

# Fixed-point Factorized Networks

Peisong Wang<sup>1,2</sup> and Jian Cheng<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute of Automation, Chinese Academy of Sciences

<sup>2</sup>University of Chinese Academy of Sciences

<sup>3</sup>Center for Excellence in Brain Science and Intelligence Technology, CAS

{peisong.wang, jcheng}@nlpr.ia.ac.cn

## Abstract

*In recent years, Deep Neural Networks (DNN) based methods have achieved remarkable performance in a wide range of tasks and have been among the most powerful and widely used techniques in computer vision. However, DNN-based methods are both computational-intensive and resource-consuming, which hinders the application of these methods on embedded systems like smart phones. To alleviate this problem, we introduce a novel Fixed-point Factorized Networks (FFN) for pretrained models to reduce the computational complexity as well as the storage requirement of networks. The resulting networks have only weights of -1, 0 and 1, which significantly eliminates the most resource-consuming multiply-accumulate operations (MACs). Extensive experiments on large-scale ImageNet classification task show the proposed FFN only requires one-thousandth of multiply operations with comparable accuracy.*

## 1. Introduction

Deep neural networks (DNNs) have recently been setting new state of the art performance in many fields including computer vision, speech recognition as well as natural language processing. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs), in particular, have outperformed traditional machine learning algorithms on computer vision tasks such as image recognition, object detection, semantic segmentation as well as gesture and action recognition. These breakthroughs are partially due to the added computational complexity and the storage footprint, which makes these models very hard to train as well as to deploy. For example, the Alexnet [20] involves 61M floating point parameters and 725M high precision multiply-accumulate operations (MACs). Current DNNs are usually trained offline by utilizing specialized hardware like NVIDIA GPUs and CPU

clusters. But such an amount of computation may be unaffordable for portable devices such as mobile phones, tablets and wearable devices, which usually have limited computing resources. What's more, the huge storage requirement and large memory accesses may hinder efficient hardware implementation of neural networks, like FPGAs and neural network oriented chips.

To speed-up test-phase computation of deep models, lots of matrix and tensor factorization based methods are investigated by the community recently [5, 15, 32, 21, 18, 30]. However, these methods commonly utilize full-precision weights, which are hardware-unfriendly especially for embedded systems. Moreover, the low compression ratios hinder the applications of these methods on mobile devices.

Fixed-point quantization can partially alleviate these two problems mentioned above. There have been many studies working on reducing the storage and the computational complexity of DNNs by quantizing the parameters of these models. Some of these works [3, 6, 8, 22, 24] quantize the pretrained weights using several bits (usually 3~12 bits) with a minimal loss of performance. However, in these kinds of quantized networks one still needs to employ large numbers of multiply-accumulate operations. Others [23, 1, 4, 2, 17, 12, 25] focus on training these networks from scratch with binary (+1 and -1) or ternary (+1, 0 and -1) weights. These methods do not rely on pretrained models and may reduce the computations at training stage as well as testing stage. But on the other hand, these methods could not make use of the pretrained models very efficiently due to the dramatic information loss during the binary or ternary quantization of weights.

In this paper, we propose a unified framework called Fixed-point Factorized Network (FFN) to simultaneously accelerate and compress DNN models with only minor performance degradation. Specifically, we propose to first directly factorize the weight matrix using fixed-point (+1, 0 and -1) representation followed by recovering the (pseudo) full precision submatrices. We also propose an effective and practical technique called weight balancing, which makes

\*The corresponding author.

our fine-tuning (retraining) much more stable. We demonstrate the effects of the direct fixed-point factorization, full precision weight recovery, weight balancing and whole-model performance of AlexNet [20], VGG-16 [29], and ResNet-50 [10] on ImageNet classification task. The main contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

- We propose the FFN framework based on direct fixed-point factorization for DNN acceleration and compression, which is much more flexible and accurate.
- Based on fixed point factorization, we propose a novel full precision weight recovery method, which makes it possible to make full use of the pretrained models even for very deep architectures like deep residual networks (ResNets) [10].
- We investigate the weight imbalance problem generally existing in matrix/tensor decomposition based DNN acceleration methods. Inspired by weights initialization methods, we present an effective weight balancing technique to stabilize the fine-tuning stage of DNN models.

## 2. Related Work

CNN acceleration and compression are widely studied in recent years. We mainly list works that are closely related with ours, i.e., the matrix decomposition based methods and fixed-point quantization based methods.

Deep neural networks are usually over-parameterized and the redundancy can be removed using low-rank approximation of filter matrix as shown in the work of [5]. Since then, many low-rank based methods have been proposed. Jaderberg [15] proposed to use filter low-rank approximation and data reconstruction to lower the approximation error. Zhang et al. [32] presented a novel nonlinear data reconstruction method, which allows asymmetric reconstruction to prevent error accumulation across layers. Their method achieved high speed-up on VGG-16 model with minor increase on top-5 error for ImageNet [27] classification. Low-rank tensor decomposition methods like CP-decomposition [21], Tucker decomposition [18] and Block Term Decomposition (BTD) [30] are also investigated and showed high speed-up and energy reduction.

Fixed-point quantization based methods are also investigated by several recent works. Soudry et al. developed the Expectation Backpropagation (EBP) [1] method, which is a variational Bayes method to binarize both weights and neurons and achieved good results for fully connected networks on MNIST dataset. In the work of BinaryConnect [4], the authors proposed to use binary weights for forward and backward computation while keep a full-precision version of weights for gradients accumulation. Good results have been achieved on small datasets like MNIST, CIFA-10

and SVHN. Binary-Weight-Network (BWN) and XNOR-net were proposed in a more recent work [25], which was among the first ones to evaluate the performance of binarization on large-scale datasets like ImageNet [27] and yielded good results. These methods train neural networks from scratch and can barely benefit from pretrained networks. Hwang et al. [13] found a way by first quantize pretrained weights using a reduced number of bits, followed by retraining. However, their method achieved good results only for longer bits on small datasets and heavily relied on carefully choosing the step size of quantization using exhaustive search. The scalability on large-scale datasets remained unclear.

Besides low-rank based and fixed-point quantization based methods mentioned above, there have been other approaches. Han et al. [9] utilized network pruning to remove low-saliency parameters and small-weight connections to reduce parameter size. Product quantization was investigated in the work of [31] to compress and speed-up DNNs at the same time. Teacher-student architectures [11, 26] were also well studied and achieved promising results.

Unlike previous works, we explore fixed-point factorization on weight matrix. It is nontrivial to utilize fixed-point factorization of weight matrices. One may argue to use full precision matrix decomposition like SVD, followed by fixed point quantization of the decomposed submatrices. However, this kind of method has an obvious shortcoming: the matrix approximation is optimized for the full precision submatrices, but not for the fixed-point representation, which is our main target. On the contrary, in our proposed FFN architecture, we directly factorize weight matrix into fixed-point format in an end-to-end way.

## 3. Approaches

Our method exploits the weight matrix approximation method for deep neural network acceleration and compression. Unlike many previous low-rank based matrix decomposition methods which use floating point values for the factorized submatrices, our method aims at fixed-point factorization directly.

To more efficiently make use of the pretrained weights, a novel pseudo full-precision weight matrix recovery method is introduced in addition to the direct fixed-point factorization. Thus the information of the pretrained models is divided into two parts: the first one is the fixed-point factorized submatrices and the second one resides in the pseudo full-precision weight matrices, which on the other hand, will be transferred to the fixed-point weight matrices during the fine-tuning stage.

Moreover, we find that fine-tuning becomes much harder after decomposition, which is also observed in the work of [32], i.e., a small learning rate results in poor local optimum while a large learning rate may discard the initialization in-

formation. Based on our empirical results and theoretical analysis, we propose the weight balancing technique, which makes the fine-tuning more efficient and has an important role in our whole framework.

We will present our novel fixed-point factorization, pseudo full-precision weight recovery and weight balancing methods at length in section 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 respectively.

### 3.1. Fixed-point Factorization of Weight Matrices

A general deep neural network usually has multiple fully connected layers and / or convolutional layers. For the fully connected layers, the output signal vector  $s_o$  is computed as:

$$s_o = \phi(Ws_i + b) \quad (1)$$

where  $s_i$  is the input signal vector and  $W$  and  $b$  are the weight matrix and the bias term respectively. For a convolutional layer with  $n$  filters of size  $w \times h \times c$  where  $w$ ,  $h$  and  $c$  are the kernel width and height and the number of input feature maps, if we reshape the kernel and the input volume at every spatial positions, the feedforward pass of the convolution can also be expressed by equation 1. Thus our decomposition is conducted on the weight matrix  $W$ .

In this subsection we propose to directly factorize the weight matrices into fixed-point format. More specifically, in our framework, full precision weight matrix  $W \in R^{m \times n}$  of a given pretrained model is approximated by a weighted sum of outer products of several ( $k$ ) vector pairs with only ternary (+1, 0 and -1) entries, which is referred to as the semidiscrete decomposition (SDD) in the following format:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{X, D, Y}{\text{minimize}} \quad \| W - XDY^T \|_F^2 \\ & = \underset{\{x_i\}, \{d_i\}, \{y_i\}}{\text{minimize}} \quad \| W - \sum_i^k d_i x_i y_i^T \|_F^2 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $X \in \{-1, 0, +1\}^{m \times k}$  and  $Y \in \{-1, 0, +1\}^{n \times k}$  and  $D \in R_+^{k \times k}$  is a nonnegative diagonal matrix. Note that throughout this paper, we utilize the symbol  $k$  to represent the dimension of the SDD decomposition.

One advantage of fixed-point factorization method over direct fixed-point quantization is that there is much more room for us to control the approximation error. Consider the decomposition on weight matrix  $W \in R^{m \times n}$ , we can choose different  $k$  to approximate  $W$  as accurate as possible. (Note that  $k$  can be larger than both  $m$  and  $n$ ). This also makes it possible to choose different  $k$  for different layers according to the redundancy of that layer. Thus our fixed-point decomposition method can be much more flexible and accurate than direct quantization method.

Because of the ternary constraints in 2, the computation of SDD is a NP-hard problem. Kolda and O’Leary [19] proposed to obtain an approximate local solution by greedily

---

#### Algorithm 1 Improved SDD decomposition

---

**Input:** weight matrix  $W \in R^{m \times n}$

**Input:** non-negative integer  $k$

**Output:**  $X \in \{+1, 0, -1\}^{m \times k}$

**Output:**  $Y \in \{+1, 0, -1\}^{n \times k}$

**Output:** diagonal matrix  $D \in R_+^{k \times k}$

- 1:  $d_i \leftarrow 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$
  - 2: Select  $Y \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^{n \times k}$
  - 3: **while** not converge **do**
  - 4:   **for**  $i = 1, \dots, k$  **do**
  - 5:      $R \leftarrow W - \sum_{j \neq i} d_j x_j y_j^T$
  - 6:     Set  $y_i$  to the  $i$ -th column of  $Y$
  - 7:     **while** not converge **do**
  - 8:       compute  $x_i \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^m$  given  $y_i$  and  $R$
  - 9:       compute  $y_i \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^n$  given  $x_i$  and  $R$
  - 10:     **end while**
  - 11:     Set  $d_i$  to the average of  $R \circ x_i y_i^T$  over the non-zero locations of  $x_i y_i^T$
  - 12:     Set  $x_i$  as the  $i$ -th column of  $X$ ,  $y_i$  the  $i$ -th column of  $Y$  and  $d_i$  the  $i$ -th diagonal value of  $D$
  - 13:   **end for**
  - 14: **end while**
- 

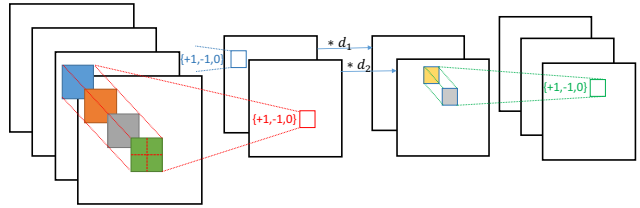


Figure 1. New layers used in our FFN architecture to replace the original convolutional layers.

finding the best next  $d_i x_i y_i$ . To further reduce the approximation error of the decomposition, we refine their algorithm as in Algorithm 1 by iteratively minimizing the residual error.

Once the decomposition is done, we can replace the original weights  $W$  with the factorized ones, i.e., the  $X$ ,  $Y$  and  $D$ . More formally, for convolutional layers, the original layer is replaced by three layers: the first one is a convolutional layer with  $k$  filters of size  $w \times h \times c$ , which are all with ternary values; The second layer is a “channel-wise scaling layer”, i.e., each of the  $k$  feature maps is multiplied by a scaling factor; The last layer is another convolutional layer with  $n$  filters of size  $1 \times 1 \times k$ , which also have ternary values. Figure 1 illustrates the architecture of our new layers in FFN network.

### 3.2. Full-precision Weight Recovery

Our fixed-point factorization method is much more accurate than direct binarization or ternarization method and

many other fixed-point quantization methods. But there is still the need of fine-tuning to restore the precision of DNN models. Like most of current fixed-point quantization based accelerating methods, we want to use the quantized weights (the  $X, Y$  in our case) during the forward and backward propagation while use the full-precision weights for gradient accumulation. However, after factorization, the full-precision weights are lost, i.e., the original  $W$  cannot be used for gradient accumulation any longer. A simple solution is to use the floating point version of  $X$  and  $Y$  as full-precision weights to accumulate gradients. But this is far from satisfactory, as can be seen from section 4.1.2.

In this subsection, we present our novel full-precision weight recovery method based on the pretrained weights to make the fine-tuning stage much easier. Our motivation is very simple, we recovery the full-precision version of  $X$  and  $Y$ , indicated by  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$ , which can better approximate  $W$ . Note that at the same time, we must make sure that  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$  will be quantized into  $X$  and  $Y$  in quantization stage. We can treat our full-precision weight recovery method as an inversion of current fixed-point quantization methods. In fixed-point quantization based DNN acceleration and compression methods, we quantize each element of the full-precision weight matrices into the nearest fixed-point format value. While in our method, we have got the fixed-point version of the weights through fixed-point decomposition, and we need to determine from which value the fixed-point element is quantized. We turn this problem into an optimization problem as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\hat{X}, \hat{Y}}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|W - \hat{X}D\hat{Y}^T\|_F^2 \\ & \text{subject to} \quad |\hat{X}_{ij} - X_{ij}| < 0.5, \forall i, j \\ & \quad \quad \quad |\hat{Y}_{ij} - Y_{ij}| < 0.5, \forall i, j \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Here the two constraints are introduced to ensure that the  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$  will be quantized to  $X$  and  $Y$ . The problem can be efficiently solved by alternative method. Note we constraint  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$  to be always between -1.5 and 1.5 to alleviate overfitting and during fine-tuning, we also clip the weights within [-1.5, 1.5] interval as well.

During fine-tuning stage, we quantize the full-precision weights of  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$  according to the following equation (before weight balancing described in the next subsection):

$$q(A_{ij}) = \begin{cases} +1 & 0.5 < A_{ij} < 1.5 \\ 0 & -0.5 \leq A_{ij} \leq 0.5 \\ -1 & -1.5 < A_{ij} < -0.5 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

The quantized weights are used to conduct forward and backward computation and the full-precision weights  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$  are used to accumulate gradients. Both  $X$  and  $Y$  will change during fine-tuning because of the updates of  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$ , for example, some elements of  $X$  and  $Y$  will turn

from 0 to 1 and so on. We argue that, for example, both 0.499 and 0.001 will be quantized to 0 according to Equation 4. But at fine-tuning stage, 0.499 has higher probability than 0.001 to turn to 1. And this kind of information resides in the full-precision weight matrices and is transferred to the quantized weights during fine-tuning. Note that the full-precision weights won't be retained after fine-tuning, and there are only the quantized weights  $X$  and  $Y$  for prediction.

### 3.3. Weight Balancing

So far, we have presented our fixed-point decomposition and full-precision weight recovery to improve the test-phase efficiency of deep neural networks. However, there is still a problem to be considered, which we refer to as weight imbalance.

Weight imbalance is a common problem of decomposition based methods, not just existing in our framework (as also noticed in [32]). This problem is caused by the non-uniqueness of the decomposition.

Considering a  $L$  layers neural network, the forward computation is in the following format:

$$\begin{aligned} z^{(l+1)} &= W^{(l)}a^{(l)} + b^{(l)} \\ a^{(l+1)} &= \phi(z^{(l+1)}) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

During back-propagation, the error term and the gradients of weights for each layer are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^{(l)} &= ((W^{(l)})^T \delta^{(l+1)}) \bullet \phi'(z^{(l)}) \\ \nabla_{W^{(l)}} &= \delta^{(l+1)}(a^{(l)})^T \end{aligned} \quad (6) \quad (7)$$

Here the “ $\bullet$ ” denotes the element-wise product operator. Note that for layer  $l$ , the inputs, outputs and the error term are represented as  $a^{(l)}$ ,  $a^{(l+1)}$  and  $\delta^{(l)}$ . From Equation 7 we can see that the gradients  $\nabla_{W^{(l)}}$  is proportional to this layer's input  $a^{(l)}$  and the next layer's error term  $\delta^{(l+1)}$ . While from Equation 6 we can see that the next layer's error term  $\delta^{(l+1)}$  is proportional to the next layer's weights  $W^{(l+1)}$ .

Suppose we have a weight matrix  $W$ , which is factorized into the product of two matrices  $W = PQ$ , i.e., the original layer with parameter  $W$  is replaced by two layers with parameter  $Q$  and  $P$ , as shown in Figure 2(a). If let  $P' = P/\alpha$  and  $Q' = \alpha * Q$ , the decomposition becomes  $W = P'Q'$  as shown in Figure 2(b). Figure 2 shows that  $Q$  has been enlarged by  $\alpha$ -times while the gradients have become  $1/\alpha$  of the original. And what happened to  $P$  is opposite to  $Q$ . The consequence (suppose  $\alpha \gg 1$ ) is that during back-propagation,  $P$  changes frequently while  $Q$  almost stays untouched. At this time, one has to search for different learning rates for each layer. However, finding appropriate learning rates for every layer is quite a hard job especially for very deep neural networks.

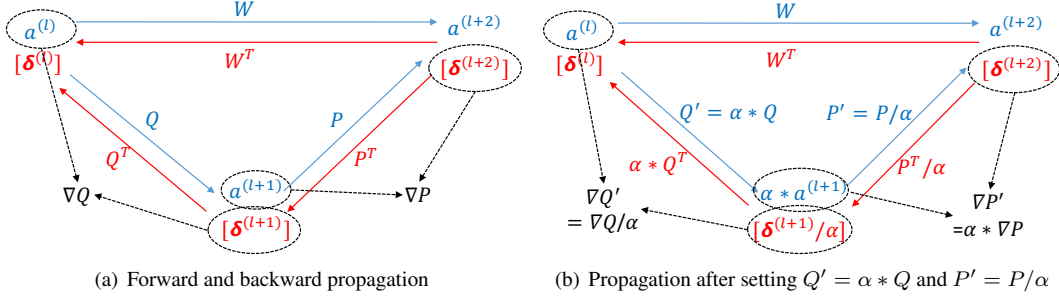


Figure 2. Illustration of the cause of weight imbalance problem existing in decomposition based methods.

In our framework, the weight matrix  $W \in R^{m \times n}$  is replaced by  $\hat{X}D\hat{Y}^T$ , where the  $\hat{X} \in R^{m \times k}$  and  $\hat{Y} \in R^{n \times k}$  is in the range of  $[-1.5, 1.5]$  while  $D$  is at the scale of about 0.00001 to 0.01. And for convolutional layers,  $\hat{X}$  usually has much more elements than  $\hat{Y}$  because of the  $w \times h$  spatial size of filters in  $\hat{X}$ . To balance the weights into their appropriate scales, and inspired by the normalized weight initialization method proposed in [7], we develop the following weight balancing approaches:

First, we want to find the scaling factor  $\lambda_X$  and  $\lambda_Y$  for  $\hat{X}$  and  $\hat{Y}$ , which are proportional to the square root of the sum of the number of their rows and columns.

Second, we try to make the balanced  $D$  close to identity matrix by setting the mean value of the elements along the diagonal to one. Because for fully-connected layer,  $D$  is a element-wise scaling factor and for convolutional layers,  $D$  is a channel-wise scaling factor. Thus making  $D$  close to one will not affect the calculation of gradients much.

This can be expressed by the equation 8 where  $\tilde{X}$ ,  $\tilde{Y}$  and  $\tilde{D}$  represent the balanced version of weight matrices. And the  $\varphi$  is introduced to make sure that the scaling factor  $\lambda_X$  and  $\lambda_Y$  are proportional to the square root of the sum number of rows and columns.

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{X} = \lambda_X * \hat{X} = \frac{\varphi}{\sqrt{m+k}} * \hat{X} \\ \tilde{Y} = \lambda_Y * \hat{Y} = \frac{\varphi}{\sqrt{n+k}} * \hat{Y} \\ \tilde{D} = \frac{D}{\lambda_X * \lambda_Y} \\ \text{mean}(\tilde{D}) = 1 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

Once we have got the scaling factors of  $\lambda_X$ ,  $\lambda_D$  and  $\lambda_Y$ , we can use the balanced weights  $\tilde{X}$ ,  $\tilde{D}$  and  $\tilde{Y}$  during back-propagation. Note that we also need to scale the quantization function accordingly in the following form where  $\lambda$  can be  $\lambda_X$  and  $\lambda_Y$  respectively:

$$q(A_{ij}) = \begin{cases} +1 * \lambda & 0.5 * \lambda < A_{ij} < 1.5 * \lambda \\ 0 & -0.5 * \lambda \leq A_{ij} \leq 0.5 * \lambda \\ -1 * \lambda & -1.5 * \lambda < A_{ij} < -0.5 * \lambda \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

### 3.4. Fine-tuning

Thanks to the full-precision weight recovery strategy and weight balancing method proposed in this paper, we can

easily fine-tune the factorized network to restore accuracy. Specifically, we keep the balanced pseudo full-precision weight matrices ( $\tilde{X}$  and  $\tilde{Y}$ ) as reference. During fine-tuning stage, we quantize  $\tilde{X}$  and  $\tilde{Y}$  according to equation 9 and the quantized weights are used in the forward and backward computation. While the gradients are accumulated by the full-precision weights, i.e.,  $\tilde{X}$  and  $\tilde{Y}$ , to make improvements. The full-precision weight recovery and weight balancing are introduced to facilitate convergence of the fine-tuning stage. However, at test time, we only need the fixed point  $X$ ,  $Y$  and the diagonal floating-point  $D$  for prediction.

### 3.5. Complexity Analysis

In this section, we will analyze the computing complexity of our framework for convolutional layers, which dominates the operations of convolutional neural networks. Fully-connected layers can be analyzed in a similar way.

For convolutional layers, the width and height of output feature maps are denoted as  $W'$  and  $H'$ . Considering convolution with kernel of size  $w \times h \times c \times n$ , the computation of the original layer is given by:

$$C_{mul} = C_{add} = W' * H' * (w * h * c * n) \quad (10)$$

In our FFN architecture, the computation turns to be:

$$\begin{aligned} C_{mul} &= W' * H' * k \\ C_{add} &= (1 - \alpha) * W' * H' * (w * h * c + n) * k \\ &\approx (1 - \alpha) * W' * H' * (w * h * c * n) \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Here, the  $\alpha$  denotes the sparsity of weight matrix for this layer. For a common convolutional layer, the  $w * h * c * n$  is usually thousands of times of  $k$ , thus the number of multiply operation can be dramatically reduced. The  $c$ ,  $n$  and  $k$  are usually at the same scale, making the addition operation about  $(1 - \alpha)$  times of the original. In our experiments, we find that  $\alpha$  is around 0.5. Thus our method only requires about half of operations compared to that using binary weights. We refer to section 4.3 for more detail.

Table 1. Results of different settings on AlexNet .

Model	Top-1 Acc. (%)	Top-5 Acc. (%)
AlexNet [20]	57.1	80.2
FFN-SDD	32.9	57.0
FFN-Recovered	57.0	80.1
FFN-W/O-FWR	53.4	77.2
FFN-W/O-WB	51.9	76.6
FFN	55.5	79.0

## 4. Experiments

In this section, we comprehensively evaluate our method on ILSVRC-12 [27] image classification benchmark, which has 1.2M training examples and 50K validation examples. We firstly examine the effects of each individual component in FFN, i.e., fixed-point factorization, full-precision weight recovery, and weight balancing. The whole-model ILSVRC-12 [27] classification performance is also evaluated based on AlexNet [20], VGG-16 [29], and ResNet-50 [10], demonstrating the effectiveness of our FFN framework.

### 4.1. Effectiveness of Each Part

In this subsection we thoroughly analyze the effectiveness of each part in our unified FFN framework.

#### 4.1.1 Fixed-point Factorization

In theory, our method can approximate weight matrix  $W$  as accurate as possible by choosing large  $k$ , i.e., the dimension of SDD decomposition. We can also utilize different  $k$  for different layers. Thus our method can be much more accurate and flexible than the direct fixed-point quantization. In this section, we evaluate the weight matrix approximation error and classification accuracy under different  $k$ .

We use the second convolutional layer of AlexNet for demonstration, which is the most time-consuming layer during the test phase. There are two groups in this layer, each is of size  $5 \times 5 \times 48 \times 128$ . We choose the same  $k$  for these two groups and evaluate the average of weight matrix approximation error. Here, weight matrix approximate error is defined as:

$$r = \frac{\|W - XDY^T\|_F^2}{\|W\|_F^2} \quad (12)$$

Figure 3 illustrates the approximation error and the accuracy on ImageNet classification task. From Figure 3, we can see that as  $k$  increases, the approximation error tends to zero and the accuracy stays closer to the original AlexNet.

The classification accuracy after all layers are processed is given in the second row of Table 1 (denoted as FFN-SDD), demonstrating that our fixed-point factorized method can produce a good initialization.

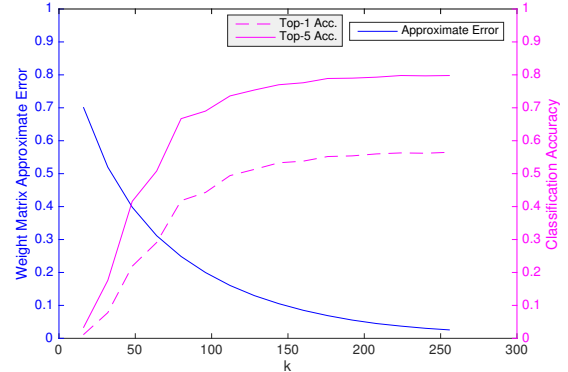


Figure 3. Weight approximation error and classification accuracy on ImageNet when choosing different  $k$  for the second convolutional layer of AlexNet.

#### 4.1.2 Full-precision Weight Recovery

In this subsection, we evaluate the effect of our full-precision weight recovery method. During the fine-tuning stage, gradients are accumulated by the full-precision weights, thus the initial values may affect the evolution of learning process. To show that the pseudo full-precision weights recovered by our method can actually represent the original weights, we evaluate the performance of recovered weights on AlexNet. The results are given in the third row of Table 1 (FFN-Recovered). Both the top-1 and top-5 classification accuracy are very close to the original AlexNet model.

To further demonstrate the effectiveness of the weight recovery strategy, we also compare with FFN model without full-precision weight recovery (FFN-W/O-FWR, weight balancing method is incorporated) in Table 1. Without full-precision weight recovery, the top-5 accuracy decreases 1.8% compared to FFN.

#### 4.1.3 Weight Balancing

Weight balancing is introduced to make the fine-tuning stage more reliable. In Table 1, we report the best results achieved without weight balancing (FFN-W/O-WB) compared with that of using weight balancing (FFN) on AlexNet. The weight balancing scheme greatly helps the fine-tuning stage, leading to 3.6%/2.4% improvement in the top-1/top-5 classification accuracy.

To further illustrate the gradients imbalance problem as well as to show the effectiveness of our novel weight balancing method, we extract the gradients of the second convolutional layer of AlexNet, as shown in Figure 4. The left and right columns represent the gradient distribution before and after applying our weight balancing method. From Figure 4, we discover that after decomposition, the gradients of the three new layers differ significantly from each other,

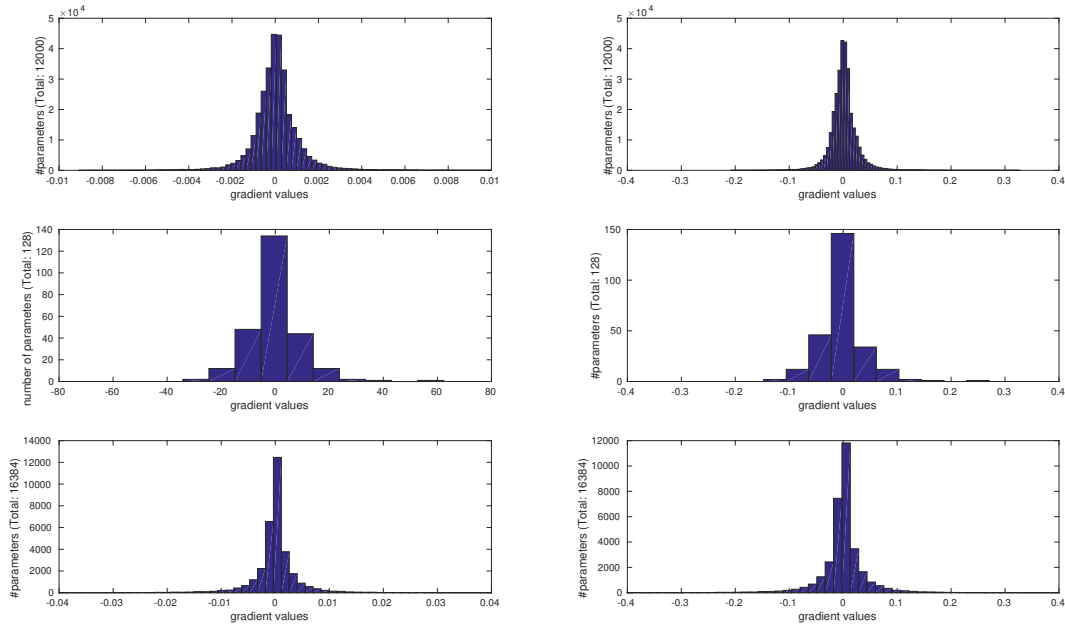


Figure 4. Gradient distribution of the second convolutional layer of AlexNet before (first column) and after (second column) weight balancing. Three rows correspond to  $X$ ,  $D$  and  $Y$  respectively.

while after weight balancing, most gradients lie within the interval  $[-0.1, 0.1]$  for all layers. Using weight balancing method allows to use the same learning rate for all layers, which is very important for fine-tuning, especially for very deep networks.

## 4.2. Whole-model Performance on ILSVRC-12

In this subsection, we evaluate the performance of our FFN on ImageNet classification task. We report top-1 and top-5 accuracy using the  $224 \times 224$  center crop. Experiments are conducted on three commonly used CNN models, i.e., AlexNet [20], VGG-16 [29] and ResNet-50 [10]. All of these models are downloaded from Berkeley’s *Caffe model zoo* [16] without any change and are also used as baselines for comparison. Our accelerating strategy is to approximate the original weight matrices using the proposed fixed-point decomposition, full-precision weight recovery and weight balancing method. After that, fine-tuning (re-training) the whole network for the ImageNet classification task is needed to retain accuracy.

### 4.2.1 AlexNet

Alexnet was proposed in [20] and was the winner of ILSVRC 2012 [27] image classification task. This network has 61M parameters and more than 95% of them reside in the fully-connected layers. Thus we choose relatively

smaller decomposition dimension  $k$  for fully-connected layers for a higher compression rate. Specifically, for the convolutional layers with 4-D weights of size  $w \times h \times c \times n$ , we choose decomposition dimension  $k = \min(w * h * c, n)$ . And for the last three fully-connected layers,  $k$  is set to 2048, 3072 and 1000 respectively. The resulting architecture has 60M parameters, of which mostly are -1, 0, or 1. At fine-tuning stage, images are resized to  $256 \times 256$  pixel size as the same with original Alexnet.

We also compare our method with the following approaches, whose results on ImageNet dataset are publicly available. Note that the BWN [25] method only report their results on AlexNet with batch normalization [14], so in order to compare with their results, we also report our results using batch normalization with the same settings as in [25].

- **BWN**: [25]: Binary-weight-network, using binary weights and floating point scaling factors;
- **BC**: [4]: BinaryConnect, using binary weights, reported by [25];
- **LDR** [24]: Logarithmic Data Representation, 4-bit logarithmic activation and 5-bit logarithmic weights.

The results are listed in Table 2. The suffix *BN* indicates that batch normalization [14] is used. From the results, we can see that without batch normalization, our method only has a 1.2% drop in the top-5 accuracy. Our method can outperform the best results by 2.2 percentages on top-5 ac-

Table 2. Comparison on AlexNet (Suffix BN indicates using batch normalization [14]).

Model	Top-1 Acc. (%)	Top-5 Acc. (%)
AlexNet [20]	57.1	80.2
AlexNet-BN [28]	60.1	81.9
BC-BN [4]	35.4	61.0
BWN-BN [25]	56.8	79.4
LDR [24]	-	75.1
FFN	55.5	79.0
FFN-BN	59.1	81.6

Table 3. Comparison on VGG-16.

Model	Top-1 Acc. (%)	Top-5 Acc. (%)
VGG-16 [29]	71.1	89.9
LDR [24]	-	89.0
FFN	70.8	90.1

curacy if batch normalization is incorporated.

#### 4.2.2 VGG-16

VGG-16 [29] uses much wider and deeper structure than AlexNet, with 13 convolutional layers and 3 fully-connected layers. We use the same rules to choose the decomposition dimension  $k$  and we set  $k = 3138, 3072, 1000$  for three fully-connected layers respectively, resulting in approximately the same number of parameters as the original VGG-16 model. During fine-tuning, we resize images to 256 pixels at the smaller dimension.

The results are illustrated in Table 3. We can see that after quantization, our method even outperform the original VGG-16 model by 0.2% on top-5 accuracy.

#### 4.2.3 ResNet-50

To further evaluate the effectiveness of our FFN framework, we also conduct experiments on the more challenging deep neural network, i.e., ResNet-50. Residual Networks (ResNets) were proposed in [10] which won the 1st place in the ILSVRC 2015 classification, detection and localization tasks. For simplicity, we choose the 50-layer architecture, which is the smallest ResNets that outperforms all previous models.

The ResNet-50 architecture has a global average pooling layer before the 1000-way fully-connected layer, thus the fully-connected layer has much fewer parameters than that in AlexNet [20] and VGG-16 [29]. To make the number of parameters the same as the original ResNet-50, we have to choose relatively smaller  $k$  for all convolutional layers. Specifically, for a convolutional layer with kernel size  $w \times h \times c \times n$ , we set  $k = \frac{(w*h*c)*n}{w*h*c+n}$ , i.e., for each layer, we keep the same number of parameters as the original layer. Even though, our method can still achieve promising performance, i.e., with 1.3% drop in the top-5 accuracy as is shown in Table 4. Choosing higher  $k$  for convolutional lay-

Table 4. Comparison on ResNet-50.

Model	Top-1 Acc. (%)	Top-5 Acc. (%)
ResNet-50 [10]	75.2	92.2
FFN	72.7	90.9

Table 5. Operations and storage requirements. Mul and Add represent the number of multiply and addition operation. Bytes indicates the number of byte needed to store the weights. All numbers are accounted for convolutional layers and fully-connected layers.

Model		AlexNet	VGG-16	ResNet-50
Original	Mul	725M	15471M	4212M
	Add	725M	15471M	4212M
	Bytes	244M	528M	97.3M
Binary	Mul	0.66M	13.5M	10.6M
	Add	725M	15471M	4212M
	Bytes	7.7M	16.6M	3.1M
FFN	Mul	0.66M	11.7M	4.4M
	Add	392M	8631M	1907M
	Bytes	11.5M	25.8M	4.9M

ers as is done for AlexNet and VGG-16 may further reduce the classification error.

#### 4.3. Efficiency Analysis

In this section, the computational complexity and storage requirement of the proposed FFN are analyzed and compared to the original networks and networks using binary weights. Our architecture use ternary weights, and we empirically find that about a half of weights are zeros. Thus the computational complexity is about a half of binary based method like BC [4]. The disadvantage of using ternary weights is that it needs a little more storage than binary weights. Specifically, our ternary method has about 1.5-bit weight representation, because of the sparsity. Table 5 shows the computation and storage on AlexNet, VGG-16 and ResNet-50 in detail.

#### 5. Conclusion

We introduce a novel fixed-point factorized framework, named FFN, for deep neural networks acceleration and compression. To make full use of the pretrained models, we propose a novel full-precision weight recovery method, which makes the fine-tuning more efficient and effective. Moreover, we present a weight balancing technique to stabilize fine-tuning stage. Extensive experiments on AlexNet, VGG-16 and ResNet-50 show that the proposed FFN only requires one-thousandth of multiply operations with comparable accuracy.

**Acknowledgement.** This work was supported in part by National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.61332016) and the Scientific Research Key Program of Beijing Municipal Commission of Education (KZ201610005012).



## References

- [1] Z. Cheng, D. Soudry, Z. Mao, and Z. Lan. Training binary multilayer neural networks for image classification using expectation backpropagation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1503.03562*, 2015.
- [2] M. Courbariaux and Y. Bengio. Binarynet: Training deep neural networks with weights and activations constrained to+1 or-1. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1602.02830*, 2016.
- [3] M. Courbariaux, Y. Bengio, and J.-P. David. Low precision arithmetic for deep learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.7024*, 2014.
- [4] M. Courbariaux, Y. Bengio, and J.-P. David. Binaryconnect: Training deep neural networks with binary weights during propagations. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 3123–3131, 2015.
- [5] M. Denil, B. Shakibi, L. Dinh, N. de Freitas, et al. Predicting parameters in deep learning. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 2148–2156, 2013.
- [6] T. Dettmers. 8-bit approximations for parallelism in deep learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.04561*, 2015.
- [7] X. Glorot and Y. Bengio. Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 9:249–256, 2010.
- [8] S. Gupta, A. Agrawal, K. Gopalakrishnan, and P. Narayanan. Deep learning with limited numerical precision. *CoRR, abs/1502.02551*, 392, 2015.
- [9] S. Han, J. Pool, J. Tran, and W. Dally. Learning both weights and connections for efficient neural network. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 1135–1143, 2015.
- [10] K. He, X. Zhang, S. Ren, and J. Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2016.
- [11] G. Hinton, O. Vinyals, and J. Dean. Distilling the knowledge in a neural network. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1503.02531*, 2015.
- [12] I. Hubara, D. Soudry, and R. E. Yaniv. Binarized neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1602.02505*, 2016.
- [13] K. Hwang and W. Sung. Fixed-point feedforward deep neural network design using weights+ 1, 0, and- 1. In *2014 IEEE Workshop on Signal Processing Systems (SiPS)*, pages 1–6. IEEE, 2014.
- [14] S. Ioffe and C. Szegedy. Batch normalization: Accelerating deep network training by reducing internal covariate shift. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1502.03167*, 2015.
- [15] M. Jaderberg, A. Vedaldi, and A. Zisserman. Speeding up convolutional neural networks with low rank expansions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1405.3866*, 2014.
- [16] Y. Jia, E. Shelhamer, J. Donahue, S. Karayev, J. Long, R. Girshick, S. Guadarrama, and T. Darrell. Caffe: Convolutional architecture for fast feature embedding. In *Proceedings of the ACM International Conference on Multimedia*, pages 675–678. ACM, 2014.
- [17] M. Kim and P. Smaragdis. Bitwise neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1601.06071*, 2016.
- [18] Y.-D. Kim, E. Park, S. Yoo, T. Choi, L. Yang, and D. Shin. Compression of deep convolutional neural networks for fast and low power mobile applications. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.06530*, 2015.
- [19] T. G. Kolda and D. P. O’Leary. A semidiscrete matrix decomposition for latent semantic indexing in information retrieval. *Acm Transactions on Information Systems*, 16(4):322–346, 1999.
- [20] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton. Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 1097–1105, 2012.
- [21] V. Lebedev, Y. Ganin, M. Rakhuba, I. Oseledets, and V. Lempitsky. Speeding-up convolutional neural networks using fine-tuned cp-decomposition. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6553*, 2014.
- [22] D. D. Lin, S. S. Talathi, and V. S. Annappureddy. Fixed point quantization of deep convolutional networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.06393*, 2015.
- [23] Z. Lin, M. Courbariaux, R. Memisevic, and Y. Bengio. Neural networks with few multiplications. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1510.03009*, 2015.
- [24] D. Miyashita, E. H. Lee, and B. Murmann. Convolutional neural networks using logarithmic data representation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1603.01025*, 2016.
- [25] M. Rastegari, V. Ordonez, J. Redmon, and A. Farhadi. Xnor-net: Imagenet classification using binary convolutional neural networks. In *ECCV (4)*, volume 9908, pages 525–542. Springer, 2016.
- [26] A. Romero, N. Ballas, S. E. Kahou, A. Chassang, C. Gatta, and Y. Bengio. Fitnets: Hints for thin deep nets. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6550*, 2014.
- [27] O. Russakovsky, J. Deng, H. Su, J. Krause, S. Satheesh, S. Ma, Z. Huang, A. Karpathy, A. Khosla, M. Bernstein, et al. Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge. *International Journal of Computer Vision*, 115(3):211–252, 2015.
- [28] M. Simon, E. Rodner, and J. Denzler. Imagenet pre-trained models with batch normalization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1612.01452*, 2016.
- [29] K. Simonyan and A. Zisserman. Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.1556*, 2014.
- [30] P. Wang and J. Cheng. Accelerating convolutional neural networks for mobile applications. In *Proceedings of the 2016 ACM on Multimedia Conference*, pages 541–545. ACM, 2016.
- [31] J. Wu, C. Leng, Y. Wang, Q. Hu, and J. Cheng. Quantized convolutional neural networks for mobile devices. *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2016.
- [32] X. Zhang, J. Zou, K. He, and J. Sun. Accelerating very deep convolutional networks for classification and detection. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence (TPAMI)*, 2015.