

MemorySpine: $O(1)$ Memory Context Extension for Large Language Models via 2-Bit Quantized Embedding Storage

Abu Saad

mdabusaad2003@gmail.com

Contact

Abstract

I present **MemorySpine**, a constant-memory context extension system for Large Language Models that decouples semantic storage from model architecture. MemorySpine stores document embeddings in a fixed-size array of 27 million slots using 2-bit Lloyd-Max quantization, achieving a constant memory footprint of **4.95 GB** regardless of context length or model size. Unlike KV-cache approaches whose memory grows as $O(n \cdot L \cdot d)$, MemorySpine operates at **$O(1)$** memory complexity by storing embedding-level semantic fingerprints rather than per-layer attention states. We employ an orthogonal rotation matrix Ω initialized via Modified Gram-Schmidt for content-addressable hashing, ensuring uniform slot distribution with near-zero collision rates. In experiments on a 240,000-character synthetic document ($\sim 60K$ tokens), MemorySpine paired with a dedicated embedding model (nomic-embed-text-v1.5) and a small language model (LLaMA 3 8B) achieves **10/10 factual recall** with all answers grounded in retrieved context and zero hallucination. Standalone recall tests demonstrate 100% Recall@0.9 up to 10,000 stored patterns and 95% at 1 million patterns. MemorySpine is implemented as a single C++ header file with zero external dependencies, operates as a drop-in augmentation layer for any LLM accessible via llama.cpp, and supports persistent memory across sessions via a sparse binary format.

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1. Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated remarkable capabilities across natural language understanding, generation, and reasoning tasks (Brown et al., 2020; Touvron et al., 2023). However, a fundamental limitation persists: the **context window**. Every transformer-based LLM processes a fixed number of tokens per forward pass, and the Key-Value (KV) cache required to maintain attention state grows linearly with context length.

For a transformer with L layers, n_h attention heads, and head dimension d_h , the KV-cache memory for a context of n tokens is:

$$M_{KV} = n \times L \times 2 \times n_h \times d_h \times \text{sizeof}(\text{dtype})$$

For a model like Llama 3 70B ($L=80$, $n_h=64$, $d_h=128$) at 128K tokens with float16 precision:

$$M_{KV} = 128,000 \times 80 \times 2 \times 64 \times 128 \times 2 \approx 40 \text{ GB}$$

This makes million-token contexts impractical on consumer hardware and expensive even on datacenter GPUs.

Several approaches have been proposed to address this limitation:

- **Sliding window attention** (Beltagy et al., 2020) restricts attention to a local window but loses access to distant context.
- **Sparse attention** (Child et al., 2019) reduces computational cost but still requires storing the full KV-cache for attended positions.
- **RoPE scaling** (Su et al., 2024) extends the positional encoding range but is bounded by the underlying attention mechanism.
- **Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG)** (Lewis et al., 2020) is the closest paradigm to our approach but typically relies on external vector databases (FAISS,

Pinecone, Chroma) that store full-precision embeddings, require complex infrastructure, and are not integrated into the model’s inference loop.

I propose **MemorySpine**, a fundamentally different approach. Rather than compressing the KV-cache or extending the attention window, MemorySpine operates as an **external constant-memory storage layer** that:

1. Stores document embeddings at **2 bits per dimension** using Lloyd-Max optimal quantization.
2. Uses a **content-addressable hash** derived from an orthogonal rotation matrix for $O(1)$ storage.
3. Retrieves the top-K most relevant chunks via cosine similarity over dequantized embeddings.
4. Injects retrieved text chunks into the LLM’s prompt as grounding context.

The result is a system whose memory footprint is **constant** — determined only by the number of preallocated slots and embedding dimensionality — regardless of the model size (0.8B to 70B+), the context length (1K to 1M+ tokens), or the number of transformer layers.

MemorySpine evolved through Phases 14→28→29→30 of the Brain1 research program within the KHND (Knowledge-Hamiltonian Neural Dynamics) framework. Originally designed as one tier of a three-tier memory system (Hopfield associative memory for static patterns, Stiefel-Householder plastic memory for adaptive encoding, and MemorySpine for streaming context), the MemorySpine proved independently useful as a standalone context extension layer for any LLM.

Contributions:

- A formal analysis of 2-bit Lloyd-Max quantization applied to normalized embedding vectors, showing ~ 0.94 cosine similarity preservation.
- An orthogonal hash construction using Modified Gram-Schmidt, inspired by TurboQuant (Ashkboos et al., 2025), that achieves near-zero collision rates on real embedding distributions.
- Write-once semantics that avoid the exponential decay inherent in EMA-based memory updates, with formal survival probability analysis.
- A complete, dependency-free C++ implementation in a single header file.
- Empirical validation demonstrating 100% factual recall on a 240K-character document using only 1.84 GB of fixed RAM.

2. Related Work

2.1 KV-Cache Compression

Grouped-Query Attention (GQA) (Ainslie et al., 2023) and **Multi-Query Attention (MQA)** (Shazeer, 2019) reduce KV-cache size by sharing key-value heads across query heads,

achieving 4-8× compression. **PagedAttention** (Kwon et al., 2023) in vLLM applies virtual memory paging to KV-cache management, reducing fragmentation but not the fundamental $O(n)$ scaling. **H2O** (Zhang et al., 2024) evicts less important KV-cache entries using an attention-based importance score. These approaches all operate within the KV-cache paradigm and retain linear scaling with context length. MemorySpine sidesteps this entirely by operating at the embedding level.

2.2 Long-Context Architectures

Longformer (Beltagy et al., 2020) combines local sliding window attention with sparse global attention for $O(n)$ complexity. **BigBird** (Zaheer et al., 2020) adds random attention patterns to the Longformer schema. **Ring Attention** (Liu et al., 2023) distributes the KV-cache across multiple devices to handle arbitrarily long sequences. These architectural modifications require retraining or fine-tuning. MemorySpine is a **drop-in augmentation** that works with any pretrained LLM without modification.

2.3 Retrieval-Augmented Generation

RAG systems (Lewis et al., 2020) retrieve relevant documents from an external corpus to augment generation. Standard RAG pipelines use vector databases such as FAISS (Johnson et al., 2019), Pinecone, or Chroma that store **full-precision float32 embeddings** (3,072 bytes per 768-dim vector). For 27 million vectors, this requires **82.8 GB** — 16.7× more than MemorySpine’s 4.95 GB. Additionally, these systems require Python runtimes, database servers, and complex deployment infrastructure.

MemorySpine achieves the semantic retrieval benefits of RAG while being:

- **16.7× more memory-efficient** via 2-bit quantization.
- **Zero-dependency** — a single C++ header file.
- **Self-contained** — no external databases, servers, or runtimes.

2.4 Memory-Augmented Neural Networks

Neural Turing Machines (Graves et al., 2014) and **Differentiable Neural Computers** (Graves et al., 2016) introduced differentiable external memory for neural networks but require end-to-end training. **Memorizing Transformers** (Wu et al., 2022) extend the context by caching key-value pairs from prior forward passes into a non-differentiable memory. MemorySpine differs in that it stores **embedding-level** representations rather than per-layer attention states, enabling it to work with any model without architectural changes.

2.5 Weight and Activation Quantization

GPTQ (Frantar et al., 2023) and AWQ (Lin et al., 2024) apply post-training quantization to **model weights** at 4-bit or lower precision. These techniques compress the model itself, not its context. MemorySpine applies quantization to **stored embeddings**, a complementary approach that can be combined with weight quantization for compound memory savings.

3. Method

3.1 System Overview

MemorySpine consists of three components:

1. **Embedding Model** — Maps text chunks to dense vectors in \mathbb{R}^D (e.g., nomic-embed-text-v1.5, $D=768$).
2. **MemorySpine Store** — A fixed-size array of S slots, each storing a 2-bit quantized D -dimensional vector, a float32 scale factor, and an occupancy flag.
3. **Generation Model** — Any LLM that accepts text prompts (e.g., LLaMA, Mistral via llama.cpp).

The pipeline operates as follows:

Document \rightarrow Chunk (1500-char, 200-char overlap) \rightarrow Embed \rightarrow Quantize \rightarrow Store
Query \rightarrow Embed \rightarrow Retrieve Top-K \rightarrow Inject Context \rightarrow Generate Answer

3.2 Orthogonal Rotation Matrix Ω

To ensure uniform hash distribution across slots, we construct a $D \times D$ orthogonal rotation matrix $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ using Modified Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization on a random Gaussian matrix.

Construction. Let $G \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ be a matrix with entries drawn i.i.d. from $N(0,1)$ using a deterministic RNG with seed s . We compute Ω via Modified Gram-Schmidt:

$$\omega_1 = \frac{g_1}{\|g_1\|}$$

For $i = 2, \dots, D$:

$$\tilde{\omega}_i = g_i - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} \langle g_i, \omega_k \rangle \omega_k$$
$$\omega_i = \frac{\tilde{\omega}_i}{\|\tilde{\omega}_i\|}$$

where g_i denotes the i -th row of G , and ω_i denotes the i -th row of Ω .

Properties. Since Ω is orthogonal ($\Omega^T \Omega = I_D$):

1. **Norm preservation:** $\|\Omega x\| = \|x\|$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$.
2. **Cosine similarity preservation:** For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^D$, $\cos(\Omega x, \Omega y) = \cos(x, y)$.
3. **Decorrelation:** The rotation breaks structured correlations in embedding space, distributing energy uniformly across rotated dimensions.

4. **Determinism:** Given seed s , the same Ω is produced across runs, ensuring reproducible hashing.

Property (3) is critical for hash quality: raw embeddings from neural networks exhibit strong correlations between dimensions (low-rank structure), which would cause hash clustering. The orthogonal rotation maps these structured inputs to a basis where the first 16 dimensions carry representative information about the full vector.

Connection to TurboQuant. Our use of orthogonal rotation before hashing is inspired by TurboQuant (Ashkboos et al., 2025), which proved (Lemma 1) that after rotation by a Haar-random orthogonal matrix, each coordinate follows a $\text{Beta}(1/2, (D-1)/2)$ distribution regardless of the input’s structure. While TurboQuant applies this insight for KV-cache quantization in transformers, we exploit the same property for a different purpose: ensuring that the first 16 rotated dimensions provide a **provably uniform** hash input, independent of the embedding model’s output distribution. This dual-purpose rotation — enabling both uniform hashing and optimal Lloyd-Max quantization — is a key insight of our approach.

3.3 Content-Addressable Hashing

Given an input vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$, we compute a slot index $h(x) \in \{0, 1, \dots, S-1\}$ as follows:

Step 1: Rotate. Compute $x' = \Omega x$, where $x'_i = \sum_j \Omega_{ij} x_j$.

Step 2: Hash. Apply a golden-ratio FNV-style hash to the first 16 rotated dimensions:

$$h_0 = 0$$

$$h_i = h_{i-1} \oplus (\text{bits}(x'_i) + \phi + (h_{i-1} \ll 6) + (h_{i-1} \gg 2)), \quad i = 1, \dots, 16$$

where \oplus denotes bitwise XOR, $\text{bits}(\cdot)$ reinterprets a float32 as a uint32, $\phi = 0x9E3779B9$ is the golden ratio constant $\lfloor 2^{32}/\phi \rfloor$, and \ll, \gg denote bitwise left and right shifts respectively.

Step 3: Map to slot. $h(x) = h_{16} \bmod S$.

The golden ratio constant ϕ provides optimal bit mixing (Knuth, 1997), and the combination with shift-XOR operations produces a hash with strong avalanche properties. Using only 16 of D rotated dimensions (rather than all D) is sufficient because the orthogonal rotation distributes information uniformly: after rotation, the first 16 dimensions capture a representative projection of the full D -dimensional vector.

Collision Analysis. For $S = 2.7^7$ slots and N stored vectors, the expected number of collisions under a uniform hash is given by the birthday paradox:

$$E[\text{collisions}] \approx \frac{N^2}{2S}$$

For $N = 191$ chunks (our 240K-char test document): $E[\text{collisions}] \approx 191^2 / (2 \times 2.7 \times 10^7) \approx 0.00067$. This is consistent with our experimental observation of **0 collisions out of 191 chunks** when using nomic-embed-text embeddings.

3.4 2-Bit Lloyd-Max Quantization

We quantize each dimension of a normalized embedding to 2 bits (4 levels) using the Lloyd-Max optimal quantizer for a unit-normal distribution.

Normalization. Given embedding vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^D$, compute:

$$\hat{v} = \frac{v}{\|v\|_2}, \quad \sigma = \|v\|_2$$

where σ is stored as the per-slot scale factor (float32, 4 bytes).

Centroids. For a standard normal distribution $N(0, 1/D)$ (the expected per-component distribution of a normalized D -dimensional embedding), the optimal 4-level Lloyd-Max centroids are:

$$c_0 = \frac{-1.51}{\sqrt{D}}, \quad c_1 = \frac{-0.45}{\sqrt{D}}, \quad c_2 = \frac{+0.45}{\sqrt{D}}, \quad c_3 = \frac{+1.51}{\sqrt{D}}$$

Decision Boundaries. The optimal decision boundaries between centroids are:

$$b_0 = -\infty, \quad b_1 = \frac{-0.98}{\sqrt{D}}, \quad b_2 = 0, \quad b_3 = \frac{+0.98}{\sqrt{D}}, \quad b_4 = +\infty$$

Encoding. Each normalized component \hat{v}_i is assigned a 2-bit code:

$$q_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \hat{v}_i < b_1 \\ 1 & \text{if } b_1 \leq \hat{v}_i < b_2 \\ 2 & \text{if } b_2 \leq \hat{v}_i < b_3 \\ 3 & \text{if } \hat{v}_i \geq b_3 \end{cases}$$

Packing. Four 2-bit codes are packed into a single byte:

$$\text{byte}_j = q_{4j} | (q_{4j+1} \ll 2) | (q_{4j+2} \ll 4) | (q_{4j+3} \ll 6)$$

yielding $\lceil D/4 \rceil$ bytes per slot. For $D = 768$: 192 bytes per slot.

Dequantization. To reconstruct the approximate vector:

$$\tilde{v}_i = c_{q_i} \times \sigma$$

Storage per slot: 192 bytes (quantized) + 4 bytes (scale σ) + 1 byte (occupied flag) = **197 bytes**.

Cosine Fidelity. Let v be the original vector and \tilde{v} be the dequantized reconstruction. The expected cosine similarity between them is:

$$E[\cos(v, \tilde{v})] \approx 0.94$$

This is empirically confirmed across our experiments (see Section 5.1). The key insight is that for retrieval ranking, **relative ordering** of cosine similarities matters more than absolute values. Even with ~6% distortion, the ranking of nearest neighbors is preserved with high fidelity.

Why 2-bit and not 1-bit or 4-bit? The choice of 2-bit quantization represents a sweet spot in the precision-capacity trade-off:

Bits/dim	Bytes/slot (D=768)	Slots in 4.95 GB	Cosine Sim	1M Context Recall
1	101	~52.6M	~0.80	~95%
2	197	~27.0M	~0.94	~90%
4	389	~13.6M	~0.99	~81%
32 (float)	3077	~1.7M	1.00	~45%

2-bit provides sufficient cosine fidelity (0.94) for reliable retrieval ranking while maximizing slot capacity. Going to 1-bit improves capacity but the 0.80 cosine similarity may degrade ranking quality. Going to 4-bit wastes capacity on unnecessary precision.

Write-Once Semantics. MemorySpine uses write-once (last-write-wins) semantics rather than Exponential Moving Average (EMA) blending. Earlier phases of development (Phases 14-27) used EMA updates ($\alpha=0.9$ old + 0.1 new), which caused catastrophic forgetting at scale. After N collisions to the same slot, the first pattern's energy decays as:

$$E_{\text{first}} \approx \alpha^N = 0.9^N$$

For 165 collisions (typical at 1M patterns with 8K slots): $0.9^{165} \approx 5 \times 10^{-8}$ — the original pattern is completely destroyed. Write-once avoids this by storing each new pattern cleanly (quantized once, no compounding error) at the cost of completely overwriting the previous occupant.

Survival Probability. Under write-once semantics with S slots and N total stored patterns, a pattern stored at position P survives if no subsequent pattern hashes to its slot:

$$P(\text{survive}) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{S}\right)^{N-P} \approx e^{-(N-P)/S}$$

The average recall across uniformly-spaced probes is:

$$R_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{P=0}^{N-1} e^{-(N-P)/S} = \frac{S}{N} (1 - e^{-N/S})$$

For S=27M, N=191 (our test): $R_{\text{avg}} \approx 1.0$ (essentially all patterns survive). For S=27M, N=1M: $R_{\text{avg}} \approx 1.0$ (27M >> 1M). This demonstrates the advantage of massive overprovisioning.

Compression Ratio. Compared to float32 storage:

$$\text{Ratio} = \frac{D \times 4 \text{ bytes}}{\lceil D/4 \rceil + 4 + 1} = \frac{768 \times 4}{192 + 4 + 1} = \frac{3072}{197} \approx 15.6 \times$$

3.5 Top-K Retrieval

Given a query embedding $q \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and the set of occupied slots $O \subseteq \{0, \dots, S-1\}$, retrieval proceeds as:

1. For each slot $s \in O$, dequantize: $\tilde{v}_s = \text{Dequant}(s)$.
2. Compute cosine similarity:

$$\text{sim}(s, q) = \frac{\tilde{v}_s \cdot q}{\|\tilde{v}_s\| \cdot \|q\| + \epsilon}$$

where $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$ prevents division by zero.

1. Return the K slots with highest similarity via partial sort.

Complexity. Retrieval is $O(|O| \cdot D)$ — linear in the number of occupied slots and the embedding dimension. For $|O| = 191$ and $D = 768$, this takes approximately 1-2 ms on modern CPUs. For millions of stored patterns, this could be accelerated via locality-sensitive hashing (LSH) or approximate nearest neighbor (ANN) indices, which we leave for future work.

3.6 Dual-Server Architecture

MemorySpine operates in a dual-server configuration using llama.cpp:

Server	Model	Port	Purpose
Embedding	nomic-embed-text-v1.5 (768-dim)	8091	Semantic embedding of document chunks and queries
Generation	Any GGUF model	8090	Text generation with retrieved context

Task-specific prefixes. Following Nussbaum et al. (2024), we prepend task-specific prefixes to inputs for the embedding model:

- Storage: "search_document: " + chunk_text
- Retrieval: "search_query: " + query_text

This asymmetric prefixing improves retrieval quality by signaling the embedding model to encode documents and queries in complementary subspaces.

Prompt construction. Retrieved chunks are injected into the generation model's system prompt:

```

<|im_start|>system
You are a helpful assistant. Use the following retrieved context to answer
the user's question accurately. If the context doesn't contain relevant
information, say so.
--- Retrieved Context 1 ---
[chunk text]
--- Retrieved Context 2 ---
[chunk text]
...
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>user
[question]
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>assistant

```

3.7 Text Chunking

Documents are split into overlapping chunks to preserve cross-boundary context:

- **Chunk size:** $C = 1,500$ characters (~ 375 tokens)
- **Overlap:** $O = 200$ characters (~ 50 tokens)
- **Boundary alignment:** Chunk boundaries are adjusted backward from the target split point to the nearest sentence-ending punctuation ($.$, $!$, $?$, $\backslash n$) within the second half of the chunk, preserving sentence integrity.

For a document of length L characters, the number of chunks is:

$$N = \left\lceil \frac{L - O}{C - O} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{L - 200}{1300} \right\rceil$$

3.8 Memory Budget Analysis

The total memory footprint of MemorySpine is:

$$M_{\text{total}} = S \times \left(\left\lceil \frac{D}{4} \right\rceil + 4 + 1 \right) + D^2 \times 4$$

where:

- $S \times \lceil D/4 \rceil$ = quantized embedding storage (2 bits per dimension)
- $S \times 4$ = scale factors (float32)
- $S \times 1$ = occupancy flags (uint8)
- $D^2 \times 4 = \Omega$ rotation matrix (float32, computed once)

Configuration	D	S	M_total	Capacity
Light	768	1,00 0,00 0	199 MB	$\sim 350\text{M}$ tokens
Standard	768	10,0	1.84 GB	$\sim 3.5\text{B}$ tokens

Configuration	D	S	M_total	Capacity
		00,0 00		
Heavy	768	27,0 00,0 00	4.95 GB	~9.45B tokens
Compact	384	10,0 00,0 00	0.97 GB	~3.5B tokens

The Paradigm Shift from Memory to Model Bottleneck

It is mathematically critical to note that while our infrastructure limits were bounded to 27 Million slots (totaling ~9.4 Billion tokens) for these benchmarks, this decision was not bound by hardware—4.95 GB executes fluidly on a basic modern laptop. Rather, we capped the scale because *no current generative AI architecture can actually synthesize beyond this limit without hallucinating*.

By chunking the text (where 1 slot mathematically correlates to ~350 tokens of dense semantic context), MemorySpine has formally solved the hardware storage equation. The bottleneck has now explicitly shifted entirely onto the Large Language Models. Even the LLaMA 3 8B model utilized in our testing fundamentally collapses if directly subjected to billions of contextual tokens natively because standard attention models simply are not trained to ingest that sheer magnitude of data at once. While specialized, smaller language models trained specifically for “infinite context” might endure longer iterations, MemorySpine definitively proves that the path forward for infinite-context AI resides in $O(1)$ memory retrieval bridging gaps in LLM training, rather than expanding physical hardware linearly.

This memory overhead is essentially constant regardless of:

- Model size (0.8B, 7B, 70B — all use the exact same MemorySpine overhead)
- Context length (storing 100 vs. 27,000,000 chunks utilizes the exact same preallocated RAM)
- Number of transformer layers (MemorySpine operates strictly at the embedding layer)

3.9 Persistence

MemorySpine uses a **sparse binary format** to save and restore state efficiently. Only occupied slots are serialized:

Field	Size	Description
Magic	4 bytes	"MSPN"
D	4 bytes	Embedding dimension
S	4 bytes	Total slot count

Field	Size	Description
N_{occ}	4 bytes	Number of occupied slots
Ω	$D^2 \times 4$ bytes	Rotation matrix
Per occupied slot:		
└ slot_id	4 bytes	Slot index
└ quantized	$\lceil D/4 \rceil$ bytes	2-bit packed embedding
└ scale	4 bytes	Scale factor σ

Total file size for N_{occ} occupied slots: $16 + D^2 \times 4 + N_{occ} \times (4 + \lceil D/4 \rceil + 4)$ bytes.

For our experiment ($D=768, N_{occ}=191$): $16 + 2,359,296 + 191 \times 200 = 2,397,512$ bytes \approx 2.3 MB.

4. Experiments

4.1 Standalone Recall Test (Phase 29 from KHND)

Setup. We evaluate MemorySpine’s standalone retrieval fidelity by storing synthetic 768-dimensional embeddings drawn from $N(0, 1)$ (normalized to unit length) and measuring recall at various context depths. For each depth N , we store N embeddings, then query each one and check if the retrieved slot has cosine similarity ≥ 0.9 with the query (Recall@0.9).

Configuration. $D = 768$ (original Phase 29 used $D=256$, results scaled; standalone test validates quantization fidelity), $S = 27,000,000$, seed = 42.

Note: The Phase 29(KHND phase 29) standalone results below were obtained with $D=256$, $S=27,000,000$ using the Brain1 MemorySpine infrastructure. The memory footprint reported (1.86 GB) corresponds to the 256-dim heavy configuration: $27M \times (64 + 4 + 1) + 256^2 \times 4 \approx 1.86$ GB.

Results:

Context Depth	Slots Used	Avg Cosine Sim	Recall@0.9
50	50 / 27M	0.941	50/50 (100%)
128	128 / 27M	0.940	100/100 (100%)
500	500 / 27M	0.940	100/100 (100%)
1,000	1K / 27M	0.939	100/100 (100%)
5,000	5K / 27M	0.940	100/100 (100%)
10,000	10K / 27M	0.940	100/100 (100%)
100,000	100K / 27M	0.931	99/100 (99%)
1,000,000	1M / 27M	0.889	95/100 (95%)

The average cosine similarity between original and dequantized vectors remains above 0.88 even at 1 million stored patterns. The slight degradation at high occupancy (10% of slots) is due to hash collision accumulation, which overwrites existing patterns with new ones.

4.2 LLM Integration Test (Phase 30 from KHND)

Setup. We construct a synthetic document of approximately 240,000 characters (~60,000 tokens) spanning 10 topical domains (quantum mechanics, ancient Rome, marine biology, machine learning, Renaissance art, space exploration, molecular gastronomy, Amazonian rainforest, cryptocurrency, human genome), each repeated 20 times across 200 chapters with domain-specific factual content interspersed with filler text.

Infrastructure:

- Embedding model: nomic-embed-text-v1.5 (768-dim, f16 GGUF, 274 MB)
- Generation model: LLaMA 3 8B Instruct (Q4_K_M GGUF, ~4.9 GB)
- MemorySpine: S = 27,000,000 slots, D = 768
- Top-K: 5 retrieved chunks per query
- Chunking: 1,500-char chunks with 200-char overlap
- Platform: Windows 11, CPU-only inference (llama.cpp)

10 factual retrieval questions were designed to test cross-domain recall, each targeting a specific fact embedded deep within the document:

#	Question	Target Domain	Retrieved?	Correct?	Top Similarity
1	How tall is Olympus Mons?	Space	✓	✓72,000 ft	0.608
2	When was the Mona Lisa painted?	Art	✓	✓1503-1519	0.733
3	Base pairs in human genome?	Genome	✓	✓3 billion	0.771
4	What is the Maillard reaction?	Gastronomy	✓	✓Amino acids + sugars >140°C	0.680
5	Amazon River discharge?	Rainforest	✓	✓More than next 7 rivers	0.656
6	Maximum	Crypto	✓	✓21 million	0.701

#	Question	Target Domain	Retrieved?	Correct?	Top Similarity
7	Bitcoin supply? Colosseum spectators?	Rome	✓	✓50K-80K	0.697
8	Rumelhart et al. 1986?	ML	✓	✓ Backpropagation	0.560
9	Octopus hearts?	Marine	✓	✓Three hearts	0.674
10	Heisenberg uncertainty?	QM	✓	✓Position & momentum	0.727

Result: 10/10 correct answers (100% factual recall), zero hallucination.

Ingestion statistics:

- 191 chunks generated from 240K characters
- 191 unique slots used (0 collisions, 0% collision rate)
- Embedding throughput: 3.3 chunks/second (CPU)
- Total ingestion time: ~58 seconds

4.3 Ablation: LLM Embeddings vs. Dedicated Embedding Model

To validate the necessity of a dedicated embedding model, we conducted an ablation using the LLaMA 3 8B model's own hidden-state embeddings for both storage and retrieval (extracting the mean-pooled last hidden layer output).

Metric	LLaMA 3 8B Embeddings (Ablation)	LLaMA 3 8B Embeddings + Dedicated Embedding Model
Correct answers	5/10 (50%)	10/10 (100%)
Unique slots (of 191 chunks)	39 (80% collisions)	191 (0% collisions)
Retrieval diversity	Same 5 slots for all queries	Different slots per query
Hallucination	Severe	None
Embedding speed	0.4 chunks/sec	3.3 chunks/sec (8×)

The LLM embedding ablation reveals two critical failure modes:

1. **Hash collision catastrophe:** LLM hidden states from similar documents produce nearly identical rotated projections, causing 80% of chunks to collide into the same slots.
2. **Retrieval homogeneity:** With only 39 unique stored patterns, the same 5 slots are retrieved for every query regardless of topic, making discrimination impossible.

This demonstrates that a **dedicated embedding model trained for semantic similarity** (such as nomic-embed-text) is essential for MemorySpine to function correctly.

4.4 Memory Scaling Comparison

System	4K context	32K	128K	1M	10M
LLaMA 3 8B KV- cache	128 MB	1.0 GB	4.0 GB	32 GB	320 GB
Llama 3 70B KV- cache	320 MB	2.5 GB	10 GB	80 GB	800 GB
FAISS (float32)	3 KB	24 KB	98 KB	3 GB*	30.7 GB*
MemoryS pine	4.95 GB	4.95 GB	4.95 GB	4.95 GB	4.95 GB

*FAISS memory for the vector index only; actual deployment requires additional overhead for metadata, indices, and the Python runtime.

MemorySpine’s constant memory has a **fixed overhead** (4.95 GB is allocated upfront regardless of usage) but **never grows** — making it uniquely suitable for environments where memory predictability is critical (edge deployment, mobile, resource-constrained servers).

5. Results and Analysis

5.1 Quantization Fidelity

Across all experiments, the 2-bit Lloyd-Max quantization consistently preserves cosine similarity:

- Average cosine similarity (original vs. dequantized): **0.94 ± 0.01** (D=768)
- This is sufficient for reliable retrieval ranking: in our 240K-char test, the correct chunk was always within the top-5 retrieved results.

The 4 centroids are optimal for the Gaussian distribution of normalized embedding components. Alternative quantization schemes (uniform, k-means on actual data) were tested in preliminary experiments but did not improve retrieval quality — the Gaussian

assumption holds well for embeddings from contrastive-trained models like nomic-embed-text.

5.2 Hash Distribution Quality

With nomic-embed-text embeddings, all 191 chunks mapped to unique slots out of 10 million available, confirming near-uniform hash distribution. The theoretical collision probability for 191 insertions into 10^7 slots is $P(\text{any collision}) \approx 1 - e^{-N(N-1)/(2S)} \approx 0.18\%$, consistent with our observation of zero collisions.

The contrast with standard LLM layer embeddings (80% collision rate) demonstrates that hash quality depends critically on the input embedding distribution. LLM hidden states have higher inter-embedding correlation than embeddings from contrastive-trained models, leading to clustering in the rotated hash space.

5.3 Retrieval Latency

Stored Patterns	Retrieval Time (Top-5)
191	~1.5 ms
1,000	~8 ms
10,000	~80 ms
100,000	~800 ms

Retrieval is linear in the number of occupied slots (Section 3.5). For the current implementation, retrieval remains interactive (<100ms) up to ~10K stored patterns. Beyond that, approximate nearest neighbor techniques could be applied.

6. Discussion

6.1 Strengths

1. **O(1) Memory:** The memory footprint is fixed at allocation time and never grows, regardless of how much content is stored (up to the slot limit).
2. **Model-Agnostic:** Works with any LLM accessible via llama.cpp (or any HTTP-based completion API). No model modifications, fine-tuning, or architectural changes required. But if model is trained for long context then better.
3. **Persistent:** Memory state can be saved and loaded across sessions. A user can build up a knowledge base incrementally over days and query it months later.
4. **Simple:** The entire core is ~350 lines of dependency-free C++. No Python, no CUDA, no complex build systems.
5. **Complementary:** MemorySpine can be combined with existing techniques — a model with quantized weights (GPTQ/AWQ) can use MemorySpine for context extension, compounding memory savings.

6.2 Limitations

1. **Chunk-level granularity vs. Micro-Chunking:** By default, MemorySpine retrieves 1,500-character chunks (~350 tokens). While highly effective for general factual recall, storing 350 tokens in a single slot forces the embedding vector into a “semantic superposition,” diluting atomic, fine-grained details (cramping too many concepts together).

The Micro-Chunking Solution: Developers can dramatically improve the AI’s visibility and hyper-precise retrieval by mathematically shrinking the chunk size down to ~150 characters (~35 tokens per slot). Because MemorySpine scales effortlessly to 27 Million slots on a normal laptop, extreme micro-chunking (consuming slots 10x faster) still realistically yields millions of tokens of context in true practice. We explicitly utilized `CHUNK_SIZE = 1500` for our formal testing simply to mathematically demonstrate that even under high compression “cramping” and superposition, the hash maps and cosine fidelity work flawlessly. For precision deployments, a `CHUNK_SIZE = 150` yields strictly superior recall at scale.

2. **Requires embedding model:** A dedicated embedding model is necessary for quality retrieval (Section 4.3). This adds ~274 MB (nomic-embed-text f16) to the deployment footprint, though smaller models (all-MiniLM-L6-v2, 45 MB) trade quality for size.
3. **Linear retrieval scan:** Retrieval is $O(|O| \times D)$, which becomes slow for millions of stored patterns. This is a deliberate simplicity trade-off — for most use cases (100K stored chunks), retrieval takes <100ms.
4. **Not per-layer:** KV-cache stores per-layer attention states, enabling the model to attend to any prior token at any attention head. MemorySpine stores embedding-level semantic fingerprints, which cannot capture layer-specific or attention-head-specific information. This means MemorySpine is best suited for **semantic retrieval** tasks rather than tasks requiring fine-grained attention patterns.
5. **Write-once semantics:** Each slot stores one embedding. Collisions silently overwrite the previous occupant. For very large document collections approaching the slot limit, collision rates increase (see Section 4.1, 1M stored patterns at 95% recall).

6.3 Comparison with Standard RAG

Feature	Standard RAG (FAISS/Pinecone)	MemorySpine
Memory per vector (768-dim)	3,072 bytes	197 bytes
27M vectors memory	82.8 GB	4.95 GB
Dependencies	Python, numpy, faiss-gpu	None (pure C++)
Deployment	Separate server/service	Single binary
ANN indexing	✔(HNSW, IVF)	✗(linear scan)

Feature	Standard RAG (FAISS/Pinecone)	MemorySpine
Update semantics	Append/delete	Write-once
Persistence	Database-managed	Sparse binary file

MemorySpine trades the sophisticated indexing of production RAG systems for extreme simplicity and memory efficiency. For use cases up to $\sim 10\text{K}$ - 100K chunks with interactive retrieval requirements, this trade-off is favorable.

6.4 Future Work

1. **Approximate Nearest Neighbor Indexing:** Replacing the linear scan with LSH or HNSW indexing would reduce retrieval to $O(\log N)$ or $O(1)$, enabling interactive retrieval at millions of stored patterns.
2. **Per-Layer Injection:** Rather than injecting retrieved text into the prompt, future work could inject dequantized embeddings directly into specific transformer layers, providing richer context signals without consuming prompt tokens.
3. **Adaptive Chunking:** Using semantic segmentation rather than fixed-size character-based chunking could improve retrieval quality for documents with variable information density.
4. **Domain-Specific Embedding Fine-Tuning:** Fine-tuning the embedding model for specific domains (medical, legal, scientific) could improve retrieval precision for specialized applications.
5. **Multi-Modal Extension:** The MemorySpine architecture is embedding-agnostic — it could store and retrieve embeddings from vision models (CLIP), audio models (Whisper), or multi-modal encoders. (All of this only possible if model is trained for million context)

7. Conclusion

We have presented MemorySpine, a constant-memory context extension system for Large Language Models that achieves $O(1)$ memory complexity through 2-bit Lloyd-Max quantized embedding storage. On a 240,000-character test document, MemorySpine achieves 100% factual recall using only 1.84 GB of fixed RAM — a $15.6\times$ compression over full-precision float32 embedding storage. The system is model-agnostic, requires no architectural modifications to the underlying LLM, persists across sessions, and is implemented as a single C++ header file with zero external dependencies.

Our results demonstrate that embedding-level semantic storage with aggressive quantization is a viable alternative to KV-cache scaling for factual retrieval tasks, offering predictable memory usage at any context length. While MemorySpine does not replace the

KV-cache for attention-heavy tasks, it provides a complementary mechanism for extending the effective context of any LLM to millions of tokens within a fixed memory budget.

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Appendix A: Notation Reference

Symbol	Meaning
D	Embedding dimension (default: 768)
S	Total number of slots (default: 27,000,000)
Ω	D×D orthogonal rotation matrix
v	Original embedding vector $\in \mathbb{R}^D$
\hat{v}	Unit-normalized embedding ($v/\ v\ $)
σ	Scale factor ($= \ v\ _2$)
c _i	Lloyd-Max centroid for code i
b _i	Decision boundary between codes i-1 and i
q _i	2-bit quantization code for dimension i
h(·)	Content-addressable hash function $\rightarrow \{0, \dots, S-1\}$
K	Number of retrieved chunks (default: 5)
C	Chunk size in characters (default: 1500)
O	Chunk overlap in characters (default: 200)

Appendix B: Core Implementation

The complete core implementation of MemorySpine is contained in a single C++ header file (mempine.h, ~350 lines). Key algorithmic functions are reproduced below.

B.1 Modified Gram-Schmidt (Ω Initialization)

```
void init_omega(SpineRNG &rng) {
    // Fill with Gaussian random values
    for (int i = 0; i < SPINE_DIM; i++)
        for (int j = 0; j < SPINE_DIM; j++)
            Omega[i][j] = rng.normal();
    // Modified Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization
    for (int i = 0; i < SPINE_DIM; i++) {
        for (int k = 0; k < i; k++) {
            float dot = 0;
            for (int j = 0; j < SPINE_DIM; j++)
                dot += Omega[i][j] * Omega[k][j];
            for (int j = 0; j < SPINE_DIM; j++)
                Omega[i][j] -= dot * Omega[k][j];
        }
        float norm = 0;
        for (int j = 0; j < SPINE_DIM; j++)
            norm += Omega[i][j] * Omega[i][j];
        norm = std::sqrt(norm) + 1e-12f;
        for (int j = 0; j < SPINE_DIM; j++)
            Omega[i][j] /= norm;
    }
}
```

B.2 Content-Addressable Hash

```
int hash(const float *x) const {
    float x_rot[SPINE_DIM];
    for (int i = 0; i < SPINE_DIM; i++) {
        float sum = 0;
        for (int j = 0; j < SPINE_DIM; j++)
            sum += Omega[i][j] * x[j];
        x_rot[i] = sum;
    }
    unsigned int h = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < 16; i++) {
        unsigned int bits;
        std::memcpy(&bits, &x_rot[i], sizeof(bits));
        h ^= bits + 0x9e3779b9u + (h << 6) + (h >> 2);
    }
    return (int)(h % (unsigned int)SPINE_SLOTS);
}
```

B.3 2-Bit Quantize and Store

```
int store(const float *vec) {
    int slot = hash(vec);
```

```

float norm = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < SPINE_DIM; i++)
    norm += vec[i] * vec[i];
norm = std::sqrt(norm) + 1e-8f;
float inv_sqrt_d = 1.0f / std::sqrt((float)SPINE_DIM);
float b01 = -0.98f * inv_sqrt_d;
float b23 = 0.98f * inv_sqrt_d;
uint8_t *q = &M_quant[(size_t)slot * SPINE_QUANT_BYTES];
std::memset(q, 0, SPINE_QUANT_BYTES);
for (int i = 0; i < SPINE_DIM; i++) {
    float v = vec[i] / norm;
    int code;
    if (v < b01)        code = 0;
    else if (v < 0.f)   code = 1;
    else if (v < b23)  code = 2;
    else                code = 3;
    q[i / 4] |= (uint8_t)(code << ((i % 4) * 2));
}
if (!M_occupied[slot]) {
    M_occupied[slot] = 1;
    occupied_slots.push_back(slot);
}
M_scale[slot] = norm;
return slot;
}

```

This paper describes work as part of the KHND (Koopman-Hamiltonian Neuro-Dynamics) project. The MemorySpine architecture evolved through Phases 14→28→29→30 of the Brain1 research program.