
Encodings for Prediction-based Neural Architecture Search

Yash Akhauri¹ Mohamed S. Abdelfattah¹

Abstract

Predictor-based methods have substantially enhanced Neural Architecture Search (NAS) optimization. The efficacy of these predictors is largely influenced by the method of encoding neural network architectures. While traditional encodings used an adjacency matrix describing the graph structure of a neural network, novel encodings embrace a variety of approaches from unsupervised pretraining of latent representations to vectors of zero-cost proxies. In this paper, we categorize and investigate neural encodings from three main types: structural, learned, and score-based. Furthermore, we extend these encodings and introduce *unified encodings*, that extend NAS predictors to multiple search spaces. Our analysis draws from experiments conducted on over 1.5 million neural network architectures on NAS spaces such as NASBench-101 (NB101), NB201, NB301, Network Design Spaces (NDS), and TransNASBench-101. Building on our study, we present our predictor **FLAN: Flow Attention for NAS**. FLAN integrates critical insights on predictor design, transfer learning, and *unified encodings* to enable more than an order of magnitude cost reduction for training NAS accuracy predictors. Our implementation and encodings for all neural networks are open-sourced at https://github.com/abdelfattah-lab/flan_nas.

1. Introduction

In recent years, Neural Architecture Search (NAS) has emerged as an important methodology to automate neural network design. NAS consists of three components: (1) a neural network search space that contains a large number of candidate Neural Networks (NNs), (2) a search algorithm that navigates that search space, and (3) optimization objectives such as NN accuracy and latency. A key challenge

with NAS is its computational cost, which can be attributed to the sample efficiency of the NAS search algorithm, and the cost of evaluating each NN candidate. A vast array of search algorithms have been proposed to improve NAS sample efficiency, ranging from reinforcement learning (Zoph & Le, 2017), to evolutionary search (Pham et al., 2018), and differentiable methods (Liu et al., 2019). To reduce the evaluation cost of each NN candidate, prior work has utilized reduced-training accuracy (Zhou et al., 2020) zero-cost proxies (Abdelfattah et al., 2021), and accuracy predictors that are sometimes referred to as surrogate models (Zela et al., 2020). One of the most prevalent sample-based NAS algorithms utilizes accuracy predictors to both evaluate a candidate NN, and to navigate the search space. Recent work has clearly demonstrated the versatility and efficiency of *prediction-based NAS* (Dudziak et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2021), highlighting its importance. In this paper, we focus on understanding the makings of an efficient accuracy predictor for NAS, and we propose improvements that significantly enhance its sample efficiency and generality.

An integral element within NAS is the encoding method to represent NN architectures. Consequently, an important question arises, *how can we encode NNs to improve NAS efficiency?* This question has been studied in the past by White et al. (2020), investigating the effect of graph-based encodings such as adjacency matrices or path enumeration to represent NN architectures. However, recent research has introduced a plethora of new methods for encoding NNs which rely on concepts ranging from unsupervised auto-encoders, zero-cost proxies, and clustering NNs by computational similarity to learn latent representations. *This motivates an updated study on NN encodings for NAS to compare their relative performance and to elucidate the properties of effective encodings to improve NAS efficiency.*

We identify three key categories of encodings. **Structural** encodings (White et al., 2020) represent the graph structure of the NN architecture in the form of an adjacency matrix or path enumeration, typically represented by an operation matrix to identify the operation at each edge or node. **Score-based** (Akhauri & Abdelfattah, 2023) encodings map architectures to a vector of *measurements* such as Zero-Cost Proxies (Lee et al.; Tanaka et al., 2020; Mellor et al., 2021). Finally, **Learned** encodings learn latent representations of the architecture space. They can be further bifurcated into

¹Cornell University, New York, USA. Correspondence to: Yash Akhauri <ya255@cornell.edu>.

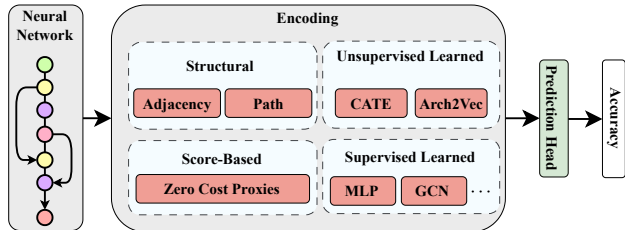


Figure 1: The basic structure of an accuracy predictor highlights that many different types of encodings can be fed to the same prediction head to perform accuracy prediction.

ones that explicitly learn representations through large-scale unsupervised training (Yan et al., 2020; 2021) and ones that co-train neural encodings during the supervised training of an accuracy predictor (Ning et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2019). Figure 1 illustrates our taxonomy of encoding methods, and their role within a NAS accuracy predictor.

NN encodings are particularly important in the case of prediction-based NAS because they have a large impact on the effectiveness of training an accuracy predictor. For that reason, and due to the increasing importance of predictors within NAS, our work provides a comprehensive analysis of the impact of encodings on the sample-efficiency of NAS predictors. We validate our observations on 13 NAS design spaces, spanning 1.5 million neural network architectures across different tasks and data-sets. Furthermore, NAS predictors have the capability to *extend* beyond a single NAS search space through transfer learning (Mills et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022) or more generally metalearning (Lee et al., 2021). This involves pre-training a predictor on an available NAS benchmark, then efficiently transferring it to a new search space with few NN accuracy samples. Our study examines the role of encodings and transfer learning in predictor efficacy. **Our Contributions** are:

1. We categorize and study the performance of several NN encoding methods in NAS accuracy prediction across 13 different NAS spaces.
2. We propose a new hybrid encoder (called FLAN) that outperforms prior methods consistently on multiple NAS benchmarks. We demonstrate a $2.12\times$ improvement in NAS sample efficiency.
3. We create *unified* encodings that allow few-shot transfer of accuracy predictors to new NAS spaces. Notably, we are able to improve sample efficiency of predictor training by $46\times$ across three NAS spaces compared to trained-from-scratch predictors from prior work.
4. We generate and provide open access to structural, score-based, and learned encodings for over 1.5 million NN architectures, spanning 13 distinct NAS spaces.

2. Related Work

Predictor-based NAS. NAS consists of an evaluation strategy to fetch the accuracy of an architecture, and a search strategy to explore and evaluate novel architectures. Predictor-based NAS involves training an accuracy predictor which guides the architectural sampling using prediction scores of unseen architectures (Dudziak et al., 2020; White et al., 2021). Recent literature has focused on the sample efficiency of these predictors, with BONAS (Shi et al., 2020) using a GCN for accuracy prediction as a surrogate function of Bayesian Optimization, and BRP-NAS (Dudziak et al., 2020) employing a binary relation predictor and iterative sampling strategy. Recently, TA-GATES (Ning et al., 2022) employed learnable operation embeddings and introduced a method of updating embeddings akin to the training process of a NN to achieve state-of-the-art sample efficiency.

NAS Benchmarks. To facilitate NAS research, a number of NAS benchmarks have been released, both from industry and academia (Ying et al., 2019; Zela et al., 2020; Duan et al., 2021; Mehta et al., 2022). These benchmarks contain a NAS space and accuracy for architectures on a specific task. Even though most of these benchmarks focus on cell-based search spaces for image classification, they greatly vary in size (4k – 400k architectures) and NN connectivity. Additionally, more recent benchmarks have branched out to include other tasks (Mehrotra et al., 2021) and macro search spaces (Chau et al., 2022). Evaluations on a number of these benchmarks have become a standard methodology to test and validate NAS improvements without incurring the large compute cost of performing NAS on a new search space.

NN Encodings. There are several methods for encoding candidate NN architectures. Early NAS research focused on *structural encodings*, converting the adjacency and operation matrix representing the DAG for the candidate cell into a flattened vector to encode architectures (White et al., 2020). *Score-based methods* such as Multi-Predict (Akhauri & Abdelfattah, 2023) focus more on capturing broad architectural properties, by generating a vector consisting of zero-cost proxies and hardware-latencies to represent NNs. There have also been efforts in *unsupervised learned* encodings such as Arch2Vec (Yan et al., 2020), which leverages the graph auto-encoders to learn a compressed latent vector used for encoding a NN. Another method, CATE (Yan et al., 2021), leverages concepts from masked language modeling to learn latent encodings using computational-aware clustering of architectures using Transformers. Finally, many supervised accuracy predictors implicitly learn encodings as intermediate activations in the predictor. These *supervised learned* encodings have been generated most commonly with graph neural networks (GNNs) within accuracy predictors (Dudziak et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2020; Ning et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022).

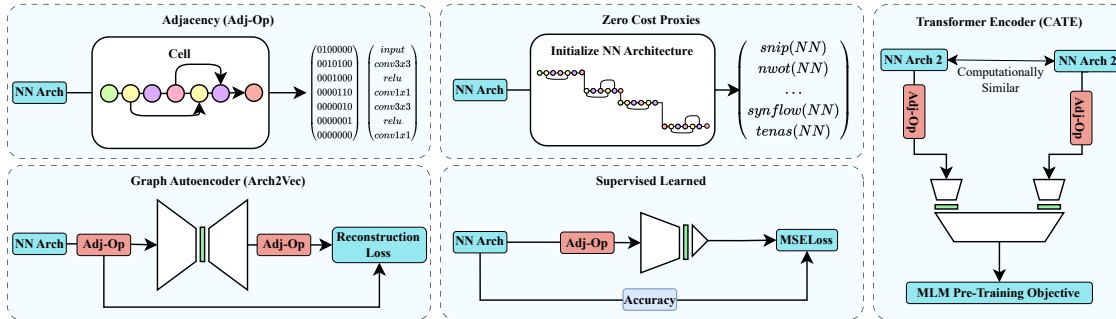


Figure 2: Illustration of important encoding methods that are discussed and evaluated in our work.

3. Encodings

A basic NAS formulation aims to maximize an objective function $\ell : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where ℓ is a measure of NN accuracy for our purposes but can include performance metrics as well such as hardware latency (Dudziak et al., 2020). A is a NN search space. During NAS, NN architectures $a \in A$ are *encoded* using some encoding function $e : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$, that represents a NN architecture as a d -dimensional tensor. While prior work (White et al., 2020) only considered a narrow definition of encodings wherein e was a fixed transformation that was completely independent of ℓ , we expand the definition to also consider encoding functions that are parameterized with θ . This includes supervised training to minimize the empirical loss \mathcal{L} on predicted values of ℓ to actual measurements: $\min_{\theta, \phi} \sum_{a \in A'} \mathcal{L}(F_{\phi}(e_{\theta}(a)), \ell(a))$, where $F : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a prediction head that takes a learned encoding value $e(a)$ and outputs predicted accuracy $\ell'(a)$. Simply put, this allows us to evaluate part of an accuracy predictor as a form of encoding, for example, a learned graph neural network encoding function that is commonly used in predictor-based NAS (Ning et al., 2022). Our definition also includes the use of unsupervised training to learn a latent representation r , for example using an autoencoder which attempts to optimize $\min_{\theta, \phi} \sum_{a \in A'} \mathcal{L}(F_{\theta}^{enc}(e(a)), F_{\phi}^{dec}(r))$ using an encoder-decoder structure that is trained to recreate the graph-based structure of an NN (e.g. adjacency encoding) (Yan et al., 2020). Our broader definition of encodings allows us to compare many methods of NN encodings that belong to the four categorizations below—important encodings are illustrated in Figure 2.

Structural encodings capture the connectivity information of a NN exactly. White et al. (2020) investigate two primary paradigms for structural encodings, *Adjacency* and *Path* encodings. A neural network can have n nodes, the adjacency matrix simply instantiates a $n \times n$ matrix, where each nodes connectivity with the other nodes are indicated. On the other hand, Path encodings represent an architecture based on the set of paths from input-to-output that are present within the architecture DAG. There are several forms of these encod-

ings discussed further by White et al. (2020), including Path truncation to make it a fixed-length encoding. Their investigation reveals that Adjacency matrices are almost always superior at representing NNs.

Score-based encodings represent a neural network as a vector of measurements related to NN activations, gradients, or properties. These metrics were defined to be a vector of Zero-Cost Proxies (ZCPs) and hardware latencies (HWL) in MultiPredict (Akhaouri & Abdelfattah, 2023), and used for accuracy and latency predictors respectively. Zero-cost proxies aim to find features of a NN that correlate highly with accuracy, whereas hardware latencies are fetched by benchmarking the architecture on a set of hardware platforms. Naturally, connectivity and choice of operations would have an impact on the final accuracy and latency of a model, therefore, these encodings implicitly capture architectural properties of a NN architecture, but contain no explicit structural information.

Unsupervised Learned encodings are representations that aim to distil the structural properties of a neural architecture to a latent space without utilizing accuracy. Arch2Vec (Yan et al., 2020) introduces a variational graph isomorphism autoencoder to learn to regenerate the adjacency and operation matrix. CATE (Yan et al., 2021) is a transformer based architecture that uses computationally similar architecture pairs (FLOPs or parameter count) to learn encodings. With two computationally similar architectures, a transformer is tasked to predict masked operations for the pairs, which skews these encodings to be similar for NNs with similar computational complexity. Unsupervised Learned encodings are typically trained on a large number of NNs because NN accuracy is not used.

Supervised Learned encodings refer to representations that are implicitly learned in a supervised fashion as a predictor is trained to estimate accuracy of NN architectures. These encodings are representations that evolve and continually adapt as more architecture-accuracy pairs are used to train an accuracy predictor. Supervised Learned encodings are more likely to exhibit a high degree of bias towards the

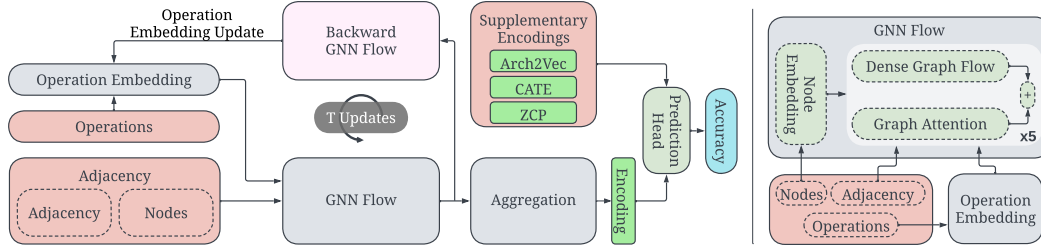


Figure 3: The FLAN predictor architecture showing dual graph flow mechanisms, independent updates of operation embeddings, and the capability to concatenate supplementary encodings.

Forward	Backward	NB101	NB201	NB301	PNAS	Amoeba
DGF	DGF	0.71	0.80	0.71	0.38	0.42
GAT	GAT	0.65	0.77	0.79	0.36	0.38
Ensemble	DGF	0.72	0.81	0.81	0.30	0.39
Ensemble	Ensemble	0.73	0.82	0.82	0.42	0.46

Table 1: Ensembling both DGF and GAT modules improves predictor performance. Table shows Kendall- τ coeff. of accuracy predictors trained on 128 NNs and tested on the remainder of each search space.

specific task on which they are trained, potentially limiting their generality when extending/transferring a predictor to a different search space.

Unified Encodings. Multi-Predict (Akhauri & Abdelfattah, 2023) and GENNAPE (Mills et al., 2022) introduce encodings that can represent arbitrary NNs across multiple search spaces. Further, CDP (Liu et al., 2022) introduces a predictor trained on existing NAS benchmark data-sets, and is then used to find architectures in large-scale search spaces. In our work, we look at unified encoding methods that can work across cell-based search spaces to enable NAS knowledge reuse, and to enable search on novel search spaces with only a few samples. To make our encodings unified, we append unique numerical indices to the cell-based encoding of each search space. This simple extension enables the use of our studied encodings across multiple search spaces.

4. FLAN: Flow Attention Networks For NAS

Our empirical evaluation (yet to be presented in Table 2) shows that Supervised Learned encoders often out-perform other encoding methods. This is somewhat expected because they have access to the accuracies of NNs in the search space. However, training candidate NN architectures can be fairly expensive, and it is not always feasible to obtain accuracies of a sufficient number of NNs, therefore, we focus on the sample efficiency of the accuracy predictors. In this section, we introduce **FLAN**: a hybrid encoding architecture which draws on our empirical analysis to deliver state-of-the-art sample efficiency for accuracy prediction. We carefully tune the predictor architecture so that it can be used reliably as a vehicle to investigate and compare

existing and new hybrid encoding schemes as well as unified encodings. Figure 3 shows the FLAN architecture, described further in this section. FLAN combines successful ideas from prior graph-based encoders (Dudziak et al., 2020; Ning et al., 2022) and further improves upon them through dual graph-flow mechanisms. In addition to learning an implicit NN encoding, FLAN can be supplemented with additional encodings arbitrarily through concatenation before the predictor head as shown in Figure 3.

4.1. GNN Architecture

Compared to Multi-Layer Perceptrons (MLPs), Graph Convolutional Networks (GCN) improve prediction performance, as shown in Table 2. We employ an architectural adaptation inspired by (Ming Chen et al., 2020), referred to as ‘Dense Graph Flow’ (DGF) (Ning et al., 2023). Empirical analysis, detailed in Table 14, reveals that substantial enhancements in predictor performance can be realized through the integration of residual connections (Kipf & Welling, 2017) within DGF. Further, we add another node propagation mechanism based on graph attention to facilitate inter-node interaction. Empirical results in Table 1 and Table 13 shows that the ensemble of both graph flows (DGF+GAT) typically yields the best results.

Dense Graph Flow (DGF): DGF employs residual connections to counteract over-smoothing in GCNs, thereby preserving more discriminative, localized information. Formally, given the input feature matrix for layer l as X^l , the adjacency matrix A , and the operator embedding O , with parameter and bias as W_o^l , W_f^l , and b_f^l respectively, the input feature matrix for the $(l + 1)^{th}$ layer is computed as follows (σ is the sigmoid activation):

$$X^{l+1} = \sigma(O W_o^l) \odot (A(X^l W_f^l)) + (X^l W_f^l) + b_f^l \quad (1)$$

Graph Attention (GAT): Unlike DGF, which employs a linear transform W_o^l to apply learned attention to the operation features, GAT (Veličković et al., 2018) evaluates pairwise interactions between nodes through an attention layer during information aggregation. The input to the l^{th} layer is a set of node features (input feature matrix) X^l , to

transform the input to higher level-features, a linear transform parameterized by the projection matrix W_p^l is applied to the nodes. This is followed by computing the self-attention for the node features with a shared attentional mechanism a . LR indicates LeakyReLU. The output X^{l+1} is thus calculated as follows:

$$\text{Attn}_j(X^l) = \sigma(\text{LR}(A_j \cdot a(W_p^l X^l \cdot W_p X_j^l))) \cdot W_p X_j^l \quad (2)$$

$$X^{l+1} = \text{LayerNorm} \left(\sigma(O W_o^l) \odot \sum_{j=1}^n \text{Attn}_j(X^l) \right) \quad (3)$$

where Attn_j are the normalized attention coefficients, σ denotes the sigmoid activation function. To optimize the performance of GATs, we incorporate the learned operation attention mechanism W_o from Equation 1 with the pair-wise attention to modulate the aggregated information and LayerNorm to improve stability during training.

The primary components of FLAN which significantly boost predictor performance are the residual connection in Eqn 1, the learned operation attention mechanism W_o in Eqn 1 and Eqn 3 and the pair-wise attention in the GAT module. These modules are ensembled in the overall network architecture, and repeated 5 times. Additionally, the NASBench-301 and Network Design Spaces (NDS) search spaces (Radosavovic et al., 2019) provide benchmarks on large search spaces of two cell architectures, the normal and reduce cells. We train predictors on these search spaces by keeping separate DGF-GAT modules for the normal and reduce cells, and adding the aggregated outputs.

4.2. Operation Embeddings

In a NN architecture, each node or edge can be an operation such as convolution, maxpool. GNNs generally identify these operations with a one-hot vector as an attribute. However, different operations have widely different characteristics. To model this, TA-GATES (Ning et al., 2022) operation embedding tables that can be updated independently from predictor training. Figure 3 depicts the concept of an iterative operation embedding update in more detail. Before producing an accuracy prediction, there are T time-steps (iterations) in which the operation embeddings are updated and refined. In each iteration, the output of GNN flow is passed to a ‘Backward GNN Flow’ module, which performs a backward pass using a transposed adjacency matrix. The output of this backward pass, along with the encoding is provided to a learnable transform that provides an update to the operation embedding table. This iterative refinement, conducted over specified time steps, ensures that the encodings capture more information about diverse operations within the network. Refer to A.7 for a detailed ablation study focusing on vital aspects of the network design.

4.3. FLAN Encodings

Supplemental Encodings: Supervised learned encodings are representations formed by accessing accuracies of NN architectures. While structural, score-based and unsupervised learned encodings do not carry information about accuracy, they can still be used to distinguish between NN architectures. For instance, CATE (Yan et al., 2021) learns latent representations by computational clustering, thus providing CATE may contextualize the computational characteristics of the architecture. ZCP provides architectural-level information by serving as proxies for accuracy. Consequently, supplemental encodings can optionally be fed into the MLP prediction head after the node aggregation as shown in Figure 3. We find that using architecture-level ZCPs can significantly improve the sample-efficiency of predictors. CAZ refers to the encoding resulting from the concatenation of CATE, Arch2Vec and ZCP.

Unified Encodings and Transferring Predictors: Transferring knowledge between different search spaces can enhance the sample efficiency of predictors. However, achieving this is challenging due to the unique operations and macro structures inherent to each search space. To facilitate cross-search-space prediction, a unified operation space is crucial. Our methodology is straightforward; we concatenate a unique search space index to *each* operation, creating distinctive operation vectors. These vectors can either be directly utilized by predictors as operation embeddings or be uniquely indexed by the operation embedding table. Note that the training time for FLAN is less than 10 minutes on a single GPU, it is thus straightforward to regenerate an indexing that supports more spaces, and re-train the predictor. It is noteworthy that ZCPs *inherently* function as unified encodings by measuring broad architectural properties of a neural network (NN). Conversely, Arch2Vec and CATE are cell-based encoders. To accommodate this, we developed new encodings for Arch2Vec and CATE within a combined search space of 1.5 million NN architectures from all our NAS benchmarks. **We provide predictor training and NAS results for all neural networks available on the NAS benchmark for 13 NAS spaces in Sections A.8 & A.9, and provide a sub-set of these results in the experiments section to compare fairly to related work. To realize such a transfer of predictors from one search space to another, a predictor, initially trained on the source search space, is adapted using the unified operation encodings and subsequently retrained on the target design space. This is denoted by a T superscript (FLAN^T) in our experiments section.**

5. Experiments

We investigate the efficacy of different encodings of neural networks on 13 search spaces, including NB101, NB201, NB301, 9 search spaces from NDS and TransNASBench-

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Classification	Encoder	NASBench-101			NASBench-201			NASBench-301			ENAS		
		(Portion of 7290 samples)			(Portion of 7813 samples)			(Portion of 5896 samples)			(Portion of 500 samples)		
		1%	5%	10%	0.1%	0.5%	1%	0.5%	1%	5%	5%	10%	25%
Structural	ADJ	0.327	0.464	0.514	0.047	0.273	0.382	0.275	0.401	0.537	0.057	0.060	0.089
	Path	0.387	0.696	0.752	0.133	0.307	0.396	-	-	-	-	-	-
Score	ZCP	0.591	0.662	0.684	0.248	0.397	0.376	0.286	0.272	0.367	0.387	0.458	0.540
Unsupervised Learned	Arch2Vec	0.210	0.346	0.345	0.046	0.165	0.144	0.174	0.228	0.379	0.202	0.228	0.324
	CATE	0.362	0.458	0.467	0.462	0.551	0.571	0.388	0.349	0.417	0.200	0.279	0.410
Supervised Learned	GCN	0.366	0.597	0.692	0.246	0.311	0.408	0.095	0.128	0.267	0.230	0.314	0.428
	GATES	0.632	0.749	0.769	0.430	0.670	0.757	0.561	0.606	0.691	0.340	0.428	0.527
	FLAN	0.665	0.794	0.823	0.486	0.706	0.782	0.539	0.537	0.698	0.146	0.291	0.505
Hybrid	TAGATES	0.668	0.774	0.783	0.538	0.670	0.773	0.572	0.635	0.712	0.345	0.440	0.548
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.698	0.811	0.831	0.510	0.714	0.788	0.573	0.656	0.721	0.397	0.470	0.589
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.609	0.775	0.816	0.524	0.713	0.785	0.417	0.509	0.688	0.128	0.243	0.410
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.668	0.795	0.827	0.496	0.694	0.778	0.527	0.502	0.702	0.172	0.308	0.466
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.689	0.807	0.831	0.489	0.703	0.782	0.517	0.537	0.698	0.355	0.433	0.570

Table 2: A comparative study of accuracy predictors when utilizing different encoding methods. Table shows Kendall- τ correlation coefficient of predictors relative to ground-truth NN accuracies. FLAN_X refers to the FLAN encoder with supplemental X encodings.

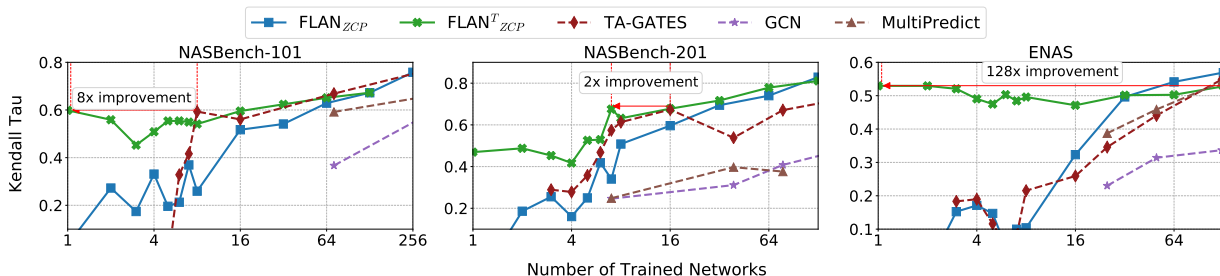


Figure 4: FLAN sample efficiency compared to prior work. Experimental settings match (Ning et al., 2022) and Table 2.

101 Micro. Aside from our encodings investigation, we study the transferrability of predictors across NAS search spaces (**SS**), different tasks (**T**) on TransNASBench-101 Micro, and across different datasets (**D**): CIFAR-10 to ImageNet. All of our experiments follow the Best Practices for NAS checklist (Lindauer & Hutter, 2019), detailed in the Appendix A.1. Contrary to prior work, we generate encodings for all architectures from the NAS Benchmark for evaluation. To effectively evaluate encodings on these NAS spaces, we generate and open source the CATE, Arch2Vec and Adjacency representations for 1487731 NN architectures. NAS-Bench-Suite-Zero (Krishnakumar et al., 2022a) introduces a data-set of 13 zero cost proxies across 28 tasks, totalling 44798 architectures. We generate 13 zero-cost proxies on an additional **487731** ($10\times$) NN architectures to facilitate thorough experimentation of different encodings. Building on previous studies, we adopt Kendall-Tau (Kendall- τ) rank correlation coefficient relative to ground-truth accuracy as the primary measure of predictive ability. We use a pairwise hinge ranking loss to train our predictors (Ning et al., 2022). Different NN encodings are input to a 3-layer MLP prediction head with ReLU nonlinearities, except for the output layer which has no nonlinearities.

NN Encodings Study: Table 2 provides a comparative evaluation of different encoder categories. We evaluate predictor performance on a subset of each NAS space, specifically to align with the experimental setup of prior work (Ning et al., 2022), and to compare fairly to it. In Table 2, we train encoders on a fraction of the data, such as 1% of 7290 (72 architectures) for NB101, and then test on all 7290 test sample architectures for NB101. Note, however, that all other tables, unless explicitly mentioned, evaluate all NNs available in the NAS space, ensuring a more consistent and thorough evaluation approach. Our results in Table 2 show that Supervised Learned encodings perform best, especially when supplemented with additional encodings. Our best predictor, FLAN_{ZCP}, delivers up-to a 15% improvement in Kendall- τ correlation compared to the best previous result from TA-GATES. The results highlight the efficacy of Supervised Learned encodings, and the importance of GNN enhancements such as residual connections and the dual graph flow mechanisms introduced in FLAN. This sets a solid predictor baseline for our cross-domain transfer study.

Cross-Domain Transfer: The ranking quality for predictors can be very low when *training from scratch* with very few samples. This is because fewer samples are typically not

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TB101 Target Task (T) Samples	Scratch		Transfer From TB101 Class Scene			
	16	128	0*	4	8	16
AutoEncoder	0.456	0.624	0.836	0.794	0.799	0.808
Class Object	0.404	0.656	0.844	0.754	0.811	0.799
Jigsaw	0.350	0.608	0.833	0.821	0.778	0.793
Room Layout	0.391	0.757	0.831	0.815	0.811	0.808
Segment Semantic	0.644	0.802	0.829	0.789	0.788	0.798

Table 3: Cross Task (T) Transfer.

NDS ImageNet (D) Samples	Scratch		Transfer from NDS CIFAR-10			
	16	128	0*	4	8	16
Amoeba	0.067	0.403	0.660	0.598	0.629	0.642
DARTS	0.063	0.488	0.592	0.604	0.632	0.664
ENAS	0.079	0.447	0.567	0.550	0.550	0.569
NASNet	0.107	0.395	0.394	0.396	0.399	0.437
PNAS	0.104	0.426	0.378	0.370	0.376	0.451

Table 4: Cross data-set (D) Transfer

Search Space		Scratch		Transfer			
Source	Target	16	128	0*	4	8	16
ENAS	Amoeba	0.058	0.435	0.458	0.421	0.419	0.470
ENAS	DARTS	0.081	0.514	0.551	0.453	0.481	0.567
DARTS	ENAS	0.099	0.449	0.465	0.425	0.426	0.484
PNAS	NASNet	0.120	0.402	0.334	0.227	0.301	0.344
NASNet	PNAS	0.102	0.431	0.412	0.322	0.376	0.430

* 0 samples denotes the use of the pre-trained predictor without any fine-tuning on the target search space.

Table 5: Cross NAS Space (SS) Transfer

sufficiently representative to train a generalizable predictor. To address this, and to enable few-shot accuracy predictors, we investigate the transfer of our baseline predictor FLAN across NAS spaces (SS), data-sets (D), and tasks (T). We compare FLAN^T (FLAN Transfer in Cross-NAS Space (SS) setting) with prior train-from-scratch predictors in Figure 4, demonstrating an order of magnitude improvement in sample efficiency. We conduct the rest of our experiments to more comprehensively test predictor performance on the entire NAS space after training on the number of samples specified in each table. Compared to prior work that only tested predictors on a subset of the NAS search space (Ning et al., 2022; 2023), our experimental setting is more challenging, but also more comprehensively tests the generalization of our predictors. Tables 3, 4, and 5 demonstrate significantly more efficient NAS accuracy predictors resulting from our cross-domain transfer experiments when compared to predictors trained from scratch. We train the base predictor on 1024 samples on the source domain, and test the sample efficiency of FLAN^T on the target domain.

Table 3 compares the Kendall- τ metric when FLAN is trained from scratch, versus when it is transferred from TB101 class scene task. A pre-trained predictor on the TB101 Class Scene task outperforms training from scratch on all target tasks, with 16–128 samples, even in the absence of fine-tuning. Surprisingly, adding few-shot fine-tuning might degrade predictor performance. This emphasizes that

Transfer	GENNAPE	-	FLAN ^T			
			CATE	Arch2Vec	ZCP	CAZ
Zero-Shot	0.815	0.744	0.710	0.661	0.702	0.679
50 Samples	0.910	0.930	0.942	0.936	0.944	0.934

Table 6: Comparing to GENNAPE (Mills et al., 2022) in two scenarios: using a predictor pre-trained on 50k NB101 NNs directly on NB201 without fine-tuning, and transferring the same predictor to NB201 with 50 NN accuracies. Avg. Spearman- ρ over 5 trials is reported. Note that Spearman- ρ is used in this experiment instead of KDT to be able to compare to GENNAPE.

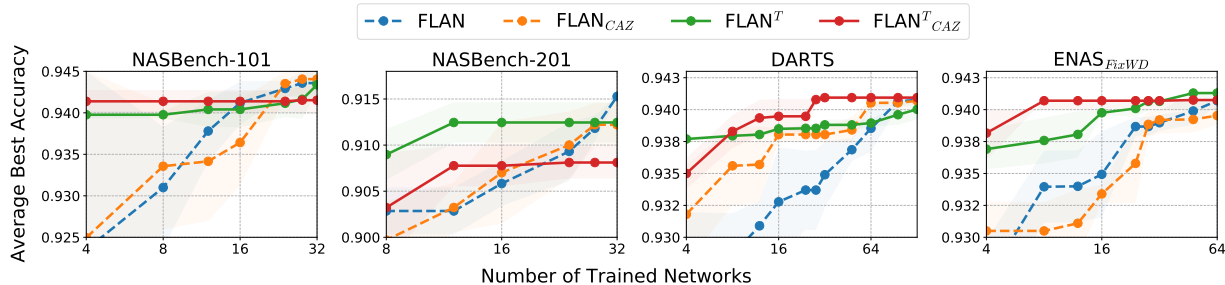
Samples	CDP	-	FLAN ^T			
			CATE	Arch2Vec	ZCP	CAZ
100	100	16	16	16	16	16
Kendall- τ	0.531	0.567	0.528	0.565	0.622	0.620

Table 7: Comparing CDP (Liu et al., 2022) with our predictor (FLAN^T) and supplementary encoding variants on DARTS. Results show the average Kendall- τ over 5 trials.

few samples on any space may not be sufficiently representative. For TB101, different tasks are highly-correlated (up to 0.87 Spearman- ρ), which may indicate that the base predictor trained on Class-Scene is sufficiently representative for other tasks as well. Further, we investigate **cross data-set (D)** transfer in Table 4. Training a base predictor on the CIFAR-10 data-set and performing few-shot transfer learning to the NDS ImageNet dataset improves prediction accuracy substantially as the transfer dataset size increases.

Table 5 studies **cross NAS search space (SS)** transfer. In this more challenging setting, we use our *unified encodings* (Section 4.3) to be able to adapt a predictor from one search space to another. Training from scratch on the target search space with 16 samples is never enough to push predictor performance beyond 0.12 KDT, whereas transfer learning from an existing search space is effective in boosting prediction accuracy both in the zero-shot case, and with as few as 4-16 samples—at least an 8 \times sample efficiency improvement when compared to from-scratch predictors with 128 samples. This can provide a concrete way to reuse NAS searches, even across different search spaces and holds promise to make NAS more efficient and sustainable computationally.

Comparisons to Prior Cross-Domain Transfer: To compare fairly to prior work, we replicate the experimental settings of GENNAPE (Mills et al., 2022) and CDP (Liu et al., 2022) in Tables 6 and 7 respectively. GENNAPE performs cross-search-space transfer using a base predictor trained on 50k NN architectures on NB101, transferred to NB201. Table 6 shows that GENNAPE is more effective at zero-shot transfer but lags behind FLAN with 50 samples of transfer learning. Note that GENNAPE is an ensemble model using a weighted average of multiple predictors as well as two pairwise classifiers. While the zero-shot performance of this ensemble performs well, all variants of


 Figure 5: End-to-end NAS using an iterative sampling algorithm. FLAN^T improves performance for low sample counts.

	NASBench-101					NASBench-201								
	BONAS	Aging Evo. (AE)	BRPNAS	Zero-Cost NAS (W) AE (15k)	RAND (3k)	FLAN_{CAZ}		FLAN^T_{CAZ}		GENNAPE	FLAN^T_{CAZ}			
Trained models	1000	418	140	50	34	8	16	50	0	8	50	50	32	64
Test Acc. [%]	94.22	94.22	94.22	94.22	94.22	93.58	94.22	94.84	94.16	94.16	94.34	93.27	93.30	93.73

Table 8: A study on the number of trained models required to achieve a specified test accuracy.

	Cross-Transfer					
	D	T	SS	SS+D	SS+T	SS+D+T
Kendall- τ	(+) 0.47	(+) 0.32	(+) 0.28	(+) 0.17	(+) 0.16	(+) 0.10

 Table 9: Enhancement in Kendall- τ when transferring predictor across combinations of NAS search spaces (SS), task (T) and data-set (D) in contrast to training from scratch on the target domain from 16 samples. Reported average across suitable sub-sets of Table 3, 4, 5, 16, 17.

our FLAN with supplementary encodings outperforms the GENNAPE predictor ensemble after fine-tuning.

In Table 7, we compare the cross search space adaptation methods LMMD + PSP (Zhu et al., 2021) introduced in CDP (Liu et al., 2022). CDP employs a progressive strategy, using NASBench-101, NASBench-201 and Tiny DARTS (Liu et al., 2022) for cross NAS Space (SS) transfer, we use a single source space (ENAS) for cross NAS Space (SS) transfer. We find that our predictor with ZCP supplementary encoding and transfer offers over $5\times$ better sample efficiency and 17% better Kendall- τ correlation. These studies further highlight the importance and effectiveness of supplementary encodings in predictor sample-efficiency.

Effectiveness of predictor cross-domain transfer depends not only on the predictor design and supplementary encodings, but on the nature of the source and target NAS spaces as well. We find that in some cases where there are very few samples, it may be more beneficial to pre-train a predictor. We train predictors from scratch and with transfer on all 13 NAS spaces, encompassing over 1.5 million NN architectures in the Appendix. Using this data, in Table 9, we summarize these many experiments by showing the average improvement in Kendall- τ metric across combinations of SS, D, and T transfers. All modes of cross-domain transfer improve upon predictors that are trained from scratch, further confirming the promise of this approach in creating transferable and reusable NAS predictors.

Neural Architecture Search: To gauge the NAS-efficiency of FLAN, we implement NAS search using the iterative sampling algorithm introduced by Dudziak et al. (2020). With a budget of n models per iteration and m models in the search space, we use our predictor to rank the entire search space, and then select the best $\frac{n}{2}$ models. We sample the next $\frac{n}{2}$ models from the top $\max(512, \frac{m}{2})$ models, where i is the iteration counter. Table 8 compares our results to the best sample-based NAS results found in the literature. We achieve the same test accuracy as Zero-Cost NAS (W) - Rand (3k) (Abdelfattah et al., 2021) with $2.12\times$ fewer samples on end-to-end NAS with FLAN_{CAZ} . GENNAPE pre-trains their base predictor on 50k samples on NB101, and transfers it to NB201. FLAN^T_{CAZ} pre-trains on $48\times$ fewer NB101 samples (1024) and finds similar architectures at 36% fewer transfer accuracy samples. Experimental setup detailed in A.8. Further, we compare the NAS efficiency of different encoding methods in Figure 5. We find that transfer learning helps in general, with supplemental encodings (FLAN^T_{CAZ}) providing the best average performance.

6. Conclusion

We presented a comprehensive study of NN encoding methods, demonstrating their importance in enhancing the efficiency of accuracy predictors in both scenarios of training from scratch and transfer learning. Through architectural ablations (in Table 1 & Section A.7) and supplementary encodings, we designed a state-of-the-art accuracy predictor, FLAN, that outperforms prior work by $\sim 30\%$. We used FLAN to transfer accuracy predictors across search-spaces (SS), data-sets (D) and tasks (T) spanning 1.5 million NNs across 13 NAS spaces, demonstrating over $8\times$ improvement in sample efficiency, and a $2.12\times$ improvement in practical NAS sample efficiency. We open source our code and data-sets of supplemental encodings to encourage further research on predictor design, the role of encoding in prediction based NAS and transfer learning of predictors.

Impact Statement

We study the impact of supplementary encodings and few-shot transfer on the sample efficiency of prediction-based NAS. This study is conducted on over 1.5 million NN architectures, by generating their structural, score, unsupervised and supervised learned encodings across 13 NAS spaces. Open-sourcing these encodings and the framework will have significant positive impact on NAS research and deployment by allowing effective re-use of knowledge across neural design spaces. We demonstrate the effectiveness of few-shot transfer of predictors, significantly enhancing their predictive ability with very few accuracy samples (over $8\times$ improvement in sample efficiency). For this, we place a strong focus on using existing NAS benchmarks, saving significantly on associated model training costs. We thoroughly investigate the effectiveness of predictor transfer on cross-task, cross-dataset and cross-NAS space scenarios (as shown in Table 9). This investigation reinforces the findings of prior studies (Mills et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Akhauri & Abdelfattah, 2023), suggesting the viability of few-shot predictor transfer across markedly different NAS landscapes. We also bring the attention of the community to supplementary encodings, which are relatively cheap to generate, and can provide a 15% improvement in sample efficiency. NAS generally requires the training of several models during the search stage, to serve as feedback on which architectural features aid accuracy. With these findings, our paper suggests the use of benchmarks to pre-train accuracy predictors, significantly improving the sample efficiency of predictor-based NAS on downstream tasks. Our demonstration of an order of magnitude improvement in sample efficiency of predicting NN accuracy can have a positive societal impact, by drastically reducing the carbon cost of NAS. We will also open-source our framework and encodings to encourage future research on sample-efficient NAS.

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A. Appendix

A.1. Best practices for NAS

(White et al., 2020; Li & Talwalkar, 2019; Ying et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020) discuss improving reproducibility and fairness in experimental comparisons for NAS. We thus address the sections released in the NAS best practices checklist by (Lindauer & Hutter, 2019).

- **Best Practice: Release Code for the Training Pipeline(s) you use:** We release code for our Predictor, CATE, Arch2Vec encoder training set-up.
- **Best Practice: Release Code for Your NAS Method:** We release our code publicly for the BRP-NAS style NAS search. We do not introduce a new NAS method.
- **Best Practice: Use the Same NAS Benchmarks, not Just the Same Datasets:** We use the NASBench-101, NASBench-201, NASBench-301, NDS and TransNASBench-101 datasets for evaluation. We also use a sub-set of Zero Cost Proxies from NAS-Bench-Suite-Zero.
- **Best Practice: Run Ablation Studies:** We run ablation studies for the design of FLAN in Table 14, Table 13, Table 11 and Table 14. We conduct ablation studies with different supplementary encodings in the main paper.
- **Best Practice: Use the Same Evaluation Protocol for the Methods Being Compared:** We use the same evaluation protocol as TAGATES when comparing encoders across literature. We provide additional larger studies that all follow the same evaluation protocol.
- **Best Practice: Evaluate Performance as a Function of Compute Resources:** In this paper, we study the sample efficiency of encodings. We report results in terms of the 'number of trained models required'. This directly correlates with compute resources, depending on the NAS space training procedure.
- **Best Practice: Compare Against Random Sampling and Random Search:** We propose a predictor - encoder design methodology, not a NAS method. We use SoTA BRP-NAS style NAS algorithm for comparing with existing literature.
- **Best Practice: Perform Multiple Runs with Different Seeds:** Our appendix contains information on number of trials as well as tables for all NAS spaces with standard deviation in Table 16 and Table 17.
- **Best Practice: Use Tabular or Surrogate Benchmarks If Possible:** All our evaluations are done on publicly available Tabular and Surrogate benchmarks.

A.2. Neural Architecture Design Spaces

In this paper, multiple distinct neural architecture design spaces are studied. Both NASBench-101(Ying et al., 2019) and NASBench-201(Dong & Yang, 2020) are search spaces based on cells, comprising 423,624 and 15,625 architectures

Search space	Tasks	Num. ZC proxies	Num. architectures	Total ZC proxy evaluations
NAS-Bench-101	1	13	423 625	5 507 125
NAS-Bench-201	1	13	15 625	203 125
DARTS	1	13	5000	65000
ENAS	1	13	4999	64987
PNAS	1	13	4999	64987
NASNet	1	13	4846	62998
AmoebaNet	1	13	4983	64779
DARTS _{FixWD}	1	13	5000	65000
DARTS _{LRWD}	1	13	5000	65000
ENAS _{FixWD}	1	13	5000	65000
PNAS _{FixWD}	1	13	4559	59267
TransNASBench-101 Micro	7	12	4096	344 064
Total	18	13	512 308	6 631 332

Table 10: Overview of ZC proxy evaluations in our work. ZCP for TransNASBench-101 Micro and NASBench201 are borrowed from (Krishnakumar et al., 2022b).

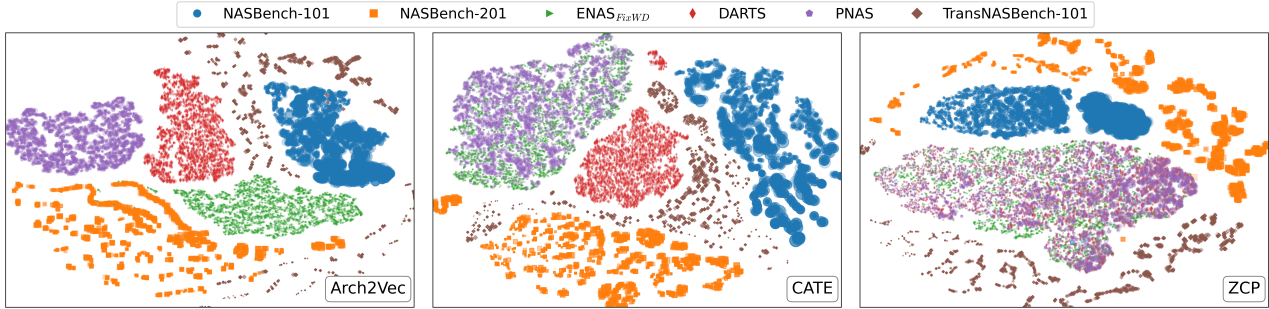


Figure 6: t-SNE scatterplot of the encodings for a set of architecture families using the ZCP, unified Arch2Vec and unified CATE encodings. Best viewed in color.

respectively. NASBench-101 undergoes training on CIFAR-10, whereas NASBench-201 is trained on CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100, and ImageNet16-120. NASBench-301(Zela et al., 2020) serves as a surrogate NAS benchmark, containing a total of 10^{18} architectures. TransNAS-Bench-101(Duan et al., 2021) stands as a NAS benchmark that includes a micro (cell-based) search space with 4096 architectures and a macro search space embracing 3256 architectures. In our paper, we only study TransNASBench-101 Micro as that is a cell-based search space. These networks are individually trained on seven different tasks derived from the Taskonomy dataset. The NASLib framework unifies these search spaces. The NAS-Bench-Suite-Zero(Krishnakumar et al., 2022b) further extends this space by incorporating two datasets from NAS-Bench-360, SVHN, and another four datasets from Taskonomy. Further, the NDS(Radosavovic et al., 2019) spaces are described in Table 11 borrowed from the original paper. Additionally, the NDS data-set has *FixWD* data-sets which indicate that the width and depth do not vary in architectures. The NDS data-set has *LRWD* data-sets which indicate that the learning rates do not vary in architectures. We do not include learning rate related representations in our predictor, while it is possible and may benefit performance. We only look at architectural aspects of the NAS design problem.

	num ops	num nodes	output	num cells (B)
NASNet (Zoph et al., 2018)	13	5	L	71,465,842
Amoeba (Real et al., 2019)	8	5	L	556,628
PNAS (Liu et al., 2018)	8	5	A	556,628
ENAS (Pham et al., 2018)	5	5	L	5,063
DARTS (Liu et al., 2019)	8	4	A	242

Table 11: **NAS design spaces.** NDS (Radosavovic et al., 2019) summarizes the cell structure for five NAS design spaces. This table lists the number of candidate ops (5×5 conv, 3×3 max pool), number of nodes (excluding the inputs), and which nodes are concatenated for the output ('A' if 'all' nodes, 'L' if 'loose' nodes not used as input to other nodes). Given o ops to choose from, there are $o^2 \cdot (j+1)^2$ choices when adding the j^{th} node, leading to $o^{2k} \cdot ((k+1)!)^2$ possible cells with k nodes (of course many of these cells are redundant). The spaces vary substantially; indeed, even exact candidate ops for each vary.

A.3. Additional Results

In this sub-section, we provide more complete versions of some of the graphs and results in the main paper.

The t-SNE scatterplot showcased in Figure 6 demonstrates distinct clustering patterns associated with Arch2Vec based on different search spaces. This pattern is attributed to the binary indexing approach utilized in operations representation. Similar clustering tendencies are also observable for CATE and ZCP. However, it's noteworthy that search spaces like ENAS_{FixWD} and PNAS tend to cluster more closely in the CATE representation. This proximity is influenced by the similarities in their parameter counts. In the case of ZCP, DARTS shows a tendency to cluster within the ENAS_{FixWD} and PNAS spaces, which can be attributed to shared zero-cost characteristics. These observations highlight the distinct nature of the encoding methodologies employed by ZCP, Arch2Vec, and CATE. Quantitative analysis reveals the correlation of parameter count with the respective representations as 0.56 for ZCP, 0.38 for CATE, and 0.13 for Arch2Vec. This quantitative insight underscores the differential impact of encoding strategies on the parameter space representation across various search spaces.

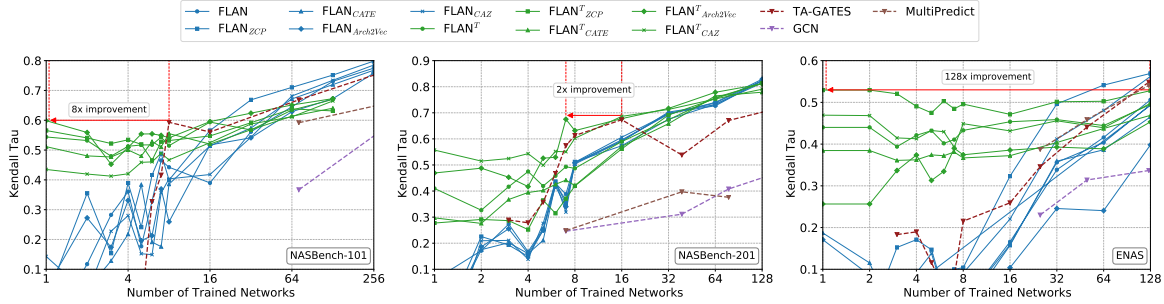


Figure 7: Prediction accuracy with different numbers of trained NNs. We investigate the impact of supplemental and unified encodings with FLAN, and compare to prior work. X-axis is logarithmic. Source space for NASBench-201 is NASBench-101 and vice versa. Source space for ENAS is DARTS.

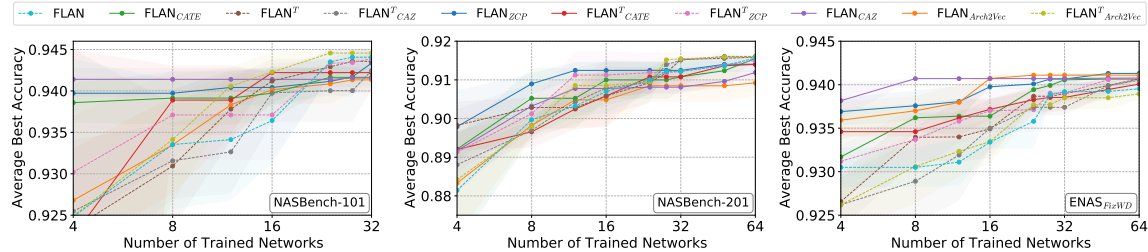


Figure 8: End-to-end NAS with different predictors using an iterative sampling search algorithm. $FLAN^T$ improves search efficiency in the low sample count region. Source search-space for NASBench-201 is NASBench-101 and vice versa. Source space for $ENAS_{FixWD}$ is PNAS.

A.4. Neural Architecture Search on NASBench-201 CIFAR-100

To demonstrate the effectiveness of our predictor on NAS on more search spaces, we compare FLAN with BRP-NAS to compare predictors, as well as other NAS search methodologies in Figure 10.

A.5. On run-time of our predictor

Training FLAN is extremely efficient, with our median training time being approximately 7.5 minutes. This implies that modifications to search space descriptions or indexing can be done trivially and FLAN can be re-trained trivially. Further, generating the unified Arch2Vec and CATE encodings can both be done in under an hour on a consumer GPU. The time to transfer to a new search space depends upon the number of samples, our maximum time for transfer in tests was approximately 1 minute. Finally, for inference during NAS, we can evaluate approximately 160 architectures per second.

Source	NB201	NB301	NB101	NB201	$PNAS_{FixWD}$	$ENAS_{FixWD}$
Target	NB101	NB201	NB301	TB101	Amoeba	$PNAS_{FixWD}$
Source	NASNet	DARTS	ENAS	PNAS	$DARTS_{LRWD}$	$DARTS_{FixWD}$
Target	$ENAS_{FixWD}$	NASNet	DARTS	ENAS	PNAS	$DARTS_{LRWD}$

Figure 9: Source and Target Spaces for experiments unless specified otherwise.



Figure 10: FLAN with the iterative sampling search algorithm (BRP-NAS) outperforms other popular search methodologies on NASBench-201 CIFAR100.

A.6. Experimental Setup

In this paper, we focus on standardizing our experiments on entire NAS Design spaces. We open source our code and generated encodings to foster further research. Additionally, we list the primary experimental hyperparameters in Table 12.

Encodings for Prediction-based Neural Architecture Search

Hyperparameter	Value	Hyperparameter	Value
Learning Rate	0.001	Weight Decay	0.00001
Number of Epochs	150	Batch Size	8
Number of Transfer Epochs	30	Transfer Learning Rate	0.001
Graph Type	‘DGF+GAT ensemble’	Op Embedding Dim	48
Node Embedding Dim	48	Hidden Dim	96
GCN Dims	[128, 128, 128, 128, 128]	MLP Dims	[200, 200, 200]
GCN Output Conversion MLP	[128, 128]	Backward GCN Out Dims	[128, 128, 128, 128, 128]
OpEmb Update MLP Dims	[128]	NN Emb Dims	128
Supplementary Encoding Embedder Dims	[128, 128]	Number of Time Steps	2
Number of Trials	9	Loss Type	Pairwise Hinge Loss (Ning et al., 2022)

Table 12: Hyperparameters used in main table experiments.

Forward	Backward	NB101	NB201	NB301	Amoeba	PNAS	NASNet	DARTS _{FixWD}	ENAS _{FixWD}	TB101
DGF	DGF	0.7088 _{0.0003}	0.7981 _{0.0004}	0.7129 _{0.0001}	0.4200 _{0.0003}	0.3751 _{0.0008}	0.4191_{0.0038}	0.4632 _{0.0003}	0.4799 _{0.0010}	0.7939_{0.0001}
GAT	GAT	0.6535 _{0.0000}	0.7724 _{0.0000}	0.7938 _{0.0001}	0.3751 _{0.0018}	0.3570 _{0.0037}	0.3134 _{0.0013}	0.5441 _{0.0005}	0.4590 _{0.0039}	0.7458 _{0.0002}
DGF+GAT	DGF	0.7182 _{0.0003}	0.0.8106 _{0.0000}	0.8110 _{0.0000}	0.38577 _{0.0024}	0.3009 _{0.0064}	0.3173 _{0.0043}	0.5523 _{0.0001}	0.5257 _{0.0021}	0.7648 _{0.0003}
DGF+GAT	DGF+GAT	0.7322_{0.0002}	0.8200_{0.0004}	0.8202_{0.0000}	0.4594_{0.0000}	0.4225_{0.0004}	0.3870 _{0.0099}	0.5577_{0.0005}	0.5685_{0.0016}	0.7544 _{0.0003}

Table 13: We look at different GNN designs on a wider set of design spaces. 128 samples are used to train, and tested on the entire NAS space. We refer to DGF+GAT as Ensemble.

It is important to note that our results for the PATH encoding are generated with the naszilla hyper-paramaters described in Table 12. Upon reproducing their set-up on our own MLP network architecture, adjacency representation was much better than path encoding. This further highlights the importance of predictor design. In Table 13, we see that their MetaNN outperforms our NN design, but only for the PATH encoding.

NASBench-101						
Timesteps	DGF Residual	Leaky ReLU	KQV Projection	Number Of Samples		
				8	16	32
1	✓	✗	✓	0.3945	0.4939	0.5340
1	✗	✓	✓	0.2425	0.4434	0.5448
1	✓	✓	✓	0.3348	0.5230	0.5829
1	✓	✓	✗	0.4129	0.5301	0.5442
1	✗	✗	✓	0.3132	0.4311	0.5454
1	✗	✗	✗	0.4791	0.4658	0.5123
1	✗	✓	✗	0.4595	0.5098	0.5904
2	✓	✗	✗	0.4628	0.5299	0.4825
2	✗	✓	✓	0.4487	0.4832	0.5582
2	✗	✓	✗	0.3403	0.5428	0.5495
2	✗	✗	✓	0.3562	0.4420	0.4737
2	✗	✗	✗	0.2640	0.5162	0.5316
2	✓	✓	✓	0.3939	0.5081	0.5684
3	✓	✓	✗	0.3899	0.4633	0.5446
3	✓	✓	✓	0.4756	0.5340	0.5484
3	✓	✗	✗	0.3020	0.5025	0.5616
3	✗	✓	✗	0.2957	0.3765	0.5607
3	✗	✓	✓	0.3280	0.4647	0.5552
3	✗	✗	✓	0.3674	0.5241	0.5291

Figure 11: Results of architecture design ablation. Tested on 1000 randomly sampled architectures. Average over 3 trials. Results depict the Kendall- τ Correlation of FLAN with different DGF GAT module implementations.

A.7. Architecture Design Ablation

In this section, we take a deep look at key architectural decisions and how they impact the sample efficiency of predictors. Table 15 reproduces prior work (Ning et al., 2022) experimental setting and looks at the impact of ‘Timesteps’ (TS), ‘Residual Connection’ (RS), ‘Zero Cost Symmetry Breaking’ (ZCSB) and ‘Architectural Zero Cost Proxy’ (AZCP). We find that residual connection ‘RS’ has a major impact on KDT, causing a dip from 0.66 to 0.59 on the test indicated by 1% of NASBench-101. We extend this experimental setting to Table 14, where we study the impact of time-steps on **the entire search space**. We find that in 66% of cases, more than 1 time-step has a positive impact on accuracy. It is important to note

Parameter	Value	Parameter	Value
Loss	MAE	NN Depth	10
NN Width	20	Epochs	200
Batch Size	32	LR	0.01

Figure 12: Hyperparameters used to generate PATH results.

Training Samples	Adj MetaNN	Adj NN	Path MetaNN	Path NN
72	0.057	0.3270	0.3875	-0.0315
364	0.1464	0.4647	0.6967	-0.0363
729	0.2269	0.5141	0.7524	-0.0023

Figure 13: Study on PATH Encoding for NASBench-101. Tested on 7290 samples.

Timesteps	DARTS _{FixWD}	ENAS _{FixWD}	NB101	TB101
1	0.4870_{0.0002}	0.4653 _{0.0031}	0.7017 _{0.0007}	0.7789 _{0.0002}
2	0.4632 _{0.0003}	0.4799 _{0.0010}	0.7129 _{0.0001}	0.7939_{0.0001}
4	0.4801 _{0.0001}	0.4803_{0.0012}	0.7133_{0.0001}	0.7907 _{0.0002}

Figure 14: We study the importance of time-steps in the FLAN predictor design. 128 samples are used to train, and tested on the entire NAS space.

Encodings for Prediction-based Neural Architecture Search

NASBench-201							PNAS						
Timesteps	DGF Residual	Leaky ReLU	KQV Projection	Number Of Samples			Timesteps	DGF Residual	Leaky ReLU	KQV Projection	Number Of Samples		
				8	16	32					8	16	32
1	✓	✗	✓	0.5550	0.6265	0.6850	1	✓	✗	✗	0.1887	0.3354	0.4763
1	✓	✗	✗	0.5415	0.6074	0.6767	1	✗	✗	✓	0.1436	0.2878	0.3994
1	✗	✓	✓	0.5425	0.6127	0.6841	1	✓	✗	✓	0.1612	0.3129	0.4290
1	✓	✓	✓	0.5437	0.6115	0.6830	1	✗	✓	✓	0.1526	0.2919	0.4178
1	✗	✗	✓	0.5529	0.6200	0.6773	1	✗	✗	✗	0.2085	0.3242	0.4546
1	✓	✓	✗	0.5563	0.6100	0.6766	1	✓	✓	✗	0.1823	0.3417	0.4837
1	✗	✗	✗	0.5460	0.5883	0.6886	1	✓	✓	✓	0.1472	0.3096	0.4467
1	✗	✓	✗	0.5303	0.5864	0.6886	1	✗	✓	✗	0.2031	0.3121	0.4540
2	✓	✓	✓	0.5295	0.6173	0.6796	2	✓	✓	✗	0.2417	0.3568	0.4666
2	✓	✓	✗	0.5431	0.6025	0.6847	2	✓	✗	✗	0.2448	0.3617	0.4662
2	✓	✗	✓	0.5452	0.6284	0.6800	2	✓	✓	✓	0.1804	0.3212	0.4760
2	✓	✗	✗	0.5545	0.5993	0.6758	2	✗	✓	✗	0.2337	0.3448	0.4397
2	✗	✓	✓	0.5512	0.6204	0.6781	2	✓	✗	✓	0.1822	0.3238	0.4583
2	✗	✓	✗	0.5396	0.5906	0.6807	2	✗	✗	✗	0.2183	0.3263	0.4368
2	✗	✗	✓	0.5280	0.6207	0.6781	2	✗	✗	✓	0.1912	0.3091	0.4516
2	✗	✗	✗	0.5470	0.5945	0.6956	2	✗	✓	✓	0.1866	0.3125	0.4406
3	✓	✓	✓	0.5488	0.6314	0.6849	3	✓	✗	✗	0.2523	0.3639	0.4541
3	✓	✓	✗	0.5644	0.6058	0.6751	3	✗	✗	✗	0.2271	0.3511	0.4496
3	✓	✗	✗	0.5529	0.5994	0.6806	3	✗	✗	✓	0.1802	0.3199	0.4477
3	✓	✗	✓	0.5457	0.6340	0.6863	3	✓	✓	✗	0.2586	0.3488	0.4606
3	✗	✓	✗	0.5579	0.5999	0.6909	3	✗	✓	✗	0.2100	0.3438	0.4442
3	✗	✗	✓	0.5429	0.6321	0.6874	3	✗	✓	✓	0.1814	0.3107	0.4415
3	✗	✓	✓	0.5372	0.6279	0.6835	3	✓	✗	✓	0.1770	0.3316	0.4660
3	✗	✗	✗	0.5436	0.5955	0.6862	3	✓	✓	✓	0.1894	0.3309	0.4581

Table 14: Results of architecture design ablation. Tested on 1000 randomly sampled architectures. Average over 3 trials. Results depict the Kendall- τ Correlation of FLAN with different DGF GAT module implementations.

that the impact is lesser than residual connection.

TS	1% of NASBench-101								5% of NASBench-101							
	1	2	3	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	
RS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
ZCSB	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	
AZCP	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓	
KDT	0.65	0.67	0.66	0.68	0.66	0.65	0.65	0.59	0.78	0.76	0.76	0.79	0.76	0.78	0.78	

Table 15: Ablation for training on $x\%$ of 7290 samples on NB101, and testing on 7290 samples on NB101.

Finally, we conduct a large scale study on NASBench-101, NASBench-201 and PNAS. In this study, we look at the impact of having a 'DGF residual', 'GAT LeakyReLU' and 'GAT KQV-Projection'. From Equation 2, we can see that the projection matrix W_p is shared, whereas in typical attention mechanism, we have different projection matrices for the key, query and value tensors.

Thus, using the 'KQV-Projection' implies using W_{qp} , W_{kp} and W_{vp} matrices as follows:

$$\text{Attn}_j(X^l) = \text{softmax}(\text{LeakyReLU}(A_j \cdot a(W_{qp}^l X^l \cdot W_{kp} X_j^l))) \cdot W_{vp} X_j^l \quad (4)$$

$$X^{l+1} = \text{LayerNorm} \left(\sigma(O W_o^l) \odot \sum_{j=1}^n \text{Attn}_j(X^l) \right) \quad (5)$$

A.8. Predictor Training and Transfer on all NAS Search Spaces

In Table 16, we provide the result of training FLAN on all NAS spaces for a range of sample sizes. Note that in this table, we provide results over **all neural network architectures** in the NAS benchmark space, for a total of 1487731 neural networks. On NASBench-301, we do not provide ZCP and CAZ results, as we do not compute the zero cost proxy for the million NN architectures we rank on that space.

A.9. End-to-end NAS on all NAS Search Spaces

In Figure 17, we provide the NAS results for a range of samples and subset of representations on all 13 NAS spaces. In these figures, we provide results over **all neural network architectures** in the NAS benchmark space, for a total of 1487731 neural networks.

Further, there is a 'Test Acc.' mismatch between Table 8 and Figure 5 for NASBench-201. This is because all our NASBench-201 results use TA-GATES style calculation for determining the validation accuracy. For the NASBench-201 test detailed in Table 8, we use GENNAPEs methodology of calculating the test accuracy. To report our results in the setting specified by GENNAPE, we identify the networks discovered, and average their ori-test accuracy.

```
acc_results = sum([nb2_api.get_more_info(
    arch_index, 'cifar10-valid', None,
    use_12epochs_result=False, is_random=seed)['
    valid-accuracy'] for seed in [777, 888, 999]])
/3.
```

Figure 15: TA-GATES validation accuracy calculation.

```
acc_results = nb2_api.
    query_meta_info_by_index
    (arch_index).
    get_metrics('cifar10-
    valid', 'ori-test')['
    accuracy']
```

Figure 16: GENNAPE test accuracy calculation.

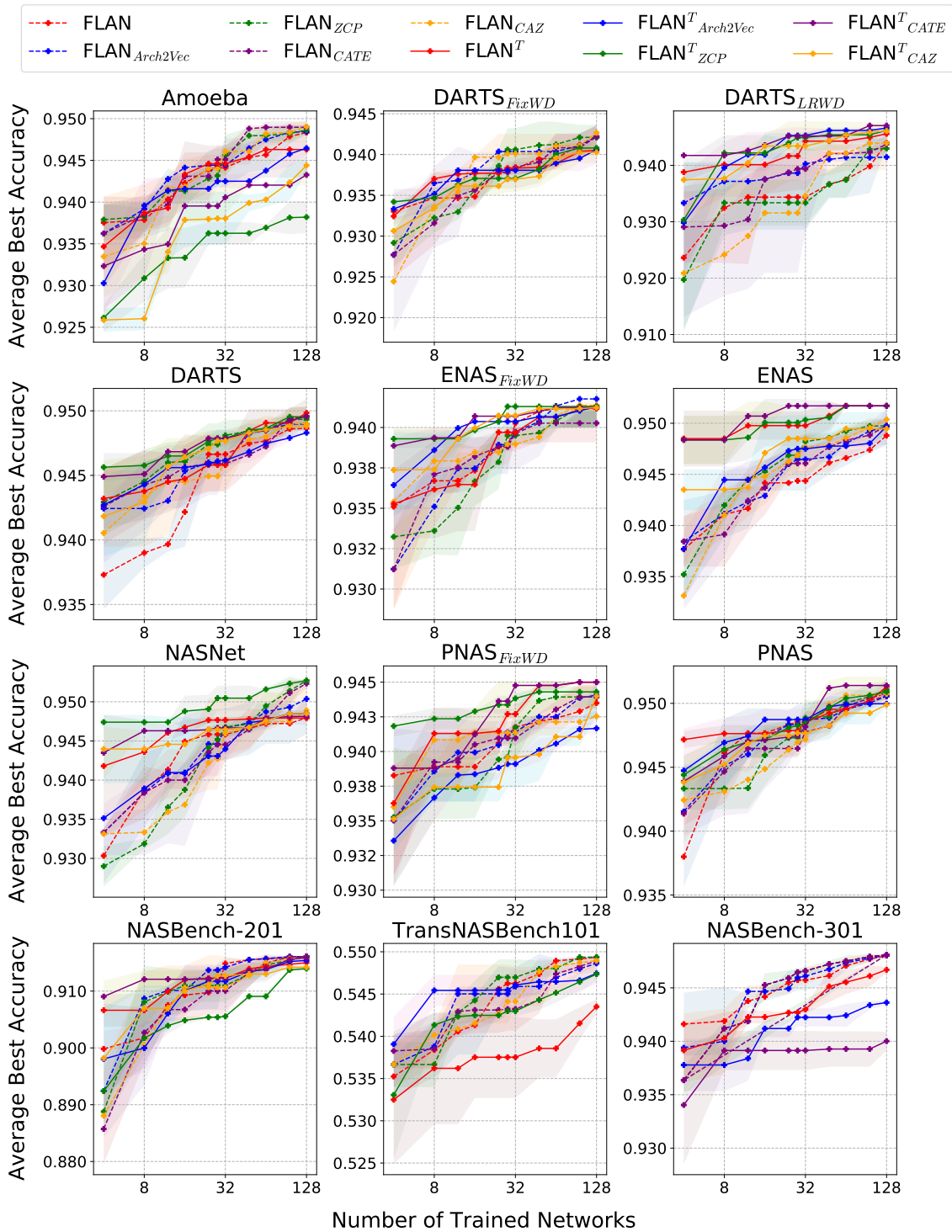


Figure 17: Neural Architecture Search on all NAS spaces detailed in the paper. Accuracies normalized 0-1 except NB201, NB301. Since we evaluate NB301 on 1 million NNs, NB301 does not have ZCP. NB101 in Figure 7. Source-target search space pairs in Table 9. TB101 task is class_scene. Search is conducted over all available networks in the NAS space.

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Search Space	Predictor	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	512
NB101	FLAN	0.11 _{0.05}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.73 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.32 _{0.06}	0.31 _{0.01}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.74 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.34 _{0.03}	0.35 _{0.06}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.24 _{0.05}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}	0.73 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.30 _{0.01}	0.40 _{0.02}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.70 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}
NB201	FLAN	0.28 _{0.05}	0.42 _{0.03}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.31 _{0.05}	0.42 _{0.03}	0.54 _{0.01}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}	0.87 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.29 _{0.05}	0.45 _{0.04}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}	0.87 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.26 _{0.04}	0.45 _{0.03}	0.54 _{0.01}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.27 _{0.08}	0.43 _{0.03}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
TB101	FLAN	0.47 _{0.01}	0.50 _{0.01}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.72 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.47 _{0.01}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.73 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.70 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.01}	0.55 _{0.01}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.73 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.44 _{0.02}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.73 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}
NB301	FLAN	0.24 _{0.03}	0.32 _{0.04}	0.53 _{0.01}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}	0.85 _{0.00}	0.88 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.24 _{0.03}	0.30 _{0.04}	0.51 _{0.01}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.74 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}	0.83 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.32 _{0.01}	0.34 _{0.05}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}	0.85 _{0.00}	0.87 _{0.00}
NASNet	FLAN	0.07 _{0.00}	0.09 _{0.00}	0.12 _{0.00}	0.22 _{0.00}	0.30 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.07 _{0.00}	0.07 _{0.00}	0.24 _{0.00}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.08 _{0.00}	0.06 _{0.00}	0.12 _{0.00}	0.20 _{0.00}	0.37 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.08 _{0.00}	0.07 _{0.00}	0.13 _{0.00}	0.20 _{0.00}	0.35 _{0.01}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.17 _{0.02}	0.17 _{0.02}	0.25 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.01}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
PNAS	FLAN	0.02 _{0.00}	0.04 _{0.00}	0.10 _{0.01}	0.12 _{0.00}	0.26 _{0.01}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.05 _{0.00}	0.08 _{0.01}	0.18 _{0.01}	0.33 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.01 _{0.00}	0.04 _{0.00}	0.08 _{0.00}	0.13 _{0.01}	0.31 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.00 _{0.00}	0.04 _{0.00}	0.08 _{0.00}	0.13 _{0.00}	0.33 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.07 _{0.00}	0.10 _{0.01}	0.21 _{0.01}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}
DARTS	FLAN	0.04 _{0.00}	0.04 _{0.00}	0.08 _{0.00}	0.24 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.02}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.68 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.11 _{0.01}	0.10 _{0.00}	0.23 _{0.01}	0.40 _{0.01}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.70 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.04 _{0.00}	0.03 _{0.00}	0.10 _{0.00}	0.17 _{0.01}	0.35 _{0.01}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.06 _{0.00}	0.03 _{0.00}	0.11 _{0.01}	0.17 _{0.00}	0.37 _{0.01}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.19 _{0.02}	0.15 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.02}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.70 _{0.00}
Amoeba	FLAN	0.00 _{0.00}	0.03 _{0.00}	0.06 _{0.00}	0.23 _{0.00}	0.29 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.04 _{0.00}	0.10 _{0.00}	0.22 _{0.01}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.01 _{0.00}	0.05 _{0.00}	0.09 _{0.00}	0.24 _{0.00}	0.31 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	-0.00 _{0.00}	0.06 _{0.00}	0.08 _{0.01}	0.27 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.05 _{0.01}	0.09 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.01}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
ENAS	FLAN	0.02 _{0.00}	0.00 _{0.00}	0.10 _{0.00}	0.35 _{0.00}	0.32 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.09 _{0.01}	0.11 _{0.00}	0.26 _{0.01}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.03 _{0.00}	0.02 _{0.00}	0.08 _{0.00}	0.24 _{0.01}	0.32 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.03 _{0.00}	0.00 _{0.00}	0.09 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.13 _{0.01}	0.11 _{0.00}	0.33 _{0.01}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}
ENAS_fix-w-d	FLAN	0.01 _{0.01}	0.06 _{0.01}	0.28 _{0.01}	0.41 _{0.01}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.05 _{0.01}	0.19 _{0.01}	0.36 _{0.01}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.03 _{0.00}	0.07 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.01}	0.38 _{0.01}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	-0.00 _{0.01}	0.04 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.01}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.10 _{0.03}	0.20 _{0.02}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
PNAS_fix-w-d	FLAN	0.05 _{0.01}	0.18 _{0.01}	0.26 _{0.01}	0.31 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.00 _{0.00}	0.17 _{0.01}	0.28 _{0.01}	0.30 _{0.01}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	-0.00 _{0.00}	0.17 _{0.01}	0.27 _{0.01}	0.26 _{0.01}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.02 _{0.00}	0.18 _{0.01}	0.28 _{0.01}	0.35 _{0.01}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.05 _{0.01}	0.18 _{0.01}	0.28 _{0.00}	0.31 _{0.01}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
DARTS_fix-w-d	FLAN	0.08 _{0.00}	0.03 _{0.01}	0.21 _{0.00}	0.29 _{0.01}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CAZ}	0.08 _{0.00}	0.07 _{0.01}	0.19 _{0.00}	0.28 _{0.01}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{Arch2Vec}	0.06 _{0.00}	0.06 _{0.01}	0.20 _{0.00}	0.24 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{CATE}	0.06 _{0.00}	0.07 _{0.01}	0.18 _{0.00}	0.30 _{0.01}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}
	FLAN _{ZCP}	0.04 _{0.00}	0.05 _{0.01}	0.18 _{0.00}	0.30 _{0.01}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}

Table 16: Training FLAN from scratch.

Encodings for Prediction-based Neural Architecture Search

Search Space	Predictor	0	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	512
NB101	FLAN ^T	0.54 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.01}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.71 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}	0.71 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	-0.02 _{0.00}	0.39 _{0.01}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.68 _{0.00}	0.72 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}	0.69 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.71 _{0.00}	0.77 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}
NB201	FLAN ^T	0.61 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.05}	0.74 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}	0.85 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.01}	0.60 _{0.01}	0.71 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}	0.87 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.02}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.69 _{0.00}	0.74 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}	0.83 _{0.00}	0.87 _{0.00}	0.90 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.02}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.69 _{0.00}	0.73 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}	0.83 _{0.00}	0.87 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.02}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.74 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}	0.84 _{0.00}	0.85 _{0.00}	0.89 _{0.00}
TB101	FLAN ^T	0.14 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.01}	0.42 _{0.03}	0.65 _{0.00}	0.69 _{0.00}	0.72 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	-0.08 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}	0.68 _{0.00}	0.72 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.16 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.02}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.01}	0.71 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.79 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.02 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.68 _{0.00}	0.72 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}	0.83 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.02 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.68 _{0.00}	0.72 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.78 _{0.00}	0.81 _{0.00}	0.83 _{0.00}
NB301	FLAN ^T	0.28 _{0.00}	0.22 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.76 _{0.00}	0.82 _{0.00}	0.84 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.24 _{0.00}	0.31 _{0.00}	0.33 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.01}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.72 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}	0.83 _{0.00}	0.85 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.25 _{0.00}	0.21 _{0.02}	0.25 _{0.01}	0.47 _{0.01}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.75 _{0.00}	0.80 _{0.00}	0.85 _{0.00}	0.86 _{0.00}
NASNet	FLAN ^T	0.33 _{0.00}	0.23 _{0.02}	0.30 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.35 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.31 _{0.00}	0.29 _{0.00}	0.29 _{0.01}	0.32 _{0.01}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.36 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.32 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.39 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.39 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}
PNAS	FLAN ^T	0.41 _{0.00}	0.32 _{0.00}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.32 _{0.02}	0.25 _{0.00}	0.24 _{0.00}	0.37 _{0.01}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.31 _{0.00}	0.28 _{0.00}	0.32 _{0.01}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.01}	0.41 _{0.01}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
DARTS	FLAN ^T	0.55 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.01}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.69 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.01}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}	0.69 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.01}	0.48 _{0.02}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.69 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.35 _{0.02}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.01}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}	0.68 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.01}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}	0.70 _{0.00}	0.73 _{0.00}
Amoeba	FLAN ^T	0.46 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.01}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.39 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.67 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.01}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.65 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
ENAS	FLAN ^T	0.47 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.29 _{0.00}	0.26 _{0.00}	0.33 _{0.00}	0.31 _{0.01}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.63 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.38 _{0.01}	0.35 _{0.01}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.01}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}	0.61 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
ENAS_fix-w-d	FLAN ^T	0.27 _{0.00}	0.26 _{0.00}	0.28 _{0.01}	0.36 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.37 _{0.00}	0.37 _{0.00}	0.36 _{0.00}	0.42 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.33 _{0.00}	0.27 _{0.01}	0.30 _{0.01}	0.32 _{0.00}	0.30 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.33 _{0.00}	0.28 _{0.00}	0.32 _{0.01}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.39 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.01}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.55 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}
PNAS_fix-w-d	FLAN ^T	0.42 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.33 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.48 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CAZ}	0.37 _{0.00}	0.36 _{0.01}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.51 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.59 _{0.00}	0.62 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.28 _{0.00}	0.26 _{0.00}	0.34 _{0.00}	0.39 _{0.00}	0.39 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.52 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}	0.64 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.36 _{0.01}	0.36 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.38 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.49 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.37 _{0.01}	0.39 _{0.01}	0.43 _{0.00}	0.44 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.54 _{0.00}	0.57 _{0.00}
DARTS_fix-w-d	FLAN ^T	0.28 _{0.00}	0.13 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.00}	0.28 _{0.00}	0.28 _{0.00}	0.36 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.50 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{Arch2Vec}	0.14 _{0.00}	0.11 _{0.01}	0.22 _{0.00}	0.28 _{0.00}	0.31 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.45 _{0.00}	0.58 _{0.00}	0.66 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{CATE}	0.23 _{0.00}	0.22 _{0.00}	0.22 _{0.00}	0.30 _{0.00}	0.32 _{0.00}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.41 _{0.00}	0.47 _{0.00}	0.56 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.29 _{0.00}	0.23 _{0.01}	0.34 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.01}	0.36 _{0.01}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}
	FLAN ^T _{ZCP}	0.29 _{0.00}	0.23 _{0.01}	0.34 _{0.01}	0.29 _{0.01}	0.36 _{0.01}	0.40 _{0.00}	0.46 _{0.00}	0.53 _{0.00}	0.60 _{0.00}

Table 17: Transfer Learning of the FLAN predictor. Source spaces are provided in Table 9