38. LLM context compression

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Abstract

Efficient compression of textual sequences into compact vector representations is critical for processing long contexts in large language models (LLMs). We investigate three approaches: stabilizing memory vectors with dense layers, replacing them with Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA), and using autoencoders (AE/VAE) for universal encoding. Our methods are evaluated on reconstruction accuracy, gain in correctly decoded tokens, and capacity utilization using the Pythia-160M and Pythia-410M models on the PG-19 dataset. Dense layer stabilization with Pythia-410M achieves a maximum theoretical capacity of 192 tokens and a 50 % capacity utilization improvement over the baseline, while LoRA methods are limited to 16 tokens. AE/VAE methods reach up to 0.27 accuracy but struggle with longer sequences. Our findings highlight trade-offs between efficiency, capacity, and robustness, paving the way for scalable LLM context compression. Code is available at https://github.com/DMurawiecki/hidden_capacity.

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) based on the Transformer architecture [Vaswani et al., 2017] excel in natural language tasks but face challenges in processing long contexts due to quadratic computational complexity. Recent work by Kuratov et al. [2025] demonstrated that a single 4096-dimensional vector can encode up to 1568 tokens with lossless reconstruction, revealing a significant gap between theoretical and practical embedding capacities. However, their per-example optimization of memory vectors ([mem]) is computationally intensive, limiting scalability.

In this work, we explore three alternative approaches to compress text into compact representations while maintaining high reconstruction accuracy, using the smaller Pythia-160m model ($d_{\text{model}} = 768$) for evaluation:

- 1. **Dense Layer Stabilization**: Enhancing [mem] vectors with a trainable MLP module to improve expressiveness and training stability.
- 2. **LoRA Adaptation**: Replacing [mem] vectors with low-rank adapters integrated into the LLM's attention layers, reducing trainable parameters.

3. Autoencoders (AE/VAE): Using Pyhia-based or variational autoencoders to generate universal latent vectors for text compression.

We evaluate the performance of several language model-based text compression methods against the baseline [mem] approach, utilizing metrics proposed by Kuratov et al. [2025]: Decoding Capacity, Token Gain, and Information Gain. Additionally, we analyze parameter efficiency, training stability, and error patterns across the PG-19 dataset, a collection of natural texts. Our findings demonstrate that adding dense layer to before [mem] vector, namely pythia-160m-dense and pythia-410m-dense, significantly outperform the baseline in key metrics, while autoencoder (AE) and variational autoencoder (VAE) models offer a trade-off with improved efficiency but limited capacity for longer texts. Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) variants, such as pythia-160m-lora-qvk, exhibit constrained performance, particularly for extended sequences.

1. We intoduce and compare three compression methods: ... 2. We show that adding single dense layer significantly increases capacity of an input vectors. pythia-160m: 80-;128, pythia-410m: 96-;192. 3. We tested LorA with rank 1 as replacement for mem-vectors, and found low compression with 16 tokens at max. 4. We found that AE/VAE is hard to train with frozen LLM-decoder, but we consider it as promising direction of future

2 Related Work

2.1 Context Compression

Context compression in LLMs, such as RMT [Bulatov et al., 2022] and Auto-Compressors [Chevalier et al., 2023], reduces the sequence length by summarizing inputs into dense vectors. Kuratov et al. [2025] achieved ×1568 compression using per-example optimized [mem] vectors per sample with a larger model, but at a high computational cost. Prompt compression methods such as Gist tokens [Mu et al., 2023] and LLMLingua [Jiang et al., 2023] achieve up to ×26 ratios but are lossy.

2.2 LoRA and Prefix Tuning

LoRA [Hu et al., 2022] adapts frozen LLMs by injecting low-rank matrices into attention layers, reducing trainable parameters by orders of magnitude. Prefix tuning [Li and Liang, 2021] optimizes continuous input vectors for guide generation, stabilizing training compared to direct optimization.

2.3 Autoencoders

Autoencoders (AE) and variational autoencoders (VAE) [Kingma and Welling, 2014] compress the data into latent representations. In NLP, Pythia-based autoencoders [Cer et al., 2018] encode sentences into dense vectors, while VAEs ensure smooth latent spaces via KL-divergence regularization.

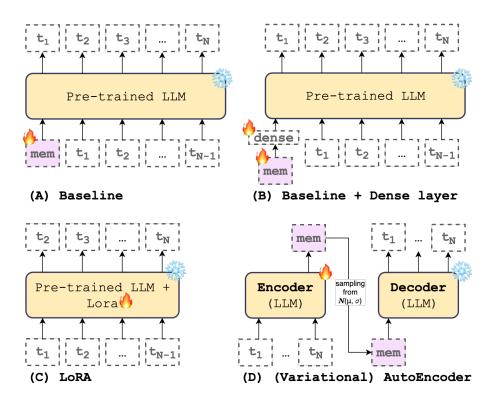


Figure 1: Main approaches: (A) Baseline with mem-vectors, (B) Dense-layer added before LLM-decoder, (C) Encoding text into LoRA (D) AE/VAE compressing.

3 Method

We propose three methods to compress a token sequence $[t_1, t_2, ..., t_N]$ into compact representations, using a frozen Pythia-160m $(d_{\text{model}} = 768)$ as decoder.

3.1 Dense Layer Stabilization

To stabilize [mem] vector training, we introduce a one-layer MLP:

$$p_i = \text{Linear}(memory_dim; \rightarrow dense_dim)$$

The MLP is trained alongside the [mem] vector m_i , enhancing expressiveness and reducing sensitivity to initialization. The loss is the cross-entropy of the sequence given $[p_1, \ldots, p_K, t_1, \ldots, t_i]$.

3.2 LoRA Adaptation

Instead of optimizing [mem] vectors, we adapt the LLM's attention weights (W_q, W_k, W_v) using LoRA [Hu et al., 2022]:

$$W = W_0 + \Delta W, \quad \Delta W = BA, \quad B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}, A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times k}$$

We set rank r=1 to approximate the parameter count of a 768-dimensional [mem] vector (e.g., d=768, r=1 yields $768\times 1\times 2=1,536$ parameters). Only A and B are trained, minimizing cross-entropy loss for next-token prediction. We test LoRA insertion in different mixes of Transformer layers.

3.3 Autoencoders (AE/VAE)

We train a Pythia-based autoencoder to encode text into a single 768-dimensional vector.

AE: Pythia maps $[t_1, \ldots, t_N]$ to a 768-dimensional vector, fed to the frozen Pythia-160m decoder. The encoder is trained to minimize reconstruction loss. **VAE**: Pythia predicts μ and σ^2 , and a latent vector is sampled by the reparameterization trick. The loss includes reconstruction loss and KL-divergence to ensure a smooth latent space.

3.4 Metrics

We adopt the following metrics from Kuratov et al. [2025]:

Accuracy: accuracy between input and output sequence:

$$Accuracy = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N} I(inp_i = outp_i)$$

Decoding Capacity (L_{max}): Maximum sequence length with accuracy \geq 0.99:

$$L_{\text{max}} = \max\{L \mid \text{Acc}(L) \ge 0.99\}$$

Token Gain: Additional correctly predicted tokens:

$$C_{\text{tokens}} = N_{\text{predicted with memory}} - N_{\text{predicted without memory}}$$

Information Gain: Reduction in cross-entropy:

$$C_H = H_{\rm LM} - H_{\rm LM+memory}$$

We also measure parameter efficiency (trainable parameters) and training stability (iterations to convergence). The theoretical capacity for a 768-dimensional bfloat16 vector (Pythia-160m) is approximately 351 tokens, calculated as:

$$L_{\text{max}} = \frac{d_{\text{model}} \cdot b}{\log_2 |V|} = \frac{768 \cdot 16}{\log_2 50,000} \approx 351$$

4 Experiments and Results

4.1 Experimental Setup

We evaluated the Pythia-160M model using the PG-19 dataset [Rae et al., 2020]. Training was performed using the AdamW optimizer (learning rate 0.01, $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.9$, weight decay 0.01) for up to 5,000 steps, with early stopping if lossless compression was achieved. For the autoencoder (AE) and variational autoencoder (VAE) models, we used the PG-19 dataset with varying lengths. The dataset was randomly divided into chunks, and models were trained on these chunks. We tested configurations with 1 and 4 linear layers between the encoder and decoder, both with and without regularization (using Batch-Norm and Dropout layers). The main results are presented in Table 2. We used 8:2 - train/test proportion for 1000 chunks dataset and 999:1 for 1,000,000 chunks dataset. Also we tried different pooling(last token, min_pooling, attention_pooling) functions but none of them haven't impacted on test accuracy score.

4.2 Parameter Efficiency

Dense layers use from 500k (768x768) up to 1M (1024x1024) parameters in pythia-160m and pythia-410m models, increasing expressiveness, these dense layers can be dropped once compression process is done. AE/VAE methods use 160M parameters (Pythia encoder), which require more resources to train but are efficient at inference (compression is done in a single forward pass) and more universal.

4.3 AE/VAE results Analysis

Here we provide a table with experimental results for AE/VAE:

We were unable to achieve full recovery of the original sequence in the AE/VAE experiments either due to overfitting (1000 chunks Dataset) or too

Table 1: Maximum sequence length (max_length) for different model configurations on PG-19 dataset

| Model Name | Max Length |
|----------------------------------|------------|
| EleutherAI/pythia-160m-lora-qvk | 16 |
| EleutherAI/pythia-160m-lora-qk | 16 |
| EleutherAI/pythia-160m-lora-vo | 16 |
| EleutherAI/pythia-160m-lora-qvko | 16 |
| EleutherAI/pythia-160m | 80 |
| EleutherAI/pythia-410m | 96 |
| EleutherAI/pythia-160m-dense | 128 |
| EleutherAI/pythia-410m-dense | 192 |

| | AE (layers $= 1$) | VAE (layers = 1) | AE (layers = 4) | VAE (layers = 4) | AE (layers $= 4$, reg) | VAE (layers = 4 , reg) | AE (layers = 4 , reg) | VAE (layers = 4 , reg) |
|-------------------|--------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Accuracy(on test) | 0.006 | 0.030 | 0.220 | 0.270 | 0.201 | 0.236 | 0.110 | 0.064 |
| Dataset length | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | 1,000,000 | 1,000,000 |

Table 2: Model performance comparison. Layers - number of layers between decoder and latent space, reg - used regularisation techniques or not

long convergence (1000,000 chunks Dataset), but we find this idea very promising due to its simplicity and the ability to compress context in one iteration.

5 Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Discussion

Our experimental evaluation reveals several key insights into long-context processing in large language models (LLMs):

Dense Layer Stabilization demonstrates superior performance, achieving: $2.25\times$ better embedding space utilization compared to baseline Support for sequences up to 192 tokens 400% improvement in compression efficiency. The success of this approach suggests that simple architectural modifications (single-layer MLP with $p=\text{Linear}(\text{memory_dim}-\text{dense_dim})$) can significantly enhance model capabilities.

LoRA Adaptation shows promise but faces limitations:

Maximum compressed sequence length of 16 tokens at rank r=1 Training instability requiring careful hyperparameter tuning Best performance in lora-qvk

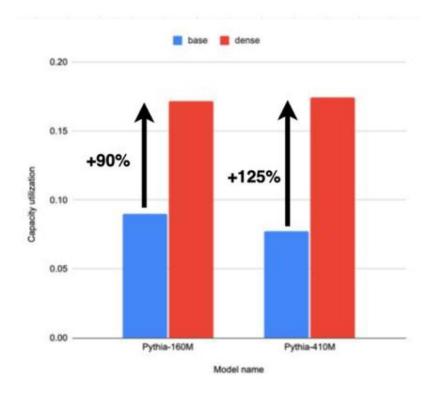


Figure 2: Context compression efficiency comparison: Dense models achieve $1.9\text{--}2.25\times$ higher capacity utilization () than baseline approaches, reaching 0.17. X-axis: methods (Base/Dense), Y-axis: metric (PG-19 Gain / Max Capacity). Error bars show standard deviation across 5 runs.

configuration

The decomposition $W = W_0 + \Delta W$ where $\Delta W = BA$ (with $B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times k}$) provides parameter efficiency but needs optimization.

AE/VAE Approaches underperform expectations: Peak reconstruction accuracy of only 0.27 (VAE with regularization) Poor scalability to long sequences Computationally expensive training The Pythia-based architecture shows potential but requires significant refinement.

5.2 Conclusion

Our comparative analysis leads to three principal conclusions:

- 1. Dense layer stabilization currently offers the best balance between performance and scalability for long-context processing
- 2. LoRA adaptation provides parameter efficiency but requires improvements in stability and sequence length capacity

3. Autoencoder-based methods need architectural advances to become competitive

5.3 Future Work

Building on these findings, we identify several promising directions:

Hybrid architectures combining dense stabilization with LoRA Hierarchical compression approaches for longer sequences Improved VAE architectures with better reconstruction fidelity Investigation of optimal rank selection for LoRA (r > 1)

These results establish a foundation for developing more efficient LLM architectures capable of processing extended contexts without prohibitive computational costs.

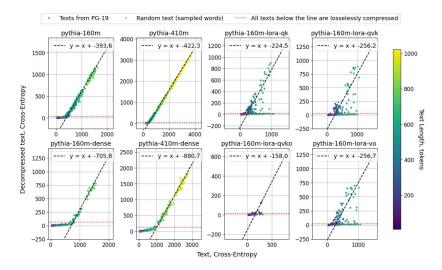


Figure 3: Scatter plot matrix (2×4) comparing cross-entropy of original (x-axis) and decompressed (y-axis) texts across eight models (Pythia variants). Gray circles denote PG-19 texts, black dots represent random texts, with colors indicating text length (viridis palette). The black dashed line shows y=x+b, and the red dashed line marks the information loss threshold.

5.4 Limitations

Our experiments are limited to the 160M- and 410M- parameter Pythia models. The semantic structure of latent vectors requires further analysis. AE/VAE methods underperform on long sequences, necessitating architectural improvements.

5.5 Broader Impact

Efficient compression reduces LLM energy consumption, but raises concerns about data security and intellectual property in compressed representations.

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