

---

# Enforcing Orderedness in SAEs to Improve Feature Consistency

---

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

## Abstract

1 Sparse autoencoders (SAEs) have been widely used for interpretability of neural  
2 networks, but their learned features often vary across seeds and hyperparameter  
3 settings. We introduce Ordered Sparse Autoencoders (OSAE), which extend  
4 Matryoshka SAEs by (1) establishing a strict ordering of latent features and (2)  
5 deterministically using every feature dimension, avoiding the sampling-based ap-  
6 proximations of prior nested SAE methods. Theoretically, we show that OSAEs  
7 resolve permutation non-identifiability in settings of sparse dictionary learning  
8 where solutions are unique (up to natural symmetries). Empirically on Gemma2-  
9 2B and Pythia-70M, we show that OSAEs can help improve consistency compared  
10 to Matryoshka baselines.

## 11 1 Introduction

12 Sparse autoencoders (SAEs) have become central to unsupervised representation learning. Enforc-  
13 ing sparsity in the latent space yields interpretable, often disentangled features, enabling progress  
14 in clustering, visualization, and scientific discovery [Vincent et al., 2010, Coates et al., 2011, Ng,  
15 2011]. Yet despite their success, SAEs suffer from a critical shortcoming: the set of features they  
16 learn can vary across random seeds, initialization schemes, and hyperparameter settings, leading to  
17 poor reproducibility and undermining any mechanistic interpretation of individual latent dimensions  
18 [Song et al., 2025, Fel et al., 2025]. Several strategies have been proposed to mitigate this instability.  
19 These include regularization techniques such as orthonormality penalties [Lee et al., 2025], struc-  
20 tured sparsity constraints like group or tree sparsity [Jenatton et al., 2010], and post-hoc alignment  
21 or averaging of learned dictionaries across runs [Ghorbani et al., 2020].

22 One way to reduce the size of each equivalence class of solutions is to enforce structural constraints  
23 into the loss function. In particular, Matryoshka SAEs [Bussmann et al., 2025] are introduced to  
24 resolve a notion of hierarchy in feature learning. Their work defines an ordering on features by their  
25 level of abstraction: "comma" is a lower-level feature than "punctuation mark". Matryoshka SAEs  
26 sample a small number of dictionary sizes per batch, thereby capturing multiscale features and  
27 partially breaking permutation symmetry. Despite these advances, Matryoshka SAEs treat features  
28 within each sampled group as exchangeable, a limitation from sampling only a handful of dictionary  
29 sizes (e.g., up to 10 per batch).

30 In this work, we introduce *Ordered Sparse Autoencoders* (OSAE), which extends Matryoshka SAEs  
31 by enforcing a strict ordering of latent dimensions. Drawing on the concept of nested dropout—  
32 which imposes an explicit ordering by stochastically truncating latent codes [Rippel et al., 2014]—  
33 OSAE treats each non-zero feature as its own dictionary size.

34 Our key contributions are:

- We propose Ordered Sparse Autoencoders (OSAE), which enforce deterministic feature ordering.
- We present theoretical results for ordered feature recovery by nested dropout loss in a special case of overcomplete sparse dictionary learning.
- We demonstrate improvement in feature consistency when using OSAEs on Gemma2-2B and Pythia-70M.

## 2 Problem setup

### 2.1 Preliminaries

Throughout, we use the following notation:

- $X = [x_1, \dots, x_N] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times N}$ : the data matrix whose columns  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are samples.
- $E : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^K$ : the encoder mapping each input  $x_i$  to a code  $z_i = E(x_i)$ .
- $D \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times K}$ : the decoder or dictionary matrix, whose columns  $d_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are basis atoms.
- $Z = E(X) \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$ : the code matrix, whose columns are the encoded vectors  $z_i$ .

We will consider two settings:

- **(Under)complete** ( $K \leq d$ ).  $D$  spans a  $K$ -dimensional subspace (the PCA case).
- **Overcomplete** ( $K > d$ ).  $D$  is a dictionary of  $K$  atoms for sparse coding.

Define for all  $\ell = 1, \dots, K$ :

$$\Lambda_\ell = \begin{bmatrix} I_\ell & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \{0, 1\}^{K \times K},$$

$$\text{Top}_m(z_i)_j = \begin{cases} z_{i,j}, & \text{if } |z_{i,j}| \text{ in top } m, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

extended column-wise to  $\text{Top}_m(Z)$ .

### 2.2 Nested dropout in the (under)complete setting

Consider the (under)complete linear autoencoder with representation dimension  $K \leq d$ . The standard reconstruction loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{AE}}(D, E) = \|X - DZ\|_F^2$$

recovers the top- $K$  principal subspace but leaves  $D$  defined only up to an invertible transformation Baldi and Hornik [1989], Bourlard and Kamp [1988], Plaut [2018]. Rippel et al. [2014] introduce the nested dropout loss, which minimizes

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}(D, E) = \mathbb{E}_{\ell \sim p_{\text{ND}}} \|X - D \Lambda_\ell Z\|_F^2,$$

where  $p_{\text{ND}}(\ell)$  is a distribution over  $\{1, \dots, k\}$  with full support. With  $D^\top D = I$ , they theoretically show that this loss uniquely recovers the PCA eigenbasis in descending-eigenvalue order, rather than merely its subspace.

In the next section we extend this idea to the overcomplete, hard- $m$  sparse setting by inserting a Top- $m$  mask into the same expectation to obtain our Ordered Sparse Autoencoder (O-SAE).

### 2.3 Sparse dictionary learning

To understand the non-identifiability challenges faced by sparse autoencoders in the overcomplete regime, we first discuss classical sparse dictionary learning. The goal is to generalize PCA's fixed-size eigenbasis to an overcomplete dictionary of atoms that admits sparse representations. Concretely, each data vector  $x_i$  is modeled as

$$X = [x_1, \dots, x_N] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times N}, \quad X = DY,$$

70 where

$$D = [d_1, \dots, d_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times K}, \quad Y = [y_1, \dots, y_N] \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N},$$

71 with unit-norm atoms  $\|d_j\|_2 = 1$  and sparse codes  $\|y_i\|_0 \leq m \ll K$ . That is, each sample  $x_i$  is  
 72 assumed to be generated by a linear combination of a small subset of the dictionary atoms.

73 Whereas PCA solves  $\min \|X - DZ\|_F^2$  under a rank constraint  $K \leq d$ , sparse dictionary learning  
 74 (SDL) tackles

$$\min_{D, Y} \|X - DY\|_F^2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad \|y_i\|_0 \leq m,$$

75 an NP-hard problem due to the combinatorial nature of the  $\ell_0$  sparsity constraint. In practice, this ob-  
 76 jective is typically approximated using greedy methods like orthogonal matching pursuit (OMP) Pati  
 77 et al. [1993], Tropp and Gilbert [2007], alternating minimization algorithms such as K-SVD Aharon  
 78 et al. [2006], or online optimization techniques Mairal et al. [2010].

79 A key challenge in SDL is the issue of non-identifiability: many dictionaries  $D$  and code matrices  
 80  $Y$  can produce the same reconstruction  $X$ , especially in the overcomplete setting. Even in the  
 81 ideal noiseless case, identifiability of the ground-truth dictionary  $D^*$  is only possible under strong  
 82 structural assumptions.

83 **Spark and uniqueness.** The *spark* of a dictionary  $D$ ,

$$\text{spark}(D) = \min\{\|z\|_0 : Dz = 0, z \neq 0\},$$

84 measures the size of the smallest linearly dependent set of atoms. If  $\text{spark}(D) > 2m$ , then any  
 85  $m$ -sparse representation  $y = Dz$  is unique, guaranteeing identifiability in sparse coding. However,  
 86 computing spark is NP-hard, so practitioners often rely on relaxed surrogate conditions:

- 87 • *Mutual coherence*  $\mu(D) = \max_{i \neq j} |d_i^\top d_j|$ , with  $\mu(D)(m-1) < 1$  ensuring uniqueness  
 88 via greedy methods such as OMP Tropp [2004].
- 89 • *Restricted isometry property* (RIP), which ensures  $D$  approximately preserves the norms  
 90 of all  $m$ -sparse vectors Candes and Tao [2005].

91 Recent work has begun applying these identifiability conditions to sparse autoencoders. In partic-  
 92 ular, Song et al. [2025] show that if a Top- $k$  SAE achieves exact sparsity and zero reconstruction  
 93 error, then the encoder-decoder pair satisfies a round-trip condition that implies  $\text{spark}(D) > 2k$ ,  
 94 guaranteeing uniqueness of the learned features up to permutation and scaling. Our work builds on  
 95 this by explicitly reducing *permutation ambiguity during training* itself.

## 96 2.4 $\ell$ -prefix reconstruction objective (Top- $m$ ).

97 We define:

$$\mathcal{L}_\ell(D, E) = \|X - D \Lambda_\ell \text{Top}_m(Z)\|_F^2.$$

98 This objective minimizes reconstruction loss when we use the top- $k$  codes and then truncate to the  
 99 first  $\ell$  dimensions. When  $\ell = K$ , this becomes the standard full-code reconstruction loss  $\|X -$   
 100  $D \text{Top}_k(Z)\|_F^2$  that standard top- $m$  SAEs minimize.

## 101 2.5 Matryoshka SAE objective (Top- $m$ ).

102 Matryoshka SAEs [Bussmann et al., 2025] partition the  $K$  atoms into a small collection of nested  
 103 “groups” of increasing size  $M = \{\ell_1 < \dots < \ell_L\}$ . At each training step, one group  $1:\ell$  is sampled  
 104 with probability  $p_{\text{MSAE}}(\ell)$ , and only atoms  $d_1, \dots, d_\ell$  (and their corresponding code entries) are  
 105 used for reconstruction:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{MSAE}}(D, E) &= \mathbb{E}_{\ell \sim p_{\text{MSAE}}} [\mathcal{L}_\ell(D, E)] \\ &= \sum_{\ell \in M} p_{\text{MSAE}}(\ell) \|X - D \Lambda_\ell \text{Top}_m(Z)\|_F^2. \end{aligned}$$

106 By enforcing reconstruction over only a handful of group sizes (e.g. 5–10 per batch), Matryoshka  
 107 SAE captures multiscale features while partially breaking permutation symmetry within each group.

## 2.6 Nested dropout objective (Top- $m$ ).

We extend nested dropout [Rippel et al., 2014] by treating each individual atom  $d_j$  as its own “group,” so that sampling a prefix  $\ell$  means retaining exactly atoms 1 through  $\ell$  and dropping the rest. Let  $p_{\text{ND}}(\ell)$  be a distribution over  $\{1, \dots, m\}$  with full support. The nested-dropout loss is

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}(D, E) &= \mathbb{E}_{\ell \sim p_{\text{ND}}} [\mathcal{L}_{\ell}(D, E)] \\ &= \sum_{\ell=1}^m p_{\text{ND}}(\ell) \|X - D \Lambda_{\ell} \text{Top}_m(Z)\|_F^2.\end{aligned}$$

By covering all prefixes in expectation, this objective enforces a strict ordering of features.

## 2.7 Consistency evaluation

To quantify how reproducibly SAEs recover the same features across seeds, we adopt the *stability* metric from Fel et al. [2025]. Let  $D, D' \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times K}$  be two learned decoder matrices with unit-norm columns. We define

$$\text{Stab}(D, D') = \max_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{K} \text{tr}(D^{\top} P D'),$$

where  $\mathcal{P}$  is the set of all  $K \times K$  permutation matrices. This computes the average cosine similarity between matched atoms after optimal re-indexing via the Hungarian algorithm. When we compare a learned dictionary  $D$  against the ground-truth dictionary  $D^*$ , stability also serves as a *feature recovery fidelity* metric, indicating how accurately the true atoms are recovered.

## 2.8 Orderedness evaluation

To quantify how similarly in order SAEs recover features across seeds, we introduce an orderedness metric. Let  $D, D' \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times K}$  be two dictionaries, each with an inherent ordering of their atoms (e.g. by frequency, abstraction, or another criterion). After matching each atom  $d_j$  in  $D$  to its best-corresponding atom  $d'_{\mu(j)}$  in  $D'$  via the Hungarian algorithm, we obtain a permutation vector

$$\mu = (\mu(1), \mu(2), \dots, \mu(K)) \in \{1, \dots, K\}^K.$$

We then define the *orderedness* between  $D$  and  $D'$  as the Spearman rank correlation between their index sequences:

$$\text{Ord}(D, D') = \text{Spearman}((1, \dots, K), \mu) = 1 - \frac{6 \sum_{j=1}^K (j - \mu(j))^2}{K(K^2 - 1)}.$$

A value  $\text{Ord}(D, D') = 1$  indicates perfect matching of their orderings.

## 3 Exact recovery of ordered features

Define the domain of optimization to be

$$\mathcal{F} = \{(D, E) \mid D = [d_1, \dots, d_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times K}, \|d_j\|_2 = 1 \quad (\forall j = 1, \dots, K), E : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^K\}.$$

In other words,  $\mathcal{F}$  consists of all decoder–encoder pairs  $(D, E)$  in which each dictionary atom  $d_j$  has unit  $\ell_2$ -norm, and  $E$  is an arbitrary mapping from  $\mathbb{R}^d$  to  $\mathbb{R}^K$ .

Suppose  $X = D^* Y^*$ , where  $D^* = [d_1^*, \dots, d_K^*] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times K}$  has unit-norm columns satisfying  $\text{spark}(D^*) > 2m$ , and  $Y^* \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$   $m$ -sparse columns.

**Lemma 3.1.** *Any minimiser of  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}$  also minimises the full-prefix loss  $\mathcal{L}_k$ . That is,*

$$\text{argmin}_{(D, E) \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}} \subseteq \text{argmin}_{(D, E) \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{L}_k.$$

The proof is deferred to Appendix A



137 **Theorem 3.1.** [Exact ordered recovery under spark condition] Assume the columns of  $Y^*$  are non-  
 138 negative (to resolve sign ambiguity) and “true” atoms are ordered so that

$$|\{i : y_{1,i}^* > 0\}| \geq |\{i : y_{2,i}^* > 0\}| \geq \cdots \geq |\{i : y_{K,i}^* > 0\}|.$$

139 Then any global minimiser  $(\hat{D}, \hat{E}) \in \mathcal{F}$  of the nested-dropout loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}$  satisfies

$$\hat{D} = D^*, \quad \hat{E}(X) = Y^*$$

140 *Proof.* By Lemma 3.1, any minimiser of  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}$  also minimises the full-prefix loss  $\mathcal{L}_K$ . Hence  $(\hat{D}, \hat{Y})$   
 141 with  $\hat{Y} = \text{Top}_m(\hat{E}(X))$  satisfies

$$\hat{D} \hat{Y} = X, \quad \|\hat{y}_i\|_0 \leq m.$$

142 The uniqueness result under the spark condition then gives

$$\hat{D} = D^* P S, \quad \hat{Y} = S^{-1} P^\top Y^*,$$

143 for some permutation matrix  $P$  and invertible diagonal  $S$ .

144 Since all columns of  $Y^*$  and  $\hat{Y}$  are nonnegative,  $S$  must be the identity (no sign-flips or rescaling).  
 145 Finally, because the atoms were assumed ordered by their sparsity-support frequencies, the only  
 146 permutation that preserves that ordering is the identity. Hence  $P = I$  and

$$\hat{D} = D^*, \quad \hat{Y} = Y^*,$$

147 as claimed. □

### 148 3.1 Toy Gaussian model

149 Theorem 3.1 gives theoretical guarantees that SAEs minimising nested dropout loss can achieve  
 150 perfect consistency and orderedness under certain conditions of the data and sparsity. We evaluate  
 151 under the following synthetic generative model:

152 1. **Parameters.** Fix dimensions  $d, n, K$  and sparsity level  $m \leq d$ . Assume an *ordering*  
 153 distribution  $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K)$  with  $\pi_1 \geq \pi_2 \geq \cdots \geq \pi_K > 0$  and  $\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j = 1$ .

154 2. **Dictionary generation.**

$$D = [d_1, \dots, d_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times K}, \quad d_j \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \tfrac{1}{d} I_d), \quad d_j \leftarrow \frac{d_j}{\|d_j\|_2}.$$

155 3. **Code generation.** For each sample  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

156 (a) Sample a support of size  $m$  by drawing indices without replacement according to  $\pi$ :

$$S_i \sim \text{MultisetSample}(\pi, m).$$

157 (b) Let

$$y_i \in \mathbb{R}^K, \quad (y_i)_j = \begin{cases} z_{ij}, & j \in S_i, \\ 0, & j \notin S_i, \end{cases} \quad z_{ij} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

158 (c) For the purposes of this toy model, we remove sign ambiguity:  $y_i \leftarrow |y_i|$ .

159 Collect into  $Y = [y_1, \dots, y_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times n}$ .

160 4. **Data matrix.**

$$X = D Y \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}.$$

161 Under this model, atoms with smaller index  $j$  appear more frequently in the data (higher  $\pi_j$ ), in-  
 162 ducing a ground-truth ordering that we will attempt to recover via O-SAEs. Since the dictionary is  
 163 drawn from a standard Gaussian ensemble, the spark condition for uniqueness is satisfied with high  
 164 probability [Hillar and Sommer, 2015].

**Unit sweeping.** Nested dropout samples a truncation index  $b \sim p_B(\cdot)$ , so gradients onto late units shrink exponentially with index. To avoid starving these units, we employ *unit sweeping* [Rippel et al., 2014]: once a lower-index unit has effectively converged, we *freeze* its encoder row and decoder column (stop backprop through that unit) and continue training the remaining, unfrozen units. Practically, we use a simple “clockwork” schedule that freezes one additional unit every  $T$  epochs (from  $1 \rightarrow K$ ), after a short burn-in; frozen units remain in the forward pass, and we renormalize decoder columns to unit norm after each freeze. Results in Fig. 4 and Table 1 use unit sweeping, which we find improves stability and ordered recovery in this setting.

**Evaluation.** We evaluate Ordered SAE, Matryoshka SAE (Fixed and Random, with five groups), and Vanilla top- $m$  SAEs on the toy model above with  $(d, K, m, N) = (80, 100, 5, 100,000)$  and a Zipf support prior  $\pi_j \propto j^{-\alpha}$ ,  $\alpha = 1.2$ , which induces a strict ground-truth ordering. Hyperparameters are selected by lowest validation reconstruction error at the target sparsity. We use the warmup schedule for  $k$  (from  $K$  down to  $m$ ) and train with *unit sweeping*. Qualitative recovery patterns are shown in Fig. 1 for Fixed MSAE and OSAE; full results can be found in Fig. 4. Quantitative results (mean  $\pm$  std) are summarized in Table 1. Importantly,  $\text{Stab}(D, D')$  is averaged over  $\binom{10}{2} = 45$  seed pairs, while  $\text{Stab}(D, D^*)$  and  $\text{Ord}(D, D^*)$  are averaged over 10 seed  $\rightarrow D^*$  comparisons; reconstruction loss is MSE on a held-out set.

For each model, we choose the hyperparameter configuration that achieves the lowest validation reconstruction error at the target sparsity level.

To stabilize training and improve recovery, we adopt a warmup strategy for top- $k$  truncation. Specifically, we begin training with a large truncation size  $k_{\text{init}} \geq m$  (typically  $k_{\text{init}} = K$ ) and gradually decrease  $k$  to the target sparsity  $m$  over a fixed number of epochs. This schedule smooths the optimization landscape by initially allowing dense activations before progressively enforcing sparsity. We find this warmup significantly improves convergence, particularly for O-SAE and Matryoshka models where early features receive higher training pressure. Additional results are shown in Appendix B.

| Model              | $\text{Stab}(D, D')$  | $\text{Stab}(D, D^*)$ | $\text{Ord}(D, D^*)$  | Reconstruction loss       |
|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| Vanilla SAE        | 0.572 (0.00964)       | 0.479 (0.0104)        | 0.0162 (0.128)        | 0.0257 (0.000841)         |
| Fixed MSAE         | 0.538 (0.0114)        | 0.502 (0.0160)        | 0.119 (0.673)         | 0.0339 (0.00635)          |
| Random MSAE        | 0.531 (0.0150)        | 0.480 (0.0106)        | 0.0544 (0.0760)       | 0.0309 (0.00366)          |
| <b>OSAE (ours)</b> | <b>0.664 (0.0191)</b> | <b>0.814 (0.0195)</b> | <b>0.734 (0.0758)</b> | <b>0.00725 (0.000746)</b> |

Table 1: Summary metrics on the toy Gaussian model (mean  $\pm$  std).

We found it surprising that our O-SAEs achieved the lowest reconstruction loss here despite possessing inductive biases that restrict the solution class. Thus for a controlled evaluation with minimal influence from hyperparameter bias, we ran further evaluations for O-SAEs in Appendix B.3 directly extending Song et al. [2025]’s synthetic experiments. There, O-SAEs achieve a similar consistency and higher orderedness compared to baseline architectures despite a higher MSE loss, helping support our findings here.

## 4 Results on empirical data

### 4.1 Text-Based Evaluations on Gemma-2 2B

**Setup.** We evaluate the orderedness and stability of pairs of random seeds for Ordered SAEs and Matryoshka SAE variants trained on Gemma-2 2B [Team et al., 2024]. We train these SAEs with dictionary size 4096 on layer 12 with  $K=80$ , collecting activations from Gemma-2 2B on an uncopyrighted portion of the Pile [Gao et al., 2020]. We use the same piecewise distribution for the O-SAE as Matryoshka baselines for these experiments. Unit sweeping is not employed for these experiments. We note that O-SAEs have slightly worse reconstruction loss compared to baselines, potentially due to a restricted solution space or, for a simpler explanation, our limited hyperparameter sweeps. Thus, we compare checkpoints with similar loss values for a fair orderedness and stability comparison.

# Orderedness improves feature recovery in toy models

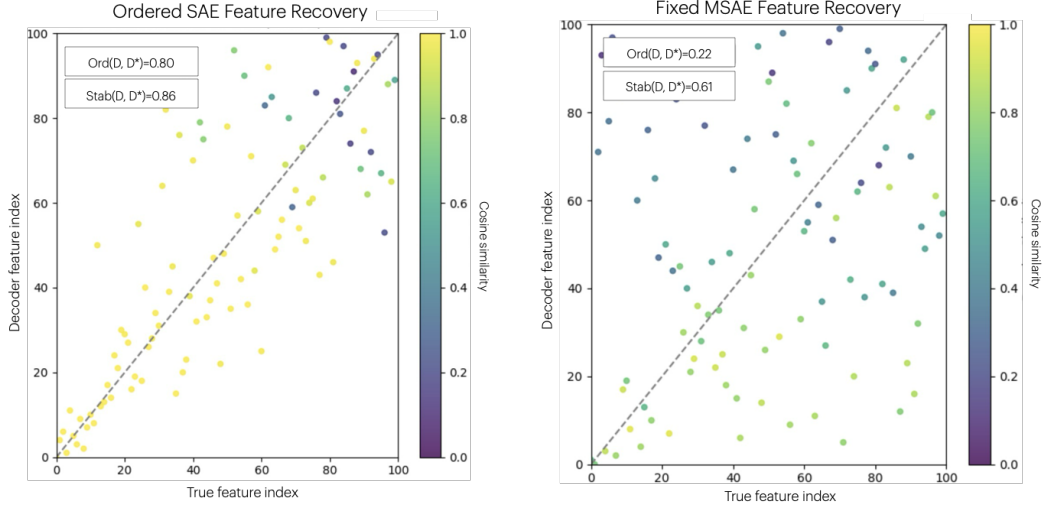


Figure 1: Recovery across SAE variants on a Gaussian toy model with  $(d, K, m, N) = (80, 100, 5, 100\,000)$ . Each panel plots the Hungarian matching between learned decoder atoms  $D$  and ground truth  $D^*$  (one dot per matched pair; color encodes cosine similarity). Ordered SAEs achieve higher stability  $\text{Stab}(D, D^*)$  (mean matched cosine) and higher orderedness  $\text{Ord}(D, D^*)$  (order agreement), meaning they recover features more faithfully and in order.

208 **O-SAEs achieve greater orderedness and stability in Gemma-2 2B.** In Figure 2, we demonstrate  
 209 that O-SAEs achieve better orderedness (defined in 2.8) than the Fixed-prefix MSAE and Random-  
 210 prefix MSAE with 5 groups. Although the overall average stability (defined in 2.7) is lower for  
 211 O-SAE than the Matryoshka variants, we find that the most significant features have higher stability.  
 212 For both metrics, we calculate the truncated metrics for the first  $p$  prefix length features. We see that  
 213 O-SAEs have a lower prefix-length stability compared to the Random MSAE at a crossover point  
 214 between 1024 and 2048 features, where features are less significant in the feature ordering.

## 215 4.2 Consistency across datasets on Pythia 70m

216 We furthermore test the generalizability of orderedness and stability of O-SAEs trained on a different  
 217 model, Pythia-70M [Biderman et al., 2023], and also evaluate consistency when activations are  
 218 collected on different datasets. Both the Pile [Gao et al., 2020] and Dolma [Soldaini et al., 2024] are  
 219 diverse and general pretraining mixes, so we select these datasets to represent a wide distribution of  
 220 language while not drawing from the exact same data sources. If SAEs learn a good representation of  
 221 general language, we ideally hope that the representations are consistent across datasets. We evaluate  
 222 (1) same-dataset consistency similar to the previous section and (2) cross-dataset consistency by  
 223 evaluating pairs of SAEs where one is trained on activations on the Pile and the other on activations  
 224 from Dolma.

225 **Setup.** We train with the same hyperparameters as Gemma2-2B, although Pythia-70M is much  
 226 smaller and has fewer layers. We use layer 3 of Pythia-70M, roughly halfway, to approximate the  
 227 same position as layer 12 in Gemma2-2B. We train five seeds per (model, dataset) pair. In these  
 228 experiments, we evaluate checkpoints after training for 50M tokens, reaching 0.02-0.03 recon loss.

229 **Similar trends on the Pile and Dolma datasets.** In Figure 3a, we evaluate same-dataset ordered-  
 230 ness and stability on the SAEs trained on the Pile and Dolma. We see similar trends of higher  
 231 orderedness for O-SAEs while stability degrades after time. All SAE variants maintain similar per-  
 232 formance between the Pile and Dolma in same-dataset evaluations.

233 We include additional visualizations of how measures of orderedness and stability evolve with in-  
 234 creasing amounts of training on same-dataset evaluations on the Pile and Dolma in Figure 11 and 12

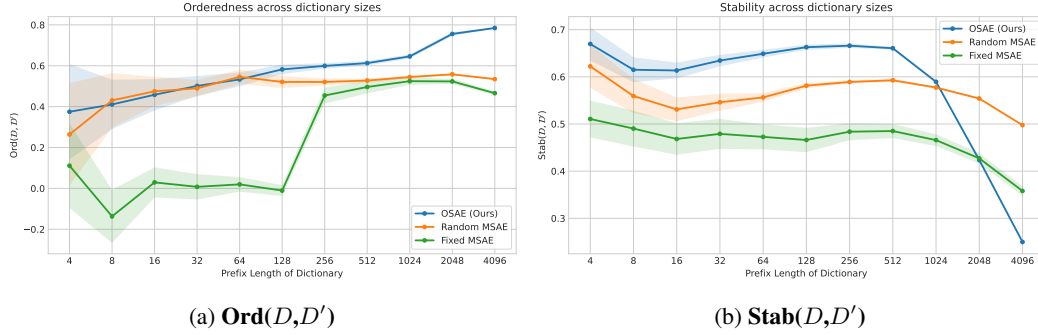


Figure 2: SAEs trained on Gemma2-2B. (a) Orderedness evaluated at different prefix lengths. OSAE’s have the most consistently ordered features almost reaching an average  $\text{Ord}(D, D')$  of 0.8. As expected, we observe orderedness close to 0.0 for the first 128 features of the Fixed MSAE since the first group size is 128, whereafter it jumps up to values between around 0.5. (b) O-SAEs have high stability for the first portion of features, before a sharp decline for later features.  $\binom{9}{2} = 36$  pairs of seeds are evaluated per method and 95% confidence intervals are visualized.

in Appendix C. Interestingly, there are some cases for both O-SAEs and Random MSAEs where as training progresses, high levels of orderedness and stability in earlier prefixes decrease while these measures at later prefixes increase. We suspect this may be an artifact of the probability distribution or over-training, but we plan to run more ablations.

**O-SAEs also improve orderedness in cross-dataset comparisons.** In Figure 3b, we evaluate orderedness and stability of SAEs in cross-dataset settings, where one SAE is trained on the Pile and the other on Dolma. We observe that cross-dataset orderedness and stability matches trends from same-dataset results in Figure 3a, with a decline of around 0.1-0.2 from same-dataset results.

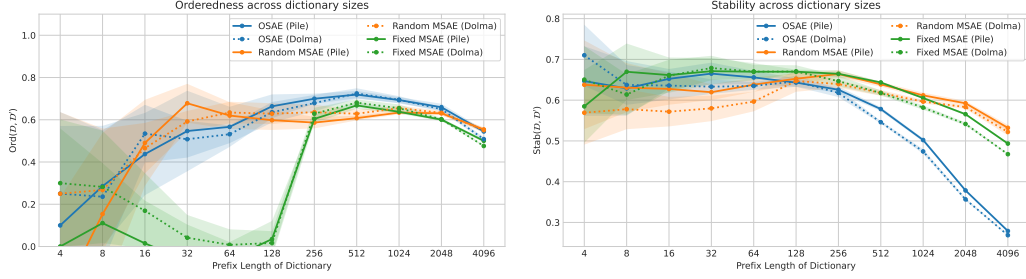
When we use same-seed initialization, O-SAEs achieve near-1.0 value in Orderedness and stability of 0.8 at full prefix length, when trained on different datasets. Orderedness and stability also increase in early prefix dictionary positions compared to the cross-seed settings for both O-SAEs and Random MSAEs; however, increases are more substantial for O-SAEs. We hypothesize the greater jump in full-prefix orderedness and stability metrics for O-SAEs are because they do not update their latter indices as much as earlier indices; this is further supported by Figure 13 and 14 in Appendix C showing minimal full-prefix changes in orderedness when comparing trained models against their initialization state for O-SAEs and significant full-prefix drops for Random MSAEs when comparing trained models against their initialization state.

## 5 Limitations

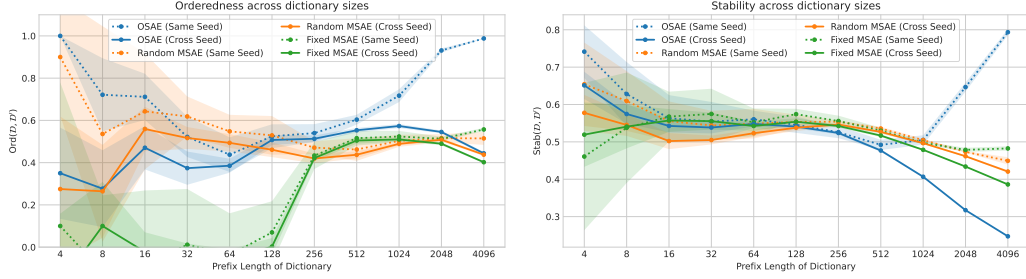
Our theoretical guarantees assume idealized conditions—sparsity and uniqueness assumptions and a well-specified ordering prior—that may not hold exactly in real data. If the imposed order is misspecified, the objective can over-regularize and suppress equally valid alternative bases. Training cost is higher because covering prefixes increases compute, so practical deployments may require approximations or careful schedule design. Performance is also sensitive to design choices such as the prefix distribution and unit sweeping. Finally, our empirical study focuses on controlled settings intended to evaluate the mechanism rather than to exhaustively benchmark task performance across architectures.

## 6 Discussion

By optimizing an ordered, nested-prefix objective, we *shrink the solution class* of sparse autoencoders. The plain reconstruction loss admits large equivalence classes (permutations and near-mixings of features) that undermine reproducibility; the ordered objective effectively selects a canonical basis. This narrowing of admissible solutions is a training-time structural prior, which (i) constrains the hypothesis space, (ii) alters the optimization geometry toward a feature-curriculum, and (iii) makes the learned representation more comparable across runs and hyperparameters. We



(a)  $\text{Ord}(D, D')$  and  $\text{Stab}(D, D')$  comparing SAEs trained on The Pile and Dolma



(b)  $\text{Ord}(D, D')$  and  $\text{Stab}(D, D')$  on Cross-dataset setting

Figure 3: SAEs trained on Pythia-70M (a) O-SAEs demonstrate an improvement in orderedness over Random MSAEs and Fixed MSAEs on the Pile and Dolma after prefix length 128. O-SAE stability is likewise stronger than Random MSAE on both datasets for the beginning features, but crosses over at around prefix length 128. Fixed MSAE stability is higher than O-SAE, but has lower orderedness. ( $n=10$ ). (b) In the cross-dataset, cross-seed setting we observe that O-SAE has modest improvements in orderedness against Random MSAE and sizable stability gains against Random MSAE before prefix 128. O-SAEs and Random MSAEs demonstrate improvements to orderedness and stability when using the same seed despite training on different datasets; however, the improvements are larger for O-SAEs. (Cross-Seed:  $n=20$ . Same-Seed:  $n=5$ )

view ordering as a general mechanism for enforcing identifiability into overcomplete models, complementary to sparsity and incoherence assumptions in classical dictionary learning. Furthermore, we provide empirical results for O-SAEs on Gemma2-2B and Pythia 70m, trained on the Pile and Dolma, that demonstrate greater orderedness and stability in earlier features, while sometimes at the cost of lower stability in later, less-significant features.

## References

- Pascal Vincent, Hugo Larochelle, Isabelle Lajoie, Yoshua Bengio, and Pierre-Antoine Manzagol. Stacked denoising autoencoders: Learning useful representations in a deep network with a local denoising criterion. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 11(12):3371–3408, 2010.
- Adam Coates, Andrew Y Ng, and Honglak Lee. An analysis of single-layer networks in unsupervised feature learning. In *AISTATS*, 2011.
- Andrew Ng. Sparse autoencoder. *CS294A Lecture notes*, 72(2011):1–19, 2011.
- Xiangchen Song, Sarah Zhao, Aidan Lee, Binxu Wang, and Talia Konkle. Position: Mechanistic interpretability should prioritize feature consistency in saes. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2505.20254*, 2025.
- Thomas Fel, Ekdeep Singh Lubana, Jacob S Prince, Matthew Kowal, Victor Boutin, Isabel Papadimitriou, Binxu Wang, Martin Wattenberg, Demba Ba, and Talia Konkle. Archetypal sae: Adaptive and stable dictionary learning for concept extraction in large vision models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.12892*, 2025.
- Hongyu Lee, Kevin Fang, Xinyue Zhao, Binxu Wang, Demba Ba, and Talia Konkle. Evaluating and designing sparse autoencoders by approximating quasi-orthogonality. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.24277*, 2025.
- Rodolphe Jenatton, Jean-Yves Audibert, and Francis Bach. Structured sparse principal component analysis. In *AISTATS*, pages 366–373, 2010.
- Amirata Ghorbani, James Wexler, James Zou, and Been Kim. Neuron shapley: Discovering the responsible neurons. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 519–530, 2020.
- Bart Bussmann, Noa Nabeshima, Adam Karvonen, and Neel Nanda. Learning multi-level features with matryoshka sparse autoencoders. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.17547*, 2025.
- Oren Rippel, Michael A. Gelbart, and Ryan P. Adams. Learning ordered representations with nested dropout. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 1746–1754, 2014.
- Pierre Baldi and Kurt Hornik. Neural networks and principal component analysis: Learning from examples without local minima. *Neural Networks*, 2(1):53–58, 1989.
- Hervé Bourlard and Yves Kamp. Auto-association by multilayer perceptrons and singular value decomposition. In *Biological Cybernetics*, volume 59, pages 291–294, 1988.
- Eugene Plaut. From principal subspaces to principal components with linear autoencoders. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1804.10253*, 2018.
- Y. C. Pati, R. Rezaifar, and P. S. Krishnaprasad. Orthogonal matching pursuit: Recursive function approximation with applications to wavelet decomposition. In *Conference Record of The Twenty-Seventh Asilomar Conference on Signals, Systems and Computers*, pages 40–44. IEEE, 1993.
- Joel A. Tropp and Anna C. Gilbert. Signal recovery from random measurements via orthogonal matching pursuit. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 53(12):4655–4666, 2007.
- Michal Aharon, Michael Elad, and Alfred Bruckstein. K-svd: An algorithm for designing over-complete dictionaries for sparse representation. *IEEE Transactions on Signal Processing*, 54(11):4311–4322, 2006.
- Julien Mairal, Francis Bach, Jean Ponce, and Guillermo Sapiro. Online learning for matrix factorization and sparse coding. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 11:19–60, 2010.
- Joel A Tropp. Greed is good: Algorithmic results for sparse approximation. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 50(10):2231–2242, 2004.
- Emmanuel J Candes and Terence Tao. Decoding by linear programming. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 51(12):4203–4215, 2005.

- 319 Christopher J. Hillar and Friedrich T. Sommer. When can dictionary learning uniquely recover  
320 sparse data from subsamples? *arXiv preprint arXiv:1106.3616*, 2015.
- 321 Gemma Team, Morgane Riviere, Shreya Pathak, Pier Giuseppe Sessa, Cassidy Hardin, Surya Bhu-  
322 patiraju, Léonard Hussenot, Thomas Mesnard, Bobak Shahriari, Alexandre Ramé, Johan Fer-  
323 ret, Peter Liu, Pouya Tafti, Abe Friesen, Michelle Casbon, Sabela Ramos, Ravin Kumar, Char-  
324 line Le Lan, Sammy Jerome, Anton Tsitsulin, Nino Vieillard, Piotr Stanczyk, Sertan Girgin,  
325 Nikola Momchev, Matt Hoffman, Shantanu Thakoor, Jean-Bastien Grill, Behnam Neyshabur,  
326 Olivier Bachem, Alanna Walton, Aliaksei Severyn, Alicia Parrish, Aliya Ahmad, Allen Hutchi-  
327 son, Alvin Abdagic, Amanda Carl, Amy Shen, Andy Brock, Andy Coenen, Anthony Laforge,  
328 Antonia Paterson, Ben Bastian, Bilal Piot, Bo Wu, Brandon Royal, Charlie Chen, Chintu Kumar,  
329 Chris Perry, Chris Welty, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Danila Sinopalnikov, David Wein-  
330 berger, Dimple Vijaykumar, Dominika Rogozińska, Dustin Herbison, Elisa Bandy, Emma Wang,  
331 Eric Noland, Erica Moreira, Evan Senter, Evgenii Eltyshev, Francesco Visin, Gabriel Rasskin,  
332 Gary Wei, Glenn Cameron, Gus Martins, Hadi Hashemi, Hanna Klimczak-Plucińska, Harleen  
333 Batra, Harsh Dhand, Ivan Nardini, Jacinda Mein, Jack Zhou, James Svensson, Jeff Stanway, Jetha  
334 Chan, Jin Peng Zhou, Joana Carrasqueira, Joana Iljazi, Jocelyn Becker, Joe Fernandez, Joost van  
335 Amersfoort, Josh Gordon, Josh Lipschultz, Josh Newlan, Ju yeong Ji, Kareem Mohamed, Kar-  
336 tikeya Badola, Kat Black, Katie Millican, Keelin McDonell, Kelvin Nguyen, Kiranbir Sodhia,  
337 Kish Greene, Lars Lowe Sjoesund, Lauren Usui, Laurent Sifre, Lena Heuermann, Leticia Lago,  
338 Lilly McNealus, Livio Baldini Soares, Logan Kilpatrick, Lucas Dixon, Luciano Martins, Machel  
339 Reid, Manvinder Singh, Mark Iverson, Martin Görner, Mat Velloso, Mateo Wirth, Matt Davidow,  
340 Matt Miller, Matthew Rahtz, Matthew Watson, Meg Risdal, Mehran Kazemi, Michael Moyni-  
341 han, Ming Zhang, Minsuk Kahng, Minwoo Park, Mofi Rahman, Mohit Khatwani, Natalie Dao,  
342 Nenshad Bardoliwalla, Nesh Devanathan, Neta Dumai, Nilay Chauhan, Oscar Wahltinez, Pankil  
343 Botarda, Parker Barnes, Paul Barham, Paul Michel, Pengchong Jin, Petko Georgiev, Phil Cullit-  
344 on, Pradeep Kuppala, Ramona Comanescu, Ramona Merhej, Reena Jana, Reza Ardeshtir Rokni,  
345 Rishabh Agarwal, Ryan Mullins, Samaneh Saadat, Sara Mc Carthy, Sarah Cogan, Sarah Perrin,  
346 Sébastien M. R. Arnold, Sebastian Krause, Shengyang Dai, Shruti Garg, Shruti Sheth, Sue Ron-  
347 strom, Susan Chan, Timothy Jordan, Ting Yu, Tom Eccles, Tom Hennigan, Tomas Kocisky, Tulsee  
348 Doshi, Vihan Jain, Vikas Yadav, Vilobh Meshram, Vishal Dharmadhikari, Warren Barkley, Wei  
349 Wei, Wenming Ye, Woohyun Han, Woosuk Kwon, Xiang Xu, Zhe Shen, Zhitao Gong, Zichuan  
350 Wei, Victor Cotruta, Phoebe Kirk, Anand Rao, Minh Giang, Ludovic Peran, Tris Warkentin, Eli  
351 Collins, Joelle Barral, Zoubin Ghahramani, Raia Hadsell, D. Sculley, Jeanine Banks, Anca Dra-  
352 gan, Slav Petrov, Oriol Vinyals, Jeff Dean, Demis Hassabis, Koray Kavukcuoglu, Clement Fara-  
353 bet, Elena Buchatskaya, Sebastian Borgeaud, Noah Fiedel, Armand Joulin, Kathleen Kenealy,  
354 Robert Dadashi, and Alek Andreev. Gemma 2: Improving open language models at a practical  
355 size, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2408.00118>.
- 356 Leo Gao, Stella Biderman, Sid Black, Laurence Golding, Travis Hoppe, Charles Foster, Jason  
357 Phang, Horace He, Anish Thite, Noa Nabeshima, Shawn Presser, and Connor Leahy. The pile:  
358 An 800gb dataset of diverse text for language modeling, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2101.00027>.
- 360 Stella Biderman, Hailey Schoelkopf, Quentin Anthony, Herbie Bradley, Kyle O’Brien, Eric Hal-  
361 lahan, Mohammad Aflah Khan, Shivanshu Purohit, USVSN Sai Prashanth, Edward Raff, Aviya  
362 Skowron, Lintang Sutawika, and Oskar van der Wal. Pythia: A suite for analyzing large language  
363 models across training and scaling, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2304.01373>.
- 364 Luca Soldaini, Rodney Kinney, Akshita Bhagia, Dustin Schwenk, David Atkinson, Russell Authur,  
365 Ben Bogin, Khyathi Chandu, Jennifer Dumas, Yanai Elazar, Valentin Hofmann, Ananya Harsh  
366 Jha, Sachin Kumar, Li Lucy, Xinxu Lyu, Nathan Lambert, Ian Magnusson, Jacob Morrison, Niklas  
367 Muennighoff, Aakanksha Naik, Crystal Nam, Matthew E. Peters, Abhilasha Ravichander, Kyle  
368 Richardson, Zejiang Shen, Emma Strubell, Nishant Subramani, Oyvind Tafjord, Pete Walsh, Luke  
369 Zettlemoyer, Noah A. Smith, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Iz Beltagy, Dirk Groeneveld, Jesse Dodge, and  
370 Kyle Lo. Dolma: an open corpus of three trillion tokens for language model pretraining research,  
371 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2402.00159>.

## 372 A Proofs

373 *Proof of Lemma 3.1.* Assume for contradiction that  $(D^*, E^*) \in \mathcal{F}$  globally minimizes  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}$  but  
 374 does not minimize  $\mathcal{L}_K$ . Write

$$Z^* = E^*(X), \quad R^* = X - D^* \text{Top}_m(Z^*), \quad \Delta = \frac{1}{N} \|R^*\|_F^2 = \mathcal{L}_K(D^*, E^*) > 0.$$

375 Denote the  $K$ th row of  $\text{Top}_m(Z^*)$  by  $y_K^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

376 If  $y_K^* = 0$  then none of the prefix losses ever see atom  $K$ , so we could remove it entirely and  
 377 re-index, strictly reducing the nested-dropout loss unless  $R^* = 0$ . Hence for a strict counterexample  
 378 we may assume  $y_K^* \neq 0$ .

379 Set

$$v = R^* y_K^* = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{\cdot i}^* y_{K,i}^* \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

380 which is nonzero since  $R^* \neq 0$  and  $y_K^* \neq 0$ . Define

$$u = \frac{(I - d_K^* (d_K^*)^\top) v}{\|(I - d_K^* (d_K^*)^\top) v\|_2}.$$

381 Then  $u$  is unit-length,  $u \perp d_K^*$ , and

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_{K,i}^* (u^\top r_{\cdot i}^*) = u^\top \left( \sum_i r_{\cdot i}^* y_{K,i}^* \right) = u^\top v = \|(I - d_K^* (d_K^*)^\top) v\|_2 > 0.$$

382 Now for small  $\epsilon > 0$  define a perturbation of only the  $K$ th atom:

$$d_K^{\text{new}} = \frac{d_K^* + \epsilon u}{\|d_K^* + \epsilon u\|_2} = d_K^* + \epsilon u - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 d_K^* + O(\epsilon^3),$$

383 and leave  $E^*$  (hence  $\text{Top}_m(Z)$ ) unchanged. All other atoms remain as in  $D^*$ , so  $(D^\epsilon, E^*) \in \mathcal{F}$ .

384 Note that every prefix  $\ell < K$  satisfies

$$D^\epsilon \Lambda_\ell \text{Top}_m(Z^*) = D^* \Lambda_\ell \text{Top}_m(Z^*),$$

385 hence  $\mathcal{L}_\ell(D^\epsilon, E^*) = \mathcal{L}_\ell(D^*, E^*)$  for all  $\ell < K$ . Therefore

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}(D^\epsilon, E^*) = \sum_{\ell=1}^K p_\ell \mathcal{L}_\ell(D^\epsilon, E^*) = p_K \mathcal{L}_K(D^\epsilon, E^*) + \sum_{\ell < K} p_\ell \mathcal{L}_\ell(D^*, E^*).$$

386 It suffices to show  $\mathcal{L}_K(D^\epsilon, E^*) < \mathcal{L}_K(D^*, E^*)$ .

387 Since  $\text{Top}_m(Z)$  is unchanged,

$$R^\epsilon = X - D^\epsilon \text{Top}_m(Z^*) = R^* - (d_K^{\text{new}} - d_K^*) y_K^{*\top}.$$

388 Using  $d_K^{\text{new}} - d_K^* = \epsilon u - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 d_K^* + O(\epsilon^3)$ , one finds, entrywise,

$$r_{\alpha i}^\epsilon = r_{\alpha i}^* - \epsilon u_\alpha y_{K,i}^* + O(\epsilon^2).$$

389 Squaring and summing,

$$\|R^\epsilon\|_F^2 = \sum_{\alpha,i} (r_{\alpha i}^\epsilon)^2 = \sum_{\alpha,i} (r_{\alpha i}^*)^2 - 2\epsilon \sum_i y_{K,i}^* (u^\top r_{\cdot i}^*) + O(\epsilon^2).$$

390 By our choice of  $u$ , the coefficient  $\sum_i y_{K,i}^* (u^\top r_{\cdot i}^*)$  is strictly positive, so for sufficiently small  $\epsilon$  the  
 391 linear term makes  $\|R^\epsilon\|_F^2 < \|R^*\|_F^2$ . Equivalently,

$$\mathcal{L}_K(D^\epsilon, E^*) = \frac{1}{N} \|R^\epsilon\|_F^2 < \frac{1}{N} \|R^*\|_F^2 = \mathcal{L}_K(D^*, E^*).$$

392 Since all  $\mathcal{L}_{\ell < K}$  remain fixed,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}(D^\epsilon, E^*) < \mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}(D^*, E^*),$$

393 contradicting the global minimality of  $(D^*, E^*)$ . Therefore no residual can remain, and every min-  
 394 imiser of  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ND}}$  must satisfy  $\|R\|_F = 0$ , i.e. also minimise  $\mathcal{L}_K$ .  $\square$



## Orderedness improves feature recovery in toy models

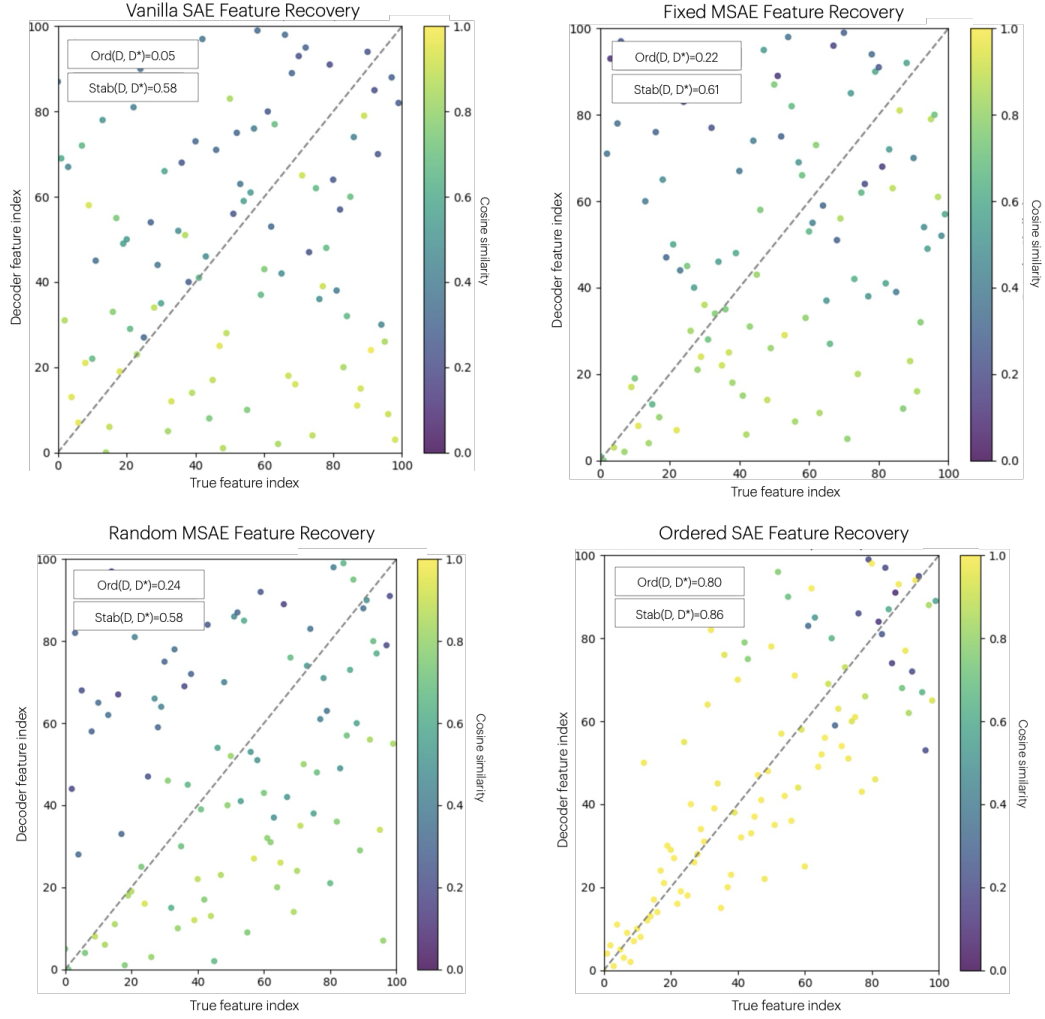


Figure 4: Recovery across SAE variants on a Gaussian toy model with  $(d, K, m, N) = (80, 100, 5, 100\,000)$ . Each panel plots the Hungarian matching between learned decoder atoms  $D$  and ground truth  $D^*$  (one dot per matched pair; color encodes cosine similarity). Ordered SAEs achieve higher stability  $\text{Stab}(D, D^*)$  (mean matched cosine) and higher orderedness  $\text{Ord}(D, D^*)$  (order agreement), meaning they recover features more faithfully and in order.

## B Toy model results

### B.1 Activation-stream stability and orderedness

Let  $Z^{(s)} = E^{(s)}(X) \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$  be the code matrix for seed  $s$  (rows are unit activations over the evaluation set), and let  $Y^* \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$  be the ground-truth activations. We replace decoder-space cosine with *Pearson correlation* on the activation stream and compute stability via Hungarian assignment:

$$R_{ij}^{(\rho)} = \text{corr}(Z_{i:}^{(s)}, Y_{j:}^*), \quad S_{ij}^{(\rho)} = \text{corr}(Z_{i:}^{(a)}, Z_{j:}^{(b)}).$$

With  $P$  the optimal permutation matrix, we report

$$\text{Stab}_Z(Z^{(s)}, Y^*) = \frac{1}{K} \text{tr}(R^{(\rho)} P), \quad \text{Stab}_Z(Z^{(a)}, Z^{(b)}) = \frac{1}{K} \text{tr}(S^{(\rho)} P),$$

and define orderedness on the induced permutation as

$$\text{Ord}_Z = \text{Spearman}((1, \dots, K), (\mu(1), \dots, \mu(K))), \quad \text{where } \mu \text{ is read off from } P.$$

These  $Z$ -based measures complement the decoder-cosine results in the main text. Whereas Fig. 4 visualizes only matched pairs, the figures below show the *full*  $K \times K$  similarity fields. In the top row we also show a small raster (50 evaluation inputs) to compare activation patterns  $Y^*$  vs.  $Z^{(0)}$  vs.  $Z^{(1)}$ . *Note:* for Vanilla and Matryoshka models, activations can be much larger than  $Y^*$ , so per-panel normalization makes the rasters not directly comparable in scale; this effect is less pronounced for the ordered model.

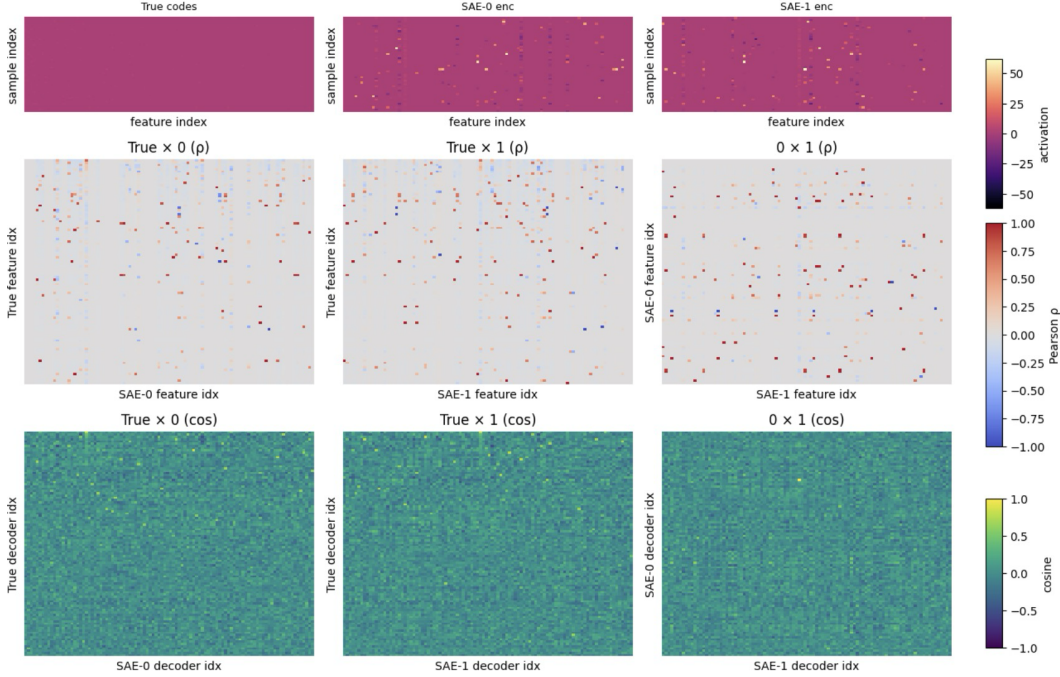


Figure 5: **Vanilla SAE (example seed pair).** *Top:* activation rasters for 50 eval inputs (left:  $Y^*$ , middle:  $Z^{(0)}$ , right:  $Z^{(1)}$ ). *Middle:* all-pairs activation–Pearson matrices (left:  $Z^{(0)}$  vs.  $Y^*$ , middle:  $Z^{(1)}$  vs.  $Y^*$ , right:  $Z^{(0)}$  vs.  $Z^{(1)}$ ) used for  $\text{Stab}_Z$  and  $\text{Ord}_Z$ . *Bottom:* all-pairs decoder–cosine matrices (left:  $D^{(0)}$  vs.  $D^*$ , middle:  $D^{(1)}$  vs.  $D^*$ , right:  $D^{(0)}$  vs.  $D^{(1)}$ ); this extends Fig. 4 from matched pairs to all pairs.

### B.2 Additional dictionary sizes

We repeat the activation-stream analysis at smaller widths with matching sparsities,  $(K, m) \in \{(10, 2), (30, 3), (50, 5)\}$ . Each panel uses the same three-row layout as Appendix B.1: *top*—activation rasters for 50 evaluation inputs (left:  $Y^*$ , middle:  $Z^{(0)}$ , right:  $Z^{(1)}$ ); *middle*—all-pairs activation–Pearson matrices (left:  $Z^{(0)}$  vs.  $Y^*$ , middle:  $Z^{(1)}$  vs.  $Y^*$ , right:  $Z^{(0)}$  vs.  $Z^{(1)}$ ) used

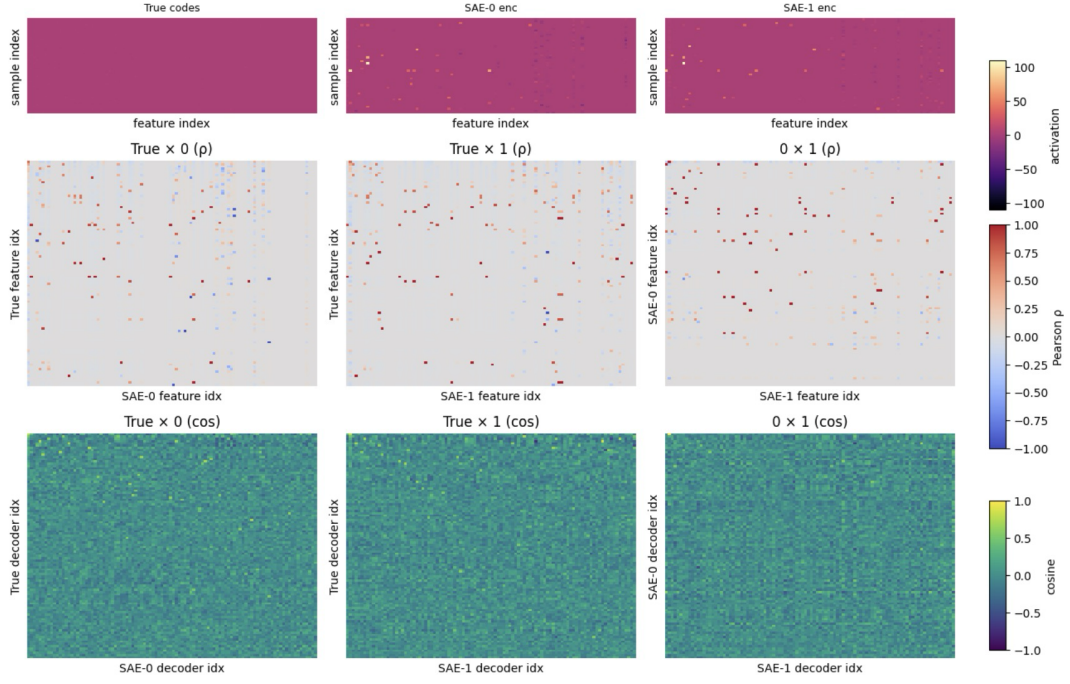


Figure 6: **Fixed MSAE (example seed pair).** Same layout as Fig. 5: top—activation rasters ( $Y^*$ ,  $Z^{(0)}$ ,  $Z^{(1)}$ ); middle—all-pairs activation-Pearson ( $Z^{(0)}$  vs.  $Y^*$ ,  $Z^{(1)}$  vs.  $Y^*$ ,  $Z^{(0)}$  vs.  $Z^{(1)}$ ); bottom—all-pairs decoder-cosine ( $D^{(0)}$  vs.  $D^*$ ,  $D^{(1)}$  vs.  $D^*$ ,  $D^{(0)}$  vs.  $D^{(1)}$ ).

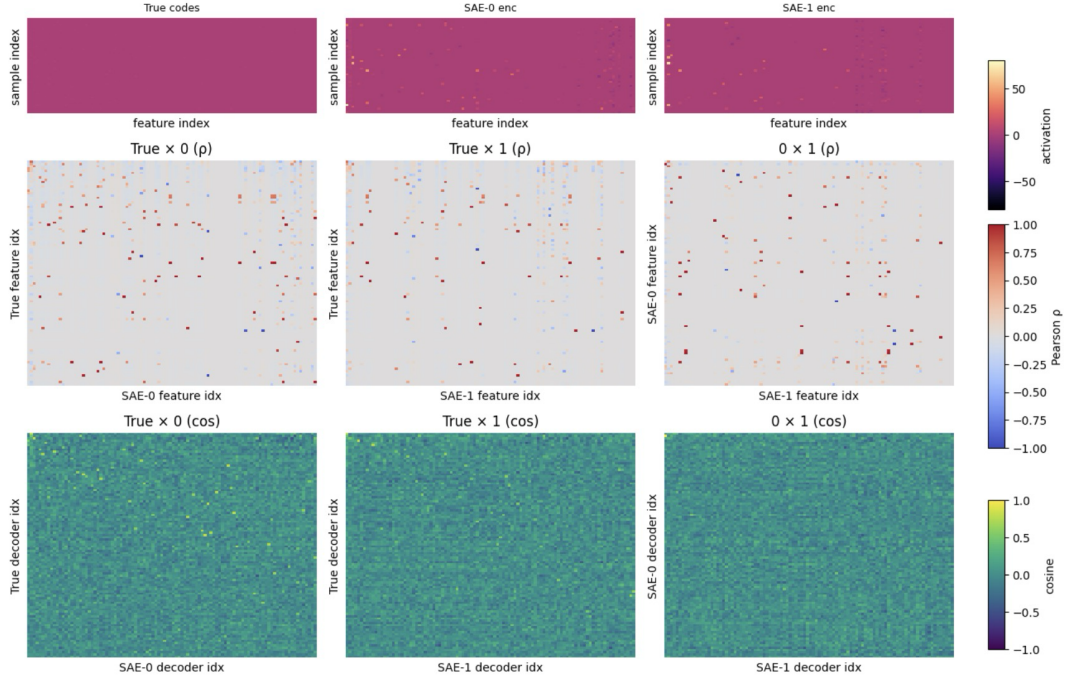


Figure 7: **Random MSAE (example seed pair).** Same layout as Fig. 5; top—activation rasters; middle—activation-Pearson; bottom—decoder-cosine; columns are (0 vs.  $Y^*$ ), (1 vs.  $Y^*$ ), (0 vs. 1).

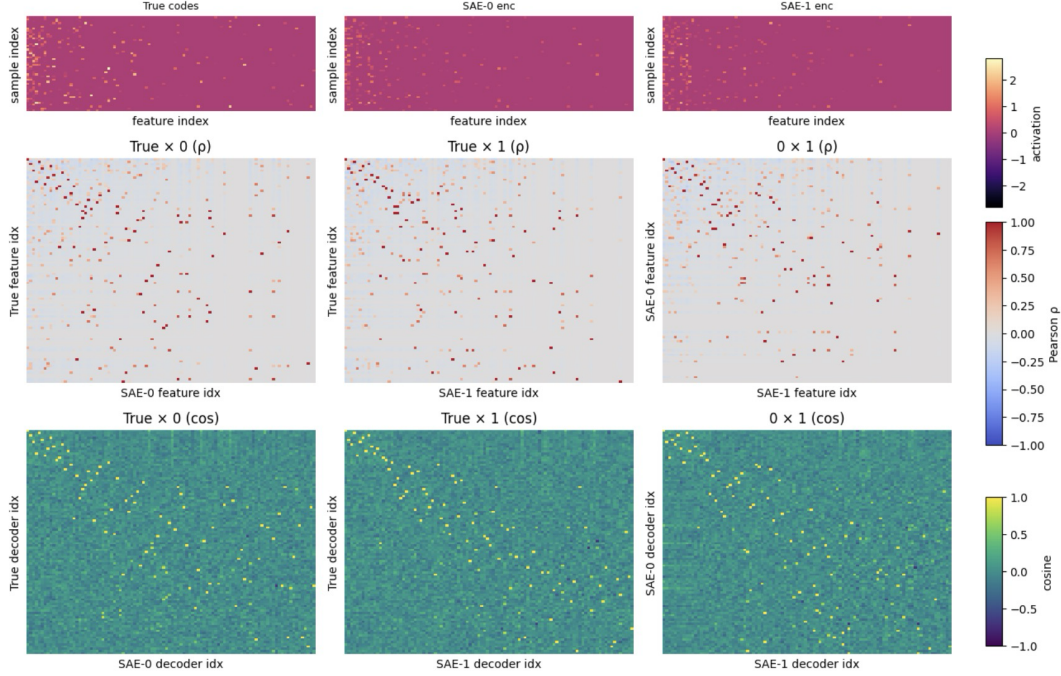


Figure 8: **O-SAE (example seed pair)**. Same layout as Fig. 5. Top row rasters (50 inputs); middle row all-pairs activation–Pearson for  $\text{Stab}_Z/\text{Ord}_Z$ ; bottom row all-pairs decoder–cosine extending Fig. 4 to all pairs.

for  $\text{Stab}_Z$  and  $\text{Ord}_Z$ ; *bottom*—all-pairs decoder–cosine matrices (left:  $D^{(0)}$  vs.  $D^*$ , middle:  $D^{(1)}$  vs.  $D^*$ , right:  $D^{(0)}$  vs.  $D^{(1)}$ ). Figures show a *single example seed pair* for brevity; Matryoshka variants are omitted. Note that in Vanilla, activations can be much larger than  $Y^*$ , so per-panel normalization of the top row can make scales not directly comparable; this effect is less pronounced for O-SAE.

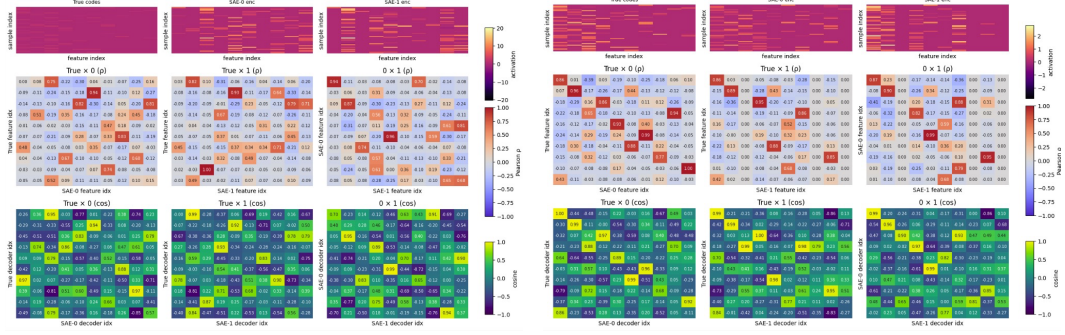
### B.3 Zipfian toy model: high consistency with moderate orderedness

**Setup.** We evaluate Ordered SAEs (O-SAEs; “Ordered TopK” in the legend) on a synthetic Zipfian activation process. Following Song et al. [2025], inputs live in  $\mathbb{R}^{16}$  with an overcomplete ground-truth dictionary of 32 atoms;  $k = 3$  features are active per sample, and we draw  $N = 50,000$  samples. Unless noted otherwise: Gaussian features, Zipf exponent  $\alpha$  swept across panels, 30,000 training steps, learning rate  $10^{-4}$ ,  $\ell_1$  coefficient 0.01, and results are averaged over 5 seeds. We compare to TopK, two Matryoshka variants (“fixed” and “random”), and a vanilla SAE. We weighted the features for Matryoshka and Ordered SAEs by the Zipfian alpha value of the data. For fixed Matryoshka, we used 8 groups. For random Matryoshka, we used 4 truncations.

**Results.** Figure 10 shows that O-SAEs achieve *consistency* comparable to the strongest baselines: for small  $\alpha$  (near-uniform usage) ground-truth stability is  $\approx 0.9$  for O-SAE, TopK, and Matryoshka, and remains competitive as skew increases. Unlike TopK and vanilla, O-SAEs also exhibit *orderedness*: the learned atom ordering correlates with the ground-truth order (Spearman  $\rho \approx 0.5$  at low  $\alpha$ , remaining positive across the sweep), while pairwise orderedness likewise improves relative to vanilla. This ordering bias comes with a trade-off in global  $\ell_2$  reconstruction error, where O-SAEs are higher than TopK/vanilla.

A final observation is that our *Frequency-Invariant Feature Reconstruction (FIFR) Error* (Sec. B.4) tracks dictionary stability across methods and  $\alpha$  much better than the global MSE. In ordered/Zipfian regimes, rare features contribute little to MSE and can be underfit without a visible penalty, whereas FIFR Error exposes such failures. Empirically, when TopK and O-SAEs attain a FIFR Error com-

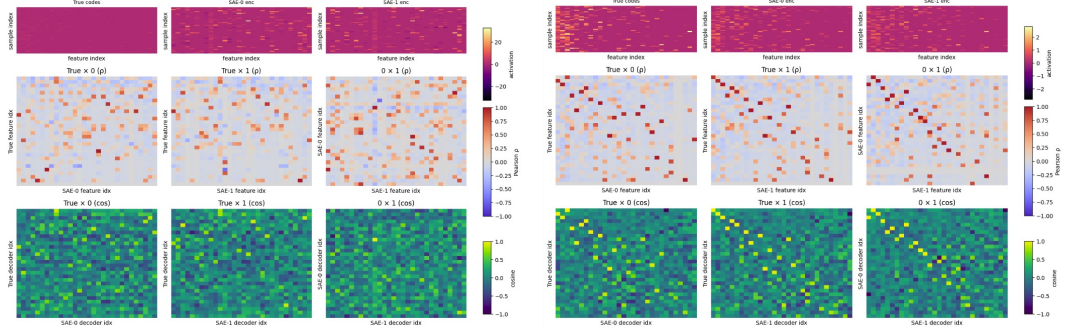




Vanilla

O-SAE

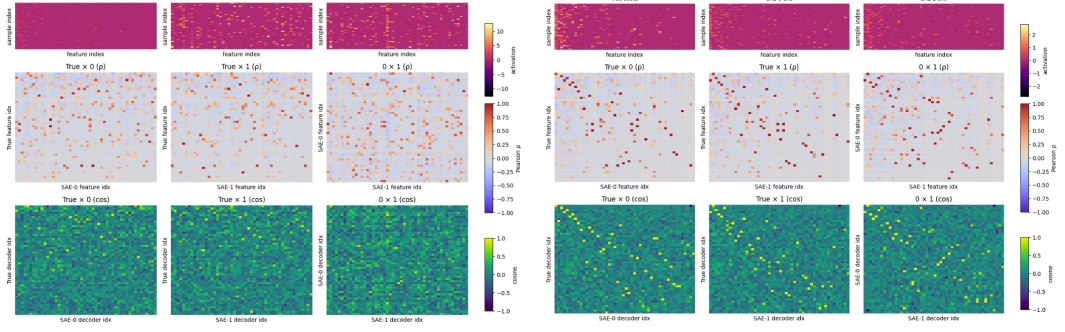
(a)  $(K, m) = (10, 2)$ : example seed pair.



Vanilla

O-SAE

(b)  $(K, m) = (30, 3)$ : example seed pair.



Vanilla

O-SAE

(c)  $(K, m) = (50, 5)$ : example seed pair.

Figure 9: Top: activation rasters for 50 inputs; middle: all-pairs activation–Pearson; bottom: all-pairs decoder–cosine. Columns within each row are (0 vs.  $Y^*$ ), (1 vs.  $Y^*$ ), (0 vs. 1).

438 parable to vanilla SAEs, their ground-truth stability also converges to vanilla, despite differences in  
439 global MSE.

440 Going forward, we hypothesize that with better hyperparameter tuning and methods such as unit  
441 sweeping, it is possible to achieve lower L2 and FIFR error with O-SAEs and thus higher ordered-  
442 ness than baseline architectures while maintaining 0.9 consistency.

#### 443 B.4 MSE underweights rare features; a frequency-invariant error

444 **Motivation.** In ordered/Zipfian settings, some features appear far more often than others. The  
445 global reconstruction MSE  $\mathbb{E}\|x - \hat{x}\|_2^2$  therefore emphasizes frequent features and can look “good”



Figure 10: **Zipfian toy-model comparison of SAEs (5 seeds)**. Each panel sweeps the Zipf exponent  $\alpha$  controlling activation skew (higher  $\alpha \Rightarrow$  rarer tail features). *Top row*: O-SAE (Ordered TopK) matches TopK/Matryoshka on ground-truth and pairwise stability ( $\sim 0.9$  at low  $\alpha$ , remaining competitive as skew rises). *Middle row*: O-SAE exhibits positive orderedness (Spearman  $\rho$  with ground-truth ordering  $\approx 0.5$  at low  $\alpha$ ; pairwise orderedness likewise improves), unlike vanilla/TopK. *Bottom row*: O-SAE has higher global  $\ell_2$  error, but the proposed *Frequency-Invariant Feature Reconstruction (FIFR) Error* better predicts stability across methods and  $\alpha$ : when FIFR Error aligns across methods, ground-truth stability aligns as well. Experimental details: input dim 16, dictionary size 32,  $k=3$ ,  $N=50k$ , Gaussian features, 30k steps,  $\text{lr}=10^{-4}$ ,  $\ell_1=0.01$ .

446 while rare features are poorly reconstructed. We seek a metric that (i) treats each feature equally re-  
 447 gardless of frequency and (ii) scores the fidelity of its *per-feature* contribution to the reconstruction.

448 **Definition (Frequency-Invariant Feature Reconstruction Error).** Let the ground-truth dictio-  
 449 nary be  $A^* \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with atoms (rows)  $a_j^*$ , true codes  $S^* \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times m}$ , learned decoder  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  
 450 atoms  $a_k$ , and inferred features  $F \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times m}$ . We align atoms by Hungarian assignment on absolute  
 451 correlations of  $\ell_2$ -normalized atoms:

$$\tilde{a}_j^* = \frac{a_j^*}{\|a_j^*\|_2}, \quad \tilde{a}_k = \frac{a_k}{\|a_k\|_2}, \quad C_{jk} = \langle \tilde{a}_j^*, \tilde{a}_k \rangle, \quad \pi \in \arg \max_{\sigma} \sum_{j=1}^m |C_{j, \sigma(j)}|.$$

452 For feature  $j$ , let  $I_j = \{i : s_{ij}^* \neq 0\}$ . Define true and estimated per-sample components

$$c_{ij}^* = s_{ij}^* a_j^*, \quad \hat{c}_{ij} = f_{i, \pi(j)} a_{\pi(j)}.$$

453 With  $\varepsilon = 10^{-12}$ ,

$$r_j = \frac{\frac{1}{|I_j|} \sum_{i \in I_j} \|c_{ij}^* - \hat{c}_{ij}\|_2^2}{\frac{1}{|I_j|} \sum_{i \in I_j} \|c_{ij}^*\|_2^2 + \varepsilon}, \quad \text{FIFR}(A^*, S^*; A, F) = \frac{1}{|J|} \sum_{j \in J} r_j, \quad J = \{j : |I_j| > 0\}.$$

454 **Properties.** (i) *Frequency-invariant*: macro-averaging across features prevents frequent atoms  
 455 from dominating. (ii) *Per-feature scale-invariant*: normalizing by the energy of  $c_{ij}^*$  removes dic-  
 456 tionary-code scaling ambiguity. (iii) *Permutation-invariant*: alignment via  $\pi$  factors out atom or-  
 457 dering. (iv) *Interpretable*: FIFR Error equals 0 iff per-feature components are recovered exactly;  
 458 larger values indicate worse reconstruction (and can exceed 1). As seen in Fig. 10, FIFR Error  
 459 correlates strongly with dictionary stability in Zipfian regimes, whereas global MSE does not.

## 460 C Empirical results

461 Figure 11 and 12 show how orderedness and stability metrics change as SAEs are trained for O-  
 462 SAE, Random MSAE, and Fixed MSAE on the Pile and Dolma. Orderedness and stability tend to  
 463 increase over the 45M tokens illustrated in the figures, with some exceptions at lower prefix lengths  
 going down while higher prefix length measures increase.

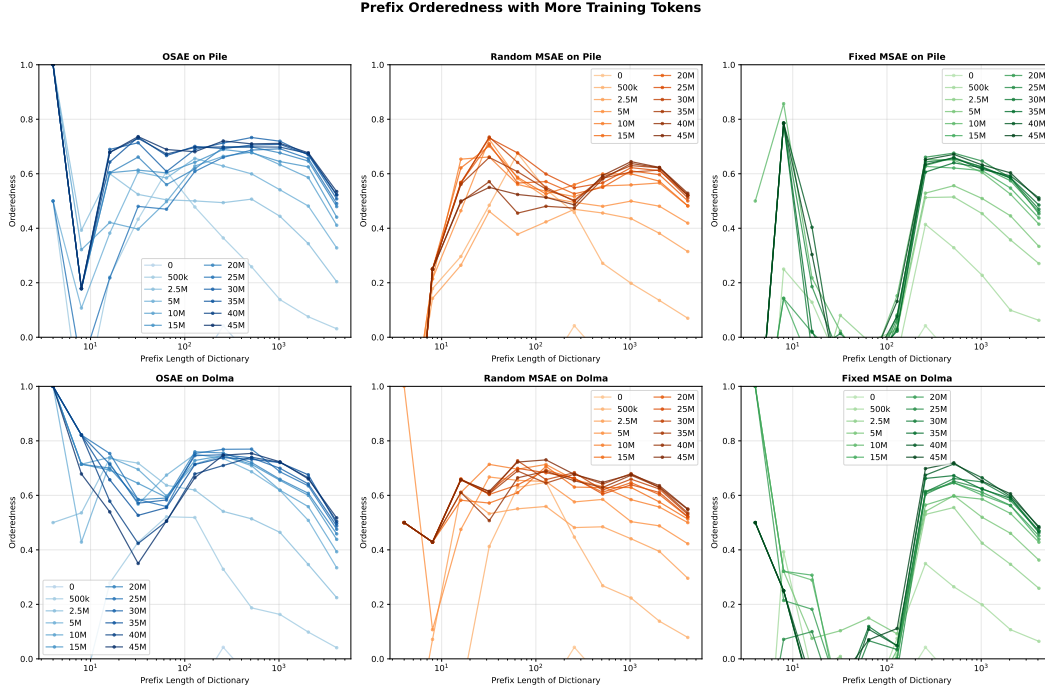


Figure 11: Prefix  $\text{Ord}(D, D')$  plotted with increasing training tokens. Top row is trained on the Pile, and the bottom row is trained on Dolma. (n=1 pair of seeds)

464



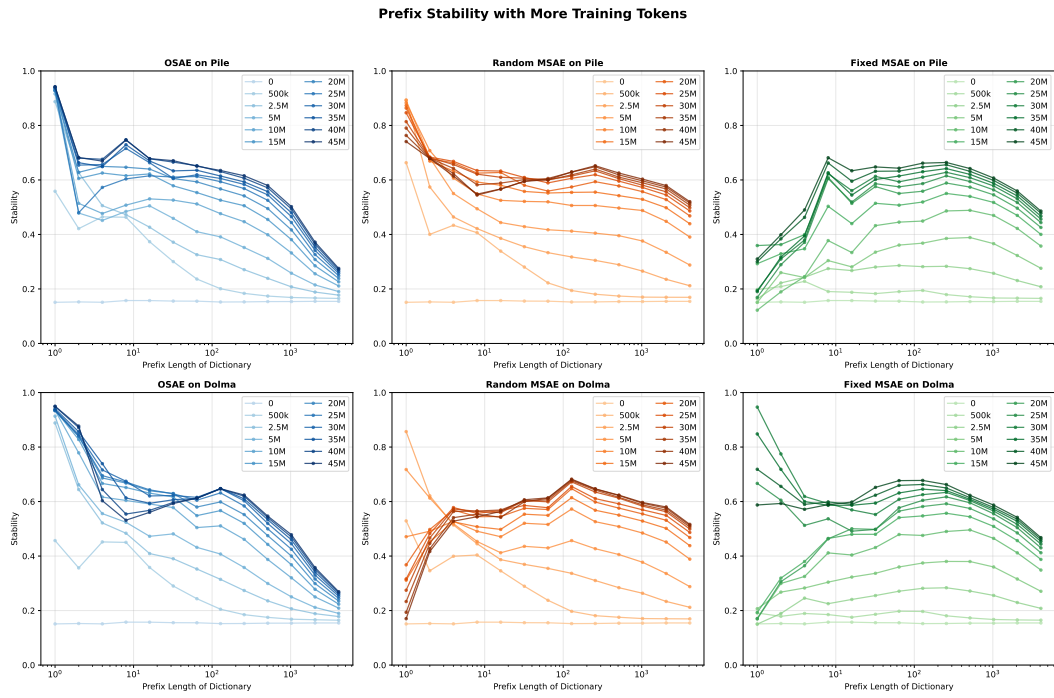


Figure 12: Prefix  $\text{Stab}(D, D')$  plotted with increasing training tokens. Top row is trained on the Pile, and the bottom row is trained on Dolma. ( $n=1$  pair of seeds)

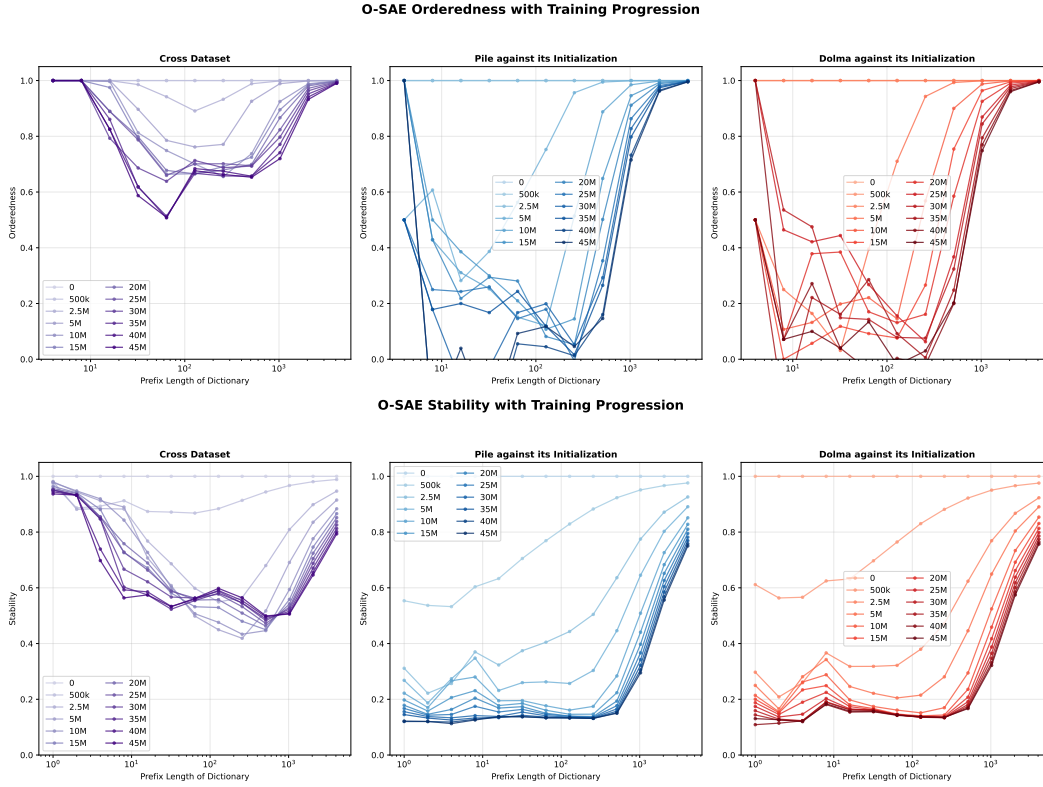


Figure 13: O-SAE Orderedness and Stability. (left) Cross dataset compares O-SAE trained on Pile against O-SAE trained Dolma. They use the same seed, so initial checkpoints start with 1.0 orderedness and stability. (middle) Shows the progression of checkpoints from O-SAE trained on the Pile, when compared against its initialized checkpoint. This gives a relative measure of deviation from initialization. (right) Progression of checkpoints trained on Dolma compared against its initialized checkpoint.

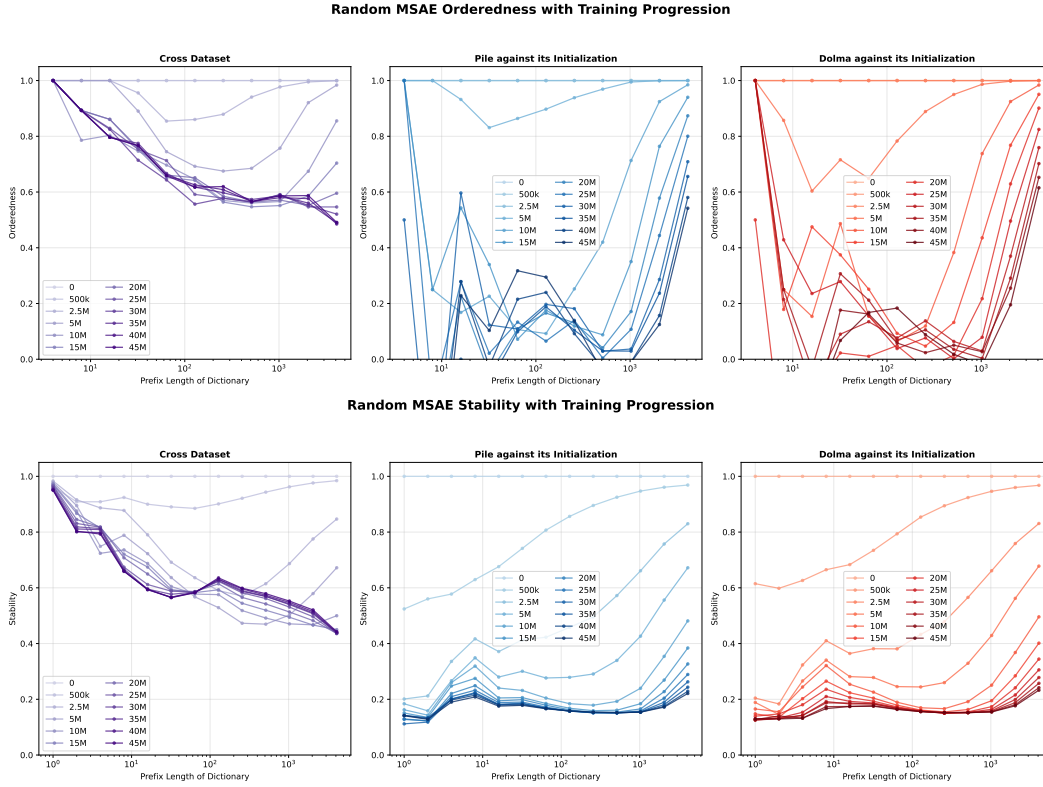


Figure 14: Random MSAE Orderedness and Stability. (left) Cross dataset compares Random MSAE trained on Pile against Random MSAE trained Dolma. They use the same seed, so initial checkpoints start with 1.0 orderedness and stability. (middle) Shows the progression of checkpoints from Random MSAE trained on the Pile, when compared against its initialized checkpoint. This gives a relative measure of deviation from initialization. (right) Progression of checkpoints trained on Dolma compared against its initialized checkpoint.