Divide and Conquer: Leveraging Intermediate Feature Representations for Quantized Training of Neural Networks

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Abstract

The deep layers of modern neural networks extract a rather rich set of features as an input propagates through the network, this paper sets out to harvest these rich intermediate representations for quantization with minimal accuracy loss while significantly reducing the memory footprint and compute intensity of the DNN. This paper utilizes knowledge distillation through teacher-student paradigm (Hinton et al., 2015) in a novel setting that exploits the feature extraction capability of DNNs for higher-accuracy quantization. As such, our algorithm logically divides a pretrained full-precision DNN to multiple sections, each of which exposes intermediate features to train a team of students independently in the quantized domain. This divide and conquer strategy, makes the training of each student section possible in isolation, which offers additional speedup through enabling parallelization, while all these independently trained sections are later stitched together to form the equivalent fully quantized network.

Experiments on various DNNs (AlexNet, LeNet, MobileNet, ResNet-18, ResNet-20, SVHN and VGG-11) show that, this approach—called DCQ (Divide and Conquer Quantization)—on average, improves the performance of a state-of-the-art quantized training technique, DoReFa-Net (Zhou et al., 2016) by 21.6% and 9.3% for binary and ternary quantization, respectively. Additionally, we show that incorporating DCQ to existing quantized training methods leads to improved accuracies as compared to previously reported by multiple state-of-the-art quantized training methods.

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We validate our method through experiments on a variety of existing knowledge-distillation based approaches (Mishra et al., 2018) and multiple state-of-the-art quantized training techniques and the full-precision runs. Additionally, DoReFa-Net (Zhou et al., 2016) by 21.6% and 9.3% for binary and ternary performance of a state-of-the-art quantized training technique, ResNet-20, SVHN and VGG-11 with binary and ternary weights. Results show that DCQ, on average, improves the performance of a state-of-the-art quantized training technique, DoReFa-Net (Zhou et al., 2016) by 21.6% and 9.3% for binary and ternary quantization, respectively, which further helps in closing the accuracy gap between state-of-the-art quantized training techniques and the full-precision runs. Additionally, we show that our approach, DCQ, can improve performance of existing knowledge-distillation based approaches (Mishra et al., 2018) and multiple state-of-the-art quantized training methods. These encouraging results suggest that leveraging the inherent feature extraction ability of DNNs for knowledge distillation can lead to significant improvement in their efficiency, reducing their bitwidth in this particular DNN.

We validate our method through experiments on a variety of DNNs including AlexNet, LeNet, MobileNet, ResNet-18, ResNet-20, SVHN and VGG-11 with binary and ternary weights. Results show that DCQ, on average, improves the performance of a state-of-the-art quantized training technique, DoReFa-Net (Zhou et al., 2016) by 21.6% and 9.3% for binary and ternary quantization, respectively, which further helps in closing the accuracy gap between state-of-the-art quantized training techniques and the full-precision runs. Additionally, we show that our approach, DCQ, can improve performance of existing knowledge-distillation based approaches (Mishra et al., 2018) and multiple state-of-the-art quantized training methods. These encouraging results suggest that leveraging the inherent feature extraction ability of DNNs for knowledge distillation can lead to significant improvement in their efficiency, reducing their bitwidth in this particular DNN.

The contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows.

- **Extending knowledge distillation.** DCQ enables leveraging arbitrary number of intermediate layers relying on the inherent hierarchical learning characteristic of deep neural networks in contrast to only the output layer or hint layer. As such, distillation learning and hint learning fall as special cases of the proposed divide and conquer strategy.

- **Enabling parallelization towards training quantized networks.** DCQ applies knowledge distillation through sectioning. As such it trains each section of the students independently in isolation to deliver a quantized counterpart for the teacher, which can occur in parallel.

- **Complementary to other methods.** DCQ is a complementary method as it acts as an auxiliary approach to boost performance of existing training techniques by applying whatever the underlying training technique but in a stage-wise fashion with defining a regression loss per stage.

- **Theoretical analysis.** We provide a theoretical analysis/guarantee of the error upper bound across the network through a chaining argument.

2. DCQ: Divide and Conquer for Quantization

**Overview.** We take inspiration from knowledge distillation and apply it to the context of quantization by proposing a novel technique dubbed DCQ. The main intuition behind DCQ is that a deeply quantized network can achieve accuracies similar to full precision networks if intermediate layers of the quantized network can retain the intermediate feature representations that were learnt by the full precision network. To this end, DCQ splits the quantized network and full precision network into multiple small sections and trains each section individually by means of partial backpropagation so that every section of the quantized network learns and represents similar features as the corresponding section in the full precision network. In other words, DCQ divides the original classification problem into multiple regression problems by matching the intermediate feature (activation) maps. The following points summarizes the practical significance and contribution of DCQ.

**Weight and activation quantization.** The proposed technique is orthogonal to the quantity of interest for quantization, as it’s basically applying whatever the underlying/used training technique but in a stage-wise fashion with defining a new regression loss per stage. In fact, the regression loss is defined to match the respective activation maps for each stage. As such, DCQ can be equally applied for weight and/or activation quantization alike. Section 3.2 presents results for both weight and activation quantization.

**Integration to other methods.** The proposed technique is a complementary method as it acts as an auxiliary approach to boost performance of existing training techniques by applying whatever the underlying/used training technique but in a stage-wise fashion with defining a new regression loss per stage.

**Knowledge distillation utilization.** DCQ extends the concept of knowledge distillation to its limits by leveraging multiple intermediate layers as opposed to limiting it to the output layer only as in (Mishra & Marti, 2018), (Hinton et al., 2015) or the output layer and hint layer as in (Romero et al., 2015).

**Other performance benefits.** DCQ enables per-network training “parallelization” by enabling training different sections/stages in isolation (stage-wise fashion). Moreover,
it applies the standard back propagation in a simpler settings (small subnetworks) which enables both faster convergence time and higher accuracy than existing conventional fine-tuning methods in the quantized domain.

This section describes different steps and rationale of our technique in more detail.

### 2.1. Matching Activations for Intermediate Layers

Figure 2(a) shows a sketch representing a full precision network of $L$ layers, whereas Figure 2(b) is a deeply quantized version of the same network where first $n$ layers are quantized and the remaining $L-n$ layers are at full precision. When we pass the same input image $x$ to both these networks, if the output activations of layer $n$ for full precision network, i.e., $A_n^f$, are equivalent to the output activations of layer $n$ for the semi-quantized network, $A_n^q$, then both the networks classify the input to a same class because rest of the $L-n$ layers are same for both the networks and their output activations are same as well. Therefore, if both these networks shown in Figure 2(a) and (b), have similar output activations for all the input images, then the network with first $n$ layers quantized has learnt to represent similar features as the first $n$ layers of the original network and it will have the same classification accuracy as the full precision network.

We can extend this argument further and say that if we quantize the remaining $L-n$ layers of the network in Figure 2(b) while keeping it’s output same as the corresponding $L-n$ layers of the full precision network, then we now have a deeply quantized network with the same accuracy as the full precision network. This is the underlying principle for our proposed quantization technique DCQ. In the above example, the network was split into two sections of $n$ and $L-n$ layers, instead DCQ splits the original network into multiple sections and trains those sections individually to output same activations as the corresponding section in the full precision network. Following subsections explain the DCQ methodology in more detail.

### 2.2. Splitting, Training and Merging

**Splitting the full precision network.** As described in Section 2.1 DCQ splits the original network into multiple sections and trains them in isolation and in parallel. Figure 3 shows an overview of the entire process. As shown in the figure, after splitting the full precision network into $m$ sub sections, DCQ quantizes and trains these subsections independently. After training, DCQ puts them all together again to get the deeply quantized network.

**Training the sub-networks.** As Figure 3 illustrates, 1 we create $m$ sections in order to train each of the $m$ sub-networks. For each section $i$, the sub-network $i$ (or subnet $i$ for short) consists of all the sections preceding it. Subnet 1 column in Figure 3 shows a subnet for section 1. To train this section, the output activations of the quantized version of section 1 are compared with the output activations of the full precision version of section 1 and the loss is calculated accordingly. Section 2.3 gives more details on how the loss is calculated for each subnet. Similarly, Subnet 2 column 2 shows the subnet for section 2 and it comprises of both section 1 and section 2. Output activations of section 2 are used to calculate the loss in this case. Since section 2 is being trained in this subnet, weights for section 1 are frozen(not trainable) in this subnet and backpropagation based on the loss only affects section 2. Similarly there are subnets for sections 3 up to last section $m$ and the last subnet $m$ is basically similar to the full precision network except that the section $m$ is quantized and all the other sections from 1 to $m-1$ are frozen.

**Merging the sections.** After training all the sections, since each of these sections has been trained independently to learn...
the same features as the corresponding section of the full precision network but with quantized weights, they can be put together to form a fully trained quantized network. In every sub-net, freezing all the sections except the one being trained is the key in enabling merging of all the individual sections at the end.

2.3. Loss Function for Training Sub Networks

All machine learning algorithms rely on minimizing a loss function to achieve a certain objective. The parameters of the network are trained by back-propagating the derivative of the loss with respect to the parameters throughout the network, and updating the parameters via stochastic gradient descent. Broadly speaking, according to the particular task, loss functions can be categorized into two types: Classification Loss and Regression Loss. Fundamentally, classification is about predicting a label (discrete valued output) and regression is about predicting a quantity (continuous valued output). Since DCQ aims to capture the intermediate features learnt by the full precision network, loss needs to be calculated based on the output activations of intermediate layers unlike the traditional loss which is calculated using the output of the final classification layer and the targets. As such, and in the context of this paper focusing on classification tasks, DCQ divides the original classification problem into multiple regression problems by matching the intermediate feature (activation) maps. In this study, we have examined three of the most commonly used regression loss formulations. Namely:

1. Mean Square Error (MSE): \( \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y(i) - \hat{y}(i))^2 \)
2. Mean Absolute Error (MAE): \( \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y(i) - \hat{y}(i)| \)
3. Huber Loss:
\[
\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \frac{1}{2} (y(i) - \hat{y}(i))^2 & \text{if } |y(i) - \hat{y}(i)| \leq \delta \\ \delta (|y(i) - \hat{y}(i)| - \frac{1}{2} \delta) & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.
\]

where \( y \) is the target value, and \( \hat{y} \) is the predicted value, and the summation is across all samples. For Huber loss, \( \delta \) (delta) is a hyperparameter which can be tuned. Huber loss approaches MAE when \( \delta \approx 0 \) and MSE when \( \delta \approx \infty \) (large numbers). Section 3.5 provides experimental results for each of the above loss formulations.

2.4. Overall Algorithm

Algorithm 1 outlines the step by step procedure for DCQ putting together all the steps described in Sections 2.2 and 2.3. Since each iteration of the loop, shown in the algorithm, is independent, all the sections can potentially be trained in parallel leading to an overall reduction in training time.

3. Experimental Results

3.1. Experimental Setup

In this section, we evaluate the efficacy of our proposed approach on various DNNs (AlexNet, LeNet, MobileNet, ResNet-18, ResNet-20, SVHN and VGG-11) and different datasets: CIFAR10, ImageNet, MNIST, and SVHN. We compare our approach to conventional end-to-end training approach. We consider DoReFa-Net [Zhou et al., 2016] as our baseline but also show comparision with BWN [Kastegir et al., 2016b] in Section 3.2 and Apprentice [Mishra & Marr, 2018], in addition to state-of-the-art quantized training methods: PACT [Choi et al., 2018], LQ-Net [Zhang et al., 2018], DSQ [Gong et al., 2019] in Section 3.3.

Table 1: Summary of results comparing our approach (DCQ) to DoReFa-Net for different networks considering binary and ternary weight quantization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bitwidth</th>
<th>Benchmark</th>
<th>AlexNet</th>
<th>ResNet-18</th>
<th>MobileNet-V2</th>
<th>ResNet-20</th>
<th>SVHN-10</th>
<th>VGG-11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>W32/A32</td>
<td>Full Precision</td>
<td>75.2%</td>
<td>86.9%</td>
<td>92.9%</td>
<td>71.8%</td>
<td>81.9%</td>
<td>62.2%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>LQ-Nets</td>
<td>60.9%</td>
<td>81.4%</td>
<td>87.9%</td>
<td>61.5%</td>
<td>74.1%</td>
<td>58.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DSQ</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
<td>74.6%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DoReFa</td>
<td>55.0%</td>
<td>78.9%</td>
<td>84.8%</td>
<td>64.6%</td>
<td>76.1%</td>
<td>68.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DoReFa + DCQ</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
<td>77.2%</td>
<td>89.2%</td>
<td>66.2%</td>
<td>81.3%</td>
<td>72.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improvement</td>
<td>0.89%</td>
<td>0.43%</td>
<td>2.47%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Summary of results comparing our approach (DCQ) to state-of-the-art quantized training methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bitwidth</th>
<th>Benchmark</th>
<th>AlexNet</th>
<th>ResNet-18</th>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3: Comparing DCQ to a knowledge distillation based quantization method, Apprentice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>ResNet-20 on CIFAR10</th>
<th>ResNet-18 on ImageNet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apprentice</td>
<td>W2/A32</td>
<td>Top-1 Accuracy (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCQ</td>
<td>W2/A32</td>
<td>93.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For all the experiments, we use an open source framework for quantization, Distiller (Zmora et al., 2018). While reporting accuracies in their paper, DoReFa-Net doesn’t quantize first and last layers of the network whereas in our case, we quantize all the layers including the first and last layers. Because of this difference in quantization and using built-in implementation of Distiller, the accuracies we report might not exactly match the accuracies reported in their paper.

3.2. Binarization and Ternarization using DCQ

Table 1 shows summary of results comparing plain DoReFa to DoReFa + DCQ for different networks considering binary {-1, 1} and ternary {-1, 0, 1} weight quantization for various networks: LeNet, ResNet-20, ResNet-20, SVHN and VGG-11. As seen, integrating DCQ into DoReFa outperforms the conventional approach and achieves a consistent improvements across the different networks with average 22.45% for binarization and 9.7% for ternarization.

Delving into the results, the reported improvements can be attributed to the following reasons. First, deep multi-hidden-layer neural networks are much more difficult to tackle as compared to shallower ones. Furthermore, end-to-end backpropagation can be inefficient (Jaderberg et al., 2017). Thus, adopting such divide and conquer approach yields simpler subproblems that are easier to optimize. Second, matching intermediate learning objectives also guides the optimization as compared to following a single global objective that indirectly specifies learning objectives to the intermediate layers.

Comparison with BWN. BWN (Rastegari et al., 2016b) proposes approximate convolutions using binary operations for a set of networks. We show comparison on LeNet as it is the only common benchmark between both the works. As Table 1 shows, our technique achieves an accuracy of 99.3%, which is close to the accuracy of 99.2% reported by BWN. However, BWN involves restructuring the original network architecture whereas our implementation does not introduce any changes to the architecture.

3.3. Comparison with Quantized Training Methods

Here, we provide comparison to multiple state-of-the-art quantized training methods considering both weights and activation quantization. Table 2 summarizes the results of comparing to PACT, LQ-Net, DSQ, and DoReFa (the baseline) for several networks (AlexNet, ResNet-18, MobileNet). As seen, DCQ outperforms these previously reported accuracies and achieves on average improvements of 0.98%, and 0.96% for W4/A4 and W3/A3, respectively.

We also provide a comparison against knowledge distillation-based method Apprentice (Mishra & Marr, 2018), a recent work which also combines knowledge distillation with quantization. Table 3 shows that our technique outperforms Apprentice for both ResNet-20 on CIFAR10, and ResNet-18 on ImageNet considering ternary weights quantization. The reported improvement can be attributed to the fact that DCQ combines the conventional knowledge distillation approach, as in (Mishra & Marr, 2018), in addition to its unique intermediate learning approach by regressing the quantized network intermediate feature maps to the corresponding full precision ones in a stage wise fashion. Moreover, the network architecture of the student network in (Mishra & Marr, 2018) is typically different from that of the teacher network as opposed to DCQ where same network architecture is utilized for the student network but with quantized weights. From one side, this saves a huge amount of effort designing a student network architecture which might incur significant hyperparameter tuning. On the other side, it enables a direct finetuning instead of a complete training from scratch as a result of preserving the original network architecture.

3.4. Analysis: DCQ vs Conventional Binary Kernels

This section provides an analysis of our obtained binary weight kernels and sheds light on some interesting observations. We start by posing the following questions: how are trained binary weight kernels different from just direct binarization from the original full precision weight kernels? and whether different training algorithms can yield qualitatively different binary weight kernels?

Figure 4 shows a visualization of a subset of weight kernels from the second convolutional layer of LeNet and AlexNet. (a) is the original full precision kernels, (b) direct binarization of full precision kernels, and (c) binarization after training (applying DCQ). In the figure, weights that are different between the trained binary kernel and the directly binarized kernel are highlighted with square rectangles across the three visualizations. Spatially contrasting those highlighted altered weights on the full precision kernels, it can be noticed that they mostly share a common feature that is being low in magnitude (shown as white squares in (a)). From statistical point of view, Figure 4(d) shows the original full precision weights histogram (in blue) and overlaying the portion of the altered weights (in light orange). We can observe the following. First, during training, only very small percentage of the weights are actually altered relative to the total number of weights. Specifically, in this example, it is around 3.5% and 2.25% for LeNet and AlexNet respectively, of the total weights got impacted by
DCQ: Divide and Conquer for Quantization

Figure 4: Visualization of a subset of weight kernels of the second convolutional layer of LeNet (top row), and AlexNet (bottom row), highlighting the differences between different versions of binary weight kernels: (a) Full precision weight kernels, (b) binary weight kernels upon direct binarization from full precision, (c) binary weight kernels obtained using our method DCQ, and (d) weights histogram of the convolutional layer highlighting the altered binary weights after training (using DCQ) relative to the original distribution.

Figure 5: Weights histograms of the first two convolutional layers of three different DNNs: (a) VGG-11, (b) ResNet-20, and (c) AlexNet, highlighting the altered portion of the trained binary weights (depicted percentages indicate the exact portion in orange) relative to the directly binarized weights. Original total weights histograms are shown in blue. Row I shows the results using our method (DCQ), and Row II shows for the conventional end-to-end training method.

training. Moreover, despite the marginal difference between the binary kernels, they experience dramatic accuracy difference: 10.8% vs 98.1% for kernels in (b) and (c) respectively, for LeNet, and 40.5% and 55.6% for AlexNet.

Now, to check whether this is a general trend and whether different training algorithms has an impact on this, we extend our statistical analysis to more networks. Figure 5 shows weight histograms of the first two convolutional layers of AlexNet, ResNet-20, and VGG-11. As seen in the figure, first, for Figure 5 Row I (DCQ), the altered portion of binary weights during training is consistently small in both number and magnitude across different layers and different networks. Second, contrasting that behavior using DCQ vs using the conventional end-to-end quantized training, as shown in Figure 5 Row II (Conventional), we see that binary weight kernels clearly encounter much more variations during the conventional end-to-end training as compared to our approach, DCQ.

Comparing the two training algorithms, DCQ yields minimal changes in the right place to the binary weights as the entire technique is based on matching the intermediate features represented by weight kernels. Which, consequently, leads to faster convergence behavior and higher solution quality at the same time. Moreover, this opens up the possibility of magnitude-constrained weight training where only weights below a certain magnitude are set to be trainable which can potentially improve the optimization process further.

3.5. Exploratory Studies

Impact of different loss formulations for intermediate learning. As mentioned in section 2.3, we have examined three of the most commonly used loss formulations. Namely: (1) Mean Square Error (MSE); (2) Mean Absolute Error (MAE);
Figure 6: Loss visualization of intermediate feature maps samples. Row(I): before DCQ training, Row(II): after DCQ training. Columns show results for different loss formulations. Col(I) MAE, Col(II) MSE, and Col(III) Huber loss. The results are for the second convolution layer in AlexNet with binary quantization.

Figure 7: Feature maps before and after DCQ training compared to full precision maps. The results are for the second convolution layer in AlexNet with binary quantization.

(3) Huber Loss. Figure 6 shows different samples of feature maps losses (for the second convolution layer of AlexNet with binary weights). Row(I) shows different samples of feature map losses before DCQ training. Row(II) shows the losses for the same samples after DCQ training (matching feature maps). Different columns show different loss formulations. Col(I): MSE Loss; Col(II): MAE Loss; and Col(III): Huber Loss. As it can be seen, the feature map losses (the amount of redness) significantly decreases after DCQ training as a result of regressing the quantized model intermediate feature maps to the full precision counterparts. We can also notice that the behavior is consistent across different regression losses. Nevertheless, based on our experimentation, among the considered formulations, MSE seems to be the most effective during the intermediate learning process. The trends are similar for the other networks. Figure 7 compares visualizations of different samples of actual feature maps before and after DCQ training with respect to the full precision ones demonstrating the effectiveness of the proposed approach. Lastly, divide and conquer is a very basic and universal engineering principle that is commonly and widely applied across a variety of fields. Here, we propose a procedure that extends such effective principle to quantized training of neural networks.

Impact of the number of splitting points. As number of splitting points increases, the large optimization problem gets divided into smaller subproblems. Thus, on one side, it becomes easier to solve each subproblem separately. On the other side, however, the complexity overhead increases as well. We leave the optimal choice of how many stages a network should be divided and how many layers per stage to future work. Here, we provide one experimental example to give some intuition about the impact of different splitting points. Figure 8 shows the convergence behavior for different splittings of VGG-11: four-stage and two-stage splitting as compared to single stage (conventional knowledge distillation). As seen in the figure, not only the convergence is faster as number of stages increases but also it eventually converges to a higher final accuracy as compared to lesser number of stages or no splitting at all.

3.6. Memory Analysis

Compared to DoReFa, DCQ only needs an extra set of weights (divided across the nodes) which is same as the other conventional knowledge distillation approaches. However, DCQ does not impose any extra memory requirements on the activations. Analysis follows. DoReFa maintains weights in full-precision (FP) and quantizes them during inference, so, for a network $N$, total memory taken by DoReFa is all the FP weights ($W_{FP}$) of $N$. DCQ sections the network $N$, to subnets: $S_1, \ldots, S_i, \ldots, S_m$, and maps them to parallel nodes: $C_1, \ldots, C_i, \ldots, C_m$. Since DCQ has
a FP version of the entire network, $C_1$ is also responsible to run the inference in the FP mode. Each $C_i$ node only keeps a subset of the FP weights $(W_{f_{p,i}})$ corresponding to its subnet $S_i$ and only trains that subnet. $C_i$, which runs the whole network in FP, sends each subnet $S_i$ inputs and outputs to the corresponding nodes $(C_i$s). As such, all the $C_i$s can operate in parallel since they use knowledge distillation and only need to have their respective $W_{f_{p,i}}$. Memory usage in $C_i$ node $= W_{f_{p}} + W_{f_{p,i}}$. Memory usage in all other $C_i$ nodes $= W_{f_{p,i}}$. Overall memory usage in the parallel system $= W_{f_{p}} + \text{sum}(W_{f_{p,i}}) = 2W_{f_{p}}$ (same as conventional knowledge distillation techniques)

4. Theoretical Analysis

One issue that arises as a result of the strategy of splitting into sections and training each section separately is accumulation of error residuals through sections which may impact the overall performance of the proposed technique. Here, we theoretically derive an upper bound on the total accumulated error across the resulting subnetworks after splitting using a chaining argument and utilizing Lipschitz continuity. A rigorous analysis bounding the Lipschitz constant of a deep network can be found in (Virmaux & Scaman, 2018) for arbitrary networks and (Zou et al., 2019) for particular convolutional networks.

We provide a worst case upper bound on the error, but it is also possible to establish probabilistic bounds on the error under the assumption that the quantization error on the weights is uniformly random. In particular, one can directly apply the bounds from (Sakr et al., 2017) to attain probabilistic bounds on the classification error even for our layer-wise quantization framework.

4.1. Upper Bounding Network-wide Error

Let’s consider a feed-forward full precision network with the following function formulation.

$$f_{fp}(x) = (\phi^{(m)} \circ \phi^{(m-1)} \circ ... \circ \phi^{(1)})(x)$$

where $\phi^{(i)}$ is a given layer of the network. Also, for a given layer, let the quantized layer be denoted $\phi_q^{(i)}$. If we quantize every layer, we will refer to the fully quantized network $f_q$.

Assume the application of our quantization scheme leads to an error in the output of size $\|\phi^{(i)}(x) - \phi_q^{(i)}(x)\| < \delta$. This comes from the quantization error guarantee of the used technique. Unless otherwise stated, $\|\|$ refers to the 2-norm. Further, assume that $\phi^{(i)}$ has Lipschitz constant $L_i$. Every one layer network is always a Lipschitz function, where $L_i$ is always bounded by the norm of the weights matrix (see Appendix A.1 for a full description). Under this model, we can use a simple triangle inequality to get $\|\phi_q^{(i)}(x) - \phi_q^{(i)}(y)\| < L_i|x - y| + 2\delta$. Using this fact, and chaining it together across multiple layers, we are able to bound the pointwise error between the full precision network and the quantized network.

**Theorem 1.** Let $f_{fp}$ be an $m$ layer network, and each layer has Lipschitz constant $L_i$. Assume that quantizing each layer leads to a maximum pointwise error of $\delta_i$ and results in a quantized $m$ layer network $f_q$. Then for a point $x \in X$, $f_q$ satisfies

$$\|f_q(x) - f_{fp}(x)\| \leq 3\Delta_{m,L},$$

where $\Delta_{m,L} = \delta_m + \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} (\prod_{j=i+1}^{m} L_j) \delta_i$.

The proof can be found in the Appendix A.2

As the Lipschitz constant of the network is the product of its individual layers’ Lipschitz constants, $L$ can grow exponentially if $L_i \geq 1$. This is the common case for normal network training (Cisse et al., 2017), and thus the perturbation will be amplified for such a network. Therefore, to keep the Lipschitz constant of the whole network small, we need to keep the Lipschitz constant of each layer $L_i < 1$. This is often done using regularization or weight clipping (Szegedy et al., 2013; Bartlett et al., 2017; Cisse et al., 2017; Gouk et al., 2018) to suppress network’s accumulation of error. We call a network with $L_i < 1, \forall i = 1, ..., L$ a non-expansive network. Experimentally, Lipschitz constant of each layer is found empirically by taking $\max_{x \in X} ||\phi_i(x) - \phi_i(y)|| / ||\phi_{i-1}(x) - \phi_{i-1}(y)||$.

4.2. Lipschitz Constants in Classification Networks

The Lipschitz constant is traditionally defined for regression problems where $f$ can take arbitrary values on $\mathbb{R}$, but it also has implications for classification networks. For a classification network, the input is labeled data $(x_i, y_i)$ for $y_i$ coming from one of $K$ classes. Then the last regression layer output $f(x)$ is a function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^K$. This either directly predicts the probability of classification, or is fed into a softmax layer to normalize the probabilities. We will work with the $f(x)$ regression layer (prior to the softmax if there is one) for the subsequent theory, and use the notation that a network classifies $x_i$ as class $k$ if and only if $f(x_i)_k > f(x_i)_j$ for all $j \neq k$. This still applies even if a softmax layer is added, as the softmax does not alter the relative order of its inputs.

A common problem for classification networks is to determine how much one can perturb the data point $x_i$ and maintain the correct classification.

**Definition 1.** The output margin of a data point $(x_i, y_i)$ is

$$r_i := \frac{1}{2} \left( f(x_i)_k - \max_{j \neq k} f(x_i)_j \right)_+$$

for $y_i = k$, and $(x)_+ = \max(x, 0)$.

This is half the minimum amount one must change the network output to change the classification of $x_i$ from class $k$ to some other class. This leads to the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.** Let $f_{fp}$ and $f_q$ be the full precision and quantized $m$ layer networks as in Section 4. Let $L = \prod_{i=1}^{m} L_i$ be the Lipschitz constant of $f_{fp}$. Let $(x_i, y_i)$ be a data point where $f_{fp}$ correctly classifies $x_i$ with output margin $r_i > 0$. Then for any
After the sections are trained through knowledge distillation, the student network is trained on a softened version of the teacher. The proof can be found in the Appendix A.2. We note that this leads to a final method for bounding the probability of misclassification across all data points for DCQ. The proof can be seen as a byproduct of Theorem 2 where we count the number of points for which it’s possible to perturb xi with a nonzero η and maintain the correct classification.

**Theorem 3.** Let \( e_{fp} \) be the classification error probability of a full precision network \( f_{fp} \), and \( e_q \) the classification error probability of the DCQ quantized network \( f_q \). Then we can bound the quantized classification error probability by

\[
e_q \leq e_{fp} + (1 - e_{fp})\mathbb{E}_{x_i \in X} \left[ \mathbb{I}_{r_i \leq 5\Delta m_L} \hat{y}_{i,fp} = y_i \right],
\]

where \( r_i \) is the output margin of \( x_i \) for \( f_{fp} \), and \( \hat{y}_{i,fp} \) is the estimated class of \( x_i \) using \( f_{fp} \).

The proof can be found in the Appendix A.2. We note that \( r_i \) can be easily checked for a given full precision network by examining the last regression layer across all points in the data set.

5. Related Work

**Knowledge distillation.** Knowledge distillation [Hinton et al., 2015] is proposed to attain a smaller/shallower neural network (student) from one or an ensemble of bigger deep networks (teacher). The student network is trained on a softened version of the final output of teacher(s) [Bucila et al., 2006]. FitNets [Romero et al., 2015] extends knowledge distillation by extracting a hint from the teacher to train even a deeper but thinner student. The hint is an intermediate feature representation of the teacher, that is used as a regularizer to pretrained the first few layers of the deep and thin student network. After the pretraining phase, the full knowledge distillation is used to finish the training of the student. FitNets [Romero et al., 2015] does not explore hints from more than one intermediate layer of the teacher. Furthermore, FitNets applies the knowledge distillation pass over the entire student network at once. FitNets are a complementary approach to our sectional knowledge distillation and similar hints can be utilized for each section. Nonetheless, the following discusses the differences. In contrast to this technique, DCQ (1) partitions the neural network to multiple independent sections and (2) applies knowledge distillation to each section in isolation and trains them independently, (3) not utilizing the intermediate representations as hint for pretraining. (4) After the sections are trained through knowledge distillation, they are put together instead of applying another phase of training as done in FitNets (Romero et al., 2015). (5) Moreover, DCQ, exclusively, applies various regression losses in matching the quantized network intermediate feature maps to the corresponding full precision ones in a stage wise fashion. (6) Last but not least, the objective differ as the knowledge distillation and FitNets aim to compress the network while DCQ quantizes it preserving the teacher’s original network architecture.

Other work (Yim et al., 2017) proposes an information metric, in terms of inter-layer flow (the inner product of feature maps), using which a teacher DNN can transfer the distilled knowledge to other student DNNs.

Knowledge distillation is also used for training a lower bitwidth student network from a full-precision teacher (Mishra & Marr, 2018; Polino et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019). However, these works do not partition the network as DCQ does and also do not utilize teacher’s intermediate layers.

**Other quantization techniques.** Several techniques have been proposed for quantizing DNNs: algorithmic-wise [Zhou et al., 2016; Mishra et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2017; Elthakeb et al., 2018; 2020], and hardware-wise (Ghodrati et al., 2020; Samragh et al., 2020).

DoReFa-Net [Zhou et al., 2016] uses straight through estimator [Bengio et al., 2015] for quantization and extends it for any arbitrary k bit quantization. DoReFa-Net also proposes a method to train a CNNs with low bitwidth weights and activations, low bitwidth parameter gradients using deterministic quantization of weights, activations and stochastic quantization of activations. TTQ [Zhu et al., 2017] proposes a method to reduce the weights to ternary values by adding scaling coefficients to each layer. These scaling coefficients are learnt during training and during deployment, weights are directly quantized to ternary biatwidths and these scaling coefficients are used to scale the weights during inference. PACT [Choi et al., 2018] proposes a technique for quantizing activations using an activation clipping parameter which is optimized during training. There have also been a lot of efforts [Rastegari et al., 2016a; Li & Liu, 2016; Hubara et al., 2017b] to binarize neural networks at the cost of some accuracy loss.

However, these inspiring efforts do not introduce sectioning nor they leverage knowledge distillation in the context of either quantization or binarizing the neural networks.

6. Conclusion

Quantization offers a promising path forward to reduce the compute complexity and memory footprint of deep neural networks. This paper sets out to tackle the main challenge in quantization, recovering as much accuracy as possible. To that end, we developed a sectional multi-backpropagation algorithm that leverages multiple instances of knowledge distillation and intermediate feature representations to teach a quantized student through divide and conquer. This algorithm, DCQ, achieves significantly higher accuracy compared to the state-of-the-art quantization methods by exploring a new sectional approach towards knowledge distillation.
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