CROSSQUANT: A POST-TRAINING QUANTIZATION METHOD WITH SMALLER QUANTIZATION KERNEL FOR PRECISE LARGE LANUGAGE MODEL COMPRES SION

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Post-Training Quantization (PTQ) is an effective technique for compressing Large Language Models (LLMs). While many studies focus on quantizing both weights and activations, it is still a challenge to maintain the accuracy of LLM after activating quantization. To investigate the primary cause, we extend the concept of kernel from linear algebra to quantization functions to define a new term, "quantization kernel", which refers to the set of elements in activations that are quantized to zero. Through quantitative analysis of the quantization kernel, we find that these elements are crucial for maintaining the accuracy of quantized LLMs. With the decrease of quantization kernel, the precision of quantized LLMs increases. If the quantization kernel proportion is kept below 19% for OPT models and below 1% for LLaMA models, the precision loss from quantizing activations to INT8 becomes negligible. Motivated by the goal of developing a quantization method with small quantization kernel, we propose CrossQuant-a simple yet effective method for quantizing activations. CrossQuant cross-quantizes elements using row and column-wise absolute maximum vectors, achieving a quantization kernel of approximately 16% for OPT models and less than 0.1% for LLaMA models. Experimental results on LLMs (LLaMA, OPT) ranging from 6.7B to 70B parameters demonstrate that CrossQuant improves or maintains perplexity and accuracy in language modeling, zero-shot, and few-shot tasks.

033

008

009

010 011 012

013

015

016

017

018

019

021

023

025

026

027

028

029

031

032

034 035 1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, Large Language Models (LLMs) based on the Transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017) have achieved remarkable success across various domains (He et al., 2024; Dubey et al., 037 2024; GLM et al., 2024), with model sizes reaching billions and even tens of billions of parameters. However, these LLMs require substantial computational resources for inference. For instance, running the LLaMA3-70B (Dubey et al., 2024) model demands at least 140GB of RAM in high-040 precision (FP16). As the size of LLMs continues to grow, reducing the computational resources 041 required for LLMs inference has become a critical challenge. Quantization, a compression tech-042 nique, addresses this by reducing model parameters from high-precision floating points (FP16) to 043 low-precision integers (e.g., 8-bit integers, INT8), significantly reducing GPU requirements. To ef-044 fectively scale larger models on a limited number of devices, it is essential to quantize both weights 045 and activations while utilizing the fewest possible bits, all without compromising accuracy.

Post-Training Quantization (PTQ) compresses LLMs directly without the need for retraining, and can be further divided into two subgroups based on whether activations are quantized: weight-only quantization (Lin et al., 2024; Frantar et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2023) and weight-activation quantization (Xiao et al., 2023; Shao et al., 2024; Yao et al., 2022). There are two widely used methods for quantizing both weights and activations: Per-channel quantization (Liu et al., 2023) and Per-token quantization (Yao et al., 2022). Per-channel quantization has demonstrated superior performance for quantizing weights to INT4/INT8, denoted as W4/W8. Per-token quantization is used in activations. However, Per-token quantization results in significant accuracy degradation when quantizing activations to INT8, denoted as A8. Many studies argue that Per-token quantization

056

058

060

061 062 063

064

065

066

067

068

069

076



Figure 1: To examine the impact of quantization kernel on the quantization loss, we evaluate the average accuracy of various quantization methods for OPT family models across several zero-shot tasks, including Lambada, ARC-easy, Hellaswag, PIQA, and BoolQ. FP16 serves as the baseline, while W4 refers to weights quantized to INT4. A8 represents activations quantized to INT8, and "Remove Kernel" refers to directly setting the elements in quantization kernel to zero without quantizing the other elements in the activations.

fails to address the challenges posed by outliers in the activation matrix (Kovaleva et al., 2021;
Gao et al., 2019; Puccetti et al., 2022), and focus on mitigating the accuracy loss caused by these
outliers during quantization (Wei et al., 2022; Dettmers et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2022). However,
these methods are still based on the basic idea of Per-token quantization, and cannot achieve better
performance in the extreme quantization of lower bits, such as INT4.

082 Enhancing quantization precision from the perspective of quantization kernel. Through quan-083 titative analysis of the accuracy degradation caused by activation quantization, we find that the 084 primary issue stems from the treatment of small-valued elements in activations. Specifically, some 085 elements with small but non-zero absolute values are quantized to zero, forming the quantization kernel. By comparing the effects of setting the elements in quantization kernel to zero with quan-087 tizing activations to INT8 (A8), we demonstrate that setting elements in the quantization kernel to zero achieves nearly the same precision as A8. This suggests that most of the error in quantizing activations arises from the quantization kernel (see Figure 1). We find that the precision of quantized LLMs improves with the decrease of the proportion of quantized kernel, as shown in Figure 6 and 090 Figure 7. Furthermore, preserving quantization kernels below a threshold allows quantized models 091 to nearly match the accuracy of FP16, with OPT models at around 19% and LLaMA models at 092 approximately 1%. Thus, the key to achieving high-precision activation quantization is minimizing the kernel. Clear definition and analysis of quantization kernel is provided in section 4. 094

Method. Based on the motivation of finding a quantization method with smaller quantization kernel, 096 we propose CrossQuant, a simple yet powerful approach for quantizing activations to INT8/INT4. Per-token quantization utilizes per-row absolute-maximum vector (denoted as t) to quantize the entire activation, as illustrated in Figure 2. When t_i is too large, many elements $X_{i,j}$ in the activation 098 are rounded to zero after division by t_i , forming the quantization kernel. CrossQuant introduces 099 the per-column absolute-maximum vector (denoted as c) to cross-quantize activations. Since the 100 absolute maximum values of columns are typically smaller than those of rows (see Table 1), most 101 $t_i^{\alpha} c_i^{1-\alpha}$ are smaller than t_i (where $0 \le \alpha \le 1$), Consequently, many elements are no longer rounded 102 to zero after division $t_i^{\alpha} c_i^{1-\alpha}$, effectively reducing the quantization kernel, thus preserving precision. 103 Figure 1 demonstrates that CrossQuant applied to INT8 achieves nearly the same accuracy as FP16, 104 and Figure 4 shows the proportion of quantization kernel of CrossQuant and Per-token quantization. 105

Experimental results demonstrate the effectiveness of CrossQuant. In section 5, we apply
 CrossQuant on the LLaMA family models (Touvron et al., 2023a;b; Dubey et al., 2024) and OPT family models (Zhang et al., 2022), evaluating its performance on language modeling, zero-shot



Figure 2: A comparison table of Per-token quantization and CrossQuant.

and few-shot tasks. Compared to the baselines, CrossQuant shows comparable or superior accuracy
 across W8A8, W4A8, W4A8-g128 and W4A4.

130 **Contributions.** (1) We identify that the elements in the quantization kernel mapped to zero are 131 the root cause of the decline in the precision of quantized LLMs. Additionally, we establish the 132 thresholds that OPT and LLaMA models need to stay below to minimize this precision loss. (2) 133 We propose CrossQuant, which determines the scaling factor directly from the activation matrix 134 without requiring additional training. This method maintains the quantization kernel below the 135 identified thresholds to achieve high-precision quantization. (3) CrossQuant demonstrates improved 136 perplexity and accuracy across various model sizes (ranging from 6.7B to 70B) in different model 137 families (LLaMA, OPT).

138 139

140

126

127

2 RELATED WORKS

Post-Training Quantization (PTQ) of LLM can be divided into two categories: weight-only quantization and weight-activation quantization, based on whether activations are quantized or not (Zhu et al., 2024).

Weight-only Quantization, is a method only quantize weights into low-bit integers like INT3 145 or INT4 with keeping activations in FP16, denoted as W3A16 or W4A16. GPTQ (Frantar et al., 146 2022) quantizes each channel through iterative refinement, concurrently optimizing the unquantified 147 weights to mitigate and compensate for the difference introduced by the quantization process. AWQ 148 (Lin et al., 2024) focuses on identifying and protecting a small fraction of salient weights based 149 on activation importance. SqueezeLLM (Kim et al., 2023) preserves sensitive weights through a 150 sensitivity-based non-uniform quantization and Dense-and-Sparse decomposition. On devices with 151 limited computing resources, such as mobile devices, quantizing weights alone is insufficient; acti-152 vation also needs to be quantized.

153 Weight-activation Quantization, quantizes both weights and activations into low-bit values, such 154 as W8A8 (INT8 for both weights and activations). ZeroQuant (Yao et al., 2022) employs both 155 group-wise and token-wise quantization strategies to quantize weights and activations to INT8, 156 marking it as the first deployment of a weight-activation quantization method. Most subsequent 157 works attribute the decrease in quantization accuracy of activations to outliers (Wei et al. (2022); 158 Zou et al. (2024)), which have large-magnitude values and emerge in the activations of models with 159 over 6.7B parameters. LLM.int8() (Dettmers et al., 2022) utilizes a mixed-precision quantization strategy, maintaining outliers and their corresponding weights at FP16, while quantizing the 160 remaining weights and activations to INT8. Outlier Suppression (Wei et al., 2023) and OmniQuant 161 (Shao et al., 2024) focus on identifying and reducing the influence of outlier values in activations to enhance quantization compatibility. SmoothQuant (Xiao et al., 2023) addresses the ouliers by
 equivalently transferring the quantization challenge from activations to weights. We find that the
 quantization kernel is the direct cause of quantization loss, while outliers indirectly affect the size of
 the quantization kernel (discussed in detail in Appendix A). Our work also aligns with the scope of
 weight-activation quantization.

3 BACKGROUND

Given a linear layer in Transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017), it computes $Y = X \cdot W$, where $X \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times I}$ and $W \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times O}$. $\{T, I, O\}$ indicates {number of tokens, input channels, output channels} respectively. Initial X and W are composed of elements of FP16, and the quantized Q(X) and Q(W) are composed of elements of INT4 or INT8.

Quantizing activations optimizes model performance by lowering the precision of activation values, which accelerates inference for real-time applications. This reduction decreases the memory foot-print required for activations, improving computational efficiency (Shen et al., 2023). Quantizing weights also minimize memory usage, allowing larger models to fit within the constraints of edge devices, and decreases data transfer, further reducing latency and energy consumption (Lin et al., 2024). Together, weight and activation quantization enable the deployment of sophisticated models in resource-constrained environments, enhancing the practicality of LLMs applications.

Per-token quantization, the quantization unit of it is one row and it linearly maps X to integers within the range $[-2^{N-1} - 1, 2^{N-1} - 1]$, which can be represented as:

$$Q(X_{i,j}) = round(\frac{X_{i,j}}{\Delta_{i,j}^x}), \quad \Delta_{i,j}^x = \frac{t_i}{2^{N-1}-1} = \frac{\max(|\mathbf{X}_{i,j}|)}{2^{N-1}-1}, \quad \forall X_{i,j} \in \mathbf{X}$$
(1)

where $\Delta_{i,j}^x$ is the element with the maximum absolute value $t_i = \max(|X_{i,i}|)$ in the *i*-th row of X. Since the absolute value of outliers is large (at least 20x larger than the other elements), t_i is a large value, resulting in many $X_{i,j}$ are being rounded to zero after dividing by $\Delta_{i,j}^x$, resulting in a large number of elements in the quantization kernel. Our CrossQuant reduces the quantization kernel by reducing $\Delta_{i,j}^x$ so that $X/\Delta_{i,j}^x$ is no longer zero after round().

Per-channel quantization is a widely used method for quantizing weights, utilizing the maximum absolute value in the i-th row of W to do quantization:

201 202

203 204

205

206

207

167 168

169 170

171 172 173

181

182 183 184

185

$$Q(W_{i,j}) = round(\frac{W_{i,j}}{\Delta_{i,j}^w}), \quad \Delta_{i,j}^w = \frac{\max(|\boldsymbol{W}_{i,:}|)}{2^{N-1}-1}, \quad \forall W_{i,j} \in \boldsymbol{W}$$
(2)

It is also worth introducing that group-wise quantization is a widely used technique for quantizing weight, which uses smaller channels to achieve higher precision (Shen et al. (2020);Yao et al. (2022);Lin et al. (2024)). It reshapes $W \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times O}$ to $\hat{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{\frac{I \cdot O}{g} \times g}$ first and then does quantization. Many of our experiments are based on W4A8-g128 (group size g is 128) because we want to provide a reference for these weight-only quantization methods using group-wise.

4 Method

In section 4.1, we give the definition of the quantization kernel. We propose CrossQuant in section 4.2 and demonstrate that CrossQuant has smaller quantization kernel compared to Per-token quantization. The remainder of our findings is presented in section 4.3.

208 209 4.1 QUANTIZATION KERNEL

In linear algebra, the kernel of a linear map is the part of the domain which is mapped to the zero vector of the co-domain. In this paper, we extend kernel to quantization function to help us define the elements quantized to zero (see Figure 3 for a example of quantization kernel).

Definition 1. Given the quantization method Q and the activation matrix X, consider the set of elements quantized to zero, namely the quantization kernel $\mathcal{K}(Q)$:

$$\mathcal{K}(Q) = \{X_{i,j} \in \boldsymbol{X} \mid Q(X_{i,j}) = 0\}$$
(3)

10(8)) — (0.00,	0.1	, 0.10	, 0.01	, 0.2,0.01,	0.02						, 		() —	10.01	Ĵ
	0	127	0	4	4		0.09	43.4	-0.1	1.4	1.2		26	86	-7	76	
	0	127	1	0	6	Per-token	0.15	58.7	0.5	0.07	2.7	CrossQuant	41	112	32	4	
	0	127	2	0	6	INT8	-0.2	68.3	1.1	0.02	3.2	INT8	-53	127	68	1	
	0	127	0	1	3		0.01	54.8	0.2	0.5	1.5		0	105	13	26	
			Q(X)	(acc 2	29.249	%)			X (acc 69	.92%)			CQ(X) (acc	6

Figure 3: An example illustrates quantization kernel of two methods on a sample activation matrix X, where "acc" is the average accuracy of OPT-66B on five zero-shots tasks: Lambada, ARC-easy, Hellaswag, PIQA and BoolQ.

Meanwhile, the elements in $\mathcal{K}(Q)$ satisfy:

$$X_{i,j} \in \mathcal{K}(Q) \Leftrightarrow round(\frac{X_{i,j}}{\Delta_{i,j}^x}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \left| \frac{X_{i,j}}{\Delta_{i,j}^x} \right| < 0.5 \Leftrightarrow |X_{i,j}| < B_{i,j}$$
(4)

we name $B_{i,j} = 0.5 \times \Delta_{i,j}^x$ as zero bound ($\Delta_{i,j}^x \ge 0$).

4.2 CROSSQUANT

226 227

228

229

230

231 232 233

235 236 237

238 239

240 241 242 The CrossQuant function can be expressed as following:

$$CQ(X_{i,j}) = round(\frac{X_{i,j}}{\widetilde{\Delta}_{i,j}^x}), \quad \widetilde{\Delta}_{i,j}^x = \frac{t_i^\alpha c_j^{1-\alpha}}{2^{N-1}-1}, \quad \forall X_{i,j} \in \mathbf{X}$$
(5)

243 where $c_j = \max(|\mathbf{X}_{i,j}|)$ is the maximum absolute value in the j-th column. The hyperparameter α 244 within the range $0 \le \alpha \le 1$, serves as the exponent component in both t_i and c_i , $1 - \alpha$ is utilized to 245 maintain normalization. The relationship between the variation of α and the accuracy of the model is discussed in section 5. 246

247 Compared to Per-channel quantization, we introduce a vector of "column maximum values" along-248 side the vector of "row maximum values", collectively cross-quantizing activations. In fact, the 249 quantization unit of CrossQuant is a single element (each element has a different $\Delta_{i,j}^x$), but does not 250 significantly increase the storage cost with the large increase in quantization accuracy. CrossQuant 251 only stores one extra vector of length I compared with Per-token quantization. About time complexity, $X_{i,i}$ requires one extra division compared to Per-token quantization, but the time complexity is 253 still O(TI).

254 According to the Definition 1, the kernel of CQ is $\mathcal{K}(CQ) = \{X_{i,j} \in \mathbf{X} \mid CQ(X_{i,j}) = 0\} =$ 255 $\left\{X_{i,j} \in \mathbf{X} \mid X_{i,j} < \widetilde{B}_{i,j}\right\}$, where $\widetilde{B}_{i,j} = 0.5 \times \widetilde{\Delta}_{i,j}^x$. The results of CrossQuant in this section are 256 all based on $\alpha = 0.15$. We calculate the proportion of kernels caused by two methods relative to 257 the total number of elements in the activation matrix (see Figure 4). For OPT family models with 258 parameters $\geq 2.3B$, the proportion of Per-token quantization kernels experiences a sharp increase 259 (from 16% to 35%) and remains high (between 40% and 55%). In contrast, CrossQuant consistently 260 maintains a low percentage (around 16%). For LLaMA family models, the proportion of Per-token 261 quantization kernels remains low, at approximately 11%, with CrossQuant kernels representing a 262 negligible proportion (<0.1%).

There are a lot of statistical data in Figure 4, but it cannot reflect the corresponding relationship 264 between the quantization kernel of different percentages and the accuracy of the models, so we 265 raise the question: What is the correlation between quantization kernels of different proportions and 266 the accuracy of quantized models? To answer this question, we test OPT and LLaMA models on 267 language modeling task of different settings, shown in Figure 5, Figure 6 and Figure 7. 268

From the combination of Figure 4 and Figure 5, we observe the following results: (1) Generally, the 269 size of quantization kernels is positively correlated with perplexity; (2) Quantization kernels larger



Figure 4: The average proportion of kernels of both quantization methods are calculated in all activations in OPT (left) and LLaMA (right) models on WikiText2.



Figure 5: We evaluate the OPT and LLaMA models on the language modeling task using the Wiki-Text2 dataset, measuring performance via perplexity. The top two groups are tested with W8A8, while the bottom two groups use W4A8-g128.

than 40% lead to a significant decline in the perplexity of quantized models, as seen in the figures of
the OPT models; (3) CrossQuant outperforms Per-token quantization due to its smaller quantization
kernel; (4) Different models exhibit different thresholds, below which the proportion of quantized
kernels mitigates the accuracy loss caused by activations. Through experiments, we find that this
threshold is approximately 19% for OPT models and 1% for LLaMA models, and we discuss about
these thresholds in detail in section 4.3.

We now provide a theoretical analysis showing that $\mathcal{K}(CQ)$ is smaller than $\mathcal{K}(Q)$. Given the activation matrix X, the elements in X are invariant. Therefore, proving $\mathcal{K}(CQ)$ is smaller than $\mathcal{K}(Q)$ only depends on proving $\widetilde{B}_{i,j} < B_{i,j}$. For convenience, we write $\max(|X_{i,:}|)$ as t_i , $\max(|X_{:,j}|)$ as c_j . There are two cases for c_j and t_i are discussed:

I:
$$c_j < t_i$$

Scaling the original formula as $t_i^{\alpha} c_j^{1-\alpha} < t_i$, from $\widetilde{\Delta}_{i,j}^x < \Delta_{i,j}^x$ we can know that $\widetilde{B}_{i,j} < B_{i,j}$.

 $II: c_j \ge t_i$

Case II will lead to $\tilde{B}_{i,j} \geq B_{i,j}$, but it actually takes a small proportion (about 3%) in the whole matrix, as shown in Table 1. When $\alpha = 0.75$, the proportion of $\tilde{B}_{i,j} < B_{i,j}$ is the highest, but the result is not the best, because the average proportion of quantization kernel does not the lowest.

Table 1: The average proportion of OPT-13B in activations for the tow indicators are calculated on WikiText2. $\alpha = 1$ is actually Per-token quantization, thus $\tilde{B}_{i,j} < B_{i,j}$ is not counted.

OPT-13B	$\mid \alpha = 0.15$	$\alpha=0.45$	$\alpha=0.75$	$\alpha = 1$
$c_j \ge t_i$	3.10%	3.11%	2.76%	0.93%
$\widetilde{B}_{i,j} < B_{i,j}$	96.84%	96.82%	97.14%	-
Quantization Kernel	16.17%	16.22%	16.32%	43.40%
W8A8 perplexity	10.13	10.20	10.83	3e+4

4.3 DETERMINE THE THRESHOLD OF THE QUANTIZATION KERNEL

In section 4.2, we establish a positive correlation between different proportions of the quantization kernel and model accuracy. In this subsection, we quantitatively analyze the relationship between the proportion of quantization kernel and the model accuracy, while also exploring the specific threshold values for LLaMA and OPT models mentioned in section 4.2 for LLaMA models and OPT models. As illustrated in Figure 6 and Figure 7, the thresholds for OPT-6.7B, 13B, 30B, and 66B are 25%, 19%, 25%, and 20%, respectively; for LLaMA2-7B, 2-13B, and 1-30B, the thresholds are 2%, 1%, and 1%. Therefore, the quantization kernel should be reduced to below 19% for OPT models and 1% for LLaMA models to achieve activation quantization without precision loss.



Figure 6: Perplexity of OPT models on the language modeling task using the WikiText2 dataset, where "W8-Remove Kernel" indicates quantizing weights to INT8 and setting different proportion of quantization kernels to zero directly without quantizing other elements in activations.



Figure 7: Perplexity of LLaMA models on the language modeling task using the WikiText2 dataset, where "W8-Remove Kernel" indicates quantizing weights to INT8 and setting different proportion of quantization kernels to zero directly without quantizing other elements in activations.

5 EXPERIMENTS

396 397 398

399

391

392

393 394 395

5.1 Setups

Models. We implemented CrossQuant on the LLaMA family models (2-7B, 2-13B, 1-30B, 3-8B, 3-70B) (Touvron et al., 2023a;b; Dubey et al., 2024) and the OPT family models (1.3B, 2.3B, 6.7B, 13B, 30B, 66B) (Zhang et al., 2022).

Baselines. Both weight-activation quantization and weight-only quantization are chose as baselines. For weight-activate quantization, we compare CrossQuant with Per-token quantization, SmoothQuant (Xiao et al., 2023) and OmniQuant (Shao et al., 2024). For weight-only quantization, we select AWQ (Lin et al., 2024) with activations quantized by Per-token quantization. The weights quantization method for CrossQuant is Per-channel quantization.

Evaluation. Quantized models are evaluated on language modeling experiments, zero-shot and few-shot tasks. Language modeling experiments include WikiText2 (Merity et al., 2016) and C4 (Raffel et al., 2019); zero-shot tasks include Lambada (Paperno et al., 2016), ARC-easy (Clark et al., 2018), PIQA (Lourie et al., 2021), Hellaswag (Zellers et al., 2019) and BoolQ (Clark et al., 2019); the few-shot task is MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2021) with five-shots.

413 414

Table 2: Perplexity(\downarrow) results of quantized LLaMA models (2-7B, 2-13B, 1-30B) on language modeling tasks in three groups: W8A8, W4A8-g128 and W4A4. The datasets are the test split of Wikitext2 and C4.

418		337/ 4	7	В	13	В	30	B
419	Method	W/A	Wiki2	C4	Wiki2	C4	Wiki2	C4
420	FP16	W16A16	5.47	7.52	4.88	7.01	4.11	6.38
421	Per-token	W8A8	5.58	7.69	4.94	7.71	4.33	7.66
422	SmoothQuant	W8A8	5.51	7.58	4.92	7.03	4.20	6.50
423	CrossQuant	W8A8	5.48	7.53	4.89	7.00	4.11	6.42
424	Per-token	W4A8-g128	6.99	8.07	5.23	7.24	4.48	8.05.
425	AWO	W4A8-g128	5.79	7.92	5.14	7.19	4.39	6.64
426	CrossQuant	W4A8-g128	5.79	7.81	5.18	7.18	4.32	6.61
427	CrossQuant+AWQ	W4A8-g128	5.70	7.81	5.14	7.15	4.27	6.51
428	Per-token	W4A4	2e+4	2e+4	5e+4	4e+4	1e+4	1e+4
429	OmniQuant	W4A4	13.0	18.89	14.2	18.0	9.15	14.32
430	CrossQuant	W4A4	12.40	18.19	7.59	7.85	7.48	10.69
431								

432 5.2 LANGUAGE MODELING TASKS 433

434 Table 2 contains three groups of experiments to test the perplexity of CrossQuant on language mod-435 eling task. Meanwhile, we check the combination effect of CrossQuant with AWQ. For the first group (W8A8), CrossQuant demonstrates slightly better performance on the 7B and 13B models 436 compared to SmoothQuant. In the second group, CrossQuant matches the performance of AWQ, 437 with 4 wins and 2 losses. Notably, CrossQuant+AWQ achieves improved perplexity, indicating that 438 CrossQuant can be effectively combined with weight-only methods for better results. In the last 439 group, CrossQuant reduced perplexity by 4.8%-56.38% compared to OmniQuant. 440

441 442

443

447

449

450

451

452

5.3 ZERO-SHOT TASKS

The all results in Table 3 are obtained by the lm-eval-harness¹. CrossQuant closely matches 444 the FP16 accuracy on both W8A8 and W4A8-g128, performing slightly better than SmoothQuant on 445 W8A8. For W4A8-g128 and W4A8, CrossQuant significantly outperforms the baselines. We also 446 test CrossQuant on OPT-1.3B, 2.3B, 6.7B and 13B, shown in Appendix B.2. Overall, CrossQuant demonstrates its abilities to maintain the accuracy across quantized LLMs of varying sizes. 448

Table 3: Accuracy(\uparrow) results of OPT models (30B, 66B) on five zero-shot tasks, including Lambada, ARC-easy, PIQA, Hellaswag and BoolQ. Average accuracy of each baseline is calculated at the last column.

3									
4	Model	Method	W/A	Lambada	ARC-easy	PIQA	Hellaswag	BoolQ	Avg.
5		FP16	W16A16	70.63%	68.86%	77.52%	54.25%	70.12%	68.27%
		Per-token	W8A8	0.00%	29.62%	55.16%	26.42%	37.85%	29.81%
		SmoothQuant	W8A8	71.41%	69.57%	77.42%	54.22%	69.94%	68.51%
		CrossQuant	W8A8	70.77%	69.90%	77.80%	54.32%	70.09%	68.57%
	ODT 20P	Per-token	W4A8-g128	0.00%	27.02%	53.21%	26.13%	37.82%	28.36%
	OF 1-30B	AWQ	W4A8-g128	0.01%	25.79%	53.31%	27.33%	42.26%	29.74%
		CrossQuant	W4A8-g128	68.26%	68.35%	76.98%	53.16%	67.37%	66.82%
		Per-token	W4A4	0.00%	26.39%	51.85%	25.93%	37.83%	28.40%
		OmniQuant	W4A4	0.00%	24.4%	51.5%	25.88%	37.85%	27.92%
		CrossQuant	W4A4	43.12%	58.50%	69.70%	39.89%	61.74%	54.59%
		FP16	W16A16	73.58	71.63%	78.72%	56.36%	69.35%	69.92%
		Per-token	W8A8	0.00%	28.95%	53.42%	26.00%	37.85%	29.24%
		SmoothQuant	W8A8	73.1%	70.79%	78.45%	56.21%	67.77%	69.26%
		CrossQuant	W8A8	73.61%	71.38%	78.67%	56.34%	68.72%	69.74%
	ODT 66D	Per-token	W4A8-g128	0.00%	28.03%	53.80%	25.77%	37.85%	29.09%
	OP 1-00D	AWQ	W4A8-g128	1.94%	25.79%	53.31%	27.33%	42.26%	30.12%
		CrossQuant	W4A8-g128	72.46%	68.68%	77.20%	54.49%	69.23%	68.41%
		Per-token	W4A4	0.00%	24.66%	50.97%	26.02%	37.82%	27.89%
		OmniQuant	W4A4	0.00%	24.87%	51.25%	25.89%	37.82%	27.96%
		CrossQuant	W4A4	26.21%	54.58%	62.51%	34.33%	51.59%	45.84%
		-	1	1					

472 473

474

475

480

485

5.4 ABLATION STUDY

476 In ablation study, we mainly explore the influence of different values of α on perplexity and accuracy. 477 As shown in Figure 8, on the Lambada dataset, OPT-6.7B has a qualitative leap in accuracy (from 478 43% up to 80%) and reaches the optimal value at $\alpha = 0.55$. On WikiText2, perplexity drops significantly (from 6.99 to bleow 5.09) after $\alpha \le 0.95$, and the optimal value is obtained at $\alpha = 0.15$. 479

481 Then we test CrossQuant's performance on LLaMA3-8B and 3-70B, see Table 4. CrossQuant has 482 a wide but narrow lead over SmoothQuant on $\alpha = 0.15$, a partial advantage on $\alpha = 0.45$ and 483 $\alpha = 0.75$. Ablation study shows that CrossQuant performs well with $\alpha \leq 0.55$ in general. The 484 closer α is to 1 (the closer it is to Per-token quantization), the worse LLMs performs.

¹https://github.com/EleutherAI/Im-evaluation-harness



Figure 8: Visualizations of accuracy changes for OPT-6.7B-W8A8 on Lambada (left) and perplexity changes for LLaMA2-13B-W4A8 on WikiText2 (right) with varying α .

Mathad	W//A	llam	a3-8B	llama	a3-70B
Wiethou	W/A	Wiki2	MMLU	Wiki2	MMLU
FP16	W16A16	6.13	65.25%	2.85	78.90%
Per-token	W8A8	6.27	64.40%	41.90	28.99%
SmoothQuant	W8A8	6.25	64.40%	2.97	78.39%
CrossQuant $\alpha = 0.15$	W8A8	6.16	65.40%	2.93	78.57%
CrossQuant $\alpha = 0.45$	W8A8	6.17	65.30%	2.94	78.33%
CrossQuant $\alpha = 0.75$	W8A8	6.20	64.94%	3.23	74.57%

Table 4: Ablation study results on LLaMA3-8B and 3-70B

6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Our work has the following limitations, which are also our future research directions:

- Although we have identified that the decrease in quantization accuracy is caused by quantization kernels, this conclusion is based on experimental results. We have not yet fully explored the specific information contained in undershoots that necessitates their preservation during quantization. In future work, we will continue to investigate the missing features during quantization inference.
- The OPT-2.3B model exhibits a high proportion of kernels yet still performs well after quantization (see Figure 4). We hypothesize that this is related to the scale of the model's parameters. In future research, we will examine why smaller models can tolerate a high percentage (30%) of quantization kernels.
- 7 Con

CONCLUSION

In this paper, we introduce the concept of "quantization kernel", defined as the set of elements in activations that are quantized to zero. Investigating the primary reason for the decline in precision in quantized LLMs, we find that this decline is attributable to the quantization kernel being mapped to zero. Through quantitative experiments, we establish that the quantization kernels need to be reduced to a certain proportion to maintain the accuracy of quantized LLMs, specifically 19% for OPT models and 1% for LLaMA models. CrossQuant, a weight-activation method designed to minimize the quantization kernels, outperforms the baselines in language modeling, zero-shot, and few-shot tasks, with its quantization kernels of 16% for OPT models and <1% for LLaMA models. Our method provides a new analytical perspective to better understand and deconstruct quantization loss, and we hope our findings inspire further valuable research in the field of quantization.

540 **Reproducibility Statement** 541

542 We guarantee that all results presented in this paper are reproducible. To ensure the reproducibility 543 of our results, we provide the following details regarding our methodology and data: for data avail-544 ability, all datasets used in this paper are publicly accessible at https://huggingface.co/; for code availability, a source code is provided in supplementary materials; for experimental setup, 546 detailed experiments settings could be seen in Appendix B.1.

REFERENCES

547 548

549

567

571 572

581

- 550 Christopher Clark, Kenton Lee, Ming-Wei Chang, Tom Kwiatkowski, Michael Collins, and Kristina 551 Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. 552 arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805, 2019.
- 553 Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and 554 Oyvind Tafjord. Think you have solved question answering? try arc, the ai2 reasoning challenge. 555 arXiv:1803.05457v1, 2018. 556
- Tim Dettmers, Mike Lewis, Younes Belkada, and Luke Zettlemoyer. Gpt3. int8 (): 8-bit matrix 558 multiplication for transformers at scale. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 35: 559 30318-30332, 2022.
- Tim Dettmers, Ruslan Svirschevski, Vage Egiazarian, Denis Kuznedelev, Elias Frantar, Saleh Ashk-561 boos, Alexander Borzunov, Torsten Hoefler, and Dan Alistarh. Spqr: A sparse-quantized repre-562 sentation for near-lossless llm weight compression, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/ 563 2306.03078. 564

565 Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. BERT: Pre-training of 566 deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Jill Burstein, Christy Doran, and Thamar Solorio (eds.), Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of 568 the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long 569 and Short Papers), pp. 4171-4186, Minneapolis, Minnesota, June 2019. Association for Com-570 putational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/N19-1423. URL https://aclanthology.org/ N19-1423.

- Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, et al. The llama 3 herd of models, 2024. URL 573 https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.21783. 574
- 575 Elias Frantar, Saleh Ashkboos, Torsten Hoefler, and Dan Alistarh. Gptq: Accurate post-training 576 quantization for generative pre-trained transformers. arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.17323, 2022. 577
- 578 Jun Gao, Di He, Xu Tan, Tao Qin, Liwei Wang, and Tie-Yan Liu. Representation degeneration 579 problem in training natural language generation models, 2019. URL https://arxiv.org/ 580 abs/1907.12009.
- Team GLM, :, Aohan Zeng, Bin Xu, Bowen Wang, Chenhui Zhang, Da Yin, Dan Zhang, Diego 582 Rojas, Guanyu Feng, Hanlin Zhao, Hanyu Lai, Hao Yu, Hongning Wang, Jiadai Sun, Jiajie Zhang, 583 Jiale Cheng, Jiayi Gui, Jie Tang, Jing Zhang, Jingyu Sun, Juanzi Li, Lei Zhao, Lindong Wu, Lucen 584 Zhong, Mingdao Liu, Minlie Huang, Peng Zhang, Qinkai Zheng, Rui Lu, Shuaiqi Duan, Shudan 585 Zhang, Shulin Cao, Shuxun Yang, Weng Lam Tam, Wenyi Zhao, Xiao Liu, Xiao Xia, Xiaohan 586 Zhang, Xiaotao Gu, Xin Lv, Xinghan Liu, Xinyi Liu, Xinyue Yang, Xixuan Song, Xunkai Zhang, Yifan An, Yifan Xu, Yilin Niu, Yuantao Yang, Yueyan Li, Yushi Bai, Yuxiao Dong, Zehan Qi, 588 Zhaoyu Wang, Zhen Yang, Zhengxiao Du, Zhenyu Hou, and Zihan Wang. Chatglm: A family of 589 large language models from glm-130b to glm-4 all tools, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/ abs/2406.12793.
- Xiaoxin He, Xavier Bresson, Thomas Laurent, Adam Perold, Yann LeCun, and Bryan Hooi. Har-592 nessing explanations: Llm-to-lm interpreter for enhanced text-attributed graph representation learning, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2305.19523.

634

635

636

637

594	Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob
595	Steinhardt. Measuring massive multitask language understanding. Proceedings of the Interna-
596	tional Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR), 2021.
597	

- 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.
- Olga Kovaleva, Saurabh Kulshreshtha, Anna Rogers, and Anna Rumshisky. Bert busters: Outlier dimensions that disrupt transformers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2105.06990*, 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, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2305.17888.
- Nicholas Lourie, Ronan Le Bras, Chandra Bhagavatula, and Yejin Choi. Unicorn on rainbow: A
 universal commonsense reasoning model on a new multitask benchmark, 2021. URL https:
 //arxiv.org/abs/2103.13009.
- Stephen Merity, Caiming Xiong, James Bradbury, and Richard Socher. Pointer sentinel mixture models. *CoRR*, abs/1609.07843, 2016. URL http://arxiv.org/abs/1609.07843.
- Denis Paperno, Germán Kruszewski, Angeliki Lazaridou, Ngoc Quan Pham, Raffaella Bernardi,
 Sandro Pezzelle, Marco Baroni, Gemma Boleda, and Raquel Fernandez. The LAMBADA
 dataset: Word prediction requiring a broad discourse context. In *Proceedings of the 54th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 1525–1534, Berlin, Germany, August 2016. Association for Computational Linguistics. URL http://www.aclweb.org/anthology/P16-1144.
- Giovanni Puccetti, Anna Rogers, Aleksandr Drozd, and Felice Dell'Orletta. Outliers dimensions
 that disrupt transformers are driven by frequency. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.11380*, 2022.
- 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. *CoRR*, abs/1910.10683, 2019. URL http://arxiv.org/abs/1910.10683.
- 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.
 - Sheng Shen, Zhen Dong, Jiayu Ye, Linjian Ma, Zhewei Yao, Amir Gholami, Michael W Mahoney, and Kurt Keutzer. Q-bert: Hessian based ultra low precision quantization of bert. In *Proceedings* of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, volume 34, pp. 8815–8821, 2020.
- Xuan Shen, Peiyan Dong, Lei Lu, Zhenglun Kong, Zhengang Li, Ming Lin, Chao Wu, and Yanzhi
 Wang. Agile-quant: Activation-guided quantization for faster inference of llms on the edge, 2023.
 URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2312.05693.
- William Timkey and Marten van Schijndel. All bark and no bite: Rogue dimensions in transformer language models obscure representational quality, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/ 2109.04404.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée
 Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurelien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. Llama: Open and efficient foundation
 language models, 2023a. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2302.13971.

- 648 Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Niko-649 lay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, et al. Llama 2: Open founda-650 tion and fine-tuned chat models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288, 2023b. 651
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, 652 Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. Advances in neural informa-653 tion processing systems, 30, 2017. 654
- 655 Xiuying Wei, Yunchen Zhang, Xiangguo Zhang, Ruihao Gong, Shanghang Zhang, Qi Zhang, Feng-656 wei Yu, and Xianglong Liu. Outlier suppression: Pushing the limit of low-bit transformer lan-657 guage models. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 35:17402–17414, 2022.
- Xiuying Wei, Yunchen Zhang, Xiangguo Zhang, Ruihao Gong, Shanghang Zhang, Qi Zhang, Feng-659 wei Yu, and Xianglong Liu. Outlier suppression: Pushing the limit of low-bit transformer lan-660 guage models, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2209.13325. 661
- Guangxuan Xiao, Ji Lin, Mickael Seznec, Hao Wu, Julien Demouth, and Song Han. Smoothquant: 662 Accurate and efficient post-training quantization for large language models. In International 663 Conference on Machine Learning, pp. 38087–38099. PMLR, 2023. 664
- 665 Zhewei Yao, Reza Yazdani Aminabadi, Minjia Zhang, Xiaoxia Wu, Conglong Li, and Yuxiong He. 666 Zeroquant: Efficient and affordable post-training quantization for large-scale transformers, 2022. 667 URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2206.01861. 668
- Rowan Zellers, Ari Holtzman, Yonatan Bisk, Ali Farhadi, and Yejin Choi. Hellaswag: Can a ma-669 chine really finish your sentence? In Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association 670 for Computational Linguistics, 2019.
- 672 Susan Zhang, Stephen Roller, Naman Goyal, Mikel Artetxe, Moya Chen, Shuohui Chen, Christo-673 pher Dewan, Mona Diab, Xian Li, Xi Victoria Lin, Todor Mihaylov, Myle Ott, Sam Shleifer, Kurt 674 Shuster, Daniel Simig, Punit Singh Koura, Anjali Sridhar, Tianlu Wang, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 675 Opt: Open pre-trained transformer language models, 2022.
- 676 Xunyu Zhu, Jian Li, Yong Liu, Can Ma, and Weiping Wang. A survey on model compression for 677 large language models, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2308.07633. 678
- 679 Lancheng Zou, Wengian Zhao, Shuo Yin, Chen Bai, Qi Sun, and Bei Yu. Bie: Bi-exponent block floating-point for large language models quantization. In Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning, 2024.

685

686

687

688

689

690

691 692 693

680

671

658

OUTLIERS IN TRANSFORMER А

Sparse but systematically large-magnitude outliers (only 0.1% of all input features but are at least 20x larger than the other values (Dettmers et al., 2022)) significantly emerge in activations of Large Language Models (LLMs) with over 6.7B parameters. Many previous works contribute the decline of quantized models accuracy to outliers. We think that the decrease of quantization accuracy caused by outliers is mainly due to the excessive quantization kernel. As shown in Per-token quantization function:

$$Q(X_{i,j}) = round(\frac{X_{i,j}}{\Delta_{i,j}^x}), \quad \Delta_{i,j}^x = \frac{t_i}{2^{N-1}-1} = \frac{\max(|\mathbf{X}_{i,j}|)}{2^{N-1}-1}, \quad \forall X_{i,j} \in \mathbf{X}$$
(6)

694 outliers make the t_i become large, and $X_{i,j}$ is a small value which would be rounded to zero after 695 dividing by t_i . Thus outlier leads to the large size of quantization kernel. To avoid this problem, 696 the direct way is let $\Delta_{i,i}^x$ be smaller, so our CrossQuant is proposed around this idea. There are 697 also many previous studies have examined the causes of outliers and their relationship to performance degradation in quantized models (Gao et al., 2019; Timkey & van Schijndel, 2021; Dettmers et al., 2022). Kovaleva et al. (2021) found that the emergence of outliers in the BERT model family 699 is linked to the normalization process of LayerNorm. Additionally, Puccetti et al. (2022) demon-700 strated through experiments that the appearance of outliers is related to the frequency of tokens 701 in the training distribution. Devlin et al. (2019) introduced novel quantization schemes, such as

Per-embedding-group Quantization for BERT, which addresses the issue of quantized models dis proportionately focusing on special tokens.

The existing works have studied outliers in detail, and we analyze quantization loss from quantization kernel.

B SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR EXPERIMENTS



Figure 9: To examine the impact of quantization kernel on the quantization loss of activations, we
evaluate the average accuracy of various quantization methods for OPT family models across several
zero-shot tasks, including Lambada, ARC-easy, Hellaswag, PIQA, and BoolQ. FP16 serves as the
baseline, while W4/W8 refers to weights quantized to INT4/INT8, and A8 represents that activations
are quantized to INT8, and "Remove Kernel" refers to directly setting the elements in kernel to zero
without quantizing the other elements in the activations.

As shown in Figure 9, the accuracy of W4 and W8, A8 and "Remove Kernel" are comparable, indicating that the quantization kernel plays a major role in the accuracy degradation of Large Language Models (LLMs). CrossQuant achieves similar results to FP16 on both W4 and W8.

B.1 EXPERIMENTS SETTINGS

We deploy all of our experiments on RTX 4090 except OmniQuant. For each baseline, the specifics of our implementation are:

SmoothQuant. We generate smooth scales from SmoothQuang's open source $code^2$ and use its *fake_quant.py* to get all results. The smooth factor α for LLaMA and OPT is 0.8 and 0.5 respectively (follow the settings in its demo).

AWQ. We generate AWQ search results by its open source code³. Since AWQ is a weight-only method, we deploy fake quant (Per-token quantization) on activations during inference. And AWQ's code only supports group-wise quatization for weights with size 128 and 64, we choose g128, that is W4A8-g128. For W4A4, CrossQuant shows significant decline but are still better than baselines.

OmniQuant. OmniQuant is a weight-activation method but needs extra training to generate Om niQuant parameters. We test both our own generated OmniQuant parameters and OpenGVLab's

^{755 &}lt;sup>2</sup>https://github.com/mit-han-lab/smoothquant

³https://github.com/mit-han-lab/llm-awq

756 open source OmniQuant parameters⁴, and each model selected better results as the baseline. All of 757 OmniQuant's experiments are deployed on the NVIDIA A800. 758

CrossQuant. We use Per-channel quantization to quantize weights in CrossQuant except LLaMA3-759 70B and OPT-66B. To deploy experiments on our method, we still need to determine the value of α . 760 As discussed in section 4, we find that $\alpha = 0.15$ is a general good value for all models, and may not 761 be the best. All experiments of CrossQuant are implemented with $\alpha = 0.15$. 762

When we quantizing OPT-66B to W4A4 and LLaMA3-70B to W8A8, we meet with great resistance, 763 due to the kernels of Per-channel quantization in weights matrix. Some works have found that 764 outliers also emerge in weights of models (Dettmers et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2023), which will cause 765 kernels in weights quantized by Per-channel quantization. CrossQuant as a solution solving the 766 problem of quantization kernels, it can be used in weights as well. Thus we deploy CrossQuant on 767 both weights and activations on quantizing OPT-66B to W4A4 and LLaMA3-70B to W8A8. Given 768 $\alpha_X = 0.15$, we find optimal α_W for OPT-66B and LLaMA3-70B, that is $\alpha_W = 0.55$ and $\alpha_W = 0$ 769 respectively. 770

Our experimental results can be reproduced based on the following open source code AWO⁵ and 771 SmoothQuant⁶ by adding the following fake quant code in the appropriate place: 772

```
773
774
775
```

```
def CrossQuant(x, n_bits=8, alpha=0.15):
         q_max = 2 ** (n_bits - 1) - 1
         scale_t = x.abs().max(dim=-1, keepdim=True)[0].pow(alpha).div_(q_max)
         scale_c = x.abs(dim = -2)[0].pow(1-alpha)
776
         x.div_(scale_t).div_(scale_c).round_().mul_(scale_c).mul_(scale_t)
777
         return x
778
```

779 From the perspective of the code, CrossQuant only adds a point division operation compared to Per-token quantization, while Per-token quantization itself requires a matrix point division, so 781 CrossQuant's time complexity does not increase.

```
782
783
784
```

B.2 ZERO-SHOT EXPERIMENTS

785 We supplement CrossQuant's experiments on OPT family models, as shown in Table 5, with data 786 that are also complementary to Figure 1. From the table we can see that Per-token's accuracy drops 787 rapidly when model parameters are \geq 6.7B (outliers start to emerge), while crossquant still maintains an accuracy close to that of FP16. 788

789 790

-7	5	-4
7	м	
-	~	

792

793 794

796 797 798

799 800

801

802

804 805



808

magaingrace.co/chemima/ommQuant/rec/main	⁴ https://hu	ggingface	.co/ChenMnZ/	OmniQuant/tre	e/main
--	-------------------------	-----------	--------------	---------------	--------

⁵https://github.com/mit-han-lab/llm-awq

⁶https://github.com/mit-han-lab/smoothquant

1	0	4	n	
1	0	ł	υ	

Table 5: Accuracy([†]) results of OPT models (1.3B, 2.3B, 6.7B, 13B) on five zero-shot tasks, in-cluding Lambada, ARC-easy, PIQA, Hellaswag and BoolQ. Average accuracy of each baseline is calculated at the last column.

Model	Method	W/A	Lambada	ARC-easy	PIQA	Hellaswag	BoolQ	Avg.
	FP16	W16A16	56.14%	57.57%	71.54%	41.37%	56.97%	56.71%
	Per-token	W8A8	57.07%	57.25%	70.62%	40.76%	57.25%	56.29%
OPT-1.3B	CrossQuant	W8A8	56.39%	56.94%	71.27%	41.33%	56.45%	56.47%
	Per-token	W4A8-g128	52.04%	54.16%	70.07%	39.61%	50.88%	53.35%
	CrossQuant	W4A8-g128	53.79%	56.14%	70.29%	40.27%	50.48%	54.19%
	FP16	W16A16	63.46%	60.73%	73.78%	45.91%	59.69%	60.71%
	Per-token	W8A8	66.66%	57.74%	72.85%	44.19%	60.21%	60.33%
OPT-2.3B	CrossQuant	W8A8	63.47%	60.94%	74.37%	45.83%	60.48%	61.01%
	Per-token	W4A8-g128	60.78%	56.31%	72.47%	42.91%	57.21%	57.93%
	CrossQuant	W4A8-g128	61.01%	59.42%	73.12%	44.99%	57.21%	59.15%
	FP16	W16A16	67.30%	65.61%	76.22%	50.53%	65.93%	65.11%
	Per-token	W8A8	17.64%	47.26%	62.02%	36.97%	60.42%	44.86%
OPT-6.7B	CrossQuant	W8A8	67.22%	65.45%	76.50%	50.49%	65.63%	65.05%
	Per-token	W4A8-g128	2.98%	38.13%	57.72%	31.70%	59.81%	38.06%
	CrossQuant	W4A8-g128	63.36%	65.02%	75.62%	49.08%	63.36%	63.28%
	FP16	W16A16	68.15%	67.17%	75.79%	52.39%	65.26%	65.75%
	Per-token	W8A8	0.00%	27.94%	53.64%	26.39%	55.04%	32.60%
OPT-13B	CrossQuant	W8A8	68.04%	66.96%	76.33%	52.40%	65.14%	65.77%
	Per-token	W4A8-g128	0.00%	25.96%	52.06%	26.29%	59.96%	32.85%
	CrossQuant	W4A8-9128	66.56%	66.45%	75.89%	50.67%	64.40%	64.79%