Dataset Factorization for Condensation

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Abstract

In this paper, we study dataset condensation (DC) from a novel perspective and introduce a *dataset factorization* approach, termed *HaBa*, which is a plug-and-play strategy portable to any existing DC baseline. Unlike conventional DC approaches that aim to produce condensed and representative samples, *HaBa* explores decomposing a dataset into two components: data *Ha*llucination networks and *Ba*ses, where the latter is fed into the former to reconstruct image samples. The flexible combinations between bases and hallucination networks, therefore, equip the condensed data with exponential informativeness gain, which largely increase the representation capability of condensed datasets. To guide the compression results to cover the original distribution thoroughly, we further introduce a pair of adversarial contrastive constrains on the resultant hallucination networks and bases, which increase the diversity of generated images and inject more discriminant information into the factorization. Extensive comparisons and experiments demonstrate that our method can yield significant improvement on downstream classification tasks compared with previous state of the arts, while reducing the total number of compressed parameters by up to 65%. Moreover, condensed datasets by our approach also achieve ~10% higher accuracy than baseline methods in cross-architecture generalization.

1 Introduction

The success of deep models on a variety of vision tasks, such as image classification [19, 7], object detection [26, 25], and semantic segmentation [29, 38], is largely attributed to the huge amount of data used for training. However, the sheer amount of data introduces significant obstacles for storage, transmission, and data pre-processing. Besides, publishing raw data inevitably brings about privacy or copyright issue in practice [30]. To alleviate these problems, dataset condensation (DC) [41] has been proposed to compress a dataset into synthetic samples, with which the training effect for downstream models on the original dataset can be largely reduced. Due the significant practical value of DC, many endeavours have been made [22, 40, 36, 5] to design novel supervision signals to train the synthetic datasets and to improve their performances on in-the-wild test sets.

Nevertheless, there is a potential drawback in conventional settings of DC: it largely treats each synthetic sample independently and ignores the inter coherence and relationship between different instances. As such, the information embraced by each sample, despite condensed, is by nature limited. Using the synthetic samples for training downstream models, therefore, inevitably leads to the loss of dataset information. Moreover, the few condensed samples are incompatible with the enormous number of parameters in a deep model and may yield the risk of overfitting.

To verify these potential issues, we conduct a pre-experiment on CIFAR10 dataset with 10 synthetic images per class, using MTT [5], the SOTA solution on DC, as the baseline. In addition to the baseline setting, we also incorporate all the checkpoint synthetic datasets after each 100 DC iterations in the convergent stage to train the downstream model. Since the synthetic images are fine-tuned

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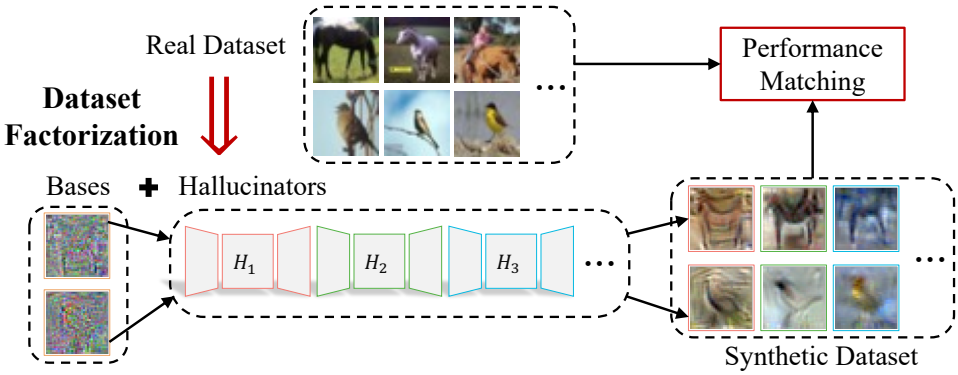


Figure 1: Intuition of our hallucinator-basis factorization for dataset condensation.

during this stage, including multiple checkpoints may somehow increase the diversity. As a result, it yields overall lower test loss and hence better final results in downstream training, as shown in the blue and green curves in Fig. 2, which indicates that there is still room for improvement for current DC solutions. Nevertheless, simply involving more data samples may also increase the memory overhead. This fact motivates us to ask: *is it possible to encode some sample-wise relationships in a dataset implicitly, instead of storing samples directly, to avoid such additional storage costs?*

We show in this paper that, it can indeed be made possible through reformulating the DC task as a *factorization* problem. As shown in Fig. 1, we propose a novel perspective dubbed *HaBa*, to factorize a dataset into two compositions: data *Ha*llucination networks and *Ba*ses. A data hallucination network, or hallucinator, can take any basis as input and output the corresponding hallucinated image. Supervised by the training objective of DC, a set of hallucinators can synthesize multiple samples from a common basis and are optimized to extract effective relationships among different samples in original datasets explicitly. In this way, information of $|\mathcal{H}| \times |\mathcal{B}|$ images can be included for a factorization result with $|\mathcal{H}|$ hallucinators and $|\mathcal{B}|$ bases via arbitrary pair-wise combination, which improves the data efficiency of traditional DC exponentially and thus achieves better test performance, as shown in Fig. 2.

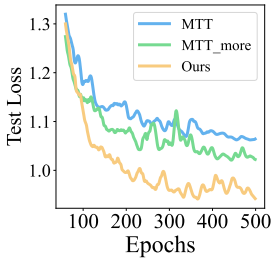


Figure 2: Visualization of test loss using synthetic datasets generated by MTT, MTT with multiple checkpoints, and ours.

To further increase the informativeness of factorized results, we introduce a pair of adversarial contrastive constrains to promote sample-wise diversity. The goal of HaBa is to minimize the correlation among images composed of different hallucinators but a common basis, while an adversary tries to maximize it. Such an adversarial scheme, in turn, enforces the hallucinators to produce diversified images and recover original data distribution thoroughly.

Notably, HaBa is a versatile strategy that can be built upon existing DC baselines, since it is compatible with any training objective for measuring the similarity between downstream performances as shown in Fig. 1, We conduct extensive experiments to demonstrate the advantages of the proposed method over baseline ones. In all benchmarks and comparisons, HaBa produces significant and consistent improvement on downstream classification tasks, while reducing the total number of compressed parameters by up to 65%. Furthermore, it demonstrates strong cross-architecture and cross-domain generalization ability with accuracy improvement higher than 10%. Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We study dataset factorization, a novel perspective to explore dataset condensation, and propose a novel approach termed HaBa to frame the factorization as a hallucinator-basis problem.
- We present a pair of adversarial contrastive objectives to further increase the data diversity and information capability.
- HaBa is a plug-and-play scheme compatible with all existing training objectives of DC and can yield significant and consistent improvement over the state of the arts.

2 Related Works

The goal of dataset condensation (DC) is to optimize some synthetic images such that they are capable to take place of original datasets for training downstream tasks, which is different from coreset selection [1, 6, 11, 28, 34], another branch for dataset compression, directly selecting samples from raw datasets. In this section, we provide a detailed review of previous methods in DC.

Motivated from knowledge distillation [14, 10] aiming at model compression, Wang *et al*. [37] introduce the concept of dataset distillation (DD) for dataset compression. The idea is to optimize the synthetic images so that they can minimize loss functions of downstream tasks, where a bilevel optimization algorithm [9] is involved. Following this routine, several works further consider learnable labels beyond samples [3, 32]. One drawback of such bilevel optimization based methods is that supervision signals from downstream tasks, *e.g.*, cross-entropy loss for classification, are not rigorous enough for synthetic samples, which results in a large solution space with a high variance of downstream performance. In addition, they can hardly be scaled up for larger datasets, since the quadratic back-propagation results in significant memory consumption. To alleviate these problems, Zhao *et al*. [41] and several following approaches [39, 20] consider matching gradients of a downstream model produced by synthetic samples and real images. Most recently, Cazenavette *et al*. [5] argue that single-iteration gradient matching may lead to inferior performance due to error accumulation across multiple steps and thereby propose to match long-range training dynamics of an expert trained on the original dataset. As an alternative method to profile training effects produced by different sets, Nguyen *et al*. [22, 23] also introduce the kernel ridge-regression approach based on the Neural Tangent Kernel (NTK) in infinitely wide convolutional networks [16].

Apart from matching training effects, there are also methods matching data distributions between original and synthetic datasets. For instance, Zhao *et al*. [40] propose a simple but effective Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) constrain for DC, which does not involve the training of downstream models and enjoys superior training efficiency. Wang *et al*. [36] propose CAFE, explicitly attempting to align the synthetic and real distributions in the feature space of a downstream network.

Above mentioned methods are dedicated to exploring suitable training objectives and pipelines for DC. However, there are few works concerning improving the data efficiency for condensed samples. Although Zhao *et al*. [39] propose differentiable siamese augmentation (DSA) to enrich the training data, the augmentation operations used, *e.g.*, crop, flip, scale, and rotation, cannot encode any information about the target datasets. In this paper, we study the task in a factorization perspective, to factorize a dataset into two different compositions: data hallucination networks and bases. Both parts carry important knowledge of the raw dataset. For downstream training, hallucinators and bases can perform arbitrary pair-wise combination, *i.e.*, send any basis to any hallucinator, to create a training sample. The idea of factorization can improve the diversity of condensed training datasets significantly, without introducing additional costs for storage. It is also a versatile strategy compatible with all aforementioned DC methods, which will be demonstrated in the experiment part.

3 Methods

In this section, we elaborate our proposed method *HaBa* for dataset condensation (DC). Assume that there is an original dataset $\mathcal{T} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{T}|}$ with $|\mathcal{T}|$ pairs of a training sample x_i and the corresponding label y_i. DC targets a synthetic dataset $\mathcal{S} = \{(\hat{x}_i, \hat{y}_i)\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{S}|}$ with $|\mathcal{S}| \ll |\mathcal{T}|$ and expects that a model trained on $\mathcal{S}$ can have similar performance than that trained on $\mathcal{T}$.

Traditional DC methods treat each synthetic sample independently and ignore the inner relationship between different samples within a dataset, which results in poor data/information efficiency. Focusing on such drawback, we study DC from a novel perspective and redefine it as a hallucinator-basis factorization problem:

$$\mathcal{S} = \{H_{\theta_j}\}_{j=1}^{|\mathcal{H}|} \cup \{(\hat{x}_i, \hat{y}_i)\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{B}|}, \tag{1}$$

where there are $|\mathcal{H}|$ hallucination networks and $|\mathcal{B}|$ bases. The j-th hallucinator is parameterized by θ_i and we denote it by H_{θ_i} for $1 \leq j \leq |\mathcal{H}|$. For downstream training, a training data pair $(\tilde{x}_{ij}, \tilde{y}_{ij})$ is created online via sending the i-th basis, with any $1 \leq i \leq |\mathcal{B}|$, to the j-th hallucinator, with any $1 \leq j \leq |\mathcal{H}|$, *i.e.*, $\tilde{x}_{ij} = H_{\theta_j}(\hat{x}_i)$. In this paper, the label $\tilde{y}_{ij}$ is simply taken as $\hat{y}_i$.

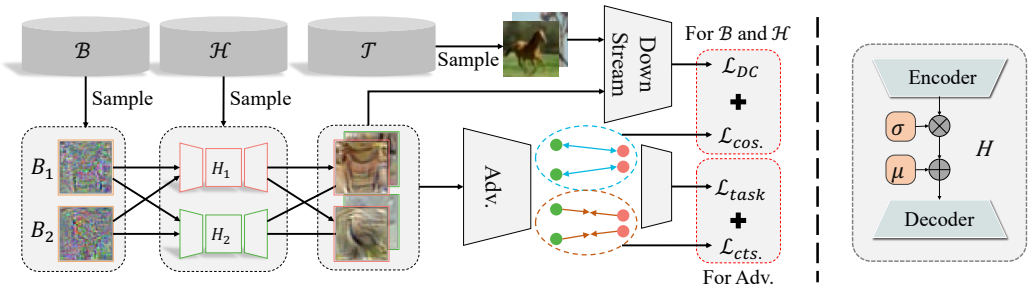


Figure 3: Left: Overall pipeline of the proposed hallucinator-basis factorization. $\mathcal{B}$, $\mathcal{H}$, and $\mathcal{T}$ denote sets of bases, hallucinators, and original data respectively. We adopt batch size 2 here for clarity; Right: Architecture of a hallucinator in detail.

An overview of our method is shown in Fig. 3(Left). To go deeper into the technical details, we first start with the introduction of our basis and data hallucination network in Sec. 3.1. Then, we propose an adversarial contrastive constrain to increase data diversity in Sec. 3.2. Finally, we present the whole training pipeline of the hallucinator-basis factorization for DC in Sec. 3.3.

3.1 Basis and Hallucinator

Basis: Typically, for an image classification dataset $\mathcal{T} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{T}|}$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{h\times w\times c}$ and $y_i \in \{0, 1, ..., C-1\}$ for each $1 \leq i \leq |\mathcal{T}|$, where each x_i is a c-channel image with a resolution of $h \times w$, and C is the total number of classes. In previous DC methods, the format/shape of synthetic data pairs $(\hat{x}, \hat{y})$ has to be held the same as that of real data, so as to make sure the consistency between input and output formats in the training and test time for downstream models. By contrast, since hallucinator networks are capable of spatial-wise and channel-wise transformation, the shape of each $\hat{x}_i$, $1 \leq i \leq |\mathcal{B}|$, denoted as $h' \times w' \times c'$, is not necessarily the same as that of original samples and thus more flexible. And for a classification problem, we do not modify its label space in this paper for simplicity and maintain the categorical format.

Hallucinator: Given a basis $\hat{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{h'\times w'\times c'}$, a data hallucination network, aims to create a new image $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{h\times w\times c}$ based on $\hat{x}$, which can be viewed as a conditional image generation problem. Inspired by image style transfer [15], a typical conditional image generation problem, we devise an encoder-transformation-decoder based architecture for hallucinators, as shown in Fig. 3(Right). Specifically, the encoder, denoted as enc, is composed of CNN blocks, which non-linearly maps an input $\hat{x}$ to a feature space $\mathbb{R}^{h''\times w''\times c''}$. Then, an affine transformation with scale σ and shift μ is conducted on the derived feature, where σ and μ are treated as network parameters in this paper. At last, the decoder dec under a symmetric CNN architecture with enc projects the transformed feature back to the image space. Formally, this process can be written as:

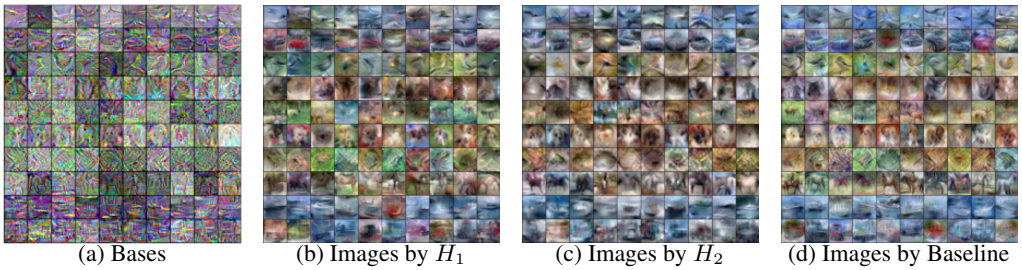
$$\hat{f} = enc(\hat{x}), \quad \tilde{f} = \sigma \times \hat{f} + \mu, \quad \tilde{x} = dec(\tilde{f}), \tag{2}$$

where the multiplication is element-wise operation. There are $|\mathcal{H}|$ hallucinators in the whole factorization pipeline and each would be trained to implicitly encode some sample-wise relations by its network parameters.

3.2 Adversarial Contrastive Constrain

Ideally, the knowledge encoded by different hallucinators should be as different/orthogonal as possible to get the most benefits for each individual. To instantiate such regularization, let's consider two composed images $\tilde{x}_{ij}$ and $\tilde{x}_{ik}$ from two different hallucinators H_{θ_j} and H_{θ_k} but a common basis $\hat{x}_i$. The divergence between $\tilde{x}_{ij}$ and $\tilde{x}_{ik}$ is expected to be large. To measure the divergence, a feature extractor is required to map an input image to a feature space, and how to train such a feature extractor to find an appropriate feature space is of great importance.

In this paper, we formalize the training of hallucinators and the feature extractor as a min-max game in a self-consistent manner, where the feature extractor desires to minimize the divergence between $\tilde{x}_{ij}$ and $\tilde{x}_{ik}$ while hallucinators, as well as bases, are optimized to maximize it so that the two players can reinforce each other. In specific, the feature extractor, denoted as F and parameterized by ψ, is typically a CNN structure for the downstream task and we adopt features at the last hidden layer before



(a) Bases (b) Images by H_1 (c) Images by H_2 (d) Images by Baseline

Figure 4: Visualization of factorized results by our HaBa (70.27% test acc.) and baseline MTT (65.92% test acc.). Zoom-in for better comparisons.da

the output layer, denoted as $F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ij})$ and $F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ik})$. F is optimized to maximize the correlation between the two feature vectors, which can be quantified by the metric of mutual information (MI). Inspired by the lower bound of MI [35], the objective to minimize the divergence for F is given by the following contrastive form:

$$\mathcal{L}_{con.} = -\frac{1}{|\mathcal{H}|^2}\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|}\sum_{\substack{1\leq j,k\leq|\mathcal{H}|,\\ j\neq k}}\sum_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{B}|}\log\frac{\exp\{F_{-1}^{\top}(\tilde{x}_{ij})F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ik})/\tau\}}{\sum_{u=1}^{|\mathcal{B}|}\exp\{F_{-1}^{\top}(\tilde{x}_{ij})F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{uk})/\tau\}}, \tag{3}$$

where τ is a scalar temperature coefficient. For the classification problem, we can alternatively adopt the supervised form of the contrastive loss $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$, where $\tilde{x}_{uk}$ with the same class label as $\tilde{x}_{ij}$ are also taken into consideration as positive samples in Eq. 3. The supervised contrastive loss can benefit to increase the correlation of samples from the same class [17] for a more reasonable feature representation.

In addition, the feature space is expected to reflect the task-specific property for a meaningful representation. Thus, we also incorporate the task loss $\mathcal{L}_{task}$, *e.g.*, cross-entropy loss in classification tasks, over the synthetic dataset as a supervision signal for F. In this way, the overall training objective for F is defined as:

$$\min_{\psi}\mathcal{L}_F = \lambda_{con.}\mathcal{L}_{con.} + \lambda_{task}\mathcal{L}_{task}, \tag{4}$$

where $\lambda_{con.}$ and λ_{task} are hyper-parameters controlling the weight for each term.

F acts as an adversary to minimize the divergence between $\tilde{x}_{ij}$ and $\tilde{x}_{ik}$, while the synthetic dataset is expected to maximize it to increase data diversity. To this ends, the similarity between $F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ij})$ and $F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ik})$ becomes one loss term for hallucinator-basis factorization. In this paper, we adopt the cosine-similarity and the objective $\mathcal{L}_{cos.}$ is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}_{cos.} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{H}|^2}\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|}\sum_{\substack{1\leq j,k\leq|\mathcal{H}|,\\ j\neq k}}\sum_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{B}|}\frac{F_{-1}^{\top}(\tilde{x}_{ij})F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ik})}{\|F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ij})\|_2\|F_{-1}(\tilde{x}_{ik})\|_2}. \tag{5}$$

During training, the feature extractor and the factorized components are updated alternately to play this min-max game.

3.3 Factorization Training Pipeline

Following previous paradigms [41, 40, 5, 36], the synthetic dataset $\mathcal{S}$ is updated in an iterative algorithm. In each iteration, we randomly sample a batch of hallucinators and bases and conduct pair-wise combinations. The composed images are evaluated by the objective of dataset condensation $\mathcal{L}_{DC}$ and the similarity metric in Eq. 5:

$$\min_{\mathcal{S}}\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}} = \lambda_{DC}\mathcal{L}_{DC} + \lambda_{cos.}\mathcal{L}_{cos.}, \tag{6}$$

where hyper-parameters λ_{DC} and $\lambda_{cos.}$ balance the loss.

Notably, the hallucinator-basis factorization is compatible with a variety of configurations of $\mathcal{L}_{DC}$ proposed by previous arts, which makes it a versatile and effective strategy for DC. In this paper,

	Dataset	SVHN			CIFAR10			CIFAR100		
	IPC	1	10	50	1	10	50	1	10	50
	Ratio %	0.014	0.14	0.7	0.02	0.2	1	0.2	2	10
Coreset	Random	14.6±1.6	35.1±4.1	70.9±0.9	14.4±2.0	26.0±1.2	43.4±1.0	4.2±0.3	14.6±0.5	30.0±0.4
	Herding	20.9±1.3	50.5±3.3	72.6±0.8	21.5±1.3	31.6±0.7	40.4±0.6	8.4±0.3	17.3±0.3	33.7±0.5
	K-Center	21.0±1.5	14.0±1.3	20.1±1.4	21.5±1.3	14.7±0.9	27.0±1.4	8.3±0.3	7.1±0.2	30.5±0.3
	Forgetting	12.1±1.7	16.8±1.2	27.2±1.5	13.5±1.2	23.3±1.0	23.3±1.1	4.5±0.3	9.8±0.2	-
Condensation	DD† [37]	-	-	-	-	36.8±1.2	-	-	-	-
	LD† [3]	-	-	-	25.7±0.7	38.3±0.4	42.5±0.4	11.5±0.4	-	-
	DC [41]	31.2±1.4	76.1±0.6	82.3±0.3	28.3±0.5	44.9±0.5	53.9±0.5	12.8±0.3	25.2±0.3	-
	DSA [39]	27.5±1.4	79.2±0.5	84.4±0.4	28.8±0.7	52.1±0.5	60.6±0.5	13.9±0.3	32.3±0.3	42.8±0.4
	DM [40]	-	-	-	26.0±0.8	48.9±0.6	63.0±0.4	11.4±0.3	29.7±0.3	43.6±0.4
	CAFE [36]	42.6±3.3	75.9±0.6	81.3±0.3	30.3±1.1	46.3±0.6	55.5±0.6	12.9±0.3	27.8±0.3	37.9±0.3
	CAFE+DSA [36]	42.9±3.0	77.9±0.6	82.3±0.4	31.6±0.8	50.9±0.5	62.3±0.4	14.0±0.3	31.5±0.2	42.9±0.2
	MTT [5]	58.5±1.4	70.8±1.8	85.7±0.1	46.3±0.8	65.3±0.7	71.6±0.2	24.3±0.3	39.0±0.1	46.1±0.2
Factorization	BPC	1	9	49	1	9	49	1	9	49
	Ratio %	0.028	0.14	0.7	0.04	0.2	1	0.22	1.82	9.8
	HaBa	**69.8±1.3**	**83.2±0.4**	**88.3±0.1**	**48.3±0.8**	**69.9±0.4**	**74.0±0.2**	**33.4±0.4**	**40.2±0.2**	**47.0±0.2**
Whole Dataset		95.4±0.1			84.8±0.1			56.2±0.3		

Table 1: The performance (test accuracy %) comparison to state-of-the-art methods. LD† and DD† use AlexNet for CIFAR10, while the rest use ConvNet for training and testing. IPC: Number of Images Per Class; BPC: Number of Bases Per Class; Ratio (%): the ratio of condensed images to whole training set. Underline denotes results by our implementation.

we adopt the trajectories matching loss in Cazenavette *et al.* [5] as $\mathcal{L}_{DC}$ by default, thanks to its superior performance. The basic idea is to update a downstream model from a cached checkpoint ϕ_t^* at iteration t, using the synthetic dataset $\mathcal{S}$ for N times, and using the real dataset $\mathcal{T}$ for M times respectively. Then, the updated parameters by the two cases, $\hat{\phi}_{t+N}$ and ϕ_{t+M}^* are enforced to be consistent:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\phi}_{t+n+1} &\leftarrow \hat{\phi}_{t+n} - \alpha \nabla_{\hat{\phi}_{t+n}} \mathcal{L}_{task}(\mathcal{S}), \quad \hat{\phi}_t \leftarrow \phi_t^*, \quad 0 \leq n < N, \\ \phi_{t+m+1}^* &\leftarrow \phi_{t+m}^* - \beta \nabla_{\phi_{t+m}^*} \mathcal{L}_{task}(\mathcal{T}), \quad 0 \leq m < M, \\ \mathcal{L}_{DC} &= \frac{\|\hat{\phi}_{t+N} - \phi_{t+M}^*\|_2^2}{\|\phi_t^* - \phi_{t+M}^*\|_2^2}, \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

where α and β are learning rates with $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{T}$ respectively. α is learnable in the framework while β is a hyper-parameter. We also experiment with other settings of $\mathcal{L}_{DC}$ and the results can be found in Sec. 4.

Based on the supervised signals in Eq. 6, the gradients are backward propagated to the composed images and finally to the sampled hallucinators and bases so as to be updated using a decent algorithm such as SGD. Since all the operations are differentiable, the training can be completed end-to-end.

4 Experiments

4.1 Datasets and Implementing Details

We conduct evaluations and comparisons of our Hallucinator-Basis factorization (HaBa) on three standard image classification benchmarks: SVHN [21], CIFAR10, and CIFAR100 [18]. There are 60,000 images for real-world digit recognition in SVHN. For CIFAR10 and CIFAR100, there are 50,000 training images in total. The number of classes for the three datasets are 10, 100, and 200 respectively. All the images are under 32×32 resolution in 3-channel RGB format. Following previous works [5], we use ZCA for image preprocessing with Kornia implementation [27] before all the experiments. Experiments with more datasets, including images in larger spatial scales, can be found in the supplement.

In this paper, for convenience of comparisons with prior works, we maintain the same size with images in original datasets, *i.e.*, $h' = h$, $w' = w$, and $c' = 3$ for bases. We also experiment with other sizes of bases in Sec. 4.3. And for hallucinators, the encoder and decoder contain 1 `Conv-ReLU` blocks. The number of feature channel c'' is 3. We use 5 hallucinators by default if not specified. The learning rates of hallucinators and bases, η_H and η_B, are the same and for the feature extractor, the learning rate η_F is 0.001. Hyper-parameters $\lambda_{con.}$, λ_{task}, λ_{DC}, and $\lambda_{cos.}$ are set as 0.1, 1, 1, and 0.1

	Method	DC [41]			DM [40]			MTT [5]		
	IPC	2	11	51	2	11	51	2	11	51
	BPC	1	10	50	1	10	50	1	10	50
ConvNet	Baseline	31.36±0.16	45.29±0.30	54.24±0.61	34.57±0.52	50.35±0.36	62.03±0.29	50.59±0.95	63.90±0.29	69.81±0.48
	w. HaBa	34.11±0.47	49.88±0.52	58.91±0.23	37.32±0.13	56.83±0.11	64.44±0.40	56.76±0.38	69.48±0.26	73.25±0.21
	Gain	+2.75	+4.59	+4.67	+2.75	+6.48	+2.41	+6.17	+5.58	+3.44
ResNet	Baseline	18.10±0.76	18.36±0.36	22.14±0.38	22.25±1.00	40.00±1.49	53.40±0.68	35.15±0.96	45.05±1.46	54.47±0.95
	w. HaBa	24.49±0.55	24.27±0.56	31.08±0.32	31.34±0.72	47.57±0.49	59.61±0.35	47.39±0.71	57.97±0.88	64.35±0.60
	Gain	+6.39	+6.11	+8.94	+9.09	+7.57	+6.21	+12.24	+12.92	+9.88
VGG	Baseline	28.02±0.26	35.88±0.67	38.73±0.48	22.28±1.03	41.64±0.64	55.17±0.54	38.04±1.19	50.49±1.02	61.36±0.30
	w. HaBa	29.42±0.93	37.03±0.42	41.91±0.55	26.93±0.62	49.41±0.36	67.47±0.43	48.26±0.54	60.47±0.56	67.47±0.43
	Gain	+1.40	+1.15	+3.18	+4.65	+7.77	+12.30	+10.22	+9.98	+6.11
AlexNet	Baseline	20.02±1.31	22.42±1.35	29.48±0.87	20.67±3.64	37.04±0.92	49.14±0.94	26,06±1.01	35.95±1.52	49.20±1.27
	w. HaBa	22.24±1.14	33.02±0.91	33.42±1.39	32.14±0.60	44.14±0.67	53.09±0.89	43.63±1.46	48.96±3.00	60.07±1.37
	Gain	+2.22	+10.60	+3.94	+11.47	+7.10	+3.95	+17.57	+13.01	+10.87

Table 2: Cross-architecture performance (test accuracy %) comparison to different baseline methods of DC HaBa built upon.

empirically. Sensitivities of these hyper-parameters are analyzed in Sec. 4.3. The adversary network has the same architecture as that for computing $\mathcal{L}_{DC}$. In experiments on SVHN and CIFAR10, we incorporate all the bases in each iteration, while in experiments on CIFAR100, we adopt a batch size of 300 when the total number of bases is greater than 1,000. We only consider random 2 hallucinators in one iteration for simplicity. The maximal configuration of computational resources is 4 24GB 3090 GPUs. The GPU memory consumption is dependent on that of the baseline method for $\mathcal{L}_{DC}$ and is slightly higher than it due to the computation of $\mathcal{L}_{cos.}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$. The baseline method for $\mathcal{L}_{DC}$ is MTT [5] if not specified. Other settings related to DC hold the same as the baseline. All the quantitative results are based on the mean and standard deviation over 5 repeated experiments.

4.2 Comparisons

Comparisons with State of the Arts: We compare HaBa with previous state of the arts for DC in standard settings, to synthesize 1, 10, and 50 images per class (IPC) respectively. In our setting, the number of parameters in a hallucinator is slightly less than that for 2 synthetic images (5,568 v.s. 6,144), while the size of a basis is equal to that of an image. Taking the storage cost of 5 hallucinators into consideration, we set the number of bases per class (BPC) as IPC minus 1 in each IPC configuration when IPC is greater than 1, to make the comparisons as fair as possible. Candidates are coreset based methods including Random [6, 24], Herding [4, 2], K-Center [8, 28], and Forgetting [33], meta learning based methods including DD [37] and LD [3], training matching based methods including DC [41], DSA [39], and MTT [5], and distribution matching based methods including DM [40] and CAFE [36]. The comparisons follow the standard protocol adopting a 3-layer `Conv-InstanceNorm-ReLU-AvgPool` ConvNet with 128 channels in training and testing.

The comparison results are shown in Tab. 1 and we can observe that HaBa achieves state-of-the-art performance in all datasets and settings. Especially when the ratio of condensed images to the whole training set is less than 1%, our method can yield significant improvement over all the candidate methods, which demonstrates that the scheme of hallucinator-basis factorization improves the data efficiency for the task of dataset condensation.

Qualitative Comparisons: We visualize the factorized results by our method as well as the baseline on CIFAR10 dataset with 10 BPC in Fig. 4. Due to the space limitation, we only provide images generated by 2 hallucinators here. Full results and results in more settings can be found in the supplement. As shown in the figure, we can find that bases mainly store some main structures and contour information of objects. Different hallucinators would render a basis with diverse styles and details. Thanks to the dataset factorization scheme, the diversity of condensed images by our method is higher than that by the baseline.

Building upon Different Baselines: To reflect the versatility of the insight, we implement HaBa on multiple state-of-the-art training pipelines of DC, including DC, DM, and MTT. We evaluate the performance of synthetic datasets on CIFAR10 and maintain the IPC of baseline methods as BPC plus 1, which makes storage costs for synthetic datasets as close as possible for fairness. As shown in Tab. 2, when training and testing on ConvNet, the strategy of HaBa can make a consistent improvement

BPC	1	10	50
HaBa w/o $\mathcal{L}_{cos.}$	54.56±0.61	70.16±0.44	73.93±0.21
HaBa w/o $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$	54.91±0.49	70.07±0.48	72.50±0.39
HaBa w/o $\mathcal{L}_{task}$	54.62±0.42	70.07±0.16	72.74±0.20
HaBa Full	55.66±0.29	70.27±0.63	74.04±0.16
HaBa w $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$ Downstream	56.78±0.22	70.44±0.15	75.00±0.52

Table 3: Results of ablation study on loss terms in HaBa: $\mathcal{L}_{cos.}$, $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$, and $\mathcal{L}_{task}$.

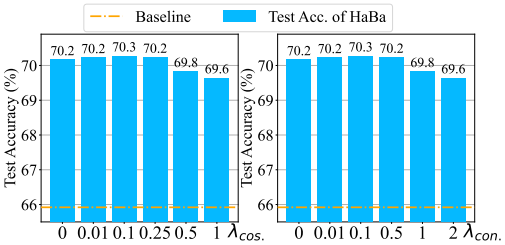


Figure 5: Impacts of different $\lambda_{cos.}$ and $\lambda_{con.}$ on the test accuracy.

over all the baselines, which demonstrates that factorization is a general idea to improve the data efficiency in DC.

Cross-Architecture Performance: For DC, a satisfactory condensed dataset should have similar training effects to the original one on downstream models with arbitrary architectures. Thus, cross-architecture generalization performance is an important metric for DC. We use the synthetic datasets trained on ConvNet to train models with different structures including ResNet [12], VGG [31], and AlexNet [19]. The results can be found in Tab. 2. Impressively, HaBa can improve the across-architecture accuracy even more significantly with a performance gain up to 17.57%. The consistent and significant improvement validates the superior ability of our method to recover the original data distribution and thus original datasets can be replaced by the synthetic ones better.

Cross-Domain Performance: We further examine the domain generalization performance of our method and the baseline one on CIFAR10-C [13], the corrupted version of CIFAR10 dataset with 19 different types of corruption. There are five corrupted levels from 1 (mildest) to 5 (severest) and we report the mean test accuracy across 19 domains on different levels. As demonstrated in Fig. 7, our method outperforms the baseline consistently in all settings and corrupted levels. Also, the gap between performance using condensed dataset and original dataset becomes smaller with the increase of corrupted level, which suggests that our method improves the domain generalization ability potentially, thanks to the diverse training data composed of hallucinators and bases.

4.3 Ablation Studies

Loss Terms: To validate the effectiveness of the proposed adversarial contrastive constrains, we design ablation studies on the CIFAR10 dataset over three loss terms: $\mathcal{L}_{cos.}$ in Eq. 5, $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$ in Eq. 3, and the task-specific loss $\mathcal{L}_{task}$. Through the results in Tab. 3, we can find that deleting any one of them would hurt the performance. We also experiment with involving $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$ for downstream training, to enforce the similarity among images composed of different hallucinators and a common basis. Observed from the last row of Tab. 3, the performance can be further improved, since $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$ helps the representation learning of related samples [17]. Note that we do not use this loss term for downstream training in other experiments for fair and standard comparison.

We examine the sensitivities of hyper-parameters $\lambda_{cos.}$ and $\lambda_{con.}$ used to balance the weights of loss terms $\mathcal{L}_{cos.}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{con.}$ respectively in Fig. 5. The results are evaluated on the CIFAR10 dataset with 10 BPC. We can observe that the overall performance is not sensitive to the selection of these hyper-parameters and our method makes a consistent improvement over the baseline with 11 IPC.

Class-Independent Hallucinators v.s. Shared Hallucinators: In the default setting of HaBa, each class maintains a certain number of bases independently and all the classes share the same set of hallucinators. But what about the case that hallucinators are also made class-independent? We study this problem experimentally in Tab. 4. Given the same BPC, class-independent hallucinators can indeed somehow improve the performance when there are fewer synthetic samples, *e.g.*, 1 BPC. However, when BPC is higher, equipping each class with an independent set of hallucinators would yield inferior performance, even worse than the baseline when BPC is 50. There are probably two reasons: (1) shared hallucinators across all the classes extract global information of the whole dataset, which is also of great importance to recover the original data distribution; and (2) the class-independent case would make the number of hallucinators 10 times for the CIFAR10 dataset, which leaves a heavy burden for the optimization process. Thus, as indicated in Tab. 4, a better solution is to make room for more bases using the memory allocated to store class-independent hallucinators initially, which would result in data efficiency.

BPC	1	10	50
w/o Share	55.96±0.51	69.00±0.20	69.81±0.56
Share	55.66±0.29	70.27±0.63	74.04±0.16
Baseline (IPC=BPC)	45.29±0.86	62.77±0.56	71.09±0.34
BPC	10	19	59
Share (Same Memory)	70.27±0.63	72.17±0.30	74.89±0.15
IPC	11	20	60
Baseline (Same Memory)	65.92±0.62	68.58±0.49	73.55±0.48

Table 4: Study on whether all the classes should share the same set of hallucinators.

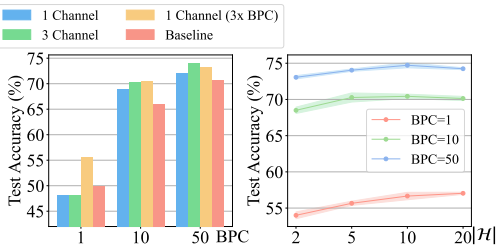


Figure 6: Study on the number of channels used by bases and the number of hallucinators.

	ConvNet	ResNet	VGG	AlexNet
Baseline w/o aug.	60.63±0.21	43.24±0.83	48.02±0.53	30.58±1.44
Baseline	63.90±0.29	45.05±1.46	50.49±1.02	35.95±1.52
Ours w/o aug.	68.08±0.23	56.37±0.11	59.04±0.50	48.27±3.04
Ours	69.48±0.26	57.97±0.88	60.47±0.56	48.96±3.00

Table 5: Impact of data augmentation on the results.

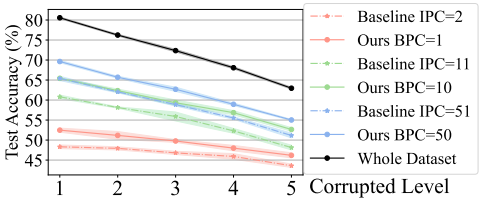


Figure 7: Generalization performance on images with different corrupted levels

Number of Channels Used by Basis: By default, the shape of a basis is the same as that of a real image, which is generally in RGB 3-channel format. In fact, in Fig. 6(Left), we also verify that it is also possible to use single-channel basis, which can reduce the memory cost by nearly 2/3 without hurting the performance too much. Interestingly, if the memory cost is held the same, we can choose to use 3 times BPC to store single-channel bases, rather than 3-channel ones. This would yield impressive improvement on the test accuracy when BPC is small. Note that for baseline results, IPC is set as the corresponding BPC plus 1.

Number of Hallucinators: We study the impact of the number of hallucinators, *i.e.*, $|\mathcal{H}|$, in Fig. 6(Right). We can observe that when BPC is small, including more hallucinators is helpful for the performance. Nevertheless, when BPC is 10 or 50, the performance would not improve with more hallucinators when $|\mathcal{H}| > 10$. One reason is that when $|\mathcal{H}|$ is large, the sampling of hallucinators in each iteration is sparse, which makes the joint optimization of all the hallucinators more difficult.

Data Augmentation: The similarity between our hallucinator set and data augmentation lies that both of them can contribute to generating more samples and increasing the diversity. However, the essential difference is that our hallucinators are optimized to encode sample-wise relationships in a dataset, while data augmentation is based on some prior and heuristic knowledge of images. By default, both our method and the baseline adopt the data augmentation strategy DSA [39]. To study the relationship between the two schemes experimentally, we attempt to remove DSA from baseline and our method and report the corresponding results in Tab. 5. The evaluation is on CIFAR10 with 11 IPC for baseline and 10 BPC for ours. Through the results, we can find that (1) our method without data augmentation can also outperform the baseline method with augmentation significantly, which means that the mechanism of HaBa can benefit the condensation task more with the learning of global information of a dataset in hallucinators; and (2) with data augmentation, our performance can be further improved, which indicates that HaBa and DSA work in different manners.

5 Conclusions

This paper proposes a novel hallucinator-basis factorization method dubbed HaBa for dataset condensation (DC). It uses hallucinators to encode inner relations between different samples in original datasets, which can largely improve the data efficiency of condensed results. To diversify the knowledge captured by different hallucinators, a pair of adversarial contrastive constrains is further introduced. Extensive evaluations and comparisons are conducted on multiple benchmark datasets, which demonstrate that HaBa is capable of significantly improving the performance of downstream models trained on the synthetic dataset, using only 35% cost of memory for storage. Moreover, it is a versatile strategy that is compatible with different configurations of DC frameworks and yields consistent improvement. In our further work, we will focus on enhancing the efficiency of HaBa.

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Checklist

1. For all authors...
   (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope? [Yes]
   (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] The training efficiency can be further improved.
   (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [N/A]
   (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [Yes]
2. If you are including theoretical results...
   (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A]
   (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A]
3. If you ran experiments...
   (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes] Please refer to the supplement.
   (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)? [Yes] Please refer to Sec. 4.1.
   (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times)? [Yes] We run all the experiments 5 times and report the mean and standard deviation of the performance.
   (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes] Please refer to Sec. 4.1.
4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
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   (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable? [N/A]
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   (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]