

LEANQUANT: ACCURATE AND SCALABLE LARGE LANGUAGE MODEL QUANTIZATION WITH LOSS-ERROR-AWARE GRID

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Large language models (LLMs) have shown immense potential across various domains, but their high memory requirements and inference costs remain critical challenges for deployment. Post-training quantization (PTQ) has emerged as a promising technique to reduce memory requirements and decoding latency. However, recent accurate quantization methods often depend on specialized computations or custom data formats to achieve better model quality, which limits their compatibility with popular frameworks, as they require dedicated inference kernels tailored to specific hardware and software platforms, hindering wider adoption. Furthermore, many competitive methods have high resource requirements and computational overhead, making it challenging to scale them to hundreds of billions of parameters. In response to these challenges, we propose LeanQuant (Loss-error-aware Network Quantization), a novel quantization method that is accurate, versatile, and scalable. In the existing popular iterative loss-error-based quantization framework, we identify a critical limitation in prior methods: the min-max affine quantization grid fails to preserve model quality due to outliers in inverse Hessian diagonals. To overcome this fundamental issue, we propose learning loss-error-aware grids, instead of using non-adaptive min-max affine grids. Our approach not only produces quantized models that are more accurate but also generalizes to a wider range of quantization types, including affine and non-uniform quantization, enhancing compatibility with more frameworks. Extensive empirical evaluations on recent LLMs demonstrate that LeanQuant is highly *accurate*, comparing favorably against recent competitive baselines in model quality, and *scalable*, achieving very accurate quantization of Llama-3.1 405B, one of the largest open-source LLMs to date, using two Quadro RTX 8000-48GB GPUs in 21 hours.

1 INTRODUCTION

Large language models (LLMs) have demonstrated impressive reasoning (Wei et al., 2022) and problem solving abilities (Kojima et al., 2022), and have shown the potential to bring transformative changes to various fields such as law (Kaddour et al., 2023), education (Kasneci et al., 2023), and medicine (Thirunavukarasu et al., 2023). However, deploying LLMs in a cost-effective manner presents significant challenges due to their substantial memory and computational demands (Chen et al., 2023), which hinders the accessibility and democratization of artificial intelligence (AI) (Kaddour et al., 2023).

Post-training quantization (PTQ) (Krishnamoorthi, 2018) is a technique for reducing the memory requirement for model inference by reducing the precision of floating-point weights of a pre-trained model and storing them in a compact low-bit-width format. PTQ offers the additional benefit of reducing the decoding latency of LLMs by reducing memory reads, since LLM inference is often bottlenecked by memory bandwidth (Kim et al., 2023). Although quantization causes a certain amount of precision loss in the parameters, the model quality can be reasonably preserved even in lower bit widths (Frantar et al., 2022; Chee et al., 2024). For many tasks, a quantized model is preferred over a full model due to its better size-accuracy trade-off (Dettmers & Zettlemoyer, 2023). As open-source foundational models continue to scale up in size (Dubey et al., 2024), accurate and

efficient quantization becomes essential for making AI accessible to a wider audience. For instance, serving Llama-3.1 405B (Dubey et al., 2024) using its original 16-bit weights requires a cluster of 2 nodes, each with 8×80 GB GPUs, while the 4-bit quantized version can be deployed on a single nodes of 8×48 GB GPUs, eliminating the overhead of inter-node communication.

Challenges of Deploying Quantized Models One of the biggest challenges of successful deployment of quantized models is implementing optimized kernels for quantized GEMM (general matrix multiply) that are tailored to various hardware platforms and software frameworks. In order to accelerate inference of quantized models, fused kernels, which fuse dequantization and matrix multiplication in the same subroutine, have to be implemented and tuned for the specific hardware accelerator. These kernels require specialized designs and tunings for different hardware accelerators to be fully optimized (Park et al., 2022). Recent quantization algorithms have chosen to employ specialized computations or custom data formats to reduce the impact of quantization on model quality, but they require more sophisticated kernel designs for efficient inference. For example, AQLM (Egiazarian et al., 2024) and QUIP# (Tseng et al., 2024) perform dequantization through look-ups from multi-dimensional or multi-bit codebooks, and Dotzel et al. (2024) proposed new data types such as Student Float to reduce quantization errors. While these approaches demonstrate promising results, their reliance on specialized operations and data formats can hinder their widespread adoption due to the need for optimized inference kernels for each hardware platform and software framework. For example, llama.cpp (Gerganov, 2023), a popular LLM inference engine that supports mobile devices, only supports affine and non-uniform quantization formats. Consequently, instead of focusing on developing better quantization methods with specialized operations, it may be more worthwhile to investigate improving the accuracy of existing widely adopted quantization formats, such as affine integer quantization and non-uniform quantization, which are supported by popular deep learning libraries (Paszke et al., 2019) and deployment frameworks (Kwon et al., 2023).

Scalability Challenges of Accurate Quantization To improve the quality of quantized models, existing approaches often incur higher computational overhead and require more hardware resources. As foundational models scale up in size (Hoffmann et al., 2022), these quantization approaches may struggle to scale to very large models such as Llama-3.1 405B (405 billion parameters) (Dubey et al., 2024). For instance, LLM-QAT (Liu et al., 2023) uses 100K samples of training data and hundreds of GPU-hours to recover the performance of a quantized LLaMA-13B model (Touvron et al., 2023a). For AQLM (Egiazarian et al., 2024), the time needed for quantizing a 7B to 70B LLM ranges from 1 to 14 days of an A100-80GB GPU. For SqueezeLLM (Kim et al., 2023), due to its use of the gradients of model parameters, quantizing a 70B LLM requires at least 240GB of total GPU memory, or 8×32 GB GPUs. As these accurate quantization approaches demand significant hardware resources and long optimization time, it is crucial to develop accurate methods that are efficient in terms of resource usage and time cost, to ensure the accessibility of increasingly large foundational models.

Our Proposal In this work, we propose LeanQuant, an accurate, versatile, and scalable quantization approach. We build upon the iterative loss-error-based quantization framework (Frantar & Alistarh, 2022; Frantar et al., 2022) and identify one of the biggest limitations of such methods: the min-max affine quantization grid introduces high loss errors due to the existence of outliers in the inverse Hessian diagonals. We introduce techniques for learning loss-error-aware quantization grids, which mitigate this issue and greatly improve the accuracy and quality of quantized models. We empirically demonstrate that LeanQuant compares favorably against competitive baselines in the 4/3/2-bit regions. Our approach is versatile, able to generalize to multiple commonly used quantization formats, such as affine and non-uniform quantization, allowing our quantized models to be directly compatible with existing highly optimized inference kernels (Frantar et al., 2024; Park et al., 2022) for maximum accessibility. Furthermore, our method is scalable and efficient. By designing and implementing a fused GPU kernel for LeanQuant grid learning, we achieve the accurate quantization of LLMs up to 123B in size using a single L40s-48GB GPU in 4 hours, and Llama-3.1 405B using 2 Quadro RTX 8000-48GB GPUs in 21 hours.

2 BACKGROUND

In this section, we introduce the relevant background for our proposal including quantization grids and iterative loss-error-based quantization.

2.1 QUANTIZATION GRID

Quantization achieves model compression by representing the full-precision floating-point parameters with a limited set of grid points on the quantization grid. The number of points on the grid depends on the bit width: a b -bit code represents 2^b distinct values, so 2-bit quantization yields 4 grid points. The placement of these points significantly affects the precision of the original parameters, and imprecise placement can degrade model quality. To address this, different types of quantization grids, such as affine, non-uniform, and normal, have been introduced, which we survey as follows.

Affine Grid In an affine quantization grid (Krishnamoorthi, 2018), the grid points are evenly spaced over the dynamic range of a group of weights. The weights of the network are divided into groups of fixed size, e.g. every 128 contiguous parameters as a group. For min-max asymmetric affine quantization, the scaling factor S and the zero-point Z are recorded for each group of weights (the zero-point is omitted in the symmetric affine case). Then, the i -th weight w_i in a group \mathbf{w} is quantized to b -bit as follows,

$$w_i^{\text{int}} = \text{clip}(\lfloor \frac{w_i}{S} \rfloor + Z, 0, 2^b - 1), \text{ where } S = \frac{\max(\mathbf{w}) - \min(\mathbf{w})}{2^b - 1} \text{ and } Z = -\lfloor \frac{\min(\mathbf{w})}{S} \rfloor$$

$$\text{quant}_{\text{aff}}(w_i, S, Z) = (w_i^{\text{int}} - Z)S$$

where $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ is the rounding operator, $\text{clip}(\cdot)$ constrains the weight value within the range of b -bit integer, w_i^{int} is the compact integer representation of w_i , and $\text{quant}_{\text{aff}}(w_i, S, Z)$ is the value of w_i after being quantized to the nearest grid point.

Non-uniform Grid The grid points on a non-uniform grid are placed in a non-equidistant manner (Li et al., 2019). The motivation behind non-uniform quantization is to allow for finer precision in regions where model parameters are more concentrated or sensitive. Each row in a weight matrix has a distinct set of grid points \mathcal{G} , where $|\mathcal{G}| = 2^b$ for b -bit non-uniform quantization. The weight w_i is quantized to the nearest grid point in \mathcal{G} as follows,

$$\text{quant}_{\text{nu}}(w_i, \mathcal{G}) = \arg \min_{g \in \mathcal{G}} |g - w_i|$$

Other Grid Types Previous works have observed that LLM parameters tend to be distributed similarly as Normal or Student T’s Distribution, hence they propose new grid types, such as NormalFloat (Dettmers et al., 2024) and Student Float (Dotzel et al., 2024), which place grid lines at the quantiles of these distributions. Our proposed method can also be extended to work with these quantization formats.

2.2 ITERATIVE LOSS-ERROR-BASED QUANTIZATION

Iterative loss-error-based quantization (Frantar & Alistarh, 2022) is a promising framework for quantizing deep neural networks to low bit widths while maintaining strong performance on downstream tasks. In particular, Optimal Brain Quantization (OBQ) (Frantar & Alistarh, 2022), which is based on the seminal works by LeCun et al. (1989) and Hassibi et al. (1993), aims to minimize the impact of weight perturbations introduced by parameter quantization on the network’s task loss. Let $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}})$ be the task loss of a network \mathcal{N} evaluated at the weights $\mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}}$ (flattened to a vector). Then, the OBQ objective is to minimize the loss error ϵ , which is defined as

$$\epsilon = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}} + \delta_{\mathcal{N}}) - \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}})$$

where $\delta_{\mathcal{N}}$ is the weight perturbation introduced by quantization. The loss error ϵ can be approximated with a Taylor series (LeCun et al., 1989) as

$$\epsilon = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}}} \right)^{\top} \delta_{\mathcal{N}}}_{\text{negligible}} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{\mathcal{N}}^{\top} \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}}^2} \delta_{\mathcal{N}} + \underbrace{O(\|\delta_{\mathcal{N}}\|^3)}_{\text{negligible}}$$

where the first term is omitted due to $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}}} \approx \mathbf{0}$ in a converged network, and the third and higher terms can be ignored due to small norms. Computing the exact Hessian $\mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{N}}^2}$ in a deep network is difficult, hence OBQ leverages an approximation of loss error proposed by Nagel et al. (2020),

$$\mathbb{E}(\epsilon) \approx \sum_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{N}} \|\mathbf{w}\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{w}}\mathbf{X}\|_F^2$$

where \mathbf{W} , $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$, \mathbf{X} are the weight matrix, quantized weight matrix, and the input matrix to a linear layer in the network \mathcal{N} . As a result, the OBQ objective can be decomposed into layer-wise independent convex problems,

$$\arg \min_{\hat{\mathbf{W}}} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 \quad (1)$$

which can be further decomposed into row-wise independent problems, since Equation 1 can be written as a sum of squares over the rows of \mathbf{W} .

OBQ employs an iterative quantization approach, in which a single weight in a row \mathbf{w} is quantized in each step, and then the remaining not-yet-quantized weights in the same row are updated to compensate for the introduced error. Given the constraint that the parameter w_i , indexed by i in row \mathbf{w} , is being quantized, the optimal weight perturbation δ to the remaining weights can be solved with the following Lagrangian,

$$L(\delta, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2} \delta^\top \mathbf{H} \delta + \lambda (\mathbf{e}_i^\top \delta - (\text{quant}(w_i) - w_i)) \quad (2)$$

where the Hessian $\mathbf{H} = 2\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top$ (from Equation 1) is computed on a small sample of input data and \mathbf{e}_i is the i -th standard basis vector. Solving Equation 2 yields the optimal weight perturbation δ_i and the resulting loss error ϵ_i after quantizing w_i ,

$$\delta_i = \frac{\text{quant}(w_i) - w_i}{\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}} \mathbf{H}_{:,i}^{-1}, \quad \epsilon_i = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(\text{quant}(w_i) - w_i)^2}{\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}} \quad (3)$$

where $\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{H}_{:,i}^{-1}$ denotes the i -th diagonal entry and the i -th column of the inverse Hessian, respectively.

The loss error ϵ_i reflects the negative impact of quantizing parameter w_i on the model quality, and it is always a non-negative value. OBQ utilizes the loss error ϵ_i as a heuristic for greedy optimization. Specifically, in each iteration, OBQ computes ϵ for all weights in a row and greedily selects the i -th parameter with the minimum ϵ_i to quantize. Then, w_i is round to the nearest value on the quantization grid, and the remaining weights are updated via $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \delta_i$, and the updated inverse Hessian for the remaining weights, with the i -th row and column removed from \mathbf{H} , is computed as

$$\mathbf{H}_{-i,-i}^{-1} = \left(\mathbf{H}^{-1} - \frac{\mathbf{H}_{:,i}^{-1} \mathbf{H}_{i,:}^{-1}}{\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}} \right)_{-i,-i} \quad (4)$$

This iterative process continues until all weights are quantized.

Scaling to Billion-Parameter LLMs Using Cholesky and Dampening OBQ produces accurate post-training quantized models for million-parameter networks, but fails to scale to billion-parameter LLMs due to two primary reasons: the inefficient time complexity and the accumulation of numerical inaccuracies during updates. To improve its computational efficiency, Frantar et al. (2022) propose to quantize the weights in a fixed non-greedy order for all rows, and keep the weight updates within a block of B columns at a time. To prevent model quality collapse resulted from the accumulation of numerical inaccuracies by repeated weight updates, Frantar et al. (2022) propose to apply a mild dampening (1% of the average diagonals) to the diagonal entries of the Hessian \mathbf{H} and leverage a Cholesky decomposition of the inverse Hessian \mathbf{H}^{-1} in place of the update in Equation 4. The resulting algorithm is GPTQ, which is able to efficiently quantizes billion-parameter LLMs.

3 METHODOLOGY

In this section, we introduce our proposed approach Loss-error-aware network Quantization (LeanQuant), for accurately and efficiently quantizing LLMs.

3.1 REVISITING THE LOSS ERROR

To motivate our proposed approach, we first revisit the loss error ϵ_i in Equation 3, which approximates the (detrimental) increase in the network’s task loss, introduced by quantizing weight w_i . This error ϵ_i has been used as a heuristic in multiple previous works (LeCun et al., 1989; Hassibi

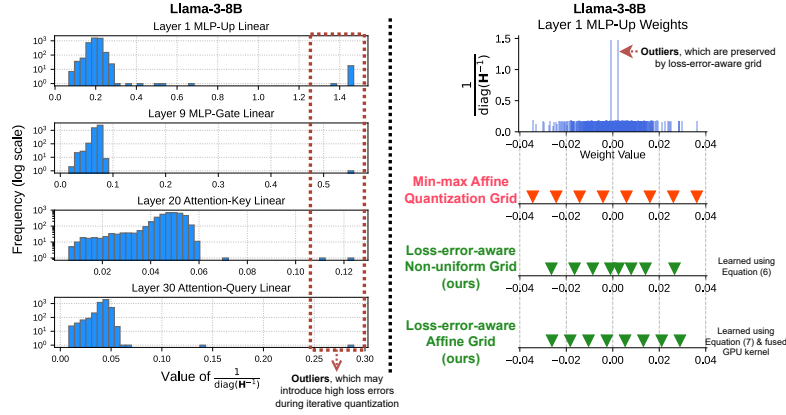


Figure 1: (Left) The empirical distributions of inverse Hessian diagonals, computed on 262K tokens from the C4 dataset for the Llama-3-8B model, contain outliers that can cause high loss errors. (Right) Our proposed loss-error-aware non-uniform and affine grids better preserves the quantized precision of outliers, leading to more accurate quantized models.

et al., 1993; Singh & Alistarh, 2020; Frantar & Alistarh, 2022) for choosing the next best weight i to prune or quantize. It has been shown to be a highly informative metric for measuring the impact of quantization.

By examining Equation 3, one finds that the loss error ϵ_i is proportional to the square of weight quantization error and inversely proportional to the diagonal entry of the inverse Hessian, i.e.,

$$\epsilon_i \propto (\text{quant}(w_i) - w_i)^2 \text{ and } \epsilon_i \propto \frac{1}{\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}} \quad (5)$$

Hence, we further examine the empirical distribution of $\frac{1}{\text{diag}(\mathbf{H}^{-1})}$, to which the loss error row vector ϵ is proportional. We obtain the empirical distributions on layers of Llama-3-8B (Dubey et al., 2024) with 128 sequences of length 2048 tokens from the C4 dataset (Raffel et al., 2020), and compute the inverse Hessian as $\mathbf{H}^{-1} = (\mathbf{2XX}^\top)^{-1}$ where \mathbf{X} is the layer input matrix. As shown in Figure 1, The majority of the inverse diagonals are concentrated in low-magnitude regions, with a few outliers having high magnitudes. Quantizing the weights corresponding to these outliers can lead to high loss errors if these weights are not well-aligned with the quantization grid points. Preserving the quantized precision of the weights corresponding to these inverse-diagonal outliers is especially important because the loss error increases quadratically with their quantization error (Equation 5). Iterative loss-error-based quantization approaches (OBQ, GPTQ, etc.) employ min-max affine quantization grid, which is suboptimal for preserving the quantized precision of the inverse-diagonal outliers, leading to high loss errors and model quality degradation. Our idea is to learn quantization grids that minimize the loss error ϵ .

3.2 LOSS-ERROR-AWARE NETWORK QUANTIZATION

Existing iterative loss-error-based quantization methods rely on min-max affine grids, which fail to account for outliers in the inverse Hessian diagonals. These outliers can cause significant degradation in model quality. To address this limitation, we propose loss-error-aware quantization grids that preserve the precision of weights corresponding to these outliers, thereby improving model accuracy. Our approach introduces techniques for learning loss-error-aware grids across various quantization formats, including non-uniform and affine. Additionally, to accelerate grid learning for large models, we developed fused GPU kernels that enable efficient and scalable quantization.

3.2.1 NON-UNIFORM LOSS-ERROR-AWARE GRID

For non-uniform quantization, we perform clustering on the model parameters, weighted by their corresponding exponentiated inverse Hessian diagonals, to derive a set of loss-error-aware grid points. The motivation for the proposed objective is to shape the quantization grid such that the quantization error for weights corresponding to inverse-diagonal outliers remains low, as these out-

liers can disproportionately impact model quality. Concretely, we determine the set of grid points \mathcal{G} for b -bit quantization by optimizing the following objective:

$$\arg \min_{\mathcal{G}: |\mathcal{G}|=2^b} \sum_i (\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1})^{-p} |\text{quant}_{nu}(w_i, \mathcal{G}) - w_i|^2 \quad (6)$$

Here, p is a hyperparameter that balances the strength of precision preservation between inverse-diagonal outliers and non-outliers. Higher values of p prioritize the precision preservation of outliers, while $p = 0$ treats all weights equally. In our experiments, we set $p = 4$ for all models. A sensitivity analysis for p is provided in Section 4.3. To optimize this objective, we employ the k-means algorithm (Lloyd, 1982), incorporating careful centroid initialization as described below. Once the quantization grid \mathcal{G} is established, the weights are iteratively quantized to the nearest grid points within \mathcal{G} .

Grid Initialization The quality of clustering results heavily depends on the initialization method (Arthur et al., 2007), as Lloyd’s Algorithm (Lloyd, 1982) converges to a locally optimal solution. This sensitivity is particularly pronounced in lower bit-width settings, where the initialization of grid points can significantly impact the quality of the quantized model. Standard centroid initialization methods, such as random and k-means++ (Arthur et al., 2007), often produce suboptimal results in lower bit-width scenarios (e.g., 3-bit and 2-bit quantization), largely due to the distribution characteristics of weights.

Weights are typically densely concentrated near the center and sparsely distributed at the extremes. As a result, standard initialization methods tend to undersample extreme values, leading to poor representation of these sparsely populated regions in the quantization grid. To address this issue, we propose a lightweight and robust initialization method: **uniformly spaced grid initialization**. This method initializes centroids by evenly spacing them between the minimum and maximum weight values, ensuring that the entire range of weights, including sparsely populated extremes, is well represented by the grid points. Concretely, the grid points $\mathcal{G}_{\text{init}}$ are defined as:

$$\mathcal{G}_{\text{init}} = \left\{ \min(\mathbf{w}) + \frac{\max(\mathbf{w}) - \min(\mathbf{w})}{2^b - 1} t \mid t \in \{0, \dots, 2^b - 1\} \right\}$$

By evenly spacing the initial centroids between the minimum and maximum weight values, this method provides a balanced initialization that captures both dense central regions and sparsely populated extremes. The effectiveness of this approach is validated through ablative experiments, with results presented in Table 11 in the Appendix.

3.2.2 LOSS-ERROR-AWARE AFFINE GRID

The goal of learning an affine grid is to determine an optimal scaling factor S and zero-point Z that minimize the loss error. Unlike non-uniform grids, where clustering strategies can be applied, affine grids require the grid points to be uniformly spaced over an interval, making clustering-based approaches inapplicable. While gradient descent could theoretically be used to search for S and Z over the real numbers, this approach is computationally intensive, memory-demanding, and susceptible to local minima.

To address this challenge, we adopt an enumerative search approach to learn the affine grid. Specifically, we enumerate candidate pairs of S and Z from a constrained search space \mathbb{S} and select the pair that minimizes the following objective:

$$\arg \min_{(S, Z) \in \mathbb{S}} \sum_i (\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1})^{-p} \left| \text{quant}_{aff}(w_i, S, Z) - w_i \right|^2, \text{ where} \\ \mathbb{S} = \left\{ \left(\underbrace{\left(\frac{\max(\mathbf{w}) - t_{\max} \frac{R}{T}}{2^b - 1} \right)}_{\text{scaling factor } S}, \underbrace{\left\lfloor \frac{\min(\mathbf{w}) + t_{\min} \frac{R}{T}}{S} \right\rfloor}_{\text{zero-point } Z} \right) \mid t_{\min}, t_{\max} \in \{0, \dots, \frac{T}{2} - 1\} \right\} \quad (7)$$

Here, $R = \max(\mathbf{w}) - \min(\mathbf{w})$ is the range of the weights, and T is the number of partitions within R . By iteratively enumerating candidates for S and Z and evaluating their corresponding losses, we identify the optimal pair that minimizes the objective. The parameter T determines the granularity of the search; in our experiments, we set $T = 2048$.

Algorithm 1 LeanQuant for LLM quantization

Input: weight matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times c}$, input matrix \mathbf{X} , bit width b , block size B , dampening factor df , outlier preservation strength p
Output: Quantized matrix $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$

```

1:  $\hat{\mathbf{W}} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}_{r \times c}$ 
2:  $\mathbf{E} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}_{r \times B}$ 
3:  $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow 2\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top$ 
4:  $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \leftarrow \text{Cholesky}([\mathbf{H} + df \cdot \text{avg}(\text{diag}(\mathbf{H})) \cdot \mathbf{I}])^{-1}$   $\triangleright$  apply dampening, inversion, and Cholesky decomposition
5: if using non-uniform grid then
6:    $\mathcal{G}_k \leftarrow \arg \min_{\mathcal{G}: |\mathcal{G}|=2^b} (\text{diag}(\mathbf{H}^{-1})^{-p})^\top |\text{quant}_{nu}(\mathbf{W}_{k,:}, \mathcal{G}) - \mathbf{W}_{k,:}|^2 \text{ for all } k \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$   $\triangleright$  E.6
7: else if using affine grid then
8:    $S_k, Z_k \leftarrow \arg \min_{(S,Z) \in \mathbb{S}} (\text{diag}(\mathbf{H}^{-1})^{-p})^\top |\text{quant}_{aff}(\mathbf{W}_{k,:}, S, Z) - \mathbf{W}_{k,:}|^2 \text{ for all } k \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$   $\triangleright$  E.7
9: end if
10: for  $i \leftarrow 0, B, 2B, \dots$  do  $\triangleright$  apply block-wise quantization
11:   for  $j \leftarrow i, \dots, i+B-1$  do
12:     if using non-uniform grid then
13:        $\hat{\mathbf{W}}_{k,j} \leftarrow \text{quant}_{nu}(\mathbf{W}_{k,j}, \mathcal{G}_k) \text{ for all } k \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$   $\triangleright$  quantize to non-uniform grid
14:     else if using affine grid then
15:        $\hat{\mathbf{W}}_{k,j} \leftarrow \text{quant}_{aff}(\mathbf{W}_{k,j}, S_k, Z_k) \text{ for all } k \in \{0, \dots, r-1\}$   $\triangleright$  quantize to affine grid
16:     end if
17:      $\mathbf{E}_{:,j-1} \leftarrow \frac{\mathbf{W}_{:,j} - \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{:,j}}{\mathbf{H}_{j,j}^{-1}}$ 
18:      $\mathbf{W}_{:,j:(i+B)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{:,j:(i+B)} - \mathbf{E}_{:,j-i} \cdot \mathbf{H}_{j,j:(i+B)}^{-1}$ 
19:   end for
20:    $\mathbf{W}_{:, (i+B):} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{:, (i+B):} - \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{H}_{i:(i+B), (i+B):}^{-1}$ 
21: end for
22: return  $\hat{\mathbf{W}}$ 

```

Efficient Fused GPU Kernel for Grid Learning The enumerative search for S and Z involves evaluating $(\frac{T}{2})^2$ candidate pairs, which can be computationally expensive if performed sequentially. To accelerate this process, we design and implement a fused GPU kernel that leverages parallel processing. Each thread block is assigned a group of weights, and individual threads within the block evaluate all combinations of a specific t_{\min} and all possible t_{\max} . The threads compute the loss for their assigned combinations, and the results are aggregated at the block level to determine the optimal S and Z for the weight group.

This parallelized approach enables simultaneous computation of S and Z across all weight groups, achieving a speedup of over $50\times$ for the end-to-end quantization process. An analysis of the kernel’s efficiency is presented in Section 4.3.

3.2.3 LEANQUANT

Our proposed loss-error-aware quantization grid can be seamlessly integrated with any iterative loss-error-based quantization method to enhance the quality of quantized models. Figure 1 illustrates a comparison between the min-max affine quantization grid and loss-error-aware grids (both non-uniform and affine) applied to a layer of Llama-3-8B (Dubey et al., 2024). We introduce LeanQuant, which combines loss-error-aware grids with GPTQ (Frantar et al., 2022), and detail the method in Algorithm 1. Additionally, for quantizing million-parameter models more accurately, we propose LeanQuant-Exact, which integrates loss-error-aware grids with OBQ (Frantar & Alistarh, 2022), with details presented in Algorithm 2 in the Appendix. To specify the grid type used within LeanQuant, we use subscripts such as LeanQuant_{aff} for affine and LeanQuant_{nu} for non-uniform grids.

4 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we perform extensive experiments to validate the effectiveness and scalability of our proposed LeanQuant for quantizing LLMs against competitive baselines. We first introduce the baselines, models, evaluation metrics and datasets, and hardware used for the experiments. We then describe the experimental results and findings, and analyze the efficiency and scalability of our proposal. Finally, we perform ablative experiments to validate each component of proposed approach.

Baselines We compare LeanQuant_{aff} against competitive affine quantization approaches AWQ (Lin et al., 2024), GPTQ (Frantar et al., 2022), and OmniQuant (Shao et al., 2024), and LeanQuant_{nu}

Table 1: Zero-shot accuracy of quantized LLMs on benchmarks. The results of more models can be found in Table 8 of the Appendix. [†]2-bit quantization is unsupported by the SqueezeLLM codebase.

Method	Bits	ARC		LAMBADA		MMLU			HellaS	PIQA	WinoG	Avg.		
		Easy	Chg	Std	OpenAI	STEM	Human.	Social					Other	
Llama-3-8B														
Affine	BF16	16	80.30	50.17	68.85	75.82	53.82	54.88	73.29	70.42	60.11	79.71	73.56	67.36
	GPTQ	4.00	74.83	44.11	63.42	70.75	47.29	52.28	66.04	64.89	57.98	77.26	71.82	61.58
	OmniQuant	4.00	76.89	47.35	61.05	69.16	49.38	49.05	66.62	64.40	58.25	78.84	71.98	63.00
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	76.60	46.93	66.89	74.07	51.89	52.96	70.04	68.43	58.47	77.91	72.77	65.18
	GPTQ	3.00	50.84	24.32	24.16	38.89	26.23	29.16	34.38	30.00	45.07	64.64	60.69	37.75
	OmniQuant	3.00	60.90	30.12	21.08	27.63	26.32	27.80	29.51	29.90	46.98	68.17	59.98	38.95
	LeanQuant _{aff}	3.00	69.44	35.75	46.81	65.42	42.59	44.78	58.17	56.97	52.72	74.86	69.93	56.13
	GPTQ	2.00	25.46	22.53	0.00	0.00	21.06	23.95	21.16	23.78	25.66	52.77	51.54	24.25
	OmniQuant	2.00	26.81	21.67	0.00	0.00	21.34	24.21	21.71	23.98	25.90	53.75	47.43	24.26
	LeanQuant _{aff}	2.00	35.06	18.26	11.33	14.71	21.31	24.17	21.71	24.01	31.43	59.30	51.85	28.47
Non-uniform	SqueezeLLM	4.05	79.59	49.32	66.18	73.24	51.13	53.32	70.78	68.59	59.10	79.33	73.80	65.85
	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.05	79.50	49.15	67.36	74.95	52.17	53.16	71.40	68.75	59.19	78.89	74.11	66.24
	SqueezeLLM	3.02	73.19	43.52	58.22	66.58	43.61	46.57	61.91	60.03	56.17	77.64	69.22	59.70
	LeanQuant _{nu}	3.02	77.74	47.01	63.32	72.17	48.84	49.05	65.45	62.79	56.42	78.24	71.67	62.97
	SqueezeLLM [†]	2.01	-	-	-	-	-	N/A -	-	-	-	-	-	-
	LeanQuant _{nu}	2.01	58.21	26.62	31.22	39.16	25.98	25.48	27.01	26.65	40.78	68.01	60.38	39.05
	Llama-2-7B													
	FP16	16	76.26	43.43	68.33	73.88	34.38	39.79	47.32	47.12	57.10	78.07	68.98	57.70
Affine	GPTQ	4.00	74.16	40.78	65.38	71.94	32.67	36.92	42.61	42.61	55.99	77.48	68.32	53.47
	OmniQuant	4.00	74.12	40.70	64.10	70.62	28.80	32.18	34.71	35.79	55.37	76.93	68.67	52.91
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	75.00	41.21	65.03	72.02	34.82	36.94	46.77	44.54	55.32	77.15	68.75	56.14
	GPTQ	3.00	66.29	34.22	46.46	58.18	28.20	26.99	32.11	29.90	49.05	73.23	62.83	44.12
	OmniQuant	3.00	70.12	37.29	53.27	66.66	29.05	31.05	30.61	30.38	52.58	74.05	66.46	49.23
	LeanQuant _{aff}	3.00	71.84	38.99	59.13	69.05	33.56	32.96	41.11	40.10	52.19	75.57	66.69	52.84
	GPTQ	2.00	25.97	21.67	0.00	0.00	21.31	23.25	21.11	23.01	25.76	51.74	48.78	23.66
	OmniQuant	2.00	37.42	21.76	1.28	3.24	21.47	24.14	21.74	23.91	29.59	57.18	51.93	26.70
	LeanQuant _{aff}	2.00	41.08	20.99	16.98	21.93	21.25	24.06	21.77	23.88	31.94	61.64	56.51	31.09
	SqueezeLLM	4.05	75.59	41.98	67.81	72.79	34.32	38.94	45.40	44.96	56.80	77.48	68.43	56.77
Non-uniform	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.05	75.97	42.66	68.14	74.25	34.35	39.06	46.05	46.51	56.03	77.86	69.38	57.30
	SqueezeLLM	3.02	73.06	40.27	61.96	70.11	33.75	35.22	43.35	43.16	54.15	76.50	67.88	54.49
	LeanQuant _{nu}	3.02	73.74	40.19	66.12	73.16	32.25	35.54	43.40	43.39	53.24	76.44	68.35	55.07
	SqueezeLLM [†]	2.01	-	-	-	-	-	N/A -	-	-	-	-	-	-
	LeanQuant _{nu}	2.01	51.81	23.98	28.68	38.21	22.26	23.89	22.49	24.01	35.88	66.38	58.17	35.98
	Mistral-7B													
	BF16	16	80.77	50.09	69.38	75.63	50.46	53.48	69.35	68.01	61.26	80.58	73.88	66.62
	GPTQ	4.00	79.00	46.25	66.99	73.67	46.24	50.82	66.20	64.66	59.36	79.65	72.93	62.68
Affine	OmniQuant	4.00	78.49	46.25	63.28	71.20	45.96	51.35	65.68	64.76	60.19	79.87	71.90	63.54
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	79.71	48.04	68.33	75.70	47.42	51.84	68.05	66.43	59.65	80.41	73.48	65.37
	GPTQ	3.00	70.54	38.65	52.63	62.10	36.31	38.89	49.20	47.86	54.76	77.58	67.96	52.60
	OmniQuant	3.00	70.54	35.07	35.49	46.54	33.71	32.88	40.23	37.85	52.35	75.19	63.93	47.62
	LeanQuant _{aff}	3.00	76.94	44.62	65.63	74.60	44.18	45.59	61.20	59.03	56.36	78.89	72.30	61.76
	GPTQ	2.00	26.73	22.27	0.00	0.00	23.31	24.46	23.86	23.42	25.35	51.52	49.72	24.39
	OmniQuant	2.00	27.06	21.67	0.00	0.00	21.25	24.29	21.71	23.98	25.89	51.25	51.54	24.42
	LeanQuant _{aff}	2.00	57.91	27.22	36.91	49.00	24.23	24.91	24.60	27.29	40.27	69.15	60.46	40.18
	SqueezeLLM	4.05	79.73	49.06	68.28	74.93	48.81	52.73	68.87	66.98	59.80	80.25	73.56	65.73
	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.05	79.80	48.89	69.03	76.03	48.84	52.86	68.87	66.69	60.19	80.14	74.59	65.99
Non-uniform	SqueezeLLM	3.02	77.54	45.93	64.06	71.43	43.96	47.93	62.69	59.16	58.76	79.43	71.98	62.08
	LeanQuant _{nu}	3.02	77.74	45.99	67.59	76.07	44.24	47.97	62.14	62.47	57.28	79.27	72.22	63.00
	SqueezeLLM [†]	2.01	-	-	-	-	-	N/A -	-	-	-	-	-	-
	LeanQuant _{nu}	2.01	63.47	30.55	41.01	54.61	31.34	29.97	32.14	33.96	42.29	71.38	64.01	44.97

against the existing state-of-the-art non-uniform method SqueezeLLM (Kim et al., 2023). For the baselines, we use the quantized models provided by their official repository where possible, and quantize the unavailable models using their official codebase and recommended hyperparameters. More details on baseline reproduction and evaluation methods can be found in Section D of the Appendix. For all LeanQuant models, we use a small calibration set of 128 sequences of 2048 tokens from the C4 dataset (Raffel et al., 2020) for computing the Hessian \mathbf{H} , and set $p = 4$.

Models We consider the following recent, popular LLMs for quantization: Llama 1/2/3 series models (Touvron et al., 2023a;b; Dubey et al., 2024), Mistral-7B-v0.1 (Jiang et al., 2023), Mistral-Large-Instruct-2407 (123B) (Mistral AI Team, 2024), and Llama-3.1-405B-Instruct (Dubey et al., 2024).

Evaluation Metrics and Datasets We evaluate quantized LLMs using the perplexity metric on the datasets WikiText2 (Merity et al., 2016) and C4 (Raffel et al., 2020), and zero-shot accuracy on the benchmarks ARC (Clark et al., 2018), LAMBADA (Paperno et al., 2016), MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020), HellaSwag (Zellers et al., 2019), PIQA (Bisk et al., 2020), and WinoGrande (Sakaguchi et al., 2021). We also quantize and evaluate the instruction-following Llama-3-8B-Instruct using OpenAI GPT-4o (2024-05-13) as a judge on the MT-Bench (Zheng et al., 2023), and the results are presented in Section F in the Appendix.

Table 2: Zero-shot accuracy comparison of the quantized 123B Mistral-Large-Instruct-2407 model.

Model	Method	Bits	Arc		LAMBADA		MMLU				Avg.
			Easy	Chg.	Std.	OpenAI	STEM	Human.	Social	Other	
Mistral-Large-Instruct-2407	GPTQ	4.00	84.60	63.99	74.38	80.52	76.31	77.23	89.31	85.23	78.95
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	85.14	63.99	74.99	81.14	76.56	77.32	89.21	85.87	79.28
	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.05	87.67	64.59	76.63	81.51	76.50	78.00	89.35	85.68	79.99

Table 3: Zero-shot accuracy comparison of the quantized Llama-3.1-405B-Instruct model.

Method	Group Size	Bits	Arc-E	Arc-C	LAMBADA-Std	PIQA	Avg
Llama-3.1-405B-Instruct							
GPTQ	128	4.25	88.21	65.10	76.96	82.75	78.26
LeanQuant _{aff}	128	4.25	88.34	65.70	77.86	83.03	78.73

Testbed Hardware LeanQuant models are quantized using a machine quipped with an L40s-48GB GPU, an AMD EPYC 7R13 48-Core CPU, and 370GB of RAM. To fit Llama-3.1-405B-Instruct in RAM, which is around 800GB in size, we use a machine equipped with 2 Quadro RTX 8000 GPUs, an AMD EPYC 7742 64-Core CPU, and 1.48TB of RAM.

4.1 MAIN RESULTS

Accuracy and Perplexity The zero-shot accuracy of quantized models on benchmarks are presented in Table 1, as well as in Table 8 in the Appendix, and the perplexity results are shown in Table 7 in the Appendix. At the same bit width, LeanQuant achieves significantly better (lower) perplexity than GPTQ and AWQ, and performs on par with OmniQuant and SqueezeLLM. However, perplexity may not be a representative metric for evaluating the accuracy of quantized models. In terms of zero-shot accuracy on various benchmarks, LeanQuant_{aff} mostly outperforms GPTQ and OmniQuant, and LeanQuant_{nu} similarly performs better than SqueezeLLM in most cases. We highlight that LeanQuant_{aff} improves the average zero-shot accuracy on 11 tasks over OmniQuant by 17.18% for 3-bit Llama-3-8B, and by 14.14% for 3-bit Mistral-7B. Compared to GPTQ, LeanQuant_{aff} improves the average zero-shot accuracy by 18.38% for 3-bit Llama-3-8B, and by 9.16% for 3-bit Mistral-7B.

Effectiveness on Very Large LLMs We quantize the 123B Mistral-Large-Instruct-2407 and the 405B Llama-3.1 model using LeanQuant_{aff} and GPTQ, and present their zero-shot accuracy in Table 2 and 3, respectively. OmniQuant and SqueezeLLM fail to quantize to these models due to GPU out-of-memory errors. For Llama-3.1 405B, we use a smaller set of evaluation tasks due to the high inference costs. LeanQuant_{aff} models mostly outperforms GPTQ in zero-shot accuracy. We employ row-wise quantization for Mistral-Large and group-wise quantization (with size 128) for Llama-3.1. This showcases that our method is effective for both row-wise affine quantization and group-wise affine quantization.

4.2 MEMORY AND TIME EFFICIENCY

We report the maximum GPU memory consumption of LeanQuant and the baselines during quantization on models of different sizes in Table 4. LeanQuant is significantly more memory efficient than OmniQuant and SqueezeLLM: it successfully scales to 123B Mistral-Large using a single 48GB GPU, and to 405B Llama-3.1 models using two 48GB GPUs, while OmniQuant fails to quantize Llama-3-70B and SqueezeLLM fails to quantize Llama-3-8B on a single 48GB GPU. The time cost of LeanQuant for different sized models are reported in Table 9 in the Appendix. LeanQuant can quantize 7B/8B models in less than an hour, the 123B model in 4.2 hours, and the 405B model in 20.7 hours.

4.3 ABLATION STUDY

Q1: Does LeanQuant effectively reduce the loss error ϵ compared to other iterative loss-error-based methods? Yes, LeanQuant effectively reduces loss errors ϵ compared to GPTQ, as shown in Figure 2, as well as in Figure 5 in the Appendix. The sum of loss errors are computed as Equation 3. Moreover, non-uniform LeanQuant generally achieves lower loss errors than affine LeanQuant, due to more degrees of freedom in the grid point placements, which also explains why LeanQuant_{nu} achieves higher accuracy than LeanQuant_{aff} on benchmarks in Table 1.

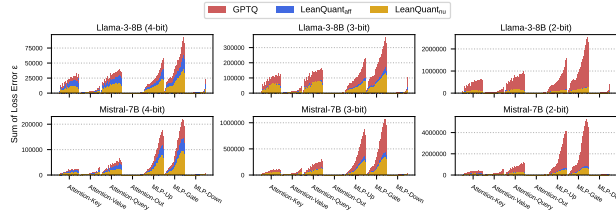


Figure 2: Comparison of loss errors ϵ , summed over each layer, for GPTQ and LeanQuant (affine and non-uniform) during iterative quantization.

Q2: Is LeanQuant sensitive to the hyperparameter p ? No, we found LeanQuant to be not very sensitive to p . A sensitivity analysis on the hyperparameter p is given in Table 10 in the Appendix. LeanQuant works well with p values of 3 or 4.

Q3: Is uniformly spaced grid initialization beneficial for model quality? Yes, uniformly spaced grid initialization consistently outperforms k-means++ (Arthur et al., 2007) initialization on different models in 3-bit and 2-bit regions, as shown in Table 11 in the Appendix.

Q4: Does the fused GPU kernel for LeanQuant_{aff} accelerate quantization? Yes, our fused kernel for learning affine grids accelerate the end-to-end quantization process by more than $50\times$, as shown in Table 5, which enables LeanQuant to be scaled to very large models.

Table 4: Peak GPU memory consumption of different algorithms during 4-bit quantization. “OOM” indicates out of memory on a single 48GB GPU, except for Llama-3.1-405B where we use 2 48GB GPUs.

Model	OmniQuant	SqueezeLLM	GPTQ	LeanQuant
Llama-3-8B	25.3 GB	OOM	7.9 GB	7.9 GB
Llama-3-70B	OOM	OOM	17.1 GB	17.2 GB
Mistral-Large (123B)	OOM	OOM	32.8 GB	33.0 GB
Llama-3.1-405B	OOM	OOM	OOM	65.4 GB

Table 5: Comparison of total time needed for quantizing Llama-3-8B with and without our fused kernel for loss-error-aware affine grid learning.

Fused Kernel	Group Size	Bits	Quant. Time
✗	-	4.00	15.1 hrs
✓	-	4.00	0.27 hrs
✗	128	4.25	>100 hrs
✓	128	4.25	0.40 hrs

5 RELATED WORKS

Iterative Loss-error-based Compression Optimal Brain Damage (LeCun et al., 1989) introduced a saliency-score-based iterative pruning algorithm for neural networks, and Optimal Brain Surgeon (Hassibi & Stork, 1992; Hassibi et al., 1993) extended it to apply a weight update to compensate for the error introduced in each iteration. These methods inspired a number of works on model pruning (Guo et al., 2016; Singh & Alistarh, 2020; Yu et al., 2022) and weight quantization (Li et al., 2021; Frantar & Alistarh, 2022; Frantar et al., 2022).

Efficient LLM Inference LLM inference is computationally and memory demanding, and existing works accelerate inference and reduce memory requirements through post-training weight quantization (Dettmers et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2024; Frantar et al., 2022; Chee et al., 2024; Kim et al., 2023; Shao et al., 2024; Egiazarian et al., 2024; Tseng et al., 2024), pruning (Frantar & Alistarh, 2023; Ashkboos et al., 2024), weight-activation quantization (Xiao et al., 2023), offloading Sheng et al. (2023), etc.

6 CONCLUSION

In this work, we propose LeanQuant, an accurate, versatile, and scalable quantization method for LLMs. Motivated by the finding that the min-max affine grid causes large errors in the network’s task loss in iterative loss-error-based methods, we propose to learn loss-error-aware grids to enable more accurate quantized models, and design fused kernels for efficient and scalable quantization. Our method generalizes to multiple quantization formats to enable greater accessibility. Extensive empirical evaluations reveal that our quantized models compares favorably against competitive baselines in accuracy, and can scale to Llama-3.1 405B, one of the largest open-source LLM to date.

REFERENCES

- David Arthur, Sergei Vassilvitskii, et al. k-means++: The advantages of careful seeding. In *Soda*, volume 7, pp. 1027–1035, 2007.
- Saleh Ashkboos, Maximilian L Croci, Marcelo Gennari do Nascimento, Torsten Hoefler, and James Hensman. Slicept: Compress large language models by deleting rows and columns. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.15024*, 2024.
- Yonatan Bisk, Rowan Zellers, Jianfeng Gao, Yejin Choi, et al. Piqa: Reasoning about physical commonsense in natural language. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 34, pp. 7432–7439, 2020.
- Jerry Chee, Yaohui Cai, Volodymyr Kuleshov, and Christopher M De Sa. Quip: 2-bit quantization of large language models with guarantees. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024.
- Lingjiao Chen, Matei Zaharia, and James Zou. Frugalgpt: How to use large language models while reducing cost and improving performance. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.05176*, 2023.
- Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and Oyvind Tafjord. Think you have solved question answering? try arc, the ai2 reasoning challenge. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.05457*, 2018.
- Tim Dettmers and Luke Zettlemoyer. The case for 4-bit precision: k-bit inference scaling laws. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 7750–7774. PMLR, 2023.
- Tim Dettmers, Mike Lewis, Younes Belkada, and Luke Zettlemoyer. Gpt3. int8 (): 8-bit matrix multiplication for transformers at scale. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35: 30318–30332, 2022.
- Tim Dettmers, Artidoro Pagnoni, Ari Holtzman, and Luke Zettlemoyer. Qlora: Efficient finetuning of quantized llms. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36, 2024.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805*, 2018.
- Jordan Dotzel, Yuzong Chen, Bahaa Kotb, Sushma Prasad, Gang Wu, Sheng Li, Mohamed S Abdelfattah, and Zhiru Zhang. Learning from students: Applying t-distributions to explore accurate and efficient formats for llms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.03103*, 2024.
- Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, et al. The llama 3 herd of models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.21783*, 2024.
- Vage Egiazarian, Andrei Panferov, Denis Kuznedelev, Elias Frantar, Artem Babenko, and Dan Alistarh. Extreme compression of large language models via additive quantization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.06118*, 2024.
- Elias Frantar and Dan Alistarh. Optimal brain compression: A framework for accurate post-training quantization and pruning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:4475–4488, 2022.
- Elias Frantar and Dan Alistarh. Sparsegpt: Massive language models can be accurately pruned in one-shot. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 10323–10337. PMLR, 2023.
- Elias Frantar, Saleh Ashkboos, Torsten Hoefler, and Dan Alistarh. Gptq: Accurate post-training quantization for generative pre-trained transformers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.17323*, 2022.
- Elias Frantar, Roberto L Castro, Jiale Chen, Torsten Hoefler, and Dan Alistarh. Marlin: Mixed-precision auto-regressive parallel inference on large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.11743*, 2024.

- Leo Gao, Jonathan Tow, Baber Abbasi, Stella Biderman, Sid Black, Anthony DiPofi, Charles Foster, Laurence Golding, Jeffrey Hsu, Alain Le Noac'h, Haonan Li, Kyle McDonell, Niklas Muennighoff, Chris Ociepa, Jason Phang, Laria Reynolds, Hailey Schoelkopf, Aviya Skowron, Lintang Sutawika, Eric Tang, Anish Thite, Ben Wang, Kevin Wang, and Andy Zou. A framework for few-shot language model evaluation, 12 2023. URL <https://zenodo.org/records/10256836>.
- Georgi Gerganov. llama.cpp. <https://github.com/ggerganov/llama.cpp>, 2023. Accessed: 2024-10-01.
- Yiwen Guo, Anbang Yao, and Yurong Chen. Dynamic network surgery for efficient dnns. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 29, 2016.
- Babak Hassibi and David Stork. Second order derivatives for network pruning: Optimal brain surgeon. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 5, 1992.
- Babak Hassibi, David G Stork, and Gregory J Wolff. Optimal brain surgeon and general network pruning. In *IEEE international conference on neural networks*, pp. 293–299. IEEE, 1993.
- Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. Measuring massive multitask language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2009.03300*, 2020.
- Jordan Hoffmann, Sebastian Borgeaud, Arthur Mensch, Elena Buchatskaya, Trevor Cai, Eliza Rutherford, Diego de Las Casas, Lisa Anne Hendricks, Johannes Welbl, Aidan Clark, et al. Training compute-optimal large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.15556*, 2022.
- Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Arthur Mensch, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de las Casas, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Lample, Lucile Saulnier, et al. Mistral 7b. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06825*, 2023.
- Jean Kaddour, Joshua Harris, Maximilian Mozes, Herbie Bradley, Roberta Raileanu, and Robert McHardy. Challenges and applications of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.10169*, 2023.
- Enkelejda Kasneci, Kathrin Seßler, Stefan Küchemann, Maria Bannert, Daryna Dementieva, Frank Fischer, Urs Gasser, Georg Groh, Stephan Günemann, Eyke Hüllermeier, et al. Chatgpt for good? on opportunities and challenges of large language models for education. *Learning and individual differences*, 103:102274, 2023.
- Sehoon Kim, Coleman Hooper, Amir Gholami, Zhen Dong, Xiuyu Li, Sheng Shen, Michael W Mahoney, and Kurt Keutzer. Squeezellm: Dense-and-sparse quantization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.07629*, 2023.
- Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. Large language models are zero-shot reasoners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:22199–22213, 2022.
- Raghuraman Krishnamoorthi. Quantizing deep convolutional networks for efficient inference: A whitepaper. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1806.08342*, 2018.
- Eldar Kurtic, Daniel Campos, Tuan Nguyen, Elias Frantar, Mark Kurtz, Benjamin Fineran, Michael Goin, and Dan Alistarh. The optimal bert surgeon: Scalable and accurate second-order pruning for large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.07259*, 2022.
- Woosuk Kwon, Zhuohan Li, Siyuan Zhuang, Ying Sheng, Lianmin Zheng, Cody Hao Yu, Joseph Gonzalez, Hao Zhang, and Ion Stoica. Efficient memory management for large language model serving with pagedattention. In *Proceedings of the 29th Symposium on Operating Systems Principles*, pp. 611–626, 2023.
- Yann LeCun, John Denker, and Sara Solla. Optimal brain damage. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 2, 1989.

- Yuhang Li, Xin Dong, and Wei Wang. Additive powers-of-two quantization: An efficient non-uniform discretization for neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.13144*, 2019.
- Yuhang Li, Ruihao Gong, Xu Tan, Yang Yang, Peng Hu, Qi Zhang, Fengwei Yu, Wei Wang, and Shi Gu. Brecq: Pushing the limit of post-training quantization by block reconstruction. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2102.05426*, 2021.
- Ji Lin, Jiaming Tang, Haotian Tang, Shang Yang, Wei-Ming Chen, Wei-Chen Wang, Guangxuan Xiao, Xingyu Dang, Chuang Gan, and Song Han. Awq: Activation-aware weight quantization for on-device llm compression and acceleration. *Proceedings of Machine Learning and Systems*, 6: 87–100, 2024.
- Zechun Liu, Barlas Oguz, Changsheng Zhao, Ernie Chang, Pierre Stock, Yashar Mehdad, Yangyang Shi, Raghuraman Krishnamoorthi, and Vikas Chandra. Llm-qat: Data-free quantization aware training for large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.17888*, 2023.
- Stuart Lloyd. Least squares quantization in pcm. *IEEE transactions on information theory*, 28(2): 129–137, 1982.
- Stephen Merity, Caiming Xiong, James Bradbury, and Richard Socher. Pointer sentinel mixture models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1609.07843*, 2016.
- Mistral AI Team. Mistral large 2, July 26 2024. URL <https://mistral.ai/news/mistral-large-2407/>.
- Markus Nagel, Rana Ali Amjad, Mart Van Baalen, Christos Louizos, and Tijmen Blankevoort. Up or down? adaptive rounding for post-training quantization. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 7197–7206. PMLR, 2020.
- Denis Paperno, Germán Kruszewski, Angeliki Lazaridou, Quan Ngoc Pham, Raffaella Bernardi, Sandro Pezzelle, Marco Baroni, Gemma Boleda, and Raquel Fernández. The lambada dataset: Word prediction requiring a broad discourse context. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.06031*, 2016.
- Gunho Park, Baeseong Park, Minsub Kim, Sungjae Lee, Jeonghoon Kim, Beomseok Kwon, Se Jung Kwon, Byeongwook Kim, Youngjoo Lee, and Dongsoo Lee. Lut-gemm: Quantized matrix multiplication based on luts for efficient inference in large-scale generative language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.09557*, 2022.
- Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Francisco Massa, Adam Lerer, James Bradbury, Gregory Chanan, Trevor Killeen, Zeming Lin, Natalia Gimelshein, Luca Antiga, et al. Pytorch: An imperative style, high-performance deep learning library. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 32, 2019.
- Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J Liu. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer. *Journal of machine learning research*, 21(140):1–67, 2020.
- Pranav Rajpurkar, Jian Zhang, Konstantin Lopyrev, and Percy Liang. Squad: 100,000+ questions for machine comprehension of text. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.05250*, 2016.
- Keisuke Sakaguchi, Ronan Le Bras, Chandra Bhagavatula, and Yejin Choi. Winogrande: An adversarial winograd schema challenge at scale. *Communications of the ACM*, 64(9):99–106, 2021.
- Wenqi Shao, Mengzhao Chen, Zhaoyang Zhang, Peng Xu, Lirui Zhao, Zhiqian Li, Kaipeng Zhang, Peng Gao, Yu Qiao, and Ping Luo. Omniquant: Omnidirectionally calibrated quantization for large language models. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=8Wuvhh0LYW>.
- Ying Sheng, Lianmin Zheng, Binhang Yuan, Zhuohan Li, Max Ryabinin, Beidi Chen, Percy Liang, Christopher Ré, Ion Stoica, and Ce Zhang. Flexgen: High-throughput generative inference of large language models with a single gpu. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 31094–31116. PMLR, 2023.

- Sidak Pal Singh and Dan Alistarh. Woodfisher: Efficient second-order approximation for neural network compression. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:18098–18109, 2020.
- Arun James Thirunavukarasu, Darren Shu Jeng Ting, Kabilan Elangovan, Laura Gutierrez, Ting Fang Tan, and Daniel Shu Wei Ting. Large language models in medicine. *Nature medicine*, 29(8):1930–1940, 2023.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, et al. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971*, 2023a.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, et al. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288*, 2023b.
- Albert Tseng, Jerry Chee, Qingyao Sun, Volodymyr Kuleshov, and Christopher De Sa. Quip#: Even better llm quantization with hadamard incoherence and lattice codebooks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.04396*, 2024.
- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, et al. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:24824–24837, 2022.
- Guangxuan Xiao, Ji Lin, Mickael Seznec, Hao Wu, Julien Demouth, and Song Han. Smoothquant: Accurate and efficient post-training quantization for large language models. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 38087–38099. PMLR, 2023.
- Xin Yu, Thiago Serra, Srikumar Ramalingam, and Shandian Zhe. The combinatorial brain surgeon: pruning weights that cancel one another in neural networks. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 25668–25683. PMLR, 2022.
- Rowan Zellers, Ari Holtzman, Yonatan Bisk, Ali Farhadi, and Yejin Choi. Hellaswag: Can a machine really finish your sentence? *arXiv preprint arXiv:1905.07830*, 2019.
- Lianmin Zheng, Wei-Lin Chiang, Ying Sheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Zhanghao Wu, Yonghao Zhuang, Zi Lin, Zhuohan Li, Dacheng Li, Eric Xing, et al. Judging llm-as-a-judge with mt-bench and chatbot arena. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:46595–46623, 2023.

APPENDIX

A EXPLANATIONS ON QUANTIZATION GRID

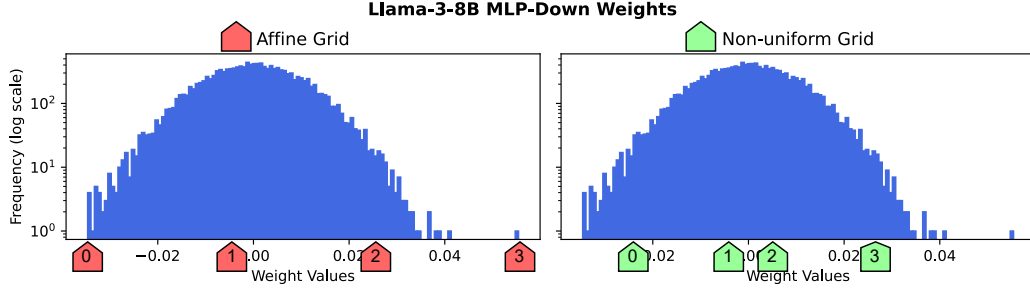


Figure 3: Comparison of affine (left) and non-uniform (right) 2-bit quantization grids applied to the weights in the first MLP-down layer of Llama-3-8B. The affine grid uses evenly spaced quantization points between the minimum and maximum weights. In contrast, the non-uniform grid allows grid points to be placed flexibly, as their positions are stored in a look-up table. This enables finer quantization in dense regions and coarser quantization in sparse regions, better aligning with the weight distribution and reducing quantization error.

In the context of quantization, a grid is a predefined set of values representing the possible quantized outputs for full-precision parameters. During quantization, each full-precision parameter is mapped to its nearest grid point on the quantization grid. For example, in a 2-bit quantization scheme with grid points $\{-1.0, -0.33, 0.33, 1.0\}$, a floating-point weight of 0.25 would be assigned to 0.33, the closest grid point.

Affine Quantization Grid An affine quantization grid distributes points uniformly across the range of the weights being quantized. The dynamic range of the weights, defined as $[W_{\min}, W_{\max}]$, determines the spacing of the grid points. For example, if $[W_{\min}, W_{\max}] = [-1.0, 1.0]$ in a 2-bit quantization setting, the grid points would be evenly spaced at $-1.0, -0.33, 0.33, 1.0$. This uniform distribution is computationally simple and widely used in practice, but it may lead to suboptimal precision when the weight distribution is non-uniform, as many grid points may be underutilized.

Non-uniform Quantization Grid Non-uniform grids allocate grid points more flexibly, allowing denser spacing in high-probability regions of the weight distribution and sparser spacing in low-probability regions. This approach minimizes quantization error by adapting the grid to the data distribution. Non-uniform grids typically store the grid points in a look-up table, enabling flexible placement that better represents the original data. Figure 3 illustrates an example of affine grid and non-uniform grid applied to the weights of Llama-3-8B.

Grouped Quantization The quantization grid for a set of weights is determined by the range $[W_{\min}, W_{\max}]$ within the group. Smaller group sizes allow for a narrower dynamic range, leading to finer granularity in the quantization grid and higher precision. Grouping contiguous weights into blocks is a common practice in quantization literature (Lin et al., 2024; Frantar et al., 2022) and ensures a balance between memory efficiency and precision.

B LEANQUANT-EXACT

The pseudocode of LeanQuant-Exact for accurately quantizing million-parameter networks is presented in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 LeanQuant-Exact for Millon-parameter Networks

Input: a row $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^c$ in the weight matrix, sample input matrix \mathbf{X} , bit width b , hyperparameter p
Output: Quantized row $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$

```

1:  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}_c$ 
2:  $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \leftarrow (2\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top)^{-1}$ 
3: if using non-uniform grid then
4:    $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \arg \min_{\mathcal{G}: |\mathcal{G}|=2^b} (\text{diag}(\mathbf{H}^{-1})^{-p})^\top |\text{quant}_{nu}(\mathbf{w}, \mathcal{G}) - \mathbf{w}|^2$  ▷ E. 6
5: else if using affine grid then
6:    $S, Z \leftarrow \arg \min_{(S,Z) \in \mathbb{S}} (\text{diag}(\mathbf{H}^{-1})^{-p})^\top |\text{quant}_{aff}(\mathbf{w}, S, Z) - \mathbf{w}|^2$  ▷ E. 7
7: end if
8: for  $j \leftarrow 1, \dots, c$  do
9:   if using non-uniform grid then
10:     $i \leftarrow \arg \min_i \frac{(\text{quant}_{nu}(w_i, \mathcal{G}) - w_i)^2}{2\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}}$ 
11:     $\hat{w}_i \leftarrow \text{quant}_{nu}(w_i, \mathcal{G})$ 
12:   else if using affine grid then
13:     $i \leftarrow \arg \min_i \frac{(\text{quant}_{aff}(w_i, S, Z) - w_i)^2}{2\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}}$ 
14:     $\hat{w}_i \leftarrow \text{quant}_{aff}(w_i, S, Z)$ 
15:   end if
16:    $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \frac{\mathbf{H}_{:,i}^{-1}}{\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}} (w_i - \hat{w}_i)$ 
17:    $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \leftarrow \mathbf{H}^{-1} - \frac{\mathbf{H}_{:,i}^{-1} \mathbf{H}_{i,:}^{-1}}{\mathbf{H}_{i,i}^{-1}}$ 
18: end for
19: return  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ 

```

B.1 BERT EXPERIMENTS WITH LEANQUANT-EXACT

We compare the performance of BERT models (Devlin et al., 2018), quantized with OBQ (Frantar & Alistarh, 2022) and LeanQuant_{nu}-Exact, on the SQuAD dataset (Rajpurkar et al., 2016). We quantize the 12-layer BERT-base (Devlin et al., 2018) and the 3-layer BERT-3 variant from Kurtic et al. (2022) to 3 and 4 bits. OBQ and LeanQuant-Exact are calibrated using 1024 samples from the training set, and the F1 score is reported on the test set.

Method	Bits	BERT-3	BERT
FP32	32	84.66	88.53
OBQ	4.03	84.40	87.96
LeanQuant _{nu} -Exact	4.13	84.58	88.49
OBQ	3.03	83.47	84.72
LeanQuant _{nu} -Exact	3.06	84.20	86.21

Table 6: F1 scores on SQuAD of BERT models quantized using OBQ and LeanQuant_{nu}-Exact. LeanQuant_{nu}-Exact outperforms OBQ in maintaining model quality.

C DISCUSSION ON ERROR ACCUMULATION DURING ITERATIVE QUANTIZATION

LeanQuant prevents drastic increase to the task loss by learning the quantization grid for better preservation of the precision of outlier inverse diagonals. However, since the not-yet-quantized weights will shift during the iterative quantization process and the quantization grid is fixed beforehand, one potential problem arises: the quantization grid is no longer well-aligned with the outliers after certain iterations. Fortunately, this is not a problem in practice. The loss-error-awareness property of LeanQuant grids prevents high-norm weight perturbations δ_i (Equation 3) from occurring, hence the weights do not shift by much during the iterations. Furthermore, no new inverse-diagonal

outliers will arise during the iterative quantization process, since the remaining inverse diagonals only decrease in magnitude towards zero after each column and row removal (Equation 4).

D EXPERIMENT DETAILS

Baseline Reproduction We use the quantized models provided by the official repository where possible. We obtained quantized LLaMA-7B, LLaMA-13B, Llama-2-7B, Llama-2-13B from the OmniQuant repository, and LLaMA-7B, LLaMA-13B, Llama-2-7B, Llama-2-13B, Mistral-7B from the SqueezeLLM repository. We obtained the community-driven GPTQ-quantized version of Llama-3.1-405B-Instruct from HuggingFace ¹. The other quantized models are reproduced using the official codebases and recommended hyperparameters. For OmniQuant, we set the training epochs to 20, enable Learnable Weight Clipping (LWC), set an LWC learning rate of 1e-2. For SqueezeLLM, there is no tunable parameters. For GPTQ, we turn on activation ordering (quantizing columns in order of decreasing activation size) for more accurate model.

Perplexity Evaluations We follow the perplexity evaluation procedure described by (Frantar et al., 2022): sequences from the test set of the WikiText2 and C4 datasets (Merity et al., 2016; Raffel et al., 2020) are concatenated into 128 sequences of length 2048 tokens for perplexity testing.

Accuracy Evaluations We use lm-evaluation-harness (Gao et al., 2023) for evaluating zero-shot accuracy on tasks. The task names we evaluate are `lambada`, `ai2_arc`, `winogrande`, `piqa`, `hellaswag`, `mmlu`.

E PERPLEXITY EVALUATIONS

The perplexity evaluation results on WikiText2 (Merity et al., 2016) and C4 (Raffel et al., 2020) for quantized models are presented in Table 7.

F LLM-AS-A-JUDGE

LLM as a Judge The evaluation results on MT-Bench using GPT-4o (2024-05-13) as a judge are presented in Figure 4. We pitch 3-bit and 4-bit, with group size of 128, LeanQuant_{aff} against OmniQuant, and 4-bit LeanQuant_{nu} against SqueezeLLM. LeanQuant achieves higher win rate than the baselines.

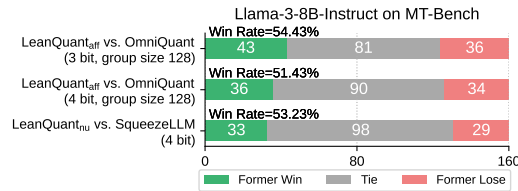


Figure 4: Evaluation of quantized Llama-3-8B-Instruct on MT-Bench using OpenAI GPT-4o as a judge. The win rates reported exclude ties.

G ACCURACY RESULTS ON MORE MODELS

The zero-shot accuracy results on benchmarks for quantized LLaMA-7B, LLaMA-13B, Llama-2-7B (Touvron et al., 2023a;b) are presented in Table 8.

¹<https://huggingface.co/hugging-quants/Meta-Llama-3.1-405B-Instruct-GPTQ-INT4>

Table 7: Perplexity evaluations of Llama models under different quantization methods and bit widths. The results of GPTQ, AWQ, OmniQuant are from Shao et al. (2024), and the results of SqueezeLLM are from Kim et al. (2023). [†] The official SqueezeLLM code does not support 2-bit quantization, and we report the available results from Kim et al. (2023).

Grid	Method	Bits	WikiText-2					C4					Avg.
			1-7B	1-13B	2-7B	2-13B	2-70B	1-7B	1-13B	2-7B	2-13B	2-70B	
	FP16	16	5.58	5.09	5.47	4.88	3.31	7.08	6.61	6.97	6.46	5.52	5.697
Affine	GPTQ	4.00	6.13	5.40	5.83	5.13	3.58	7.43	6.84	7.37	6.70	5.67	6.008
	AWQ	4.00	6.08	5.34	6.15	5.12	-	7.52	6.86	7.68	6.74	-	-
	OmniQuant	4.00	5.86	5.21	5.74	5.02	3.47	7.34	6.76	7.35	6.65	5.65	5.905
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	5.92	5.25	5.73	5.08	3.49	7.30	6.76	7.25	6.63	5.63	5.904
Non-uniform	SqueezeLLM	4.04-4.05	5.79	5.18	5.62	4.99	3.41	7.21	6.71	7.12	6.57	5.58	5.818
	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.04-4.05	5.81	5.19	5.64	4.99	3.42	7.21	6.70	7.13	6.57	5.58	5.824
Affine	GPTQ	3.00	8.06	6.76	8.37	6.44	4.82	9.49	8.16	9.81	8.02	6.57	7.650
	AWQ	3.00	11.88	7.45	24.00	10.45	-	13.26	9.13	23.85	13.07	-	-
	OmniQuant	3.00	6.49	5.68	6.58	5.58	3.92	8.19	7.32	8.65	7.44	6.06	6.591
	LeanQuant _{aff}	3.00	6.62	5.76	6.61	5.66	3.91	7.98	7.19	8.27	7.23	5.90	6.513
Non-uniform	SqueezeLLM	3.02	6.32	5.60	6.18	5.36	3.77	7.75	7.08	7.72	6.97	5.83	6.258
	LeanQuant _{nu}	3.02	6.34	5.60	6.19	5.40	3.80	7.74	7.05	7.73	6.98	5.83	6.266
Affine	GPTQ	2.00	1.1E5	6.8E4	3.8E4	5.6E4	2.0E4	689.13	2.5E3	NaN	323.12	48.82	NaN
	OmniQuant	2.00	15.47	13.21	37.37	17.21	7.81	24.89	18.31	90.64	26.76	12.28	26.395
	LeanQuant _{aff}	2.00	18.53	14.42	25.69	24.43	7.92	19.99	16.53	27.11	20.92	10.84	18.638
Non-uniform	SqueezeLLM [†]	2.01	-	N/A	-	61.25	10.86	-	-	N/A	-	-	N/A
	LeanQuant _{nu}	2.01	15.65	9.64	15.51	10.06	6.35	17.62	10.93	17.07	11.83	7.96	12.262

H QUANTIZATION TIME COST

The time cost of LeanQuant for different models and configurations are presented in Table 9.

I ABLATION STUDY

Sensitivity to Hyperparameter p Ablative experiments on the effects of the hyperparameter p on the quality of LeanQuant models are presented in Table 10. In the case of $p = 0$, the inverse Hessian diagonals are ignored as the weights for clustering, and the centroids are learned based on the density of weights. It is worth noting that $p = 0$ results in sub-optimal model quality compared to higher values of p , which means that the loss-error-awareness property of the quantization grid is critical for maintaining model quality.

Grid Point Initialization Ablative experiments comparing k-means++ initialization with our proposed uniformly spaced grid initialization are presented in Table 11.

J LOSS ERROR COMPARISON

A comparison of the sum of loss errors ϵ between GPTQ and LeanQuant (affine and non-uniform) is presented in Figure 5.

Table 8: Zero-shot accuracy of more quantized LLMs on benchmarks.

Method	Bits	ARC		LAMBADA		MMLU				HellaS	PIQA	WinoG	Avg.		
		Easy	Chg	Std	OpenAI	STEM	Human.	Social	Other						
LLaMA-7B															
FP16	16	75.29	41.81	67.77	73.49	28.20	32.03	31.65	36.53	56.92	78.67	70.09	53.86		
Affine	GPTQ	4.00	73.61	39.51	65.61	71.98	24.29	28.12	25.80	31.16	55.61	77.80	70.40	49.03	
	OmniQuant	4.00	74.49	39.68	65.38	71.96	30.32	30.92	33.38	35.79	55.82	78.45	68.67	53.17	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	74.03	41.64	63.75	70.56	31.27	33.13	32.66	37.79	56.31	78.40	69.30	53.53	
	GPTQ	3.00	66.67	35.84	49.89	58.37	25.94	27.46	23.46	24.98	51.76	75.35	64.72	43.78	
	OmniQuant	3.00	72.22	38.48	59.67	69.20	27.18	27.65	25.64	29.61	52.99	76.55	67.17	49.67	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	3.00	73.70	40.78	65.28	72.66	27.85	31.37	30.61	35.31	56.23	78.45	70.09	52.94	
Non-uniform	GPTQ	2.00	26.35	22.01	0.00	0.00	23.69	25.08	24.28	24.01	25.69	53.70	50.99	24.95	
	OmniQuant	2.00	51.05	22.70	11.80	23.13	26.51	26.04	24.37	23.69	34.71	64.36	54.30	32.97	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	2.00	55.98	27.22	38.56	47.45	24.45	25.31	22.85	25.46	37.19	68.12	60.77	39.40	
	SqueezeLLM	4.05	76.56	46.25	69.53	75.22	32.98	37.19	42.18	44.00	59.29	78.62	71.82	57.60	
	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.05	76.39	45.05	71.55	76.48	34.76	38.77	46.12	47.18	59.29	78.78	73.24	58.87	
	SqueezeLLM	3.02	75.46	43.77	65.07	72.75	30.45	34.24	37.18	40.46	57.32	78.29	71.35	55.12	
	LeanQuant _{nu}	3.02	75.17	43.00	70.41	77.29	33.81	38.32	43.16	45.06	57.35	78.29	71.35	57.56	
	SqueezeLLM	2.01	- N/A -												
	LeanQuant _{nu}	2.01	50.38	24.40	31.67	41.30	21.79	24.19	21.74	24.36	37.49	65.67	58.33	36.48	
	LLaMa-13B														
FP16	16	77.40	46.42	71.12	76.19	36.41	41.55	48.49	48.54	59.92	79.16	72.69	59.81		
Affine	GPTQ	4.00	77.06	45.56	69.12	75.28	34.44	39.15	45.95	46.73	58.99	78.56	72.53	56.63	
	OmniQuant	4.00	75.97	45.22	68.25	75.59	35.30	40.21	48.20	47.25	59.11	78.94	72.61	58.79	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	76.39	46.42	70.48	76.27	35.52	39.45	46.18	47.22	58.82	78.94	72.30	58.91	
	GPTQ	3.00	70.92	39.93	57.29	64.82	29.37	31.94	33.18	35.34	54.05	76.99	68.43	49.13	
	OmniQuant	3.00	75.42	42.83	60.80	71.34	29.56	34.24	36.24	41.17	57.27	77.97	69.61	54.22	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	3.00	75.84	43.34	67.49	74.85	33.37	36.56	41.92	44.74	56.75	77.97	70.48	56.66	
Non-uniform	GPTQ	2.00	27.10	21.93	0.02	0.00	23.37	25.50	23.56	24.49	25.76	53.16	49.72	24.75	
	OmniQuant	2.00	59.51	29.52	17.85	23.35	22.52	24.12	22.81	24.46	42.01	67.25	56.12	35.41	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	2.00	61.45	29.27	44.63	50.82	28.73	26.01	27.20	27.26	39.08	71.27	65.82	42.87	
	SqueezeLLM	4.04	76.56	46.25	69.53	75.22	32.98	37.19	42.18	44.00	59.29	78.62	71.82	57.60	
	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.04	76.39	45.05	71.55	76.48	34.76	38.77	46.12	47.18	59.29	78.78	73.24	58.87	
	SqueezeLLM	3.02	75.46	43.77	65.07	72.75	30.45	34.24	37.18	40.46	57.32	78.29	71.35	55.12	
	LeanQuant _{nu}	3.02	75.17	43.00	70.41	77.29	33.81	38.32	43.16	45.06	57.35	78.29	71.35	57.56	
	SqueezeLLM	2.01	- N/A -												
	LeanQuant _{nu}	2.01	65.66	32.42	54.49	66.93	23.44	25.50	23.98	28.42	45.66	72.80	66.14	45.95	
	Llama-2-13B														
FP16	16	79.50	48.46	70.35	76.73	42.28	47.89	61.16	59.38	60.06	79.05	72.22	63.37		
Affine	GPTQ	4.00	78.32	45.48	68.33	75.35	40.28	46.08	56.48	54.65	58.92	78.45	71.82	59.59	
	OmniQuant	4.00	77.69	47.10	68.74	75.57	41.39	46.10	57.39	55.87	59.48	79.00	70.32	61.70	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	4.00	79.42	47.27	69.16	75.90	42.21	47.31	59.90	57.93	59.07	78.24	71.82	62.57	
	GPTQ	3.00	72.85	39.85	59.77	67.20	34.86	38.85	47.97	46.48	54.61	76.28	70.32	53.62	
	OmniQuant	3.00	76.60	43.34	60.70	70.54	38.60	42.59	53.23	51.82	57.42	77.97	69.14	58.36	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	3.00	77.31	44.54	68.15	75.88	37.93	43.80	53.07	52.62	56.36	76.99	70.72	59.76	
Non-uniform	GPTQ	2.00	25.84	20.22	0.00	0.00	22.84	25.59	23.53	23.98	25.97	52.07	47.75	24.19	
	OmniQuant	2.00	48.19	24.66	10.21	20.14	21.34	24.21	21.77	23.85	40.16	63.00	52.33	31.81	
	LeanQuant _{aff}	2.00	50.88	24.32	32.70	39.57	21.50	24.38	21.90	24.40	38.01	67.19	56.91	36.52	
	SqueezeLLM	4.04	78.91	47.70	70.00	76.23	42.72	47.89	60.19	58.32	59.74	78.73	72.77	63.02	
	LeanQuant _{nu}	4.04	78.91	47.56	71.12	77.43	43.51	47.44	59.54	58.83	59.58	78.62	72.06	63.15	
	SqueezeLLM	3.02	77.27	43.17	66.37	73.80	38.22	44.63	55.18	53.11	58.74	77.86	69.46	59.80	
Non-uniform	LeanQuant _{nu}	3.02	77.19	44.20	71.14	78.59	40.72	45.46	56.87	55.10	56.38	77.75	70.09	61.23	
	SqueezeLLM	2.01	- N/A -												
	LeanQuant _{nu}	2.01	62.46	30.20	47.00	61.09	25.28	27.74	27.56	28.87	42.20	69.91	62.04	44.03	

Table 9: Total time taken by LeanQuant for quantizing different-sized LLMs, using a single L40s-48GB GPU, an AMD EPYC 7R13 48-Core CPU, and 370GB of RAM. Llama-3.1-405B is quantized using 2 Quadro RTX 8000 GPUs, an AMD EPYC 7742 64-Core CPU, and 1.48TB of RAM.

Model	Grid	Group Size	Bits	Time
Llama-2-7B	Affine	-	4.00	14 mins
	Affine	128	4.25	15 mins
	Non-uniform	-	4.05	35 mins
Llama-3-8B	Affine	-	4.00	16 mins
	Affine	128	4.25	20 mins
	Non-uniform	-	4.05	37 mins
Llama-2-70B	Affine	-	4.00	178 mins
	Non-uniform	-	4.04	335 mins
Mistral-Large-Instruct-2407 (123B)	Affine	-	4.00	252 mins
Llama-3.1-405B	Affine	128	4.25	1241 mins

Table 10: The perplexity of LeanQuant models on WikiText2 and C4, using different values of p .

Grid	Hyperparameter	WikiText2			C4			
		4-bit	3-bit	2-bit	4-bit	3-bit	2-bit	
Mistral-7B	Non-uniform	$p = 0$	12.13	29.92	5,991.18	16.73	22.71	5,998.96
		$p = 2$	5.39	5.98	25.09	7.89	8.50	20.27
		$p = 3$	5.37	5.92	22.32	7.88	8.48	19.81
		$p = 4$	5.38	5.96	25.61	7.88	8.47	21.65
	Affine	$p = 0$	14.52	80.54	230.66	16.94	69.04	243.65
		$p = 2$	5.52	8.58	55.50	8.03	16.84	41.99
		$p = 3$	5.51	6.36	18.33	8.03	8.80	20.20
		$p = 4$	5.51	6.31	18.00	8.02	8.86	20.47
Llama-2-7B	Non-uniform	$p = 0$	5.69	6.76	NaN	7.15	8.23	62.00
		$p = 2$	5.65	6.30	17.16	7.13	7.83	19.14
		$p = 3$	5.64	6.25	17.84	7.13	7.80	19.55
		$p = 4$	5.64	6.28	15.82	7.14	7.83	18.89
	Affine	$p = 0$	5.84	8.19	93.01	7.30	9.54	85.62
		$p = 2$	5.77	7.33	27.82	7.27	8.83	28.86
		$p = 3$	5.75	6.80	25.97	7.26	8.32	27.57
		$p = 4$	5.75	6.69	26.82	7.25	8.29	28.14

Table 11: Ablative experiments on grid point initialization.

	Grid Init.	Llama-2-7B			Llama-3-8B			Mistral-7B		
		4-bit	3-bit	2-bit	4-bit	3-bit	2-bit	4-bit	3-bit	2-bit
WikiText2	K-means++	5.64	6.25	17.84	6.59	8.31	46.31	5.37	5.92	22.32
	Uniformly Spaced (ours)	5.66	6.20	17.53	6.59	7.88	41.78	5.40	5.88	19.06
C4	K-means++	7.13	7.80	19.55	10.17	12.53	39.86	7.88	8.48	19.81
	Uniformly Spaced (ours)	7.14	7.72	18.75	10.20	12.16	36.00	7.91	8.42	17.85

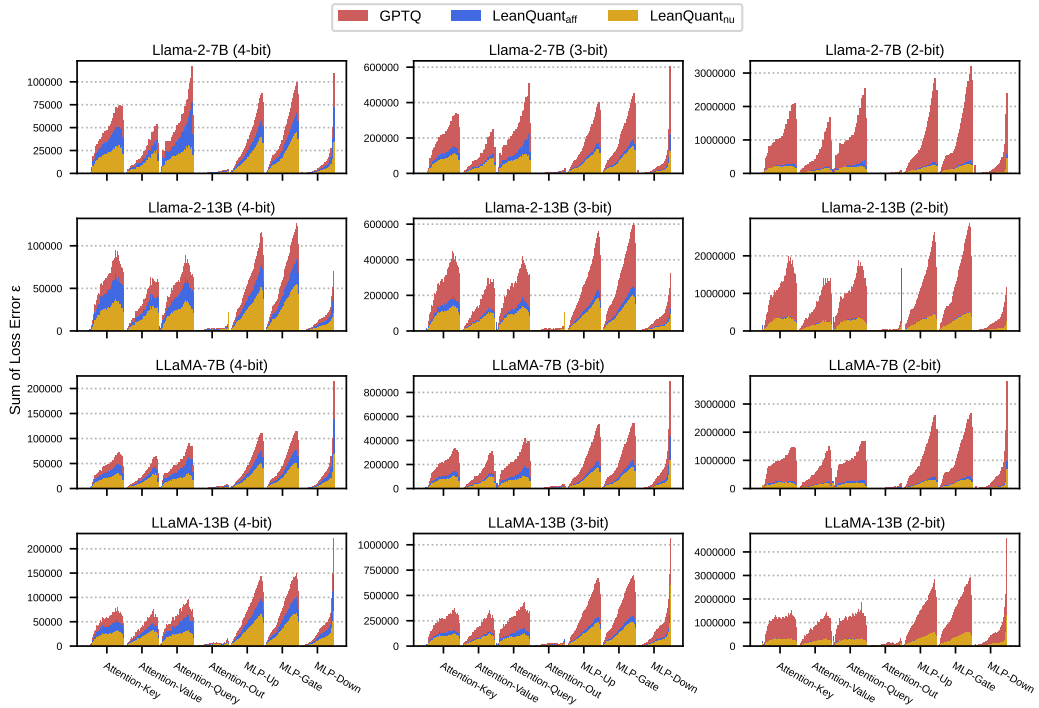


Figure 5: Comparison of loss errors ϵ of each layer for GPTQ and LeanQuant (affine and non-uniform) during iterative quantization.