic of larger models.

4.2 Dispersion loss improves model performance in mid-training

Dispersion losses consistently improve downstream performance (Table 2). Over a diverse set of 10 language tasks, all four dispersion variants outperform the baseline with default cross-entropy loss. Improvements are consistent in most tasks, with particularly strong gains in `LAMBADA`. These results validate our hypothesis: counteracting condensation through geometric regularization improves language understanding, bringing smaller models closer to larger counterparts. Among the four variants, the **angular spread** loss is the most effective, providing at least 1.0 absolute improvement in average performance over two model sizes.

5 Conclusion

We identified embedding condensation as a key limitation of smaller transformers and demonstrated that dispersion losses effectively counteract this phenomenon. In our future endeavors, we will (1) identify better text corpora than `wikitext-103` that may be more beneficial during mid-training, and (2) extend our experiments to pre-training from scratch, as a more direct and definitive investigation.

Table 2: Using dispersion losses during mid-training improve `GPT2` performance on language tasks.

Model	Mid-training		Zero-shot						Few-shot (1)				**Average↑**
	Train	Variant	ANLI_{R2}↑	$\text{LAMBADA}_{\text{openai}}$↑	OpenbookQA↑	PIQA↑	TrustfulQA↑	WinoGrande↑	ARC_{easy}↑	$\text{ARC}_{\text{challenge}}$↑	MedMCQA↑	MMLU↑	
GPT2	✗	—	34.4	30.0	16.0	62.0	40.4	53.2	43.2	17.2	25.2	25.2	34.68
	✓	Default loss	35.0$_{(+0.6)}$	34.4$_{(+4.4)}$	16.2$_{(+0.2)}$	62.2$_{(+0.2)}$	42.7$_{(+2.3)}$	53.2$_{(+0.0)}$	44.4$_{(+1.2)}$	17.2$_{(+0.0)}$	23.6$_{(-1.6)}$	25.5$_{(+0.3)}$	35.44$_{(+0.76)}$
		Decorrelation	35.2$_{(+0.8)}$	35.0$_{(+5.0)}$	15.8$_{(-0.2)}$	61.8$_{(-0.2)}$	42.5$_{(+2.1)}$	52.6$_{(-0.6)}$	43.6$_{(+0.4)}$	17.8$_{(+0.6)}$	25.6$_{(+0.4)}$	25.8$_{(+0.6)}$	35.57$_{(+0.89)}$
		ℓ_2-repel	35.0$_{(+0.6)}$	36.2$_{(+6.2)}$	16.6$_{(+0.6)}$	61.6$_{(-0.4)}$	45.4$_{(+5.0)}$	55.8$_{(+2.6)}$	45.0$_{(+1.8)}$	18.4$_{(+1.2)}$	24.0$_{(-1.2)}$	24.8$_{(-0.4)}$	**36.28**$_{(+1.60)}$
		Orthogonalization	35.6$_{(+1.2)}$	34.6$_{(+4.6)}$	16.2$_{(+0.2)}$	62.0$_{(+0.0)}$	43.0$_{(+2.6)}$	53.2$_{(+0.0)}$	43.0$_{(-0.2)}$	18.0$_{(+0.8)}$	25.0$_{(-0.2)}$	25.6$_{(+0.4)}$	35.63$_{(+0.95)}$
		Angular spread	35.4$_{(+1.0)}$	34.8$_{(+4.8)}$	16.4$_{(+0.4)}$	61.0$_{(-1.0)}$	43.2$_{(+2.8)}$	55.0$_{(+1.8)}$	44.2$_{(+1.0)}$	17.8$_{(+0.6)}$	24.8$_{(-0.4)}$	25.4$_{(+0.2)}$	35.80$_{(+1.12)}$
GPT2-m	✗	—	33.4	40.6	36.4	18.8	66.4	40.6	52.6	49.8	20.4	25.2	38.42
	✓	Default loss	33.2$_{(-0.2)}$	43.2$_{(+2.6)}$	36.6$_{(+0.2)}$	19.0$_{(+0.2)}$	68.0$_{(+1.6)}$	44.2$_{(+3.6)}$	53.6$_{(+1.0)}$	48.8$_{(-1.0)}$	19.6$_{(-0.8)}$	25.1$_{(-0.1)}$	39.13$_{(+0.71)}$
		Decorrelation	33.4$_{(+0.0)}$	45.4$_{(+4.8)}$	38.6$_{(+2.2)}$	18.8$_{(+0.0)}$	66.4$_{(+0.0)}$	43.8$_{(+3.2)}$	54.4$_{(+1.8)}$	48.0$_{(-1.8)}$	19.6$_{(-0.8)}$	25.4$_{(+0.2)}$	39.39$_{(+0.97)}$
		ℓ_2-repel	33.6$_{(+0.2)}$	44.4$_{(+3.8)}$	38.0$_{(+1.6)}$	18.8$_{(+0.0)}$	67.2$_{(+0.8)}$	44.2$_{(+3.6)}$	52.8$_{(+0.2)}$	48.0$_{(-1.8)}$	19.8$_{(-0.6)}$	25.3$_{(+0.1)}$	39.21$_{(+0.79)}$
		Orthogonalization	33.2$_{(-0.2)}$	45.2$_{(+4.6)}$	37.6$_{(+1.2)}$	18.6$_{(-0.2)}$	67.8$_{(+1.4)}$	43.6$_{(+3.0)}$	53.2$_{(+0.6)}$	48.6$_{(-1.2)}$	20.0$_{(-0.4)}$	25.0$_{(-0.2)}$	39.28$_{(+0.86)}$
		Angular spread	33.4$_{(+0.0)}$	45.0$_{(+4.4)}$	39.4$_{(+3.0)}$	19.2$_{(+0.4)}$	67.4$_{(+1.0)}$	43.8$_{(+3.2)}$	52.2$_{(-0.4)}$	50.0$_{(+0.2)}$	20.2$_{(-0.2)}$	25.4$_{(+0.2)}$	**39.60**$_{(+1.18)}$
GPT2-l	✗	—	33.4	47.6	19.6	71.4	38.9	59.0	53.8	22.4	26.6	25.5	39.83
GPT2-xl	✗	—	36.2	49.8	22.8	72.6	38.0	57.8	58.4	24.2	27.2	25.1	41.21

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