

# Compressing Sentence Representation for Semantic Retrieval via Homomorphic Projective Distillation

Xuandong Zhao<sup>†</sup>, Zhiguo Yu<sup>‡</sup>, Ming Wu<sup>‡</sup>, Lei Li<sup>†</sup>

<sup>†</sup>UC Santa Barbara    <sup>‡</sup>Microsoft

{xuandongzhao, leili}@cs.ucsb.edu

{zhiguo.yu, mingwu}@microsoft.com

## Abstract

How to learn highly compact yet effective sentence representation? Pre-trained language models have been effective in many NLP tasks. However, these models are often huge and produce large sentence embeddings. Moreover, there is a big performance gap between large and small models. In this paper, we propose **Homomorphic Projective Distillation (HPD)** to learn compressed sentence embeddings. Our method augments a small Transformer encoder model with learnable projection layers to produce compact representations while mimicking a large pre-trained language model to retain the sentence representation quality. We evaluate our method with different model sizes on both semantic textual similarity (STS) and semantic retrieval (SR) tasks. Experiments show that our method achieves 2.7-4.5 points performance gain on STS tasks compared with previous best representations of the same size. In SR tasks, our method improves retrieval speed (8.2 $\times$ ) and memory usage (8.0 $\times$ ) compared with state-of-the-art large models. Our implementation is available at <https://github.com/XuandongZhao/HPD>.

## 1 Introduction

It is a fundamental problem to learn compact yet effective sentence representations. Good representations have wide applications in NLP, including web search (Palangi et al., 2016), question answering (Hao et al., 2019), knowledge inference (Wang and Kuo, 2020), and machine translation (Yang et al., 2020). Sentence embedding models take a sentence as the input and output a fixed-length continuous vector representation. Based on BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) and RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), recent sentence embedding models such as SentenceBERT (SBERT) (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) and SimCSE (Gao et al., 2021), are fine-tuned on sentence pair scoring tasks to learn better sentence representations, which show much improvement

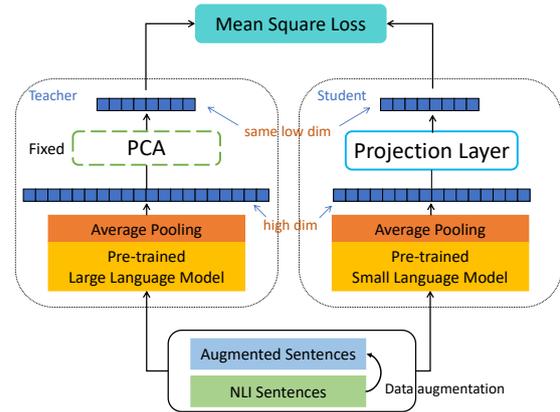


Figure 1: Overview of **Homomorphic Projective Distillation (HPD)**. In contrast to the teacher model, which is a large pre-trained language model with a fixed PCA dimension reduction module, the student model is a smaller language model with a learnable projection layer. The mean square error of both dimension reduction results is used to train the student model.

in downstream tasks. However, these models are big in two aspects. 1) They contain hundreds of millions to billions of parameters, which requires large memory and powerful machine to serve in production; 2) Their resulting embeddings are high dimensional (e.g. 1024), requiring huge database to store and index, which cause high search latency. Therefore, it is challenging to directly use these large models in real-world applications with strict throughput/latency requirement and bounded hardware resources. Our work focuses on reducing both the model size and the representation size. There has been several works to reduce model size and retain the superior model performance. Recent studies (Jiao et al., 2020; Sanh et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020) have used knowledge distillation (KD) on large language models to derive compressed compact models with decent performance. TinyBERT (Jiao et al., 2020) performs layer-to-layer transformer distillation at pre-training and task-specific learning stage utilizing the teacher’s hidden states

and self-attention distributions. MiniLM (Wang et al., 2020) proposes task-agnostic transformer distillation, which uses self-attention distributions and value relations to help the student deeply mimic the teacher’s self-attention modules. Nevertheless, directly fine-tuning small transformer models for sentence embedding shows less desirable results than large ones (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019; Reimers, 2019).

Can we learn a compact yet highly performant sentence representation? In this work, we propose HPD: a dimension reduced sentence embedding model via projected knowledge distillation. The key idea is to start from a pre-trained large model and distill its knowledge into a small one. The large model is fine-tuned on natural language inference (NLI) datasets first. Then the small and large ones are augmented with linear projection layer and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Abdi and Williams, 2010) respectively to reduce final representation dimension. In this way, the small model is expected to produce semantic meaningful representations (semantically similar sentences will have close embeddings), where it mimics the power of large models through homomorphic mappings.

We evaluate our model on semantic textual similarity (STS) and semantic retrieval (SR) tasks. Empirical results show that our model can attain 2.7-4.5 points of performance gain on STS tasks compared to other dimension reduction approaches and achieve competitive retrieval performance against large sentence embedding models while significantly improving retrieval speed ( $8.2\times$ ) and memory usage ( $8.0\times$ ) in SR tasks.

## 2 Related Work

Embedding techniques are used to represent complex data mathematically (Mikolov et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2020; Khurlov et al., 2020). Sentence embedding is a well-researched topic with a plethora of proposed approaches. Early works (Kiros et al., 2015; Logeswaran and Lee, 2018) build upon the distributional hypothesis and train the models to predict the surrounding sentences. Sent2Vec (Pagliardini et al., 2018) generate sentence embeddings using word vectors along with n-gram embeddings. Conneau et al. (2017) propose to fine-tune a Siamese network on NLI datasets, which is then further extended to pre-trained models in Sentence-BERT (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019). SimCSE (Gao et al., 2021) proposes a con-

trastive learning method and achieves state-of-the-art performance on STS tasks.

Recently, Raunak and Gupta (2019) combines PCA based dimensionality reduction with a post-processing algorithm to address the latency and capacity issues of large dimensionality models. Shi et al. (2018) proposed extended robust PCA (ExRPCA) to do dimension reduction. But both of them only focus on word embedding. Su et al. (2021) find that the whitening operation can enhance the isotropy of sentence distribution and reduce the dimensionality of the sentence representation, which optimizes the memory storage and accelerates the retrieval speed. We use this approach as one of our baselines.

## 3 Method

The overview of our approach is illustrated in Figure 1. Given a set of sentences  $\mathcal{X} = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^m$ , our goal is to obtain efficient sentence embedding models  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ , where  $d$  is the embedding dimension.

The teacher model  $f_t$  is trained on the same NLI dataset as Conneau et al. (2017); Reimers and Gurevych (2019); Gao et al. (2021), where there are three types of sentence pairs (entailment/neutral/contradiction). We follow the supervised contrastive training framework in SimCSE (Gao et al., 2021) and take a cross-entropy objective with in-batch negatives and hard negatives. The idea is based on the assumption that a good semantic representation should be able to bring similar sentences together while pushing dissimilar ones apart. Let  $(\mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_i^+, \mathbf{e}_i^-)$  denote the representations of sentence triplet  $(x_i, x_i^+, x_i^-)$ , where  $(x_i^+, x_i^-)$  are corresponding "entailment" and "contradiction" pairs for  $x_i$  in the NLI dataset. For a mini-batch with  $N$  pairs, the training objective is

$$\ell_i = -\log \frac{e^{\text{sim}(\mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_i^+)/\tau}}{\sum_{j=1}^N (e^{\text{sim}(\mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_j^+)/\tau} + e^{\text{sim}(\mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_j^-)/\tau})}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\tau$  is a temperature hyperparameter;  $\text{sim}(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2)$  is the cosine similarity  $\frac{\mathbf{e}_1^\top \mathbf{e}_2}{\|\mathbf{e}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{e}_2\|}$ .

After building up a teacher model, we use it for knowledge distillation. Firstly, we enrich the training dataset by data augmentation (Details in Section 4.3). Then for each sentence  $x_i$ , we get the embedding  $\mathbf{e}_i^t \in \mathbb{R}^{d_t}$  from the teacher model  $f_t$  and  $\mathbf{e}_i^s \in \mathbb{R}^{d_s}$  from the student model  $f_s$ . Note

---

**Algorithm 1** PCA

---

**Input:** Initial embeddings  $\{\mathbf{e}_i^t\}_{i=1}^m$  and reserved dimensionality  $d$

- 1: compute  $\bar{\mathbf{e}}^t$  of  $\{\mathbf{e}_i^t\}_{i=1}^m$
- 2: compute  $\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{U}^\top = \text{SVD}(\mathbf{E})$
- 3: compute  $\mathbf{W}^t = \mathbf{V}[:, : d]$
- 4: **for**  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$  **do**
- 5:    $\mathbf{h}_i^t = \mathbf{W}^{t\top}(\mathbf{e}_i^t - \bar{\mathbf{e}}^t)$
- 6: **end for**

**Output:** Transformed embeddings  $\{\mathbf{h}_i^t\}_{i=1}^m$

---

that the dimensions for  $\mathbf{e}_i^t$  and  $\mathbf{e}_i^s$  may be different ( $d_t' \neq d_s'$ ).

In order to perform homomorphic projective distillation, we employ Principle Component Analysis (PCA) (Abdi and Williams, 2010),  $\mathbf{h}_i^t = \mathbf{W}^{t\top}(\mathbf{e}_i^t - \bar{\mathbf{e}}^t)$ , to the teacher model after its average pooling layer and we add a projection layer,  $\mathbf{h}_i^s = \mathbf{W}^{s\top}\mathbf{e}_i^s + \mathbf{b}^s$ , to the student model, where  $\mathbf{h}_i^t, \mathbf{h}_i^s \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are the teacher and student’s final embeddings with the same dimension.  $\mathbf{W}^t \in \mathbb{R}^{d_t' \times d}$  is the PCA weight matrix for the teacher model.  $\mathbf{W}^s \in \mathbb{R}^{d_s' \times d}$  is the weight matrix of the projection layer for the student model.  $\mathbf{b}^s$  is the bias term and both  $d_s'$  and  $d_t'$  are larger than the final embedding dimension  $d$ .

Algorithm 1 shows how to conduct the PCA over a set of initial sentence embeddings for the teacher model. We sample  $m$  sentences from the training dataset and get the embeddings  $\{\mathbf{e}_i^t\}_{i=1}^m$  after the average pooling layer of the teacher model. We then construct a centered matrix  $\mathbf{E}$  of  $d_t' \times m$  size, where  $d_t'$  is the initial embedding dimension. Thus the  $i$ -th column of  $\mathbf{E}$  corresponds to  $\mathbf{e}_i^t - \bar{\mathbf{e}}^t$ , i.e. row means have been subtracted. Then we perform the singular value decomposition (SVD) of  $\mathbf{E}$  (line 2 in Algorithm 1). Because only the first  $d$  principle components are needed, we reserve the first  $d$  columns of  $\mathbf{V}$  (i.e. the first  $d$  eigenvectors), which we denote as weight matrix  $\mathbf{W}^t$ . The transformed embeddings  $\mathbf{h}_i^t$  in the new PC space are given by the  $i$ -th column of  $\mathbf{W}^{t\top}\mathbf{E}$  (line 5 in Algorithm 1).

Note that PCA only requires  $m$  sample sentences and calculating their initial embeddings. So during the distillation process, the teacher’s transformer parameters  $\theta_t$  and PCA weight matrix  $\mathbf{W}^t$  are fixed, while the student’s transformer parameters  $\theta_s$ , projection weight  $\mathbf{W}^s$ , and projection bias  $\mathbf{b}^s$  can be updated. We minimize the distance between final embeddings  $\mathbf{h}_i^t$  and  $\mathbf{h}_i^s$  by taking the mean squared

loss:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \|\mathbf{h}_i^s - \mathbf{h}_i^t\|_2^2, \quad (2)$$

where  $M$  is the total number of sentences after data augmentation.

## 4 Experiment

We conduct our experiments on standard semantic textual similarity (STS) tasks using the SentEval toolkit (Conneau et al., 2017) for evaluation. We also test mean reciprocal rank (MRR), memory usage, and retrieval speed on semantic retrieval (SR) tasks. All of our experiments are tested on a server with Intel i7-5930K CPU @ 3.50GHz, Nvidia TITAN Xp GPU, CUDA 11.3 and cuDNN.

### 4.1 Semantic Textual Similarity (STS) Task

Semantic textual similarity (STS) is a natural language processing (NLP) task to quantitatively assess the semantic similarity between two text snippets. We evaluate our model by computing the cosine similarity between sentence pair embeddings on 7 standard STS tasks: STS 2012–2016 (Agirre et al., 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016), STS Benchmark (Cer et al., 2017) and SICK-Relatedness (Marelli et al., 2014). These datasets have labels between 0 and 5 indicating the semantic relatedness of sentence pairs. Following Reimers and Gurevych (2019); Su et al. (2021); Gao et al. (2021), we use Spearman rank correlation to measure the correlation quality between calculated similarity and human labels. Spearman correlation has a value between -1 and 1, which will be high when the ranks of predicted similarities and the ground-truth are similar.

### 4.2 Semantic Retrieval (SR) Task

The semantic retrieval (SR) task is to identify all sentences in the retrieval corpus that are semantically similar to a query sentence. We construct the SR task on Quora Duplicate Questions Dataset<sup>1</sup> and Faiss<sup>2</sup> (Johnson et al., 2017) to test the retrieval effect and efficiency of different models. The Quora dataset contains over 500k sentences with over 400k pairwise annotations on whether two questions are duplicates or not. Faiss (Johnson et al., 2017) is a library for efficient similarity

<sup>1</sup><https://quoradata.quora.com/First-Quora-Dataset-Release-Question-Pairs>

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/facebookresearch/faiss>

Model	STS12	STS13	STS14	STS15	STS16	STS-B	SICK-R	Avg.	Size	Dim	Speed
Large models											
SBERT <sub>base</sub>	70.97	76.53	73.19	79.09	74.30	77.03	72.91	74.89	109M	768	993
SRoBERTa <sub>large</sub>	74.53	77.00	73.18	81.85	76.82	79.10	74.29	76.68	355M	1024	385
SimCSE-MPNet $\spadesuit$	73.70	86.78	82.56	87.24	83.06	86.54	79.27	82.75	109M	768	986
SimCSE-RoBERTa <sub>large</sub> $\clubsuit$	77.46	87.27	82.36	86.66	83.93	86.70	81.95	83.76	355M	1024	291
Backbone for compact model: TinyBERT											
SimCSE-TinyBERT	73.02	80.71	76.89	83.01	78.57	81.10	78.19	78.78	14M	312	2650
+Projection-128	72.73	79.81	76.60	82.70	77.37	80.24	77.41	78.12	14M	128	2604
+Whitening-128	73.00	80.81	77.02	82.79	78.45	80.97	78.16	78.74	14M	128	2612
HPD-128 (Teacher: $\spadesuit$ )	74.20	<b>84.49</b>	<b>79.95</b>	<b>85.79</b>	80.07	83.41	78.99	80.99	14M	128	2608
HPD-128 (Teacher: $\clubsuit$ )	<b>74.29</b>	83.05	78.80	84.62	<b>81.17</b>	<b>84.36</b>	<b>80.83</b>	<b>81.02</b>	14M	128	2609
Backbone for compact model: MiniLM											
SimCSE-MiniLM	70.34	78.59	75.08	81.10	77.74	79.39	77.85	77.16	23M	384	2031
+Projection-128	70.19	79.22	75.53	80.78	78.13	79.45	77.46	77.25	23M	128	2022
+Whitening-128	70.55	78.85	75.4	81.06	77.77	79.40	77.92	77.28	23M	128	2015
HPD-128 (Teacher: $\spadesuit$ )	74.25	84.43	<b>80.33</b>	<b>85.75</b>	80.68	83.91	79.06	81.20	23M	128	2025
HPD-128 (Teacher: $\clubsuit$ )	<b>74.94</b>	<b>84.52</b>	80.25	84.87	<b>81.90</b>	<b>84.98</b>	<b>81.15</b>	<b>81.80</b>	23M	128	2024

Table 1: Sentence embedding performance on STS tasks (Spearman’s correlation  $\rho \times 100$ ). STS12-STS16: SemEval 2012-2016, STSb: STS benchmark, SICK-R: SICK relatedness dataset, Dim: embedding dimension, Size: number of parameters, Speed: sentences per second.

search and clustering of dense vectors, which contains algorithms that search in sets of vectors of any size. We calculate all the sentence embeddings of question2, store them in Faiss, and then use the sentence embedding of question1 to retrieve them. Faiss is configured in CPU mode with 'nlist = 1024' and 'nprobe = 5'. Note that we didn’t fine-tune the models on the semantic retrieval task. We report the results on three parts: average mean reciprocal ranking (MRR@10), average retrieve time for 1,000 sentences (Time/ms) and memory usage (Mem/MB).

### 4.3 Experiment Setup

We train our model on the NLI dataset, which is a combination of the SNLI (Bowman et al., 2015) and the MNLI (Williams et al., 2018) dataset. SNLI dataset contains 570k sentence pairs and MNLI is a collection of 430k sentence pairs. Particularly, the teacher model is trained on "entailment" and "contradiction" pairs in NLI dataset using contrastive loss (Equation 1). We use two state-of-the-art large sentence embedding models, SimCSE-RoBERTa<sub>large</sub><sup>3</sup> (Gao et al., 2021) and SimCSE-MPNet<sup>4</sup> (Song et al., 2020), as our teacher models. For the student model, we choose the released pre-trained checkpoints of TinyBERT (Jiao et al., 2020) and MiniLM (Wang et al., 2020), and we leverage a linear projection layer for dimension reduction. As for the PCA implementation, we first sample 100k random sentences from the dataset and pass them

<sup>3</sup><https://huggingface.co/princeton-nlp/sup-simcse-roberta-large>

<sup>4</sup><https://huggingface.co/sentence-transformers/nli-mpnet-base-v2>

to the teacher model. Then we calculate the principal components  $\mathbf{W}^t$  of the output embeddings by calling the PCA function of the scikit-learn package.

**Baseline Models** We compare our HPD method to both state-of-the-art sentence embedding models and various dimension reduction techniques. For sentence embedding model baseline, we directly fine-tune pre-trained language models TinyBERT/MiniLM given NLI dataset using contrastive loss. For the dimension reduction baseline, we test both projection and whitening approaches: 1) adding a projection layer after TinyBERT/MiniLM encoder and training on NLI dataset with contrastive loss (without distillation); 2) adopting whitening (Su et al., 2021) as a post-processing operation (similar to PCA) to reduce the dimension of SimCSE-TinyBERT or SimCSE-MiniLM. More details about each baseline and training setting can be found in Appendix A.

**Data Augmentation** Data Augmentation is a set of techniques for improving the size and quality of training datasets for Deep Learning models. It is widely applied as an effective methodology to improve generalization and achieves improvements in many computer vision and natural language processing tasks (Zhang et al., 2018; Sennrich et al., 2016). To generate synthetic data and improve the student’s performance, we apply WordNet substitution and back translation (Ma, 2019) to every distinct sentence in NLI dataset. After data augmentation, the training data size is boosted from 1 million to 3 millions sentences.

Model	Dim	STS-B	Avg.
HPD-MiniLM	128	83.91	81.20
	256	83.95	81.05
	384	83.44	80.91
HPD-MiniLM-wo-Aug	128	82.33	79.48
	256	82.55	79.57
	384	82.04	79.15
HPD-TinyBERT	128	83.41	80.99
	256	83.19	80.81
	312	83.11	80.72
HPD-TinyBERT-wo-Aug	128	81.88	79.64
	256	81.67	79.47
	312	81.50	79.27

Table 2: Effect of data augmentation and different dimensions (STS-B and Avg. in STS tasks, wo: without, HPD Teacher: SimCSE-MPNet)

## 5 Results

### 5.1 Results of STS Tasks

Table 1 presents the results of our model comparing with current state-of-the-art sentence embedding models on STS tasks. Our HPD-MiniLM can achieve 97.7% of Spearman’s correlation performance and 7 times higher speed with only 6.5% of parameters compared with the best performance model SimCSE-RoBERTa<sub>large</sub>. We also observe that our HPD-TinyBERT and HPD-MiniLM models outperform SimCSE-TinyBERT and SimCSE-MiniLM, which are directly fine-tuned on the same training data and loss function as SimCSE-RoBERTa<sub>large</sub>. Besides, our results show that our model can significantly improve the results with 2.7-4.5% absolute gain compared with projection or whitening for dimension reduction.

**Impact of Data Augmentation and Final Dimension** Results in Table 2 show that models with augmented data can raise the performance by 1-2 points compared with ones without augmented data. For example, HPD-MiniLM-128 achieves an average Spearman’s correlation of 81.20 with data augmentation, compared to 79.48 without data augmentation. We find that different projected layer dimensions achieve similar performances. However, small dimension has slightly better results than large ones.

### 5.2 Results of SR Tasks

From Table 3, we demonstrate that the embedding dimension plays a vital role in the performance of semantic retrieval tasks. Our HPD model with different dimensions can achieve comparable MRR performance while the retrieval speed and memory

Model	MRR	Time	Mem
HPD-TinyBERT-128	0.613	63.1	42.61
HPD-TinyBERT-256	0.616	130.4	85.22
HPD-TinyBERT-312	0.615	165.4	103.86
HPD-MiniLM-128	0.610	68.6	42.61
HPD-MiniLM-256	0.615	132.1	85.22
HPD-MiniLM-384	0.612	194.4	127.83
SimCSE-MPNet-768	0.671	385.8	255.66
SimCSE-RoBERTa <sub>large</sub> -1024	0.670	518.0	340.88

Table 3: Semantic retrieval results on Quora dataset. (MRR@10: retrieval quality, Time: retrieval efficiency, Mem: memory consumption)

usage increase significantly when dimension goes up. Compared with SimCSE-MPNet, which outputs a 768 dimensional vector, our model with 128 dimensions can achieve competitive MRR performance while reducing the retrieval time by 8.2× and memory usage by 8.0×.

## 6 Conclusion and Discussion

In this paper, we propose an effective method to compress sentence representation using homomorphic projective distillation. We demonstrated that this approach successfully enables small language models to achieve competitive high-quality sentence representations compared with large ones while keeping a small embedding size to optimize the memory storage and retrieval latency in downstream tasks.

Our results show that knowledge distillation with augmented data improves the student model’s capability to cover and understand more complex sentence variances. The learned projection layer with contrastive loss for sentence embedding can outperform other dimension reduction methods. We also try adding whitening transformation on HPD’s output and the performance is slightly dropped (Appendix B). Since we find that smaller dimensions can have slightly better results than larger ones, we will check over the optimal projected layer size to enhance the isotropy of sentence representation distribution for semantic similarity tasks in our future work.

## Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their thoughtful comments. We would also like to thank Yang Gao for valuable feedback on an early version of this work.

## References

- Hervé Abdi and Lynne J. Williams. 2010. Principal component analysis. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Computational Statistics*, 2:433–459.
- Eneko Agirre, Carmen Banea, Claire Cardie, Daniel Matthew Cer, Mona T. Diab, Aitor Gonzalez-Agirre, Weiwei Guo, Iñigo Lopez-Gazpio, Montse Maritxalar, Rada Mihalcea, German Rigau, Larraitz Uribe, and Janyce Wiebe. 2015. Semeval-2015 task 2: Semantic textual similarity, english, spanish and pilot on interpretability. In *SemEval@NAACL-HLT*.
- Eneko Agirre, Carmen Banea, Claire Cardie, Daniel Matthew Cer, Mona T. Diab, Aitor Gonzalez-Agirre, Weiwei Guo, Rada Mihalcea, German Rigau, and Janyce Wiebe. 2014. Semeval-2014 task 10: Multilingual semantic textual similarity. In *\*SEMEVAL*.
- Eneko Agirre, Carmen Banea, Daniel Matthew Cer, Mona T. Diab, Aitor Gonzalez-Agirre, Rada Mihalcea, German Rigau, and Janyce Wiebe. 2016. Semeval-2016 task 1: Semantic textual similarity, monolingual and cross-lingual evaluation. In *\*SEMEVAL*.
- Eneko Agirre, Daniel Matthew Cer, Mona T. Diab, and Aitor Gonzalez-Agirre. 2012. Semeval-2012 task 6: A pilot on semantic textual similarity. In *\*SEMEVAL*.
- Eneko Agirre, Daniel Matthew Cer, Mona T. Diab, Aitor Gonzalez-Agirre, and Weiwei Guo. 2013. \*sem 2013 shared task: Semantic textual similarity. In *\*SEMEVAL*.
- Samuel R. Bowman, Gabor Angeli, Christopher Potts, and Christopher D. Manning. 2015. A large annotated corpus for learning natural language inference. In *EMNLP*.
- Daniel Matthew Cer, Mona T. Diab, Eneko Agirre, Iñigo Lopez-Gazpio, and Lucia Specia. 2017. Semeval-2017 task 1: Semantic textual similarity multilingual and crosslingual focused evaluation. In *SemEval@ACL*.
- Alexis Conneau, Douwe Kiela, Holger Schwenk, Loïc Barrault, and Antoine Bordes. 2017. Supervised learning of universal sentence representations from natural language inference data. In *EMNLP*.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *NAACL*.
- Tianyu Gao, Xingcheng Yao, and Danqi Chen. 2021. SimCSE: Simple contrastive learning of sentence embeddings. In *Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*.
- Yu Hao, Xien Liu, Ji Wu, and Ping Lv. 2019. Exploiting sentence embedding for medical question answering. In *AAAI*.
- Xiaoqi Jiao, Yichun Yin, Lifeng Shang, Xin Jiang, Xiao Chen, Linlin Li, Fang Wang, and Qun Liu. 2020. TinyBERT: Distilling BERT for natural language understanding. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020*, pages 4163–4174, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jeff Johnson, Matthijs Douze, and Hervé Jégou. 2017. Billion-scale similarity search with gpus. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1702.08734*.
- Valentin Khruikov, Leyla Mirvakhabova, E. Ustinova, I. Oseledets, and Victor S. Lempitsky. 2020. Hyperbolic image embeddings. *2020 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 6417–6427.
- Ryan Kiros, Yukun Zhu, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, Richard S. Zemel, Raquel Urtasun, Antonio Torralba, and Sanja Fidler. 2015. Skip-thought vectors. In *NIPS*.
- Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Mandar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2019. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. *ArXiv*, abs/1907.11692.
- Lajanugen Logeswaran and Honglak Lee. 2018. An efficient framework for learning sentence representations. *ArXiv*, abs/1803.02893.
- Ilya Loshchilov and Frank Hutter. 2019. Decoupled weight decay regularization. In *ICLR*.
- Edward Ma. 2019. Nlp augmentation. <https://github.com/makcedward/nlpaug>.
- Marco Marelli, Stefano Menini, Marco Baroni, Luisa Bentivogli, Raffaella Bernardi, and Roberto Zamparelli. 2014. A sick cure for the evaluation of compositional distributional semantic models. In *LREC*.
- Tomas Mikolov, Kai Chen, Gregory S. Corrado, and Jeffrey Dean. 2013. Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space. In *ICLR*.
- Matteo Pagliardini, Prakhar Gupta, and Martin Jaggi. 2018. Unsupervised learning of sentence embeddings using compositional n-gram features. In *NAACL*.
- Hamid Palangi, Li Deng, Yelong Shen, Jianfeng Gao, Xiaodong He, Jianshu Chen, Xinying Song, and Rabab Kreidieh Ward. 2016. Deep sentence embedding using long short-term memory networks: Analysis and application to information retrieval. *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 24:694–707.
- Vikas Raunak and Vivek Gupta. 2019. Effective dimensionality reduction for word embeddings. In *ReplANLP@ACL*.
- Nils Reimers. 2019. Ukplab sentence-transformers. [https://www.sbert.net/docs/pretrained\\_models.html](https://www.sbert.net/docs/pretrained_models.html).

Nils Reimers and Iryna Gurevych. 2019. [Sentence-bert: Sentence embeddings using siamese bert-networks](#). In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Victor Sanh, Lysandre Debut, Julien Chaumond, and Thomas Wolf. 2019. Distilbert, a distilled version of bert: smaller, faster, cheaper and lighter. *ArXiv*, abs/1910.01108.

Rico Sennrich, Barry Haddow, and Alexandra Birch. 2016. Improving neural machine translation models with monolingual data. *ArXiv*, abs/1511.06709.

Haoyue Shi, Yuqi Sun, and Junfeng Hu. 2018. Understanding and improving multi-sense word embeddings via extended robust principal component analysis. *ArXiv*, abs/1803.01255.

Kaitao Song, Xu Tan, Tao Qin, Jianfeng Lu, and Tie-Yan Liu. 2020. MpNet: Masked and permuted pre-training for language understanding. *ArXiv*, abs/2004.09297.

Jianlin Su, Jiarun Cao, Weijie Liu, and Yangyiwen Ou. 2021. Whitening sentence representations for better semantics and faster retrieval. *ArXiv*, abs/2103.15316.

Bin Wang and C.-C. Jay Kuo. 2020. Sbert-wk: A sentence embedding method by dissecting bert-based word models. *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing*, 28:2146–2157.

Wenhui Wang, Furu Wei, Li Dong, Hangbo Bao, Nan Yang, and Ming Zhou. 2020. Minilm: Deep self-attention distillation for task-agnostic compression of pre-trained transformers. *ArXiv*, abs/2002.10957.

Adina Williams, Nikita Nangia, and Samuel R. Bowman. 2018. A broad-coverage challenge corpus for sentence understanding through inference. In *NAACL*.

Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pierric Cistac, Tim Rault, Rémi Louf, Morgan Funtowicz, and Jamie Brew. 2020. Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In *EMNLP*.

Jiacheng Yang, Mingxuan Wang, Hao Zhou, Chengqi Zhao, Yong Yu, Weinan Zhang, and Lei Li. 2020. Towards making the most of bert in neural machine translation. In *AAAI*.

Hongyi Zhang, Moustapha Cissé, Yann Dauphin, and David Lopez-Paz. 2018. mixup: Beyond empirical risk minimization. *ArXiv*, abs/1710.09412.

Xuandong Zhao, Jinbao Xue, Jin Yu, Xi Li, and Hongxia Yang. 2020. A multi-semantic metapath model for large scale heterogeneous network representation learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2007.11380*.

## A Training Details

We elaborate on how we obtain different baselines for comparisons in Table 1.

- For SBERT<sub>base</sub> and SROBERTA<sub>large</sub>, we report the results from [Reimers and Gurevych \(2019\)](#) and test their speed based on released models.
- For SimCSE-RoBERTA<sub>large</sub>, we directly load the pre-trained models from Huggingface’s repository ([Wolf et al., 2020](#)) "princeton-nlp/sup-simcse-roberta-large".
- For SimCSE-MPNet, we utilize a well fine-tuned sentence embedding model using contrastive loss trained on NLI dataset from Huggingface’s repository "sentence-transformers/nli-mpnet-base-v2".
- For SimCSE-MiniLM, we use the MiniLM with 6 layers, 384-hidden size and 6 self-attention heads as the backbone network. We then fine-tune it following the contrastive loss for 3 epochs with a batch size of 256. The optimizer we use is AdamW ([Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019](#)) and the learning rate is set as 1e-3.
- For SimCSE-TinyBERT, we use the TinyBERT with 4 layers, 312-hidden size and 12 self-attention heads. The other training settings are the same as SimCSE-MiniLM.
- For Projection-128, we add a linear layer to the language model MiniLM/TinyBERT. The linear layer projects the original embedding from 384/312 dimension to 128 dimension. We train the model using the same contrastive loss and configuration as those of SimCSE-MiniLM/SimCSE-TinyBERT.
- For Whitening-128, we implement our own version of whitening operation ([Su et al., 2021](#)). It is directly applied on SimCSE-MiniLM/SimCSE-TinyBERT as a dimension reduction technique. Note that whitening is a post-processing method, which is different from HPD.
- For HPD-MiniLM and HPD-TinyBERT, the models are trained for 3 epochs with a batch size of 256 and a learning rate of 1e-4. We keep the best checkpoint during training by evaluating the model on STS-B test sets.

Model	STS12	STS13	STS14	STS15	STS16	STS-B	SICK-R	Avg.
HPD-MiniLM-H128	74.25	84.43	80.33	85.75	80.68	83.91	79.06	81.20
HPD-MiniLM-H256	73.95	84.21	80.04	86.08	81.11	83.95	78.89	81.05
HPD-MiniLM-H384	73.63	83.91	79.71	85.90	80.88	83.44	78.88	80.91
HPD-MiniLM-H128-wo-Aug	71.39	82.45	78.24	84.65	78.85	82.33	78.42	79.48
HPD-MiniLM-H256-wo-Aug	71.36	82.65	78.20	84.65	79.21	82.55	78.36	79.57
HPD-MiniLM-H384-wo-Aug	70.94	82.06	77.60	84.41	78.70	82.04	78.31	79.15
HPD-TinyBERT-H128	74.2	84.49	79.95	85.79	80.07	83.41	78.99	80.99
HPD-TinyBERT-H256	74.06	84.14	79.7	85.93	80.03	83.19	78.60	80.81
HPD-TinyBERT-H312	73.97	84.14	79.61	85.65	79.79	83.11	78.74	80.72
HPD-TinyBERT-H128-wo-Aug	73.29	82.51	78.36	84.61	78.45	81.88	78.39	79.64
HPD-TinyBERT-H256-wo-Aug	73.00	82.25	78.36	84.74	78.10	81.67	78.20	79.47
HPD-TinyBERT-H312-wo-Aug	72.85	82.20	77.90	84.35	77.83	81.50	78.23	79.27
HPD-MiniLM-H384-whiten-128	73.73	84.10	79.47	85.23	79.32	82.69	78.74	80.47
HPD-MiniLM-H384-whiten-256	73.98	84.15	79.61	85.63	79.78	83.09	78.73	80.71
HPD-TinyBERT-H312-whiten-128	73.91	84.08	79.52	85.32	79.45	82.81	78.78	80.55
HPD-TinyBERT-H312-whiten-256	74.00	84.15	79.62	85.64	79.77	83.09	78.74	80.72

Table 4: Sentence embedding performance on STS tasks (Spearman’s correlation  $\rho \times 100$ ).

## B More Results on STS Tasks

We report the full set of results for data augmentation and different dimensions on STS tasks in Table 4 (Teacher model: SimCSE-MPNet). We also test a variation: adding whitening after the projected distillation. Results show that adding whitening after our HPD output slightly decreases the performance.