CoMO-NAS: Core-Structures-Guided Multi-Objective Neural Architecture Search for Multi-Modal Classification

Anonymous Authors

ABSTRACT

Most existing NAS-based multi-modal classification (MMC-NAS) methods are optimized using the classification accuracy. They can not simultaneously provide multiple models with diverse perferences such as model complex and classification performance for meeting different users' demands. Combining NAS-MMC with multi-objective optimization is a nature way for this issue. However, the challenge problem of this solution is the high computation cost. For multi-objective optimization, the computing bottleneck is pareto front search. Some higher-quality MMC models (namely core structures, CSs) consisting of high-quality features and fusion operators are easier to identify. We find that CSs have a close relation with the pareto front (PF), i.e., the individuals lying in PF contain the CSs. Based on the finding, we propose an efficient multiobjective neural architecture search for multi-modal classification by applying CSs to guide the PF search (CoMO-NAS). In conclusion, experimental results thoroughly demonstrate the effectiveness of our CoMO-NAS. Compared to state-of-the-art competitors on benchmark multi-modal tasks, we achieve comparable performance with lower model complexity in shorter search time.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Computing methodologies \rightarrow Artificial intelligence.

KEYWORDS

Multi-modal fusion, Core structures, Neural architecture search, Multi-objective optimization, Classification

1 INTRODUCTION

The success of multi-modal fusion architectures owes much to their design [\[7,](#page-8-0) [16,](#page-8-1) [32\]](#page-8-2). Recently, with the advantages of escaping labor-intensive and challenging architectural design processes, neural architecture search (NAS) [\[18\]](#page-8-3) has experienced unprecedented interest. NAS has achieved significant success in discovering optimized multi-modal feature fusion strategies, surpassing manually designed methods [\[14,](#page-8-4) [15,](#page-8-5) [24,](#page-8-6) [39\]](#page-8-7). However, these approaches focus solely on the need for high-accuracy fusion architectures. In addition to accurate predictions, practical applications also require NAS-MMC methods to find computationally efficient network architectures, such as low power consumption in mobile applications,

58

Figure 1: The relationship between core structures (CSs) and Pareto frontier (PF). The individuals lying on PF contain CSs.

low latency in autonomous driving applications, and deployability on edge devices like smartphones. It is widely observed that as network architecture complexity increases, predictive performance continues to improve. This has sparked competition between maximizing predictive performance while minimizing complexity, leading to the natural idea of introducing multi-objective optimization.

Among the many diverse MMC-NAS methods, evolutionary algorithms (EAs) have garnered widespread attention due to their population-based nature and flexibility [\[44\]](#page-8-8). They offer a viable alternative to traditional ML-oriented approaches, especially within the scope of multi-objective NAS. Generally, EAs involve an iterative process where improvements are gradually made to individuals within the population by applying variations to selected individuals and recombining parts of multiple individuals. Despite being easily scalable to handle multiple objectives, most existing EAbased NAS methods are still single-objective driven. Additionally, a computational bottleneck for utilizing evolutionary algorithms in multi-objective optimization lies in the search for the Pareto frontier, requiring significant computational resources.

To address the aforementioned issues, we propose a method called core structures-guided multi-objective neural architecture search (CoMO-NAS). As illustrated in Figure [1,](#page-0-0) core structures are substructures composed of high-performing features and fusion operators, which often play a decisive role in the architecture's performance. These core structures align with the optimization objectives of multi-objectives, representing lower-complexity and high-performance substructures themselves. Additionally, through observations of existing advanced MMC-NAS methods, we find that the optimal fusion architectures identified by MMC-NAS typically include some excellent core structures. Building upon these findings, we further explore and discover that core structures frequently appear in the final Pareto frontier, and even more complex solutions

Unpublished working draft. Not for distribution. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 within the Pareto frontier also contain core structures. Therefore, we propose utilizing core structures to guide multi-objective neural architecture search. To obtain core structures, we first divide the features extracted by the backbone network and predefined fusion operators into two parts: one part contains individually high-performing features and fusion operators constituting the core structure search space, while the other part contains lowerperforming features and fusion operators constituting the non-core structure search space. In the first stage, we utilize multi-objective evolutionary algorithms to search for core structures within the core structure search space, obtaining a portion of the Pareto frontier. In the second stage, we use the core structures along with the non-core structure search space to search for architectures with higher complexity and better performance, forming a complete Pareto frontier.

Our research has been validated on multiple multi-modal datasets, showcasing optimal performance in terms of efficiency, complexity, and accuracy. Specifically, our contributions include:

- We find that the core structures (CSs) that consist of features and fusion operators with higher performance in NAS-MMC can be used to guide the Pareto front (PF) search in multiobjective optimization because the individuals in PF often contain the CSs. This strategy is able to significantly improve search efficiency and solution quality.
- With above the finding, we propose a method called core structure-guided multi-objective neural architecture search (CoMO-NAS). To the best our knowledge, CoMO-NAS introduces the concept of multi-objective algorithms in the field of MMC-NAS for the first time. It can efficiently provide multiple optimization solutions for different scenarios.
	- We conducted extensive experimental comparisons on multiple multi-modal tasks, and the results show that compared to state-of-the-art multi-modal feature fusion methods, CoMO-NAS has significant advantages in terms of search time and the number of model parameters.

2 RELATED WORK

174

2.1 Multi-Modal Fusion

156 157 158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 Multi-modal fusion networks have demonstrated clear advantages over single-modal networks in various applications such as action recognition and sentiment analysis [\[9,](#page-8-9) [17,](#page-8-10) [33,](#page-8-11) [35,](#page-8-12) [43\]](#page-8-13). However, effectively combining multi-modal features to better utilize information remains a significant challenge [\[36\]](#page-8-14). multi-modal fusion techniques are typically divided into two main categories: the first category involves handcrafted fusion based on domain knowledge, such as early fusion, fusion of low-level features, late fusion, and fusion of decision-level features [\[16\]](#page-8-1). Some approaches also involve feature fusion at intermediate layers to facilitate later fusion and improve performance, for example, CentralNet [\[31\]](#page-8-15) and MMTM [\[30\]](#page-8-16), which connect potential representations from each layer and pass them as auxiliary information to deeper layers. However, this approach significantly increases the parameter count of multi-modal fusion models. Additionally, there are recent works proposing dynamic multi-modal fusion, a novel method that adaptively fuses multi-modal data and generates data-relevant forward paths during inference [\[7,](#page-8-0) [19,](#page-8-17) [23,](#page-8-18) [34,](#page-8-19) [46\]](#page-8-20). The second category involves applying

175

neural architecture search to automatically find the optimal fusion architecture [\[15\]](#page-8-5). Compared to the first category, this approach eliminates the laborious traditional handcrafted design and generally achieves better fusion results, albeit at the expense of requiring substantial computational resources and time.

2.2 Multi-Modal Neural Architecture Search

Neural Architecture Search (NAS) [\[18\]](#page-8-3) has been introduced to automate the design of neural models, aiming to discover efficient architectures with competitive performance. This trend has sparked researchers' interest in migrating NAS to the field of multi-modal fusion, leading to the proposal of a series of multi-modal neural architecture search methods to automatically design optimal fusion network architectures. Perez-Rua et al. first explored and validated the feasibility of using NAS methods to address this issue. They proposed a search framework called MFAS [\[25\]](#page-8-21), which automatically selects single-modal features from all candidate features as inputs to the fusion module. However, due to MFAS's adoption of the black-box optimization algorithm SMBO, each update step requires training a set of DNNs, resulting in low efficiency. Additionally, MFAS only utilizes concatenation and fully connected (FC) layers for single-modal feature fusion, where the stack of FC layers poses a significant computational burden. Yin et al [\[39\]](#page-8-7). introduced a two-layer gradient-based search scheme named BM-NAS, allowing simultaneous search of input features and fusion operations for each multi-modal fusion module. However, it forces cells to have different predecessors, leading to a narrowed search space and potentially suboptimal results. EDF [\[15\]](#page-8-5) utilizes evolutionary neural architecture search to find multi-modal fusion architectures for chemical structures, achieving superior results. However, due to the inherent limitations of evolutionary algorithms, the time cost is high. To address the time cost issue brought by evolutionary NAS, DC-NAS [\[14\]](#page-8-4) proposes a divide-and-conquer evolutionary neural architecture method, greatly improving search efficiency.

While the aforementioned methods have achieved significant success in the field of multimodal fusion, they are all driven by the goal of performance optimization. This may lead to a tendency to solely pursue performance during the search process, consequently increasing the complexity of the models. In addition to the high demand for accuracy, practical applications also require NAS-MMC methods to discover network architectures that are computationally efficient, catering to scenarios with low power consumption and memory constraints. To address this issue, we propose a multiobjective multimodal neural architecture search framework guided by core structures. This framework utilizes evolutionary algorithms to compensate for the shortcomings of existing methods.

3 METHODS

3.1 Definition and Motivation

To avoid confusion, we provide precise definitions for certain terms here. A population consists of individuals, where each individual corresponds to a multi-modal classification (MMC) model encoded in the form of a tree, typically represented as a vector in post-order traversal for ease of displaying experimental results in this paper. All representations extracted from different modalities are collectively referred to as features. The space composed of high-quality features CoMO-NAS: Core-Structures-Guided Multi-Objective Neural Architecture Search for Multi-Modal Classification ACM MM, 2024, Melbourne, Australia

Figure 2: The framework of CoMO-NAS

Table 1: Comparison results of the quality of Pareto solutions between traditional multi-objective algorithms and CoMO-NAS on the CB dataset. C denotes the model complexity. The vector [.] represents a fusion architecture, where the numbers with/without negative signs denote fusion operators and modality features, respectively.

and fusion operators is termed as the core structure search space, while the remaining constitutes the non-core structure search space.

Our work involves two key concepts: the Pareto frontier and core structures, which are closely intertwined. The core structures is a submodule that plays a central role in multi-modal fusion architectures. The performance of most fusion architectures stems from those core structures, typically composed of high-performing modality features and fusion operations, as depicted in Figure [1.](#page-0-0) Core structures are usually architectures with good performance and low complexity, thus they often appear on the Pareto frontier and both of them exits close relationship. By leveraging core structures, we can identify partial solutions within the Pareto frontier. However, relying solely on core structures may not be sufficient

when considering both good performance and complexity. Nevertheless, since these high-performing and complex architectures often contain core structures, identifying core structures first can guide the search for high-performing and complex architectures, forming a complete Pareto frontier to meet various scenario demands. Additionally, utilizing core structures to guide the search process can significantly accelerate the search for the optimal Pareto frontier by drastically reducing the evaluation of numerous ineffective architectures, thus saving a considerable amount of time.

To provide a more intuitive understanding of the relationship between the two concepts, we conducted experiments on the CB dataset. First, we employed traditional multi-objective evolutionary algorithms. Next, we utilized core structures to guide the search across the entire PF. The specific algorithm steps are outlined in the following sections. The results are presented in Table [1.](#page-2-0) From the experimental results, we can draw the following conclusions: (1) in terms of the HV [\[4\]](#page-8-22) indicator, CoMO-NAS discovers a better Pareto frontier compared to traditional multi-objective evolutionary algorithms. Here, a higher HV indicator indicates better performance; (2) We observe that the Pareto frontier of CoMO-NAS includes core structures with IDs 4 and 5, and most other solutions are guided by core structures. For example, IDs 1 and 6.

3.2 CoMO-NAS

In this paper, we propose a core structure-guided multi-objective neural architecture search for finding the optimal Pareto front. CoMO-NAS consists of three steps: (1) unimodal feature extraction, (2) multi-objective core structures search (MOCSS) and (3) core structures-guided optimal Pareto frontier search. The main framework of CoMO-NAS is shown in Figure [2.](#page-2-1)

3.2.1 Unimodal Feature Extraction. This study follows previous work on multi-modal fusion, such as MFAS, MMTM, and BM-NAS, using pre-trained single-model neural network models as feature extractors. We extract raw features from the intermediate layers of

these models because neural network architectures typically have a layered or block-like structure, which naturally suits this extraction method. As the feature extractors used for different modalities vary, resulting in significant differences in the dimensions of the raw features—for example, text modalities may yield one-dimensional features, images two-dimensional, and videos three-dimensional—we employ global average pooling to uniformly convert them into feature vectors. This facilitates feature alignment, promotes subsequent feature fusion, and simultaneously reduces computational complexity for ease of processing.

3.2.2 MOCSS: Multi-Objective Core Structures Search. To ensure the efficiency and convenience of vectorized feature fusion within the entire architecture, we employ five basic fusion operators for feature fusion. Here, we define x_i as the vector feature, *n* denotes the number of vector features to be fused, and the superscript indicates the index of the fused vector feature. In this context, the fusion operator set F encompasses the following operations:

(1) Concatenation: The information from vector features is fused as follows:

$$
o(x_i) = [x_i^1, x_i^2, \cdots, x_i^{|n|}], \tag{1}
$$

where $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is the concatenation operator.

Element-wise fusion operators require that the dimensions of input vectors are the same, hence different vector features need to be mapped into the same dimension space by a linear function before fusing. This can be achieved using a fully-connected layer (FC) without any activation function.

(2) Addition: The information from vector features is fused as follows:

$$
o(x_i) = \text{FC}(x_i^1) + \text{FC}(x_i^2) + \dots + \text{FC}(x_i^{|n|}).
$$
 (2)

(3) Multiplication: The information from vector features is fused as follows:

$$
o(x_i) = \text{FC}(x_i^1) \circ \text{FC}(x_i^2) \circ \cdots \circ \text{FC}(x_i^{|n|}), \tag{3}
$$

where ∘ denotes Hadamard product, namely element-wise multiplication.

(4) Max: The information from vector features is fused as follows:

$$
o(x_i) = \max(\text{FC}(x_i^1), \text{FC}(x_i^2) \cdots, \text{FC}(x_i^{|n|})),\tag{4}
$$

where max is element-wise max, also called max-pooling.

(5) Average: The information from vector features is fused as follows:

$$
o(x_i) = \frac{1}{|n|} (FC(x_i^1) + FC(x_i^2) + \dots + FC(x_i^{|n|}),
$$
 (5)

where + denotes element-wise addition, also called average-pooling.

To obtain core structures, we can reduce the entire search space to the core structure search space by evaluating the performance of each feature and fusion operator at relatively low cost. Specifically, given *n* features represented as M_1 , M_2 , ..., M_n , and a single-modal classifier f, we pass each feature M_i to f and select the top k_1 features with higher performance to form a high-quality feature set $M^1.$ Given m fusion operators represented as $F_1, F_2, ..., F_m,$ and a multi-modal classifier ℎ, we obtain the classification performance of each fusion operator F_i by replacing the fusion manner of h with F_i and select the top k_2 fusion operators with higher performance to form a high-quality fusion operator set F^1 . The space composed

407 408 409

of M^1 and F^1 is referred to as the core structure search space. Next, in the core structure search space, we use a multi-objective evolutionary algorithm for searching. After $N1$ iterations of **MOENAS**, we obtain the core structure population and partially obtain the Pareto frontier solutions during the iteration process. Please refer to Section [3.3](#page-3-0) for specific details about the MOENAS.

3.2.3 CSG-OPFS: Core structures-guided optimal Pareto frontier search. The core structure have a close relationship with the final Pareto frontier obtained through multi-objective search. This is because the core structures are characterized by low complexity and high precision. The final Pareto frontier typically includes some core structures, but to obtain a comprehensive optimal Pareto frontier, we need to integrate the remaining features and fusion operators. This is because the remaining features and fusion operators often provide complementary information, enhancing the overall performance of the fusion architecture. In the previous stage, we already obtained the core structures, and some more precise multimodal fusion architectures usually include the core structures as well. Therefore, we can quickly determine a high-quality search subspace by leveraging these core structures, which consists of the neighborhood surrounding the core structure. Here, the neighborhood refers to the continuous addition of substructures composed of the remaining features M^2 and the fusion operator set F^2 to the core structure, forming a multi-modal fusion architecture. To obtain the final Pareto frontier, we utilize the MOENAS algorithm, taking the core structure along with the remaining features M^2 and F^2 as new inputs. Through evolutionary algorithms, we can adaptively evaluate the fusion architectures around each core structure, achieving the goal of searching the neighborhood and ultimately obtaining the complete Pareto frontier.

3.3 Search Strategy

For both stages, we employ the NSGA-II algorithm to search for the core structure and the final Pareto frontier. The overall algorithm is presented in Algorithm [1.](#page-4-0)

(1) Individual Encoding and Decoding: To cover various fusion strategies more flexibly, each individual in the population is encoded as a binary tree, capable of encompassing any fusion strategy. In this representation, leaf nodes represent modality features, while internal nodes represent fusion operators. Due to the inherent nature of binary trees, when there are k features, there must be k-1 fusion operators. For the decoding process, each individual corresponds to a multi-modal classification model. The binary tree can be decoded into a multi-modal classification model through the following steps: 1) Channeling modality features represented by the leaf nodes of the individual encoding tree into fully connected layers (FC) for feature alignment, facilitating feature fusion, and adding batch normalization (BN) layers to enhance model convergence speed and improve generalization; 2) Conducting feature fusion based on the fusion operators represented by the internal nodes; 3) Directing the fused features through FC and Softmax layers for the final prediction output.

(2) Population Initialization: For the CoMO-NAS framework, there are two search stages, each with a different initialization approach. In the first stage, K non-repeating individuals are generated in a random distribution within the core structure search subspace.

CoMO-NAS: Core-Structures-Guided Multi-Objective Neural Architecture Search for Multi-Modal Classification ACM MM, 2024, Melbourne, Australia

18: Return The optimal Pareto front population

Specifically, K unique features are randomly sampled from the feature pool, along with $k - 1$ fusion operators, and randomly combined into binary tree structures. This process is repeated K times to create the initial population P_0 . In the second stage, the K core structures obtained from the first stage are utilized as the initialization population P_{N1} .

(3) Individual Evaluation: In CoMO-NAS, the network architecture and weight parameters corresponding to each individual encoding are first obtained on the training data. Subsequently, the accuracy and complexity of the network are calculated based on the validation data, serving as the two objectives for individual evaluation to facilitate subsequent multi-objective algorithms.

Objective1-Accuracy or Weighted F1 score: The first objective shown in Equations 6 is to maximize accuracy or weighted F1 score. The choice between accuracy and weighted F1 score as the first optimization objective depends on the characteristics of the dataset. When dealing with highly imbalanced data, we use the weighted F1 score for better evaluation, which is consistent with previous methods.

$$
\max f_{Acc}(p) = Accuracy(p), F1-W = F1_{weighted}(p) \tag{6}
$$

Where $Accuracy$ and $F1_{weighted}$ represent the functions computed for the individual p .

lexity: The second objective, as shown in Equate the complexity of each individual. Here, comlength of the architecture, which is the sum of res and fusion operators. Our goal is to achieve higher performance by using fewer features and fusion operators, while also effectively reducing the parameters and redundancy in the architecture. Existing methods often face an issue of maximizing performance by incorporating as many features and fusion operators as possible, leading to redundancy. The final fusion architectures they search for are often extensive, with a portion of them potentially yielding only marginal benefits. MoCo-NAS partially mitigates this problem by reducing the complexity of the model.

$$
\min f_{\text{L}}(p) = \text{Features}(p) + \text{Fusion operators}(p) \tag{7}
$$

(4) Evolutionary Strategy: Using a reproduction method based on crossover and mutation, offspring populations are generated, as outlined in Algorithm 2. Initially, two pairing individuals are selected from the current population P_a through binary tournament selection. Subsequently, reproduction involves duplication, crossover, and mutation operations to yield offspring individuals. The entire algorithm comprises two stages: the first stage involves searching for core structures and partial Pareto frontiers, while the second stage utilizes core structures to explore the neighborhoods around them, aiming to achieve the complete optimal Pareto front. Different crossover and mutation rates are applied for distinct objectives. During the core structure search, following traditional evolutionary algorithm principles, the probability of crossover operation significantly surpasses that of mutation. The objective here is to explore core structures, where mutation generates a substructure from the core structure search space, substituting a specific substructure within the individual. Conversely, for exploring the neighborhoods around core structures to attain the entire Pareto

front, opposite crossover and mutation rates are adopted. Utilizing an extremely low crossover rate and very high mutation rate aims at exploring the neighborhoods around core structures, resulting in a high probability of mutation. Mutation generates a substructure from the non-core structure space and incorporates it into the individual to explore the neighborhoods around core structures. The low crossover rate aims to prevent disruption of the core structures themselves.

4 EXPERIMENTS

4.1 Experimental Settings

In our experiments, all methods are implemented using TensorFlow 2.0.3. Our computational environment consistes of Ubuntu 16.04.4 with 16GB GPU memory, 512GB DDR4 RDIMM, 2X 40-Core Intel Xeon CPU E5-2698 v4 @ 2.20GHz, and NVIDIA Tesla P100. It is worth noting that the GPU configuration used in this paper is the same as the MFAS, EDF, and DC-NAS architectures.

(1) Parameter settings: a) Training of DNNs: All deep neural network models are trained using the Adam algorithm. The learning rate is set to 0.001, with a first-moment exponential decay rate of 0.9 and a second-moment exponential decay rate of 0.999. Each network undergoes training for 100 epochs. To prevent overfitting, if the performance of a multi-modal neural network model does not improve after 10 epochs, the training process will be halted. b) CoMO-NAS: To efficiently utilize GPU resources, the population size is set to a multiple of the number of GPUs. We employed seven NVIDIA Tesla P100 GPUs for the CB dataset, NUS dataset, NTU RGB-D dataset, and EgoGesture dataset , with a population size of 28. The number of iterations is set to 10, with 6 iterations for core structure search and 4 iterations for searching the local region of core structures. During the core structure search phase, the crossover rate is 0.9, and the mutation rate is 0.2. During the search for the local region of core structures, the crossover rate is 0.1, and the mutation rate is 0.8. Considering that the MM-IMDB dataset is relatively simpler compared to the first two tasks, we used four NVIDIA Tesla P100 GPUs with a population size of 20. The rest of the settings are consistent with the above datasets.

(2) Evaluation metrics: We utilize accuracy as the evaluation metric on CB, NUS, NTU RGB-D, and EgoGesture datasets, where higher values indicate better performance. On the MM-IMDB dataset, we employ F1-W as the evaluation metric, also aiming for higher values. Additionally, we use the Hypervolume (HV) to measure the quality of the final Pareto front obtained by the CoMO-NAS algorithm, validating the effectiveness of the core-guided search method compared to traditional approaches. It is important to note that larger HV values correspond to better algorithm performance.

4.2 Multi-Modal Datasets

638

630 631 632 633 634 635 636 637 We validated five popular multi-modal datasets: (1) ChemBook-10k (CB) [\[15\]](#page-8-5) dataset, designed for chemical structure image recognition in patent retrieval studies, which contains 100,000 chemical structure images distributed into 10,000 categories. (2) NUS-WIDE-128 (NUS) [\[29\]](#page-8-23) dataset, which contains 43,800 images divided into 128 categories. We chose a subset of 10 categories totalling 23,438 images from this dataset. (3) MM-IMDB [\[1\]](#page-8-24) dataset for the multi-label film genre classification task, which contains a total of 23 categories.

Table 2: The accuracy on the CB and NUS dataset are reported

Method	CB.	NUS			
Advanced fusion operators					
MBI.	82.38 ± 0.32	70.60 ± 0.29			
MFR	87.94 ± 0.32	71.34 ± 0.40			
TFN	73.45 ± 0.30	63.66 ± 1.22			
LMF	82.81 ± 0.18	71.74 ± 0.70			
PTP	85.08 ± 0.11	71.83 ± 0.50			
Multi-modal methods					
TMC (ICLR21)	77.88 ± 0.20	72.73 ± 0.30			
TMOA (AAAI22)	86.81 ± 0.09	72.60 ± 0.48			
EmbraceNet	85.85 ± 0.09	72.43 ± 0.38			
AWDR	$86.66 + 0.16$	$72.44 + 0.66$			
RAMC.	85.36 ± 0.46	72.51 ± 0.67			
EDF (TEVC2021)	88.33 ± 0.29	74.18 ± 0.70			
DC-NAS (AAAI24)	88.50 ± 0.32	74.20 ± 0.32			
CoMO-NAS	88.69 ± 0.38	74.24 ± 0.29			

The dataset is divided into a training set of 15,552 films, a validation set of 2,608 films, and a test set of 7,799 films. (4) NTU RGB-D [\[26\]](#page-8-25) dataset for multi-modal action recognition task containing 60 categories. The training, validation and test sets include 23,760, 2,519 and 16,558 samples, respectively. (5) EgoGesture [\[45\]](#page-8-26) dataset for multi-modal gesture recognition task containing 83 categories. The training set of this dataset includes 14,416 samples, the validation set includes 4,768 samples, and the test set includes 4,977 samples.

4.3 Comparison Methods

To validate the effectiveness and efficiency of the proposed algorithm, we selected several state-of-the-art algorithms and compared them with CoMO-NAS. These peer competitors can be broadly categorized based on whether the architecture is manually designed. The first category is MMC whose fusion architectures are designed by human experts, including MBL [\[11\]](#page-8-27), MFB [\[40\]](#page-8-28), TFN [\[42\]](#page-8-29), LMF [\[21\]](#page-8-30), PTP [\[8\]](#page-8-31), TMC [\[7\]](#page-8-0), TMOA [\[20\]](#page-8-32), AWDR [\[37\]](#page-8-33), RAMC [\[10\]](#page-8-34), Maxout MLP [\[5\]](#page-8-35) , VGG Transfer [\[28\]](#page-8-36), Two-stream [\[27\]](#page-8-37), GMU [\[1\]](#page-8-24), CentralNet [\[31\]](#page-8-15), Inflated ResNet-50 [\[2\]](#page-8-38), Co-occurrence [\[13\]](#page-8-39), MMTM [\[30\]](#page-8-16), VGG-16 + LSTM [\[38\]](#page-8-40), C3D + LSTM + RSTTM [\[22\]](#page-8-41), I3D [\[3\]](#page-8-42), ResNext-101 [\[12\]](#page-8-43), and MTUT [\[6\]](#page-8-44). The second category is NASbased MMC methods including EDF [\[15\]](#page-8-5), MFAS [\[25\]](#page-8-21), BM-NAS [\[39\]](#page-8-7), 3D-CDC-NAS2 [\[41\]](#page-8-45), and DC-NAS [\[14\]](#page-8-4).

4.4 Performance Comparison

Results on CB and NUS. To reduce the influence of variability stemming from data partitioning and network initialization, we partitioned each dataset uniformly into training and testing subsets. More precisely, instances from every category were randomly distributed, allocating 80% for training and 20% for testing. All methodologies were evaluated under identical data partitioning conditions. The experiments were iterated five times for each approach using consistent configurations, and the average performance, alongside standard deviation, was reported.

According to the aforementioned algorithm, we first select highquality features and fusion operations to form the core structure

Table 3: Multi-label genre classification results on MM-IMDB dataset. Weighted F1 (F1-W) is reported.

Method	Modality	$F1-W(z)$			
	Unimodal methods				
Maxout MLP (ICML13)	Text	57.54			
VGG Transfer (ICLR15)	Image	49.21			
Multi-modal methods					
Two-stream (NIPS14)	Image + Text	60.81			
GMU (ICLR17)	Image + Text	61.70			
CentralNet (ECCV18)	Image + Text	62.23			
MFAS (CVPR19)	Image + Text	62.50			
BM-NAS (AAAI22)	Image + Text	62.92 ± 0.03			
DC-NAS (AAAI24)	Image + Text	63.70 ± 0.11			
CoMO-NAS (ours)	Image + Text	63.84 ± 0.16			

Table 4: Action recognition results on NTU RGB-D dataset

731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747 748 search space. For example, for the CB dataset, we choose features M_1 , M_3 , M_4 , M_7 , M_8 , and fusion operations F_1 , F_2 , F_5 . For the NUS dataset, we select features M_2 , M_4 , M_6 , and fusion operations F_1 , F_2 , F_5 . Subsequently, we search for core structures and utilize local algorithms based on these core structures to explore the entire Pareto frontier. To comprehensively showcase the advancements of MMC-NAS, we followed the experimental settings of EDF. We compared MMC-NAS with some advanced multi-modal fusion operators and existing sophisticated multi-modal fusion methods. From the results in Table [2,](#page-5-0) it's evident that, compared to advanced fusion operators, we achieved a significant lead by employing basic fusion operators along with our search strategy. Among multi-modal methods, except for EDF and DC-NAS [\[14\]](#page-8-4), all others are non-NAS methods. Clearly, the performance of MMC-NAS surpasses manual selection. By utilizing core structures to guide the search across the entire Pareto frontier, even when balancing model complexity and accuracy, we can achieve performance comparable to state-of-the-art single-objective methods like EDF and DC-NAS [\[14\]](#page-8-4).

749 750 751 752 753 Results on MM-IMDB. To ensure fair comparison with other explicitly multimodal fusion approaches, we adopted the same neural network backbone models as BM-NAS and DC-NAS to extract various modality features, using weighted F1 score as the evaluation metric. The specific parameter settings are as follows: population

Table 5: Gesture recognition results on EgoGesture dataset

size N is 20, population iterations T is 10, fusion vector dimension FD is 128, and modality features are reusable simultaneously. As shown in Table [3,](#page-6-0) CoMO-NAS achieves performance comparable to the current state-of-the-art architectures compared to existing multimodal classification methods.

Results on NTU. To ensure the fairness of the experimental results, we followed the data preprocessing pipelines of BM-NAS and DC-NAS. Specifically, we used Inflated ResNet-50 [\[2\]](#page-8-38) and Cooccurrence [\[13\]](#page-8-39) as feature extractors for the skeleton and video modalities. For the CoMO-NAS evolutionary algorithm parameters, due to our approach of searching the Pareto frontier from the perspective of core structures, which narrows down the search space, the required population size and number of iterations are smaller than those of traditional evolutionary algorithms. For instance, while state-of-the-art DC-NAS may require 15 generations of population, we only need 10 generations to discover a Pareto frontier solution that matches the performance of DC-NAS. We set the population size to 28, the number of iterations to 10, the fusion modality dimension to 64, and allowed for the reuse of modality features. In Table [4,](#page-6-1) our method exceeds most baseline methods while achieving comparable performance with the state-of-the-art DC-NAS, ensuring both model complexity and performance objectives.

Results on Ego. We followed the methods of BM-NAS and DC-NAS, using ResNeXt-101 [\[12\]](#page-8-43) as the backbone network for RGB and depth video modalities. CoMO-NAS was compared with various single-modal and multi-modal methods in terms of performance. The experimental settings for CoMO-NAS included a population size of 28, 15 iterations, reusable modality features, and a fusion dimension of 32. The experimental results on the EgoGesture dataset are presented in Table [5.](#page-6-2) Compared to other unimodal/multimodal methods, CoMO-NAS achieved fusion performance comparable to the state-of-the-art method DC-NAS.

754

Table 6: Comparison of complexity, model parameters, time (GPU hours) and classification performance (CP) of generalized multi-modal NAS methods.

Method	Dataset	Complexity Parameters		Time	CP(%)
EDF	NUS	27	0.65M	12.08	74.18
DC-NAS	NUS	17	0.53M	4.61	74.20
CoMO-NAS	NUS	9	0.29M	2.19	74.24
EDF	CB.	31	4.41M	126.84	88.33
DC-NAS	СB	19	3.06M	87.56	88.50
C _o MO-NAS	СB	11	2.66M	38.15	88.69
BM-NAS	MM-IMDB	11	0.65M	1.24	62.94
DC-NAS	MM-IMDB	5	0.42M	1.19	63.70
CoMO-NAS MM-IMDB		5	0.42M	0.68	63.84
MMTM	NTU		8.61M		88.92
MFAS	NTU	12	2.16M	603.64	89.50
BM-NAS	NTU	14	0.98M	53.68	90.48
DC-NAS	NTU	27	0.92M	24.94	90.88
CoMO-NAS	NTU	9	0.42M	8.86	90.94
BM-NAS	Ego	16	0.61M	20.67	94.96
DC-NAS	Ego	15	0.39M	7.30	95.22
CoMO-NAS	Ego	7	0.26M	3.53	95.25

Table 7: Ablation study of CoMO-NAS

4.5 Search Efficiency Comparison

851 852 853 854 855 856 857 858 859 860 861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868 869 This section aims to compare CoMO-NAS with several powerful MMC baseline methods, including MFAS, EDF, BM-NAS, DC-NAS, and MMTM [\[30\]](#page-8-16), focusing on search efficiency, complexity, model size, and performance to demonstrate its advanced capabilities. The research results have been comprehensively summarized in Table [6.](#page-7-0) From the table, it can be observed that on five complex datasets, CoMO-NAS is able to find architectures with comparable performance but lower complexity and smaller model size compared to other methods, while leading in efficiency. For example, on the NUS and CB datasets, our efficiency is nearly four times that of the EDF method and twice that of DC-NAS, while the model complexity is halved. On the NTU RGB-D and EgoGesture datasets, while achieving comparable performance, we gain a significant advantage in model complexity. The time consumption for searching the optimal fusion model is reduced by almost six times compared to the latest method of BM-NAS, and by half compared to DC-NAS. This is attributed to our core structure-guided multi-objective neural architecture search framework, which significantly narrows down the search space, effectively avoids evaluating a large number of poorly performing models, and imposes multi-objective constraints on model complexity, thereby greatly reducing model redundancy and accelerating search speed.

871

Table 8: Ablation study of CoMO-NAS

Strategy	fusion strategy	Complexity $Acc (\%)$	
	$\overline{COMO-NAS}$ $[7, 8, 7, 1, -4, 4, 3, -4, -4, -0]$	11	88.67
	Random1 $ [9,8,7,2,5,4,-2,-2,-2,-2,-0] $	11	87.90
	Random2 $\left[9,4,7,2,8,1,-4,-4,-4,-0,-1 \right]$	11	88.20
	Random3 $\vert [7,1,0,4,-4,-4,9,8,-4,-0,-1] \vert$	11	88.20
	Random4 $\left \left[3, 2, 7, -4, 4, 1, 0, -0, -4, -4, -1 \right] \right $	11	87.39

4.6 Ablation Study

To provide a more in-depth analysis of the proposed CoMO-NAS, we conducted a detailed examination of each component and hyperparameter of CoMO-NAS via the ablation experiments on the CB dataset which is the most complex among the five datasets.

Analysis of the Impact of MOCSS and CSG-OPFS Stages on CoMO-NAS: To further investigate the impact of MOCSS and CSG-OPFS on CoMO-NAS, we conducted a comprehensive analysis of three scenarios of CoMO-NAS. According to the results in Table [7,](#page-7-1) we draw the following conclusions: compared to searching the entire space, utilizing core structures to guide multi-objective neural architecture search can lead to finding architectures with lower complexity but comparable performance in a shorter time. For example, the time was reduced from 62.70 hours to 38.15 hours, shortening the duration by 24.55 hours. From the results of CoMO-NAS₂ compared to CoMO-NAS, when only using the core structure search space without expanding the surrounding local space, the overall performance of the searched architectures declined. This is because low-quality features and fusion operators within the local space can also complement each other, thereby enhancing the overall performance of the architecture.

Analysis of Core Structure Selection Strategies: To investigate the impact of core structure selection on subsequent Pareto frontier exploration, four experiments were conducted. In the first experiment, high-quality features and fusion operations were employed to search for core structures, while the subsequent four experiments involved the random selection of features and fusion operations for core structure exploration. The experimental results presented in the Table [8](#page-7-2) unequivocally demonstrate that employing high-quality features and fusion operations for core structure search leads to significantly superior outcomes compared to randomly selecting features and fusion operations.

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we has proposed a multi-objective neural architecture search method guided by core structures to address the limitations of existing MMC-NAS methods, which had focused solely on achieving high performance while ignoring the varying demands of different applications for classification performance and model size. Furthermore, it has resolved the issue of model redundancy that has arisen from pursuing high performance in existing MMC-NAS methods. By establishing the relationship between core structures and the Pareto frontier and utilizing core structures to guide the search across the entire Pareto frontier, the method has avoided evaluating numerous ineffective architectures, thereby significantly improving search efficiency. Extensive experiments has validated the advantages of CoMO-NAS.

926 927 928

870

CoMO-NAS: Core-Structures-Guided Multi-Objective Neural Architecture Search for Multi-Modal Classification ACM MM, 2024, Melbourne, Australia

929 REFERENCES

- [1] John Arevalo, Thamar Solorio, Manuel Montes-y Gómez, and FabioA. González. 2017. Gated Multimodal Units for Information Fusion. Cornell University - arXiv (2017).
- [2] Fabien Baradel, Christian Wolf, Julien Mille, and Graham W. Taylor. 2018. Glimpse Clouds: Human Activity Recognition from Unstructured Feature Points. In Proceedings of the 2018 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 469–478.
- [3] João Carreira and Andrew Zisserman. 2017. Quo Vadis, Action Recognition? A New Model and the Kinetics Dataset. In 2017 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 4724–4733.
- [4] Michael Emmerich, Nicola Beume, and Boris Naujoks. 2005. An EMO Algorithm Using the Hypervolume Measure as Selection Criterion. 62–76.
- [5] Ian J. Goodfellow, David Warde-Farley, Mehdi Mirza, Aaron Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. 2013. Maxout Networks. In Proceedings of the 30th International Conference on International Conference on Machine Learning, Vol. 28. 1319–1327.
- [6] Vikram Gupta, Sai Kumar Dwivedi, Rishabh Dabral, and Arjun Jain. 2019. Progression Modelling for Online and Early Gesture Detection. In 2019 International Conference on 3D Vision. 289–297.
- [7] Zongbo Han, Changqing Zhang, Huazhu Fu, and Joey Tianyi Zhou. 2023. Trusted Multi-View Classification With Dynamic Evidential Fusion. IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence 45, 2 (2023), 2551–2566.
- [8] Ming Hou, Jiajia Tang, Jianhai Zhang, Wanzeng Kong, and Qibin Zhao. 2019. Deep Multimodal Multilinear Fusion with High-Order Polynomial Pooling.
- [9] Bingbing Jiang, Xingyu Wu, Xiren Zhou, Yi Liu, Anthony G. Cohn, Weiguo Sheng, and Huanhuan Chen. 2024. Semi-Supervised Multiview Feature Selection With Adaptive Graph Learning. IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems 35, 3 (2024), 3615–3629.
- [10] Bingbing Jiang, Junhao Xiang, Xingyu Wu, Yadi Wang, Huanhuan Chen, Weiwei Cao, and Weiguo Sheng. 2022. Robust multi-view learning via adaptive regression. Information Sciences 610 (2022), 916–937.
- [11] Jin-Hwa Kim, KyoungWoon On, Woosang Lim, Jeong-Hee Kim, Jung-Woo Ha, and Byoung-Tak Zhang. 2017. Hadamard Product for Low-rank Bilinear Pooling. International Conference on Learning Representations (2017), 1–10.
- [12] Okan Köpüklü, Ahmet Gunduz, Neslihan Kose, and Gerhard Rigoll. 2019. Real-Time Hand Gesture Detection and Classification Using Convolutional Neural Networks. In Proceedings of the 14th IEEE International Conference on Automatic Face & Gesture Recognition. 1–8.
- [13] Chao Li, Qiaoyong Zhong, Di Xie, and Shiliang Pu. 2018. Co-Occurrence Feature Learning from Skeleton Data for Action Recognition and Detection with Hierarchical Aggregation. In Proceedings of the 27th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence. 786–792.
- [14] Xinyan Liang, Pinhan Fu, Qian Guo, Keyin Zheng, and Yuhua Qian. 2024. DC-NAS: Divide-and-Conquer Neural Architecture Search for Multi-Modal Classification. Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence 38, 12 (Mar. 2024), 13754–13762.
- [15] Xinyan Liang, Qian Guo, Yuhua Qian, Weiping Ding, and Qingfu Zhang. 2021. Evolutionary Deep Fusion Method and Its Application in Chemical Structure Recognition. IEEE Transactions on Evolutionary Computation 25, 5 (2021), 883– 893.
- [16] Xinyan Liang, Yuhua Qian, Qian Guo, Honghong Cheng, and Jiye Liang. 2022. AF: An Association-Based Fusion Method for Multi-Modal Classification. IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence 44, 12 (2022), 9236–9254.
- [17] Xinyan Liang, Yuhua Qian, Qian Guo, and Qin Huang. 2022. Multi-granulation fusion-driven method for many-view classification. Journal of Computer Research and Development 59, 8 (2022), 1653–1667.
- [18] Hanxiao Liu, Karen Simonyan, and Yiming Yang. 2019. DARTS: Differentiable Architecture Search. In Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations. 1–11.
- [19] Wei Liu, Yufei Chen, Xiaodong Yue, Changqing Zhang, and Shaorong Xie. 2023. Safe Multi-View Deep Classification. In Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, Vol. 37. 8870–8878.
- [20] Wei Liu, Xiaodong Yue, Yufei Chen, and Thierry Denoeux. 2022. Trusted Multi-View Deep Learning with Opinion Aggregation. Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence 36, 7 (Jun. 2022), 7585–7593.
- [21] Zhun Liu, Ying Shen, Varun Bharadhwaj Lakshminarasimhan, Paul Pu Liang, AmirAli Bagher Zadeh, and Louis-Philippe Morency. 2018. Efficient Low-rank Multimodal Fusion With Modality-Specific Factors. In Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics. 2247–2256.
- [22] Pavlo Molchanov, Xiaodong Yang, Shalini Gupta, Kihwan Kim, Stephen Tyree, and Jan Kautz. 2016. Online Detection and Classification of Dynamic Hand Gestures with Recurrent 3D Convolutional Neural Networks. In 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 4207–4215.
- [23] Tongjie Pan, Yalan Ye, Hecheng Cai, Shudong Huang, Yang Yang, and Guoqing Wang. 2023. Multimodal Physiological Signals Fusion for Online Emotion Recognition. In Proceedings of the 31st ACM International Conference on Multimedia (MM '23). Association for Computing Machinery, 5879–5888.
- [24] Xiaokang Peng, Yake Wei, Andong Deng, Dong Wang, and Di Hu. 2022. Balanced Multimodal Learning via On-the-fly Gradient Modulation. In 2022 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 8228–8237.
- [25] JuanManuel Perez Rua, Valentin Vielzeuf, Stephane Pateux, Moez Baccouche, and Frederic Jurie. 2019. MFAS: Multimodal Fusion Architecture Search. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 6959–6968.
- [26] Amir Shahroudy, Jun Liu, Tian-Tsong Ng, and Gang Wang. 2016. NTU RGB+D: A Large Scale Dataset for 3D Human Activity Analysis. In Proceedings of the 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 1010–1019.
- [27] Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. 2014. Two-Stream Convolutional Networks for Action Recognition in Videos. In Proceedings of the 27th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems, Vol. 1. 568–576.
- [28] Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. 2015. Very Deep Convolutional Networks for Large-Scale Image Recognition. In Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Learning Representations. 1–14.
- [29] Jinhui Tang, Xiangbo Shu, Guojun Qi, Zechao Li, Meng Wang, Shuicheng Yan, and Ramesh Jain. 2017. Tri-Clustered Tensor Completion for Social-Aware Image Tag Refinement. IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence 39, 8 (2017), 1662–1674.
- [30] Hamid Reza Vaezi Joze, Amirreza Shaban, Michael L. Iuzzolino, and Kazuhito Koishida. 2020. MMTM: Multimodal Transfer Module for CNN Fusion. In Proceedings of the 2020 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 13286–13296.
- [31] Valentin Vielzeuf, Alexis Lechervy, Stéphane Pateux, and Frédéric Jurie. 2019. CentralNet: A Multilayer Approach for Multimodal Fusion. In European Conference on Computer Vision Workshops. 575–589.
- [32] Jie Wen, Gehui Xu, Chengliang Liu, Lunke Fei, Chao Huang, Wei Wang, and Yong Xu. 2023. Localized and Balanced Efficient Incomplete Multi-view Clustering. In Proceedings of the 31st ACM International Conference on Multimedia. 2927–2935.
- [33] Jie Wen, Zheng Zhang, Lunke Fei, Bob Zhang, Yong Xu, Zhao Zhang, and Jinxing Li. 2023. A Survey on Incomplete Multiview Clustering. IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics: Systems 53, 2 (2023), 1136–1149.
- [34] Cai Xu, Jiajun Si, Ziyu Guan, Wei Zhao, Yue Wu, and Xiyue Gao. 2024. Reliable Conflictive Multi-View Learning. Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence 38, 14 (Mar. 2024), 16129–16137.
- [35] Jie Xu, Chao Li, Liang Peng, Yazhou Ren, Xiaoshuang Shi, Heng Tao Shen, and Xiaofeng Zhu. 2023. Adaptive Feature Projection With Distribution Alignment for Deep Incomplete Multi-View Clustering. IEEE Transactions on Image Processing 32 (2023), 1354–1366.
- [36] Zihui Xue and Radu Marculescu. 2023. Dynamic Multimodal Fusion. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshops. 2575–2584.
- [37] Muli Yang, Cheng Deng, and Feiping Nie. 2019. Adaptive-weighting discriminative regression for multi-view classification. Pattern Recognition 88 (2019), 236–245.
- [38] Xiaodong Yang and YingLi Tian. 2014. Super Normal Vector for Activity Recognition Using Depth Sequences. In 2014 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 804–811.
- [39] Yihang Yin, Siyu Huang, Xiang Zhang, and Dejing Dou. 2022. BM-NAS: Bilevel Multimodal Neural Architecture Search. In Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence. 8901–8909.
- [40] Zhou Yu, Jun Yu, Chenchao Xiang, Jianping Fan, and Dacheng Tao. 2018. Beyond Bilinear: Generalized Multimodal Factorized High-Order Pooling for Visual Question Answering. IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems 29, 12 (2018), 5947–5959.
- [41] Zitong Yu, Benjia Zhou, Jun Wan, Pichao Wang, Haoyu Chen, Xin Liu, Stan Z. Li, and Guoying Zhao. 2021. Searching Multi-Rate and Multi-Modal Temporal Enhanced Networks for Gesture Recognition. IEEE Transactions on Image Processing 30 (2021), 5626–5640.
- [42] Amir Zadeh, Minghai Chen, Soujanya Poria, Erik Cambria, and Louis-Philippe Morency. 2017. Tensor Fusion Network for Multimodal Sentiment Analysis. In Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing. 1103–1114.
- [43] Chaoyang Zhang, Zhengzheng Lou, Qinglei Zhou, and Shizhe Hu. 2023. Multi-View Clustering via Triplex Information Maximization. IEEE Transactions on Image Processing 32 (2023), 4299–4313.
- [44] Haoyu Zhang, Yaochu Jin, and Kuangrong Hao. 2022. Evolutionary Search for Complete Neural Network Architectures With Partial Weight Sharing. IEEE Transactions on Evolutionary Computation 26, 5 (2022), 1072–1086.
- [45] Yifan Zhang, Congqi Cao, Jian Cheng, and Hanqing Lu. 2018. EgoGesture: A New Dataset and Benchmark for Egocentric Hand Gesture Recognition. IEEE Transactions on Multimedia (2018), 1038–1050.
- [46] Zixiang Zhao, Haowen Bai, Jiangshe Zhang, Yulun Zhang, Shuang Xu, Zudi Lin, Radu Timofte, and Luc Van Gool. 2023. CDDFuse: Correlation-Driven Dual-Branch Feature Decomposition for Multi-Modality Image Fusion. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition. 5906–5916.