Tackling Neural Architecture Search
With Quality Diversity Optimization

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Abstract Neural architecture search (NAS) has been studied extensively and has grown to become a research field with substantial impact. While classical single-objective NAS searches for the architecture with the best performance, multi-objective NAS considers multiple objectives that should be optimized simultaneously, e.g., minimizing resource usage along the validation error. Although considerable progress has been made in the field of multi-objective NAS, we argue that there is some discrepancy between the actual optimization problem of practical interest and the optimization problem that multi-objective NAS tries to solve. We resolve this discrepancy by formulating the multi-objective NAS problem as a quality diversity optimization (QDO) problem and introduce three quality diversity NAS optimizers (two of them belonging to the group of multifidelity optimizers), which search for high-performing yet diverse architectures that are optimal for application-specific niches, e.g., hardware constraints. We compare these optimizers to their multi-objective counterparts and demonstrate that quality diversity NAS in general outperforms multi-objective NAS with respect to quality of solutions and efficiency. Using model compression, we show how QDO can be applied to obtain a set of sparser yet high-performing architectures.

1 Introduction

The goal of neural architecture search (NAS) is to automate the manual process of designing optimal neural network architectures. Traditionally, NAS is formulated as a single-objective optimization problem with the goal of finding an architecture that has minimal validation error [10, 31, 41, 43, 42, 56]. Considerations for additional objectives such as efficiency have led to the formulation of constraint NAS methods that enforce efficiency thresholds [1] as well as multi-objective NAS methods [7, 9, 33, 47, 32] that yield a Pareto optimal set of architectures. However, in most practical applications, we are not interested in the complete Pareto optimal set. Instead, we would like to obtain solutions for a discrete set of scenarios (e.g., end-user devices), which we henceforth refer to as *niches* in this paper. This is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Optimizing neural network architectures for a discrete set of devices simultaneously. We are interested in the best solution (green) within the constraints of the respective device (vertical dashed lines). Multi-objective optimization searches the full Pareto front (black).

A concrete example is finding neural architectures for microcontrollers [28] and other edge devices [34], e.g., in μNAS [28] architectures for "mid-tier" IoT devices with up to 64 KB of SRAM and 64 KB of storage are searched. To evaluate the benefits for larger devices, the search would need to be restarted with adapted constraints, thus wasting computational resources. Formulating the search as a multi-objective problem would also waste resources; once an architecture satisfies the constraints of a device, we are not interested in additional trade-offs, and we select only based on the validation error. If the goal is to find architectures that can use up to a certain amount of memory so they can later be deployed on different devices, it is not beneficial to further reduce the resource objective at the cost of worse performance once the constraint of the device is met. A similar argument can be made for inference latency.

We therefore argue that the multi-objective NAS problem *can* and usually *should* be formulated as a *quality diversity optimization* (QDO) problem, which directly corresponds to the actual optimization problem of interest. The main contributions of this paper are: We (1) formulate multi-objective NAS as a QDO problem; (2) show how to adapt black-box optimization algorithms for the QDO setting; (3) modify existing QDO algorithms for the NAS setting; and (4) propose novel multifidelity QDO algorithms for NAS. Our benchmark results demonstrate that QDO outperforms multi-objective optimization in terms of quality and efficiency.

2 Theoretical Background and Related Work

Let $\mathcal{A}$ denote the search space of architectures and Λ the search space of additional hyperparameters. Furthermore, let $f_{\mathrm{err}} : \mathcal{A} \times \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denote the validation error obtained after training an architecture $A \in \mathcal{A}$ with a set of hyperparameters $\lambda \in \Lambda$ for a given number of epochs ($\lambda_{\mathrm{epoch}} \in \lambda$). Typically, we consider $\lambda \in \Lambda$ to be fixed, except for λ_{epoch} in multi-fidelity methods, and omit λ in the following. The goal of single-objective NAS is to find the architecture with the lowest validation error, $A^* := \arg\min_{A \in \mathcal{A}} f_{\mathrm{err}}(A)$.

NAS methods can be categorized along three dimensions: search space, search strategy, and performance estimation strategy [10]. For chain-structured neural networks (simply a connected sequence of layers), cell-based search spaces have gained popularity [42, 41]. In cell-based search spaces, different kinds of cells – typically, a normal cell preserving dimensionality of the input and a reduction cell reducing spatial dimension – are stacked in a predefined arrangement to form a final architecture. Regarding search strategy, popular methods utilize Bayesian Optimization (BO) [2, 5, 35, 20, 52], evolutionary methods [37, 30, 43, 42, 9], reinforcement learning [56, 57], or gradient-based algorithms [31, 41]. For performance estimation, popular approaches leverage lower fidelity estimates [27, 11, 57] or make use of learning curve extrapolation [5, 23].

Multi-Objective Neural Architecture Search Contrary to the single-objective NAS formulation, multi-objective NAS does not solely aim for minimizing the validation error but simultaneously optimizes multiple objectives. These objectives typically take resource consumption – such as memory requirements, energy usage or latency – into account [7, 9, 33, 47, 32]. Denote by $f_1, \ldots, f_k$ the $k \geq 2$ objectives of interest, where typically $f_1 = f_{\mathrm{err}}$ and denote by $\mathbf{f}(A)$ the vector of objective function values obtained for architecture $A \in \mathcal{A}$, $\mathbf{f}(A) := (f_1(A), \ldots, f_k(A))'$. The optimization problem of multi-objective NAS is then formulated as $\min_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{f}(A)$. A solution to the problem is given by a set of so-called Pareto optimal architectures that reflect different trade-offs in objectives approximating the true (unknown) Pareto front. An architecture A is said to dominate another architecture A' iff $\forall i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} : f_i(A) \leq f_i(A') \land \exists j \in \{1, \ldots, k\} : f_j(A) < f_j(A')$.

Constrained and Hardware-Aware Neural Architecture Search In contrast, *Constrained NAS* [55, 12, 49] solves the problem of finding an architecture that optimizes one objective (e.g., validation error) with constraints on secondary objectives (e.g., model size). Constraints can be naturally given by the target hardware that a model should be deployed on. *Hardware-Aware NAS* in turn searches for an architecture that trades off primary objectives [53] against secondary, hardware-specific metrics. For a recent survey, we refer to [1].

Quality Diversity Optimization The goal of a QDO algorithm is to find a set of high-performing, yet behaviorally diverse, solutions. Similarly to multi-objective optimization, there is no single best solution. However, whereas multi-objective optimization aims for the simultaneous minimization of multiple objectives, QDO minimizes a single-objective function with respect to diversity defined on one or more *feature functions*. A feature function measures a quality of interest and a combination of feature values points to a niche, i.e., a region in *feature space*. QDO could be considered a *set* of constrained optimisation problems over the same input domain where the niche boundaries are constraints in feature space. The key difference is that constrained optimisation seeks a single optimal configuration given some constraints, while QDO attempts to identify the optimal configuration for each of a set of constrained regions simultaneously. In this sense, QDO could be framed as a so-called multi-task optimization problem [39] where each task is to find the best solution belonging to a particular niche.

QDO algorithms maintain an archive of niche-optimal observations, i.e., a best-performing observed solution for each niche. Observations with similar feature values compete to be selected for the archive, and the solution set gradually improves during the optimization process. Once the optimization budget has been spent, QDO algorithms typically return this archive as their solution. QDO is motivated by applications where a group of diverse solutions is beneficial, such as the training of robot movement where a repertoire of behaviours must be learned [4], developing game playing agents with diverse strategies [40], and in automatic design where QDO can be used by human designers to search a large dimensional search space for diverse solutions before the optimization is finished by hand. Work on automatic design tasks have been varied and include air-foil design [15], computer game level design [13], and architectural design [6].

In the earliest examples, Novelty Search (NS; [25]) asks whether diversity alone can produce a good set of solutions. Despite not actively pursuing objective performance, NS performed surprisingly well in some settings and was followed by Novelty Search with Local Competition [26], the first true quality diversity algorithm. MAP-Elites [38], a standard evolutionary QDO algorithm, partitions the feature space a-priori into niches and attempts to identify the optimal solution in each of these niches. QDO has seen much work in recent years and a variant based on BO, BOP-Elites, was proposed recently [21]. BOP-Elites models the objective and feature functions with surrogate models and implements an acquisition function over a structured archive to achieve high sample efficiency even in the case of black-box features.

3 Formulating Neural Architecture Search as a Quality Diversity Optimization Problem

In the example in Figure 1, a quality diversity NAS (subsequently abbreviated as qdNAS) problem is given by the validation error and three behavioral niches (corresponding to different devices) that are defined via resource usage measured by a single feature function. Let $f_1 : \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}, A \mapsto f_1(A)$ denote the objective function of interest (in our context, f_{err}). Denote by $f_i : \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}, A \mapsto f_i(A), i \in \{2, \ldots, k\}, k \geq 2$ the feature function(s) of interest (e.g., memory usage). Behavioral niches $N_j \subseteq \mathcal{A}, j \in \{1, \ldots, c\}, c \geq 1$ are sets of architectures characterized via niche-specific boundaries $\mathbf{b}_{ij} = [l_{ij}, u_{ij}] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ on the images of the feature functions. An architecture A belongs to niche N_j if its values with respect to the feature functions lie between the respective boundaries, i.e.:

$$A \in N_j \iff \forall i \in \{2, \ldots, k\} : f_i(A) \in \mathbf{b}_{ij}.$$

The goal of a QDO algorithm is then to find for each behavioral niche N_j the architecture that minimizes the objective function f_1:

$$\mathbf{A}_j^* := \arg\min_{A \in N_j} f_1(A).$$

In other words, the goal is to obtain a set of architectures $\mathcal{S} := \left\{A_1^*, \ldots, A_c^*\right\}$ that are diverse with respect to the feature functions and yet high-performing.

A Remark about Niches In the classical QDO literature, niches are typically constructed to be pairwise disjoint, i.e., a configuration can only belong to a single niche (or none) [38, 21]. However, depending on the concrete application, relaxing this constraint and allowing for *overlap* can be beneficial. For example, in our context, an architecture that fits on a mid-tier device should also be considered for deployment on a higher-tier device, i.e., in Figure 1, the boundaries indicated by vertical dashed lines resemble the respective upper bound of a niche whereas the lower bound is unconstrained. This results in niches being nested within each other, i.e., $N_1 \subsetneq N_2 \subsetneq \ldots \subsetneq N_c \subseteq \mathcal{A}$, with N_1 being the most restrictive niche, followed by N_2.

3.1 Quality Diversity Optimizers for Neural Architecture Search

As the majority of NAS optimizers are iterative, we first demonstrate how any iterative optimizer can in principle be turned into a quality diversity optimizer. Based on this correspondence, we introduce three novel quality diversity optimizers for NAS: BOP-Elites*, qdHB and BOP-ElitesHB. Let $f_1 : \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}, A \mapsto f_1(x)$ denote the objective function that should be minimized. In each iteration, an iterative optimizer proposes a new configuration (e.g., architecture) for evaluation (e.g., based on a surrogate model), evaluates this configuration, potentially updates the incumbent (best configuration evaluated so far) if better performance has been observed, and updates its archive. For generic pseudo code, see ??.

Moving to a QDO problem, there are now feature functions $f_i : \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}, A \mapsto f_i(A), i \in \{2, \ldots, k\}, k \geq 2$, and niches $N_j, j \in \{1, \ldots, c\}, c \geq 1$, defined via their niche-specific boundaries $\mathbf{b}_{ij} = \left[l_{ij}, u_{ij}\right] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ on the images of the feature functions. Any iterative single-objective optimizer must then keep track of the best incumbent per niche (often referred to as the *elite* in the QDO literature) and essentially becomes a quality diversity optimizer (see Algorithm 1). The

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Algorithm 1: Generic pseudo code for an iterative quality diversity optimizer.

Input : $f_1, f_i, i \in \{2, \ldots, k\}, k \geq 2, N_j, j \in \{1, \ldots, c\}, c \geq 1, \mathcal{D}_{\text{design}}, n_{\text{total}}$
Result : $S = \{A_1^*, \ldots, A_c^*\}$

1   $\mathcal{D} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\text{design}}$
2   **for** $j \leftarrow 1$ **to** c **do**
3     $A_j^* \leftarrow \arg\min_{A \in \mathcal{D}_{|N_j}} f_1(A)$ # initial incumbent of niche N_j based on archive
4   **end**
5   **for** $n \leftarrow 1$ **to** n_{total} **do**
6   Propose a new candidate $A^\star$ # subroutine
7   Evaluate $y \leftarrow f_1(A^\star), \forall i \in \{2, \ldots, k\} : z_i \leftarrow f_i(A^\star)$
8   **if** $A^\star \in N_j \wedge y < f_1(A_j^*)$ **then**
9       $A_j^* \leftarrow A^\star$ # update incumbent of niche N_j
10   **end**
11    $\mathcal{D} \leftarrow \mathcal{D} \cup \left\{(A^\star, y, z_2, \ldots, z_k)\right\}$
12   **end**

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challenge in designing an efficient and well-performing quality diversity optimizer now mostly lies in proposing a new candidate for evaluation that considers improvement over all niches.

Bayesian Optimization A recently proposed model-based quality diversity optimizer – BOP-Elites [21] – extends BO [48, 14] to QDO. BOP-Elites relies on Gaussian process surrogate models for the objective function and all feature functions. New candidates for evaluation are selected by a novel acquisition function – the expected joint improvement of elites (EJIE), which measures the

expected improvement to the ensemble problem of identifying the best solution in every niche:

$$\alpha_{\mathrm{EJIE}}(A) := \sum_{j=1}^{c} \mathcal{P}(A \in N_j | \mathcal{D}) \mathbb{E}_y \left[\mathbb{I}_{|N_j}(A) \right]. \tag{1}$$

Here, $\mathcal{P}(A \in N_j | \mathcal{D})$ is the posterior probability of A belonging to niche N_j, and $\mathbb{E}_y \left[\mathbb{I}_{|N_j}(A) \right]$ is the expected improvement (EI; [19]) with respect to niche N_j:

$$\mathbb{E}_y \left[\mathbb{I}_{|N_j}(A) \right] = \mathbb{E}_y \left[\max \left(f_{\min_{N_j}} - y, 0 \right) \right],$$

where $f_{\min_{N_j}}$ is the best observed objective function value in niche N_j so far, and y is the surrogate model prediction for A. A new candidate is then proposed by maximizing the EJIE, i.e., Line 6 in Algorithm 1 looks like the following: $A^\star \leftarrow \arg\max_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \alpha_{\mathrm{EJIE}}(A)$.

BOP-Elites* In order to adapt BOP-Elites for NAS, we introduce several modifications. First, we employ truncated path encoding [51, 52], transforming architectures into a set of binary features indicating the presence of all directed edges along paths. Second, we substitute the Gaussian process surrogate models used in BOP-Elites with random forests allowing us to model non-continuous hyperparameter spaces. Random forests have been successfully used as surrogates in BO [17, 29], often performing on a par with ensembles of neural networks [52] in the context of NAS [46, 50]. Third, we introduce a local mutation scheme similarly to the one used by the BANANAS algorithm [52] for optimizing the infill criterion EJIE: Since our aim is to find high quality solutions across all niches, we maintain an archive of the incumbent architecture in each niche and perform local mutations on each incumbent. We refer to our adjusted version as BOP-Elites* in the remainder of the paper to emphasize the difference from the original algorithm. For the initial design, we sample architectures based on adjacency matrix encoding [51].

Multi-fidelity Optimizers For NAS, performance estimation is the computationally most expensive component [10], and almost all NAS optimizers can be made more efficient by allowing access to cheaper, lower fidelity estimates [10, 27, 11, 57]. By evaluating most architectures at lower fidelity and only promoting promising architectures to higher fidelity, many more architectures can be explored given the same total computational budget. The fidelity parameter is typically the number of epochs over which an architecture is trained.

qdHB One of the most prominent multifidelity optimizers is Hyperband (HB; [27]), a multi-armed bandit strategy that uses repeated Successive Halving (SH) [18] as a subroutine to identify the best configuration (e.g., architecture) among a set of randomly sampled ones. Given an initial and maximum fidelity, a scaling parameter η, and a set of configurations of size n, SH evaluates all configurations on the initial smallest fidelity, then sorts the configurations by performance and only keeps the best $1/\eta$ configurations. These configurations are then trained with fidelity increased by a factor of η. This process is repeated until the maximum fidelity for a single configuration is reached. HB repeatedly runs SH with different sized sets of initial configurations called brackets. Only two inputs are required: R, the maximum fidelity and η, the scaling parameter that controls the proportion of configurations discarded in each round of SH. Based on these inputs, the number $s_{\max}$ and size n_i of different brackets is determined. To adapt HB to the quality diversity setting, we must track the incumbent architecture in each niche and promote configurations based on their performance within the respective niche (see ??): To achieve this, we choose the top $\lfloor n_i/\eta \rfloor$ configurations to be promoted uniformly over the c niches (done in the $\mathrm{top}_{\mathrm{k\_qdo}}$ function), i.e., we iteratively select one of the niches uniformly at random and choose the best configuration observed so far that has yet not been selected for promotion until $\lfloor n_i/\eta \rfloor$ configurations have been selected. Note that during this procedure, it may happen that not enough configurations belonging to a specific niche have been observed yet. In this case, we choose any configuration uniformly at

random over the set of all configurations that have yet to be promoted. With those modifications, we propose qdHB, as a multifidelity quality diversity optimizer.

BOP-ElitesHB While HB typically shows strong anytime performance [27], it only samples configurations at random and is typically outperformed by BO methods with respect to final performance if optimizer runtime is sufficiently large [11]. BOHB [11] combines the strengths of HB and BO in a single optimizer, resulting in strong anytime performance and fast convergence. This approach employs a fidelity schedule similar to HB to determine how many configurations to evaluate at which fidelity but replaces the random selection of configurations in each HB iteration by a model-based proposal. In BOHB, a Tree Parzen Estimator [3] is used to model densities $l(A) = p(y < \alpha|A, \mathcal{D})$ and $g(A) = p(y > \alpha|A, \mathcal{D})$, and candidates are proposed that maximize the ratio $l(A)/g(A)$, which is equivalent to maximizing EI [3]. In contrast, other multifidelity optimizers combining HB and BO differ in their choice of surrogate model and implementation detail, e.g., SMAC-HB [29] uses a random forest. Based on BOP-Elites* and qdHB, we can now derive the quality diversity Bayesian Optimization Hyperband optimizer (BOP-ElitesHB): Instead of selecting configurations at random at the beginning of each qdHB iteration, we propose candidates that maximize the EJIE criterion. This sampling procedure is described in ??.

4 Benchmark Experiments and Results

We are interested in answering the following research questions: (**RQ1**) *Does qdNAS outperform multi-objective NAS if the optimization goal is to find high-performing architectures in pre-defined niches?* (**RQ2**) *Do multifidelity qdNAS optimizers improve over full-fidelity qdNAS optimizers?* To answer these questions, we benchmark our three qdNAS optimizers – BOP-Elites*, qdHB, and BOP-ElitesHB– on the well-known NAS-Bench-101 [54] and NAS-Bench-201 [8] and compare them to three multi-objective optimizers adapted for NAS: ParEGO*, moHB*, and ParEGOHB as well as a simple Random Search[1].

Experimental Setup It is important to compare optimizers using analogous implementation details. We therefore use truncated path encoding and random forest surrogates throughout our experiments for all model-based optimizers. Furthermore, we use local mutations as described in [52] in order to optimize acquisition functions in BOP-Elites*, BOP-ElitesHB, ParEGO*, and ParEGOHB. To control for differences in implementation, we re-implement all optimizers and take great care in matching the original implementations.

We provide full details regarding implementation in ?? and only briefly introduce conceptual differences: ParEGO* is a multi-objective optimizer based on ParEGO [24] and only deviates from BOP-Elites* in that it considers a differently scalarized objective in each iteration, which is optimized using local mutations similar to the acquisition function optimization of BOP-Elites*. moHB* is an extension of HB to the multi-objective setting (promoting configurations based on non-dominated sorting with hypervolume contribution for tie breaking, see, e.g., [44, 45, 16]). ParEGOHB is a model-based extension of moHB* (see, e.g., [44]) that relies on the ParEGO scalarization [24] and on the same acquisition function optimization as ParEGO*.

All optimizers were evaluated on NAS-Bench-101 (Cifar-10, with the validation error as the first objective and the number of trainable parameters as the feature function / second objective) and NAS-Bench-201 (Cifar-10, Cifar-100, ImageNet16-120, with the validation error as the first objective and latency as the feature function / second objective). For multifidelity, we train architectures for 4, 12, 36, 108 epochs on NAS-Bench-101 and for 2, 7, 22, 67, 200 epochs on NAS-Bench-201 (reflecting $\eta = 3$ in the HB variants). As the optimization budget, we consider 200 full architecture evaluations (resulting in a total budget of 21600 epochs for NAS-Bench-101 and 40000 epochs for NAS-Bench-201). For each of these four settings, we construct three different scenarios by considering different niches of interest with respect to the feature function, resulting in a total of 12 benchmark prob-

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[1]using adjacency matrix encoding [51]

lems. In the *small/medium/large* settings, two, five and ten niches are considered, respectively. Niches are constructed to be overlapping, and boundaries are defined based on percentiles of the feature function. For the *small* setting, the boundary is given by the 50% percentile, effectively resulting in two niches with boundaries $[0, q_{50})$ and $[0, \infty)$. For the *medium* and *large* settings, the following percentiles indicating progressively larger niches were used: 1%, 5%, 10%, 30% and 1%, 2%, 5%, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, 70%, respectively. More details on the niches can be found in ??. All runs are replicated 100 times.

Results As an anytime performance measure, we are interested in the validation error obtained for each niche, which we aggregate in a single performance measure as $\sum_{j=1}^{c} f_{\mathrm{err}}(A_j^*)$, i.e., we consider the sum of validation errors over the best-performing architecture per niche. If a niche is empty, we assign a validation error of 100 as a penalty. For the final performance, we also consider the analogous test error. Figure 2 shows the anytime performance of optimizers with respect to the validation error summed over niches (averaged over 100 replications). We observe that model-based optimizers (BOP-Elites* and ParEGO*) in general strongly outperform Random Search, and BO HB optimizers (BOP-ElitesHB and ParEGOHB) generally outperform their full-fidelity counterparts, although this effect diminishes with increasing optimization budget. In general, HB variants that do not rely on a surrogate model (qdHB and moHB*) show poor performance compared to the model-based optimizers. Moreover, especially in the *small* number of niches setting, quality diversity strongly outperforms multi-objective optimization. Mean ranks of optimizers with respect to final validation and test performance are given in Table 1. For completeness, we also report critical differences plots of these ranks in ??. Additionally, we report the average best validation and test performance for each niche for each optimizer on each benchmark problem in ??.

We also conducted two four-way ANOVAS on the average performance after half and all of the optimization budget is used, with the factors problem (benchmark problem), multifidelity (whether an optimizer uses multifidelity), QDO (whether an optimizer is a QDO optimizer) and model-based (whether the optimizer relies on a surrogate model)[2]. For half the budget used, results indicate significant main effects of the factors multifidelity ($F(1) = 19.13$, $p = 0.0001$), QDO ($F(1) = 11.08$, $p = 0.0017$) and model-based ($F(1) = 21.13$, $p < 0.0001$). For all of the budget used, the significance of multifidelity diminishes, whereas the main effects of QDO ($F(1) = 18.31$, $p = 0.0001$) and model-based ($F(43.44)$, $p < 0.0001$) are still significant. We can therefore conclude that QDO in general results in significantly better performance when the goal is to find high-performing architectures in pre-defined niches. Detailed results are reported in ??.

Regarding efficiency, we analyzed the expected running time (ERT) of the QDO optimizers given the average performance of the respective multi-objective optimizers after half of the optimization budget: For each benchmark problem, we computed the mean validation performance of each multi-objective optimizer after having spent half of its optimization budget and investigated the ERT of the analogous[3] QDO optimizer. We scaled the ERTs by the total optimization budget per benchmark problem and then computed the ratio of ERTs between multi-objective and QDO optimizers and averaged them over the benchmark problems. For BOP-ElitesHB, we observe an average ERT ratio of 2.41, i.e., in expectation, BOP-ElitesHB is a factor of 2.41 faster than ParEGOHB in reaching the average performance of ParEGOHB (after half the optimization budget). For qdHB and BOP-Elites*, the average ERT ratios are 1.14 and 1.44. We conclude that all QDO optimizers are more efficient than their multi-objective counterparts. More details on this analysis can be found in ??.

5 Applying Quality Diversity Neural Architecture Search to Model Compression

We now demonstrate how qdNAS can be used in practice and consider the following scenario: We are interested in deploying a `MobileNetV2` across different devices that are mainly constrained

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[2]For this analysis, we excluded qdHB and moHB* due to their lackluster performance.
[3]BOP-ElitesHB for ParEGOHB, qdHB for moHB*, and BOP-Elites* for ParEGO*

Figure 2: Anytime performance of optimizers (validation error summed over niches). Ribbons represent standard errors over 100 replications. x-axis starts after 10 full-fidelity evaluations.

Table 1: Mean ranks of optimizers with respect to their final validation and test performance, averaged over all 12 benchmark problems.

Mean Rank (SE)	BOP-ElitesHB	qdHB	BOP-Elites*	ParEGOHB	moHB*	ParEGO*	Random
Validation	2.08 (0.29)	5.92 (0.26)	1.83 (0.21)	4.25 (0.48)	6.42 (0.15)	2.58 (0.31)	4.92 (0.34)
Test	1.42 (0.19)	5.00 (0.17)	2.08 (0.23)	4.33 (0.50)	6.50 (0.19)	3.25 (0.35)	5.42 (0.42)

by memory. For each device, we can therefore only consider models up to a fixed amount of parameters, similar to the scenario depicted in Figure 1. If a model fits into the memory of a given device, we are not interested in further available trade-offs between memory and performance. Given that we have a pretrained model that achieves high performance, we want to *compress* this model exploiting redundancies in model parameters. In our application, we use the Stanford Dogs dataset [22] and rely on the neural network intelligence (NNI; [36]) toolkit for model compression. Pruning consists of several (iterative) steps as well as re-training of the pruned architectures. Several choices for the pruner itself, pruner hyperparameters, and hyperparameters controlling retraining are available and must be carefully selected in order to obtain optimal models. We consider the number of model parameters as a proxy measure for memory requirement, yielding three overlapping niches for different devices. The pre-trained MobileNetV2 achieves a validation error of 20.25% using 2343480 model parameters. We define niches with the following boundaries: [937392, 1171740), [937392, 1406088) and [937392, 1640436) corresponding to compression rates (number of parameters after pruning) of 40% to 50%, 40% to 60%, and 40% to 70%. The complete

search space is given in **??**. As the quality diversity optimizer, we decide to use BOP-ElitesHB and specify the number of fine-tuning epochs a pruner can use as a fidelity parameter, since fine-tuning after pruning is costly but also strongly influences final performance. After evaluating only 69 pruning configurations (a single BOP-ElitesHB run with $\eta = 3$), we obtain high-performing pruner configurations for each niche, resulting in the performance vs. memory requirement (number of parameters) trade-off shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of using BOP-ElitesHB for model compression of `MobileNetV2` on Stanford Dogs.

Niche	Validation Error	# Param	% (# Param$_\text{Baseline}$)
Niche 1 [937392, 1171740)	31.20%	1127166	48.10%
Niche 2 [937392, 1406088)	29.07%	1288582	54.99%
Niche 3 [937392, 1640436)	27.76%	1616339	68.97%
Baseline	20.25%	2343480	100%

6 Conclusion

We demonstrated how multi-objective NAS can be formulated as a QDO problem that, contrary to multi-objective NAS, directly corresponds to the actual optimization problem of interest, i.e., finding high-performing architectures in different niches. We have shown how any iterative black box optimization algorithm can be adapted to the QDO setting and proposed three QDO algorithms for NAS, with two of which making use of multifidelity evaluations. In benchmark experiments, we have shown that qdNAS outperforms multi-objective NAS while simultaneously being more efficient. We furthermore illustrated how qdNAS can be used for model compression.

Limitations The framework we describe relies on pre-defined niches, e.g., memory requirements of different devices. If niches are mis-specified or cannot be specified a priori, multi-objective NAS may outperform qdNAS. However, an initial study (see **??**) how qdNAS performs in a true multi-objective setting, which would correspond to unknown niches, shows little to no performance degradation depending on the choice of niches. Moreover, we only investigated the performance of qdNAS in the deterministic setting. Additionally, our multifidelity optimizers require niche membership to be unaffected by the multifidelity parameter (which is typically not problematic in the case of resource-related feature functions). Finally, we mainly focused on model-based NAS algorithms that we have extended to the QDO setting. Future work may aim to address the question of how to automatically specify niches if a priori information is not available, extend qdNAS to the noisy setting and adapt other NAS algorithms relying on different search strategies to the QDO setting.

Broader Impact Our work extends previous research on NAS and therefore inherits its implications on society and individuals such as potential discrimination in resulting models. Moreover, evaluating a large number of architectures is computationally costly and can introduce serious environmental issues. We have shown that qdNAS allows for finding better solutions, while simultaneously being more efficient than multi-objective NAS. As performance estimation is extremely costly in NAS, we believe that this is an important contribution towards reducing resource usage and the CO_2 footprint of NAS.

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