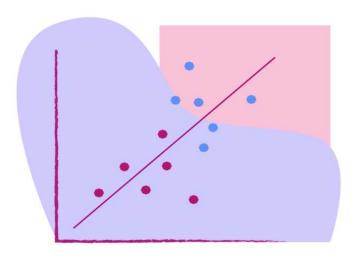
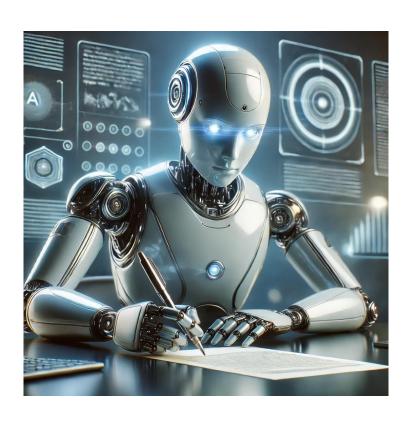
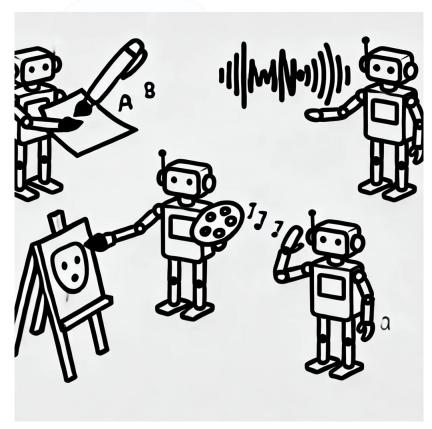
### Generative AI models





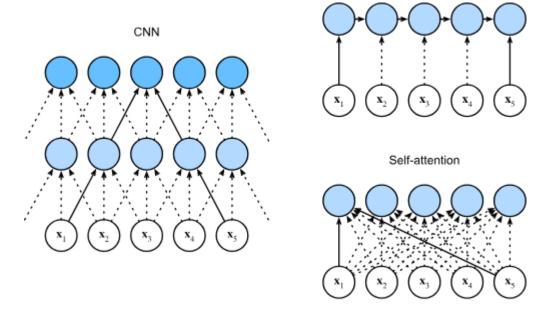


#### Generative Al models

**Transformer** 

Transformers do not process sequences of data one step at a time (as RNNs or LSTMs do). Instead, they use self-attention to weigh the relationships between all tokens in a sequence simultaneously.

- Self-Attention Mechanism
- Multi-Head Attention
- Positional Encoding



RNN

#### Generative Al models

Why Gen Al models are so large?

Larger models tend to perform better, they are computationally expensive to train and deploy

- 1 High Number of Parameters
- 2 Complex Architecture
- 3 Large Vocabulary and Embeddings

### Model Optimization Techniques

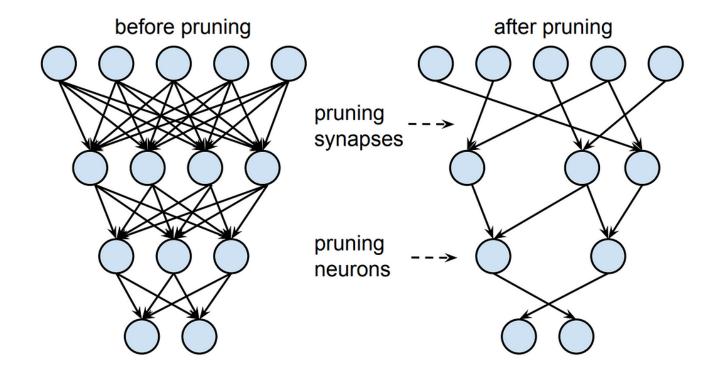
Types

2 Quantization
3 Pruning

#### Pruning

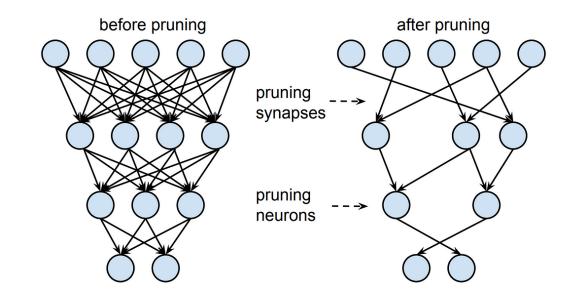
What is Pruning?

Pruning is a technique used to reduce the size of a neural network by removing parameters—specifically, weights or connections—that don't contribute much to the network's overall performance



### Pruning

**Types of Pruning** 



- 1. Unstructured Pruning
- 2. Structured Pruning

### Pruning

### How Pruning Works

- 1. Training the Full Model
- 2. Identify Unimportant Weights
- 3. Magnitude / WANDA Pruning

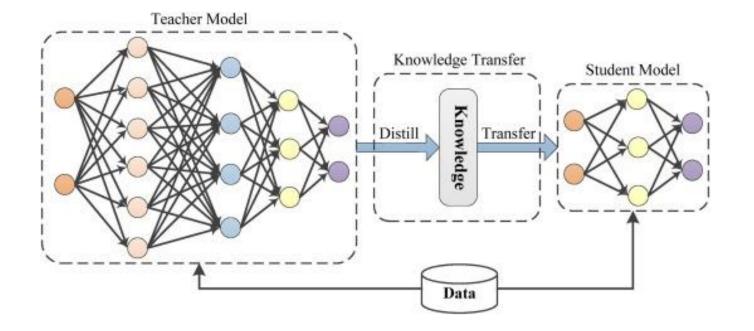
In magnitude pruning, we rank all the weights in the model by their absolute value. We assume that weights with smaller absolute values are less important, so we prune—or remove—those weights

4. Fine-Tuning

#### Distillation

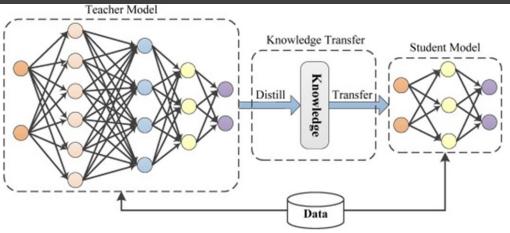
**Knowledge Distillation** 

Knowledge distillation is a technique that transfers knowledge from a large, complex model, often called the teacher, to a smaller, simpler model, known as the student.



#### Distillation

How Does
Knowledge
Distillation Work?



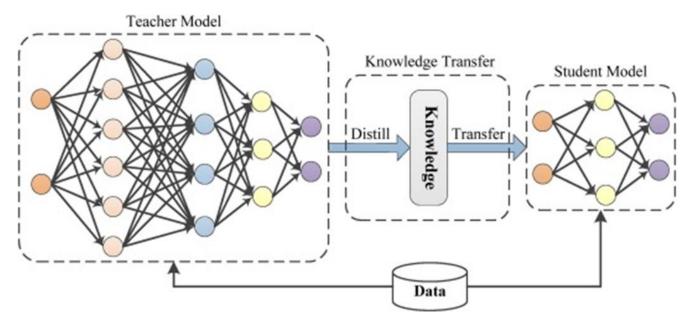
- Train the Teacher Model
- 2. Soft Labels
- 3. Train the Student Model

The smaller student model is trained using two types of information:

- The original hard labels from the dataset.
- The soft labels provided by the teacher model.
- 4. Loss Function

#### Distillation

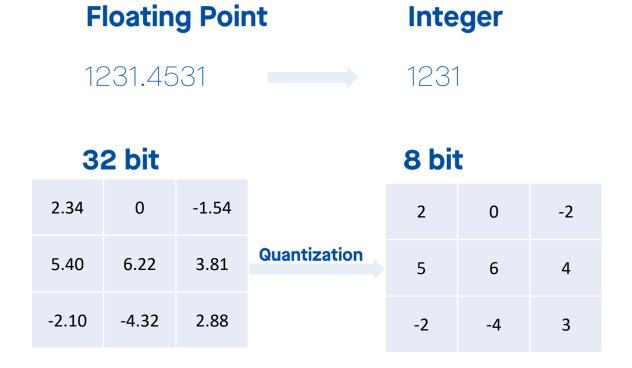
Types of Knowledge Distillation



- 1. Logit Distillation
- 2. Feature-Based Distillation

What is **Quantization?** 

Quantization refers to the process of reducing the precision of the weights and activations in a neural network.



How Does
Quantization
Work?

There are two main types of quantization:

- Post-Training Quantization
- Quantization-Aware Training.

#### **Post-Training Quantization (PTQ)**

- Train the Model:
- 2. Convert the Weights
- 3. Deploy the Quantized Model

How Does
Quantization
Work?

There are two main types of quantization:

- Post-Training Quantization
- Quantization-Aware Training.

#### **Quantization-Aware Training (QAT)**

- 1. Simulate Quantization During Training
- 2. Train the Model with Quantization
- 3. Deploy the Quantized Model

# **Quantization Types**

- 1. Integer Quantization (INT8):
- 2. Half-Precision Floating Point (FP16):
- 3. Mixed Precision Quantization

# **Challenges in Quantization**

- 1. Accuracy Loss
- 2. Hardware Compatibility
- 3. Quantization Granularity

# Benefits of **Quantization**

- 1. Smaller Model Sizes
- 2. Faster Inference
- 3. Cost and Energy Efficiency

#### Data Types and Number Representation

# Data Types in Neural Networks

#### 1. Integer Representation

Integers are simple, whole numbers without any fractional component.

#### 2. Floating-Point Representation

Floating-point numbers can represent both large and small numbers, including fractions

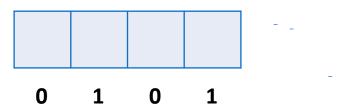
**Basics** 

Bit

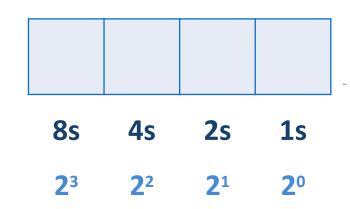
A bit is the smallest unit of data in computing, and it can have one of

two values: 0 or 1

**4-bit integers** 



4-Bit Representation



4-Bit Unsigned Integer

An unsigned integer can only represent positive numbers, and all

the bits are used for the value itself

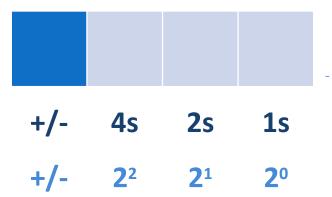
Range of 4-Bit
Unsigned
Integers

0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0
1	1	1	1

4-Bit Signed Integers

A signed integer can represent both positive and negative numbers.

To do this, we need to reserve one of the bits to indicate whether the number is positive or negative



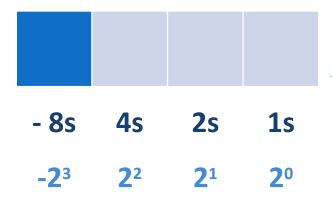
4-Bit Signed Integers

#### Signed magnitude representation

Range is -7 (1111) to +7 (0111)

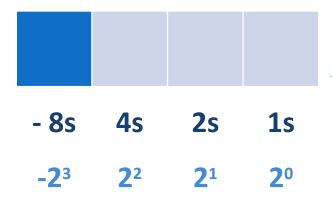
Two's complement

The leftmost bit (the most significant bit) has a negative sign as well the magnitude of highest power of 2



Two's complement

The leftmost bit (the most significant bit) has a negative sign as well the magnitude of highest power of 2



Two's complement

-3 in Two's complement representation

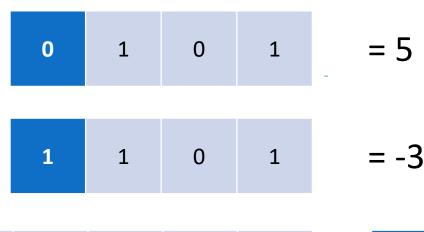
Range of 4-Bit Two's complement

0	0	0	0	=	0	
0	0	0	1	=	1	
0	1	1	1	=	7	-
1	0	0	0	=	-8	

Range is -8 (1000) to +7 (0111)

Adding two numbers

Adding +5 (positive) and -3 (negative)



1

0

0

0

**Unsigned 8-Bit**<br/>**Integers (INT8)** 

The range is from 0 to 255

Signed 8-Bit Integers (UINT8)

The range is from -128 to 127

#### Fixed-Point Numbers

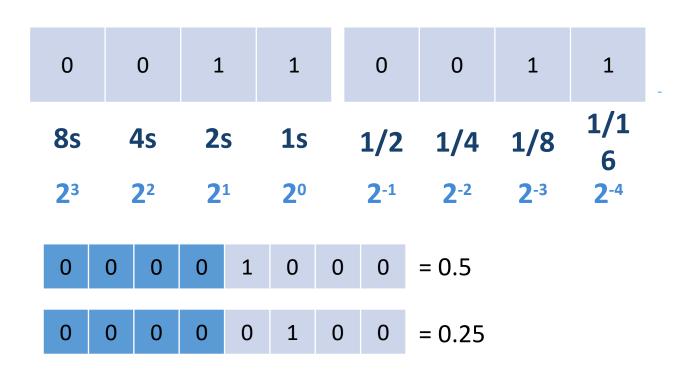
# 8-Bit Fixed-Point Numbers

We use 8 bits to represent a number. Some of these bits represent the integer part of the number, and some represent the fractional part, depending on how we decide to 'fix' the decimal point.

8-bit fixed-point number could be formatted as 4.4

- 4 bits for the integer part (to the left of the binary point).
- 4 bits for the fractional part (to the right of the binary point).

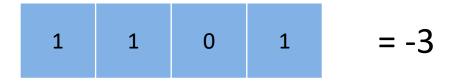
8-Bit Fixed-Point Numbers



Signed 8-Bit Fixed-Point

Representing -2.5

-3+0.5



#### Floating-Point Numbers

### Floating-Point Numbers

A floating-point number is a way to represent real numbers in a way that can support a wide range of values by using a formula that includes a base number (called the mantissa or significand), an exponent, and a sign.

$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (1 + \text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-127)}$$

- The sign bit determines whether the number is positive or negative.
- The mantissa represents the significant digits of the number.
- The exponent controls how large or small the number is, by raising 2 to the power of the exponent.

#### Floating-Point Numbers

FP32
Single-precision
floating point

- 1 bit for the sign
- 8 bits for the exponent
- 23 bits for the mantissa

$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (1 + \text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-127)}$$

### Floating-Point Numbers

# Representing a Normal Number in FP32

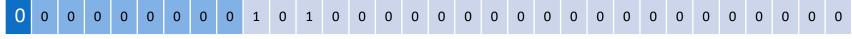
- We'll use the number 6.5
- The decimal number 6.5 can be written as 1.625\*4 in binary.

$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (1 + \text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-127)}$$

- Sign is 0
- (1 +mantissa) is 1.625, mantissa is 0.625
- 0.625 = **101000000000000000000000**
- (Exponent -127) = 2, Exponent =129
- 129 = 10000001

#### Subnormal Numbers

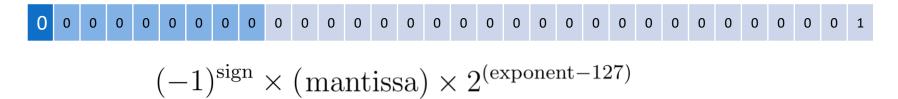
- Subnormal numbers (also called denormalized numbers) are used to represent numbers that are very close to zero but can't be represented in the normalized form.
- A subnormal number is used when the exponent is all zeros.



For subnormal numbers, the leading 1 in the mantissa is not assumed (like in normal numbers). Instead, the mantissa starts with a 0.

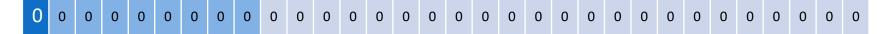
$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (\text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-127)}$$

Subnormal Numbers Assume the number is



**Special Cases** 

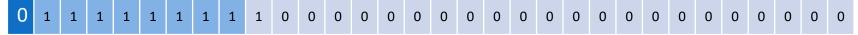
• **Zero:** Zero is represented by setting both the exponent and the mantissa to all zeros



Infinity: If the exponent is all ones and the mantissa is all zeros, the value represents infinity.



NaN: If the exponent is all ones and the mantissa is non-zero,
 the value represents NaN



FP16
half-precision
floating point

- 1 bit for the sign
- 5 bits for the exponent
- 10 bits for the mantissa

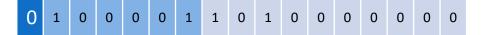
$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (1 + \text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-15)}$$

# Representing a Normal Number in FP16

- We'll use the number 6.5
- The decimal number 6.5 can be written as 1.625\*4 in binary.

$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (1 + \text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-15)}$$

- Sign is 0
- (1 +mantissa) is 1.625, mantissa is 0.625
- 0.625 = **1010000000**
- (Exponent -15) = 2, Exponent =17
- 17 = 10001



BFloat16
Brain Floating
Point

- 1 bit for the sign
- 8 bits for the exponent
- 7 bits for the mantissa

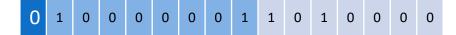
$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (1 + \text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-127)}$$

# BFloat16 Brain Floating Point

- We'll use the number 6.5
- The decimal number 6.5 can be written as 1.625\*4 in binary.

$$(-1)^{\text{sign}} \times (1 + \text{mantissa}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent}-127)}$$

- Sign is 0
- (1 +mantissa) is 1.625, mantissa is 0.625
- 0.625 = **1010000**
- (Exponent -127) = 2, Exponent =129
- 129 = 10000001



#### Comparison of FP32, FP16, & BFloat16

Ranges

#### FP32 (32-bit Floating Point):

$$-3.4 \times 10^{38}$$
 to  $3.4 \times 10^{38}$ 

#### FP16 (16-bit Floating Point):

$$-6.55 \times 10^4$$
 to  $6.55 \times 10^4$ 

#### BFloat16 (16-bit Brain Floating Point):

$$-3.39 \times 10^{38}$$
 to  $3.39 \times 10^{38}$ 

# Comparison of FP32, FP16, & BFloat16

Format	Bits	Exponent	Mantissa	Precision	Range	Usage
FP32	32 bits	8 bits	23 bits	High	Large range	Training, precise tasks
FP16	16 bits	5 bits	10 bits	Lower	Smaller range	Inference, efficiency
BFloat16	16 bits	8 bits	7 bits	Moderate	Same as FP32	Large-scale training

**Other formats** 

One of the latest innovations in this area is FP8 (8-bit floating-point), introduced by NVIDIA

#### E4M3:

4 bits for the exponent and 3 bits for the mantissa.



#### • E5M2:

5 bits for the exponent and 2 bits for the mantissa.



FP8 NVIDIA One of the latest innovations in this area is FP8 (8-bit floating-point), introduced by NVIDIA

• E4M3:

4 bits for the exponent and 3 bits for the mantissa.



• E5M2:

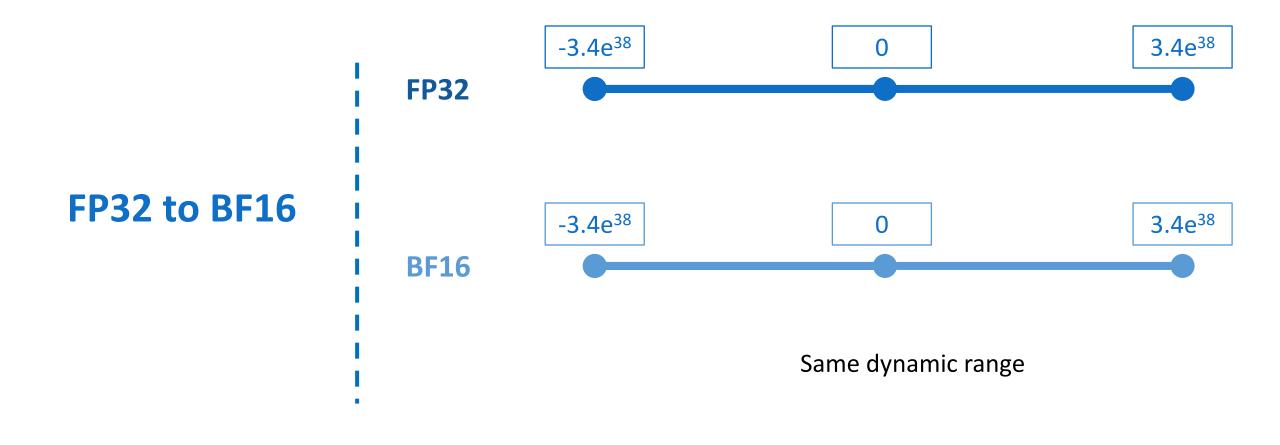
5 bits for the exponent and 2 bits for the mantissa.



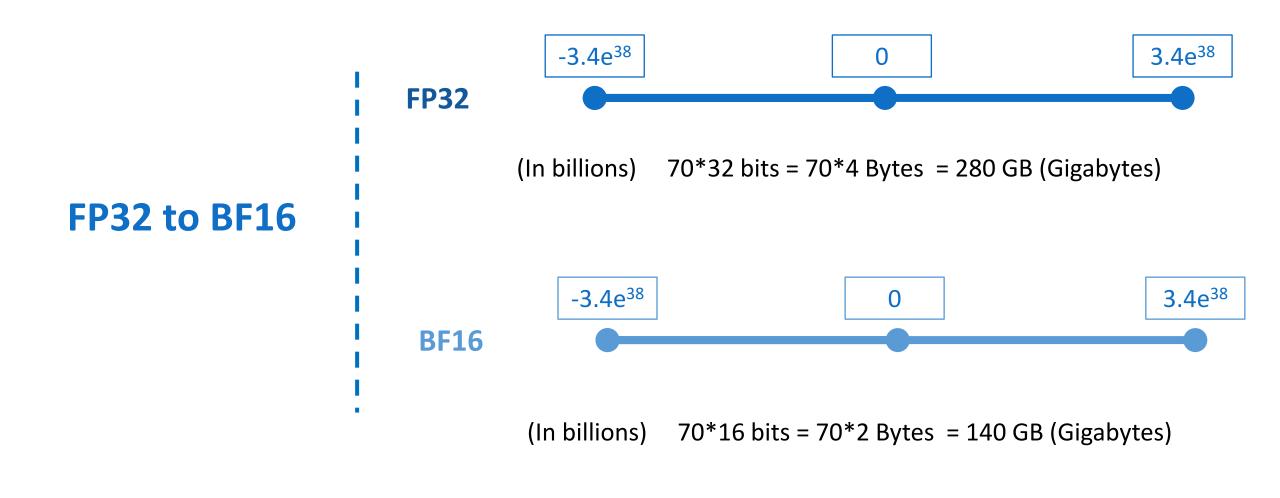
INT4 FP4 • **INT4** uses just 4 bits to represent integer values.

• **FP4** is an experimental format using just 4 bits to represent floating-point numbers

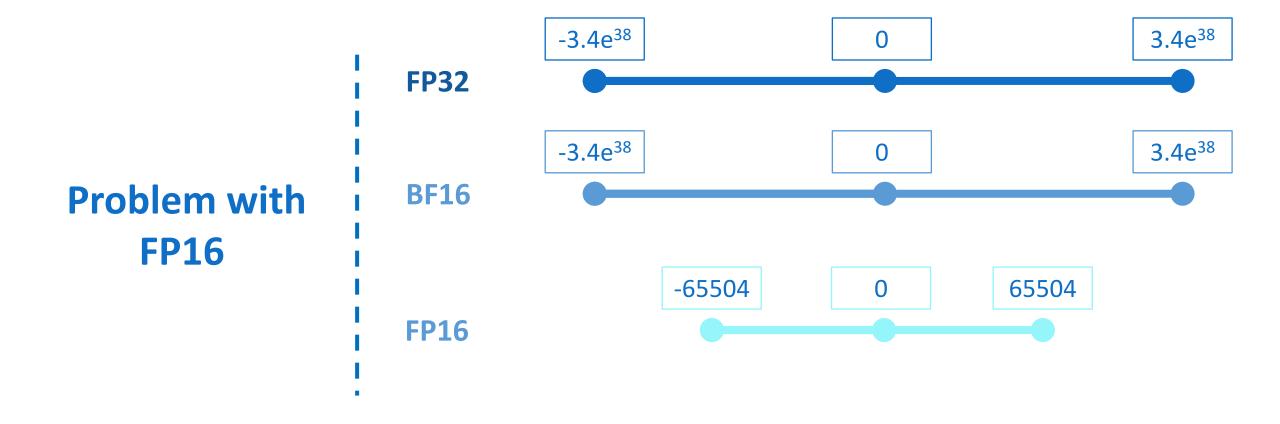
## Quantization - Downcasting



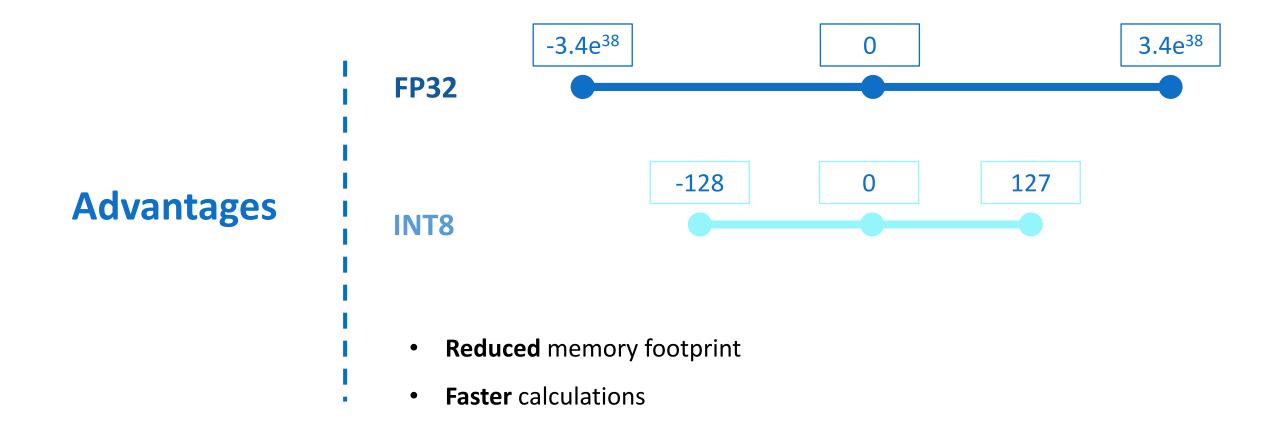
#### Quantization - Downcasting

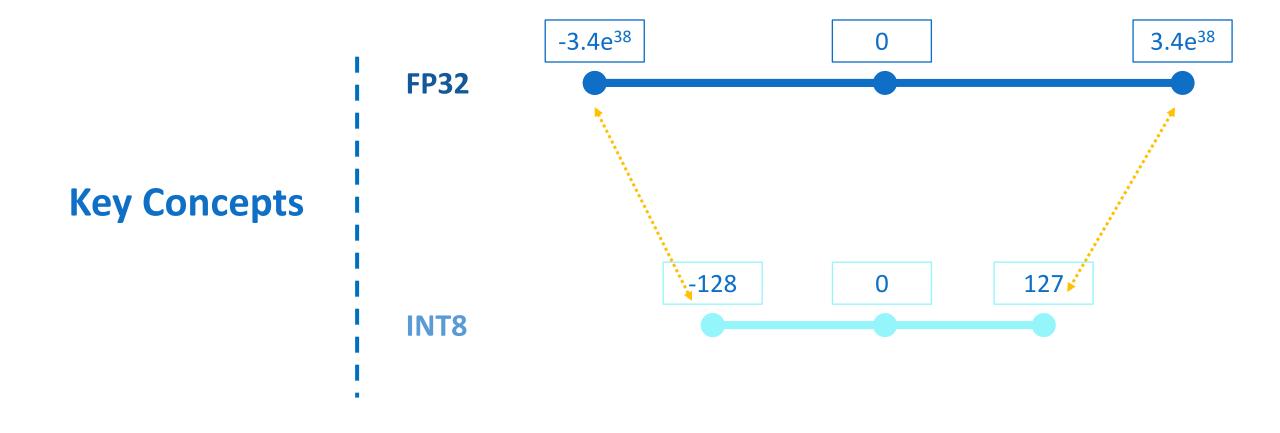


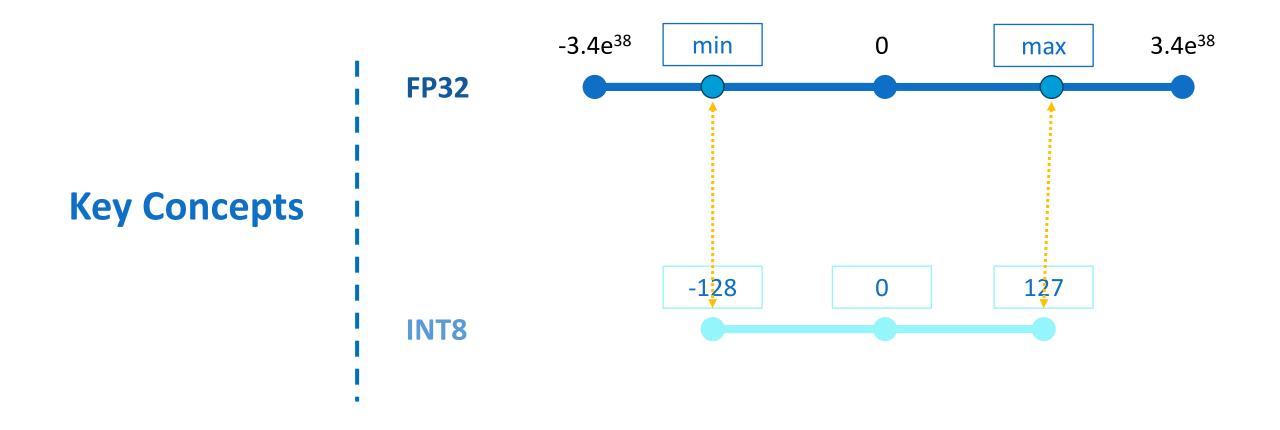
# Quantization - Downcasting

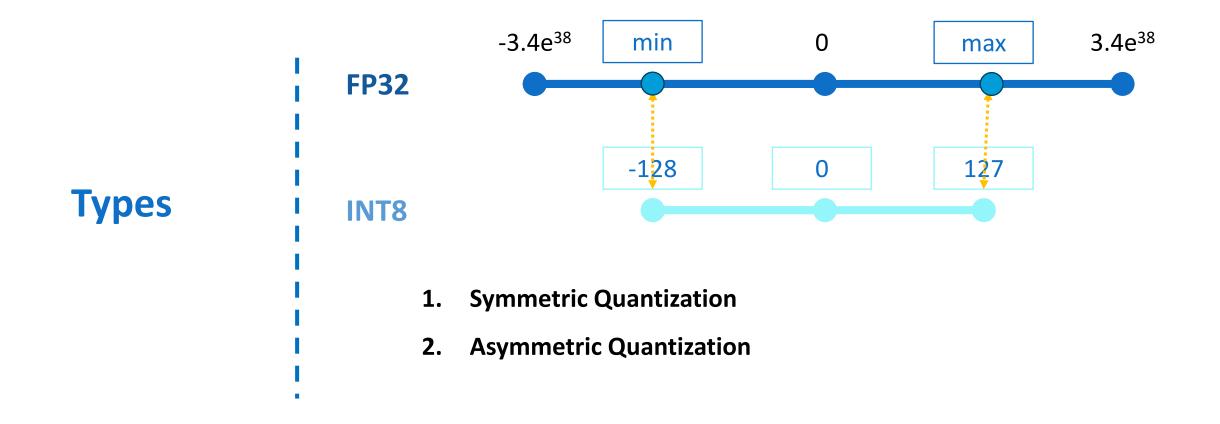








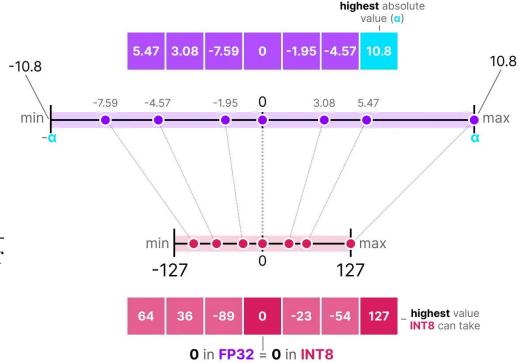




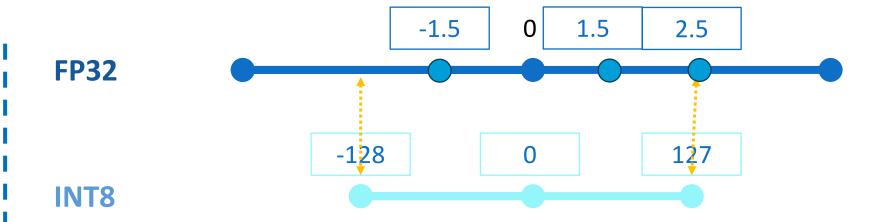
# Symmetric Quantization

Scaling Factor = 
$$\frac{X}{127}$$

INT8 Value = 
$$\frac{\text{FP32 Value}}{\text{Scaling Factor}}$$



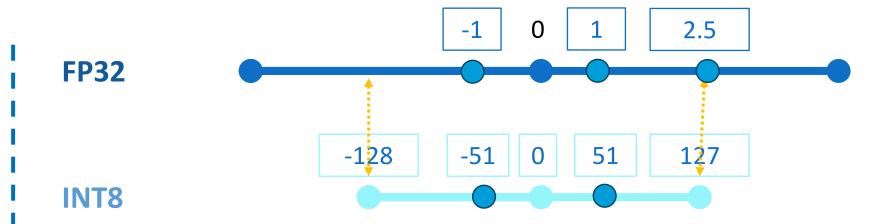
Symmetric Quantization



Scaling Factor = 
$$\frac{X}{127}$$

INT8 Value = 
$$\frac{\text{FP32 Value}}{\text{Scaling Factor}}$$

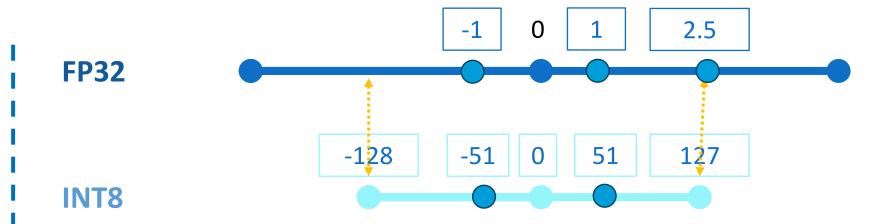
Symmetric Quantization



Scaling Factor 
$$=\frac{2.5}{127}\approx 0.0197$$

INT8 Value = 
$$\frac{1.0}{0.0197} \approx 51$$

Symmetric Quantization



Scaling Factor 
$$=\frac{2.5}{127}\approx 0.0197$$

INT8 Value = 
$$\frac{1.0}{0.0197} \approx 51$$

51× 0.0197 = 1.0047

Symmetric Quantization Example

$$FP32 Matrix = \begin{bmatrix} 1.25 & 2.67 & 3.08 \\ 4.12 & 3.02 & 2.01 \\ 0.89 & 5.45 & 3.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

Symmetric
Quantization
Example

$$FP32 Matrix = \begin{bmatrix} 1.25 & 2.67 & 3.08 \\ 4.12 & 3.02 & 2.01 \\ 0.89 & 5.45 & 3.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling Factor = 
$$\frac{5.45}{127} \approx 0.0429$$

Symmetric Quantization Example

$$FP32 Matrix = \begin{bmatrix} 1.25 & 2.67 & 3.08 \\ 4.12 & 3.02 & 2.01 \\ 0.89 & 5.45 & 3.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling Factor = 
$$\frac{5.45}{127} \approx 0.0429$$

Quantized INT8 Matrix = 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 29 & 62 & 72 \\ 96 & 70 & 47 \\ 21 & 127 & 88 \end{bmatrix}$$

Symmetric Quantization Example

Quantized INT8 Matrix = 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 29 & 62 & 72 \\ 96 & 70 & 47 \\ 21 & 127 & 88 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dequantized FP32 Matrix (Symmetric) =

$$\begin{bmatrix} 29 \times 0.0429 & 62 \times 0.0429 & 72 \times 0.0429 \\ 96 \times 0.0429 & 70 \times 0.0429 & 47 \times 0.0429 \\ 21 \times 0.0429 & 127 \times 0.0429 & 88 \times 0.0429 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\approx \begin{bmatrix} 1.24 & 2.66 & 3.09 \\ 4.12 & 3.00 & 2.02 \\ 0.90 & 5.45 & 3.77 \end{bmatrix}$$

Quantization Error = Original FP32 - Dequantized FP32

Symmetric Quantization Example

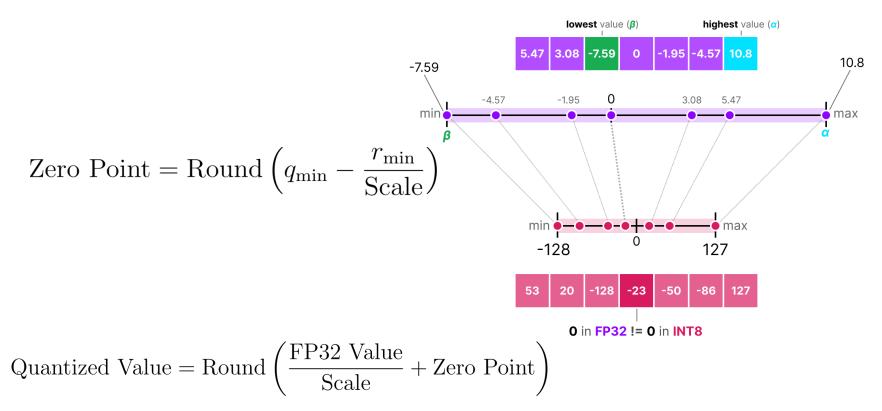
Quantization Error (Symmetric) =

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.25 - 1.24 & 2.67 - 2.66 & 3.08 - 3.09 \\ 4.12 - 4.12 & 3.02 - 3.00 & 2.01 - 2.02 \\ 0.89 - 0.90 & 5.45 - 5.45 & 3.76 - 3.77 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\approx \begin{bmatrix} 0.01 & 0.01 & -0.01 \\ 0 & 0.02 & -0.01 \\ -0.01 & 0 & -0.01 \end{bmatrix}$$

# **Asymmetric Quantization**

Scaling Factor = 
$$\frac{B - A}{127 - (-128)} = \frac{B - A}{255}$$



**Asymmetric Quantization** 

$$FP32 Matrix = \begin{bmatrix} 1.25 & 2.67 & 3.08 \\ 4.12 & 3.02 & 2.01 \\ 0.89 & 5.45 & 3.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling Factor = 
$$\frac{B - A}{127 - (-128)} = \frac{B - A}{255}$$

Scale = 
$$\frac{5.45 - 0.89}{127 - (-128)} = \frac{4.56}{255} \approx 0.01788$$

**Asymmetric Quantization** 

$$FP32 \text{ Matrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.25 & 2.67 & 3.08 \\ 4.12 & 3.02 & 2.01 \\ 0.89 & 5.45 & 3.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

Zero Point = Round 
$$\left(q_{\min} - \frac{r_{\min}}{\text{Scale}}\right)$$

Zero Point = Round 
$$\left(-128 - \frac{0.89}{0.01788}\right)$$

Zero point = **-178**.

 $FP32 Matrix = \begin{bmatrix} 1.25 & 2.67 & 3.08 \\ 4.12 & 3.02 & 2.01 \\ 0.89 & 5.45 & 3.76 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Quantized Value = Round 
$$\left(\frac{\text{FP32 Value}}{\text{Scale}} + \text{Zero Point}\right)$$

Quantized INT8 Matrix: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} -108 & -29 & -6 \\ 52 & -9 & -66 \\ -128 & 127 & 32 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Asymmetric** Quantization

Asymmetric **Quantization** 

Quantized INT8 Matrix: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} -108 & -29 & -6 \\ 52 & -9 & -66 \\ -128 & 127 & 32 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dequantized FP32 value: =  $(INT8 \ Value - Zero \ Point) \times Scale$ 

Dequantized FP32 Matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.2516 & 2.6641 & 3.0754 \\ 4.1124 & 3.0217 & 2.0026 \\ 0.8940 & 5.4534 & 3.7548 \end{bmatrix}$$

Quantization Error:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -0.0016 & 0.0059 & 0.0046 \\ 0.0076 & -0.0017 & 0.0074 \\ -0.0040 & -0.0034 & 0.0052 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Asymmetric Quantization** 

Quantization Error (Symmetric):

$$\approx \begin{bmatrix} 0.01 & 0.01 & -0.01 \\ 0 & 0.02 & -0.01 \\ -0.01 & 0 & -0.01 \end{bmatrix}$$

Quantization Error Asymmetric:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -0.0016 & 0.0059 & 0.0046 \\ 0.0076 & -0.0017 & 0.0074 \\ -0.0040 & -0.0034 & 0.0052 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### **Differences**

#### **Symmetric Quantization:**

- Advantages: Simple to implement, fast, and efficient. The scaling factor is uniform, making computations straightforward.
- **Limitations**: The quantization error can be larger, especially for skewed data, as the range is centered around zero.

#### **Asymmetric Quantization:**

- Advantages: Provides better accuracy and smaller quantization error, especially for data that is not symmetric or skewed toward a particular range. It uses flexible scaling factors and zero points to improve representation.
- **Limitations**: Slightly more complex to compute but provides higher precision.