Aligning Logits Generatively for Principled Black-Box Knowledge Distillation

Supplementary Material

In Appendix, we provide proof of theorems and more experimental results for MEKD. We also visualize the real and generated distributions of MEKD with DCGAN to verify the effectiveness of our method.

1. Proofs

The success of deep learning can be attributed to the discovery of intrinsic structures of data, which is defined as the manifold hypothesis [13]. The data is concentrated on a manifold \( \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^n \), which is embedded in the image space \( \mathcal{X} \), and data distribution can be abstracted as a probability distribution \( \mu \) over the data manifold. The encoding-map \( \varphi : \Sigma \rightarrow \Omega \) maps the data manifold \( \Sigma \) to the label manifold \( \Omega \in \mathbb{R}^C \) in a label space \( \mathcal{Y} \) which is also called latent space, while mapping the data distribution \( \mu \) to latent distribution \( \nu = \varphi_# \mu \). Each sample \( x \) is mapped from the image space into the latent space, and its result \( \varphi(x) \) is called a latent code. The decoding-map \( \varphi^{-1} \) remaps latent codes to the data manifold. Both \( \varphi \) and \( \varphi^{-1} \) are strongly nonlinear functions, which can be simulated with different neural networks [7, 8]. Meanwhile, the well-known Kolmogorov Theorem [2, 6] indicates that any multivariate continuous function can be represented as the sum of continuous real-valued functions with continuous one-dimensional outer and inner functions \( \Phi_q \) and \( \Psi_{q,p} \).

The teacher function \( f_T \in \varphi \) can be considered as a kind of encoding map, and the generator function \( f_G \in \varphi^{-1} \) can be considered as a kind of decoding map. Let \( \mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^n \) be the image space, where data \( x \) is sampled from. For a \( C \)-way classification task, let \( \mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^C \) be the latent space, where \( |\mathcal{Y}| = C \). Defining the model as a complex mapping function from the image distribution to the latent distribution, we can consider the teacher model as \( f_T : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y} \) parameterized by \( \theta_T \in \Theta_T \), whose outputs indicate the probabilities (e.g., logits) of what category the samples belong to. The same for the student model \( f_S : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y} \) parameterized by \( \theta_S \in \Theta_S \).

Definition 1. (Function Equivalence) Giving the student and teacher model \( f_S \) and \( f_T \), for a data distribution \( \mu \in \mathcal{X} \) in image space which is mapped to \( \mathcal{P}_S \in \mathcal{Y} \) and \( \mathcal{P}_T \in \mathcal{Y} \) in latent space. If the Wasserstein distance between \( \mathcal{P}_S \) and \( \mathcal{P}_T \) equals zero,

\[
W(\mathcal{P}_S, \mathcal{P}_T) = \inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(\mathcal{P}_S, \mathcal{P}_T)} \mathbb{E}_{(y_S, y_T) \sim \gamma} \left[ ||y_S - y_T|| \right] = 0, \tag{1}
\]

the student and teacher model are equivalent, i.e., \( f_S = f_T \), where \( \Pi(\mathcal{P}_S, \mathcal{P}_T) \) is the set of all joint distributions \( \gamma(y_S, y_T) \) whose marginals are \( \mathcal{P}_S \) and \( \mathcal{P}_T \), respectively.

Definition 2. (Inverse Mapping) Giving a prior distribution \( p \in \mathbb{R}^C \), for a data distribution \( \mu \in \mathbb{R}^n \), if the Wasserstein distance between generated distribution \( \mu' = (f_G)_#p \) and \( \mu \) equals zero,

\[
W(\mu', \mu) = \inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(\mu', \mu)} \mathbb{E}_{(x', x) \sim \gamma} \left[ ||x' - x|| \right] = 0, \tag{2}
\]

then the generator \( f_G : \mathbb{R}^C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \) is the inverse mapping of the teacher function \( f_T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^C \), denoted as \( f_G = f_T^{-1} \), where \( \Pi(\mu', \mu) \) is the set of all joint distributions \( \gamma(x', x') \) whose marginals are respectively \( \mu' \) and \( \mu \).

1.1. Proof of Theorem 1

Theorem 1. (Empirical Approximation) For any \( 0 < \epsilon < 1/2 \) and any integer \( m > 4 \), let \( g : \mathbb{R}^C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \) be the mapping function of generator \( G \) with \( n \leq 20 \log m \). For two sets \( V_S = \{y_S : y_S \in \mathcal{P}_S\} \) and \( V_T = \{y_T : y_T \in \mathcal{P}_T\} \), both of which have \( m \) points in \( \mathbb{R}^C \), if the empirical Wasserstein distance between \( g(V_S) \) and \( g(V_T) \) equals zero,

\[
\hat{W}(g(V_S), g(V_T)) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} ||g(i_S) - g(i_T)|| = 0, \tag{3}
\]

then \( W(\mathcal{P}_S, \mathcal{P}_T) = 0 \).

Proof. According to Johnson-Lindenstraus theorem, for \( y_S \in V_S \) and \( y_T \in V_T \), we have

\[
||y_S - y_T|| \leq (1 + \epsilon)||g(y_S) - g(y_T)||. \tag{4}
\]

For set \( V_S \) and \( V_T \), we can get the empirical Wasserstein distance between them:

\[
\hat{W}(V_S, V_T) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} ||y_S^i - y_T^i|| \\
\leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (1 + \epsilon)||g(y_S^i) - g(y_T^i)|| \\
= \frac{1 + \epsilon}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} ||g(y_S^i) - g(y_T^i)|| \\
= (1 + \epsilon)\hat{W}(g(V_S), g(V_T)) = 0. \tag{5}
\]

Because the Wasserstein distance between \( \mathcal{P}_S \) and \( \mathcal{P}_T \) is the expectation of the empirical Wasserstein distance between \( V_S \) and \( V_T \), i.e.,

\[
W(\mathcal{P}_S, \mathcal{P}_T) = \mathbb{E}_{(V_S, V_T) \sim \Pi(\mathcal{P}_S, \mathcal{P}_T)} \left[ \hat{W}(V_S, V_T) \right], \tag{6}
\]
so we can get
\[ W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) \leq \hat{W}(V_S, V_T) = 0. \] (7)

Since
\[ W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) = \inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T)} \mathbb{E}_{(y_S, y_T) \sim \gamma} \left[ \| y_S - y_T \| \right] \geq 0, \] (8) then the result \( W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) = 0 \) is derived. \( \square \)

1.2. Proof of Theorem 2

Theorem 2. (Optimization Direction) Let \( \mu \in \mathcal{X} \) be any distribution. \( f_S, f_T, f_G \) are the mapping functions of the student, teacher, and generator, respectively. \( f_S \) is parameterized by \( \theta_S \in \Theta_S \). Then, when
\[ \min_{\theta_S \in \Theta_S} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| f_G \circ f_S(x), f_G \circ f_T(x) \|] \to 0, \] (9)
it holds that \( f_S \to f_T \), and we have
\[ \nabla_{\theta_S} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [f_S(x)] = \nabla_{\theta_S} W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| f_G \circ f_S(x), f_G \circ f_T(x) \|]. \] (10)

Proof. Let us define
\[ V(f_S, \theta_S) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| f_S(x), f_T(x) \|], \] (11)
\[ V'(f_S, \theta_S) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| f_G \circ f_S(x), f_G \circ f_T(x) \|], \] (12)
where \( f_S \) lies in \( \mathcal{F}_S = \{ f_S : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{T} \} \) and \( \theta_S \in \Theta_S \).

According to Def. 1, when \( \frac{\| f_G \circ f_S(x), f_G \circ f_T(x) \|}{\| f_S(x), f_T(x) \|} = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| f_G \circ f_S(x), f_G \circ f_T(x) \|] \to 0 \),
\[ (1 - \epsilon) \| f_G \circ f_S(x), f_G \circ f_T(x) \| \leq \| f_S(x), f_T(x) \| \leq (1 + \epsilon) \| f_G \circ f_S(x), f_G \circ f_T(x) \|. \] (13)

Using Squeeze Theorem [9], we know that the minimization of equation 11 and equation 12 converge to the same results, i.e.,
\[ \inf V(f_S, \theta_S) = \inf V'(f_S, \theta_S). \] (14)

We can rewrite the equation 1 using \( x \sim \mu \):
\[ W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) = \inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T)} \mathbb{E}_{(y_S, y_T) \sim \gamma} [\| y_S - y_T \|] \]
\[ = \inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(f_S(\mu), f_T(\mu))} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| f_S(x), f_T(x) \|] \]
\[ = \inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(f_S(\mu), f_T(\mu))} V(f_S, \theta_S), \] (15) where \( f_S \) and \( f_T \) map distribution \( \mu \) to \( \mathbb{P}_S \) and \( \mathbb{P}_T \), respectively. So we can get
\[ \inf V'(f_S, \theta_S) = \inf V(f_S, \theta_S) = W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T). \] (16)

According to Def. 1, when \( \inf V'(f_S, \theta_S) \to 0 \), then \( W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) \to 0 \), and we can derive that \( f_S \to f_T \).

The rest of the proof will be dedicated to show that the optimal solution of \( \min V'(f_S, \theta_S) \) leads to reduce the Wasserstein distance of \( \mathbb{P}_S \) and \( \mathbb{P}_T \), which drives \( f_S \) to approximate \( f_T \).

We know by the Kantorovich-Rubinstein duality [14] that there is an \( \hat{f}_S \in \mathcal{F}_S \) that attains
\[ \inf \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| \hat{f}_S(x), f_T(x) \|] = \sup \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\hat{f}_S(x)] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [f_T(x)]. \] (17)

Let us define \( \tilde{X}(\theta_S) = \{ \hat{f}_S \in \mathcal{F}_S : V(\hat{f}_S, \theta_S) = W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) \} \) which is non-empty. We know by a simple envelope theorem [10] that
\[ \nabla_{\theta_S} W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) = \nabla_{\theta_S} V(\hat{f}_S, \theta_S), \] (18)
for any \( \hat{f}_S \in \tilde{X}(\theta_S) \) when both terms are well-defined.

Let \( \tilde{f}_S \in \tilde{X}(\theta_S) \), which we know exists since \( \tilde{X}(\theta_S) \) is non-empty for all \( \theta_S \). Then, we get
\[ \nabla_{\theta_S} W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) = \nabla_{\theta_S} V(\tilde{f}_S, \theta_S) \]
\[ = \nabla_{\theta_S} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| \tilde{f}_S(x), f_T(x) \|] \]
\[ = \nabla_{\theta_S} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\hat{f}_S(x)] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [f_T(x)] \]
\[ = \nabla_{\theta_S} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\tilde{f}_S(x)]. \] (19)

In practice, we use empirical distance between generated images of the student and teacher as loss to update \( \theta_S \) by back-propagation, i.e.,
\[ \nabla_{\theta_S} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [f_S(x)] = \nabla_{\theta_S} W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) \]
\[ = \nabla_{\theta_S} W(f_G)_{\#} \mathbb{P}_S, (f_G)_{\#} \mathbb{P}_T \]
\[ = \nabla_{\theta_S} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\| f_G \circ f_S(x) - f_G \circ f_T(x) \|] \]
\[ = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [\nabla_{\theta_S} f_G \circ f_S(x) - f_G \circ f_T(x) \|], \] (20)
when \( W(\mathbb{P}_S, \mathbb{P}_T) \to 0 \), the student function \( f_S \) converges to the teacher function \( f_T \). \( \square \)

1.3. Proof of Theorem 3

Theorem 3. (Generalization Bound) Let \( H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{C \times \mathcal{Y}} \) be a hypothesis set for \( C \)-way classification task. For any \( 0 < \epsilon < 1/2 \) and a sample \( S \) of size \( m \geq 4 \) drawn according to \( \mu \), let \( g : \mathbb{R}^C \to \mathbb{R}^n \) be a mapping function of generator
Thus, empirical margin loss is upper bounded by 

$$R(h) \leq \hat{R}_\rho(h) + \frac{2C^2}{\rho(1-\epsilon)} \sqrt{\frac{r^2 \lambda^2}{m}} + \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2m}}. \quad (21)$$

For any $x \in \mathcal{X}$, the $\Lambda \geq 0$ and \( (\sum_{p=1}^{C} \|h(x, y)\|_p)^{1/p} \leq \Lambda \)
for any $p \geq 1$, and the $r > 0$ for $K(x, x) \leq r^2$ where kernel $K: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is positive definite symmetric.

**Proof.** For the $C$-way classification task, a hypothesis $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ aims to get $y$ with the minimum distance, i.e. $\arg\min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \|h(x) - \tilde{h}_y\|$ which is equivalent to $\arg\min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \|g(h(x)) - g(\tilde{h}_y)\|_{\text{by Johnson-Lindenstrauss theorem}}$, as the result of $x$. We define the margin $\rho_h(x, y)$ of the hypothesis $h$ as

$$\rho_h(x, y) = \|g(\tilde{h}_x)) - g(\tilde{h}_y))\| - \min_{y \neq y} \|g(\tilde{h}_x)) - g(\tilde{h}_y))\|,$$

(22)

where $\tilde{h}_x$ is the vector of $h(x, y), y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $\tilde{h}_y$ use the mean of $x$ which belong to class $y$ as input. $g$ is the mapping function of generator $G$.

For any $\rho < 0$, we can define the empirical margin loss of hypothesis $h$ for multi-class classification as 

$$\hat{R}_\rho(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \Phi_\rho(\rho_h(x_i, y_i)), \quad (23)$$

where $\Phi_\rho$ is the margin loss function

$$\Phi_\rho(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq x, \\ 1 - x/\rho & \rho \leq x \leq 0, \\ 0 & x \leq \rho. \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

Thus, empirical margin loss is upper bounded by

$$\hat{R}_\rho(h) \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{1}_{\rho_h(x_i, y_i) \geq \rho}. \quad (25)$$

Let $\tilde{H} = \{(x, y) \mapsto \rho_h(x, y) : h \in H\}$, consider the family of functions $\tilde{H} = \{\Phi_\rho \circ r : r \in H\}$ derived from $H$, which take values in $[0, 1]$. By Rademacher theorem, with the probability at least $1 - \delta$, for all $h \in H$,

$$E[\Phi_\rho(\rho_h(x, y))] \leq \hat{R}_\rho(h) + 2R_m(\Phi \circ \tilde{H}) + \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2m}}. \quad (26)$$

Since $\mathbb{1}_{\mu \geq 0} \leq \Phi_\rho(\mu)$ for all $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, the generalization error $R(h)$ is a lower bound on the left-hand side by Johnson-Lindenstrauss theorem, $R(h) = E[\Phi_\rho(\rho_h(x, y))] \leq \hat{R}_\rho(h) + 2R_m(\Phi \circ \tilde{H}) + \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2m}}$. 

Using the difference $\rho = -\rho$, because the $(1/\rho)$-Lipschitzness of $\Phi_\rho$, so that $R_m(\Phi \circ \tilde{H}) \leq \frac{1}{\rho} R_m(\tilde{H})$. Here, $R_m(\tilde{H})$ can be upper bounded as follows:

$$R_m(\tilde{H}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sup_{h \in H} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sigma_i \rho_h(x_i, y_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sup_{h \in H} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sigma_i \rho_h(x_i, y) \mathbb{1}_{y = y_i}$$

\begin{align*}
\leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sup_{h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \rho_h(x_i, y) \mathbb{1}_{y = y_i} & = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sup_{h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i (2(\mathbb{1}_{y = y_i}) - 1) \rho_h(x_i, y) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sup_{h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i (2(\mathbb{1}_{y = y_i}) - 1) \rho_h(x_i, y) + \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sup_{h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \rho_h(x_i, y) \\
& = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \sup_{h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \rho_h(x_i, y),
\end{align*}
rem, we get

\[
\mathcal{R}_m(\tilde{H}) \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{y \in Y} E \left[ \sup_{S, \sigma, h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i (\|g(\tilde{h}(x)) - g(\tilde{h}_y)\|)
\right.
\]

\[
- \min_{y' \neq y} (\|g(\tilde{h}(x)) - g(\tilde{h}_{y'})\|)]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{y \in Y, S, \sigma, h \in H} E \left[ \sup_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \frac{1}{1-\epsilon} (\|\tilde{h}(x_i) - \tilde{h}_y\|)
\right.
\]

\[
+ E \left[ \sup_{S, \sigma, h \in \Pi_1(H)} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i (\|\tilde{h}(x_i) - \tilde{h}_{y'}\|)]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{1}{C \left(1-\epsilon\right)} \left( C \right) \sum_{y \in Y, S, \sigma, h \in \Pi_1(H)} \sup_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i (h(x_i))
\]

\[
= \frac{C^2}{1-\epsilon} \frac{1}{m} E \left[ \sup_{S, \sigma, h \in \Pi_1(H)} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i (h(x_i))
\right.
\]

\[
= \frac{C^2}{1-\epsilon} \mathcal{R}_m(\Pi_1(H)).
\]

(29)

Let \( K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) be a positive definite symmetric kernel and let \( h(x, y) = \arg \max_{y \in Y} w_y \cdot \Phi(x) \), where \( \Phi : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^n \) be a feature mapping associated to \( K \). We denote \( W = (w_1, \ldots, w_C) \). For any \( p \geq 1 \), the family of kernel-based hypotheses is

\[
H = \{h \in \mathcal{R}^{X \times Y} : h(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|h\|_p \leq \Lambda \},
\]

(30)

where \( \|h\|_p = (\sum_{y=1}^{C} \|h(x, y)\|^p)^{1/p} \).

Observe that for all \( l \in [1, C] \), we have \( \|w_l\| \leq (\sum_{i=1}^{C} \|w_l\|^p)^{1/p} = \|W\|_p \leq \|h\|_p \leq \Lambda \).

And for \( i \neq j \), \( E[\sigma_i, \sigma_j] = 0 \). The Rademacher complexity of the hypotheses set \( \Pi_1(H) \) can be expressed and bounded as follows:

\[
\mathcal{R}_m(\Pi_1(H)) = \frac{1}{m} E \left[ \sup_{y \in Y, \|W\| \leq \Lambda} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \Phi(x_i) \right) \right]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{1}{m} E \left[ \sup_{y \in Y, \|W\| \leq \Lambda} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \Phi(x_i) \right) \right]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{\Lambda}{m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \Phi(x_i) \right]^{2}^{1/2}
\]

\[
= \frac{\Lambda}{m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \Phi(x_i) \right]^{2}^{1/2}
\]

\[
= \frac{\Lambda}{m} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_i \Phi(x_i) \right]^{1/2}
\]

\[
\leq \frac{\Lambda \sqrt{m^2}}{m} = \sqrt{\frac{\Lambda^2}{m^2}}.
\]

which concludes the proof.

\[\Box\]

2. More Results

2.1. Complete Distillation Experiments

We conduct different teacher-student model pairs for distillation experiments, and use ResNet32 / ResNet56 / VGG13 / ResNet110 / ResNet50 / ResNet101 as teacher models and use ResNet8 / ResNet32 / VGG11 / MobileNet / ResNet34 / ResNet50 as student models. Distillation performance is tested on various datasets, such as MNIST, CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100, Tiny ImageNet, and ImageNet-1K, as top-1 classification accuracy is exploited as an evaluation metric. The experimental results are shown in Tab. 1, Tab. 2 and Tab. 3. For the training of teacher and student models, we adopt the same setting of hyperparameters, so as to verify the distillation effect of student models trained with different methods compared with the teacher model trained with vanilla supervised learning under the same conditions.

We also provide complete ablation results of different data sizes on CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100, as shown in Tab. 4. We use an effective teacher-student pair of ResNet56 - MobileNet for experiments. The results show that B2KD methods are generally more robust than traditional KD methods for small data sizes, and they can utilize the information in available samples maximally to model compression in extreme cases. In the comparison of all methods, MEKD achieves the best performance, which also validates the effectiveness and robustness of our proposed method.
In all experiments, teacher and student models are trained for 350 epochs, except 12 epochs for MNIST. We use Nesterov SGD with momentum 0.9 and weight-decay 0.0005 for training and use a mini-batch size of 128 images on a single NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3090 GPU. The initial learning rate is 0.1, except 0.01 for MNIST, and we conduct a multi-step learning rate schedule which decreases the learning rate by 0.1 at the 116th and 233th epoch for the training of models, except no learning rate schedule is used for MNIST. For the training of student models, we follow the unsupervised setting and only use the soft or hard responses of teacher models for distillation. Note that for all experiments, we conduct three times experiments and report the mean accuracy.

For the training of DCGAN, we follow the hyperparameters’ settings of the work [12]. DCGAN composes of a generator realized by transposed convolution layer and a discriminator realized by an ordinary convolution layer,
Table 3. Top-1 classification accuracy (%) of the student model on ImageNet-1K. We use pretrained RN50 (76.13%) and RX101 (79.31%) as the teacher models, respectively. RN is ResNet and RX is ResNeXt.

| Dataset       | T - S Pairs | Data Size | KD (soft) | ML (soft) | AL (soft) | DKD (soft) | KN (soft) | AM (soft) | DB3KD (hard) | MEKD (soft) | MEKD (soft) | MEKD (soft) |
|---------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| ImageNet-1K   | RN50 - RN34 | 100K      | 52.08     | 54.97     | 53.50     | 53.57      | 56.77     | 56.92     | 58.61        | 59.89       | 59.32       |
|               | RX101 - RX50| 100K      | 54.90     | 56.58     | 50.88     | 55.31      | 57.43     | 55.64     | 59.90        | 61.21       | 60.54       |

Table 4. Ablation study of data size with top-1 classification accuracy (%) of the student model on CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100.

| Dataset       | T - S Pairs | Data Size | KD (soft) | ML (soft) | AL (soft) | DKD (soft) | KN (soft) | AM (soft) | DB3KD (hard) | MEKD (soft) | MEKD (soft) | MEKD (hard) |
|---------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| CIFAR10       | T: ResNet56 | 0.1K      | 16.74     | 17.78     | 12.97     | 20.66      | 27.67     | 48.31     | 43.05        | 49.04       | 47.12       |
|               | 1K          |           | 31.25     | 31.57     | 32.05     | 31.09      | 58.65     | 62.05     | 64.28        | 69.84       | 68.66       |
|               | S: MobileNet| 10K       | 70.90     | 73.06     | 68.61     | 75.44      | 85.07     | 73.65     | 81.67        | 86.85       | 86.53       |
|               | 50K(full)   |           | 90.43     | 91.19     | 90.54     | 90.50      | 92.19     | 86.33     | 92.46        | 93.48       | 93.09       |
| CIFAR100      | T: ResNet56 | 0.1K      | 01.96     | 01.88     | 01.72     | 02.56      | 13.23     | 36.73     | 30.72        | 33.56       | 34.60       |
|               | 1K          |           | 10.36     | 10.06     | 09.62     | 10.81      | 35.80     | 52.09     | 50.14        | 53.84       | 54.52       |
|               | S: MobileNet| 10K       | 44.32     | 48.08     | 40.57     | 47.24      | 58.49     | 65.58     | 63.67        | 67.07       | 67.36       |
|               | 50K(full)   |           | 71.86     | 73.08     | 71.33     | 72.38      | 70.85     | 71.77     | 73.36        | 73.84       | 73.27       |

Figure 1. t-SNE visualization of synthetic (blue) and genuine (red) images of MEKD with DCGAN on MNIST.

Figure 2. t-SNE visualization of synthetic (blue) and genuine (red) images of MEKD with DCGAN on CIFAR-10.
which greatly reduces the number of network parameters and improves the image generation effect. As an extension of our method, we believe that generative models of different architectures can also be used as emulators to learn the inverse mapping of the teacher function, by adding information maximization (IM) loss to alleviate the problem of mode collapse and achieve the purpose of deprivatization. This will be our research work in the future.

2.2. Visualization Results

We evaluate the training process of DCGAN in terms of whether the generated distribution is consistent with the real distribution, and visualize the synthetic and genuine images by t-SNE projection. As shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, it can be observed that in the training process of DCGAN, the generated distribution is gradually closer to the real distribution. This verifies the effectiveness of using DCGAN as the emulator to learn the inverse mapping of the teacher function, and also proves that DCGAN can indeed alleviate the problem of mode collapse and generate images consistent with the distribution of real images. These synthetic images can not only effectively integrate various patterns in genuine images, but also serve as effective query samples to support the distillation of student models.

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