

000 001 002 003 004 005 BMATTN: BLOCK-ALIGNED MIXED-PRECISION 006 ATTENTION QUANTIZATION FOR LLM INFERENCE 007 008 009

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ABSTRACT

011 The proliferation of Large Language Models (LLMs) with extended context win-
012 dows is severely hampered by the quadratic complexity of the self-attention mech-
013 anism. Existing acceleration methods, such as sparse attention and quantization,
014 often employ uniform compression strategies that are misaligned with the non-
015 uniform distribution of information importance within attention maps. This leads
016 to a suboptimal trade-off between computational efficiency and model accuracy.
017 To address this, we introduce Block-based Mixed-precision Attention (BMAttn),
018 a novel framework that enables fine-grained, importance-aware precision while
019 maintaining a hardware-friendly structure. BMAttn partitions each attention head
020 into high-precision, low-precision, and sparse regions. To ensure computational
021 regularity, these regions are block-aligned. To adapt to varying input lengths,
022 their boundaries are dynamically adjusted using a lightweight affine windowing
023 mechanism. We further propose a saliency-weighted calibration method and a layer-
024 adaptive regularizer to automatically determine the optimal parameters, achieving
025 a superior accuracy-efficiency balance. BMAttn achieves a speedup of up to $3.3\times$
026 without any accuracy degradation, and a $5\times$ speedup with only a 1% accuracy loss.
027

1 INTRODUCTION

030 Recent advancements in Large Language Models (LLMs) have yielded remarkable capabilities across
031 a wide range of applications (Liu et al., 2024; Achiam et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2023). A prominent
032 trend in LLM development is the expansion of context windows, with models like Gemini (Comanici
033 et al., 2025) and Kimi (Team et al., 2025) now capable of processing sequences of up to one million
034 tokens. However, this expansion is fundamentally constrained by the underlying self-attention
035 mechanism (Vaswani et al., 2017). Its computational complexity scales quadratically ($O(L^2)$) with
036 the input sequence length L , posing a significant bottleneck to the efficiency, scalability, and practical
037 deployment of these powerful models.

038 Existing methods to mitigate this cost, such as sparse attention (Zhang et al., 2025b; Fu et al., 2024;
039 Gao et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2025; Xiao et al., 2024b) and quantization (Zhang et al., 2024b;a), often
040 rely on a uniform compression strategy. Sparse attention, for instance, is confined to a coarse,
041 binary 'keep-or-discard' decision, while typical quantization schemes apply a homogeneous bit-
042 width across all connections. These approaches are fundamentally misaligned with the non-uniform
043 nature of attention. As observed in many models, attention heads exhibit heterogeneous patterns:
044 some specialize in local, fine-grained interactions requiring high precision, while others capture
045 global, contextual cues that can be represented more coarsely. A uniform strategy fails to adapt the
046 computational effort to this variance in information importance, leading to a suboptimal trade-off
047 between efficiency and accuracy.

048 This reveals a critical need for a framework that can process information with fine-grained, importance-
049 aware precision. The central challenge, however, lies in implementing such adaptivity without
050 incurring the performance penalties of irregular memory access and computation, which would
051 nullify any theoretical gains on modern hardware. To resolve this tension, we introduce **Block-**
052 **Aligned Mixed-precision Attention (BMAttn)**, a novel framework that co-designs a dynamic
053 precision allocation scheme with a hardware-friendly computational structure. The core principle of
BMAttn is to partition the attention computation for each head into three regions: a high-precision
zone for critical short-range interactions, a low-precision zone for less critical long-range context,

054 and a sparse zone where negligible connections are pruned entirely. To ensure hardware efficiency,
 055 this partitioning is not applied at the token level but is instead **block-aligned**: the sequence is divided
 056 into fixed-size blocks, and precision is assigned at this coarser granularity. This blockwise structure
 057 creates a regular, staircase-shaped computational layout that is highly amenable to GPU acceleration
 058 and compatible with optimized kernels like FlashAttention Dao (2023).

059 To enable dynamic adaptation to varying context lengths, we introduce an **affine windowing mechanism**.
 060 Instead of using fixed boundaries, the size of the high- and low-precision regions for each head
 061 is parameterized by a simple affine function of the context length. This formulation allows each head
 062 to dynamically and flexibly adjust its attention span—for instance, growing its high-precision zone
 063 proportionally with the sequence length—while maintaining a regular block structure. This elegantly
 064 reduces the complex problem of per-token precision assignment to learning a small set of affine
 065 parameters for each head, unifying fine-grained adaptivity with structured efficiency. Finally, to make
 066 this framework practically effective, we propose a calibration method to automatically determine the
 067 optimal affine parameters. Recognizing that standard metrics like MSE are insufficient, we develop a
 068 **saliency-weighted calibration process** that aligns parameter tuning with the true perceptual impor-
 069 tance of attention scores. Furthermore, we observe that model layers exhibit heterogeneous sensitivity
 070 to compression. We address this with a **layer-adaptive retention regularizer**, which enforces stricter
 071 precision targets on fragile shallow layers while allowing for more aggressive compression in robust
 072 deeper ones. This layered approach preserves model integrity while maximizing efficiency gains.

073 In summary, our contributions are as follows:

- 074 • We introduce BMAttn, an attention framework that unifies a mixed-bit representation with a
 075 block-aligned structure and an affine windowing mechanism to achieve both fine-grained
 076 adaptivity and hardware-friendly execution.
- 077 • We propose a sophisticated calibration method featuring a saliency-weighted metric for
 078 accurate parameter setting and a layer-adaptive retention regularizer to achieve a superior
 079 accuracy-efficiency trade-off.
- 080 • We conduct extensive experiments demonstrating that BMAttn achieves up to a 3.3x speedup
 081 on long-context language modeling tasks without any degradation in accuracy.

084 2 RELATED WORKS

085 **Algorithmic Optimizations for Efficient Attention.** Algorithmic approaches primarily focus on
 086 mitigating the quadratic complexity of the attention mechanism. Early works introduced structured
 087 sparsity through fixed patterns, such as the local windows in Swin Transformer (Liu et al., 2021)
 088 and Twins (Chu et al., 2021). To better handle long-sequence tasks, subsequent methods adopted
 089 more adaptive context management. For instance, StreamingLLM (Xiao et al., 2023), InfLLM (Xiao
 090 et al., 2024a), and LongLoRA (Chen et al., 2023) selectively retain or expand the context to preserve
 091 crucial information. More recently, a line of inference-centric designs has emerged, including Minfer-
 092 ence (Jiang et al., 2024), SkipAttention(Venkataraman et al., 2023), and SpargeAttention Zhang
 093 et al. (2025b). These methods dynamically identify and skip near-zero attention entries during
 094 generation, achieving multi-fold speedups without requiring retraining. Further extensions like XAttention
 095 (block pruning) (Xu et al., 2025) and DuoAttention (head-level cache partitioning) (Xiao et al.,
 096 2024b) demonstrate that structured sparsity can simultaneously reduce computation and memory
 097 demands while maintaining model accuracy. A complementary line of algorithmic work targets the
 098 KV cache, which is a major bottleneck in autoregressive decoding due to its memory bandwidth
 099 demands. By distinguishing retrieval-critical heads from local ones, or by compressing and offloading
 100 cache states, methods like ShadowKV (Sun et al., 2024) can reduce GPU memory usage by 2–6x and
 101 boost throughput on million-token contexts by up to 3x. The plug-and-play nature of these techniques
 102 makes them highly suitable for real-world inference scenarios.

103 **System-Level and Hardware-Aware Optimizations.** Orthogonal to algorithmic modifications,
 104 system-level optimizations aim to maximize hardware utilization through efficient kernel imple-
 105 mentations. The xFormers library (Lefaudeux et al., 2022) provides a collection of modular, high-
 106 performance kernels. A pivotal contribution in this area is FlashAttention (Dao et al., 2022), which
 107 introduced I/O-aware tiling to minimize the high cost of GPU HBM access, a technique later refined
 in FlashAttention-2 (Dao, 2023) and FlashAttention-3 (Shah et al., 2024). In parallel, quantization

108 offers another path to acceleration. I-BERT (Kim et al., 2021) first showed the feasibility of INT8
 109 quantization for RoBERTa-like models. More recently, SageAttention (Zhang et al., 2024b;a; 2025a)
 110 generalized this by demonstrating that a full INT8 attention implementation can outperform FP16
 111 FlashAttention variants in both speed and accuracy, functioning as a drop-in replacement.

112 In summary, the pursuit of efficient Transformers has spurred innovations across three complementary
 113 fronts: algorithmic sparsification, KV cache management, and low-level kernel optimization. These
 114 approaches are largely orthogonal, and their combination can yield additive performance gains.
 115

117 3 PRELIMINARIES

119 **Full attention.** Self-attention projects inputs into queries, keys, and values $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times d_k}$,
 120 computes scores $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top$, compute attention weight $\mathbf{W} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{S}/\sqrt{d_k})$, and outputs
 121 $\mathbf{O} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{V}$. The score computation scales as $\mathcal{O}(L^2 d_k)$ and dominates for long sequences.

122 **Windowed attention.** Attention computation is reduced by restricting each query q_i to a subset of
 123 keys $\mathcal{J}_i \subset \{0, \dots, L-1\}$ via masking: $\mathbf{S}'_{ij} = \mathbf{S}_{ij}$ if $j \in \mathcal{J}_i$ and $\mathbf{S}'_{ij} = -\infty$ otherwise. A common
 124 design uses a fixed attention sink of length s and a local window of size k : $\mathcal{J}_i = \{0, \dots, s-1\} \cup \{j \mid$
 125 $\max(s, i-k+1) \leq j \leq i\}$. This reduces computed scores from L^2 to roughly $L(s+k)$, yielding
 126 linear complexity in L .

127 **Quantization.** Quantization accelerates matrix multiplication (e.g., $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$) by mapping high-
 128 precision matrices to low-precision integers via a quantizer ψ and de-quantizer ψ^{-1} . With $(\delta_A, \hat{\mathbf{A}}) =$
 129 $\psi(\mathbf{A})$ and $(\delta_B, \hat{\mathbf{B}}) = \psi(\mathbf{B})$, we compute $\hat{\mathbf{C}} = \hat{\mathbf{A}}\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ using integer arithmetic and recover $\mathbf{C} \approx$
 130 $\psi_{\delta_A, \delta_B}^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{C}}) = \hat{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \delta_A \delta_B$. Quantization granularity controls which elements share a scale δ ; for
 131 symmetric INT8, $\delta_{\text{group}} = \max(|\mathbf{X}_{\text{group}}|)/127$. Beyond per-tensor scaling, per-block quantization
 132 partitions matrices into blocks and assigns a scale per block, improving fidelity to local statistics with
 133 modest overhead.

135 For Attention, quantization acts on the matrix-multiplication operands: (i) $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top$ path via quantized
 136 \mathbf{Q} and \mathbf{K} ; (ii) $\mathbf{W}\mathbf{V}$ path via quantized \mathbf{V} and quantized attention weights \mathbf{W} . Attention quantization
 137 enables faster computation and memory access.

139 4 METHOD

141 We propose **BMAAttn**, a **B**lock-aligned **M**ixed-precision **A**ttention framework for efficient LLM
 142 inference. BMAAttn allocates precision heterogeneously across the attention map while maintaining a
 143 regular compute pattern compatible with GPU kernels such as FlashAttention (Dao, 2023). It uses
 144 high precision for short-range dependencies, low precision for mid- to long-range interactions, and
 145 sparsity (0-bit) for negligible links. Precision boundaries adapt with sequence length via simple affine
 146 functions and are calibrated offline using saliency-weighted metrics and a layer-adaptive retention
 147 regularizer.

149 4.1 BLOCK-ALIGNED MIXED-PRECISION ATTENTION

151 **Motivation.** Scaling the context window of LLMs is fundamentally constrained by the $\mathcal{O}(L^2)$ cost
 152 of self-attention in both computation and memory movement. At the same time, two consistent
 153 empirical observations make *uniform* precision and sparsity assignments intrinsically suboptimal:
 154 (i) *Distance heterogeneity*: attention mass and its semantic criticality decay with causal distance.
 155 Short-range links encode fine-grained lexical/syntactic cues, whereas mid/long-range links contribute
 156 broader discourse-level signals. (ii) *Head heterogeneity*: different heads specialize in distinct ranges
 157 and patterns (local vs. global). These factors imply that a one-size-fits-all policy (e.g., a single sparsity
 158 pattern or a single bit-width across the entire map) either wastes compute on unimportant regions or
 159 harms accuracy by underrepresenting crucial ones.

160 However, simply making precision adaptive at a fine granularity is not sufficient: *naive* token-level
 161 mixed precision or unaligned per-row cutoffs introduce irregular memory access, warp divergence,
 and scattered reads/writes that nullify theoretical savings on modern GPUs. Similarly, fixed, hand-

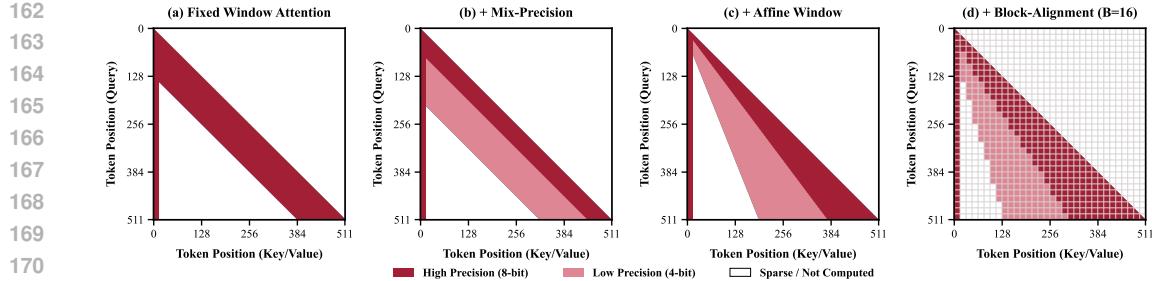


Figure 1: Comparison of different attention window schemes. (a) Window Attention: Fixed-size sliding window. (b) Constant Precision Tiers: High and low precision regions. (c) Affine Window: Adaptive precision boundaries based on context length. (d) Block-Alignment: Attention is divided into contiguous blocks, optimizing hardware efficiency.

tuned distance cutoffs fail to generalize across varying context lengths; a window suitable at $L = 4\text{K}$ can be over- or under-aggressive at $L = 128\text{K}$.

Distance-indexed Three-zone Decomposition. As shown in Figure 1, we partition each head’s attention into three monotone bands along the causal distance: a *high-precision* (HP) zone for short-range, high-saliency links; a *low-precision* (LP) zone for mid/long-range links that tolerate lower bit-width; and a *sparse* (SP) zone where negligible links are skipped entirely. This tri-partition balances accuracy (HP), efficiency via cheaper arithmetic (LP), and outright pruning (SP). It also naturally accommodates *sink tokens* (Xiao et al., 2023), which we place at the sequence front and always keep in HP to stabilize retrieval over extremely long contexts.

Zone Decomposition by Affine Window. Let L_{seq} be the full sequence length, L_{sink} the number of fixed-position sink tokens at the sequence front, and $L_{\text{ctx}} = L_{\text{seq}} - L_{\text{sink}}$ the non-sink context length. Under strict causality, the query–key distance is $d_{i,j} = i - j \geq 0$. For each head h , we define two affine thresholds that control the extent of the high-precision (HP) and low-precision (LP) regions:

$$d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} = w_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} \cdot L_{\text{ctx}} + b_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}, \quad d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} = w_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} \cdot L_{\text{ctx}} + b_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}, \quad (1)$$

with the ordering constraint $0 \leq d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} \leq d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} \leq L_{\text{ctx}}$. The scaling coefficients $w_{\{\text{hp}, \text{lp}\}}^{(h)}$ govern proportional growth with L_{ctx} , while the biases $b_{\{\text{hp}, \text{lp}\}}^{(h)}$ provide head-specific offsets. These parameters are *fixed per head* after offline calibration and deterministically produce context-aware thresholds at inference for any L_{ctx} . The thresholds in Eqs. equation 1 partition the causal attention into three disjoint regions by distance: (i) HP: $0 \leq d_{i,j} \leq d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}$; (ii) LP: $d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} < d_{i,j} \leq d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}$; (iii) Sparse: $d_{i,j} > d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}$. Sink tokens reside at the first L_{sink} key positions and are always treated as HP for any query, independent of their distances; they are excluded from the dynamic partitioning governed by $d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}$ and $d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}$.

Block-Aligned Mixed-Precision Window. To realize the affine windows efficiently on modern GPUs, we convert the continuous thresholds into *block-aligned* boundaries and execute attention in tiles that match hardware-friendly memory layouts (FlashAttention-compatible). Let B be the block size. We snap the affine thresholds to the nearest lower multiple of B :

$$D_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} = \lfloor d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} \rfloor_B, \quad D_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} = \lfloor d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} \rfloor_B, \quad (2)$$

where $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor_B$ denotes *floor-to-multiple-of-B* rounding. The resulting zone definition is:

$$\mathcal{Z}_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} = \{(i, j) \mid j < i, \text{ sink}(j) \text{ or } 0 \leq d_{i,j} \leq D_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}\}, \quad (3)$$

$$\mathcal{Z}_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} = \{(i, j) \mid j < i, d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} < d_{i,j} \leq D_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}\}, \quad (4)$$

$$\mathcal{Z}_{\text{sp}}^{(h)} = \{(i, j) \mid j < i, d_{i,j} > D_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}\}, \quad (5)$$

and the per-row pattern is staircase-shaped because $d_{i,j} = i - j$ increases monotonically along the causal axis. We adopt mixed precision at the tile granularity: HP: 8-bit quantization for Q/K/V

216 Table 1: Comparison of performance metrics during pruning of long-range attention.
217

218 Remove Ratio	219 Cos Sim	220 RMSE	221 Relative L1	222 ASC	223 RDW	224 IPW	225 Ppl. (FP=7.458)
220 95%	221 99.92%	222 0.1186	223 0.0887	224 0.129	225 0.9714	226 0.9123	227 44.3892
221 90%	222 99.95%	223 0.0881	224 0.0616	225 0.103	226 0.9223	227 0.8880	228 21.4239
222 80%	223 99.98%	224 0.0594	225 0.0368	226 0.087	227 0.8378	228 0.7955	229 16.9872
223 70%	224 99.99%	225 0.0303	226 0.0181	227 0.056	228 0.6945	229 0.6131	230 14.2538

225 tensors and for post-softmax attention weights used in value aggregation. LP: 4-bit quantization for
226 Q/K/V tensors and for post-softmax attention weights. SP: 0-bit (skipped). Because computation
227 in each tile has the same precision, we can efficiently use the tile-by-tile computation pattern of
228 FlashAttention (Dao, 2023) without mask.

230

4.2 SALIENCY-WEIGHTED CALIBRATION

231 We calibrate the per-head affine parameters $\Theta = \{(w_{hp}^{(h)}, b_{hp}^{(h)}, w_{lp}^{(h)}, b_{lp}^{(h)})\}$ offline on a small calibration
232 set. The objective is to choose the *smallest* windows (i.e., most compressed boundaries) that
233 satisfy saliency-retention constraints defined below.

234

4.2.1 SALIENCY-WEIGHTED METRIC

235 **Motivation.** Standard reconstruction metrics (e.g., MSE, RMSE, cosine similarity) and attention
236 coverage are dominated by short-range pairs and thus are insensitive to errors that arise from pruning
237 or over-compressing rare yet semantically crucial long-range links. Under strict causal masking,
238 the number of query-key pairs at distance d is proportional to $L - d$ for a sequence of length L ,
239 so small d overwhelmingly contributes to any unweighted aggregate. As a result, large changes to
240 a small set of long-range entries barely shift the global metric even when they substantially affect
241 model behavior. As shown in Table 1, conventional metrics like MSE, Cosine Similarity, RMSE, and
242 attention score coverage (ASC) remain mostly unchanged even as model performance deteriorates
243 significantly. This shows that these metrics overlook critical long-range dependencies. To counter
244 this strong locality bias, we should reweight attention statistics by a distance-dependent saliency, so
245 that calibration criteria reflect the perceptual importance of long-range dependencies.

246 **Saliency construction.** For a given layer l and head h , let $\mathbf{W}^{(l,h)} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L}$ be the attention weight
247 under causal masking, and let $d_{i,j} = i - j \geq 0$. We define a saliency matrix

$$248 S_{i,j}^{(l,h)} = \varphi^{(l,h)}(d_{i,j}) \cdot \mathbf{W}_{i,j}^{(l,h)}, \quad (6)$$

249 where $\varphi^{(l,h)}(d)$ compensates for the empirical rarity of long-range pairs. We design two forms:

$$250 \text{RDW (Relative-Distance Weighting): } \varphi_{\text{RDW}}^{(l,h)}(d) = \frac{d}{L_{\text{ctx}}}, \quad (7)$$

$$251 \text{IPW (Inverse-Propensity Weighting): } \varphi_{\text{IPW}}^{(l,h)}(d) = \frac{L_{\text{ctx}}}{p^{(l,h)}(d) + \epsilon}. \quad (8)$$

252 As shown in Figure 2, $p^{(l,h)}(d)$ is the attention weight distribution estimated on the calibration set
253 with distance bucketing¹, and $\epsilon > 0$ is a small constant for numerical stability. RDW is a lightweight
254 heuristic; IPW is a importance-sampling correction.

255

4.2.2 LAYER-ADAPTIVE RETENTION REGULARIZER

256 **Motivation.** While a saliency-based metric captures attention importance at the head level, it
257 overlooks the heterogeneous sensitivity of layers. Prior work shows that shallow layers are more
258 fragile under pruning and quantization, as they preserve low-level token information, whereas deeper
259 layers are more robust due to redundancy in higher-level representations (Huang et al., 2025). This

¹See Appendix H for details to compute attention weight distribution across distances.

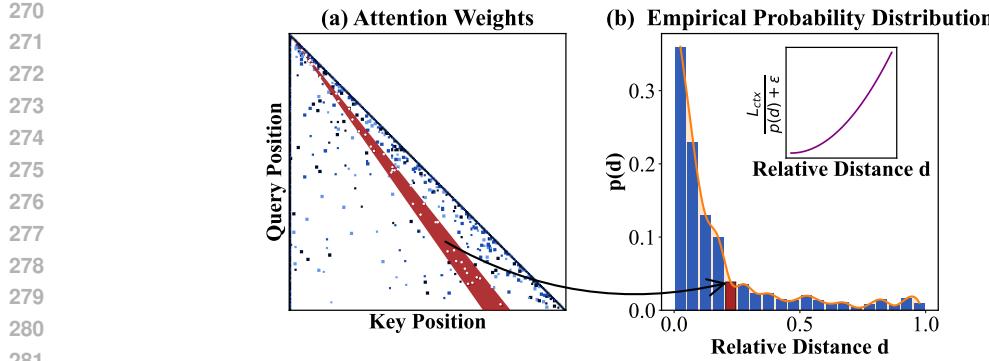


Figure 2: Attention weight and its attention weight distribution.

asymmetry makes uniform retention targets suboptimal. We therefore introduce a layer-adaptive retention regularizer.

Method. We design the regularizer as a depth-dependent constraint on saliency energy. Instead of defining the schedule via absolute start and end points, we re-parameterize it using two more intuitive hyperparameters: a global average retention target $\mu_\Gamma \in (0, 1]$ and a linear decay factor $\delta \geq 0$. This provides direct control over the overall compression level and its distribution across layers.

Formally, let L_{total} be the total number of layers in the model, indexed from $l = 0$ to $L_{\text{total}} - 1$. The layer-specific retention target Γ_l is defined as:

$$\Gamma_l = \mu_\Gamma + \delta \left(\frac{L_{\text{total}} - 1}{2} - l \right). \quad (9)$$

This formulation ensures that the average retention across all layers is exactly μ_Γ , since the term $(\frac{L_{\text{total}} - 1}{2} - l)$ has a mean of zero over $l \in [0, L_{\text{total}} - 1]$. The decay factor δ controls the slope of the linear schedule: a positive δ assigns a higher-than-average retention target to shallow layers (where $l < (L_{\text{total}} - 1)/2$) and a lower-than-average target to deep layers (where $l > (L_{\text{total}} - 1)/2$), thus enforcing our desired conservative-to-aggressive policy.

4.2.3 CONSTRAINED CALIBRATION ALGORITHM

Having defined the saliency metric and the layer-adaptive retention regularizer, we now describe how the affine window parameters are calibrated. Let $E_{l,h}$ denote the total saliency energy of head h in layer l , aggregated over calibration data:

$$E_{l,h} = \sum_{i,j} S_{i,j}^{(l,h)}. \quad (10)$$

For each head (l, h) , the affine window parameters (w, b) must satisfy the constraint imposed by the retention schedule:

$$\sum_{d \leq d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}} S_{i,j}^{(l,h)} \geq \Gamma_l \cdot E_{l,h}, \quad (11)$$

and analogously for the high-precision zone with a more strict target $\gamma \cdot \Gamma_l \cdot E_{l,h}$, where $0 < \gamma < 1$. The goal is to determine the optimal per-head parameters $\Theta = \{(w_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}, b_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}, w_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}, b_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}) \mid \forall (l, h)\}$ for all heads (l, h) in the model.

For each head, we formulate a constrained optimization problem:

$$\min_{w_{\text{hp}}, b_{\text{hp}}, w_{\text{lp}}, b_{\text{lp}}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S}}[d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S}}[d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}] \quad (12)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_{d \leq d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}} S_{i,j}^{(l,h)} \geq \Gamma_l \cdot E_{l,h}, \quad \sum_{d \leq d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}} S_{i,j}^{(l,h)} \geq \gamma \cdot \Gamma_l \cdot E_{l,h}, \quad (13)$$

324 where γ is a hyperparameter controlling the span of HP vs. LP, and Γ_l is the retention target imposed
 325 by the layer-adaptive retention regularizer. The detailed offline calibration algorithm is shown in
 326 Appendix A.

328 5 EXPERIMENTS

330 5.1 SETUP

332 **Models.** We evaluate `BMAttn` across three representative large language models (LLMs): Qwen2.5
 333 (7B) (Qwen et al., 2025), Llama3 (8B) (Dubey et al., 2024), and GLM4 (9B) (GLM et al., 2024).
 334 These models span different architectures and training regimes, providing a diverse testbed for
 335 assessing the performance and efficiency of our method.

336 **Datasets and Metrics.** Our evaluation spans both standard and long-context benchmarks: WikiText-
 337 2 (Merity et al., 2016) for language modeling perplexity, MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020) for multi-
 338 task understanding, LongBench (Bai et al., 2023) for long-context reasoning, and RULER (Hsieh
 339 et al., 2024) for reasoning and reading comprehension. Metrics include perplexity (lower is better),
 340 accuracy, and task-specific scores, depending on the nature of the task.

341 **Baselines.** We compare `BMAttn` with several state-of-the-art attention mechanisms, including
 342 FlashAttention-2 (Dao, 2023), SageAttention (Zhang et al., 2024b), and SageAttention2 (Zhang et al.,
 343 2024a). These baselines are widely regarded as strong implementations in the efficient attention
 344 space and provide a robust comparison across both accuracy and efficiency.

346 **Implementation Details.** For quantization, we employ a hybrid scheme where Q , K , and W are
 347 quantized per block, while V is quantized per channel. This approach ensures efficient block-aligned
 348 execution while preserving accuracy in the output representations. In all experiments, we set the
 349 average retention rate $\mu_\Gamma = 0.8$, decay factor $\delta = 0.01$, and $\gamma = 0.9$. For metric, we mainly report
 350 the results using IPW. We evaluated our model on a hardware device featuring a 1 Tbps memory
 351 bandwidth. This device boasts a computation capacity of 83 TFLOPs (16-bit precision), alongside
 352 660.6 TOPS 8-bit precision) and 1321.2 TOPS (4-bit precision). Additionally, the code was developed
 353 based on the open-source implementation of SageAttention2.

354 5.2 ACCURACY RESULT

356 Table 2: Accuracy and Efficiency Comparison of `BMAttn` with Baseline Methods.

Method	WikiText (Ppl.) \downarrow	MMLU (Acc.) \uparrow	LongBench \uparrow	RULER \uparrow	Avg. Bits	Speedup
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct (Qwen et al., 2025)						
FlashAttention-2 (Dao, 2023)	7.458	0.717	52.58	94.05	16	1.00 \times
SageAttention-8b (Zhang et al., 2024b)	7.463	0.716	52.69	93.59	8	2.00 \times
SageAttention2-4b (Zhang et al., 2024a)	7.582	0.702	51.70	88.67	4	2.93 \times
<code>BMAttn</code>	7.461	0.716	52.67	94.01	5.75	3.26 \times
Llama3.1-8B-Instruct (Dubey et al., 2024)						
FlashAttention-2 (Dao, 2023)	7.217	0.629	54.09	91.27	16	1.00 \times
SageAttention-8b (Zhang et al., 2024b)	7.223	0.627	54.07	90.00	8	2.00 \times
SageAttention2-4b (Zhang et al., 2024a)	7.461	0.598	52.89	85.24	4	2.93 \times
<code>BMAttn</code>	7.220	0.627	54.00	91.15	5.99	3.11 \times
GLM-4-9B-Chat (GLM et al., 2024)						
FlashAttention-2 (Dao, 2023)	11.937	0.682	53.53	92.33	16	1.00 \times
SageAttention-8b (Zhang et al., 2024b)	11.997	0.680	53.19	92.28	8	2.00 \times
SageAttention2-4b (Zhang et al., 2024a)	12.219	0.643	50.38	88.96	4	2.93 \times
<code>BMAttn</code>	11.965	0.681	53.26	92.26	5.82	3.20 \times

375 In Table 2, we present the results comparing `BMAttn` with the baselines. The findings highlight that
 376 `BMAttn` achieves competitive accuracy with state-of-the-art methods, while delivering substantial
 377 improvements in computational efficiency across all the models and datasets. Specifically, for
 Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, `BMAttn` maintains near-lossless accuracy compared to the FlashAttention-

2 and SageAttention-8b, while achieving a $3.26\times$ speedup. In addition, BMAttn outperforms SageAttention2-4b, both in terms of accuracy (52.67 vs. 51.70 on LongBench) and speedup (3.26 \times vs. 2.93 \times). These results validate the effectiveness of BMAttn in balancing high accuracy with significant efficiency gains, demonstrating its potential as a robust solution for large language models.

5.3 EFFICIENCY RESULT

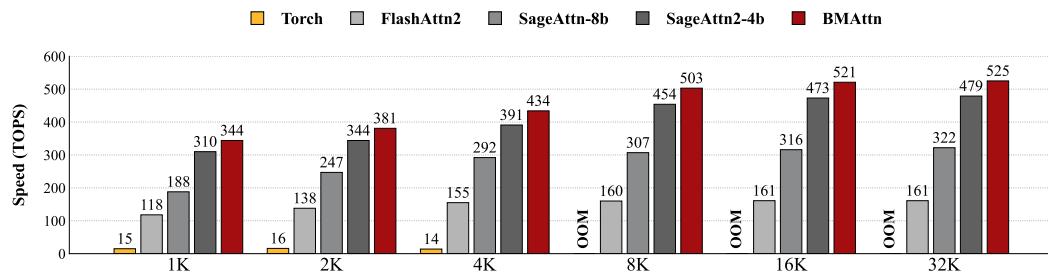


Figure 3: Lossless Efficiency comparison between **BMAttn** and baselines.

Lossless Efficiency. We first evaluate efficiency under a lossless setting using `headdim=128` and causal masking (Vaswani et al., 2017). As shown in Fig. 3, BMAttn achieves consistent speedups across varying sequence lengths, reaching $1.63\times$ over SageAttention-8b and $1.10\times$ over SageAttention2-4b. Notably, SageAttention2-4b operates at lower precision and incurs accuracy degradation, whereas BMAttn preserves near-lossless accuracy. Furthermore, as the sequence length increases, the acceleration factor of BMAttn continues to grow, which indicates that BMAttn is able to exploit the increased context effectively. This behavior suggests that BMAttn becomes increasingly more efficient as the task scales, likely due to its ability to optimize memory access patterns and computational load through block-alignment and precision adaptation.

Table 3: Aggressive efficiency trade-off on LongBench. BMAttn achieves higher acceleration factors while sustaining accuracy. Green values indicate performance better than the full-precision (FP) model, while red values indicate performance worse than SageAttn2-4b.

Metric	μ_T ($\delta = 0.01, \gamma = 0.9$)											
	0.90	0.85	0.80	0.75	0.70	0.65	0.60	0.55	0.50	0.45	0.40	0.35
LongBench	53.56	53.36	53.13	52.89	52.67	52.49	52.32	52.21	51.86	51.15	50.78	49.09
Avg. Bits	7.24	6.91	6.57	6.12	5.75	5.45	5.05	4.64	4.25	3.79	3.36	2.90
Speedup	$2.69\times$	$2.82\times$	$2.96\times$	$3.12\times$	$3.26\times$	$3.54\times$	$3.81\times$	$4.14\times$	$4.53\times$	$5.01\times$	$5.63\times$	$6.45\times$

Aggressive Efficiency. We further explore aggressive efficiency by progressively lowering retention targets. In particular, the results in Tab. 3 reveal three important insights. First, by progressively reducing the average bitwidth (from 7.24 down to 2.90), BMAttn still sustains competitive LongBench scores above 52 under $\sim 4\times$ acceleration, clearly outperforming SageAttention2-4b (51.70 @ 2.93 \times). This highlights its robustness in balancing accuracy and efficiency under moderate compression. Second, even in the extreme regime of $> 6\times$ acceleration, the model maintains scores around 49, which remain usable for many downstream tasks. This demonstrates that BMAttn can still provide meaningful outputs when deployed in highly resource-constrained environments. Third, the adaptive calibration mechanism plays a crucial role by ensuring a smooth trade-off: rather than suffering abrupt performance degradation when bitwidth decreases, the model achieves a more flexible and stable efficiency–accuracy balance. These observations confirm that BMAttn is not only effective at moderate acceleration but also resilient at extreme compression levels.

5.4 ABLATION STUDY

Affine Window Ablation. To demonstrate the importance of affine window mechanism, we compare our affine window against a fixed-window baseline, whose window sizes are calibrated

432
433 Table 4: Ablation on window design.

Seqlen	Fixed Window		Affine Window	
	RULER	Speedup	RULER	Speedup
4K	94.05	1.91 \times	94.01	3.26 \times
8K	92.39	3.12 \times	92.48	3.14 \times
16K	89.15	3.45 \times	91.89	3.24 \times
32K	44.69	5.45 \times	88.69	3.26 \times
64K	23.54	9.11 \times	83.20	3.29 \times
128K	6.88	19.81 \times	73.35	3.33 \times

434
435 Table 5: Ablation on SWM and LRR.

Model	SWM	LRR	LongBench \uparrow
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	\times	\times	46.53
	\times	\checkmark	50.06
	\checkmark	\times	52.01
Llama3.1-8B-Instruct	\checkmark	\checkmark	52.67
	\times	\times	48.66
	\times	\checkmark	51.38
Llama3.1-8B-Instruct	\checkmark	\times	53.04
	\checkmark	\checkmark	54.00

444 at 8k tokens and then held constant. Table 4 reveals the fundamental flaws of this rigid strategy, which is only effective when the inference context closely matches the calibration context. On short sequences (4k), the fixed window is overly conservative; it preserves a large region at high precision that contains little valuable information, leading to suboptimal compression and thus limited speedup (1.91 \times vs. 3.26 \times). Conversely, on long sequences (128k), the window becomes severely restrictive. It fails to cover essential long-range dependencies, causing a catastrophic accuracy collapse (RULER score of 6.88). In contrast, our affine window gracefully adapts to all scenarios, maintaining robust accuracy while delivering a consistent $\sim 3.3 \times$ speedup. These results confirm that dynamic affine scaling is essential for building a generalizable and efficient model.

453 **Components Ablation.** The ablation in Table 5 clearly demonstrates the necessity of both the 454 saliency-weighted metric (SWM) and the layer-adaptive retention regularizer (LRR). Without LRR, 455 the model suffers a severe drop in LongBench score (46.53), confirming that uniform retention 456 targets are ill-suited given the heterogeneous sensitivity of different layers. Introducing LRR alone 457 already restores performance to 50.06, as depth-aware allocation prevents shallow layers from 458 collapsing under aggressive pruning. SWM provides complementary benefits: by reweighting 459 attention calibration toward semantically crucial long-range pairs, it recovers additional accuracy 460 (52.01). When combined, SWM+LRR achieves the best results, reaching 52.67 on Qwen2.5-7B 461 and 54.00 on Llama3.1-8B. This synergy reflects their distinct yet aligned roles—SWM corrects 462 locality bias at the head level, while LRR counteracts asymmetry across depth—together producing a 463 balanced strategy that generalizes across architectures.

464 **Calibration Cost.** In our method, the calibration process involves offline optimization of affine 465 window parameters for each attention head, which requires a one-time computation. On the Qwen2.5- 466 7B-Instruct model, the peak GPU memory usage during calibration is 14,362 MB, and the total 467 calibration time is 1 minute and 15 seconds. This calibration cost is a one-time expense that occurs 468 during the model setup phase and does not affect the subsequent inference time, which remains 469 efficient due to the optimizations in precision and sparsity handling during the attention computation. 470 This calibration time and memory usage are reasonable given the significant improvements in 471 computational efficiency and accuracy that BMAttn delivers during inference.

472
473

6 CONCLUSION

474 In this work, we presented BMAttn, a block-aligned mixed-precision attention framework that 475 reconciles the tension between fine-grained adaptivity and hardware efficiency. By decomposing 476 attention into high-, low-, and zero-precision zones, and aligning them with blockwise affine windows, 477 BMAttn achieves structured efficiency while preserving critical dependencies. Our saliency-weighted 478 calibration and layer-adaptive regularization further ensure that compression decisions align with 479 both semantic importance and layer sensitivity. Extensive experiments across WikiText, MMLU, 480 LongBench, and RULER demonstrate that BMAttn consistently outperforms state-of-the-art base- 481 lines, delivering up to 3.3 \times acceleration without accuracy loss and sustaining usable performance 482 even at $> 6 \times$ compression. Future work may explore integrating BMAttn with complementary 483 compression strategies (e.g., KV-cache quantization, structured sparsity, low-rank adaptation), extending 484 adaptive calibration to dynamic online settings, and co-designing mixed-precision schedules with 485 hardware-aware compilers.

486 ETHICS STATEMENT
487488 This work focuses on improving the efficiency of large language models through the BMAttn mixed-
489 precision attention mechanism. No human subjects, sensitive data, or privacy issues were involved in
490 the development or testing of the model. Additionally, the methodology does not introduce any new
491 ethical concerns regarding discrimination, bias, or harmful insights. The application of BMAttn is
492 intended to enhance model performance and efficiency, with no intention to promote malicious or
493 unethical use. We have adhered to standard research integrity practices, ensuring transparency and
494 fairness throughout the development of this method.495
496 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT
497498 To ensure the reproducibility of our findings, detailed implementation instructions for BMAttn be
499 found in Sec. 5.1. Additionally, the source code will be publicly available upon acceptance. These
500 measures are intended to facilitate the verification and replication of our results by other researchers in
501 the field.502
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620

APPENDIX

A OFFLINE CALIBRATION ALGORITHM

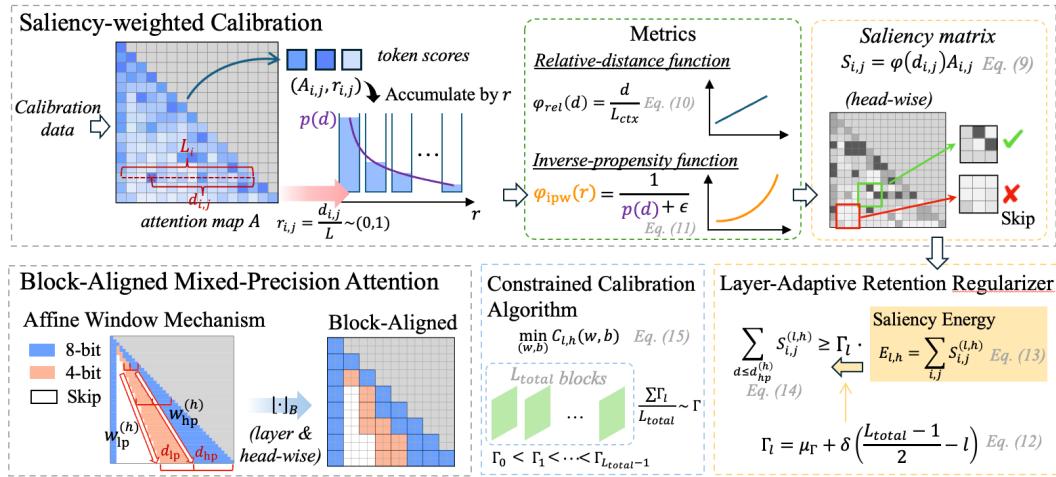


Figure A1: Framework of BMAttn.

Fig. A1 illustrates the calibration algorithm of proposed BMAttn. The complete procedure is summarized in Algorithm 1.

648 **Algorithm 1** Offline Calibration of Affine Windows

649 **Require:** Pretrained LLM, calibration dataset \mathcal{D} , retention schedule $\{\Gamma_l\}$

650 **Ensure:** Optimal affine parameters Θ^*

651 1: **for** each layer l **do**

652 2: Compute retention budget Γ_l

653 3: **for** each head h **do**

654 4: Collect attention maps $A^{(l,h)}$ on \mathcal{D}

655 5: Compute saliency matrix $S^{(l,h)}$ via chosen reweighting function

656 6: Derive per-head energy $E_{l,h}$

657 7: Solve constrained search for (w, b) under Eq. (7)–(8)

658 8: **end for**

659 9: **end for**

660 10: **return** Θ^*

661

662 **B ONLINE INFERENCE**

663

664

665 During inference, no further optimization is required. For each query token q_i and each head (l, h) ,
666 the model executes:

667 1. **Parameter retrieval.** Load $(w_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}, b_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}, w_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}, b_{\text{lp}}^{(h)})$ from Θ^* .

668

669 2. **Dynamic window computation.** Given context length L_{ctx} , compute

670

671
$$d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} = w_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} L_{\text{ctx}} + b_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}, \quad d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} = w_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} L_{\text{ctx}} + b_{\text{lp}}^{(h)}.$$

672

673 3. **Structured execution.** Apply custom attention operator with three regions: high-precision
674 (e.g., INT8), low-precision (e.g., INT4), and sparse (pruned).

675 Notably, during inference, we bypass traditional masking and instead compute the necessary token in-
676 dices directly. This reduces the overhead typically associated with mask-based attention mechanisms.
677 The arithmetic overhead per head is $O(1)$, and while the asymptotic complexity of attention remains
678 $O(L_{\text{ctx}}^2)$, the constants are significantly reduced due to the mixed-precision computations and struc-
679 tured sparsity. This approach ensures that inference efficiency is maximized, without compromis-
680 ing the accuracy maintained by the offline calibration phase.

681

682 **C COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS**

683

684

685 The proposed framework introduces negligible additional cost during inference, while the offline
686 calibration stage remains tractable.

687 **Offline calibration.** For each calibration sample, computing attention maps requires $O(L_{\text{ctx}}^2)$
688 operations, where L_{ctx} is the context length. Aggregating over $|\mathcal{D}|$ calibration samples and H
689 attention heads yields an overall complexity of

690

$$O(|\mathcal{D}| \cdot H \cdot L_{\text{ctx}}^2).$$

691 Since calibration is a one-time procedure performed on a small held-out dataset, this cost is amortized
692 and does not affect deployment.

693

694 **Online inference.** During deployment, the only additional computation beyond standard attention
695 is the evaluation of two affine functions per head,

696

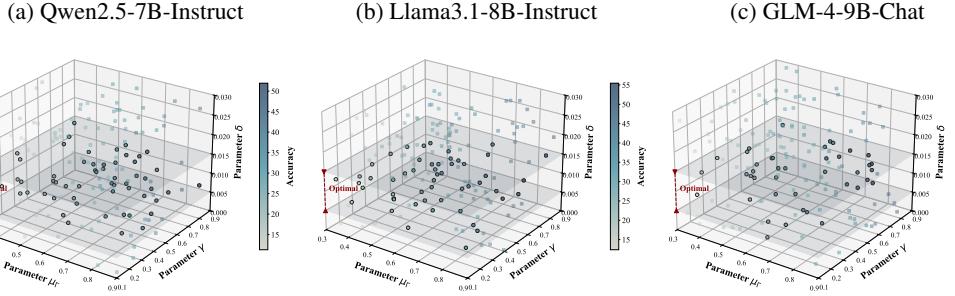
$$d_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} = w_{\text{hp}}^{(h)} L_{\text{ctx}} + b_{\text{hp}}^{(h)}, \quad d_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} = w_{\text{lp}}^{(h)} L_{\text{ctx}} + b_{\text{lp}}^{(h)},$$

697

698 which incurs $O(1)$ cost per head. The asymptotic complexity of the attention operator remains
699 $O(L_{\text{ctx}}^2)$, but the constant factors are substantially reduced due to (i) lower-precision arithmetic in the
700 low-precision zone and (ii) structured sparsity in the pruned zone.

702 **Summary.** The framework thus preserves the theoretical complexity of transformer attention,
 703 while delivering empirical speedups through reduced constants. The one-time offline calibration is
 704 modest and negligible compared to pretraining or fine-tuning, making the approach fully practical for
 705 deployment.

707 D HYPERPARAMETER ANALYSIS



720 Figure A2: The interplay between hyperparameters μ_Γ , γ , and δ determines model accuracy across
 721 Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, Llama3.1-8B-Instruct, and GLM-4-9B-Chat. The plot shows accuracy (color)
 722 as a function of the three parameters. The optimal zone for δ ([0.005, 0.015]), marked by the planes,
 723 acts as a performance amplifier. Runs within this zone (circles, \circ) achieve higher accuracy than those
 724 outside (squares, \square) given similar μ_Γ and γ values.

726 Our framework introduces a small set of hyperparameters that govern the trade-off between efficiency
 727 and accuracy. The regularizer requires hyperparameters δ and μ_Γ that determine the decay schedule
 728 of layer-wise retention:

$$729 \quad \Gamma_l = \mu_\Gamma + \delta \left(\frac{L_{total} - 1}{2} - l \right). \quad (14)$$

732 Larger δ enforces stricter retention in shallow layers. In practice, we find that $\delta \in [0.005, 0.015]$
 733 provide a good balance across models of different scales, as shown in Fig. A2. μ_Γ and γ decides the
 734 accuracy-efficiency trade-off, which is determined by the task and expectation.

735 **Practical robustness.** We observe that the framework is not highly sensitive to precise hyperpa-
 736 rameter tuning. The calibration procedure absorbs much of the variability by solving constrained
 737 optimization problems per head. This makes the method amenable to deployment without exhaustive
 738 grid search.

740 E MORE EXPERIMENTS

743 E.1 DETAILED RESULTS OF LONGBENCH

744 We details the results on LongBench (Bai et al., 2023) in Tab. A1. LongBench is a benchmark designed
 745 to evaluate large language models on long-context tasks, featuring 21 diverse tasks across English
 746 and Chinese. These tasks include single- and multi-document question answering, summarization,
 747 few-shot learning, and code completion, with context lengths averaging in the thousands of words.
 748 LongBench emphasizes real-world scenarios, testing models’ abilities to reason and understand over
 749 extended input sequences.

751 E.2 DETAILED RESULTS OF RULER

753 We details the results on RULER (Hsieh et al., 2024) in Tab. A2. RULER is a newly introduced
 754 benchmark by NVIDIA designed to evaluate large language models (LLMs) on tasks involving
 755 long-context dependencies. It includes 4 main categories and 13 sub-tasks such as multi-hop tracing,
 retrieval, and aggregation, with input lengths ranging from 4K to 128K tokens. These tasks are

756
 757 Table A1: Comparison of different attention methods on real-world LongBench tasks using the
 758 Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct model. The best and second-best results are highlighted in **bold** and underlined
 759 formats, respectively.

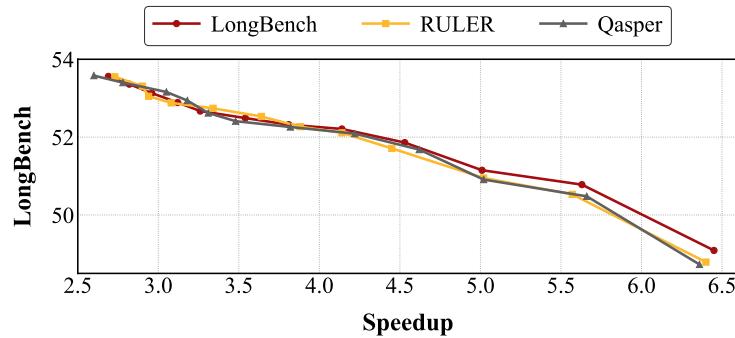
760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 Method	Single-Doc QA		Multi-Doc QA		Summarization		Few-shot Learning		Synthetic		Code			
	<i>MfieldQA-en</i>	<i>Qasper</i>	<i>HotpotQA</i>	<i>2WikiQA</i>	<i>CovReport</i>	<i>MultiNews</i>	<i>TriviaQA</i>	<i>SMSum</i>	<i>TREC</i>	<i>PassageR-en</i>	<i>PassageCount</i>	<i>LCC</i>	<i>RepoBench-p</i>	Avg.
Full	45.83	37.03	56.08	49.62	32.50	22.48	89.32	39.61	74.00	100.0	6.00	66.62	64.45	52.58
SageAttention-8b	46.50	37.44	58.35	47.37	32.51	22.26	89.97	40.02	74.00	100.0	6.00	68.26	62.25	52.69
SageAttention2-4b	46.44	37.01	57.55	46.59	32.07	21.34	87.69	39.35	72.00	100.0	5.00	65.73	61.32	51.70
BMAttn	47.22	<u>37.18</u>	<u>57.82</u>	46.72	<u>32.42</u>	<u>22.13</u>	<u>88.32</u>	<u>39.74</u>	74.00	100.0	9.00	68.04	<u>62.16</u>	<u>52.67</u>

769
 770 Table A2: Accuracy comparison of different methods on Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct and sequence lengths
 771 on RULER. The best and second-best results are highlighted in **bold** and underlined formats, respec-
 772 tively.

773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 Input Len	4k	8k	16k	32k	64k	128k	Avg.
	Full	98.41	96.02	96.35	94.57	91.99	86.95
SageAttention-8b	96.35	<u>96.61</u>	96.48	95.10	91.75	<u>85.22</u>	93.59
SageAttention2-4b	96.32	95.99	91.84	90.21	81.17	76.49	88.67
BMAttn	98.02	96.81	<u>96.45</u>	95.17	92.02	85.59	94.01

781 challenging due to long-range dependencies, noisy inputs, and the need for models to handle complex
 782 reasoning. RULER emphasizes the concept of “effective context length,” which measures how well
 783 models maintain performance across increasing context sizes, making it highly relevant for testing
 784 attention approximations and compression methods in real-world scenarios.

785 E.3 CALIBRATION DATA ABLATION



800 Figure A3: Longbench results of different calibration data.

801
 802 Fig. A3 illustrates the performance of our method using different calibration datasets (LongBench,
 803 RULER, and Qasper), with LongBench as the baseline. At low compression rates, the performance
 804 remains consistent across all calibration datasets, indicating that our method is robust to the choice of
 805 calibration data. However, as compression increases, we observe a slight degradation in performance
 806 when using RULER or Qasper compared to LongBench. This degradation is minor, and the overall
 807 performance remains competitive. These results show that while LongBench provides a slight
 808 advantage at higher compression rates, our method remains robust and performs well across different
 809 calibration datasets, with minimal impact on performance at lower compression levels.

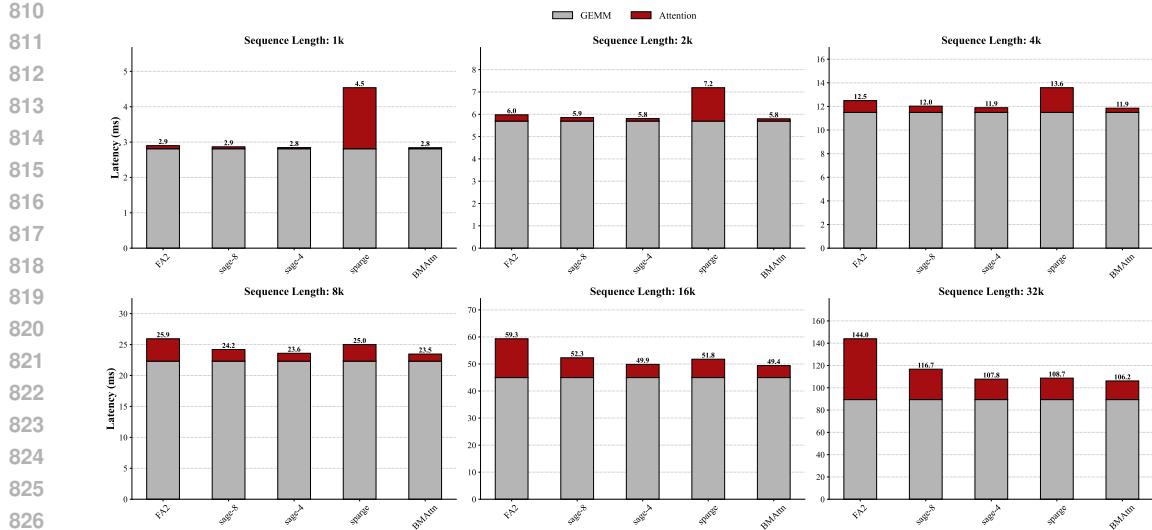


Figure A4: GEMM and Attention latency results of different methods.

Table A3: End to end latency \downarrow (ms) and speedup \uparrow results of different methods across different sequence lengths. The best results are highlighted in **bold** format.

Method	SeqLen											
	1k		2k		4k		8k		16k		32k	
	Latency	Speedup	Latency	Speedup	Latency	Speedup	Latency	Speedup	Latency	Speedup	Latency	Speedup
FA2	3.091	-	6.390	-	13.341	-	27.881	-	63.176	-	151.772	-
SA-8b	3.058	1.01 \times	6.265	1.02 \times	12.872	1.03 \times	26.148	1.06 \times	56.143	1.12 \times	124.496	1.21 \times
SA2-4b	3.036	1.01 \times	6.221	1.02 \times	12.738	1.04 \times	25.538	1.09 \times	53.718	1.17 \times	115.556	1.31 \times
SpARGE	4.729	0.65 \times	7.604	0.84 \times	14.433	0.92 \times	26.943	1.03 \times	55.627	1.13 \times	116.481	1.30 \times
BMAttn	3.033	1.01\times	6.210	1.02\times	12.699	1.05\times	25.413	1.09\times	53.268	1.18\times	113.949	1.33\times

E.4 MORE EFFICIENCY RESULTS

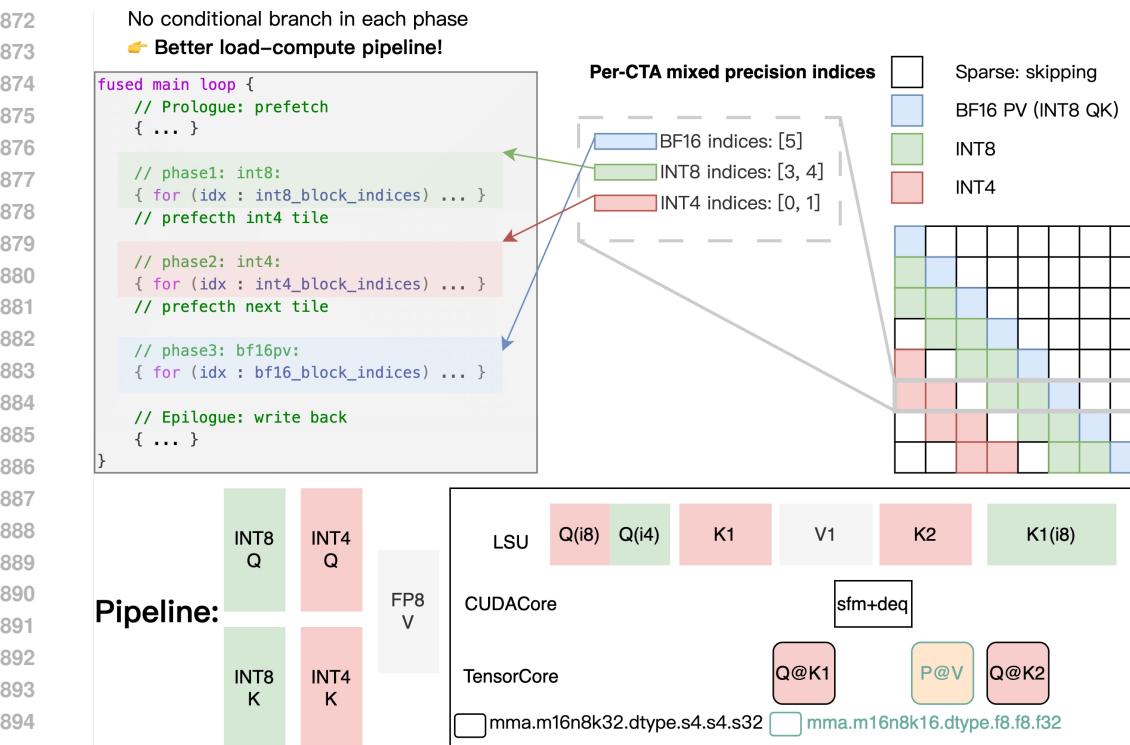
Fig. A4 shows the latency breakdown for GEMM and Attention components for each method at different sequence lengths. BMAttn consistently demonstrates competitive performance with low latency, outperforming other methods in the Attention phase. Tab. A3 presents the end-to-end latency and speedup results across methods and sequence lengths. For SpARGEAttn, we set $\text{topk}=0.5$ to ensure a similar accuracy with BMAttn. BMAttn shows significant improvements, achieving up to 1.33 \times speedup at sequence length 32k compared to FA2, with minimal latency across all sequence lengths. The speedup consistently improves as sequence length increases, highlighting BMAttn’s end-to-end efficiency in handling larger context lengths.

E.5 COMPARISON WITH SPARGEATTN

Tab. A4 presents a detailed comparison between our method, BMAttn, and SpARGEAttn. For SpARGEAttn, we set $\text{topk}=0.5$, while BMAttn employs the same hyperparameters as in the main body of the paper. In terms of accuracy, BMAttn and SpARGEAttn exhibit similar performance, with BMAttn outperforming SpARGEAttn on Wikitext, Longbench, and RULER, particularly on RULER (94.01 vs 93.88). However, BMAttn achieves a higher acceleration factor (3.26 \times vs 2.83 \times). Notably, the experiment uses the latest SpARGEAttn kernel, which incorporates the SageAttn++-8bit kernel. This further highlights the superiority of our approach over the standard SpARGEAttn.

864 Table A4: Accuracy and Efficiency Comparison of BMAttn with SparseAttn.
865

Method	WikiText (Ppl.) \downarrow	MMLU (Acc.) \uparrow	LongBench \uparrow	RULER \uparrow	Speedup
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct (Qwen et al., 2025)					
SparsAttn (topk=0.5) (Zhang et al. (2025b))	7.465	0.717	52.65	93.88	2.83 \times
BMAttn	7.461	0.716	52.67	94.01	3.26 \times

890 Figure A5: Kernel design.
891
892
893
894
895900

F KERNEL DESIGN

901

902 **Overview.** To achieve genuine wall-clock reduction, we introduce a unified, high-performance,
903 hand-written CUDA kernel that simultaneously supports the heterogeneous low-precision and sparsity
904 patterns described in BMAttn. The kernel ingests multiple activations for Q and K at different
905 precisions (with their associated per-block or per-channel scales), while V remains in FP8. Following
906 established practice, quantization may be fused into RMSNorm to minimize memory traffic and
907 quantization overhead. In contrast to mask-based approaches that materialize a dense attention-
908 score mask to encode sparsity and precision, our kernel traverses the mixed-precision pattern via
909 precomputed block indices and uniform per-CTA loop counts. This design avoids warp divergence
910 and gather/scatter entirely. Causality is enforced arithmetically in tile coordinates, not by referencing
911 any dense boolean tensor.

912

913 **Tile Geometry and Compute Units.** Our tiling and fusion strategy is FlashAttention-style. For
914 example, on RTX 4090, we employ block shapes $BLK_Q=128$, $BLK_K=64$ and $BLK_V=128$ to align
915 with quantization granularity and shared-memory capacity. Mixed-precision tiles are kept block-
916 aligned and are integer multiples of the intrinsic MMA shapes. At the PTX intrinsic level, we care-
917 fully select `mma.m16n8k16.dtype.s8.s8.s32`, `mma.m16n8k32.dtype.s4.s4.s32` and
918 `mma.m16n8k16.dtype.f8.f8.f32` instructions to saturate the tensor pipeline.

Seq Len	Latency (ms)		TOPS	
	Ours	SAGE	Ours	SAGE
32768	10.03	9.716	439.66	452.73
65536	38.34	37.43	458.92	470.13

Table A5: We set all blocks with same precision config: QK int8, PV fp8 to demonstrate indexing overhead.

Indexing-Driven Mixed-Precision Scheduling. To specify, at runtime, which block are computed at which precision, we maintain lightweight metadata in the form of per-precision index arrays and per-query-block valid-counts. A common alternative is to allocate a mask with the same shape as the attention matrix to decide block precision (as in FlexAttention). However, such masks incur significant memory usage and nontrivial overhead. Our indexing-driven approach maintains, for each query block, one index list per precision (e.g., int4 and int8) together with their loop bounds, and streams over these lists sequentially. Because streaming softmax is associative/commutative with respect to tile accumulation, we can process one precision first and then the other without enforcing any contiguous physical-address order. Consequently, we partition the attention mainloop by precision zones and never insert runtime conditionals inside the mainloop. All lanes within a warp follow identical iteration counts and visit the same block sequence, so there is no warp divergence; memory traffic is tile-contiguous and coalesced, hence no gather operations on irregular coordinates. Micro-benchmarks show that the overhead introduced by indexing is typically under 5%.

Online Quantization and Dequantization. Unlike full-precision attention, the QK accumulation proceeds in $\mathbb{S}32$. We therefore perform dequantization immediately before softmax by multiplying the integer scores with a tile-level scale: In our work, the quantization granularity is deliberately chosen to be block-aligned: all threads in a tile read the same scalar scale and apply the multiplication in local registers. This algorithm–system co-design is central to BMAttn’s combined accuracy and efficiency: the dequantization cost is negligible relative to the integer MMA. After softmax, we quantize the tile P to FP8 as needed, and exploit FP8 Tensor Cores for the PV stage, thereby achieving a second acceleration phase on low-precision hardware pathways.

Summary. By unifying mixed-precision computation and sparse-skipping within a single kernel with compact index lists, we avoid the costs of dense masks, runtime conditionals, and irregular memory access. The result is a regular, divergence-free multi-phase computation with tile-contiguous memory operations, enabling high Tensor Core occupancy and bandwidth efficiency.

G PROOFS

In this section, we provide the complete proof that the inverse probability weighting (IPW) method is an unbiased estimator in the context of attention mechanisms.

Theorem 1 (IPW is an Unbiased Estimator). *Let $A[i, j]$ be the attention score at position (i, j) in the attention matrix. Using the inverse probability weighting (IPW) method with the weight function $W_{IPW}(d) = \frac{1}{P(d)}$, the weighted attention score $\hat{A}[i, j]$ is an unbiased estimator of the true attention score $A[i, j]$. Specifically, we have:*

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{A}[i, j]] = A[i, j]$$

where $P(d)$ is the empirical probability distribution of attention distances d .

Proof. We start by defining the weighted attention score at position (i, j) as:

$$\hat{A}[i, j] = \frac{1}{P(d_{i,j})} \cdot A[i, j]$$

where $d_{i,j} = |i - j|$ is the distance between the query and key positions, and $P(d_{i,j})$ is the empirical probability distribution of distances d in the attention matrix A_{avg} .

972 To prove that $\hat{A}[i, j]$ is an unbiased estimator, we need to show that:
 973

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{A}[i, j]] = A[i, j]$$

974 Since $A[i, j]$ is a fixed known value, we can factor it out of the expectation:
 975

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{A}[i, j]] = A[i, j] \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{P(d_{i,j})}\right]$$

976 To prove that $\hat{A}[i, j]$ is unbiased, we need:
 977

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{P(d_{i,j})}\right] = 1$$

978 Since $P(d)$ is a probability distribution, it satisfies the normalization condition:
 979

$$\int_0^\infty P(d) dd = 1$$

980 Therefore, the expectation of the inverse of $P(d)$ is:
 981

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{P(d)}\right] = 1$$

982 Thus, we have:
 983

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{A}[i, j]] = A[i, j]$$

984 which proves that the IPW method is an unbiased estimator of the true attention score. \square
 985

986 **Corollary 1** (Significance of Unbiased Estimation). *The unbiasedness of the IPW estimator ensures
 987 that the weighted attention scores accurately reflect the true attention distribution. In particular,
 988 this correction accounts for the locality bias in the attention mechanism, making the estimator more
 989 robust in capturing long-range dependencies.*
 990

991 *Proof.* Since $\mathbb{E}[\hat{A}[i, j]] = A[i, j]$, the weighted attention matrix \hat{A} provides an unbiased estimate
 992 of the true attention matrix A . This ensures that any adjustments made to account for long-range
 993 dependencies, which are underrepresented in the raw attention matrix due to locality bias, are
 994 statistically valid. Consequently, the IPW estimator corrects for these biases and provides a more
 995 accurate reflection of the true information content across all token distances. \square
 996

1002 H ATTENTION WEIGHT DISTRIBUTION ACROSS RELATIVE DISTANCES

1003 To estimate $p^{(l,h)}(d)$ robustly, we perform *distance bucketing* on a calibration set \mathcal{S} . Let the bucket
 1004 width be Δ ; relative distances are grouped by
 1005

$$k = \lfloor d / \Delta \rfloor, \quad \mathcal{B}_k = \{d \mid k\Delta \leq d < (k+1)\Delta\}. \quad (15)$$

1006 For each (l, h) , we first aggregate the *attention weight mass* in bucket \mathcal{B}_k across the calibration set:
 1007

$$M_k^{(l,h)} = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{i \geq j, d_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}_k} \mathbf{W}_{i,j}^{(l,h)}(x), \quad (16)$$

1008 and normalize to obtain the empirical *attention-weight distribution over distance*:
 1009

$$p^{(l,h)}(k) = \frac{M_k^{(l,h)}}{\sum_{k'} M_{k'}^{(l,h)}}. \quad (17)$$

1010 We then define $p^{(l,h)}(d) \equiv p^{(l,h)}(k)$ for $d \in \mathcal{B}_k$. Intuitively, this procedure does *not* count pairs;
 1011 instead, it measures how much attention mass is placed at each distance, bucketed by d . Long-range
 1012 buckets that are rarely attended (low $p^{(l,h)}$) are upweighted by IPW. The factor L_{ctx} keeps the
 1013 magnitude of φ_{IPW} on the same scale as RDW.
 1014

1015 I USE OF LLM

1016 In preparing this paper, large language models (LLMs) were employed solely for language refinement
 1017 purposes, such as polishing grammar, improving clarity, and adapting the tone to academic writing
 1018 conventions. All technical ideas, experimental designs, and results were conceived, implemented,
 1019 and analyzed by the authors. The LLMs were not involved in generating research content, designing
 1020 methods, or interpreting findings.