
AlphaGAN: Fully Differentiable Architecture Search for Generative Adversarial Networks

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Abstract

1 Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) are formulated as minimax game problems, whereby generators attempt to approach real data distributions by virtue of
2 adversarial learning against discriminators. In this work, we aim to boost model
3 learning from the perspective of network architectures, by incorporating recent
4 progress on automated architecture search into GANs. To this end, we propose a
5 fully differentiable search framework for generative adversarial networks, dubbed
6 *alphaGAN*. The searching process is formalized as solving a bi-level minimax
7 optimization problem, where the outer-level objective aims for seeking a suitable
8 network architecture towards pure Nash Equilibrium conditioned on the network pa-
9 rameters optimized in the inner level. The entire optimization performs a first-order
10 method by alternately optimizing the two-level objective in a fully differentiable
11 manner, enabling architecture search to be completed in an enormous search space.
12 Extensive experiments on CIFAR-10 and STL-10 datasets show that our algorithm
13 can obtain high-performing architectures only with 3-GPU hours on a single GPU
14 in the search space comprised of approximate 2×10^{11} possible configurations.
15

16 1 Introduction

17 Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) [1] have shown promising performance on a variety of
18 generative tasks (e.g., image generation [2], image translation [3, 4], dialogue generation [5], and
19 image inpainting [6]). However, pursuing high-performance generative networks is non-trivial due
20 to the non-convex non-concave property. There is a rich history of research aiming to improve the
21 training stabilization and alleviate mode collapse by introducing generative adversarial functions (e.g.,
22 Wasserstein distance [7], Least Squares loss [8], and hinge loss [9]) or regularization (e.g., gradient
23 penalty [10, 11]).

24 Alongside the direction of improving loss functions, improving architectures has been proven to be
25 important for stabilizing training and improving generalization. Previous works [12, 9, 10, 13, 2]
26 employ deep convolutional networks to boost the performance of GANs. However, such a manual
27 architecture design typically requires domain-specific knowledge from human experts, which is
28 even challenging for GANs due to the minimax formulation that it intrinsically possesses. Recent
29 progress of architecture search on a variety of supervised learning tasks [14, 15, 16, 17] has shown
30 that remarkable achievements can be achieved by automating the architecture search process.

31 In this paper, we aim to address the problem of GAN architecture search from the perspective of
32 Game theory since it is essentially a minimax problem [1] targeting at finding pure Nash Equilibrium
33 of generator and discriminator [18, 19]. From this perspective, we propose a fully differentiable
34 architecture search framework for GANs, dubbed *alphaGAN*, in which a differentiable evaluation
35 metric is introduced for guiding architecture search towards pure Nash Equilibrium [20]. Motivated
36 by DARTS [15], we formulate the search process of alphaGAN as a bi-level minimax optimization

37 problem, and solve it efficiently via stochastic gradient-type methods. Specifically, the outer level
 38 objective aims to optimize the generator architecture parameters towards pure Nash Equilibrium,
 39 whereas the inner level constraint targets at optimizing the weight parameters conditioned on the
 40 architecture currently searched.

41 This work is related to several recent methods. GAN architecture search is performed with a
 42 reinforcement learning paradigm [21, 22, 23] or a gradient-based paradigm [24].

43 Extensive experiments including comparison to these methods and analysis of the searched archi-
 44 tectures, demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed algorithm in performance and efficiency.
 45 Specially, alphaGAN can discover high-performance architectures while being much faster than the
 46 other automated architecture search methods.

47 2 GAN Architecture Search as Fully Differential Optimization

48 Differentiable Architecture Search was first proposed in [15], where the problem is formulated as a
 49 bi-level optimization. Weight parameters and architecture parameters are optimized in the inner level
 50 and outer level, respectively. The objective function in both levels is the cross entropy loss, which
 51 can reflect the quality of current models in classification tasks.

52 However, deploying such a framework to searching architectures of GANs is non-trivial. The training
 53 of GANs corresponds to the optimization of a minimax problem. Many previous works [2, 25] have
 54 pointed that the adversarial loss cannot reflect the quality of GANs. A suitable evaluation metric is
 55 essential for a gradient-based NAS-GAN framework.

56 **Evaluation function.** Due to the intrinsic minimax property of GANs, the training process of
 57 GANs can be viewed as a zero-sum game as in [18, 1]. The universal objective of training GANs
 58 consequentially can be regarded as reaching pure equilibrium. Hence, we adopt the primal-dual gap
 59 function [25, 26] for evaluating the generalization of vanilla GANs. Given a pair of G and D , the
 60 duality-gap function is defined as

$$\mathcal{V}(G, D) = \text{Adv}(G, \bar{D}) - \text{Adv}(\bar{G}, D) := \max_D \text{Adv}(G, D) - \min_G \text{Adv}(G, D). \quad (1)$$

61 The evaluation metric $\mathcal{V}(G, D)$ is non-negative and $\mathcal{V}(G, D) = 0$ can be only achieved when the
 62 pure equilibrium holds. Function (1) provides a quantified measure of describing "how close is
 63 current GAN to pure equilibrium", which can be used for assessing model capacity.

64 The architecture search for GANs can be formulated as a specific bi-level optimization problem:

$$\min_{\alpha} \left\{ \mathcal{V}(G, D) : (G, D) := \arg \min_G \max_D \text{Adv}(G, D) \right\}, \quad (2)$$

65 where $\mathcal{V}(G, D)$ performs on the validation dataset and supervises seeking the optimal generator
 66 architecture as an outer-level problem, and the inner-level optimization on $\text{Adv}(G, D)$ aims to learn
 67 suitable network parameters (including both the generator and discriminator) for GAN on the current
 68 architecture.

69 In this work, we exploit the hinge loss from [9, 27] as the generative adversarial function $\text{Adv}(G, D)$.

70 **AlphaGAN formulation.** By integrating the generative adversarial function (i.e., hinge loss) and
 71 evaluation function (1) into the bi-level optimization (2), we can obtain the final objective for the
 72 framework as follows,

$$\min_{\alpha} \mathcal{V}_{val}(G, D) = \text{Adv}(G, \bar{D}) - \text{Adv}(\bar{G}, D) \quad (3)$$

$$s.t. \quad \omega \in \arg \min_{\omega_G} \max_{\omega_D} \text{Adv}_{train}(G, D) \quad (4)$$

73 where generator G and discriminator D are parameterized with variables (α_G, ω_G) and (ω_D) , re-
 74 spectively, $\bar{D} = \arg \max_D \text{Adv}_{val}(G, D)$, and $\bar{G} = \arg \min_G \text{Adv}_{val}(G, D)$. The detailed search
 75 algorithm and other details are in the supplementary material.

Table 1: Comparison with state-of-the-art GANs on CIFAR-10. † denotes the results reproduced by us, with the structure released by Auto-GAN and trained under the same setting as AutoGAN.

Architecture	Params (M)	FLOPs (G)	search time (GPU-hours)	search space	search method	IS (↑ is better)	FID (↓ is better)
DCGAN([12])	-	-	-	-	manual	6.64 ± 0.14	-
SN-GAN([9])	-	-	-	-	manual	8.22 ± 0.05	21.7 ± 0.01
Progressive GAN([13])	-	-	-	-	manual	8.80 ± 0.05	-
WGAN-GP, ResNet([10])	-	-	-	-	manual	7.86 ± 0.07	-
AutoGAN([22])	5.192	1.77	-	$\sim 10^5$	RL	8.55 ± 0.1	12.42
AutoGAN†	5.192	1.77	82	$\sim 10^5$	RL	8.38 ± 0.08	13.95
AGAN([21])	-	-	28800	~ 20000	RL	8.29 ± 0.09	30.5
Random search([30])	2.701	1.11	40	$\sim 2 \times 10^{11}$	Random	8.46 ± 0.09	15.43
alphaGAN _(l)	8.618	2.78	22	$\sim 2 \times 10^{11}$	gradient	8.71 ± 0.12	11.23
alphaGAN _(s)	2.953	1.32	3	$\sim 2 \times 10^{11}$	gradient	8.60 ± 0.11	11.85

76 3 Experiments

77 In this section, we conduct extensive experiments on CIFAR-10 [28] and STL-10 [29]. First, the
 78 generator architecture is searched on CIFAR-10 and the discretized optimal structure is fully re-
 79 trained from scratch following [22] in Section 3.1. We compare alphaGAN with the other automated
 80 GAN methods in multiple measures to demonstrate its effectiveness. Second, the generalization of
 81 the searched architectures is verified by fully training on STL-10 and evaluation in Section 3.2. To
 82 further understand the properties of our method, a series of studies on the key components of the
 83 framework are shown in Section 3.3. Experiment details are in the supplementary material.

84 3.1 Searching on CIFAR-10

85 We first compare our method with recent automated GAN methods. For a fair comparison, we report
 86 the performance of best run (over 3 runs) for reproduced baselines and ours in the Table 1 and provide
 87 the performance of several representative works with manually designed architectures for reference.
 88 We provide a detailed analysis and discussion about the searching process. And the statistic properties
 89 of architectures searched by alphaGAN are in the supplementary material.

90 Performances of alphaGAN with two search configurations are shown In Tab. 1 by adjusting step
 91 sizes of the inner loop and the outer loop, where alphaGAN_(l) represents passing through every epoch
 92 on the training and validation sets for each loop, i.e., $steps = 390$. And alphaGAN_(s) represents
 93 using smaller interval steps with $steps = 20$.

94 The results show that our method performs well in the two settings and outperforms the other
 95 automated GAN methods in terms of both efficiency and performance. alphaGAN_(l) obtains the
 96 lowest FID compared to all the baselines. Particularly, alphaGAN_(s) can attain the best tradeoff
 97 between efficiency and performance, and it can be achieve comparable results by searching in a
 98 large search space (significantly larger than RL-based baselines) in a considerably efficient manner
 99 (i.e., only 3 GPU hours compared to the baselines with tens to thousands of GPU hours). The
 100 architecture obtained by alphaGAN_(s) is light-weight and computationally efficient, which reaches a
 101 good trade-off between performance and time complexity.

102 3.2 Transferability on STL-10

103 To validate the transferability of the architectures obtained by alphaGAN, we directly train models
 104 by using the obtained architectures on the STL-10 dataset. The results are shown in Table 2. Both
 105 alphaGAN_(l) and alphaGAN_(s) show remarkable superiority in performance over the baselines with
 106 either automated or manually designed architectures. It reveals the benefit that the architecture
 107 searched by alphaGAN can be effectively exploited across datasets. It is surprising that alphaGAN_(s)
 108 is best-behaved, which achieves the best performance in both IS and FID scores. It also shows that
 109 compared to increase on model complexity, appropriate selection and composition of operations can
 110 contribute to model performance in a more efficient manner which is consistent with the primary
 111 motivation of automating architecture search.

Table 2: Results on STL-10. The structures of $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ and $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$ are searched on CIFAR-10 and fully trained on STL-10. † denotes the reproduced results, with the architectural configurations released by the original papers.

Architecture	Params (M)	FLOPs (G)	IS	FID
SN-GAN([9])	-	-	9.10 ± 0.04	40.1 ± 0.5
ProbGAN([31])	-	-	8.87 ± 0.095	46.74
Improving MMD GAN([32])	-	-	9.36	36.67
Auto-GAN([22])	5.853	3.98	9.16 ± 0.12	31.01
Auto-GAN†	5.853	3.98	9.38 ± 0.08	27.69
AGAN([21])	-	-	9.23 ± 0.08	52.7
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$	9.279	6.26	9.53 ± 0.12	24.52
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$	3.613	2.97	10.12 ± 0.13	22.43

112 3.3 Ablation Study

113 We conduct ablation experiments on CIFAR-10 to better understand the influence of components
 114 when applying different configurations on both $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ and $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$, including the studies
 115 with the questions: the effect of searching the discriminator architecture and obtaining the optimal
 116 generator \bar{G} . More experiments are shown in the supplementary material.

117 Search D’s architecture or not?

118 A problem may arise from alphaGAN : If searching discrimi-
 119 nator structures can facilitate the
 120 searching and training of genera-
 121 tors? The results in Table 3 show
 122 that searching the discriminator
 123 cannot help the search of the opti-
 124 mal generator. We also con-
 125 ducted the trial by training GANs
 126 with the obtained architectures by
 127 searching G and D, while the fi-
 128 nal performance is inferior to the
 129 setting of retraining with a given discriminator configuration.

Table 3: Ablation studies on CIFAR-10.

Type	Search D?	Obtain \bar{G}		IS	FID
		Update α_G	Update ω_G		
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$	✓	×	✓	8.51 ± 0.09	18.07
	×	×	✓	8.51 ± 0.06	11.38
	×	×	✓	8.51 ± 0.06	11.38
	×	✓	×	7.06 ± 0.06	43.99
	×	✓	✓	8.43 ± 0.11	13.91
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$	✓	×	✓	8.70 ± 0.11	15.56
	×	×	✓	8.72 ± 0.11	12.86
	×	×	✓	8.72 ± 0.11	12.86
	×	✓	×	8.45 ± 0.09	15.47
	×	✓	✓	8.18 ± 0.11	18.85

130 Simultaneously searching architectures
 131 of both G and D potentially increases the effect of inferior discriminators which may hamper the
 132 search of optimal generators conditioned on strong discriminators. In this regard, solely learning
 133 generators’ architectures may be a better choice.

134 **How to obtain \bar{G} ?** In the definition of duality gap, \bar{G} and \bar{D} denote the optima of G and D,
 135 respectively. As both of the architecture and network parameters are variables for \bar{G} , we do the
 136 experiments of investigating the effect of updating ω_G and α_G for attaining \bar{G} . The results in Table 3
 137 show that updating ω_G solely achieves the best performance. Approximating \bar{G} with ω_G update solely
 138 means that the architectures of G and \bar{G} are identical, and hence optimizing architecture parameters
 139 α_G in (3) can be viewed as the compensation for the gap brought by the weight parameters of ω_G
 140 and $\omega_{\bar{G}}$.

141 4 Conclusion

142 We presented alphaGAN , a fully differentiable architecture search framework for GANs, which is
 143 efficient and effective to seek high-performing generator architectures from vast possible configura-
 144 tions, achieving comparable or superior performance compared to state-of-the-art architectures being
 145 either manually designed or automatically searched. In addition, the analysis of tracking the behavior
 146 of architecture performance and operation distribution gives some insights about architecture design,
 147 which may promote further research on architecture improvement. We mainly focused on vanilla
 148 GANs in this work and would like to extend such a framework to conditional GANs, in which extra
 149 regularization on the parts of networks is typically imposed for task specialization, as future work.

150 **Broader Impact**

151 AlphaGAN will have potential positive impacts on the tasks of image/video generation, natural
152 language generation, and high fidelity speech synthesis. Researchers can utilize alphaGAN to design
153 a powerful generator adversarial network with superior performance. On the other hand, we would
154 hope that this work can attract more attention in the AI research community to design architectures
155 of generation tasks rather than classification tasks. Moreover, the theory behind alphaGAN is so
156 transferable that it can apply to conditional GANs on several conditionally generative tasks, e.g.,
157 style transfer, image-to-image translation, etc.

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254 **A Preliminaries**

255 Minimax Games have regained a lot of attraction [33, 34] since they are popularized in machine
 256 learning, such as generative adversarial networks (GAN) [18], reinforcement learning [35, 36], etc.
 257 Given the function $Adv: \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we consider a minimax game and its dual form:

$$\min_G \max_D Adv(G, D) = \min_G \left\{ \max_D Adv(G, D) \right\}, \max_D \min_G Adv(G, D) = \max_D \left\{ \min_G Adv(G, D) \right\}.$$

258 The pure equilibrium [20] of minimax game can be used to characterize the best decisions of two
 259 players G and D for above minmax game.

260 **Definition 1** (\bar{G}, \bar{D}) is called a pure equilibrium of game $\min_G \max_D Adv(G, D)$ if it holds that

$$\max_D Adv(\bar{G}, D) = \min_G Adv(G, \bar{D}), \quad (5)$$

261 where $\bar{G} = \arg \min_G Adv(G, D)$ and $\bar{D} = \arg \max_D Adv(G, D)$. When minimax game equals to
 262 its dual problem, (\bar{G}, \bar{D}) is the pure equilibrium of the game. Hence, the gap between the minimax
 263 problem and its dual form can be used to measure the degree of approaching pure equilibrium [25].

264 Generative Adversarial Network (GAN) proposed in [1] is mathematically defined as a minimax game
 265 problem with a binary cross entropy loss of competing between the distributions of real and synthetic
 266 images generated by the GAN model. Despite remarkable progress achieved by GANs, training
 267 high-performance models is still challenging for many generative tasks due to its fragility to almost
 268 every factor in the training process. Architectures of GANs have proven useful for stabilizing training
 269 and improving generalization [9, 10, 13, 2], and we hope to discover architectures by automating the
 270 design process with limited computational resource in a principled differentiable manner.

271 **B Algorithm and Optimization**

272 In this section, we will give a detailed description for the training algorithm and optimization process
 273 of alphaGAN. We first describe the entire network structure of the generator and the discriminator,
 274 the search space of the generator, and the continuous relaxation of architectural parameters.

275 **Base Backbone of G and D .** The illumination of the entire structure for the generator and discrimi-
 276 nator is shown in the supplementary material. The generator is constructed by stacking several cells
 277 whose topology is identical to those in AutoGAN [22] and SN-GAN [9] (shown in the supplementary
 278 material). Each cell, regarded as a directed acyclic graph, is comprised of the nodes representing
 279 intermediate feature maps and the edges connecting pairs of nodes via different operations. We apply
 280 a fixed network architecture for the discriminator, based on the conventional design as [9].

281 **Search space of G .** The search space is compounded from two types of operations, i.e., normal
 282 operations and up-sampling operations. The pool of normal operations, denoted as \mathcal{O}_n , is comprised
 283 of {conv_1x1, conv_3x3, conv_5x5, sep_conv_3x3, sep_conv_5x5, sep_conv_7x7}. The
 284 pool of up-sampling operations, denoted as \mathcal{O}_u , is comprised of {deconv, nearest, bilinear}, where
 285 “deconv” denotes the ConvTransposed_2x2. operation. Our method allows $(6^3 \times 3^2)^3 \times 3^3 \approx 2 \times 10^{11}$
 286 possible configurations for the generator architecture, which is larger than $\sim 10^5$ of AutoGAN [22].

287 **Continuous relaxation.** The discrete selection of operations is approximated by using a soft decision
 288 with a mutually exclusive function, following [15]. Formally, let $o \in \mathcal{O}_n$ denote some normal
 289 operations on node i , and $\alpha_{i,j}^o$ represent the architectural parameter with respect to the operation
 290 between node i and its adjacent node j , respectively. Then the node output induced by the input node
 291 i can be calculated by

$$O_{i,j}(x) = \sum_{o \in \mathcal{O}_n} \frac{\exp(\alpha_{i,j}^o)}{\sum_{o' \in \mathcal{O}_n} \exp(\alpha_{i,j}^{o'})} o(x), \quad (6)$$

292 and the final output is summed over all of its preceding nodes, i.e., $x^j = \sum_{i \in Pr(j)} O_{i,j}(x^i)$. The
 293 selection on up-sampling operations follows the same procedure.

294 **Solving alphaGAN.** We apply an alternating minimization method to solve alphaGAN with respect
 295 to variables $((\omega_G, \omega_D), (\omega_{\bar{G}}, \omega_{\bar{D}}), \alpha_G)$ in Algorithm 1, which is a fully differentiable gradient-type

Algorithm 1 Searching the architecture of alphaGAN

Parameters: Initialize weight parameters (ω_G^1, ω_D^1) . Initialize generator architecture parameters α_G^1 . Initialize base learning rate η , momentum parameter β_1 , and exponential moving average parameter β_2 for Adam optimizer.

- 1: **for** $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ **do**
 - 2: Set $(\omega_G^{k,1}, \omega_D^{k,1}) = (\omega_G^k, \omega_D^k)$ and set $\alpha_G^{k,1} = \alpha_G^k$;
 - 3: **for** $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$ **do**
 - 4: Sample real data $\{x^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^m \sim \mathbb{P}_r$ from training set and noise $\{z^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^m \sim \mathbb{P}_z$; Estimate gradient of Adv loss with $\{x^{(l)}, z^{(l)}\}$ at $(\omega_G^{k,t}, \omega_D^{k,t})$, dubbed $\nabla \text{Adv}(\omega_G^{k,t}, \omega_D^{k,t})$;
 - 5: $\omega_D^{k,t+1} = \text{Adam}(\nabla_{\omega_D} \text{Adv}(\omega_G^{k,t}, \omega_D^{k,t}), \omega_D^{k,t}, \eta, \beta_1, \beta_2)$;
 - 6: $\omega_G^{k,t+1} = \text{Adam}(\nabla_{\omega_G} \text{Adv}(\omega_G^{k,t}, \omega_D^{k,t}), \omega_G^{k,t}, \eta, \beta_1, \beta_2)$;
 - 7: **end for**
 - 8: Set $(\omega_G^{k+1}, \omega_D^{k+1}) = (\omega_G^{k,T}, \omega_D^{k,T})$;
 - 9: Receive architecture searching parameter α_G^k and network weight parameters $(\omega_G^{k+1}, \omega_D^{k+1})$; Estimate neural architecture parameters $(\omega_{\overline{G}}^{k+1}, \omega_{\overline{D}}^{k+1})$ of $(\overline{G}, \overline{D})$ via Algorithm 2;
 - 10: **for** $s = 1, 2, \dots, S$ **do**
 - 11: Sample real data $\{x^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^m \sim \mathbb{P}_r$ from the validation set and latent variables $\{z^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^m \sim \mathbb{P}_z$. Estimate gradient of the duality gap \mathcal{V} with $\{x^{(l)}, z^{(l)}\}$ at $(\alpha_G^{k,s})$, dubbed $\nabla V(\alpha_G^{k,s})$;
 - 12: $\alpha_G^{k,s+1} = \text{Adam}(\nabla_{\alpha_G} V(\alpha_G^{k,s}), \alpha_G^{k,s}, \eta, \beta_1, \beta_2)$;
 - 13: **end for**
 - 14: Set $\alpha_G^{k+1} = \alpha_G^{k,S}$;
 - 15: **end for**
 - 16: Return $\alpha_G = \alpha_G^K$.
-

Algorithm 2 Solving \overline{G} and \overline{D}

Parameters: Receive architecture searching parameter α_G and weight parameter (ω_G, ω_D) . Initialize weight parameter $(\omega_{\overline{G}}^1, \omega_{\overline{D}}^1) = (\omega_G, \omega_D)$ for $(\overline{G}, \overline{D})$. Initialize base learning rate η , momentum parameter β_1 , and EMA parameter β_2 for Adam optimizer.

- 1: **for** $r = 1, 2, \dots, R$ **do**
 - 2: Sample real data $\{x^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^m \sim \mathbb{P}_r$ from validation dataset and noise $\{z^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^m \sim \mathbb{P}_z$; Estimate gradient of Adv loss with $\{x^{(l)}, z^{(l)}\}$ at (ω_G, ω_D^r) , dubbed $\nabla \text{Adv}(\omega_G, \omega_D^r)$;
 - 3: $\omega_D^{r+1} = \text{Adam}(\nabla_{\omega_D} \text{Adv}(\omega_G, \omega_D^r), \omega_D^r, \eta, \beta_1, \beta_2)$;
 - 4: **end for**
 - 5: **for** $r = 1, 2, \dots, R$ **do**
 - 6: Sample noise $\{z^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^m \sim \mathbb{P}_z$; Estimate gradient of the Adv loss with $\{z^{(l)}\}$ at point $(\omega_{\overline{G}}^r, \omega_D)$, dubbed $\nabla \text{Adv}(\omega_{\overline{G}}^r, \omega_D)$;
 - 7: $\omega_{\overline{G}}^{r+1} = \text{Adam}(\nabla_{\omega_{\overline{G}}} \text{Adv}(\omega_{\overline{G}}^r, \omega_D), \omega_{\overline{G}}^r, \eta, \beta_1, \beta_2)$;
 - 8: **end for**
 - 9: Return $(\omega_{\overline{G}}, \omega_{\overline{D}}) = (\omega_{\overline{G}}^R, \omega_{\overline{D}}^R)$.
-

296 algorithm. Algorithm 1 is composed of three parts. The first part (line 3-8), called “weight_part”,
297 aims to optimize weight parameters ω on the training dataset via Adam optimizer [37]. The second
298 part (line 9), called “test-weight_part”, aims to optimize the weight parameters $(\omega_{\overline{G}}, \omega_{\overline{D}})$, and the
299 third part (line 10-12), called ‘arch_part’, aims to optimize architecture parameters α_G by minimizing
300 the duality gap. Both ‘test-weight_part’ and ‘arch_part’ are optimized over the validation dataset via
301 Adam optimizer. Algorithm 2 illuminates the detailed process of computing \overline{G} and \overline{D} by updating
302 weight parameters $(\omega_{\overline{G}}, \omega_{\overline{D}})$ with last searched generator network architecture parameters α_G and
303 related network weight parameters (ω_G, ω_D) . In summary, the variables $((\omega_G, \omega_D), (\omega_{\overline{G}}, \omega_{\overline{D}}), \alpha_G)$
304 are optimized in an alternating fashion.

305 C Experiment Details

306 C.1 Searching on CIFAR-10

307 The CIFAR-10 dataset is comprised of 50000 images for training. The resolution of the images is
308 32x32. We randomly split the dataset into two sets during searching: one is used as the training set
309 for optimizing network parameters ω_G and ω_D (25000 images), and another is used as the validation
310 set for optimizing architecture parameters α_G (25000 images). The search iterations for $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$
311 and $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$ are set to 100. We use a minibatch size of 64 for both generators and discriminators,
312 channel number of 256 for generators and 128 for discriminators. The dimension of the noise vector
313 is 128. For a fair comparison, the discriminator adopted in searching is the same as the discriminator
314 in AutoGAN [22]. Batch sizes of both the generator and the discriminator are set to 64. The learning
315 rates of weight parameters ω_G and ω_D are $2e - 4$ and the learning rate of architecture parameter α_G
316 is $3e - 4$. We use Adam as the optimizer. The hyperparameters for optimizing weight parameters
317 ω_G and ω_D are set as, 0.0 for β_1 and 0.999 for β_2 , and 0 for the weight decay. The hyperparameters
318 for optimizing architecture parameters α_G are set as 0.5 for β_1 , 0.999 for β_2 and $1e - 3$ for weight
319 decay.

320 We use the entire training set of CIFAR-10 for retraining the network parameters after obtaining
321 architectures. we use a minibatch size of 128 for generators and 64 for discriminators. The channel
322 number is set to 256 for generators and 128 for discriminators. The dimension of the noise vector is
323 128. Discriminator exploited in the re-training phase is identical to that during searching. The batch
324 size of the generator is set to 128. The batch size of the discriminator is set to 64. The generator is
325 trained for 50000 iterations. The learning rates of the generator and discriminator are set to $2e - 4$.
326 The hyperparameters for the Adam optimizer are set to 0.0 for β_1 , 0.9 for β_2 and 0 for weight decay.

327 When testing, 50000 images are generated with random noise, and IS [18] and FID [19] are used to
328 evaluate the performance of generators.

329 C.2 Transferability

330 The STL-10 dataset is comprised of $\sim 105k$ training images. We resize the images to the size
331 of 48x48 due to the consideration of memory and computational overhead. The dimension of the
332 noise vector is 128. We train the generator for 80000 iterations. The batch sizes for optimizing
333 the generators and the discriminator are set to 128 and 64, respectively. The channel numbers of
334 the generator and the discriminator are set to 256 and 128, respectively. The learning rates for the
335 generator and the discriminator are both set to $2e - 4$. We also use the Adam as the optimizer, where
336 β_1 is set to 0.5, β_2 is set to 0.9 and weight decay is set to 0.

337 D The structures of the generator and the discriminator

338 The entire structures of the generator and the discriminator are illustrated in Fig. 1.

339 The topology of cells in the generator and the discriminator is illustrated in the Fig. 2. In the cell of
340 the generator, the edges from the node 0 to the node 1 and from the node 0 to the node 3 correspond
341 to up-sampling operations, and the rest edges are normal operations. In the cell of the discriminator,
342 the edges from the node 2 to the node 4 and from the node 3 to the node 4 are the operation of
343 `avg_pool_2x2` with stride 2, the edges from the node 0 to the node 1 and from the node 1 to the
344 node 2 are the operation of `conv_3x3` with stride 1, and the edge from the node 0 to the node 3 is the
345 operation of `conv_1x1` with stride 1.

346 The structures of $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ and $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$ are shown in Fig. 4 and Fig. 3.

347 E Relation between performance and structure

348 The distributions of operations in 'superior' and 'inferior' are shown in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, respectively.
349 We get the following observations: first, for up-sampling operations, superior architectures tend to
350 exploit "nearest" or "bilinear" rather than "deconvolution" operations. Second, "conv_1x1" operations
351 dominate in the cell_1 of superior generators, suggesting that convolutions with large kernel sizes may
352 not be optimal when the spatial dimensions of feature maps are relatively small (i.e., 8x8). Finally,

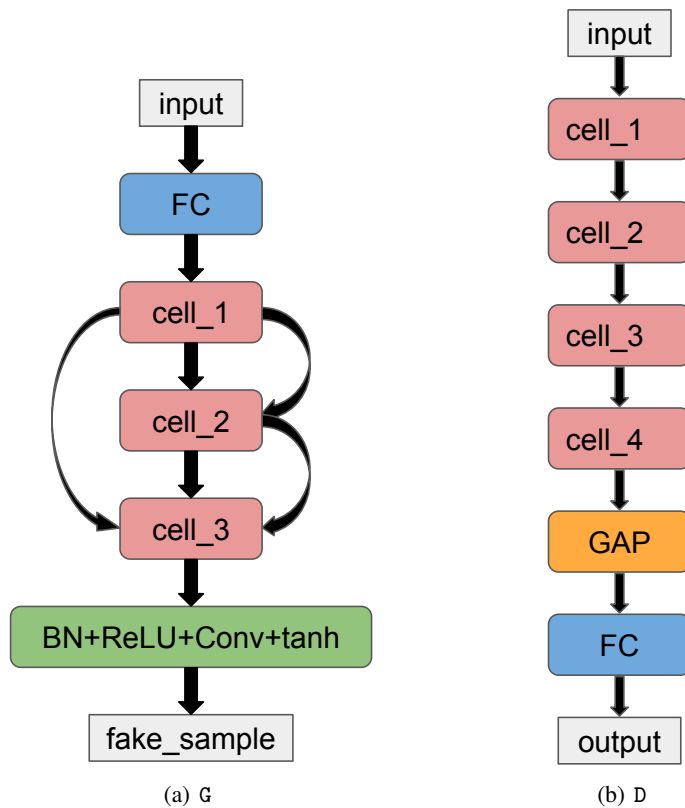


Figure 1: The topology of the generator and the discriminator.

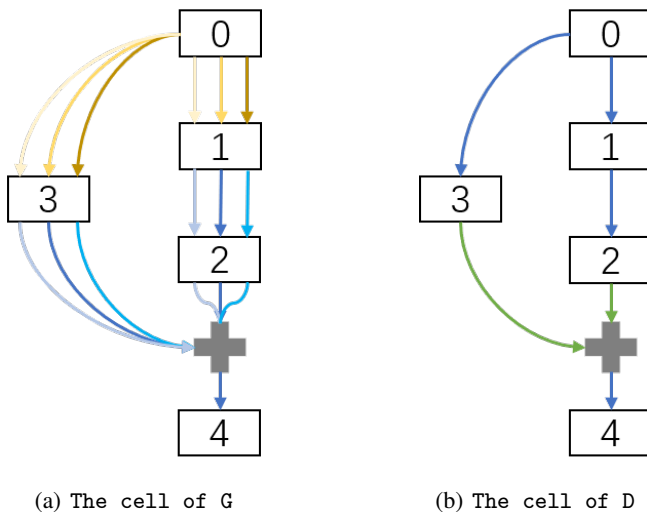


Figure 2: The topology of the cell in the generator and the discriminator. The topology of the generator and the discriminator is identical to those of AutoGAN [22] and SN-GAN [9].

353 convolutions with large kernels (e.g., conv_5x5, sep_conv_3x3, and sep_conv_5x5) are preferred on
 354 higher resolutions (i.e., cell_3 of superior generators), indicating the benefit of integrating information
 355 from relatively large receptive fields for low-level representations on high resolutions.

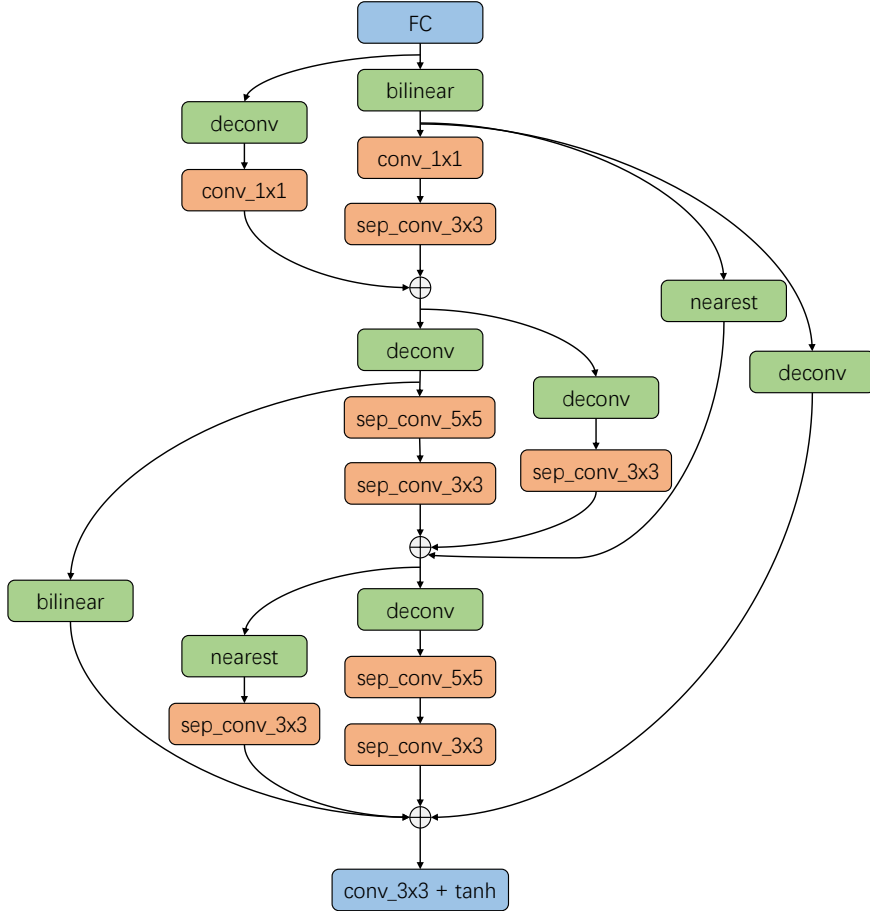


Figure 3: The structure of $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$.

356 F Generated Samples

357 Generated samples of $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$ on STL-10 are shown in Fig. 7.

358 G Additional Results

359 In this section, we present the more experimental results and analysis (due to page limit), including
 360 model scaling, intermediate architectures in searching, using Gumbel-max trick, warm-up, ablation
 361 study on step sizes for 'arch_part', effect of channel numbers for searching, searching on STL-10,
 362 and the analysis of failure cases. The 'baseline' in Tab. 4 denotes the structure searched under the
 363 default settings of alphaGAN .

364 G.1 Robustness on Model Scaling

365 It would be interesting to know how the architecture performs when scaling up/down model com-
 366 plexity. To this regard, we introduce a ratio to simply re-scale the channel dimension of the network
 367 configuration for the fully training step. The relation between performance and parameter size
 368 is illuminated in Fig. 8. The range of attaining promising performance is relatively narrow for
 369 $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$, mainly caused by the light-weight property induced by dominated depthwise separable
 370 convolutions. Light-weight architectures naturally result in highly sparse connections between
 371 network neurons which may be sensitive to the configuration difference between searching and
 372 re-training. In contrast, $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ shows acceptable performance in a wide range of parameter

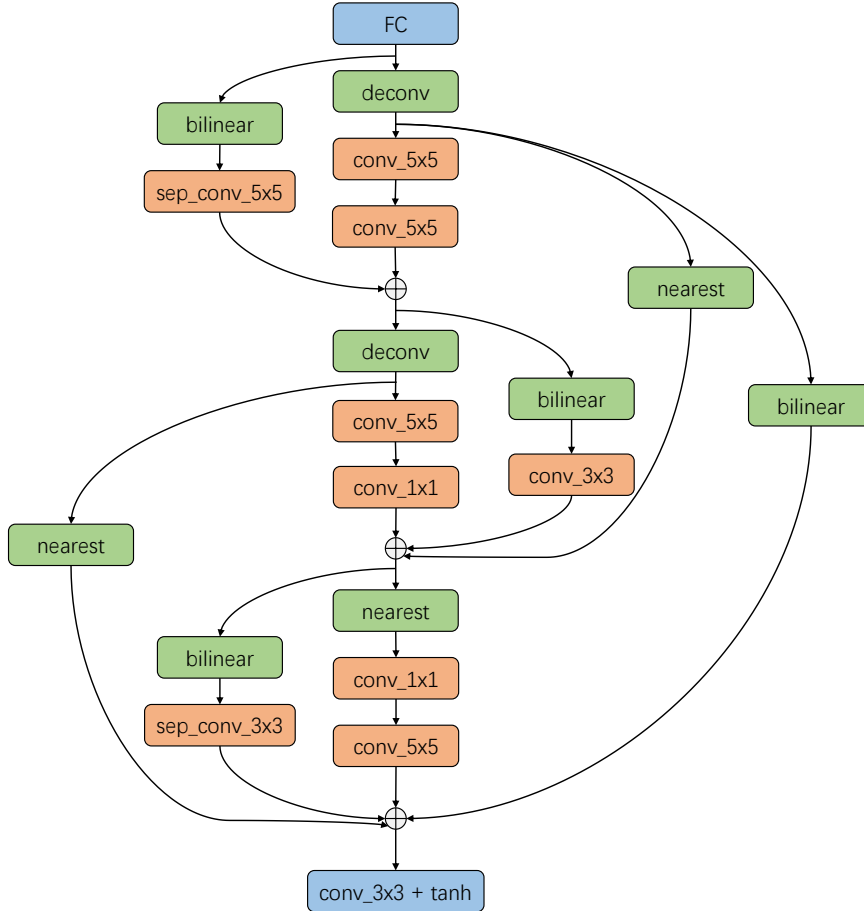


Figure 4: The structure of alphaGAN_l .

373 sizes (from 2M to 18M). While both of them present some degree of robustness on the scaling of the
 374 original searching configuration.

375 G.2 Intermediate Architectures in Searching

376 To understand the search process of alphaGAN , we track the intermediate structures of
 377 alphaGAN_s and alphaGAN_l during searching, and fully train them on CIFAR-10 (in Fig.
 378 9). We observe a clear trend that the archi-
 379 tectures are learned towards high performance
 380 during searching though slight oscillation may
 381 happen. Specially, alphaGAN_l realizes grad-
 382 ual improvement in performance during the
 383 process, while alphaGAN_s displays a faster
 384 convergence on the early stage of the process
 385 and can achieve comparable results, indicat-
 386 ing solving inner-level optimization problem
 387 by virtue of rough approximations (as using
 388 more steps can always achieve a closer approxi-
 389 mation of the optimum) can significantly benefit the
 390 efficiency of solving the bi-level problem without sacrifice in accuracy.
 391

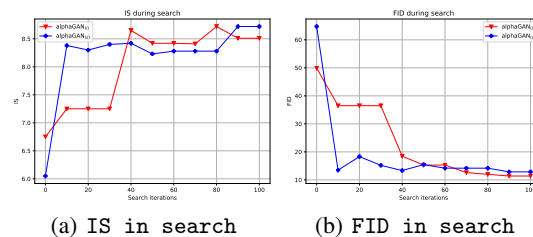


Figure 9: Tracking architectures during searching. alphaGAN_s is denoted by blue color with plus marker and alphaGAN_l is denoted by red color with triangle marker.

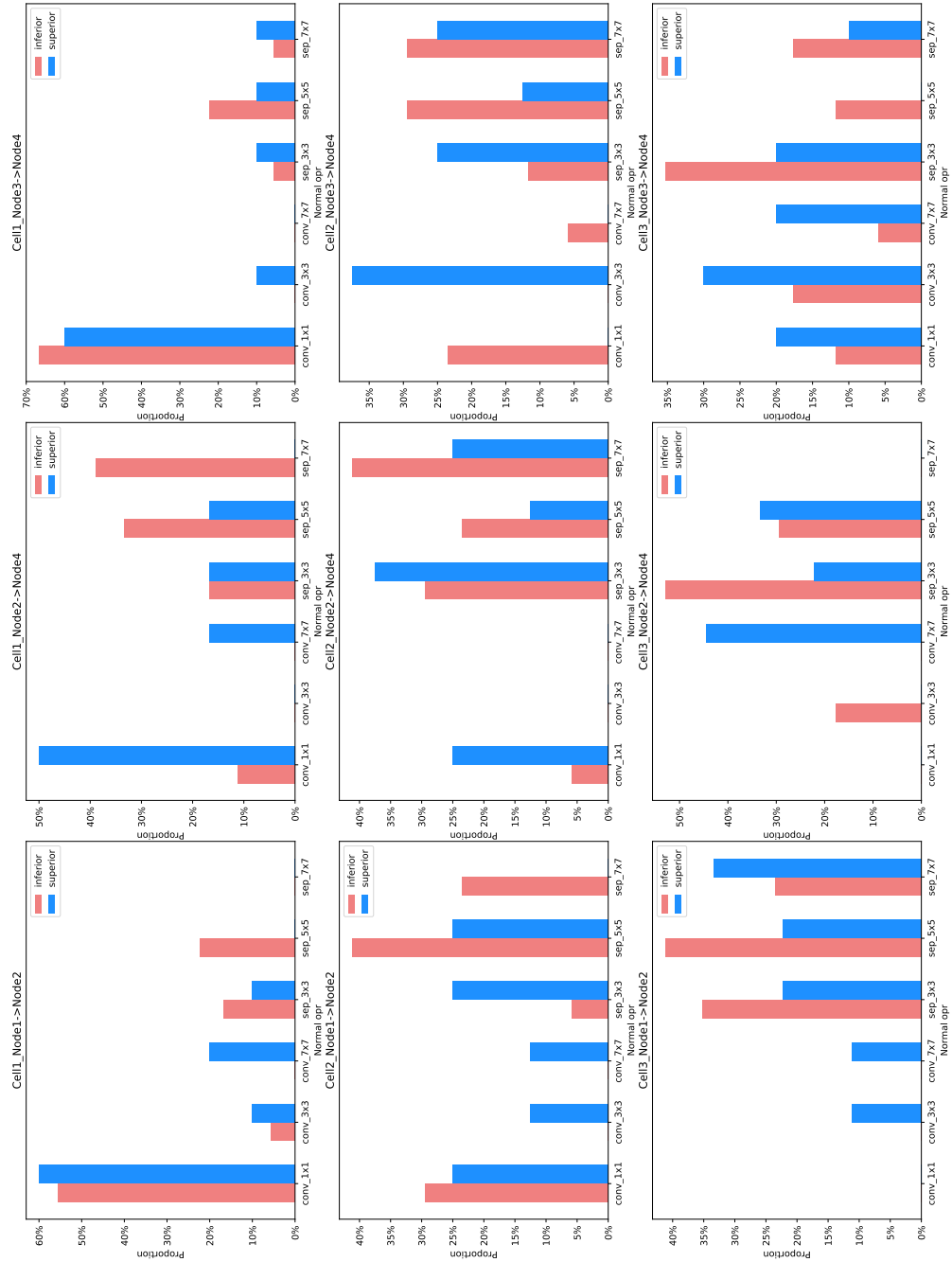


Figure 5: The distributions of normal operations.

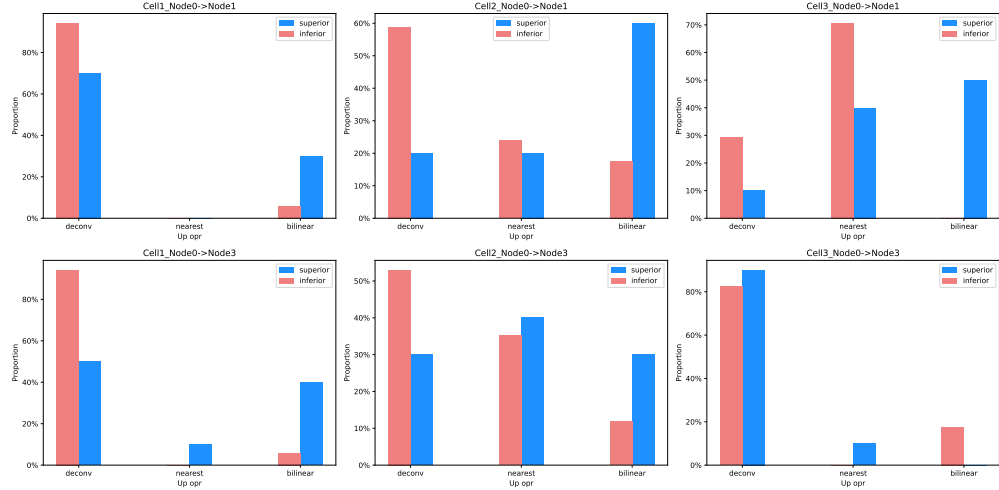


Figure 6: The distributions of up-sampling operations.

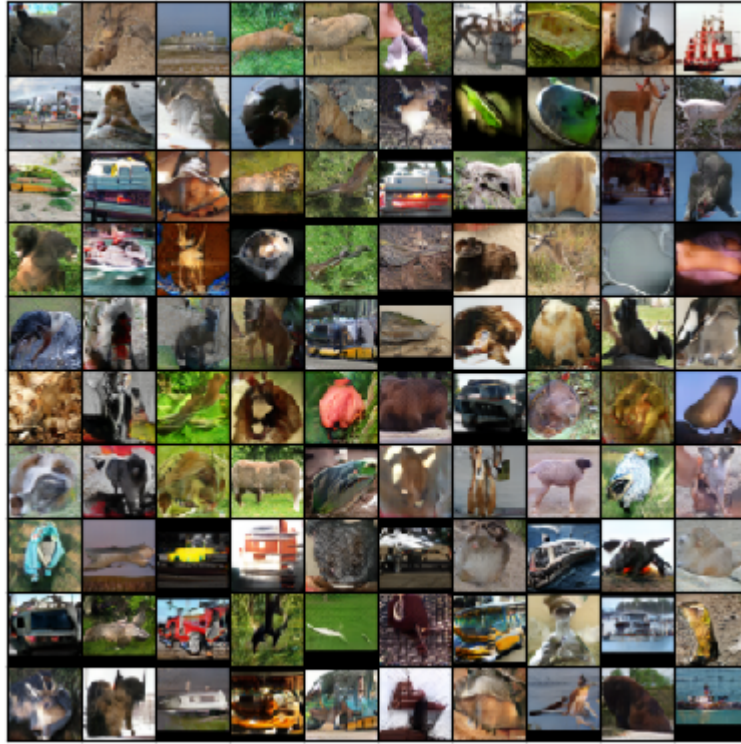


Figure 7: Generated samples of $\alpha\text{GAN}_{(s)}$ on STL-10.

392 G.3 Gumbel-max Trick

393 Gumbel-max trick [38] can be written as,

$$\beta^{o'} = \frac{\exp((\alpha^{o'} + g^{o'})/\tau)}{\sum_{o \in \mathcal{O}_n} \exp((\alpha^o + g^o)/\tau)}, \quad (7)$$

394 where $\beta^{o'}$ is the probability of selecting operation o' after Gumbel-max, and $\alpha^{o'}$ represents the
 395 architecture parameter of operation o' , respectively. \mathcal{O}_n represents the operation search space. g^o

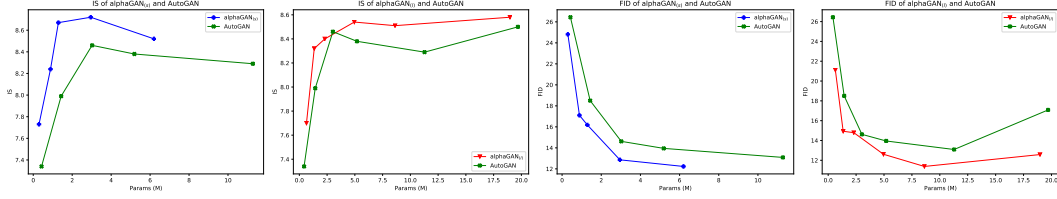


Figure 8: Relation between model capacity and performance. To align the model capacities with AutoGAN, the channels for G and D in $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ are $[64, 96, 128, 192, 256, 384]$, the channels for G and D in $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$ are $[64, 128, 160, 256, 384]$, and the channels for G and D in AutoGAN are $[64, 128, 192, 256, 384, 512]$.

Table 4: Gumbel-max trick and Warm-up.

Type	Name	Gumbel-max?	Fix alphas?	IS	FID
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$	baseline	×	×	8.51 ± 0.06	11.38
	Gumbel-max	✓	×	8.48 ± 0.10	20.69
	Warm-up	×	✓	8.34 ± 0.07	15.49
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$	baseline	×	×	8.72 ± 0.11	12.86
	Gumbel-max	✓	×	8.56 ± 0.06	15.66
	Warm-up	×	✓	8.25 ± 0.12	19.07

396 denotes samples drawn from the Gumbel (0,1) distribution, and τ represents the temperature to control
 397 the sharpness of the distribution. Instead of continuous relaxation, the trick chooses an operation on
 398 each edge, enabling discretization during searching. We compare the results by searching with and
 399 without Gumbel-max trick. The results in Tab. 4 show that searching with Gumbel-max may not be
 400 the essential factor for obtaining high-performance generator architectures.

401 G.4 Warm-up protocols

402 The generator contains two parts of parameters, (ω_G, α_G) . The optimization of α_G is highly related
 403 to network parameters ω_G . Intuitively, pretraining the network parameters ω_G can benefit the search
 404 of architectures since a better initialization may facilitate the convergence. To investigate the effect,
 405 we fix α_G and only update ω_G at the initial half of the searching schedule, and then α_G and ω_G are
 406 optimized alternately. This strategy is denoted as 'Warm-up' in Table 4.

407 The results show that the strategy may not help performance, i.e., IS of 'Warm-up' is slightly worse
 408 than that of the baseline and FID of 'Warm-up' is worse than that of the baseline, while it can
 409 benefit the searching efficiency, i.e., it spends ~ 15 GPU-hours for $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ (compared to ~ 22
 410 GPU-hours via the baseline), and ~ 1 GPU-hour for $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$ (compared to ~ 3 GPU-hours via
 411 the baseline).

412 G.5 Effect of Step Sizes

413 To analyze the effect of different step sizes on the "arch part", corresponding to the optimization
 414 process of the architecture parameters α_G in Algorithm 1 (line 10-13). Since $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ has larger
 415 step sizes for 'weight part' and 'test-weight part' compared with $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$, the step size of 'arch
 416 part' can be adjusted in a wider range. We select the $\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$ to conduct the experiments and the
 417 results are shown in Fig. 10. We can observe that the method perform fair robustness among different
 418 step sizes on the IS metric, while network performance based on the FID metric may be hampered
 419 with a less proper step.

420 G.6 Effect of Channels in Searching

421 As the default settings of alphaGAN, we search and re-train the networks with the same channel
 422 dimensions (i.e., G_channels=256 and D_channels=128), which are predefined. To explore the impact

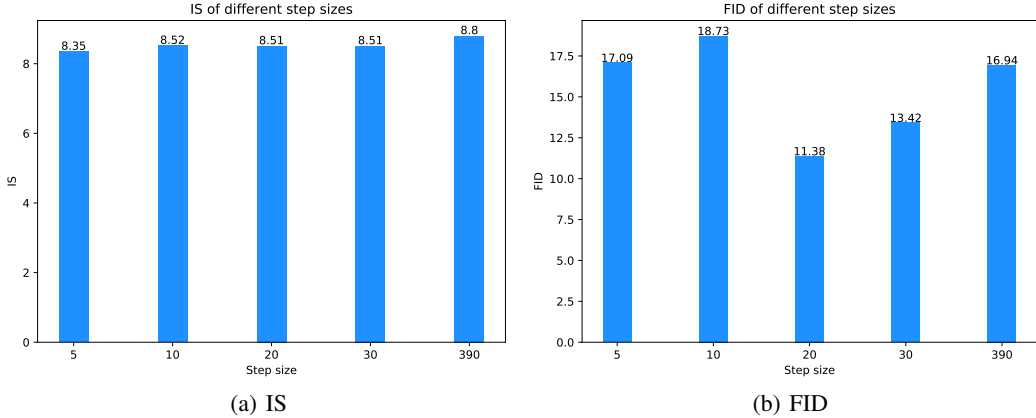


Figure 10: The effect of different step sizes of 'arch part'.

Table 5: The channels in searching on the $\alpha\text{GAN}_{(s)}$.

Search channels	Re-train channels	Params (M)	FLOPs (G)	IS	FID
G_32 D_32	G_32 D_32	0.109	0.02	7.10 ± 0.08	36.22
	G_256 D_128	2.481	1.12	8.61 ± 0.12	14.98
G_64 D_64	G_64 D_64	0.403	0.212	7.97 ± 0.09	22.49
	G_256 D_128	4.658	3.26	8.70 ± 0.17	14.02
G_128 D_128	G_128 D_128	1.967	0.91	8.26 ± 0.08	16.50
	G_256 D_128	7.309	3.64	8.75 ± 0.09	13.02
G_256 D_128	G_256 D_128	2.953	1.32	8.72 ± 0.11	12.86
	G_128 D_128	0.887	0.34	8.36 ± 0.08	17.12
	G_64 D_64	0.296	0.09	7.73 ± 0.08	24.81
	G_32 D_32	0.111	0.025	6.85 ± 0.1	35.6

423 of the channel dimensions during searching on the final performance of the searched architectures,
 424 we adjust the channel numbers of the generator and the discriminator during searching based on
 425 the searching configuration of $\alpha\text{GAN}_{(s)}$. The results are shown in Tab. 5. We observe that our
 426 method can achieve acceptable performance under a wide range of channel numbers (i.e., 32 ~ 256).
 427 We also find that using consistent channel dimensions during searching and re-training phases is
 428 beneficial to the final performance.

429 When reducing channels during searching, we observe an increasing trend on the operations of
 430 depth-wise convolutions with large kernels (e.g. 7x7), indicating that the operation selection induced
 431 by such automated mechanism is adaptive to need of preserving the entire information flow (i.e.,
 432 increasing information extraction on the spatial dimensions to compensate for the channel limits).

433 G.7 Searching on STL-10

434 We also search $\alpha\text{GAN}_{(s)}$ on STL-10. The channel dimensions in the generator and the discrimi-
 435 nator are set to 64 (due to the consideration of GPU memory limit). We use the size of 48x48 as the
 436 resolution of images. The rest experimental settings are same as the one of searching on CIFAR-10.
 437 The settings remain the same as Section C.2 when retraining the networks.

438 The results of three runs are shown in Tab. 6. Our method achieves high performance on both
 439 STL-10 and CIFAR-10, demonstrating the effectiveness and transferability of $\alpha\text{GAN}_{(s)}$ are not
 440 confined to a certain dataset. $\alpha\text{GAN}_{(s)}$ remains efficient which can obtain the structure reaching
 441 the state-of-the-art on STL-10 with only 2 GPU-hours. We also find no failure case exists in the
 442 three repeated experiments of $\alpha\text{GAN}_{(s)}$ compared to that on CIFAR-10, which may be related to

Table 6: Search on STL-10. We search $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$ on STL-10 and re-train the searched structure on STL-10 and CIFAR-10. In our repeated experiments, failure cases are prevented.

Name	Search time (GPU-hours)	Dataset of re-training	Params (M)	FLOPs (G)	IS	FID
Repeat_1	~ 2	STL-10	4.552	5.55	9.22 ± 0.08	25.42
Repeat_2	~ 2		2.475	2.01	9.66 ± 0.10	29.28
Repeat_3	~ 2		4.013	3.67	9.47 ± 0.10	26.61
Repeat_1	~ 2	CIFAR-10	3.891	2.47	8.29 ± 0.17	13.94
Repeat_2	~ 2		1.815	0.90	8.20 ± 0.13	16.54
Repeat_3	~ 2		3.352	1.63	8.62 ± 0.11	12.64

443 multiple latent factors that datasets intrinsically possess (e.g., resolution, categories) and we leave as
 444 a future work.

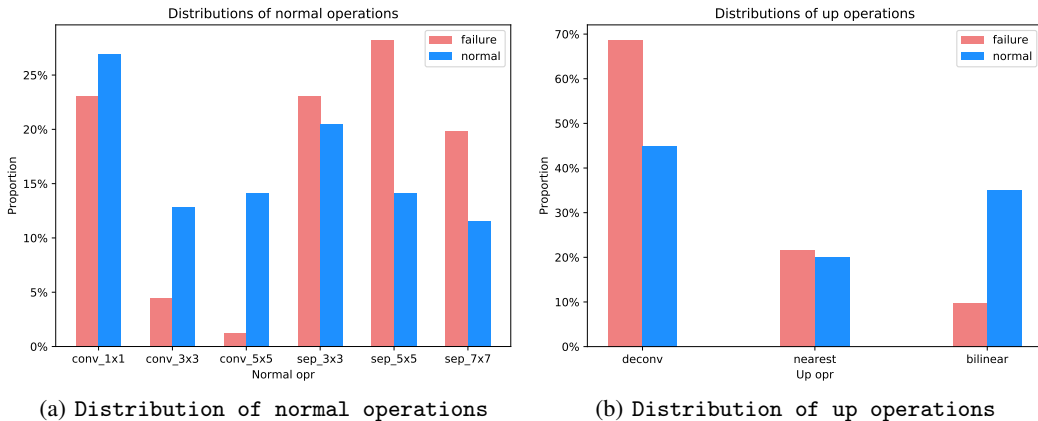


Figure 11: Distributions of operations in normal cases and failure cases of alphaGAN .

Table 7: Repeated search on CIFAR-10.

Name	Description	Params (M)	FLOPs (G)	IS	FID
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$	normal case	4.475	2.36	8.44 ± 0.13	13.62
		2.953	1.32	8.72 ± 0.11	12.86
	failure case	2.994	1.08	6.77 ± 0.07	45.88
$\text{alphaGAN}_{(l)}$	normal case	8.207	2.41	8.55 ± 0.08	15.42
		8.618	2.78	8.51 ± 0.06	11.38
	failure case	4.666	2.36	7.48 ± 0.1	52.58

445 **G.8 Failure cases**

446 As we pointed out in the main paper, the searching of alphaGAN will encounter failure cases, analo-
 447 gous to other NAS methods [39]. For better understanding the method, we present the comparison
 448 between normal cases and failure cases in Tab. 7 and the distributions of operations in Fig. 11. We
 449 find that deconvolution operations dominate in these failure cases. To validate this, we conduct the
 450 experiments on the variant by removing deconvolution operations from the search space under the
 451 configuration of $\text{alphaGAN}_{(s)}$. The results (with 6 runs) in Tab. 8 show that the failure cases can be
 452 prevented in this scenario.

Table 8: Search w\o deconv on alphaGAN_(s).

Name	Params (M)	FLOPs (G)	IS	FID
Repeat_1	4.594	2.20	8.29 ± 0.08	15.12
Repeat_2	2.035	0.51	8.34 ± 0.10	14.92
Repeat_3	1.586	0.55	8.24 ± 0.09	18.07
Repeat_4	1.631	0.58	8.32 ± 0.09	15.85
Repeat_5	1.631	0.60	8.43 ± 0.08	17.15
Repeat_6	2.064	1.03	8.26 ± 0.11	16.00

453 We also test on another setting by integrating conv_1x1 operation with the interpolation operations
454 (i.e., nearest and bilinear) and making them learnable as deconvolution, denoted as 'learnable
455 interpolation'. The results (with 6 runs) under the configuration of alphaGAN_(s) are shown in Tab. 9,
456 suggesting that the failure cases can also be alleviated by the strategy.

Table 9: The effect of 'learnable interpolation' on alphaGAN_(s).

Method	Name	Params (M)	FLOPs (G)	IS	FID
Learnable Interpolation	Repeat_1	2.775	0.99	8.43 ± 0.15	14.8
	Repeat_2	2.243	0.545	8.49 ± 0.12	18.82
	Repeat_3	3.500	0.99	8.35 ± 0.1	18.93
	Repeat_4	3.195	1.53	8.59 ± 0.1	13.22
	Repeat_5	2.968	0.82	8.22 ± 0.11	14.76
	Repeat_6	2.712	0.77	8.41 ± 0.11	13.47