OTOv3: Towards Automatic Sub-Network Search Within General Super Deep Neural Networks

Anonymous Author(s) Affiliation Address email

Abstract

Existing neural architecture search (NAS) methods typically rely on pre-specified 1 super deep neural networks (super-networks) with handcrafted search spaces be-2 forehand. Such requirements make it challenging to extend them onto general 3 scenarios without significant human expertise and manual intervention. To over-4 come the limitations, we propose the third generation of Only-Train-Once (OTOv3). 5 OTOv3 is perhaps the first automated system that trains general super-networks and 6 produces high-performing sub-networks in the one shot manner without pretraining 7 and fine-tuning. Technologically, OTOv3 delivers three noticeable contributions 8 to minimize human efforts: (i) automatic search space construction for general 9 super-networks; (ii) a Hierarchical Half-Space Projected Gradient (H2SPG) that 10 leverages the dependency graph to ensure the network validity during optimization 11 and reliably produces a solution with both high performance and hierarchical group 12 sparsity; and *(iii)* automatic sub-network construction based on the super-network 13 and the H2SPG solution. Numerically, we demonstrate the effectiveness of OTOv3 14 on a variety of super-networks, including StackedUnets, SuperResNet, and DARTS, 15 over benchmark datasets such as CIFAR10, Fashion-MNIST, ImageNet, STL-10, 16 and SVNH. The sub-networks computed by OTOv3 achieve competitive even 17 superior performance compared to the super-networks and other state-of-the-arts. 18

19 **1** Introduction

Deep neural networks (DNNs) have achieved remarkable success in various fields, which success is highly dependent on their sophisticated underlying architectures (LeCun et al., 2015; Goodfellow et al., 2016). To design effective DNN architectures, human expertise have handcrafted numerous popular DNNs such as ResNet (He et al., 2016) and transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017). However, such human efforts may not be scalable enough to meet the increasing demands for customizing DNNs for diverse tasks. To address this issue, Neural Architecture Search (NAS) has emerged to automate the network creations and reduce the need for human expertise (Elsken et al., 2018).

Among current NAS studies, gradient-based methods (Liu et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2021b) are perhaps the most popular because of their efficiency. Such methods
build an over-parameterized super-network covering all candidate connections and operations, parameterize operations via introducing auxiliary architecture variables with weight sharing, then search a
(sub)optimal sub-network via formulating and solving a multi-level optimization problem.

Despite the advancements in gradient-based methods, their usage is still limited due to certain inconvenience. In particular, their automation relies on manually determining the search space for a pre-specified super-network beforehand, and requires the manual introduction of auxiliary architecture

variables onto the prescribed search space. To extend these methods onto other super-networks, the

³⁶ users still need to manually construct the search pool, then incorporate the auxiliary architecture

Submitted to 37th Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2023). Do not distribute.

variables along with building the whole complicated multi-level optimization training pipeline. The

³⁸ whole process necessitates significant domain-knowledge and engineering efforts, thereby being

³⁹ inconvenient and time-consuming for users. Therefore, it is natural to ask whether we could reach an

40 **Objective.** Given a general super-network, automatically generate its search space, train it once, and 41 construct a sub-network that achieves a dramatically compact architecture and high performance.

- 42 Achieving the objective is severely challenging in terms
- 43 of both engineering developments and algorithmic de-
- 44 signs, consequently not achieved yet by the existing
- 45 NAS works to the best of our knowledge. However, the
- ⁴⁶ objective has been recently achieved in an analogous
- 47 task so-called structured pruning (Lin et al., 2019) by

	OTOv3	OTOv2	Other NAS	
General DNNs	 Image: A set of the set of the	 Image: A set of the set of the	X	
Autonomy	 Image: A second s	 Image: A set of the set of the	×	
Remove Connections	 Image: A set of the set of the	X	✓	
Remove Operations	 Image: A set of the set of the	X	✓	
Slim Operations	à	 Image: A second s	×	
[†] Support while is not the focus and discussed in this work.				

- OTOv3 Librarv Usage

oto = OTO(super net, cut edges=True)

oto.construct_subnet(cut_edges=True)

from only_train_once import OTO

General Super-Network

optimizer = oto.h2spg()

Train as normal

optimizer.step()

the second generation of Only-Train-Once framework (OTOv2) (Chen et al., 2021a, 2023). From the perspective of computational graph, the standard NAS could be considered as removing entire redundant connections (cutting edges) and operations (vertices) from super-networks. Structured pruning can be largely interpreted as a complementary NAS that removes the redundancy inside each vertex (slims operations) but preserves all the connections. OTOv2 first achieves the objective in the view of structured pruning that given a general DNN, automatically trains it only once to achieve

⁵⁴ both high performance and a slimmer model architecture without pre-training and fine-tuning.

⁵⁵ We now build the third-generation of Only-Train-Once

⁵⁶ (OTOv3) that reaches the objective from the perspective

 $_{2}$ of the standard NAS. OTOv3 automatically generates a $_{3}$

- ⁵⁸ search space given a general super-network, trains and ⁴
- ⁵⁹ identifies redundant connections and vertices, then builds $\frac{5}{6}$
- $_{60}$ a sub-network that achieves both high performance and $_{7}$
- ⁶¹ compactness. As the library usage presented aside, the
- whole procedure can be automatically proceeded, dramatically reduce the human efforts, and fit for
- ⁶³ general super-networks and applications. Our main contributions can be summarized as follows.

• Infrastructure for Automated General Super-Network Training and Sub-Network Searching. We propose OTOv3 that perhaps the first automatically trains and searches within a general supernetwork to deliver a compact sub-network by erasing redundant connections and operations in the one-shot manner. As the previous OTO versions, OTOv3 trains the super-network only once without the need of pre-training and fine-tuning and is pluggable into various deep learning applications.

• Automated Search Space Generation. We propose a novel graph algorithm to automatically explore and establish a dependency graph given a general super-network, then analyze the dependency to form a search space consisting of minimal removal structures. The corresponding trainable variables are then partitioned into so-called generalized zero-invariant groups (GeZIGs).

• **Hierarchical Half-Space Projected Gradient (H2SPG).** We propose a novel H2SPG optimizer that perhaps the first solves a hierarchical structured sparsity problem for general DNNs. H2SPG computes a solution x_{H2SPG}^* of both high performance and desired hierarchical group sparsity in the manner of GeZIGs. Compared to other optimizers, H2SPG considers the hierarchy of dependency graph to produce sparsity for ensuring the validness of the subsequent sub-network.

• Automated Sub-Network Construction. We propose a novel graph algorithm to automatically construct a sub-network upon the super-network parameterized as x_{H2SPG}^* . The resulting subnetwork returns the exact same outputs as the super-network thereby no need of further fine-tuning.

Experimental Results. We demonstrate the effectiveness of OTOv3 on extensive super-networks
 including StackedUnets, SuperResNet and DARTS, over benchmark datasets including CIFAR10,
 Fashion-MNIST, ImageNet, STL-10, and SVNH. OTOv3 is the first framework that could auto matically deliver compact sub-networks upon general super-networks to the best of our knowledge.
 Meanwhile the sub-networks exhibit competitive even superior performance to the super-networks.

86 2 Related Work

Neural Architecture Search (NAS). Early NAS works utilized reinforcement learning and evolution techniques to search for high-quality architectures (Zoph & Le, 2016; Pham et al., 2018; Zoph et al., 2018), while they were computationally expensive. Later on, differentiable (gradient-based)

methods were introduced to accelerate the search process. These methods start with a super-network 90 covering all possible connection and operation candidates, and parameterize them with auxiliary 91 architecture variables. They establish a multi-level optimization problem that alternatingly updates 92 the architecture and network variables until convergence (Liu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Xu et al., 93 2019; Yang et al., 2020; Hosseini & Xie, 2022). However, these methods require a significant amount 94 of **handcraftness** from users in advance to **manually** establish the search space, introduce additional 95 architecture variables, and build the multi-level training pipeline. The sub-network construction is 96 also network-specific and not flexible. All requirements necessitate remarkable domain-knowledge 97 and expertise, making it difficult to extend to general super-networks and broader scenarios. 98 Automated Structured Pruning for General DNNs. Structure pruning is an orthogonal but related 99 paradigm to standard NAS. Rather than removing entire operations and connections, it focuses on 100

slimming individual vertices (Han et al., 2015). Similarly, prior structure pruning methods also
 required numerous handcraftness and domain knowledge, which limited their broader applicability.
 However, recent methods such as OTOv2 (Chen et al., 2023) and DepGraph (Fang et al., 2023) have
 made progress in automating the structure pruning process for general DNNs. OTOv2 is a one-shot
 method that does not require pre-training or fine-tuning, while DepGraph involves a multi-stage
 training pipeline that requires some manual intervention. In this work, we propose the third-generation
 version of OTO that enables automatic sub-network searching and training for general super-networks.

108 Hierarchical Structured Sparsity Optimization. We formulate the underlying optimization 109 problem of OTOv3 as a hierarchical structured sparsity problem. Its solution possesses high group 110 sparsity indicating redundant structures and obeys specified hierarchy. There exist deterministic 111 optimizers solving such problems via introducing latent variables (Zhao et al., 2009), while are 112 impractical for stochastic DNN tasks. Meanwhile, stochastic optimizers rarely study such problem. 113 In fact, popular stochastic sparse optimizers such as HSPG (Chen et al., 2021a), DHSPG (Chen et al., 114 2023), proximal methods (Xiao & Zhang, 2014) and ADMM (Lin et al., 2019) overlook the hierarchy 115 constraint. Incorporating them into OTOv3 typically delivers invalid sub-networks. Therefore, we 116 propose H2SPG that considers graph dependency to solve it for general DNNs. 117

118 **3 OTOV3**

OTOv3 is an automated one-shot system that trains a general super-network and constructs a sub-119 network. The produced sub-network is not only high-performing but also has a dramatically compact 120 architecture that is suitable for various shipping environments. The entire process minimizes the need 121 for human efforts and is suitable for general DNNs. As outlined in Algorithm 1, given a general super-122 network \mathcal{M} , OTOv3 first explores and establishes a dependency graph. Upon the dependency graph, 123 a search space is automatically constructed and corresponding trainable variables are partitioned 124 into generalized zero-invariant groups (GeZIGs) (Section 3.1). A hierarchical structured sparsity 125 optimization problem is then formulated and solved by a novel Hierarchical Half-Space Projected 126 Gradient (H2SPG) (Section 3.2). H2SPG considers the hierarchy inside the dependency graph and 127 computes a solution x_{H2SPG}^* of both high-performance and desired hierarchical group sparsity over 128 GeZIGs. A compact sub-network \mathcal{M}^* is finally constructed via removing the structures corresponding 129 to the identified redundant GeZIGs and their dependent structures (Section 3.3). \mathcal{M}^* returns the exact 130 same output as the super-network parameterized as x_{H2SPG}^* , eliminating the need of fine-tuning. 131

Algorithm 1 Outline of OTOv3.

- 1: Input: A general DNN \mathcal{M} as super-network to be trained and searched (no need to be pretrained).
- 2: Automated Search Space Construction. Establish dependency graph and partition the trainable C
- parameters of \mathcal{M} into generalized zero-invariant groups \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG} and the complementary \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG}^C .
- 3: Train by H2SPG. Seek a high-performing solution x_{H2SPG}^* with hierarchical group sparsity.
- 4: Automated Sub-Network \mathcal{M}^* Construction. Construct a sub-network upon x^*_{H2SPG} .
- 5: **Output:** Constructed sub-network \mathcal{M}^* (no need to be fine-tuned).

132 3.1 Automated Search Space Construction

The foremost step is to automatically construct the search space for a general super-network. However, this process presents significant challenges in terms of both engineering developments and algorithmic designs due to the complexity of DNN architecture and the lack of sufficient public APIs. To overcome



Figure 1: Automated Search Space Construction. $\hat{\mathcal{K}}_i$ and b_i are the flatten filter matrix and bias vector for Conv-i, respectively. γ_i and β_i are the weight and bias vectors for BN-i. \mathcal{W}_i is the weight matrix for Linear-i. The columns of $\hat{\mathcal{K}}_6$ are marked in accordance to its incoming segments.

these challenges, we propose a concept called generalized zero-invariant group (GeZIG) and formulate

the search space construction as the GeZIG partition. We have also developed a dedicated graph

algorithm to automatically conduct the GeZIG partition for general super-networks.

Generalized Zero-Invariant Group (GeZIG). The key of search space construction is to figure 139 out the structures that can be removed from the super-network. Because of diverse roles of operations 140 and their complicated connections inside a DNN, removing an arbitrary structure may cause the 141 142 remaining DNN invalid. We say a structure removal if and only if the DNN after removing it is still valid. A removal structure is further said *minimal* if and only if it does not contain multiple removal 143 structures. Zero-Invariant Group (ZIG) is proposed in (Chen et al., 2021a, 2023) that describes a 144 class of minimal removal structures satisfying a zero-invariant property, i.e., if all variables in ZIG 145 equal to zero, then no matter what the input is, the output is always as zero. ZIG depicts the minimal 146 removal structure inside each operation and is the key for realizing automatic one-shot structured 147 pruning. We generalize ZIG as GeZIG that describes a class of minimal removal structures satisfying 148 the zero-invariant property but consists of entire operations. More illustrations regarding ZIG versus 149 GeZIG are present in Appendix. For simplicity, throughout the paper, the minimal removal structure 150 is referred to the counterpart consisting of operations in entirety. Consequently, automated search 151 space construction becomes how to automatically explore the GeZIG partition for general DNNs. 152

Automated GeZIG Partition. As specified in Algorithm 2, automated GeZIG partition involves two main stages. The first stage explores the super-network \mathcal{M} and establishes a dependency graph $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$. The second stage leverages the affiliations inside the dependency graph to find out minimal removal structures, then partitions their trainable variables to form GeZIGs. For intuitive illustrations, we elaborate the algorithm through a small but complex demo super-network depicted in Figure 1a.

Dependency Graph Construction. Given a super-network \mathcal{M} , we first construct its trace graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ 158 displayed as Figure 1a (line 3 in Algorithm 2), where \mathcal{V} represents the set of vertices (operations) and 159 \mathcal{E} represents the connections among them. As OTOv2 (Chen et al., 2023), we categorize the vertices 160 into stem vertices, joint vertices, accessory vertices, and unknown vertices. Stem vertices refer to the 161 operations that contain trainable variables and can transform the input tensors into different shapes, 162 e.g., Conv and Linear. The accessory vertices are the operations that may not have trainable 163 variables and have an single input, e.g., BN and ReLU. Joint vertices aggregate multiple inputs into a 164 single output, e.g., Add and Concat. The remaining vertices are considered as unknown. 165

Algorithm 2 Automated Search Space Construction.

- 1: Input: A super-network \mathcal{M} to be trained and searched.
- 2: Dependency graph construction.
- 3: Construct the trace graph $(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{V})$ of \mathcal{M} .
- 4: Initialize an empty graph $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$.
- 5: Initialize queue $\mathcal{Q} \leftarrow \{\mathcal{S}(v) : v \in \mathcal{V} \text{ is adjacent to the input of trace graph}\}$.
- 6: while $Q \neq \emptyset$ do
- Dequeue the head segment S from Q. 7:
- Grow S in the depth-first manner till meet either joint vertex or multi-outgoing vertex \hat{v} . 8:
- Add segments into \mathcal{V}_d and connections into \mathcal{E}_d . 9:
- 10: Enqueue new segments into the tail of Q if \hat{v} has outgoing vertices.
- 11: Find minimal removal structures.
- 12: Get the incoming vertices \mathcal{V} for joint vertices in the $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$.
- 13: Group the trainable variables in the vertex $v \in \widehat{\mathcal{V}}$ as g_v .
- 14: Form $\mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}}$ as the union of the above groups, *i.e.*, $\mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}} \leftarrow \{g_v : v \in \widehat{\mathcal{V}}\}$. 15: Form $\mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}}^C$ as the union of the trainable variables in the remaining vertices.
- 16: **Return** trainable variable partition $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}} \cup \mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}}^C$ and dynamic dependency graph $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$.

We begin by analyzing the trace graph $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ to create a dependency graph $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$, wherein each 166 vertex in \mathcal{V}_d serves as a potential minimal removal structure candidate. To proceed, we use a queue 167 container Q to track the candidates (line 5 of Algorithm 2). The initial elements of this queue are 168 the vertices that are directly adjacent to the input of \mathcal{M} , such as Conv1. We then traverse the graph 169 in the breadth-first manner, iteratively growing each element (segment) S in the queue until a valid 170 minimal removal structure candidate is formed. The growth of each candidate follows the depth-first 171 search to recursively expand S until the current vertices are considered as endpoints. The endpoint 172 173 vertex is determined by whether it is a joint vertex or has multiple outgoing vertices, as indicated in line 8 of Algorithm 2. Intuitively, a joint vertex has multiple inputs, which means that the DNN 174 may be still valid after removing the current segment. This suggests that the current segment may 175 be removable. On the other hand, a vertex with multiple outgoing neighbors implies that removing 176 the current segment may cause some of its children to miss the input tensor. For instance, removing 177 Conv1-BN1 would cause Conv2, MaxPool and AvgPool to become invalid due to the absence 178 of input in Figure 1a. Therefore, it is risky to remove such candidates. Once the segment S has been 179 grown, new candidates are initialized as the outgoing vertices of the endpoint and added into the 180 container \mathcal{Q} (line 10 in Algorithm 2). Such procedure is repeated until the end of graph traversal. 181 Ultimately, a dependency graph $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$ is created, as illustrated in Figure 1b. 182

Form GeZIGs. We proceed to identify the minimal removal structures in $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$ to create the GeZIG 183 partition. The qualified instances are the vertices in \mathcal{V}_d that have trainable variables and all of their 184 outgoing vertices are joint vertices. This is because a joint vertex has multiple inputs and remains 185 valid even after removing some of its incoming structures, as indicated in line 12 in Algorithm 2. 186 Consequently, their trainable variables are grouped together into GeZIGs (line 13-14 in Algorithm 2 187 and Figure 1c). The remaining vertices are considered as either unremovable or belonging to a 188 large removal structure, which trainable variables are grouped into the \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG}^C (the complementary 189 to \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG}). As a result, for the super-network \mathcal{M} , all its trainable variables are encompassed by the 190 union $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG} \cup \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG}^C$, and the corresponding structures in \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG} constitute its search space. 191

3.2 Hierarchical Half-Space Projected Gradient (H2SPG) 192

Given a super-network \mathcal{M} and its group partition $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG} \cup \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG}^C$, the next is to jointly search for a valid sub-network \mathcal{M}^* that exhibits the most significant performance and train it to high 193 194 195 performance. Searching a sub-network is equivalent to identifying the redundant structures in \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG} to be further removed and ensures the remaining network still valid. Training the sub-network 196 becomes optimizing over the remaining groups in \mathcal{G} to achieve high performance. We formulate a 197 hierarchical structured sparsity problem to accomplish both tasks simultaneously as follows. 198

minimize
$$f(\boldsymbol{x})$$
, s.t. Cardinality $(\mathcal{G}^0) = K$, and $(\mathcal{V}_d/\mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{G}^0}, \mathcal{E}_d/\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{G}^0})$ is valid, (1)

where f is the prescribed loss function, $\mathcal{G}^{=0} := \{g \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}} | [\boldsymbol{x}]_g = 0\}$ is the set of zero groups in $\mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}}$, which cardinality measures its size. K is the target group sparsity, indicating the number of 199 200



Figure 2: Check validness of redundant candidates. Target group sparsity K = 3. Conv7-BN7 has larger redundancy score than Conv2-BN2. Dotted vertices are marked as redundant candidates.

GeZIGs that should be identified as redundant. The redundant GeZIGs are projected onto zero, while the important groups are preserved as non-zero and optimized for high performance. A larger *K* dictates a higher sparsity level that produces a more compact sub-network with fewer FLOPs and parameters. $(\mathcal{V}_d/\mathcal{V}_{\mathcal{G}^0}, \mathcal{E}_d/\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{G}^0})$ refers to the graph removing vertices and edges corresponding to zero groups \mathcal{G}^0 . This graph being valid is specified for NAS that requires the zero groups distributed obeying the hierarchy of super-network to ensure the resulting sub-network functions correctly.

Problem (1) is difficult to solve due to the non-differential and non-convex sparsity constraint and the graph validity constraint. Existing optimizers such as DHSPG (Chen et al., 2023) overlook the architecture evolution and hierarchy during the sparsity exploration, which is crucial to (1). In fact, they are mainly applied for pruning tasks, where the connections and operations are preserved (but become slimmer). Consequently, employing them onto (1) usually produces invalid sub-networks.

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

desired hierarchical group sparsity

Outline of H2SPG. To effectively Algorithm 3 Hierarchical Half-Space Projected Gradient solve problem (1), we propose a novel 1: **Input:** initial variable $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, initial learning rate α_0 , H2SPG to consider the hierarchy and warm-up steps T_w , target group sparsity K, momentum ensure the validness of graph architec- ω , dependency graph $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$ and group partitions \mathcal{G} . ture after removing redundant vertices 2: Warm-up Phase. and connections during the optimiza-3: for $t = 0, 1, \dots, T_w - 1$ do tion process. To the best of our knowl-Calculate gradient estimate $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_t)$ or its variant. 4: edge, H2SPG is the first the optimizer 5: Update next iterate $x_{t+1} \leftarrow x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t)$. that successfully solves such hierar-Calculate redundancy score $s_{t,g}$ for $g \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}}$. 6: chical structured sparsity problem (1), Update $s_g \leftarrow \omega s_g + (1 - \omega) s_{t,g}$ for $g \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{GeZIG}}$. 7: which outline is stated in Algorithm 3. 8: Construct \mathcal{G}_r and \mathcal{G}_r^C given scores, \mathcal{G} , $(\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d)$, and K. H2SPG is built upon the DHSPG in 9: Hybrid Training Phase. OTOv2 but with dedicated designs 10: for $t = T_w, T_w + 1, \cdots, do$ regarding the hierarchical constraint. Compute gradient estimate $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_t)$ or its variant. 11: In general, H2SPG is a hybrid multi-Update $[\mathbf{x}_{t+1}]_{\mathcal{G}_r^C}$ as $[\mathbf{x}_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)]_{\mathcal{G}_r^C}$. Select proper λ_g for each $g \in \mathcal{G}_r$. 12: phase optimizer that first partitions 13: the groups of variables into impor-Compute $[\tilde{x}_{t+1}]_{\mathcal{G}_r}$ via subgradient descent of ψ . Perform Half-Space projection over $[\tilde{x}_{t+1}]_{\mathcal{G}_r}$. Update $[x_{t+1}]_{\mathcal{G}_r} \leftarrow [\tilde{x}_{t+1}]_{\mathcal{G}_r}$. 14: tant and potentially redundant seg-15: ments, then employs specified updat-16: ing mechanisms onto different seg-17: **Return** the final iterate $x_{\text{DHSPG+}}^*$. ments to achieve a solution with both

and high performance. The variable partition considers the hierarchy of dependency graph ($\mathcal{V}_d, \mathcal{E}_d$) to ensure the validness of the resulting sub-network graph. Vanilla stochastic gradient descent (SGD) or its variant such as Adam (Kingma & Ba, 2014) optimizes the important variables to achieve the high performance. Half-space gradient descent (Chen et al., 2021a) identifies redundant groups among the candidates and projects them onto zero without sacrificing the objective function to the largest extent.

Warm-Up Phase. To proceed, H2SPG first warms up all variables by conducting SGD or its variants 239 T_w steps (line 4-5 in Algorithm 3). During each warm-up step t, a redundancy score of each group 240 $q \in \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG}$ is computed upon the current iterate x_t and exponentially averaged by a momentum 241 coefficient ω (line 6-7 in Algorithm 3). Larger redundancy score indicates the group exhibits less 242 prediction power, thus may be redundant. The redundancy score calculation is modular, where we 243 follow DHSPG to consider the cosine similarity between negative gradient $-[\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_t)]_q$ and the 244 projection direction $-[x]_q$ as well as the average variable magnitude. After warm-up, the redundancy 245 scores of all groups in \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG} are sorted. We then perform a sanity check and select the groups with 246 top-K redundancy scores as the redundant group candidates $\mathcal{G}_r \subseteq \mathcal{G}_{GeZIG}$. The complementary groups 247



Figure 3: Redundant removal structures idenfitications and sub-network construction.

with lower redundancy scores are marked as important ones and form $\mathcal{G}_r^C := \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{G}_r$. The sanity check verifies whether the remaining graph is still connected after removing a vertex. If so, the current vertex is added into \mathcal{G}_r ; otherwise, the subsequent vertex is turned into considerations. As illustrated in Figure 2, though Conv7-BN7 has a larger redundancy score than Conv2-BN2, Conv2-BN2 is marked as potentially redundant but not Conv7-BN7 since there is no path connecting the input and the output of the graph after removing Conv7-BN7. This mechanism largely guarantees that even if all redundant candidates are erased, the resulting sub-network is still functioning as normal.

Hybrid Training Phase. H2SPG then engages into the hybrid training phase to produce desired group 255 sparsity over \mathcal{G}_r and optimize over \mathcal{G}_r^C for pursuing excellent performance till the convergence. This 256 phase mainly follows DHSPG (Chen et al., 2023), and we briefly describe the steps for completeness. 257 In general, for the important groups of variables in \mathcal{G}_r^C , the vanilla SGD or its variant is employed to 258 minimize the objective function to the largest extent (line 11-12 in Algorithm 3). For redundant group 259 candidates in \mathcal{G}_r , we formulate a relaxed non-constrained subproblem as (2) to gradually reduce the 260 magnitudes without deteriorating the objective and project groups onto zeros only if the projection 261 serves as a descent direction for the objective during the training process (line 13-16 in Algorithm 3). 262

$$\underset{[\boldsymbol{x}]_{\mathcal{G}_r}}{\operatorname{minimize}} \psi([\boldsymbol{x}]_{\mathcal{G}_r}) := f([\boldsymbol{x}]_{\mathcal{G}_r}) + \sum_{q \in \mathcal{G}_r} \lambda_g \left\| [\boldsymbol{x}]_g \right\|_2,$$
(2)

where λ_g is a group-specific regularization coefficient and dedicately selected as DHSPG. H2SPG then performs a subgradient descent of ψ over $[x]_{\mathcal{G}_r}$, followed by a Half-Space projection (Chen et al., 2021a) to effectively produce group sparsity with the minimal sacrifice of the objective function. At the end, a high-performing solution x_{H2SPG}^* with desired hierarchical group sparsity is returned.

267 3.3 Automated Sub-Network Construction.

We finally construct a sub-network \mathcal{M}^* upon the super-network \mathcal{M} and the solution $x^*_{ ext{H2SPG}}$ by 268 H2SPG. The solution x^*_{H2SPG} should attain desired target hierarchical group sparsity level and achieve 269 high performance. As illustrated in Figure 3, we first traverse the graph to remove the entire vertices 270 and the related edges from \mathcal{M} corresponding to the redundant GeZIGs being zero, e.g., Conv2-BN2, 271 MaxPool-Conv3-BN3 and Conv8-BN8 are removed due to $[x_{H2SPG}^*]_{g_2 \cup g_3 \cup g_8} = 0$. Then, we traverse the graph in the second pass to remove the affiliated structures that are dependent on the 272 273 removed vertices to keep the remaining operations valid, e.g., the first and second columns in \mathcal{K}_6 274 are erased since its incoming vertices Conv2-BN2 and MaxPool-Conv3-BN3 has been removed 275 (see Figure 3b). Next, we recursively erase unnecessary vertices and isolated vertices. Isolated 276 vertices refer to the vertices that have neither incoming nor outgoing vertices. Unnecessary vertices 277 refer to the skippable operations, e.g., Concat and Add (between Conv7 and AvgPool) become 278 unnecessary. Ultimately, a compact sub-network \mathcal{M}^* is constructed as shown in Figure 3c. By the 279 definition of GeZIGs, the redundant GeZIGs (have been projected onto zeros) contribute none to the 280 model outputs. Consequently, the \mathcal{M}^* returns the exact same output as the super-network \mathcal{M} with 281 x_{H2SPG}^* , which avoids the necessity of further fine-tuning the sub-network.¹ 282

¹Remark here that the sub-network is still compatible to be fine-tuned afterwards if needed.

283 4 Numerical Experiments

In this section, we employ OTOv3 to one-shot automatically train and search within general super-284 networks to construct compact sub-networks with high performance. The numerical demonstrations 285 cover extensive super-networks including DemoSupNet shown in Section 3, StackedUnets (Ron-286 neberger et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2023), SuperResNet (He et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2021), and 287 DARTS (Liu et al., 2018), and benchmark datasets, including CIFAR10 (Krizhevsky & Hinton, 288 2009), Fashion-MNIST (Xiao et al., 2017), ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009), STL-10 (Coates et al., 289 2011) and SVNH (Netzer et al., 2011). More implementation details of experiments and OTOv3 290 library and limitations are provided in Appendix A. The dependency graphs and the constructed sub-291 networks are depicted in Appendix C. Ablation studies regarding H2SPG is present in Appendix D. 292

			1		
Backend	Dataset	Method	FLOPs (M)	# of Params (M)	Top-1 Acc. (%)
DemoSupNet	Fashion-MNIST	Baseline	209	0.82	84.9
DemoSupNet	Fashion-MNIST	OTOv3	107	0.45	84.7
StackedUnets	\overline{SVNH} = -	Baseline	184	$ \overline{0.80} \overline{0.80}$	95.3
StackedUnets	SVNH	OTOv3	115	0.37	96.1
DARTS (8 cells)		Baseline	614	4.05	74.6
DARTS (8 cells)	STL-10	OTOv3	127	0.64	75.1

Table 1: OTOv3 on extensive super-networks and datasets.

DemoSupNet on Fashion-MNIST. We first experiment with the DemoSupNet presented as Figure 1a on Fashion-MNIST. OTOV3 automatically establishes a search space of DemoSupNet and partitions its trainable variables into GeZIGs. H2SPG then trains DemoSupNet from scratch and computes a solution of high performance and hierarchical group-sparsity over GeZIGs, which is further utilized to construct a compact sub-network as presented in Figure 3c. As shown in Table 1, compared to the super-network, the sub-network utilizes 54% of parameters and 51% of FLOPs to achieve a Top-1 validation accuracy 84.7% which is negligibly lower than the super-network by 0.2%.

StackedUnets on SVNH. We then consider a StackedUnets over SVNH. The StackedUnets is 300 constructed by stacking two standard Unets (Ronneberger et al., 2015) with different down-samplers 301 together, as depicted in Figure 5a in Appendix C. We employ OTOv3 to automatically build 302 the dependency graph, establish the search space, and train by H2SPG. H2SPG identifies and 303 projects the redundant structures onto zero and optimize the remaining important ones to attain 304 excellent performance. As displayed in Figure 5c, the right-hand-side Unet is disabled due to 305 node-72-node-73-node-74-node-75 being zero.² The path regarding the deepest depth for 306 the left-hand-side Unet, i.e., node-13-node-14-node-15-node-19, is marked as redundant 307 as well. The results by OTOv3 indicate that the performance gain brought by either composing multi-308 ple Unets in parallel or encompassing deeper scaling paths is not significant. OTOv3 also validates 309 the human design since a single Unet with properly selected depths have achieved remarkable success 310 in numerous applications (Ding et al., 2022; Weng et al., 2019). Furthermore, as presented in Table 1, 311 the sub-network built by OTOv3 uses 0.37M parameters and 115M FLOPs which is noticeably lighter 312 than the full StackedUnets meanwhile significantly outperforms it by 0.8% in validation accuracy. 313

DARTS (8-Cells) on STL-10. We next employ OTOv3 on DARTS over STL-10. DARTS is a 314 complicated super-network consisting of iteratively stacking multiple cells (Liu et al., 2018). Each 315 cell is constructed by spanning a graph wherein every two nodes are connected via multiple operation 316 candidates. STL-10 is an image dataset for the semi-supervising learning, where we conduct the 317 experiments by using its labeled samples. DARTS has been well explored in the recent years. 318 However, the existing NAS methods studied it based on a *handcrafted* search space beforehand to 319 locally pick up one or two important operations to connect every two nodes. We now employ OTOv3 320 321 on an eight-cells DARTS to *automatically* establish its search space, then utilize H2SPG to one shot train it and search important structures *globally* as depicted in Figure 6c of Appendix C. Afterwards, 322 a sub-network is automatically constructed as drawn in Figure 6d of Appendix C. Quantitatively, the 323 sub-network outperforms the full DARTS in terms of validation accuracy by 0.5% by using only 324 about 15%-20% of the parameters and the FLOPs of the original super-network (see Table 1). 325

²Recall the definition of GeZIG, if one GeZIG equals to zero, its output would be always zero given whatever inputs. Therefore, node-72-node-73-node-74-node-75 only produces zero output even if its ancestor vertices may have non-zero parameters. As a result, the right-hand-side Unet is completely disabled.

326	SuperResNet on CIFAR10.
327	Later on, we switch to a
328	ResNet search space as Zen-
320	NAS (Lin et al. 2021) re-
329	11AS (Lin et al., 2021), 10-
330	ferred to as SuperResNet.
331	SuperResNet is constructed
332	by stacking several super-
333	residual blocks with vary-
334	ing depths. Each super-
335	residual blocks contain mul-
336	tiple Conv candidates with
337	kernel sizes as 3x3, 5x5
338	and 7x7 separately in paral-
339	lel (see Figure 7a). We then

Table 2: OTOv3 over SuperResNet on CIFAR10.

Architecture	Top-1 Acc (%)	# of Params (M)	Search Cost (GPU days)
Zen-Score-1M(Lin et al., 2021)	96.2	1.0	0.4
Synflow [†] (Tanaka et al., 2020)	95.1	1.0	0.4
NASWOT [†] (Mellor et al., 2021)	96.0	1.0	0.5
Zen-Score-2M(Lin et al., 2021)	97.5		0.5
SANAS-DARTS (Hosseini & Xie, 2022)	97.5	3.2	1.2*
ISTA-NAS(He et al., 2020)	97.5	3.3	0.1
CDEP (Rieger et al., 2020)	97.2	3.2	1.3*
DARTS (2nd order) (Liu et al., 2018)	97.2	3.1	1.0
PrDARTS (Zhou et al., 2020)	97.6	3.4	0.2
P-DARTS (Chen et al., 2019)	97.5	3.6	0.3
PC-DARTS (Xu et al., 2019)	97.4	3.9	0.1
OTOv3-SuperResNet-1M		1.0	
OTOv3-SuperResNet-2M	97.5	2.0	0.1
[†] Reported in (Lin et al., 2021).			

* Numbers are approximately scaled based on (Hosseini & Xie, 2022).

employ OTOv3 to one-shot automatically produce two sub-networks with 1M and 2M parameters. As
displayed in Table 2, the 1M sub-network by OTOv3 outperforms the counterparts reported in (Lin
et al., 2021) in terms of search cost (on an NVIDIA A100 GPU) due to the efficient single-level
optimization. The 2M sub-network could reach the benchmark over 97% validation accuracy. Remark
here that OTOv3 and ZenNAS use networks of fewer parameters to achieve competitive performance
to the DARTS benchmarks. This is because of the extra data-augmentations such as MixUp (Zhang
et al., 2017) on this experiment by ZenNAS, so as OTOv3 to follow the same training settings.

Table 3: OTOv3 over DARTS on ImageNet and comparison with state-of-the-art methods.

Architecture	Test Acc. (%)		# of Params (M)	FLODe (M)	Search Method
Aichitecture	Top-1	Top-5	π of 1 arallis (ivi)	1 LOI 3 (141)	Scaren Methou
Inception-v1 (Szegedy et al., 2015)	69.8	89.9	6.6	1448	Manual
ShuffleNet $2 \times (v2)$ (Ma et al., 2018)	74.9	-	5.0	591	Manual
NASNet-A (Zoph et al., 2018)	74.0	91.6	5.3		RL
MnasNet-92 (Tan et al., 2019)	74.8	92.0	4.4	388	RL
AmoebaNet-C (Real et al., 2019)	75.7	92.4	6.4	570	Evolution
DARTS (2nd order) (CIFAR10) (Liu et al., 2018)	73.3	91.3	4.7	574	Gradient
P-DARTS (CIFAR10) (Chen et al., 2019)	75.6	92.6	4.9	557	Gradient
PC-DARTS (CIFAR10) (Xu et al., 2019)	74.9	92.2	5.3	586	Gradient
SANAS (CIFAR10) (Hosseini & Xie, 2022)	75.2	91.7	-	_	Gradient
ProxylessNAS (ImageNet) (Cai et al., 2018)	75.1	92.5	7.1	465	Gradient
PC-DARTs (ImageNet) (Xu et al., 2019)	75.8	92.7	5.3	597	Gradient
ISTA-NAS (ImageNet) (Yang et al., 2020)	76.0	92.9	5.7	638	Gradient
OTOv3 on DARTS (ImageNet)	75.3	92.5	4.8	547	Gradient

(CIFAR10) / (ImageNet) refer to using either CIFAR10 or ImageNet for searching architecture.

DARTS (14-Cells) on ImageNet. We finally present the benchmark DARTS super-network stacked 347 by 14 cells on ImageNet. We employ OTOv3 over it to automatically figure out the search space which 348 the code base required specified handcraftness in the past, train by H2SPG to figure out redundant 349 structures, and construct a sub-network as depicted in Figure 8d. Quantitatively, we observe that 350 the sub-network produced by OTOv3 achieves competitive top-1/5 accuracy compared to other 351 state-of-the-arts as presented in Table 3. Remark here that it is *engineeringly* difficult yet to inject 352 353 architecture variables and build a multi-level optimization upon a search space being automatically 354 constructed and globally searched. The single-level H2SPG does not leverage a validation set as others to favor the architecture search and search over the operations without trainable variables, e.g., 355 skip connection, consequently the achieved accuracy does not outperform PC-DARTS and ISTA-NAS. 356 We leave further accuracy improvement based on the *automatic* search space as future work. 357

358 5 Conclusion

We propose the third generation of Only-Train-Once framework (OTOv3). To the best of knowledge, 359 OTOv3 is the first automated system that automatically establishes the search spaces for general 360 super-networks, then trains the super-networks via a novel H2SPG optimizer in the one-shot manner, 361 finally automatically produces compact sub-networks of high-performance. Meanwhile, H2SPG is 362 also perhaps the first stochastic optimizer that effectively solve a hierarchical structured sparsity 363 problem for deep learning tasks. OTOv3 further significantly reduces the human efforts upon the 364 existing NAS works, opens a new direction and establishes benchmarks regarding the automated 365 NAS for the general super-networks which currently require numerous handcraftness beforehand. 366

367 **References**

- Han Cai, Ligeng Zhu, and Song Han. Proxylessnas: Direct neural architecture search on target task
 and hardware. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1812.00332*, 2018.
- Tianyi Chen, Bo Ji, Tianyu Ding, Biyi Fang, Guanyi Wang, Zhihui Zhu, Luming Liang, Yixin
 Shi, Sheng Yi, and Xiao Tu. Only train once: A one-shot neural network training and pruning
 framework. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2021a.
- Tianyi Chen, Luming Liang, DING Tianyu, Zhihui Zhu, and Ilya Zharkov. Otov2: Automatic,
 generic, user-friendly. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*,
 2023.
- Xin Chen, Lingxi Xie, Jun Wu, and Qi Tian. Progressive differentiable architecture search: Bridging
 the depth gap between search and evaluation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision*, pp. 1294–1303, 2019.
- Xin Chen, Lingxi Xie, Jun Wu, and Qi Tian. Progressive darts: Bridging the optimization gap for nas
 in the wild. *International Journal of Computer Vision*, 129:638–655, 2021b.
- Adam Coates, Andrew Ng, and Honglak Lee. An analysis of single-layer networks in unsupervised
 feature learning. In *Proceedings of the fourteenth international conference on artificial intelligence and statistics*, pp. 215–223. JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings, 2011.
- Jia Deng, Wei Dong, Richard Socher, Li-Jia Li, Kai Li, and Li Fei-Fei. Imagenet: A large-scale hierarchical image database. In 2009 IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pp. 248–255. Ieee, 2009.
- Tianyu Ding, Luming Liang, Zhihui Zhu, Tianyi Chen, and Ilya Zharkov. Sparsity-guided network
 design for frame interpolation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2209.04551*, 2022.
- Thomas Elsken, Jan Hendrik Metzen, and Frank Hutter. Efficient multi-objective neural architecture search via lamarckian evolution. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1804.09081*, 2018.
- Gongfan Fang, Xinyin Ma, Mingli Song, Michael Bi Mi, and Xinchao Wang. Depgraph: Towards
 any structural pruning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2301.12900*, 2023.
- Ian Goodfellow, Yoshua Bengio, Aaron Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. *Deep learning*, volume 1.
 MIT press Cambridge, 2016.
- Song Han, Huizi Mao, and William J Dally. Deep compression: Compressing deep neural networks
 with pruning, trained quantization and huffman coding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1510.00149*, 2015.
- Chaoyang He, Haishan Ye, Li Shen, and Tong Zhang. Milenas: Efficient neural architecture search
 via mixed-level reformulation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 11993–12002, 2020.
- Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image
 recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*,
 2016.
- Ramtin Hosseini and Pengtao Xie. Saliency-aware neural architecture search. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:14743–14757, 2022.
- ⁴⁰⁵ Diederik P Kingma and Jimmy Ba. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. *arXiv preprint* ⁴⁰⁶ *arXiv:1412.6980*, 2014.
- A. Krizhevsky and G. Hinton. Learning multiple layers of features from tiny images. *Master's thesis, Department of Computer Science, University of Toronto,* 2009.
- Yann LeCun, Yoshua Bengio, and Geoffrey Hinton. Deep learning. *nature*, 521(7553):436–444,
 2015.
- Ming Lin, Pichao Wang, Zhenhong Sun, Hesen Chen, Xiuyu Sun, Qi Qian, Hao Li, and Rong Jin.
 Zen-nas: A zero-shot nas for high-performance deep image recognition. In 2021 IEEE/CVF
- 413 *International Conference on Computer Vision, ICCV 2021, 2021.*

- Shaohui Lin, Rongrong Ji, Yuchao Li, Cheng Deng, and Xuelong Li. Toward compact convnets via
 structure-sparsity regularized filter pruning. *IEEE transactions on neural networks and learning systems*, 31(2):574–588, 2019.
- Hanxiao Liu, Karen Simonyan, and Yiming Yang. Darts: Differentiable architecture search. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1806.09055*, 2018.
- Ningning Ma, Xiangyu Zhang, Hai-Tao Zheng, and Jian Sun. Shufflenet v2: Practical guidelines for
 efficient cnn architecture design. In *Proceedings of the European conference on computer vision* (ECCV), pp. 116–131, 2018.
- Joe Mellor, Jack Turner, Amos Storkey, and Elliot J Crowley. Neural architecture search without training. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 7588–7598. PMLR, 2021.
- Yuval Netzer, Tao Wang, Adam Coates, Alessandro Bissacco, Bo Wu, and Andrew Y Ng. Reading
 digits in natural images with unsupervised feature learning. 2011.
- Hieu Pham, Melody Guan, Barret Zoph, Quoc Le, and Jeff Dean. Efficient neural architecture search
 via parameters sharing. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 4095–4104. PMLR,
 2018.
- Esteban Real, Alok Aggarwal, Yanping Huang, and Quoc V Le. Regularized evolution for image
 classifier architecture search. In *Proceedings of the aaai conference on artificial intelligence*,
 volume 33, pp. 4780–4789, 2019.
- Laura Rieger, Chandan Singh, William Murdoch, and Bin Yu. Interpretations are useful: penalizing
 explanations to align neural networks with prior knowledge. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 8116–8126. PMLR, 2020.
- Olaf Ronneberger, Philipp Fischer, and Thomas Brox. U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical
 image segmentation. In *International Conference on Medical image computing and computer- assisted intervention*, pp. 234–241. Springer, 2015.
- Christian Szegedy, Wei Liu, Yangqing Jia, Pierre Sermanet, Scott Reed, Dragomir Anguelov, Du mitru Erhan, Vincent Vanhoucke, and Andrew Rabinovich. Going deeper with convolutions. In
 Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pp. 1–9, 2015.
- Mingxing Tan, Bo Chen, Ruoming Pang, Vijay Vasudevan, Mark Sandler, Andrew Howard, and
 Quoc V Le. Mnasnet: Platform-aware neural architecture search for mobile. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 2820–2828, 2019.
- Hidenori Tanaka, Daniel Kunin, Daniel L Yamins, and Surya Ganguli. Pruning neural networks
 without any data by iteratively conserving synaptic flow. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:6377–6389, 2020.
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Lukasz
 Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In I. Guyon, U. V. Luxburg, S. Bengio,
 H. Wallach, R. Fergus, S. Vishwanathan, and R. Garnett (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 30. Curran Associates, Inc., 2017.
- Yu Weng, Tianbao Zhou, Yujie Li, and Xiaoyu Qiu. Nas-unet: Neural architecture search for medical
 image segmentation. *IEEE access*, 7:44247–44257, 2019.
- Han Xiao, Kashif Rasul, and Roland Vollgraf. Fashion-mnist: a novel image dataset for benchmarking
 machine learning algorithms, 2017.
- Lin Xiao and Tong Zhang. A proximal stochastic gradient method with progressive variance reduction.
 SIAM Journal on Optimization, 24(4):2057–2075, 2014.
- Yuhui Xu, Lingxi Xie, Xiaopeng Zhang, Xin Chen, Guo-Jun Qi, Qi Tian, and Hongkai Xiong.
 Pc-darts: Partial channel connections for memory-efficient architecture search. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.05737*, 2019.

- Yibo Yang, Hongyang Li, Shan You, Fei Wang, Chen Qian, and Zhouchen Lin. Ista-nas: Efficient and
 consistent neural architecture search by sparse coding. *Advances in Neural Information Processing*
- 462 Systems, 33:10503–10513, 2020.
- Hongyi Zhang, Moustapha Cisse, Yann N Dauphin, and David Lopez-Paz. mixup: Beyond empirical
 risk minimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.09412*, 2017.
- Peng Zhao, Guilherme Rocha, and Bin Yu. The composite absolute penalties family for grouped and
 hierarchical variable selection. 2009.
- Pan Zhou, Caiming Xiong, Richard Socher, and Steven Chu Hong Hoi. Theory-inspired path regularized differential network architecture search. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:8296–8307, 2020.
- Barret Zoph and Quoc V Le. Neural architecture search with reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1611.01578*, 2016.
- Barret Zoph, Vijay Vasudevan, Jonathon Shlens, and Quoc V Le. Learning transferable architectures
 for scalable image recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and*
- 474 *pattern recognition*, pp. 8697–8710, 2018.